City University of New York (CUNY)

CUNY Academic Works

Publications and Research

John Jay College of Criminal Justice

2018

Fostering a Civically Engaged Society: The University and Service Learning

Maria J. D'Agostino
CUNY John Jay College

[How does access to this work benefit you? Let us know!](#)

More information about this work at: https://academicworks.cuny.edu/jj_pubs/359

Discover additional works at: <https://academicworks.cuny.edu>

This work is made publicly available by the City University of New York (CUNY).
Contact: AcademicWorks@cuny.edu

Fostering a Civically Engaged Society: The University and Service Learning

Maria J. D'Agostino
The City University of New York

ABSTRACT

As public administration is faced with the challenge of making governance work, the university is being called upon to become more involved in the civic engagement movement. Increasing civic engagement requires addressing one of the core problems contributing to its decline: deteriorating community caused by a lack of social capital. Although there is debate about whether there has been a decline in civic engagement or simply a change in the ways citizens participate, there is agreement about the need to increase engagement and to include universities in this process. One of the proposed solutions, advocated by Barber and Battistoni (1993) and Putnam (2000), is service learning.

Empirical data support a positive association between service learning and social capital (D'Agostino, 2006). This paper moves beyond theory to describe actual collaboration between universities and public administration to foster a civically engaged society. I will first show that the university is a key actor in community. I will then describe service learning as the means for universities to fulfill their role in community. This is followed by articulating how, through master of public administration (MPA) programs, the university can move this conversation forward. This effort by universities is then assessed through a survey of 133 MPA chairs.

As public administration is faced with the challenge of making governance work, the university is also being called upon to become more involved in the civic engagement movement. Civic engagement, defined as participation in voluntary associations and the political process (Kenworthy 1997), has decreased. For example, voter turnout in America is near its lowest point in history, with only 55 percent of registered voters actually voting in the 2004 presidential election. In addition, from the mid-1970s to the mid-1990s, political activities, including volunteering on a political campaign, writing a letter to an editor, and participating in political rallies, fell by about 50 percent. Legitimate democracy

is contingent upon citizens' self rule (Macedo et al., 2005). The dearth of citizen participation is jeopardizing American democracy. Fragility of social capital, that is, resources that individuals and groups access in social networks and mobilize for purposive action, has been identified as the basis for the eroding civic culture (Barber and Battistoni, 1993; Putnam, 1995).

Increasing civic engagement requires addressing one of the core problems contributing to the decline–deteriorating community caused by a lack of social capital. Although there is debate about whether there has been a decline in civic engagement or simply a change in the ways citizens participate, there is agreement about the need to increase engagement and to include universities in this process. One of the proposed solutions, advocated by Barber and Battistoni (1993), Putnam (2000), and the Corporation for National and Community Service (2002), is civic education—specifically service learning. Service learning fosters the development of citizenship attributes. More significantly, service learning supports the idea that the university can be a partner in creating social capital (Dufour, 2005) in order to foster a civically engaged society.

Empirical data support a positive association between service learning and social capital (D'Agostino 2006). This paper moves beyond theory to describe actual collaboration between universities and public administration to foster a civically engaged society. I will show that the university is a key actor in community and then describe service learning as the means for universities to fulfill their role in communities. I will then articulate how, through MPA programs, the university can move this conversation forward. This effort by universities is then assessed through a survey of 133 MPA chairs.

THE UNIVERSITY AS A KEY ACTOR IN COMMUNITY

The university has historically had a role in civic engagement, rooted in educational and social principles developed by Dewey (1916) and Addams (1960). The role that the university can play in civic engagement is getting increased attention and being advanced by the broader national movement for civic engagement. This call for universities to be more involved in the civic engagement movement emphasizes the collaboration among faculty, students, and community in an effort to build on their strengths and address problems (Ostrander, 2004).

The drawing back from community affairs and politics has spurred a national interest to find a means of strengthening the civic mission of higher education (Skocpol and Fiorina, 1999; Boyte and Hollander, 1999; Ehrlich, 1999; Saltmarsh, 2002). Specifically, attention has focused on the role that universities and colleges play in promoting civic purpose. In 1995 the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges requested assistance from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation to examine the future of public higher education. The commission called for “returning to our roots” of service in order to become the intended transformational institution (Kellogg Commission, 1999).

