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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SERVICE LEARNING AND PUBLIC SPEAKING SELF-EFFICACY: TOWARD ENGAGING TODAY'S UNDERGRADUATES

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SERVICE LEARNING AND PUBLIC SPEAKING
SELF-EFFICACY: TOWARD ENGAGING TODAY'S UNDERGRADUATES

DISSERTATION

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in the College of Communications and Information Studies at the
University of Kentucky

By
Jami Leigh Warren

Lexington, Kentucky

Director: Dr. Deanna Sellnow, Professor of Communication

Lexington, Kentucky

2011

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ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SERVICE LEARNING AND PUBLIC SPEAKING SELF-EFFICACY: TOWARD ENGAGING TODAY'S UNDERGRADUATES

This study examined the role service learning might play in increasing students' public speaking self-efficacy in a required public speaking course. By increasing students' public speaking mastery experiences with real world audiences and by providing them with additional feedback from community professionals in the audience, a service learning approach might potentially raise students' perceptions of public speaking self-efficacy beyond what is gained from a public speaking course taught in a traditional way. A repeated measures, quasi-experimental study design with a comparison group was utilized in this study. Participants included 274 students enrolled in service learning public speaking courses and 328 students enrolled in traditionally taught public speaking courses at the University of Kentucky during the fall 2010 semester. Students enrolled in the service learning sections participated in at least 10 hours of service at a local non-profit agency in lieu of classroom "seat time" over the course of the semester and developed their speech assignments around the experiences they had at the agency. First, this study attempted to provide support for a new measure of public speaking self-efficacy. In addition, it examined the relationship between students' public speaking self-efficacy and their public speaking skill, as well as whether students enrolled in the service learning sections experienced different levels of public speaking self-efficacy than their non-service learning counterparts. This study also aimed to discover which sources of self-efficacy are most influential for students in developing their public speaking self-efficacy. Finally, this study compared speech performance ratings (including overall speech performance generally and delivery, structure, and content specifically) of students enrolled in service learning sections and students enrolled in traditional sections. Overall, results provided support for a new public speaking self-efficacy scale. In addition, public speaking self-efficacy and skill were weakly correlated. Next, service-learning and non-service learning students did not differ significantly on measures of public speaking self-efficacy or skill. Finally, mastery experiences seemed to have a larger impact on public speaking self-efficacy for service-learning students than for non-service learning students.

KEYWORDS: Instructional Communication, Service Learning, Self-Efficacy, Public Speaking, Experiential Learning

Jami Leigh Warren

November 22, 2011

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SERVICE LEARNING AND PUBLIC SPEAKING
SELF-EFFICACY: TOWARD ENGAGING TODAY'S UNDERGRADUATES

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November 22, 2011

Dedicated to my family,
for your love and support along the way.

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Chapter One: Statement of the Problem and Rationale

Higher education in America began in the 1600s because settlers believed that education was important. Harvard was the first college created in 1636. From there, the number of colleges and seminaries being established increased drastically (Jencks & Riesman, 1968). Initially, liberal arts was at the center of higher education in America. In the mid-nineteenth century however, colleges specializing in fields such as engineering, agriculture, medicine, and law increased in number across the United States (Jencks & Reisman, 1968). After World War I, the general education movement emerged as a reaction to the increased specialization and fragmentation of universities. General education requirements included courses in natural sciences, social sciences, and the humanities (Jencks & Reisman, 1968). After World War II, Harvard initiated its own attempt at general education by creating a Committee on General Education (Jencks & Reisman, 1968). This committee determined that many general education requirements should be completed by freshmen and sophomore students. As a result, many colleges and universities adopted Harvard's model of general education. Although general education requirements are occasionally reformed at various institutions, Harvard's model has remained largely intact at colleges and universities across the United States. Although small group discussion was emphasized with the rise of general education requirements, lecture-based courses have largely remained the norm (Jencks & Reisman, 1968).

In its current form, many college students across the United States take a basic communication skills course, typically public speaking, as part of their general education requirements. For instance, in a recent survey of communication departments across the

nation, over half of the respondents indicated that the basic communication course was a general education requirement at their college or university (Morreale, Hugenberg, & Worley, 2006). Furthermore, 62.3% of those institutions reported that the basic public speaking course was required. In addition, many students are often required to take a public speaking course as part of their college or major degree requirements. Although developing public speaking skills can serve students well upon entering the workforce, employers continue to report that students are entering the workforce without adequate communication skills (Hart Research Associates, 2009). Therefore, colleges and universities ought to examine whether there is a better way to prepare students for the workforce in terms of communication skills generally and public speaking training specifically.

One potential reason why many of today's college students (16-24 years old) are not gaining necessary communication skills within the typical public speaking classroom may be due, in part, to the fact that they learn differently than college students from previous generations (Coomes & DeBard, 2004; Howe & Strauss, 2007; Taylor, 2010). Today's college students are often referred to as Generation NeXt, Generation Z, or Millennials (Coomes & DeBard, 2004; Howe & Strauss, 2007; Taylor, 2010). Regardless of the label used, some general characteristics appear in all the descriptions of today's college student. For example, many of today's college students typically adopt a consumer and outcome-orientation towards college. In addition, many students are busy with extracurricular activities, are entertainment-oriented, and value instant gratification. As a result, many students today are often intellectually disengaged from traditional lecture-based courses. Furthermore, scholars argue that the traditional lecture format

often relied on in undergraduate education is not productive for optimal student learning (Chickering & Gamson, 1987; Guskin, 1994; Taylor, 2010). Specifically, Taylor (2010) states, “ ‘Old school’ methods, especially the all too common lecture on content to passive learners, are proving less and less successful in bringing students to appropriate learning and developmental outcomes” (p. 192). Similarly, Guskin (1994) suggests, “the primary learning environment for undergraduate students, the fairly passive lecture-discussion format where faculty talk and most students listen, is contrary to almost every principle of optimal settings for student learning” (p. 18).

Students who adopt a consumer and outcome-orientation often “shop” for courses. In other words, they look for courses that provide them with an outcome that will benefit their future career choice. In addition, because many students are so busy with extracurricular activities, they search for courses that will not feel like a waste of their time. They seek to understand how the course content will be relevant to their lives and future careers. Along that same line, many students today value instant gratification. They want to immediately see how their course will benefit them or their future careers. Taylor also suggests, “Helping students see themselves in, and better identify with, future vocational and professional roles can thus connect learning to meaning” (p. 192).

Finally, students who are entertainment-oriented also seek courses that will entertain them. Courses taught in a traditional lecture-based format are often boring and lack the entertainment value that students today seek. Instead of relying on lecture-based teaching methods, scholars suggest that students need to engage with course material, relate it to their experiences, and apply it to their lives (Chickering & Gamson, 1987). Chickering and Gamson state:

Learning is not a spectator sport. Students do not learn much just by sitting in classes listening to teachers, memorizing pre-packaged assignments, and spitting out answers. They must talk about what they are learning, write about it, relate it to past experiences and apply it to their daily lives (p. 5).

Similarly, Taylor suggests that college faculty members improve students' future orientation as well as increase classroom learning activity and engagement. Specifically, he states, "People have known for a long time that college students learn more when they're actively engaged in learning via hands-on practice and other means, but many professors don't want to and don't have to adopt these messages" (p. 194). He goes on to say, "Higher order and lasting learning will never be effectively reached by passive students who spend class time listening to faculty deliver content" (p. 194).

First, Taylor (2010) suggests that college faculty members improve students' future orientation. Because today's college students are consumer and outcome-oriented, Taylor contends that they will become engaged "at the affective level only if they can see a future utility, benefit, or relevance from their learning" (p. 192). In other words, college faculty need to make clear how course content is related to students' future or career goals. For example, in a public speaking classroom, faculty might identify how students will utilize skills such as listening, audience analysis, and persuasion in the "real world" or in their future jobs.

Next, scholars indicate that it is important for college faculty members to increase classroom learning activity and engagement (Coomes & DeBard, 2004; Howe & Strauss, 2007; Taylor, 2010). Furthermore, scholars suggest that college instructors adopt an active model of learning, encouraging students to engage in hands-on activities that apply

the course concepts they are learning (Coomes & DeBard, 2004; Howe & Strauss, 2007; Taylor, 2010). Howe and Strauss (2007) state, “Millenials love group work, cooperative activities like volunteer service, and participation in something larger than the individual” (p. 99). Similarly, Coomes and Debard (2004) suggest, “To promote learning, students need to be engaged and involved” (p. 61). For example, faculty teaching a public speaking course might engage students in examining real-world problems and delivering speeches to real-world audiences and not simply their classroom audience.

Experiential learning strategies (e.g., problem-based learning, service-learning) that connect course content to the “real-world,” have documented success in the classroom. Dewey (1938) was the first to discuss experiential education. He argues traditional education does not provide students with skill development to deal with potential present and future issues. Instead, he suggested that students need hands-on experience or to be engaged in real-life experiences in order to facilitate understanding of course concepts.

Kolb (1984) suggests further that students need to experience four stages of learning in order to learn best. Specifically, he argues that students need to engage in each of the following stages: 1) concrete experience abilities, 2) reflective observation abilities, 3) abstract conceptualization, and 4) active experimentation. In other words, students will learn better when they can focus on factual material regarding a concept, contemplate stories and specific real-life examples that exemplify a concept, examine visual representations of that concept, and engage in activities that assist them with applying that specific concept. Although students are often able to engage in the first three of the aforementioned stages within a traditional classroom, students are often

unable to engage in "active experimentation", or in activities that assist them with applying a specific concept, in those traditional classrooms.

In addition, Eyler (2009) suggests that, "Unless students learn explicitly to recognize when their knowledge might be useful, can recall that knowledge, and know how to apply it, they will fail to transfer what they know; their understanding is incomplete" (pp. 26-27). Eyler explains that experiential learning strategies help students apply what they learn and allow them to transfer their knowledge to other contexts. Students who take courses utilizing experiential learning strategies are better able to apply and transfer their knowledge. As a result, scholars have been experimenting with ways to enhance classroom learning experiences (Ahlfeldt, 2003; Ash, & Clayton, 2004; Eyler & Halteman, 1981; Gullicks, 2006; Steinke & Buresh, 2002; Steinke & Fitch, 2003).

Ahlfeldt (2003) examined learning outcomes among students taking a public speaking course utilizing a problem-based learning approach compared with students taking a public speaking course utilizing a traditional approach. Students in a problem-based learning course examine real-world problems and use the concepts they are learning in class to solve those problems. Students in these classes work in teams throughout the semester in order to collectively solve the problems. Ahlfeldt discovered that students in the problem-based learning course performed better on their public speeches than students in the traditional course, experienced a greater decrease in public speaking anxiety, and were more engaged in course material. Similarly, Ash and Clayton (2004) discussed the component of reflection in service-learning courses and suggest, "Analysis of their (students') experiences in accordance with the reflection framework

supports students in identifying learning, and the AL (articulated learning) process helps them develop and apply or test those learnings in their full complexity” (p. 143).

Essentially, Ash and Clayton point out that students who engage in reflection, a critical part of most experiential learning courses, are more likely to be better able to apply what they have learned. Steinke and Buresh (2002) also suggest that, “participation in service-learning programs that were high quality predicted a more complex understanding of, and solutions to, problems” (p. 9).

Like Ahlfeldt’s (2003) problem-based learning approach, a service-learning approach is one experiential learning strategy that fits within Taylor’s (2010) active model of learning. A service-learning approach not only connects course concepts with students’ future goals but also engages students in hands-on activities that encourage them to apply what they are learning in class. By definition, service-learning is a pedagogical strategy in which students engage in volunteer work that enhances their understanding of course concepts and enables them to make contributions to their communities (Rhodes & Davis, 2001).

