

**MANAGING SERVICE LEARNING IN ETHIOPIAN UNIVERSITIES:
THE CASE OF SOME SELECTED UNIVERSITIES**

by

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DECLARATION

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I, **Tesfaye Amsalu Birhanu**, declare that: **MANAGING SERVICE LEARNING IN ETHIOPIAN UNIVERSITIES: THE CASE OF SOME SELECTED UNIVERSITIES** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



SIGNATURE

15/09/2017

DATE

DEDICATION

I diligently dedicate the effort and time I exerted in completing this research to my dear mother, W/ro Esseyneash Wassie, who prays for the wellbeing of my family and eagerly anticipates the completion of my doctoral degree. I also dedicate this work to my sister Tigist Amsalu and my brother Anteneh Embiyale whose support enabled me to engage in my research work with full concentration.

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SUMMARY

The aim of this research was to examine determinants of service learning in Ethiopian Universities with a view to suggesting remedial solutions. Qualitative case study was employed to understand management of service learning in the purposively selected three case Universities. Data were collected from interns, mentors, department heads, Academic Vice Presidents, service learning office heads and agency supervisors through semi-structured interviews. Besides, focus group discussion with interns and document review were conducted. Collected data were analysed through narration.

Service learning is used for pedagogical necessities, personal and civic development, career development and social responsibility in the Ethiopian Universities. However, its application is challenged by several factors. Product curricular model, low time ration for community service, limited teachers' involvement and discipline-based curriculum framework were identified as major hindrances to service learning implementation. As a result, most students and teachers were not committed to service learning. For instance, in government Universities, service learning offices were not well-organised. Partnership agreements were either weak or not in place, as a result, the majority of interns were placed based on their preferences. Resistance not to host was also found to be a common factor. An interesting finding of this study is that privileging interns for self-identification of hosting organisations resulted in dispersed and individualised placement that caused interns to develop feeling of strangeness and insecurity. Moreover, this placement hindered collaborative learning with their peers. Assessment error, absence of service learning programme evaluation and shortage of budget were common problems. Hence, the following suggestions along with a proposed strategy are recommended.

Considering these challenges, the following recommendations are made. Service learning should be applied in a wider scale from junior through senior courses in the Universities. The curriculum should be designed to include extensive context-based and interdisciplinary-learning approaches. Government Universities should strengthen service learning offices. Placement of interns should mainly be based on partnership agreement. Time ration for community services and research functions should be increased to at least 50%. And lastly, Universities should closely support agency supervisors and arrange evaluation forums and celebrity events.

Key terms: Service learning, management, Ethiopian Universities, partnership, Service learning management strategies.

GLOSSARY OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AACC	Association of American Community Colleges
AAU	Addis Ababa University
ABA	American Bar Association
AVP	Academic Vice President
CBOs	Community Based Organisations
CBR	Community Based Research
CBTP	Community Based Teaching Programme
CCL	Centre for Community Engagement
CE	Community Engagement
CHE	Committee for Higher Education
CHESP	Community Higher Education Service Partnerships
CIU	Career and Internship Unit
COPC	Community Outreach Partnership Centre
COs	Community Organisations
CS	Community Services
CSL	Community Service Learning
CTSA	Clinical and Translational Science Awards
DMU	Debre Markos University
EFA	Education For All
ESDP	Education Sector Development Programme
EUS	Ethiopian University Service
FDRGE	Federal Democratic Republic Government of Ethiopia
FLS	Free Legal Service
HEI	Higher Education Institution
HEQC	Higher Education Quality Committee
HERQA	Higher Education Relevance and Quality Authority
HRC	Human Rights Commission
HSIU	Haileselasie I University
ICT	Information and Communication Technology

IIEP	Institute of International Education Planning
JET	Just Education Trust
LSA	Learn and Serve America
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
METEC	Metals and Engineering Corporation
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding
MSEs	Medium and Small Enterprises
NFE	Non-Formal Education
NSLC	National Service-Learning Clearinghouse
NYC	National Youth Commission
PRS	Poverty Reduction Strategy
PSU	Portland State University
QA	Quality Assurance
SA	South Africa
SASVO	Southern African Student Volunteers
SL	Service Learning
SLOs	Service Learning Offices
SLP	Service Learning Project
SMU	Saint Mary's University
TTP	Team Teaching Programme
TVET	Technical Vocational Education and Training
UCT	University of Cape Town
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
US	United States
VISTA	Volunteers in Service to America
WU	Wollo University

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CHAPTER ONE

OVERVIEW AND RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Universities are responsible for producing middle and high level of educated and trained human power that can pursue national and global development. Obviously, it is through educated and trained citizens that social, economic, political and environmental calamities such as poverty, illiteracy, diseases, conflicts and environmental degradation can be resolved. Thus, to respond to such social and natural disorders, universities are expected to play active roles through their ostensibly inseparable functions of teaching, research and community service (CS). The teaching function is concerned with disseminating knowledge and transferring technologies created and preserved by research. While CS attempts to improve community life through dedicated engagement in addressing community needs and making learning relevant and context based.

According to United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2005) in the face of current global competitive and knowledge based economy expansion of higher education is a major strategy for developing countries to cope with global influences in every aspects of life. In addition to external influences, the demand for higher education is accelerated by factors such as improved access to schooling at primary and secondary level, pressing local and national concerns such as social, political and environmental factors that require advanced knowledge, and global economy that favours participants with high-technological expertise. In this global market economy, having creative, knowledgeable and motivated human capital is crucial to serve the interest of local, national and international community.

The history of higher education in some developed countries dates back to the Medieval Period, while establishment of universities in most developing countries is a recent phenomenon. Most Universities especially in African countries were established after colonial independence of 1960s. Although Ethiopia has kept her independence from colonisation, however, prior 1990, educational access in general was very low

compared to other African countries. Higher education in Ethiopia started with the opening of University College of Addis Ababa in 1950. Until 1991 Ethiopia had three universities, namely Addis Ababa, Haramaya (Alemaya) and Asmara. However, with separation of Eritrea as independent nation in 1991 Asmara University resided with Eritrea; consequently, Ethiopia remained with two universities. Besides to this few number of universities, their intake capacity was too limited to make higher education accessible at a significant rate. The number of teachers, students and administrative staff were also limited to make considerable involvement in the social, economic, political and environmental problems of the nation.

With the prevalence of globalisation and international thinking, becoming competitive in all walks of life is very important. In this regard, education in general and higher education in particular, is accorded high emphasis by the current Ethiopian Government as a means for national development. Higher education is supposed to produce national work force that exert for overall development of social, political, cultural, economic and environmental aspects. Cognisant of the fact that the Government of Ethiopia gives a very high priority to poverty reduction as part of its overall goals of socio-economic development, the Ministry of Education has considered education as one of the most significant poverty reduction strategies; others being roads, agriculture and natural resource, and the health sector. In line with this development strategy, the government of the Government of Federal Democratic Republic OF Ethiopia (GFDRE) is striving to expand education at all levels. As a result of massive education expansion both students' enrolment and number of educational institutions have increased significantly at all education levels. As such, after 2004 onwards, in addition to the then existing two (Addis Ababa and Haramaya) universities, six universities (Mekelle, Jimma, Bahir Dar, Debub, Gonder and Arbaminch) were established. In addition, with further expansion of higher education, the number of universities reached more than 35. Moreover, privatisation of education enabled the country to have four private universities, namely, Admas, Unity, Alpha, and Saint Marry.

Regarding quantitative increment of universities, according to Mammo (2010) the Ethiopian government has expanded both public and private Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) since 1991. As a result, the number of students in the public HEIs shot up, but as the budget is not increased horizontally the expenditure per student reduced significantly. Such enrolment into higher education sector is being expanded with a policy of 70:30 with 70% catering for Science and Technology students and 30% for Humanities and Social Sciences. Although such quantitative growth of Ethiopian higher education is admirable, universities are criticised for low engagement in community needs, low participation rate of education, low quality and theory dominated education. Some of the causes for these include lack of necessary infrastructure related to libraries and laboratories, shortage of buildings, shortage of qualified teachers, inadequacy of instructional materials, lack of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and low level of community partnership and commitment. The recent new enrolment ratio policy of 70:30 which allows high number of students in Science and Technology fields necessitates provision of well-organised facilities such as laboratories, libraries, ICT centres, efficient teaching materials as well as qualified teachers.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

According to Badat (2009) the roles of universities are teaching, research and CS. The teaching role is concerned with dissemination of knowledge and the formation and cultivation of the cognitive character of students. The research role enables universities produce of knowledge which advances understanding of the natural and social worlds, and enriches humanity's accumulated scientific and cultural inheritances and heritages. The CS role helps share resource and knowledge with the community for generating knowledge and improving community life. Although CS functions of universities are many such as volunteering, field education, SL and outreach, for the sake of focus and manageability this study is confined to service-learning (SL) aspect of CS. Aggarwal (2010) summarises the functions of the universities as follows:

- i. to seek and cultivate new knowledge, to engage vigorously and fearlessly in the pursuit of truth, and to interpret old knowledge and benefits in the light of new needs and discoveries, and
- ii. to provide the right kind of leadership in all walks of life, to identify gifted youth and help them develop their potential to the maximum.

According to Sukati (2007) universities have gone further to base their criteria for the promotion of staff to senior ranks on the staff member's performance in these three core areas. This suggests that teachers should do all the three core functions in an integrated way for the fulfillment of universities' mission. In this regard, SL can contribute an important means of fulfilling the obligations of public universities and colleges to deliver service to the community as mandated in their charters, mission statements, and strategic plans (Hanover Research, 2011).

Universities should advance new knowledge and technology that can resolve challenges of society. This knowledge and technology should also timely reach to the society in different ways such as teaching and CS. Here it is logical to perceive SL as optimum means to harmonise services to the community and cultivate students' development in totality. The philosophical and pedagogical intents show that SL has gained due consideration in advancing students' learning and addressing community problems. Hanover Research (2011:8) underscores that benefits gained from SL include:

“Building social responsibility and citizenship skills in students; enhancing student learning through practical experiences; creating synergy between the teaching and research roles of a faculty member; addressing unmet community needs; and increasing community capacity through shared action”.

Further benefits of SL include development of higher thinking skills, enhancement of competency of understanding problems in a more complex way, promotion of motivation and inquiry towards education, learning and the world, and assurance of insure continued community involvement after graduation. Achieving these benefits basically

requires well organised reflection activities that enable deriving meaning and knowledge from experiences. Effective reflection engages both teachers and students in a thoughtful process that consciously connects learning with experience.

However, according to Rao (2007) due to lack of University-industry interaction, universities have become outdated centres and do not alleviate societal problems or enrich the quality of life of the society. United Nations Development Programmes (UNDP, 2005) adds that many universities in developing countries serve merely as degree or certificate awarding institutions, providing the necessary documentation for thousands of young people to apply for jobs. Here one understands that a significant number of universities lack readiness and capacity to adjust to national and international fast changes in making education community based, practical, relevant and problem solving.

Cognisant to the importance of CS for community development and relevance of education, Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (2009:4996) promulgated the Ethiopian Higher Education Proclamation of 2009 that states CS to be one of the major responsibilities of academic staff:

“Every academic staff member of an institution shall have the responsibilities to teach, including assisting students in need of special support, and render academic guidance or counselling and CS”.

Although these three roles are conventionally considered as core functions of Ethiopian higher education, involvement of most teachers in CS in general and SL in particular is very minimal. Such low involvement can be seen at individual faculties within institutions. Faculties have low interest in applying SL, which in turn attributes to lack of conceptual clarity about philosophical and pedagogical underpinnings of SL; a considerable number of faculties are not conversant with different types of SL models, as they face challenges such as little access for information about how and with whom they can participate, low recognition and incentives to CS compared to other roles, low institutional support and work burden. CS function in Ethiopian universities is managed by Vice Presidents for CS with the intent of supporting community based teaching and

research functions and maintaining partnership and technology transfer. But its structure in majority of universities does not cascade down to college or office level to mobilise teachers, students and community agencies in SL and other CS activities. There is no sufficient staff to maintain partnership with communities, no policy framework to SL. Lack of provision for professional development trainings for teachers in applying SL, lack of funds and quality audit for SL activities and shortage of logistics add for the low performance. As the partnerships with community in many cases are not long term, there is weak collaborative planning, implementation and evaluation of SL activities. In many disciplines, students assigned in community based teaching do not get close supervision from course teachers; there is lack of feedback mechanisms for community regarding students' learning results. Moreover, orientations are not given to students and community partners about the context of SL hosting organisation, the importance of SL and how to interrelate services to learning objectives.

Ethiopian Education and Training Policy confirms that absence of interrelated contents and mode of presentation that can develop students' knowledge, cognitive abilities and behavioural change by level, to adequately enrich problem-solving ability and attitude, are some of the major problems of Ethiopian education system (FDRGE, 1994). Traditional education in which teachers as providers of knowledge and texts as sources of finished knowledge prevails in Ethiopian Universities. Students in many departments have limited engagement in community based learning.

Although there is concrete evidence in the provision of physical accessibility of universities by establishing more than 35 public universities and some private universities, there is serious problem in maintaining collaborative partnership and institutionalising SL towards addressing community needs and creating opportunities for students' practical and context based learning. Rather, theoretical mode of delivery confined in classrooms is the dominant approach of teaching-learning in Ethiopian education in general. Thus, relevance and quality of education cannot be up to the need of employing organisations and the ever-changing technology.

I strongly agree with the opinion that faculties should engage in all the three roles of university: teaching, research and CS. Each should promote the other. True teaching, I believe, should take students out of the classroom into the community where they can best learn through well-structured curricular service-learning projects (SLPs). SL should be considered as a laboratory where theoretical learning is applied in the real world, and as a means by which universities and community together create, share and adopt knowledge, technologies and resources for their mutual benefits. Furthermore, this practical involvement in social and physical environments will expand and vitalise knowledge for teaching and research.

Most Ethiopian universities are not committed and even lack experiences to respond to community needs and expectations. They do not use varieties of ways of engagement in addressing communities' problems, and in making learning practical and relevant. In the presence of more than 35 universities and other many higher institutions, there is low tertiary education participation and high rate of illiteracy. Although higher education expansion permitted better physical accessibility to formal education, universities' involvement in community based teaching and research is low, especially with regards to offering refreshing courses and trainings to the community, adult literacy, engagement in political, social and environmental discourses and admission capacity. In spite of expansion efforts, Ashcroft (2005:17) notes that "higher education participation rate is very low, where the 2004/5 gross enrolment figure accounts only 1.5%". Moreover, as reported by World Bank (2004), illiteracy rate in Ethiopia is 60% which is consistent with estimation of approximately 73% for females and 50% for males (Lasonen, Kemppainen & Raheem, 2005). As uneducated and untrained citizens cannot easily adapt and manipulate technologies, enhancing productivity of citizens calls for empowerment of the human capital through varieties of CS activities such as SL, education and training, consultancy and outreach activities. In relation to this view, Institute of International Education Planning (IIEP) (2007) suggests that higher education enrolment rate of around 40-50% for each relevant population group is necessary for a country to function well in a competitive and interdependent world. It implies that universities as resourceful organisations should keep in touch with

communities; they need to exert maximum effort to ensure social empowerment, equality of justice and environmental improvement through sustained partnership with the community.

Since organised CS is a recent phenomenon in Ethiopian Universities, SL is mostly being applied under the supervision and guidance of some self-initiated course teachers. Low level of institutionalisation of SL in Universities and COs has challenged sustainability of SL programme and development of reciprocal partnership between universities and COs. One-sided service provision does not allow equal power relationship between service providers and recipients. It creates a tendency of cognitive and technical superiority from universities that may cripple mutual respect, trust and co-creation of knowledge. In addition, lack of conceptual clarity among teachers and managers regarding management of SL hinders active involvement in SL programmes. Generally, multitudes of factors are responsible for poor application of SL in the Ethiopian Universities. The foremost problems of effective application of SL in Ethiopian Universities are lack of experience and interest among teachers as well as low infrastructure. Even Addis Ababa University (AAU), the oldest and largest university in the country officially launched CS in 2011 (AAU, 2011). “Community Service in Addis Ababa University has been for long fragmented, disorganized and less institutionalized” (AAU, n.d.:2). Thus, it can be inferred that there is lack of well-organised institutional linkage and experiences to interact with communities and address their needs. There is perceptible gap in collaboratively planning, implementing and evaluating of SL activities with respective communities. Academicians lack interest and commitment in collaboratively identifying community needs and customising curriculum in a way that address community needs and course objectives.

In addition, universities have shortage of teachers in many disciplines, and composition of teachers’ academic status is not up to the standards. Shortage of teachers according to Saint (2004) is attributed to low salary together with unfavourable working situations of Universities that made impossible for them to compete with national labour market for professional skill, transfer of teachers to other organisations and brain drain. A move away from tenure towards part-time employment of academic staff is common. This

deterioration is apparent in Sub-Saharan Africa. Staff-student ratios (SSRs), academic salaries and morale of teachers have deteriorated (Ashcroft, 2005; UNDP, 2005). The World Bank (2004) concluded in its report that the supply of lecturers with graduate degrees was likely to be an even bigger constraint than finance for expansion of the higher education system. Saint (2004:106) adds that “as the tertiary system has expanded, the proportion of academic staff possessing a PhD has declined from 28% in 1995/1996 to just 9% in 2002/2003”. Owing to this shortage of teachers with graduate qualifications, the MOE gave extensive further education at Masters and PhD level for university teachers and other professionals. However, due to shortage of teachers who supervise PhD students in some departments, it is anticipated that the problem may continue unsolved for a very long period.

A study by Sukati (2007) reveals that engagement of Swaziland University in CS is hampered by insufficient time; as most of the lecturers’ time was spent on preparing for lectures, marking students’ exams and teaching, absence of formal time allocated to CS, structure in place and channels of communication on how one can get involved, and no recognition given to staff for doing this. Meagre salaries also force staff to do other income generating activities. These findings are also similar to what is happening in the Ethiopian universities. Teachers, especially in those departments offering evening and summer programmes, are busy throughout the year, dedicating almost 75% of their time to teaching and any other related activities. Though the rest of 25% time is catered for research and CS activities, it is not properly utilised. Appropriation of time for these functions lacks clarity. Absence of clarity on rationed time and incentives for engagement in CS may make teachers feel this role under-valued, and ultimately their participation in these activities decreases.

Ethiopian universities are challenged by many impediments in the application of SL to enrich students’ learning and to make education relevant. In order to make education student centred, practical and relevant, SL is one of the best pedagogies, for it enables students to apply theoretical learning to practices and understand challenges communities are facing in real context. However, to get benefit out of SL, challenges mentioned in the foregoing discussion should be addressed. Thus, considering

challenges faced by Ethiopian Universities in implementing and managing SL, this study sought to contribute by proposing strategies or a framework for effective management of SL in the Ethiopian Universities.

In line with the foregoing discussion, the main research question which guided this study was: *To what extent SL is institutionalised and practised in Ethiopian Universities with a view to addressing students' learning and community needs?*

In order to respond to this general question effectively, the following sub-questions were formulated:

1. What theories underpin SL?
2. Which curricula models are used to enable Ethiopian Universities engage in SL practice?
3. Which SL models are applied in Ethiopian universities?
4. What structures are in place to promote institutionalisation of SL in Ethiopian Universities?
5. How is community and university partnership managed to streamline the SL teaching method?
6. What challenges are faced by the Ethiopian universities in promoting institutionalisation of SL?
7. What strategies could be recommended for effective management of SL in Ethiopian Universities?

1.3 AIM OF THE RESEARCH

Given the foregoing discussion, this research aimed to determine the extent to which SL is institutionalised and practiced in Ethiopian Universities in a view to addressing students' learning and community needs. In order to achieve this general aim of the study, the following objectives were pursued:

1. To examine the philosophical and pedagogical underpinnings of SL
2. To identify different curricular SL models in view of mutual contribution to addressing community needs and maximising students' learning
3. To identify SL models applied in Ethiopian Universities

4. To identify structures in place to promote institutionalisation of SL in Ethiopian universities
5. To examine community and University partnership management for reciprocally addressing community problems and students' objectives
6. To identify challenges faced by the Ethiopian Universities in promoting institutionalisation of SL
7. To suggest strategies for effective management of SL in the Ethiopian universities

In order to create symbiotic relationship and facilitate ease understanding of chain of relationship between aim and objectives with research questions of the research the following table has been set.

Table 1.1: Alignment of Research Aim and Objectives with Research Questions

Research Aim and Objectives	Main and Sub- questions of the Research
Research Aim: To determine the extent to which SL is institutionalised and practiced in Ethiopian Universities in a view to addressing students' learning and community needs	Main research question: To what extent is SL institutionalised and practised in Ethiopian Universities with a view to addressing students' learning and community needs?
Research objectives: 1. To examine the philosophical and pedagogical underpinnings of SL	Sub-questions: 1. What theories underpin SL?
2. To identify different curricular SL models in view of mutual contribution to addressing community needs and maximising students' learning	2. Which curricula models are used to enable Ethiopian Universities engage in SL practice?
3. To identify SL models applied in Ethiopian Universities	3. Which SL models are applied in Ethiopian universities?
4. To identify structures in place to promote institutionalisation of SL in Ethiopian universities	4. What structures are in place to promote institutionalisation of SL in Ethiopian Universities?
5. To examine community and University partnership management for reciprocally addressing community problems and students' objectives	5. How is community and university partnership managed to streamline the SL teaching method?
6. To identify challenges faced by the Ethiopian Universities in promoting institutionalisation of SL	6. What challenges are faced by the Ethiopian universities in promoting institutionalisation of SL?
7. To suggest strategies for effective management of SL in the Ethiopian universities	7. What strategies could be recommended for effective management of SL in Ethiopian Universities?

To this end, I analysed the practices and challenges of application of SL pedagogy in different countries so that important lessons could be drawn to Ethiopian Universities that enable improvement of communities' life and students' learning. Ultimately, the research has set interventions that help for efficient management of SL activities of universities.

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

It is generally accepted that Universities are drivers of national developments. Effective utilisation of Universities' expertise and resources demands strategic partnership between community and Universities, which in turn will enable these partner parties mutually identify and align their objectives. The contribution of SL, as an aspect of CS to the overall development of the community and as a learning strategy, is determined by its management. As engagement of Ethiopian Universities in CS in an organised manner is a recent phenomenon, and is still being operated at a low level, it is essential to undertake study on the management and practices of SL. In doing so, the study contributed the following theoretical and practical significances:

- i) devises strategies for university-community integrity so that they can cooperatively create and make use of knowledge and resources.
- ii) enables learning become relevant and practical through SL and promote close interaction of university with community, in doing so universities can resolve social and economic problems.
- iii) familiarises teachers with the importance of involving in the SLPs so that they can contribute to solving social, economic, political and environmental problems of communities.
- iv) employs strategies that can enable SLPs to add value for teaching and research,
- v) creates mechanisms that help best experiences of foreign universities shared among national universities.
- vi) promotes students' reflective thinking and problem solving skills and civic understanding, and contribute data to the scientific community related to SL practices.

1.5 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Service to the community is part of the social contract whereby the university has a moral obligation to be accountable and socially responsible in return for the public funding spent on its upkeep (UNESCO, 2008:74). Engagement in community affairs and concern to civic responsibility should be fundamental mission of universities. To this effect, universities can employ different modalities of CS, such as volunteer, internship, knowledge transfer, community based research and SL. For the sake of focus and manageability this study is confined to SL aspect of CS. Importance of SL as a medium of teaching has been confirmed and defined by different authors. For instance; according to Towson University (2012) SL is a form of experiential education in which students engage in activities that address human and community needs together with structured opportunities intentionally designed to promote student learning and development.

Case Western Reserve University (2001:4) notes that SL is “a dynamic, collaborative process whereby teachers, students, and community agencies create partnership to link learning with service to the community.” Students are involved in meeting community needs while applying the experience to their personal and academic development. In the community engagement experience, a student must have intentional learning objectives for the service and structured reflection on what is being learned. Instances of definitions indicate that central to SL is reflection on experiences that lead to meaning development out of practices in the community. Reciprocity is another critical issue which is related to respect to partners and sharing of knowledge and resources in SL. This is due to the possession of each partner to resources and knowledge and experiences that one supplements to ones’ gap.

SL as pedagogy is “a departure from the traditional, lecture-driven, faculty focused curriculum. In this pedagogy, service becomes text” (Case Western Reserve University, 2001:8). Thus, it makes learning practical, context based and relevant as students learn by doing through SL in real community settings. Moreover, it helps universities to be familiar with community problems that may call for research undertakings.

According to Baker, Jensen and Kolb (in Oxendine, Robinson & Willson, 2004) experiential learning as a teaching method involves setting goals, thinking, planning, experimentation, reflection, observation, and review. By engaging in these activities, learners construct meaning in a way unique to themselves in which they incorporate the cognitive, emotional, and physical aspects of learning. Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) contains two distinct modes of gaining experience that are related to each other on a continuum: concrete experience (apprehension) and abstract conceptualisation (comprehension). In addition, there are also two distinct modes of transforming the experience so that learning is achieved: reflective observation (intention) and active experimentation (extension). This theory states that the learners begin with a concrete experience, which then leads them to observe and reflect on their experience. After this period of reflective observation, the learners then piece their thoughts together to create abstract concepts about what occurred, which will serve as guides for future actions. With these guides in place, the learners actively test what they have constructed leading to new experiences and the renewing of the learning cycle Baker, Jensen and Kolb (in Oxendine, Robinson & Willson, 2004).

To get benefit out of SL, comprehensive efforts should be made. From the very beginning, the idea of SL should be one of the core issues of the missions of universities. SL should be integrated into the curriculum of the courses in a manner that entail giving services to the community needs while basically promoting students' learning from collaborative exchange of knowledge and resources. In addition, the idea of SL needs to be infused into the policy, mission and vision statements of universities. There should also be a service unit that can facilitate partnership building, logistics and smooth application of SL.

Every constituent of SL (i.e. students, teachers, community and university) is required to play its role for proper running of SL activities. Design of SL calls for series of activities: preparation, implementation and evaluation. The preparation phase entails partners to build partnership, identify objectives of partners, resource generation, placement of students and assignment of supervisors, giving orientation to SL participants about what to do, how to do, and making students aware about risk management. Case Western

Reserve University (2001:4) clarifies that preparation for the service includes “clarification of responsibilities, providing training, feedback and resources for the students to succeed in the service, thus service is connected to the course through project readings and class presentations”. During the implementation phase activities that address both course and community objectives are conducted. Simultaneously, students and supervisors are required to record important events so that meaning and knowledge can come out with structured reflections. The last phase of SL design is the evaluation of the level of achievement of both partners’ objectives. In this assessment phase all parties are required to take part in identifying successes and challenges, in composing important lessons learnt and identifying issues helpful for future corrections. Celebration of success should be extension of evaluation phase (Case Western Reserve University, 2001:4).

Smooth functioning of partnership of university and community organisation requires the community to be ready to openly express important issues on which they need to work collaboratively. In fact this in turn determines the level of community empowerment, literacy and awareness. That is, in order to sustain and be effective in community development efforts, there should be active involvement of the two parties: community and university.

As community development endeavours demand interdisciplinary approach, academic managers should maintain strategic inter-organisational collaboration with external organisations such as research institutes, national and international higher education institutions, businesses, industries, development agents and civic organisations. In addition, Teachers’ Associations, Regional Development Associations and clubs can help mobilize SL. According to Inter-organisational Theory, much of community practices involve establishing and managing relationships with other groups and organisations (Hardcastle & Powers, 2004). The fundamental idea in inter-organisational theory is that every organisation is embedded in a larger network of groups and organisations that must relate to each other in order to survive and prosper (Hardcastle & Powers, 2004). The acts of teaching, knowledge creation and SL demand well organised multidisciplinary approaches. Community neighbourhood organisations

one way or another have stakes in community development endeavours. From this theory, we understand that educational managers should be active and skilful in harmonising their institutions with others for addressing community needs. For instance, if SL activities are effectively organised, Colleges of Medical Sciences can work in collaboration with health extension offices at local level, Colleges of Agriculture with Agricultural Development Agents, and College of Business and Economics and Engineering related Colleges with Medium and Small Enterprises. Such arrangements can allow various organisations to come together to discuss, plan, make decisions and implement actions for community development. Kiltz (2010: 20-21) underlines that: “Harmonising partners’ efforts calls for active participation of public managers at all levels of government, as they are in unique positions not only to understand the complexity of the issues their community faces, but also to identify the network of stakeholders that should be involved in addressing the problem in collaboration with institutions of higher education”.

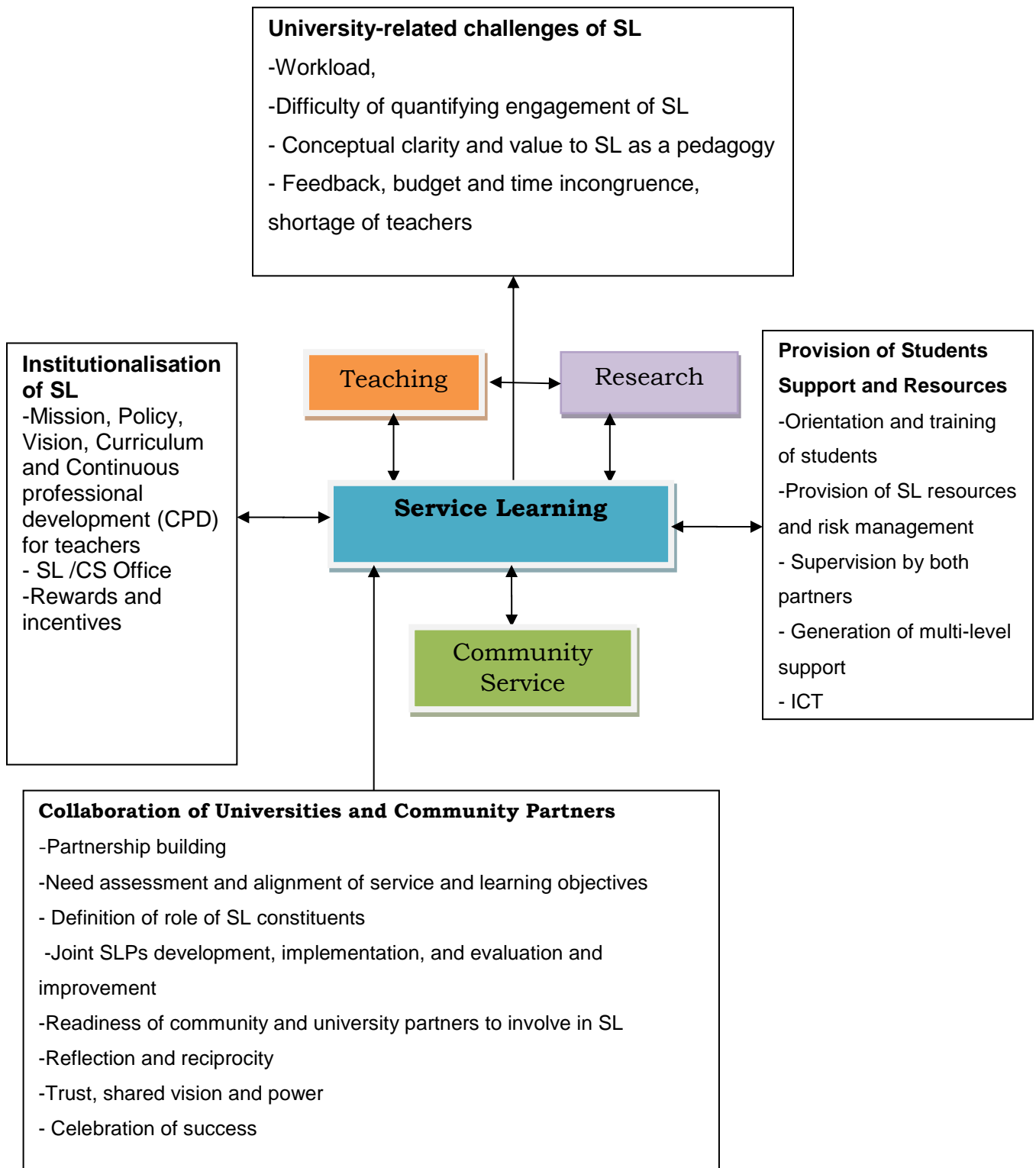
She further underscores the importance of maintaining trust, equal voice, shared responsibility, open communication, shared vision, and clear lines of accountability between community-campus partnerships.

To take this leading role, Universities should maintain strong information management systems that can collect, organise, analyse and communicate information for and from internal and external stakeholders, to maintain well organised ICT that can enhance reciprocal flow of information between community and universities. In addition, they have to strengthen their internal capacity in terms of human resource, physical materials and facilities, appropriate organisational structure and strategies. The issue of SL should be institutionalised across universities’ units. Universities should keep frequent contact with the community and critically and systematically assess community’s needs, expectations and problems.

Involvement of teachers, students and other staff in SL can be affected by workload, incentives, inadequate number of teachers, level of awareness, availability of funds, curriculum model, difficulty of quantifying involvement in SL, transport services,

readiness of community and businesses to reciprocally share ideas and resources, and lack of alignment between university reward systems and the core activity of academics. Figure 1.1 below provides summary of the conceptual framework of this study.

FIGURE 1.1: Conceptual Framework of the Study



1.6 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

Ethiopian HEIs comprise private and public. Ethiopian public universities as indicated in the previous section, have reached 35, excluding other 10 universities which are still under construction. The number of private universities is four. But, this study was delimited to two public universities, Wollo and Debre Markos Universities, and one private university, Saint Mary University, with a view to collect detail data to understand how and why these universities carry out SL activities. The study did not focus on integration level of teaching and research functions of universities for reciprocal support of each-other. Rather, it highly emphasised on actual application and management of SL and its contribution to the improvement of students' learning and community life.

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

The research design is the structure of any scientific work. A research design is “a choice of an investigator about the components of his/her project and development of certain components of the design” (Singh, 2006:148). Kathori (2004:31) perceives research design as a “conceptual structure within which research is conducted; it constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data.” Hence, the design includes an outline of what the researcher does from writing the hypothesis and its operational implications to the final analysis of data. It is a decision that a researcher makes regarding what, where, when, how much and by what means an inquiry or a research problem is addressed. Thus, a research design is a road map to address a research problem; in view of this the research design of this study is organised as follows.

This study employed qualitative research approach, and it is positioned in interpretivist paradigm. Dawson (2002:14-15) explains: “Qualitative approach to research is concerned with subjective assessment of attitudes, behaviour and experiences based on researcher's insights and impressions. It attempts to get an in-depth opinion from participants. As attitudes, behaviour and experiences are important in qualitative research, fewer people take part but the contact with these people tends to last a lot longer”.

I believe that social reality is constructed by individuals who participate and interact with that phenomenon. Since individuals construct their own realities, there are multiple realities as opposed to positivist paradigm which considers single reality and duality of researcher and to be researched. It implies that knowledge is in mind and human beings construct and give meaning, as they interact socially as well as with experiences. In addition, knowledge creation is value laden, in a sense, without the researcher guidance and interpretation, social realities cannot be accurately known.

Leeds Metropolitan University (2002:2) describes:

“Research methodology is concerned with the principles on which researchers base their research procedures and strategy. It consists of ideas underlying data collection and analysis. Methodology asks questions such as how the researcher should go about finding out knowledge? Research method is the practical way of carrying out research. It involves techniques of data collection and data analysis”.

This research used case study method. Leeds Metropolitan University (2002:28) defines:

“A case study is the collection of evidence around a particular case, event or situation and the description or evaluation of it. It is an empirical enquiry founded on observation and experience rather than being overtly based on theory, and aims to illuminate how things are taking place and why”.

Thus, the study purposefully identified three case universities: two from government Universities and one from private Universities. Students, teachers, department heads, Academic Vice Presidents, SL office heads and community organisations participants were selected through purposive and snowball sampling techniques. Selection of hosting COs was determined in consultation with department heads and teachers as they knew those COs that have experiences in hosting interns. Data were collected through semi-structured interviews and from focus group discussion with students. In

addition, document analysis was also made. Data were analysed through qualitative descriptions. Details of the research design and methodology is set out in chapter four.

1.8 ANALYSIS AND CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

1.8.1 Civic engagement: working to make a difference in the civic life of communities and developing the combination of knowledge, skills, values and motivation to make that difference (National-Louis University, 2012).

1.8.2 Community: formal definition of communities as “social units with one or more of the following three dimensions:

1. a functional spatial unit meeting sustenance needs
2. a unit of patterned interaction
3. a symbolic unit of collective identification Fellin (in Hardcastle & Powers, 2004)

1.8.3 Community service: is the generation, use, application, and exploitation of knowledge and other university capabilities outside academic environments” University of Sussex (in Innovative Research Universities Australia, 2005:2).

1.8.4 Experiential Education: is a cyclical process that capitalises on the participants' experiences for acquisition of knowledge. This process involves setting goals, thinking, planning, experimentation, reflection, observation, and review. By engaging in these activities, learners construct meaning in a way unique to themselves, incorporating the cognitive, emotional, and physical aspects of learning (Oxendine et al., 2004).

1.8.5 Outreach: is an activity in which academic staff engage with external organisations and communities in a reciprocal learning/teaching situation that increases both the external partners' capacity to address issues and the academic staff's capacity to produce scholarship that better reflects the realities outside the laboratory or the library (Church et al., 2003:4).

1.8.6 Partnership: Group of organisations and individuals who share some interests and are working toward one or more common goals while maintaining their own agendas. A Partnership effort can enable members to engage in activities and

accomplish goals beyond the reach of any one organisation or individual (Community-Campus Partnerships for Health, 2006).

1.8.7 Service Learning: is a structured learning experience within an academic course.

The service work is directed toward the achievement of course learning objectives and also toward making meaningful contributions to the areas of need identified by the community being served (The California State University, 2004).

1.8.8 Volunteerism: is the engagement of students in activities in which the primary emphasis is on the service provided and the primary intended beneficiary is the service recipient (Kiltz, 2010:18).

1.8.9 Reflection - in SL is the active, persistent, and careful consideration of the service activity. It is the means by which students come to understand the connection between course content and service given to the community.

1.8.10 Reciprocity - Reciprocity involves integrating values, norms, and expectations from disparate perspectives. In SL, traditional definitions of faculty, teacher, and learner are intentionally blurred. Everyone becomes a learner (Cashman & Seifer, 2008: 275).

1.9 CHAPTER OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

The study is composed of six chapters.

Chapter one treated background of the study; statement of the problem; research questions; objectives; delimitation and limitation of the study; significance of the study, research design and methodology; ethical consideration, definitions of terms and the chapter division.

Chapter two reviewed the theoretical underpinning of CS in general and SL in particular. In addition, different SL oriented theories were analysed.

Chapter three analysed SL experiences of two developed and two developing countries. The analysis included universities of US from developed nations; and South

Africa from developing nations so that best experiences and challenges were examined and compared with Ethiopian Universities' models.

Chapter four described and justified the research design and methodology, selection of participants, data collection instruments, analysis techniques, research validation mechanisms, and ethical issues.

In **chapter five** direct quotes participants were presented and interpreted in light of the research questions raised under statements of the problem. It also interpreted the data gained through focus group discussion with interns and document review.

Chapter six treated the findings, conclusions and recommendations. It also highlighted theoretical contribution of the study and areas of further research regarding SL management.

1.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter covered an overview and background of the problem, the problem statement, research questions and research objectives of the study. Methodological procedures including research design, population and sample, data collection and analysis were briefly presented. The motivation for study and delimitations of the study were also mentioned. The relevant terms or concepts used were defined. Finally, the organisation of the study was laid out and the chapter concluded with a summary.

In chapter two, the conceptual framework of the study is made clear.

CHAPTER TWO

CONCEPTS AND THEORIES UNDERPINNING SERVICE LEARNING

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presented concepts, theories and research findings of different scholars on SL activities and related terms. Reviewing literature is a basis for broadening our understanding of an issue that we further want to know. A researcher should have a thorough knowledge gained through intensive consultation of related literature in a view of identifying what has already been done and/or known, what has to be done/known in mitigating a certain problem and generating or adapting knowledge. It is through reviewing literature that the researcher can widen his/her understanding of perceived problems. According to Hancock and Algozzine (2006) examining existing literature helps researchers identify viable and important research questions or hypotheses. In addition, understanding of existing literature helps researchers identify possible research designs and strategies for their own research efforts; it acquaints researchers to learn the formats and procedures for writing and communicating their own findings to others. In view of this, this chapter reviewed theoretical and empirical concepts related to SL, CS, community engagement (CE), and other experiential learning models. In doing so, I clarified the distinction between terms cited above and others. Furthermore, this chapter presented different SL models and their integration mechanisms in the curriculum; SL preparation, implementation and evaluation; partnership building and challenges of applying SL at university level.

2.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR SERVICE LEARNING PEDAGOGY

This conceptual framework for SL highlighted varieties of services provided by universities to the community. It also examined the types of SL models and their benefits to the participating parties, partnership management in SL activities and challenges for carrying out SL.

2.2.1 Concept of Community Service and Service Learning

SL activities are dimensions of CS function of universities. SL and other dimensions of CS such as outreach, internship, volunteers and community based research are some sorts of engagements of universities in community affairs. These dimensions of CS have similarities in that both have deliberate intention of helping community in addressing priority needs. However, they have differences in many aspects such as emphasis of objectives, duration, beneficiaries and process of service delivery. For the sake of clarification these concepts are discussed below.

2.2.1.1 Concept of Community Service

The term community has been defined and conceptualised by several authors based on the perspective of their disciplines and self-understandings. A review made by Fraser (2005:286-287) notes the word ‘community’ as “an umbrella term that is defined and applied in a myriad of ways.” Due to such varied conceptions, it may refer to geographic communities where members are based in one region; or virtual communities, where members’ main form of contact is through electronic media. At times communities of circumstance constitute another possible form of community that may exist. Such communities might emerge, for example, when bushfires or floods occur across different regions and those most affected feel connected to one another. Finally, there are communities of interest, where identity groups are formed to lobby government for some kind of policy change and/or sponsorship. As per the definition of Commonwealth of Australia (2006:4) “Community is a network of people who are geographically dispersed but are linked together by a shared set of interests or experiences”. This definition gives emphasis for shared interests and values that bind together and lead to smooth interaction than mere geographic proximity.

CS is defined as “...the generation, use, application, and exploitation of knowledge and other university capabilities outside academic environments”, University of Sussex (in Innovative Research Universities Australia, 2005:2). Community engagement means “applying institutional resources (e.g., knowledge and expertise of students, faculty and staff, political position, buildings and land) to address and solve challenges facing

communities through collaboration with these communities” (Gelmon, Seifer, Kauper-Brown & Mikkelsen, 2005:1). Both these definitions seem to suggest that community is a passive recipient of knowledge, resources and expertise of service provider. But community has its own needs, considerable resources, knowledge and commitment that can contribute for the attainment of their needs.

While planning, implementing, and evaluating community engagement activities, it is important to recognise that a person’s actual participation in an engagement activity is likely to be influenced by the absence or presence of a sense of membership in that community. Thus, if individuals do not perceive themselves as members of that community, then it is likely that they will not participate in the engagement activity. Referring to Centres for Disease Control and Prevention, Manitoba Family Services and Housing (2008:9-11) describes that “central to defining community is a sense of who is included and who is excluded from membership”. Thus, as per the definition of Manitoba Family Services and Housing (2008) community can be categorised based on to sociological, systems, individual and virtual perspectives.

- i) *The sociological perspective of community*: describes community as a group of people united by at least one common characteristic such as location (i.e., geographic boundaries), connectors (i.e., shared interests, activities, values, experiences, motivating forces, or traditions), or people (socioeconomics and demographics, health status and risk profiles, cultural and ethnic characteristics). Minkler and Pies, (in CTSA Community Engagement Key Function Committee Task Force, 2011:5) define community “the social and political networks that link individuals, community organisations, and leaders. Understanding these networks is critical to planning efforts in engagement.”
- ii) *Systems perspective of community*: systems perspective builds on the sociological perspective of community. It describes community as a system of interrelated sectors e.g., housing sector, health care sector, transportation sector that are composed of groups united by interests, activities or functions. In a systems perspective, healthy communities are those that have well-integrated, interdependent sectors that share

responsibility to resolve problems and enhance the well-being of the community (Manitoba Family Services & Housing, 2008:10).

- iii) *Individual perspective of community*: an individual perspective of community recognises that a person's sense of membership in any community may vary over time depending on factors such as whether one feels an emotional, cultural, or experiential tie to a community, whether one believes they have a contribution to make within a community, or whether one views membership as a way to meet their own individual needs. In addition, an individual may have a sense of belongingness to more than one community at the same time (Manitoba Family Services & Housing, 2008:11).
- iv) *Virtual Perspective*: regardless of geographical settlement with the development of computer-mediated communication individuals access information, meet people, and make decisions that affect their lives. Social groups or groups with a common interest that interact in an organised fashion on the Internet are considered "virtual communities", Kozinets; Rheingold; Ridings, Gefen and Arinze (in CTSA Community Engagement Key Function Committee Task Force, 2011:6).

Other important terms worth mentioning in understanding CS issues are the distinction between CS and CE. According to The University of North Carolina at Greensboro (2011) CS is provided to, intended for, or done in communities, whereas CE signifies activities that are undertaken with community members in a context of reciprocal partnership with service providers. Their similarities lie on both provides volunteer services that can contribute to the life of the community. The key distinction between CS and CE can be determined by the processes and purposes that each emphasises. CE signifies that there is communities' active participation in need of identification and addressing their needs in collaboration with university partners. In general, CE requires collaborative, reciprocal processes that recognise respect, and value knowledge, perspective, and resources shared among partners. It intends to serve a public purpose, builds the capacity of each of the individuals, groups, and organisations involved to understand and collaboratively address issues of public concern. Whereas CS focuses on the delivery of expertise, resources, and services to community individuals, groups,

organisations, and the public in general in a unidirectional, often times “expert,” model (University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 2011). Owing to this shortcoming of the term CS, several authors prefer the term CE to magnify communities’ capacity and commitment in improving its life. Although, there is slight difference in meaning between these terms this study prefers the term CS (as it is commonly used in Ethiopian context) to refer to community-university interactions.

2.2.1.2 Concept of Service Learning and other Related Terms

Understanding SL activities of universities may demand being familiarised with important terms related to SL. According to California State University (2013); Gelmon, Kauper and Mikkelsen (2005) involvement of universities in the community issues are expressed by different terms such as CE, CS, SL, community outreach, community involvement, community participation, community scholarship, community volunteer and third stream activity. Hence, the use of different terminologies across the university sector makes agreement on a precise definition of universities’ involvement in the community somewhat difficult.

