

# SERVICE-LEARNING AND EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING AS FORMS OF EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION: SIMILARITIES AND DISSIMILARITIES

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## OPSOMMING

### **DIENS-LEER EN ERVARINGSLEER AS VORME VAN ERVARINGS-ONDERWYS: OOREENKOMSTE EN VERSKILLE**

*In 2003 is vier teknikons genooi om deel te neem aan die "Community Higher Education Service Partnership" (CHESP) inisiatief van die "Joint Education Trust" (JET). Die doel is om diens-leer modules oor verskeie dissiplines heen te ontwikkel en op die wyse teknikons meer effektief betrokke te kry by gemeenskapsontwikkeling en die kapasiteitsbou van gemeenskapsleiers, akademië en deelnemers uit die dienste sektor.*

*Technikons neig om diens-leer te identifiseer met hulle praktyk van ervaringsleer. Die doel van die artikel is om die neiging aan te spreek deur te wys op die ooreenkomste en verskille tussen die twee vorme van leer, en wel op basis van Andrew Furco (1996) se analise van ervaringsonderwys. Hoewel daar sekere ooreenkomste tussen diens-leer en ervaringsleer bestaan, plaas die verskille hulle op twee onderskeie punte van Furco se kontinuum vir ervaringsonderwys. Met die oog op die suksesvolle implementering van diens-leer deur teknikons is dit noodsaaklik dat akademië en rolspelers uit die gemeenskap hierdie ooreenkomste en verskille verstaan.*

## 1. INTRODUCTION

In January 2001 the Board of the JET approved a CHESP implementation grant to six universities in order to

- develop pilot service-learning modules across a range of academic disciplines;
- build the capacity of community leaders, academics and service providers responsible for these modules;
- support the development of the modules with resource materials;
- monitor and evaluate the modules, and
- use the data generated through this process to influence higher education (HE) policy and practice at institutional and national level. (CHESP Grant Strategy for 2003 & 2004: 2. Referred to as Grant Strategy).

During 2001 and 2002 a total of 73 service-learning modules across 39 disciplines were developed. In 2003 four technicians were also invited to join the initiative: the Durban Institute of Technology, Technikon Free State, Peninsula Technikon and Wits Technikon. The technicians were selected due

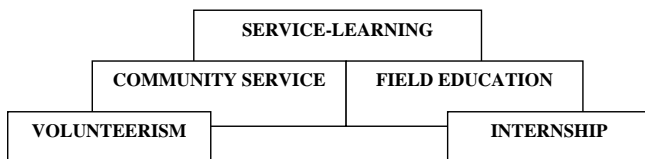
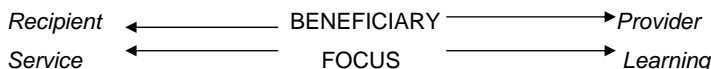
to their interest in community service and their geographic proximity to participating universities. In this way CHESP could ensure a more representative range of HE institutions participating in the initiative (Grant Strategy 2003: 4).

Technikons, however, tend to regard service-learning as similar to experiential learning, which they have been practising since their inception in the 1970's and 1980's (Wessels 2003: 3). This perception poses a great challenge to the implementation of service-learning. The purpose of this article is to address this perception by discussing the similarities and dissimilarities between these two types of learning, on the basis of Furco's (1996) analysis of types of experiential education. First the proposal of Furco will be outlined, followed by a general orientation on the theories underlying the two types of learning and attempts to define them. In the description of the education processes of the two, the differences will emerge more clearly, enabling us to place them on Furco's continuum for experiential education. Clarity on these differences is a prerequisite for the successful implementation of service-learning by technikons.

## 2. FURCO'S DIAGRAM FOR SERVICE PROGRAMMES

Furco (1996: 4) regards service-learning as a form of experiential education. The same applies to internships, field education, community service and voluntary work. In order to distinguish between the various types of service programmes and to arrive at a definition of service-learning, he offers the following diagram, presenting an experiential education continuum upon which the various programmes might lie.