Rendering service to society was the broad proposition on which higher education in the United States was founded (Wieckowski, in Jacoby 1996, 207). Nonetheless, service is often held as subordinate to teaching and research, even though service is included in the mission statement of universities (Holland, 1997). Service in higher education is perceived as a means of improving the community (Boyer, 1994, 1997; Bringle, Games, and Malloy, 1999; Eggerton, 1994; Harkavy and Puckett, 1994; Rice, 1996).

The university needs to be a collaborator in community building (Boyer, 1996). It can help to answer society's most critical social, civic, moral, and economic problems, thus contributing to the common good and community building. Student community service at the college level has a long history, including the YMCA, the scouting movement, and campus ministry activities (Jacoby, 1996). The 1960s saw the civil rights movement and President Kennedy's launch of the Peace Corps and Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA). Through these activities, college students began to address social problems and to challenge universities to participate in the process of social justice (Jacoby, 1996).

Despite the expertise and resources available on campus, universities do not respond to local problems (Kellogg Commission, 1999). Higher education continues to be called upon to renew its commitment to service and to assume a leadership role in addressing society's increasing problems (Jacoby, 1996). This would answer criticisms of the university's "fortress mentality" (Harkavy, 1993, 45, as cited in Jacoby, 1996).

SERVICE LEARNING AS A MEANS FOR UNIVERSITY INVOLVEMENT IN COMMUNITY

The Kellogg Commission maintained that, although excellence in teaching and research needs to be maintained, there is also a need to be responsive in this changing world. There is a need for "engagement," defined by the Kellogg Commission as including "institutions that have redesigned their teaching research and...service functions to become more sympathetically and productively involved with their communities" (1999, 13). It is through engagement that partnerships can be formed. The Kellogg Commission maintained that an engaged university should accomplish three things: (1) be responsive to today's students, (2) enrich students' experiences by bringing research and engagement into the curriculum, and (3) work on the problems faced by the community it serves. The commission maintained that these goals can be achieved through service learning because it provides the opportunity to integrate community and academic experiences.

Jacoby tied the theory of service learning to higher education's tradition of service. Historically, the American college, "cloaked" with a public purpose, has had a responsibility to the past, present, and future (Rudolph 1963, 177, as cited in Jacoby 1996, 10). In fact, since the founding of Harvard College in 1636, a goal

of American higher education has been the preparation of citizens' community engagement (Smith, 1944, 55, as cited in Jacoby, 1996). After the Revolution, the purpose of higher education began to shift from individuals to the building of a new nation (Boyer, 1994, as cited in Jacoby, 1996). New institutions, including Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, contributed to the building of physical and social structures (Rudolph, 1962, as cited in Jacoby, 1996).

Jacoby continued to argue that service learning fits more clearly into the mission of higher education than in those of volunteer or community service programs. According to Astin (1994, as cited in Jacoby, 1996), service learning is the most effective means of achieving higher education's stated mission: "to produce educated citizens who understand and appreciate not only how democracy is supposed to work but also their own responsibility to become active and informed participants in it" (24). Another goal of higher education is to prepare students for the world of work (Pew Higher Education Roundtable, 1994). Service learning provides, in addition to behavioral and attitudinal behavior, opportunities for students to develop the cognitive skills necessary to apply academic knowledge.

Service learning attempts to involve students in community service projects that are coordinated between the school and community. Service learning, borrowed from the field of experiential education, seeks to connect contemporary social problems to the curriculum in order to encourage reflection and analysis. Keeton (1983) argued that the critical-reflection component of service learning was the direct result of John Dewey's theories of education. According to Dewey, "Experiential learning...transforms the individual, revises and enlarges knowledge, and alters practice." It affects their perceptions and interpretations of the world (Keeton, 1983, 1, as cited in Stanton, 1999). According to Stanton (1999),

service learning appears to be an approach to experiential learning, an expression of values—service to others, community development and empowerment, reciprocal learning—which determines the purpose, nature and process of social and educational exchange between learners and people they serve, and between experiential education programs and the community organizations with which they work (Stanton, 1999, 5).

