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RAISING PRESERVICE TEACHERS' EFFICACY WITH ELS THROUGH SERVICE-LEARNING

A Dissertation

by

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation investigated the effects of service-learning with English learners (ELs) on preservice teachers' efficacy. Preservice teachers often report having low self-efficacy for teaching ELs. This low self-efficacy could be related to a lack of cultural competence and understanding of second language acquisition. Service-learning with ELs may be able to raise their efficacy. This study asks: (1) if service-learning significantly improves preservice teachers' efficacy with ELs, (2) if EL learning sites significantly differ in developing efficacy during service-learning, and (3) how do different types of service-learning settings differ from each other in the ways they impact preservice teachers' self-efficacy with English learners?

Two hundred participants served in three types of EL settings: PreK-12, intensive English program, and community adult ESL. They each served for a period of eight to ten hours. Participants completed pre and post surveys measuring their levels of efficacy for working with ELs, and wrote field reflections describing their experiences.

Survey results indicated that while all locations increased their efficacy, there was an interaction effect between participants' initial levels of efficacy and the type of setting they served in. Participants beginning with low or moderate levels of efficacy benefitted most from working in adult EL settings, while participants beginning with high levels of efficacy benefitted most from working in more academic settings. Analysis of field reflections indicated variation in how settings helped participants to develop efficacy with ELs. Adult EL settings, particularly the intensive English program, offered greater possibilities for understanding the second language acquisition process and building cultural competence, while child EL settings gave more

opportunities to preservice teachers to see how to work with ELs in their future professional environment.

Teacher education programs can help preservice teachers to increase their efficacy for working with ELs, by first assessing their current levels of efficacy, and then assigning them to the setting appropriate for their developmental needs. Preservice teachers with low levels of efficacy may benefit more by first serving h adult ELs to build up their cultural competence and understanding of language learning, before transitioning to work with children in more academically oriented settings.

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The analyses depicted in Chapter 2 were conducted with the assistance of Professor Fuhui Tong of the Department of Educational Psychology. All other work for the dissertation was completed by the student, under the advisement of Professor Zohreh E. Eslami of the Department of Teaching, Learning, and Culture.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In 2015, the number of English learners (ELs) in the United States of America increased to more than 4.6 million students (McFarland, et al., 2017). Greater emphasis on accountability, highlighted by the No Child Left Behind Act, has put the academic success of ELs' under greater scrutiny (de Cohen & Clewell, 2007). Educators have been tasked with providing ELs the instruction necessary to become proficient in English, as well as learn academic content in English (U.S. Department of Education, 2015). In particular, schools are looking more to general education teachers, as opposed to English as a second language or bilingual education teachers, to provide instruction to ELs in ways that they will understand (National Education Association, 2011).

In order for these teachers to be able to succeed in this work, it is important that they first believe that they are up to the task. Bandura (1997) termed the belief in one's self to accomplish difficult tasks and reach desired outcomes as self-efficacy. This theory assumes that perceived self-efficacy plays an active role in what people achieve, and working as agents for themselves, "people make things happen rather than simply passively observing themselves undergoing behavioral happenings" (Bandura, 1997, p. 39). Self-efficacy emphasizes what a person believes he or she is capable of accomplishing in a given circumstance, rather than measuring current abilities or talent level (Bandura, 1997). This belief in one's self influences many aspects of a task's completion, such as the thinking process for the task, the motivation for doing it, and the feelings associated with the task (Bandura, 1997).

There are important and substantial differences between individuals with high and low levels of self-efficacy in specific domains. According to Bandura (1997), people with high levels

of self-efficacy for a task see challenges that can be overcome, as opposed to problems to run from. They make goals which will stretch them and dedicate themselves to meeting their goals. Failures or roadblocks do not stop them from moving forward, but merely strengthen their resolve to try harder. On the other hand, people whose perceived self-efficacy for a task is low will cease striving when faced with adversity. There will be little dedication to the few goals they set. For these individuals, in times of trial, their thoughts turn towards their shortcomings, the immensity of the obstacle before them, and the repercussions of their inevitable defeat.

Though there are many sources from which self-efficacy is built, the most powerful and important of these are what Bandara (1997) called “Enactive mastery experiences”. Mastery experiences can build self-efficacy by helping learners to organize and control the cognitive skills needed for task completion. As opposed to learning by observation or in a classroom setting, these experiences require active participation in the actual task to be performed, and are the most authentic method for assessing a person in a task. Successful completion of the task increases self-efficacy, while setbacks undermine self-efficacy beliefs.

Applying the concept of self-efficacy to educators, teacher efficacy has been defined as “teachers’ confidence in their ability to promote students’ learning” (Hoy, 2000, p. 2). Ashton (1984) characterized the differences between teachers who have high and low self-efficacy beliefs. First, if teachers have high self-efficacy belief in themselves, they believe that what they do is meaningful and positively affects their students’ learning. They assume that their students will do well in school, that it is the teachers’ responsibility to see that this happens, and that teachers should re-evaluate their performance when students do not do well. They plan, make goals, and seek out strategies which will meet those goals. They have positive attitudes towards

teaching and their students. Finally, these teachers work with students to reach common goals and include them in the decision making process.

In comparison to teachers with high levels of self-efficacy, Ashton (1984) describes teachers with low levels of self-efficacy as feeling frustrated, discouraged, and negative towards teaching. They assume that students will misbehave in class and perform poorly. They lay responsibility for this anticipated failure at the feet of their students, students' families, and other scapegoats. These teachers are somewhat directionless, working without intended goals for their students or the strategies needed to attain such goals. These teachers struggle with feeling that their work is pointless, as they are at odds with students in a futile battle for control of the classroom.

Since Ashton's (1984) original description of teachers with high and low self-efficacy, additional research has shown how this belief in one's self affects teachers' abilities to challenge students to perform their best and help them see their potential. In his review of research in teacher efficacy, Jerald (2007) reveals that when teachers believe they are capable of influencing their students' learning, they put the responsibility for their students' learning into their own hands, no matter how challenging the students might be. Also, teachers' perceptions of their own abilities to teach students is more important in creating a positive school climate with high expectations, than the belief teachers have in their students' abilities to learn (DuFour, DuFour, Eaker, & Karhanek, 2004).

Two important influences on teacher efficacy for working with ELs are the teacher's level of cultural competence and the teachers' understanding of the student's language learning needs. First, cultural competence in education means "having an awareness of one's own cultural identity and views about difference, and the ability to learn and build on the varying cultural and

community norms of students and their families" (National Education Association, 2014, para. 3). Both Harris (2010) and JohnBull (2012) have shown strong correlations between teachers' levels of efficacy and their cultural competence. If cultural competence is low, teacher self-efficacy will also be low for working with students whose cultures differ from their teacher's.

Most teachers in the United States are White (Goldring, Gray, & Bitterman, 2013). If they have low cultural competence, they would be more comfortable working with students who are White and from some similar cultural backgrounds to themselves. Siwatu's (2011) research supports this assumption. He surveyed a group of preservice teachers and found that their teacher efficacy was highest for working with White students in suburban environments. They had lower levels of belief in themselves when working with students from other cultural backgrounds, particularly when teaching in urban environments. Also, teachers recognize when they are not familiar with ELs' cultural needs, which lowers their efficacy for teaching ELs (Hoover, 2008).

In addition to cultural competence, teachers' understanding of their students' language backgrounds also affects teachers' efficacy for teaching ELs. While teachers have high levels of perceived efficacy when working with students who use Standard English as their first language, they have lower levels for students who use non-standard English, particularly second language users (Tasan, 2001). Teachers have identified sensitivity and awareness of their ELs' linguistic needs as their most important ability for working with this particular student population (Hoover, 2008). Lack of knowledge about ELs' linguistic needs brings down teachers' perceived efficacy (Hoover, 2008). Unfortunately, most teachers have little, if any, knowledge concerning second language acquisition and the language needs of their ELs (Ballantyne, Sanderman, & Levy, 2008).

The lack of cultural competence and understanding of ELs' linguistic needs has led teachers to generally feel unprepared to work with ELs (Durgunoğlu & Hughes, 2010; Polat, 2009). In fact, when reflecting on all student populations, preservice teachers reported feeling least comfortable working with ELs (Siwatu, 2011). This lack of confidence in working with these students can be detrimental to the instruction ELs receive. Teachers may treat these students the same as any others in their classrooms, therefore neglecting their language learning needs, or even avoiding these students all together (Washburn, 2008). Low self-efficacy when teaching ELs reflects Bandura's (1997) claim that "people who doubt their capabilities in particular domains of activity shy away from difficult tasks in those domains" (Bandura, 1997, p. 39). Clearly, the rising numbers of ELs, mixed with a future teaching workforce that feels unprepared to work with them, poses problems for the future of public school education.

The increase in ELs has altered how teacher education programs prepare future teachers (Hardmann, 2009). Teacher educators are seeking ways to help future teachers feel more confident about working with diverse learners and in their abilities to teach these students. As one way to prepare future teachers, many universities now require preservice teachers to complete classes such as multicultural education or second language development (Jimenez-Silva, Olson, & Hernandez, 2012). These classes give them an introduction to theories and methodologies which are relevant for teaching diverse learners.

However, researchers have found that course work focused only on theory in second language acquisition and diversity, while needed, is insufficient for raising teachers' self-efficacy with ELs (Hutchinson, 2013; Jimenez-Silva, Olson, & Hernandez, 2012). Even after professional development training within their district, teachers have reported that training focused on theoretical issues like second language acquisition, but neglecting practical application of the

theory, by itself, was insufficient for raising teachers' efficacy with ELs (O'Brien, 2011). Instruction must prepare preservice teachers in the specific strategies they will use with ELs and engage preservice teachers in meaningful interaction with ELs (Jimenez-Silva, Olson, & Hernandez, 2012). Also, Coady, Harper, and de Jong (2011) found that the part of their program former preservice teachers valued most for preparing to work with ELs were their opportunities to work directly with ELs in the field.

The question then becomes: how can teacher education programs design experiential-learning opportunities which will lead their preservice teachers to engage and interact with ELs? One method for increasing preservice teachers' direct interaction with ELs to improve cultural competencies and language teaching strategies is through service-learning. Minor (2002) defines service-learning in the following way:

> Service learning is a union of community service and formal learning. It involves students going into their communities and using what they learn in class to help people, and then bringing what they learn in their community service back into the classroom to enhance their academic learning. It is service with learning objectives and learning with service objectives. (p. 10)

Service-learning for learning how to work with diverse learners must include a number of important elements to be successful. This is more than simple observation in a classroom. There must be interaction between those serving and those being served (Hale, 2008), such as through tutoring (Bollin, 2007; Purmensky, 2006). After this interaction, discussion and activities about the diversity in the field experience should take place to process and examine what is being experienced (Cone, 2009). Individual reflection on what is being experienced, particularly through journaling, is also crucial to creating internal change (Busch, 2010).

Perhaps most importantly, service-learning offers preservice teachers the needed opportunities to practice specific strategies and interact with ELs in meaningful ways (Coady, Harper, & de Jong, 2011; Jimenez-Silva, Olson, & Hernandez, 2012). Service-learning provides authentic, real-life learning opportunities in communities (Tatebe, 2013). Service-learning in ESL classrooms offers preservice teachers the opportunity to experiment with teaching strategies they are given in course work and gain confidence in their own abilities to use these skills with students from diverse backgrounds (Bollin, 2007). Interaction through service-learning also helps preservice teachers to build relationships with ELs (Hale, 2008). Preservice teachers begin to view ELs as students who have a place in their classrooms, rather than as random people that they do not interact with (Moore, 2013).

Through these relationships, preservice teachers develop understanding of the ELs' cultural and linguistic needs (Hale, 2008), which can lead to greater efficacy (Hoover, 2008). Service-learning can give preservice teachers a perspective that is different from that which they experienced growing up, and may be similar to that of the students in schools (Cooper, 2002). Service-learning can develop preservice teachers' awareness of diversity in schools, and increase their sensitivity to the needs of their students (Zeller, Griffith, Zhang, & Klenke, 2010). Also, service-learning can help them to examine their own beliefs and biases and question their previous assumptions about different issues of culture (Busch, 2010; Wong, 2008). Through service-learning, preservice teachers know they are truly helping the people they are working with, and they become multicultural educators (Bollin, 2007).

Service-learning can also improve preservice teachers' awareness of the role language learning plays in their classrooms and in the lives of their future students. Service-learning gives preservice teachers the opportunity to better understand and apply theories that they study in

their second language acquisition courses (Hale, 2008; Moore, 2013) as it provides hands-on experience with students engaged in English learning (Szente, 2008). Preservice teachers' assumptions about language learning are challenged as they see parts of language learning they had not previously considered (Pappamihiel, 2007). Preservice teachers begin to gain deeper insight into the language learning experiences of immigrants (Fan, 2013). Finally, they are exposed to different levels of language proficiency that ELs in the classroom may have (Pappamihiel, 2007).

Statement of the Problem

While research points to service-learning as being an effective way to raise teacher efficacy for teaching ELs, two issues arise. First, while there is a great deal of qualitative research on the benefits of teacher efficacy from service-learning for diverse learners, including ELs, a smaller body of research exists of a quantitative nature. Many authors have used field reflections and interviews to demonstrate an increase in teachers' efficacy after service-learning, but little has been done on a larger scale and using quantitative methodology. More quantitative analysis needs to be done to explore the effectiveness of service-learning with ELs for raising teacher efficacy (Szente, 2008). At the same time that quantitative research is used to show the change over time in teachers' efficacy, qualitative research should still be employed to chart the growth preservice teachers experience during the course of their service-learning (Bollin, 2007). Research should take advantage of both methodological styles to establish if student learning with ELs does change teachers' self-efficacy levels and how it does so.