**Figure 1. Furco's diagram for distinctions among service programmes**



The position of each programme is determined by the primary intended beneficiary (for example Alzheimer patients in hospitals, homeless people, students) and the degree of emphasis on service and/or learning. On the left hand side of the continuum there are volunteer activities, where the emphasis is on the service being provided. The primary beneficiary is clearly the recipient of the services provided by the volunteer. At the opposite end of the

continuum lie internship programmes, where students are the intended beneficiaries and the focus is on their learning and their professional preparation (rather than service). Between these two extremes lies community service (with its focus on the service being provided, as well as the benefits the service activities have on the recipients) and field education (where students are provided with co-curricular service opportunities that are related, but not fully integrated, with formal academic programmes. The primary focus of field education is on students' learning) (Furco 1996:5).

Service learning is located in the middle of the continuum. By design, service-learning equally benefits the recipient of the service and the provider: Service learning programs 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 1996:5).

This diagram will be used and expanded upon to distinguish service-learning from experiential learning, as practised by technikons in South Africa.

### **3. SERVICE LEARNING**

#### **3.1 Theoretical foundation**

Learning and personal development complement each other in any learning process. In designing service-learning programmes, therefore, Mc Ewen (1996: 56-75) identified certain categories of development theories related to service-learning, including cognitive development theories, moral development theories and Kolb's model of experiential learning.

Cognitive development theories describe the way students think and reason, and the process they use for thinking. Cognitive development is based on the work of Jean Piaget and is conceptualized as a sequence of stages by which individuals reason about their world. Each stage is different from the preceding stages, transcends them and subsumes them. Although the individual develops a more complex way of thinking, he/she continues to have access to all previous ways of thinking (Mc Ewen 1996: 57). The implication for service-learning is that students will analyze, interpret, and understand their service-learning experiences differently, depending on their level of cognitive development.

Moral development is related to cognitive development and concerns itself with the process and structures of moral reasoning, not with the moral action itself. Kohlberg's theory of moral development builds on the work of Piaget and Dewey. According to this theory a moral action could come about from various ways of moral reasoning. The relationship of moral development to service-learning is important, because moral dilemmas are likely to arise from students' involvement in society and during the reflection process, and they provide a basis for learning and growth.

Kolb's model of experiential learning and learning styles are equally useful for understanding service-learning. Building on the work of Piaget, Dewey and

others, he stresses the importance of first-hand experiences in the learning process. The core of Kolb's model "is a simple description of the learning cycle – of how experience is translated into concepts, which, in turn, are used as guides in the choice of new experiences" (Mc Ewen 1996: 68). For effective learning concrete experiences are essential – experiences on which the learner reflects, synthesis, conceptualises and experiments with. A student can enter the cycle at any point, but he/she must complete the cycle before effective learning can occur.

Three implications of Kolb's model are relevant to service-learning. First, a course should be structured in such a way that it enables students to move completely through the learning cycle. Secondly, the model underscores the central role of reflection in the entire learning process. Thirdly, "reflection follows direct and concrete experience and precedes abstract conceptualization and generalization" (Mc Ewen 1996: 69).

### 3.2 Definitions

Definitions for service-learning are numerous. *Campus Compact* (2001, pv.), established by a coalition of college and university presidents in the USA in 1985 in order to advance the civic purposes of HE, defines service-learning as "an educational methodology which combines community service with academic learning objectives, preparation for community work, and deliberate reflection". In the Introduction to Service Learning Toolkit, *Campus Compact* (2000) listed definitions from several organizations and respected individuals in the field of service-learning. Two of them will suffice.

From the American Association for Higher Education, *Campus Compact* (2000: 15) offers the definition: "Service-learning means a method under which students learn and develop through thoughtfully organized service that: is conducted in and meets the needs of a community and is coordinated with an institution of higher education, and with the community; helps foster civic responsibility; is integrated into and enhances the academic curriculum of students enrolled; and includes structured time for students to reflect on the service experience".