Through the integration of community projects into the academic curriculum, lessons in the classroom serve as the basis for reflection and examination of the citizen's role in the community. Service learning is often a for-credit course based in experience, where students take part in a service activity that meets a community need. Time for reflection, further understanding of the course content, and an appreciation of civic responsibility are also fostered (Bringle and Hatcher, 1995).¹ Service learning is regarded as compatible with renewed awareness of the

collaborative mission of universities (Boyer, 1996; Holland, 1997, 1999; Rice, 1996; Zlotkowski, 1999). Service learning programs involve students in collaborative learning, enhancing student development, and contributing to the development of future civic involvement (Markus, Howard, and King, 1993; Sax and Astin, 1997). The adoption of service learning programs in universities is a “good choice” (Bringle and Hatcher, 2000). It augments not only student achievement but the role of community in civic education as well (Harkavy, 1996, 1998; Hatcher, 1997).

According to Wurtzdorf and Giles (1997), the term service learning arose in association with the Oak Ridge Associated Universities in Tennessee, which eventually expanded to include a total of 15 states under the Southern Regional Educational Board. However, the term service learning appeared in the work of Sigmon and William Ramsey in 1969, at the Southern Regional Educational Board. They defined it as, “the accomplishment of tasks that meet genuine human needs in combination with conscious educational growth” (Stanton, Giles, and Cruz, 1999).

The next significant milestone was the University Year for Action, a federal program that involved students across the country in serving their communities (Jacoby, 1996; Wurtzdorff and Giles, 1997). Several campus-based service learning programs originated at that time. Subsequently, the Office of Economic Opportunity established the National Student Volunteer Program. The program stimulates many service learning initiatives, although the program did not use the term service learning. Later, the program became the National Center for Service Learning. The VISTA and Peace Corps programs merged with the National Center for Service Learning to become ACTION, a federal center for student service.

Although the National Center for Service Learning was short-lived, community service at colleges regained momentum in 1985 with the establishment of Campus Compact: The Project for Public and Community Service. Its goal was the engagement of college and university presidents who have agreed to support academics-based community service. During the same period, former college graduates formed the Campus Outreach Opportunity League (COOL) to encourage students to serve the community. The National and Community Service Act (1990) and the National and Community Service Trust Act (1993) contributed to the acceleration and expansion of service learning at all levels. The 1993 Act established the Corporation for National Service, which funds higher education service learning under its Learn and Serve America grants. Internships have traditionally been part of the college experience, often carrying no academic credit. Therefore, with the increase of service-learning programs, many institutions already had structures in place to implement them.

Wurtzdorf and Giles (1997) contended that while “service” and “learning” have long been associated with institutions of higher education, there is no common

definition of the “service” component. Service is often associated with the type of research engaged in by faculty members in order to relate to broader community concerns. Student service, on the other hand, was considered the outcome of higher education and not something to be incorporated into the wider curriculum. It was assumed that the college curriculum would suffice in providing students the intellectual tools necessary to become active citizens in their communities. However, educators who advocate service learning have been challenging this assumption.

MPA PROGRAMS AS CATALYSTS FOR UNIVERSITY INVOLVEMENT IN COMMUNITY

Universities have attempted to address the problem of community development through the institutionalization of service-learning programs. Organizations such as Campus Compact have been created and greatly expanded to provide support, indicators, and measurements of a successful service-learning program. The structure of service learning is considered a key factor in the program’s success (Putnam, 1995; Dufour, 2005). Dufour (2005) characterizes effective service learning as producing social capital. However, in order to be effective, service learning must move beyond institutional change to focus on academic culture (Saltmarsh, 2002). D’Agostino (2006) found that weak academic culture was associated with students not benefiting as much as possible from service-learning programs, even though there was institutional support. Thus, support and investment in the institutional change needed for a well-structured service-learning program is only a prerequisite for a service-learning program to attain full potential and build social capital. Although more data are necessary to further explore this concept, sufficient evidence supports the recommendation that service learning also become part of the academic culture as well as institutionalized. The question of how this can be achieved remains open.