The second issue is determining where and in what environment the service-learning should take place. Service-learning as field experience can take place in a number of different places and settings, including tutoring students during their class time, helping with after-school

programs, and assisting community-based organizations which serve diverse populations (Capraro, Capraro, & Helfeldt, 2010; Mcdonald, Tyson, Brayko, Bowman, Delport, & Shimomura, 2011). Few studies have compared how different types of field locations and field experiences might affect preservice teachers' learning during their field experiences, though what research does exist suggests that location may play a role in learning outcomes. Gomez, Strage, Knutson-Miller, and Garcia-Nevarez (2009) compared the effects of preservice field-placement in a Title I versus a non-Title I school and found that after their field experiences, preservice teachers who were in Title I schools were less interested in becoming teachers, less confident in having teaching be their career goal, but more appreciative of and knowledgeable about diversity than the teachers placed in non-Title I schools. Bergman (2013) showed that the preservice teachers placed in urban schools showed greater expertise for strategies and tools to work with families than did preservice teachers placed in suburban schools.

There are a number of settings for working and interacting with ELs (Fan, 2013; Moore, 2013; Pappamihiel, 2007). The following is a description of three types of EL settings: prek-12 grade schools, adult ESL classes, and university intensive English programs (IEPs). In addition to these descriptions, the outcomes of preservice teachers' interactions in these settings as found in scholarly literature are described as well. Finally, the outcomes of the three sites are compared to see how they differently benefit preservice teachers.

The setting most frequently described in the literature is grade schools with bilingual or ESL students. In their study of preservice teachers tutoring K-8 ELs, Fitts and Gross (2012) identified two important characteristics of completing field experience in this environment. First, preservice teachers' attitudes towards bilingualism became more positive. Second, preservice

teachers recognized that bilingual children's intellectual and social capabilities were just as great as that of other children, rather than being inferior because of their lower proficiency in English.

Hutchinson (2013) describes a number of benefits to having her preservice teachers participate in a grade school setting. These included seeing how an ESL specialist used different strategies and assessment to scaffold students' learning and evaluate their progress, being introduced to how ELs are identified, supported, and assessed, and noticing how pulling ELs out of mainstream classrooms affects them. In addition, preservice teachers were exposed to the kinds of facilities and materials these schools had for working with ELs. Finally, the preservice teachers had opportunities for personal growth as their own assumptions about ELs were challenged.

Another setting, not as well described in the literature as settings for bilingual and ESL children, is community adult English classes (Fan, 2013; Moore, 2013; Pappamihiel, 2007). These can be life skills/general ESL classes, family literacy programs, English literacy/civics programs, and vocational ESL classes (Center for Applied Linguistics, 2010). These classes are offered through K-12 schools, adult education programs, and community organizations. Individuals in these classes might be the parents of ESL and bilingual children in grade schools. These learners' backgrounds are very diverse in nationality, age, proficiency in English, and educational level.

Hooks (2008) noticed a number of benefits for preservice teachers working in this setting. Preservice teachers increased in their confidence for working with ELs, as they had a greater understanding and appreciation for diversity. They also grew in their understanding of what it means to communicate with others. Lastly, and perhaps unique to working with this population, they had a greater commitment to involving the parents of ELs in their children's schooling.

Mosley and Zoch (2011) also have found effects for preservice teachers working with adult ESL classes that may set this location type apart from others. Preservice teachers are able to draw on funds of knowledge and interests that children do not yet have. These interests included future citizenship and advancement in the workplace. Preservice teachers were also able to see how more language focused concepts like vocabulary and grammar could be applied to students' personal lives through the use of personal, meaningful teaching materials like family pictures and workplace vocabulary.

An additional setting for field experience with ELs is IEPs. These programs offer classes to international students to improve their English proficiency before they qualify to enter into university studies or to improve their English proficiency for other purposes (Thompson, 2013). Students take classes full-time, and come from many different nationalities. Courses often focus on specific language skills such as speaking, listening, reading, writing, and academic vocabulary (Perez, 1995).

Of the three types of EL field experience settings, this is the one least frequently mentioned for having preservice teachers from colleges of education involved in their programs. In one study where preservice teachers worked with students in an IEP, Savage and Cox (2013) found three important outcomes. First, conversation practice and interaction with the international students lowered preservice teachers' anxiety. Second, this interaction promoted the use of communicative strategies that preservice teachers were learning in their coursework. Third, as preservice teachers worked with international students, they developed empathy for language learners.

Each of these locations has strengths in the ways that they can build preservice teachers' knowledge of culture and language on the path towards strengthening efficacy. Field experience

in all three locations appears to have an effect on attitudes towards or assumptions about language learners. Community adult ESL programs and IEPs seem to share similar characteristics, such as increasing confidence for and understanding of how to communicate with language learners. PreK-12 programs offer important aspects like showing how schools identify, support, and assess ELs, as well as seeing the real effects of pulling students out of mainstream classes. Community adult ESL classes help preservice teachers to see the importance of parental involvement for ELs, as well as introducing preservice teachers to the funds of knowledge of different cultures.

The question becomes which of all of these locations is best for building teacher efficacy for working with ELs? While preK-12 schools give preservice teachers a more realistic feel for what they themselves will do in the future, preservice teachers might not focus as much on language development and cultural learning as would classes that work only with adults. While adult community courses may introduce preservice teachers to parents who are similar to those of their own future students, would this give them as much cultural knowledge and understanding as would visiting intensive English classes with students from many parts of the world? While IEPs, which are on preservice teachers' own university campuses, may be convenient places to work in, would they sufficiently prepare preservice teachers for the types of linguistic and cultural tasks they will encounter with ELs in their future teaching positions? As noted by Capraro, Capraro, and & Helfeldt (2010), "the field of teacher education research must look even more intensely at the nature of the field-based experiences they provide for [preservice teachers] and determine which of all the extra efforts are most worthwhile" (p. 147).

The Current Study

The purposes of this study are twofold. The first is to know how preservice teachers benefit from service-learning with ELs, using a much larger sample size than has been previously used by researchers. While researchers have looked to service-learning as being an effective way to raise teacher efficacy for teaching ELs, to the best of our knowledge, there is currently no empirical research that shows the effect of service-learning on preservice teachers' efficacy with ELs, as well as no research that compares how different EL learning environments impact the development of preservice teachers' efficacy.

To fill this gap, the quantitative research portion of this study tests if service-learning significantly improves preservice teachers' efficacy with ELs and determine if the type of EL learning site plays a role in increasing efficacy through service-learning. In Chapter II, the following research questions will be addressed:

1. Does service-learning with English learners significantly improve preservice teachers' self-efficacy in teaching English learners?
2. Do different types of educational settings (specifically preK-12 schools, community adult ESL classes, and university intensive English programs) significantly differ from each other in improving preservice teachers' self-efficacy for teaching English learners while engaged in service-learning?

Second, this study explores how preservice teachers benefit from service-learning with ELs in different settings. This variety in settings may be important, as Bergman (2013) has argued that the type of setting may play an important role on what a preservice teacher experiences and how she develops in the field. This could apply to EL settings as well (Coady, Harper, & deJong, 2011), since EL learning settings may differ in the amount of emphasis they

give to cultural understanding and language learning. Few studies have examined how service-learning in different EL classroom environments affect preservice teachers, particularly when it comes to their teacher efficacy.

Therefore, the qualitative research portion of this study explores how preservice teachers' efficacy develops over time as a result of service-learning in different EL locations. The current research will address the following research question in Chapter III:

1. How do different types of service-learning settings (specifically PreK-12 schools, community adult ESL classes, and university intensive English programs) differ from each other in the ways they impact preservice teachers' self-efficacy with English learners?

Definition of Terms

Cultural Competence: Refers to how aware a teacher is of her own cultural identity, how she views cultural differences, and how well she can learn about and work with the different cultural norms of her students and their families (NEA, 2014)

Self-efficacy: The belief in one's self to accomplish difficult tasks and reach desired outcomes as self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997).

Service-learning: It is "an approach to teaching and learning in which students use academic knowledge and skills to address genuine community needs" (The National Youth Leadership Council, 2016).

Teacher Efficacy: This is a teacher's confidence in herself to be able to positively affect student learning outcomes (Hoy, 2000).

Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation includes the following four chapters: the Introduction (Chapter I); I believe I can: Service-learning to raise preservice teachers' efficacy with English learners (Chapter II); The setting makes a difference: Developing preservice teachers' efficacy for English learners through service-learning (Chapter III); and Conclusion (Chapter IV).

CHAPTER II

I BELIEVE I CAN: SERVICE-LEARNING TO RAISE PRESERVICE TEACHERS' EFFICACY WITH ENGLISH LEARNERS

Overview

A high sense of teacher self-efficacy is correlated with student achievement (Hoy, 2000). Service-learning with ELs can help raise preservice teachers' self-efficacy for teaching. This study asks: (1) if service-learning significantly improves preservice teachers' efficacy for working with ELs and (2) if EL learning sites significantly differ in developing teacher self-efficacy during service-learning. The sample included 200 participants in three EL educational settings: PreK-12, intensive English program, and community adult English as a second language (ESL). Pre and post-survey results indicated that while all locations improved efficacy, improvement depended on participants' initial levels of efficacy and the service-learning site's focus on language and cultural development.

Introduction

English learners (ELs) are one of the fastest growing student populations in the United States, with over 4.6 million students as of 2015 (McFarland, et al., 2017). Because of accountability movements and legislation like the No Child Left Behind Act, there has been an increased focus on the academic success of ELs in US schools (de Cohen & Clewell, 2007). Law makers expect schools and teachers to help ELs achieve the difficult tasks of acquiring a second language and learning academic content through the second language (U.S. Department of Education, 2015). Increasingly, the challenge of teaching core content-areas to ELs has been placed on the shoulders of general education teachers (National Education Association [NEA], 2011).

Unfortunately, mainstream teachers generally feel unprepared to work with ELs (Durgunoğlu & Hughes, 2010). In particular, preservice teachers report feeling less confident for working with ELs than with other student populations (Siwatu, 2011). This low confidence stems from teachers' lack of both cultural competence (Harris, 2010; JohnBull, 2012) and knowledge and understanding of second language acquisition, or the language learning process that confronts ELs (Hoover, 2008). Teachers' confidence in themselves to help students achieve educational goals, known as teacher efficacy (Hoy, 2000), plays an important role in the potential for students to succeed in the classroom (Jerald, 2007). Low levels of efficacy mean that preservice teachers will be less likely to focus on ELs and provide them with the high quality instruction necessary to reach academic success (Washburn, 2008). Without an increase in preservice teachers' efficacy for teaching ELs, future teachers will not be able to properly meet the needs of higher enrollments of ELs in schools. `

In an effort to raise preservice teachers' efficacy with ELs, teacher education programs have designed coursework aimed at increasing cultural and linguistic awareness and understanding of second language acquisition (Busch, 2010). However, only when coursework is coupled with field experience that directly engage preservice teachers with ELs does coursework truly affect their levels of efficacy (Coady, Harper, & de Jong, 2011). The challenge for teacher education programs is to complement coursework with field experiences which will provide opportunities for interaction between their students and ELs. This interaction must enable preservice teachers to develop greater awareness and understanding of different cultures, as well as empower preservice teachers to meet the language learning needs of their future students.

One method for organizing this interaction between preservice teachers and ELs is service-learning (Purmensky, 2009). In it, students participate in community service that furthers academic objectives (National Youth Leadership Council, 2016). Preservice teachers can assist ELs in a number of capacities, such as reading partners (Purmensky, 2006), after-school tutors (Fitts & Gross, 2012) and conversation partners (Savage & Cox, 2013). Studies on service-learning have found beneficial effects for preservice teachers, including improved attitudes towards ELs (Pappamihiel, 2007), corrected assumptions about ELs (Amaro-Jiménez, 2012), and better understanding of ESL practices (Moore, 2013). Regarding efficacy in particular, Bollin (2007) and Hale (2008) noted increased confidence for preservice teachers after serving EL children.

While the existing literature in this field favors the use of service-learning for changing preservice teachers' beliefs towards ELs, particularly their levels of efficacy, most of these studies have been on a small scale, generally relying only on qualitative data like field reflections. When service-learning has been used in quantitative studies in education, results

have been inconclusive (Shastri, 2001; Trauth-Nare, 2015), though there is evidence of improvement for teacher efficacy (Peebles & Mendaglio, 2014). More quantitative research is necessary to ascertain service-learning's impact on preservice teachers' efficacy with ELs (Szente, 2008).

One variable that may affect service-learning's impact on teacher efficacy with ELs is where the service should take place. While some EL field experiences are held only in preK-12 classrooms, other EL locations are available to teacher education programs. On-campus, many universities have intensive-English programs for international students (De Angelis & Marino, 2015). Off-campus, communities often offer English classes to adult second language learners (Center for Applied Linguistics [CAL], 2010). Researchers like Bergman (2013) have argued that field experiences in different educational settings may lead to different outcomes. This could also hold true for diverse types of EL settings (Coady, Harper, & deJong, 2011), because one type of EL learning setting may differ from another in its level and type of focus on cultural understanding and language learning. Thus, service-learning's impact on efficacy may vary, based on the type of EL location. To this point, no study has addressed the effects of service-learning in different EL classroom environments.