From Bringle and Hatcher, *Campus Compact* (2000: 17) cites: "Service learning is a credit-bearing, educational experience in which students participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs and reflect on the service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of civic responsibility".

For the purpose of this article, service-learning is understood in the context of the latter definition of Bringle and Hatcher.

### 3.3 Education process

As is clear from these definitions, service-learning is a teaching method that combines community service with academic instruction in such a way that it

focuses on reflective thinking, a broader appreciation of the discipline and civic responsibility (Fourie 2003: 32). The purpose is to deliver a civil literate member of society.

In order to compare service-learning effectively with experiential learning at technikons, the education process of both types of learning will be described in terms of the **outcomes** to be achieved, **the learning processes** to be followed, the different **assessment practices**, the **role players** involved and the **learning sites** to be used.

Service learning is not intended to be used in every course or module. Where it is considered it should be included from the very beginning and not regarded as an add-on. As an integral part of the module, it should be viewed as a means to meet the **outcomes** for that module.

Hay (2003: 21) identified the following types of outcomes in service-learning courses:

- Knowledge/understanding (about the specific discipline and the community problems/issues).
- Cognitive skills (like critical thinking, analysing concepts, seeing patterns and relationships).
- Procedural skills (information gathering skills, how course-related information applies to a community issue, verbal proficiency in presenting information related to community issues).
- Social skills (concern for the welfare of others, leadership, collaboration, conflict resolution).
- Attitudes/values/self-confidence (clarification of personal values or feelings, strive to be persistently reflective, support social justice, tolerance of others).
- Personal growth (self-esteem, personal motivation, self-understanding).

Most of these outcomes are in line with the so-called critical cross-field outcomes of the outcomes-based education model, preferred by the South African Qualifications Authority (*New Academic Policy* 2001: 112).

The **learning process** to be followed consists of an integration of community service activities with educational objectives. According to the definition of Bringle and Hatcher, service-learning is an academic enterprise in which students participate in a service activity “that meets identified community needs and reflect on the service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of the course content”.

This definition highlights the importance of reflection in the learning process. Reflection is the “intentional consideration of an experience in the light of particular learning objectives” (Hatcher and Bringle 1997: 153). The assumption is that community activities as such do not produce learning. Reflection provides the bridge between community service activities and the academic content of the course and is an intentional component of course design. It directs the attention of the student to a new interpretation of an

event and provides a means to study and interpret community service – much in the same way as a text is read and studied for better understanding (Bringle and Hatcher 1999: 180).

Examples of reflection activities include student journals, ethical case studies, directed readings and class presentations (Bringle and Hatcher 1999: 181-182). Learning through reflection is a cognitive and expansive process that continues beyond the content of the course. It is perplex and non-linear, influenced by the service rendered to the community.

Crucial to the design of a service-learning module is ways of **assessing** the outcomes. Hay (2003: 15) insists that outcomes should be described in measurable terms. A variety of quantitative (pre-and post-tests examinations), qualitative, (e.g. focus groups, analyses of students' work) and especially subjective (post-test surveys, interviews and journals) techniques is recommended to gather assessment data. These techniques, as well as indications of how the results of the assessment are to be used, should form part of an assessment plan. The results are important to improve the course for future students, to establish whether the anticipated benefits to the community were accomplished and to convince colleagues at the institution of the value of service-learning efforts (Hay 2003: 14. For more information on the assessment of service-learning, see Holland 2001: 51-60).

Another key aspect in service-learning is the identification of **role-players** or partners to drive the process. In the CHESP Grant Strategy (2003: 2) the following partners have been identified and should form a triad that participates in course design, implementation, and evaluation: the community, a HE institution and a service sector partner. The objectives of these partnerships are to contribute towards the development of local communities, to make HE more responsive to community needs and to enhance service delivery to previous underserved communities (Lazarus 2001: 1).

