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PARTICIPATION IN A COMMUNITY SERVICE PROGRAMME HAS A POSITIVE EFFECT ON HIGH SCHOOL VOLUNTEERS' EMPATHY

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A research report submitted to the faculty of Humanities, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Masters of Education (Educational Psychology)

Johannesburg, South Africa, 2007

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this research is my own unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Masters of Education (Educational Psychology) at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university

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Heather Lynne Barclay

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ABSTRACT

There is a growing body of research that demonstrates the relationship between identity development, the development of citizenship, and the pedagogy of service learning (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Jones & Hill, 2001, 2003; Rhoad, 1997; Youniss &Yates, 1997). While a review of the effects of community service on elementary and high school participants in the USA provide some indication that participating in service-learning programmes is beneficial to young people, Alt & Medrich (1994) state that there is still relatively little clear, systematic evidence demonstrating the connection between community service and particular affective and educational objectives.

It is of concern in the light of the Further Education and Training (FET) Life Orientation (LO) Curriculum's call for citizenship education (Department of Education, 2003), that no research on 'community service' work done by high school learners in South Africa can be located. The studies that link a service- learning or community work pedagogy to the development of empathy have primarily been conducted with college students (Burnett, Hamel, & Long, (2004); Giles, & Eyler, (1993); Jones & Hill (2003); Pratt, (2001); Rhoad, (1997)). Although there is some research with adolescents (Hamilton & Fenzel, (1988); Leming, (2001); Middleton, & Kelly (1996); Yates. & Youniss, (1996), it has primarily focused on social and identity development in community service settings and not specifically on empathy.

However Hatcher's (1994) research with adolescents and college students provides indications that empathy is developmental and can be elicited by environmental intervention and that some aspects of empathy can be taught to adolescents if a developmental shift is caught.

Key words: empathy, service learning, community work, identity, citizenship

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Declaration ii

Acknowledgements iii

Abstract iv

Table of contents v

List of tables vii

1. LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1 Examining the constructs

1.1.1 Identity

1.1.1 1. Identity and social responsibility

1.1.1.2. Identity formation in relation to society

1.1.2 Empathy

1.1.2.1. The importance of empathy

1.1.2.2. Defining empathy

1.1.2.3. The developmental line of empathy

1.1.2.4. Empathy is Multidimensional

1.1.2.5. Eliciting and teaching empathy

a. From birth to five

b. From five to ten years

c. Early adolescence

d. The adolescent years

1.1.2.6. The relationship between empathy, identity and community service

1.1.3. Community Service

1.1.3.1. Background to community service

1.1.3.2. Defining community service

1.1.3.3. Design elements of a community programme

a. Design conditions

b. Reflection

c. Institutional support

1. 1.3.4.Community engagement

2. RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

3. THE RESEARCH PROJECT

3.1 General Aims

3.2 Specific Aims

3.3 Hypotheses

3.4 Critical assumptions

3.5 Research Method

a. Subjects

b. Instruments

c. Intervention

d. Procedure

e. Ethical considerations

3.6 Research Design

4. RESEARCH RESULTS

4.1 Data Analysis

4.2 Testing the hypotheses

5. DISCUSSION

5.1 Empathy is improved

5.2 Personal Distress scores decrease while Perspective Taking scores increase

5.3 There is an improvement in the scores on the Fantasy scale of the IRI

6. RECOMMENDATIONS

7. LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

7.1 Research Design:

7.2 Instrument:

7.3 Participants:

7.4 Programme:

8. FURTHER RESEARCH

9. CONCLUSION

10. REFERENCES

11. APPENDICES

Appendix A: Information Letters and Consent Forms

Appendix B: IRI

Appendix C: Volunteer Information sheet

Appendix D: Workshop Outline

Appendix E: Examples of reflection activities

Appendix F: Post volunteering evaluation sheet

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics: The Means Procedure **28**

Table 2: Test for Normality **30**

Table 3: Pearson Correlation Coefficients **32**

“By leaving the emotional lessons the children learn to chance, we risk largely wasting the window of opportunity presented by the slow maturation of the brain to help children cultivate a healthy emotional repertoire”

(Goleman, 1995. p286).

1. LITERATURE REVIEW

Susan Jones and Elisa Abes (2004) point to a growing body of research that demonstrates the relationship between identity development, the development of citizenship, and the pedagogy of service learning (Eyler & Giles, 1999: Jones & Hill, 2001, 2003; Rhoades, 1997; Youniss &Yates, 1997). Service-learning courses usually put students in contact with people and communities very different from their own. These opportunities tend to promote self-reflection and personal awareness. As students explore aspects of their identity that they have always taken for granted, they grow and develop personally as well as become aware of the concepts of social responsibility. Participants in community service programmes describe that they developed greater awareness of society's problems and reconsidered their values and needs (Alt. & Medrich, 1994).

1.1 Examining the constructs

According to Hoffman (2000), empathy can be understood as the spark of human concern for others, the glue that makes social life possible. Other writers in the field of personal development have described empathy as the key to promoting caring behaviours and have defined it as one of the most important self-regulatory aspects of emotional intelligence.

The emphasis on the importance of empathy makes it essential for schools and educators to consider ways in which this important characteristic can be developed. It is particularly important to consider programmes that have been used for affective education, as well as programmes intended to build morality and to develop citizenship, and to locate the factors that have promoted the development of empathy. Awareness of these factors will aid in the design of more effective methods of community service to achieve this goal.

In order to come to a better understanding of how participation in a community service project develops empathy in the participants, this study will examine different aspects of the constructs of identity, citizenship and community service, as well as some of the outcomes of their interaction. According to many of the theorists discussed in this study it is the relationship between the factors described that can make a community service programme effective as a means for developing empathic citizens who are socially responsible and personally aware. It draws lessons from the literature that can be used in the development of a community service programme for adolescents that has a solid theoretical foundation.

1.1.1 Identity

1.1.1.1. Identity and social responsibility

Building on the work of Erickson (1968) regarding the psychosocial crisis of identity formation (in which the adolescent has to learn to answer the question “Who am I?”), Yates and Younis (1996) suggest that adolescents struggle to understand themselves in relation to society. They propose that in the process of searching for an identity, adolescents attempt to identify with values and ideologies that go beyond the immediate concerns of family and self and have historical continuity. Berman (1997) adds that adolescents need to experience generativity, to cast their mark as individuals, and to clarify their role in an ever-widening social context. Participating in a community project can provide a context for experiencing these conditions.

As a concept, social responsibility encapsulates the three domains of identity formation, the development of citizenship, and the pedagogy of service learning. This concept encompasses the developing adolescents’ social skills while enabling them to be active and responsible members of their larger social and political community (Berman, 1997). Social responsibility goes beyond just being respectful of others; it means experiencing, as well as appreciating our interdependence and connectedness with others and our environment (Berman, 1993). Adolescents’ ability to identify and define social responsibility is important in defining who they are, where they fit in the social world, and in building confidence in their sense of agency.

Social responsibility can be, and has been, concretised in a variety of ways including volunteerism (Hamilton, 1988; Hanks, 1981; Youniss & Yates, 1997), community service (Middleton & Kelly, 1996; Youniss & Yates, 1997; Youniss, McLellan, & Yates, 1997), and human rights and civic activity (Avery, 1988; Fendrich, 1993; Greenberger, 1984). Within all of these conceptualisations the adolescent is afforded the opportunity to explore a variety of roles and relationships by engaging in a community setting.

1.1.1.2 Identity formation in relation to society

Youniss and Yates (1997) describe three developmental concepts that have relevance to understanding adolescents’ identity development in community service settings – feelings of agency and control, social relatedness and moral-political awareness. Agency refers to person directedness and self-understanding, personal competence and responsibility, and self esteem. It incorporates the extent to which they perceive themselves as accountable for both personal achievements and failures. Social relatedness refers to the potential to fulfil adult roles responsibly and effectively and includes a sense of the importance of community relationships. The third developmental concept is moral-political awareness, which refers to moral sensibilities

and the propensity for civic connectedness and involvement. These are three important dimensions of adolescent identity development.

Youniss and Yates (1997) found that several years after completing a high school service-learning course, students still described the course as ‘a landmark in the development of their identity’ (p128). As a result of their service learning course, students maintained an identity that encompassed “an empathic outlook toward the other, reflectivity on the self’s agency, and relating one’s own agency to helping less fortunate individuals.”

1.1.2 Empathy

1.1. 2.1. The importance of empathy

Observations by participants in service learning programmes reveal that the promotion of an empathic outlook is probably one of the key outcomes of participation. This emphasis on the importance of empathy is supported by research that suggests that empathy plays a key role in the development of social understanding and positive social behaviour (Eisenberg & Strayer, 1987; Feshbach, 1978). The ego strength embodied in the capacity for empathy is important to the building of good relationships and it provides a basis for coping with stress, resolving conflict (Kremer & Dietzen, 1991) and thus helping to maintain emotional health. Research suggests that the characteristics of social emotional learning, and in particular empathy, are found in young people who succeed academically and in their personal and civic lives (Greenberg, Zins, Elias & Weissberg, 2003).

Goleman (1995) writes that if we neglect this crucial aspect of human development, we are denying responsibility for a major part of what makes our students who they are, and we hurt our communities by allowing children with no ability to control their anger or work through their conflict to enter our society as angry violent adults.

A recent study by Wanda Dobrich and Steven Dranoff from Rutgers University (2003) suggests that empathy failure of adolescents can increase the risk for victimisation and aggressive acts against peers. They stress the importance of interventions for students that teach empathy (Dobrich & Dranoff, 2003). However Hatcher (1994) raises the issue that while there may be much uniformity of opinion regarding the significance of empathy, there is much controversy regarding the mechanisms by which a capacity for empathy develops and whether empathy can be taught.

1.1.2.2. Defining empathy

Hatcher (1994) describes how writers define empathy differently. Some like Schafer (1959), Rogers (1957) and Greenson (1960) focus on the inner experience of sharing in and

understanding the momentary psychological state of another. Other writers tend to focus on either the cognitive (understanding) or the affective (feeling) components of the construct or characterise empathy as involving both affective and cognitive components in mutually shaping ways (Kohut, 1959).

Another difference in defining empathy is the distinction made between 'observational empathy' and a 'helping relationship empathy' that requires interpersonal communication (Barrett-Lennard.1981). In the second description empathy is seen as not just as a mode of observation or an informer of appropriate action (Kohut, 1959), but also as a motivator of prosocial action. That is, empathy is put forth as involving not just affective processes, but also cognitive and social processes. (Rieveschl & Cowan, 2003). Rogers argued that empathy is "one of the most potent factors in bringing about change and learning" (1975, p3), while Hoffman (1981) focused on the role that empathic distress plays in the unfolding of prosocial behaviour, caring and justice.

Carl Rogers (1959) described empathy as the ability "to perceive the internal frame of reference of another with accuracy, and with the emotional components and meanings which pertain there to". To observe the meanings with accuracy assumes the probability of understanding these meanings. According to Kohut (1959) however, one can never entirely think and feel oneself into the subjective experience of another because the empathic listener inescapably contributes to the joint construction of emerging meanings.

Rieveschl & Cowan (2003) explain how despite our effort to go where another is, we can never entirely leave our own selves behind. The development of empathy is both made possible and limited by the composition of our assumptive world. Everything we experience and observe is given order by a more or less implicit set of assumptions about the self and the world. This 'assumptive world' (Frank, 1973, p27) is a tapestry of meaning woven from ongoing experience that we use to interpret our world and our life (Rieveschl & Cowan, 2003).

1.1.2.3. The developmental line of empathy

Empathy is thus not just a mode of observation, but is essential in sustaining the human self (Kohut, 1981).

Kriegman (1988) proposes that the fact that we are inherently designed to sense and respond to the feeling states of other selves, in combination with our lifelong need for empathically attuned others, strongly suggests an evolutionary basis for empathy. Hoffman's (1981) research with newborns in their first day of life makes plain that the human ability to resonate with the experience of others is rooted in our genetic design.

Hoffman (2000) details a line of empathic development from innate preverbal forms to highly sophisticated manifestations of resonance with human affective experience. The child progresses from a 'self–oriented' personal distress reaction to an 'other oriented ' perspective taking mode'. This advance occurs as the child is increasingly able to differentiate himself/herself from others in a less narcissistic fashion. The final stage in the development of empathy consists of an ability to empathise with another's experience beyond immediate circumstances. It is rooted in the ability to process sources of information by mediated association, role taking and introspection. This developmental perspective describes empathy as evolving from reflexive genetic roots through stages of ever increasing complexity.

1.1.2.4. Empathy is Multidimensional

Davis (1983) proposed that empathy is a multifaceted process. He defined empathy as a "reaction to the observed experience of another" and developed a self-report scale, the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI), to assess the four components of empathy: i.) perspective taking, which is a cognitive process ; and the affective experiences of ii.) other-oriented, empathic concern, iii.) fantasy (defined as a tendency of the respondent to identify strongly with fictitious characters in books, movies or plays), and iv) the experience of personal distress.

Batson (1991) and his colleagues identified Personal Distress as the negative self focused emotion that may be the result of the uncomfortable situations that often produce empathic concern. It reflects, according to Davis (1980), the individual's own fears, feeling of apprehension and discomfort at witnessing the negative experiences of others. People prone to Personal Distress tend to be lower in self-regulation of emotions, compared to people prone to sympathetic responding, who tend to be highly regulated, yet emotionally intense (see Eisenberg, Wentzel and Harris, 1999).