Although limited studies have examined service learning at the graduate level, and specifically in MPA programs, service-learning goals go well with the mission of MPA programs and the university mission of service (Dicke, Dowden, and Torres, 2004; Reinke, 2003). Bushouse and Morrison (2001) argued that MPA programs began incorporating service learning into the curriculum through the capstone course long before it became commonplace in higher education. Her study argued that MPA practicum courses (i.e., capstone courses) can benefit from service-learning principles such as reflection.

On the other hand, Reinke’s (2003) quantitative findings suggest that service learning may have decreased MPA students’ levels of civic engagement. However, the qualitative finding supported prior studies concluding that service learning helped students connect theory to practice through the process of reflection.²

The academic culture of public administration encourages the allocation of time to “provide a bridge between classroom structures and realities of public service” (ASPA’s Code of Ethics) in order that future public administrators may

be trained to serve the public interest. Dicke, Dowden, and Torres (2004) asked how future public administrators can uphold the interest of the public if they are not interacting and learning with the public. Nonetheless, limited research has examined service learning as a pedagogical approach in a discipline that is all about civic engagement (Reinke, 2003). Nearly 1,000 colleges and universities are enrolled as members of Campus Compact. Of these institutions, 133 are NASPAA-accredited MPA programs, and 83 of these institutions are affiliated with Campus Compact. This means that 62.4 percent of accredited MPA programs have access to service-learning resources that could be used to offer a service-learning course in their programs.

METHOD

A list of NASPAA-accredited MPA programs was generated from the NASPAA Web site, thereby excluding programs that may have a service-learning program but are not NASPAA-accredited. The chairs of those 133 MPA programs were asked to complete an online survey in Spring 2007 (Appendix A). Fact-based questions were used to gather information about the implementation of service-learning courses or methods in MPA programs. Internship and capstone courses were specifically surveyed based on the premise that service learning goals not only go well with the mission of MPA programs but, according to Bushman and Morison (2001), MPA practicum courses can benefit from service-learning principles such as reflection and incorporated elements of service-learning into the curriculum long before doing so became commonplace. However, only limited research has evaluated the application of service learning in practicum courses.

FINDINGS

Of 133 surveys emailed to MPA directors or coordinators, 46 were returned, for a 34.5% response rate. MPA directors completed 43.9% of the surveys; MPA coordinators completed 22%; others, including department chairs, administrative assistants, and internship coordinators, completed the remaining 34%. Eighty-eight percent of those surveyed were at public institutions, 31.7% of the programs were located within a political science department, and 29.3% were located within a department or program in a school/college other than business.

Nineteen percent of the programs require an internship for completion of the MPA program, 24.3% do not, and 51.3% would consider waiving the internship requirement based on professional experience in the public sector; others require an internship only for those without experience in the public sector. Sixty-four percent offer an internship course requiring the completion of class hours or assignments; only 6.7% offer no form of internship. Although 61.5% of the programs offer a capstone course and 85.2% require the capstone for completion of the program, only 2% offer the option to complete an internship as part of a capstone course. Fourteen percent of internship courses are categorized as service

learning—11% formally and 2% informally. Forty-seven percent of the internship courses require classwork and internships to be linked to wider societal problems; however, only three of these programs are also categorized as service learning. Furthermore, 12.5% of capstone courses are categorized as service learning. Sixty percent of the capstone courses require classwork and internships to be linked to wider societal problems. In addition, when asked, “How many service-learning courses are offered in the MPA program?” 35% responded zero and 24% responded other; comments included, ‘it varies by semester,’ ‘service learning is encouraged,’ ‘service learning is encouraged and is incorporated into courses as appropriate,’ ‘students have options in seven courses to do work related to service learning.’”

As summarized in the table below, the qualitative data provide insight into the similarities of the internship, capstone, and MPA program goals. The internship goals can be categorized into three themes: (1) to gain experience in the public sector, (2) to build connections to community, and (3) to apply theory and skills to real-life practice and public service problems. Theme three was the primary capstone course goal, and theme one was the dominant mission of the MPA programs.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

As anticipated, the majority of MPA programs offer an internship and/or a capstone course. However, the majority of courses are not identified as service learning. The implications of the findings are two-fold: (1) the opportunity for MPA programs to implement a service-learning course is present; (2) civic engagement should be specified as one of the MPA goals or objectives.