More specifically, Eyler and Giles (1999) suggest that the service-learning experience should meet four criteria in order for it to be considered successful. These criteria include (1) personal and interpersonal development, (2) understanding and applying knowledge learned in class, (3) perspective transformation, and (4) a developed sense of citizenship. For example, in a public speaking course, students may serve with a non-profit organization throughout the semester and design their speeches for the course around their experiences with the organizations they are serving. In addition, they may apply the concepts they are learning in class, such as listening and rhetorical strategies, to

the real-world settings that they are participating in. Using this approach allows students in the public speaking course to become engaged with the course material, to see the relevance of the concepts and skills that they are learning in class to a real-world setting, as well as to allow them to make contributions to their communities.

A service-learning approach might also increase students' public speaking self-efficacy by providing students with more self-efficacy relevant information than a traditionally taught course would. Bandura (1986) asserts that students develop self-efficacy from four sources, including mastery experiences and social persuasions from others. Students in a service-learning course deliver their speeches to "real-world" audiences (to community professionals associated with their service site). Therefore, students might develop greater self-efficacy for delivering speeches because they have a more authentic public speaking experience and receive feedback from professionals beyond their course instructor and peers.

Definitions

Service-learning approach to public speaking.

Students enrolled in a public speaking course using a service-learning approach completed at least 10 hours of service at a local non-profit organization in lieu of 10 hours of traditional classroom "seat time." Throughout the course, students' speech assignments were designed around their experiences at their organization. For example, the informative speech assignment in the course required students to inform their classroom audience about some aspect of their organization. Students also completed several short reflection papers throughout the semester in which they applied the concepts they learned in the course to the experiences they had at their organization.

Traditional approach to public speaking.

Students enrolled in a public speaking course using a traditional approach did not complete 10 hours of service at a local organization and were not given time off from class as a result. Students in this course completed the same speech assignments as students in the service-learning course but their speech assignments were on topics of their choice. Finally, students also completed reflection papers in the traditional course but they were asked to apply the concepts they learned in class to their own personal experiences.

Summary

In sum, college students today are entering the workforce without adequate communication skills. One potential reason for this is that many of today's students are disengaged from the typical college classroom and may benefit from experiential learning strategies, such as a service-learning approach, that increase the relevance of course content to their lives. Service-learning is a pedagogical strategy that might not only engage students in course content but also increase their public speaking self-efficacy. According to Bandura (1997), one way to increase students' achievement is by increasing their self-efficacy. The purpose of this dissertation is to examine the potential role of students' public speaking self-efficacy beliefs on their public speaking skills, and the influence a service-learning pedagogy might play in achieving both.

Organization

This dissertation is organized into five chapters. The first chapter provides an explanation and rationale for this study. Chapter two grounds this study in relevant research and proposes research questions. Chapter three details the methods employed to conduct the study and analyses and chapter four describes the results. Finally, chapter

five proposes conclusions and implications, as well as offers suggestions for future research.

Chapter Two: Review of Related Literature

This dissertation is based on the assumption that a service-learning approach to public speaking might increase students' public speaking self-efficacy. Hence, it is important to outline Bandura's (1986) SCT and his conception of self-efficacy.

Therefore, the following review of literature will examine SCT and self-efficacy, as well as literature related to various types of communication self-efficacy and literature related to service-learning and self-efficacy.

Social Cognitive Theory

Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory (SCT) takes a transactional view of the self and society. His model of triadic reciprocal causation indicates that three classes of determinants influence one another bidirectionally. These three classes are personal, behavioral, and environmental factors. *Self-efficacy* is one personal factor included in SCT and is also the concept of most concern in this study. Self-efficacy is simply one's belief in his or her capabilities to execute a specific task. Bandura cautioned that self-efficacy is contextual. In his discussion of the nature and structure of self-efficacy, Bandura (1997) specifically said, "it (self-efficacy theory) treats the efficacy belief system not as an omnibus trait but as a differentiated set of self-beliefs linked to distinct realms of functioning" (p. 36). Furthermore, "Opera stars, for example, may differ in their perceived efficacy to fulfill the vocal, emotive, and theatrical aspects of their artistic craft and to fuse them into dramatic performances" (p. 36). Similarly, simply because students have high self-efficacy for delivering speeches to small audiences does not also mean that they will have high self-efficacy for delivering speeches to large audiences.

Bandura (1997) suggests that the development of self-efficacy stems from four different sources including mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasions, and physiological and affective states. Bandura describes mastery experiences as, “the most influential source of self-efficacy information because they provide the most authentic evidence of whether one can muster whatever it takes to succeed” (p. 80). Mastery experiences occur when people personally engage in the task at hand. In general, self-efficacy is enhanced when people experience success from their experiences. In a review of studies on the sources of self-efficacy, Usher and Pajares (2008) discovered that students’ reported mastery experiences predicted their self-efficacy across a variety of domains. Furthermore, Usher and Pajares state that, “Unlike with any other source, correlations between mastery experience and self-efficacy are significant in every investigation” (p. 772).

It follows that this relationship might hold true for public speaking students. For example, public speaking students acquire mastery experiences in their public speaking courses when they deliver speeches in their classes, or even when they practice their speeches in front of a mirror or for friends or family. When students succeed at delivering a speech in class, their self-efficacy for public speaking will more than likely increase. However, even when people fail, self-efficacy can be enhanced if their self-efficacy is resilient and they continue to try until they succeed at the activity. For example, public speaking students may do poorly on their first public speech assignment but continue to practice and improve and therefore do better on the next speech assignment. In this case, the students will more than likely experience increased public speaking self-efficacy because they realize that they can do well if they expend effort on the assignment.

Vicarious experiences can also provide people with self-efficacy relevant information. People compare their own attainments with the attainments of others and make a judgment about their own abilities. Schunk (1987) reviewed 29 studies on peer modeling in children. He concludes that peers can increase behavior changes in children. Furthermore, he suggests that “Peer models may be especially helpful with students who hold self-doubts about their capabilities for learning or performing well” (p. 170) and that, “Observing similar peers successfully perform a task can raise self-efficacy in students because they may believe that if the peers can learn, they can also improve their skills” (p. 170).

Increased self-efficacy based on vicarious experiences might also be true for public speaking students. Because beginning public speakers often experience public speaking anxiety, students who observe their classmates delivering successful public speeches may experience increased self-efficacy for public speaking. Students in a public speaking course may also have vicarious experiences by watching exemplar videos in class or by observing professionals in the community deliver speeches. Bandura (1997) points out that in order for vicarious experiences to be most effective, people should compare their capabilities to those who have similar attributes.

Next, social persuasions can also increase self-efficacy. Usher and Pajares (2008) suggest that, “Encouragement from parents, teachers, and peers whom students trust can boost students’ confidence in their academic capabilities” (p. 754). Furthermore, Bandura (1997) states that, “People who are persuaded verbally that they possess the capabilities to master given tasks are likely to mobilize greater effort and sustain it than if they harbor self-doubts and dwell on personal deficiencies when difficulties arise” (p.

101). In a public speaking course, social persuasion comes in the form of feedback from instructors and classmates. Students may also receive encouragement from friends or family when they practice their speech prior to delivering it in class.

Finally, physiological and affective states can influence self-efficacy, as well. People often rely on their physiological and emotional states to determine whether they can or cannot do something. Stress reactions such as anxiety, mood states, and bodily states can influence people's self-efficacy. Bandura (1997) suggests that, "Somatic indicators of personal efficacy are especially relevant in domains that involve physical accomplishments, health functioning, and coping with stressors" (p. 106). Furthermore, Usher and Pajares (2008) explain that, "Those who lack confidence in their abilities may falsely interpret their anxiety as a sign of incompetence" and that "such an interpretation can lead to the very failure that students fear" (p. 754). This idea rings true for public speaking students, as well. Because beginning public speakers often experience high public speaking anxiety, they might interpret their anxiety as incompetence and perform poorly on their speech assignments.

Self-efficacy can positively influence achievement in a variety of contexts including math, reading, and writing (Klassen, 2002; McCarthy, Meier, & Rinderer, 1985; Meier, McCarthy, & Schmeck, 1984; Pajares, 2003; Pajares, Johnson, & Miller, 1999; Schunk, 1984). Researchers have also shown that public speaking self-efficacy predicts public speaking achievement (Dwyer & Fus, 1999, 2002). The next section provides a more detailed review of self-efficacy and achievement findings.

Self-Efficacy and Writing Achievement

Research on self-efficacy and writing achievement reveals that self-efficacy can have a positive influence on achievement. More specifically, researchers have discovered that self-efficacy for writing predicts writing achievement in both elementary school students and college students. In a review of meta-analysis of 16 studies examining writing self-efficacy and writing achievement among 6th-10th grade students, Klassen (2002) discovered that the majority of the studies concluded that writing self-efficacy significantly predicted writing achievement. Other researchers have examined writing self-efficacy and achievement in even younger children. For example, Pajares, Johnson, and Miller (1999) examined writing self-beliefs among 363 third, fourth, and fifth grade students. Students in this study were asked to write a 30-minute essay and also to complete the Writing Skills Self-Efficacy Scale along with measures of writing self-concept, writing apprehension, perceived usefulness of writing, self-efficacy for self-regulated learning, and writing aptitude. Pajares and colleagues found that students' self-efficacy made an independent contribution to the prediction of writing performance ($B = .397$). On the other hand, gender, writing apprehension, perceived usefulness, and self-efficacy for self-regulation were not significant. Findings from this study were consistent with SCT but also extended research in this area to explain that the relationship between writing self-efficacy and writing performance begins as early as third grade.

College students' writing self-efficacy also predicts their writing performance. Pajares (2003) recently conducted a review on the relationship between writing self-efficacy and writing outcomes. He suggested that, "Research findings have consistently shown that writing self-efficacy beliefs and writing performances are related" (p. 144).

In addition, Pajares explained that in early self-efficacy studies conducted on college students, “effect sizes for writing self-efficacy in multiple regression models ranged from .32 to .42” (p. 144). For example, Meier, McCarthy, and Schmeck (1984) and McCarthy, Meier, and Rinderer (1985) both assessed essays written by college freshmen and also measured their writing anxiety, locus of control, and cognitive processing of information. Meier and colleagues examined writing self-efficacy, at the beginning and end of the students’ writing course. They discovered that efficacy strength, sex, and race all predicted writing performance at phase one but self-efficacy and race did not predict writing performance at phase two. As the researchers explained, results at phase two could have been nonsignificant because of measurement problems or because students did not perceive the writing task at phase two as important.

Furthermore, in two separate studies conducted by McCarthy, Meier, and Rinderer (1985), writing self-efficacy predicted writing performance among college freshmen. In the first study, only writing self-efficacy significantly predicted writing performance; however, in the second study, both writing self-efficacy and anxiety predicted writing performance. In both studies, students with greater writing self-efficacy were better writers. Writing is one form of communication; therefore, based on the research described above, it would make sense that public speaking self-efficacy would also predict public speaking achievement. As mentioned previously, researchers have also confirmed a positive relationship between public speaking self-efficacy and public speaking achievement. In his review, Pajares also confirmed that more recent studies supported the results from early studies.

Self-Efficacy and Public Speaking Achievement

Some research suggests that public speaking self-efficacy can predict public speaking achievement. First, Dwyer and Fus (1999) investigated the relationship between public speaking self-efficacy and communication apprehension. They also wanted to determine if either construct was predictive of public speaking grade. Participants in their study included 208 undergraduate public speaking students. Dwyer and Fus measured communication apprehension, self-efficacy in class, and class grade. As expected, they found an inverse relationship between communication apprehension and self-efficacy. Although communication apprehension did not predict public speaking course grade, self-efficacy did significantly predict grade ($r = .50$).

In a subsequent study, Dwyer and Fus (2002) investigated the relationship between communication apprehension, public speaking self-efficacy, self-perceived public speaking competence, and course grade. Participants in this study included 304 undergraduate public speaking students. They discovered that students' communication apprehension decreased over the course of the semester, while their self-efficacy and self-perceived public speaking competence increased. Similar to their first study, Dwyer and Fus' (1999) found that only self-efficacy predicted students' final grades ($r = .50$). Dwyer and Fus (1999, 2002) discussed the implications of their results and suggested that it may be important for public speaking instructors to focus more on increasing students' public speaking self-efficacy than to focus solely on reducing communication apprehension.