Nonetheless, university employees or academicians use different CS models to apply to their teaching, research and CS missions. Community outreach, volunteerism, community based research, scholarship, internship, SL and technology transfer are some of the ways of serving communities. Since most of the above mentioned models place communities as passive service recipient, there is a tendency to incline to models that involve community in identification of their own needs, contribute their experiences and efforts in resolving problems, and evaluating efforts, procedures and results of service activities. In this regard, experiential learning models seem ideal for addressing community priorities with active involvement of both the community and university partners (Barnes, Altimare, Farrell, Brown, Burnett III, Gamble & Davis, 2009; Seider, 2013; Seifer, Blanchard, Jordan, Gelmon & McGinley, 2012). Some of the experiential learning models include internship, cooperative education, practicum and SL. All these experiential learning have CS concerns and serve their purposes. But the level of CS given and purpose of involvement varies according to the type of the model. Of these service models, SL is ideal for University-Community collaborative engagement, as it

permits reciprocal generation of knowledge and effective attendance of community needs. Service given by students, teachers and staff is not directed for sole benefit of the service providers rather community priority needs are equally targeted to be addressed (Narsavage & Lindell, 2001).

Among most confusing terms, the distinction between internship and SL is very critical. Cashman and Seifer (2008:274) states that:

“SL is sometimes considered to be synonymous with internships, they are actually very different approaches to learning. In internships, students are the primary beneficiaries, and the experience is structured to facilitate student learning and acquisition of practical skills. Frequently, internships are adjunctive to classroom courses. In SL, service is integrated within the coursework and inseparable from it with the goal of placing equal emphasis on student learning and the provision of meaningful CS”.

Barnes et al. (2009:16) state:

“The learning objectives of activities other than SL activities typically focus only on extending a student's professional skills and do not emphasise on the student, either explicitly or tacitly, the importance of service within the community and lessons of civic responsibility”.

Thus, these service models ignore important concerns of partnership building, reciprocity and concern for CS.

Increased attention to service in the educational curriculum arose at a time when modern industrial economies had become more knowledge intensive. Universities were considered as important social institutions that contribute to economic growth. Thus, combining education, research and CS began in part due to an effort to couple the knowledge creating activities of the university more closely to the community (Umpleby, 2011). Thus, devising means for integrating resources, efforts and needs of communities and universities became centrepiece for their collaborative partnership.

Based on this collaborative partnership, variety of CS models were considered as potential bridge between the university as an ivory tower and the communities whose development needs it should be prioritising.

According to DePaul University (2012) the term SL is coined by Robert Sigmon and William Ramsey in 1967. This term is designated to describe a project in East Tennessee with Oak Ridge Associated Universities that linked students and teachers with external organisations. Various terms used for SL include civic engagement or learning, field working, community literacy, public scholarship, global citizenship, and community-based research. Many of these terms are overlapping, but some have subtle or substantive differences. Prevalent use of SL, in the first two decades after its commencement, took attention of practitioners and scholars to get agreeable definition of SL. According to Centre for Community Engagement at Sonoma State University (2013) SL is a pedagogy that utilises CS projects within the context of an academic course. Thus, service in the community setting is the mechanism for acquiring course contents and contributing for community development. Owing lack of agreeable definition of SL Hanover Research (2011:4) states “there is no clear-cut definition of SL, though there is a core concept upon which all seem to agree, i.e. SL is distinguished from mere CS because of its explicit focus on service within the context of a learning environment”. As defined above, academic SL distinguishes itself from internships and other credit-bearing community experiences in several ways. According to Centre for Community Engagement at Sonoma State University (2013) in SL, first, services to the community is an integral component of academic course, used as a "text" for student learning. Second, SLP are designed in partnership with community to meet an identified community need. Third, students are provided with a structured reflection activity that helps them to integrate CS with academic concepts and civic learning objectives of the course. Case Western Reserve University (2001:9) conceptualised SL as “both a programme type and philosophy of education”. The programme aspect entails students to engage in services that contribute for addressing community needs while deliberately engaging in reflective activities of the service delivered. The philosophy aspect favours active involvement of students in practical oriented and community based learning.

Such active engagement of students in hands-on activities makes learning student centred and serves as means for lining education with social responsibilities.

As clarified by DePaul University (2012) though SL and CS bear service they are different on the learning aspect associated them. It is because CS is usually with self-initiative of students mainly to contribute to the community, the learning aspect is subtle. Both academic SL and co-curricular SL are concerned with developing students' consciousness and familiarity with issues related to various communities. However, in SL the learning aspect is intentionally integrated with the CS projects. "Academic SL, illustrated by student CS integrated into an academic course, utilises the service experience as a course 'text' for both academic learning and civic engagement" (Centre for Community Engagement, 2006:9). Recently, due to globalisation effect, the scope of SL extends to international community through international SL. International SL provides unique learning opportunities that are not afforded during domestic experiences that include use of foreign language and cross-cultural experiences that transcend typical tourism.

2.3 BENEFITS OF SERVICE LEARNING TO PARTICIPATING CONSTITUENTS

As stated by Case Western Reserve University (2001) benefits of SL include the development of higher thinking skills, understanding problems in a more complex way, a more motivated and inquiring attitude toward education, learning and the world, plus the additional benefits of continued community involvement and a heightened consciousness of citizenship. Students work on real problems that make academic learning relevant while simultaneously enhancing their social skills, analytical ability, civic and ethical responsibility, self-efficacy, and career development. It also promotes students' motivation to seek out more information independently, and in this way educators can also promote life-long learning. More specifically, well-planned SL has several benefits in participating constituents such as students, faculty, community and HEIs.

2.3.1 Benefits of Service Learning to Students

SL takes students out of the traditional classrooms to the community where they can apply the theoretical knowledge and skills to resolve the communities' priorities. It also enables students to acquire and cultivate new knowledge, skills, approach and attitude as their exposure widens while working in and/or with community. In addition, it is vivid that all students do not have similar learning styles. They may be either visual, auditory or kinesthetic learner or combination of them. Hence SL can maximise the possibility of employing students' preferred learning styles. Centre for Community Engagement (2006:17-18) list out the following six benefits of SL:

- i) *Cognitive development through discipline specific knowledge*: SLPs allow students to have the opportunity to put discipline-specific knowledge into practice through hands-on work with community organisations. Due to this experiential engagement, students retain more information, actively participate in classroom discussions, and gain self-confidence in their ability to utilise their knowledge in real world contexts.
- ii) *Epistemological development*: SL experiences challenge students to broaden their understanding of social justice issues by providing them with a larger social context in which to understand the systematic problems that members of society face. Through various social interactions, discussions, and critical reflection activities, students are challenged to consider multiple perspective of the same issue, thus augmenting their cognitive skills and epistemological development.
- iii) *Moral judgment*: SL activities permit students gain a better understanding of themselves in relation to others. The activities and discussions that they engage in cause them to question their personal values and morals, as well as their judgment of others. In addition, interactions with people who are in need of assistance, students often develop an ethic of care and a sense of citizenship which permeates all aspects of their lives.
- iv) *Psychosocial development*: SL activities provide students with opportunities to explore academic majors and/or gain valuable hands-on experience for their career goals. Critical reflection activities in SL help students to discover who they are, what they value, and what type of career they may be interested in pursuing.

- v) *Cultural identity development*: SL activities promote students' opportunity to interact with people who are different than themselves with regards to values, lifestyle, religion, race/ethnicity, and sexual orientation. These interactions, combined with appropriate critical reflection activities, raise students' awareness of their own cultural identities and encourage them to develop a conscious appreciation for diversity.
- vi) *Sense of interdependence*: SL engages students in group activities that lead them become more aware of their personal strengths and how these skills can assist a group or a community in achieving their goals.

2.3.2 Benefits of Service Learning for Teachers

The research finding by Eyler et al. (in Umpleby, 2011:7-9), SL as a pedagogy has multifaceted benefits for teachers. These benefits included the following:

- i) satisfaction with the quality of student learning.
- ii) new avenues for research and publication via new relationships between faculty and community.
- iii) providing networking opportunities with engaged faculty in other disciplines or institutions.
- iv) a stronger commitment to one's research.

2.3.3 Community Benefits of Service Learning

Eyler et al. (in Umpleby, 2011:7-9), further identified four community benefits of SL. SL enhances community satisfaction with student participation, furnish valuable human resources needed to achieve community goals, permit new energy, enthusiasm and perspectives applied to community work and enhance community-university relations.

2.4 SERVICE LEARNING MODELS

Heffernan (2001:2–7 & 9) has outlined six different models for teachers to consider when developing SL in their discipline. These models include the following:

2.4.1 Discipline-Based Service-Learning Model

In this model, students are expected to participate in the community throughout the semester and reflect on their experiences on a regular basis using course content as a basis for their analysis and understanding. The link between course content and community experience must be made very clear to students. Using this model enables students to have multifaceted education and enhances their overall understanding of theoretical concepts.

2.4.2 Problem-Based Service-Learning Model

According to Heffernan (2001) problem-based SL model assumes that students will have knowledge and skills that can be drawn to community development. Thus, students relate to the community much as “consultants” working for a “client.” Students work with community members to understand a particular community problem or need. However, it is suggested that in the application of this SL model caution is needed for it may promote the idea of students as “experts” and communities as “clients” or the “ivory tower” phenomenon.

2.4.3 Capstone Course Model

These courses are generally designed for majors and minors in a given discipline and are offered almost exclusively to students in their final year. Capstone courses ask students to draw upon the knowledge they have obtained throughout their course work and combine it with relevant service work in the community. The goal of capstone courses is usually either exploring a new topic or synthesising students understanding of their discipline. Capstone courses offer exclusive opportunity to students’ transition from the world of theory to the world of practice (Heffernan, 2001).

2.4.4 Service Internship Model

According to Loretto (2014) SL internship allows students to exercise on job-related activities so that they can evaluate their capacity in terms of the job requirement and gain additional experiences. According to Heffernan (2001) SL internship is more intense than typical SL courses, with students working as many as 10 to 20 hours a

week in a community setting. Students are generally charged with producing a body of work that is of value to the community or site. However, unlike traditional internships, SL internships have on-going faculty-guided reflection to challenge the students to analyse their new experiences using discipline-based theories. SL internships focus on reciprocity: the idea that the community and the student benefit equally from the experience, but the level of oversight required by a community partner supervisor can be highly demanding. SL internships offer students the opportunity to develop valuable skills while simultaneously seeing how their skills can contribute to community. According to Washington State University (2013) SL internship enhances self-awareness, community knowledge, and civic leadership skills while complementing academic and/or career goals.

2.4.5 Undergraduate Community-Based Action Research Model

Community-based action research is similar to an independent study option for the student who is highly experienced in community work. This approach can be effective with small classes or groups of students. In this model, students work closely with faculty members to learn research methodology while serving as advocates for communities. This model assumes that students are competent in time management, are self-directed learners, and can negotiate diverse communities (Heffernan, 2001).

2.4.6 Directed Study Additional or Extra Credit Model

Students can register for up to three additional credits in a course by making special arrangements with the instructor to complete additional work or explore a subject in more depth. The course instructor serves as the advisor for the directed study option. The department must approve the extra credit and the student must formally register for those additional credits during the drop-add period at the beginning of the semester. This model is designed when students choosing this option are typically self-directed and motivated. So a course syllabus can be prepared using one or combination of the above models by analysing their importance in connecting course objectives and departmental objectives; institutional mission and the community's expectations;

teaching and learning goals and the potential expectations of students (Heffernan, 2001).

2.5 CURRICULAR MODEL

Curricular model is the guiding framework for education and training endeavour of a nation. In curricular development, education goals and epistemological stands are the major foundations for designation of curricular components such as teaching method, contents, approaches, learning environments, motivation and assessment. Basically, curriculum models can be broken down into two very broad models, the product model and the process model. Product model is focused on results, like grades or reaching an objective. The majority of the weight is focused on the finished product than what is happening in the learning process. It defines what students should be able to do after studying the programme, in terms of learning objectives (McKimm, 2007). Fotheringham, Strickland' and Aitchison (2012:1) clarify that in product curricular model:

“The structure and content of a programme of study are dominated by industry and professional regulation requirements. This conception of curriculum is often associated both with professional body requirements and with the employability agenda”.

On the other hand, process model focuses on how things happen in the learning and is more open-ended. Curriculum focusing on the process model emphasises how students are learning, what their thinking is and how it will impact future learning. According to Knight (in Fotheringham, Strickland' & Aitchison, 2012:1) process curricular method:

“Prioritises interaction and community over content and structure. In this conception, a far broader and more holistic understanding of curriculum is evidenced relating not only to what is taught, but also to the composite of academics, of students themselves, and of pedagogic approaches”.

According to Veness (2010), product model assume that there is an agreed body of knowledge that students need to learn. It starts with a statement of objectives, follows with descriptions of content and method (e.g. selection and organisation of teaching and

learning activities), and finishes with evaluation, which generally encompasses both assessment strategies and evaluation of the curriculum. In these models, objectives serve as the basis for devising subsequent elements, with evaluation (assessment) indicating the degree of achievement of those objectives. The focus is on teaching. The three most known product models are Tyler's linear model, Taba's interactive model and the cyclical produce model. Product model places teacher as authority of knowledge to be passed on to the child. Students need to receive and master knowledge generated by others delivered by their teachers

Learning usually takes place in incremental steps and can be increased through repetition and reinforcement. A teacher (or organisation) determines what objectives the learner should achieve. These objectives are said to be met when the learner responds in a certain way, based on controlled stimuli. On the other hand process curricular model considers curriculum to be designed in an ongoing process, dependent on emerging information and practice, shaped by the beliefs, experiences, theories and philosophies held by those planning the learning environment. The product models are prescriptive, while the process models are descriptive. The role of assessment is also different. The former have clear objectives and aligned assessment strategies (generally prepared before the start of classes) designed to test how well students have achieved the learning outcomes; the latter may have assessment strategies designed to find out what students have learnt, and a highly diluted focus on learning outcomes (Veness, 2010).

Both the product and process models can be framed based on the following five curriculum integration models. So, it can be aligned to subject or discipline-centred curriculum which is organised around subjects or courses; integrated model which aggregates many subjects together usually applies in problem based learning and experiential learning; spiral model in which the content is presented several times across the span of the school year; inquiry or problem based model which permit all components of curriculum to emerge from central problem or question; and experiential curriculum model that allows students to participate in real-life ways with their work, experimenting with hypothesis, working through problems and finding solutions.

Cunningham, Gannon, Kavanagh, Greene, Reddy and Whitson (2007:6-17) have identified the following five kinds of curriculum design:

- i. *Behaviourist model*: considers knowledge finite and learning observable in changes of behaviour and measurable using empirical methods. Hence, learning objectives prescribed early so that all efforts of teaching-learning direct towards identified ends. In this curricular model the content of the course is central component that learners should master it under teacher dominated teaching methods. According to Winch and Gingell (2008) behaviourists believe that conditioning is the main means for students learning. Thus, teachers can control students' learning through alterations in the predecessors and consequences of the target behaviour. In pursuit of shaping behaviour some of these alterations are pleasant to the target organism (rewards) and some are unpleasant (punishments). Ertmer and Newby (2013:48) argue "[t]he learner is characterised as being reactive to conditions in the environment as opposed to taking an active role in discovering the environment". Behaviourist curricular model is characterised by highly deductive learning where thought processes adopted by students follow a logical sequence of reasoning. Students are expected to recite the content and logical sequences taught by the knowledgeable teachers and assessment methods designed to verify whether prescribed objectives of learning are exhibited or not (Cunningham et al., 2007:6). From this defining characteristics behaviourist curricular model resides in product model of curriculum design.
- ii. *Humanist model*: Contrary to behaviourist model, according to Cunningham et al. (2007:9) humanistic model acknowledges the natural desire of human being's for learning by own motives than instigation of external factors such as motivation given by teachers. This model underlines infinite possibilities for knowledge creation. Students should be empowered and to have control over the learning process and not to have learning 'done' to them. Feelings are as important as facts. Students should set free in a non-threatening environment and identify their own goals that are specific to their needs. Thus, this model promotes student-centred pedagogical approach thereby students actively engage in pursuit of knowledge. In this curricular

model students learn inductively, usually from problem-solving and inquiry pedagogical methods. Assessment of students' learning in humanist curricular model is difficult as learning is concerned with the development of the person as a whole. Permit of students to identify industry problems is to encourage them to learn and generate knowledge based on their interest.

- iii. *Information processing model:* As stated by Cunningham et al. (2007:13) information processing model assumes that knowledge of the world is acquired through organisation and reorganisation of information. Organisation or internal processing of information in turn depends on cognitive development of individuals. Self-motivation of students to acquire knowledge and to solve problems leads them to acquire, store, retrieve and reorganise information. The information processing model has its roots in cognitivist theory, hence characteristics of constructivist theory are considered. Cognitivism is based on the principle that learning develops through exposure of information that is logically presented, and that new information can be more easily understood when it is linked to something that is already learned. Thus knowledge should be structured well when prior experiences of learners given consideration as foundation for the new knowledge to be acquired. This model promotes holistic learning approach where learning occurs as a whole or in patterns. Learning occurs when insight is gained from due consideration and internal processing of thoughts. It applies student-centred approach in which learners influence learning. Methods and processes are devised to allow the learner some level of control over how and when their learning occurs. Similar to the humanist model, emphasis is less likely to be on how much knowledge has been acquired but more on the insights gained through problem-solving and inquiry. This model permits structured and logically presented content, and inquiry based experiences that prompt students' processing information deductively and inductively. The implication is that the lecturer may explain how the problem should be solved or may provide opportunities to explore different ways of solving the problem or carrying out the task. Students gradually become more active in this process. As the main objective in the information process model is inquiry based reflection, students must

continually follow a process of critical inquiry and interpret experiences until insight is gained. This makes students' assessment of learning difficult.

- iv. *Activity model:* epistemologically this model assumes that learning is a process of constructing knowledge. Learning is activity or task orientated. Activist learning empowers learners to articulate themselves in a way that is relevant to their lives and their roles as agents of change. Activity curricular model stems from constructivism and aims to creating knowledge that is characterised by taking action. This is done through an active learning process that is driven by a particular task or activity (Cunningham et al., 2007:17).

Cognitive development, according to activity curricular model, is highly affected by social interaction. Vygotsky and Bandura, proponents of activity model underline importance of social interaction to students' cognitive and attitudinal development. Bandura's theory of social learning emphasises the importance of learning from others through observing behaviour, attitudes and reactions of others. Activity model favours group activities and interaction so that students' learning approach is distributed and collaborative. Individuals work together sharing ideas, views and opinions. Learning occurs as a result of this co-operation and therefore new knowledge is co-created or constructed through negotiation with others (Cunningham et al., 2007:17).

Learning does not necessarily happen in a specified sequence of stages, instead it can happen at any time in the learning activity. This is a capability model that advances critical thinking than mastering conveyed knowledge by the teacher. Learning centres around teamwork and the ability to engage and socially interact and also on how competently the learner can engage with the task. Learning may be unintentional as well as intentional; hence assessment of learning is difficult. Activity model encourages work-based or professional practice environments where learning is centred on the day-to-day involvement of the individual through their interaction with others (Cunningham et al., 2007:17).

- v. *Situated learning model:* This model stresses the integral link between context, social environment and learning. This model advocates that learning is a function of

the activity, context and culture in which it occurs. Therefore knowledge is meaningful when it is learned in an authentic context and situation. Knowledge is linked to a specific task within a particular context in a given social environment: therefore learning is situated. The emphasis is on providing meaningful and relevant learning experiences in authentic contexts. It believes that, knowledge is constructed by the learner and social interaction is a critical component of situated learning (Cunningham et al., 2007:17).

2.6 SILO, INTERSECTION AND INFUSION / CROSSCUTTING COMMUNITY SERVICE MODEL

In pursuing the three roles, universities can employ one or combination of the three possible CS/CE models based on their educational philosophy, commitment, resource capacity, vision, mission, strategic thrusts and objectives, values, paradigms for CE and context Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC)/Just Education Trust (JET) (in Bender, 2008). The CS role of universities can be pursued either in a silo model in which the teaching, research and CS roles pursued separately, or in an Intersecting Model in which the service function is partially integrated with the other two functions and partly in outreach and volunteering. Intersection of CS with the teaching forms SL while partial intersection service with research forms community based research. The third, Infusion or Cross Cutting Model confines roles of universities to teaching and research where the service function is infused into and integrated with teaching and learning and research. This model allows reciprocal enrichment of teaching and research with CS which results in scholarship of engagement, HEQC/ JET (in Rhodes University, 2012).

2.7 PRINCIPLES OF SERVICE-LEARNING PEDAGOGY

According to Howard (2001) the following ten principles are crucial for good practice of SL pedagogy:

- i) Academic Credit is for Learning, Not for Service - grades and students results should be based on attainment of learning objectives through services.

- ii) Do Not Compromise Academic Rigour – students should engage in challenging academic activities while addressing community needs.
- iii) Establish Learning Objectives- service objectives need embed learning objectives.
- iv) Establish Criteria for the Selection of Service Placements
- v) Provide Educationally-Sound Learning Strategies to Harvest Community Learning and Realise Course Learning Objectives- there should be mechanisms that enable students meaningfully engage in learning such as reflection on services activities, deliverables including journals and presentations.
- vi) Prepare Students for Learning from the Community- students should be given orientation, guides, supervision and reflective activities that maximise their learning.
- vii) Minimise the Distinction between the Students' Community Learning Role and Classroom Learning Role – service should serve as a method for achieving learning objectives and should be complimentary to classroom learning.
- viii) Rethink the Faculty Instructional Role – community based learning require faculty different roles from the conventional classroom teaching. Faculty are required to align services with learning objectives, help student to have SL placements, communicate with SL hosting organisation, supervising students' progress and evaluating attainment of SLPs.
- ix) Be Prepared for Variation in, and Some Loss of Control with, SL Outcomes – faculty should expect that students may come up with different understandings and interpretation of experiences.
- x) Maximise the Community Responsibility Orientation of the Course - SL courses should address community's felt needs and civic understanding of students.

2.8 SERVICE LEARNING CRITERIA

Center for Community Engagement (2006:15) has identified the following three criteria of SL:

- i) Relevant and Meaningful Service with the Community: The service provided within the community agency must be relevant and meaningful to all stakeholder parties.

- ii) Enhance Academic Learning: The addition of relevant and meaningful service with the community must not only serve the community but also enhance student academic learning in the course.
- iii) Purposeful Civic Learning: The addition of relevant and meaningful service with the community must not only serve the community and enhance student academic learning in the course, but also directly and intentionally prepare students for active civic participation in a diverse democratic society.

All of the above three criteria are necessary conditions if CS to be considered SL. If one of the three is missing then it is either another form of community-based service and/or learning or an underachieving model of academic SL.

According to Centre for Community Engagement at Sonoma State University (2013) SL is not a site placement, it does not grant credit for service (or time), it does not provide students with a "living [laboratory]", it is not the answer to all challenges for faculty or COs and it is not the best pedagogy for every course.

2.9 INTEGRATION OF SERVICE LEARNING IN THE CURRICULUM

University graduates are expected to be competitive, self-reliant, problem solver and active participant in community concerns. But, according to University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee (2004:4&12) the teaching methods employed by many institutions are not student centred, rather they make students passive receiver of knowledge. Thus, it is demanding to devise pedagogy and curriculum that is collaborative, problem-based, interdisciplinary, intentional and respectful of students as producers as well as recipients of knowledge. The community has a wealth of expertise to contribute as co-educators in this enterprise. Such collaborative learning can best be achieved through integrating engagement into the mission and practice of colleges and universities, and revising institutional structures, policies and culture to reflect the collaborative nature of engagement.

SL in the curriculum can be implemented in several ways. Enos and Troppe (in Umpleby 2011:7) state:

“SL can be a fourth-credit option (add a fourth credit to a regular three-credit course), a stand-alone module (three credits) or part of a normal course. In terms of its place in the curriculum, SL can be incorporated into an introductory course, a required course, or an elective course. SL can be included as course clusters, as capstone projects, etc. Each university needs to adjust the implementation of SL depending on the field and the abilities of students. SL can be implemented in every field but not in every course”.

Getting the most out of SL demands thoughtful and well-structured course. Organisation and construction of a SL course calls for:

- i) Engaging students towards meeting community need and maintaining negotiation and consulting the community how to collaborate and work together towards achieving partners' objectives.
 - ii) Devising reflection exercises that encourage students to link their service experience to course content and to reflect upon the importance of the service.
 - iii) Developing collaborative atmosphere that permit students and the community teach and learn from one another.
 - iv) Preparing public dissemination means for informing and celebrating the service work
- Centre for Community Engagement (CCE), (2006:2).

University of Maryland's Faculty Handbook for SL as adapted by Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health (n.d.) developed a SL model called preparation, action, reflection and evaluation (PARE.) model. The model is represented in Fig. 2.1 below.

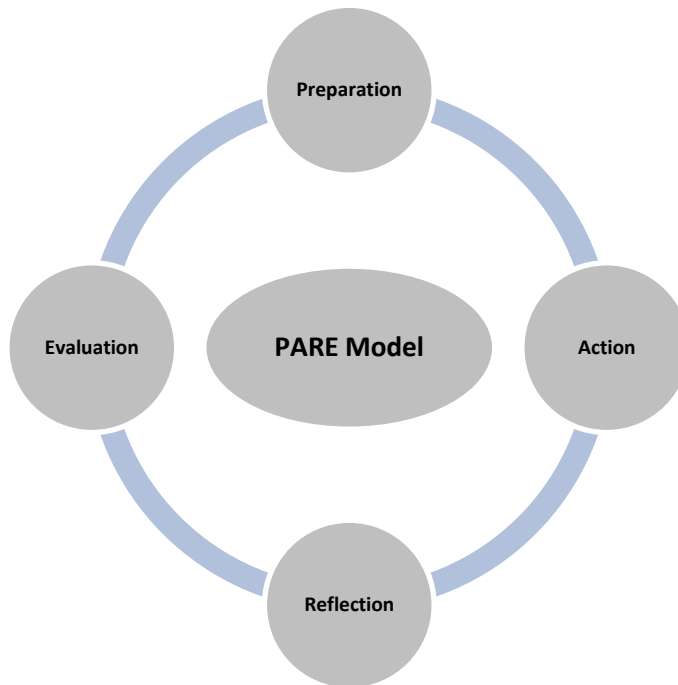


FIGURE 2.1: Service Learning Model

(Adapted from University of Maryland's Faculty Handbook for Service-Learning, 1999)

According to University of Maryland (in Hopkins, n.d.), this model is based on the thoughts of learning theorists of Jean Piaget (1970), Dewey (1938), Perry (1951), and Kolb (1984). The model has four successive phases: preparation, action, reflection and evaluation. The model underpins on interdependence between action and reflection. Making learning out of action and reflection in turn calls for proactive preparation that inform issues or community to be served, step-by-step outline of what participants will do, logistical implication of the project, clarification of desired behaviour on the site and learning objectives to be achieved, and necessary training that acquaint students with work procedures and community culture. The preparation phase should also highlight important issues such as actual work students will do, time frame and manner of service delivery either direct (i.e. where students have face-to-face interaction with the client population), or non-direct (i.e. where students are involved at the service site but not in direct contact with the client population), or indirect (i.e. where students are physically distant from the service site or the population being served).

In the action phase students perform service activities that benefit both for students' learning objective and community needs. In the action phase students may be assisted by site supervisor. In this phase students naturally observe and note what actions they did, why they did it and the effect of their actions in achieving their learning objectives and community needs. The next important phase is reflection; in which students consciously interpret and come up with understanding about what they saw and heard, why they felt that way, how their experiences and values shaped their feelings and service experience, and how they might be part of the problem and how can they be part of the solution. Their reflection may lead to higher level abstraction about root causes of persistent social problems, possible solutions to these social problems and ultimate power holder to move towards solutions.

Eyler and Giles (in Hatcher, Bringle & Muthiah 2004:39) summarise characteristics of good reflection activities as follow:

- a) connection between experience and knowledge;
- b) continuity of reflection before, during, and after the service experience;
- c) context of applying subject matter to real life situations;
- d) challenging students' perspectives; and
- e) coaching and providing emotional support to students.

Evaluation is the last phase of this SL model. It helps to measure whether objectives of students and service recipients are addressed or not. Setting clear and observable criteria at the initial phase is essential for comparing practices with the plan. Evaluation one enables to note the best and the worst aspects of service experience and to suggest future improvements, University of Maryland (in Hopkins, n.d).

2.10 REFLECTION AND RECIPROCITY AS INTEGRAL COMPONENTS OF SERVICE LEARNING

Reflection and reciprocity are important concepts in the field of SL; they are useful in thinking about service relationships. Reflection in SL is the active, persistent, and careful consideration of the service activity. It is the means by which students come to understand the meaning and impact of their efforts. Through reflection students link

what they have learned about themselves and the academic disciplines to what they have done in service to others. Here it is paramount important to note that teachers are expected to set reflective activities in a continuous, connected, challenging, and contextual manner. Case Western Reserve University (2001:16 & 22) clarifies that reflection leads to self-assessment through self-questioning “What am I doing and why? What am I learning? What am I feeling? Why did I react the way I did? How might I react differently next time?” Such self-assessment reflective questions enable students to link service objectives to course objectives by integrating the service experience with course learning. Hence, students become more independent learners and promote deeper understanding of course subject matter and its relations to the non-academic world. Ultimately, they can develop higher level thinking and problem solving, as well as skill to learn from the experience. Reflective activities may involve different varieties so that they can accommodate multiple learning styles. Group discussions, journals, analytic papers, portfolios, presentations, reading responses and focus groups can be considered for reflective activities in a SL course (Case Western Reserve University, 2001). Through such reflective activities students can describe the work they did and use as many concepts from the course as they can, thereby connecting the concepts in the textbook with their personal experiences (Umpleby, 2011). Preparation of reflective activities should consider issues which may affect reflection activities. Although, there are different types of learning styles, processing styles, and cultural communication patterns—all of which may affect the quality and depth of reflection activity (CCE, 2006).

Cashman and Seifer (2008:275) explain “reciprocity involves integrating values, norms, and expectations from disparate perspectives. In SL, traditional definitions of teacher and learner are intentionally blurred. Everyone becomes a learner.” The contribution of community for students’ learning is noted fundamental. “Community members may not possess academic credentials, but they are resident experts with “life experiences” in special areas” (O’Fallon, Tyson & Dearth, 2000:37). Both reflection and reciprocity must allow all partners the creative power to define programme, project goals, implementation and evaluation (Evans, Taylor, Durlap & Miller, 2009).

2.11 INSTITUTIONALISATION OF SERVICE LEARNING IN UNIVERSITIES

Efficient and well-coordinated SL activities of universities demand integration of SL concepts and infrastructure across the university. Institutionalisation mechanisms are conceptualised by Hanover Research (2011:5) under the following five dimensions:

- i) *Mission and Philosophy*: this states importance of setting a campus-wide definition for SL, formulating campus wide strategic plan that advances SL, aligning SL with the institution's mission, and aligning SL with other education reform and civic engagement efforts.
- ii) *Faculty Support for and Involvement in Service-Learning*: this dimension of institutionalisation purports the need for encouraging faculty to take initiatives of SL. Thus it describes importance of capacitating faculty knowledge and awareness about SL through faculty development programmes, cultivating faculty interest and maximising opportunities to tie SL with their scholarly work, maintain adequate infrastructure that facilitate logistics for SL, establishing incentive and reward mechanisms, and attracting influential faculty to the leadership roles in advancing SL.
- iii) *Institutional Support for Service-Learning*: this dimension is concerned with establishing coordinating unit responsible for facilitating and partnership building, setting policy making entity entitle to formulating standards of quality and criteria for evaluation, availing adequate funding resources, ensuring campus leaders support and enhancing their understanding of SL purposes, and maintaining ongoing monitoring and assessment systems.
- iv) *Student Support and Involvement in Service-Learning*: this dimension institutionalisation of SL is concerned with mobilising campus wide coordinated mechanisms for awareness raising to students on SL opportunities and benefits, and devising formal incentives and rewards for students to participate in SL.
- v) *Community Participation and Partnerships*: this dimension pertains to raising awareness among community partners of the full range of SL opportunities and possibilities, cultivating mutual understanding of needs and purposes between the campus and the community partners, welcoming and encouraging community

agency representatives to participate fully in official activities designed to advance SL on campus, and assessing and monitoring impacts of SL on partners.

2.12 PARTNERSHIP BUILDING FOR SERVICE LEARNING

Building effective and sustained partnership by itself sometimes may be difficult. Signing memorandum of understanding and some other agreements may not immediately make community partners active participants in what they agreed to do. O'Fallon et al. (2000:37) justify the reasons that:

“Hesitancy results from a history of mistrust of the research community, an uncertainty of the direction partnership may take, and a doubt of their status as partners, in particular, whether or not their abilities will be valued by the university partner lag behind active involvement of community”.

Partnership as a basis for collaboration between community agencies and universities is highly instrumental for the success of SL activities. Partnership is established between partnering entities for achieving objectives that benefit both. For this reason, the following aspects of partnership which included principle of partnership, effective partnership and leadership competency for partnership management are discussed in the next section, Holland (in Pasque, Smerek, Dwyer, Bowman & Mallory, 2005).

2.12.1 Principle of Partnership

Partnerships are at different stages of development and thus the principles provide guidance along the road towards ideal, authentic relationships. The authenticity of a partnership is likely best to be determined by the consensus of the members of the partnership itself. Community-Campus Partnerships for Health (2000:18-19) asserts that the following ten principles of partnership are critical to sustain partnership between universities and community:

- i) Partnerships form to serve a specific purpose and may take on new goals over time.
- ii) Partners have agreed upon mission, values, goals, measurable outcomes and accountability for the partnership.

- iii) The relationship between partners is characterised by mutual trust, respect, genuineness, and commitment.
- iv) The partnership builds upon identified strengths and assets, but also works to address needs and increase capacity of all partners.
- v) The partnership balances power among partners and enables resources among partners to be shared.
- vi) Partners make clear and open communication an ongoing priority by striving to understand each other's needs and self-interests, and developing a common language.
- vii) Principles and processes for the partnership are established with the input and agreement of all partners, especially for decision-making and conflict resolution.
- viii) There is feedback among all stakeholders in the partnership, with the goal of continuously improving the partnership and its outcomes.
- ix) Partners share the benefits of the partnership's accomplishments.
- x) Partnerships can dissolve and need to plan a process for closure.

However, partnership building between university and community partners may negatively be affected by many factors. As stated by Community-Campus Partnerships for Health (2000) hindering factors for partnership building include: history of mistrust, significant competition for resources, resistance of key people/organisation, public and organisational policies, funding and programme requirements, lack of incentives to partner and predominant educational paradigms.

2.12.2 Effective Partnership

According to Fulbright, Karen and Anderson (2001), university-community partnership facilitates mechanisms for communities to express their views, gain access to decision-makers, and develop more knowledge of how the anchor institutions are structured and behave. On the other hand, communities also provide an opportunity for universities to advance the intellectual and practical learning of their students and faculty, and are therefore seen as natural laboratories in which to undertake both basic and applied research.

Holland (in Pasque, Smerek, Dwyer, Bowman & Mallory, 2005:13), outlines the characteristics of effective partnerships as:

- joint exploration of goals and interests and limitations.
- creation of a mutually rewarding agenda.
- operational design that supports shared leadership, decision-making, conflict resolution, resource management.
- clear benefits and roles for each partner.
- identification of opportunities for early successes for all; shared celebration of progress.
- focus on knowledge exchange, shared learning and capacity building.
- attention to communication patterns, cultivation of trust.
- commitment to continuous assessment of the partnership itself, as well as outcomes of shared work.

2.12.3 Leadership Competency for Partnership Management

Quality of leadership has considerable effect on partnership building and sustaining partnership. According to Community-Campus Partnerships for Health (2000:14-15) important qualities of leadership in partnership building include:

- developing self-awareness as a leader, clarifying values.
- creating and sustaining shared vision - leaders should set compelling vision and communicate the vision for internal and external stakeholders.
- fostering inclusive, effective communication - information should be communicated to all concerned at right time.
- building relationships, teams, partnerships.
- sharing power, control; empowering others- helping others to decide for themselves.
- leading and sustaining change- leaders should be change agents.
- taking intelligent risks- develop tendency for innovation and creativity
- translating ideas into action.
- cultivating new leaders-should help others to possess leadership skills.
- celebrating successes- contributions of partners should be recognised.

- being flexible and supportive.
- understanding importance of setting and availing to employees appropriate and workable policies, procedures and structures for attaining objectives of organisations.

2.13 PREPARATION OF STUDENTS FOR SERVICE LEARNING

Effective and smooth running of SL activities need proactive preparation of all constituencies. Students, teachers, SL centre offices staff and community agency staff should reach a consensus regarding important facilitation activities and respective roles of each partner. American University (2006:16) notes that “students must be prepared not only for the service activity itself but also for learning how to learn through service.” It is also suggested that inviting a representative from an agency to visit class and to provide an orientation to the relevant issues, the site, and students’ specific duties. If necessary, students may also require on-site preparation and training for their service tasks. Preparation time both inside and outside the classroom should be incorporated into the weekly schedule as one plans a work schedule.

2.14 SERVICE LEARNING EVALUATION

Evaluation is a mechanism that we can gauge our efforts in attempting to achieve a certain objective. In addition, it helps planners and practitioners to note important lessons for the next planning time. In relation to this, Cashman and Seifer (2008), state that developing and implementing a multi-tiered evaluation approach helps ensure that assessments include approaches related to student learning outcomes as well as community, faculty, institutional, and partnership-related outcomes. SL to be an educational experience it must meet the criteria of all methods of educational delivery, such as the following: (i) measurable objectives must be part of the learning plan, (ii) appropriate activities or experiences must be identified to effect learning to meet the objectives, and (iii) the learning must have a certain economy of time and effort in order that the great variety of "things" that must be learned can be considered. Learning objectives which were predetermined and planned must be continuously evaluated against the realities of the service experience. A learning plan to be a basis for

evaluation it should reflect academic content commonly found in the discipline offering the course, as well as address more practical student and site personnel expectations. Elaboration of Barnes et al. (2009) signify that students should have clear understanding of where instructor emphasis lies with respect to the service per se and the demonstration of learning. Further, they suggest that written communications to should be employed to clarify expectations and grading criteria. Evaluation tools include a learning plan, students' journaling, or an equivalent measurable reflection activity, an integrative paper or papers and contact with the site supervisor. Another important component of evaluation is information received from the site supervisor or community partner, such that supervisors' comments can become part of the grade assigned. Faculty or a SL coordinator needs to be in contact with these community partners as the semester progresses, and care needs to be taken that the latter know who to contact should any problems arise (Barnes et al., 2009). Evaluation in the SL context does not limit to measuring learning objectives of students. Rather, it should also consider how well the planning, action, reflection and evaluation phases are coordinated, the level of commitment partnering parties, logistics and challenges faced during SL activities.

Barbara (in Hanover Research, 2011) underlines evaluation and assessment as a key dimension of justifying SL at an institution of higher education. However, measuring effectiveness of SL activities is difficult. The reason for this difficulty is that SL can have multiple and diverse objectives for the same activity. Such objectives may include building social responsibility and citizenship skills in students, enhancing student learning through practical experiences, creating synergy between the teaching and research roles of a faculty member, addressing unmet community needs, and increasing community capacity through shared action. This complexity of objectives makes preparation of evaluation formats and analysis difficult.

2.15 CHALLENGES FOR SERVICE LEARNING APPLICATION

According to the description of CCE (2006) one of the challenges of application of SL pedagogy is lack of conceptual clarity of academicians. For instance, academic SL is mistakenly considered as just a new name for internships. It is true that both models pursue CS in a view to support academic learning, but internship is not concerned with

civic learning. Internship programmes are highly concerned with developing and socialising students for a profession, and tend to be silent on student civic development. They also emphasise on students' benefits more than community benefits, while SL is equally attentive to both. Still many academicians consider that experience in the community, is synonymous with learning. This understanding led them to conception that experience in the community yield learning which is wrong. Many academicians consider community experiences in SL as add on to the already designed course. They could not recognise the main intention of employing SL that is integration of service objectives with learning objectives with deliberately structured reflective activities. This misunderstanding can adversely affect teachers' role in SL duties.

Acquisition of academic and civic learning from CS experience requires purposeful and intentional efforts. This harvesting process is often referred to as "reflection" in the SL literature. A review of literature made by New Zealand Association for Cooperatives Education (2014:350-351) remarks that:

"High quality SL programmes incorporate certain key elements that include meaningful service activities, integration of service to the curriculum, structured reflection, youth voice, active and direct student involvement, diversity of experiences, clearly articulated goals, progress monitoring and sufficient duration".

Incompatibility of students' time lines (i.e., semester schedules) often does not coincide with the needs of local community projects. Students often engage in community based activities as part of a class. Since these classes are delivered only in a semester, students often separate from the project before it is over (Hartley & Huddleston, 2010:8). Other challenges to SL application may include budget, transportation, skills in managing partnership and lack of expertise from teachers in using SL as a pedagogy and low level of institutionalisation of SL as a pedagogy.

2.16 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF SERVICE LEARNING

People have been trying to understand how learning takes place for over 2000 years. Learning theorists have carried out a debate on how people learn that began at least as far back as the Greek Philosophers: Socrates (469 –399 B.C.), Plato (427 – 347 BC), and Aristotle (384 – 322 BC). Aristotle, for instance, states that theory is not understood until a person has the ability to apply it. The debates that have occurred through the ages reoccur today in a variety of viewpoints about the purposes of education and about how to encourage learning (Hammond, Austin, Orcutt & Rosso, 2001). Identification and utilisation of appropriate pedagogies that empower students to develop critical thinking, problem solving and communication skills, civic responsibilities and environmental consciousness is critical trade off among theorists. For many educators experiential learning is very instrumental in equipping students with multifaceted learning objectives listed above. SL as an aspect of experiential learning has many proponents. In order to guide this research, constructivist learning theory of Bruner, Piaget and Vygotsky, John Dewey's active learning, David Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory, Engagement Theory, System Theory, Theories of Learning Organisation and Organisational Learning are used as theoretical frameworks.

2.16.1 Constructivist Learning Theory

The beliefs we hold about children's learning are deeply grounded in our own convictions on what it means to be knowledgeable, intelligent, experienced, and what it takes to become so. Whether implicitly or explicitly stated, these convictions drive our attitudes and practices as educators, parents, teachers, and researchers.

Regarding the nature of knowledge and how we come to know, there are two diametrically contradictory theories: Objectivists (Positivists) and Constructivists. Constructivism is a theory that equates learning with creating meaning from experience Bednar, Cunningham, Duffy and Perry (in Ertmer & Newby, 2013). According to Byrnes, and Arseneau and Rodenburg (in Thanasoulas, 2002) objectivism assumes that knowledge exists outside of individuals and can be transferred from teachers to students. According to this learning philosophy, knowledge is transmitted through

hearing and reading. That is good explanation of abstract concepts permits students grasp those concepts. From objectivism point of view, learning is successful when students can repeat what was taught. Contrary to objectivism point of view of knowledge independent of mind, constructivism assumes that “the mind filters input from the world to produce its own unique reality” Jonassen (in Ertmer & Newby, 2013:55). For Constructivist Knowledge has personal meaning. It is created by individual students. Learners construct their own knowledge by looking for meaning and order; they interpret what they hear, read, and see based on their previous learning and habits. Students who do not have appropriate backgrounds will be unable to accurately “hear” or “see” what is before them. Learning is successful when students can demonstrate conceptual understanding. In constructivist view students’ inquire for knowledge creation and application of this knowledge is critical for students to be account knowledgeable. While students are expected to receive structured knowledge made by others and rote memorise to be count knowledgeable for objectivists view (Byrnes; Arseneau & Rodenburg in Thanasoulas, 2002).

Located in Positivistic paradigm, the theories of behaviourism, contiguity theory, and many others, believe that students are merely passive “receptacles” of information from the teacher and the textbook. The learners are considered as relatively passive: they are expected to absorb information transmitted by a didactic teacher. Positivism paradigm is criticised for making learners powerless who receive a standard curriculum dictated by powerful teachers. Thus, teachers are concerned with delivering knowledge and evaluating underlying differences between children, Long (in Thanasoulas, 2002).

According to Mastin (2008) constructivism (also known as Constructionism) is a relatively recent perspective in Epistemology that views all of our knowledge as "constructed" in that it is contingent on convention, human perception and social experience. Therefore, our knowledge does not necessarily reflect any external or "transcendent" realities. It is considered by its proponents to be an alternative to classical Rationalism and Empiricism. Ertmer and Newby (2013:55) clarify the distinction between objectivist and constructivist epistemology in that:

“Constructivists do not share with cognitivists and behaviourists the belief that knowledge is mind-independent and can be “mapped” onto a learner. Constructivists do not deny the existence of the real world but contend that what we know of the world stems from our own interpretations of our experiences. Humans create meaning as opposed to acquiring it. Since there are many possible meanings to glean from any experience, we cannot achieve a predetermined, “correct” meaning. Learners do not transfer knowledge from the external world into their memories; rather they build personal interpretations of the world based on individual experiences and interactions. Thus, the internal representation of knowledge is constantly open to change; there is not an objective reality that learners strive to know”.

The constructivist point of view is both pragmatic and relativistic in nature. It opposes Positivism and Scientism in that it maintains that scientific knowledge is constructed by scientists, and not discovered from the world through strict scientific method, and it holds that there is no single valid methodology, and that other methodologies may be more appropriate for social science.

According to Mastin (2008) the concept of Constructivism dates back to the Greek philosophers Heraclitus, Protagoras and Aristotle. However, it got momentum after 1934 that the French philosopher Gaston Bachelard (1884-1962) claimed that "Nothing proceeds from itself. Nothing is given. This view was accentuated in 1967 when Jean Piaget first used the expression "constructivist epistemology".

According to Hein (1991) constructivism is an approach to teaching and learning based on the premise that cognition (learning) is the result of "mental construction." In other words, students learn by fitting new information together with what they already know. Constructivists believe that learning is affected by the context in which an idea is taught as well as by students' beliefs and attitudes. Constructivism stresses the idea that learners construct knowledge for themselves - each learner individually (and socially) constructs meaning - as he or she learns. Constructing meaning is learning; there is no

other kind. The dramatic consequences of this view are twofold; one, we have to focus on the learner in thinking about learning (not on the subject/lesson to be taught). And two, there is no knowledge independent of the meaning attributed to experience (constructed) by the learner, or community of learners (Hein, 1991).

The cognitive paradigm of constructivism has been instrumental in shifting the locus of responsibility of learning from the teacher to the learner, who is no longer seen as passive or powerless. The student is viewed as an individual who is active in constructing new knowledge and understanding, while the teacher is seen as a facilitator rather than a “dictator” of learning. Constructivism emphasises learning and not teaching, encourages learner autonomy and personal involvement in learning, looks to learners as incumbents of significant roles and as agents exercising a will and purpose, fosters learners’ natural curiosity, and also takes account of learners’ affect, in terms of their beliefs, attitudes, and motivation (Hein, 1991). By providing opportunities for independent thinking, constructivism allows students to take responsibility for their own learning by framing questions and then analysing them. Reaching beyond simple factual information, learners are induced to establish connections between ideas and thus to predict, justify, and defend their ideas, Brooks and Brooks (in Thanasoulas, 2002).

According to Hein (1991) scholars who accept constructivist theory such as Dewey, Piaget and Vigotsky reject Platonic and all subsequent realistic views of epistemology. Constructivists do not recognise the issue of knowledge “out there” independent of the knower, but they have firm belief that learners construct knowledge for themselves as they learn. Learning is not understanding the “true” nature of things, nor is it (as Plato suggested) remembering dimly perceived perfect ideas, but rather a personal and social construction of meaning out of the bewildering array of sensations which have no order or structure besides the explanations which we fabricate for them .

Scholars from positivist epistemological instance believe that learning is grasping attributes of real world out there, thus teachers endeavour first and foremost to understand that world, organise it in the most rational way possible and present it to the learner. This view may still engage teachers in providing the learner with activities, with

hands-on learning, with opportunities to experiment and manipulate the objects of the world, but the intention is always to make clear to the learner the structure of the world independent of him/her. We help the learner understand the world, but we do not ask him to construct his/her own world. Constructivists follow a pedagogy which provides learners with the opportunity to interact with sensory data and construct their own world (Hein, 1991).

2.16.1.1 Context Based Learning

According to Maddux, Johnson and Willis (1997) constructivists believe that learning is affected by the context in which an idea is taught as well as by students' beliefs and attitudes. As early as 1929, concern was raised that the way students learn in school resulted in a limited, 'inert' form of knowledge, useful only for passing examinations. More recently several theorists have argued that for knowledge to be active it should be learned in a meaningful context and through active learning. The general term for this type of learning activity is situated learning. Situated learning proponents argue that knowledge cannot be taught in an abstract manner, and that to be useful, it must be situated in a relevant or "authentic" context.

2.16.1.2 Role of the Teacher in Constructivist Theory

Constructivist teachers do not take the role of the "sage on the stage." Instead, teachers act as a guide on the side providing students with opportunities to test the adequacy of their current understandings. In the constructivist classroom, the focus tends to shift from the teacher to the students. The classroom is no longer a place where the teacher ("expert") pours knowledge into passive students, who wait like empty vessels to be filled. In the constructivist model, the students are urged to be actively involved in their own process of learning. Both teacher and students think of knowledge as a dynamic, ever-changing view of the world we live in and the ability to successfully stretch and explore that view - not as inert factoids to be memorised.

The main activity in a constructivist classroom is solving problems. Students use inquiry methods to ask questions, investigate a topic, and use a variety of resources to find

solutions and answers. As students explore the topic, they draw conclusions, and, as exploration continues, they revisit those conclusions. Exploration of questions leads to more questions. Key assumptions of this perspective include (Hein, 1991):

- what the student currently believes, whether correct or incorrect, is important.
- despite having the same learning experience, each individual will base their learning on the understanding and meaning personal to them.
- understanding or constructing a meaning is an active and continuous process.
- learning may involve some conceptual changes.
- when students construct a new meaning, they may not believe it but may give it provisional acceptance or even rejection.
- learning is an active, not a passive, process and depends on the students taking responsibility to learn.

2.16.1.3 Principles of Constructivist Learning

According to Hein (1991) constructivists have developed the following nine guiding principles that educators should keep mind while preparing learning activities:

- i) learning is an active process in which the learner uses sensory input and constructs meaning out of it.
- ii) people learn to learn as they learn: learning consists both of constructing meaning and constructing systems of meaning.
- iii) the crucial action of constructing meaning is mental: it happens in the mind. Physical actions, hands-on experience may be necessary for learning, especially for children, but it is not sufficient; we need to provide activities which engage the mind as well as the hands.
- iv) learning involves language: the language we use influences learning.
- v) learning is a social activity: our learning is intimately associated with our connection with other human beings, our teachers, our peers, our family as well as casual acquaintances.
- vi) learning is contextual: we do not learn isolated facts and theories in some abstract ethereal land of the mind separate from the rest of our lives: we learn in relationship

to what else we know, what we believe, our prejudices and our fears. We cannot divorce our learning from our lives.

- vii) one needs knowledge to learn: it is not possible to assimilate new knowledge without having some structure developed from previous knowledge to build on. The more we know, the more we can learn.
- viii) it takes time to learn: learning is not instantaneous. For significant learning we need to revisit ideas, ponder them try them out, play with them and use them.
- ix) motivation is a key component in learning.

2.16.1.4 Proponents of Constructivism

Constructivism learning theory emerged as a result of dedicated research results of many renowned scholars. This research study reviewed the works of the following two constructivist theorists.

2.16.1.4.1 Jerome Bruner's Constructivist Learning Theory

According to Bruner (1996), learning is a social process, whereby students construct new concepts based on current knowledge. The student selects information, constructs hypotheses, and makes decisions, with the aim of integrating new experiences into his/her existing mental constructs. It is cognitive structures that provide meaning and organisation to experiences and allow learners to transcend the boundaries of the information given. For Bruner, learner independence, fostered through encouraging students to discover new principles of their own accord, lies at the heart of effective education. Moreover, curriculum should be organised in a spiral manner so that students can build upon what they have already learnt (Thanasoulas, 2002).

According to Bruner (1966) four major points should be in mind in the preparation of instruction: predisposition towards learning, the ways in which a body of knowledge can be structured so that it can be most readily grasped by the learner, the most effective sequences in which to present material, and the nature and pacing of rewards and punishments. Good methods for structuring knowledge should result in simplifying, generating new propositions, and increasing the manipulation of information. Bruner forwards the following three principles of instruction:

- i) instruction must be concerned with the experiences and contexts that make the student willing and able to learn (readiness).
- ii) instruction must be structured so that it can be easily grasped by the student (spiral organisation).
- iii) instruction should be designed to facilitate extrapolation and or fill in the gaps (going beyond the information given).

2.16.1.4.2 Piaget's Constructivism Learning Theory

According to Thanasoulas (2002) Piaget's constructivism learning theory states that the basis of learning is discovery: To understand is to discover, or reconstruct by rediscovery. Simple repetition or rote memorisation cannot be considered learning. According to Piaget, children go through stages in which they accept ideas they may later discard as wrong. Understanding, therefore, is built up step by step through active participation and involvement.

Piaget's view of education implies two major points; first, teaching is always indirect. Children do not just take in what's being said. Instead, they interpret what they hear in the light of their own knowledge and experience. Second, knowledge is not information to be delivered at one end, and encoded, memorised, retrieved, and applied at the other end. Instead, knowledge is experience that is acquired through interaction with the world, people and things (Thanasoulas, 2002).

2.16.2 Social Constructivism Learning Theory

According to University of California (2015) social constructivism is a variety of cognitive constructivisms that emphasise the collaborative nature of learning. Social constructivism was developed by post-revolutionary Soviet psychologist Lev Vygotsky. Although Vygotsky was a cognitivist, he rejected the assumption made by cognitivists such as Piaget and Perry by saying that it was possible to separate learning from its social context. He argued that all cognitive functions originate in, and must therefore be explained as products of social interactions and that learning was not simply the

assimilation and accommodation of new knowledge by learners; it was the process by which learners were integrated into a knowledge community.

2.16.2.1 Social Constructivism View of Knowledge

Cognitivists such as Piaget and Perry see knowledge as actively constructed by learners in response to interactions with environmental stimuli. Vygotsky emphasised the role of language and culture in cognitive development. According to Vygotsky, language and culture play essential roles both in human intellectual development and in how humans perceive the world. Humans' linguistic abilities enable them to overcome the natural limitations of their perceptual field by imposing culturally defined sense and meaning on the world. Language and culture are the frameworks through which humans experience, communicate, and understand reality, Vygotsky (in University of California, 2015).

Language and the conceptual schemes that are transmitted by means of language are essentially social phenomena. As a result, human cognitive structures are, Vygotsky believed, essentially socially constructed. Knowledge is not simply constructed, it is co-constructed (University of California, Berkley, 2015).

Social constructivism is based on specific assumptions about reality, knowledge, and learning. To understand and apply models of instruction that are rooted in the perspectives of social constructivists, it is important to know the following premises that underlie them:

Reality: Social constructivists believe that reality is constructed through human activity. Members of a society together invent the properties of the world (Kukla, 2000). For the social constructivist, reality cannot be discovered: it does not exist prior to its social invention.

Knowledge: To social constructivists, knowledge is also a human product, and is socially and culturally constructed, Ernest; Gredler; Prat and Floden (in Kim, 2001). Individuals create meaning through their interactions with each other and with the environment they live in (Kim, 2001).

2.16.2.2 Social Constructivism View of Learning

According to Kim (2001) Vygotsky and Piaget have the same understanding about importance of external stimuli on students' learning. These scholars claim that learners respond not to external stimuli but to their interpretation of those stimuli. However, he argued that cognitivists such as Piaget had overlooked the essentially social nature of language. As a result, he claimed they had failed to understand that learning is a collaborative process. Vygotsky distinguished between two developmental levels: The level of actual development and the level of potential development.

The level of actual development is the level of development that the learner has already reached, and is the level at which the learner is capable of solving problems independently. The level of potential development (the "zone of proximal development") is the level of development that the learner is capable of reaching under the guidance of teachers or in collaboration with peers (Kim 2001). The learner is capable of solving problems and understanding material at this level that they are not capable of solving or understanding at their level of actual development; the level of potential development is the level at which learning takes place. It comprises cognitive structures that are still in the process of maturing, but which can only mature under the guidance of or in collaboration with others

Learning: Social constructivists view learning as a social process. It does not take place only within an individual, nor is it a passive development of behaviours that are shaped by external forces, McMahon (in Kim, 2001). Meaningful learning occurs when individuals are engaged in social activities (Kim, 2001).

2.16.2.3 Social Context for Learning

Some social constructivists discuss two aspects of social context that largely affect the nature and extent of the learning, Gredler; Wertch (in Kim, 2001). First, historical developments inherited by the learner as a member of a particular culture, symbol systems, such as language, logic, and mathematical systems, are learned throughout the learner's life. These symbol systems dictate how and what is learned. Second, the nature of the learner's social interaction with knowledgeable members of the society is

important. Without the social interaction with more knowledgeable individuals, it is impossible to acquire social meaning of important symbol systems and learn how to use them. Young children develop their thinking abilities by interacting with adults. Inter-subjectivity shared understanding of ideas among community provides the grounds for communication and supports people to extend their understanding of new information and activities among the group members, Rogoff; Vygotsky (in Kim, 2001). The construction of knowledge is also influenced by the inter-subjectivity formed by cultural and historical factors of the community, Gredler; Prawat and Floden (in Kim, 2001).

2.16.2.4 Social Constructivism View of Motivation

According to Kim (2001) behavioural motivation is essentially extrinsic - a reaction to positive and negative reinforcements. Cognitive motivation is essentially intrinsic - based on the learner's internal drive. Social constructivists see motivation as both extrinsic and intrinsic. Because learning is essentially a social phenomenon, learners are partially motivated by rewards provided by the knowledge community. However, because knowledge is actively constructed by the learner, learning also depends to a significant extent on the learner's internal drive to understand and promote the learning process

2.16.2.5 Social Constructivism and Instructional Models

Instructional models based on the social constructivist perspective stress the need for collaboration among learners and with practitioners in the society (Lave & Wenger, 1991; McMahon, 1997). Social constructivist approaches can include reciprocal teaching, peer collaboration, cognitive apprenticeships, problem-based instruction, webquests, anchored instruction and other methods that involve learning with others, Shunk (in Kim, 2001).

2.16.3 Dewey's Theory of Experiences and Education

Regarding students' learning there are two seemingly contradictory approaches: Traditional and progressive education. According to Dewey 1944 traditional education is primarily concerned with teaching information and skills that have already been worked out in the past. Traditional educators assume that the future will be just like the past;

therefore the skills and knowledge that were of use in the past will help students succeed in the future. Dewey argues the world is constantly changing, and students need to learn critical thinking and problem solving skills in order to deal with these changes. Traditional education treats students as docile, non-active receptive entities that learn only from books and teachers. Knowledge is taught as a finished product. Students cannot learn essential problem solving skills if they are taught that all problems and answers to these problems have already been worked out. Teachers must recognise what surroundings are conducive to promote quality experiences (Wikimedia, 2014).

Owing to the drawbacks of traditional education, contemporary theorists encourage application of progressive education. As one of the major founders of Pragmatism and “Learning takes place through encountering difficulties, trying out responses to them and, when those responses are successful in furthering inquiry, adopting them as knowledge” (Winch & Gingell, 2008:66). Progressive Education Theory main tenet is that education is based on personal experiences of the learner. Teachers are the mature person who provides guidance to the students to facilitate learning. The instructor’s main function is to arrange for the kind of experiences that engage students and promote further experiences. Dewey states that quality experiences are necessary. Quality experiences are experiences that lead to more experiences; Dewey refers to these types of experiences as the experiential continuum. Quality experiences must also lead to intellectual growth, which arouses curiosity and strengthens initiative. Again, Dewey criticised traditional education practices because the type of experiences promoted did not lead to the continuity of new experiences or aroused curiosity or initiative (Wikimedia, 2014). According to Wingra School (2012) constructionism /progressivism believe that knowledge is constructed through play, direct experience, and social interaction. This school of thought perceives success of learners determined through application over time, through collaboration. It gives due emphasis for experiential engagement of learners. On the other hand, traditional view of learning considers knowledge is absorbed through lectures, worksheets, and texts. This group of thought believes success is competitively based, derived from recall and memory, and specific to a time/place. Progressive education requires the teacher to arrange the

learning environment to promote active student learning. This requires teachers to put more thought into lesson planning and arranging the learning environment (Dewey, 1952). Acknowledging the importance of experiences in learning many Progressives debate on “how to maintain the proper balance of the traditional school’s focus on teacher transmission and the progressive school’s focus on the student learning from his/her own experience with guided opportunities to explore, discover, construct, and create” (Hammond et al., 2001:7). Students should not learn in isolation. Dewey stresses that education is a social process that everyone should participate in. Schools should be involved in their local community so that students learn how to participate in the community (Wikimedia, 2014).

2.16.4 David Kolb’s Experiential Learning

Kolb believes that learning is multi-dimensional process (Atherton, 2013). According to Kolb (1984), education should rely on experiences. Kolb’s experiential education has four spiral phases: concrete experience, reflection, abstract conceptualization and active experimentation. A participant must go through a concrete experience, look back and reflect upon this experience, determine useful and key information to formulate abstract concepts and generalisations, and apply this new information to subsequent actions, Kolb; Katula and Threnhauser; Owen and Stupans; Chavan (in Lenton, Sidhu, Kaur, Conrad, Kennedy, Munro & Smith, 2014:9). The most direct application of the model is to use it to ensure that teaching and tutoring activities give full value to each stage of the process. This may mean that for the tutor or mentor, a major task is to chase the learner round ‘the cycle, asking questions which encourage reflection, conceptualisation, and ways of testing the ideas (Atherton, 2013).

Encountering with experiences may not automatically lead to concept formation and generalisation. In order for these to happen there should be structured guiding activities that entail students to reflect back on their experiences so that they form their understanding and theories. These activities can occur in various contexts (either within a class or within the community). Examples include: In-course learning activities, within community learning activities, community based learning, academic community service

learning, community based research, placements, internships and co-operative education (York University, 2013: 6).

The reflection phase occurs when students are asked to refer back to the concrete experience in order to connect the experience with their understanding of that experience in relation to the course content, readings and relevant theory. The abstract conceptualisation phase of the learning cycle allows students to demonstrate and consolidate what they know as a result of their concrete experience(s) and subsequent reflection(s) and asks students to address issues of broader theoretical and/or practical significance. Abstract conceptualisation is informed by meta-reflection (that is, a reflection on the reflection phase), course content, relevant theory, and scholarly literature and can be viewed as a way of codifying what has been learned, discovered and understood about a given topic. This phase can be designed to be a summative or final project and take the form of an essay, term paper, research report, presentation and other forms of creation (such as photo or video project) (York University, 2013:7). The active experimentation phase is sometimes referred to as the “knowledge mobilisation” phase or “planning” phase. This phase represents how future action can be informed as a result of the abstract conceptualisation phase. From the student perspective one can ask “Based on your experience(s), how would you plan to do things in the future?” Active experimentation could take the form of a class discussion at the end of a course; students are asked to summarise what has been learned in the course as a result of the experiences and to consider future implications (York University, 2013:7).

2.16.5 System Theory

System thinking is a management tool that enables managers to see organisations organised as a whole though there are subunits in achieving a certain purpose or objective. As stated by Hammond et al. (2001), a system is a set of things—people, organisation, or whatever—interconnected in such a way that they produce their own pattern of behaviour over time. The system may be buffeted, constricted, triggered, or driven by outside forces. The world is in a constant change and entertaining several calamities such as hunger, poverty, environmental degradation, economic instability,

unemployment, chronic disease, drug addiction, and war. In the face of these challenges, the reaction of social organisations such as universities cannot keep silent. But the system's response to these forces is characteristic of itself, based on its readiness, commitment and capacity. No single organisation or nation can be held responsible to the above listed challenges. Thus, their solutions demand critical and holistic diagnostics as one system can affect the other.

A system is not just any old collection of things. A system is an interconnected set of elements that is coherently organised in a way that achieves something. According to Charlton and Andras (2003) a system has three characteristics:

- i. Elements or subsystems, both the tangible and intangible elements,
- ii. Interconnections or interaction, which is facilitated mainly through information exchange and other input exchange, and
- iii. A function or purpose which is the underlying reason for existence of a system.

Systems can be nested within systems. Through hierarchical arrangement systems sub-divided into subsystems. Therefore, there can be purposes within purposes. It is evident that there is an integrity or wholeness about a system and an active set of mechanisms to maintain that integrity in a view to achieving the overall objectives of the system. Systems can change, adapt, respond to events, seek goals, mend injuries, and attend to their own survival in lifelike ways. System theory acknowledges that information holds systems together and plays a great role in determining how they operate. In this regard, ICT, visions, missions, policies, rules, plans, feedbacks, conferences, and trainings are essential in maintaining systems' cohesion.

In sum, System Theory is significant in understanding how social organisations, in our case universities, are hierarchically organised and work harmoniously in achieving their objectives. It also shows how organisations interact with the surrounding environment. In order for a system to perform its function, it has to undergo resilience, self-organising and hierarchy. Resilience by which systems adjust to the dynamic situation of the environment is instrumental to flourishing of the system. Systems often have the property of self-organisation, the ability to structure themselves, to create new structure,

to learn, diversify, and complexity. In the process of creating new structures and increasing complexity, one thing that a self-organising system often generates is hierarchy. Individual in a system may exhibit different roles or pattern of behaviour in pursuing objectives. The original purpose of a hierarchy is always to help its originating subsystems do their jobs better. A reinforcing feedback loop generates exponential growth.

2.16.6 Engagement Theory

Based on their teaching experiences, Kearsley and Shneiderman invented engagement theory in a view to make learning active, collaborative than competitive, creative, relevant and community focused. According to Kearsley and Shneiderman (1999), the fundamental idea underlying engagement theory is that students must be meaningfully engaged in learning activities through interaction with others and worthwhile tasks. All student activities involve active cognitive processes such as creating, problem-solving, reasoning, decision-making, and evaluation. In addition, students are intrinsically motivated to learn due to the meaningful nature of the learning environment and activities.

Engagement theory is based upon the idea of creating successful collaborative teams that work on ambitious projects that are meaningful to someone outside the classroom. According to Kearsley and Shneiderman (1999) active learning has three components, summarized by Relate-Create-Donate, imply that learning activities:

- i. occur in a group context (i.e., collaborative teams)
- ii. are project-based
- iii. have an outside (authentic) focus

The first principle (the "Relate" component) emphasises team efforts that involve communication, planning, management and social skills. The modern workplace demands proficiency in these skills, yet historically students have been taught to work and learn on their own. When students work in teams, they often have the opportunity to work with others from quite different backgrounds and this facilitates an understanding of diversity and multiple perspectives.

The second principle (the "Create" component) makes learning a creative, purposeful activity. Students have to define the project (problem domain) and focus their efforts on application of ideas to a specific context. Conducting their own projects is much more interesting to students than answering sterile textbook problems. And because they get to define the nature of the project they have a sense of control over their learning which is absent in traditional classroom instruction.

The third principle (the "Donate" component) stresses the value of making a useful contribution while learning. Ideally each project has an outside "customer" that the project is being conducted for. The authentic learning context of the project increases student motivation and satisfaction. This principle is consistent with the emphasis on school-to-work programs in many schools systems and colleges, as well as the "service" philosophy of contemporary corporate training efforts.

Engagement theory places a great deal of emphasis on providing an authentic (i.e., meaningful) setting for learning. In addition, it underlines the significances of ICT, such as email and web conference, for means of collaboration and sharing of results. In the application of collaborative methods both students and teachers may need skills such as project management, scheduling, time management, leadership and consensus-building (Kearsley & Shneiderman, 1999).

2.17 LEARNING ORGANISATION AND ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING THEORIES

Learning Organisation and Organisational Learning Theories conceive organisations' environment in constant change that create competitive pressures for existence. In the face of such competitive pressure excelling employees in knowledge, skills and attitude perceived critical. Learning organisation came to the organisation arena in the early 1990s in response to hierarchical organisations, with top-down decision-making and huge bureaucracies coupled with lack of training of workers for addressing customer needs. Owing to this, smart managers realised that members of their company were always learning, and successful enterprises were learning organisations. There was firm belief that people should learn from problems and from the act of solving problems (Horan, 2006).

Ang and Joseph (1996) state that organisations increasingly face pressures to rejuvenate, change and learn to assure themselves of short term high performance, and long-term survival. Rijal (2010) notes that the competitive pressures of the present environment necessitate the need to focus on risk-taking and creativity, rather than traditional management styles which insist on compliance and enforcement of rules. In such a scenario, developing new competencies and capabilities has gained importance and this places learning at the centre of organisations. This has led to the development of new organisational forms known as “Learning Organisation” which tap the learning of individuals to improve organisational performance and enhance organizational learning. In learning organisations employees freely express ideas and challenge themselves to contribute to an improved work environment by participating in a paradigm shift from the traditional authoritarian workplace philosophy to one where the hierarchy is broken down and human potential is heralded Rheem (in Mason, 2015). Marquardt (in Sapna Rijal, 2010:119) states that the capacity for change and improvement is linked with learning and to obtain and sustain competitive advantage, organisations must enhance their learning capability and must be able to learn better and faster from their successes and failures, from within and from outside. Garvin (in Mason, 2015) confirms that, "continuous improvement requires a commitment to learning."

Bass and Avolio (in Rijal, 2010) also highlighted the importance of adaptive and flexible organisational culture and distinguish between transformational and transactional organisational culture. Transformational culture refers to those organizational cultures supportive of innovation, transformation and change and transactional cultures are those that maintain the status quo, and are based on pre-established rules and structures, and inspire limited levels of commitment and motivation.

In spite of its importance Fiol and Lyles (in Horan, 2006) reveal that the organisation culture, the strategy, organisation structure and the environment in which the organisation operates influence the development of learning organisation. The more the culture supports learning, the more often the problem is solved the first time rather than solved repeatedly. Therefore, the institutional culture plays an important role in a manager's ability to create a learning organisation.

2.17.1 Roles of Leadership in Learning Organisation

The role of leaders in learning organisations in proliferating followers' competency is very critical. In order to effect this role leaders need to have develop leadership that is more adaptive and flexible. In connection to this Senge (in Rijal, 2010:119) has identified three leadership roles that are important for building a learning organisation: "Leaders as designers", "leaders as teachers", and the "leaders as stewards". Similarly, Marquardt (1996) identified six leadership roles in a learning organisation. His description of the role of leadership incorporates "instructor", "coach" and "mentor" as the most important aspect of leadership in learning organisation. In the role of "knowledge managers", "co-learners and model for learning", leaders are learners themselves. As "architect and designers" and "coordinator" they are responsible for creating a learning environment motivating followers to perform at their best. According to Johnson (2002) visioning, empowerment and leader's role in learning are crucial skills for leaders of learning organisation.

Leadership takes on a different role in a learning organisation. To achieve the vision of learning organisation leadership capabilities must be developed. Leaders in learning organisation need to communicate a clear and compelling vision of the future organisation to obtain commitment from the organisational members, encourage followers to respond to environmental uncertainty through creativity and innovativeness, change their mental models and encourage them to seek learning oriented behaviours and embrace continuous learning. These roles are suitable to a transformational leader as they are champions of technological innovation (Howell & Higgins, 1990). Transformational leaders are change agents, who take the responsibility for revitalising an organisation. They define the need for change, create new visions, mobilise commitment to those visions and ultimately transform an organisation (Rijal, 2010).

2.17.2 Prerequisites for Learning Organisation

According to Senge (in Mason, 2015) organisations should realise the following attributes in application of learning organisation:

- i. *Systems Thinking* - the ability to see the bigger picture, and to distinguish patterns instead of conceptualising change as isolated events. Meaning it avoids blaming our problems on something external to a realisation that how we operate, our actions can create problems.
- ii. *Personal Mastery* - begins "by becoming committed to lifelong learning," and is the spiritual cornerstone for being more realistic, focusing on becoming the best person possible, and striving for a sense of commitment and excitement in our careers to facilitate the realisation of potential.
- iii. *Mental Models* - must be managed because they do prevent new powerful insights and organisational practices from becoming implemented. The process begins with self-reflection; unearthing deeply held belief structures and generalisations, and understanding how they dramatically influence the way we operate in our own lives. Until there is realisation and a focus on openness, real change can never take place.
- iv. *Building Shared Visions* - visions cannot be dictated because they always begin with the personal visions of individual employees, who may not agree with the leader's vision. What is needed is a genuine vision that elicits commitment in good times and bad, and has the power to bind an organisation together. Building shared vision fosters a commitment to the long term.
- v. *Team Learning* - is important because modern organisations operate on the basis of teamwork, which means that organisations cannot learn if team members do not come together and learn. It is a process of developing the ability to create desired results; to have a goal in mind and work together to attain it.
- vi. *Leadership* - the very first thing needed to create a learning organisation is effective leadership, which is not based on a traditional hierarchy, but rather, is a mix of different people from all levels of the system, who lead in different ways (Senge in Mason, 2015). Leadership takes on a different role in a learning organisation and their leadership capabilities must be developed. Leaders in learning organisation need to communicate a clear and compelling vision of the future organisation to obtain commitment from the organisational members, encourage followers to respond to environmental uncertainty through creativity and innovativeness, change

their mental models and encourage them to seek learning oriented behaviours and embrace continuous learning (Rijal, 2010:121).

- vii. *Culture* - Organisation's culture is another integral dimension to effective change initiatives and strategies. Adaptability and flexibility of organisations to accommodating new approaches and strategies is firmly dependent on organisation culture, Bluedorn and Lundgren (in Rijal, 2010:120).

The culture is the glue that holds an organisation together. A learning organisation's culture is based on openness and trust, where employees are supported and rewarded for learning and innovating, and one that promotes experimentation, risk taking, and values the well-being of all employees (Gephart, 1996, Mason, 2015). Fiol and Lyles (in Rijal, 2010:119) suggest that the organisation culture, the strategy, organisation structure and the environment in which the organisation operates influence the development of learning organisation. Barrett (1995) and Hershey et al. (in Rijal, 2010:119) suggest that a learning culture characterised by continuous learning from experience, experimentation, questioning and dialogue, is the only way to sustain a competitive advantage over the long term in an increasingly complex and turbulent environment.

In conceptualising learning organisation a seemingly confusing term is organisational learning. Although these terms have learning in common, they are different. Organisational learning is a process of inquiry (i.e., often in response to errors or anomalies) through which members of an organisation develop shared values and knowledge based on past experiences of themselves and of others. Organisational learning emphasis on process: a sequence of activities in which an organisation undertakes to learn. Organisational learning is the activity and the process by which organisations eventually reach the ideal of a learning organisation. In contrast, "learning organisation" emphasises unique structural characteristics of an organisation that has the ability to learn. In learning organisation, the focus is less on actions that result in learning, but on attributes or structural dimensions that characterised the organisation as learning (Ang & Joseph, 1996:3). Thus, learning organisation is a firm that

purposefully constructs structures and strategies, to enhance and maximise the learning in an organisation.

Organisational learning enables organisations to understand its performance level and challenges through single-loop and double-loop learning. In single-loop learning, individuals, groups, or organisations modify their actions according to the difference between expected and obtained outcomes. In double-loop learning, the entities (individuals, groups or organisation) question the values, assumptions and policies that led to the actions in the first place; if they are able to view and modify those, then second-order or double-loop learning has taken place. Double loop learning is the learning about single-loop learning (Argyris & Schön, 1996). Horan (2006) differentiates the two kinds of organisational learning: The coping, or adaptive, style (single-loop learning) and the generative style (double-loop learning). Coping, or adaptive, learning is the style used in many organisations because it is easy, produces immediate results and rewards the problem-solver. However, it fosters the habit of fixing the same problem again and again seeking different solutions for the same problem. Instead of looking for root causes, the adaptive manager exercises authority, blames the participants and saves the day. On the other hand, a manager using a generative learning style finds a way to generate a long-term solution to the problem. He fixes it once and, at the same time, improves the system or process of work so the problem does not persist. The solution becomes a vehicle for learning and for fixing the system, not just saving the day (Rijal, 2010).

To make the transition to a learning organisation, organisations require a culture that supports and facilitates this transformation. According to Schien (1996) organisations should promote three cultures: the operator culture, the engineering culture and the executive culture. If an organisation attempts to reinvent itself and learn in a generative way then there has to be proper alignment among these three cultures otherwise the learning initiatives will be short lived. Leaders in learning organisation need to communicate a clear and compelling vision of the future organisation to obtain commitment from the organisational members, encourage followers to respond to environmental uncertainty through creativity and innovativeness, change their mental

models and encourage them to seek learning oriented behaviours and embrace continuous learning. Dialogue in organisations can promote mutual understanding among the three cultures and promote the value of trust, openness and communication to enhance learning (Rijal, 2010). Paton and McCalman (2000) also consider open dialogue, experimentation and risk-taking as prerequisites to a learning culture.

2.18 SYNTHESIS

Aforementioned learning and managerial theories have meaningful contribution for improvement of students' learning. For constructivists such as Bruner and Piaget, and experientialists such as Dewey and David Kolb learning should be based on experiences and interaction with environments that lead students come out with meaning or understanding. Social Constructivists acknowledge that experience is the cornerstone of meaning formation through the collaboration of community of learners. Vygotsky's social constructivism states that meaning or learning takes places in social phenomenon, hence collaborative learning than competitive situation is desirable. Social constructivism underlines that learning is context based and affected by media of interaction including language and technology. All agree that learning should be active and prior knowledge is founding base for learning new knowledge. Implication of these theories of learning to the importance of SL as a pedagogy is straight forward. As SL pedagogy integrates learning with service given to the community it relies on experiences. Service experiences are basis for reflection that in turn leads to meaning formation or understanding. Design of SL curriculum needs to take into consideration sequential arrangement of experiences and through aligning with appropriate reflection activities. Dewey, Vygotsky and Engagement Theory underscore that learning should not be separated from real life, thus, students should learn in the community while they are giving services. In addition, SL has advantage of creating contextual learning at the spot of service given to the community which enables students civic learning- understanding the problems of the community and their role in contribution to resolving prevailing problems - communication and leadership skills, makes learning relevant and promotes quality of education, promotes understanding of racial and cultural diversity in the community and tolerance, and facilitates technology transfer, to cite some.

Although SL has many benefits it is highly demanding. The design, implementation and evaluation of SL experiences need cooperative efforts of all stakeholders – students, teachers, community and administrative staff of universities. In this regard, System, Learning Organisation and Engagement Theories have vital contributions in strengthening the engagement of universities in community issues and making learning relevant. System and Learning Organisation theories state the significance of synergetic effects of every subsystem of organisations in achieving organisation goals. Subsystems have their own goals that lead to cumulative goals of the organisation. Presence of appropriate organisational structure enables interaction and coordination of components of a system. Sub-system should interact and exchange information among themselves and the surrounding community so that coordinated efforts can be made in fulfilling organisations' mission. Importance of information in holding systems together and its role in determining how they operate and interact is given due regards by System, Learning Organisation and Engagement Theories. In this regard, ICT, visions, missions, policies, rules, plans, feedbacks, conferences, and trainings are essential in maintaining systems' cohesion. Engagement and learning organisation theories signify that learning should be collaborative and context based. Students should involve in meaningful activities that ensure students' learning and contribution to the community. Learning should project based that promote students' creativity and sense of control over their learning. Such project based learning entails students to develop planning, communication, social, leadership and problem solving skills.

Implications of Learning Organisation and Organisational Learning Theories for maximising service delivery of universities are instrumental. As these theories suggest all employees in universities should excel their competencies and capabilities in accordance with the need of the position they held and existing environmental needs. Employees in the universities should share overall vision that they strive towards that vision. They should understand that their coordinated work can be negatively affected by their beliefs, assumptions and commitment. For continuous learning to occur on the universities there should be conducive organisational culture and structures that promote free flow of information and ideas among individuals and units. Talents of

individuals should be appreciated and allowed to contribute for improving service delivery. Periodic group performance evaluation, trainings, experience sharing, benchmarking and team work should serve as organisational learning mechanisms.

I believe that students should be taught through active learning methods that engage them in community settings including SL. Students should not be made passive recipient of information constructed by others. Such traditional learning method make education boring, lack of relevancy, inappropriate for students' creativity, and social and problem solving skills, among others. Hence, students should be allowed to learn in active learning methods that enhance their capacity of constructing meanings out of experiences they engage in. Students should be encouraged to engage in creativity, team work, self-reliance and control over their learning that in turn enhance motivation and self-efficacy of students. SL method enables universities to avail graduates having attributes desirable by contemporary organisations. In addition, services given to the community through SL can be the mechanisms by which students and university staff payoff for the community for the opportunity and resources committed to students' learning. Therefore, in order to acquire benefits that can be got from SL, one needs to have well organised preparation for this teaching method application. I believe there should be symbiotic relationship between universities and community through partnership that pave ways to coordinated undertaking of SL activities. All participating partners should have clear roles and purposes to pursue through SL, and they should be committed to these purposes. Correspondingly appropriate structures should be put in place in community agencies and universities to serve these purposes. Time, logistics, funds and other resources should be readily set to serve partners' objectives.

SL methodology demands teachers' commitment in understanding the management of SL activities. SL method needs thoughtful planning, project design, setting reflection activities, site selection for placement and partnership building, orienting students, securing logistics, supervision and evaluation. These multivariate activities are beyond the scope of SL course teachers, university management, administrative and senior staff should provide strong support in managing SL activities. In addition, proper balance of teacher transmission and experiences should be maintained.

2.19 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presents the conceptual and theoretical frameworks of this study. The conceptual framework part detailed the what of CS and its dimensions. SL is one of the dimensions of CS that integrates service and students' practical learning. Community can be considered as a network of people who either reside in the same or different geographical area but are linked together by a shared set of interests or experiences. In view of this, CS means the generation, use, application, and exploitation of knowledge and other university capabilities outside academic environments.

Universities employ varieties of CS models to accomplish their teaching, research and CS missions. Community outreach, volunteerism, community based research, scholarship, internship, SL and technology transfer are some of the approaches of serving communities. Since most of the above mentioned models place communities as passive service recipient, there is a tendency to incline to models that involve community in identification of their own needs, contribute their experiences and efforts in resolving problems, and evaluating efforts, procedures and results of service activities.

The level of CS given and purpose of involvement varies according to the type of CS model. Of these service models, SL is ideal for collaborative University-community engagement, as it permit reciprocal generation of knowledge and addressing community needs. SL gives equal emphasis for service to the community and students' learning. Whereas, other CS models give more emphasis either to the services or students' learning and the type of services are determined by service providers unilaterally. In SL model, service is part of the curriculum and serves as text to students' learning. It is a credit bearing activity that is designed in collaboration with community partners, and service is accompanied by structured reflective activities that entail students apply theoretical understandings to practices. Reciprocity and reflection are central to SL.

Projects are means for interconnecting universities with community and provide students experiential opportunities to learn in real world contexts. SL gives benefit for all participating partners- students, community, faculty and universities. SL has different models that teachers may consider in designing community based courses. The relevance, the standards and sustainability of SL is guided by various principles and criteria. SL activities follow certain phases: preparation, action, reflection and evaluation. Efficient and well-coordinated SL activities of universities demand integration of SL concepts and infrastructure across the university. Institutionalisation of SL is essential for its sustainability. Partnership building is critical part of preparation phase of SL. Partnership management is guided by principles based on mutual trust, respect and agreed up on objectives among partners. Leadership quality has significant effect on building and sustaining partnership. Preparation of students through orientation including, pre-service training to SL students and coordination of logistics and other learning materials have vital contributions for successful SL implementation.

Application of SL pedagogy is challenged by several factors such as academicians lack of conceptual clarity about SL among academicians, students' incompatibility with timelines budget scarcity, shortage of transportation, poor partnership management skill and lack of expertise from teachers in using SL as a pedagogy and low level of institutionalisation of SL as a pedagogy. How best students learn has been the concern of scholars for over 2000 years. Identification and utilisation of appropriate pedagogies that empower students to develop critical thinking, problem solving and communication skills, civic responsibilities and environmental consciousness is critical trade-off among theorists.

The beliefs we held about children's learning are deeply grounded in our own convictions on what it means to be knowledgeable, intelligent, experienced, and what it takes to become so. These convictions drive our attitudes and practices as educators, parents, teachers, and researchers. The curriculum models and curriculum integration framework adopted determine the objectives of learning, approach of teaching and assessment methods. Basically there are two curricular models: product and process. The assumption underpinning product model is that there is an agreed body of

knowledge that students need to learn. Thus, learning objectives are set first and teachers present the content so that students expected to receive. Whereas process model gives priority to learners' experiences, it considers curriculum to be designed in an ongoing process, dependent on emerging information and practice, shaped by the beliefs, experiences, theories and philosophies held by those planning the learning environment. Process model focuses on how things happen in the learning and is more open-ended. Curriculum focusing on the process model emphasises how students are learning, what their thinking is and how it will impact future learning. The way how curriculum integrated has also impact on the teaching methods and approaches.

Regarding the nature of knowledge and how we come to know, there are two diametrically contradictory theories: Objectivists (Positivists) and Constructivists. For Objectivists knowledge exists outside of individuals and can be transferred from teachers to students. Students learn what they hear and what they read. For Constructivist, on the other hand, learners construct their own knowledge by looking for meaning and order; they interpret what they hear, read, and see based on their previous learning and habits. Constructivists believe that learning is affected by the context as well as by students' beliefs and attitudes. This theory shifts the locus of responsibility for learning from the teacher to the learner. The main activity in a constructivist classroom is solving problems such as inquiry methods to ask questions, investigate a topic, and use a variety of resources to find solutions and answers.

Bruner's constructivist view states that learning is a social process, whereby students construct new concepts based on current knowledge. For him, learner should be encouraged to be independence to discover new principles of their own. Moreover, curriculum should be organised in a spiral manner so that students can build upon what they have already learned. Good methods for structuring knowledge should result in simplifying, generating new propositions, and increasing the manipulation of information.

Piaget's theory of constructivism states that the basis of learning is discovery: to understand is to discover, or reconstruct by rediscovery. According Piaget teaching is

always indirect that is students transform inputs through interpretation light of their own knowledge and experience. This implies that knowledge is not information to be delivered at one end, and encoded, memorised, retrieved, and applied at the other end. Social constructivism is a variety of cognitive constructivism that emphasises the collaborative nature of learning. Social constructivism was developed by post-revolutionary Soviet psychologist Lev Vygotsky. He emphasised social context nature of learning. Vygotsky accepted Piaget's claim that learners respond not to external stimuli but to their interpretation of those stimuli. For social constructivists knowledge is not simply constructed, it is co-constructed. Vygotsky distinguished between two developmental levels: The level of actual development is the level of development that the learner has already reached, and the level of potential development (the "zone of proximal development") is the level at which learning takes place.

Behavioural motivation is essentially extrinsic - a reaction to positive and negative reinforcements. Cognitive (constructivist) motivation is essentially intrinsic - based on the learner's internal drive. Social constructivists see motivation as both extrinsic and intrinsic.

Dewey states that, central to students' learning is experiences in which students engage. Dewey stresses that education is a social process that everyone should participate in. Schools should be involved in their local community so that students learn how to participate in the community.

Kolb believes that learning is multi-dimensional process and learning essentially relies on experiences. Kolb's experiential education has four spiral phases: a) concrete experience, b) reflection, c) abstract conceptualisation and d) active experimentation. System thinking as a management tool enables managers to perceive organisations as organic whole. Systems can change, adapt, respond to events, seek goals, mend injuries, and attend to their own survival in lifelike ways. System theory acknowledges that information holds systems together and plays a great role in determining how they operate. In this regard, ICT, visions, missions, policies, rules, plans, feedbacks, conferences, and trainings are essential in maintaining systems' cohesion. In order a

system to perform its function it has to undergo resilience (self-adjustment), self-organising (ability to structure themselves) and hierarchy.

Engagement Theory states that learning should be collaborative than competitive, creative, relevant and community focused. Students must be meaningfully engaged in learning activities through interaction with others and worthwhile tasks. All student activities involve active cognitive processes such as creating, problem-solving, reasoning, decision-making, and evaluation. Learning activities should occur in a group context, project-based and an outside (authentic) focus. Engagement theory underlines the significances of ICT, such as email and web conference, for means of collaboration and sharing of results. Application of collaborative methods demands both students and teachers skills on project management, scheduling, time management, leadership, and consensus-building.

Learning Organisation and Organisational Learning Theories conceive organisations' environment is in constant change and creates competitive pressures for development and existence. These theories suggest organisations to excel employees' competency and capacity through continuous learning from past experiences within the organisation and without for combating competitions and satisfying customers. Risk-taking and creativity should be encouraged rather than insist on compliance and enforcement of rules. Need for continuous improvement in competencies and capabilities urged emergence of new organisational forms known as "Learning Organisation" which tap the learning of individuals to improve organisational performance and enhance organisational learning.

The term learning organisation refers a place where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning to see the whole (reality) together.

Learning organisation is a firm that purposefully constructs structures and strategies, to enhance and maximise the learning in an organisation. Organisational learning suggests a sequence of activities in which an organisation undertakes to learn. For

learning organisation the focus is less on actions that result in learning, but on attributes or structural dimensions that characterised the organisation as learning such as culture, leadership, structure, strategies and team work.

Organisational learning as a process of inquiry (often in response to errors or anomalies) through which members of an organisation develop shared values and knowledge based on past experiences of themselves and of others. Organisational learning enables organisations to understand its performance level and challenges through single-loop and double-loop learning. In single-loop learning, individuals, groups, or organisations modify their actions according to the difference between expected and obtained outcomes. In double-loop learning organisations question the values, assumptions and policies that led to the actions in the first place.

Institutionalising learning organisation and organisational learning demands occurrences of five diminutions: systems thinking mentality (ability to see the big picture), personal mastery (becoming committed to lifelong learning), mental models (assumptions, values, and generalisations), shared visions, and team learning. Other important factors include leadership, culture, the strategy, organisation structure and the environment.

CHAPTER THREE

SERVICE LEARNING IN THE UNIVERSITIES OF DEVELOPED AND DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes and analyses experiences of United States (US), South African and Ethiopian universities in applying SL. It specifically examines the missions and purposes, the institutionalising mechanisms, the challenges and impacts of SL application. Analysis of SL experiences of universities in the mentioned countries might shed light on how best to organise and manage SL in Ethiopian universities.

3.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF SERVICE LEARNING IN UNITED STATES UNIVERSITIES

In US, the tradition of integrating the three university functions: teaching, research and services, begun some years ago. The service function of universities formally commenced with the decree of Morrill Act of 1862 which established agricultural and engineering extension services at state universities. This act empowered state universities in terms of finances and other facilities for providing services to the community. Under this act, the federal government gave land to the states. The states were allowed to sell the land and use the money to buy stocks that would generate perpetual income to support the universities. Using these financial resources, they used to facilitate the dissemination of results of researches to serve agricultural and engineering related activities through extension agents. Through time, the activity of service was changed and universities took a more active role in providing service to society (Umpleby, 2011). These institutions and other public universities were established to generate knowledge through research and scholarship, extend knowledge through undergraduate, graduate and post-doctoral education, and apply that knowledge to meet the needs of society through outreach and engagement. For over 150 years, this core academic outreach and engagement function has been carried out locally, regionally, nationally and internationally through multiple diverse and

creative programmes. These programmes can be characterised as social-based, problem-centered, trans-disciplinary, demand-driven, often entrepreneurial, and network-embedded (Umpleby, 2011).

Emergence of SL is associated with several key historical drives of higher education in the US, which include the nation building mission of the land grant. In this case, the impact of the philosophers such as Dewey, Franklin and Bacon whose ideas were strongly influential in a higher education agenda that focused on the improvement of the human condition played a great role (Harkavay, 2005). Education as a private good and/or benefit to the individual is another drive for aspirations to attend the most prestigious Higher Education Institutions in the US. These derive further caused revitalisation in SL in the 1960s, 1980s, and even today. The civil rights movement of the 1960s, and the formation of the Peace Corps in 1961, and Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA) in 1965 brought a new passionate energy to activate education by engaging young people with the community and giving them real opportunities to make a difference in the world. It was during this period that the early pioneers of the SL movement began to emerge and attempted to combine 'service' to 'learning' in a direct and powerful way, National Service-Learning Clearinghouse (NSLC) (2008). The issue of SL had revived in the 1980-90s. The 1980s were perceived as a decade of greed and teachers and administrators in the United States searched for ways of encouraging their students towards the public. Boyle and Silver (2005:233) explain that “the 1980s were a period of transition during which ‘the war on poverty’ shifted from the hands of government into the hands of academic institutions and organisations”. One of the developments stemming from this shift was the establishment of university-community partnership offices (UCPs) during the 1990s (Barnes et al., 2009:16).

From the early to mid-1980s, interest in campus service and SL saw a resurgence of interest, with a national initiative to promote service among undergraduate students. National service efforts such as the Campus Outreach Opportunity League (1984), which helped to mobilise service programmes in higher education; the National Association of Service and Conservation Corps (1985), which helped replicate youth corps in states and cities; National Youth Leadership Council (1982), which helped to

prepare future leaders; and Youth Service America (1985), through which many young people were given a chance to serve the community worldwide, were launched across the country. In 1985 the Education Commission of the States began Campus Compact (NSLC, 2008).

The period from 1989 to 1990 saw the creation of the Office of National Service and the Points of Light Foundation in order to foster volunteering at a country level. This led to the National and Community Service Act of 1990, which was passed by Congress and signed by President George H.W. Bush. The legislation authorised grants for schools to support SL and demonstration grants for national service programmes to youth corps, nonprofits, as well as colleges and universities. It also created the organisation named Serve America, which aimed to “distribute grants in support of SL in order to simultaneously enrich the education of young people, demonstrate the value of youth as assets to their communities, and stimulate SL as a strategy to meet unmet community needs” (NSLC, 2008).

Practice of SL is most entrenched in its country of origin, the United States. US is the host of many internationally focused SL organisations such as the International Partnership for Service Learning which is based in New York. It is concerned with organising and compiling SL experiences of more than 33 countries. In 1993, President Clinton approved a legislation that repositioned Serve America, as well as the AmeriCorps and Senior Corps programmes, under one roof with the creation of Learn and Serve America (NSLC, 2008).