Davis's (1983) findings also imply a developmental progression for empathy. Both the affective and cognitive aspects respect the developmental concept of empathy by differentiating the earliest affective component of the concept "Personal Distress" from the more mature and cognitive versions such as "Perspective Taking" and "Empathic Concern" (Davis, 1983; Emde, 1989). For Davis, Perspective Taking "reflects (Davis & Franzoi, 1991), and Empathic Concern measures a tendency for the respondent "to experience a feeling of warmth, compassion, and concern for others undergoing negative experiences" (Davis, 1980, p4). In addition, results from five studies (Eisenberg, 2002) support the assertion that Empathic Concern consistently motivates people to act altruistically, whereas distress motivates them to act egoistically.

1.1.2.5 Eliciting and teaching empathy

Hatcher, R., Hatcher, S. Berlin, Okla, & Richards (1990) propose that empathy and self-understanding develop in parallel fashion to cognition (Piaget, 1932) and moral maturity (Kohlberg & Gilligan, 1971). Such theories suggest that there is a natural potential for empathy that may be elicited by the environment. The infant research of Stern (1985) supports the view that we enter the world with a readiness and ability for relational engagement and also asserts that we are both shaped by and shapers of the conversation from our earliest days. This perspective agrees with Kohut (1959) that the absence of empathic parental attunement can thwart development of the emerging self. Substantial failures of responsiveness from significant others puts developing selfhood at risk of derailment.

Early childhood development of empathy is strongly dependant on early parenting. A study by Zhou, Eisenberg, Losoya, Feabes, Reiser, & Guthrie, et al (2002) which examined the effects of parenting on children's empathic responses and their social competence found that parents who were warm and supportive tended to express more positive emotions in their child's presence. Children showed more empathic responses; were more socially competent and showed less externalising of problems as rated by their teachers and parents.

In a longitudinal study on prosocial development in early adulthood, the researchers provide evidence showing that the consistent links between empathy, sympathy and prosocial behaviour found in children continue into adulthood (Eisenberg, N., Guthrie, I.K., Cumberland, A., Murphy, B.C., Shepard, S.A., Zhou, Q., & Carlo, G. 2002). They also show that interindividual differences in childhood predict similar differences in adulthood, providing evidence for a prosocial personality.

Eisenberg (2002) discusses how socialisation leads to individual differences in the development of empathy, including the quality and style of parent–child relationship, disciplinary style, parental responses to emotions and parental expressiveness. Carla Poole, Susan A. Miller and Ellen Booth Church's (2005) description of how empathy develops, shows the parallel development of empathy, self-understanding and cognition and how effective responses to children help set the foundation for empathy.

a) From birth to five

Beginning at birth a baby uses her senses to take in the mood and feelings of others, especially those who love and care for her. During the first year of life the child's emerging consciousness and the awareness of her feelings and the feelings of others develops dramatically. Her brain is shaped by her experiences most important of which are the responses of caring adults. As her feelings combine with emerging thinking skills, pre-empathy develops (Poole, 2005).

The one year old will assume that the other feels what she feels. If accurate interpretation requires the child to decentre from his/her egocentrism, her empathy will falter. The balance may shift from assimilation to accommodation and she begins to understand that others have different experiences, feelings and perspectives (Rieveschl & Cowan, 2003). As the capacity for person permanence develops at around 18 months the child becomes aware of how other people feel about her actions. She has a sense of herself as being separate from others. Adult responses that acknowledge her emotions present an important step towards understanding the perceptions of others. She is more able to discern accurately the emotional states of others – "affective role taking" or egocentric empathic distress (Hoffman, 2000).

Studies of children in the second year of life indicate that they have the cognitive, affective and behavioural capacities needed to display integrated patterns of concern for others in distress (Zahn-Waxler, C. Robinson, J.L. & Emde, and R.N. (1992). When they are treated with respect and given tools to understand their own feelings, compassion for others begins to grow.

Three and four year olds move through a process of understanding emotions, connecting emotions and desires, and appreciating other viewpoints. By the age of four, preschoolers have the capacity to see things from another's perspective and empathetic behaviour is evident, although their reactions to feelings are not always appropriate. In the preschool year (5-6 years old) children are increasingly aware of the actions and emotions of others. They can begin to take responsibility for their own actions and their actions with others (Miller, A. 2005).

b. From five to ten years

With regard to children from 5 years - 9/10 years, Stetson, Hurley, & Miller (2003) reviewed affective education programmes in the USA to ascertain if they could be used to promote empathy. Their research showed that these curricula can have an effect on behaviour change, but that both affective and cognitive components of empathy need to be learnt so that there is a motivation to respond prosocially. They also found that at this age there should be an emphasis on skills.

Hoffman's (2000) model of empathy and moral development proposes that during these same years (5–9/10 years) children move from a simple emotional response to the affect of another, to a rather sophisticated understanding of the connection between one's own and other's feelings. They understand that somebody else's misfortune can stir feelings of sadness within themselves. Thus they become aware of their own empathic responses.

Zins, Eissberg, Wang and Walberg (2003) point to the success of school based affective programmes that simultaneously focus on educating the child and instilling positive changes in

the ecology of the school. They point out that it is essential to create a school environment in which children know that empathic responding is valued, where they see it modelled and experience it themselves. All adults at the school should be committed and involved in affective educating goals (Battistich, Solomon, Watson, & Schaps, 1989).

c. Early adolescence

Pre-adolescents have been characterised by their need to explore a variety of interests; connect learning to practical life and work; release energy through activity; develop personal identity found through peers' affirmation; separate self from parents; and rely on friends to provide comfort, understanding and approval (Stott & Jackson, 2005). A service learning pedagogy may meet the unique developmental needs of this age as it gives these students an opportunity to apply what they are learning in the classroom by performing acts of service. Issues unique to early adolescence involving physical, psychological, and social changes are beginning to appear.

Goals of such a programme would include personal awareness, social skills, learning skills and planning/goal setting as well as social responsibility. Furthermore Halstead (1997) suggests that service-learning supports teaming, creates smaller communities of learning, encourages student responsibility for learning, provides students with leadership opportunities, and develops greater partnerships with parents and communities. Once again the emphasis on creating a school environment that supports affective change is emphasised.

d. The adolescent years

Research by Hatcher (1994) suggests that the capacity for true empathy begins in adolescence with the more primitive form of Personal Distress decreasing and Fantasy increasing. Davis and Franzoi (1991) noted that Perspective Taking and Empathic Concern (as measured by the Interpersonal Reactivity Index) appeared to increase (without any intervention or formal training) somewhat from year to year in High School for females (only), These are the more advanced affective and cognitive skills of the IRI and it is suggested that even at High School level they can be elicited by environmental intervention.

Hatcher (1994) conducted a study to investigate whether the development of empathy might be stimulated by the intervention of a curriculum in peer counselling skills. She wanted to create the opportunity to not just learn about empathy concepts, but to be educated in the use of empathy skills. She found that a readiness for effective empathy training develops during the same time period that secure abstract thought, augmented moral development, and the ability to introspect appear.

1.1.2.6. The relationship between empathy, identity and community service

In adolescents the development of empathy cannot be understood separately from the construction of identity. The literature reveals that the abilities and motivations that infuse and inform empathy are a complex result of both evolutionary and developmental processes. The development of a community service programme for adolescents that creates environmental conditions to elicit empathy as well as learning conditions to teach empathy needs to be informed by the research that explains this concept.

Important thus to consider is the construction of identity and the concurrent development of empathy. The programme must accommodate issues of agency and control, social relatedness and moral-political awareness and encourage social responsibility so as to facilitate an understanding among participants of who they are and where they fit in the social world:

- Based on the dimensions of empathy explicated by Davis (1983), it would seem that the developmental progression of Empathic Concern and Perspective Taking allows us to 'catch' a developmental shift at the very beginnings of a true empathic capacity in high school.
- A community service programme should make the development of these skills necessary and promote self-reflection and personal awareness. Encouraging identification with fictional characters, while providing the language sufficient for empathic communication, could be a useful tool.
- Furthermore opportunities for adolescents to identify with values and ideologies that go beyond family and self and have historical continuity are crucial, as well as allowing adolescents to cast their marks as individuals.
- The programme should be novel to the participants in order to facilitate the accommodative developmental process. However, it should understand the limits imposed by the framework of the participants 'assumptive world' and provide support for the process of emotional and cognitive adjustment.
- If empathy is a dance where meaning is created in the back and forth movement of the relationship, reflection on both participants in the relationship's experience of understanding and being understood is essential.
- The programme must include opportunities for ongoing reflection and reframing allowing participants to make meaning of their experience in a community setting.
- It is essential that there is a school environment in which empathic responding is valued and modelled. Furthermore all adults at the school should be committed to and involved in affective educational goals. (Battistich, Solomon, Watson, & Schaps, 1989).

- The school environment must have a degree of flexibility that supports teaming and smaller communities of learning, encourages student responsibility for learning, provides students with leadership opportunities, and develops greater partnerships with parents and communities.

1.1.3 Community Service

1.1.3.1. Background to community service

The curriculum has long been a powerful tool in shaping society. Certainly in America, according to Sheldon H. Berman (1998), nurturing a democratic culture and a civil society was the central mission of public education at its inception. For most of the last century, educational and social theorists have endorsed community service as a method of reinvigorating education and addressing social problems (Alt.& Medrich, 1994).

Community based learning efforts have gained substantial energy from the call to responsible citizenship (Jacoby, 2003). In South Africa the White Paper on Transformation of Higher Education (1997) laid the foundations for making community service an integral part of Higher Education Institutions. It calls on these institutions to 'demonstrate social responsibility and a commitment to the common good by making available expertise and infrastructure for community service'. At high school level the Life Orientation Curriculum (Learning Outcome 2: Citizenship Education), determines that learners should participate in a 'community service that addresses a contemporary social or environmental issue ' (National Curriculum Statement (NCS), Grades 10 – 12 (General) Life Orientation, DoE, 2003)

Cognitive theories have for many years posited that direct experience and reflection are both essential to effective learning. Theorists from Piaget and Dewey to Coleman and Kolb have written extensively on this point (Alt & Medrich, 1994). David Kolb (1984) posited a model of experiential learning where learning change and growth occur through a continuous cycle of concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation and active experimentation. This cycle allows learners to make sound decisions and solve problems, understand and modify behaviour and/or choose new experiences.

Experiential exercises that incorporate personal involvement or immersion in diverse communities help students move beyond the acquisition of knowledge and allow them to gain greater breadth and depth of experience by involving them in social, political, cultural, environmental and other aspects of our collective community (Burnett, Hamel & Long, 2004).

1.1.3.2 Defining community service

Community service is a form of experiential learning in which participants engage in an activity that serves an unmet need in the community or school. Community Service initiatives enable individuals to contribute their time and skills to help improve their communities, with the goal of enhancing individual's awareness of constituents in the broader community as well as enhancing self awareness. McAleavey (1996) describes community service as an appropriate pedagogy for courses that have performance skills or social awareness components that are best developed through participation.

Community service programmes are distinguished from other approaches to experiential education by their intention to equally benefit the provider and the recipient of the service as well as to ensure equal focus on both the service being provided and the learning that is occurring (Furco, 1996, p5). Students work with their community sponsors to understand the community needs and to work together to fulfil those needs. A working contract between the institution and the community organisation is established so that the effort is collaborative and continually mutually beneficial and empowering. Through these partnerships there is a unique value placed on the knowledge and expertise of the community client. The community shares the responsibility for student learning (Thomas & Landau, 2002).

Community Service places special emphasis on reflection as the key to yielding real learning. Reflection should be multilayered in that it needs to deal with course content, contextual understanding, appreciation of the discipline and social responsibility (Thomas & Landau, 2002).

1.1.3.3. Design elements of a community programme

A 1984 survey of high school based volunteer program coordinators in the USA found that enhancing students' personal development was the most commonly cited goal for participating in community service programme (Newmann and Rutter, 1986). Following this, teachers cited specific areas of growth as: - changed attitudes toward people in the community; feelings of social responsibility; moral reasoning ability; capacity to empathise and orientation toward civic participation

Different perspectives on citizenship have significantly varying implications for the curriculum. Westheimer & Kahne (2004) use a framework that highlights the political dimensions of efforts to educate citizens for democracy. They assert that the central question of civic education is what kind of citizen is needed to support an effective democratic society. In mapping the terrain they found three visions of citizenship particularly helpful. Each vision of citizenship reflects a relatively distinct set of theoretical and curricula goals.

1. The personally responsible citizen – acts responsibly in her community by, for example, picking up litter, recycling, donating blood. Programs that seek to develop this kind of citizen attempt to build character and personal responsibility by emphasising honesty, integrity, self discipline and hard work (Lickona, 1993)
2. The participatory citizen - participates in the civic affairs and social life of the community. Education prepares students to engage in collective community–based efforts. Educational programmes teach students how government and community based organisations work, and train them to plan and participate in organised efforts to care for people in need or to guide school policies. They may learn skills associated with these endeavours.
3. The justice-oriented citizen – justice oriented educators argue that effective democratic citizens need opportunities to analyse and understand the interplay of social, economic and political forces. Explicit attention is called to matters of injustice and to the importance of pursuing social justice. The focus is on responding to social problems and to structural critique. Educational programmes seek to prepare students to improve society by effecting systemic change.