Internship, Capstone, and MPA Program Goals

<i>Internship Goals</i>	<i>Capstone Goals</i>	<i>MPA Mission</i>
Theme 1: Gain experience in/prepare students for careers in public sector.		Theme 1: Gain experience in/prepare students for careers in public service.
Theme 2: Build connections to community.		
Theme 3: Apply theory and skills to real life practice and public service problems.	Theme 3: Apply theory and skills to real life practice and public service problems.	

More than 90% of MPA programs offer an internship course and 52% offer a capstone course. A service-learning component can be incorporated in either the internship or capstone course. The resources needed to implement such a change are available on campus through Campus Compact but are not being utilized. Thus, the structural changes needed to incorporate service learning are minimal and the academic culture of public administration supports such changes.

The findings support the inclusion of civic engagement as one of the specific MPA goals or objectives if the MPA program is intended to foster a civically engaged society. As argued by Dicke, Dowden, and Torres (2004), the reason for adopting service learning must be transparent if the intended learning goal is to be achieved. Therefore, if civic engagement—measured as social capital—is expected to be an outcome of service learning, it needs to be clearly stated.

Through collaboration, the university and MPA programs can achieve their goals through service learning. The university has a community responsibility, whereas the main goal of MPA programs is to prepare students for careers in public service. The MPA culture supports service learning, enabling it to prepare students for careers in public service while fulfilling the wider university goal and responsibility to foster a civically engaged society.

NOTES

1. Service-learning takes many forms, including nonacademic-based programs.
2. Reinke (2003): The qualitative findings, analysis of reflective essays, clearly established the students' perception that service-learning did aid their learning course material, helped them connect theory to the practice of public administration. However, the quantitative findings do not support the idea that service learning promotes civic engagement in graduate students. Rather, the results suggest that students may have decreased their previous levels of engagement. This could be the result of small sample size, the project itself, or public service motivation.

REFERENCES

- Addams, J. 1960. *Twenty Years at Hull-House*. New York: Macmillan.
- American Society of Public Administration. "Code of Ethics." Retrieved October 23, 2006 from http://www.aspanet.org/scriptcontent/index_codeofethics.cfm
- Barber, B. R., and R. M. Battistoni. 1993. "A Season of Service: Introducing Service Learning into the Liberal Arts Curriculum." *PS: Political Science and Politics*, 26(2):235–240.
- Boyer, E. 1994. "Creating the New American College." *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 9:A48.
- Boyer, E. 1996. "The Scholarship of Engagement." *Journal of Public Service and Outreach*, 1(1):11–20.
- Boyte, H., and E. Hollander, E. 1999. "Wingspread Declaration on Renewing the Civic Mission of the American Research University" (ERIC Document Reproduction Service, No. ED 435 370). Providence, RI: Campus Compact.
- Bingle, R. G., R. Games, and E. A. Malloy, eds. 1999. *Colleges and Universities as Citizens*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bingle, R. G., and J. A. Hatcher. 1995. "A Service-learning Curriculum for Faculty." *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 2:112–122.
- Bushouse, B., and S. Morrison. 2001. "Applying Service Learning in Master of Public Affairs Programs." *Journal of Public Affairs Education*, 7(1):9–17.
- Corporation for National and Community Service. 2002. *Students in Service to America: A Guidebook for Engaging America's Students in a Lifelong Habit of Service*.