Although Dwyer and Fus (2002) offered recommendations for increasing students' public speaking self-efficacy, they did not measure whether these strategies

were effective at increasing students' self-efficacy. Therefore, one of the purposes of the current study is to test one potential strategy for increasing students' public speaking self-efficacy. Before taking a closer look at strategies for influencing students' public speaking self-efficacy, it might be helpful to determine components of an effective speech.

Public Speaking and Service-learning

Because researchers have determined that self-efficacy predicts achievement in a variety of contexts, it is important to examine what it means to be an efficacious public speaker. Moreover, researchers have not yet determined strategies for increasing students' public speaking self-efficacy. Therefore, understanding how a service-learning approach might develop students' self-efficacy may prove insightful, as well. The following section details the components of an effective speech and also examines research on service-learning.

Components of an Effective Speech

Discussions of components of an effective speech date back to Ancient Roman philosophers. The first Roman publication on public speaking, *Rhetorica ad Herennium* in 82 B.C., identified five canons of rhetoric that are still important for effective public speaking today. The five canons of rhetoric are often attributed to Cicero and include: 1) invention, 2) arrangement, 3) style, 4) delivery, and 5) memory. First, invention includes the content of one's speech. It not only encompasses the main ideas one discusses in his her speech, but also the evidence and reasoning used to support those ideas. Next, arrangement (often called macrostructure) refers to the organizational structure of a speech. Typically, formal speeches contain four organizational elements, including the

introduction, body, conclusion, and transitions. Style, often called microstructure, refers to the language and style choices that a speaker makes within the macrostructure of the speech. The use of vivid language and clear language in addition to rhetorical devices, such as metaphor and alliteration, are included in this category. Next, delivery includes characteristics of both voice and body, including intelligibility, vocal variety, enthusiasm, appropriate attire, eye contact, and gestures, among others. Finally, in ancient times, memory referred to the memorization of a speech. However, today, memory typically refers to strategies used to make a speech unforgettable or memorable. American public speaking textbooks, such as Sellnow's (2009), *Confident Public Speaking*, discuss guidelines for effective public speaking that are grounded in the five canons of rhetoric. A discussion of these guidelines follows.

According to Sellnow (2009), there are four primary components to an effective speech: content, structure, delivery, and the effective use of presentational aids. Content consists of the main topic of a speech, the main points used to support the main topic, and the evidence used to clarify, explain, or support the main points. For example, a student may choose to deliver his or her speech on "the benefits of exercise," and discuss both the physical and mental health benefits of exercise. He or she might then support those main points with research that suggests that exercise decreases body weight and one's risk for diseases.

Although speech content is important, content must also be structured well in order to have an effective speech. Sellnow (2009) explains that structure is "the framework that organizes the content" (p. 60). Clear structure includes both microstructure and macrostructure. Macrostructure is the general framework for the

content of a speech, including the introduction, body, conclusion, and transitions. In the previous example, a student should introduce the topic and preview his or her main points, the physical and mental benefits of exercise. He or she should make it clear when transitioning between the two main points. For example, the student might say, “although exercise has many physical health benefits, there are also many mental health benefits associated with exercise.” Moreover, microstructure includes the language and style choices one makes to convey ideas in a speech. Sellnow pointed out that language and style choices should be “clear, inclusive, and vivid” (p. 67). For example, when delivering a speech on the benefits of exercise, a student should be clear when explaining the details of how exercise physically affects the human body. In addition, the student should use inclusive language and might say something like, “*we* all want to be free of disease and exercise is one way that *we* can achieve this.”

Speech delivery refers to how a message is presented. In order to deliver an effective speech, both voice and body are important. One should not only try to be intelligible, conversational, and expressive with his or her voice but also to make eye contact with the audience, to use spontaneous gestures and expressions, and to maintain poise. For example, a student discussing the benefits of exercise should emphasize the emotional implications of not exercising, including the likelihood of acquiring harmful diseases. Also, the student should maintain eye contact with the audience at least 90% of the time and ensure that the audience can understand what he or she is saying by speaking loudly and clearly.

Finally, a student should design, incorporate, and explain presentational aids effectively (Sellnow, 2009). This involves designing presentational aids that are clear,

visible, and visually appealing. When speakers incorporate presentational aids, they should conceal their aids both before and after displaying them so that they are not distracting to the audience when they are not being used. Finally, speakers should explicitly refer to and explain their presentational aids to their audiences and not assume the meaning of the presentational aid is automatically understood by their audience

Although these elements of an effective public speech are understood among teachers of public speaking, determining how to develop them in students can be challenging. Consistent with Dwyer and Fus's (1999, 2002) recommendations, increasing students' public speaking self-efficacy could be one way to develop their public speaking skills. Although self-efficacy relevant information is present in a traditionally taught public speaking course, a service-learning approach could conceivably provide students with experiences that garner more self-efficacy relevant information. For instance, when service-learning students deliver speeches to real-world audiences, they may have a more authentic speaking experience than traditional students who deliver speeches to classroom audiences. In turn, an authentic speaking experience may boost self-efficacy beyond what a traditional classroom speaking experience would.

Public Speaking Self-Efficacy and Service-Learning

Although instructors can manipulate the sources of self-efficacy described above in several ways, a service-learning approach within the classroom could serve as one method for doing so. Service-learning approaches in the classroom have increased on college campuses across the country during the last decade, especially among communication departments (e.g., Oster-Aaland, Sellnow, Nelson, & Pearson, 2004). Moreover, many researchers advocate for the use of a service-learning approach within

the public speaking classroom (e.g., Martinez, 2004; Palmer & Standerfer, 2004).

According to Staton and Tomlinson (2001), a service-learning approach allows students to "apply what they are learning from their instructors, peers, and readings to genuine tasks that occur outside the four walls of a classroom while simultaneously helping others" (p. 211).

Students can benefit from a service-learning approach in a variety of ways. For instance, this approach can foster, higher order thinking (Eyler & Giles, 1999), empathy (Lundy, 2007), cultural awareness (Bloom, 2008; Borden, 2007; Gutheil, Chernesky, & Sherratt, 2006), and personal and interpersonal skills (Gullicks, 2006). For example, Gullicks examined how students felt about a service requirement in a public speaking course. She concluded that students experienced positive affect in terms of increased personal and interpersonal development. At the end of the semester, her students expressed personal satisfaction as a result of completing their service requirement. As a result, she suggested:

Enthusiastically encouraging others to experience required service-learning as valuable and worthwhile action communicates strongly that many students find required service personally meaningful and are willing to use their own experience as a testimony to that meaning. (p. 141)

Furthermore, a service-learning approach can increase motivation to engage in intellectual exchange and action regarding social issues (Lee, Olszewski-Kubilius, Donahue, & Weimholt, 2008), to study (Flournoy, 2007), to develop life skills (Astin & Sax, 1998), to seek out opportunities for responsible civic engagement (Astin & Sax, 1998; Einfeld & Collins, 2008; Gullicks, 2006; Lee, et al., 2008; Prentice, 2007; Simons

& Cleary, 2006), and to achieve specific curricular learning outcomes (Novak, Markey, & Allen, 2007). For example, Simons and Cleary (2006) discovered that students involved in an undergraduate service-learning psychology course experienced significantly higher levels of community engagement between pre and post-test. Furthermore, they concluded, “Service-learning not only contributes to community relationships and engagement, but it also provides students with an opportunity to observe the benefits of helping others” (p. 316). Furthermore, Novak, Markey, and Allen conducted a meta-analysis examining the influence of service-learning on student learning outcomes. They concluded:

The results provide evidence that community service-learning improves academic understanding of subject matter, skills learned, and ability to apply knowledge and reframe complex issues. The results of the investigations indicate that service-learning consistently provides improvement in these desired outcomes when compared to programs or courses without such service-learning opportunities (p. 153).

In addition, researchers have found that service-learning can also influence self-efficacy in a variety of contexts, including teaching self-efficacy (Cone, 2009; Root, Callahan, & Sepanski, 2002), counselor self-efficacy (Barbee, Scherer, & Combs, 2003), community service self-efficacy (Simons & Cleary, 2006; Stewart, 2008), and creativity self-efficacy (Tan, 2008). These findings are particularly interesting for this study since its focus is on the role that service-learning pedagogy might play in developing self-efficacy.

First, both Cone (2009) and Root, Callahan, and Sepanski (2002) examined pre-service teachers' teaching self-efficacy but in different contexts. For example, Cone investigated the effects of service-learning on 48 pre-service elementary teachers' self-efficacy about equitable science teaching and learning. Pre-service teachers were enrolled in one of two sections of an elementary science methods course. One section was taught with a service-learning component and one was not. Pre-service teachers involved in the service-learning course worked directly with underserved students at the neighborhood community center. Participants completed a pre and post-test measuring self-efficacy beliefs using the Self-Efficacy Beliefs about Equitable Science Teaching and Learning scale (SEBEST). Pre-service teachers enrolled in both science courses experienced gains in self-efficacy; however, teachers involved in the service-learning course experienced greater gains in self-efficacy for equitable science teaching than those teachers involved in the non-service-learning course.

Similarly, Root, Callahan, and Sepanski (2002) also examined pre-service teachers' teaching self-efficacy. Root and colleagues hypothesized that involvement in service-learning would be associated with increases in both general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy. Of the 442 education students that participated in this study, 89% of the participants had participated in some type of service project. Root and colleagues measured teaching self-efficacy using two subscales: General Teaching Efficacy (GTE) and Personal Teaching Efficacy (PTE). Their results did not find significant differences between those who participated in service-learning and GTE or PTE between pre and post-tests.

Stewart (2008) and Simons and Cleary (2006) both investigated the influence of service-learning on community service self-efficacy. Stewart conducted his study with 119 college freshman involved in an honors symposium to determine the influence of students' participation in a mandatory service-learning project on their community service self-efficacy. Students in this study completed 15 hours of service with the Junior Achievement Program as part of their course requirements. Community service self-efficacy was conceptualized in this study as students' confidence in their ability to make significant contributions to the community through service. Students' community service self-efficacy was assessed using the Community Service Self-Efficacy Scale (CSSES) at pre and post-test. Stewart's results showed that students experienced a significant increase in their community service self-efficacy between pre and post-test.

Simons and Cleary (2002) discovered similar results. They were also concerned with the influence that service-learning had on students' community service self-efficacy. Undergraduate psychology students participated in their study ($n = 142$). Of those students, all participated in some type of service project as part of their course requirements. Some of the students served at an elementary school, while others served at an after school program or learning program. Similar to Stewart's (2008) study, Simons and Cleary compared service-learning students' community service self-efficacy at pre and post-test. They also assessed community service self-efficacy using the CSSES and like Stewart, found that students experienced significant gains in self-efficacy between pre and post-test.

Researchers have also examined the influence of service-learning on counselor self-efficacy. For example, Barbee, Scherer, and Combs' (2003) investigated the

influence of service-learning on 113 pre-practicum counseling students' counselor self-efficacy, 77 of whom were enrolled in a counseling program at a university that utilized pre-practicum service-learning. However, only 39 of those students enrolled at that university actually participated in service-learning. Of the 113 total students, 36 were enrolled at a university that did not utilize service-learning in its program. Barbee and colleagues compared those students involved in service-learning with those who were not involved. All of the students completed the Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (CSES) and results suggested a positive and significant relationship between service-learning and counselor self-efficacy.

Service-learning can also positively influence creativity self-efficacy. Tan (2008) was interested in the relationship between creativity self-efficacy among high school students (N = 279) in Singapore before and after completing a three- to five-day international service-learning program. Tan's findings indicated a positive relationship between service-learning and creativity self-efficacy.

These studies provide evidence that service-learning can increase self-efficacy in a variety of contexts. Perhaps a service-learning approach within a public speaking classroom could also potentially positively influence students' public speaking self-efficacy. A service-learning approach might provide students with a more authentic public speaking experience because students are delivering speeches to real-world audiences and receiving feedback from those audiences. Therefore, students in a service-learning public speaking course might have heightened mastery experiences or experience social persuasions beyond what a typical public speaking course might

provide. In turn, students in a service-learning course might experience greater public speaking self-efficacy.