In short……If participatory citizens are organising the food drive, and personally responsible citizens are donating food, justice oriented citizens are asking why people are hungry (root causes) and acting on what they discover.
Once again we need to emphasise that implicit in any programme is the question: “What kind of citizen?”

Bartel, Saavdra and van Dyne (2001) suggest that most community service programmes have dual learning outcomes – that is, community learning and personal learning. Community learning reflects an enhanced awareness and understanding of social, economic and cultural issues. Personal learning is the acquisition of self-relevant knowledge, including a deeper understanding of one’s personal attitudes, values and abilities. In designing a community service programme it is essential that objectives are carefully focused and the programme built around them.

Programme outcomes should determine design; just as design conditions (concrete experiences) promote different kinds of outcomes. So design conditions such as task characteristics, social interactions and affective responses can be seen as important antecedents to learning. Furthermore another two essential components in relation to developing a community service programme can be identified: research (Alt & Medrich, 1994) points to consistent evidence supporting the importance of a reflection component and finally research is emerging that emphasises the importance of institutional support. Kielsmeier,

Scales, Roehlkepartain & Neal (2004) in a national study in the USA on service learning, identify the need to strengthen infrastructures and supports as a main challenge.

a. Design conditions

In designing the task itself Bartel, Saavdra and van Dyne (2001) suggest that tasks should challenge individuals and motivate them to attend to and process significant social, economic and cultural information. By having to attend to contextual cues in order to do the activity, participants will feel that the task is meaningful and will learn more about the community. Activities that enable students to engage in planning collaboratively with community members, and specifically where they have opportunities to make decisions and solve problems, have been highlighted as factors that promote learning (Alt and Medrich, 1994).

In terms of social interaction, community service experiences differ in the types of social interactions that occur both among program participants and between community members and participants. It appears that the higher the degree of interaction with community members the more participants learn about the community (Billig, 2000). Participants are likely to look for explanations for difficulties so that they can better understand the current situation. They ask questions that make them more aware of the context and the impact of socio-economic factors on community members. (Bartel, Saavdra & van Dyne, 2001)

Ewell (1997p4) describes learning as being about “making meaning for each individual learner by establishing and reworking patterns, relationships, and connections”. Approaches that emphasise interpersonal collaboration are most likely to promote learning by providing for greater interaction between students, their peers and teachers. The greater the dependence of participants on each other, both social dependence and task dependence, the greater the degree of personal learning

Affective responses also influence learning, cognition and behaviour. Enthusiasm can be influenced by a variety of situational characteristics and community programmes aim to generate positive experiences of participants (Forward, 1994;) with the goal of promoting continued involvement and effective projects. Since many, if not most, affective states are caused by interpersonal events programmes should provide participants with opportunities to develop new social ties and/or secure social recognition (Parkinson, 1997). Hewstone (2003) also proposed that generating affective ties, including forming close friendships, appears to be the most effective mechanism in reducing prejudice and in mediating anxiety in intergroup situations.

b. Reflection

The essence of community service experience is 'a reflection on that experience and a rendering of it into words so that it can be subjected to disciplined thinking' (Mercer, 1996. p14). Reflection provides students and teachers with a way to look back at their experiences, evaluate them and apply what is learnt to future experiences. It is the use of creative and critical thinking skills to help prepare for, succeed in and learn from the service experience, and to examine the larger picture and context in which the service occurs. (Toole & Toole, 1995).

Without reflection, students just report on experiences instead of examining how what they do impacts on themselves and those in the community. Critical reflection is when students engage not only in thinking about the experience, but theorising about it, in the sense of considering problematic questions associated with power, history and agency (Mitchell, 2005).

Reflection is structured time that allows students to talk/think/write and otherwise reflect about the service experience and should take place in at least three phases of the process – pre-service, during service and post-service. It occurs in stages that mirror the higher order thinking skills process. Students think about their experience, analyse information, examine their values before and after the experience, and apply what they have learnt to future experiences (Stephens, 1995, p31). Reflection based on developing these higher order-thinking skills makes service deeper and more meaningful for participants.

One study found that the seminar designed for reflection on experience was the key element of a voluntary service program that helped students increase their sense of civic responsibility (Rutter & Newmann 1989), while Conrad and Hedin (1982) similarly singled out a discussion seminar as the element that had the largest influence on intellectual and social development of the students in their study. Results from a study with college students that explored service learning as a contextual influence on identity development and self-authorship (Jones and Abes, 2004) found that the ongoing reflection and reframing engendered by an experience in community settings encouraged participants meaning making.

Leming (2001) points out that if the fields of community service and service learning are to develop a body of "best practice" knowledge, the relationship between theory, research and practice must be strengthened. He advises that one topic in need of attention is a more precise specification of varieties of student reflection within community service settings.

c. Institutional support

The third most important condition in the design of community service programmes is the relationship between the programme and the institution. Zins, Eissberg, Wang and Walberg

(2003) point out that the most effective factor in promoting affective change is creating a school environment in which children know that empathic responding is valued, where they see it modelled and experience it themselves. By implication, for community service programmes to succeed there must be a positive changes in the ecology of the school such that the school as a whole provides a role model.

The education mission of the school should include community service if it is to become core to the teaching and learning process. The responsibility of the institution to the communities is a whole institution responsibility. It is the responsibility of not only the students and staff involved in the programme, but the institution as well to build communicative partnerships (Alperstein, 2005).

Kielsmeier, Scales, Roehlkepartain & Neal, (2004) report on a national study of the state of service learning K-12 conducted in January and February 2004 in the USA. Results from this report point to the need to strengthen service learning infrastructures, supports and effective implementation. Some of the issues the report raises are that most schools, despite the perceived value and impact of community service, have little dedicated financial support, few or no coordinating personnel, teacher training or incentives to support their programmes and projects. Schools lack systems to track basic data on the scope of their community service and its relationship to key areas of accountability.

The report recommends that for effective implementation of community-service/service-learning initiatives, not only do the above issues need to be addressed, but structural changes such as reducing course loads for teachers so they can develop or supervise community service, and creating extra planning time are necessary. In addition schools need to demonstrate a certain degree of flexibility to accommodate the reorganisation of institutional and classroom space and to incorporate teams and learning communities.

Halstead (1997) suggests that service learning supports teaming, creates smaller communities of learning, and develops greater partnerships with parents and communities. A learning community links together several existing courses, or restructures the curricular material, so that students have opportunities for deeper understanding and integration of the material they are learning and more interaction with one another and their teachers as fellow participants in the learning enterprise (Gabelnick, Macgregor, Matthews & Smith, 1990, p.19). Successful learning communities share several characteristics:

- they organise teachers and students into smaller groups
- they facilitate student socialisation so that students are more comfortable asking questions, speaking out and seeking help

- they provide an ideal setting for students to develop a sense of student responsibility because students themselves are responsible for the learning of the community.

Learning communities in community service can ensure that participants are properly integrated socially and academically (Tinto, 1997) and are thus less likely to drop out. The strength of learning communities lies in the integration of students and in interdisciplinary learning that brings multiple sources of learning together. Teamwork and project work teach new skills and allow students to build support relationships, the crucial relationship one often being the one with their teacher.

1.1.3.4.Community engagement

Theories of community service and service learning posit a move away from notions of 'serving' the community to using the language of community engagement. The language of community engagement changes 'service and outreach' to 'partnership and interdisciplinary'. Programmes speak of mutuality, reciprocity, accountability and impact (Burnett, Hamel, & Long, 2004).

Prof. David Perry, speaking at the University of Cape Town (2003), draws on a presentation he gave at the Conference on Higher Education and the City earlier that year, in which he explored the implications of engagement for a University in the Nelson Mandela Metro. He refers to partnerships as the scholarship of engagement whereby students, faculty and external communities are fully and equally engaged, working in transdisciplinary, dynamic, flexible partnerships of research and learning. The concept of partnerships suggests a broader and more inclusive institutional mission.

Jacoby's (2003) text on service learning speaks of the " reciprocal and synergistic relationship". She puts forward that at the centre of the intersection between the reconceptualisation of traditional teaching and learning methods and the increased accountability pressures for campuses to develop civic minded graduates with the skills, knowledge and abilities to create positive social change, is the opportunity to develop symbiotic interactions between academe and neighbourhoods – in other words, truly democratic partnerships.

In reality, the relationship between the institution and the community organisation (the partners) is characterised by complexity and ambivalence, but practices at this interface must be challenged and explored as they also offer real possibilities for transformation (McMillan, 2005).

Melanie Alperstein (2005) proposes that it is time to move from "Where is the learning in service learning?" to asking "Where is the community in service learning?" She suggests that service learning research has tended to emphasise impacts related to student learning and pedagogical

issues at the expense of community impacts, and that the voices of community members are almost completely absent from the discourse of the effects of service learning. Mitchell & Humphries (2005) assert that definitions of service learning seem to assume that it is beneficial to all the parties involved, however in the light of the absence of research, to claim that service learning is beneficial for the community, may be a presumptuous statement to make.

Presenting the opening keynote at the International Symposium on Service Learning (2005), Mary Moore, Vice President for Research, Planning and Strategic Partnerships, University of Indianapolis, addressed the question of the *next steps for service learning*. Her main point was that institutions will need to make new investments in order to benefit the community host. These investments will take the form of technology, strategy and so on, rather than just the human resource work that benefits the students. A further challenge relates to the institution establishing mechanisms for the community voice to be heard – not just through the service learning department or personnel.

Exploring the possibilities for the community voice in curriculum development also has implications for curriculum transformation The partnership needs to question how much say the community has regarding appropriate timetabling, prior preparation of students, pedagogy and assessment; what knowledge communities are allowed to bring into the institution; where the comprehensive development planning with the institutions is; whether there is flexibility to negotiate curricula that achieve mutual academic, professional and community benefits (and not just student academic requirements). Reconceptualising the reciprocity of the partnership raises questions around reciprocal knowledge, reciprocal power and how communities can assist social change and development at institutions.

Secondly, Moore (2005) proposes that new methods of research that benefit communities are needed to measure impacts, attitudes, cross-cultural communication and different voices. Traditional methods of research are inadequate to capture the ambivalence and complexity of relationships. Mitchell and Humphries (2005) suggest that participatory techniques are a useful means for accessing the community voice. The paradigm is more person centred and sensitive to the context of the research setting. It allows the researcher to capture richness, complexity and ambivalence of experience.

Moreover an ethical dilemma is raised by Kirsch (2005) regarding the relationships established in community service programmes, as well as in some research activities in these settings. Service learning and research can place young/new students in community settings with all the potentials for ethical dilemmas that trained qualitative researchers encounter. However often

these projects are not planned with the same care as those conducted by trained scholars, nor supervised with the same scrutiny.

Kirsch cites Cotteril (1992) who warns of the “potentially damaging effects of a research technique which encourages friendship in order to focus on very private and personal aspects of peoples lives” (Cotterill, 1992, 597, cited in Kirsch, 2005). The risks include the potential for relationships to end abruptly and for community participants to feel that they have been misunderstood or betrayed. These risks apply also to relationships established by participants in service learning settings.

Interactions with community participants are most often based on friendliness, not genuine friendship and student participants need to understand this fact before entering the field/community. They need to develop realistic expectations about interactions with community participants recognising that they are shaped, like all human interactions, by dynamics of power, gender, generation, education, race, class and many other factors that can contribute to feelings of misunderstanding, disappointment and broken trust. It is necessary for all participants to develop realistic and limited expectations about relationships in the community setting in both research and service learning projects and these need to be conveyed so that boundaries in the relationships can be set.

Russel Botman, President of the South African Council of Churches (2005), joins the deliberation on community – institutional partnerships by speaking with the voice of community leaders in Stellenbosch. He says that their communities have two wishes - firstly equal access to education and secondly equal access to hope.

He suggests that what they do not want is:

- Service learning primarily for student needs
- Service learning where the ‘we’ serves the ‘I’
- Service learning that does not interact with community and indigenous knowledge
- Partnerships where the communities are merely seen as the locality of intellectual problems that are to be solved by the university.

According to Botman (2005), the covenant between university and community includes letting the ’I’ serve the ‘we’; seeing communities as co-creators of knowledge; sharing university knowledge and sharing in community knowledge; putting service learning in the service of the community; knowing that communities also have intellectual capital and that universities also distribute social goods.

2. RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

In 1994, Alt and Medrich were commissioned by the US Department of Education to review evidence of the effects of community service on young participants with a particular emphasis on elementary and high school students. Their research provided some indication that participating in service-learning programmes is beneficial to young people. However Alt & Medrich (1994) state that despite these results and despite widespread belief that young people benefit from service learning programmes, there is surprisingly little firm evidence that students who engage in service learn more, develop in different ways, or learn different things than those that do not.

It seems that there is still relatively little clear, systematic evidence demonstrating the connection between community service and particular affective and educational objectives. Fortunately, Alt and Medrich (1994) also suggest that the absence of strong evidence of positive effects does not mean that service has little influence on students, but rather that methods employed to measure these effects may be flawed or inadequate to the task, particularly when it comes to measuring outcomes involving attitudes, intentions, and higher order thinking.

Research on the effects of community participation in schools is not only flawed, but also limited, particularly in relation to the needs of schools in South Africa in interpreting the new FET Life Orientation Outcomes. The National Curriculum Statement, (Department of Education, 2003), states that through Citizenship Education learners are being prepared for the role of informed active participants in community life. Many high schools are introducing community service/service learning programmes primarily as a response to this outcome. However, as we can see, at high school level there are few guidelines and even fewer models to developing citizenship characteristics through community service programmes. Most of the research pointing to the importance of community service in developing characteristics relevant to citizenship has been conducted with college students (Giles & Eyler, 1993). No research on ‘community service’ work done by high school learners in South Africa can be located.