Even though SL in US has passed through several developmental stages, today, it seems a common phenomenon both in middle level schools and Universities. Students from 11-18 years old do worthwhile activities to the community and environmental protection, and they are required to write essays about services they delivered. It enables students to contribute services to community needs and learn through reflection on their experiences (Umpleby, 2011). This early experiences of students help them to be active participants in and critical thinkers towards community issues. Though there were encouraging efforts made historically, academic outreach and engagement has

been the least understood and often the most undervalued or appreciated of the three major academic functions (Umpleby, 2011).

Currently, SL as a means of teaching method seems familiar in US universities. Surveying its member institutions, Campus Compact gathered information on trends in community involvement and SL. In 1999 and 2000 academic year, among the 349 campuses that responded to the survey:

- 712,000 students participated in some form of CS.
- 6,272 SL courses were taught.
- 12.2% of the teachers were offering SL courses (University of Wisconsin-Madison, 2002:18).

3.2.1 Purposes of Implementing Service Learning in United States Universities

In the US, SL has grown rapidly for a variety of purposes: as a means of engaging students with communities, promoting civic and social responsibility and enhancing student learning of academic content. It is also with the firm recognition of the results of SL methodology and outcomes yielding positive outcomes related to retention, learning and development of pro-social behaviours (Langworthy, 2007).

3.2.2 Service Learning Models in United States Universities

According to Heffernan (2001), Universities in US apply different SL models to integrate services with students' learning. A traditional SL curriculum usually includes at least one of three models- embedded SL course projects, optional fourth-credit SL projects, and SL internships. These models are not unique to any one university and are often used alongside each other. To assist teachers in incorporating SL project into a course, Campus Compact has compiled a useful course construction guide that includes the following three models as used by colleges and universities from around the country:

- i. *Embedded Course Projects*: Of the three, the embedded SL course model is probably the most familiar. This model incorporates an SL project within the course curriculum as a requirement. In this model, an instructor assigns students to a service project that requires not only the completion of the service at a specified site for a predetermined

number of hours, but also an academic work product that results from the service . This assignment includes critical reflection along with other written and oral deliverables.

- ii. *Fourth-Credit Project*: This model allows a student to take a three credit hour course while undertaking a service project assignment is optional. Commonly, three or four students in a course will opt for this model. The project attempts to enhance at least one of the course's learning objectives as identified on the course syllabus, and it requires the completion of the service project assignment during the semester of a set number of hours of service and relevant academic deliverables. Students who successfully complete the optional assignment obtain four credits for the course instead of three.
- iii. *Service-learning Internships*: It is a semester-long, stand-alone three-credit opportunity, which includes a field-based service component of approximately fourteen hours per week and a significant academic work product. Students who engage in the internship are usually upperclassmen. In some cases a student may be required to prepare a project proposal, obtain the approval of the SL centre, work in consultation with a faculty member in the relevant discipline, and successfully complete the project (Salimbene, 2013:66).

University of Wisconsin-Madison uses five models of SL to engage students in the community. Students may be assigned in either of the following models:

i) Individual Placement (Optional or Required)

Optional: Students choose service experience as a partial fulfilment of course credits. Students who do not select the SL option are expected to take an alternative course learning activity.

Required: Similar to the optional placement model, this model expects service learning is a must for all students. In this case, students are expected to complete between 15 and 25 hours of service work throughout the semester.

ii) Group Project/Consulting

The Group Project Model engages a small class group or an entire class in a community project. Such types of models are suitable for advanced level courses where service-learners apply technical expertise to community needs or problems. In this type of SL model there may be no time requirement. Rather, the product is the major outcome. A small portion of time is spent on site; the remaining time is spent working as a group toward the product.

iii) Independent/Directed Study: An individual student, in conjunction with a faculty advisor, carries out this model. The student selects a community issue or need and conducts a project in which she/he attempts to find solutions to this problem. This is not an established course, but rather an individual project, which the students and faculty plan and execute. For instance, Zoology students receive credit for working in a laboratory or doing SL with an ecological organisation. The students work with a professor as well as a project supervisor. In this course, the rule is that each credit is equal to three hours per week spent on the project (Adapted from University of Wisconsin-Madison (2002).

iv) Service Learning Internships: As integration mechanisms Washington State University applies SL Internships to make a difference in the world while gaining practical work experience. Purpose of SL internship is to enhance self-awareness, community knowledge, and civic leadership skills while complimenting academic and/or career goals. Financial compensation may be available. Academic credit can be arranged either assigning two to sixteen credits, graded or one credit, Pass/Fail (Washington State University, 2013).

During SL assignment University of Washington uses students' SL agreement to clarify the terms of the field experiences and obligation of all partners. This agreement incorporates four issues:

- i) Service objectives and learning objectives - the knowledge or skills expected and the means of evaluation, the number of credits earned, and expectations of students such as attendance, punctuality and productivity.
- ii) Learning resources and strategies.

- iii) Evidence of accomplishment.
- iv) Criteria and means of validating evidence.

In addition this agreement clarifies the need of satisfying the interests of all the three partners of SL experiences. In this regard, the agreement stipulates the expectations and responsibilities of each partner (Seifer & Connors, 2007:55).

3.2.3 Service Learning Projects in United States Universities

Graduate and under graduate students in US universities carryout different SLPs in view of addressing community needs and enhance learning in doing. SLP vary in type depending on the discipline in that students study, but the ultimate purpose is to enable students contribute to local, national and international community needs, interrelating practices in the real life context to theory learnt in the classroom.

3.2.4 Institutional Structures and Coordinating Organs of Service Learning at United States Universities

There is no single “right” way to construct and sustain institutional structures for SL. Instead, they develop and evolve over time, shaped by the assets and priorities of the campus and its partner communities or organisations, as well as the interests and initiatives of students and administrators. Decisions about names, reporting lines, program scope, and staffing and leadership structures are very much dependent on the institutional mission, culture, and circumstances. Coordinating organs of SL in US universities have varieties of names and different structures based on the objective realities of universities. The names of offices and positions vary not only in the terms of their content (e.g., CS, SL, civic engagement) but also in their programming responsibilities and reporting lines (Learn and Serve America's National Service-Learning Clearinghouse, 2008).

According to Learn and Serve America's National Service-Learning Clearinghouse (2008) common institutional structures include:

- centers or offices (for SL, civic engagement, public service, community partnerships, or some combination of these and related terms);

- dedicated staff or faculty positions for SL, often but not always housed within a center or office;
- leadership positions for community partners and students;
- institutional or advisory councils of faculty, community partners, administrators, and/or students; and
- high-level administrative positions dedicated to public engagement.

3.2.5 Supporting Organisations to Service Learning in United States

US universities' SL practices are supported by many external organisations. Campus Compact, Carnegie Foundation, Learn and Serve America (LSA), NSLC, American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) and other organisations contribute significant support for SL activities (Seifer & Connors, 2007; NSLC, 2008).

The Campus Compact, which was founded in 1985, has grown to represent 950 college presidents. The focus of the organisation is on advancing higher education's civic mission. Compact seeks to provide overall support for colleges and universities in order that they can engage their students and communities in flourishing partnerships of education and service. With this goal in mind, Campus Compact offers resources, training, research, and advocacy to higher education SL allowing it to thrive (NSLC, 2008).

LSA provides direct and indirect support to K-12 schools, community groups, and higher education institutions to facilitate and support SLPs. LSA is the largest funder of SL programs, supplying grant support for school-community partnerships as well as colleges and universities. It provides training and technical assistance to faculty, teachers, administrators, parents, and schools. It also works on collecting and disseminating research findings, effective practices, curricula, and programme models so that the highest quality of SL is made available for students.

NSLC maintains a website with timely information and relevant resources to support SL programmes, practitioners, and researchers. In addition, NSLC maintains an ever-

growing library collection that is available to Learn and Serve America grantees and sub-grantees.

Generation of financial incomes calls for creative approaches with funding organisations. When requesting for funds, it would be advisable to approach institutions which match their missions with anticipated educational objectives. US experience in this regard is instrumental. Seifer and Connors (2007) note that the Department of Justice has funded domestic violence related SLPs, Housing and Urban Department has funded SLPs that focus on housing related outcomes, and the Hess Foundation has funded SLPs that are seeking “healthy community” outcomes. In addition, LSA and the Federal Work Study (FWS) programme are other sources of funds. All FWS participating institutions are required by law to use 7% of their annual FWS allocations to support CS. For maximising funding bases for SL and other engagements (Seifer & Connors, 2007) list out several mechanisms that initiate funders to denote funds. In this regard universities can involve current or potential funders as project advisors, give tours of the programme centre, ask funders to critique programmes, or facilitate meetings between funders and community partners or university development centres. Serving as grant and journal reviewers is another means. Utilising media can maximise the number of funders and amount of funds.

In the past few years many written materials have become widely available to assist faculty in implementing SL. The AACC has many resources, including SL bibliography, Internet references and current research on community college involvement in SL. Campus Compact National Centre for Community Colleges (the Centre) offers technical assistance and resources to advance SL on community colleges. The Centre provides resources through its Web site and recently published three sourcebooks on SL integration models, campus-community partnerships, and disciplinary pathways to SL. Alumni contribution to universities and philanthropy is growing significantly.

3.3 INSTITUTIONALISATION MECHANISMS FOR SERVICE LEARNING

Sustainability in SL is defined as the ability to maintain or increase programme efforts by building constituencies, creating strong, enduring partnerships, generating and leveraging resources, and identifying and securing funding sources that are available over time. Institutionalisation addresses the extent to which SL is integrated into the culture and goals of a school, CO, or institute of higher education (NSLC, 2013).

Evaluations of SL programmes have explored the factors that are most commonly associated with successful community-campus partnerships. These factors included joint planning, a genuine sense of reciprocity, clear definitions of roles and activities, a comprehensive student orientation and preparation process, and consistent communication with a primary point of contact on each side. The evaluations have also found that in order for higher educational institutions to build institutional capacity around SL, they need to clearly define their mission and goals, generate multi-level support, invest in faculty development, nurture long-term community partnerships, and integrate SL into the administrative structures and policies of the institution as well as the broader curriculum. For SL to really work for community partners, they need to ensure that SL is closely aligned with their organisational goals as well as complementary to their overall mission. Furthermore, community partners should develop internal structures to support their involvement in SL as well as adopt the perspective that the students involved in SL have valuable skills and expertise to contribute (NSLC, 2013).

In the University of California, Davis, each year, since 1990, the Academic Senate presents to a selected teacher the Distinguished Scholarly Public Service Awards to recognise significant contributions to the world, nation, state and local community (Umpleby, 2011).

3.4 SUPPORT STRUCTURES FOR SERVICE LEARNING DELIVERY IN SELECTED UNIVERSITIES IN THE UNITED STATES

Management of SL activities would be better highlighted through examination of different universities' experiences. In this regard, a summary of SL experiences of some US's Universities given by NSLC (2013) is considered vital.

i. Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis (IUPUI)

The Centre for Service and Learning (CSL) is the catalyst for civic engagement initiatives at IUPUI. Its mission is to involve students, faculty, and staff in educationally meaningful service activities that mutually benefit the campus and community. CSL is organised as a coordinating partner of the Office of Professional Development with the Director reporting to the Executive Vice-Chancellor and Dean of Faculties. The following offices have been established to coordinate a variety of campus-community programmes:

- *The Office of SL*: assists faculty to develop, implement, and improve SL classes; it consults with faculty, provides resources for course development, conducts research, and promotes the scholarship of engagement.
- *The Office of CS*: coordinates programmes to promote and recognise the involvement of students, teachers, and staff in the community; it cultivates student leadership, organises campus-wide service events, and works with student organisations and community agencies to promote service opportunities.
- *The Office of Neighbourhood Partnerships*: collaborates with community organisations and other campus units to build long-term partnerships between the university and its surrounding neighbourhoods; it facilitates the Community Outreach Partnership Centre (COPC) Initiative.
- *The Office of Community Work Study*: involves students in the community through FWS employment; through these placements, students have the opportunity to integrate career exploration and educational experiences with meaningful employment (Learn and Serve America's National Service-Learning Clearinghouse, 2008).

Availability of distinct offices for respective duties in this university enables to focus on relevant issues and address felt needs of both the university and community partners.

ii. University of Georgia

The mission of the Office of SL is to promote and support the development of quality academic SL experiences in response to critical community needs through a range of faculty development and instructional programmes, services, and funding opportunities. The Office of SL is jointly supported by the Offices of the Vice President for Instruction and the Vice President for Public Service & Outreach, and the director reports to both Vice Presidents; other staff include an administrative associate and a half-time graduate assistant. The office focuses primarily on faculty development through workshops, a fellows programme, a faculty leadership programme, and funding opportunities (Learn and Serve America's National Service-Learning Clearinghouse, 2008). Dual supervision from the two vice presidents has its own significance for integrating CS with students learning objectives.

iii. Montclair State University

Montclair State University has organised Center for Community-Based Learning where the director of this office is in charge of supervising SL coordinator. The Coordinator locates and sustains community partnerships with key organisational representatives and Montclair State University faculty, identifies and facilitates community-based service projects and internships sites that meet the academic needs of faculty and students, offers orientation and advisement to students selecting SL assignments, obtains input for continuous programme improvement through debriefing sessions and focus groups; develops copy for web site, ensures that programme evaluation data is collected and analysed, supervises graduate assistants, and assists with writing proposals to internal and external constituencies.

iv. Appalachian State University

Appalachian State University organised SL Council comprises staff/faculty, students and community partners in a view to coordinate SL activities of the university. In this regard, the council is organised for serving the following purposes:

- increase awareness and augment the use of domestic/international SL pedagogy and community-based research,
- initiate/develop policy and procedure recommendations concerning SL initiatives,
- represent Appalachian State University at conferences on SL, community-based research, and civic engagement,
- assist with assessing the effectiveness of this pedagogy/research, and
- publicise the accomplishments of faculty, students, and community partners who engage in this type of pedagogy/research (NSLC, 2013).

v. Duke University

Duke University has firm belief in a model that links research and SL with intent of enabling students to explore the concepts and skills of their degrees in greater depth; and increase the value of their social contribution. For application of this aim Duke University's Institute for Ethics, in collaboration with other university departments, began the Research Service-Learning (RSL) programme in 1997. In 2002, this programme received funding from the federal government to extend it to the "Scholarships with a Civic Mission" The total funding of the programme has reached over US\$250,000 (NSLC, 2013).

Similarly, University of Wisconsin-Madison has established SL model that integrate students' academic learning with community-based research. Inclusion of research issues with SL, according to the University's view, initiates students to identify community needs and deliver a means that satisfy them. Morgridge Centre has been organised to facilitate SL and CBR activities. The centre has two divisions: the Service-Learning Resource Centre and the Volunteer Clearinghouse. These divisions organise sample SL syllabi, guides, texts, and journals relating to SL and community-based

research, prepare database about volunteer needs and facilitate Volunteer Fair each semester (University of Wisconsin-Madison, 2002:70). The presence of this centre makes the involvement of faculty and students in CS easier. Availability of resources, guiding references and databases of service needing organisation capacitate faculty and students; it also lessens the efforts of establishing partnership and development of SL syllabus.

Students in George Washington University are given guidance that enable them perform SLPs. They receive instructions from the University on how to work on the project effectively and achieve its goals and how to prepare the final report. The guidelines help students to develop an appropriate path for doing the projects so they do not lose time. The guidelines also make the projects more comparable and make evaluation of students' performances easier. At the end of the semester, when students finish the project, they prepare a final report which is presented both to the client and their classmates. The client completes an evaluation form and sends it to the instructor (Umpleby, 2011).

vi. Portland State University (PSU)

This University has been recognised nationally for implementing a campus-wide engagement strategy that includes interdisciplinary SL activities. In senior capstone courses, interdisciplinary teams of students apply what they have learned in their previous courses to community-identified concerns. Each six-credit, community-based learning course is designed by a PSU faculty member to provide students with the opportunity to apply, in a team context, what they have learned in their major and in their other courses to a real challenge emanating from the metropolitan community (Connors & Seifer, 2005).

3.5 CHALLENGES OF IMPLEMENTING SERVICE LEARNING IN UNITED STATES UNIVERSITIES

The application of quality SL model in US universities has faced the following challenges:

- Students usually undertake voluntary work that requires few qualifications which reduces the contribution that could be made to the community.
- Lack of proper reflection on the impact of their participation in the communities (Duke University, 2011).
- Many academics worry that it lacks intellectual rigour and see it as an attempt to give credit for volunteering (Langworthy, 2007:120).
- Problem related to successful partnership building due to unclear boundaries, problems of organisation and management, disparate goals, different priorities, and resistance and suspicion, Denner, Jill, Cooper, Lopez and Dunbar (in Barnes, Altimare, Farrell, Brown, Burnett III, Gamble & Davis, 2009:22).
- Difficulty in matching the academic outcomes to the expectations of the communities (Laniga, Austin & McClure, 2012).
- Variation in students' performances of services and learning objectives, where students do an outstanding service assignment per the site supervisor but perform poorly in terms of demonstrated reflection and learning, vice-versa. This may arise due to lack of written communications to students about expectations and grading criteria.

3.6 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF SERVICE LEARNING IN SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

SL has been serving as pedagogical and philosophical means in South African Universities. Its importance increased after democratic reform initiative of 1994. Community outreach and extension service programmes were probably the major category of higher education–community engagement prior to 1994. These programmes were initiated by innovative and progressive academic staff in response to the social, economic and political needs of communities at the time, Cooper (in Council on Higher Education, 2004:133). In addition, prior to 1994 there was national service programme that served the interest of Apartheid Government which was militaristic in nature and accessible only to white men. After 1994 with the ushering of democratic government, the conception of service has changed to be developmental, with service taking a variety of forms in different sectors, and involving a wide diversity of participants. It has

been aligned with the goals of national reconstruction and development, and citizenship development. The transition from apartheid to democracy has sought to redress the legacy of apartheid and has placed black South Africans at the centre of political, social and economic opportunity. Youth service, community service for health care professionals, CS in secondary education, and SL in higher education are four forms of civic service that provide opportunities for taking action to redress the exclusion, disadvantage and systematic disempowerment that was the hallmark of apartheid. These service programmes are largely voluntary, except some compulsory programmes such as health programmes in which health professionals are required a year free CS to be registered as health practitioners. For addressing this social responsive initiative, the Education White Paper 3 which was declared in 1997, created the policy framework for universities to become more responsive to socioeconomic needs through teaching, learning and scholarship (Department of Education, 1997). With the promulgation of the White Paper of 1997, policy mandates or directives for CE in South African higher education began to appear at Council on Higher Education (CHE), (2004:132). But before the formulation of this policy, many engagement activities structured around research, teaching and outreach were uncoordinated activities as they were the result of individual initiatives rather than strategically planned, systematic endeavours (Jenvey, 2013).

The focus on service in the higher education context deepened in 2001 when the Founding Document of the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) of the Council on Higher Education identified knowledge-based CS and/or SL as one of the three areas for the accreditation and quality assurance of higher education. The HEQC has developed criteria for the auditing of higher education programmes that include SL Community Higher Education Service Partnership (CHESP) (2003), which has served to further institutionalise CS in higher education. Opportunities have been created for universities to shape and guide teaching and research activities in response to the policy framework created by the White Paper on the Transformation for Higher Education (Department of Education, 1997). Although there is high effort to institutionalise CE, scholars believe that there is lack of conceptual clarity among several teachers of South African Universities. In 2010, the CHE found that despite

clear national policies supporting a critical role for CE, it had been neglected (Jenvey, 2013). It is contested that, although SL is included in the new curriculum, there are limited evidence of the existence of structures of reflection, assessment, and evaluation according to the standards that is set out by CHE.

According to Hall (2010) volunteer, work study, community outreach, internships and placements form part of a formal curriculum in South African Universities. These services were seen to fall into three domains: promoting citizenship, improving the lives of underprivileged communities, and infusing the academic curriculum with greater relevance. SL serves as interface of these three domains, optimally as a combination of academic development, civic development and the provision of practical services.

3.6.1 Purposes of Service Learning in South African Universities

Hall (2010:28) notes that “the concept of SL and universities emerged as a strand in the restructuring agenda that was given shape by the 1997 White Paper”. CS is intended to promote and develop social responsibility and awareness among students about the role of higher education in social and economic development through CS programmes (Department of Education, 1997). According to Perold et al. (in Kotecha, 2010:5), “the [policy’s] idea is that CS and civic engagement have a major role to play in transforming the teaching and learning pedagogy and research in universities, so as to produce outcomes that are responsive to the social, political, economic and cultural needs of the country”.

The post 1994 transformation agenda in South Africa, particularly the drive towards nation building and the redress of inequality, provides a strong motivation for developing CS programmes which include a civic component and which combine this with service delivery and academic training”, Perold (in CHE, 2010:29). In order to effect this transformation agenda, service policies are aligned with national social development goals and priorities, and institutionalise the idea of civic service that is integrated into different social sectors. National Youth Policy of 2000 is based on the idea that views youth as assets for development. It seeks to promote human capital development through providing youth with learning experiences and skills. Social capital development

is also considered important in building social networks of trust in South African communities while engaging young participants in a formal process of providing a valued and necessary service to the communities they live in.

3.6.2 Service Learning Projects in South African Universities

According to CHE (2004:137) by 2006, the principles and practice of SL had been incorporated into some 200 credit-bearing courses across 39 different academic disciplines, involving almost 7,000 students ranging from undergraduate first year to Master's level. Each course was designed to apply the theory of its discipline to an identified community development priority. These included child and adolescent development, dental technology, entrepreneurship, environmental education, Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) education, human rights, information technology, job creation, literacy, local government, rural development, school improvement, skills development, small business development, sport and recreation, sustainable construction and the prevention of violence.

Service, along with teaching and research, is currently not a key performance indicator for the selection and promotion of staff in South African Universities. Numerous studies have indicated that CS is regarded as the most inferior of the three performance areas, Burton (in Bender, 2008). One of the major causes for this reason is that community activities are conducted in silo model. In this model the teaching, research and CS are not infused into one another. This kind of CS and engagement is generally confined to community outreach and student/staff volunteerism, which is more of philanthropic. This is the most traditional notion of CE, and it usually does not perceive the potential that CE has as a scholarly activity in terms of its contribution to teaching and learning, and research, HEQC/ JET (in Bender, 2008).

3.7 INSTITUTIONALISATION MECHANISMS FOR SERVICE LEARNING

Many efforts have been taken in order to institutionalise SL and/or CS activities in South African Universities. Such efforts include:

i) National Policy Initiatives

According to CHE (2004:134), national policy initiatives emerged and promoted different CS models. Some of the policy initiatives include the White Paper and the Green Paper which urged engagement of higher education institutions for common good of South Africans. The White Paper laid the foundations for making CS an integral part of higher education in South Africa, calling on institutions to 'demonstrate social responsibility and their commitment to the common good by making available expertise and infrastructure for CS programmes'. In 1998, the National Youth Service developed by the National Youth Commission (NYC) calls for the integration of CS into mainstream academic programmes in HEIs throughout South Africa. In addition, in 1999 Southern African Student Volunteers (SASVO) released a Position Paper calling for mandatory CS in higher education. In early 2000, the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) formed a Task Group and commissioned a Discussion Document on CS. This aimed to stimulate debate and action within a framework of key conceptual and implementation issues. All these initiatives stimulated universities to commence diverse community engagement models and integrate services with students' learning.

ii) Formulation of Institutional Policies and Strategies

Based on the national CE initiatives, several HEIs developed institution-wide policies, guidelines and strategies for CE and SL. Following national CS policy framework of 1997, University of Cape Town and most other universities have developed their own institutional policy on social responsibility and civic engagement (Kotecha, 2010). According to CHE (2004:136-137), major components of these policies include issues such as: a rationale for CE and SL; a definition of the HEI's interpretation of CE and SL; objectives to be achieved through the policy; mechanisms for implementing the policy; staff promotion and rewards pertaining to CE; organisational structures and staffing required for implementation; risk management in terms of student placements; and the allocation of resources towards implementation. A number of institutions have identified CE through SL as a strategic priority and have allocated resources from their central budget towards its implementation. For implementation of institutional policies and strategies, most HEIs have dedicated physical space and financial and human resources. Several institutions have established a central office dedicated to CE and

SL. Structurally, in most cases, the office falls under the auspices of the Academic Deputy Vice-Chancellor.

iii) Accreditation and Quality Assurance

Hall (2010, 34-35) noted that the HEQC has developed 19 auditing criteria for evaluating quality of higher education programmes. Two of these auditing criteria are particularly relevant to community engagement. These engagement related criteria are: Criterion One, which requires whether:

“The institution has a clearly stated mission and purpose with goals and priorities which are responsive to its local, national and international context and which provide for transformational issues. There are effective strategies in place for the realisation and monitoring of these goals and priorities. Human, financial and infrastructural resources are available to give effect to these goals and priorities”.

Criterion 18, is concerned with assessing “quality-related arrangements for community engagement are formalised and integrated with those for teaching and learning, where appropriate, and are adequately resourced and monitored”. These quality related criteria have substantial support for planning, implementing and monitoring of SL activities. They have also SL institutionalising effect in the universities.

iv) Recognition and Reward Systems

According to Kotecha (2010), at University of Cape Town (UCT) institutional awards take the following forms:

- a ‘Distinguished Social Responsiveness Award’ that strongly focuses on reciprocal benefit of the partner and the university,
- student recognition through the provision of certificates to students who actively participate in civic engagement initiatives.

3.7.1 Supporting Organisations to Service Learning in South African Universities

In order to advance SL, Community Higher Education Service Partnerships (CHESP), a nongovernment organisation, was established by a grant gained from the Ford Foundation, Lazarus et al. (in CHE, 2010). From 2005 onwards, CHESP began to develop a joint programme with the HEQC in order to promote SL activities of Higher Education in South Africa (CHE, 2010). CHESP has helped through financial support, by organising conferences and bringing international experts to the country and facilitating capacity-building workshops, Mouton and Wildschut (in CHE, 2010). As a result of supports given by different organisations, conference papers, reports and eventually journal articles started to appear (CHE, 2010). Vital contribution has also been made by Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) to strengthen knowledge based CS by linking concept of quality with such services through its founding document of 2001. Further in 2003 a collaborative effort between the HEQC, a number of HEIs and JET generated comprehensive criteria for the Quality Assurance (QA) of SL at an institutional and programmatic level.

3.7.2 Challenges to Service Learning implementation in South African Universities

According to CHE, although there are policy frameworks and relatively good supports from governmental and non-governmental entities, SL activities suffer from several challenges which include the following:

- A perception that CE and service as merely add-on, nice-to-have, and philanthropic activities,
- Difficulty of partnership building as each partner group has different histories, values, capacities, power and expectations and sees the proposed SL programme through different lenses,
- Ensuring the safety of students at community-based sites (CHE, 2004:139-140),
- Frequent turnover of participants at community-based sites,
- Logistical challenges,
- Inflexible academic timetable,
- Lack of conceptual clarity on CE (Hall, 2010; Jenvey, 2013; Bender, 2008:92),

- CE is too often an unfunded mandate (Bender, 2008:92).

3.8 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF SERVICE LEARNING IN ETHIOPIAN UNIVERSITIES

The pedagogical and philosophical intent of SL is to integrate service with intentional learning of students in context based situation. Thus this pedagogy favoured for its instrumentality of community based learning, maintaining relevance and quality education, and serving as a means of paying back to the community, to mention some of its importance. In view of this, universities in general try to implement diverse CS models including SL, internship, community based teaching and research, etc.

History of CS in Ethiopian universities dates back to 1964 when Haile Sellassie I University (HSIU) (the current Addis Ababa University) initiated CS programme for regular students under the name Ethiopian University Service (EUS). It was initiated to enable students give a year CS for rural community, and it was a mandatory requirement for graduation for regular students (Darge, 1999). However, exemption from the service was given to students of medicine, to students who were sponsored by the military, and to students who had given five or more years of public service before joining the University Kebebew (in Darge, 1999:46). Students in EUS programme were assigned to teach in government schools and to work in a variety of other development activities – including health education, agricultural demonstrations, school construction and establishment of self-help associations (Darge, 1999:43). The total number of participants for the period 1964/65 – 1973/74 was 3726. Out of this, 2724 (or 73.1%) served as teachers in government schools. A considerable proportion of participants (31%) came from the Faculty of Education (as a result of the relative size of the faculties at that time), but there were also a substantial number of participants from the Building and Technology Colleges (13%) and from the Alemaya College of Agriculture (also 13%).

The major objectives of the proposed programme were: dissemination of information and skills to rural communities, identification of the major problems of rural communities, and collection of data from different localities for analysis in the University

(Darge, 1999:44). The service programme was mainly to provide service for social development initiatives, and students' learning out of the service was very subtle. EUS was admired for its originality and contribution for social development not only by local public but also by international community. CS efforts and success of the university were lauded by many international organisations such as International Secretariat for Voluntary Service and Ford Foundation, Quarmby and Quarmby (in Darge, 1999). University of Zambia took this innovative experience to customize to Zambian context, HSIU (in Darge, 1999).

3.8.1 Purposes of Service Learning in Ethiopian Universities

Government of Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (1994:25) stipulates that "The participation of students in technical and higher education programmers, in gaining the necessary field experience before graduation will be facilitated". The policy urges institutions of higher education to create field exposure to students and to facilitate conditions for students' participation in community development. The policy envisions to create nexus between education, training, research and development. In line with this general policy agenda, universities are running SL programme. For instance, Internship Policy and Guidelines of Saint Mary University states that "[t]he purpose of internship programme is to provide a planned transition from theory based classroom setting to the practical work environment which is more professional and personal setting in a students' area of study" (SMU, 2015:1). Thus, CE of students in community setting helps to familiarise them with work environments, to interrelate theoretical learning with practice and to enhance their personal development.

3.8.2 Current Service Learning Practices of Ethiopian Universities

Universities have different derives, approaches and capabilities for applying SL as a pedagogy and/or philosophical means. Several universities attach their students to community agency settings such as hospitals, schools, construction sites, agricultural and environmental protection sites, to site some, through SL internship, community based teaching and research, fieldwork, practicum, field visits, etc, for either service or learning or both intents. The management and intention of these engagement activities

depend on commitment, resource possession and disposition of community to work collaboratively with universities. Examining SL and/or CS experiences of some universities can shade light on its level of development.

Empirical evidences on service learning practices in Ethiopian universities are presented in chapter five.

3.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

CS as formal university function commenced in US with the proclamation of the Morrill Act of 1862. Hence, the practice of SL as part of CS has a long history in Universities in US. This long experience has made SL to be well fledged in many respects. As a result, there is much better understanding of SL among teachers, educational managers, community members and students compared to other developing nations like South Africa and Ethiopia. Learning theories of John Dewey, Benjamin Franklin, David Kolb and others had significant influences on the need for students' active engagement in community issues in US universities. As a result, SL has been aligned to the mission and goal of universities. Better partnership management, inclusion of SL in several courses, availability of guide lines, policies, structures, databases, sample references and capacity building has made it significant. US universities apply innovative SL models called Research Service-Learning (RSL) which integrate theoretical learning with practical problems of the community. Interdisciplinary service model also has got importance in deepening students learning while addressing community needs in a team approach.

SL in South African and Ethiopian universities has been applied for both pedagogical and philosophical purposes. It is to make learning active, problem solving, team based and civic oriented on the one hand and to promote participation of citizens in community issues, extend resources and expertise of universities in order to redress social inequalities and disadvantages on the other hand. In view of this, both the governments of Ethiopia and South Africa have declared universities to engage in community functions. Following these universities of these nations made efforts to align services with learning through varieties of strategies. Missions of universities revised to include

community based teaching and research, institutional policies for services set, relevant structures are organised, different models and SLPs are designed.

In the next chapter, I attempted to provide a discussion of the methodology used to investigate the problem at hand. Additionally, I endeavoured to elaborate on the rationale for sampling coupled with the data collection methods, highlighting the advantages and disadvantages.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the research approach and the methodology applied in the study. It, therefore, covers the step-by-step procedures of how the relevant information was sourced, managed and controlled. To fulfil this purpose, a qualitative research approach was considered because this study aims to determine the extent to which SL is institutionalised and practiced in Ethiopian Universities with a view to addressing students' learning and community needs. Components such as the research approach, data gathering instruments, population and sampling, validity and reliability of instruments and data analysis form part of this chapter. A qualitative research is an interpretive research and as such, matters such as values, ethical issues and permission which are vital to the data collecting process were given attention.

4.2 METHODOLOGICAL AND EPISTEMOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS

In pursuing a research activity, the belief of the researcher towards nature of reality and the method of acquiring knowledge is fundamental. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000:29) explained that “knowledge and definitions of knowledge reflect the interests of the community of scholars who operate in particular paradigms”. Based on their ontological and epistemological stances, majority of researchers are categorised in to positivist, post-positivist, interpretivist and critical paradigms. Each paradigm has its own assumptions regarding nature of reality and the way that can be uncovered. In order to make better understanding through cross analysis, each paradigm was explained one by one.

4.2.1 Positivist Paradigm

The nature of reality is the centre of debate among different philosophical paradigms. Regarding this critical assumption, Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009:171) explained “positivist believes that there is objectivity in the world, and that the researcher is an

objective observer and reporter of data". This implies that there is a reality out there; it is the duty of researchers to uncover it objectively. "Positivist paradigm is concerned about objectivity, measurability, predictability, controllability, patterning, the construction of laws and rules of behaviour, and the ascription of causality" (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000:28). Abiy, Alemayehu, Daniel, Melese and Yilma (2009:18) noted that "positivist believe that the purpose of science is simply to stick to what we can observe and measure". For positivist, reality is a phenomenon that can be quantified through observation and measurement; statistical quantification is the way of understanding phenomenon.

Another area of contention is that the perception of philosophers towards researchers and researched (data provider). In this regard, positivists assume that research participants are subjects to be manipulated, controlled, and randomly assorted into groups through an experiment. However, due to the emergence of interpretivist paradigm, the concern for data providers changed to humane approach that induced change of terminology from subjects, as it was termed by positivist, to research participants (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009). Interpretivists regard research participants as co-researchers in pursuit of truth rather than objects to be manipulated in search of data.

4.2.2 Interpretivist / Constructivist/ Hermeneutics Paradigm

As explained by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000), the purpose of interpretivist paradigm is to understand and interpret the world in terms of its actors. Interpretivist gives primacy for meanings and interpretations; whereas, observed phenomena are important for positivist. Interpretivist assumes that reality is meaning that people give to their lived experiences; thus there is no given reality. Ontologically, this paradigm assumes that there are multiple socially constructed realities. Knowledge is concerned with interpretation, illumination and meaning. All human actions are meaningful and hence have to be interpreted and understood within the context of social practices. In contrast to positivist paradigm, interpretivist believes that pursuit of knowledge is not value free as values are an integral part of social life. Interpretivist paradigm employs phenomenology, ethnographic and symbolic interaction qualitative methodologies. Data

are gathered in naturalistic techniques through interviews, participant observation, pictures, photographs, diaries and documents.

4.2.3 Post-positivists / Postmodernists Paradigm

Regarding the nature of reality, post-positivists believe in single reality but reality can only be known imperfectly within the confines of probability. According to post – positivists, it is impossible for a researcher to be objective. Researchers are subjective, for a researcher has a gender, race, ethnicity, culture, nationality, religion, family, personality, and attitude that filter his/her observation of the data. Post-positivist recognises that all observation is fallible and has error and that all theory is revisable; whereas, the positivist believed that the goal of science is to uncover the truth. According to Abiy, Alemayehu, Daniel, Melese and Yilma (2009) scientists, like any other human being, are inherently biased by their cultural experiences and worldviews. So, it is difficult to believe that individual scientists would perfectly see the reality as it is. It is because perception and observation are fallible, our constructions must be imperfect. As stated by Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009) in positivist paradigm, people are reduced to aggregate data (i.e. frequencies, means and percent) that entails a risk of objectification. According to a positivist assumption, the researcher takes the position of expert and the research participant is constructed as an unknowing other. As a result, the researcher has power and knowledge, whereas the research participant becomes passive provider of data.

4.2.4 Emancipatory/Transformative Paradigm

Ontologically, this paradigm believes in multiple realities. Emancipatory paradigm is shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, race, ethnic, gender and disability values. It is informed by critical theory, postcolonial discourses, feminist theories, race specific theories and Neo-Marxist theories. Emancipatory paradigm criticises positivist and interpretivist paradigms as presenting incomplete accounts of social behaviour by their neglect of the political and ideological contexts. Its purpose is not merely to understand situations and phenomena but to change them. In particular, it seeks to emancipate the

disempowered, to redress inequality and to promote individual freedoms within a democratic society (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000).

4.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology consists of procedures and techniques for conducting a study. It involves the systematic procedures by which the researcher starts from the initial identification of the problem to its final conclusions. Specifically, research methodology involves such general activities as identifying problems, review of the literature, formulating hypotheses, procedure for testing hypotheses, measurement, data collection, analysis of data, interpreting results and drawing conclusions. Thus, research methodology consists of all general and specific activities of research (Singh, 2006).

As elaborated by Hancock and Algozzine (2006) research methodology permits researchers to reach conclusions that are sensible, credible, and interpretable. So, for any research activity there should be organising framework that maps out the entire progress. This organising framework of research activities should determine what research question to be addressed, how to conduct study; whom to study (case, cases or sample), how best to acquire information (data collection techniques), how to analyse or interpret information, how and with whom to share the findings (dissemination), and how to confirm our findings (the verification process).

According to Dawson (2007), research methodology is the philosophy or general principle which guides a research. It is the overall approach of studying a topic. Research methodology takes in to consideration issues such as the constraints, dilemmas and ethical choices in conducting a research. Whereas, research design is concerned with the principles on which researchers base their research procedures and strategy. It consists of ideas underlying data collection and analysis. Methodology is concerned with how the researcher should go about finding out knowledge (Saeidi, 2002). Thus, it seems that research design and methodology have the same meaning (i.e. mapping strategy of research) (Sing, 2006). But they vary with regard to scope as methodology is more inclusive than design, for it deals with every steps of research

from the very inception of problem to data analysis. It is also important to set the distinction between research methodology and method. As stated by Dawson (2007), research methodology is different to research methods in that methods are the tools that are used to gather data, such as questionnaires, interviews, observation and focus group discussion.

4.4 RESEARCH DESIGN: RESEARCH APPROACH AND METHODS

According to Ridenour and Newman (2008) research activities follow scientific methods consisting of systematic and organised processes (as opposed to random or haphazard processes). Properly designed enquiry allows acquisition of knowledge toward truth. Hence, it is essential to clarify the strategy of conducting a research. A research design is a choice of an investigator about the components of his/her project and development of certain components of the design (Singh, 2006). Research design is a mapping strategy which essentially describes a statement of the object of the inquiry and the strategies for collecting the evidences, analysing them and reporting the findings. The selection of research components is done keeping in view of the objectives of the research (Singh, 2006). Kathori (2004:31) explained:

“Research design is the conceptual structure within which research is conducted; it constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. Hence, the design includes an outline of what the researcher will do from writing the hypothesis and its operational implications to the final analysis of data. It is a decision that a researcher makes regarding what, where, when, how much, by what means the research is carried out”.

Research design spells out whether qualitative or quantitative data, experimental or non-experimental data, longitudinal or cross-sectional data to be collected; it also identifies data instruments and ways of analysis. Singh (2006:77) clarifies that, a research design includes the following four components:

- i) research method or research strategy,
- ii) sampling design,

- iii) choice of research tools, and
- iv) choice of statistical techniques.

As elaborated by Ridenour and Newman (2008), a systematic approach to address research problems is necessary regardless of the ideology or epistemology one holds. First, the researcher must begin with the nature of the research question in concert with the research purpose. The purpose of the study is being conducted must be clearly understood so that the research design and the methods will serve the intended needs of the researcher and his/her audiences. Second, identifying the evidence needed to address the question needs to be identified as well as the underlying epistemological assumptions of that needed evidence. That is, the forms of epistemological stance whether a particularistic or holistic should be identified. According to Hancock and Algozzine (2006), decision on research design depend on intent of generalisation of research findings, whether descriptive and inferential research; level of research experimentation; outcomes (i.e., basic and applied research); and whether quantitative or qualitative.

Since a research design is a road map to address a research problem; I organised the study as follows.

4.4.1 Research Approach

I believe in constructivist philosophy in acquiring knowledge. I have firm belief that social reality can best be understood through observing and interpreting social phenomena. Thus, this research employs qualitative approach. However, for the sake of justification of methodical clarity the distinctions between positivist (quantitative) and interpretivism /constructivism (qualitative) approaches are discussed as follows.

Quantitative and qualitative researches are the approaches for positivism and interpretivism paradigms respectively. Positivism and interpretivism are particular epistemological positions. Epistemology is the study of, or theory of, knowledge. It is concerned with the methodology of knowledge (how we go about knowing things) and the validation of knowledge (the value of what we learn).

Positivism insists on neutrality and objectivity. It strictly relies on what we can observe and measure. The positivists' basic beliefs are that the world is external and objective, observer is independent and science is value free (Saeidi, 2002). Breakwell (2004:229-230) states that "quantitative research is concerned with trying to test pre-existing hypotheses on the part of the researcher, finding average results for a group of participants as a whole and attempting to produce a quantitative measure of an objective reality". Flick (2006) clarifies that in quantitative approach "theories and methods are prior to the object of research. Theories are tested and perhaps falsified on the way. If they are enlarged, it is through additional hypotheses, which are again tested empirically and so on".

The qualitative, naturalistic approach can be used when observing and interpreting reality with the aim of developing an explanation of what was experienced; an explanation might be considered a "theory" (Ridenour & Newman, 2008:3). This approach to research generates results either in non-quantitative form or in the form which are not subjected to rigorous quantitative analysis. Generally, the techniques of focus group discussion, interviews, projective techniques and depth interviews are used (Kathori, 2004). Interpretivism holds a position that we each interpret our view of the world based on our perception of it. According to this view, the world is socially constructed and subjective; observer is part of what is observed and science is driven by human interest. Breakwell (2004:230) claims that "understanding the world cannot be possible without interpretative work by the researcher who is trying to make sense of what the participant is saying. This explains the interpretative part in the name of the methodology".

Hancock and Algozzine (2006:7-8) elaborate that qualitative approach is perceived appropriate under the following conditions:

1. When considerable time and resources may be required to adequately represent the area being studied.
2. If little is known about an issue, a qualitative approach might be more useful. Whereas a typical quantitative research project identifies and investigates the impact of only a few variables.

3. When the goal is to understand the situation under investigation primarily from the participants' and not the researcher's.

According to Bryman (in Flick 2006:78) positivist paradigm assumes that:

“Only phenomenal knowledge confirmed by the sense can be warranted as knowledge (phenomenalism); theories are used to generate hypotheses that can be tested and allow explanations of laws to be assessed (deductivism); knowledge can be produced by collecting facts that provide the basis for laws (inductivism); science must and can be conducted in a way that is value free and thus objective; and, finally, a clear distinction between scientific and normative statements is seen”.

Ridenour and Newman (2008:13) claim quantitative research presupposes that:

“Reality is objective, separate and distinct from one who studies it; knowledge is deductively reasoned and generalisable; knowledge of reality is lawful, value free, and context free because reality is stable and knowable. Researchers approach the study of this reality through attempts to control settings and through theory testing, assuming a philosophy of empiricism”.

Flick (2006:97-98) states that:

“Positivism is often associated with realism. Positivism assumes that both natural and social sciences should and can apply the same principles to collecting and analysing data and that there is a world out there (an external reality) separate from our descriptions of it. In this type of research, the process of research can be neatly arranged in a linear sequence of conceptual, methodological, and empirical steps. Each step can be taken and treated one after the other and separately”.

Contrary to Positivism theory, Ridenour and Newman (2008:13) claim that:

“Knowledge about reality for qualitative researchers is built on an understanding of reality as holistic, dynamic, and irreducible to its particulars. Knowledge about reality is accrued subjectively, in natural settings that are value laden and context bound and that generate findings more difficult to generalise. Researchers approach the study of this reality through holistic means and a discovery orientation that builds theory rather than tests theory”.

Interpretivists argue that social realities cannot be understood by alienating subjects of study from the researchers. Bar-On and Parker (in Ridenour & Newman, 2008:3) argue that “human being lives in a world that has meaning; and, because one’s experiences have meaning, that meaning can be discovered and explained.” Howitt and Cramer (2011:103) also assured that “a more humanistic view of qualitative data is that human experience and interaction are far too complex to be reduced to a few variables as is typical in quantitative research”.

Howitt and Cramer (2011:296) clarify the distinction between qualitative and quantitative research methods as follow:

“Qualitative methods provide a more complete understanding of the subject matter of the research. Some qualitative researchers argue that quantification fails to come to terms with or misses crucial aspects of what is being studied. Quantification encourages premature abstraction from the subject matter of research and a concentration on numbers and statistics rather than concepts. Because quantification ignores a great deal of the richness of the data, the research instruments often appear to be crude and, possibly, alienating. That is, participants in quantitative research feel that the research is not about them and may even think that the questions being asked of them or tasks being set are simply stupid. Some research is

frustrating since, try as the participant may, the questionnaires or other materials cannot be responded to accurately enough”.

Ridenour and Newman (2008:3) put the distinction between qualitative and quantitative approaches as follows:

“The qualitative, naturalistic approach can be used when observing and interpreting reality with the aim of developing an explanation of what was experienced; an explanation might be considered a “theory”. On the other hand, the quantitative approach is usually used when one begins with a theory (or hypothesis) and tests for confirmation or disconfirmation of that hypothesis”.

As elaborated by Flick (2006) quantitative approach is a linear model of the research process. Quantitative approach begins from theory and goes through formulation of hypothesis, operationalisation, sampling, data collection, interpretation and validation. However, Howitt and Cramer (2011:103) argue that “research process in qualitative research is often difficult to cut into clearly separated phases”. It is also confirmed by Flick (2006) that qualitative approach or circular model begins from preliminary assumption and followed by data collection, interpretation, case sampling (comparing of cases) then developing of theory.

Both the quantitative and qualitative approaches have their own advantages and disadvantages. According to Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009) one of the major advantages of quantitative research is that the findings from the sample under study will more accurately reflect the overall population from which the sample was drawn. Major disadvantage of quantitative approach is lack of depth as data is collected from too many participants.

The disadvantage of the quantitative approach is that, because the study contains so many participants, the answers research participants are able to give do not have much depth. On the other hand, the main advantage of qualitative research is that it provides a richer and more in-depth understanding of the population under study. As it employs

variety of techniques such as interviews, observation and focus groups, it helps to collect very detailed data to understand and answer a research problem. The main disadvantage of qualitative research is that sample sizes are usually small and non-random, and therefore the findings may not be generalised to the larger population from which the sample was drawn.

Scholars who do not accept the dichotomy classification of quantitative and qualitative approach have designed mixed research approach that is combination of the two. Mixed research approach is appreciated for counterbalancing disadvantages of each approach with advantages. In this regard Howitt and Cramer (2011:301) described that:

“Some researchers choose to collect data in a quantitative form where there are good means of quantifying variables and concepts but use open-ended and less structured material where the concepts and variables cannot be measured satisfactorily for some reason. Sometimes the researcher will use a mixture of multiple-choice type questions with open-ended questions which may help paint a fuller picture of the data”.

Ridenour and Newman (2008:7) argue that “selection of the approach to use in a specific research effort depends largely on the goals and preferences of the researcher”. Dawson (2007:17) describes that “both quantitative and qualitative approaches have their stands regarding nature of reality and mechanism for acquiring knowledge. Neither is better than the other – they are just different and both have their strengths and weaknesses”. According to Ridenour and Newman (2008) research question and purpose are much more important issues to be considered in the selection of research approach than personal interest of researchers and nature of data collected. It is because quantitative research is not necessarily defined by numerical data, and qualitative research is not necessarily defined by textual data.

4.4.2 Research Methods

Research method is the practical way of carrying out research through data collection and data analysis (Leeds Metropolitan University, 2002). The method of research provides the tools and techniques by which the research problem is investigated.

Type of research methods applicable for conducting inquiry vary in accordance with the purpose, level of generalisation of findings, time availability and level of familiarity to the research problem. Hence, each approach has appropriate research method that suits addressing the research purpose and questions. According to Singh (2007), quantitative research designs are broadly divided into exploratory research and conclusive research. Exploratory research is conducted to explore the research issue that is not clearly defined or their scope is unclear. This type of research permits researchers to explore issues in detail so that they can familiarise themselves with the problem. Such familiarisation with the problem can serve as basis for formulating research hypothesis for conclusive research. Conclusive research in turn is classified into descriptive research and causal research. Descriptive research enumerates descriptive data about the population being studied but it does not try to establish a causal relationship between events. On the other hand, causal research is conducted when the main emphasis is on determining a cause and effect relationship. It helps to determine which variable might be causing a certain behaviour and the nature of the causal relationship.

4.4.2.1 Quantitative Research Methods

In order to show major characteristics of quantitative methods, the following three major quantitative methods are discussed.

4.4.2.1.1 Experimental Research Method

As explained by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) experimental research is a deliberate control and manipulation of conditions by investigators for determining the events in which they are interested. Experimental research involves making a change in the value of one variable called the independent variable and observing the effect of

that change on another variable called the dependent variable. Manipulation of independent variable helps researchers to establish causal relationship between independent and dependent variables. Ridenour and Newman (2008:5) explained that “true experimental research is characterised by manipulation of an independent variable combined with random assignment of participants to groups”.

4.4.2.1.2 Quasi-experimental Research Method

It is usually done in real-life settings rather than in laboratory settings, hence they have control over the independent variable but they do not have control over other factors in the environment. Due to lack of control over extraneous variables and absence of random assignment of groups, it is difficult to establish cause-effect relationship, but possible identifying statistical relationships between two variables (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009). Quasi-experimental research is conducted to evaluate the effect of the independent variable of interest when ethical issues do not allow conducting laboratory experiment (Singh, 2007).

4.4.2.1.3 Survey Research Method

Survey is a type of quantitative research method that provides the advantage of sampling a large group of randomly selected people to measure their attitudes and behaviours. It enables researchers to collect self-reported attitudes and behaviours about virtually any social issue with a relatively low cost in time and money (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009).

4.4.2.2 Qualitative Research Methods

Varieties of qualitative research methods are many. However, for sake of highlighting differences of quantitative and qualitative methods the following major qualitative methods are discussed.

4.4.2.2.1 Phenomenological Research Method

Bloor and Wood (2006:128) describe “phenomenological method aims to describe, understand and interpret the meanings of experiences of human life. It focuses on

research questions such as what it is like to experience a particular situation". It is a qualitative research method that explores the meaning of several people's lived experiences around a specific issue or phenomenon. The assumption is that there is an essence or central meaning of an experience shared by individuals that can be investigated and explained through research (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006). Phenomenological method recognises that different people perceive the world in very different ways, dependent on their personalities, prior life experiences and motivations. Hence, phenomenologist attempts to explore/understand/make sense of the subjective meanings of events/experiences/states of the individual participants themselves Breakwell (2004). This type of inquiry records accounts of social phenomena with the aim of understanding why people carryout experiences and how such experiences affect their behaviour.

4.4.2.2 Ethnographic Research Method

Hancock and Algozzine (2006:9) explained that ethnographic method "investigates intact cultural or social groups to find and describe beliefs, values, and attitudes that structure the behaviour, language, and interactions of the group". It is clarified by Bloor and Wood (2006) the term ethnography emerged from combination of two words: "ethno" and "graphy" means culture and description, respectively. Thus, it is a method of description and interpretation of a culture or social group.

4.4.2.3 Grounded-theory Research Method

This method enables researchers to collect rich data that serve as ground for development of theory. Researcher's observation is the major means of collecting data. In this method, observers enter the research situation with no hypothesis. Instead, the researcher inductively derives meaning from pieces of data. As a result, substantive theory is developed to explain phenomenon (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006).

4.4.2.2.4 Case Study Research Method

Bloor and Wood (2006:27) defined case study as “a strategy of research that aims to understand social phenomena within a single or small number of naturally occurring settings”. Case study is both the method and tool for research. It is concerned with the collection of evidence around a particular instance, event or situation and the description or evaluation of it. It is an empirical enquiry; it is founded on observation and experience rather than being overtly based on theory, and aims to illuminate how things are taking place and why (Leeds Metropolitan University, 2002). A case study can be used to describe the real-life context where a program takes place. In a case study, investigator tries to collect the bits in support of proposition. Case study focuses on the problem in depth by exploring all peculiarities of a case. It enables a researcher to collect subjective information through intensive study of a phenomenon (Singh, 2006).

As explained by Yin (in Dawson, 2002), case study is classified in to explanatory, exploratory, or descriptive. Explanatory case study is used to test and explain causal links in real life programmes whose complexity cannot be captured by a survey. And exploratory case study is designed when a programme has no clear set of outcomes, it can help to identify performance measures or pose hypotheses for further evaluative work. Hancock and Algozzine (2006:33) state “descriptive case study attempts to present a complete description of a phenomenon within its context”. According to Bloor and Wood (2006), case studies employ multiple methods of data collection such as interviews, observations, documentary methods, audio or video recording and field notes. Data collection typically continues over prolonged periods.

Despite the aforementioned benefits of case research method, several scholars criticised it. For instance, according to Marczyk, DeMatteo and Festinger (2005), case study merely describes what occurred, but it cannot justify why it occurred. Case study gives subjective information. It also gives a detailed knowledge about the phenomena but cannot be generalised beyond the knowledge because of lack of representativeness of the case to the population. Thus, prediction cannot be made on the basis of knowledge. That is, no statistical inferences can be drawn from the exploration of a

phenomenon (Singh, 2006; Gerring, 2007). Although case study is criticised for being narrow and idiosyncratic which is only relevant to specific phenomena, Yin (in Bloor and Wood 2006) pointed out that this method produces results that are generalisable to theoretical propositions rather than to populations. As confirmed by Bloor and Wood (2006), although case studies may not provide a sound basis for scientific generalisations, they still have a general relevance and are able to generate ideas and produce theoretical conclusions.

4.5 POSITIONALITY STATEMENT

In line with the aforementioned rationale, this study employed qualitative research approach and positioned to interpretivist paradigm. Qualitative approach to research is “concerned with subjective assessment of attitudes, behaviour and experiences based on researcher’s insights and impressions” (Dawson, 2007:24). It attempts to get an in-depth opinion from participants. Since attitudes, behaviour and experiences are important for this approach, fewer people take part in the research, but the contact with these people tends to last a bit longer (Dawson, 2002).

I believe that social reality is constructed by the individuals who participate and interact with that phenomenon. Since individuals construct their own realities, there are multiple realities as opposed to positivist paradigm which considers single reality and duality of researcher and to be researched. It implies that knowledge is in mind and we human beings construct and give meaning as we interact socially and with experiences. In addition, knowledge creation is value laden, in a sense, without the researcher guidance and interpretation social realities cannot be accurately known.

This research employed descriptive case study method. I preferred this method owing to its importance to collect in-depth data about contemporary SL experiences of the selected three universities. Since the purpose of this study was to describe factors that have bearings on SL application, I decided case study to inform my inquiry. In accordance with explanation of Bloor and Wood (2006), case study method employed to have rich description of SL experiences of Ethiopian Universities by collecting deep data from different participants such as students, teachers, academic managers and

hosting organisations. Using this method, intensive data was collected from aforementioned key participants through interviews, focus group discussion and document reviews. As elaborated by Zainal (2007), one of the reasons for the recognition of case study as a research method is its capacity to offset the limitations of quantitative methods in providing holistic and in-depth explanations of the social and behavioural problems in question. Case study enables to further deliver beyond the quantitative statistical results and understand the behavioural conditions through the actor's perspective. Bloor and Wood (2006:27) argue that "case studies are considered particularly valuable where the research context is too complex for experimental or survey research". Another significance of case study is that it enables to present data of real-life situations and provide better insights into the detailed behaviours of the subjects of interest.

4.6 SOURCES OF DATA

Data were collected from students, teachers, department heads, Academic Vice Presidents, Service Learning Offices (SLOs) heads, and COs. Relevant documents issued at university level, Ministry of Education, and FDRGE were also consulted.

4.6.1 Selection of Participants

Participants of research can be selected either by probability or non-probability (purposive) methods. Probability sampling allows all people within the research population to have equal chance to be selected as sample. Purposive sampling is preferred when specific individuals or groups are considered relevant in providing data. Purposive sampling is used if generalisation is not the goal of the research (Dawson, 2007).

The total number of Ethiopian universities has reached 35 excluding the 10 new universities under construction. Since the study employed qualitative descriptive case study, cases for the study were identified through purposive sampling technique. Dawson (2002) stated that, purposive sampling is used if description rather than generalisation is the goal of the research. Single case study is highly confined to narrow phenomenon and data that restrict its conclusion transcend to other similar phenomena.

In this regard, Meyer (2001) underlined benefits of using multiple cases in augmenting external validity and helping guard against observer biases. Moreover, multi-case sampling adds confidence to findings. However, for the sake of multiplicity cases should not go beyond the researcher's handling capacity. In accordance with aforementioned discussion, two government universities: Wollo (WU) and Debre Markos Universities (DMU), and one private university, Saint Mary's University (MU) were purposively selected as cases for the study. WU and DMU are relatively young with ten years service experience, while SMU has served for a long period as college, and later promoted to University in 2013. Thus, they lack experiences and even resources for effective engagement in community-based teaching. Hence, it was crucial that their CS in general and SL activities in particular should be examined and strengthened through research undertakings. Other reason for selection of these universities was the variant in the number of industries and hosting organisations for students' placement and engagement with their communities. WU and SMU are located in relatively better industrial cities, while, DMU is located in a town predominantly surrounded by agricultural community.

4.6.2 Participants of the Study

I chose research participants consisting of interns, mentors, academic managers and agency supervisors through purposive sampling technique. All the participants were selected considering their involvement in SL experiences. Senior students, teachers and agency supervisors participated in SL activities were selected for participants. Academic managers such as department heads, vice presidents and SLO heads are selected as their positions entail involvement in SL activities.

Three Academic Vice Presidents, one from each case, were selected based on the understanding that they are in a position to give authentic data related to their duties. Furthermore, from each case, three colleges, two from Science and Technology, and one from Social Sciences were selected using purposive sampling. Proportion of sample colleges from Science and Technology were deliberately made to be higher than Social Sciences considering their proportion of 70/30 enrolment ratio being

applied. Three departmental heads were also selected from purposively identified three colleges in each university considering their responsibilities attached to the positions. In selecting departments and/or programmes, due emphasis was given to disciplines which demand highly practical approach of learning such as Health Sciences and Technology. This was mainly to examine extent of students' engagement in experiential learning in community setting. Teacher and student participants were chosen from respective departments through purposive sampling. A teacher and a student from each department were selected as participants through combination of purposive and snowball sampling. Department heads and teachers have helped me by suggesting teachers who served as SL internship mentor and senior students who undertook SL internship. They also guided me in the selection of teachers and COs participants by conferring SL experiences of these participants. Thus, two COs that hosted interns from each university were purposively selected for data sources. Consequently, an agency supervisor who was assigned to support and control interns was selected from each COs. In addition, focus group discussants of four were randomly selected from interns of WU who were practising SL in Kombolcha Textile Enterprise. This focus group discussion was considered important in order to see interns' practices at industrial setting and to triangulate ideas raised during discussion with responses of interviews. Table 4.1 summarises the number of participants from each university.

Table 4.1: List of Cases and Participants

Participants	Number of Participants in each University			Total Number of Participants
	WU	DMU	SMU	
Academic Vice President	1	1	1	3
Department Heads	2	3	3	8
Teachers	3	3	2	8
Students	2	3	2	7
SL/CS office heads	1	1	1	3
Community organisations	3	3	2	8
Focus group discussant of interns	4	-	-	4
Total	16	14	11	41

However, for a research that requires the use of purposive sampling techniques, it may be difficult to specify how many people to be contacted from the outset. At times the researcher may continue using chosen procedure such as snowballing or theoretical sampling until a 'saturation point' is reached. By saturation it is to mean that the researcher believes that contacting additional participants no longer provide with worthwhile data (Dawson, 2002).

4.6.3 Research Instruments

The best data collection approach for any study is the one that yields data that best meet the research purpose and answer the research questions (Darlington & Scott, 2002). Colton and Covert (2007:5) explained "an instrument is a mechanism for measuring phenomena, which is used to gather and record information for assessment, decision making, and ultimate understanding". Review made by Marczyk et al. (2005) remarked that an interview is a simple method that can generate a wealth of information. It can enable to cover variety of content areas and it is relatively inexpensive and efficient way of data collection that does not require formal testing. But its efficiency depends on how the interviews are structured.

As this research is qualitative, data collection instruments for this study were composed semi-structured interviews to all selected participants for the study. Interview as a data instrument has advantages of face-to-face interaction with the interviewer and interviewees. Its immediacy and relational quality afford considerable flexibility to the data collection process, both in terms of areas explored and the direction of the discussion (Darlington & Scott, 2002). Semi-structured interview enables to collect subjective data. According to the clarification of Colton and Covert (2007) subjective data originates within an individual and is reflected by items that measure attitudes, feelings, opinions, values, and beliefs. Whereas, objective data attempts to be free of personal interpretation and is typified by data that are observable.

Owing to the significance of interview for collection of qualitative data, I prepared interview protocols for research participants (students, teachers, department heads, Vice Presidents for Academic, SLO heads and agency supervisors. I secured consents

from Vice Presidents for Academics of all the three universities and all individual research participants. Based on the time arrangement and the rapport I built with research participants, I collected data mainly through interview. In order to catch up responses while interviewing, i-pad recorder was used considering the consent of interviewees. Note taking and check lists were also applied to collect data from documents. During data collection, according Dawson (2002), researchers have to establish rapport with the participants. There should be trust between researchers and participants so that participants reveal intimate life information. At times, rapport building can be difficult and takes tact, diplomacy and perseverance. Oppenheim (2001:89) claims that “maintaining rapport keeps the respondent motivated and interested in answering the questions truthfully. Rapport building needs to be at optimum length; it neither should be too much or too little”.

4.7 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Data collected through interviews, document analysis and check list were transcribed to get meaning out of them. Then, this transcript was categorised in to major themes in a way that enable answering research questions. According to Kathori (2004) collected data should be edited to improve the quality of the data for coding. Then it would be condensed and classified into a few manageable groups and tables for further analysis. Thus, the raw data was classified into some purposeful and usable categories. Finally, categorised data was coded to facilitate analysis. Usability of data is maximised if it is systematised and organised. Editing data for accuracy, utility and completeness is another critical issue in data organisation. Until the collected data is processed and treated with certain statistical tool, it is raw data which is meaningless. So, data should be analysed to draw some results (Singh, 2006). According to Seidman (2006) it is important to produce an interview summary form or a focus group summary form as soon as possible after each interview or focus group has taken place. The summary form records practical details about the time and place; the participants; the duration of the interview or focus group; and details about the content and emerging themes. Based on this understanding, major themes were coded in a table and pattern of relationship among themes was established for ease of interpretation. This search for

relationship between themes resulted in development of super-ordinate themes that can serve as strategies for institutionalising SL in case universities. Finally, the report was written.

4.8 VALIDITY AND TRUSWORTHINESS OF RESEARCH

Research activities should be evaluated for their worth and rigour. Bloor and Wood (2006:147) claim “scientific research is typically evaluated using measures of rigour such as reliability, validity and generalisability”. According to Ridenour and Newman (2008) validity and trustworthiness are the means for evaluation of truth value and rigour of quantitative and qualitative researches respectively. In quantitative research replication of findings is fundamental; a single study generally cannot add to the knowledge base. However, according to Bloor and Wood (2006) qualitative research has been less concerned with reliability and generalisability than quantitative research. It is mainly because, for one thing, findings of qualitative research vary as interpretative skills of researchers vary based on their experiences and theory orientation. For another, purpose of qualitative research is to describe and understand certain cases with confine of its context than generalising findings to general population.

Bloor and Wood (2006:147) define “reliability is the extent to which research produces the same results when replicated”. However, they argue that “reliability is an impossible criterion to achieve in practice as different researchers will always produce different versions of the social world” (Bloor & Wood, 2006:148).

Bloor and Wood (2006:147) define “validity is the extent to which the research produces an accurate version of the world”. According to Ridenour and Newman (2008) quantitative research classifies validity in to measurement validity and design validity. Measurement validity is concerned with instrumentation, so it tries to estimate how well the instrument measures what it purports to measure. On the other hand, design validity consists of internal and external validity. Internal validity examines the extent to which any causal difference in the dependent variable can be attributed to the independent variable. According to Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009), internal validity can be assured by examining has construct validity and content validity of the study. Internal

validity examines the extent to which a measure is on target to measure what the researchers are seeking to measure. Content validity is concerned with evaluating the extent to which the items or behaviours assessed by a measurement represent all the known dimensions of the construct being measured; the extent to which a measure fully represents and captures the construct that the researchers are trying to measure. External validity investigates the extent to which the results of the research study can be generalised to other settings or groups (Ridenour & Newman, 2008).

4.8.1 Trustworthiness

Case study as a research method cannot enable generalisation to the population rather it helps to make theoretical conclusion. However, to augment transferability of the research result, multiple cases were taken as data sources, in a view that more inclusive data can be elicited than single case. The study would employ different methods and sources of information that ensure data triangulation. Moreover, high concern is made in the process of data collection, data analysis and recommendation in order to make the research credible, transferable and conformable.

Qualitative researchers should revitalise the accuracy or trustworthiness of their researches. In pursuit of data collection and analysis, the accuracy of the findings and interpretation of the study should be central concern (Creswell, 2012). O'leary (2004:63) states that "all research, regardless of paradigm, approach, or methods, should be auditable; be open and transparent; and readers should be informed about any aspect of the research process". Thus, sufficient details of the research context, the researched, and the methods used to collect and analyse data should be given so that other researchers can evaluate or audit the original research process. Denzin and Lincoln in Bowen (2005:215) suggest that four factors should be considered in establishing the trustworthiness of findings from qualitative research: credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability.

4.8.1.1 Credibility

The credibility of a qualitative research is an equivalent term for validity and reliability of quantitative research. Credibility is a means of verification for rigor in qualitative

research by which researchers state the plausibility of data and analytical procedures. Credibility connotes to the confidence one can have in the truth of the findings, can be established by various methods (Bowen, 2005; Ridenour & Newman, 2008). In order to maximise authenticity of the research, I employed triangulation of methods and member checking (Bowen, 2005). I employed varieties of data sources and methods in a view to understand the research problem from different perspectives. Participants consist of interns, mentors, agency supervisors and academic managers have been sources of data collected through semi-structured interview. Focus group discussion with interns, analysis of data generated through a survey conducted by SLO of WU and other documents were conducted for triangulation of data. I checked for authenticities of responses of each participant by comparing with responses of peers. So, I excluded irrelevant data from analysis through data reduction. I have also received suggestions from my colleagues that helped me to incorporate some issues in data instruments. Such corroboration of different sources permits triangulation of data that made me develop confidence in the findings and conclusions of the study.

4.8.1.2 Transferability

Transferability justifies the appropriateness of research result to be applied to similar contexts. According to Bowen (2005) transferability is a means for other researchers to apply the findings of the study to their own. Generalisability is categorised in to two: statistical and aggregate. The former is consistent with qualitative method that relies on statistical significance; the latter is for qualitative method. The underlining assumption in aggregate generalisation is that, a deep and rich description is sufficiently comprehensive to allow the qualitative researcher to generalise to each member of the population Polkinghorne (in Ridenour & Newman, 2008). According to Mack, Woodsong, Macqueen, Greg and Namey (2005) findings from qualitative data can often be extended to people with characteristics similar to those in the study population, gaining a rich and complex understanding of a specific social context or phenomenon that typically takes precedence over eliciting data that can be generalised to other geographical areas or populations. In order to ease the judgment of the truth value of my study, I made clear description of the existing realities of universities, educational

policy framework, government declaration and theoretical framework of the study. In addition, inclusion of multi-cases enhances transferability of findings and conclusions of this research to similar context areas.

4.8.1.3 Dependability

Dependability being equivalent term to reliability of quantitative term is concerned with consistence of data. O'leary (2004:60) notes that "credibility examines on whether ones data has the power to elicit belief on others". In order to enhance dependability of data, I included all relevant sources of data. All participating parties of SL, interns, mentors, department heads, vice presidents, SLOs and COs are included. In addition, review of relevant documents has been done to purport the realities of the study. In order to maximise of accuracy of the study, I collected data with combination of hand written note taking and i-pad recording. I used data reduction in order to exclude unconfirmed views of participants. In addition, in line with the suggestion given by Campbell in Muhammad, Muhammad and Muhammad (2008) suggest that readers should been given clear description of steps of the research with regard to data collection and analysis.

4.8.1.4 Conformability

According to Bowen (2005) conformability in qualitative research is concerned with characteristics of data. It mainly tries to ensure whether the research findings are the result of the research rather than the researcher's assumptions and preconceptions. In view of this, all the discussions and findings of this research are based on multi-source data. For authenticity of data, several sources and varieties of data instruments such as interview, focus group discussion, document review and data generated for monitoring by one of the cases have been used. Thus, conformability of the findings of this research is very high.

4.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Issue of safeguarding research participants and professional codes of ethics traced back to the Hippocratic Code nearly 2,500 years ago (Allan & Love, 2010). Sensitivity

for ethical issues in research is growing due to scandals done to research participants. Concern for protecting physical and psychological dignity of participants led to the formulation of a large number of codes of ethics and the establishment of ethics committees in many areas. Research ethics helps avoid harming participants involved in the process by respecting and taking into account their needs and interests (Flick, 2006). Hence, this research gave great priority to privacy and security of research participants. From the very beginning, participants were informed about the purpose this research and its importance to improvement of universities' performance. In doing so, I was able to secure rapport with informants. Their inclusion as participants was with absolute consent. I have got permission from case universities to conduct my research. I kept the information gathered from cases confidential as it may be harmful to image of institutions. Moreover, participants were also given opportunity to check the accuracy of data presentation and interpretation before dissemination of the report so that misused data could be canceled out. I have also secured the ethical clearance of UNISA that helped me to give high concern for the privacy and security of research participants.

4.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter framed the procedure or design of the study from the conception of the research problem to data collection and analysis steps. Hence, this chapter treated the outline of philosophical basis, activities, and techniques I used in the selection of research design and method that may help answer research questions raised in chapter one. Major components of this chapter include: research approach, method or research strategy, sampling design, choice of research tools, and choice of statistical techniques. This study employed qualitative research approach and positioned to interpretivist paradigm. Qualitative approach to research is concerned with subjective assessment of attitudes, behaviour and experiences based on researcher's insights and impressions. It attempts to get an in-depth opinion from participants. Interpretivism holds a position that we interpret our view of the world based on our perception of it. According to this view, the world is socially constructed and subjective, observer is part of what is observed and science is driven by human interest. I believe that social reality is constructed by the individuals who participate and interact with that phenomenon, so there are multiple

realities as opposed to positivist paradigm which considers single reality and duality of researcher and to be researched.

This chapter comprises discussion on sources of data, sampling technique and its justification, data instruments and the analysis techniques. Thus, the study employs multiple cases, and participants such as teachers, students, department heads, SLO heads, Vice Presidents and agency supervisors were purposefully selected as sources of data. Interview, review of documents and focus group discussion were employed to collect data, and they were analysed through narrative data analysis technique. Trustworthiness of the research has been detailed through justification of its credibility, dependability, conformability and transferability. It also spelled out the research ethics employed to safeguard participants and efforts of researcher to maintain the trustworthiness of the study by describing parameters including credibility, dependability, conformability and transferability.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines the data collected from sample universities in order to determine the extent to which SL is institutionalised and practiced in Ethiopian Universities with a view of addressing students' learning and community needs. As a form of field work, ample data had been collected by engaging qualitative research methodology and it is going to be presented, analysed and related to the main research question. Data collected from participants and document analysis are critically examined and categorised into major and sub-themes in a manner to answer the basic research questions.

5.2 CONTEXT DESCRIPTION

This study is concerned with understanding of application of community focused teaching method called SL in Ethiopian universities. To have this understanding, the following three case universities consisting of two public and one private were considered.

5.2.1 Saint Mary University

Saint Mary University (SMU) is one of the four private universities in Ethiopia, which is located in Addis Ababa, the capital city, it has many branches in regional towns which manage distance education. Being in the capital city, the university deemed to be strategically positioned with a number of industries surrounding it, and as a result, it presents opportunities for SL to students. It offers both undergraduate and post graduate studies in Business and Economics, Informatics, Hotel and Tourism, and other streams to do SL.

5.2.2 Debre Markos University

Debere Markos University (DMU) is one of the 35 public universities in Ethiopia. This university was established in 2006 and is located 300 km away from Addis Ababa

towards north-west where agrarian activity is predominant. Availability of industries is very limited in the surrounding. Therefore, it becomes a challenge for placement of Science and Technology students to do SL as industries are limited in the surrounding. However, most of the COs are engaged in service activities.

5.2.3 Wollo University

Wollo University (WU) is also a public university located in a zonal town called Dessie, the capital city of South Wollo Administrative Zone, which is identified as one of the few industrialised zones in Amhara regional state. This university was also established in 2006. It offers Undergraduate and postgraduate level education in regular, and extension of summer programmes. Unlike Debre Markods University, WU has are better opportunities for placement of students to do SL in the area.

5.3 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

For analysis purpose, collected data were categorised in the form of themes and sub-themes. These themes are presented in Table 5.2.

5.3.1 Biographical Information of Participants

To safeguard the privacy of participants, anonymity was used as presented in Table 5.1. The table also shed light on the educational level and service experiences of the participants.

Table 5.1: Biographical Information of Participants

Participants from SMU				
No	Participants (Pseudonym)	Educational Level	Position	Service Experience
1	AL	MA in Special Needs Education, BA Business Education	Accounting teacher	12 Years
2	MS	PhD in English Language	Academic Vice Principal	10 years
3	FT	MA in Vocational Education Management	Career & Internship Unit Head	12 Years
4	GT	MA in Accounting	Accounting Department Head	> 10 years
5	HZ	MA in Management	Management Department Head	>10 years
6	MK	Master of Arts	Accounting Teacher	23 years
7	WA	Masters in Science	Computer Science Department Head	12 years
8	HH	Accounting 3 rd year	Student	
9	KC	Management 3 rd year	Student	
10	DB	MOH, BSc in Computer Eng,	Senior Hardware and Network Administration	10 years
11	TG	BA in Accounting	Accountant at Ethiopian Shipping and Logistic Enterprise	2 and half years
Participants from DMU				
No	Participants (Pseudonym)	Educational Level	Position	Service Experience
12	TT	MSC in Physics	Academic Vice Principal	> 10 years
13	AW	Master of Science	UIL Officer for Technology College	5 years
14	HM	MSc	Public Health Department Head	>10 years
15	CT	MSc	Teacher in Public Health Dept.	2 years
16	AGA	Bachelor of Science	Mechanical Engineering Department head	2 and half years
17	GD	Bachelor of Science	Teacher in Mechanical Engineering Department	3 years
18	HA	LLM	Research, CS and Post Graduate Vice Dean of School of Law	5 years
19	GA	LLM	Teacher in the School of Law	2 years
20	TD	Law 5 th year	Student	
21	WM	Mechanical Engineering 5 th year	Student	
22	HG	Public Health 4 th year	Student	
23	KY	BSc in Nursing	Amanuel Health Center Head	>10 years
24	MM	BA in Law	Judge in Debre Markos Town District	>10 years
25	ZA	MBA	Building Administrator at Star Business Group PLC, Debre Markos Project,	>10 years

Table 5.1: Biographical Information of Participants “Continued”

Participants from WU				
No	Participants (Pseudonym)	Educational Level	Position	Service Experience
26	HA	PhD	Academic Vice Principal	>10 years
27	FT	MA in Educational Psychology	Apprenticeship and Job Service Officer	1 year
28	Y	MSc	Public Health Department Head	5 years
29	AH	MSc	CBT Program & TTP Coordinator in Public Health Department	2 years
30	EF	LLM	Teacher in School of Law	7 years
31	TK	MSc	Teacher in Mechanical Engineering Department	3 Years
32	YD	MSc	Department Head of Mechanical Engineering	5 years
33	HY	Public Health 4 th year	Student	
34	MB	Mechanical Engineering 5 th year	Student	
35	AA	Diploma Clinical Nursing	03 Health Center, Kombolcha Technical Division Head	>10 years
36	DM	BA in Management	HRM Support Process Head	15 years
37	SA	BA	HR Development Division Head of Kombolcha Textile Factory. Agency supervisor	>10 years
38	BEM	Textile Engineering 4 th year	Student	
39	BM	Textile Engineering 4 th year	Student	
40	SAA	Textile Engineering 4 th year	Student	
41	ZE	Textile Engineering 4 th year	Student	

5.3.2 Discussion of Generated Themes

The study aims to analyse determinants to active engagement of Ethiopian universities in SL activities in order to design strategies that maximise mutual benefits in addressing community problems and students’ course objectives and civic understandings. In order to design strategies for effective application of SL, it is important to answer the main research question which reads: To what extent SL is institutionalised and practised in Ethiopian Universities with a view of addressing students’ learning and community needs? In line with the guiding frame set by the aim and main question of the research, seven sub-questions were raised in order to determine sources of data, to collect and systematically categorise data for analysis purpose. Analysis of collected data resulted

in generation of ten main themes and several sub-themes that were aligned with respective sub-questions as indicated in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Research Questions and Generated Main and Sub Themes

Research Questions	Main Themes	Sub-themes
1. What theories underpin SL?	5.3.2.1 Pedagogical and philosophical purposes of employing SL	5.3.2.1.1 SL as practical supplement, personal and civic development 5.3.2.1.2 As Sources of Resources 5.3.2.1.3 Compulsory Integration of SL with the Curriculum 5.3.2.1.4 Service learning as feedback mechanisms for curriculum revision 5.3.2.1.5 For Career Development 5.3.2.1.6 Social Responsibility 5.3.2.1.7 Makes teachers practitioners and build university image
2. Which curricula models are used to enable Ethiopian Universities engage in SL practice?	5.3.2.2 Curriculum model / approach hinders application of experiential and interdisciplinary learning approach	
3. Which SL models are applied in Ethiopian Universities?	5.3.2.3 Few types of SL models are employed for partial fulfilment of courses and for standalone courses 5.3.2.4 Low support given by mentors and agency supervisors	5.3.2.3.1 Varieties of SLPs and their Contribution to COs 5.3.2.4.1 Reflection and Reciprocity in SL
4. What structures are in place to promote institutionalisation of SL in Ethiopian Universities?	5.3.2.5 Need for structures to promote institutionalisation of SL	5.3.2.5.1 Presence of organised SL structure in University and COs 5.3.2.5.2 Presence of SL policy and other supporting documents 5.3.2.5.3 Recognition and incentive mechanisms 5.3.2.5.4 Scheduling problem for SL 5.3.2.5.5 Integration of SL to organisational culture 5.3.2.5.6 Commitment from the top level management of universities 5.3.2.5.7 Weak information communication technology as a means of feedback facilitation 5.3.2.5.8 Continuous professional development

Table 5.2: Research Questions and Generated Main and Sub Themes “Continued”

Research Questions	Main Themes	Sub-themes
5. How is community and university partnership managed to streamline the SL teaching method?	5.3.2.6 Limitation in partnership building and role identification	5.3.2.6.1 Lack dedication and disciplinary problem of interns 5.3.2.6.2 SL is unplanned and imposed task
	5.3.2.7 Selection of COs for SL Placement	5.3.2.7.1 Attitudinal problem of COs towards SL students and tendency to resist hosting
6. What challenges are faced by the Ethiopian universities in promoting institutionalisation of SL?	5.3.2.8 Lack of commitment of SL participants	5.3.2.8.1 Incompetency of leadership in having systemic thinking 5.3.2.8.2 Impact of supports and feedback constraints on interns’ commitment 5.3.2.8.3 Deliverables from SL Projects
	5.3.2.9 Lack of awareness about SL among participating parties	5.3.2.9.1 Lack of sufficient orientation resulted in development of misconception of SL as recreation time
	5.3.2.10 Problem of SL students and programme assessment	5.3.2.10.1 Lack of critical assessment of interns and granting of word grades as barrier for students’ dedication 5.3.2.10.2 Inability to apply project evaluation techniques 5.3.2.10.3 Absence of students and COs involvement in SL programme evaluation
7. What strategies could be recommended for effective management of SL in Ethiopian Universities?		

Discussion on the identified themes and sub-themes as reflected in Table 5.2, is presented below. Each is supported with direct quotes gathered from the interviewees and the relevant literature reported in Chapters Two and Three. For ease of understanding, data of each theme is presented and analysed under a particular research question.

Research Question 1: What theories underpin SL?

5.3.2.1 Pedagogical and Philosophical Purposes of Employing Service Learning

The study revealed that long term and short term SL activities are employed due to philosophical and pedagogical imperatives. There is a need for students learn through practical activities so that they serve their community as a means of paying back for its commitment to provide education to them. Pedagogical necessities, as identified in this research include: SL as means of practical supplement, personal and civic development; compulsory integration of SL with the curriculum, SL as source of resources and SL as feedback mechanisms for curriculum revision. Philosophical necessities of applying SL consist of career development, social responsibility and practical learning.

SL as alternative pedagogical method and a contributing means for social development strategy is being employed in all of the three case universities. Majority of colleges in these universities use both long term and short term SL models. Such SL models range from simple educational visits to SL internship that demand two to four months of CE. The value attached to SL pedagogy by the case universities can be discerned from the commitment of universities in terms of resources, institutionalisation efforts, partnership building and credit hours given to SL courses. Analysis of SL experiences of case universities based on the aforementioned parameters can shade light on exchange of best experiences and unfold conceptual and practical challenges.

5.3.2.1.1 Service Learning as Practical Supplement, Personal and Civic Development

Responses of participants from all the three case universities viewed SL as useful to apply theories into practices and to gain skill that cannot be gained through theoretical learning. For instance, EF and HA perceive SL as a means “*to internalise courses’ knowledge and skills. SL permits students to become competent civil servant and let teachers become practitioners*”. According HA, AVP of WU, underlying purpose of SL is “*to support theoretical learning of students with practical training*”. AL understands SL

as learning by doing and practising programme in the work environment to shape students' capacity.

The above perspectives of participants can be synthesised as that SL is a pedagogy that supplement theoretical classroom learning with knowledge and skills that can be best gained in real life situation, it makes learning life long, familiarising students with organisational procedures and behaviour. Generally, their viewpoints agree with the active learning theory of John Dewey and contextual learning of James Buruno.

Furthermore, analysis of the responses regarding benefits of SL, elaborates its central objectives. All participants confirm that SL pedagogy benefits students, COs, teachers and universities. For instance, AW states that *“students would get exposure to external work environment and test their capacity. COs get free services. The university can benefit in that graduates would possess requisite competency and gain feedback”*. YD justifies the benefits of SL pedagogy in that *“students can learn practical knowledge and skill and can solve industry problems. Universities build good public image and it is an opportunity for identifying research ideas for teachers and students”*. According to AW, SL engagement helps students to gain practical knowledge and skills of communication and leadership. It also helps students identify community problems and give solution either by themselves or in collaboration with their teachers. He considers SL as a means for the overall physical and psychological development of students.

For some disciplines such as health, computer science, technology and law, nature of the courses demand practical learning in natural way in industries. In this regard, WA states *“Computer Science is mainly a practical discipline which demands active engagement of students in hands-on activities. Hence SL is a means of giving on-the-job trainings for students, as it permits students to change theoretical learning to practices”*. HA views application of SL as mandatory for implementing curriculum. SL internship is part of curriculum and has credit. Many courses such as procedural law and other clinical courses demand SL engagement and field trips, so students should go to COs to conduct project on a certain topic. As courses of 2nd year and above are

more of practical and student centred, students are provided with hypothetical or court cases to examine and develop knowledge and skill.

According to these participants, SL has been deliberately integrated with curriculum in order to infuse theoretical concepts with practice in a natural way. However, many participants such as teachers, department heads, vice presidents and SLO heads emphasize the practical learning benefits of SL. The CS benefit is given less attention. YD perceives the objective of internship to visit factories and conduct case study. It helps students identify problems and suggest interventions. Interns can identify research topics for their senior essay. It may also open opportunities for later recruitment in the factory. AA believes that *“SL provides deep and lifelong knowledge”*. According to AL, SL serves as means to *“fill gaps that students could not get in the classroom. It also aims to make graduates of the university competent in accordance with demands of industries, and it helps Universities to contribute to produce good citizens beyond collecting money as it is a case in private universities”*. GT states that *“SL promotes students’ self-confidence, exposes students to practical activities and advances students’ working relation with employees of COs”*. This implies that SL contributes for relevance of education, and it helps to produce graduates that are conversant with contexts of industry and social problems, promotes career and personal developments of students. Equally important is that SL permits capacity building and free services for fulfilment of community needs by which universities apply their CS role.

5.3.2.1.2 As Sources of Resources

Several participants consider SL as a pedagogy that gives knowledge and skills that cannot be gained in the classroom. EF understands SL useful for acquisition of skills of applying theories into practices and to gain skill that cannot be gained through theory. For WA *“students go out of the University for SL to use resources that are not available in the university”*. HA strengthens the point of WA in that *“we do not have Moot Court Centre, thus we would not apply practical skills if students were not sent for SL. So, SL has significant contribution”*. As all the three are not well established universities, there is shortage of laboratory and demonstration facilities and materials especially in the technology, health and sciences fields. Hence, SL facilitates opportunities to students

for utilisation of community resources. TK reports that *“since the laboratory is not well-furnished, departments send students out of the campus to visit industries”*. Thus, SL can serve as a means for ameliorating resource constraints of universities and maximise economy of scale in resource utilisation of the nation.

5.3.2.1.3 Compulsory Integration of Service Learning with the Curriculum

Many participants from health, technology and law disciplines confirm that SL is applied due to mandatory integration in the curriculum. In addition, students are passionate in learning some courses through active involvement in community settings. YD states that *“the curriculum of civil engineering dictates that students at second semester of fourth year should go to COs for internship for the period equivalent to 32 credit hours”*. TK says, *“we employ SL as it is compulsory or integrated with the curriculum. Moreover, students pay short visit to factories and acquire experiences before internship. Students are not expected to provide services, mostly SL internship benefits students”*. He considers students incapable to contribute for fulfilment of objectives of COs. But students have lots of knowledge and skills to share. This type of understanding has hindering effect on integration of services and learning objectives. GA believes that some courses such as *“Legal Procedure cannot be managed in the classroom only. The nature of the discipline dictates student to work with and learn from legal institutions such as courts, prisons and police stations. If properly managed, SL is good teaching method.”* EF confirmed that *“the disciplines’ nature dictates to apply student-centred teaching approach so, in addition to going to legal institutions, students learn filling law suit, preparation of litigation, answers and decisions in two to three moot courts the department set par semester”*.

5.3.2.1.4 Service Learning as Feedback Mechanisms for Curriculum Revision

Involvement of students in SL activities has been honoured as feedback collection mechanism. AL described SL as a means to revise curriculum in view of redressing knowledge and skill gaps of students. Based on experiences gained from SL, Universities manage sequential rearrangement of courses. AL justified that *“for instance, Peachtree course was not delivered to students before SL. After identified as impediment to SL activities, however, this course is started to be given to students*

before they take SL assignments". WA also confirms that *"through SL, the department was informed about interns that they are weak in networking development competency. Consequently, the department revised the curriculum in accordance with the need of the industry"*. GT reported that COs informed the department that interns have language and communication problems. Based on this information, in 2015/2016 language assessment test for students was applied. Thus, SL has paramount importance in improving curriculum, benefiting students, and delivering relevant education.

5.3.2.1.5 For Career Development

In addition to its importance to strengthening students' learning of theoretical and technical skills many students including KC, believe that through SL:

"We get knowledge related to how to handle customers, how to compliance with office hours and how to evaluate ourselves. In addition, we understood the realities of a work place, and we developed confidence towards serving the public while understanding our rights and obligations as a civil servant".

In support of this statement, AL argued that SL contributes for developing good citizens. EF stated that SL enables students to be accustomed to legal institutions' environment. According to HA, SL helps interns to introduce themselves with organisational behaviour, and to understand how the tasks are related to academic issues. Direct contact with COs through SL helps to the personal growth of students by creating job opportunity for students after graduation. AW believes that *"SL engagement helps students to improve communication and leadership skills"*. Introducing interns to the external world is another critical importance of SL. Students can understand cultural diversity among societal members, familiarise themselves with social problems and job related challenges, and acquaint with organisational behaviour and social skills.

5.3.2.1.6 Social Responsibility

Universities should play active role in social, cultural, economic and environmental challenges. These problems cannot be alienated to community problems. TK reported that *"during SL internship students are required to identify ten major problems in respective COs and prepare projects that can solve one of the problems"*. WA lauded

engagement of students in SL internship where they participate in identifying industry problems and suggesting solutions. However, WA complained that:

“Significant projects that can address community problems are not implemented due to resource constraint. Universities do not help students to make their projects practical, hence problems remain unsolved”.

Such lack of support for realisation of significant projects has discouraging effect on both COs and interns.

5.3.2.1.7 Makes Teachers Practitioners and Build University Image

Contribution of SL engagement to the benefits of all participating partners, students, teachers, university and community is highly honoured by all participants. In addition to obvious benefits of SL to students learning, CS, remarked that *“SL creates good opportunity for Universities to build their image. In addition, SL helps to produce qualified employees and lets teachers become practitioners”.*

Engagement of universities in community issues promotes development of good will of towards universities that in turn facilitates harmonious partnership between COs and universities. SL engagement scale up prestige of universities as graduates and teachers develop familiarity of social and industry problems, and it permits practical oriented learning.

Research Question 2: Which curricula models are used to enable Ethiopian Universities engage in SL practice?

5.3.2.2 Limited application of experiential and interdisciplinary learning approach

Every teaching-learning activity at educational institutions is guided and structured by the curricular model which is designed based on concepts and principles of curriculum design. Decisions regarding curriculum goals, approaches, methods, motivation strategies, learning environment, assessment and methods are informed by philosophical and epistemological perspectives of curriculum designers. Thus, all educational decisions and actions are made based on a curriculum model. Setting a

curricular model is basically the first step in curriculum development. National educational aims can be achieved when there is sound alignment between desired aims and curricular model.

In an attempt to understand suitability of alignment of national education objectives with curricular model of universities, empirical data has been collected about the teaching approaches, methods, assessments and curriculum design. In this regard, most of the teacher and student participants conclude that teacher-centred approach, dominantly lecture method, is applied in all case universities. HH, an accounting student in SMU, complained that about 75% of the teaching method applied is lecture. She believes that the reason for lecture domination is the nature of the courses' content. In addition to lecture method, she mentioned that different active learning methods including group and individual assignments, non-graded quizzes, group discussions, lab activities, field visits and SL internship are practiced. MK, a teacher in accounting department at SMU, also confirmed that theoretical learning prevails in SMU. Although theoretical learning dominates, YD, department head for Mechanical Engineering at WU, remarked that:

“Supportive active learning methods such as projects, demonstrations, science day celebrations, etc, are applied to promote involvement of students in practical activities. Students’ scientific projects such as oil mill, and maize threshing mills are disclosed to the community on Science days”.

Celebration of the Science Day can be considered as a means of experience sharing among innovative students and community both in and out of the University. This experience has motivating effect on students, as their creativities are appreciated and such creativities instigate other students to engage in creative activities. Organizing such an event can bridge community organisation-university collaboration by scaling up the application of significant projects of students.

MB, a student of Mechanical Engineering at WU, also confirmed that lecture is the dominant teaching method in most courses. However, he justified that:

“There is an attempt to apply student-centred learning through facilitation of Students participate in seminars, science days, workshops, projects and

exhibitions. Due to such encouragement of active learning, students' creativity is increasing. For instance, students have made a bicycle which rides on water, maize trashing mill and on line students' registration software".

TD, a law student at DMU, identified different teaching methods applied in the university including internship practice at legal institution such as prisons, courts, free legal services, and 'One to Five Education Development Army' (a team learning where students help each other in course works). But, according to CT, this team learning approach is not enthusiastically accepted by teachers, as it is attributed to the current political party strategy than its pedagogical benefits. TD contended that "*Student-centred learning approach is negatively affected by shortage of resources and laboratory facilities and lack of interest of teachers to use active learning method*".

What is important in his response is that why teachers do not prefer active learning method? It may be due to lack of resources including time and educational facilities, difficulty of course coverage, skills in applying different SL methods and belief that teachers as sources of knowledge transferable to learners.

TK, a teacher of mechanical engineering, at WU complained by saying:

"Workshops are not well-furnished and conducive to do practical projects. They do not have even minor materials and equipments that can be used to construct a simple material such as wheel chair. There should be workshop keepers and workshops should be open and accessible any time so that users can utilize tools and materials".

The responses of TD and TK signify that application of SL method demands allocation of considerable resources, and teachers' capacity and interest. Moreover, lack of laboratory facilities in many departments urged students and teachers of young universities to pay visit to better furnished universities which entails waste of time, transport cost and schedule burden.

It is believed that one of the serious challenges for application of SL methods relates to teachers' lack of knowledge and skills. However, GT, a department head at SMU, did not take this as impediment for active learning method. He said that:

“There is no problem with regard to competency of teachers, because teachers have practical experiences. There are different pedagogical trainings organised for teachers on different issues such as test construction, criteria referenced grading, etc. But, the problem is most teachers do not attend these trainings”.

His expression is ambiguous in that experienced teachers are aware of pedagogical knowledge and students' needs are dynamic, so they are curious for their career development. It is apparent that expertise teachers do not rely on the past experiences; lack of interest for short term trainings may be due to their judgment towards the relevance trainings and importance to career development. WA, a department head in the same university confirmed the response of GT by stating that *“although there are many short term in-service trainings, teachers are not interested to participate, yet they participate in long term trainings that scale up their professional level”.*

Many teacher participants from SMU reported that although several short term professional trainings are facilitated, teachers do not have interest to participate. Similar trend recurs in government universities as assured by HM, a department head of Public Health in DMU, in that *“teachers do not have positive attitude towards short term trainings. Even though trainings are often organised by the University, teachers are not interested to participate, for they assume themselves knowledgeable”.*

Generally, responses of teacher participants with regard to lack of interest of teachers towards participation on short term trainings is attributed to lack of monetary incentive as a result of training, and inability to understand the dynamism of knowledge, skill and technology.