Although little research has examined the influence of a service-learning approach on public speaking self-efficacy, Tucker and McCarthy (2001) recently provided evidence that supported a positive relationship between the two. Specifically, they hypothesized that students participating in a service-learning project would exhibit higher levels of presentation self-efficacy than students not participating in service-learning, and that the increase in presentation self-efficacy would be generalizable to other types of audiences (outside of their peers in the classroom). Furthermore, they hypothesized that pre-test self-efficacy would interact with the service-learning intervention such that among students with low pre-test self-efficacy, those who participated in service-learning would develop higher levels of presentation self-efficacy.

Participants in Tucker and McCarthy's (2001) study included 127 undergraduates enrolled in business courses. Of the 127 participants, 57 were enrolled in the service-learning classes. Students enrolled in the service-learning classes participated in a Junior Achievement Project that allowed them to present business concepts to elementary school students throughout the semester. All participants completed a pre and post-test survey measuring their self-efficacy for presenting 13 different business concepts to various audiences including children, peers, and adults. Students in the service-learning classes experienced significant increases in presentation self-efficacy. In addition, they found that service-learning students with low pre-test presentation self-efficacy experienced significantly greater gains in self-efficacy at post-test than their non-service-learning counterparts. Tucker and McCarthy concluded that service-learning approaches in the

classroom can have a positive influence on presentation self-efficacy, especially among those with low presentation self-efficacy.

Although Tucker and McCarthy's (2001) conclusions are important to this present study, they also discuss limitations, including the fact that their findings are based solely on self-report data. They suggest that future research should not only examine students' self-reported self-efficacy but also students' presentation grades. Tucker and McCarthy's recommendations regarding the evaluation of students' presentations make sense.

Although existing research reports a variety of benefits from employing service-learning, relatively little research has been conducted that compares public speaking *skills* among service-learning and non-service-learning students. Furthermore, although Tucker and McCarthy indicate that they manipulated mastery and modeling experiences within their study, they did not measure the level of influence either one had on students' self-efficacy. Therefore, the current study proposes the following research questions:

RQ1: What are the psychometric properties associated with a new public speaking self-efficacy scale?

RQ2: What is the relationship between students' self-reported public speaking self-efficacy and their public speaking skills?

RQ3: Do service-learning students enrolled in a service-learning public speaking course experience different levels of public speaking self-efficacy than non-service-learning students?

RQ4: Do service-learning students experience different levels of public speaking skill (in terms of overall speech, content, structure, and delivery) than non-service-learning students?

RQ5: Which sources of self-efficacy (mastery, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, or physiological/affective states) are most influential for *the entire sample* in developing their public speaking self-efficacy?

RQ5a: Which sources of self-efficacy (mastery, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, or physiological/affective states) are most influential for *service-learning students* in developing their public speaking self-efficacy?

RQ5b: Which sources of self-efficacy (mastery, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, or physiological/affective states) are most influential for *non-service-learning students* in developing their public speaking self-efficacy?

Chapter Three: Methods

This chapter describes the sample and procedures used to answer each of the research questions proposed for this study. In addition, this chapter explains the measures used to gather data for this study, as well as the ways in which the data were analyzed.

Participants

Approximately 602 university students enrolled in public speaking courses at the University of Kentucky during the fall 2010 semester participated in this study. Of those students, approximately 274 participated in service-learning courses and 328 participated in traditionally taught courses. About 54% of the students were female and 46% were male. Students enrolled in the public speaking courses ranged in age from 18 to more than 26 years old. Approximately 71% of the students were 18 or 19 years old and 19% were 20-21 years old. Approximately 6% were 22-25 years old and the remaining 4% indicated being 26 years of age or older. Similarly, approximately 80% of the students were first or second-year students while the remaining 20% reported being in their third or fourth-year or as “other.” Students in this study came from a variety of majors, ranging from engineering to health sciences.

Procedures

A repeated measures, quasi-experimental study design with a comparison group was utilized in this study. The condition variable for this experiment was related to the type of course the students enrolled in. The treatment group included students enrolled in service-learning public speaking courses whereas the comparison group included students enrolled in traditionally taught courses. Both groups were determined equivalent at time one because they did not differ significantly on pre-test measures of public speaking self-

efficacy or knowledge of public speaking course concepts. This study is quasi-experimental because students were already enrolled in the public speaking courses based on self-selection and were not randomized into the courses.

Service-learning courses were offered on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays whereas non-service-learning courses were offered on Tuesdays and Thursdays. Although the registrar's office labeled the service-learning courses as "service-learning," students did not often realize they were enrolling in a service-learning course until the first day of classes. Instructors asked students on the first day of classes whether they were aware they enrolled in a service-learning course. In each course, only a handful of students raised their hands to indicate they realized they had enrolled in a service-learning course. Students who participated in the service-learning courses were given one class period per week off to compensate them for their hours spent engaged in service outside of class.

Students enrolled in 13 service-learning public speaking courses at UK ($n = 274$) were compared with students enrolled in 23 traditionally taught public speaking courses at UK ($n = 328$). Gullicks (2006) found that a 10-hour service requirement provided a more effective experience that engaged students in all of the four service-learning outcomes outlined by Eyler and Giles (1999) including, a) personal and interpersonal development, b) understanding and application of knowledge learned in class, c) perspective transformation, and d) a developed sense of citizenship. Therefore, students enrolled in the service-learning courses in this study participated in a 10-hour service requirement at one of several local service locations (see Appendix A for list of

organizations), one hour per week over a 10-week period. Students enrolled in the traditional courses did not participate in this 10-hour requirement.

Students enrolled in both course types were placed in teams with three or four of their classmates. Team members in the service-learning courses visited the same service location approximately 10 times throughout the entire semester. Service-learning teams were selected based on the students' choice of service location. On the first day of class, students were asked to complete a rating sheet that included five different possible service-learning locations. Students rated their first choice of organization through their last choice of organization and returned the sheet to their instructors. From there, instructors selected service-learning teams based on students' choices. Instructors tried to provide students with either their first or second choice of service-learning location. During the third week of classes, students attended an orientation day with their organization representatives in order to learn more about their organization and the types of services they would be providing to their organization throughout the semester.

On the first day of classes, students in both the service and non-service-learning courses were asked to complete a web-based pre-test questionnaire assessing public speaking self-efficacy and sources of public speaking self-efficacy, along with a couple of measures not central to this study.

Throughout the semester, students in both the service and non-service-learning courses completed a series of speeches, one of which was used for analysis in this study. This speech is an actuation persuasive speech symposium focused on a real problem or issue in the world today. Teams in the service-learning courses presented their group symposium actuation speeches about a problem associated with their service location and

provided potential solutions to solve that problem. Those in the service-learning courses presented their symposium speeches not only to their instructor and classmates but also to representatives from their service organizations. The service-learning students did not deliver their speech on two different occasions; the representatives from the service organizations were in the classroom during the students' speeches. Both the service-learning and non-service learning students delivered their speeches only once. Those involved in the non-service-learning courses delivered group speeches to an audience comprised only of their instructor and classmates. Also, although these groups also identified and analyzed a generic social problem or issue, the problem or issue was not related to any service experience.

At the end of the semester, students in both courses were asked to complete a web-based post-test questionnaire assessing public speaking self-efficacy and sources of public speaking self-efficacy. The web-based pre and post-tests were created using Qualtrics, a web-based survey program. A manipulation check was included on the post-test to ensure that students in the service-learning group actually completed service-learning. This question was asked of both groups of students and asked students to identify how many of hours of service they completed as part of their public speaking course. Public speaking scholars have used similar methods in the past to test new pedagogical strategies in the classroom (Ahlfeldt, 2003).

Measures

Public speaking skill.

Public speaking skill is conceptualized in this study as the degree of competence with which students deliver their actuation group public speeches in class along three primary components including content, structure, and delivery. In order to operationalize

public speaking competence, students' grades on the speeches were gathered from instructors and entered into SPSS along with their Qualtrics data (see Appendix B for grading rubric). Students' grades were then converted to a standard percentage score. Using students' grades provided an authentic evaluation of the students' public speaking skill and eliminated the bias that coding the speeches might have introduced.

Public speaking self-efficacy.

Although previous researchers have used the Self-Efficacy in Class scale to examine public speaking self-efficacy (Dwyer & Fus, 1999, 2002), there is not a public speaking self-efficacy scale that specifically measures students' confidence for developing effective content, structure, and delivery. Because Bandura (1997) emphasized the importance of developing self-efficacy scales that are context-specific, a new public speaking self-efficacy scale was developed for the purposes of this study. Initially, 34 items were written by the researcher to represent public speaking self-efficacy related to developing effective content, structure, and delivery, as well as self-efficacy for delivering speeches to diverse audiences. Sellnow's (2009) components of an effective speech were used to develop items for the public speaking self-efficacy scale. For example, Sellnow suggested that students should maintain eye contact with their audience 90% of the time when delivering an effective speech. Therefore, the following item was created to tap that skill: "I can maintain eye contact with my audience at least 90% of the time while delivering my speech" (see Appendix C for list of initial items). Finally, participants rated items on this scale from 1, definitely false, to 6, definitely true. The final public speaking self-efficacy scale resulted in 19-items (for details on analyses, refer to RQ 1 in the results chapter).

Sources of self-efficacy.

The sources of self-efficacy will be measured using an adapted version of Usher and Pajares' (2009) Sources of Self-Efficacy in Mathematics scale. Usher and Pajares' 24-item, Likert-type scale included four subscales, including mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasions, and physiological/affective states. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the four subscales ranged from .84 to .88. Item wording was adjusted to relate to public speaking. For example, an item designed to tap mastery experience was, "I make excellent grades on speech assignments." Next, an item designed to measure vicarious experience was, "Seeing my classmates do well on speeches made me feel like I can do better." In addition, an item designed to measure social persuasion was, "My public speaking teacher has told me that I am a good speaker." Finally, an example item designed to measure physiological/affective states was, "Just being in public speaking class makes me feel nervous."

Five items were added to Usher and Pajares' original scale to include items related to public speaking that were not reflected in the original scale, resulting in a 29-item sources of public speaking self-efficacy scale. For example, the following item was added to examine vicarious experiences specifically related to public speaking, "When my teacher shows an example speech video in class, I can picture myself delivering the speech in the same way" (see Appendix C for list of initial items). In total, seven total items were included on both the initial mastery experiences and vicarious experiences subscales. Six items were included on the initial social persuasion subscale and nine items were included on the physiological/affective states initial subscale.

When this scale was examined at the analysis phase, the scale did not factor cleanly into four sub-dimensions as expected. Because the researcher was most

interested in the influence of each sub-dimension of the sources of self-efficacy scale, Bandura's (1986) theory was used to guide the factor analysis. Each sub-dimension of the scale loaded on one factor. These four uni-dimensional subscales were used for the remaining analyses. This final scale included 26 items. More specifically, the mastery experiences subscale included five items ($\alpha = .863$). The vicarious experiences and social persuasions subscales both included six items ($\alpha = .824$ and $.911$, respectively). Finally, the physiological/affective states subscale included nine items ($\alpha = .929$).

Data Analyses

All survey data was downloaded from Qualtrics into SPSS, version 18. In order to clean the data, frequencies were calculated for all variables to ensure that values were within the acceptable range. Initially, the dataset included 647 participants. However, participants with overwhelmingly incomplete data were discarded from the dataset. In other words, participants that did not answer a majority of the survey questions were discarded so that they would not bias the data. In addition, participants who spent less than five minutes completing the surveys were also deleted from the dataset because it would be impossible for students to complete the surveys in this short amount of time and these data might bias the overall dataset. The resulting dataset included 602 participants. Cronbach's coefficient alphas were calculated for each of the survey measures discussed above to ensure that reliabilities for all scales were greater than .70. As mentioned previously, public speaking skill was operationalized by comparing service-learning students' and non-service-learning students' speech grades. Students' actuation speech grade sheets were gathered from all service-learning and non-service-

learning instructors. Each student's overall speech grade was entered into SPSS along with the rest of his or her Qualtrics data and then converted to standard percentage scores.