This is of concern in that community service programmes that are not guided by outcomes and clear assessment criteria have the potential to undermine and negatively affect both learner participants and community participants. Substantial further work is required to produce better evidence of obtainable outcomes, which can then be used to design and implement more effective community service/service-learning initiatives. Tailored evaluation methods also need to be developed, so that schools and researchers can determine to what extent service participation is linked to targeted outcomes.

For learners in high school the growth of the capacity to empathise, and particularly to be able to take the perspective of another is a necessary and valuable outcome on the path towards practicing responsible citizenship, and enhancing social justice and environmentally sustainable living. Determining if participation in community service promotes some or all of the dimensions of empathy will be useful in designing and implementing more effective service-learning initiatives.

3. THE RESEARCH PROJECT

3.1 General Aims

- This research project aims to contribute to the limited body of research into the effects of community service on high school students.
- Through creating a direct link between program objectives and outcomes for students it aims to promote the importance of establishing a carefully focused objective and building a community service programme around it.
- The research project aims to demonstrate that empathy can both be elicited from and taught to adolescents if based on a developmental understanding of empathy and if design conditions in the community service programme promote empathic understanding and responding.

3.2.Specific Aims

The specific aim is to demonstrate a connection between community service and empathy. While no inferences can be made it will be shown that the treatment and the change are possibly related.

3.3 Hypotheses

It is hypothesised that, following participation in a community service project:

- There is an improvement in the scores on the Fantasy scale of the Davis Interpersonal Reactivity Index, reflecting a progression in the development of empathy.
- Personal Distress scores on the Davis Interpersonal Reactivity Index diminish and the cognitive component of empathy is increased as measured by the Perspective Taking Scale of the Davis Interpersonal Reactivity Index.
- Empathy, as measured by the sum of the four scale scores of the Davis Interpersonal Reactivity Index, will improve following participation in the community service project.

3.4 Critical assumptions

- Empathy is multidimensional
- There is a developmental progression in the capacity for empathy
- Environmental intervention can elicit the components of empathy
- A change in empathy can be measured
- The components of empathy are necessary to developing social responsibility

3.5 Research Method

a. Subjects

The subjects in this study are 14 Grade 9 and 10 learners at an Independent school for girls situated in Parktown. A community service component has been recently introduced into the school and learners volunteer to participate in the 'community service' programme for one term.

b. Instruments

The Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI) was used to measure empathy (Appendix B). This measure was developed by Davis (1983) who proposed that empathy is a multifaceted process. He developed a self-report scale, the IRI, to assess four components of empathy: the cognitive process of perspective taking, and the affective experience of other-oriented, empathic concern, fantasy (defined as a tendency of the respondent to identify strongly with fictitious characters in books, movies or plays), and the experience of personal distress. The results from Davis 's (1980) presentation of the IRI demonstrate that the questionnaire evidenced substantial test-retest reliability- ranging from .62 to .71 (Davis, 1980) and internal reliabilities ranging from .71 to .77 (Davis, 1980). Davis further reported that the IRI, which also has good convergent and discriminant validity, correlated in meaningful ways with existing tests of empathy and with other studies, thus showing good construct validity (Davis & Franzoi, 1991, p.74).

The IRI is a 28 item self-report questionnaire, with 7 items to assess each of the four subscales: Fantasy, Perspective Taking, Empathic Concern, and Personal Distress. The participants are told that the IRI assesses responses and behaviour in different settings and that they should indicate the extent to which each item describes them. A five point Likert scale, ranging from "does not describe me at all" to "describes me very well" is used. Because there are seven items to assess each subscale, subscale scores range from 7 to 35.

Participants were also asked to complete a Volunteer Information Sheet (Appendix C), which gathered selected biographical data at the beginning of the programme, as well as a post volunteering evaluation sheet on completion of the programme (Appendix F).

c. Intervention

The community service programme has run in the school for two terms with this research project being conducted in this the third term. The programme follows an established format. It runs for 10 weeks over the course of the term. Participation in the programme is entirely voluntary. Volunteers attend one of the community partner centres for approximately 2 hours every week.

There are three venues: Agape, Noah and Lapeng. Agape is a safe house for 13 children in Berea; Noah is an aftercare facility for approximately 100 primary school learners situated at Yeoville Community School, and Lapeng is a Child and Family Resource Centre in Joubert Park where volunteers work with about 30 primary school learners from a neighbouring inner city school.

The volunteer programme is one of the ways in which the school and the three partner community organisations (Noah, Lapeng, Agape) engage. Setting up the relationship between the school and the community organisation followed a process through which the volunteer programme took shape as one form of engagement within the overall partnership.

1. Initially community collaboration was established through a process of mutual needs analysis, resource mapping and matching.

2. School support was then built - A process of partnering in the school amongst staff and students was conducted in order to raise interest, get ‘buy in’ and build vision. Visits to the organisations and meetings with the members were arranged. Concerns of school and community staff and community members regarding the activities; interesting and involving community members; managing problems; follow up activities; students’ ability to connect with the needs and concerns were addressed.

3. The next stage was training - This happened at different levels. The teachers who accompany the girls to the community organisations spent time reflecting on the relationship between all the people involved, and on how to provide emotional and organisational support to the volunteers. The girls who sign up attend a morning long training workshop in which they consider their own expectations, hopes and fears as well as trying to imagine what the other participants in the programme might expect from them, might fear and might hope for. They discuss the role of a volunteer - including the responsibilities and limitations - and role play different projected scenarios focussing on attachment issues, relationships, communication, values and so on. The workshop aims to provide both cognitive and affective perspectives as well

as some communication, planning and organisational skills. (See Appendix D for workshop outline).

4. Thereafter the programme is implemented – For around 8-10 weeks volunteers meet with the Community Coordinator (a teacher) once a week to discuss the previous session and plan the coming session. They are expected to 'come up with' a programme and activities in consultation with community organisers and to prepare these in their own time. Their reflection with the Community Coordinator at school helps them to adapt their planning to be more effective. The activities with the children at the centres mainly involve reading, homework supervision, art and crafts and sports.

5. Interpreting and reflecting on the experience – Structured reflection activities occur four times throughout the programme. Initially participants reflect on why they have chosen to be involved and what their perceptions and understanding are. The mid-term monitoring session with the school psychologist asks them to depict/discuss feelings and raise concerns. There is a sheet of incomplete sentences relating to their experience that they are asked to complete in class time, (see appendix E for examples of reflection activities), and the final reflection session includes a written evaluation, (Appendix F) as well as sharing of learnings in a discussion session. Facilitators from the community are part of this final session and are asked to give feedback to the participants on their experience of the programme from a community point of view as well as describing their own participation and feelings.

6. Celebration – Students are asked to plan an activity together with the community facilitators and community participants (where feasible) that signals closure to all of the people involved (they usually choose a party – but make cards/letters to exchange and so on). The celebration should include recognition of their contribution, a validation of the relationships and should strengthen the partnership.

7. The facilitators from the school and the community facilitators meet to review and evaluate the community service projects as part of reflection on the different levels of school - community engagement. Recommendations for the next sessions are made and incorporated into the new programme.

d. Procedure

The principal of the school was approached and written permission was obtained from her, from the volunteer participants, and, where necessary, from their parents/guardians (Appendix A). At

the initial training workshop that was held prior to beginning the programme, the nature and purpose of the research project was once again outlined to the participants and they were asked to complete the IRI (See Appendix B) as well as a volunteer information sheet/biographicl data sheet. (Appendix C)

The participants then attended 10 weeks at the community centres, with a brief (around 20 minute) group planning and discussion session once a week prior to visiting one of the community organisations. A mid-programme monitoring session was held after 4 weeks to raise and discuss concerns, feelings etc. At the completion of the programme participants met to reflect and to conclude their participation (see Appendices E and F) and do the IRI posttest.

e. Ethical Considerations

After clearly explaining the nature of the research project, written permission was obtained from all concerned parties. Agreement concerning the programme to be implemented was gained from the community organisations, and meetings were held to discuss relationships, decision-making, reflection and evaluation, and other mutual processes.

To ensure the physical and emotional well being of the volunteer participants in the project the following measures were put in place:

The services of the School Educational Psychologist were made available to counsel any participant, and it was ensured that the participants were aware of this.
On every visit to the community centres teachers who had received some input on Community Development accompanied participants.
The participants met weekly with a teacher to discuss and plan. The teacher also observed the girls to note any possible detrimental affect of the intervention, and was trained in how to take steps to remedy this situation.
There was both a mid-programme monitoring session and a final session conducted by the school psychologist to assess any potential problems and/or detect any traumatic effects/experiences.
It was also clear to all participants that if at any stage they felt uncomfortable they had the right to approach the school principal and/or the school psychologist, at no cost to themselves, and to withdraw from the project if they so chose.

Further ethical considerations related to the reporting of findings regarding a more effective community service programme to the parties concerned and the destroying of all questionnaires at the end of the research project.

3.6 Research Design

This research can be characterised as Quasi-Experimental correlational research. The research design employed is a pre-experimental Pretest - Posttest Design. This involves two measurements of the dependent variable, empathy, before and after the administration of a treatment. Comparisons are made before and after the treatment, which in this case is the 'community service' programme, and the assumption is that differences between pretest and posttest scores are due to the effects of the treatment (Mitchell & Jolley, 2001). Correlations between the first administration of the questionnaire and the second will investigate the relationships between the dimensions of empathy before participation in the community service programme and after it is completed.

In this design subjects are not allocated randomly. The sample for this research is composed of girls from Grade 9 and 10 who volunteer for the programme. As such there is no control group, so subjects serve as their own control.

One of the major shortcomings of this type of design is that the researcher cannot be certain that some factor or event other than the treatment was responsible for posttest change. No inferences can be made although it can be shown that the treatment and the change are possibly related. Other shortcomings are that it is sensitive to instrument reactivity and to the Hawthorne effect. In order to minimise these shortcomings, subjects were informed about the purpose of the study before the pretest. (Research Handbook, Psychology Department, University of the Witwatersrand, 2001)

Despite the shortcomings of this type of research design, it can be useful in gaining insight into a situation or phenomenon where there is little basic information or research.

4. RESEARCH RESULTS

4.1 Data Analysis

Students were administered the Davis Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI) (Davis, 1980) before and after participation in a community service programme. This multidimensional approach to measuring individual differences in empathy consists of four scales that tap both cognitive and affective components of empathy: The data gathered from the IRI was described statistically and analysed to see if significant results had been obtained between the pretest and the posttest scores.

The data was examined for any significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores in the Total Empathy Score (a score representing the sum of the four scales). Pairwise t-tests were used to test the change on the four subscales, each of which measures a different component of empathy. These subscale scores were considered independently to estimate the independent and interactive contributions of each and to measure changes in these components from T1 to T2. Since each of the four scales is independent, each dimension may have profound effects on behaviour and the expression of empathy. Correlations between the subscales were also examined in the pretest scores and posttest scores, as well as from pretest to posttest to determine any significant relationships between the four dimensions of Empathy as defined by the IRI.

Secondly, the qualitative data was examined to enhance an interpretation of the results regarding the development of empathy through the community service intervention. Information from the Volunteer Information Form/ Biographical Form administered prior to the community service questioned whether the learners had volunteered before and asked about their hopes, fears and expectations. The Reflection and Evaluation form given after the completion of the service period asked what they had learnt, and what they feel would improve the programme.

4.2 Testing the hypotheses

The implementation of a programme using both direct instruction and situational factors to develop empathy followed from the differentiation suggested by Davis and Franzoi (1991) between a capacity for empathy and a tendency to actualize that potential capacity; that is, a student might be capable of learning empathic communication while not having had an opportunity to be educated in the use of these skills (Hatcher, 1994).

Furthermore I would suggest that while a student may be educated in the use of these skills in a contrived/simulated situation, she may lack a contextual opportunity to translate this empathic awareness into prosocial, empathic behaviour. It is within the context of this programme that the hypotheses were tested.

None of the three hypotheses outlined below was proven in that there were no statistically significant results in the analysed data:

- **There is an improvement in the scores on the Fantasy scale of the IRI:** The Fantasy Scale (FS) measures "a tendency of the respondent to identify strongly with fictitious characters in books, movies or plays" (Davis, 1980, p. 4), There was no significant change in the scores of this scale from the pretest to the posttest.

- **Personal Distress scores decrease while Perspective Taking scores increase:** The Perspective Taking Scale (PT) "reflect(s) a tendency or ability of the respondent to adopt the perspective or point of view of other people" (Davis, 1980, p. 4), while the Personal Distress Scale (PD) "indicate(s) the respondent experience(s) feelings of discomfort and anxiety when witnessing the negative experiences of others" (Davis, 1980, p. 4). Davis theorises that PD decreases with developmental maturity while the other components increase. The posttest results showed that there was no significant change to either of these scores.
- **Empathy, as measured by the sum of the four scale scores of the Davis Interpersonal Reactivity Index, will improve following participation in the community service project**. There was no significant difference between the pretest and the posttest scores of the Empathy Scale.

As outlined above, there were no significant changes in the pretest and posttest scores. Before looking at each of the hypotheses in detail, the statistics are described in terms of mean, standard deviation and minimum and maximum scores. Table 1 below, the Means Procedure, describes the results of the summary statistics.