Curricular model has its influence in making learning active. Referring back to review of literature section of this study, as stated by Veness (2010), curricular model can be

framed being subject or discipline centred in which the curriculum is organised around courses, integrated which pulls many courses together usually applied in problem based learning and experiential learning, spiral model in which the content is presented several times across the span of the school year to revisit material, often, inquiry or problem based by which all the curriculum designed around central problem or question, and experiential curricular model which allows students to participate in real-life ways with their work, experimenting with hypothesis, working through problems and finding solutions.

In line with this understanding, it was the interest of this study to investigate whether the curricular framework affects application of active learning in general and SL in particular. Data gained from departments and AVP informed that subject or discipline-centred curricular framework is dominantly applied in the case universities. In Health Colleges, it was noted that there are some level of application of integrated curricular framework. HM, department head of public health, reported that *“there is an interdisciplinary course which allows students from different departments of Health College to collect data, analyse them and devise intervention through research”*.

This interdisciplinary course integration permits students of different departments to come together and to work on projects that demand different knowledge and perspectives. As a result, students are engage in authentic learning environment and at the same time develop social life, communication, problem-solving and leadership skills.

Although the curricular model of Universities is mainly designed in discipline-based framework, it also incorporates experiential courses such as SL either as a standalone course or as partial fulfillment for a course. Theory domination and discipline-centred curricular framework negatively affects application of active learning in general and experiential learning such as SL in particular.

Teacher participants were asked if they have contributed in curriculum development and improvement. In this regard, TK reported that:

“The curriculum is nationally harmonised. Because of this, teachers’ duty with regard to curriculum development and improvement is not significant. However, based on legal consents of the universities legislation, teachers attempt to rearrange sequences of courses to maintain prerequisites. Teachers also correct course code clashes and course content repetitions at department level”.

It becomes clear that although the curriculum of government universities is harmonised at Ministry level, representative teachers from different universities participated in the harmonization process. Harmonisation of curriculum is a deliberate experience to maintain standard and quality education across universities. Nonetheless, unlike governmental universities, responsibility of curriculum development at private universities rests on the individual university. According to HZ, a department head in SMU, since teachers have strong connection with community organisations, their contribution in curriculum design and development is significant. AL reported that curriculum committee in each department prepares the curriculum, which serves for three and above years. AL complained that the curriculum is not developed based on critical analysis about demand of the industry. He further argued that the curriculum is designed to fulfill 110 credit hours for a bachelor degree, which is a minimum requirement set by MOE. Finally, he remarked that market assessment should be done before curriculum is developed, for it may help us design market oriented curriculum.

Regardless of efforts to apply active learning methods, actually teacher-centred approach prevails in all case universities. Most teachers follow the teaching method of their role model teachers while they were students.

Research Questions 3: Which SL models are applied in Ethiopian Universities?

5.3.2.3 A Few Types of Service Learning Models Are Employed for Partial Fulfillment of Courses and for Standalone Courses

The need for achieving practical knowledge and skills, social services, maximising educational resources and individual development of students urged universities to apply different SL models. Based on the 1994's Education and Training Policy, the curriculum and legislation of universities are designed in a manner to promote active

and contextual learning. Hence, varieties of both short term and long term practical training models are being applied.

GT, Head for Department of Accounting at SMU, described that students conduct SL for partial fulfillment and for standalone or capstone courses. Data collected from different disciplines in the case universities revealed that standalone courses consist of SL internship, Team Training Programme, Community Based Training Programme and International Service Learning. SL Internship is the single most applied SL model by majority of colleges in all Ethiopian Universities. According to AW, SL internship in engineering fields has 15 credit hours. Similarly, for public health department, SL accounts for 16 credit hours. According to MS, AVP at SMU:

“The university hosts international SL students for instance from Netherland, New Business and Amsterdam. This opens opportunity for students to cooperatively design projects with expatriate peers, for the projects are presented and implemented in the University every week end”.

Although international SL occurs rarely, their significance in exchanging expertise, appreciating culture, developing communication and social skills is highly acknowledged.

The nature of the discipline dictates the scope of community engagement requirement of students. The curriculum of Health Science Colleges highly demands practical involvement of students in community activities and exposure to community problems and organisational behaviours. HM, Department Head of Public Health at DMU stated that:

“Starting second year, the teaching methods are more of practical in which students learn through group discussions, assignments, demonstrations etc. After two years of classroom learning, students go to the community through attachment. They medicate patients, identify community health problems, conduct research and prepare intervention. Although, mentors go with students in a daily base to monitor activities of students they do not conduct properly. Both interns and mentors consider SL as recreation. Deep knowledge is the result of teachers’ commitment in helping interns, but mentors stress on controlling attendance than discussing on professional issues at COs. At health centres there is lack of professionals to support interns”.

Although the curriculum has given due attention for community based education, students and teachers are not properly guided for using this practical training and problem solving opportunity. Lack of awareness and commitment among students and teachers inhibit them from active engagement in SL. This results in dissatisfaction of COs with CS activities which in turn leads to mistrust with hosting organisation and universities.

In addition to the graded SL models, Schools of Law in Ethiopian Universities apply non-graded Free Legal Services (FLS). According to HA, DMU has six free legal service centres by which students give free legal services to the community, but this free service is not graded. Second year and above students pay visits to legal institutions and conduct projects for the fulfilment of courses. TD, a law student at DMU, stated that *“students provide FLS to needy individuals. This free service has scheduling problem. Every time students go out for FLS they miss their classes”*.

Although this free service is not graded, it has both learning and service effects; students strengthen their understanding of legal knowledge and skills as they engage in practical activities. However, students should not miss their classes, so some scheduling arrangements should be made.

5.3.2.3.1 Varieties of Service Learning Projects and their Contribution to Community Organisations

Types of SL models vary based on the nature of disciplines. For instance, Computer Science students of SMU, as stated by WA, work on maintenance, webpage development, networking and data base administration projects. According to AW, students of Mechanical Engineering department, prepared mechanical and machine designs. For instance, one student made stamping machine for a steel industry in Addis Ababa. MB noted that interns designed oil producing and ‘teff’ trashing mills. TT, AVP at DMU, stated that:

“At health centres, interns developed model rural house that incorporates standards that a rural house should have to keep personal and environmental hygiene. It is now serving as training resource. Students also developed spring water for rural community, constructed solid and liquid waste disposal systems”.

Such engagement contributed for reducing environmental pollution and associated health problems of community. On the other hand, interns can understand health problems of the community and their causal factors. AA reported that:

“Interns help fill gaps where the government interventions fall short. For instance, along with health extension workers, they promote preventive awareness about malaria, typhoid, hygiene and environmental sanitation mainly to the public. Sometimes interns raise funds for intervention of hygiene promotion projects”.

Here one can understand that interns contributed their professional service to the community and generated additional fund to health organisations that help for addressing community health needs.

DM described that:

“Students coming for SL work for eight hours as ordinary civil servants. They learn by registering witness statements, reading dead cases, understanding legal procedures, etc.; they serve as assistant judge. However, contribution of interns for COs is not that much appreciated”.

Interns from health and law discipline seem better contributing as they reduce the burden of employees in terms of identifying, preventing and mitigating community problems. HM also asserted that *“some COs need interns’ free services and knowledge and skills. For instance, health stations and centres need pharmacy interns to be assigned to their organisations”*. From the description of HM it is clear that COs are interested in hosting interns from some disciplines to minimise scarcity of professionals.

5.3.2.4 Low Support Given by Mentors and Agency Supervisors

As the review of literature in chapter two informs, SL model application has three phases: preparation, implementation and assessment and/or evaluation. Effectiveness of SL models significantly depends on the committed engagement of interns, teachers, Universities and COs. As FT, Internship Coordinator at WU indicates, *“activities are conducted throughout the three phases of SL models”*. Preparation phase is the beginning phase which includes planning of activities, facilitating resources and

transport, preparing cooperation letters to COs to host SL students, familiarising SL issues to students through orientation and preparing attendance and students' assessment formats by departments. Most activities at the preparation phase are coordinated by internship offices and departments. Although departments are expected to orient students and COs, sometimes it is not satisfactory. FT noted that, during implementation phase, level of controlling and support of COs varies from organisation to organisation. Some COs help interns schedule their time, in addition, they control and support interns in SL activities. In contrast, others become reluctant due to negligence of students for active engagement and lack of awareness about SL programme. This results into lack of integrity between interns and COs, some interns complain that site supervisors and employees are not volunteer to support them. Still many participants of interns and mentors admit that there is no close contact between them to exchange information. Most of the interns are not visited by their mentors more than once as expected. As a result, lack of strong support from supervisors and mentors retards efforts of interns to actively engage in SL activities and to explore meaning out of their engagements.

In SL implementation phase, three important activities are performed. First, interns are involved in some kinds of SL projects, second, interns reflect on the link between the activities involved in and the course objectives, and finally, interns are expected to produce deliverables that benefit community and themselves. These major activities of SL implementation phase as exhibited in the case Universities are summarised in the following sub-theme.

5.3.2.4.1 Reflection and Reciprocity in Service Learning

Reflection in any experiential learning including SL is a purposeful mental effort of evaluating ones experiences and analysing concepts in order to generate meaning and understating. Centre for Community Engagement (2007:8) sets four basic principles that should be underscored in the preparation of SL projects. These are, i) engagement by which the service component meet a public good; ii) reflection, a mechanism that encourages students to link their service experience to course content and to reflect upon why the service is important, iii) reciprocity, a cooperative atmosphere that help

students and the community to teach and learn from one another, and iv) public dissemination mechanism, by which the service work be presented or returned to the public. There is an overwhelming consensus among scholars that mere experiences do not result in understanding; rather, there should be reflective questions that interrelate service activities with academic learning objectives. In this regard, Chicago Public Schools (2002) underlines the necessities of formulating questions prior to the service project so that service and learning goals can more clearly be articulated and students can have a richer experience.

Whatever SL models and projects are applied, students should be concerned about what activities they did, what effects these activities entail on their learning and community life, and how students can improve their actions and knowledge. In this regard KC said that *"We are provided with guide materials. These guides ask us what we did, what relation is there between theory that we learnt in classroom and the practice"*. Report of AL was similar to KC in that *"Students are asked to what extent theories learnt in classroom made them competent to field works"*. This unfocused journaling practice inhibits students active and intensive engagement in SL experiences. This practice contradicts with the argument of Hatcher, Bringle and Muthiah (2004:43). They argue that:

"Asking students to keep open-ended journals, without providing guidance about their content, runs the risk of not developing good reflective skills and good learning. Three-part journals, which request a description of the service experience, an analysis of the service experience (connecting the service to the course content), and application (connecting the service to the student's values and attitudes) provide more structure than free-write journals".

On the other hand, TK, at WU, reported that *"we do not provide SL guiding activities. SL activities are problem solving. So, if we provide them, as reflective questions restrict interns learning on certain issues"*.

TD, at DMU, confirmed that *"Reflective activities are not given to interns. Interns are provided with oral guide. The support of mentors is very low"*. Both TK and TD asserted that interns were not provided with discipline specific reflective activities that can help interrelate theoretical learning with practices. Interns would be challenged to understand

the link between classroom theoretical learning with actual practices. It is also difficult to assess interns' achievement of internship engagement without prescribed objectives to be addressed. In addition, absence of any reflective guiding material may be challenging for interns while they prepare their projects.

In order to benefit most out of SL engagement, there should be a sentiment that everyone has some important knowledge to share, and there should be trust and respect to others perspectives among participants. Technically this conception is termed as reciprocity. KC acknowledged that:

“As there is a relation between what we learn in class and what we work in COs, there is sharing of knowledge and skills among interns and COs employees. For instance, they can learn about customer handling from us and we learn practical knowledge from them”.

SA noted that:

“Both teachers and interns believe that they can learn from our textile enterprise. We believe that interns can learn a lot by practically working with our employees so they do not consider themselves as ivory tower. We are committed to help and guide interns because we believe interns are future employees who will substitute to us”.

MB stated that:

“Agency supervisors teach us freely and they also learn from us. But as employees in COs lack knowledge and skills in maintenance, they encourage us to prepare design and repair machines, in doing so we learn from each other”.

All the above three participants agree that there is free exchange of ideas among interns and agency supervisors. However, reciprocal exchange of knowledge is affected by misplacement of interns either by mischief done by interns themselves in selecting SL placement or careless placement by COs in irrelevant tasks. In some cases, low professional level of employees is another impediment for interns' learning from COs.

Some construction sites and private enterprises tend to keep their business confidential that restrain interaction between interns and COs.

Research Questions 4: What structures are in place to promote institutionalisation of SL in Ethiopian Universities?

5.3.2.5 Need for structures to promote institutionalisation of Service Learning

Effective SL application demands suitable structure, resources, working procedures and guiding documents. Gail Robinson (2000:4) notes that “SL programmes are more successful on campuses where the climate is supportive, positive, and celebratory.” Integration of SL projects in long and short term plans and in mission of universities is vital. Following engagement with theoretical and empirical data of the study, the following SL institutionalisation sub-themes were generated.

5.3.2.5.1 Presence of Service Learning Structure in University and Community Organisations

Presence of an organised office is essential for well-coordinated application of SL models. The office needs to be equipped with appropriate number of personnel and furnished with resources and working policy, manuals, supportive documents and procedures. Robinson (2000:6) underlines that, “providing space for a SL centre or office is important to program longevity, visibility, and student and faculty recruitment.” In line with this understanding, this study has investigated whether organisational structures for SL in the case universities are well established or not. Correspondingly, a structure responsible for SL at COs should also be in place which can receive, orient and assign supervisors to interns.

The study discovered that there are offices which are responsible for coordination of SL activities in all of the three cases. However, there are obvious differences between these three cases in terms of a number of personnel in the office, reporting structure, availability of working policies and procedures. Despite the inclusion of service in SL, the Research and CS wing has no involvement in it. Instead, in all Universities, SL is handled by AVP. For instance, SMU has established an office which is responsible for SL activities called Career and Internship Unit (CIU) which has four employees: officer,

assistant officer, data encoder and secretary. Its running lies squarely on AVP, and has horizontal relationship with academic departments. In addition to managing SL engagements, FT, head of CIU at SMU, stated that his office serves as interface between graduates and employing organisations. Its major duties is identifying the number of interns and assign them to COs, building partnership, providing orientation, preparing different formats and follow up interns' progress. In addition, it identifies hosting organisation for interns who could not get placement by themselves, as interns are privileged to select hosting organisations. During implementation phase, the office along with departments visits interns in order to check whether they are placed at appropriate places and are properly supported by COs. As there was no stipend for mentors and interns, mentors did not participate in site visits. So, the duty of visiting interns is solely left for CIU. FT complained that coupled with transport problem, visit of interns could not be addressed by few personnel. Above all, as teachers in SMU did not participate in visiting, interns could not get support on theoretical and practical challenges.

According to AW, SL activity at DMU is handled by a unit called Research, Community Service and Post Graduate (RCSPG) Office organised in each college headed by Vice Deans. These offices are accountable to college deans who in turn report to Academic Vice President. For the College of Engineering, there is University Industry Linkage (UIL) which handles SL. This applies for all government universities. UIL at central level was established at the end of 2015, but it is not adequately established and actively working. HA reported that *"although this linkage is in place, there is a problem in covering SL costs for teachers"*. HM noted that:

"Identification of partner organisation for SL rests on colleges. AVP assists colleges to establish partnership with COs by signing memorandum of understanding (MOU). RCSPG dean at college level coordinates SL models such as Community Based Teaching Programme (CBTP) and Team Teaching Programme (TTP)".

Structurally, it seems that there is duplication of efforts in terms of partnership building and alignment of offices in DMU. I observed that except Technology College there are Research, CS and Post Graduate Vice Deans in each college and schools that are

concerned with partnership development as one of their duties; for Technology College, University Industry Linkage (UIL) is responsible unit for handling partnership issues. All these units are under the line of AVP. There is also an attempt to organise UIL at central level. In addition to these organs, TT stated that *“partnership building is basically the duty of External Relation and Partnership Office, which reports to the president”*.

Those vice deans under AVP and office of External Relation and Partnership, which is under the President, should have chain of relation so that efforts of one can supplement the other and avoid duplication of efforts. Such coordination, ultimately, results in better and resource management. In addition, as colleges handle research, CS and post graduate programmes their functional relationship with Research and Community Service Vice President is not clearly charted out. Although CS duties are decentralised to college level, it lacks structural alignment. And SL is not boldly stipulated; rather it is combined with CS.

FT is an officer for Apprenticeship and Job Service at WU. Structurally the office is organised under Students Service Directorate but most activities of this office are directly related to Academic Directorate. FT stated that:

“The office facilitates conditions for internship and other community based learning with regard to finance for teachers’ per diem and students’ stipends, transport, sleeping facilities and learning resources such as glove for health students.”

As the tasks are cumbersome to be handled by a single person, he contested that:

“I am the only employee working in this Apprenticeship and Job Service Office. So, though it demands to pay visit to interns at assigned COs, I cannot do it to all interns. Rather, I randomly visit to some COs and try to solve challenges students encounter in there. SL programme is very vital for quality of education. However, to make SL fruitful there should be strong partnership between universities and COs. Moreover, visits of mentors to interns should be scheduled and practised properly”.

Cross comparison of SL structure in the case universities reveals that SLO in SMU is better organised, as it is boldly organised as an office with better number of staff. In

addition, it has SL facilitating guiding documents such as SL policy and manual and other many formats. On the other hand, SL activities of SMU are significantly affected by scarcity of finance for SL visits of mentors and for stipends of interns. In the case of government universities SL office is not organised visibly, as it is single-staffed at WU, and it is combined with other functions at DMU.

5.3.2.5.2 Presence of Service Learning Policy and other Supporting Documents

Mere presence of SLO does not guarantee proper application of SL activities. In addition to structure and staffing, there should be guiding documents such as SL policies, manuals, syllabus, and different formats that can serve as basis for actions and decisions. Analysis made on presence and utilisation of SL policies, manuals and guides reveals that SMU has exemplary SL policies and manuals that inform the objectives and procedures of SL and the roles of participants in SL. There are also exemplary formats such as consent form, student SL agreement form and different placement formats that facilitate interrelation between university and COs. On the other hand, the two case government universities do not have SL policy and manuals. They only have guide lines for SL project preparation.

5.3.2.5.3 Recognition and Incentive Mechanisms

Acknowledging participants for their engagement in community activities is one of the strategies to sustain SL programme. Robinson (2000) suggests that students can be recognised for their service activities through scholarships, awards, certificates, and farewell celebrations. Keeping SL in the public eye through press releases, newsletters, annual reports, and newspapers can extend recognition to all the stakeholders involved in SL projects. The study identified that incentives and rewards in the involvement in SL practices were trivial. AL stated that there are no formal incentives especially for teachers, rather academic managers informally give verbal rewards such as "keep it up", "thank you", etc., to SL implementers. AL contested that:

"Students do pay for 2 Credit hours SL course, but there no budget allocated for interns visit by mentors. Instead, part of this payment is set for assessment of interns' SL projects".

SMU has to permit teachers to visit interns in COs; it should budget for teachers' visit. KC and HH also complained about the absence of stipends for transport and ancillary costs of interns.

HA asserted that:

“Although there is structure for SL, there is lack of incentives, scarcity of budget, shortage of transport, and lack of partnership building with COs. The most incentive means used in government universities is payment of 50 Birr for students as stipends while per diem is paid for teachers”.

It was reported by TT and HA that *“Budget deficit inhibits incentivising and covering costs of interns and mentors. Therefore, universities are urged to reduce from the required number of days for SL engagement”*. AW suggested that *“It would be good if incentives are applied and enabling environment is created”*. TD also asserted that *“There is no formal incentive for interns. But up on their request, the colleges give letter certificate for those participating in SL activities”*. From document analysis at DMU, I noticed that some departments grant participation certificate and thank you letters to COs.

Inclusion of SL engagement in performance evaluation format can have motivating effect. Practically, HM stated *“SL engagement is not directly included as teachers' evaluation criteria. There is no incentive for participating in SL other than covering costs incurred”*. HA, AVP of WU also confirmed that:

“There are no rewards and incentives specifically tailored to SL activities. Employees are evaluated and rewarded based on result oriented system which is based on over all performances of teaching, research and community services. SL is part of teaching-learning, so it cannot be taken as criterion for reward and evaluation”.

Equating SL engagement to ordinary classroom teaching-learning underestimates efforts made by teachers to address community needs, to make education contextual and relevant. Surely, SL requires teachers and students extra efforts, time and risks. As stated by TD, *“there are both internal and external problems that hinder conducting SL*

activities”. ZA reported that “DMU has not given any recognition for our contribution in hosting and assisting interns. Another university has sent us appreciation letter”.

It is obvious that government universities consider SL engagement of teachers as part of ordinary teaching task, irrespective of efforts and risks pertaining to physical movements. Hence, there is no intention of rewarding teachers and students other than granting stipends. According to MS, SMU permits teachers participating in SL to get priority while extra payable tasks are allocated to teachers. Although mentors are not involved on site visit to interns, they assist interns on preparation of SL project documents, examine interns’ presentation of the projects and give grades. So, giving priority in extra payable tasks could be one strategy of recognising commitment of teachers for SL activities. Supporting this, GT stated that:

“Teachers who mentor ten interns are paid equivalent to 3 credit hours work load as additional payment without taxation. But there is no certificate to SL participating students and teachers. In some cases, COs are provided with certificate or thank you letters for the support they give to SL students”.

But the researcher of this study does not consider payment for the service given as stated above by GT as an incentive. Rather, this payment is made for involvement of teachers in SL activity in their summer vacation.

5.3.2.5.4 Scheduling Problem for Service Learning

In this study differences were observed between government and private case Universities in relation to internship scheduling such as time of duration, engagement season and SL assignment location. These scheduling decisions have bearings on application of SL internship engagement. Government universities conduct SL internship during winter semester at which students are off class for internship duties; it is four months duration and students are assigned to their localities based on their preferences. While students of the private university conduct SL internship during summer vacation time at which both mentors and interns are free of other duties, it is two months duration and placement confined to the capital city in which the university resides. In terms of time duration, government universities’ scheduling is longer than the

private counterpart. Although SL internship scheduling of the SMU at summer vacation permits full engagement of teachers in mentoring duties, teachers do not conducted field visits to interns due to absence of budget and transport problems. Some participants of Technology College report that the beginning of rainy season inhibits SL activities as most construction sites suspend their activities. GT noted that *“Interns go out for SL at the time of budget closure, so accounting students spend significant time without active engagement in financial activities”*.

EF contested that transport problem is one of the major causes for lag of this pedagogy. She noted that: *“the cause of transport problem is partly due to inability of departments and teachers to submit SL schedule timely to transport division”*. Her critic signifies that SL activities of different departments should be reported timely so that it can be endorsed in the plan of transport division.

5.3.2.5.5 Integration of Service Learning to Organisational Culture

Integration of SL engagement in the strategic plan, curriculum and mission statement is critical for concerted efforts and resource mobilisation. The Education and Training Policy of 1994 has set the policy framework for engagement of higher education students in the community. In this regard participants of all the three universities stated that SL was indorsed in strategic plan, mission and curriculum of the Universities. AVP’s of all the three case universities’ reported that, SL engagements were part of the University’s curriculum, and were graded. Despite inclusion of SL in the university’s strategic plan, SL projects were not jointly planned with COs. Except signing up of memoranda of understanding (MOU) with some COs, universities do not integrate their plans with COs, which imposes unplanned duties for COs.

Coordinated and smooth functioning of SL programme necessitates having shared plan, shared responsibility in implementation and programme evaluation between the two partnering entities. Actually as noted by DM there was no co-planning and evaluation of SL programme between WU and their office. It is also reiterated by ZA that there was no mutual planning and evaluation of SL activities. As reported by DB and others, “COs

complained that SL activities were unplanned which created additional task for the hosting agencies or organisations”.

5.3.2.5.6 Budgetary constraints for implementation of SL activities

Engagement in SL requires students and mentors to go out to COs, which in turn demands universities to spend resources including budget, transport facilities, accommodation and logistics. In this regard HA stated that:

“Presence of structure that handles SL activities, and allocation of budget and logistics is a good beginning. But, there is shortage of budget and extended payment procedures which hurdle SL activities. In addition, although administrative division decentralised to college level and with sufficient number of administrative employees, they lack commitment to effect payments on time”.

GA, from School of Law, is sympathy with decentralisation of CS to college level and presence of SL guideline at school level. However, she noted that *“FLS is hindered by transport and budget problems. Most of the budget for FLS comes from HRC, but as the budget release delays and the service also delays”*. FT assured that *“Due to lack of well-furnished laboratories in the University, sporadic placement of interns exacerbated mis-utilisation of budget and transport facilities”*.

HM confirmed that:

“Shortage and lag of release of budget are impediments for SL activities. Top level management lacks good understanding of SL programme. Thus, in many cases, they oblige colleges to either leave or reduce number of days of SL activities”.

Responses of above cited participants were in agreement with TT, AVP of DMU. He admitted that *“Budget for SL programme is not earmarked based on the number of interns as a result, deficit of budget is common”*. But, there was attempt of shifting of budget from other budget titles to SL programme. Complete rejection and reduction of duration of activities can cause mess on departments' plans, so it is germane to refine budget allocation during planning phase. Equally important is that finance personnel at college level should effect payments on time.

In such contingent deficit of budget for SL activities, searching for sponsors can serve as a mitigation strategy. But at this stage, there were no sponsoring organisations to support SL engagements in all case universities. Institutionalisation of SL is enhanced and sustained when many supporting organisations consider the issue of education as communal concern and devote their resources and work together with universities. In relation to this, sponsoring organisations involvement in SL was non-existent. TT confirmed that involvement of external organisations in supporting the university is insignificant. Similarly, there was no considerable involvement of sponsoring organisations in support of SL in WU. The issue is worse in SMU as there is no even a single sponsoring organisation to support SL engagement. This signifies that universities lack partnership building for addressing societal problems and communicating their potentials and areas of interest for working with interested organisations. Experiences of US and SA universities exhibited that, enormous foundations as well as business and educational organisations support SL projects in many respects.

5.3.2.5.7 Weak Information Communication Technology as a Means of Communication

Active participation and commitment of personnel can be elicited through sharing information on plans, performance status, opportunities and best experiences. In this regard, managers are required to make information accessible to students, teaching and non-teaching personnel, and to relevant stakeholders. Based on this understanding, the study attempted to examine as to how information pertaining to SL engagement is collected, organised and disseminated. The study discovered that SMU has better information exchange mechanism compared to the other two case government universities. AL and MS described that *“Policies, rules, plans, implementation reports, senate decisions and urgent issues are communicated through intranet (office outlook)”*. They consider organisational culture transparent and cooperative. MS confidently confirmed that:

“ICT is strong to distribute institution’s information and documents to relevant stakeholders. The university posts quality audit report of Higher Education Relevance and Quality Assurance (HERQA) on its website. Data base of different guidelines and manuals, policies and students’ thesis is well organised and easily accessible”.

WA stated that in addition to use of intranet the university applies exhibition and weekly talk show to share information. This experience of the private university can be considered as the best experience from which government universities can draw lesson. In government Universities, TK contended that *“ICT is too weak to make information accessible”*. He argued that *“Departments should develop and update their websites so that they can communicate with different stakeholders”*. Most participants of government universities were not satisfied with their Universities usage of ICT as a means of information flow among individuals and stakeholders. For instance, AGA and HA described that *“Although employees are briefed on the universities plans and implementation reports through annual meetings, ICT as a means of communication and accessing policies and other documents is poor”*. ICT can serve as a bridge for communicating the potentials and resources of different departments so that external community can identify interfacing agenda that can work together in a view to addressing communal issues.

5.3.2.5.8 Continuous Professional Development

Knowledge of varieties of teaching methods and principles is a key for successful teaching. However, teachers in Ethiopian universities are recruited mainly based on discipline based achievement. Thus, majority of them are without pedagogical training. For instance, majority of teachers in health and technology colleges are bachelor degree holders who teach without sufficient pedagogical training. Thus, both short and long term pedagogical trainings are very essential to offset pedagogical problems of teachers. As HA reported, *“many teachers lack pedagogical knowledge as all teachers with BA/BSc degree did not take pedagogy courses”*. The response of TT strengthened idea of HA in that *“In Technology College most of the teachers are undergraduates so they lack pedagogical knowledge”*. He suggested that senior teachers should coach junior ones.

TT further explained that:

“DMU gives extensive long term trainings for teachers to promote their educational level. For instance, one-third of the teachers in the university are on post-graduate training. In addition, teachers attend exhibitions and benchmarking programmes with other universities to draw lessons from and share experiences with seasoned teachers”.

EF reported that *“Teachers should be provided with trainings that develop their skills of research, publication and assessment”*. However, DMU gives extensive long term trainings for teachers to promote their educational level. He justified that:

“One-third of the teachers in the university possessed post-graduate training. In addition, teachers attend exhibitions and benchmarking programmes with other universities to draw lessons from and share experiences with seasoned teachers”.

The responses of participants from government universities signified that both short and long term pedagogical and other professional trainings were contributing to their career development and they should be given based on felt need of teachers. Nonetheless, the study revealed that teachers from the private university were not interested in short term professional trainings. As stated by MS, WA and GT *“Although SMU facilitates different short and long term trainings, teachers were not interested to attend short term trainings that do not upscale their educational level”*. It was also reported by LA and MK that *“There is high turnover of teachers because of unfair salary, as most of the participants reported that teachers’ salary is not fair”*. But teachers appreciate post graduate scholarship sponsored by this university. Lack of interest to participate in short term trainings and high turnover of teachers might be attributed to low level of salary. It is because if teachers cannot get reasonable salary that support their livelihood they cannot give due attention for their professional growth.

Research Questions 5: How is community and university partnership managed to streamline the SL teaching method?

5.3.2.6 Limitation in Partnership Building and Role Identification

Partnership is a state of willingness and commitment between collaborative parties to pursue mutual beneficiary objectives. Such initiative usually ends in signing MOU that serves as guiding document to set common objectives, determine roles, mobilise efforts and to share resources. Partnership is an entrance door for collaborative engagement and efficient attainment of communal objectives. Partnership between university and COs is critical for effective and sustained application of SL activities. As it is reviewed in chapter two of this study, Holland (in Pasque et al., 2005) underscores the importance of having collaboration as a means by which joint exploration of goals and interests and limitations maintained; shared leadership, decision-making, conflict resolution, resource management facilitated; clear benefits and roles for each partner is identified; promote communication and trust among partners are promoted; and elicit commitment to continuous assessment of the partnership itself, as well as outcomes of shared work. Torres and Schaffer (in Umpleby, 2011) categorise partnership management stages in to three: designing partnerships based on values, building collaborative working relationships among partners, and sustaining the partnerships. This signifies partnership building begins with searching for organisations that have interest to work collaboratively towards common objectives, bargain to establish working relation; and work for longevity of established partnership through continuous monitoring and evaluation, and shared decision and leadership.

In view of these theoretical perspective and partnership principles, analysis of empirical data informed that partnership management problem was one of the major problems which had a bearing on effectiveness of SL programme. In this regard analysis of data gathered both from participants and documents revealed that both universities and COs were not active in initiating partnership agreement, working cooperatively and sustaining partnership. Most of the participants attested that there was no partnership for SL between universities and COs. Response of participants from COs working with SMU

confirmed that they did not have partnership agreement with the University. DB, a Senior Hardware and Network Administration in Ministry of Health (MOH), described that:

“Universities do not have partnership with our ministry, but as we understand, internship and other practical training programmes are part of the curriculum, we simply accept interns. I do not include activities of interns’ supervision in my plan but I try to help interns when they come”.

The description of DB signifies that organisations host interns with mere understanding of SL programme as government policy than the benefits that can be acquired from the programme.

TG an employee in Ethiopian Shipping and Logistics Enterprise, contested that:

“SMU has to initiate partnership in order to implement its curriculum. Our organisation has no initiation to build partnership. We do not even ask what students did while they stay as interns”.

Similarly, AL underscored that *“SMU rather send interns based on its need to have training facilities in the COs and achieve its educational missions. So, SL is not integrated to the plan of COs”.* Although they do not have partnership with universities, most COs permit interns to practise SL activities. However, absence of partnership agreement hinders cooperative application of SL based on shared objectives and clearly identified roles.

Experiences of the government universities are not that much different. Although there are some efforts to build partnership with a few COs to work together, majority of SL hosting organisations still do not have partnership agreement with universities. AW, head of UIL in DMU, stated that:

“Initiation partnership building emanates from the university. The university has MOU with major companies such as Bure Mineral Water, and Dejen Jesso Factory. For other COs which do not have partnership agreement either students or the university request them to allow students to get practical learning in their organisations. But I feel that we are not working in an integrated way with COs”.

TT, AVP of SMU, stated that:

“The university has signed MOU with hospitals and some other major COs so that students can use workshops that enhance classroom learning. However, in many cases, we do not establish partnership with COs, we send students for SL through supportive letters as it is common that students go out for practical training at certain year level”.

As stated by DM, head of HRM at Dessie Woreda Court, partnership agreement maintained between his organization and WU facilitated shared use of resources for mission accomplishment of partners. He expressed benefits of securing partnership in that:

“There is partnership agreement between WU and legal institutions. As most of the judges are diploma holders, the university is giving in-service training to promote their qualification. In turn, legal institutions are positive to host interns”.

However, YD, Mechanical Engineering Department head at WU contended that *“Although there is UIL, it is weak in building partnership and promoting awareness of COs. As a result, COs are not volunteer to allow interns to conduct practical activities”.* UIL of Technology College at government Universities are supposed to establish partnership and transfer technologies. But, this unit is not empowered to conduct partnership building and identification of common area of interest with COs.

5.3.2.6.1 Lack Dedication and Disciplinary Problem of Interns

The study revealed that majority of interns select SL placement to COs by themselves. This privilege is given to students mainly due to two reasons: first, universities do not usually conduct placement identification assessment, second, to permit interns perform SL in their locality in a view to minimise costs. Responsible offices for SL at universities identify SL hosting COs for those interns who could not get placement by themselves, which is not more than 5%. Due to lack of placement assessment and partnership, majority of interns are usually sent to COs with cooperation requesting letter relying on interns' placement preferences. This practice ignites question on appropriateness and relevance of COs for anticipated SL objectives. Students are privileged to select hosting

organisations. According to FT, self-selection of SL placement by students has negative effect. He justified that:

“Several students are careless, they fraud in placement selection. They select non-existing enterprises or organisations that do not have relevance for their SL activities. Selection criteria for COs are based on COs’ experiences, capacity to accommodate, transport and learning facilities”.

HA added *“Proximity, and similarity of service activities to students’ disciplines”* were part of COs selection criteria for SL placement.

However, the above cited SL placement selection criteria are not critically examined while interns are assigned to COs. It is because number of students to be assigned for SL is high. In addition, hosting organisations are highly scattered to get relevant data about COs.

HH described her placement experience in that:

“I got a CO for internship by myself as the university gives us privilege to select by ourselves. I personally did not face challenges to secure placement as the enterprise I selected was small to communicate and convince them. But I understood that other students faced challenges from COs resisting not to host them for SL”.

Securing hosting organisation for SL is one of the major challenges that interns face. Numerous interns are challenged by resistance of COs not to host mainly due to absence of partnership agreement between COs and Universities.

5.3.2.6.2 Unplanned Service Learning and Imposed Task

Engagement in SL necessarily demands active involvement of COs and universities. Lack of mutual initiation of partnering parties according to Holland as cited in Pasque et al. (2005:13) hurdles *“joint exploration of goals and interests and limitations; employing shared leadership, decision-making, conflict resolution, resource management; and identification of clear benefits and roles for each partner”*. ZA, Administrator of Menkoror

Construction Debre Markos Branch Office, blamed universities for not setting mutual plan and evaluation of SL activities with COs. DM described that:

“Although there is an agreement between this organisation and WU, it lacks strong partnership and integration on the programme. There is no cooperative planning and evaluation of SL activities with the university. However, they send law and ICT interns through support letters. Based on the agreement, the university gives free education for our judges to promote their educational level from diploma to bachelor degree, and our office hosts SL students and give trainings for them”.

He suggested that *“Responsible managers or teachers should come and contact the organisation to facilitate SL programme than sending interns only with cooperation requesting letters”.* He justified that *“their presence creates awareness for employees. And it would be important if university gives feedback about achievement level of previous internship programme, so that the organisation can improve its services”.* HA stated that:

“There is no integration of plans among COs and universities. We send students to implement our plan. Hence, sometimes differences of plans cause conflict between COs and universities”.

The description of HA signifies that universities should establish partnership with COs that paves way for collaboratively setting mutually benefiting plans. Assigning students in COs for SL internship without consideration of availability of resources and plans of COs creates burden on COs.

5.3.2.7 Selection of Community Organisations for SL Placement

Proper internship placement has paramount importance in achieving desired service and learning objectives. Prior assessment of mission and activities of COs and making partnership agreement are preconditions for proper placement of interns. It is identified that in all of the case universities, students were given privilege to identify and select COs for SL internship. Government universities permit placement of interns throughout the country based on the preference of interns. On the other hand, according to FT and GT, *“Unless there are critical cases almost all interns of the private university conduct*

SL in Addis Ababa, where the university resides. Some interns are permitted to conduct SL in their locality". This was basically to reduce cost of visits as there is no compensation for stipends for interns. E-mail and telephone are major information exchange mechanisms between interns, mentors and agency supervisors. Placement selection criteria for COs are based on COs' experiences, capacity to accommodate and transport facilities. In case of Health Colleges, prevalence of diseases is considered as additional criteria for selection of hosting organisation. Placement of SL internship has been challenged by different factors such as assignment of interns at irrelevant tasks, interns' idleness in COs, resistance of COs to host interns, high number of interns, awareness problem of COs and lack of accommodation in some COs. Most importantly, assignment of interns based on individual preference resulted in scattered and individualised placement of interns which inhibits collaborative learning. Moreover, individualised placement of interns creates loneliness among interns which hurdles active and creative involvement of interns in SL activities.

5.3.2.7.1 Problems of COs towards SL Students and Tendency to Resist Hosting

AL stated that training of students in partnership with industries is a common trend in foreign nations such as Germany and others. He complained that *"COs in Ethiopia are not interested in cooperatively training students, they afraid hosting students for SL causes machines failure"*.

AW also confirmed that COs are not interested to host interns. He put his observation of COs in that *"Employees say 'we do not want to have conflict with students; we prefer doing our own work in peace'"*. Such resistances are attributed to many factors. For instance, students' number is very high as compared to the number of companies available to the university and their hosting capability. In addition, many students do not duly engage in assigned activities; they also have disciplinary problems, inefficiency in time management and inability to work harmoniously with employees of COs. Inability to build partnership is another challenge for running SL.

DB contended that there is a tendency of underestimating the youth by COs. He recommended that:

“COs should bring about attitudinal change towards this generation. Today's interns are workers of tomorrow who will serve the nation. Hence, COs should consider interns as their sisters and brothers and share their knowledge and skills for them wholeheartedly. Everyone has to encourage interns to be self-confident and strong, rather than blaming them as incompetent”.

DB perceives educating citizens as social responsibility. Hence, working towards behavioural and educational improvement is significant than blaming the young generation.

SA noted that:

“Students are not committed to respect office hours which they are supposed to work eight hours a day, and they are not courageous enough to cope up with the challenges such as smell and sound at a work place. Interns are reluctant at work; they are not interested to learn from agency supervisors and employees”.

TT, AVP of DMU, underlined the challenges of external environment for conducting SL as follows.

“There should be as many COs and industries as possible that can host SL students. But the reality in our university is not that. Unavailability of huge SL hosting industries obliged us to send interns to areas far from the university. Even those which are available in the vicinity of the university are crowded by interns coming from other universities, for all students of same year level from public and private universities go for SL at the same time. Hence, students are given privilege to select hosting organisations for SL internship. As placement of interns dispersed and mentors are on duty, it is difficult to give support and control. Thus interns are attached to nearby university to be followed up and evaluated by them”.

Incompatibility of number of COs and industries to accommodate interns for SL is critical problem. Moreover, as the internship placement time of most universities coincides hosting interns becomes beyond the capacity of COs. This implies the need for rearrangement of SL placement of universities.

Universities have partnership agreement with only some major organisations in their vicinity. Due to this limitation of establishing partnership, they place most of the students for SL through cooperation letters. It is also confirmed by HM in that:

“Colleges’ relation with COs is very loose; students engage in SL mostly with their efforts. There is no integrated relation with potential partners, so students are attached with COs for SL through cooperation letters written by departments”.

FT stated that:

“SMU lists core theoretical concepts students learnt in the classroom on which students need additional practical trainings, examining this document COs select whom they can handle as interns. We send interns based on our need to have training facilities in the COs and achieve our missions. SL is not integrated to the plan of COs”.

From the description of FT, it is clear that effort of SMU to place interns based up on mutual agreement and objectives is minimal. Rather, placement decision of interns merely left to COs which may be challenge for interns to have hosting organisations.

TT told that:

“The university has signed MOU with some industries such as Metals and Engineering Corporation (METEC) and Bure Mineral Water, and Debre Markos, Mota and Finote Selam Hospitals so that students can use workshops and facilities for enhancing classroom learning. Innovative medicine students are mainly practicing SL training in these hospitals; health students give services as ordinary health workers during SL. Specialist doctors in these hospitals give courses on part time basis, they coach inters, and necessary payments are effected. However, in many cases we do not establish partnership with COs, we send students for SL through supportive letters, as it is common that students go out for practical training at certain year level. There is a need to strengthen partnership building and awareness creation about SL. Partnership building is not that much strong compared to other performance achievements of the university”.

GA, teacher in Department of Law at DMU, also assured that:

“There is no strong partnership with legal institutions. SL is conducted based on judges’ willingness. About 95% of interns are placed for SL at hosting institutions based on their preferences. As students prefer placement around their locality, those who are placed far are attached to nearby universities for follow up and send assessment reports of interns. Mentors visit interns once within four months of SL programme”.

Responses of these participants implied that Universities' effort to develop partnership and to engage students in COs with pre-defined purpose and role is insignificant. Due to lack of partnership agreement partnering parties do not have clear understanding of their roles and purposes of SL, they are not aware of resources requirements and challenges of SL activities. SL implementation cannot be smoothly coordinated if common agenda and strategies are not set. Thus, as partnership building effort is minimum, partners develop attitudinal and commitment problems.

SA, head of training division at Kombolch Textile Enterprise, explained actual practice of SL as follows:

“We do have MOU with WU, but the agreement is not implemented as supposed to be. There is no close contact, coordinated planning, cooperation during implementation and programme evaluation. No one comes with interns to introduce them with our employees. The university simply sends us placement consent form and students’ evaluation form. We have positive attitude to interns, it is our obligation to support and guide them in their stay for practical training. However, we are not receiving significant support in empowering employees. We need support in production improvement. Although, we often get training up on our request from WU, we still need scholarship and more trainings for our employees”.

His description put SL as a duty imposed from external authority irrespective to the challenges his organisation has. Even though partnership agreement is made, it is not sustained through continuous feedback, monitoring and capacitating each other.

SL implementation needs smooth cooperation, supportive environment, and committed partners. Respect and concern for others in SL activities is instrumental for working

together in a harmonious manner. It is critical for sharing of knowledge and skills, and basis for communal knowledge generation. Engagement of interns in services and learning activities would be effective when there is reciprocity between COs and universities. There should be conducive environment for free exchange of knowledge and skill and support between partnering parties. Reciprocity demands partners to have competency in sharing experiences. Thus, the level of competency and commitment of partnering parties has bearing on interns' engagement. In this regard, the study identified that inefficiency of employees of hosting organisations as barrier for quality support given to interns. DM and KY reported that as most of the judges and health workers in their respective institution are diploma holders, it hinders proper support and reciprocity. KC also complained that *"Some employees do not have good understanding of even their organisational vision and mission. Thus, they do not have sufficient knowledge to share"*. In this regard, universities are giving both short and long term in-service trainings to partnering organisations in order to advance their qualification. But, FT noted that *"Many COs including Akasta and Mekaneselem hospitals complained that WU does not give training opportunity for health employees"*.

Research Questions 6: What challenges are faced by the Ethiopian Universities in promoting institutionalisation of SL?

5.3.2.8 Lack of Commitment from Service Learning Participants

Commitment of participants to SL activities is the driving factor for achieving desired objectives of students' learning and community needs. Most importantly, commitment of top management of universities to SL activities is very critical for it to succeed. Top management decides on resources allocation to SL engagement and presence of structure in the university. Its contribution to partnership development with COs is also valuable. FT lauded the commitment of top management, in terms of allocation of budget, organisation of SLO, development of SL policy and manual, and inclusion of SL in SP and curriculum. HZ remarked that *"Commitment to SL application is good both from top management and employees. Administrative personnel are many and their commitment to support this program is good"*. Although FT and HZ appreciated the

commitment of top management in supporting SL, still teachers are not permitted to visit interns' progress in COs. Absence of mentors visit hinders support given, controlling and grasping of feedback.

In government universities, teachers feel that top level managers are reluctant to SL projects. Some of their justifications included budget shortage which resulted in shortening of duration of SL, weakness in partnership building with COs, less effort to alleviate transportation problem and lack of recognition to SL participants. HG, a student of Public Health at DMU, and GD, a teacher in Mechanical Engineering Department at the same university, were discontent with the reduction of SL internship duration due to budget deficient. Lack of learning resources and facilities were reported as challenges of SL practices. HM suggested that *"Accommodation rooms should be built in district town health stations so that interns can treat emergency coming during night time"*.

5.3.2.8.1 Leadership in Having Systemic Thinking

Working with both internal and external stakeholders for SL activities requires leadership competency in setting compelling targets, mobilising efforts and resources, motivating participants, creating suitable structure and working procedures. Developing system thinking approach among academic managers is essential. University leadership should clearly identify potential partners for SL, develop data bases, contact and negotiate for cooperation work towards mutual rewarding agenda. Involving parties in SL should have continuous interaction and flow of information. Necessary learning materials and facilities should be availed that permit engagement of interns. Employing effective ICT system is critical for accessing feedbacks, areas of interests, and potentials for cooperative works, and securing sponsoring organisations in addressing educational and community goals.

5.3.2.8.2 Impact of Supports and Feedback Constraints on Interns' Commitment

SL engagement of students need to be consistently followed up and supported in a view for students to achieving the desired purpose of accomplishing services to the community and learning objectives. This follow up and support should be given both by COs and universities. Effective application of SL activities demands close contact

between interns, agency supervisors and mentors. Engagement in practical activities usually threatens interns as they are new for organisational culture, procedures, lack of practical competency and courage. Interns should be given relevant tasks on time. In addition, it is necessary to closely monitor and support interns. In this regard, every service action of interns should simultaneously be interrelated to the academic and civic learning through reflection which in turn demands consistent follow-up and support. Hence, active involvement of agency supervisors and mentors in guiding, orienting and monitoring interns' service and learning progress is highly instrumental. There should also be close contact and exchange of feedback between agency supervisors and mentors for timely correct practical challenges.