Considering the need for building up preservice teachers' efficacy for working with ELs, and the potential that service-learning offers to do so, it becomes vital to examine if service-learning can indeed increase teacher efficacy with ELs, and if the educational setting for this service matters. Therefore, this study seeks to answer the following two questions:

1. Does service-learning with English learners significantly improve preservice teachers' self-efficacy for teaching English learners?

2. Do different types of educational settings (specifically preK-12 schools, community adult ESL classes, and university intensive English programs) significantly differ from each other in improving preservice teachers' self-efficacy for teaching English learners while engaged in service-learning?

Conceptual Framework

Preservice Teachers' Self-efficacy with ELs

In this section, we will describe Bandura's general concept of self-efficacy and efficacy as it relates to teaching. Next, we will examine teacher efficacy with ELs, and why it is generally lower than with other student populations. Finally, we will explore how teacher education programs have tried to remedy this situation.

Self-Efficacy and Teacher Efficacy

Bandura (1997) termed the belief in one's self to accomplish difficult tasks and reach desired outcomes as self-efficacy. The most powerful and important source of perceived self-efficacy is what Bandura called "Enactive mastery experiences" (p.80). Mastery experiences build self-efficacy through active participation in the actual task to be performed, as opposed to learning by observation or in a classroom setting. People with high levels of self-efficacy for a task see challenges that can be overcome, while people whose perceived self-efficacy for a task is low will cease striving when faced with adversity.

Applying the concept of self-efficacy to educators, Hoy (2000) defined teacher efficacy as "teachers' confidence in their ability to promote students' learning" (p. 2). Research describes high efficacy teachers as believing in themselves and coming to work with the expectation that what they do positively affects their students' learning (Ashton, 1984). Jerald (2007) noted that when teachers believe they are capable of influencing their students' learning, they put the

responsibility for their students' learning into their own hands, no matter how challenging the students might be. On the other hand, teachers with low levels of self-efficacy have been characterized as frustrated and discouraged, assuming that students will perform poorly, and they lay responsibility for this anticipated failure at the feet of their students and their families (Ashton, 1984).

Teacher Efficacy with ELs

In light of the rising number of ELs in schools, it is vital that future teachers have high levels of efficacy for working with language learners. Unfortunately, preservice teachers report feeling unprepared to work with ELs (Durgunoğlu & Hughes, 2010; Polat, 2010), or less prepared for ELs than any other student population (Siwatu, 2011). This low efficacy can be detrimental to ELs, as teachers may view teaching these students as only the English-as-a-second-language teacher's responsibility or work with ELs just as they would with any other student, leaving out the specific methods and strategies necessary for ELs to access the academic content they are expected to learn (Washburn, 2008).

Why do preservice teachers report lower efficacy for working with ELs than with other students? Bandura (1997) suggests that when a person must perform a task that requires knowledge or a skill set that is further away from what they currently know, their efficacy for that task is likely to diminish. Instruction with ELs may require additional knowledge or competencies that are not necessary, or as necessary, with other student populations. This missing knowledge and understanding, and the probable cause of their low efficacy with ELs, seems to stem from their low cultural competence and unfamiliarity with second language learning needs (Harris, 2010; Hoover, 2008; JohnBull, 2012). The following is an explanation of these two competency domains.

First, cultural competence in education refers to how aware a teacher is of her own cultural identity, how she views cultural differences, and how well she can learn about and work with the different cultural norms of her students and their families (NEA, 2014). Researchers (e.g., Harris, 2010; JohnBull, 2012) have shown strong correlations between teachers' levels of efficacy and their cultural competence. If their cultural competence is low, their self-efficacy will also be low for working with students whose cultures differ from their own. Siwatu (2011) supports this assumption, as he found that preservice teachers, who are generally non-Hispanic White females (Goldring, Gray, & Bitterman, 2013), enjoy higher efficacy when working with White students in suburban environments, while lower when working with students from other cultural backgrounds, particularly when teaching in urban environments.

Second, teachers' understanding of their students' language learning needs also affects their efficacy for teaching ELs. While teachers have high levels of perceived efficacy when working with students who use Standard English as their first language, they have lower levels of self-efficacy for students who use non-standard English, particularly second language users (Tasan, 2001). Teachers have identified sensitivity and awareness of linguistic needs as their most important ability for working with ELs (Hoover, 2008). Unfortunately, most teachers have little, if any, knowledge concerning second language acquisition and the language needs of their ELs (Ballantyne, Sanderman, & Levy, 2008).

The Need to Raise Efficacy

Clearly, the need exists for increasing preservice teachers' cultural competence and understanding of the second language acquisition process to raise their efficacy for working with culturally and linguistically diverse students. To fill this gap, teacher education programs have begun to alter how they prepare future teachers (Hardmann, 2009). Teacher educators are

seeking ways to help future teachers feel more confident about working with ELs and in their abilities to teach these students. As one way to prepare future teachers, many universities now require preservice teachers to complete courses on multicultural education and second language development (Jimenez-Silva, Olson, & Hernandez, 2012). These classes give preservice teachers an introduction to theories and methodologies which are pertinent to second language learners.

However, researchers have discovered that course work by itself is insufficient for raising teachers' self-efficacy with ELs (Hutchinson, 2013; Jimenez-Silva, Olson, & Hernandez, 2012). Researchers have argued that teacher preparation should include the practical application of second language theory (O'Brien, 2011) and present specific strategies to use when engaging with ELs in meaningful interactions (Jimenez-Silva, Olson, & Hernandez, 2012). Teachers have reported that the aspect of their teacher education program they most valued for preparing to work with ELs was their opportunities to work directly with ELs in the field (Coady, Harper, & de Jong, 2011). The question becomes: how can teacher education programs design experiential-learning opportunities which will lead their preservice teachers to engage and interact with ELs?

Service-learning

One method for increasing preservice teachers' direct interaction with ELs and improving cultural competencies and language teaching strategies is through service-learning. The National Youth Leadership Council (2016) defines service-learning as "an approach to teaching and learning in which students use academic knowledge and skills to address genuine community needs". To be successful, service-learning with ELs must include a number of important elements. More than simple observation, there must be interaction between those serving and those being served (Hale, 2008). Following interaction, discussion should take place to process

and examine what preservice teachers have experienced (Cone, 2009). Individual reflection, particularly through journaling, is also crucial to creating internal change (Busch, 2010).

EL teacher educators have found service-learning to be a valuable teaching method, because it presents preservice teachers with opportunities to practice specific strategies and interact with ELs in meaningful ways (Coady, Harper, & de Jong, 2011; Jimenez-Silva, Olson, & Hernandez, 2012). They are able to experiment with the teaching strategies they learn in their course work and gain confidence in their abilities to use these skills with students (Bollin, 2007). The interaction they engage in also helps preservice teachers to build relationships with ELs (Hale, 2008) and begin to view ELs as students who have a place in their classrooms (Moore, 2013).

Researchers such as Hale (2008) have found evidence that service-learning promotes preservice teachers' understanding of culture and language acquisition. Service-learning has helped preservice teachers to increase their cultural awareness through perspectives that are different from that which they experienced growing up (Cooper, 2002). Preservice teachers have also developed greater awareness of diversity in schools and increased their sensitivity to the needs of diverse learners (Zeller, Griffith, Zhang, & Klenke, 2010). Additionally, Busch (2010) and Wong (2008) found that service-learning helped preservice teachers to examine their beliefs and biases and question their cultural assumptions. Research findings by Moore (2013) found that service-learning gave preservice teachers the opportunity to better understand and apply theories that they studied in their second language acquisition courses. Pappamihiel (2007) also learned that her preservice teachers' assumptions about language learning were challenged, particularly as they were exposed to different levels of language proficiency.

While researchers have looked to service-learning as being an effective way to raise teacher efficacy for teaching ELs, there is insufficient empirical support for these claims. These have been small-scale studies, usually analyzing only field reflections and interviews. More quantitative research is needed to investigate if service-learning significantly raises teacher efficacy with ELs (Szente, 2008).

EL Service-learning locations

In addition to examining service-learning's effectiveness for working with ELs, it is necessary to know where or in what field environment the service-learning will most increase efficacy. Researchers have found that outcomes for preservice teachers vary, depending on the type of field setting a preservice teacher visits and serves in (Bergman, 2013; Gomez, Strage, Knutson-Miller, & Garcia-Nevarez, 2009). Teacher education programs can choose from a number of field experience settings for working and interacting with ELs. Because the characteristics of these learning environments may impact preservice teachers' efficacy with ELs in different ways, it becomes important to examine these learning environments and how preservice teachers interact in them. The following is a description of three types of EL field experience settings: prek-12 grade schools, community adult ESL classes, and university intensive English programs (IEPs).

According to the Department of Education (2015), ELs in preK-12 language programs speak more than fifty different first languages, with the most common of these being Spanish, Vietnamese, Chinese, Arabic, and Hmong. It categorizes grade school programs designed for developing ELs' language proficiency as English and Another Language (more commonly bilingual education) or English only. In bilingual education programs, teachers either balance instruction between students' first and second language to develop proficiency in both languages

(dual language, two-way immersion, and Heritage language programs), or teach using the first language until students are able to learn solely in English (transitional bilingual programs). English Only programs such as Sheltered Instruction and Specially Designed Academic Instruction Delivered in English (SDAIE) are intended to focus on content and language at the same time (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2008). Others, like ESL Pull-out, are predominantly focused on language development, and while they may involve different content areas, are not directly related to what takes place in a content or mainstream classroom. Previous examples of preservice teachers working in this type of setting include working as in-class partners (Giambo, Szecsi, & Manning, 2005) and reading partners (Ngo, 2012).

Next, community adult ESL classes can be life skills/general ESL classes, family literacy programs, English literacy/civics programs, and vocational ESL classes (Center for Applied Linguistics, 2010). These classes are offered through K-12 schools, adult education programs, and community organizations. These classes are offered at various times and locations to meet learners' scheduling needs. Individuals in these classes might be the parents of ESL and bilingual children in grade schools. These learners' backgrounds are very diverse in nationality, age, proficiency in English, and educational level. Their need for English varies from survival English to English in the workplace to English in higher education (Mathews-Aydinli, 2008). In some previous studies, preservice teachers have assisted or tutored adults to facilitate their English development and adjustment to the host community (Fan, 2013; Moore, 2013; Mosley & Zoch, 2011; Pappamihiel, 2007).

Finally, intensive English programs (IEPs) offer classes to international students to improve their English proficiency before they qualify to enter into university studies or to improve their English proficiency for other purposes (Thompson, 2013). Students take classes

full-time, and come from many different nationalities. Courses are usually designed to focus on specific language skills such as speaking, listening, reading, writing, and academic vocabulary (Perez, 1995). The only example found in the literature of preservice teachers involved in this type of setting was working as conversation partners with international students (Savage & Cox, 2013).

Summary

There is an urgent need for teacher education programs to increase preservice teachers' efficacy with ELs, specifically by raising their cultural awareness and understanding of ELs' language learning needs (Harris, 2010; Hoover, 2008; JohnBull, 2012). This will only happen through direct experience with ELs (Coady, Harper, & de Jong, 2011). Many experts have pointed to service-learning as a method for providing this direct experience (Hale, 2008; Moore, 2013; Pappamihiel, 2007). However, to the best of our knowledge, there is currently no empirical research that shows the effect of service-learning on preservice teachers' efficacy with ELs, as well as no research that compares how different EL learning environments impact the development of preservice teachers' efficacy. The two purposes of this study are to test if service-learning significantly improves preservice teachers' efficacy with ELs and determine if the type of EL learning site plays a role in increasing efficacy through service-learning. The next section will explain the methods used in this study.

Methods

Participants

The participants in this project were preservice teachers in a college of education at a Tier-I research university in the Southwestern United States. Their specific degree programs were pre-k through 6/general, middle grades 4-8 Math/Science, and middle grades 4-8 Language

Arts/Social Studies. Out of 208 preservice teachers who began the study, 200 completed it. Of these, 185 participants were white, 3 were African-American, 4 were Asian-American, 2 were Native American, and 6 reported two or more races. Eleven were Hispanic and 189 were non-Hispanic. Gender was expectedly one-sided, with 196 females, and just 4 males.

Intervention

The following section describes the intervention used in this study. The first section depicts the participants' ESL Methods course and the service-learning component of the course. Following this, there is an illustration of the three types of service-learning settings the participants could choose to attend. Lastly, we explain how the summer session differed slightly in its service-learning opportunities from the spring and fall semesters.

The ESL methods course

One of the degree requirements for the preservice teachers in the program is to take a one semester, three-credit-hour course in ESL theory and methodology. According to the course syllabus, the main objective of the course is to understand how to adapt instructional methodologies to support culturally and linguistically diverse students in the classroom. Students also gain knowledge about first and second language acquisition, multicultural/multilingual environments, ESL methods, and factors that can affect how ESL students learn academic content, language, and culture. Based off of this new knowledge, they should know what ELs need in order to develop their English proficiency, advocate for these students in schools, and promote the involvement of ELs' families and communities in the schools.

As part of this course, they participated in a service-learning field experience where ELs were present and made up the majority of the students in the classroom. Participants had the option to choose one of three types of EL locations. These locations were prek-6 schools with

large numbers of EL children, community adult ESL classes, or the university's intensive English program for international students. The preservice teachers attended their field experience classroom for a total of ten hours during the semester. However, in the shorter summer session, only eight hours of service-learning were required. Visits to classrooms were usually an hour long, though some locations encouraged visits an hour and a half to two hours, meaning some participants may have had as few as five visits to complete the ten hours. Participants were also required to write reflection papers (at least 400 words) for every hour that they were in the field (4000 words by the end of the semester or 3200 words during the summer).