Table 1: The Means Procedure

Variable	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum	N
Total PD pre	Total PD pre	10.1428571	6.0746275	0	20.0000000	14
Total PT pre	Total PT pre	20.3571429	4.0876388	13.0000000	27.0000000	14
Total FS pre	Total FS pre	18.7142857	4.9989010	10.0000000	25.0000000	14
Total EC pre	Total EC pre	22.7857143	2.6070488	17.0000000	26.0000000	14
Total pre	Total pre	72.0000000	8.9528680	57.0000000	86.0000000	14
Total PD post	Total PD post	10.4285714	6.7677321	0	21.0000000	14
Total PT post	Total PT post	20.3571429	3.4553669	15.0000000	26.0000000	14
Total FS post	Total FS post	18.7857143	8.1729250	4.0000000	28.0000000	14
Total EC post	Total EC post	23.2857143	2.0542104	20.0000000	27.0000000	14
Total post	Total post	72.8571429	13.6542873	45.0000000	91.0000000	14

From this table it is clear that the mean for the pre and post answers of each empathy component is very nearly the same, as is the mean for the Total scores in the pretest and the posttest. As for the standard deviation, the only component that shows a change, even though

not significant, is the Fantasy Scale where the Standard Deviation in the pretest is 4.9989010 and in the posttest is 8.1729250.This indicates a greater variety of answers, suggesting that in the area of fantasy there was possibly some difference in the way that the participants employed this aspect of empathy, although there is no indication of how this was done.

The minimum and maximum scores in the Fantasy Scale confirm this in that there is a much greater distance between the two in the posttest. The Fantasy minimum score in the pretest was10 and in the posttest was 4. The Fantasy maximum score in the pretest was 25 and in the posttest was 28. The difference between minimum and maximum in the pretest is 15 and in the posttest the difference is 24.

Another interesting observation is that the Personal Distress minimum both pre and post is 0 and the maximum is 20 and 21, showing a range of responses to the Personal Distress items, which could be explored in terms of Davis's repeated emphasis that the PD scale measures an early and egocentric precursor of true empathy, something more akin to sympathy, and that the scale reflects a developmental progression.

Also the Total Standard Deviation pre and post shows a difference with the pretest figure being 8.9528680 and the posttest figure being 13. 6542873. This shows that there was less homogeneity in the posttest answers as compared to the pre test, indicating that one could perhaps infer that a process had occurred that precipitated a greater heterogeneity of responses.

An initial examination of the mean rank on the pretest scores of the 28 items showed that in some instances (such as Questions 2, 9 and 20) between 90% and 100% of participants had already answered with 4 or 5, with 5 being 'describes me very well' and the highest possible score. This prompted the speculation that the pretest scores may possibly fall outside of the normalcy range thus leaving little margin for an upward trend in these scores. For example on 9 of the 28 questions, upwards of 70% of the respondents had already answered between 4-5. Both the median and the mode were 4 or 5 for at least 12/28 answers. However on conducting a normalcy test to investigate the likelihood of this observation, it was found that all of the results fell within the normal range in both the pretest as well as the posttest answers.

The data was subjected to four tests for normality – Shapiro-Wilk, Kolmogorov-Smirnov, Cramer-von Mises and the Anderson-Darling. Both individual item responses and total responses for the items were examined pretest and posttest and none showed any significance. Table 2 describes the statistic and p values for the total pretest variable and the total posttest variable.

Table 2: Distribution analysis of: 'Total PD pre'n 'Total PT pre'n 'Total FA pre'n 'Total EC pre'n 'total pre'n 'Total PD post'n 'Total PT post'n 'Total FS post'n 'Total EC post'n 'total post'n

The UNIVARIATE Procedure
Variable: total pre (total pre)

Moments			
N	14	Sum Weights	14
Mean	72	Sum Observations	1008
Std Deviation	8.95286804	Variance	80.1538462
Skewness	-0.0487732	Kurtosis	-0.7400574
Uncorrected SS	73618	Corrected SS	1042
Coeff Variation	12.4345389	Std Error Mean	2.39275463

Tests for Normality				
Test	Statistic		p Value	
Shapiro-Wilk	W	0.961187	Pr < W	0.7426
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	D	0.108516	Pr > D	>0.1500
Cramer-von Mises	W-Sq	0.029866	Pr > W-Sq	>0.2500
Anderson-Darling	A-Sq	0.21478	Pr > A-Sq	>0.2500

The UNIVARIATE Procedure
Variable: total post (total post)

Moments			
N	14	Sum Weights	14
Mean	72.8571429	Sum Observations	1020
Std Deviation	13.6542873	Variance	186.43956
Skewness	-0.6661137	Kurtosis	-0.0456152
Uncorrected SS	76738	Corrected SS	2423.71429
Coeff Variation	18.7411786	Std Error Mean	3.64926177

Tests for Normality				
Test	Statistic		p Value	
Shapiro-Wilk	W	0.942721	Pr < W	0.4543
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	D	0.11969	Pr > D	>0.1500
Cramer-von Mises	W-Sq	0.039746	Pr > W-Sq	>0.2500
Anderson-Darling	A-Sq	0.301007	Pr > A-Sq	>0.2500

In line with the hypothesis that Personal Distress would diminish and Perspective Taking would increase, the data was examined for any significant correlations, not only between these two dimensions, but between all four empathy dimensions pre and post the intervention. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient Test (N = 14 Prob > |r| under H0: Rho=0) revealed that there was no significant correlation either pretest or posttest between Perspective Taking and Personal Distress as described in Table 2 (Table 2: Pearson Correlation Coefficients, N = 14, Prob > |r| under H0: Rho=0). Nor were there any significant correlations, positive or negative, between any of the dimensions of empathy.

Pearson Correlation Coefficients, N = 14 Prob > |r| under H0: Rho=0										
	Total PD pre	**Total PT pre**	**Total FA pre**	**Total EC pre**	Total pre	**Total PD post**	**Total PT post**	**Total FS post**	**Total EC post**	**Total post**
Total PD pre	1.00000	-0.20977 0.4717	0.28010 0.3321	-0.49335 0.0730	0.59547 0.0247	0.78799 0.0008	-0.23716 0.4143	0.36477 0.1997	0.20607 0.4797	0.57989 0.0297
Total PT pre	-0.20977 0.4717	1.00000	-0.19038 0.5145	0.31090 0.2793	0.29848 0.2999	-0.19504 0.5040	0.42052 0.1343	-0.08273 0.7786	0.14265 0.6266	-0.01831 0.9505
Total FA pre	0.28010 0.3321	-0.19038 0.5145	1.00000	0.18972 0.5159	0.71673 0.0039	0.57915 0.0300	-0.23857 0.4114	0.74209 0.0024	0.14340 0.6248	0.69244 0.0061
Total EC pre	-0.49335 0.0730	0.31090 0.2793	0.18972 0.5159	1.00000	0.20433 0.4835	-0.22546 0.4383	0.16285 0.5780	-0.17922 0.5398	-0.00205 0.9944	-0.17812 0.5424
Total pre **total pre**	0.59547 0.0247	0.29848 0.2999	0.71673 0.0039	0.20433 0.4835	**1.00000**	0.70333 0.0050	-0.05470 0.8526	0.57189 0.0326	0.28442 0.3244	0.71987 0.0037
Total PD post	0.78799 0.0008	-0.19504 0.5040	0.57915 0.0300	-0.22546 0.4383	**0.70333** **0.0050**	1.00000	-0.28665 0.3204	0.53721 0.0476	-0.05375 0.8552	0.73658 0.0027
Total PT post	-0.23716 0.4143	0.42052 0.1343	-0.23857 0.4114	0.16285 0.5780	**-0.05470** **0.8526**	-0.28665 0.3204	1.00000	0.05467 0.8527	0.17959 0.5390	0.17073 0.5595
Total FS post	0.36477 0.1997	-0.08273 0.7786	0.74209 0.0024	-0.17922 0.5398	**0.57189** **0.0326**	0.53721 0.0476	0.05467 0.8527	1.00000	0.22385 0.4417	0.91234 <.0001
Total EC post	0.20607 0.4797	0.14265 0.6266	0.14340 0.6248	-0.00205 0.9944	**0.28442** **0.3244**	-0.05375 0.8552	0.17959 0.5390	0.22385 0.4417	1.00000	0.30324 0.2919
Total post	0.57989 0.0297	-0.01831 0.9505	0.69244 0.0061	-0.17812 0.5424	**0.71987** **0.0037**	0.73658 0.0027	0.17073 0.5595	0.91234 <.0001	0.30324 0.2919	1.00000

Table 2: Pearson Correlation Coefficients, N = 14

Prob > |r| under H0: Rho=0

5. DISCUSSION

The purpose of this exploratory study was to examine the effect on empathy of participation by high school volunteers in a community service programme. This research can be described as an exploratory, quasi-experimental correlational research design, in which the subjects were not allocated randomly, but were volunteers, and adolescent girls. These participant characteristics are explored in discussing the results as well as other factors that may have had a bearing on the results.

This study aimed to investigate three hypotheses. The first hypothesis was that there would be an increase in the tendency of participants to identify strongly with fictitious characters in books, movies or plays" (Davis, 1980, p. 4). This relates to the notion of empathy as a developmental construct and of the possibility of using the IRI to map out the progression of empathy.

The second hypothesis was that Personal Distress scores on the IRI would diminish and the cognitive component of empathy would increased as measured by the Perspective Taking Scale of the Davis Interpersonal Reactivity Index. This was based on Davis's theory that Personal Distress is a less advanced aspect of empathy.

Finally it was hypothesised that participation in a community service programme improves the empathy of participants. The primary question addressed by this hypothesis is whether empathy can be taught to adolescents through environmental intervention.

In order to investigate these hypotheses, students were invited to volunteer for a community service programme designed to (amongst other things) teach and promote the development of empathy. Of the original 20 students who volunteered, 6 did not participate either in all the volunteer sessions, or in the post volunteering evaluation and reflection session, leaving the number of participants at 14.

5.1 There is an improvement in the scores on the Fantasy scale of the IRI

This improvement was expected within the framework of exploring empathy as a developmental construct and was based on Davis' (1983) theoretical analysis of the four empathy subscales where he proposed that developmental change would be expected over the ages examined. A developmental trajectory for empathy opens up the possibility of using the IRI to map out the progression of empathy, thus facilitating the alignment of an intervention with the developmental path of empathy.

The theoretical literature suggests that empathy follows a developmental path not unlike that of cognitive and moral development (Coke, Batson, & McDavis, 1978; Hatcher et al., 1990; Hoffman, 1977). Similarly, Emde (1989) suggests that a capacity for empathy ripens over time and that the

most mature form of empathy requires the cognitive component of "perspective taking" in addition to the earlier unconscious and affective antecedents of empathy. i.e., a strong *identification* with another person in which the child's egocentric point of view does not allow for clear differentiation between the self and the other.

The ability to identify with others is thus clearly an important developmental antecedent to empathy. Hatcher (1994, p 970), from her research with high school students and college students, notes, “It is intriguing to observe that the capacity for true empathy in adolescence seems to begin in an identification with fictional characters, as evidenced by the strong increase in FS change scores for trained high school students. This finding makes intuitive sense as it represents a midway point between the play materials so commonly used as springboards for empathic communication with young children and conversational language sufficient for empathic communication with most adults”.

Hatcher’s findings support a developmental sequence for the EC, PT and the FS abilities measured by the IRI subscales, with Fantasy increasing in the high school years, and Empathic Concern and Perspective Taking, the more advanced affective and cognitive skills of the IRI, respectively, developing with training during the college years. Davis and Franzoi ‘ (1991) found that Perspective Taking (PT) and Empathic Concern (EC) (as measured by the IRI) appeared to increase without any intervention or formal training, somewhat from year to year for females during high school.

For the purposes of this exploratory research study, it is important to note that identification with fictitious characters could be an important strategy when planning a programme to teach or elicit empathy. In this exploratory research project one of the reasons that no differences in the pretest and posttest Fantasy Scale score were recorded may have been due to the briefness of the period between the pretest and the post test (around 4 months) in which time it would be extremely difficult to detect a development process in terms of fantasy. But another possible explanatory factor is that identification with fictional characters was not consistently used as a strategy in the community programme or training.

In the initial training workshop participants were asked to identify with fictitious community members; to imagine what they could be feeling; to try to explain their behaviour and to practice using the language of empathy. They were asked, “How do you think this child/person feels and what would you say to her?” (Appendix D). In this way empathic listening and responding were practiced as a springboard for empathic communication. Continued input and reflection however focused more on promoting an ecosystemic understanding of the children and adults in the community.

Another possible explanation for the lack of change is that as the participants in this programme were placed in a real situation they were obliged to use empathy skills that were more appropriate to this

situation. Participants spoke about how they realised that their fantasy of the children was inaccurate: They reflected, “The children are the same as other people just more hardened.” Also they said they learnt that the children don’t have easy lives and that they need more than friends and entertainment. The participants realised the impact that they have on the children: “I learnt that the littlest thing I can do means a lot to the children.”

The participants also described how they practiced and applied empathy skills at the community centres when working together with the children and community volunteers:
‘I apply my current situation to theirs and am more understanding of their situations and feelings.’
‘I have developed the ability to deal with sudden problems in a caring way.’
‘I am trying to build a strong sense of trust with the people I work with.’
‘I hope to learn from them and to understand and help others more.’
‘I expect to learn self-control, appreciation, sensitivity and consideration,’
‘I think more about others.’