In this regard, data gained from student, teacher and COs participants revealed that most of the time mentors do not follow up and support their interns. They do not also have close contact with agency supervisors to know about progress of interns. FT and SA contested that lack of contact between agency supervisors and mentors made agency supervisors reluctant in controlling and supporting interns. LA stated that:

“Due to absence of budget for SL visit, teachers do not participate in on site supervision. Thus, teachers cannot give support on concept wise challenges that students face. Due to this lack of feedback and follow up marketing students for instance, have been assigned as messengers in COs”.

Regarding the lack of mentors' visit, the report of SA was surprising:

“A single mentor from chemistry department of WU came and discussed about interns' performance and challenges. But most mentors do not come to our enterprise, of course, they might meet interns personally. I believe that mentors should come to the enterprise and discuss with agency supervisors and work together for better interns' training”.

What is surprising in this regard is that even interns placed within the same city, where universities resided, were not visited by their mentors and sent by cooperation requesting letters. It is important issue to be looked into and be addressed appropriately. Possible cause might be the lack of commitment of teachers to devote

their time and energy, scheduling problem, and lack of guidance and monitoring from academic managers.

According to EF, a teacher in Law School at WU:

“Mentors visit interns once around the end of SL internship programme. During this visit, mentors ask agency supervisors what interns did and what knowledge and skills interns lack”.

Her description implies that mentors do not support interns individually. It may be due to lack of time and awareness about role of mentors. Mentors are expected to collect feedback about individual intern's progress, relevance of activities in which interns engaged to academic learning, and resolving challenges interns faced.

Contrary to EF's response, YD reported that:

“Mentors from non-health College visit interns once; while they are in the field for a week. In addition, they communicate with interns through E-mail and telephone. But mentors do not usually meet with agency supervisors”.

Mentors of Health College are required to visit interns once in two weeks. But KY, head of Amanuel Town Health Centre, asserted that mentors do not visit their students. TD reported that *“Communication between agency supervisor and mentors is very low, unless there appear critical problems, mentors do not communicate with COs”*. MB complained with lack of strong follow up and support from mentors. He assured that *“Mentors visit interns only once during the programme, and their stay for mentoring is short. But, we learn from SL because we are committed for that; otherwise, the support from mentors is very low”*. ZA, agency supervisor, seriously complained that:

“There is no follow up and control from the university. We do not have contact with our supervisors other than once throughout the internship. Technical Education and Vocational Trainers educated by regional colleges are better in management of internship than universities. There are no controlling and communication mechanisms universities devised”.

Thus, feedback exchange about students' progress is very limited. COs are desperate with such disorganised experiences to work cooperatively with universities. Analysis of

these scenarios revealed that lack of visit to interns by mentors can be affected by scheduling problem as teachers are on duty and placement of interns is highly dispersed for government universities; for the private university, teachers do not participate in visiting interns, for there is no payment set for such an activity.

Experience of MB regarding support and follow up of interns is mixed. He described his and others experiences in that:

“I was assigned to a Cement Factory which is some 383 km far from my university; of course, it is based on my preference. Industries host interns from different universities based on quota. The support I got from hosting organization is good. However, there are some COs which do not control and support interns. For instance, some interns had been told to come only two days per week, it is mainly due to high number of interns which made agency supervisors busy. In addition, although COs permit to host interns, they could not fulfill the minimum training facilities such as computers and no accommodation offices”.

Description of MB informed that, on the one hand, some agency supervisors are lenient to support and control. On the other hand, high number of interns assigned to COs hinders the support to be given by COs.

Perception of TK towards support given by agency supervisors differs from the rest. He argued that:

“Supports given by agency supervisors vary based on the interns’ commitment and interest. Although agency supervisors are assigned to interns, support given to interns by most supervisors is low, some agency supervisors give projects to interns and encourage them to perform on it so that interns can know better. Still some COs give very significant training for interns such as basic material design and AutoCAD”.

From the description of TK it can be deduced that interns’ commitment and interest are some of the determinants of support given by agency supervisors.

It is identified that COs and Universities are complaining against each other regarding the role they are supposed to play. COs blame universities for not following up and

controlling interns, and securing partnership. On the other hand, universities are not satisfied with supports given by agency supervisors. In this regard, FT argued that:

“Most of the time employees of COs are not interested to help interns. They prohibit utilisation of office resources including computers. COs afraid that interns would cause computer failure and leak information. In many occasions, interns are misplaced, for instance accounting interns were assigned in record offices. Sometimes COs use shifting system which reduces internship time”.

TD strengthened the above complaint in that “COs do not have well-coming atmosphere. They consider interns inexperienced to give proper services. However, their attitude changes to better after we did some important tasks”.

MS complained that “Some COs afraid of losing of institutional security if interns are placed in some important positions, so they tend to distant interns. Even sometimes, interns are not given agency supervisors”. Such sentiment can hinder reciprocity by which cooperative exchange and development of knowledge and skills. Hence, COs should develop positive welcoming behaviour. Agency supervisors complained that handling internship is extra duty. Moreover, they are challenged by interns’ misbehaviour, absenteeism and lack of interest for asking and actively involving in activities. FT assured that:

“Sometimes students create problems related to placement for internship. For instance, last year (2015) four students were identified that they committed fraud as they nominated and selected non-existing organisations for placement. Hence, they are obliged to take the SL internship again”.

DB also complained with interns’ misbehaviour and lack of resources as follows:

“Considerable number of interns does not use resources properly and for permitted purposes. They tend to devote to irrelevant non-educational social media: facebook, you tube, and e-movies. In some cases, interns have problem in hygiene, suit protocol, and hair style. We often try to shape their personality in this regard. Although the Ministry has relatively better resources but still there are shortage of some infrastructure such as computers, tables and chairs to accommodate interns”.

Support given to interns depends on the conviction and commitment of individuals in hosting organisations. ZA stated that *“Interns have commitment to know thus they exert efforts to know”*. He further detailed SL engagement of interns beginning from interns’ placement process to supports given during their stay:

“Students ask our consent to host them. We inform them our willingness to host them, then students bring formal internship placement letters from their departments. We accept interns on quota base, in this year we accepted 20 interns. Once we host interns, we strictly control their attendance and encourage them for active engagement in practical activities. I was a teacher with 14 years of experience. I have quite good understanding of how students should learn and behave. I strictly control students to engage in service activities so that they can promote their knowledge and skills through practical activities. As interns come to our project to develop their skills, we give them assignments to design a building, of course, we provide them necessary materials to their assignment. Interns carry out both simple tasks that ordinary labourer does and complex tasks that demand mathematical calculation and design. However, we do not have contact with the university even for a single day. No discussion with and orientation from university, simply we receive interns through cooperation letters”.

Although there was no partnership and collaborative work between ZA’s organisation and SMU, his teaching experience and commitment induced him to give interns unreserved support and follow up. This signifies that it is the approach and commitment of agency supervisors that makes interns active participants. It is apparent that enthusiastic involvement of interns in both ordinary and complex tasks seems the result of collaborative and supportive environment of the organisation.

FT and HM underlined that *“Mentors in Health Colleges should follow up students on daily base while interns observe wards and reflect on it”*. Though mentors of Health Colleges were supposed to personally appear and assist interns, health centres supervisors and interns complained that most of the time, mentors do not appear to health centres. I have also observed that health interns of the two case-government universities were conducting their SL at health centres without the presence of their mentors. It is also identified that majority of health workers at health centres are diploma holders, which is below the interns’ education level. That means, level of support from

supervisors decreases which has discouraging effect on interns in initiating new ideas and commitment. Many students and even some teachers wrongly consider SL internship programme as a recreation time. Such beliefs inhibit commitment of these parties to the programme. MM, a judge in Debere Markos Town Woreda, and SA, human resource and training head of Kombolicha Textile Enterprise, also complained that *“Mentors do not visit interns; the programme is totally left to hosting organisations”*. This critic was also reflected in the focus group discussion that I held with four interns, from Mechanical Engineering Department, who were conducting their SL internship in the above cited enterprises. Interns severely complained that they do not know their mentors and do not get any support from the university. They reported that they were not provided with personal equipments and gown, thus they felt unnecessarily entailed to expend for these materials. Health students of WU contested that they could not get free health service from health centres in which they are conducting SL.

5.3.2.8.3 Low Satisfaction of Community Organisations from Service Learning

Fruitfulness of interns in learning and service giving during their SL engagement is significantly determined by the support and follow up given by agency supervisors and mentors. In addition, they should also be supported by availing learning materials. Contribution of interns for COs is also affected by commitment of interns. DM remarked that *“Interns contribute to our office by reducing burden of judges as they help judges by registering legal issues and capable ones are given opportunity to handle cases and give decisions”*.

YD also added that:

“Many agency supervisors provide good support to interns as they believe that interns fill the knowledge and skill gaps of the organisations, thus they want interns to be assigned to their organisations. Some COs encourage interns to prepare projects and present it to employees. But most of the COs are not satisfied with interns’ contribution for their organisational development. They blame interns for they do not report their project works to hosting organisations; important projects are not made practical due to financial problem and lack of cooperation work between universities and COs”.

WA described that some COs are not satisfied with interns' contribution as students lack competency, for instance, lack of maintenance skills. KY complained that:

“Each year, interns from Health Colleges come to conduct similar SL projects framed with construction and modelling of rural housing. Such repetitive acts of interns bore community members. Hence, interns should involve in clinical research with close supervision of their mentors than totally devote their time and energy on environmental hygiene”.

Generally, the level service contribution of interns to COs and learning are determined by different factors, such as provision of support and feedback by agency supervisors and mentors, commitment and competency of interns, and congruence of service to the need of the COs.

5.3.2.8.4 Lack of Deliverables from Service Learning Projects

Interns wait in COs for SL internship relatively for long. During this engagement, if they are committed and critically supervised and supported, they can produce significant deliverables that can improve the mission accomplishment of COs. During their stay in COs, interns identify issues that seek improvements. Thus, they need to submit or present their reflection or projects for improvement of hosting organisations. Moreover, deliverables to the hosting organisation promote trust and smooth relationship between COs and universities that facilitate conditions for later engagement. Having this in mind, the study tried to examine if interns submitted or presented organisational improvement projects or reflection documents. Data gained from participants revealed that almost all of the interns did not submit or present any deliverables to COs. DM, ZA and others assured that almost all interns did not deliver any kind of report or projects to the hosting organisations. The response of student HH is similar to comments of agency supervisors stated above. She reported that *“We do not submit or present projects to COs as we believe they do not use it. Since we are temporary service givers, we feel they do not need our projects”.*

Her report implies that interns are not confident with their ability to contribute for development of COs. It also agrees with the remark given by WA under (5.3.2.8.3). He

noted that COs consider interns incompetence and lack satisfaction from interns' services. Lack of active and creative engagement of interns during SL seems to be the basis for hesitance of COs about interns' competency.

Almost all COs except Kombolcha Textile Enterprise confirmed that interns do not submit any deliverables. This strains the relation between COs and Universities. Interns should present what they did and learnt during their stay in COs. However, it depends on the COs, some hosting organisations follow up and control interns' progress and finally receive copy of interns' report prepared to their mentors for assessment. MB remarked that *"Commitment of interns to engage in service activities varies according to organisations. We provided reports to COs weekly. Some interns presented their projects to COs"*.

As stated by SA, in Kombolcha Textile Enterprise:

"Interns are encouraged to prepare projects and present it. Some interns' projects are valuable to the enterprise. For instance, an intern from Bahir Dar University has prepared 'towel colour design' and we gave him a certificate for his significant contribution. Some important project ideas or proposals generated by interns are printed put in the library of the organisation so that the coming interns can read them".

Documenting and availing of works of previous interns can motivate future interns coming to the organisation for creativity and commitment. They also serve as learning experiences for students and employees. They can help the COs to make use of and improve interns' projects in order to enhance their production level. Moreover, submission of deliverables minimises a sentiment of being "living laboratories" that can be developed by COs.

5.3.2.9 Lack of Awareness about Service Learning among Participating Parties

Level of understanding of participating parties about SL significantly affects ones engagement. Participating parties should have clear conceptual understanding of SL benefits, application technique and partners' roles. Understanding about SL practices is the function of theoretical knowledge and awareness raising programmes. Pertaining to

this, participants have different views. FT, at SMU, confirmed that *“There is lack of awareness about SL from participating parties, not only from COs but also from teachers. Teachers are usually urged to participate in SL activities”*.

YD, at WU, argued that *“Industries lack understanding about the benefit of SL they simply host interns as they believe SL is government’s policy”*. GD and WA reported that *“Students, COs and academic managers have low awareness and commitment. Students are negligent, they do not seriously attend SL activities, rather they consider it as recreation time, hence they are not committed to learning and service objectives.”* GD contested that:

“COs do not consider students’ education as social responsibility, as a result they tend to distant SL students. Academic managers have low understanding about importance of SL and its challenges, as they do not visit SL sites”.

The statements of GD are critical. Educating citizens is a complex task that demands huge resources and collaborative involvement of every organisation.

5.3.2.9.1 Lack of Sufficient Orientation Resulted in Development of Misconception of SL as Recreation Time

It was the interest of this study to know whether mentors and department heads have good understanding about focus of assessment, either service or learning out of the service. Their understanding is in agreement with the theory that it emphasises on academic and civic learning gained out of service engagement. What lacks is that almost all participants of SL do not have deep understanding about the roles expected of participating parties in the planning, implementation and evaluation phases. Some important justifications for this are considerable number of interns and mentors consider SL projects as recreation, thus they lack commitment. This can be, as KC reported, due to lack of detail orientation given to interns and negligence from interns and mentors. She stated that *“Orienting interns can be difficult as majority of interns select hosting organisation by themselves universities may not know what COs do”*. It is obvious that provision of orientation about specific characteristics COs become difficult for interns

are privileged to select their SL hosting organisations and universities are weak in partnership building.

Several COs lack awareness, they consider SL as simple requirement for students' graduation. For instance, DM reported that *"There is a sentiment that SL programme is national concern. Thus all interns coming for SL are kindly assisted and allowed to refer any documents for their training"*. What should be clear is that the reason behind employing SL pedagogy is for its practical application and its instrumentality for promoting relevance and quality of education. In this regard, GT confirmed that universities have weakness in raising awareness of COs about benefits and handling of SL activities.

As stated by AW, *"Teachers provide orientation to interns on what they should do in COs, in addition they provide formats to interns."* TD noted that *"we are oriented about amount of time we should work and what to do, but it depends on teachers' commitment"*. MB strengthened the idea of TD in that "UIL and departments briefly orient interns to identify problem in COs and prepare intervention strategies. Responses of many participants justified that interns are not oriented sufficiently. It is also important to orient COs about the programme and how they support and assess interns. But as stated by heads of SL offices of universities, orientation is not given to COs. Support and follow up given by mentors to interns and COs should also be monitored by departments and SLOs.

5.3.2.10 Problem of Service Learning Students and Programme Assessment

The final phase of SL programme is evaluation of students' achievement of academic and civic learning and examination of effectiveness and challenges of the programme in terms of prior set objectives.

5.3.2.10.1 Lack of Critical Assessment of Interns and Granting of Word Grades as Barrier for Students' Dedication

Assessment of students should be based on frequently collected objective data. These data should be collected by interns themselves, mentors and COs supervisors. Assessment process should give interns opportunity to assess themselves; they should

identify their strengths and weaknesses. Of course, such data should examine the SL objectives, commonly known as learning and service objectives. In order to facilitate assessments of students' achievement and programme's success, clear articulation of objectives is a precondition.

Proponents of SL pedagogy underline the duty of interns' assessment to be conducted by COs supervisor and course teacher. The assessment result of interns should be based on critical examination of what is learned as a result of CS. Some scholars criticise that SL grades are erroneously given for the services students do to the community than learning out of their experience, thus SL lacks deep knowledge. AGA described assessment of SL students in that:

"Interns are assessed by COs supervisors and course teachers. While assessing interns, mentors focus on their project documents, presentation, and defending ability. Supervisors' assessment is based on assessment format sent from universities".

AA stated that *"Supervisors assess interns based on attendance, behaviour, initiation to learn, team approach, etc. Interns are rated 'Pass or Fail' based on cumulative point of the assessors"*. TG described his attitude towards evaluating interns as follows:

"I feel discomfort when I fill interns' evaluation forms sent by the university. For one thing, students' performance is low, and for another thing, I encountered with unreliable evaluation form came from other university which categorises students' performance 'qualified and unqualified'. I have also observed that assessment criteria set in evaluation format mostly emphasise on attendance and communication skills. Their relation to subject matter concepts is negligible".

HH was highly contended with problem associated with students' SL assessment. Her critics are put as follows.

"There is negligence from interns and COs supervisors. They fail to discharge their roles genuinely. For instance, interns hosted in those COs having acquaintances exhibit truancy and late entrance to office. Agency supervisors are negligent in controlling interns' progress, and at times evaluation results are exaggerated. Students' motive is to earn high grade than grasping knowledge and skills".

KC believes that:

“Assessment of SL performance of interns is not critically done. Agency supervisors do not let interns know the assessment results, they send it sealed to mentors. The marks given by agency supervisors depend on the interest of agency supervisors; if they do not have positive attitude when interns join them, they provide less marks”.

GA also assured that there is obvious failure in objectively assessing interns. She noted that *“We give pass/fail grades, but there is no fail result. I understand that assessment should be serious”.*

Similarly, according to MS, interns are usually assessed subjectively and get high marks. AH, a teacher in Public Health Department at WU, contended with unfair assessment of SL students by saying *“COs tend to give equal high mark to all interns. So, they are excluded from assessment of interns as they could not discriminate interns’ progress critically”.*

Responses of both student and teacher participants revealed that assessment of SL students is improperly handled by both agency supervisors and teachers. So, assessment of interns should be area of consideration for improvement in all case universities. Problem for critical assessment can be attributed to lack of continuous follow up and data securing both from mentors and agency supervisors. Lack of clearly articulated objectives to be attended and awareness problem regarding purposes of SL are also causes for the problem.

5.3.2.10.2 Inability to Apply Project Evaluation Techniques

SL programme at Ethiopian Universities is getting high consideration for making education relevant, practical and responsive to social needs. John Fisher College (2014: 20 & 21) states that *“Engagement of students in SL projects permit application of knowledge, intellectual engagement, communication, and diversity and cultural understanding outcomes”.* Owing these benefits of experiential education, considerable efforts and resources are being devoted for institutionalisation of experiential learning. Getting the most out of SL projects, in turn, demands continuous assessment for

verifying achievement of academic and service goals. Corporation for National and Community Service (2011:2) defines evaluation as:

“[It is] a systematic assessment of the processes and/or outcomes of a project, programme, or approach. The explicit intent of an evaluation is to understand what the intervention is about and its consequences”.

Evaluations are valuable when they are well-designed and executed in a view to examine whether the goals and objectives of a programme or practice are being met. Thus, programme evaluation is in charge of collecting of data, analysis, reporting and suggesting correcting measures for sustaining the programme. Factors responsible for effectiveness and challenges of the programme should be assessed continually with active involvement of SL participating parties. Best experiences should be shared and challenges should be addressed for latter improvement. According to Corporation for National and Community Service (2011) it is important to apply Logic Model - a visual display of chain relationship of inputs, activities, assumptions and outputs - in designing evaluation of SL projects. This model underscores importance of interrelating inputs, activities, assumptions and outputs in patterned manner showing effect of these factors on each other. This model consists of seven components of inputs (staff time and expertise, funding levels, facilities, and materials), major activities or processes conducted by participants to the achievement of SL outputs, outputs pertaining to measurable units (hours, numbers of people, or completed actions), outcomes (typically defined as the knowledge, skills, attitudes, behaviours or status changes), implementation factors related to variables associated with programme execution, and context which includes administrative leadership, funding and accountability pressures.

Project management concept should be applied in SL programme. SL programme should be properly planned, implemented and evaluated. Corporation for National and Community Service (2011:2-5) elaborates that:

“Effective SL programmes should identify outcomes in advance and consider outcomes in different areas, such as addressing a community need, building community capacity, and developing participants academically and civically. Programs describe the need or issue that the measure will address; the

activities to be conducted to meet the need; and intended outputs, intermediate outcomes, and outcomes to be achieved by the end of the project. For the output and outcomes, program leaders should provide a statement showing their intended results, measurement types, and data/instrument used to measure progress. These outcome statements then become the starting point from which evaluation questions can be developed”.

5.3.2.10.3 Absence of Students and COs Involvement in Service Learning Programme Evaluation

In principle, SL project evaluation should be conducted with active involvement of students, COs, teachers and concerned managers from Universities. Evaluation may be conducted at formative and summative phases of the project. However, actual experiences of sample universities show that SL project evaluation is almost non-applicable. Except little attempt of SL programme evaluation at SMU, in the rest case Universities it is totally unconsidered. Still at SMU SL programme evaluation is conducted by academic council without involvement of students and COs. In this regard, as reported by DM there is no co-planning and evaluation of SL programme made by the University and our office.

Comments made by KY clearly stipulated absence of collaborative work between COs and universities. He said that *“Our responsibility is not more than hosting interns and permit them to work in our office. There is no technical and educational relation with the university. We do not participate in programme evaluation”.*

All participants in the two government universities confirmed that SL programme evaluation is not conducted. This basically emanates from lack of clear plan with involvement of service giving and recipient partners. This study confirmed that SL programme is challenged by multitude of factors. This is partly due to lack of strong programme evaluation that permit identification of strengths and weaknesses pertaining SL activities for timely application of corrective measures.

5.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter treated data presentation and analysis. Biographical information of participants presented in Table 5.1 and their names were changed in to codes in order to safeguard participants from any threats that can come associated with their response. Data collected through interview, focus group discussion and document review were transcribed and edited several times. Through repeated reading of transcribed document, ten major themes and twenty-seven sub-themes were generated and presented in Table 5.2. Pattern of relationship among themes was established to see the effect of each theme on the other. Eventually the major findings were identified. These major findings are summarised in chapter six.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents summary of chapters, highlights of major findings, conclusions and recommendations. It also presents the limitation of the study, future research areas on the SL, knowledge contribution of the study and proposed strategies for SL management at university level.

6.2 SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS

In chapter one, the research purpose was presented; the rationale for the study was explained, and the research questions guiding the study were given. The research design and methods were also briefly discussed. The delimitations of the study and clarifications of concepts were acknowledged. Chapter two provided the literature review on concepts and theories underpinning SL. Chapter three focused briefly on service learning as organised in Ethiopian Universities and Universities in other countries such as US and South Africa. In chapter four the research design and methodologies used were discussed and the choices were made with regard to research instruments. Measures to ensure trustworthiness and credibility of study were also discussed. Chapter five presented data analysis and the research findings. These were organised in line with the research questions.

The final chapter, chapter six, presents a summary of the research findings, draws conclusions and makes recommendations.

6.3 SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

The summary of the research findings is given in terms of the research questions originally asked.

6.3.1 Theoretical Underpinnings of Employing Service Learning

The study revealed that the majority of colleges in Ethiopian Universities conduct SL for partial fulfilment (embedded) and for standalone or capstone courses. Long term and short term SL models ranging from simple educational visits to SL internships were employed for philosophical and pedagogical imperatives.

6.3.1.1 Pedagogical necessities

It was identified that SL was implemented as a means of practical supplement to theoretical learning, that is, as means of filling gaps that students could not get through theoretical learning in the classroom, internalising courses through learning in real life situation and familiarising students with organisational procedures and behaviour. Personal and civic development contribution of SL is justified in promoting reflective thinking and problem solving competency, improving communication, (cultural understanding, team work and leadership skills) and permitting identification of community problems and giving solution either by themselves or through collaboration with their teachers. Other pedagogical reasons include compulsory integration of SL with the curriculum and nature of courses, intent of utilising sources of community agency resources and need for feedback mechanisms for curriculum revision.

6.3.1.2 Philosophical necessities of applying SL

In addition to the pedagogical method, it is identified that SL serves as a means for:

- i. career development which make students competent civil servant, life long learners and teachers practitioners, and
- ii. social responsibility which allows universities to participate in societal development issues by providing free CS,
- iii. permitting student-centred learning, through collaborative, community focused and project based learning in real context, and benefiting students, COs, teachers and universities gain from SL.

These pedagogical and philosophical necessities are consistent with purposes of employing SL pedagogy in the Universities of US. According to Langworthy (2007), SL

is intended to serve as a means of engaging students with communities, promoting civic and social responsibility and enhancing student learning of academic content, and its importance of promoting positive outcomes related to retention, learning, and development of pro-social behaviours.

6.3.2 Curricular Models Employed in Ethiopian Universities

It became apparent that curriculum of case universities mainly framed by product curricular model; which emphasised teacher-centred approach with structured content to achieve predetermined learning objectives. In addition, courses are organised based on discipline-based framework which deterred interdisciplinary community and team learning approach. However, it was noted that in Health Colleges there is an interdisciplinary course, named TTP, which allows students of different departments work together to collect data, analyse it and devise intervention. Within product curricular model there is some attempt of incorporating experiential courses such as SL either as a standalone course or course fulfillment. This theory dominated and discipline-centred course integration framework negatively affected application of active learning in general, and experiential learning such as SL in particular. Product curricular model contradicts with Activity Learning Model that assumes learning as process of constructing knowledge from engagement in activities (Cunningham et al., 2007:17). According to critics of Dewey (1952), product curricular model is a traditional teaching approach which emphasises teaching information and skills that have already been worked out in the past. This finished knowledge cannot make students competent in problem solving and critical thinking skills that ever changing world demands. The drawbacks of product curricular model for making students content dependent and passive recipient information is also noted by Engagement Theory. According to Engagement Theory of Kearsley and Shneiderman (1999) curriculum should make learning active, collaborative than competitive, creative, relevant and community focused. Learning should engage students in creativity, problem-solving, reasoning, decision-making, and evaluation. Learning environment and activities should be relevant to elicit intrinsic motivation of students. Review literature suggested the need for curriculum that make learning contextual by which students learn by observing and

manipulating what they are supposed to learn, that promote collaborative learning through exchange of ideas among peers and knowledgeable others, and that permit understanding of community problems and generation of potential solutions.

Curriculum of government Universities is nationally harmonised with the view of maintaining similarity in quality and content among them, so teachers' involvement with regard to curriculum development and improvement is not significant. Responsibility of curriculum development at private universities rests on the individual university. Different student-centred activities such as projects, group and individual assignments, demonstrations, laboratory activities, team learning, talk shows and exhibitions are utilised to initiate students' creativity and problem solving skill. Interestingly, in WU there is a celebration of "Science Day" to promote students' creativity by displaying and sharing best experiences from students' scientific projects. Government Universities have a one to five team learning approach to enable competent students help the other and develop collaborative learning atmosphere. However, theory dominated course content, shortage of learning resources and facilities, lack of skills and interest in applying different active learning methods and influence of traditional teaching approach are found other hurdling factors for active learning method.

Even though several short term professional development trainings were made available, it became apparent that a considerable number of teachers were not interested to participate; this problem is more serious in the private case university. Many teachers have attitudinal problem towards short term trainings; they consider themselves knowledgeable and self-sufficient. But the actual reality is that majority of teachers in Technology and Health Colleges of government universities are bachelor degree holders who teach with little pedagogical training; as they take pedagogical courses at Masters' Degree level. Teacher participants from government universities suggested that trainings should be given based on felt needs of teachers. It is suggested that trainings should be provided on research methods, journal publication and assessment methods, and it will be of great importance if journal editors are employed by the university. Similarly, even though SMU often facilitates different short and long term trainings, teachers are not interested in attending them, for these

trainings do not scale up educational level. But they are sympathetic with long term trainings that scale up educational level and salary. Teacher participants of this university reported that there is high turnover of teachers because of low salary. Regarding to this issue role of leaders in the organisations is very critical. In this regard, the argument of Rijal (2010) is in support of the above finding in that leaders need to communicate a clear and compelling vision of the future organisation to obtain commitment from the organisational members, encourage followers to respond to environmental uncertainty through creativity and innovation, change their mental models and encourage them to seek learning oriented behaviours and embrace continuous learning.

6.3.3 Types of Service Learning Models Employed in Ethiopian Universities

Short term and long term SL models are employed either as partial or capstone (standalone) courses. Standalone courses consist of SL internship, Team Training Programme, Community Based Training Programme and International Service Learning. But, it is identified that SL internship as a capstone course is the most widely applied SL model in most cases. The curriculum does not permit flexibility to employ other types of SL models such as fourth credit and optional SL courses. In this regard, there is apparent limitation of Ethiopian Universities in exercising varieties of SL models. However, Heffernan (2001:2–7&9) outlined six different SL models that can be considered by teachers when they develop SL into their disciplines. These are discipline-based SL model, problem-based SL model, capstone course model, service internship model, undergraduate community-based action research model and directed study additional or extra credit model. Inclusion of extra credit model in the curriculum permits flexibility of incorporating grades of students that engage in extra credit (fourth credit) SL courses.

In pursuing SL models, varieties of SL projects are applied according to the nature of disciplines. Instances of SL projects conducted by interns include: maintenance, webpage development, networking and data base administration, mechanical and machines designs, developing spring water and model rural houses, constructing solid and liquid waste disposal systems, creating awareness about personal and

environmental hygiene and legal issues to the public, collecting money for intervention of hygiene promotion projects and serving as assistant judge.

However, it is identified that most of the COs were not satisfied with interns' services. They blamed that most of the time interns do not report their project works to hosting organizations. They also complained that important projects are not made practical due to financial problem, lack of commitment of interns and lack of cooperation of academic managers. Some students lack competency to deliver proper services. Moreover, some COs such as health centres complained that interns conduct similar projects every year which bore community members.

As reported by an intern, the reason for not submitting SL reports to COs was that, students do not believe COs use them. This finding is consistent with the elaboration of Duke University (2011) that confirms students usually undertake voluntary work that requires few qualifications which reduces the contribution that could be made to the community and lack of proper reflection on the impact of their participation in the communities. However, interns from some departments such as Pharmacy and Law contribute by reducing the burden of employees. As I have observed the experience of Kombicha Textile Enterprise is exemplary in that important project ideas or proposals of interns have been printed out and put in the library of the organisation so that next year interns can use them as references.

6.3.4 Institutionalisation Factors for Service Learning Engagement

The study has disclosed that there are offices which are responsible for coordination of SL activities in all the three cases. However, there are obvious differences between cases in terms of number of personnel in the office, reporting structure, availability of working policies and procedures. Cross comparison of SL structure in the case universities revealed that SLO in SMU was better, as it is boldly organised as an office with sound number of staff. In addition, it has exemplary SL facilitating guiding documents such as SL policy and manual, interns' placement facilitation forms, interns' SL agreement forms and other many formats. These can be taken as lesson to be

drawn by the government universities. However, the SL activities of SMU are significantly affected by absence of budget for SL visits of mentors and interns. In the case government Universities, SL office is not boldly visible, as it is staffed by a single individual as contact person at WU, and it is combined with other functions in DMU and policy and other working procedures are not available. With such structural arrangements and capacity, SLO of Ethiopian Universities cannot properly perform their responsibilities. This finding is different from the experiences of American Universities. For instance, SLO at University of Georgia is highly empowered to work on faculty development through workshops, a fellows programme, a faculty leadership programme, conducting research and funding opportunities (Learn and Serve America's National Service-Learning Clearinghouse, 2008).

Effort of Universities in mobilising and promoting awareness about SL pedagogy among participants is identified low. Orientation given to interns was not satisfactory. It was not more than informing how to prepare their internship report. Student, teacher and SLO head participants confirmed that orientation was not given to COs. As a result, most COs considered SL as simple requirement for graduation than as a useful learning and social contribution method. In addition, a considerable number of students and some teachers considered SL internship as recreation time.

The study disclosed that most students were not committed to SL engagement. Interns were not courageous to cope with work related challenges such as smell and sound. They were reluctant to approach and know from agency supervisors and employees. Considerable number of interns did not use resources properly and for permitted purposes. They tend to devote their time on irrelevant non-educational media such as: facebook, you tube and e-movies. They also had disciplinary problems of truancy, inability to work harmoniously with employees of COs, and problem in hygiene, suit protocol, and hair style.

It is reported that support and follow up given by mentors and agency supervisors at all case Universities was low. Majority of the interns were not visited by their mentors more than once. Still many interns were not visited by mentors. This was worse at SMU,

teacher informants in this University contested that although students paid for SL course with two credit hours, this payment was not budgeted for mentors follow up visit. E-mail and telephone were supposed to be other options for feedback exchange among interns, mentors and COs supervisors but their applicability is doubtful. Supervisors did not strictly monitor and gave feedbacks. Still some COs did not assign supervisors for interns. Moreover, considerable number of judges and health workers were diploma holders, which was a drawback for proper support and reciprocity. Some COs such as construction sites and private enterprises tended to keep their business confidential. Businesses tended to conceal their income for fearing income tax escalation. In addition, some construction sites did not want the design and material used for construction to be noticed by outsiders which were barriers for interaction between interns and COs. On the other hand, some agency supervisors gave projects to interns and encourage them to do so that interns can know better. Beyond that some COs gave training to interns that were very beneficiary such as basic material design and AutoCAD.

Commitment of top management in institutionalising SL is very critical. In this regard, there was a good beginning in indorsing SL in strategic plan and mission, organising SLO, integrating it to curriculum and allocation of budget, and developing SL policy and guide line (at private case). However, teachers in government Universities felt that top level managers were reluctant to SL projects. Top managers were not effective in building partnership, solving transportation problem, and giving recognition to SL participants. They also failed to allocate earmarked budget based on SL students' number instead they urged departments either to leave or to reduce the duration of SL time from the nationally planned.

As reported by a teacher and a student' participants, students were not provided with SL guiding or reflective activities, for reflective activities are believed to restrict students' learning on certain issues. The teacher participant insisted that SL internship is solving industries' problems, so students should not be guided. Majority of student and teacher respondents confirmed that discipline specific reflective activities were not given to interns. Instead, SL project preparation guidelines were given. This finding contradicts

with the argument of Hatcher, Bringle, and Muthiah (2004:43) that states “Asking students to keep open-ended journals, without providing guidance about their content, runs the risk of not developing good reflective skills and good learning”. Furthermore, complete absence of any reflective guiding material may be challenging for interns to interrelate subject matters with service experiences and preparation of their projects.

The study revealed that interns were given privilege to select SL hosting organisations. Thus, almost all of the interns select SL placement COs by themselves and they were sent to COs with cooperation requesting letter relying on interns’ placement preferences. Those students who could not get by themselves were assigned by SLOs. This privilege was given to students mainly due to two reasons: for one thing universities do not usually conduct placement identification assessment and for another to permit interns perform in their locality in a view to minimise costs while they are in SL activities. However, as identified in this research most COs resist not hosting interns. Hence, the major problem in this self-identified placement of interns in such unwelcoming hosting organisations results in development of feeling of alien among students which reduced the collaborative and peer support in pursuit of knowledge creation. But this placement policy resulted in debilitating effect of collaborative learning and interaction of interns, and contradicts with the SL placement selection criteria of universities; it is detailed under 6.4.

It is identified that there are serious shortage of budget and transport to SL activities in all the case universities. In spite of budget constraints as reported by AVPs, department heads and teachers, search for sponsoring organisations to support SL engagements was low in all of case universities. Interns of government Universities contended that the stipend was not satisfactory and they were not provided with personal safety tools. Interns of Health College complained that absence of accommodation in health centres hinders involvement in treating emergency coming at nights and get safe accommodation than rent.

The study identified that incentives and rewards to involvement in SL practices were negligible in all case universities. SL duties were considered as regular teaching and

learning activities, except covering stipends, participation in this pedagogy was not incentivised. SL engagement is not directly included as teachers' evaluation criteria. COs also complained that they were not recognised by universities for hosting interns, but as I observed from document analysis issued by UIL at DMU there was little attempt of granting participation certificate and thank you letters to COs. In general, incentivising involvement in SL activities is uncommon. This finding is supported by review literature. For instance, Burton (in Bender, 2008:87) confirmed that "Numerous studies have indicated that community service is regarded as the most inferior of the three performance areas". It is also assured by Kotecha (2010) that service is not a key performance indicator for the selection and promotion of staff in South African Universities. Contrary to the above finding, some universities have institutionalised incentivising teachers' engagement in services. In this regard, University of California Davis grants faculty the "Distinguished Scholarly Public Service Awards" to recognise significant contributions to the world, nation, state and local community (Umpleby, 2011:12). University of Cape Town (UCT) employs a "Distinguished Social Responsiveness Award" that strongly focuses on reciprocal benefit to the partner and the university; and provision of certificates to students who actively participating in civic engagement initiatives (Kotecha, 2010). Still recognition to COs was not given emphasis.

Some scheduling problems were reported that summer rainy season inhibited SL activities of Engineering students as most construction sites quit their activities. It is also noted that interns of private case university go out for SL at the time of budget closure, so accounting students miss significant time without active engagement in financial activities. Moreover, due to shortage of SL time students could not finish SL projects.

As reported by students, teachers, department heads and AVP, site supervisors are negligent in controlling interns' progress and usually they give high and nearly similar marks for all students. Due to this problem some departments excluded agency supervisors from assessment of interns' SL activities. Interns complained that supervisors of COs give high marks to interns based on personal relation and interest. They also complained that COs do not let interns know their assessment results. Due to

such assessment errors, it is noted that some departments in DMU excluded COs from assessment of students' internship performance. In all the three cases, different forms of grading were given: Pass/Fail given at DMU, Excellent, Very Good/Fail at SMU, and letter grade at WU. It is identified that interns were not given fail grade for SL courses. On the other hand, COs complained that assessing interns' performance is difficult due to low performance of interns and unreliable evaluation form which categorises students' performance 'qualified and unqualified'. Moreover, assessment criteria emphasise on attendance and communication skills. Their relation to subject matter concepts was reported insignificant. However, from a review of document on SL evaluation form of SMU I understood the evaluation form is holistic. It includes physical neatness, punctuality, interpersonal relationship, creativity, communication skills, knowledge of subject matter and time management. But, the major challenge is attributed to the evaluation format rather lack of objectivity from agency supervisors while assessing interns. Grade given to interns has its impact on future students' learning. This finding is consistent with finding of Langworthy (2007:120) that underlines the "Possibility of lack in intellectual rigour due to granting credit for volunteering than learning". All participants in the two government Universities confirmed that SL programme evaluation was not conducted. There was an attempt to evaluate SL programme at SMU by academic council. Still students and community members were not included in the evaluation programme. Involvement of COs and students in governance and decision making concerning SL engagement is reported low.

6.3.5 Partnership Management of Universities

Universities were weak in partnership building for SL engagement. They had limitation in communicating their areas of competency and interest for working with interested organisations. It is reported that partnership for SL was built with few major organisations such as hospitals, industries and government organisations; majority of SL hosting organisations still do not have partnership agreement with Universities. Moreover, despite inclusion of SL in the University strategic plan, SL projects were not jointly planned with COs. Hence, COs complained that SL duty is unplanned, and it is additional burden which make hosting agencies busy. In addition, COs and students

were not actively participating in governance and decision making on SL issues. COs and students did not participate in SL programme evaluation and in advisory boards such as SL council. This finding contradicts with several findings. For instance, according to Laninga, Austin and McClure (2012) poor partnership is the result of inability to match the academic outcomes to the expectations of the communities. According to the recommendation of NSLC (2013) COs should closely align SL with their organisational goals and make it complementary to their overall mission and establish internal structures to support their involvement in SL. In addition, COs should develop a perspective that SL can bring difference in community and quality of learning. Kiltz (2010: 20-21) underlines that “Harmonising partners’ efforts calls for active participation of public managers at all levels of government as they understand the complexity of the issues facing their community and the network of stakeholders”. Inter-organisational theory and System Theory state that every organisation is embedded in a larger network of groups and organisations that it must relate to in order to survive and prosper (Hardcastle & Powers, 2004:42). Innovative Research Universities Australia (2005:2) suggests that universities should employ a ‘demand-pull’ model of knowledge application which bases on immediate needs and capacity of society than the outdated ‘supply-push’ model which is expert approach to CS that determines service priorities with little regard or no regard for the immediate needs of society.

ICT as a means of interrelating universities with COs is identified weak. All participants of government universities are not satisfied with ICT as a means of information flow among individuals and stakeholders. ICT is relatively strong at SMU as compared to the two case government universities. It is identified that policies, rules, plans, implementation reports, senate decisions, quality audit report and urgent issues were communicated through intranet (office outlook). Data base of different guidelines and manuals, policies and students’ thesis was organised and made assessable.

Absence of plenty of COs and industries that can host SL students was another challenge for SL management. As all students of same year level from public and private universities out for SL at the same time, nearby COs were crowded by a number of interns. Government Universities permitted placement of interns throughout the

country based on the preference of interns; those who were assigned far were attached to nearby Universities for mentorship. In the private University, unless there were critical cases, almost all interns conducted SL in Addis Ababa. This was basically to reduce cost of visits as there was no compensation for stipends for interns. However, resistance not to host interns was found common due to many reasons. COs afraid that interns would cause computer and machine failure and leak of institutional information. Because of this, they consider hosting interns would lead to conflict. COs have a tendency of underestimating this generation or blaming today's students as incompetent. Thus, interns are often assigned at irrelevant tasks and they sit idle, unassigned to a certain task in COs. Lack of accommodation was found another problem for placement.

6.4 CONCLUSIONS

Analysis of data informed that significance of SL courses was highly valued by all participants. It is justified that pedagogically and philosophically SL is sound in making learning active, contextual, collaborative, community based and socially responsible. It also permits career development and sharing community resources for students' learning. Globally needed skills of critical thinking, communication, collaboration, creativity and civic understanding are best developed working through SL courses. Hence, community based learning in general and SL in particular should be widely applied by universities. However, institutionalisation of SL programme has been challenged by many factors discussed below.

1. Although tremendous benefits of SL are confirmed theoretically and empirically, wide scale application of experiential learning in general and SL in particular is mainly hampered by the curriculum model and integration of courses being applied in Ethiopian education system. Product model of curriculum design coupled with discipline centred course integration frame work restricted the education system to traditional education. Product Curricular Model predetermines educational objectives to be achieved so that students should receive well organised content presented by teachers. This model makes students module dependent in a classroom controlled

environments. This model encourages individualised and contrived learning environment which is contrary to the currently prevailing constructivist's contextualised and collaborative learning. Students are provided with well-structured course modules to be read and remembered which are generated by discipline authors. This curricular model domination is hindrance to relevance of education as it neglects students' engagement in practices and detaches students from the community needs. It is also hardly possible to address the Ethiopian Education and Training Policy through this product curricular model as most of the objectives of the policy demand engagement of students in experiential and community based education. The policy sets objectives to promote students' critical thinking skill, problem-solving capacity, respect for human rights, intent to stand for the well-being of people endowed with democratic culture and discipline. It also fosters to produce citizens who differentiate harmful practices from useful ones, develop sense of discharging societal responsibility, promote the culture of respect for work, positive work habits and high regard for workmanship and interest in aesthetics. All these educational objectives demand active and contextual learning of students in community settings. In addition, experiential learning is affected by theory dominated course contents, shortage of learning resources and facilities. In addition, lack of skills and interest in applying different active learning methods and influence of traditional teaching approach by which teachers were taught while they were students and domination of discipline-centred course designation inhibit interdisciplinary teaching method. Due to limited time duration, problem of commitment and awareness of participating parties benefits gained from SL courses are low. Hence, most COs were not satisfied with SLPs of interns.

2. SLO was not well organised in the case government Universities both in terms of number of staff, working plans such as policy, manual and reference materials. As these necessary conditions were not fulfilled, teachers did not get sufficient support for delivery of SL courses. In government case Universities SLOs were not visible to participating parties and their capacity was not strong to give technical support to SL participants. The private case University is best in structural arrangement, number of

staff, and policy and manuals for facilitation of SL activities which can serve as a benchmark for other Universities.

3. Awareness and commitment of interns, mentors, agency supervisors and academic managers are foundation for proper application of SL pedagogy. As identified by this study, due to lack of awareness and commitment most interns and many teachers considered SL as a recreation time, and agency supervisors felt SL a simple requirement for graduation than the desired alternative teaching method. Supports and feedback given by mentors and agency supervisors are critical for correcting theoretical and practical challenges interns face in carrying out their SL duties. Agency supervisors are co-teachers who should take responsibility of guiding, supporting and providing feedback to interns. Mentors also should work hand in hand with agency supervisors in assisting and controlling interns through site visits. When there is no concerted cooperation in controlling and exchange of feedback, as it was also identified in this study, interns become negligent to SL activities and waste their time on irrelevant issues.
4. Reflection and reciprocity are core issues in internalising and interrelating practices to course contents. In spite of this principle, most departments provide general guiding questions that help for preparation of SL reports instead of specific course related question. Absence of specific course-based questions hinders active involvement and creativity of interns in interrelating practical activities with course contents. Many employees of COs have attitudinal problem of undermining the current generation as unknowledgeable. Attitudinal problem developed by COs influenced them to distance interns for fearing of leaking company information and wrongly define the current generation as incompetent. Moreover, a significant number of employees in COs are diploma holder which is below professional level of interns. Both the attitudinal problem and substandard profession of employees negatively affect reciprocity between interns and agency supervisors. So, it necessitates mentors to give close mentoring. In most cases, interns do not report or submit any deliverable to COs about benefits and challenges SL activities. Hence COs cannot get feedback for improvements. Inability to make important projects of interns practical in solving

identified problems of COs and continuously conducting similar projects bored and discouraged commitment of COs to helping interns and working with universities.

5. Academic managers at Universities considered SL engagement as part of ordinary duties for teachers. So, they have less consideration to rewarding and incentivising SL participants. However, SL entails teachers and students to engage in extra activities which dictate involvement in free CS, out of campus movement which entail risk and work burden to cite few reasons. Thus, involvement in such demanding activities should be acknowledged.
6. Exceling in a profession is a result of deep commitment and devotion to professional learning throughout ones career life (Kentucky, 2014). Teachers' influence on students' learning is highly valuable. Teachers should update their theoretical and pedagogical knowledge up to the state of global development. Change in educational objectives, approach and content are common as a result of ever changing in global social, economic, technological, and environmental issues. Such changes dictate teachers to continuously engage in professional learning. Despite this fact, analysis of data revealed that majority of teachers in the private university and significant numbers of teachers in government universities were not interested in attending short-term pedagogical trainings and other related trainings that can empower their professional and career development. Short term trainings should be considered as mechanisms for acquisition of specific skills to make workers more effective in their jobs. However, many teachers feel they are knowledgeable and self-reliant; which assumes knowledge is static. In spite of this, it is reported that more than 80 percent of teachers in Technology Colleges and many in Health Colleges were undergraduates who did not take pedagogical courses. Thus, sentiment of self-reliance and dissatisfaction with past trainings caused teachers to resist attending short term trainings.
7. Absence of plenty of COs and industries that can host SL students, is reported as a critical problem for placement of interns, hence interns are assigned to distant areas from the universities. Privilege given to interns to select hosting organisations resulted

in dispersed placement of interns that made provision of support and feedback to interns difficult. Furthermore, such individual preference based placement of interns can endanger securing relevant hosting organisations. It is also practically recorded that some interns of SMU deceived by nominating non-existing organisations for placement. Placement of interns at hosting organisation having dissimilar functions to interns' discipline cannot enable to interrelate theories with practices; it retards reciprocity and satisfaction of hosting organisations from interns' service. More importantly, sporadic placement of single individual in hosting organisation deters the benefits of collaborative and social learning that can be gained from interaction of peer interns. Placement of high number of interns at similar time crowded hosting organizations. This resulted in shortage of accommodation and facilities, placement at irrelevant tasks, sitting idle and difficult to give support to interns.