Service-learning locations

First, the choices for PreK-6 educational settings were a local elementary school or a daycare with many children for whom English is a second language. The elementary school had bilingual classrooms for native Spanish speakers. The school uses a one-way dual language program, intending to develop linguistic abilities, particularly reading, in both languages, and increase cross-cultural awareness and academic achievement. Preservice teachers volunteered in the school's EL Classroom Tutor Program with students in grades K-5. The daycare, located next to the university, provides child care for many of the university's international students. Preservice teachers in this service-learning experience were part of the center's EL Classroom Tutor Program. Participants here served in two-hour blocks, either during the first or the second half of the semester. There were 47 participants in this setting.

The community adult ESL classes were run through varying local agencies, including adult learning centers and local churches in the community. Classes in this type of setting were held in both the morning and evening (this was the only setting with an evening option). At least one of these programs offered multiple levels of instruction in reading, writing, speaking and

listening skills. Students were told that they would observe the ESL teachers as they instruct adult learners and also get to work with adult ELs who are similar to the parents of ELs in schools. The description from their ESL methods course described preservice teachers' work in these programs as English tutors and classroom assistants. Some of these programs required volunteers to be present for two hours, while others required only one hour. A total of 75 participants selected this group.

Lastly, the university's intensive English program (IEP) works to develop the English proficiency of international students. These students are generally university-aged, with many of them planning to enter the university after completing their English studies. Preservice teachers in this group were assigned through the IEP's Classroom Partner Program, in which they would visit classes ten times during the semester. Classes that students could be assigned to visit included listening skills, oral skills, and American customs classes (oral skills, grammar, and vocabulary classes during summer sessions). The program informed students that they were to act as the ELs' equals in the classroom, rather than as tutors. There were 78 participants in this setting.

Summer session

Summer session courses lasted for five weeks, as opposed to the sixteen week semesters. There were two main options for preservice teachers taking the ESL methods course during the summer session. All the students on the university campus were assigned to assist in the IEP's Classroom Partners program for 2 hours each week for at least eight hours. Students spending the summer away from the university campus, but still enrolled in the online course, were instructed to find ELs in their community and work with them for at least eight hours. Students were

encouraged to look for similar educational settings as in other semesters, such as ESL programs at community centers, churches, and schools.

Instrumentation

In this study, we employed a modified version of Yough's (2008) Teacher Efficacy for Teaching English Language Learners (TETELL) survey. This was one of the few instruments at the time of data collection for having teachers report on their level of efficacy for teaching English learners, with Yough (2008) and Freeman (2011) being the only known users of the instrument. Dr. Yough granted permission to use his instrument in this study. The TETELL survey consists of 31 items with a Likert-style scale from 1-9. A lower score on an item indicates that the teacher has a low level of belief in herself to accomplish the specific task with ELs. For example, item number four asks "How much can you do to get ESL students to believe they can do well in school?" A score of 2 indicates that the teacher believes she can do nothing to improve an ESL student's belief, while an 8 indicates that the teacher feels she can do a great deal. The TETELL survey was administered to the students at the beginning of the semester, before students had started their EL service-learning experience, and again at the end of the semester after the field experiences had been completed. Overall internal consistency of the survey within this study was high, with Cronbach's alpha being .827, though this was lower than Yough's original reported level of .973 *or Freeman's (2011) levels for three scales of .91, .87, and .91.*

Data Analysis

The researcher used SPSS for the statistical analysis of the research questions. To answer the first research question and test for significant differences between pre and post survey scores, across the entire data sample and within each different EL setting, we used a series of paired-sample t-tests. To address the second research question, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), with

the presurvey data as a covariate to control for baseline equivalence, seemed to be the most appropriate method of analysis. However, it was detected that the assumption of homogeneity of slopes was not met for ANCOVA ($F(2, 194)=8.308$, $p<.001$), thus the use of ANCOVA was not appropriate (Poremba & Rowell, 1997). Therefore, regression analysis was chosen to examine if there was a significant difference between the three groups at the post-survey, adjusting for pre-survey difference.

We ran the regression analysis with the following independent variables: location, presurvey, and the interaction between location and presurvey, with the dependent variable being the post survey. Interaction was included as an independent variable because it was found to be statistically significant in the ANCOVA. To identify the region of significance for the interaction effect, we used an online program http://www.quantpsy.org/interact/mlr2.htm (Preacher, Curran, & Bauer, 2006). The next section describes the results of these analyses.

Results

Question 1

The first research question asks whether or not service-learning improves teacher efficacy for working with ELs. To examine this question, a paired sample t-test was conducted for the pre and post survey scores for each of the locations. As shown in table 1, participants' mean scores in each setting significantly improved by the end of service-learning (preK-12: $t(46)=-5.25$, $p < .001$, IEP: $t(77)=-8.24$, $p < .001$, community adult ESL: $t(74)=-9.95$, $p < .001$).

Table 1

Survey mean scores

Location	Pre	SD	Post	SD
PreK-12	181.72	37.36	206.85	40.38
IEP	180.99	45.75	219.42	34.82
Community adult ESL	164.41	47.02	218.76	27.02

Question 2

Next, the second research question asks if different EL educational settings significantly differ from each other in improving preservice teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELs while engaged in service-learning. The regression analysis indicated that at least one group was significantly different from another on the post survey ($t = 4.575$, $p < .001$). However, according to the region of significance obtained from the online program, this did not hold true for the entire range of scores (see Figure 1). For presurvey scores between 192 and 244, there were no significant post survey differences between location groups. In contrast, for participants who initially scored above 244 or below 192, there was a significant difference among the three groups' scores on the post survey.

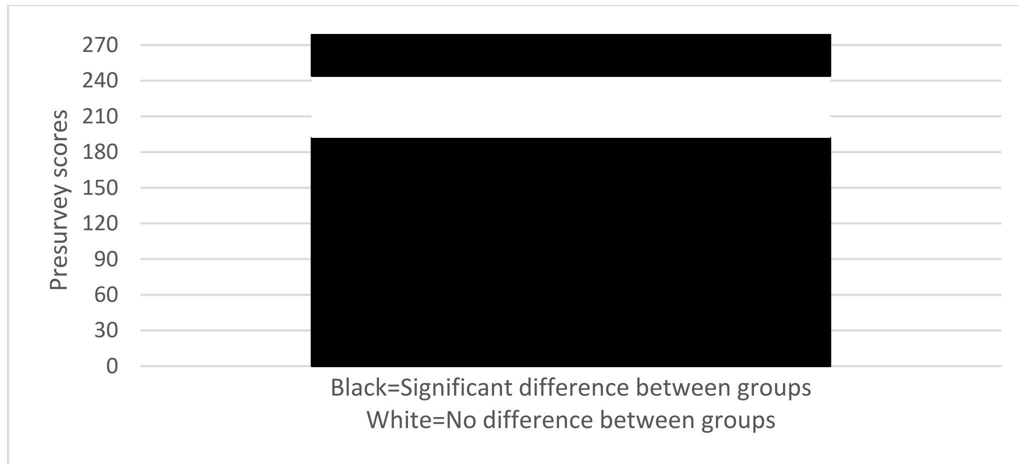

Figure 1: Post survey regions of significance between groups for service site when accounting for initial scores.

While this meant that there was indeed a significant difference between the groups, it did not identify where the difference(s) lied. Therefore, a post-hoc analysis was performed to compare the difference on the post survey between two groups at a time, followed by the identification of regions of significance using the online program. Results presented in Table 2 suggested that: (a) participants who scored below 194 on the presurvey (in the "okay" range) had greater increase in their degree of self-efficacy if they conducted their service-learning in the IEP site, as compared to the equivalent participants in the PreK-12 service-learning site, (b) participants who scored below 136 on the presurvey (in the "poorly" range) increased more in their degree of their self-efficacy by serving in the adult community ESL setting as compared to similar participants in the IEP setting, (c) participants who scored below 191 on the presurvey (in the "okay" range) made greater gains in efficacy by serving in the adult community ESL setting than those who served in PreK-12 settings, and (d) participants who scored above 245 on the presurvey (in the "very well" range) made greater gains in efficacy while serving in the PreK-12 setting than participants serving in community adult ESL settings.

Table 2

Regions of significance between EL learning sites

Comparison	*t*	Significance level	Lower boundary of presurvey	Upper boundary of presurvey
PreK-12 *vs*. IEP	2.64	.009	194	n/a
IEP *vs*. community adult ESL	2.408	.017	136	n/a
PreK-12 *vs*. community adult ESL	4.742	<.001	191	245

Discussion

Overall changes in efficacy

The analysis of our data in this study has demonstrated that service-learning enhances preservice teachers' level of efficacy for working with ELs. All three groups increased their self-efficacy. This study supports the findings of other recent research (López & Assaf, 2014) which showcases service-learning's potential for building preservice teachers' confidence to work with ELs and adds to the limited number of quantitative studies dealing not only with service-learning and teacher efficacy for working with ELs, but service-learning and teachers in general. The previous quantitative research that does exist has shown service-learning to improve teacher traits, including efficacy, though not always significantly so, or did not play the sole defining factor in preservice teachers' growth (Shastri, 2001; Trauth-Nare, 2015).

Comparison of groups

The interaction between efficacy and service learning site

Educational settings differed in their impact on preservice teachers' efficacy, based on the preservice teacher's initial level of efficacy. This highlights the importance of taking into account the preservice teacher's current level of efficacy for working with ELs in different educational settings. The key issue seems to be that the lower the level of efficacy with ELs, the higher the need for developing cultural competency and linguistic understanding. Conversely, the higher the current level of efficacy, the less necessary an emphasis on cultural competency and linguistic understanding will be. Therefore, it is not a question of what type of service-learning location preservice teachers should experience, but when should they experience a specific type of location. Taking into account initial levels of efficacy, and recognizing the varying degree to which preservice teachers need to develop cultural competency and understanding of linguistic needs, we shall examine why certain learning environments most benefited students at different efficacy levels.

Preservice teachers with the lowest levels of efficacy

We begin by addressing why preservice teachers who felt that they could only teach "poorly" or were "not at all" able to accomplish academic objectives with ELs benefited most from the community adult ESL settings. This setting seems ideal for building cultural competency and observing language development. Hooks (2008) reported that working with adult ELs in the community gave preservice teachers increased "confidence in working with all of the parents and families of the children in their classrooms" (p. 106), meaning preservice teachers were feeling more comfortable with people from their future students' culture. Also,

because of the general language development objective in this setting, preservice teachers are able to gain understanding of the second language acquisition process (Mosley & Zoch, 2011). Finally, partner or group activities in this setting between preservice teachers and adult ELs give preservice teachers greater confidence in their abilities to communicate with ELs (Hooks, 2008). This setting may be most effective for preservice teachers with lower efficacy, because the purpose of the classroom interaction is to lead to cultural exchange and language development, which is precisely what these preservice teachers need to experience.

Preservice teachers with "okay" levels of efficacy

Next, of the preservice teachers who initially rated themselves as "okay", those who served adults benefited more than those who worked with children. The important difference between adult and child settings is their intended learning outcomes for ELs. The adult service-learning sites are designed to increase proficiency in English, especially oral language, as well as knowledge of American culture, while the PreK-12 sites aim to promote academic learning, such as literacy development. The following sections more closely examine this key difference between adult and child service-learning sites.

First, in both community adult ESL classes and IEPs, preservice teachers are more likely to participate in conversations and discussions which help ELs improve oral fluency and build cultural knowledge or understanding, than to assist in academic work. In community adult ESL sites, they are working with programs that meet a wide variety of needs (CAL, 2010), often focusing on improving learners' spoken English for specific purposes or situations (Hooks, 2008). Preservice teachers are also able to learn from adults' experiences, or funds of knowledge

(Mosley & Zoch, 2011), that they bring to the classroom. Likewise, in the IEP, preservice teachers help ELs to practice English and engage in cultural exchange (Savage & Cox, 2013).

Service-learning in the grade level schools, however, is mainly directed towards academic concerns. In many cases, there simply is not time in mainstream classes for oral language production with the existing constraints on curriculum and testing requirements (Sullivan, Hegde, Ballard, & Ticknor, 2015). Consistent with other studies where preservice teachers worked with elementary school ELs (Purmensky, 2006; Szente, 2008), preservice teachers tutored these elementary ELs in literacy activities, such as reading to them and helping them with class assignments in English. Even in the international preschool, while only working with children under age five, instruction seemed to be academically-motivated. Similar to other research on preservice teachers volunteering with preschool ELs (Heineke, Kennedy, & Lees, 2013), preservice teachers' main work was to assist the classroom teachers to prepare students for academic work in grade school. Spending service-learning time on only academically-minded activities, while appropriate for the setting, limits the opportunity for preservice teachers to converse with the children and learn more about their cultures.

Preservice teachers reporting "okay" levels of efficacy may not be developmentally ready to work directly with ELs in schools. Chang (2009) has observed that when preservice teachers have tutored and been challenged by students who are struggling with literacy or their ability to give feedback to teachers, these preservice teachers recognize that they are currently unprepared to work with these struggling learners. They also begin to consider how well they can or cannot relate to these students. Experiencing the difficulty of helping ELs with academic work, as well as not being able to relate to these students culturally or linguistically, could prove costly for

their belief in themselves to help these students succeed. These challenging circumstances could stunt, or even have negative effect on their efficacy (Bandura, 1997).