Analyses were consistent with the research questions asked. To answer RQ1, exploratory factor analyses and reliability analyses were conducted to determine the psychometric properties and factor structure of the new public speaking self-efficacy scale. To answer RQ2, a bivariate correlation was calculated using Pearson's product moment correlation to determine the relationship between students' self-reported public speaking self-efficacy and their public speaking skills as well as the relationship between the sources of self-efficacy and students' public speaking self-efficacy. Independent samples t-tests were calculated to answer RQ3 and RQ4. Finally, multiple regression analyses were calculated to answer RQ5, 5a, and 5b.

Summary

This chapter described the participants used in the sample and the procedures used to collect data. This chapter also detailed the measures and types of data analyses used to answer the research questions proposed for this study.

Chapter Four: Results

This section provides results of the data analyses associated with each of the research questions. Specifically, this section reports on the psychometric properties of a new public speaking self-efficacy scale (RQ1) as well as the relationship between students' public speaking self-efficacy and their public speaking skill (RQ2). In addition, this section specifically compares service-learning students and non-service-learning students with regard to their public speaking self-efficacy (RQ3) and their public speaking skill (RQ4). Finally, this section details results associated with which sources of self-efficacy that are most influence public speaking self-efficacy for all students in the sample (RQ5), solely service-learning students (RQ5a) and solely non-service-learning students (RQ5b). First, a descriptive table is provided below for all composite variables (see Table 1).

Table 1. *Descriptive Table for All Composite Variables*

	N	Min.	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Public Speaking Self-Efficacy	510	.95	5.7	4.75	.61
Public Speaking Skill	287	.48	1.0	.86	.09
Mastery Experiences	533	1.0	6.0	4.48	.81
Vicarious Experiences	533	1.0	6.0	4.40	.75
Social Persuasions	533	1.0	6.0	3.92	1.04
Physiological/Affective States	533	1.0	6.0	3.47	1.07

Pearson correlations were also examined for all composite variables (see Table 2).

Table 2. *Correlation Matrix for All Variables*

	P.S. Self-Efficacy	P.S. Skill	Mastery Experiences	Vicarious Experiences	Social Persuasions	Phys./Affective States
Public Speaking Self-Efficacy	Pearson's r 1					
Public Speaking Skill	Pearson's r .191**	1				
Mastery Experiences	Pearson's r .644**	.317**	1			
Vicarious Experiences	Pearson's r .475**	.100	.578**	1		
Social Persuasions	Pearson's r .474**	.163**	.665**	.555**	1	
Physiological/Affective States	Pearson's r -.295**	-.183**	-.141**	.026	-.116**	1

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

Research Question 1

Scale development.

Initially, 34 items were written to capture students' confidence in their abilities to present an effective public speech, in terms of effective content, structure, delivery, and audience (see Appendix C for initial list of items). This list of items was then transformed into six-point Likert-type items (see Table 3 for initial factor structure).

Table 3. *Factor Structure for Initial 34-item Public Speaking Self-Efficacy Scale.*

	Factors		
	1	2	3
1. I can make it clear that I am a credible speaker during my speech.	.854	-.082	-.145
2. I can present an effective speech to my teacher.	.852	-.067	-.163
3. I can present an effective speech to my classroom audience.	.848	-.021	-.257
4. I can use a variety of evidence to support my ideas.	.841	-.214	.137
5. I can explain the evidence I am using to support my ideas.	.840	-.080	-.168
6. I can end my speech with a conclusion that reviews my main ideas.	.835	-.293	.023
7. I can properly explain my visual aid.	.830	-.131	.001
8. I can fully support my main ideas with evidence.	.824	-.252	.031
9. I can deliver an organized speech.	.811	-.112	-.295
10. I can clearly define any technical terms so that my audience can understand what I mean.	.810	-.057	-.157
11. I can appropriately cite my sources orally in my speech.	.808	-.145	-.026
12. I can construct an effective visual aid for my speech.	.796	-.143	-.031
13. I can raise or lower my voice to make my speech more effective.	.793	.229	.174
14. I can include an introductory statement that summarizes the main idea of my speech.	.791	-.295	.127
15. I can maintain good posture during my speech.	.786	.165	-.304
16. During my speech, I can conceal my visual aid before and after I use it.	.782	-.047	-.075
17. I can grab the audience's attention at the beginning of my speech.	.781	-.100	.259
18. I can speak so that others can understand me.	.778	-.134	-.265
19. I can present an effective speech to my friends.	.777	-.065	.118
20. I can use gestures effectively during my speech.	.775	.091	.315
21. I can use vivid language during my speech.	.773	.070	.202
22. I can present an effective speech to an audience of professional community members.	.773	.125	.053
23. I can use facial expressions effectively during my speech.	.767	.166	.292
24. I can use creative transitions between the main ideas in my speech.	.765	.131	.104
25. I can present an effective speech to my family members.	.753	-.148	.058
26. I can use emotion to make my speech better.	.751	-.031	.391
27. I can make eye contact with each person in my audience.	.749	.202	.154
28. I can stay within the time limits assigned for my speech.	.725	-.117	.099
29. I can limit the content of my speech to two to four main points.	.720	-.205	-.141
30. I can stop myself from fidgeting during my speech.	.672	.406	-.269
31. I can stop myself from rocking back and forth during my speech.	.665	.277	-.345
32. I can maintain eye contact with my audience at least 90% of the time while delivering my speech.	.665	.367	.200
33. I can avoid using vocalized pauses such as "um" and "like" while delivering my speech.	.583	.474	-.187
34. I can deliver my speech without using my notes.	.504	.601	.124

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Results.

Regarding the psychometric properties of the public speaking self-efficacy scale, exploratory factor analyses resulted in a 19-item, uni-dimensional scale (see Table 4). The 19-item scale was further examined to ensure that the items well-represented the various aspects of public speaking self-efficacy (including content, structure, delivery, and audience). Finally, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was high ($\alpha = .968$). The final 19-item public speaking self-efficacy scale explained approximately 65% of the variance. This 19-item scale was used for the remaining analyses in this study.

Table 4 *Descriptives and Factor Loadings for Final 19-item Public Speaking Self-Efficacy Scale*

Item	M	SD	Factor Loading
I can present an effective speech to my classroom audience. (PSSE_3)	5.08	.775	.879
I can present an effective speech to my teacher. (PSSE_15)	5.08	.767	.869
I can make it clear that I am a credible speaker during my speech. (PSSE_23)	4.99	.778	.858
I can deliver an organized speech. (PSSE_2)	5.10	.773	.849
I can end my speech with a conclusion that reviews my main ideas. (PSSE_33)	5.12	.732	.844
I can fully support my main ideas with evidence. (PSSE_11)	5.07	.758	.829
I can properly explain my visual aid. (PSSE_29)	5.10	.718	.825
I can clearly define any technical terms so that my audience can understand what I mean. (PSSE_18)	5.00	.756	.815
I can speak so that others can understand me. (PSSE_1)	5.10	.789	.814
I can maintain good posture during my speech. (PSSE_4)	4.95	.839	.810
I can grab the audience's attention at the beginning of my speech. (PSSE_10)	4.94	.857	.787
During my speech, I can conceal my visual aid before and after I use it. (PSSE_26)	5.08	.780	.787
I can raise or lower my voice to make my speech more effective. (PSSE_17)	4.86	.902	.781
I can present an effective speech to an audience of professional community members. (PSSE_9)	4.85	.809	.777
I can use vivid language during my speech. (PSSE_8)	4.89	.806	.774
I can use creative transitions between the main ideas in my speech. (PSSE_28)	4.88	.849	.768
I can use emotion to make my speech better. (PSSE_12)	4.88	.921	.756
I can limit the content of my speech to two to four main points. (PSSE_6)	5.14	.741	.739
I can stop myself from fidgeting during my speech. (PSSE_27)	4.77	.925	.669
Eigenvalue = 12.25; Percent of variance explained= 64.49; α = .968			

Based on these results, it seems that the new 19-item public speaking self-efficacy scale is a reliable one that could be used in future studies examining this construct.

Research Question 2

Research question two speculated about the relationship between students' self-reported public speaking self-efficacy and their public speaking skill. The bivariate correlation revealed that students' self-reported public speaking self-efficacy was positively related to their public speaking skill ($r = .19, p < .001$). This result is consistent with research on other types of self-efficacy and their relationship with actual performance or competence.

Research Question 3

Research question three was asked to determine whether public speaking students enrolled in a service-learning course experiences greater public speaking self-efficacy than students enrolled in a traditional course. While service-learning students experienced slightly higher public speaking self-efficacy ($M = 4.81, SD = .63$) than non-service-learning students ($M = 4.71, SD = .62$), the difference was not significant, $t(416) = 1.63, p = .10$). In other words, engaging in service-learning did not significantly improve or negatively influence public speaking self-efficacy.

Research Question 4

Similarly, research question four was asked to determine whether service-learning students rated higher on public speaking skill measures than non-service-learning students. Results from an independent samples t-test determined that there was not a significant difference in speech scores between service-learning ($M = .86, SD = .095$) and

non-service-learning students ($M = .86$, $SD = .08$), $t(228) = -.59$, $p > .05$. In sum, engaging in service-learning did not improve or negatively influence grades.

Research Question 5

Research question five speculated about which sources of self-efficacy were most influential for the development of students' public speaking self-efficacy. Upon examination of bivariate correlations, sources of self-efficacy (including mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, and social persuasions), with the exception of physiological/affective states were positively related to public speaking self-efficacy {mastery experiences ($r = .64$); vicarious experiences ($r = .48$), social persuasions ($r = .47$)}. Physiological/affective states was negatively correlated with public speaking self-efficacy ($r = -.30$).

After conducting a multiple regression analysis, mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, and physiological/affective states significantly predicted public speaking self-efficacy $\{F(4, 498) = 116.117, p = .000; Adjusted R^2 = .478\}$. Mastery experiences $\{t = 10.74, p = .000; B = .498\}$, vicarious experiences $\{t = 4.65, p = .000; B = .192\}$, and physiological/affective states $\{t = -6.95, p = .000; B = -.229\}$ were significant, while social persuasions $\{t = .112, p > .05; B = .005\}$ did not remain in the regression model (see Tables 5 & 6). In fact, when social persuasions was removed from the regression model, the amount of variance explained increased $\{F(3, 499) = 155.125, p = .000, Adjusted R^2 = .479\}$ (see Figure 1).