Fostering a Civically Engaged Society: The University and Service Learning

- Dewey, J. 1916. *Democracy and Education*. New York: Macmillan.
- Dicke, L., S. Dowden, and J. Torres, J. 2004. "Successful Service Learning: A Matter of Ideology." *Journal of Public Affairs Education*, 10(3):199–208.
- Dufour, C. 2005. "Service Learning and Social Capital Formation." Paper presented at the APSA Conference on Teaching and Learning in Political Science. Washington, DC, February 18–21, 2005.
- Eggerton, R. 1994. "The Engaged Campus: Organizing To Serve Society's Needs." *AAHE Bulletin*, 47:2–3.
- Ehrlich, T., ed. 2000. *Civic Responsibility and Higher Education*. Phoenix, AZ: American Council on Education/Oryx Press.
- Garman, B. 1995. *Civic Education Through Service Learning*. Bloomington, IN: Eric Digest.
- Harkavy, I. 1996. "Back to the Future: From Service Learning to Strategic Academically Based Community Service as an Approach for Advancing Knowledge and Solving the Problem of the American City." *Metropolitan Universities*, 7(1):57–70.
- Harkavy, I. 1998. "The Institutional Service Role." Paper presented at the National Invitational Conference on Higher Education and Civic Responsibility, Tallahassee, FL.
- Harkavy, I., and J. L. Puckett. 1994. "Lessons from Hull House for the Contemporary Urban University." *Social Sciences Review*, 68(3):299–321.
- Hatcher, J. A. 1997. "The Moral Dimensions of John Dewey's Philosophy: Implications for Undergraduate Education." *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 4:22–29.
- Holland, B. A. 1997. "Analyzing Institutional Commitment to Service: A Model of Key Organizational Factors." *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 4:30–41.
- Holland, B. A. 1999. "From Murky to Meaningful: The Role of Mission in Institutional Change." In R. G. Bringle, R. Games, and E. A. Malloy, eds., *Colleges and Universities as Citizens*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 48–73.
- Jacoby, B. 1996. "Service Learning in Today's Higher Education." In B. Jacoby, ed., *Service-Learning in Higher Education: Concepts and Practices*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Keeton, M. 1983. "Experiential Learning." In *Innovation Abstracts*. Austin: University of Texas.
- Kenworthy, L. 1997. "Civic Engagement, Social Capital, and Economic Cooperation." *American Behavioral Scientist*, 40(5):645–657.
- Macedo, S., et al. 2005. *Democracy at Risk: How Political Choices Undermine Citizen Participation, and What We Can Do About It*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.
- Markus, G. B., J. P. F. Howard, and D. C. King. 1993. "Integrating Community Service and Classroom Instruction Enhances Learning: Results from an Experiment." *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 15:410–419.
- Ostrander, S. A. 2004. "Democracy, Civic Participation, and the University: A Comparative Study of Civic Engagement on Five Campuses." *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 33(1):74–93.
- Pew Higher Education Roundtable. 1994. "To Dance with Change." *Policy Perspectives*, 5(3).
- Putnam, R. D. 1993. "The Prosperous Community: Social Capital and Public Life." *The American Prospect*, 4(13):35–42.
- Putnam, R. D. 1995. Bowling Alone: America's Declining Social Capital. *Journal of Democracy*, 6(1):65–78.
- Putnam, R. D. 2000. *Bowling Alone: The Collapse and Revival of American Community*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Reinke, S. J. 2003. "Making a Difference: Does Service-learning Promote Civic Engagement in MPA Students?" *Journal of Public Affairs Education*, 9(2):129–138.
- Kellogg Commission. 1999. "Returning to Our Roots: Executive Summaries of the Reports of the Kellogg Commission on the Future of State and Land-Grant Universities." Retrieved August 17, 2005, from www.nasulgc.org/publications/Kellogg/Kellogg2000_covenant.pdf.
- Rice, R. E. 1996. "Making a Place for the New American Scholar." Paper presented at the AAHE Conference on Faculty Roles and Rewards, Atlanta, GA.
- Saltmarsh, J. 2002. "Introduction from John Saltmarsh, Guest Editor." *Journal of Public Affairs*, 6(SI):83–103.
- Sax, L. J., and A. W. Astin. 1997. "The Benefits of Service: Evidence from Undergraduates." *Educational Record*, 78(3/4):25–32.