Preservice teachers who believe they can do "well" with ELs

Next, for preservice teachers who are beginning to feel confident in their ability to work with ELs, the service-learning site would not necessarily be an intervening variable. They still need to raise their level of efficacy with ELs, but they have enough knowledge of language learning and are culturally competent enough that any additional experience, whether with the typical type of student they will eventually teach (children) or in less academically minded settings (adults) will benefit them.

Preservice teachers with very high levels of efficacy

Finally, if a preservice teacher has an already very high level of teacher efficacy, then service-learning with ELs in more academic settings, such as a university intensive-English program or elementary school is best. This high level of self-efficacy was most likely based on preservice teachers' previous experiences, and would remain higher than other participants throughout their experiences in the field (Peebles & Mendaglio, 2014). Because of their previous experiences, they are confident enough in their understanding of language and culture to jump right into academic settings, including working with children in PreK-12. These preservice teachers benefit most from experiences that most closely simulate academic teaching with ELs, such as individual tutoring or small group teaching (Coady, Harper, & de Jong, 2011). Experience resembling what they will eventually do as teachers in schools further raises their efficacy for working with ELs beyond that which could happen in less academically oriented environments like the community adult ESL classes.

Implications, limitations of the study, and future research

As this study has shown, service-learning as a teaching method can be a positive way to raise efficacy. By participating in service-learning, it is possible for preservice teachers who have not previously interacted with ELs to eventually enjoy the same levels of efficacy as those who entered with prior experiences (Peebles & Mendaglio, 2014). Additionally, and equally important, this study has shed light on the developmental process that preservice teachers undergo to build up their self-efficacy, which then affects how service-learning should be employed with these future teachers. While teacher education programs do need to prepare preservice teachers to work with ELs in content areas, literacy, and assessment (Harper & de Jong, 2009), this process to build up efficacy with ELs should not necessarily start with academics in mind. Instead, it should begin by focusing on the teachers' level of cultural competency and knowledge of learners' linguistic needs (Ballantyne, Sanderman, & Levy, 2008; Hoover, 2008). Then, as preservice teachers gain confidence in themselves to meet the cultural and linguistic needs of ELs, programs can increase the amount of time preservice teachers spend working directly with and be responsible for children's academic learning (Spear-Swerling, 2009).

A limitation to this study is the fact that though the teacher education program works with these different locations to place preservice teachers for service-learning purposes, there is variation, both within and across programs, as far as what the preservice teachers actually do in these classrooms. As evidenced by their field reflections, some preservice teachers may have observed more than they participated, or were in classes where the mentor teacher may have had integrated the preservice teacher into the activities than in other locations. Service-learning in this study took place across a number of locations in the community, and with a number of

different teachers. It is possible that service-learning in some sites did not promote growth in efficacy as much as they could have, if the teaching-styles within those classrooms were not as conducive to service-learning. Future research should seek to more closely control, if possible, for what actually happens in the classroom, and work with individual teachers to clarify the purposes of the service-learning for all involved.

While this study has answered questions pertaining to service-learning's effects on preservice teachers with ELs in different circumstances, it poses new questions as well. Avenues for further research include discovering what preservice teachers themselves say impacted their efficacy during these experiences. This could be done by collecting and analyzing other sources of data such as interviews and reflection journals.

We have much to learn concerning the process of developing efficacy, such as the number of hours a teacher must have in the field serving ELs before she has a sufficiently high level of efficacy. More needs to be learned about preservice teachers' efficacy levels as they join the teaching profession (Tran, 2015), and if high levels of efficacy translate into effective use of best-practices with ELs. The field would benefit from knowing if high efficacy equates to being able to use strategies effectively with learners, or if more is needed besides course and field work.

Finally, knowing that service-learning can be an effective way to help preservice teachers, researchers should examine what programs can do to successfully implement and sustain appropriate types of service learning for the prospective teachers (Moore, 2013). This includes how teacher education programs can create partnerships within the community to find additional placements in community adult ESL classrooms (Mcdonald, Tyson, Brayko, Bowman,

Delport, & Shimomura, 2011), and how to overcome any barriers that may prevent these types of partnerships from flourishing.

Conclusion

Teacher education programs should incorporate service-learning with ELs into their preparation for preservice teachers, so that these future teachers feel prepared to meet the needs of ELs in their mainstream classrooms. Programs should design these experiences in the field to appropriately assist preservice teachers in becoming competent teachers (Aiken & Day, 1999). The placement of these prospective teachers needs to be intentional, with programs carefully considering preservice teachers' developmental needs (Gomez, Strage, Knutson-Miller, & Garcia-Nevarez, 2009). Though unorthodox for most field placements in K-12 education, these programs would be wise to turn more towards class settings involving adult learners as a means to improving preservice teachers' cultural competency and understanding of second language acquisition. Service-learning in these learning environments will give preservice teachers the opportunity to build their confidence before they move to more challenging tasks and situations They will be ready for the challenge of teaching ELs in schools. Just as they have discovered their own abilities to teach, so too they will inspire their future ELs to reach their true potential to learn.

CHAPTER III

THE SETTING MAKES A DIFFERENCE: DEVELOPING PRESERVICE TEACHERS' EFFICACY FOR ENGLISH LEARNERS THROUGH SERVICE-LEARNING

Overview

Preservice teachers have low self-efficacy for teaching English learners (ELs), which could be related to a lack of cultural competence and understanding of second language acquisition. Service-learning with ELs has the potential to raise their efficacy. This study asks how do different types of service-learning settings differ from each other in the ways they impact preservice teachers' self-efficacy with English learners? Two hundred participants served in three EL location types: PreK-12, intensive English program, and community adult ESL. Analysis of Field reflections indicated that while participants in all locations improved efficacy, these settings varied in how they helped participants develop efficacy with ELs. Adult EL settings, particularly the intensive English program, offered greater possibilities for understanding the second language acquisition process and building cultural competence, while PreK-12 EL settings gave more opportunities to preservice teachers to see how to work with ELs in their future professional environment.

Introduction

English learners (ELs) are one of the fastest growing student populations in the United States, with over 4.6 million students as of 2015 (McFarland, et al., 2017). Lawmakers expect schools to help ELs gain proficiency in English, while also learning academic content and reaching required levels of academic standards. In the past, schools most frequently placed these students into bilingual or ESL programs. However, as EL enrollments have grown, and schools have experienced greater pressure to fully immerse learners into English speaking classrooms, schools have shifted from assigning these students to ESL or bilingual classrooms, and assigning them instead to classrooms with mainstream teachers (Villegas, SaizdeLaMora, Martin, & Mills, 2018).

In order to help ELs accomplish state-mandated outcomes for language and academic learning, mainstream teachers must first believe that these outcomes are possible. Teachers' confidence in themselves to help students achieve educational goals, first referred to by Hoy (2000) as "teacher efficacy", plays an important role in the potential for students to succeed in the classroom (Kim & Seo, 2018). However, preservice teachers frequently report feeling unprepared to teach ELs (Everling, 2013; Polat, 2010). In fact, preservice teachers report feeling less efficacious for working with ELs than with other student populations (Siwatu, 2011). Low levels of efficacy mean that preservice teachers will be less likely to focus on ELs and provide them with the high quality instruction necessary to reach academic success (Washburn, 2008). Without an increase in preservice teachers' efficacy for teaching ELs, future teachers will not be able to properly meet the needs of ELs in schools. `

Low teacher efficacy with ELs stems from two issues. The first is a lack cultural competence. Cultural competence in education refers to teacher's self-awareness of her own

cultural identity, her views towards cultural differences, and her ability to learn about and work with the different cultural norms of her students and their families (National Education Association, 2014). ELs represent a plethora of cultural backgrounds (Rodríguez, 2013), and this diversity of cultural practices can present challenges for teachers who are not familiar with practices that are different than their own (Wall, 2017). Researchers (e.g., Harris, 2010; JohnBull, 2012) have shown strong correlations between teachers' levels of efficacy and their cultural competence. When cultural competence is low, self-efficacy is likely to be low for working with students from different cultures.

Second, preservice teachers' knowledge and understanding of second language acquisition and teaching affects their level of efficacy for working with ELs. Previous studies have identified sensitivity and awareness of linguistic needs as the most important abilities to possess when working with ELs (Jimenez-Silva, Olson, & Hernandez, 2012; Sehlaoui & Albrecht, 2011). Unfortunately, teachers often have little, knowledge about second language acquisition or strategies to work successfully with language learners (Ballantyne, Sanderman, & Levy, 2008). Additionally, preservice teachers view students' first languages as barriers when working with ELs (Torres & Tackett, 2016; Wall, 2017). Perceived language barriers and lack of second language acquisition knowledge leave preservice teachers feeling helpless, thus lowering their efficacy to work with ELs. While teachers have high levels of perceived efficacy when working with students who use Standard English as their first language, they show lower levels of self-efficacy with non-standard forms of English or are learning English as a second language (Tasan, 2001).

In order to improve preservice teachers' efficacy with ELs, teacher education programs have begun to incorporate coursework which addresses cultural awareness and understanding of

second language acquisition (Jimenez-Silva, Olson, & Hernandez, 2012; Tran, 2015). However, researchers have shown that course work alone is not enough to raise teachers' self-efficacy with ELs (Hutchinson, 2013; Jimenez-Silva, Olson, & Hernandez, 2012). Researchers suggest that preservice teachers should see the practical application of second language theory (O'Brien, 2011) and learn specific strategies to use with ELs to promote meaningful interaction (Jimenez-Silva, Olson, & Hernandez, 2012). Teachers have indicated that the most valuable preparation they received for working with ELs took place when they worked directly with ELs in the field (Coady, Harper, & de Jong, 2011). In fact, Torres and Tackett (2016) have reported that preservice teachers who have field experiences with ELs show higher efficacy for working with ELs than preservice teachers who do not have these opportunities. Field experience plays an important role in preservice teachers' preparation with ELs.

The question for teacher education programs is how to pair second language acquisition coursework with opportunities to work closely with ELs. This interaction must help preservice teachers to develop greater cultural awareness, as well as empower them to meet the needs of language learners.

In response to this need, some teacher education programs have turned to service-learning (Purmensky, 2009). In service-learning, students and community members work together in a way that both furthers academic objectives (National Youth Leadership Council, 2016) and meets the specific, authentic needs which are identified by the community itself (Thompson, 2012). After work with community members in the field, both class discussion and individual reflection are crucial for processing and examining what preservice teachers have experienced and to promote internal change (Busch, 2010; Cone, 2009). Preservice teachers can

work in a number of different roles, such as a reading partner (Purmensky, 2006), an after-school tutor (Fitts & Gross, 2012) or a conversation partner (Savage & Cox, 2013; Keengwe, 2010).

Previous research on service-learning with ELs has found beneficial outcomes for preservice teachers. These include improved attitudes towards language learners (Pappamihiel, 2007), corrected assumptions about who ELs are (Amaro-Jiménez, 2012), and improved understanding of ESL best practices (Moore, 2013). Of particular importance to the current research, Hale (2008) highlighted preservice teachers' increased confidence for working with EL children after service-learning.

One aspect to consider with service-learning is the type of EL setting. While most teacher education field experiences are held only in preK-12 classrooms, other locations are available for working with ELs. First, many universities offer Intensive-English programs for international students (De Angelis & Marino, 2015). Second, some communities provide English classes to adult learners (Center for Applied Linguistics [CAL], 2010). The following is a description of these three types of EL locations.

First, ELs in preK-12 programs represent a great variety of first languages, the most common of these being Spanish (Department of Education, 2015). Programs for developing ELs' language proficiency are categorized as bilingual education or English only. Next, community adult ESL classes can focus on a number of different areas, such as ESL, family literacy, English literacy and civics, or vocational ESL (CAL, 2010). These classes are offered in many locations, including K-12 schools, adult education programs, and community organizations. These adult learners vary greatly in nationality, proficiency in English, age, and educational level. Their purposes for learning English range from adjusting to a new culture to communicating in the workplace to advancing in higher education (Mathews-Aydinli, 2008). Lastly, intensive English

programs (IEPs) provides instruction to international students before they begin university degree programs or for other purposes (Thompson, 2013). Courses focus on general language skills and academic vocabulary (Perez, 1995).

This variety in settings may be important, as Bergman (2013) has argued that the type of setting may play an important role on what a preservice teacher experiences and how she develops in the field. This could apply to EL settings as well (Coady, Harper, & deJong, 2011), since EL learning settings may differ in the amount of emphasis they give to cultural understanding and language learning. Few studies have examined how service-learning in different EL classroom environments affect preservice teachers, particularly when it comes to their teacher efficacy.

This qualitative research study explores how preservice teachers' efficacy develops over time as a result of service-learning in different EL locations. We will examine the service-learning program of one teacher education program's ESL methods course. We seek to answer the following research question: How do different types of service-learning settings (specifically PreK-12 schools, community adult ESL classes, and university intensive English programs) differ from each other in the ways they impact preservice teachers' self-efficacy with English learners?

Study Design and Procedures

Study Context and Participants

The participants in this project were preservice teachers in a college of education at a Tier-I research university in the Southwestern United States. Their specific degree programs were pre-k through 6/general, middle grades 4-8 Math/Science, and middle grades 4-8 Language Arts/Social Studies. A total of 200 preservice teachers participated in the study. The majority of

the participants were white (185), while 3 were African-American, 4 were Asian-American, 2 were Native American, and 6 reported two or more races. The majority of the participants were female (196).