The change in the standard deviation of the Fantasy Scale from 4.9989010 in the pretest to 8.1729250 in the post test indicates a greater variety of answers in the post test - from much identification with fictional characters to very little and it would be interesting to investigate if this was linked to the use of different aspects of empathy and different empathy skills by participants.

5.2 Personal Distress scores decrease while Perspective Taking scores increase

The hypothesis that Personal Distress would diminish and Perspective Taking would increase is in response to Davis and Franzoi ‘s (1991) findings that while Perspective Taking (PT) and Empathic Concern (EC) (as measured by the IRI) appear to increase (without any intervention or formal training) somewhat from year to year for females during high school, the supposedly more primitive form of empathy, Personal Distress (PD), decreases.

In this exploratory research study with adolescents in a community service programme, there was no significant change in the scores of either empathy domain from pretest to posttest. Furthermore, there was no significant correlation either pretest or posttest between Perspective Taking and Personal Distress (or Empathic Concern) as was shown in Table above, using Pearson Correlation Coefficients (N = 14 Prob > |r| under H0: Rho=0).

It is probable that once again it is premature to look for change over a period of approximately four months, particularly as Davis and Franzoi (1991) noted these changes from year to year in high

school students. However the pattern described above does raise the question of whether there is a relationship between these aspects of empathy, and particularly for the purposes of this study, between PD and PT. While Davis & Franzoi (1991) did explore this question again in a longitudinal research study with adolescents, their results did not find Personal Distress to be correlated, negatively or positively, with either Perspective Taking or Empathic Concern, thus suggesting that a developmental path occurs irrespective. However the findings of an Israeli study with adolescents contradict this apparent lack of relationship between the different aspects of empathy.

In an analysis of the responses of 8th and 11th grade Israeli adolescents to Davis's empathy scale (Karniol, Gabay, Ochion and Harari, 1998) *positive correlations* were obtained between all four subscale scores suggesting that, in adolescents at least, personal distress responses do not preclude the ability to take perspective, nor are they negatively related to empathic responding as proposed by Batson (1991). He said that affective reactions to other people's suffering can be distinguished into feelings of empathy for the other person and feelings of personal distress. This view suggests that empathy and personal distress are somehow mutually exclusive responses and he implies that while responses based on EC are altruistic, those based on PD are egoistic.

The findings of the Israeli study question the characterisation of Personal Distress as a more primitive form of empathy and a ”negative self focused emotion…”(Batson, 1991). The positive correlations found in the Israeli study suggest that in adolescents we should rather be looking at the relationship between an empathy growth continuum and the development of identity.

Alt and Medrich (1994) describe how for young people undergoing the transition from dependence and egocentricity toward maturity, the experience of serving another, pulls them outside themselves and frees them from self-centered awareness. In the process of giving service, a young person encounters dilemmas of personal responsibility, which, with encouragement, support, and reflection, can lead him/ her to a fuller understanding and acceptance of responsibility as a member of the community. The young person who once perceived self as the centre of the world of experience/ now finds personal identity as a member of the human community.

Rieveschl & Cowan (2003) posit that like Piagetian schema, empathy interacts both assimilatively and accommodatively with the subjective states of others. Assimilation strengthens the current schema’s interpretive power. Accommodation is set into motion by the recognition of something unfamiliar and unassimilatable. This catalyses a reorganisation of the schema, taking it to higher developmental level of functioning, but if equilibration is not achieved, the resulting disequilibrium may be accompanied by cognitive dissonance and emotional toil. Applying this theory to the way in which the participants in this study processed information and experiences offers one possible explanation for the lack of change in the scores.

The quotes below from participants in the study show evidence of feelings of discomfort and anxiety in reaction to the distress of others (Appendix F). Some of the participants reported:
‘‘My main feeling was sadness and I felt helpless.’
‘I felt useless sometimes.’
‘I was a bit disturbed by some of their behaviour to me.’
‘I felt ashamed to see what some of the children go through,’
‘I felt sympathy for children.’
‘I was angry with naughty kids who tried to strangle me’

That the participants in this study evidenced no significant change in either personal distress scores or perspective taking scores may it seems have been affected by being in a situation where they witnessed the negative experiences of others but had few opportunities to process these experiences by mediated association, role taking and introspection, and thus to achieve equilibration and greater cognitive awareness.

It would seem that the hypothesis that Personal Distress would diminish and Perspective Taking would increase is not necessarily true for adolescents, in that, according to studies with this age group, positive correlations between these factors were demonstrated. Hoffman (1981) focused on the role that empathic distress plays in the unfolding of prosocial behaviour, caring and justice. This suggests that both empathy domains may both be engaged by adolescents when participating in community work that challenges them that and enhances the ability to think, feel, value, choose and take action, thus shaping the participants’ emerging identity and leading to higher levels of personal growth.

5.3 Empathy is improved

Because empathy plays a key role in the development of social understanding and positive social behaviour (Eisenberg & Strayer, 1987; Feshbach, 1978), various programmes to promote empathy have been undertaken on the assumption that empathy can be taught. Hatcher (1994) describes studies which have made a concerted effort to "teach" empathy through a startling variety of means: Skills Workshops (Kremer & Dietzen, 1991); Film (Gladstein & Feldstein, 1983); Modeling Techniques (Gulanick & Schmeck, 1977); Parent Effectiveness Training (Therrien, 1979); Psychedrama (Kipper & Ben-Ely, 1979); combinations of the above methods (Guzzetta, 1976; Stone & Vance, 1976, nn, Lea, & Stone, 1976); and even a kind of personal "regression" in the service of self understanding (Kernberg & Ware, 1975).

Results of these programmes have varied depending on which component of empathy is prioritised and the methodology used in the programme. Some proved more effective in promoting Empathic Concern, while others developed the more cognitive skills of Perspective Taking. For example in a study by Pratt (2001) on moral development in college students engaged in community service learning, analyses of empathy revealed no main effect for group (service vs. non-service) on Total Empathy, but there was a significant posttest difference between groups on Cognitive Empathy with the service learning group scoring higher.

However Hatcher (1994) suggests that these studies have tended to ignore the concept of empathy as a developmental construct, and she concludes that it is necessary to combine these two varieties of studies; i.e. those which examine empathy as a developmental construct and those which seek to facilitate empathic ability by a teaching intervention, in order to hypothesize how these two important dimensions interact.

In this research, the assumption was that Total Empathy would improve as an outcome of participation in the programme. In fact there was no significant change in Total Empathy from pretest to posttest. (Pretest: Mean - 72.0000000; Std Dev - 8.9528680; Min - 57.0000000; Max - 86.0000000 and Posttest: Mean - 72.8571429; Std Dev - 13.6542873;, Min - 45.0000000, Max 91.0000000).

It may be possible to explain this to some some extent by the fact that the programme did not incorporate the concept of empathy as a developmental construct, and particularly that notion that different aspects of empathy may develop at different rates.

There are two pieces of research that suggest possible explanations for any lack of change in this current research study. The first study by Hatcher (1994) with both High School and College students suggests that adolescents are not developmentally ready for empathy training, in that for effective empathy training, secure abstract thought, augmented moral development, and the ability to introspect are necessary. These characteristics appear during later adolescence (18 years +). She suggests that while fantasy may reflect a normal development growth without intervention, Empathic Concern (EC) and Perspective Taking (PT) can be taught only when developmentally ready, as evidenced by the Pratt study (2001) with college students. She suggests that it is only in the later college years that formal instruction in empathy skills is well utilized by students. This finding has important implications for designing affective education models appropriate to various stages of development.

The second piece of research relates to a study in British Columbia on the impact of empathy training with offenders. This offender empathy training included a cognitive-behavioural component intended

to create cognitive and emotional awareness of the effects of actions on others. This research argues that the IRI does not directly measure empathy, but knowledge of empathy concepts (Mulloy, 1999). What this suggests is that it is possible that there was no increase in *empathy-concept knowledge* from the pretest to the posttest perhaps because the participants already having been taught about empathy concepts throughout the school curriculum maintained a consistent level of this academic knowledge. However if one accepts that the IRI measures the knowledge of empathy concepts, rather than empathy itself, it is interesting to consider bearing in mind the practical application involved in this study whether there may have been a change in what Barret- Leonard (1981) describes as "helping relationship empathy".

Barret-Leonard (1981, p 95) describes that a difference in defining empathy is the distinction made between 'observational empathy' and a 'helping relationship empathy' that requires interpersonal communication. In the second description empathy is seen as not just as a mode of observation or an informer of appropriate action (Kohut, 1959), but also as a motivator of prosocial action. That is, empathy is put forth as involving not just affective processes, but also cognitive and social processes (Rieveschl & Cowan, 2003). However there does not appear to be a tool to measures this type of empathy.

Rieveschl & Cowan (2003) extended the idea of empathy requiring an interpersonal communication with a metaphor of empathy as a dance where meaning is created in the back and forth of the relationship. This movement involves interpretation of what is taking place relationally. It is an interactive process that includes not just one person's subjective experience of understanding the other and being understood, but simultaneously the other's feeling of being understood and understanding. Empathic attunement choreographs the dance creatively and enhances the relationship.

In this study the participants describe how they in some instances were challenged by a greater awareness of society's problems. This led to a reconsidering of their needs and values and led to more prosocial behaviour. So while their knowledge of empathy concepts may not have significantly changed, qualitative data suggests that a change in perceptions and attitudes may have led to a change in their behaviour as indicated in the students' statements below: While the explanations provided by these studies are interesting/useful, the above two studies are distinct from this research in that the training that was given was academic or knowledge -based rather than experiential. In neither of these programmes were the participants immersed in situations where they were forced to meet head-on people and communities very different from their own.

Greater awareness

- Children need more than friends and entertainment

- I apply my current situation to theirs and am more understanding of their situations and feelings.
- I thought the children would be different, but they are the same as other people, just more hardened.
- I experienced another side of community. I saw things I have never seen before. I felt appreciation for everything I had.
- I realised I wasn't to blame for those who didn't want to participate and their problems were greater than we could deal with.
- I realised that this was not fundraising but actual people we deal with.
- At first I felt nervous, but I grew to realise they were normal people wanting friends and to be treated normally.
- I was surprised by their comments and intellectual levels and backgrounds.
- I learnt how privileged I am.
- Their backgrounds are not as scary as they sound. They are not tormented beings.
- I believed that children from the community were wild and carefree and did no work and took their education for granted. I quickly learnt that this was not true,

Change in behaviour

- I became more patient – I would try to put myself in another's shoes.
- I realised I could make a difference by talking and listening
- My life is a mess – visiting the centre made me feel less worthless and prevented me from taking drastic measures
- I have improved my skills of working with others.
- I developed the ability to deal with sudden problems
- I learnt that the littlest thing I do can mean a lot to the children

The environment in this study is likely to have promoted a more self-reflective attitude amongst the participants and a greater awareness of the concepts of social responsibility, including experiencing and appreciating our interdependence and connectedness with others and our environment (Berman, 1993).

According to the research on empathy and identity development, in order for the programme to promote change in Total Empathy, it would need to accommodate both processes interactively. The programme would also need to promote complexity and growth in the presence of certain key conditions or factors. Youniss and Yates (1997) describe adolescents' identity development in community service settings as depending on experiencing feelings of agency and control, social relatedness and moral-political awareness. Two other key factors that promote the development of empathy are outlined in the literature – reflection and institutional support.

Responses from the participants on the post service evaluation form reveal that it is probable that some of their experiences of the community setting were not conducive to promoting change. The design of this community service programme did not appear to provide sufficient opportunities for participants to experience all of these developmental dimensions.

In their suggestions for improvements, participants suggested that there should be more opportunities for planning as well as better planning of activities. They wanted time to reflect on experiences and to get feedback, as well as more time for discussion and sharing and for voicing concerns. As far as institutional support is concerned they felt that the school as a whole should be aware and involved and one teacher should be dedicated to the volunteers and involved with the volunteers to the extent of monitoring group decisions. They add that school supervisors on site should also be more involved with the volunteers and community members.

The participants felt that there needed to be better links with community people so as to get more information about specific children; to know what children really wanted and to get input with regard to the children's emotions. They wanted more time communicating with the community people and more interaction with children.

It seems that the community service programme did not provide enough opportunities for person directedness and self-understanding, personal competence and responsibility, and self esteem. Nor did the programme provide for fulfilling adult roles responsibly and effectively and encouraging a sense of the importance of community relationships.

6. RECOMMENDATIONS

Holloway describes how there is an impression of emptiness in the role of today's youth due to insufficient opportunities for self-discovery through action, societal contributions, and experimentation with various adult roles (Holloway, 1982). Community Service/service–learning must help adolescents to successfully navigate social settings thus beginning early in the developmental process to gain feelings of competency regarding their individual actions and social interactions.

We need to offer adolescents' participatory experiences that are meaningful, to allow them to discover their potency, assess their responsibility, acquire a sense of political processes, and commit to a moral-ethical ideology" (Youniss, McLellan, & Yates, 1997, p 621). It is equally important that the adolescent knows their contribution is important.

A number of suggestions are put forward to improve the community service programme, to provide favourable conditions for change and to create more of the characteristics necessary to facilitate the development of empathy. As we have seen, it is essential that the elements of the programme are critically designed based both on adolescents' developmental stage and in line with the desired outcomes.