From literature (Holland 2001: 52-58; Hay 2003: 13; Rubin 2001: 18-26; Eyler 2001: 38, 41, etc.) it is clear that the partners should be involved with the entire process: from the formulation of outcomes to the development of course material, the delivery of the material through to the final assessment. The roles of each partner are outlined in Murray (2003: 211-212) and include the following:

### **Community's role**

- to assist the HE institution in determining the needs of the community which are to be addressed in the curriculum;
- to assist the institution in the implementation of the service-learning modules;
- to mobilise its own internal resources and apply them to the projects identified.

### **Service-sector's role**

- to articulate human resources development needs and priorities in relation to national objectives;
- to coordinate government departments that have an interest in community service in HE;
- to liaise with private sector, non-governmental organisations and community-based organisations to support the development of partnerships in community service in HE.

### **The HE institution's role**

- to help counter the distancing abstraction of much classroom instruction by placing information in context with real life;
- to make intellectual expertise and/or infrastructure available to the community;
- to develop programmes, which involve participants from outside the institution, to deliver social benefit to a particular community and teach participants to work jointly towards the achievement of a common goal;
- to include structured time for students to reflect on the service-learning experience, and
- to acknowledge the fact that community-linked service-learning courses require more faculty preparation and administration time than do traditional class-room based courses.

Capacity building of community, service sector and academic persons is critical for the success of service-learning courses. Furthermore, the pending implementation of service-learning in all HE institutions should be supported by appropriate institutionalized capacity building initiatives. To this end JET has initiated discussions with departments at the University of the Western Cape, University of the Witwatersrand and the University of the Free State to develop accredited graduate modules on service-learning pedagogy. The purpose of these modules will be to build the capacity of community leaders, service providers and academics to conceptualise, implement, evaluate and research service-learning courses. The modules will be offered as freestanding certificate courses and/or as part of existing graduate programmes (Grant Strategy 2003: 4. The graduate module is one example of capacity building; another more critical one is developing infrastructure - e.g., policies, funds, personnel - to support the expansion and institutionalisation of service-learning, as the University of the Free State has done by forming a central office and committing funds to support internal staff and external development).

Given the importance of these triads, they should be sustainable. If it were possible to create partnerships that would last over years, the partners would get to know each other better, they would improve the quality of their joint efforts by devising projects that were better attuned to the needs of the community and they would minimize the start-up costs of service-learning by reducing or eliminating the time it takes to identify appropriate partners (Baillis 2001: 63).

Community-based **sites** should be identified and assessed for their suitability (Grant Strategy 2003: 14). The quality and appropriateness of the site affects the students' sense that they are providing worthwhile service and that they have opportunities to relate the activities in the community to course concepts through reflection. The ideal would be that students have direct contact with the members of the community they serve (Hay 2003: 11).

#### 4. EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING AT TECHNIKONS

At technikons experiential learning is one of the two components of cooperative education, the other one being formal (class-room) education. Two documents serve as reference works for practitioners of cooperative education in South Africa: *Best practice in Cooperative Education* (2000, referred to as Best Practice) and a companion volume, *Essentials of Cooperative Education* (2000, referred to as Essentials). Both documents were compiled by the Committee for Tutorial Matters (a working group of the Committee of Technikon Principals) in conjunction with the South African Society of Cooperative Education and will be used as the main sources of information on experiential learning in this article.

##### 4.1 Theoretical foundation

Neither of the documents on cooperative education mentioned above contains the theory underlying experiential learning at technikons. The same applies to other documents and articles on experiential learning (Technikon SA Cooperative Education Policy, 2001; Report on Cooperative Education 2001, with numerous clips and articles on experiential learning; Taylor 2002; Wessels 2003; van Ede 2003, etc.). However, in discussions with senior managers it became clear that John Dewey's extensive work *Democracy and Education* (1916) could provide a theoretical foundation for cooperative education, and more specifically experiential learning, at technikons. Bringle and Hatcher (1999: 180-181) summarise the main trends of his theory as follows: According to Dewey (1916) "an ounce of experience is better than a ton of theory simply because it is only in experience that any theory has vital and verifiable significance". He acknowledges the fact that experience as such does not necessarily leads to learning. Experience can be educative and miseducative. It becomes educative when critical thought creates new meaning and results in the ability to take informed decisions. However, experiences become miseducative when they do not stimulate critical thought and just entrench existing schemata. In order to maximise the potential for learning to be educative, Dewey identifies four conditions:

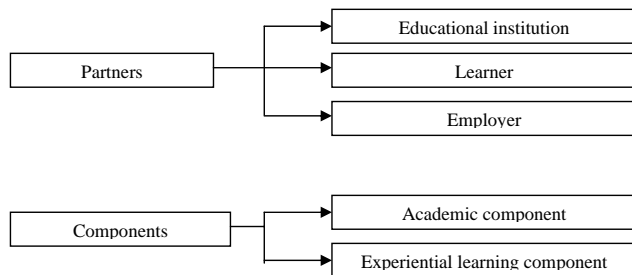
- the learning must generate interest in the learner;
- it must be intrinsically worthwhile to the learner;
- it must present problems that awaken new curiosity and create a demand for information, and
- it must cover a considerable time span and foster development over time.



## 4.2 Definitions

Cooperative education is described as “an educational model that incorporates productive work into the curriculum as a regular and integral element of a higher education course. There are three co-operative partners in this model: the educational institution, the learner and the employer. Co-operative education therefore has two main components: the academic component and the experiential learning component” (Essentials 2000: 5).

**Figure 2: Diagram: Cooperative Education at technikons**  
(Essentials 2000:5).



The World Association for Co-operative Education (WACE) defines co-operative education as a method of education that combines learning in the classroom with learning in the workplace (Best practice 2000: 4). In cooperative education learners put their academic knowledge into action through work experiences gained in commerce, industry and the public sector.

According to Best Practice (2000:4), co-operative education includes the following three features:

- It is a strategy of applied learning.
- It involves a structured programme developed and supervised by an educational institution in collaboration with one or more companies/organisations.
- Relevant productive work is an integral part of a learner's academic programme and is an essential component of the final assessment.

No explicit definition of experiential learning could be found. It is always mentioned as part of a definition on cooperative education. However, the features above clearly distinguish experiential learning from service-learning. The focus is on learning and the education provider, in collaboration with one or more companies/organisations. Experiential learning as a form of applied learning has to do with the students' career or professional development, not with service and the needs of the community *per se*.

### 4.3 Education process

From the definitions it is clear that the purpose of cooperative education is to deliver professionals that are able “to grapple with the challenges posed by the world of work” (Essentials 2000: 9). The integration of the two components of a co-operative education programme (the academic component and the experiential learning component – Essentials 2000: 5) empowers learners with the necessary skills to fit into the labour market immediately.

The **outcomes** of a co-operative education programme are the same as for any other academic programme. First the specific outcomes that provide a clear picture of what is important for students to be able to do on completion of a programme. The curriculum, instruction and assessment processes are all organized around these outcomes. The specific outcomes, of course, differ from programme to programme. Part of the outcomes of a co-operative education programme, is the critical cross-field outcomes, of which TSA (2001: 3-4) identifies the following: problem-solving, working effectively with others, organising and managing oneself, collecting and evaluating information, communicating effectively, using science and technology effectively and contributing to the full personal development of each learner. Experiential learning is a compulsory part of all TSA's instructional programmes and involves a combination of specific and critical cross-field outcomes, with the last limited to the minimum (TSA 2001: 8).

The outcomes and curricula, as the basis of the **learning process**, are designed in consultation with the relevant industry. The experiential learning curriculum is a component of the overall curriculum and may be registered as a learnership. Central to the implementation of experiential learning, is the role of the institutional provider. Qualified staff provide for the orientation of learners in respect of experiential learning; they provide guidelines and training for workplace mentors, develop placement guidelines for experiential learners, conduct on-site monitor visits with regard to progress and the quality of experiential learning and maintain the administration and database necessary for implementing experiential learning (TSA 2001: 6-7).

The learner is responsible for ensuring that a logbook/record of experiential learning/portfolio is kept up to date and signed by the organisation or company. It is also his/her responsibility to ensure that the experiential learning received is of the required standard and is in line with the institution's guidelines (Essentials 2000:20). For an effective system of experiential learning it is essential to monitor the process in order to evaluate the progress of learners in terms of pre-defined learning outcomes. These monitoring visits should be carried out by lecturers who are not only suitably qualified, but also have appropriate practical experience themselves. The objectives of these visits are outlined in *Essentials* 2001: 31-32.

To summarise: The experiential learning component of co-operative education sharply focuses the provider institution's aims on the career proficiency of the

learner as a worker. The academic and experiential learning components are interdependent. The first is usually offered by a higher education institution, while the experiential learning is usually completed in industry, commerce or the public sector. Where feasible, the experiential learning component would be registered as a learnership in order to get the benefits of the *Skills development Act* and *Skills Development Levy Act* (TSA 2001: 4). Logbooks are kept by learners to ensure that the experiential learning is in line with the academic component. And monitoring visits by staff are essential for an effective system of experiential learning.

**Assessment** is intended for grading purposes and to help learners towards the development of career competencies. According to Essentials (2000: 40-41) the following techniques may be used to assess learner progress in experiential learning:

- Rating sheets, in which personal abilities should not be overemphasized at the expense of job skills and abilities.
- Work term reports to reinforce written communication. These reports should be submitted at the end of the work term as part of the learning experience, as it relates to their career objectives.
- Report back sessions which are planned according to learning outcomes and could include illustrations, graphs, calculations and tables to clarify descriptions of duties performed or projects completed.

As with all other programmes, assessment criteria should be designed to measure outcomes. The provider institution should verify that the level of proficiency is attained by the learner for both the academic and the experiential learning component before the specific qualification is awarded (Essentials 2000: 9). The results of the assessment could be used to evaluate the effectiveness of orientation, training and supervision provided by the company or organization, as well as the quality of the learning environment (Essentials 2000: 34).

The **role players** in co-operative education are the educational institution, the learner and the employer (Essentials 2000:5). Their roles are clearly spelled out on pp 19-21 of the Essentials document and include the following:

The educational institution must

- develop and maintain a curriculum that reflects the needs of companies;
- promote the co-operative education programme on campus and in the community;
- work with organisations assisting in the development of suitable experiential learning programmes, the learner selection process and assessment techniques;
- ratify experiential learning with reference to the applicability and acceptability of awarding a diploma/degree;
- monitor and evaluate experiential learning in collaboration with companies;
- visit organisations periodically to ensure that the experiential learning being offered is of the required standard.

The learner must

- show respect for the goals, rules and philosophies of the provider institution and the organisation/company;
- take responsibility for co-ordinating and financing transportation and related expenses incurred during the experiential learning process;
- fulfil both the academic and experiential learning requirements before receiving a diploma/degree;
- ensure that a logbook of experiential learning be kept up to date.

The organisation or company must

- provide experiential training facilities and arrange for training staff to assist learners with experiential learning;
- discuss the detail of the learning process with the learner (exact starting dates, hours of work and fringe benefits);
- maintain a record of the learner's assessment for monitoring and reference purposes;
- sign the logbook/record of experiential learning on completion of the learning process.

As far as experiential learning **sites/placement positions** are concerned, the following aspects (amongst others) should be considered (Essentials 2000: 27-28):

- The placement should provide experience in occupations that require both knowledge and skills.
- It should be relevant to the learning outcomes.
- It should be supervised by someone competent in the skills and technical aspects of the occupation.
- The placement positions should have a good reputation of ethical business practices.
- Hours in the placement position should be sufficient to ensure the desired outcome.
- Adequate facilities and equipment should be made available.
- Good supervisor and learner relationships should exist.

## **5. SIMILARITIES AND DISSIMILARITIES**

The theoretical foundations of service-learning and experiential learning are very similar, both stressing the crucial role of experience in the learning process. According to their definitions they combine learning in the classroom with experiences in either the community or the workplace. Another similarity is that persons in the community (residents and service providers) and workplace (supervisors) become co-educators with students learning from external sources. As co-educators in both cases, these persons assume some responsibilities for orientation, organizing, and evaluation of students.

However, the preceding pages also highlight the dissimilarities between the two, especially with regard to the beneficiaries and foci of the two approaches. The intended beneficiaries of service-learning are the community and the learner, while the beneficiary of experiential learning is the learner. The focus of service-learning is on both the service being provided and the learning that is taking place, while the focus of experiential learning is on student learning (with little or no service involved).

Two general observations could also be made:

- Service-learning should ideally lead to a person who is committed to making communities better places to live; experiential learning should ideally lead to a better, more competent worker.
- Community service is based on a team approach that acknowledges wide distribution of different types of knowledge that are relevant to organizing action; the workplace is based on a structural hierarchy (boss, employees), governed by position, experience or expertise.

Specific differences regarding the two education processes (3.3 and 4.3 above) could be summarized as follows:

**Table 1: Differences between service-learning and experiential learning with regard to the education processes**

	<b>Service-learning</b>	<b>Experiential learning</b>
Lecturers	Academic staff, community leaders and other knowledgeable people from the service sector.	Academic staff and professional supervisors.
Purpose	To deliver a civil literate member of society.	To deliver professionals that immediately fit into the world of work.
Outcomes	Critical cross-field outcomes, combined with specific outcomes.	Specific outcomes, with critical cross-field outcomes limited to the minimum.
Relation to academic component	Not compulsory or intended to be used in every course.	Compulsory part of all academic programmes.
Learning	Reflective, expansive, perplexed and non-linear. Learners take responsibility.	Applied, linear, not perplexed. Monitoring visits of staff are essential.
Assessment	Done by lecturers and other members of the triad. A variety of quantitative, qualitative and subjective techniques	Done by lecturers and supervisors in the workplace. Techniques are rating sheets, work term reports and report

	are recommended. Results are used to improve service and learning.	back sessions. Results are used to evaluate the companies' training and the quality of the learning environment.
Capacity building	Necessary for all members of the triad.	Not a priority, given the career experience of the supervisors.
Sites	Classroom and community sites. Sites should be suitable to link community activities to course content.	Classroom and companies. Companies should provide experience in occupations, relevant to the learning outcomes.

## 6. CONCLUSION

The above table illustrates that service-learning and experiential learning are not synonymous. Although they share certain basic features, the dissimilarities between them place them at two distinct points on Furco's continuum. Service-learning is equally beneficial to the community and the learner, while there is an equal focus on the service and learning being undertaken. Experiential learning is on the far right-hand side of the continuum, with its emphasis on the learning that occurs, the company that provides the experiential learning and the career preparation of the learner as a worker. The learner is the primary beneficiary.

Technikons should honour the differences between service-learning and experiential learning and grasp the opportunity offered by service-learning to address the hard realities and needs of South African communities. Service learning should become an integral part of the undergraduate curriculum in order to educate socially responsive learners in a manner that is pedagogically sound and prepare them for active participation in democratic processes in their communities. The importance of this task is well expressed by Matthews (1995, 70, as quoted by Bringle *et.al.* 2004:3): "Why do we need more than a vocational education? In part, because we live more than a vocational life; we live a larger civic life and we have to be educated for it."

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