Table 5 *Initial Regression Model Containing All Predictors of Public Speaking Self-Efficacy*

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.805	.148		18.887	.000
	Mastery Experiences	.374	.035	.498	10.744	.000
	Vicarious Experiences	.160	.034	.192	4.649	.000
	Social Persuasions	.003	.027	.005	.112	.911
	Physiological/ Affective States	-.131	.019	-.229	-6.958	.000

Dependent Variable: Public Speaking Self-Efficacy

Note: *Adj. R*² = .478

Table 6 *Final Regression Model of Public Speaking Self-Efficacy*

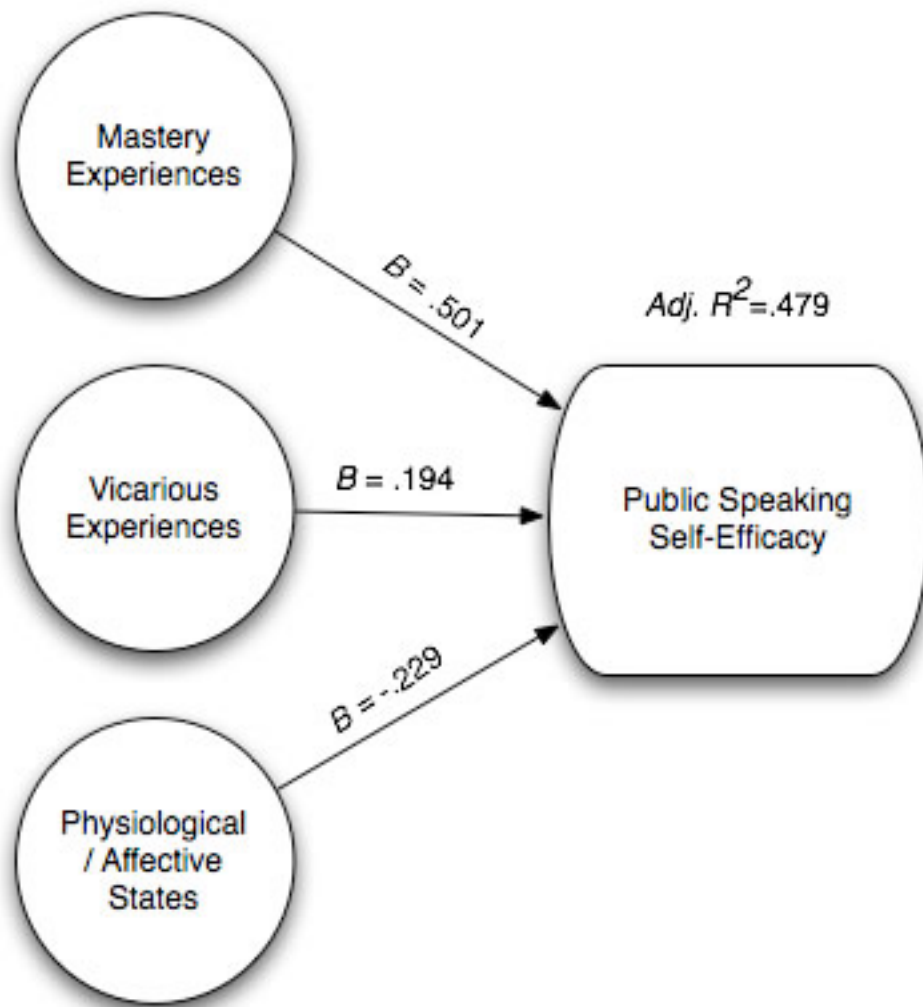
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.803	.148		18.972	.000
	Mastery Experiences	.376	.030	.501	12.523	.000
	Vicarious Experiences	.161	.033	.194	4.889	.000
	Physiological/ Affective States	-.131	.019	-.229	-6.993	.000

Dependent Variable: Public Speaking Self-Efficacy

Note: *Adj. R*² = .479

Although mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, and physiological/affective states all influenced the development of students' public speaking self-efficacy, mastery experiences was the most influential source of public speaking self-efficacy for students.

Figure 1. *Primary Predictors of Aggregate Level Public Speaking Self-Efficacy*



Research Question 5a

In order to determine which sources of self-efficacy were most influential in developing service-learning students' public speaking self-efficacy, multiple regression analyses revealed that mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, and physiological/affective states significantly predicted public speaking self-efficacy $\{F(3, 189) = 71.489, p = .000, Adjusted R^2 = .528\}$ (see Figure 2). Mastery experiences $\{t = 9.51, p = .000; B = .547\}$, vicarious experiences $\{t = 3.48, p = .000; B = .192\}$, and physiological/affective states $\{t = -3.99, p = .000; B = -.209\}$ were significant (see Table 7).

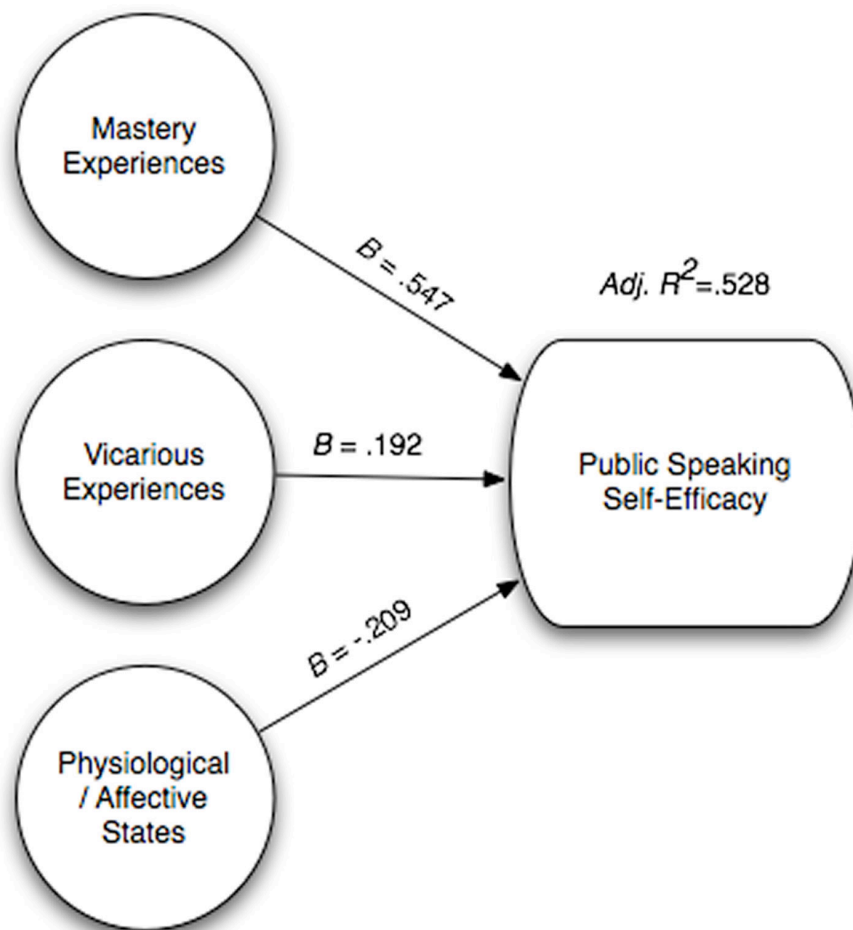
Table 7 *Final Regression Model of Public Speaking Self-Efficacy By Type of Course*

Type of course	Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta			
Service-learning	1	(Constant)	2.444	.268		9.130	.000
		Mastery Experiences	.434	.046	.547	9.508	.000
		Vicarious Experiences	.169	.049	.192	3.475	.001
		Physiological/Affective States	-.119	.030	-.209	-3.995	.000
Non-Service Learning	1	(Constant)	2.682	.208		12.868	.000
		Mastery Experiences	.333	.048	.459	6.929	.000
		Vicarious Experiences	.210	.054	.256	3.855	.000
		Physiological/Affective States	-.098	.029	-.172	-3.442	.001

Dependent Variable: Public Speaking Self-Efficacy

Note: Service-learning- $Adj R^2 = .528$; Non-Service-learning- $Adj. R^2 = .450$

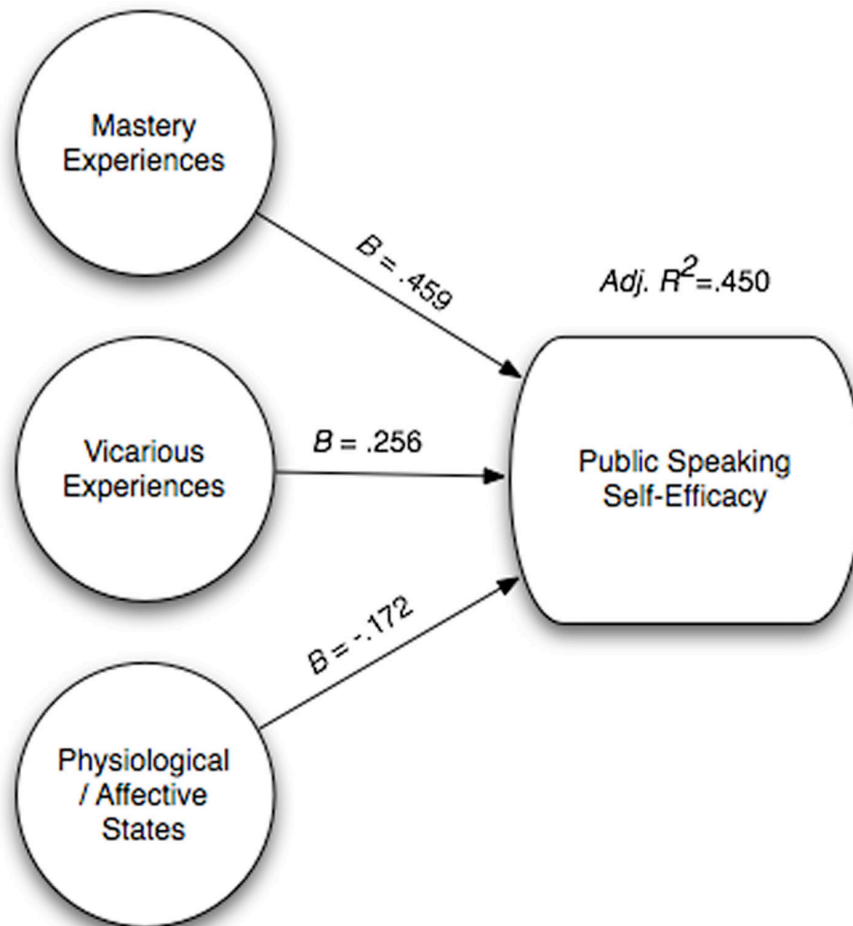
Figure 2. *Primary Predictors of Public Speaking Self-Efficacy for Service-learning Students.*



Research Question 5b

Similar to RQ5a, RQ5b attempted to determine which sources of self-efficacy were most influential in developing non-service-learning students' public speaking self-efficacy. Results of multiple regression analyses revealed that mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, and physiological/affective states significantly predicted public speaking self-efficacy $\{F(3, 224) = 62.196, p = .000, Adjusted R^2 = .450\}$ (see Figure 3). Mastery experiences $\{t = 6.929, p = .000; B = .459\}$, vicarious experiences $\{t = 3.855, p = .000; B = .256\}$, and physiological/affective states $\{t = -3.442, p = .000; B = -.172\}$ were significant (see Table 7). Although mastery experiences seem to be most influential in developing students' public speaking self-efficacy in both service-learning and non-service-learning students, interestingly it had a much more robust effect on service-learning students' public speaking self-efficacy. This could perhaps be explained because they perceived their mastery experiences to a) be focused on their own (relevant) real-world service-learning experiences and issues related to them, and b) be delivered to audience members who work in these agencies.

Figure 3. *Primary Predictors of Public Speaking Self-Efficacy for Non-Service-learning Students.*



Summary

This chapter provided results to answer each of the research questions. Specifically, this chapter provides support for a new public speaking self-efficacy scale. In addition, service-learning and non-service-learning students in this study experienced similar levels of public speaking self-efficacy and public speaking skill, even though the service-learning students engaged in significantly fewer hours of actual seat time in the classroom. Finally, mastery experiences seem to be most influential in developing students' public speaking self-efficacy and such mastery experiences seem to have a stronger effect on service-learning students' public speaking self-efficacy. The final chapter provides conclusions based on these results, as well as implications and suggestions for future research.

Chapter Five: Conclusions, Implications and Recommendations

This chapter offers conclusions based on the results of this study as they extend existing literature, theory, and practice. In addition, this chapter outlines the potential implications of these results for faculty and instructors, for students, for communication departments and universities, and practitioners. Finally, this chapter provides directions for future research.

Conclusions

This dissertation sought to develop and validate a new public speaking self-efficacy scale. Therefore, the first research question examined the psychometric properties of this new scale. The results suggest that the 19-item, uni-dimensional public speaking self-efficacy scale is a highly reliable one ($\alpha = .968$). To date, a scale measuring public speaking self-efficacy in terms of effective content, structure, and delivery has not been developed. Research on various types of self-efficacy suggests that there is a strong relationship between self-efficacy and performance (e.g., Dwyer & Fus, 1999, 2002; Klassen, 2002; McCarthy, Meier, & Rinderer, 1985; Meier, McCarthy, & Schmeck, 1984; Pajares, 2003; Pajares, Johnson, & Miller, 1999). In addition, public speaking is such a necessary skill in today's workforce (Hart Research Associates, 2009). Therefore, being able to measure students' public speaking self-efficacy is important. Although this scale needs to be tested further in future studies, the new scale is promising for both public speaking and self-efficacy literatures.