An analysis of the responses from participants to the questions on how the programme could be improved gave responses in three main areas in line with the discussion above:

a. ***With regard to creating opportunities for growth of autonomy and control, they suggest there should have been:***
   - More psychological training and role plays
   - In depth First Aid training
   - More activity ideas
   - More opportunities for planning - set meeting times; weekly planning and discussion; better planning/ of activities (structured time)
   - Briefings on how to communicate effectively with children who don't speak English
   - Feedback/reflection - Meeting to reflect on experiences; Meeting once a week for feedback; More time for discussion and sharing; More chance for feedback and voicing concerns

b. ***Secondly, they looked for greater support at the personal and institutional levels. They suggested that:***
   - The school as a whole should be aware and involved and one teacher should be dedicated to the volunteers

- Supervisors need to be more involved – There should be better supervision for planning and help in choosing appropriate activities; supervisors need to monitor group decisions; it is important for supervisors to model relationships through more involvement with the volunteers and community members
- There should be more commitment from volunteers and more communication between volunteers

c. Thirdly, the relationship with the community partners at all levels was emphasised.

- Better links with community people so as to get more information about specific children; to know what children really wanted and to get input with regard to the children's emotions
- More time communicating with the community people
- More interaction of supervisors with children

Essentially, to increase the likelihood of a community service programme developing a greater capacity for empathy within participants, these three conditions need to be incorporated into the programme in developmentally appropriate ways.

Furthermore greater use of 'a learning communities approach' would have

- facilitated participant socialisation so that participants were more comfortable asking questions, speaking out and seeking help
- provided more opportunities for participants to develop a sense of responsibility because they themselves were responsible for the learning of the community.
- taught new skills through team and project work and through allowing students to build support relationships, the crucial relationship often being the one with their teacher.

7. LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

There are a number of limitations that affect the ability of the results of this study to be generalised to other studies. While service may in fact influence students profoundly, it is difficult to determine this, as the methods employed to measure the effects of community service may be flawed or inadequate to the task. An examination of the research literature does not show general trends, nor is there sufficient research on developmental aspects of empathy, nor on what aspect of service influences students and in what way it affects them.

The limitations of this particular exploratory study can be discussed under the headings of research design; instrument; participants and programme.

7.1 Research Design:

- This research design employed (quasi-experimental correlational research) means that one cannot be certain that some factor or event other than the treatment was responsible for posttest change and no inferences can be made.
- The number of participants in the study was small and as subjects are not allocated randomly and there is no control group, subjects serve as their own control.
- Only one quantative measure was used, limiting the scope of the study and not allowing for triangulation.
- Determining causal relationships for any learning outcomes is difficult, and certainly this applies to outcomes involving attitudes, intentions, and higher-order thinking.
- Some students may change and grow in response to service while others do not. Thus, average changes across a group may appear small at best.
- Also some change may be purely developmental and not related to the service experience. A developmental growth in empathy is in keeping with the proposal of the developmental nature of empathy suggested by Davis and Franzoi (1991) and confirmed by their finding.
- Components of programs such as length and intensity of time commitment, interest and skill of program managers, and level of responsibility assigned to participants may each produce differing results.

7.2 Instrument:

- As discussed above, adolescents are egocentric, have a desire for approval and tend to be more cognitive while lacking the ability to introspect. Using a self-report tool (the IRI) with adolescents, which asks them to display psychological self-awareness and emotional understanding, may not be within their range of competence. It seems that young adolescents may have limitations in their ability to recognise their own emotional states through self-report measures (Eisenberg & Strayer, 1987).
- Furthermore, the desire for approval central to this stage of maturity and the wish to be perceived as empathic (knowing that this is a socially desirable trait), may lead them to give what they believe to be correct answers (Eisenberg and Lennon, 1980) thus introducing the question of the validity of the scale in that it may actually measure social desirability.
- Research by Mulloy (1999) into the impact of empathy training on offender treatment, argues that the IRI does not directly measure empathy, but knowledge of empathy concepts (Mulloy, 1999).

7.3 Participants:

- There appears to be an association between volunteerism and empathy to begin with as well as evidence for a prosocial personality. As all the participants volunteered for this programme, the sample may have started off with a bias towards greater empathy. A study in America (Smith, 2003) found a positive association between civic engagement and empathy and participating in voluntary associations.
- A longitudinal study by Eisenberg, Guthrie, Cumberland, Murphy, Shepard, Zhou & Carlo (2002), provides evidence showing that the consistent links between empathy, sympathy and prosocial behaviour found in children continues into adulthood. They provide evidence for a prosocial personality, supporting studies that suggest that the social environment, specifically the family, provides much of the impetus for learning prosocial behaviour (Department of Juvenile Justice, Bureau of Data and Research, Florida department of Juvenile Justice, 1998). Rather than a programme promoting empathy, it may be that empathic individuals participate in volunteer programmes.
- While the literature is very inconsistent on gender's relationship to empathy (Chou, 1998; Giesbrecht, 1998; Gilligan & Attanucci, 1998; Piliavin & Charg, 1990; Davis, 1994; Post, et al., 2002) there is support for a strong association between gender and empathy. In a report on Gender, Gender-Role Orientation and Empathy in Adolescents, Karniol, Gabay, Ochion and Harari (1998) comment that Davis's (1983) study, and other studies using a wide range of self-report measures of empathy, have consistently found that females score higher than males. In a meta-analysis of 16 studies, Eisenberg and Lennon (1983) reported a highly significant effect size of .99. In a later analysis, significant differences favouring females were found in 11 of the 13 included studies. This pattern is very robust because the studies differ from each other in the age of participants and in the questionnaires used to assess empathy.
- Lennon and Eisenberg (1987) suggest that there may be a stereotype-confirming bias in self report measures since both males and females know the stereotype of females as more emotional and more caring than males (e.g. Eagly & Steffen, 1984). Taking this argument further, Gilligan and Wiggins (1988) contend that girls and boys experience different paths of socialization, with girls' socialization being towards an ethic of caring rather than an ethic of justice, with the ethic of caring promoting empathic concern over others' plight. In other words, it is likely that the girls who volunteered to participate in the programme were already empathically aware, socialised into an ethic of caring and well versed in prosocial behaviour. Biographical data revealed that only 4 participants were new to community work. Ten girls or 72% of the participants had previously engaged in some form of community work, either occasionally or frequently.

7.4 Programme:

- The programme may have been too short to either affect or measure any real change.
- Furthermore it is impossible to be sure what factors may cause the change as neither factors outside of the programme nor factors within the programme could be controlled for.
- As the programme was not designed with the promotion of empathy in mind specifically, but rather with meeting the outcomes of the Life Orientation curriculum, it is difficult to determine/isolate which elements of the programme were more likely to have promoted empathy.
- To maximize learning and development, programmes must combine action and reflection, provide opportunities to take active roles and make decisions. According to responses from the participants this was an area that could have been improved
- Other programme components may influence the effectiveness of community-based learning such as whether participation is voluntary or mandatory; whether incentives are provided for participation; and the duration and intensity of the program (Alt & Medrich, 1994)
- Expecting voluntary service to accomplish too much may also be a problem. Service-oriented education may work well in some areas but not in others.
- Greater institutional support for the programme mayhave allowed for the restructuring of curricular material, so that students had opportunities for deeper understanding and integration of the material they are learning and more interaction with one another and their teachers as fellow participants in the learning enterprise (Gabelnick, Macgregor, Matthews & Smith, 1990, p.19).

8. FURTHER RESEARCH

Trying to answer the question of what empathy is and how it can be measured raises the issue of which measures are most suitably employed in assessing the level of empathy an individual has achieved. Furthermore the complex question of whether empathy can be taught has been debated in a literature troubled by definitional and measurement problems.

It is is difficult to compare across tests and research studies for this purpose as different definitions of empathy are used, many of which see empathy as a unitary and fixed construct, while other studies do not include age as a variable.There needs to be a more clear articulation and application of the measurement of empathy in order to be sure that studies in this field are yielding valid and comparable results.
Furthermore in the field of the effects of community service on young participants, Alt & Medrich (1994) state that there is surprisingly little firm evidence that students who engage in service, learn more, develop in different ways, or learn different things to those that do not. It seems that there is

still relatively little clear, systematic evidence demonstrating the connection between community service and particular affective and educational objectives.

Determining if participation in community service promotes some or all of the dimensions of empathy will be useful in designing and implementing more effective service-learning initiatives, particularly linked to the citizenship criteria of the Further Education and Training (FET) Life Orientation Curriculum.

These questions are best addressed by carefully controlled studies whose results can be generalized, and with large enough samples to allow comparisons among sub samples. Future studies would do well to sample larger populations and mixed gender adolescent populations as well as more culturally diverse populations. Tailored evaluation methods also need to be developed, so that schools and researchers can determine to what extent service participation is linked to targeted outcomes.

9. CONCLUSION

For learners in high school the growth of the capacity to empathise, and particularly to be able to take the perspective of another is a necessary and valuable outcome on the path towards practicing responsible citizenship, and enhancing social justice and environmentally sustainable living.

This study adds to the somewhat contradictory and confusing research on what is learnt by participants in community work or service learning programmes. It draws together research on empathy that focuses on adolescents and explores the relationship between a developmental sequence of empathy and the teachability of empathy.

A summary of the research suggests that there is a developmental sequence to empathy and that empathy can be taught if one pays special attention to developmental readiness. It suggests that in adolescents participation in community work would be one of the most appropriate and effective ways in which to both facilitate the development of empathy through environmental intervention and to provide, through a structured ‘teaching’ programme, the ongoing support and reflection that engender “an empathic outlook toward the other, reflectivity on the self’s agency, and relating one’s own agency to helping less fortunate individuals.” (Youniss and Yates, 1997)

In summary, this study serves as a platform for continued work in South Africa at High School level that examines critical conditions for learning in community service contexts, particularly in relation to the needs of schools in preparing learners for the role of informed active participants in community life.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Information Letters and Consent Forms

Appendix B: Interpersonal Reactivity Index

Appendix C: Volunteer Information sheet

Appendix D: Workshop Outline

Appendix E: Examples of reflection activities

Appendix F: Post volunteering evaluation sheet

Appendix A: Information letters and consent forms

PRINCIPAL INFORMATION LETTER

3 May 2005

Dear Mrs. Williams

As discussed, I am conducting research for the purposes of obtaining an Educational Psychology Masters at the University of the Witwatersrand. My area of focus is to explore whether participation in the Community Development volunteer programme has an affect on empathy in the participants. I am particularly interested to see whether it promotes the ability to take the perspective of another and to be sensitive to the needs and values of others.

At the initial training workshop in May the volunteers will be given an Empathy Scale to complete as well as a questionnaire. During the course of the volunteer programme further information will be collected in the form of records of participation, the interim monitoring session and the post volunteer programme evaluation. I will obtain permission from the participants, and where necessary their parents, to administer the Empathy Scale pre and post the programme as well as to collect biographical and other information.

I trust that the discussion of the results will be useful in terms of providing feedback to inform the nature of the volunteer programme.

Please fill in the attached forms giving consent for the use of the school as a site for the research project as well as permission to conduct the research.

With Thanks

Heather Barclay

PRINCIPAL CONSENT FORM

I _____, CONSENT TO THIS STUDY CONDUCTED BY HEATHER BARCLAY ON THE ABILITY OF THE VOLUNTEER PROGRAMME TO EFFECT CHANGES IN EMPATHY.

SIGNED _____

DATE: _____

CONSENT FOR THE SCHOOL TO BE USED AS A RESEARCH SITE

I _____ CONSENT TO THE SCHOOL BEING USED AS A SITE FOR THIS STUDY BEING CONDUCTED BY HEATHER BARCLAY ON THE ABILITY OF THE VOLUNTEER PROGRAMME TO EFFECT CHANGES IN EMPATHY.

SIGNED _____

DATE: _____

PARENT INFORMATION LETTER

3 May 2005

Dear Parents/Guardians

As part of the Community Development Portfolio at Roedean School I have established a programme of volunteer work for the girls. Your daughter has signed up to do voluntary work at one of our community partners this term. At the same time I am conducting research for the purposes of obtaining an Educational Psychology Masters at the University of the Witwatersrand.

I will be using this volunteer programme as my research project. My area of focus is that of the effects of participation in the volunteer programme in terms of the growth of empathy.. I am particularly interested to see whether it promotes the ability to take the perspective of another and to be sensitive to the needs and values of others.

At the initial training workshop in May the volunteers will be given an Empathy Scale to complete as well as a questionnaire. During the course of the volunteer programme further information will be collected in the form of records of participation, records of the interim monitoring session and a post volunteer programme evaluation. The Empathy questionnaire will be given at the end again. All information gathered in this study will be strictly confidential. The collection of all information will take place during time that is normally allocated to the volunteer programme.

I am confident that the analysis and discussion of the results will be useful in terms of providing feedback to inform the nature of the volunteer programme.

Please fill in the attached forms giving consent for the participation of your daughter in this research project.

If you have any question, please contact me at 647 3200 ext 146 or 082 0643587. My e-mail address is hbarclay@roedeanschool.co.za

With Thanks

Heather Barclay

PARENT/GUARDIAN CONSENT FORM

I/WE, _____,
THE PARENT/GUARDIAN OF _____,
CONSENT TO OUR DAUGHTER'S PARTICIPATION IN THE STUDY BEING DONE BY HEATHER BARCLAY ON THE ABILITY OF THE VOLUNTEER PROGRAMME TO EFFECT CHANGES IN EMPATHY.