The participants' service-learning experience was part of a one semester, three-credit-hour course in ESL theory and methodology that preservice teachers are required to take for their degree program. According to the course syllabus, the main objective of the course is to understand how to adapt instructional methodologies to support culturally and linguistically diverse students in the classroom. Students also gain knowledge about first and second language acquisition, multicultural/multilingual environments, ESL methods, and factors that can affect how ESL students learn academic content, language, and culture. Based off of this new knowledge, they should know what ELs need in order to develop their English proficiency, advocate for these students in schools, and promote the involvement of ELs' families and communities in the schools.

For their service-learning experience, participants choose one of three types of EL locations. These locations were prek-6 schools with large numbers of EL children (this option was not available during the fall semester), community adult ESL classes, or the university's intensive English program for international students. The preservice teachers attended their field experience classroom for a total of ten hours during the semester. However, in the shorter summer session, only eight hours of service-learning were required. Visits to classrooms were usually an hour long, though some locations encouraged visits of an hour and a half to two hours, meaning some participants may have had as few as five visits to complete the ten hours. Participants were also required to write reflection papers, of at least 400 words for each hour that they were in the field (4000 words by the end of the semester or 3200 words during the summer).

For reflections, instructors advised preservice teachers to focus on course-related topics like language development, though they were free to describe other aspects of the service-learning experience that they felt were noteworthy.

The choices for young learners' locations were a local elementary school or a daycare with many children for whom English is a second language. The elementary school had bilingual classrooms for native Spanish speakers. The school used a one-way dual language program, intending to develop linguistic abilities, particularly reading, in both languages, and increase cross-cultural awareness and academic achievement. Preservice teachers volunteered in the school's *EL Classroom Tutor Program* with students in grades K-5. The daycare, located next to the university, provides child care for many of the university's international students. Like the elementary school, the daycare center calls their volunteer program the *EL Classroom Tutor Program*. Participants here served in two-hour blocks, either during the first or the second half of the semester. A total of 47 participants selected this setting.

The community adult ESL classes are run through various local agencies, including adult learning centers and local churches in the community. Classes in this type of setting were held in both the morning and evening (this was the only setting with an evening option). At least one of these programs offered multiple levels of instruction in reading, writing, speaking and listening skills. Students were told that they would observe the ESL teachers as they instruct adult learners and also work with adult ELs who are similar in background to the parents of ELs in schools. The description from their ESL methods course described preservice teachers' work in these programs as English tutors and classroom assistants. Some of these programs required volunteers to be present for two hours, while others required only one hour. There were 75 participants in this group.

Lastly, the university's intensive English program (IEP) works to develop the English proficiency of international students. These students are generally university-aged, with many of them planning to enter the university after completing their English studies. Preservice teachers in this group were assigned through the IEP's Classroom Partner Program, in which they would visit classes ten times during the semester. Classes that students could be assigned to visit included listening skills, oral skills, and American customs classes (oral skills, grammar, and vocabulary classes were the options during summer sessions). The program informed students that they were to participate as the ELs' equals in the classroom, rather than as tutors. The remaining 78 participants were in this setting.

Summer session courses lasted for five weeks, as opposed to the regular, normal, sixteen week semesters. There were two main options for preservice teachers taking the ESL methods course during the summer session. All the students on the university campus were assigned to assist in the IEP's Classroom Partners program for 2 hours each week for at least eight hours. Students spending the summer away from the university campus, but still enrolled in the online course, were instructed to find ELs within their own community and work with them for at least eight hours. Students were encouraged to look for similar educational settings as in other semesters, such as ESL programs at community centers, churches, and schools.

As researchers, we had little control over what actually happened in the classroom settings and the quality of the teaching they observed. We were not able to meet with either program leaders or teachers in these settings to explain the purpose of our research and what we hoped to accomplish. Also, we did not have control over which classes the preservice teachers would be sent to, nor over which teachers in each location would act as mentor teachers for the preservice teachers. With the exception of knowing the general hiring requirements for working

at each location, such as needing a bachelor's degree in the PreK-12 setting or a master's degree for the IEP, we did not know what background or training the teachers in these classrooms had. Additionally, we did not know what the mentor teachers knew or understood about the purpose of our sending preservice teachers to them or how they felt the preservice teachers should be used in their classrooms.

After data collection had completed, the first author had the opportunity to teach courses at both the IEP and in one of the community adult ESL settings. He learned that the IEP had specific activities set up for class hours when the Classroom Partners Program took place. These activities were designed for one-on-one and small-group situations. Instructors within the same course/proficiency level shared activities for these class hours. Teacher generally spent less time on formal instruction, with the majority of class time being spent on these small-group and one-on-one activities.

On the other hand, the community adult ESL classes were less organized or prepared for our participants. Each teacher used participants in his or her own way, with no specific activities designed for when participants came. The first researcher also learned that the purpose for sending preservice teachers to the classrooms in this setting was not clear or well understood. This lack of consistency in classroom teaching and understanding of their roles as mentor teachers would mean that preservice teachers' experiences would not be the same, not only across programs, but between programs. We cannot comment on the consistency or quality of the experience in the PreK-12 program, as none of the researchers had the opportunity to work in this setting.

Data

We used purposeful sampling to select field reflections from each of the three EL settings. We tried to eliminate reflections which had not met the requirements of the assignment, such as not writing at least 4,000 words. We also made sure that the participants had not gone to more than one type of location; this was a concern in the summer semester. Finally, we removed reflections from students who completed more than the planned hours during the semester (some students were enrolled concurrently in the first and second semester ESL methods courses, and therefore participated in twice as many hours of service-learning as those who were in only the first methods course). After eliminating reflection papers that did not meet the criteria, we selected 27 reflections from the PreK-12 settings, 32 reflections from the IEP setting, and 31 reflections from the community adult ESL settings.

Data Analysis

To examine the field reflections, we employed thematic analysis with a theory-driven approach (Boyatzis, 1998) in order to capture general trends related to the themes of teacher efficacy, cultural competence, and understanding of second language learning. We devised a coding scheme, based on descriptions of these different themes in the literature (see Fan, 2013; Fitts & Gross, 2012; Hale, 2008; Hooks, 2008; Keengwe, 2010; Moore, 2013; Mosley & Zoch, 2011; Palmer & Menard-Warwick, 2012; Slapac & Kim, 2014). Overall efficacy highlighted points such as the preservice teachers' enthusiasm or confidence for teaching ELs and how discouraged or worried they were about interacting with ELs. Cultural competency codes focused on issues such as awareness of differences in culture, level of comfort with cultural differences, and establishing relationships with people from different cultures. Codes for understanding second language learning included improved understanding of second language

learning, observing good language teaching practices, ability to explain concepts to ELs, and positive or negative experiences when communicating with ELs.

Following the creation of the coding scheme, the first author assembled a data analysis team to review all field reflections. The team was comprised of the first author and six research assistants. These assistants were undergraduate students in the researchers' university. They received training for conducting the analysis from the first researcher, prior to beginning the coding. After training, the research team met to revise the coding scheme to better reflect the comments in the reflections. After these changes were made to the coding scheme, team members individually coded the same test reflections to begin the process of establishing consistency in coding between all team members. The team then met to discuss their coding. For any discrepancies, team members conferred together, until general agreement was reached on how to categorize specific elements within the coding scheme. Once the research team had conferred on issues of coding, team members proceeded to code the remaining reflections. During and following the coding process, which took place over a matter of weeks, the team shared and discussed patterns that they noted, both within and between locations. Additionally, following the analysis by team members, the first author reviewed some reflections further to validate specific themes in the analysis.

Findings

Our research question asked if and how these three EL settings differently affect preservice teachers' efficacy during service-learning. Of particular note, how does service in these locations affect preservice teachers' level of cultural competency and understanding of ELs' linguistic needs, as these would greatly impact their efficacy? The reflections showed participants' in all groups starting off with low efficacy, but becoming much more confident by

the end of their time in the field. The reflections also revealed the different ways in which participants' efficacy changed, both between and within different groups. Key influences in these changes were the focus on culture and language in the classroom, the opportunity for direct interaction with ELs in their setting, and the age group that participants were working with.

Overall Efficacy

Similar to other studies involving preservice teachers in service-learning with ELs (Keengwe, 2010; Pappamihiel, 2007; Rodríguez-Arroyo & Vaughns, 2015; Silva & Kucer, 2016; Wall, 2017), preservice teachers across settings indicated initial feelings of nervousness, and sometimes excitement. Many of the preservice teachers were concerned about working with students from different language backgrounds, as they had never done this before. Some were nervous about traveling to a part of the community to which they were not accustomed. Others were hesitant about working with adult learners. They began to consider how well communication would take place between themselves and the ELs and if there would be any possible cultural issues to face.

> Upon hearing this news, I became excited to work with these students, but at the same time it made me a little nervous knowing I will be working with so many students from different backgrounds. . . I have never worked with any sort of ELL students, so I am a little apprehensive about helping them in the classroom. *PreK-12 settings*

> My day started out a little rough as I had difficulty locating the church. This was because the church was in the middle of a neighborhood that looked rundown, and I did not expect the church to be in a place like that.

> I was very surprised to find the church as it looked very different from the places I have normally attended in the past. I was very nervous as I was working with adults, and I have never done that before. *Community adult ESL settings*

> I was terrified because I have had little experience working with English Language Learners (ELLs) and I had no idea what their level of language development was. *Community Adult ESL settings*

Just as participants in all three locations felt nervous about working with ELs at the beginning, by the completion of their visits, they reported that service-learning had been an overall positive experience and showed signs of increased efficacy. As their initial nervousness faded away, they became more comfortable and confident in their EL setting. They believed that they better understood how to work with ELs, and also felt more enthusiastic about the prospect of working with ELs in the future. This matches the results of previous research where preservice teachers reported greater confidence after some form of service-learning with ELs (Bollin, 2007; Gross & Maloney, 2012; Hale, 2008; Hooks, 2008; Savage & Cox, 2013; Silva & Kucer, 2016) and a belief that they could make a difference in the lives of young ELs (Wall, 2017). Service-learning in these locations did not seem to have negative consequences for teacher efficacy, nor did they report feeling more negative towards, or less comfortable with cultural or linguistic differences.

> Throughout my short time in this [IEP] I have gotten to meet great people from all over the world. I am so honored to have been given this opportunity and I hope that my experience has helped me to become better

prepared for ESL students who might be in my classroom in the future. *IEP setting*

> My experience at the [community adult ESL site] has been more wonderful than I could have ever imagined and I learned so much that I will be able to take into my own classrooms in the future. *Community adult ESL setting*

> It was such a great experience getting to be in that class and work with first graders which is the grade I hope to teach someday. Working with ELL students was a challenge at times but I truly think I was able to use some of the strategies we were learning in our class as well as interact with the kids and help them work on their English language skills. *PreK-12 settings*

Cultural Competency

One way that preservice teachers' cultural competency improved was by learning about other cultures and making cross-cultural comparisons. Preservice teachers in the IEP had many opportunities in their partner and small-group work to highlight ways that their cultural customs and traditions differed from each other. Except for Keengwe's (2010) study, there is little discussion of placing preservice teachers in IEPs to learn more about other cultures, meaning this is a potentially untapped resource for professionals in EL teacher preparation. Unlike the IEP settings, and just as it is found little in prior research (see Gross & Maloney, 2012), preservice teachers in the adult community ESL programs wrote little about cultural issues. In this setting, conversations on the adult ELs' culture often only took place after finishing language practice

activities or during class breaks. Finally, preservice teachers in PreK-12 settings described very little about cultural knowledge or understanding. This could be due to a lack of tutoring opportunities (one-on-one or small group) as some previous research (Fitts & Gross, 2012; Wu & Guerra, 2017) has found benefit for cross-cultural discussions and awareness with young people during this type of activity.

> We all gave our answers and it was interesting how similar yet different our answers could be. We all agreed that we would make food for our guests, yet the food varied. Also, we agreed that there would mostly be chatting, yet differed on the topics that are and aren't appropriate. It was interesting to learn how our cultures can connect yet have small differences that make them different. I learned a lot about the Muslim culture that I didn't know before. *IEP setting*

> I learned so much about numerous cultures, and even more about myself. I truly think that this experience opened my eyes to the diverse population of America, and I believe it will benefit me when I become a teacher. *IEP setting*

Another aspect of building cultural competence in the IEP was that preservice teachers were able to make connections and build relationships with the ELs there. This seemed to stem from the similarities they shared, as the ELs were mostly traditional college-aged students studying at the same university. The conversational nature of the activities made it easier to become friends with these students. Participants commented that they looked forward to being paired up again with specific ELs, because of the interesting conversations they previously had. These connections and relationships also created respect for the ELs they were working with. Again, while little research exists on the benefit of having preservice teachers work with IEP

students, it shows promise for developing their cultural competence through developing personal relationships.

> When it came time to go, it was very hard saying goodbye to my international partners. It's crazy to think that I may never see them again. I never expected to form the relationships with them that I did. I am so incredibly thankful for this opportunity to work with the international students. If it weren't for this class, I don't think I would have ever received the opportunity to get to know these awesome people. *IEP setting*

There was little description in the reflections from community adult ESL programs or PreK-12 programs of relationship building. This may have been because of the situations in which they worked with these students. In previous studies, relationships were built when the preservice teachers had the opportunity to spend longer and more frequent periods of time with these students. Examples of relationship building with PreK-12 students have occurred when paired up with students for tutoring or with their families (Fitts & Gross, 2012; Hale, 2008; Rodríguez-Arroyo & Vaughns, 2015). The tutoring situations often take place with middle school aged youth or older. With adults, it is in the community working with their families or in English classes (Hale, 2008; Pappamihiel, 2007).