- Skocpol, T., and M. Fiorina, eds. 1999. *Civic Engagement in American Democracy*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.
- Stanton, T. K., D. E. Giles, Jr., and N. I. Cruz. 1999. *Service Learning: A Movement's Pioneers Reflect on Its Origins, Practice and Future*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Wieckowski, T. 1996. "Service Learning in Today's Higher Education." In B. Jacoby, ed., *Service-Learning in Higher Education: Concepts and Practices*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Wutzdorff, A., and D. E. Giles, Jr. 1997. "Service-learning in Postsecondary Education." In J. Schine, ed., *96th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 105–117.
- Zlotkowski, E. 1999. "Pedagogy and Engagement." In R. G. Bringle, R. Games, and E. A. Malloy, eds., *Colleges and Universities as Citizens*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 96–120.

Maria J. D'Agostino is an assistant professor in the Department of Public Management at John Jay College, CUNY. D'Agostino received her Ph.D. in Public Administration from Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey, in 2006. Her research interests include public participation, public service, and service learning. Among the courses she teaches is the MPA Fieldwork Seminar. Her most recent publications include *Social Capital: Lessons from a Service-Learning Program*, (Park University, International Center for Civic Engagement) and "A Unique Civic Engagement Tool: The AmericaSpeaks 21st Century Town Hall Meeting," in *Measuring Government Performance, Public Sector Accountability and Public Participation* (New York: Auerbach Publications).

Survey

Following are 25 (twenty-five) short questions developed to obtain information about the Master of Public Administration Program.

1. Are you a private or public University or College?
☐ Private ☐ Public ☐ Other _____
2. Is the MPA program located in
☐ Separate Professional School or College

☐ Separate Institute or Center

☐ Dept. or Program Located within a Business School/College

☐ Dept. or Program Located within a School/College other than Business

☐ Program Located within a Political Science Department

☐ Program Located within a Department other than Political Science

☐ Other Organizational Location _____
3. Are you the
☐ MPA Director
☐ MPA Coordinator
☐ Other
4. How many full time students are enrolled in the MPA program
(academic year 2005/06?)
5. How many part time students are enrolled in the MPA program
(academic year 2005/06?)
6. Does your MPA program offer
☐ An internship course (Internship placement plus required class hours and assignments)
☐ The option to receive credit for prior work experience
(Without an internship, required class hours or assignments)
☐ The option to receive credit for completing an internship as an independent study
☐ The option to receive credit for completing an internship as part of a capstone course
☐ No internship (course) is offered (If NO, please go to question 13)
7. What are the goals of the internship course?

8. How does the internship course contribute to achieving the broader goals of the MPA program?
9. Are students required to link classwork and their internships to wider societal problems?
☐ Yes
☐ No
10. Is the internship (course) categorized as a service learning course?
(*Service learning is an approach to experiential education that seeks to connect contemporary social problems to the curriculum in order to encourage reflection and analysis.)
☐ Yes (If YES, go to question # 11)
☐ No (If NO, go to question #12)
☐ Other
11. Is the internship (course) categorized as a service learning course:
☐ Informally (The service learning method is applied but not required)
☐ Formally (Described as service learning in course description)
☐ Other (Please specify)
12. Is an internship (course) a requirement for completion of the MPA program?
☐ Yes
☐ No
13. Does the MPA program offer a capstone course (Capstone course is defined as a practicum in which students apply skills learned in the programs to the real world)?
☐ Yes
☐ No (If NO, go to question 20)
☐ Other
14. Is the capstone course a requirement for the completion of the MPA program?
☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ Other (please specify)
15. What are the goals of the capstone course?
16. How does the capstone course contribute to achieving the broader goals of the MPA program?
17. Does the capstone course require students to link class work to wider societal problems?

☐ Yes (If YES, go to question 18)

☐ No (If NO, go to question 19)

18. How does the capstone course require students to link classwork to wider societal problems?

19. Is the capstone course categorized as a service learning course? (Service learning is an approach to experiential education that seeks to connect contemporary social problems to the curriculum in order to encourage reflection and analysis.)

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ Other

20. How many service learning courses are offered in the MPA program?

☐ 0

☐ 1

☐ 3

☐ 4

☐ Other

21. Is your college or university affiliated with Campus Compact?

(Campus Compact is a coalition of universities and colleges committed to fulfilling the public purpose of higher education. They provide support for the implementation of a successful service learning program.)

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ Other

22. Please state the MPA program mission statement:

23. Please state the university or college mission statement:

24. Additional Comments:

25. Your email: