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Authors

Carr, Nathan T.

Eyring, Janet L.

Gallego, Juan Carlos

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NATHAN T. CARR
California State University, Fullerton

JANET L. EYRING
California State University, Fullerton

JUAN CARLOS GALLEGO
California State University, Fullerton

What Is the Value of Service-Learning for ESL Teacher Preparation?

■ **This study describes the results of a survey administered to present and former students enrolled in a Master's in TESOL Program at a large urban university in Southern California. Respondents who had had a service-learning or experiential learning assignment were asked to identify to what extent and in which areas their service-learning or experiential learning experience benefited them. Responses by students and alumni who had had a service-learning experience and those who had not had a service-learning experience were also compared for significance. In addition, responses of service-learners by gender, language background, and visa status were compared to identify important trends in perceived benefits of service-learning. Overall, students were quite positive about their service-learning experiences with most benefit indicated in general teaching theory and second language acquisition and least benefit in citizenship and civics. Results of a MANOVA indicated significant differences in benefits for service-learners versus non-service-learners.**

Introduction

To make preschool through university teacher training more relevant, many programs have incorporated experiential learning activities that expand, enhance, and elaborate on regular classroom work (Dewey, 1938; Kolb, 1984; Legutke & Thomas, 1991). Service-learning, a type of experiential learning, has become a popular and innovative component of many programs (Anderson, Swick, & Yff, 2001; Erickson & Anderson, 1997; O'Grady, 2000; Root & Furco, 2001). Requesting teacher trainees to do various kinds of service or activities outside the classroom related to their future school careers and connecting these experiences to university course work intuitively appeals to many university teacher trainers. What kind of value does experiential learning, and more particularly service-learning, have for students in training?

Many studies have shown a general positive response by students to service-learning (Battistoni, 1997; Giles & Eyster, 1994; Myers-Lipton, 1996), a positive change in attitudes toward service itself (Astin & Sax, 1998; Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda, & Yee, 2000), and greater caring toward others (Potthoff et al., 2000; Scales, 1999; Swick, 1999). Regarding sociocultural benefits, many studies show greater awareness, acceptance, and affirmation of cultural diversity but little impact on students' democratic values or civic participation as a result of service-learning (Ball & Goodburn, 2000; Berman, 1997; Boyle-Baise, 1998; Grady, 1997; Hagan, 2004; Vadeboncoueur, Rahm, Aguilera, & Le Compte, 1995; Wade, Boyle-Baise, & O'Grady, 2001). Some studies report higher gains by females engaged in service-learning (Hamilton & Fenzel, 1988; Kraft, Goldwasser, Swadener, & Timmons as cited in Root, 1997). Fewer studies have reported on academic growth or perceived skill development in a discipline or professional skills related to a career (Dubinsky, 2001; Elwell & Bean, 2001; Shastri, 1999; Wade, 1995; Wade & Anderson, 1996). This information is particularly lack-

ing with regard to teachers in training in the field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). However, a few recent studies in TESOL and related fields have attempted to investigate some of these issues.¹

Two studies in multicultural education show positive limited benefits for teachers in training assisting in ESL classrooms or other sites that have diverse populations. O'Grady and Chappell (2000) describe a service-learning course in which the coauthor, O'Grady, organizes service-learning in a Social Foundations course for white students preparing to enter the teaching-certification program at a private liberal arts college in Minnesota. One of the students and a coauthor of the article, Chappell, was placed with another classmate in a high school ESL classroom. Professor and student reflected on the efficacy of such service to authentically address learner needs, raise consciousness about differential power relations, and provide opportunities for civic activism. After tutoring Latino students for one term, the college student was more optimistic than the professor about the potential of the service-learning experience to provide a starting point for mutual understanding and reciprocity. The professor, on the other hand, decided to "scrap" the project because she thought it promoted a "Eurocentric" system of privilege for whites with no input from those being served.

Franquiz and Hernandez (2004) provide a longitudinal description of a series of projects between 1996 and 2002 conducted by students enrolled in a multicultural education course at the University of Colorado's School of Education. The professor of the course and the coordinator of Casa coordinated efforts for small groups of mostly white middle-class doctoral students to select projects suitable to after-school programs for Hispanic migrant youth at Casa de la Esperanza. Some of the products of these efforts included a tobacco prevention booklet, ESL classes, a computer manual for the lab, an outreach grant proposal, a field trip to the university, and a mural for the community room. At the end of the semester, students wrote reports and gave

oral presentations about what they learned. Among other benefits, students gained important cross-cultural knowledge that challenged some of their own assumptions about the world.

Teacher-training methods in ESL writing programs have often followed trends in English composition programs for the mainstream population. Deans (2000) presents a comprehensive overview of service-learning in composition studies that could have wide applicability to ESL writing pedagogy. More than 60 different college-level writing-centered service-learning courses are described as models for teachers who wish to implement service-learning in their classrooms. First-year, upper-division, and technical writing courses have been used for writing *for*, writing *about*, and writing *with* the community. Depending upon the project, the service-learning task may be to produce written products such as brochures or flyers that a community organization or business needs, to produce written products such as logs or essays for the instructor after providing service in the community, or to write a written product such as a grant to address a real-world problem. In this latter case, both students and community members have substantial input in negotiating the final product, which may solve a real-world need or even a social injustice. In all cases, the instructor plays an important role as facilitator to assist students with reflection on pressing social or workplace needs that they experience in the community.

Three TESOL studies particularly relate to ESL teachers in training. Wilberschied, Bauer, and Gerdes (2003) describe a program in a large Midwestern university in Ohio in which 10 ESL teacher candidates taught family literacy to K-12 students and their family members in a free ESL summer program. During the spring before the program, teacher candidates helped plan the summer program for 55 students; it not only included content and English language skills training but a service-learning project to clean and mulch flower beds in a park to honor veterans. Using a

qualitative data analysis of written reflections, e-mails, transcriptions of daily and weekly reflection sessions, and interviews, the authors identified four topic strands that emerged from the service-learning data. These included (a) "Emergency Room Mode," in which teacher candidates were overly concerned about the limited English proficiency of the learners and the need to prepare them for proficiency tests, (b) "Teacher Confidence," in which they progressively became more comfortable with relating to the limited-English proficiency students as whole students, (c) "Identification With ESL Families," in which they understood that ESL populations had needs that must be accommodated (similar to all other students), and (d) "Dominance of Power Culture," in which they realized that ESL students are often marginalized by the dominant culture at a school. Overall, the program energized all teacher trainees for their future work with limited English-proficient students.

Weinstein, Whiteside, and Gibson (2002) provide a rich description of work of ESL teachers in training and other service-learners involved in Project SHINE (Students Helping in the Naturalization of Elders; www.projectshine.org) at San Francisco State University, where students tutored or assisted ESL teachers in classrooms that contained learners 50 years or older as well as other learners in the community. The research investigated, among other issues, whether SHINE increased the students' positive attitudes toward elders and immigrant communities. Results showed strong intergenerational benefits as individuals and pairs of students from various ethnic backgrounds assisted elders more than 50 years old with general literacy development and preparation for the Immigration and Naturalization Services (INS) interviews. Before graduate students worked with elders, the graduate students reported lack of self-confidence, initial anxiety, and worry about immigrant racism. After working with the elders by reviewing the 100 preparation questions, role-playing mock INS interviews, reviewing

class materials, and addressing elder concerns, these fears and concerns were allayed.

Eyring (2005) reported on a descriptive study of 14 preservice native and nonnative English-speaking ESL teachers from California State University, Fullerton who were also working in Project SHINE. Placed in adult ESL classrooms in a continuing education program in a local community college district, students tutored and coached grammar to elders older than 50. Data collected from weekly journals, final reports, and classroom discussions were analyzed to assess the impact of their experiences on grammatical content knowledge, understanding of second language acquisition processes, the role of culture, age, and motivation on language learning, and grammar pedagogy. Results showed that students derived personal and social rewards as well as cognitive benefits. They enjoyed the experience and had multiple opportunities to apply their knowledge of grammatical structures to the teaching situation. They learned to plan lessons to address student needs. They were especially attentive to the learning strategies and language acquisition processes of their learners. In the end, students who were placed in general ESL classes instead of citizenship classes had less opportunity to engage in cross-cultural community or civics-related discussions.

One more source that should prove to enlighten our understanding of service-learning in TESOL is a new book edited by Adrian J. Wurr and Josef Hellebrandt (2007) titled *Learning in the Language of Global Citizenship: Service-Learning in Applied Linguistics*. One chapter by Jessie Moore Kapper, Laura Clapp, and Cindy Lefferts describes how to incorporate service-learning into an ESL teacher-training course and another by Fu-An Lin presents a case study of undergraduate learners serving as ESL instructors in a Texas community. From this review of the literature, it is clear that more empirical research needs to be done in TESOL teacher-education programs. In particular, more needs to be known about perceptions about abilities and knowledge gained and

Figure 1
Progressive Model of ESL Teacher Education

<i>Experiential component</i>	<i>Course(s)</i>
Classroom observations 10 hours ↓	Fundamentals of TESOL
Tutoring and teacher assistance through service-learning and experiential learning 20 hours in at least one class and up to 80 hours total ↓	Advanced Principles of TESOL Reading/Writing Advanced Principles of TESOL Listening/Speaking Pedagogical Grammar Pronunciation/Oral Discourse
Student teaching 45+ hours	Teaching Practicum

general attitudinal outcomes of service-learning in these programs.

Background of the Study

Students enrolled in the MA TESOL Program at a large Southern California state university have participated in what the program has called a “progressive model of teacher education” (see Figure 1). In this model they have participated in 75 or more hours of actual ESL classroom-related learning from the beginning to the end of their master’s program.

Students are first assigned to observe ESL classrooms in their introductory course, Fundamentals of TESOL. Then, in one of the four methodology courses, two of which are required (Advanced Principles of TESOL: Reading and Writing and Advanced Principles of TESOL: Listening and Speaking) and two of which are options (Pedagogical Grammar and Teaching Pronunciation and Oral Discourse), students are required to participate in 20 hours of service-learning or other experiential learning activities such as volunteer tutoring, teaching small classes, creating materials for teaching, or investigating questions of interest to enhance their classroom learning. Finally, in the teaching practicum, students work under a master teacher or teach their own classes with faculty supervision.

Five years ago, the TESOL Program began requiring students to participate in at least one service-learning assignment for a minimum of 20 hours. Students have most often chosen to participate in Project SHINE (<http://www.projectsshine.org>), in which they tutor small groups of students or assist classroom teachers in adult ESL and citizenship classrooms in a local community college continuing education program. The Center for Internships and Service-Learning in conjunction with TESOL faculty and students systematically provides preservice training and monitors progress through pre-, mid-, and postsurveys as part of a national research/evaluation project.

This project allowed students to begin working side by side with students from across the university campus in a focused effort to serve a community need. Necessary arrangements were made and permissions obtained to enter public school classrooms and other community ESL programs to provide valuable language practice, cultural exchange, and civics knowledge to nonnative speakers of English who were 50 years or older as well as other students who happened to be in their classes.

This study seeks to identify the benefits of this experience to the overall teacher-training program. To determine the value-added benefit of the service-learning experience, we

decided to collect survey data from students who were enrolled in the TESOL program before the service-learning requirement was instituted 5 years ago and those who participated in service-learning since the requirement was instituted. Both groups had opportunities to do experiential, teaching, and tutoring projects on their own, especially in the two required methods of reading/writing and listening/speaking classes but only recent graduates and current students participated in a large-scale service-learning project in which large groups of students were engaged in service negotiated by the university to satisfy the needs of the community.

Research Questions

Three main questions were investigated in this study, all relating to the benefits of students participating in service-learning:

1. To what extent and in what areas (viz., curriculum, course-specific theory and practice, general teaching practice and classroom management, general teaching theory and second language acquisition (SLA), civic awareness and engagement, and citizenship and civics) did students think they benefited from their experiential learning projects, including service-learning assignments?
2. Were there significant differences in students' perceptions of benefit in these areas between those who did service-learning and those who did other kinds of experiential learning?
3. To what extent are service-learning participants' perceptions of benefits from their service-learning experiences influenced by personal characteristics such as gender, being a native or non-native English speaker, and being a domestic or international student?

Methods

Construction of the Survey

Construction of the survey began with a

discussion and listing of the categories in which we believed students might reasonably have been expected to benefit from their service-learning or experiential learning projects. The six resulting categories are listed in Table 1, along with their abbreviations. For each category, we then identified abilities and knowledge we expected students to learn, resulting in 7 to 13 items each, with the exception of course-specific theory and practice. This category was subdivided into four sections corresponding to the four courses for which students have service-learning requirements, with 5 to 7 items apiece. Therefore, the bulk of the survey consisted of six multi-item scales, one of which was subdivided into four subscales. A number of background and demographic questions were also included, and each scale was followed by an open-ended comments question. An example of an "ability" item from the general teaching practice and classroom management section was:

As a result of my experiential learning assignments in my CSUF methodology and pedagogy courses, I improved my ability to ...
43. use a variety of materials and visual aids while teaching.

An example of a "knowledge" item from the citizenship and civics section was:

As a result of my experiential learning assignments in my CSUF methodology and pedagogy courses, I increased my knowledge or understanding of ...
76. U.S. immigration policy

In addition, there were three open-ended questions relating to the survey as a whole.

All of the items in the six scales used a 4-option Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." A 5-option scale was rejected because of the tendency for respondents to provide neutral responses. Once the items had been written, they were converted to a Web-based format using surveyWiz (Birnbau, 1998, 2000), and

respondents were directed to answer the survey on-line.

Table 1
Scales in the Survey and Abbreviations

<i>Category</i>	<i>Abbreviation</i>
Curriculum	CURRIC
Course-specific theory and practice	CSTP
General teaching practice and classroom management	GTP
General teaching theory and second language acquisition	GTT
Civic awareness and engagement	CAE
Citizenship and civics	CC

Participants

The participants in this study were alumni and current students. All of the current students and some of the alumni had engaged in the formal service-learning experience in the master's program, while some of the alumni had not. Respondents ranged in age from the early 20s to older than 50, included native and nonnative English speakers, international, immigrant, and native respondents, 12 males and 56 females, and came from a variety of language backgrounds (including Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean).

Administration of the Survey

Students were contacted via e-mail through alumni and current student lists and asked to take the on-line survey. A total of 224 alumni and students were contacted between February 21 and March 23, 2006. Follow-up e-mails were sent 1 and 2 weeks after the initial requests, resulting in 72 responses, for an overall response rate of 32%. For some of the early respondents, technical issues with the on-line survey resulted in the loss of responses to some questions, including some demographic information, which meant that they could not be included in some of the analyses reported below.²

Analyses

Interpreting descriptive statistics.

Descriptive statistics, correlations among scales, and reliability estimates (Cronbach's alpha) were computed using SPSS 14 for Windows (SPSS, 2005). Because the items all used a 4-point Likert scale (0-3) with no neutral ratings possible, an average response of 1.5 for any scale would have represented an overall neutral response. Student perceptions of benefit were evaluated using both the mean and median of each *scale* mean, with results classified as "highly negative" (0.00-0.74), "negative" (0.75-1.24), "neutral" (1.25-1.74), "positive" (1.75-2.24), and "highly positive" (2.25-3.00).

In addition, comparisons of student responses were made on the basis of gender, native versus nonnative speaker of English, and domestic versus F1 student (nonresident international student on an F1 visa). These comparisons involved the reporting of descriptive statistics in tables only to illustrate trends; it was not possible to test for significant differences among these groups because of the size of the sample and the number of respondents who left some items blank. This would have led to some cells in the ANOVA table's having too few cases, thereby rendering the results inconclusive at best. Furthermore, the sample size would not have afforded sufficient statistical power, making Type II classification errors (failing to reject false null hypotheses) likely.

Multivariate analysis of variance. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA)³ was performed to respond to Question 2. This question addressed the degree to which having a service-learning requirement, as opposed to a non-service-oriented experiential learning requirement, influenced students' perceptions about abilities or knowledge gained in the "pedagogical" categories (curriculum, course-specific theory and practice, general teaching practice and classroom management, and general teaching theory and second language acquisition) and the "good citizen" categories (civic awareness and engagement, and citizenship and civics).

Descriptive statistics were evaluated to ensure that the dependent variables were normally distributed. Descriptive statistics for residuals were examined for normality, and Levene's test for homogeneity of variances was also performed.

Results and Discussion

To return to the research questions posed above, Research Question 1 asked to what extent and in what areas did students think they benefited from their experiential learning projects, including service-learning assignments. The results in Table 2 show that students perceived benefit in all areas except in citizenship and civics. This is indicated by both the mean and median scale averages exceeding the predetermined cutoff of 1.75.

Table 2⁴
Descriptive Statistics for Scale Means

	<i>CURRIC</i>	<i>CSTP</i>	<i>GTP</i>	<i>GTT</i>	<i>CAE</i>	<i>CC</i>
<i>n</i>	70	72	72	72	71	69
Mean	2.0	1.8	2.0	2.3	1.8	1.2
Median	2.1	1.9	2.2	2.4	1.9	1.1
SD	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.9
Skew	-0.7	-0.4	-0.8	-1.1	-0.5	0.4
Kurtosis	0.1	-0.4	-0.3	1.5	-0.4	-0.9

Reliability estimates for the survey as a whole, as well as for the individual scales, were all high (ranging from .87 to .98), probably because of a combination of careful scale planning and the use of polytomous items (see Table A1 in the Appendix). The many high correlations of responses across categories in (see Table A2 in the Appendix) also demonstrate that students tended to think that they benefited—or did not benefit—across the board.

One finding that is evident in Table 2 is that general teaching theory and second language acquisition received the highest rating while being the only category that students evaluated in the *highly positive* range (with a mean of 2.3). This category examined whether service-learning or experiential

learning improved understanding of the following types of concepts: the role of motivation and personal investment in language learning, the effects of age on language learning, the stages of language learning, the effects of the learner's culture on language learning, and so forth. Comments suggested that service-learning or experiential learning did in fact provide them with an opportunity to see in practice or put to the test some of the theories they had learned about in the TESOL classroom. One respondent stated, "Service learning provided valuable connections to the theory and pedagogy that we learned in class." Another said, "My tutoring experience helped put into practice the theories I learned in class and see how they related to a real-world student."

Research Question 2 related to the impact of having a formal service-learning requirement on student perceptions of benefit. The averages for these 2 groups (students who had a service-learning requirement and those who did not), which were compared in the MANOVA analyses⁵, are reported in Table 3. They indicate that the average perceptions of benefit were consistently higher for students who did not have a service-learning requirement, with the exception of the "good citizenship" variables, which were higher for service-learners. The results of the MANOVA indicated that these differences were significant only for citizenship and civics, however⁶. This was in spite of the fact that this category was the one with the perception of least benefit by the total service-learning plus experiential learning group. In other words, students generally thought they benefited the least in this area, but those with a service-learning requirement reported more benefit than those without one. The impact was trivial for the other 5 variables, as would be expected given the lack of significant differences⁷.

Some of these results seem to contradict the service-learning literature, which shows that students often report greater civic awareness but less ability to actually engage and make change in the community. In this case, consistent with other studies, our students

Table 3
Mean Values, Standard Deviations,
and Numbers of Cases for MANOVA

	<i>SLReq</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
CURRIC	Yes	2.18	.66	31
	No	2.31	.41	11
CSTP	Yes	1.98	.63	31
	No	1.99	.50	11
GTP	Yes	2.12	.73	31
	No	2.47	.47	11
GTT	Yes	2.33	.49	31
	No	2.46	.40	11
CAE	Yes	2.03	.70	31
	No	1.64	.91	11
CC	Yes	1.24	.95	31
	No	.58	.54	11

Note: The difference for CC was significant at the $p < 0.05$ level.

reported negative or neutral ability to engage in the community (e.g., to be aware of community problems, to become motivated to do more service in the future, to increase interest in helping others, to become more comfortable dealing with people with different backgrounds, etc.). Unlike in previous studies, however, although service-learning students reported a significantly higher sense of benefit, all students reported even less benefit in terms of knowledge and understanding of such concepts as governmental institutions, laws, and elections, U.S. history, the rights and responsibilities of citizenship, and so forth, than they had for civic awareness and engagement.

To explain this surprising result, it is necessary to refer to student comments. It appears that the citizenship and civics category would have received higher ratings had some of the respondents not already been socially aware and engaged individuals. One student stated, “For (questions) 66-7, I

already felt comfortable or motivated. The service-learning did not increase my interests”; and another said, “I already had good leadership skills and was already aware of the social and cultural problems that exist in different communities, so this experience didn’t teach me or show me anything I wasn’t already aware of.” Another explanation for the lower perceived benefit in citizenship and civics is that not all students participated in ESL civics/citizenship classes in the SHINE program; therefore, they were not directly exposed to the subject matter of citizenship and the citizenship exam. Finally, another possible explanation for the mostly non-significant differences between the service-learning group and the non-service-learning group is that some respondents had fewer experiences to draw from compared to those who had finished the master’s program. In addition, whether the service-learning experience took place at the beginning, the middle, or toward the end of the program may also have affected students’ perceptions of improvement, as shown by the following student comments: “I did Project SHINE during my first semester, so I did not know about a lot of the skills. Therefore I could not diagnose them”; and “I participated in SHINE during my first semester, so the experience gave me an overview of curriculum components. It was a good introduction, but I probably ‘improved my ability’ more through classes like 560 and 595” (Testing and Curriculum, respectively). That non-service-learning respondents felt *neutral* (1.63) rather than *negative* about this category is also to be expected, since some experiential learning practices may also provide community awareness and promote engagement.

Nevertheless, a good number of comments did indicate benefits for some students in this area. One student stated, “I learned that I had to be proactive to organize something different (the conversation group). SHINE was my first experience working with Spanish speakers. I’m still a newcomer to California, so they taught me a lot about some of the social issues and problems in Latino commu-

nities. I think I've always been 'civic minded' and inclined to being." Another said, "It really made me part of the community."

Research Question 3 asked whether the perceived benefits of the service-learning experience vary according to gender, residency, and native language status. Although no significance could be tested in any of the comparisons for statistical reasons, we found some trends worth discussing. The results in Table 4 show that males appear to have benefited more from their service-learning experience than females in all categories except for general teaching theory and second language acquisition. Specifically, males rate 4 categories in the *highly positive* range, whereas females rate only 1 category in that range. Males also rate citizenship and civics in the *positive* range while females rate it in the *negative* range.

Based on the comments written by the respondents and on general knowledge of our student population we propose that, with regard to the "pedagogical" categories, this difference may be due to the fact that female students in our program bring, overall, more teaching experience and ESL background into the program than males, a good portion of whom are switching careers when they start the program. With regard to the "good citizenship" categories, a hypothetical explanation put forward by our alumni at our annual gathering was that females are more attuned and empathetic to social problems than males, and thus they might have gained less from their service-learning experience than males. Although logical, this result does not seem to correspond with the literature (Hamilton & Fenzel, 1988, and others cited above), which shows greater benefits in service-learning for females.

When analyzing perceived benefit by U.S. residency status we found that non-U.S. residents overtake residents in all categories, 3 of them with averages in the *highly positive* range (see Table 5). That nonresident respondents believe they have increased their pedagogical knowledge to a greater extent than U.S. residents because of their service-learning

Table 4
Mean Values and Standard Deviations
for Subscale Averages, by Gender
(Service-Learning Students Only)

<i>Subscale</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
CURRICAvg	Female	2.17	.70	25
	Male	2.36	.39	5
CSTPAvg	Female	1.97	.65	25
	Male	2.20	.32	5
GTPAvg	Female	2.09	.73	25
	Male	2.56	.38	5
GTTAvg	Female	2.36	.51	25
	Male	2.26	.46	5
CAEAvg	Female	1.97	.73	25
	Male	2.44	.42	5
CCAvg	Female	1.11	.97	25
	Male	1.80	.78	5

ing experience may be due, in part, to their lack of familiarity with teaching practices in the US. After all, respondents who have been schooled in the US have been exposed to teaching methods and techniques similar to the ones observed in the service-learning classrooms. In the category of citizenship and civics, non-U.S. residents' average falls in the *neutral* range, whereas U.S. residents' average falls in the *negative* range, a difference that could be attributed to familiarity with the subject matter on the part of U.S. residents.

A third comparison was made between native English speakers (NESs) and nonnative English speakers (NNEs) in terms of perceived benefit. The results presented in Table 6 show a trend where NESs' averages are higher than those of NNEs in all categories but general teaching practice and classroom management and citizenship and civics, possibly showing the greater benefit that NNEs feel as a result of being placed in the community and being able to observe English teachers and learn more about organization rou-

Table 5
Mean Values and Standard Deviations for
Subscale Averages, by U.S. Residency Status
(Service-Learning Students Only)

<i>Subscale</i>	<i>Residency status</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
CURRICAvg	F-1 Visa	2.42	.36	5
	Domestic	2.13	.75	21
CSTPAvg	F-1 Visa	2.02	.52	5
	Domestic	2.01	.64	21
GTPAvg	F-1 Visa	2.42	.54	5
	Domestic	2.15	.70	21
GTTAvg	F-1 Visa	2.42	.46	5
	Domestic	2.28	.49	21
CAEAvg	F-1 Visa	2.18	.66	5
	Domestic	2.00	.76	21
CCAvg	F-1 Visa	1.30	.96	5
	Domestic	1.18	.96	21

tines (e.g., plan lessons, develop openings and closures while teaching, give clear instructions in class, time and pace teaching, use the blackboard effectively, etc.). They also may be less familiar with the vocabulary and content of civics and citizenship classes, which are often more familiar to NESs.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to gain insights through empirical research into perceived improvement in knowledge and abilities deriving from experiential learning and, more particularly, service-learning practices in a TESOL teacher-education program. In this paper, we have been able to establish the following: (a) A group of TESOL trainees thought they acquired new pedagogical knowledge and skills through their experiential and service-learning experiences; (b) the perceived improvement—in pedagogical knowledge/skills and civic awareness and engagement—of the TESOL trainees who

Table 6
Mean Values and Standard Deviations for
Subscale Averages, by Native versus
Nonnative English Speaker Status
(Service-Learning Students Only)

<i>Subscale</i>	<i>NES versus NNES</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
CURRICAvg	NNES	2.02	.53	13
	NES	2.40	.7	16
CSTPAvg	NNES	1.95	.48	13
	NES	2.10	.70	16
GTPAvg	NNES	2.21	.52	13
	NES	2.20	.80	16
GTTAvg	NNES	2.30	.44	13
	NES	2.43	.51	16
CAEAvg	NNES	1.98	.59	13
	NES	2.14	.81	16
CCAvg	NNES	1.37	1.02	13
	NES	1.17	.94	16

had a service-learning assignment was comparable to that reported by peers who had carried out similar experiential learning assignments without a service-learning component; (c) despite low ratings in the category of citizenship and civics, the service-learning experience had a significant effect on our TESOL trainees in this area, when compared with non-service-learning respondents; and (d) when comparing perceived benefits for males versus females, U.S. residents versus non-U.S. residents, and native English speakers versus nonnative English speakers, we found that males, non-U.S. residents, and native English speakers generally reported greater benefits in most categories than their counterparts, although these differences were not tested for statistical significance.

Before concluding, we would like to address two factors that might have prevented the study from yielding more positive and conclusive results. The first one is that the

respondents' previous exposure to and/or experience with the theories, practices, and environments the questionnaire addresses probably lowered the results in most categories. This matter has been addressed in the discussion section, but only with regard to the "good citizenship" categories. However, some respondents' comments make it clear that this factor contributed to lowering their ratings of questions in the "pedagogical" categories, too. For example, one student said, "If service-learning had been my first experience teaching or tutoring, I would strongly agree," and another said, "I have taught for some time. I have already been incorporating many of the practices mentioned in this survey."

Another, perhaps more influential, factor that may have had some negative impact on the results is the inclusion in the sample of graduates who experienced service-learning at its inception. During the first stages of implementing the SHINE program, for example, there were problems with logistics and placement that were typical of any new program and that were solved in subsequent years. Excluding from the study the subjects who did SHINE in the first 2 years, for example, would have probably yielded more accurate results in terms of what our students think they are gaining from their present service-learning experiences. Evidence of this phenomenon is found in the respondents' comments about what they found most challenging in their service-learning experience and their suggestions for improvement. One respondent states: "The most challenging factor was scheduling the tutoring hours"; another adds: "The time involved"; and a third one offers this comment: "At the time I participated in the program, it was not yet well organized and much time was wasted." With regard to student placement, one respondent expresses disappointment: "To be honest, I did not enjoy my SHINE volunteering. I personally felt that the supervising instructor was an inefficient pedagogical model." Another makes a suggestion: "TESOL students who would like to participate in SHINE should make sure the type of class

they choose matches the course they do service-learning for."

Note further that even if service-learning does not seem to offer greater academic benefit to students than other forms of experiential learning, it has provided the programmatic benefit of giving greater coherence and improved coordination of our experiential learning activities. This project as it now stands satisfies the requirements of excellent service-learning programs described in the literature—real need in the community, student training, appropriate placements, faculty support, and connection to class content. We hope our students will continue to improve general and specific teaching abilities but also become good citizens who desire to truly understand learner needs and collaboratively build solutions that make a significant impact on their communities. We further hope that they might consider incorporating service-learning into their future ESL classrooms, as some of our alumni already do.

Authors

Nathan T. Carr is an assistant professor at California State University, Fullerton in the TESOL Program, part of the Department of Modern Languages and Literatures. He teaches courses on language assessment, curriculum development, applying technology in the classroom, research methods, teaching abroad, and methods for teaching speaking and listening. His research focuses on language assessment, particularly computer-based testing, and the development and validation of language tests.

Janet L. Eyring is chair of the Department of Modern Languages and Literatures and TESOL professor at California State University, Fullerton. She coordinated the Master's in TESOL Program from 1994 to 2003 and has helped to establish her department as an engaged department in service-learning. Her major teaching interests include pedagogical grammar, methods of teaching reading and writing, second language assessment, program design, and the teaching practicum.

Juan Carlos Gallego is associate professor of TESOL and Spanish at California State University, Fullerton. Among other courses, he teaches introduction to TESOL, teaching pronunciation, and the practicum. He is also the program coordinator. His research interests include service-learning, bilingualism, and attitudes toward accent and dialect.

Endnotes

¹ We are grateful to Milly Chan, a student assistant in the Department of Modern Languages and Literatures, for assisting the authors with gathering materials for this review of the literature.

² The authors wish to thank Terry Jones and Michael Birnbaum of the Cal State Fullerton Department of Psychology for their assistance with posting the survey on-line and resolving initial technical difficulties. Of course, any flaws remaining are our own.

³ Traditional (i.e., univariate) analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used for testing whether there are significant differences in the mean scores for 2 or more groups. When the means of more than one variable are compared, it is necessary to use MANOVA instead.

⁴ As the table indicates, the data were relatively normal, with the means and medians close together and relatively small skew and kurtosis values for all variables. Nearly all variables were slightly negatively skewed, meaning there was a slight tendency for answers to be clustered toward the higher end of the scale, except for citizenship and civics, the one average with both a mean and median below the cutoff of 1.75.