8. As identified by this study universities were not active in building partnership and cultivating partnership. As a result, majority of interns were placed for SL internship without partnership agreement between COs and universities. Placement of interns through cooperation letter instead of partnership agreement has resulted in gap in setting of common goals for SL programme, lack of role and resources determination, lack of welcoming feeling from agency employees, resistance of hosting interns, feeling of imposed additional task of handling SL activities, lack of resources and accommodation, and lack of communal plan. The cumulative effect of weak partnership management caused inability to set common goal and lack of awareness about benefits and handling of SL activities, and lack of commitment in addressing SL objective.

Therefore, awareness and commitment problems are the result of combined effect of lack of partnership building with relevant partners and sharing roles, and inability to communally identifying and integrating of educational and community needs through shared decisions. Thus, partnership building is a corner stone for other activities in SL such as identification of areas of mutual interests, roles of each partner, resources requirement and governance of the programme. Since majority of interns' placement for

SL is without partnership agreement, opportunities for integration of plans of partners, promotion of awareness and commitment of partners were limited. Hence, employees of COs resisted hosting interns and became negligent for properly supporting and controlling. Lack of site visit to SL hosting organisations by academic managers had its bearing on commitment of interns, mentors and agency supervisors. Moreover, lack of incentives and rewards for SL involvement hampered commitment of all participating parties.

9. In all the three case universities there is budget and transport constraint. As a result, there is no budget allocated for SL visit of mentors at SMU; and there is shortage of budget at government Universities to cover stipends of interns and mentors. Such problems obliged universities to either totally cancel mentors' visit as exhibited as SMU or to reduce the duration of SL courses and frequency of mentors' visit to interns in government Universities. These decisions in turn inhibited support and feedback given to interns. Moreover, necessary learning materials and equipments could not be fulfilled due to budget constraints. More importantly, interns' projects could not be made practical which in turn discouraged COs for active involvement in SL programmes. In spite of this budget constraint, effort of universities in cultivation of sponsoring organisations for SL programme is negligible.

10. It is identified that SL performance of interns is not critically assessed by agency supervisors. Interns are unnecessarily assessed high. This signifies that agency supervisors lack awareness and commitment to timely monitor and record the performance level of interns. Granting uniform high marks for all students discouraged interns' creativity and motivation, because, interns could not develop intrinsic motivation from achievement of objectives through hard work. It was also difficult to discriminate level of performances of interns. This error emanated from low level of awareness and commitment of agency supervisors and lack of close contact and exchange of feedback between agency supervisors and mentors. Excluding agency supervisors from assessment of SL activities exacerbates the problem. Mentors cannot know the weaknesses and strengths of interns, the programme and the

curriculum without the feedback of agency supervisors about interns' progress in SL activities. Prohibiting interns from knowing their SL assessment results given by agency supervisors has negative impact in identifying their strengths and weaknesses. Grading of SL has its bearing on interns' commitment to SL activities. Interns give high value to letter grades than word grades as letter grades are added up to their grade point average. So, as identified by this study the word grade of 'Pass/Fail' categorisation does not clearly imply level of interns' performance. 'Excellent, Very Good and Good.' are better grading words than 'Pass/Fail' as it is better in discriminating interns' performance.

SL programme evaluation was not conducted as per the principle of programme evaluation in all the three Universities. SL programme was not totally considered in government case Universities, while in the private university there was little attempt of SL programme evaluation at academic council level, but, without inclusion of students and COs. Evaluation should include all participants of interns, mentors, COs and academic managers so that best practices and challenges faced in pursuit of SL objectives can be identified and shared for later improvement. Such huge challenges identified in this study would have been minimised if programme evaluations had been conducted at termination of annual programme. Thus, SL programme evaluation is major critical improvement issue in application of SL activities.

6.5 CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

Interesting findings of this study to the contribution of knowledge are attributed to the privilege given for interns in selecting SL placement COs. Due to weakness in partnership building, lack of placement identification assessment and desire for cost minimising, interns were privileged to select hosting organisations mainly in their locality. However, two critical findings which add to knowledge contribution are perceptible from the prevailing interns' self-selected SL placement. Firstly, this individual preference based placement entailed sporadic placement of interns. This policy of individual based placement allowed placement of even a single intern to COs that

creates feeling of strangeness and insecurity. In addition, it limits interns' collaboration and interaction among themselves and with staff of COs in pursuit of knowledge. This practice contradicts with different theories reviewed in chapter two of this study. According to the elaboration of Cunningham et al. (2007) Activity Model of learning favours group activities and interaction so that students' learning approach is distributed and becomes collaborative. Collaboration permits individuals work together sharing ideas, views and opinions. Thus, learning occurs as a result of this co-operation and therefore new knowledge is co-created or constructed through negotiation with others. The description of Constructivism Learning Theory of Vygotsky also assures that learning is a product of social interactions through integration of learners into a knowledge community (University of California, 2015). As stated by Kearsley and Shneiderman (1999) creating successful collaborative teams that work on ambitious projects are meaningful to someone outside the classroom. Secondly, this self-identified placement policy contradicts with universities' placement selection criteria and it is liable for misplacement of interns. Although placement selection criteria for COs are set to be COs' experiences, capacity to accommodate, transport and learning facilities, proximity, and similarity of service activities to students' disciplines, they are not considered practical due to interns' self-selected placement. As a result of such self-selected placement policy, in 2015, it is confirmed that four interns of SMU had committed fraud by nominating non-existing organisations for SL placement. In addition, this individual preference based placement caused problem for site visit and supports, and misplacement of interns in organisations that are not relevant to their field of study. Thus, I recommended that individual based SL placement of interns debilitate SL pedagogy by hindering group interaction and support given by knowledgeable others: agency supervisors and mentors. So, individual based interns' placement should be avoided, instead Universities should strengthen their institutional capacity so that they can conduct placement assessment and partnership agreement for effective SL engagement.

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

Analysis of the data has led to the conclusion that signifies necessity of addressing several factors to streamline SL in the case universities. As the development and expansion of higher education in Ethiopia is a recent phenomenon, this sector has entangled with multitude of challenges including domination of theoretical learning, low quality and relevance of education, lack of resources and facilities, and others. One of the means of promoting quality and relevance of education is application of SL through which students can learn course contents, civic issues and professional careers in deep. The following sub-question 7 is answered by the recommendations stated just below it.

Sub-question 7: What strategies could be recommended for effective management of SL in Ethiopian Universities?

Analysis of data on the practices of SL pedagogy has led to the following recommendations that may have practical and theoretical contributions. The recommendations have been summarised by the proposed strategy in Figure 6.1.

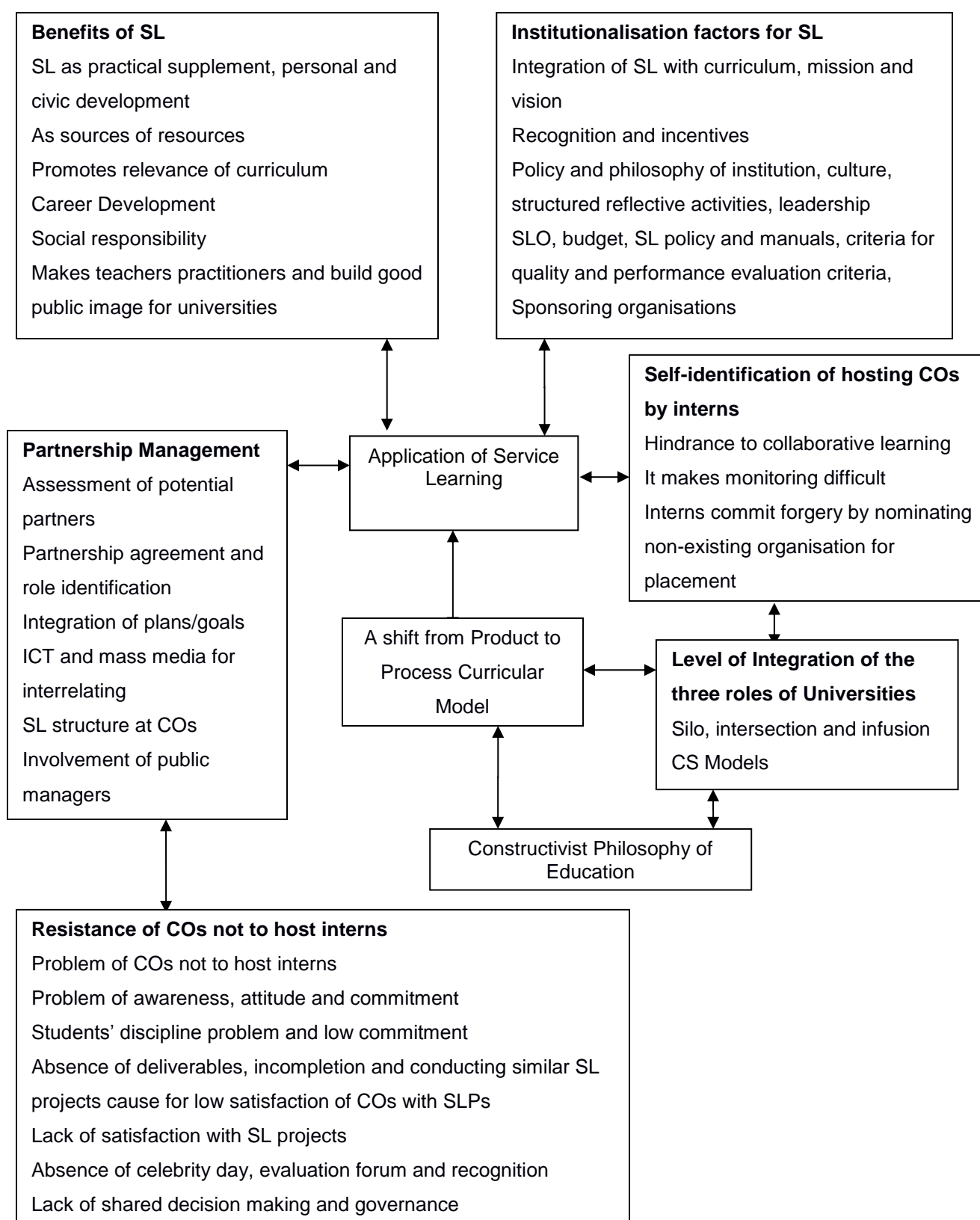


Figure 6.1: Recommended Strategy for Effective Management of SL at University

1. The study revealed that SL has pedagogical and philosophical benefits in maximising relevance of learning, career and personal development of interns, a means for addressing social responsibility and curriculum revision, resource maximisation and beneficial to all participants. However, in most departments SL as a course was limited to SL internship as capstone course. Hence, the curriculum should be designed in a manner that dictates active engagement of students in community settings where students can learn through discovery and collaboration. Students should be given optimum time for SL involvement, so that they can discern on community practices and challenges, create understanding on social problems and deliver solutions. So, I recommended that:
 - i. Ministry of Education should employ the above designed model for synergising the current prevailing silo model of pursuing the teaching, research and CS functions by infusing the CS with the teaching and research functions in a manner one enhances the other.
 - ii. Universities should design curriculum that permit application of SL in a wider scale including junior and senior level courses. Many other SL models such as fourth credit and optional additional SL courses should be open to students. Those disciplines which demand practical activities should integrate SL projects with many junior and senior courses.
 - iii. The current rationing of 75% of teachers' time for teaching and 25% for research and CS functions cannot enable wide scale application of SL and integration of the three functions of universities. So, MOE should increase the ration of time for research and CS functions at least to 50%.
2. Product curricular model, which gives precedence to content and subject-centred course integration framework made students passive recipient of knowledge created by others, and it discouraged cooperative, creative and contextual learning. Thus, I recommend that top level education managers at Ministry level should strive for curriculum improvement. The curriculum should be designed in a manner that allows students actively take responsibility for their learning and courses design should permit interdisciplinary approach that enables students from different disciplines work together, so that they can perceive different opportunities and challenges from

different perspectives. In doing so, as active learning incur huge resource consumption and teaching competency, necessary resources should be made available for recruitment of required facilities and capacitating teachers' teaching skills. Experiential learning in general and SL in particular should prevail so that quality and relevance of education can be promoted, and community needs and civic learning can be addressed.

3. Fulfilling mandates and national development role bestowed to universities can be addressed through concerted collaboration of community and universities. Despite its importance, as identified by this study, partnership building and sustaining efforts of universities were weak. As a result, willingness of COs to host interns was reported very low and resistance not to host interns was common. This is partly due to inability to have partnership agreement which clarifies the purpose of SL, roles of partners and sets common goal and integrated plans. Hence, I recommended that:

- i) Universities should relentlessly conduct assessment of potential partners having common interest to work cooperatively for educational and community developments through SL and make partnership agreement with them. Through partnership agreement with COs, Universities should clarify the purpose of SL, roles of each party, sources of resources and set integrated plan.
- ii) Universities should strive to sustain partnership through continuous follow up and monitoring of partnership. They should capacitate community agencies so that they can actively participate in decision making and governance of SL activities. Universities should allow community agency participate in governing SL through advisory council so that they can actively participate in the planning, implementation and evaluation activities of SL.
- iii) Universities along with MOE should restlessly engage in promoting awareness about communal concern of education and need for active involvement in students' learning.
- iv) Sectoral managers and administrative councils should proactively work to integrate their plans with universities'.
- v) Universities should make ICT stronger to collect, organise and disseminate information and documents to both internal and external stakeholders.

Competency areas of universities should be announced through multimedia for cooperatively working with interested COs.

4. Commitment of top level management of universities is instrumental for smooth coordination of SL, presence of well-structured SLO and formulation of policies and allocation of necessary resources. In this regard, both academic and administrative managers of universities should have good understanding about SL and be in support of SL participants. More specifically, top level management:
 - i) government case Universities should organise strong and visible SLOs, encourage preparation of SL policies, manuals and guiding syllabus that guide and inform SL activities.
 - ii) should encourage SL participants through rewards and incentives. Universities should recognise and reward the contribution of COs for students' learning. This in turn helps to elicit positive attitude from COs that pave ways for later ease placement. In addition, rewarding COs avoids a sentiment of being living laboratory for student learning. Moreover, experiential learning should be taken as a quality criteria and part of teachers' performance evaluation criteria.
 - iii) should occasionally visit SL sites for better understanding of challenges and successes of SL pedagogy, and strive for prevalence of SL culture.
 - iv) government Universities should establish accommodation rooms for interns of health college in health centres so that they can learn and give service by treating emergencies coming during nights and get safe accommodation than renting in towns.
5. Presence of strong SLOs is basic for facilitating and giving support to SL students and teachers in preparing SL courses, giving trainings, creating awareness, building partnership and conducting research on SL activities. In both cases of government universities SL was not well organised. In this regard, the private case university has better SLO structure with reasonable number of staff and SL working documents such as policies and guidelines. So, I recommended that:

- i) SLOs should be boldly organised having their own office so that they can be structurally and physically visible to everyone who wants to partake in SL courses. It should also be organised with committed and sufficient number of staff.
 - ii) Sufficient budget based on number of interns should be allocated for transportation, stipends of interns, per diem for mentors, personal protection equipments and other logistics expenses.
6. It is identified that low awareness level of interns, teachers and agency supervisors was hindrance to active participation in SL. Interns' devotion of their time in social media during SL, truancy, lack of commitment to actively engage in SL activities and attempt to get SL grades without involvement in SL activities for instance were symptoms of lack of awareness and commitment. All SL participating parties blamed one another. COs were not satisfied with SL projects. Similarly students and teachers complained lack of support from COs and resistance of COs not to host interns, distancing interns from active engagement for fearing leak of institutional information and undermining the current generation were also common. Students were not satisfied with support from mentors. Such irregularities were results of lack of awareness about goals of SL and roles of participating parties; and lack of commitments. Thus, I recommend that:
- i) SLOs in conjunction with departments should promote awareness of COs, interns and teachers regarding purposes and roles of SL participating parties.
 - ii) both government and private media should promote universities' interests and competency areas to the public so that interested organisations can establish working partnership in addressing students' learning and community needs.
 - iii) government universities should promulgate SL policy and manuals that frame the goal of SL and roles of each SL participants. In this regard, the best experience of SMU can be taken as a lesson.
 - v) SLOs in conjunction with departments should promote awareness of COs, interns and teachers regarding purposes and roles of SL participating parties.

- vi) ICT should be strengthened; it should continuously update area of interests and competency of Universities for facilitating working with both global and local community agencies in addressing its missions.
- vii) continuous follow up and feedback should be made to correct challenges of SL activities timely.

7. Assessment of interns in SL courses should be given equal value as that of ordinary courses. The purpose of assessment should be to examine whether intended learning competencies and service outcomes are achieved or not. Assessment criteria should include academic, communication, social and service providing skills. SL courses should be critically assessed and granted letter grades so that students devote their time and efforts to achieve service and learning objectives. Excluding agency supervisors from assessment of SL cannot be a sound alternative to understand students' performances. Rather agency supervisors should be well oriented and closely supported so that they can understand the purpose of assessment and conduct it objectively. Students should be informed about SL assessment result given by agency supervisors so that they can identify their areas of strengthens and weakness.

8. Programmes continuity and effectiveness highly depends on monitoring and summative evaluation. SL programme evaluation should depend on data gained through monitoring and feedbacks. All SL participating parties such as interns, teachers, COs and university administrators should notice and register facilitating and hindering factors to SL activities so that they can objectively analyse and suggest for later improvements. Evaluation should examine effectiveness of achieving learning and service objectives. To facilitate the evaluation activities:

- i) Universities should arrange SL evaluation forum consisting of students, teachers, COs and university administrators to discuss on facilitating and hindering factors to SL activities during pre-service, service and post service time. Participants' commitment to the programme, success and challenges should be reviewed, documented and disseminated.
- ii) Universities should encourage SL evaluative researches.

- iii) Universities and COs should collaboratively organise celebration day to discuss and exhibit practices of SL programme. On this celebrity day, recognition and incentives for SL participants should be granted.

9. Importance of reflection and reciprocity in interrelating course objectives with service and internalising the subject matter is anonymously accepted fact. However, as identified in this research, many interns are not provided with reflective activities by mentors with a conviction that reflective activities restrict students' devotion on certain issues in pursuit of knowledge. Rather, interns were sent without reflective activities to identify company problems and suggest problem solving interventions. Moreover, as reported by majority of intern and mentor informants, the most employed reflective activity asks what interns did, what challenges they observed, and what interventions they developed. Interns were not provided with clearly articulated reflective assignments that aligned service and learning objectives. Interns' reflection journals were required to be submitted at the end of SL programme. This practice is not consistent with finding of Hatcher, Bringle and Muthiah (2004:43) that attribute "structured reflection activities with better course quality supports". They suggest that:

Reflection activities be designed with a clear idea of the targeted educational goal and how the reflection activity contributes to student progress towards that goal. Asking students to only provide a final reflection product (e.g., cumulative journal, class presentation, final paper) at the end of the semester runs the risk of narrowing opportunities for the student to practice and learn from the service experience.

Thus, due to lack of subject related reflective activities and lack of repetitive reflection activities interns faced problem of interrelating course subject matters with practical activities and lack of continues feedback that are supposed to be gained from varieties of interns' reflections. Hence, I recommend that:

- i) course teachers should provide reflective activities that promote interns' readiness to reflect before, during and after SL projects. Hence, subject, civic and service objectives of SL should be aligned in a manner that guides students to interrelate course objectives with service objectives.

- ii) course teachers should not repeat similar reflective activities every year. Repetition of similar reflective activities led to development of same projects as noted from practices of Health Colleges that bored beneficiaries of projects. It also promoted reliance on others work than encouraging interns to deliberate on new ideas and problems.
- iii) reflective activities should be cognitively challenging, strongly linked to academic curriculum or other learning objectives.
- iv) teachers should prepare different types of reflective activities that make interns industrious throughout the SL programme; teachers should also give continues feedback on interns' reflections.

SL is a collaborative endeavour among interns, agency supervisors and mentors. Collaborative share and generation of knowledge demands cooperative and open environments, and respect of one to the other. Attitudinal problem observed on some employees of COs which places interns incompetent, defining them as source of conflict and failure of machines, and distancing them from work may harm the exchange of ideas between employees and interns. It should be clear that everyone has experiences and knowledge to contribute in a group context, so COs should develop welcoming attitude and create positive learning environment to facilitate exchange of ideas and supports. Interns should be considered as future workforces and active citizens who shoulder national development programmes. Sub professional level of employees of COs is reported as barrier of idea exchange and support among interns and agency supervisors. So, close monitoring and support of mentors is critical to help interns' active engagement in SL projects. In addition, universities should involve in capacitating professional level of employees of community organisations.

10. Interesting contribution of this study is identification of self-selection of SL hosting COs by interns as a critical hurdling factor for SL application. It is because granting interns privilege for selection of SL placement has entailed many challenges such as sporadic placement of interns to COs without partnership agreement; difficulty in conducting site visit and supports; misplacement of interns in irrelevant organisations and placement of a single intern in an organization. Most importantly, individual

based placement of interns in COs created feeling of alien and limited group interaction with peers; this in turn inhibited active engagement of interns in SL activities and creativity. Thus, I recommend that:

- i) placement of a single intern in CO should be avoided for its negative consequence of hindering social interaction of peers and collaboratively generation of knowledge through group reflection and learning from peer experiences and behavior.
- ii) universities should foster to maximise number of SL partners so that students can be placed at COs convinced of goals and roles of each partner in SL.
- iii) as all interns take capstone SL courses for internship at similar time, it caused crowds and created burden on COs. In addition, it is difficult for interns to have hosting organisations. Thus, universities should sect interns' placement in to different semesters. In doing so, major courses of each discipline should be arranged and given to interns before placement to SL programme.
- iv) Universities should allocate sufficient budget that can cover stipends of interns and mentors that permit SL engagement at relevant COs.
- v) SL scheduling problems of technology students in government universities and accounting students in the private university were reported as challenges to the programme. Most construction sites quit their activities in summer season, and financial institutions are less active during budget closure time which retarded active involvement of interns. Thus, there should be rearrangement of time to non-rainy seasons for technology and out of budget closure time of accounting students.

11. The need for teachers' professional learning mainly emanates from students' learning success. Thus, in order to address diversified pedagogical and personal needs of students, teachers should learn throughout their career. Teachers should have qualities of understanding individual differences, learning styles, motivation, active learning methods and assessment so that they efficiently guide and facilitate students' learning. Lack of pedagogical competencies of teachers is reported as a cause for lecture dominated teaching approach. Contrary to this reality, most

teachers in the private university and many teachers of government universities do not attend short term trainings, as it does not scale up their salary and educational level. However, teachers should develop a mental model that makes them ready to communally create and share knowledge and skills with their peers and training facilitators. Teachers should seek and identify relevant trainings that can promote their profession to the state of current and future demand of their profession. They should plan their career development through continuous professional learning. Academic managers should assess gaps between teachers' competency and the current demand of teaching at university level. Areas of trainings should be based on need assessment of teachers; teachers should also actively participate in the training process.

6.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This research has been conducted on three case universities having equal year of services, all of the case Universities began their service in 1999. But, geographically they are from different regions, one is located in the capital city and owned by private while the remaining two are in regional towns and owned by government. Still in relation to economic scenarios, two cases (SMU and WU) are in industrialised zone and DMU in agrarian community. These variants were considered in the selection of cases in a view of elaborating if such factors have effect on students' placement, level of commitment and collaboration, support and resources for SL so that important lessons can be drawn. Of course, universities in industrialised areas have better opportunity to placement of technology and science students with less cost. This study did not include established universities as cases basically based on the view that they have no significant development with regard to community based teaching. However, as established universities have better resources, manpower and facilities which make engaged teaching easier, the study would have been more informant if established universities were included as cases to examine if important experiences can be shared from these different generation universities. Data from community is collected from agency supervisors who deliver the service, it would be vital to involve direct

beneficiaries of services in order to have more inclusive data. It is also important if data were collected from public managers and administrative councils to see their level of engagement in interrelating and coordinating community development needs with universities' roles and competencies. This research gave emphasis on teaching and/or learning based engagement instead of combining both the teaching and/or learning and research based CE in a view to see enriching effect of each on the other. I wanted to bring to the attention to readers the fact that, although reference to recent publications in research is a critical issue, I used some references of nineties considering their theoretical importance in this study.

6.8 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This research mainly focused on examining the extent to which teaching and/or learning was made contextual, practical and civic focused. Due emphasis was given for teaching and/or learning related engagement. However, research based engagement is also means of enhancing learning, civic understanding and contextual learning. So, it is essential to conduct research on the following three topics of discourses to better understand SL pedagogy. First, examine teaching/learning and research based engagements in order to understand level of synergy among teaching, research and CS functions. In doing so, it would be possible to judge influence of engaged teaching on engaged research and vice versa. Second, analyse congruence of curriculum and national education policy in addressing community based teaching and research. Third, investigate level of competency of teachers in employing SL pedagogy.

6.9 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Teaching, research and CS are overwhelmingly accepted roles of universities by which universities discharged national development roles. In pursuing these roles, universities should integrate these three functions in a manner one informs the other. Teaching should take students to the community where socio-economic, cultural and environmental realities exist. Students should learn in real context through practical activities. The same is true, research endeavours of universities need to be community

focused. Knowledge and skills gained through engaged teaching and research should serve as inputs for improving the quality and magnitude of the three roles of universities.

It is believed that elites have problem identification capacity, critical thinking ability, creativity and heighten civic responsibility to mention a few. These qualities cannot materialise without deep-rooted engagement of students in every walk of life of the society. Universities should not be alienated from the community that they are supposed to serve. Their credibility and acceptance are determined by their dedication to the society they serve and are viewed as the reasons for their existence. Furthermore, qualities and relevance of graduates are significantly affected by alignment of philosophical stand, aims of education, curricular model, approach and methods employed. Educational institutions are miniature of societies; knowledge, skills, and character formation are not restricted to the university campuses. Although universities are mandated to generate, organise, transmit and preserve societal knowledge, skills and custom, they are not the sole responsible organs to attain education objectives. Education is a social responsibility that demands active involvement of varieties of sectors in sharing facilities, and mutually generating knowledge and solving developmental problems.

Recent theories of learning favour active engagement of learners in education process. As opposed to traditional approach of education in which students are considered passive recipient of knowledge delivered by teachers; progressive or pragmatic approach puts students at the centre of educational process that take major responsibility for their learning. Students are engaged in experiential activities so that they can act and reflect and/or judge their activities in terms of academic learning. Integrating practical activities in community setting to academic concepts has got its momentum among scholars. Due to this rationale, Ethiopian education system has given due attention in making education a means to solve problems, promote creativity and produce qualified and socially responsible citizens. One of the efforts being made is permitting students to have exposure to national social, economic and cultural realities through different community based education such as field education,

internship, community based research, etc. This practical endeavour enhances students' knowledge, skills and civic understanding.

However, engagement of students in SL activities is highly demanding in all of its phases: preparation, implementation and evaluation. At the outset, it requires thoughtful preparation by integrating service objectives with the curriculum, facilitating structures, providing necessary resources, establishing sustainable partnership with community agencies, acquiring the necessary pedagogical skills and insuring commitment of participating parties. In Ethiopian context, application of CS in general and SL in particular in an organised manner is a new phenomenon. Thus, application and institutionalisation of SL pedagogy has been challenged by multitude of factors such as problem in partnership building, teacher-centred curricular model, lack of conceptual clarity and commitment, shortage of resources and structural problem for SL, to cite few. Hence, management of SL deserves high concern for properly addressing learning and service objectives.

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ANNEXURES

ANNEXURE A

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR STUDENTS

Date: _____

Time: _____

Location: _____

Interviewee: _____

Interviewer: _____

1. What active learning methods are being applied in the university? Of these, which ones are applied in community settings?
2. Do your teachers use SL pedagogy? If “yes” what are the varieties of SL projects being used in the university? What do you think about the purposes of using this pedagogical method?
3. What are the varieties of CS models used in your university? Of which, what are the CSL models applied in the university?
4. What are the supports provided by SL/CS office for application of SL pedagogy?
5. What are the mechanisms by which students share their experiences?
6. Are there institutional SL policy, guides, sample syllabuses, risk management guide, library resources, orientation and agreement form to guide service learning practices? To what extent structure of the university is suitable for addressing SL and other community based learning?
7. Who is responsible for supervising students’ progresses at SL hosting organisations? How do you evaluate support and feedback provided during SLP implementation?
8. What are reward and incentive mechanisms for SL participants?
9. What are the varieties of teaching methods applied in this university? Which ones are most frequently used? Why?
10. Do you think the teaching methods emphasis active, collaborative, creative, context based and community focused learning? If “No” what are impediments for prevalence of students centred teaching methods?
11. What are major challenges to SL application in this university? If you worry about these challenges what would you suggest?

12. Do SL courses have clear service and learning objectives? Which objective is emphasised?
13. What are the pre-service preparation activities done to acquaint/prepare students for SL?
Who is in charge of it?
14. Do you believe that community organisations are sources of and co-producers of knowledge?
15. Who benefits from engagement of students in service learning courses?
16. Are SL students provided with reflection activities that enable to integrate service with learning objectives? If “yes” how about their relevance and quality to stimulate and guide towards learning and service objectives?
17. What deliverables are students expected to produce at the end of SLPs? For whom?
18. What is your opinion regarding preparation of SL in terms of orientation given to students, guiding materials given, transport, stipends, risk management and time given?
19. What are the roles of students, teachers, CS office and client organization in SL?
20. Are SL projects beneficial to the community, students, faculty and university partners? How?
21. Are service objectives in SL courses demand driven?
22. How receptive and collaborative are community organisations to SL students? Do they perceive that the students involved in SL have valuable skills and expertise to contribute?
23. Do community partners have internal structures to support their involvement in SL?
24. Do client community organisations supervise and evaluate students’ performances? How site supervisors and SL course teachers exchange feedback about students’ progress?

ANNEXURE B

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR TEACHERS

Date: _____

Time: _____

Location: _____

Interviewee: _____

Interviewer: _____

1. Do you use SL pedagogy in your courses? If “yes” what are intents for using this pedagogical method? May be, to enhance quality, relevance, team approach, civic and context-based learning, students-centred learning, means for paying back to the community. What else?
2. What active learning methods are being applied in the university? Of these, which ones are applied in community settings? Why?
3. What are the varieties of CS models used in your university? Of which, what are the SL models and projects applied in the university? What are the purposes of applying these SL models and projects?
4. Is there SL/CS office to coordinate SL courses? If “yes”, what are the supports given by this office in developing, implementing and improving SL courses?
5. To what extent structure of the university is suitable for addressing SL and other community based learning? Are there institutional SL policy, guides, sample syllabuses, risk management guide, library resources, orientation and agreement form to guide service learning practices?
6. What are the activities done during pre-service learning preparation, during SL and post SL? Who is responsible for these activities?
7. Do you think the university has dedicated staff and committed leadership for promoting SL activities? What are the supports and incentives for SL participants?
8. Who develops curriculum in the university? Does the curriculum design stress on problem solving, creativity, civic and context based learning? How teachers contribute for curriculum development?

9. What are the varieties of teaching methods applied in this university? Out of those, which methods emphasis active, context based, collaborative, creative and community focused learning?
10. Who is responsible for supervising students' progresses at SL site? How do you evaluate support and feedback provided during SLP implementation?
11. What are major challenges to SL application in this university? If you worry about these challenges what would you suggest?
12. What are the importance of applying SL pedagogy? How you differentiate SL from other CS activities such as volunteer and internship?
13. Are SL students provided with reflection activities that enable to integrate service with learning objectives? If "yes" how about their relevance and quality to stimulate and guide towards learning and service objectives?
14. How do you proportionate services with learning objectives in utilizing SL? Which objective is given emphasis? Are the service objectives related to learning objectives?
15. What is the basis for giving grades to SL students: is it judging services given to the community and time spent for offering services or achievement of learning objectives?
If your answer is the latter what are the basis for assessing students' accomplishment of learning objectives?
16. Many scholars consider SL as addition of CS on to the traditional courses, nice-to-have, and philanthropic activities. Do you agree? Why?
17. Many academics have opinion of SL lacks intellectual rigour and they perceive it as an attempt to give credit for volunteering or social services, do you agree? If "no" why?
18. What are the criteria that you consider when you select students' placement sites/hosting organisations for SL?
19. How do you get contact with client organisation for SL partnership? Through personal efforts, with the help of CS office, other?
20. What are the benefits of students, teachers, COs and university from engagement of students in SL?
21. Do COs supervise and evaluate students' performances? How often you have contact with site supervisors for exchange of feedback about students' progress? What are the methods of information exchange about students' progress?
22. Are service objectives in SL courses demand driven? What is your opinion on the level of satisfaction of COs with SL projects of universities?
23. What are the staff development mechanisms available in the university?

24. Do you think that the organisation's culture is based on openness and trust that encourages continuous learning from experience, experimentation, questioning and dialogue?
25. What is your opinion about timely dissemination of information including feedbacks, rules, policies, plans, etc? What is the role of ICT in this regard?

ANNEXURE C

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR DEPARTMENT HEADS

Date: _____

Time: _____

Location: _____

Interviewee: _____

Interviewer: _____

1. Do teachers use SL pedagogy? If “yes” what are intents for using this pedagogical method?
May be, to enhance quality, relevance, team approach, civic and context based learning, students-centred learning, means for paying back to the community. What else?
2. What active learning methods are being applied in the university? Of these, which ones are applied in community settings?
3. Are there SL/CS structures such as SL offices and staff, in the university? To whom the SL/CS office is responsible? What are the duties of SL Office? How is structural relation of SL office with academic departments and colleges?
4. To what extent structure of the university is suitable for addressing SL and other community based learning?
5. How do you level the supports of SL Office to faculty and students in developing, implementing and improving SL courses?
6. What is your opinion regarding preparation of SL in terms of orientation given to students, guiding materials given, transport, stipends, and time given?
7. Do you think the university has dedicated staff and committed leadership for promoting SL activities? What is your opinion about the support from top level managers of the university?
8. What are reward and incentive mechanisms for SL participants?
9. Are there institutional SL policy, guide lines, and sample syllabus and library resources that help incorporating SLPs?
10. Are SL activities considered key performance indicators for the selection and promotion of staff?
11. What are the varieties of teaching methods applied in this university? Which ones are most frequently used? Why?

12. Do you think the teaching methods emphasis active, collaborative, creative and community focused learning? If “No” what are impediments for prevalence of students-centred teaching methods?
13. What is your opinion regarding the level of teachers’ understanding of utilising active and context based teaching methods? If you feel some improvements what strategies should be applied?
14. Are there interdisciplinary SL courses in the university? If “yes” what is the purpose of integrating different disciplines? Who organises them?
15. Which challenges are faced by the Ethiopian Universities in promoting the institutionalisation of SL?
16. Do you think administrative staff are committed and competent and appropriate number to serve SL activities of university?
17. What is the importance of applying SL pedagogy? How you differentiate SL from other CS activities such as volunteer and internship?
18. Do SL courses have clear service and learning objectives? Who set these objectives?
19. What is the basis for giving grades to SL students: is it judging services given to the community and time spent for offering services or achievement of learning objectives? If your answer is the latter what are the basis for assessing students’ accomplishment of SL?
20. Many scholars consider SL as addition of CS on to the traditional courses, nice-to-have, and philanthropic activities. Do you agree? Why?
21. Many academics have opinion of SL lacks intellectual rigour and they perceive it as an attempt to give credit for volunteering or social services, do you agree? If “no” why?
22. What are the criteria that you consider when you select students’ placement sites/organisations for SL?
23. What are the challenges in partnership building?
24. What are the mechanisms for informing COs for possible engagement in mutual beneficial SLPs?
25. Is there evaluation of SL programmes? If so who participate? What are the dimensions on which evaluation focus? What do you think the purpose of the evaluation?
26. Do COs have power for joint planning and decision making, setting roles and activities, as well as serving as consulting and reviewing SL activities?
27. Are SL projects beneficial to the community, students, faculty and university partners? How?
28. Do employees in COs have clear understanding of purposes of SL projects?
29. Is there structure or individuals in COs in charge of coordinating SL activities?

30. Do you think that teachers lack competency in managing SLPs such as project management, scheduling, consensus building and time management skills? If you think so, what would you suggest?
31. What are the varieties of staff development programmes? Do you think that the staff development programmes are linked with organisational goals? If “No” what you suggest?
32. Is there a system thinking mentality among members of the university that assumes every member as responsible for success and failure of the organisations?
33. Do you think that the organisation’s culture is based on openness and trust that encourages continuous learning from experience, experimentation, questioning and dialogue?
34. What is your opinion about timely dissemination of information including feedbacks, rules, policies and plans? What is the role of ICT in this regard?

ANNEXURE D

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR VICE PRESIDENT FOR ACADEMICS

Date: _____

Time: _____

Location: _____

Interviewee: _____

Interviewer: _____

1. Are teachers involved in SL pedagogy? If so, what are the purposes of doing so?
2. What are the varieties of CS models used in your university? Of which, what are the SL models applied in the university?
3. Are there SL/CS structures such as SL offices and staff, in the university? To whom the SL/CS office is responsible?
4. Do you think SL integrated into the administrative structures and policies of the institution as well as the broader curriculum?
5. Do you think SL is aligned with the goals of national and citizenship developments?
6. Are SL/CS endeavours of universities considered as accreditation and quality assurance criteria of higher education?
7. Are SL activities considered key performance indicators for the selection and promotion of staff?
8. What are reward and incentive mechanisms for SL participants?
9. Do you think the teaching methods emphasis active, collaborative, creative and community focused learning? If “No” what are impediments for prevalence of students-centred teaching methods?
10. What is your opinion regarding the level of teachers’ understanding of utilising active and context based teaching methods? If you feel some improvements what strategies should be applied?
11. Are there interdisciplinary SL courses in the university? If “yes” what is the purpose of integrating different disciplines? Who organises them?
12. What are major challenges to SL application in this university? If you worry about these challenges what would you suggest?

13. Many academics have opinion of SL lacks intellectual rigour and they perceive it as an attempt to give credit for volunteering or social services, do you agree? If “no” why?
14. Do faculty and academic managers perceive COs as co-producers of knowledge and mutual learner?
15. Are SL projects beneficial to the community, students, faculty and university partners? How?
16. What strategies are formulated to encourage continuous learning and improvements at university level in order to cope up with dynamic environmental change and competitions? Do you think employees are committed for continuous learning and development?
17. What are the mechanisms by which universities learn from successes and failures of their own and others?
18. What are the varieties of staff development programmes? Do you think that the staff development programmes are linked with organisational goals? If “No” what you suggest?
19. Do you think that clear and compelling visions are formulated and communicated to elicit commitment from the organisational members, encourage followers to respond to environmental uncertainty through creativity and innovativeness, change their mental models and encourage them to seek learning oriented behaviours?
20. To what extent the vision, organisational design and management practices are aligned to transform university's performance?
21. What are the efforts to change long held assumptions, values and beliefs and encourage employees to learn new behaviours that enable to be innovative, risk takers, learn even from mistakes and respond to environmental dynamics?
22. Does every member of the university count oneself as responsible for success and failure of university's mission?
23. Do you think that the organisation's culture is based on openness and trust that encourages continuous learning from experience, experimentation, questioning and dialogue?
24. What is your opinion about timely dissemination of information including feedbacks, rules, policies and plans? What is the role of ICT in this regard?

ANNEXURE E

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR SERVICE LEARNING OFFICERS

Date: _____

Time: _____

Location: _____

Interviewee: _____

Interviewer: _____

1. What are the duties of this office?
2. For whom this office is responsible? And what is your relation with academic departments?
3. What are major activities done during SL preparation, implementation and post implementation? Who are in charge these activities?
4. Who is responsible for SL partnership building? What are the criteria for selection of SL hosting COs?
5. Is there SL budget? For what expenses is this budget allocated?
6. Which organisations support SL activities?
7. What are the challenges for utilising SL pedagogy?
8. What are enabling factors for utilising SL pedagogy?
9. Who is in charge of giving feedback and support during SL implementation?
10. How do you gauge contributions of site supervisors for proper functioning of SL?
11. How receptive are COs personnel to SL students?
12. How SL students are assessed? How critical are site supervisors and advisors in assessing students SL?
13. What are incentives and rewards for SL constituent parties?
14. What is the feeling of students towards SL?
15. To what extent COs satisfied with students' SL projects?
16. Who prepares SL reflective activities? And how is its relevance?

ANNEXURE F

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR COMMUNITY ORGANISATIONS

Date: _____

Time: _____

Location: _____

Interviewee: _____

Interviewer: _____

1. What challenges your organisation faced in hosting SL students? What do you recommend for solving these challenges?
2. What are CS activities conducted by students? Do the service activities integrate learning objectives? If so which is emphasised; the service or learning objective or equally both?
3. What are SLPs done in your organisation? Do you believe the SLPs implemented in your organisation based on the needs of the organisation?
4. Is there partnership agreement with the SL providing university for students' placement? If so, is it based on mutual benefit, respect and collaboration? Who initiate the partnership?
5. Does your organisation participate in planning and evaluation of SLPs?
6. Do SL students and teachers consider SL hosting organisation as source and co-producer of knowledge?
7. Do students submit deliverables to your organisation?
8. How do you evaluate the contributions of SL students for fulfilment of your organisation's mission?
9. How is the readiness of your organisation to make SL closely aligned with organisational goals as well as complementary to overall mission?
10. Are students oriented about what and how they should conduct their service activities? If "Yes" who orient them?
11. Do you think that SLPs are well-organised?
12. Is there a structure in your organisation to guide, supervise and communicate with SL course teachers?

ANNEXURE G

DOCUMENT ANALYSIS PROTOCOL

Date: _____

Time: _____

1. If universities have SL policy documents their contents and implications will be examined.
2. Teachers' performance evaluation criteria will be assessed if it has to do with SL activities of teachers' and its relation to teachers' promotions and incentives schemes.
3. Supportive materials for SL courses, if available, will be assessed.
4. Mission, vision and goals of universities will be assessed.
5. Legislation of universities will be consulted.

ANNEXURE H

LETTER OF REQUESTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Date 08/10/2015

Request for permission to conduct research at Wollo University

Dear: Dr. Hussen Adal Academic Vice President of Wollo University

I, Tesfaye Amsalu, am conducting research for the requirement of D Ed in Educational Leadership & Management at the University of South Africa. My supervisor is Professor SP Mokoena, a professor in the Department Educational Leadership & Management in the same university. My research is concerned with examining service learning practices of Ethiopian universities, entitled **"Managing Service Learning in Ethiopian Universities: The Case of Some Selected Universities."**

The aim of the study is to investigate hindrances of service learning as pedagogical and philosophical methods in a view to design interventions that permit engagement of universities with community issues and enriching students' learning.

The benefit of the study will be vital for both universities and community. It helps to create smooth and sustained relationship with the community, resolve community problems and allow provision of context based education. I assure you that the study doesn't harm any individual and group; it is purely professional endeavour for pursuit of knowledge generation.

Your institution has been selected as research sample case from the 13 second generation universities in Ethiopia. These second generation universities have just under ten years of experience which in turn demand research based suggestions for promoting their performance. Hence, the study will entail collection of relevant data from Vice Presidents for Academics and Community Service, College Deans, teachers, students, and other relevant divisions deemed necessary for the study through interview. Result of the study will be given to your university to support fulfilment of mission of the university. Thus, I cordially request you permit me to collect data from afore mentioned individuals.

Yours sincerely,



Tesfaye Amsalu

Lecturer at Wollo University

ANNEXURE I

LETTER OF REQUESTING FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPATION

To Sir/Madam/Dr/Student-----. This is to request you to take part in my research undertaking as a research participant. My name is Tesfaye Amsalu. I am a student of University of South Africa (UNISA). I am studying for D Ed in Education Management. As part of the degree mentioned above, I am conducting a research entitled “Managing Service Learning in Ethiopian Universities: The Case of Some Selected Universities” The purpose of this research is to examine the practices and challenges of developing, applying and evaluation of service learning in a view to devise possible frame work that can improve this pedagogy and philosophy. Ultimate effect of this research would benefit all stakeholders of service learning: students, teachers, community members and universities.

Therefore, your participation in providing data for this research would have meaningful contribution for benefits of the above mentioned stakeholders. Students would get opportunity to apply theoretical knowledge in to practices in real life context (community setting), develop career opportunities, understand civic responsibilities and community problems, etc. Teachers and universities will be able to have better and strong relationship with community. In addition, they can have access to community problems for future research. Community members can use professional expertise and resources for addressing community needs and technological transfer. Owing its benefits the study has been given permission by Department of Educational Leadership and Management and the Ethics Review Committee of the College of Education, UNISA. I have purposefully identified you as a possible participant because of your valuable experience and expertise related to my research topic. Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may decline to answer any of the interview questions if you so wish. Furthermore, you may decide to withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences.

Data will be collected through semi-structured interviews. The interview would take a maximum of 1:30 hours for each participant. Arrangement on places and time for conducting the interview would be made based on best interest of you. With your kind permission, the interview will be audio-recorded to facilitate collection of accurate information and later transcribed for analysis. Shortly after the transcription has been completed, I will send you a copy of the transcript to give you an opportunity to confirm the accuracy of our conversation and to add or to clarify any points. All information you provide is considered completely confidential. Your name will not appear in any publication resulting from this study and any identifying information will be omitted from the report. However, with your permission, anonymous quotations may be used. Data collected during this study will be retained on a password protected computer for 5 years. There are no known or anticipated risks to you as a participant in this study.

In this research Academic Vice Presidents, Vice Presidents for Community Service, university students, teachers, department heads, community organizations and SLO heads approximately 39 participants would participate in providing data through responding to interview. The data will be used for this research only and anonymity of individuals' will be applied to secure safety of participants. Ethical issue of this research is governed by University of South Africa Research Ethical Review Committee. The research is supervised by Prof. Dr. SP Mokoena, Professor in Educational Leadership and Management Department at University of South Africa.

My contact address: Cell Phone +2519871099

Mail tesfayamsalu@yahoo.com

Wollo University, Dessie, Ethiopia

Hence, I cordially request you to be research participant and contribute your own effort for improving the management of service learning activities of universities.

ANNEXURE J

ASSENT FORM

I have read the information presented in the information letter about the study to be conducted on service learning experiences of Ethiopian universities. I have got detail understanding about the importance of the study from the researcher. I am also aware that I have the option of allowing my interview to be audio recorded to ensure an accurate recording of my responses. I am informed that excerpts from the interview may be included in publications to come from this research, with the understanding that the quotations will be anonymous. I was informed that I may withdraw my consent at any time without penalty by advising the researcher. With full knowledge of all foregoing, I agree, of my own free will, to participate in this study.

Participant's Name _____

Participant Signature: _____ Date: _____

Researcher Name: Tesfaye Amsalu

Researcher Signature: _____ Date: _____