Next, there is little research examining the relationship between students' public speaking self-efficacy and their public speaking skills (Dwyer & Fus, 1999, 2002). Thus, results from research question two reveal that students' public speaking self-efficacy was

positively and significantly related to their public speaking skills ($r = .19, p < .001$).

Public speaking students who feel confident regarding their ability to deliver public speeches are, in fact, more likely to perform better. This result is consistent with research on other types of self-efficacy. However, this correlation is somewhat weaker than research on other types of self-efficacy and performance or skill (Dwyer & Fus, 1999, 2002; Klassen, 2002; McCarthy, Meier, & Rinderer, 1985; Meier, McCarthy, & Schmeck, 1984; Pajares, 2003; Pajares, Johnson, & Miller, 1999). These results also give further credence to Bandura's (1986) SCT and self-efficacy theory. Bandura suggested that personal factors (including self-efficacy) influence behavioral factors (such as skill or performance). This study confirmed that this relationship exists in public speaking.

This study also compared service-learning and non-service-learning students in terms of their public speaking self-efficacy and their public speaking skills. Results of research questions three and four suggest that service-learning and non-service-learning students did not differ significantly regarding their public speaking self-efficacy or public speaking skill. This result is encouraging in that service-learning students experienced similar levels of public speaking self-efficacy and skill even though they spent 20% fewer hours in the classroom than their non-service-learning counterparts.

Bandura (1997) discussed four influential sources for developing self-efficacy, including mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasions, and physiological and affective states. This study was not only interested in the development of students' public speaking self-efficacy, but also in the sources that might influence that development. In addition, this study was interested in whether the sources influenced the development of service-learning and non-service-learning students' self-efficacy

differently. Research questions five, 5a, and 5b examined these relationships more closely. Results of these three questions indicated that mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, and physiological/affective states predicted public speaking self-efficacy among the entire sample of students, as well as the sub-samples of service-learning and non-service-learning students. In all three models, social persuasions did not significantly predict public speaking self-efficacy. It might be the case that students (both service-learning and non-service-learning students) in an introduction to basic public speaking course simply are not receiving a wealth of either really positive or really negative feedback that might significantly influence their public speaking self-efficacy. An alternative explanation for this result may come from the high correlation between measures of mastery experiences and social persuasions (see Table 2). Public speaking is a social act and therefore, we judge our public speaking competence based on what others think of us. For example, if a public speaking instructor provides a student with a good speech grade, he or she may interpret that mastery experience in a positive way and in turn, develop greater public speaking self-efficacy as a result. Therefore, it might not be necessary in this context to treat mastery experiences and social persuasions as two separate sources of self-efficacy. Of course, further research is needed to more closely examine the sources that develop students' public speaking self-efficacy.

Results of this study did confirm that mastery experiences were the most influential source in developing both service-learning and non-service-learning students' public speaking self-efficacy. Interestingly though, mastery experiences explained much more of the variance in public speaking self-efficacy for service-learning students than for non-service-learning students. It is not necessarily clear from this study why this is so

although the rationale and literature review of this dissertation speculated that students in a service-learning course might feel they have experienced a more “authentic” public speaking experience because they delivered speeches on real-world, relevant topics and also delivered the speeches to audiences beyond the traditional classroom. This process might increase service-learning students’ mastery experiences and therefore, increase their public speaking self-efficacy beyond what students would experience in a traditionally taught classroom. Future research should work to flesh out these relationships in more detail.

As is true with all research, the results of this study should be interpreted with an understanding of its limitations. There are several limitations to this study. First, because the sample is limited to one university, results are not necessarily generalizable to students at other universities. A second limitation to this study is the use of web-based survey methods to gather pre and post-test data. Although web-based surveys are convenient, there are inherent weaknesses in them. It is difficult to ascertain whether students took the pre and post-tests seriously. Points toward the students’ course grades were provided to attempt to motivate students to take the pre and post-tests seriously. In addition, students who completed the pre and/or post-tests too quickly or took too much time to complete the tests were removed from the dataset. The advantages of using web-based survey methods, however, outweighed the disadvantages in this study. Using web-based survey methods allowed the researcher to quickly reach all public speaking students electronically and enter and analyze the data more efficiently.

Next, service-learning students spent one hour per week less time physically seated in classroom than non-service-learning students. This difference in groups could

bias the results. Perhaps service-learning students would have differed significantly on measures of public speaking self-efficacy and skill if they had spent the same amount of time in class as non-service-learning students.

Finally, although both groups of students worked in teams throughout the semester, it is possible that service-learning student groups were more cohesive than non-service-learning students because they participated in service assignments together. This could also influence the results of this study.

Implications

Several implications emerge from this study. More specifically, these implications focus on instructors, students, departments, colleges or universities, and those in a position to train community professionals to become better public speakers. First, for instructors of public speaking courses, it is important to recognize that students' public speaking self-efficacy influences their public speaking skill. Therefore, instructors should devise strategies in their classrooms for increasing students' public speaking self-efficacy. Instructors may benefit from using the new public speaking self-efficacy scale to measure students' public speaking self-efficacy. Although Tucker and McCarthy (2001) utilized a presentation self-efficacy scale, their scale measured students' self-efficacy for delivering specific business concepts to elementary school students. Tucker and McCarthy's scale did not specifically examine students' self-efficacy for delivering speeches effectively in general. The scale developed in the current study examines public speaking self-efficacy in terms of effective content, structure, and delivery. Most communication scholars agree that these three components are considered necessary

factors for an effective public speech. Therefore, this scale might be more appropriate for measuring students' public speaking self-efficacy in a public speaking classroom.

Although the correlation between public speaking self-efficacy and public speaking skill was significant in this study, the correlation was surprisingly weak. It might be the case that the grades used to measure public speaking skill in this study did not discriminate enough between service-learning and non-service learning students' public speaking skill. At the end of the semester, students typically perform fairly well on their classroom speeches. In addition, students' grades are often influenced by their instructor (and not necessarily reflect their true skill level); this fact may have biased the results from this study. Perhaps, recording students' speeches and then training coders to content analyze the speeches might be a more appropriate way to measure public speaking skill.

It is also important for instructors to examine sources that might develop students' public speaking self-efficacy. Bandura (1986) indicated that self-efficacy stems from four sources, including mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasions, and physiological and affective states. Results from this study indicate that mastery experiences are most influential in developing students' public speaking self-efficacy. Furthermore, a service-learning approach seems to be one strategy for developing students' public speaking self-efficacy. More specifically, service-learning students in this study seemed to experience heightened mastery experiences. Mastery experiences had a stronger effect on service-learning students' public speaking self-efficacy than for non-service-learning students. Previous research has demonstrated that a service-learning approach in the classroom provides students with a variety of benefits (Astin & Sax,

1998; Bloom, 2008; Borden, 2007; Einfeld & Collins, 2008; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Flournoy, 2007; Gullicks, 2006; Gutheil, Chernesky, & Sherratt, 2006; Lee, Olszewski-Kubilius, Donahue, & Weimholt, 2008; Lundy, 2007; Novak, Markey, & Allen, 2007; Prentice, 2007; Simons & Cleary, 2006). This study suggests that this type of approach may even increase the mastery experiences that service-learning students experience in a public speaking course. Therefore, public speaking instructors should consider implementing a service-learning approach into their classrooms.

Similarly, for students, this study confirms that public speaking self-efficacy is one factor that can help improve their public speaking skill or performance. When students believe that they can implement effective structure, content, and delivery into their speeches, they are in fact more likely to do so. Students who seek to improve their public speaking skills should concentrate on building their public speaking self-efficacy. This might be accomplished in a number of ways, including continuous practice (mastery experiences), watching others' successful public speaking experiences (vicarious experiences), seeking feedback on their public speeches from teachers, family members, and friends (social persuasions), and by managing their stress and public speaking anxiety (physiological/affective states).

Next, for communication departments and/or colleges as well as universities, it is important to note that effective communication and public speaking skills training is a necessary component in today's general education requirements. Although many universities and/or departments require an oral communication course, employers continue to report that students are not entering the workforce with adequate communication and public speaking skills. Students may not be garnering the

communication and public speaking skills that their employers seek. Therefore, communication departments should consider innovative approaches to teaching their courses so that today's generation of college students are engaged in the material. One potential strategy for doing this is to integrate a service-learning approach into the classroom. There are a number of reasons for doing so. First, research has suggested that service-learning has a number of benefits for students, including psychosocial benefits and affective and cognitive learning benefits (Astin & Sax, 1998; Bloom, 2008; Borden, 2007; Einfeld & Collins, 2008; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Flournoy, 2007; Gullicks, 2006; Gutheil, Chernesky, & Sherratt, 2006; Lee, Olszewski-Kubilius, Donahue, & Weimholt, 2008; Lundy, 2007; Novak, Markey, & Allen, 2007; Prentice, 2007; Simons & Cleary, 2006). Next, a service-learning approach makes the material students are learning in class more relevant to the real-world (Chickering & Gamson, 1987; Coomes & DeBard, 2004; Howe & Strauss, 2007; Taylor, 2010). Students who are seeking active, hands-on approaches in the classroom that demonstrate relevance to their lives may be satisfied with a service-learning approach.

As indicated in this study, students in a service-learning public speaking course may experience heightened mastery experiences that have a greater effect on their public speaking self-efficacy. Faculty and instructors are often dependent on their university and departmental support and/or resources when implementing innovative approaches into their classrooms. For the same reasons discussed above, university administrators should be supportive of faculty and departments who want to implement a service-learning approach into their classrooms.

Finally, results from this study may have some utility for those in a position to train community professionals to become better public speakers. Communication researchers are often asked to train professionals in the community to better deliver their messages. For instance, medical professionals often have to deliver messages to the public regarding foodborne illness outbreaks or new strains of the flu virus. Government officials have to deliver messages to the public regarding policy initiatives or changes. Police officers deliver messages to the public regarding recent rises in criminal activity and meteorologists often warn the public to evacuate their homes before a tornado, hurricane, or flood. Although there are many more scenarios in addition to the above-mentioned examples, it is vitally important to understand these professionals' public speaking self-efficacy and skill in order for them to effectively deliver their messages. Utilizing an adapted version of the scale developed in this study might help researchers understand professionals' public speaking self-efficacy and subsequent success (or failure) when delivering an important message to the public.

Recommendations

Although this study provides researchers and practitioners with insightful information regarding service-learning and public speaking self-efficacy, more work needs to be done. First, this study has validated a new public speaking self-efficacy scale. Although the psychometric properties of this scale appear to be strong, researchers should continue to test and refine this scale to ensure its validity and reliability. Research with this scale should not only continue within the college classroom but also in the real-world with professionals responsible for delivering important messages to the public.

Next, bivariate correlations in this study revealed a significant positive relationship between public speaking self-efficacy and public speaking skill. However, the relationship was fairly weak. It is not clear why this is so. Future researchers should continue to explore this relationship to clarify the influence that public speaking self-efficacy has on public speaking skill. As mentioned in the implications section, content analyzing students' speeches might be a better measure of public speaking skill. Therefore, future researchers might replicate this study using content analysis to determine whether a difference between service-learning students and non-service learning students' would exist. Researchers should also determine other factors that might influence public speaking skill in addition to self-efficacy. Perhaps more research into these various aspects could assist in developing theory around public speaking self-efficacy and skill development.

This study also examined the influence that a service-learning approach in the classroom might have on students' public speaking self-efficacy. Future research should continue to examine the potential learning outcomes associated with service-learning approaches. Experiential learning strategies, including service-learning, seem to be one effective way for engaging many of today's college students. Therefore, continuing to document the effects that these types of courses have on students is important. Results from this study also suggest that students involved in a service-learning public speaking course have heightened mastery experiences beyond what students in a non-service-learning course experience. The reason for this is not necessarily clear. It might be because students in a service-learning course deliver speeches to real-world audiences beyond their instructors and classmates. As a result, perhaps they feel they have had a

more “authentic” speaking experience (Coomes & DeBard, 2004; Howe & Strauss, 2007; Taylor, 2010). This idea needs to be tested further in addition to other potential explanations for this result. It might be fruitful for future researchers to conduct qualitative research (interviews, focus groups) to examine reasons why service-learning students have heightened mastery experiences when compared with non-service learning students.