⁵ Levene's test for homogeneity of error variances indicated that dependent variable error variances were not significantly different across the two groups. Furthermore, the residuals had essentially normal distributions, with skew and kurtosis values of less than 1.1 in absolute value. It was therefore judged that the assumptions underlying MANOVA were satisfied. Tables showing the complete multivariate (Table A3) and univariate (Table A4) results for the MANOVA,

as well as graphs of the estimated marginal means for the six dependent variables (Figures A1-A6), are included in the Appendix.

⁶ Whether students had a service-learning requirement accounted for 10.5% of the variance (differences in results that arose because different respondents gave different answers to different questions) in citizenship and civics.

⁷ Having a service-learning requirement proved to have a significant overall effect as well—that is, for the 6 dependent variables taken together—although this is likely attributable to the significant result for citizenship and civics. Whether students had a service-learning requirement accounted for 33.1% of the total variance in the 6 dependent variables, taken as a whole. See Table A3.

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Appendix

Table A1
Survey Reliability Estimates

Scale	Alpha
Overall	.977
CURRIC	.924
CSTP	.951
GTP	.951
GTT	.873
CAE	.948
CC	.980

Table A2
Correlations (Pearson r)
Among Scale Averages

	CURRIC	CSTP	GTP	GTT	CAE	CC
CURRIC	1.000					
CSTP	.775**	1.000				
GTP	.688**	.825**	1.000			
GTT	.579**	.704**	.727**	1.000		
CAE	.535**	.668**	.637**	.597**	1.000	
CC	.205	.419**	.354**	.440**	.529**	1.000

Note: Pearson r was used because of the relative normality of the data.

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table A3
Multivariate Tests for
Service-Learning Requirement (SLReq)

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial η^2
Pillai's Trace	.331	2.887	6	35	.022	.331

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial η^2
Wilks' Lambda	.669	2.887	6	35	.022	.331
Hotelling's Trace	.495	2.887	6	35	.022	.331
Roy's Largest Root	.495	2.887	6	35	.022	.331

Table A4
Univariate Analysis of Variance Results

Source	Dependent variable	Type III sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F	Sig.	Partial η^2
SLReq	CURRIC	.141	1	.141	.382	.540	.009
	CSTP	.001	1	.001	.004	.949	.000
	GTP	.995	1	.995	2.167	.149	.051
	GTT	.140	1	.140	.627	.433	.015
	CAE	1.252	1	1.252	2.159	.150	.051
	CC	3.503	1	3.503	4.679	.037	.105
Error	CURRIC	14.723	40	.368			
	CSTP	14.283	40	.357			
	GTP	18.376	40	.459			
	GTT	8.933	40	.223			
	CAE	23.189	40	.580			
	CC	29.950	40	.749			
Corrected total	CURRIC	14.864	41				
	CSTP	14.285	41				
	GTP	19.371	41				
	GTT	9.073	41				
	CAE	24.441	4				
	CC	33.453	41				

Figure A1
Estimated Marginal Means for Curriculum

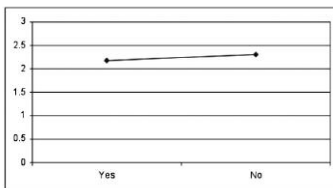


Figure A2
Estimated Marginal Means for Course-Specific Theory and Practice

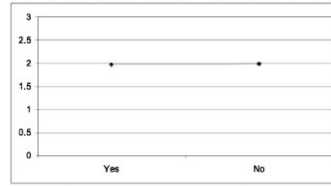


Figure A3
Estimated Marginal Means for General Teaching Practice and Classroom Management

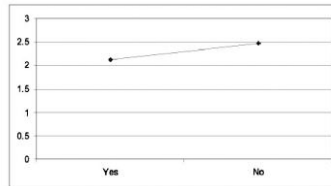


Figure A4
Estimated Marginal Means for General Teaching Theory and SLA

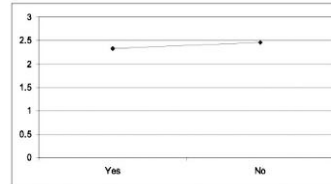


Figure A5
Estimated Marginal Means for Civic Awareness and Engagement

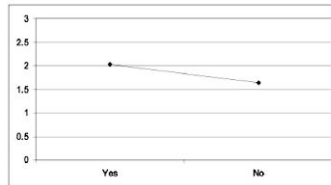


Figure A6
Estimated Marginal Means for Citizenship and Civics