Another area of growth for cultural competency was in their understanding and empathy for ELs. This was particularly true of participants in the adult EL settings. In the IEP, ELs taught preservice teachers basic phrases in their native languages. As with Savage and Cox (2013), preservice teachers in IEPs learned to empathize with the struggles of these students to learn English as they participated in conversations with them. In community adult ESL classes, preservice teachers found greater respect for these individuals as they became acquainted with

the struggles of everyday life in a new culture. Preservice teachers with PreK-12 students did not show signs of being more empathetic to ELs. This could possibly be attributed to either the age group or the setting, as preservice teachers have become more empathetic and understanding when working with middle and high school students (Silva & Kucer, 2016) versus the elementary students here or outside of the school entirely (Bollin, 2007).

> I can only imagine how hard it would be to move into a completely strange place and not even be able to speak the same language as the other people around you. *Community adult ESL settings*

The most commonly mentioned way that cultural competency increased in the service settings was that preservice teachers discovered they enjoyed teaching or working with these students, in particular the children. This was most common in the PreK-12 settings, with some in the IEP and fewer in the community adult ESL settings noting this realization. They shared that they had formed a connection and emotional attachment to the students they were visiting. While it is good that they reported feeling greater comfort and confidence for teaching these students, this may not have been because they better understood how to work with ELs, as with Gross and Maloney (2012), but simply because they enjoy the teaching profession. Some preservice teachers described this as a field experience that happened to have ELs, rather than a chance to develop needed expertise in cultural understanding or knowledge of second language acquisition.

> This set of observation hours was one of my most valuable because I learned so much about so many different aspects of becoming a teacher. When it was time for me to leave, [the teacher] had all the kids come to the floor and tell them that I was leaving. The class and I exchanged words and them [sic] I was presented with a giant card that every student had

> signed. It was the sweetest thing ever and made my heart so full knowing that I had been able to help these students in even the slightest way. The students were so sad to see me leave, as was I sad to leave them. I cannot thank [the teacher] enough for opening her classroom to me and teaching me so much. She truly is a great teacher and everything I learned from being [in] her classroom will help me so much in the future. *PreK-12 settings*

Understanding of Language Learners' Needs

One way that some preservice teachers came to better understand EL's language learning needs was to better grasp the process of second language acquisition. Like other preservice teachers working with ELs (Fan, 2013; Pappamihiel, 2007), preservice teachers in this study better understood language learning and how difficult the process is or what it really means to be acquiring a language. As with Silva and Kucer's (2016) participants, they also began to recognize what ELs needed in order to further develop their English proficiency. This was found more in EL settings with adults. However, few students in any of the groups made comments that connected their field work back to the second language theory they were learning in their course at this level. They did not make the deeper types of connections that preservice teachers previously have made on topics like conversational versus academic language (Fitts & Gross, 2012; Hale, 2008; Silva & Kucer, 2016).

> I saw that personal, relatable educational techniques worked very well for all students, regardless of individual proficiency levels. I also learned that all types of support (linguistic, visual, graphic) is necessary to support language acquisition. *Community adult ESL setting*

Preservice teachers working in adult locations also became more aware of the differences between English and other languages. In some cases, these interactions led simply to awareness of the ELs' first language, as the preservice teacher may not have heard of it before or known little about it. This took place primarily during language exercises and conversations. These exercises also led to discussions about how ideas were conveyed in one language, or about how languages contrasted with each other. This resembles findings from Hooks (2008) and Fan (2013) that preservice teachers discovered the great diversity of languages that ELs can speak besides Spanish and led them to become more interested in learning about their students' first languages.

> I did not know that Arabic is written from right to left across the page instead of left to right like we do in English. Also the Arabic alphabet is completely different than that of English or Portuguese. . . . . I did not know what Kurdish was or where this language was spoken so that was something new that I learned. Turns out that Kurdish is spoken in Iraq where Bawar is from. This caused me look the language up a little more online so that I could get to know more about the language. *IEP setting*

Another reason that preservice teachers better understood language learner needs was that they learned how to communicate with ELs. As they engaged in conversation, they became aware that they were having trouble conveying concepts through their normal language use, or that the ELs' pronunciation at times made comprehension more difficult. They found ways to adjust their own speech to accommodate these learners and facilitate better communication. This was found in all three sites, but especially where they had many opportunities to interact and communicate with ELs. In service-learning with ELs, preservice teachers often report marked

improvement in their understanding of how to communicate with these students (Uzum, Petrón, & Berg, 2014; Wu & Guerra, 2017). This outcome frequently manifests itself in studies where preservice teachers are working with adults (Gross & Maloney, 2012; Hooks, 2008; Rodríguez-Arroyo & Vaughns, 2015).

> Each of the adults that I worked with taught me lessons about how to best teach English language learners. I learned that the best strategies for ELLs are talking slow, repetition, and engaging the students are the best way for ELLs to learn. *Community adult ESL setting*

> I learned very quickly that I needed to talk very slow to them. I am normally a pretty fast talker, so this was a bit of a challenge for me at the beginning. *PreK-12 setting*

The final way that preservice teachers' understanding of language grew was through observing classroom teachers. They were able to see what they believed were good teaching practices with ELs, such as using visuals to help comprehension. Preservice teachers noted how current teachers organized activities to engage their ELs and get them involved in the lesson. They also saw how teachers used repetition and routine in daily activities as a way to develop oral language and help students feel comfortable in the classroom. Preservice teachers in community adult ESL and PreK-12 settings benefited greatly from observing in these classrooms, while there was little mention of these benefits from those in the IEP setting. This was probably due to the fact that in the IEP's classroom partners' program, class time was centered in pairs/small-group work between native English speakers and English learners. There was little instruction given during these partner sessions by the IEP teacher.

> I am more motivated to teach English language learners now that I have learned new and different teaching strategies. *Community adult ESL setting*

> Although I am sad that I am not going back to this class, I am also happy because I learned so much both from [the teacher] as well as the students. I learned so many different methods on how to teach ELLs effectively and was exposed to a variety of lessons that I can use in my future classroom. I also learned the benefits of using visuals, peer work, and a lot of repetition and how important these things are in instructing ELLs. I had a wonderful time in this classroom, and I think [the teacher] is an incredible teacher. I feel much more prepared now to teach ELLs in my future classroom! *PreK-12 settings*

That classroom observation and working with a mentor teacher was a good experience for these preservice teachers is encouraging, as mentoring can be a two-edged sword. It has the potential to greatly benefit preservice teachers and improve their efficacy with ELs, or the experience can be negative and stunt their growth. When asked which type of field experience was the most valuable for preparing them to work with ELs, respondents in Coady, Harper, and de Jong (2011) chose observing over teaching, tutoring, or conversation partners in an ESOL classroom. Good mentors, trained ESL instructors in particular, have exposed preservice teachers to effective teaching and strategies for working with ELs (Fan, 2013). They have also modeled how to differentiate instruction for learners with language learning needs, as well as how to support and care specifically for these students (Hutchinson, 2013).

On the other hand, preservice teachers can be placed into classrooms with poor mentors, leading them to have negative experiences in the EL classroom. For example, Pappamihiel's (2007) preservice teachers were surprised by the interactions mainstream teachers had with their ELs, tending to be apathetic or uncaring towards these students. Similarly, Daniel (2014) found that mentor teachers did little to model how to support ELs' language learning needs or build caring relationships with these students. Sugimoto, Carter, and Stoehr (2017) discovered that bad modeling by mentor teachers seemed to be quite common in EL field experiences, and could carry adverse effects on preservice teachers' future. They noted that even if preservice teachers recognized that they were observing negative examples and poor practices, they still felt uncomfortable working with ELs, as they were unsure of how to respond differently in similar situations.

The Importance of Interaction

While observation in these classes was beneficial for preservice teachers in this study, and though Coady, Harper, and de Jong's (2011) former students expressed that it was the most useful type of field experience for preparation with ELs for them, evidence from the current study suggests that interacting with ELs affects efficacy more profoundly than just observing them. Preservice teachers in this study appreciated the opportunities they had to work directly with students. This is not surprising, as conversing with ELs has led to a number of positive outcomes for preservice teachers. These include coming to know who ELs are and how to work with them (Rodríguez-Arroyo & Vaughns, 2015), dispelling their own preconceived notions (Wall, 2017) and improving their overall level of comfort with ELs (Savage & Cox, 2013). Those serving with adult ELs were generally more engaged in activities and conversations than were preservice teachers in PreK-12 settings.

> I was reflecting on the previous two times I spent in the classroom and it made me realize how much I enjoyed interacting with English Language Learners (ELLs). While I am also observing, I still prefer to be “hands on” with the students and fortunately [the IEP instructor] allows me to get involved with them. *IEP setting*

> I am beyond excited that the teacher in my classroom has us volunteers actually teaching and being involved with the students, rather than just observing. *Community adult ESL settings*

> Going into this field experience I did not expect to grow a relationship with the students. I thought I was going to be sitting and watching them. My teacher was so awesome and let me really participate in the classroom. . . . My relationship with the children completely changed as we got to know each other better. On my first day the kids were very distant towards me. They would look at me and when I would say hi they would either shyly wave or run away. These are obviously reactions that only young kids would have but the idea is the same no matter what age. Once you get to know someone better, you begin to feel more comfortable around him or her. Once the students got to know me better, they would talk to me and open up to me. *PreK-12 settings*

In contrast, for preservice teachers who had little opportunity to interact with students, they noted their desire to do more than mostly observe in the classroom.

> I do feel that more one on one interaction with students would be beneficial for me. I enjoy getting to observe the classroom setting, but I feel that I need more experience getting to personally teach students. *Community adult ESL settings*

> Again, I did not do much in the classroom, besides standing in the back and listening into the classroom discussion. I am a little frustrated and down that I never really got to interact with many of the students this semester. The purpose of the field experience was for me to learn about how ELLs gain knowledge in the classroom, and while I did learn some, much of it was learned through observance. I hope that when I get into student teaching that my designated teacher will allow me to communicate and work with the students. *PreK-12 setting*

Age of Students

In addition to the amount of interaction, another factor that affected preservice teachers' efficacy was the age group that they worked with. Some preservice teachers noted that working with adults, particularly of similar ages, made it easier to engage in discussion and led to meaningful interactions. Other preservice teachers pointed out that service-learning with very young children was less beneficial than they had hoped. There is little research that notes any differences between working with child and adult ELs, or older and younger children. However, in their study of preservice teachers tutoring first through eighth graders, Fitts and Gross (2012) observed that participants with older children were able to see different levels of proficiency and the importance of developing academic language. Younger children, particularly those who are preschool age, may simply not have sufficient Funds of Knowledge (González, Moll, & Amanti,

2005), meaning knowledge of their own cultural practices, to help someone else develop their cultural competence, nor are they linguistically developed enough to engage in meaningful conversation with preservice teachers.

> I feel like in an elementary classroom students are shyer and are not willing to ask questions or say that they do not understand something, because they are afraid of what we think. Since we were helping people who were college aged students it made them more comfortable to ask questions and to converse freely. *IEP setting*

> I would love to get further experience with younger ELL students, but I think it was best for me to work with peers first. Similar interests enabled us to really get good discussion going during class time. *IEP setting*

> My time at [the daycare center] was fun, but I wish that I had been given the opportunity to observe older children as well. With the two year olds, they're all learning English so the ELLs and the native speakers are at about the same literacy level, on average. I feel that I would have been able to see more things from my reading applied in a real classroom had I been given the chance to see an older grade group. *PreK-12 settings*

Implications of the Study

We began by asking the following question: How do different types of service-learning settings (specifically PreK-12 schools, community adult ESL classes, and university intensive English programs) differ from each other in the ways they impact preservice teachers' self-efficacy with English learners? Based on their own responses, we have found that all three

settings helped learners to improve their efficacy. However, they seemed to have done so in different ways and to different degrees.

First, the IEP provided preservice teachers the opportunity to interact one-on-one or in small group activities with other college-age ELs on a routine basis, and in the process affected preservice teachers' cultural competency as well as their understanding of language learning needs. Many participants made cross cultural comparisons, built relationships with ELs, and developed empathy for them as well. Some made connections between classroom language learning theory and what they saw in the field. Even more began to see how languages differ from each other, and many learned how to successfully communicate with ELs. Service in the setting was highly conducive to developing efficacy.

Next, the community adult ESL setting, while having less impact on developing preservice teachers' cultural competency in comparison to the IEP setting, was nonetheless effective in developing efficacy. This was particularly true in regards to understanding language learners' needs. In addition to interaction which helped preservice teachers recognize differences between languages and learn how to communicate with ELs, preservice teachers also observed more experienced teachers. This observation allowed preservice teachers to witness good teaching strategies to follow with ELs, giving them more of an idea of what they as future teachers could do in their own classrooms.

Finally, in comparison to the other two groups, the PreK-12 setting seemed to offer fewer opportunities to preservice teachers to build efficacy with ELs. Service-learning in this setting did not present as rich an array of experiences to learn about ELs' cultures or language learning needs. Preservice teachers here enjoyed working with the children, learned how to better

communicate with them, and observed more experienced teachers working with them, but did not participate in activities that more deeply and profoundly affected how they see other cultures or understand what it means to learn a second language. Their learning of these concepts remained at a more surface level.

There are a number of takeaways in this study for teacher education programs. The first of these is that when it comes to using service-learning to develop efficacy for teaching ELs, the EL setting matters. What they gain from the experience will be affected by where they go. IEP classrooms may give preservice teachers many opportunities to develop cultural competency, as they get to know people from many countries, build relationships with them, and feel empathy for them as they put themselves in the shoes of a language learner. Community adult ESL settings give more time for students to talk with ELs, learn about their languages, and focus on second language development. PreK-12 sites offer preservice teachers the opportunity to see what it will be like to work with these learners in their chosen professional careers. They will observe mentor teachers employing the types of strategies needed in these classrooms.