I/WE UNDERSTAND THAT:

- PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY IS VOLUNTARY.
- I/WE MAY WITHDRAW OUR DAUGHTER FROM THE STUDY AT ANY TIME.
- NO INFORMATION THAT MAY IDENTIFY HER OR HER FAMILY WILL BE INCLUDED IN THE RESEARCH REPORT, AND HER RESPONSES WILL REMAIN CONFIDENTIAL.

SIGNED: _____
DATE: _____

PARENT/GUARDIAN CONSENT FORM FOR MONITORING SESSION

I/WE _____ CONSENT TO THE MONITORING SESSION FOR THE STUDY ON THE ABILITY OF THE VOLUNTEER PROGRAMME TO EFFECT CHANGES IN EMPATHY.

I/WE UNDERSTAND THAT:

- THE SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGIST WILL CONDUCT THE SESSION AND THE RESEARCHER WILL PROCESS THE INFORMATION.
- NO IDENTIFYING INFORMATION WILL BE USED.

SIGNED _____
DATE: _____

VOLUNTEER INFORMATION LETTER

3 May 2005

Dear volunteer,

You have signed up to do voluntary work at one of our community partners this term. I would like to invite you to participate in the research project that will be conducted to study the effects of participation in the volunteer programme in terms of the growth of empathy.

I am conducting this research as part of the Educational Psychology Masters Programme at the University of the Witwatersrand. In order to evaluate the volunteer programme I have decided to use this programme as my research project. My area of focus is that of the effects of participation in the volunteer programme in terms of the growth of empathy.. I am particularly interested to see whether it promotes the ability to take the perspective of another and to be sensitive to the needs and values of others.

At the initial training workshop in May participants in the research project will be given an Empathy Scale to complete as well as a questionnaire. During the course of the volunteer programme further information will be collected in the form of records of participation, records of the interim monitoring session and a post volunteer programme evaluation and at the end the Empathy questionnaire will be given again. All information gathered in this study will be strictly confidential. The collection of all information will take place during time that is normally allocated to the volunteer programme.

If you agree to participate in this research project, please fill in the attached forms giving consent for your participation. These should be returned to me at the training workshop.

If you have any question, please contact me in my office or at 647 3200 ext 146 or 082 0643587. My e-mail address is hbarclay@roedeanschool.co.za

With Thanks

Heather Barclay
Community Development

PARTICIPANT CONSENT/ASSENT FORM

I, _____,
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY BEING DONE BY HEATHER BARCLAY ON THE ABILITY OF THE VOLUNTEER PROGRAMME TO EFFECT CHANGES IN EMPATHY.

I UNDERSTAND THAT:

- PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY IS VOLUNTARY.
- I MAY WITHDRAW FROM THE STUDY AT ANY TIME.
- NO INFORMATION THAT MAY IDENTIFY ME WILL BE INCLUDED IN THE RESEARCH REPORT, AND MY RESPONSES WILL REMAIN CONFIDENTIAL.

SIGNED: _____

DATE: _____

PARTICIPANT CONSENT/ASSENT FORM FOR MONITORING SESSION

I _____ CONSENT TO THE MONITORING SESSION FOR THE STUDY ON THE ABILITY OF THE VOLUNTEER PROGRAMME TO EFFECT CHANGES IN EMPATHY.

I UNDERSTAND THAT:

- THE SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGIST WILL CONDUCT THE SESSION AND THE RESEARCHER WILL PROCESS THE INFORMATION.
- NO IDENTIFYING INFORMATION WILL BE USED.

SIGNED _____

DATE: _____

Appendix B: IRI

Name: _____

The following statements inquire about your thoughts and feelings in a variety of situations. For each item, indicate how well it describes you by putting a cross in the appropriate box according to the scale: A, B, C, D, or E. READ EACH ITEM CAREFULLY BEFORE RESPONDING. Answer as honestly as you can. If there is an item that makes you feel uncomfortable, you may leave it out. All your responses are confidential.

Answer scale:

A B C D E

Does not describe me well — **Describes me very well**

	STATEMENT	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**
1	I daydream and fantasize, with some regularity, about things that might happen to me.					
2	I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me.					
3	I sometimes find it difficult to see things from the 'other guys' point of view.					
4	Sometimes I don't feel very sorry for people when they are having problems.					
5	I really get involved with the feelings of the characters in a novel.					
6	In emergency situations, I feel apprehensive and ill-at-ease.					
7	I am usually objective when I watch a movie or play, and I don't often get completely caught up in it.					
8	I try to look at everybody's side of a disagreement before I make a decision.					
9	When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective towards them.					
10	I sometimes feel helpless when I am in the middle of a very emotional situation.					
11	I sometimes try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their perspective.					
12	Becoming extremely involved in a good book or movie is somewhat rare for me.					
13	When I see someone get hurt, I tend to remain calm					
14	Other people's misfortunes do not usually disturb me a great deal.					
15	If I am sure I am right about something, I don't waste much time listening to other people's arguments.					

16	After seeing a play or movie, I have felt as though I were one of the characters.					
17	Being in a tense emotional situation scares me.					
18	When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don't feel very much pity for them.					
19	I am usually pretty effective in dealing with emergencies.					
20	I am often quite touched by things I see happen.					
21	I believe that there are two that there are two sides to every question and try to look at them both.					
22	I would describe myself as a pretty softhearted person.					
23	When I watch a good movie, I can very easily put myself in the place of the leading character					
24	I tend to lose control during emergencies					
25	When I am upset at someone, I usually try to 'put myself in his shoes' for a while.					
26	When I am reading an interesting story or novel, I imagine how I would feel if the events in the story were happening to me.					
27	When I see somebody who badly needs help n an emergency, I go to pieces.					
28	Before criticizing somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in their place					

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS FORM.!!

Appendix C: Volunteer Information sheet

Biographical Questionnaire

Please complete the following questions so that I have data on all participants in the research project. All information you give is confidential

Name	
Form	
House	
What language(s) do you speak at home?	
Have you done community work before?	
If yes, please describe… When? Where? What you did? How often/how many hours?	
Describe how you feel about doing this volunteer programme	
Describe why you want to participate in the programme	
What fears do you have?	
What hopes do you have?	
What do you think you will be doing as a participant in the volunteer programme?	
What do you expect to learn by participating in this programme?	

Thank you for filling in this form!!!!!

Appendix D: Workshop Outline

Volunteer Workshop, Saturday 7 may 2005, 8:30am – 12:30pm

Time	Activity	To do
8:30am	♦ Register ♦ Bingo ♦ Research presentation ♦ Hand out consent letters ♦ Complete IRI ♦ Fill in Biographical questionnaire	♦ Sticky labels for name tags ♦ Attendance register ♦ Bingo forms ♦ IRI copies ♦ Letters
9:30am	♦ What is a volunteer?- discuss motivation, attitude, behviour and so on ♦ Draw up a code of conduct for volunteers ♦ In a group discuss and then report back someof your expectations of being a volunteer and some of your fears (Write up on newsprint) ♦ What do you think the community expects of you?	♦ A4 paper ♦ Pencils/kokis ♦ Newsprint ♦ Prestik ♦ Markers
10:15am	Tea	
10:30am	♦ Scenarios ♦ Number off 1-8 and divide into these groups ♦ Discuss the scenario you are given ♦ Report back ♦ Discuss	♦ Photocopy scenarios- discipline, abuse, presents, touching, termination, boundaries, supervision, sexual conduct
11:30am	♦ Explanation of Noah, Lapeng and Agape ♦ Planning	♦ Photographs and pamphlets
12:15am	♦ Workshop evaluation	Evaluation forms

BINGO

Owns a cuddly toy	Collects something	Star sign cancer	Loves shopping
Avid reader	Swimmer	Loves the outdoors	Cricket fan
Goes to gym	Star sign Capricorn	Organiser	Enjoys Thai food
Born outside of SA	Only child	Star sign Aries	Scrabble player
Left handed	Watches soapies	Good with maths	Cat lover

Scenarios

1. **You are reading a story to a group of children and one child is fiddling with some lego and disturbing the other children. When you ask her to be quiet, she stands up and throws some lego at you. What do you think about this behaviour and how would you manage this situation? Practice the actual words you would say.**

2. **Every time you go near Lerato she shrinks away from you. When you put your hand on her shoulder she starts crying. You see her later on the playground hitting another child. What would you think and what would you do? Practice the actual words you would say**

3. **George always stays close to you. When you walk he wants to hold your hand. When you sit he wants to get up on your lap. What do you think of this behaviour and what would you do? Practice the actual words you would say**

4. **Tshidi is a gorgeous child that you really like. She tells you that it is her birthday next week and asks you to get her some coloured pencils because she always gets into trouble at school for not having pencils. What do you think and what would you do? Practice the actual words you would say**

5. **You are on the playground and a fight breaks out between some boys. One of the community volunteers pulls the main culprit out and slaps him. What would you think and what would you do? Practice the actual words you would say.**

6. **Michael tells you that he is in big trouble at school because he has been accused of stealing. His teacher won't listen to his side of the story and he is scared to tell his father because he is father might beat him. What would you think and what would you do? Practice the actual words you would use**

7. **One of the volunteers from the community seems to always want to be working with you and you feel that some of the comments he makes are inappropriate. You feel very uncomfortable in his presence. What would you do? Practice the actual words you would say.**

8. **You have built up a good relationship with the children, volunteers and staff at the community centre over the course of the first three weeks. Hen you are offered a chance to take a course that you have been dying to go on, but it is on a Monday afternoon. What would you do and what would you say?**

9. **One of the little children has sores on her hands and around her mouth. She also has a rash on her arms. She is cutting an orange and she offers you a piece. What would you think and what would you do? Practice the actual words you would use.**

Appendix E: Examples of reflection activities

Mid programme monitoring session

1. What have you enjoyed so far?
2. What has been difficult for you?
3. What kinds of relationships have you established?
4. What have you learnt?
5. What changes would you like to see in the programme?

Name: _____

Community centre: _____

Date: _____

Complete these sentences with the first thing that comes into your mind

1. **A volunteer**

   _____

2. **When I think about going to Noah/Lapeng/Agape I feel**

   _____

3. **If there was one thing I could change**

   _____

4. **The thing I am enjoying most is**

   _____

5. **The thing I am enjoying least is**

   _____

6. **My relationship with the children**

   _____

7. **I have learnt**

   _____

8. **When I get home I feel**

   _____

9. **My relationship with the adults**

   _____

10. **Something I know now that I didn't know before**

    _____

11. **My relationship with other volunteers**

    _____

12. **Something that worries me**

    _____

13. **Onme way that I could improve my volunteering**

    _____

14. **I wish**

    _____

Appendix F: Post volunteering evaluation sheet

This questionnaire aims to find out how you felt about your work at your community centre. There are three sections. Please answer as honestly as possible. Remember that confidentiality is guaranteed.

Information section

Name	
Form	Middle Five / Upper Five
House	Lambs / Bears / Kats
How many times did you volunteer?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
At which centre	Noah/ Lapeng/Agape
Did you attend training?	Yes / No
What do you think is the best number of sessions to volunteer in a year?	4 6 8 10 12 16 20 24

Rating scale: 1= Excellent 2= Very good 3= Good 4= Fair 5= poor

How would you rate …	**Excellent**	**Very good**	**Good**	**Fair**	**Poor**
The training you received?	1	2	3	4	5
The communication between yourself, your tutor and Community Development?	1	2	3	4	5
The organization of volunteering?	1	2	3	4	5
The supervision of volunteering?	1	2	3	4	5
The amount of monitoring and support you received?	1	2	3	4	5

Suggested changes: What changes can you suggest that would have made your experience easier and more worthwhile in terms of:

Training:
Communication:
Organisation:
Supervision:
Monitoring and support:

This section wants to find out if there are any factors that may have had an impact on your experience at the centre. Please look at the list below and tick any of the statements that apply to you

Statement	Tick
I am having trouble at home	
I am having trouble at school	
I had a bad experience at the centre	
I have had a bad experience this term	
I am going to counselling this term	
Other (please explain)	

Self Reflection

Describe some of the feelings you experienced during the course of your volunteer work

What did you learn about yourself from volunteering?
(Think about your own ability to lead, to manage, to organize, to be responsible, to work with others.)

Describe which of your beliefs or assumptions about 'the community' have changed during the course of your volunteer work.

Feelings table

Please respond to the statements in the table. For each statement mark whether you Strongly Agree, Agree, are Neutral, Disagree or Strongly Disagree.

No.	Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	I felt overwhelmed by the number of children					
2	I felt enthusiastic to speak about my experiences with my friends					
3	I felt that I made decisions about the programme together with the children and staff					
4	I felt that I had enough time to get to know the children					
5	I felt that I learnt new things about the children					
6	I felt anxious when I was at the centre					
7	I felt that my school valued what I was doing					
8	I felt that to be effective I had to change some of the ways i normally behave					
9	I felt that the children shared their thoughts and feelings with me.					
10	I felt surprised at the positive things I found out about the children					

No.	Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
11	I felt that I could make a friend at the centre					
12	I felt that the people at the centre valued what I was doing					
13	I felt worried about the children wanting things from me					
14	I felt that I could communicate well with the children					
15	I felt that the children appreciated what I was doing for them					
16	I felt unsure of what I was expected to do					
17	I felt that I would be able to invite the children to my school or home					
18	I felt that I was allowed to take responsibility					
19	I felt that I learnt about the children's background					
20	I felt that the children learnt about me					

Thank you for completing this form !!!!