Finally, scholars should continue to develop and test strategies for increasing students’ public speaking self-efficacy. Results from this study indicated that mastery experiences are most influential in developing students’ public speaking self-efficacy. However, both vicarious experiences and physiological/affective states also predicted public speaking self-efficacy. Therefore, developing strategies for increasing all of these potential sources of self-efficacy are important. Similarly, social persuasions did not predict public speaking self-efficacy in this study. Again, it is not necessarily clear why this is so. Future research might further explore this relationship and potentially develop strategies for increasing social persuasions for students. Developing and testing strategies for increasing the sources of self-efficacy for students might in turn, increase their public speaking self-efficacy and public speaking skills, skills potential employers desperately want from potential employees.

Closing

This chapter reviewed the major conclusions from this study as well as the limitations of this study. In addition, this chapter outlined the implications of these results for instructors, for students, and for communication departments and universities.

Finally, this chapter provided directions for future research for scholars interested in public speaking self-efficacy and service-learning.

Employers continue to report that students are entering the workforce without adequate public speaking and communication skills. Developing students' public speaking self-efficacy is one way to increase their public speaking skill. Although more work needs to be done to examine factors that help develop students' public speaking self-efficacy, a service-learning approach seems to be one strategy for increasing students' mastery experiences and potentially their public speaking self-efficacy. Research suggests that a service-learning approach provides students with a variety of benefits and university administrators can no longer ignore the changing desires of many of today's college students. Universities, departments, and instructors should begin embracing innovative teaching strategies such as service-learning in order to engage today's students and potentially increase their achievement of learning outcomes.

Appendix A: Service-learning Organizations

1. American Red Cross
2. Arnett Pritchett
3. Best Friends
4. Bluegrass Technology
5. Cardinal Hill
6. Carnegie Center
7. Catholic Action Center
8. Center for Creative Living
9. E. 7th Street
10. Explorium
11. Health Literacy Project
12. Hope Lodge
13. Lexington Children's Theatre
14. Lexington History Museum
15. Lexington Rescue Mission
16. Maxwell Presbyterian
17. St. Agnes' House
18. Step By Step
19. The Nest

Appendix B: Grading Rubric for Speeches

ACTUATION PERSUASIVE SYMPOSIUM SPEECH

GRADING CRITERIA

The speech is worth a total of 56 pts. The points are broken down into Individual (35 pts) and Group (21pts). In order to earn the maximum number of points, you must demonstrate the following specific skills during the speech:

INDIVIDUAL

CONTENT

Analysis/Reasoning

You must be descriptive and within the time constraint.
You must include listener relevance links for each main point.
You must address each learning style during the speech.
You must include ethos, pathos, and logos.

Supporting Material

You must orally cite three sources. These sources must be varied, credible to your topic, distributed throughout the speech, and properly credited.
You must use different kinds of supporting material as evidence throughout the speech (examples, analogies, testimony, surveys, facts, stats, etc.).

Presentation Aids

You must reveal, reference, and conceal each presentational aid appropriately.

STRUCTURE

Macrostructure

You must clearly articulate all elements.
You must successfully incorporate your portion of the speech into the group's persuasive format.

Microstructure

You must use inclusive and concrete language, define jargon, avoid slang and have very few vocalized pauses.
You must use persuasive "punch" words in structural comments to enhance pathos.

You must use internal summaries and connectives (for example, to clarify, moreover, etc.), phrasing that enhances pathos, clever turns of phrases, and so forth to create a more fluent style.

DELIVERY

Use of Voice

You must be intelligible, conversational, and sincere.

You must demonstrate fluency in the presentation of your ideas.

You should sound committed to your opinions about the issue. You need to have *emotional conviction* in your voice or you will never convince your audience to share your opinion or move to action.

Use of Body

You must demonstrate appropriate attire, poise, and eye contact.

You must use facial expressions and natural gestures that reinforce the verbal message.

You should include motivated movement to emphasize important points and clarify structure as well as remain “open” to your audience.

You must demonstrate initial and terminal ethos (conveyed with pauses at the beginning and end of speech).

GROUP

DYNAMICS:

Based on group ratings from peer critiques

CONTENT:

The argument must be thematic

The argument must maintain appropriate focus.

The argument must have adequate coverage.

The argument must have appropriate supporting material (recent, relevant, varied, distributed throughout – at least three by each speaker, properly credited).

The argument must be supported by rhetorical strategies (ethos, pathos, logos).

The argument must round the cycle of learning.

POWERPOINT:

The group must use thematic slide layout, transitions, and background designs.

The group must use professional construction (consistent use of font, bullets, title size and photographs – as opposed to clipart).

Appendix C: Measures

Public Speaking Self-Efficacy

Please respond to the following statements to the best of your ability.

<i>How true or false is each statement for you?</i>	Definitely False	-----	Definitely True
I can speak so that others can understand me.	1	2	3 4 5 6
I can deliver an organized speech.	1	2	3 4 5 6
I can present an effective speech to my classroom audience.	1	2	3 4 5 6
I can maintain good posture during my speech.	1	2	3 4 5 6
I can avoid using vocalized pauses such as “um” and “like” while delivering my speech.	1	2	3 4 5 6
I can limit the content of my speech to two to four main ideas.	1	2	3 4 5 6
I can deliver my speech without using my notes.	1	2	3 4 5 6
I can use vivid language during my speech.	1	2	3 4 5 6
I can present an effective speech to an audience of professional community members.	1	2	3 4 5 6
I can grab the audience’s attention at the beginning of my speech.	1	2	3 4 5 6
I can fully support my main ideas with evidence.	1	2	3 4 5 6
I can use emotion to make my speech better.	1	2	3 4 5 6
I can use a variety of evidence to support my ideas.	1	2	3 4 5 6
I can include an introductory statement that summarizes the main idea of my speech.	1	2	3 4 5 6
I can present an effective speech to my teacher.	1	2	3 4 5 6
I can maintain eye contact with my audience at least 90% of the time while delivering my speech.	1	2	3 4 5 6
I can raise or lower my voice to make my speech more effective.	1	2	3 4 5 6

I can clearly define any technical terms so that my audience can understand what I mean.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can make eye contact with each person in my audience.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can explain the evidence I am using to support my ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can construct an effective visual aid for my speech.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can stop myself from rocking back and forth during my speech.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can make it clear that I am a credible speaker during my speech.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can appropriately cite my sources orally in my speech.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can present an effective speech to my family members.	1	2	3	4	5	6
During my speech, I can conceal my visual aid before and after I use it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can stop myself from fidgeting during my speech.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can use creative transitions between the main ideas in my speech.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can properly explain my visual aid.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can present an effective speech to my friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can stay within the time limits assigned for my speech.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can use gestures effectively during my speech.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can end my speech with a conclusion that reviews my main ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can use facial expressions effectively during my speech.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Sources of Public Speaking Self-Efficacy

Please respond to the following statements to the best of your ability.

<i>How true or false is each statement for you?</i>	Definitely False -----				Definitely True	
I make excellent grades on speech assignments.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I imagine myself successfully delivering a challenging speech.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Just being in public speaking class makes me feel nervous.	1	2	3	4	5	6

My public speaking teacher has told me that I am a good speaker.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have always been good at public speaking.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Preparing for a speech assignment takes all of my energy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Watching community members and/or professionals deliver speeches makes me feel like I can do better.	1	2	3	4	5	6
People have told me that I have a talent for public speaking.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Even when I practice very hard, I do poorly on speech assignments.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I start to feel anxious as soon as I start preparing for my speech.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can visualize myself doing well on my speech assignment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My family members have told me that I am good at public speaking.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I got a good grade on my last speech assignment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My mind goes blank and I am unable to think clearly when delivering a speech.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I tell myself that I will do well on my speech assignment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have been praised for my ability as a public speaker.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I do well on speech assignments.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Other students have told me that I am a good public speaker.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I get anxious when I think about delivering a speech.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I do well on even the most difficult speech assignments.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Community professionals have told me that I am a good public speaker.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My whole body becomes tense when I have to deliver a speech in class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Practicing my public speech before I deliver it in class helps me do well on the speech assignment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My heart races when I have to deliver a speech in class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Seeing my classmates do well on speeches makes me feel like I can do better.	1	2	3	4	5	6

I sweat when I have to deliver a speech in class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
When my teacher shows an example speech video in class, I can picture myself delivering the speech in the same way.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I become shaky when I have to deliver a speech in class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
When I see one of my classmates delivering a speech, I can picture myself delivering the speech in the same way.	1	2	3	4	5	6

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Vita

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EDUCATION

Ph.D. (Communication), in progress, University of Kentucky

M.A. (Communication), 2005 (Admitted into the program through University Scholars Program), University of Kentucky

B.A. (Communication), 2004, University of Kentucky

CURRENT EMPLOYMENT

Faculty Lecturer, Division of Instructional Communication, University of Kentucky – July 2010- present

EMPLOYMENT HISTORY

Assistant to the Director of Undergraduate Studies/Teaching Assistant, Department of Communication, University of Kentucky- August 2008- Fall 2010

Part-Time Instructor, Department of Communication, University of Kentucky – August 2007 – present; August 2005-December 2005

Study Director, Center on Drug & Alcohol Research, University of Kentucky- January 2006- August 2007

Personal Health Counselor, Health & Wellness, University of Kentucky – August 2005 – January 2006

Research Assistant – Department of Communication, University of Kentucky, June 2005 – September 2005, & May 2004 – October 2004

Teaching Assistant – Department of Communication, University of Kentucky, August 2004 – May 2005

AWARDS/HONORS

Graduated Summa Cum Laude (2004)

Graduated with Communication Department Honors (2004)

Department of Communication Outstanding Junior Award (2002)

Academic Excellence Scholarship (2001-2004)

Dean's List (2000-2005)

RESEARCH INTERESTS

Instructional communication research
Service-learning initiatives

PUBLICATIONS

Warren, J. L., & Sellnow, T. L. (2010). Learning through Service: The Contributions of Service Learning to the Communication Discipline. In D. L. Fassett & J. T. Warren (Eds.), *Handbook of Communication and Instruction*. Sage Publications.

CONFERENCE/POSTER PRESENTATIONS

Warren, J. L. (November, 2011). *Giving voice to all that can go wrong with service-learning: A roundtable discussion to improve pedagogy*. Roundtable discussion to be presented at the annual meeting of the National Communication Association, New Orleans, LA.

Warren, J. L. (May, 2011). *Reflecting students' true perceptions of content relevance: A revised content relevance scale*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the International Communication Association, Boston, MA.

Reynolds, M. A., & Warren, J. L. (2010) *Finding One's Self Through Working with Others*. Poster session at the meeting of CPE KySoTL and Teacher Quality Summit, Lexington, KY.

Warren, J. L., & Sellnow, D. D. (2009, October). *Increasing service learning while serving the community: Student engagement as the key to service learning?* Poster session presented at the annual meeting of the International Research Conference on Service-Learning and Community Engagement, Ottawa, Canada.

Fielding, J. L. (2005). *Smoking the stereotypes: An exploration of the portrayal of marijuana use in American movies*. Paper presented at the 9th annual College of Communication Graduate Student Association Symposium, Lexington, KY.

Fielding, J.L. (2003). *Feeling the pressure: Parental vs. mass media influence on young girls' body image*. Paper presented at the annual conference of the Southern States Communication Association, Birmingham, AL.

GRADUATE COURSES TAKEN

Advanced Qualitative Research Methods
Directed Study involving Service Learning in our Public Speaking Course
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Relational Communication
Interpersonal Communication
Directed Reading on Service Learning
Health Communication Theory
Seminar in Health Communication
Communication Theory

Quantitative Methods in Communication
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Basic Statistical Analysis
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ACADEMIC ACTIVITIES

Graduate Student Association, Member (2008-2009; 2004)
Communication Honors Society, Treasurer (2003)
Communication Student Association, Co-president (2002-2003)

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