Because these settings meet different needs for developing efficacy for working with ELs, teacher education programs should consider what their students need in order to further develop their teacher efficacy. Cultural competence and understanding language learning are the most important factors for developing efficacy, and the conditions for developing these competencies were found in greater abundance in the adult learning sites than with PreK-12 learners. Yet teaching adults does not prepare them for their actual teaching needs with EL children. A progression from serving in adult settings for a time, before moving to PreK-12 EL settings, may be best for developing efficacy to work in classrooms with these students.

Limitations, Future Research, and Conclusion

Limitations in this study center around the mentor teachers that preservice teachers worked with in the field. In order to find placements for all of the program's preservice teachers, and at times that match their availability, the teacher education program must find as many EL sites as possible. Mentor teachers within these sites vary greatly in their own training and experience for working with ELs, in addition to their own teaching effectiveness. It is likely that the mentor teachers differed in teaching styles, as well as how they chose to use the preservice teachers in the classroom, thus creating disparities in how much participants were able to interact with ELs or view good teaching practices with ELs. Finally, some programs and instructors were not aware of the purposes behind having the preservice teachers in their classrooms, and some programs intentionally planned activities to involve preservice teachers. Therefore, while our analysis of the field reflections suggests clear differences between the three types of EL settings, it is also clear that not all experiences within a setting were the same.

This study leads to a number of possibilities to explore, both for researchers and for teacher education programs. First, can a progression of working with adult, and then moving on to children, lead to a smoother path and to higher levels of teacher efficacy with ELs? Preservice teachers could first be assigned to service-learning in an IEP or community adult ESL location for a number of weeks or even a full semester to build up their cultural competence and understanding of second language acquisition, and then refine these new-found competencies for the specific contexts in which they will teach. Researchers can also examine how long it takes for efficacy to begin to raise, if it plateaus at some point, and how long it takes before preservice teachers at various levels begin to rate themselves as having high efficacy.

Second, for teacher education programs to maximize the potential of these service-learning opportunities for building preservice teachers' efficacy, they must be intentional in their planning. In addition to selecting where to send preservice teachers and when, teacher education programs should make concerted efforts to work with their community partners. This includes seeking their assistance to identify teachers that would be best for mentoring preservice teachers and/or modeling good teaching practices with ELs. They should take time with these teachers to discuss what they would like preservice teachers to learn through service-learning, as well as how this can transpire. By working with teachers and encouraging them to plan for activities that lead to interaction between ELs and preservice teachers, focusing specifically on language learning or cultural exchange, preservice teachers in all settings will have more opportunities to increase their efficacy with these learners.

Well designed and coordinated service-learning becomes the lever which can lift preservice teachers' efficacy with ELs. As their cultural competency rises, and their understanding of second language learning expands, preservice teachers will confidently be able to turn their attention towards the academic needs of these children. No longer worrying about how they can relate to their students or viewing second language learning as an obstacle too difficult to overcome, preservice teachers will instead recognize the potential in these students to learn and achieve. Most importantly, they will see in themselves the capacity to teach these students and help them reach their potential.

CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The purposes of this study were first, to know if service-learning significantly improves preservice teachers' efficacy with ELs and determine if the type of EL learning site plays a role in increasing efficacy through service-learning. Second, this study explored how preservice teachers' efficacy developed over time as a result of service-learning with ELs in different settings. Two hundred participants served in one of three EL location types: PreK-12, intensive English program, or community adult ESL. They completed pre/post surveys to indicate their levels of efficacy before and after their period of service, and they recorded field reflections during the service. For the survey data, paired-samples t-tests and regression analysis were used, while the field reflections called for thematic analysis with a theory driven approach.

The findings of these two studies revealed that service-learning generally does increase preservice teachers' level of efficacy for working with ELs. However, this increase is affected by two other important factors. The first is the level of teacher efficacy that the preservice teacher has for working with ELs at the beginning of the course. The second is the type of EL setting in which the preservice teacher volunteers. EL settings varied in how much they impacted preservice teachers, based on how much the preservice teacher needed to develop cultural competence/learn about language learning, and how conducive the setting is to developing these competencies.

Since lower levels of efficacy with ELs mean greater need for developing cultural competency and linguistic understanding, the first study (chapter II) has shown that preservice

teachers with moderate to low levels of efficacy would benefit more if they begin their service in adult EL settings, particularly in community adult ESL settings for those who report themselves as having low levels. The second study (chapter III) showed that these settings place great emphasis on cultural understanding (IEPs in particular) and second language learning (both settings). However, if preservice teachers are beginning to feel confident in their abilities, the first study shows that any of the settings can be beneficial. Finally, since high levels of efficacy mean it is not as necessary to emphasize cultural competency and linguistic understanding, the study in chapter II indicates that these preservice teachers could serve and benefit in PreK-12 or IEP settings, more so than in community adult ESL settings. The study in chapter III showed these settings to not be as focused on language learning as community adult ESL settings, but instead on either culture (IEPs) or academic learning (PreK-12).

As teaching children is what they will do upon graduation, working with adults will not fully prepare them for their actual teaching duties. Therefore, the results from these two studies suggest that if preservice teachers feel less than confident in their own abilities to teach ELs, they may benefit from following a progression of first serving in adult EL settings for a period of time, and then moving to PreK-12 EL settings. This may give them the greatest potential for developing efficacy to work in classrooms with these students. As long as there are other available options, teacher education programs could avoid placing preservice teachers first in PreK-12 programs, except if the preservice teacher already has demonstrated very high levels of efficacy with ELs.

Pedagogical Implications

There are a number of implications from these studies for teacher education programs. First, they should be intentional in their planning and organizing service-learning opportunities.

This begins with carefully exploring and evaluating the opportunities in their community for field placements with ELs. This will require some research in finding what organizations in the community work with ELs, whether they be ESL or bilingual programs in PreK-12 schools, an intensive English program for international students on their own campus, or an evening ESL program run by an adult education program. If possible, the teacher education program should reach out to settings that will give them sufficient balance between adult and child settings, as well as a variety of proficiency levels.

In some communities, especially rural areas, opportunities for service-learner may be few or nonexistent. Teacher education programs in these communities might be able to somewhat overcome this issue through the use of technology. For example, programs could reach out to other institutions with ELs and use video-conferencing software to have preservice teachers work with ELs one-on-one or in small groups. Some types of programs they could reach out to include PreK-12 schools in large US metropolitan areas or English language programs at other institutions of higher learning (inside or outside of the United States). In addition to video-conferencing software, course-authoring software could be used to create scenarios and run simulations of what it is like working with ELs. Preservice teachers could be given scenarios and run a simulation to see how they would respond in a certain situation, as well as give them feedback on the choices they made in the simulation.

After identifying and partnering with EL programs that offer the experiences their preservice teachers need, teacher education programs need to clearly communicate the purposes of the preservice teachers' service-learning. Service-learning is likely to work best when the purposes of the service are made explicit. Next, it would be good to work with community partners to identify teachers in these programs who model good teaching practices with ELs and

would be good mentor teachers. Teacher educators can share with mentor teachers what they would like preservice teachers to gain through service-learning, and discuss ways that this can transpire. This coordination between teacher educators and mentor teachers could lay the foundation for more fruitful service-learning experiences. Mentor teachers could then prepare additional classroom activities that promote interaction between ELs and preservice teachers.

Finally, before making assignments for specific EL settings, programs could assess preservice teachers' current levels of efficacy with ELs. This could be done through having preservice teachers rate their current efficacy levels, as well as surveying them to hear what they feel would most benefit them. This information could be used to better place students in their programs. Teacher educators could assign preservice teachers to settings that would best help them to develop their efficacy, when taking their current level of efficacy into consideration.

Limitations and Future Research

The main limitation in these studies, as previously mentioned, was the inability to control what took place in the EL settings. Service-learning in this study took place across a number of different classrooms in the community, and with a number of different mentor teachers. These teachers probably varied greatly in educational background and professional development for teaching, years of experience, and teaching styles. These variables would lead to a great variety of experiences for preservice teachers, with differences in the quality of the teaching they observed, the strategies they were introduced to, and the frequency and in manner in which they worked with ELs. Also, programs were not on the same page with the researchers as to why participants were in their classrooms or how they should be used. Some programs planned specific types of interactional activities for their preservice teachers and ELs, while others did

not. All of these could affect how much service-learning in these sites impacts their teacher efficacy.

Together, these two studies suggest a number of areas for further research. The first is to see if a progression of working with adults, and then moving on to working with children, can help low efficacy preservice teachers to more fully develop their teacher efficacy with ELs, as compared to just placing them into either an adult or child setting? Additionally, researchers can assess how much time is needed for preservice teachers to increase in efficacy. Also, researchers could further survey preservice teachers after service-learning to ask what they felt impacted their efficacy during these experiences. Finally, researchers can examine what teacher education programs can do to successfully work with EL learning settings to organize, develop, and implement service-learning programs (Moore, 2013).

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APPENDIX A

TEACHER EFFICACY FOR TEACHING ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

SCALE (TETELL)

Demographic Information

1. Location of field experience: 1=Elementary School, 2=University Intensive English program, 3=Adult Community ESL class
2. Background setting of the preservice teacher's education: 1=Urban, 2=Suburban, 3=Rural
3. Gender of Preservice Teacher: 1=Female, 2=Male
4. Second language learning experience: 1=2 years or fewer, 2=3-4 years, 3=5 years or more.
5. Race of the preservice teacher: 1=White, 2=African-American, 3=Asian, 4=Native-American, 5=Pacific-Islander, 6=Two or more
6. Ethnicity of the preservice teacher: 1=Non-Hispanic, 2=Hispanic
7. Degree program of the preservice teacher: 1=Pre-k through 6/general, 2=Middle grades 4-8 Math/Science, 3=Middle grades 4-8 Language Arts/Social Studies.

Directions: The intent of this survey is to help researchers better understand the kinds of challenges in teaching English as Second Language (ESL) students. Please rate how certain you are that you can do each of the things described below. Please answer the items based on your ability today. Your answers are confidential and anonymous.

How well do you feel you can…	Not at all	Poorly	Okay	Well	Very well

1…control the disruptive behavior of your ESL students in the classroom?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
2 …motivate ESL students who show low interest in school work?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3… get your ESL students to interact with native English speakers outside of the classroom?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
4 … get ESL students to believe they can do well in school?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
5… assure that your ESL students will inform you if they are being picked on by a classmate?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

6 … help your ESL students to value learning?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
7… instill in your ESL students a sense of belonging to the school?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
8 … craft good questions for your ESL students?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
9… get ESL students to follow classroom rules?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
10… engage an ESL student who is excessively shy?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
11… in a single year, prepare ESL students in your class to take state-mandated, standardized achievement tests?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
12 … calm an ESL student who is disruptive or noisy?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
13… encourage your ESL students to join extra-curricular activities?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
14 … establish a classroom management system with each group of ESL students?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
15… use a variety of strategies in assessing the performance of your ESL students?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
16 …provide an alternative explanation or example when ESL students are confused?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
17…adopt new instructional techniques for ESL students that local or state administration wants you to implement?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
18 …influence/impact the instructional approach that your peers take toward their ESL students?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
19…get your native English-speaking students to understand what it is like to live in an environment where their language is not the language predominantly used?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
20 …assist families whose native language is other than English in helping their children do well in school?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
21…implement alternative strategies in classrooms in which you have ESL students?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
22 … assure your ESL students will stand up for themselves on the playground?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
23…assure that your ESL students will be accepted by their native English-speaking peers outside the classroom?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
24 …assure that your ESL students will stand up for themselves on the bus or on the way to or from school?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

25…convey expectations for classroom behavior to an ESL student who is excessively shy?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
26 …assure that your ESL students will be accepted by their native English-speaking peers in the classroom?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
27…have an impact on which policies are adopted regarding the education that ESL students receive at your school?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
28 …convey your expectations for academic performance to ESL students who have arrived to the U.S. with no previous formal education?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
29…control the disruptive behavior of an ESL student who is unable to read or write in his or her native language?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
30 …implement strategies for ESL students who are unable to read or write in their native language?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
31…assess the performance for ESL students who are unable to read or write in their native language?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

APPENDIX B

CODING SCHEME

***Overall efficacy with ELs**	
+C	Confidence
-C	Less confidence
CWS	Concerned/worried/scared
DFC	Discouraged/frustrated/confused
PQI	Pleased with quality of interaction
DQI	Disappointed in quantity of interaction
+EE	Enthusiastic/excited
-EE	Less enthusiastic/excited
IUCC	Improved understanding of course content
MEC	More empathetic/understanding of ELs
ONE	Overall negative experience
OPE	Overall positive experience
***Cultural Competence**	
ACD	Awareness of cultural differences
-CLCD	Decreased comfort level with cultural differences
+CLCD	Increased comfort level with cultural differences
PCR	Personal connection/relationship
RCD	Rejection of cultural differences
***Understanding of linguistic needs**	
ADL	Awareness of differences in languages
+CMN	Curriculum meets language learning needs
-CMN	Curriculum does not meet language learning needs
-EC	Negative experiences communicating
+EC	Positive experiences communicating
+TPM	Good teaching practices modeled
-TPM	Poor teaching practices modeled
+UHE	Understand how to explain
-UHE	Unsure of how to explain
+ULL	Improved understanding of second language learning