THE EFFECT OF SERVICE LEARNING ON COMMUNITY COLLEGE COMMUNICATION STUDENTS

by

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband, who has supported all the hours I have spent achieving my greatest accomplishment, minus the Juris Doctor of course.

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ABSTRACT

This study discusses the implementation of a service learning component in the first year college communication 101 level courses. Through the execution of a service learning component in college communication classes at a community college, student's communicative competency and attitude toward community service is assessed. Using two different delivery approaches, a quantitative study assessed the pre-test and post-test of the standardized tools Communicative Adaptability Scale (CAS) and Community Service Attitudes Scale (CSAS). Eight sections of the communication 101 courses were distributed into two groups: 1) the experimental group consisting of 4 classes, and (2) the control group consisting of four classes. The experimental group was required to finish a service learning project by the end of the semester, consisting of 15 hours. The experimental group of 69 participants incorporated service learning through written journals, YouTube, texting, email, group activities, class presentation with video and/or presentation software. As part of a pilot study, the experimental group was categorized into two groups: (1) two classes that used Twitter and blogging, and (2) two classes that did not use Twitter and blogging. The control group of 64 students enrolled in a communication 101 course at the same community college but not participating in a community service project. Per the standardized measurements, the service learning attitude and communication competency skills of all participants were measured.

Quantitative research methods were applied through data collection of two surveys, the CAS and the CSAS. The CAS and the CSAS scales were taken by participants pre-implementation and post-implementation of the service learning component which was a community service project. Demographic data relating to age, gender, ethnicity, and experience in service learning were also collected to decipher whether a relationship between the demographic data and the survey results existed. The CAS showed that the experimental group scores increased significantly in the social composure and articulation subscales as well as the overall CAS score. The CSAS showed that the experimental group scores increased significantly in the seriousness subscale. The results support that the implementation of service learning significantly increases student's communication adaptability and competence.

Keywords: service learning, quantitative methodology, social media, YouTube, blogging, Twitter, communication, community service

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Problem

Creating strong communication skills in higher education has been the objective of curriculum developers in higher education. Researchers have advocated the requirement that students establish quality community skills for continued success in college as well as in the workplace. Introductory communication classes offer such learning opportunities. However, based on Dewey's (1938) and Kolb's (1984) theory that experience creates learning, additional activities are essential in an outside environment.

In order for college students to be exposed to learning environments outside the classroom, several college administrators have incorporated community service into the college curriculum. Community service can supplement a learning atmosphere by introducing students to social issues and concerns in their immediate community. When community service is added into the curriculum, this is usually considered service learning.

By implementing service learning into higher education, it increases critical thought, collaboration among students and community members and offers new knowledge that supports quality interaction and reflection regarding the concerns in the local community (Kaye, 2004).

Statement of the Problem

Communication 101 courses are required at many community colleges in the United States. Some of those classes are being taught through lecture with no opportunities to enhance their communication skills in an outside setting away from the classroom. Service learning in a communications class offers an opportunity for college students to learn communication theory and use that knowledge outside in their community. With this direct experience, students become better communicators while learning to be participatory citizens in their community. Additionally, implementing social media tools to enhance the service learning assignment in the classroom increases the volume of communication, additional interactive reflective practice, and social engagement.

Research Questions

The purpose of this dissertation is to measure whether students' communication competency and attitudes toward community service change when engaged in a service learning component in a Communications 101 course and if there are differences between the control group and the experimental group. The research is guided by the following questions:

1. Does communication competency change when implementing a service learning component in an introductory communication course curriculum per the Communication Adaptability Scale (CAS) subscales? Is there a significant difference of competency levels among the control group and the experimental group per the Communication Adaptability (CAS) subscales?

2. Do community college students' attitudes toward community service change when implementing a service learning component in a communications class per the Community Service Attitude Scale (CSAS) subscales? Is there a significant difference of attitude levels among the control group and the experimental group per the Community Service Attitude Scales (CSAS) subscales?

Significance of Study

Service learning is fairly new to the educational research world. While more research is becoming active in this content, the research is very limited on the exploration of service learning in community colleges. This study is significant because it investigates whether students' perceptions on service learning increases or decreases by participating in a collaborative community service project and using social media tools. Second, it investigates whether service learning has a positive or negative impact on students' communication skills. Becoming a competent communicator is the main objective for a communications 101 course, so this research may enlighten college communication instructors on whether service learning has a direct effect on their students' ability to communicate better. In addition, it is significant to understand whether endorsing social media in the college classroom is the correct course community colleges should embrace for communication competency improvement and a positive attitude toward volunteering in their communities.

Organization of Dissertation

This dissertation is organized in five chapters. The first chapter explains the research topic, the significance of pursuing such research, and the questions the researcher plans to answer. The second chapter consists of a literature review that further establishes what service learning is, why it is important, the significance of communications in a community college, and different types of social media tools implemented in the research. The third chapter describes the quantitative method used and a more explanatory definition regarding the surveys chosen for the pre- and post-tests. Details regarding how the data were collected, what the data consist of and what statistical analysis was chosen are presented. The fourth chapter presents the findings from the data collection assembled over a period of one college semester equating to five months. The last chapter concludes with a discussion of findings and limitations of the research as well as suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Communication Competence

Across the United States in higher education institutions, an introductory communication course is required as a basic core class for graduation. Communication theorists, instructors, and researchers adamantly agree that students must have basic levels of listening, speaking and interpersonal skills to receive higher education degrees (Rubin, 1982; Rubin et al., 1986). These classes provide the student information and methods on how to become a competent communicator, usually through public speaking, activities, and interpersonal and group communication (DeVito, 2007; Lane, 2008).

Spano & Zimmerman (1995) define the competent communicator as possessing "sufficient levels of communication knowledge, having the ability to display that knowledge in ongoing interaction situations and be motivated to do so" (p. 19). In order to reach curriculum objectives, the student must learn the three basic components of communication: knowledge, skill, and motivation to communicate correctly (Spitzberg & Cupach, 1984). The first element, knowledge, is the comprehension of appropriate behavior for a given situation. The second component, skill, is having the aptitude to communicate effectively. The third constituent, motivation, involves the desire to perform appropriate communication behavior in the correct context. Duran adds that communication competence must include communication adaptability. Duran (1983) defines communicative adaptability as 1) having thought provoking and functioning

skills; 2) possessing interactive ambitions; 3) altering behavior based on different communication situations; and 4) communicative interaction between two individuals. An individual meets these elements by understanding communicative context and acknowledging and adjusting according to others' behaviors.

Rubin and Graham (1986) argue that communication competence is not a skill that people are inherently born with. "It can and will be influenced by the environment, education, experiences, others who are present and perceived expectations of the situation" (Rubin & Graham, 1986, p. 4). College provides a platform to help students achieve communication competence to prepare them for other classes and employment once they graduate.

Many college instructors create a curriculum that meets these elements of communication competence and adaptability through lectures, class interaction, projects, and exams. Building blocks for such knowledge involve experiences with listening, nonverbal behaviors, verbal aspects, critical thinking, and persuasion. Once students possess such expertise, they carry less apprehension and improve their aptitude for achievements in school and in employment (Rubin, Rubin, & Jordan, 1997). More experience with communication can also reduce the fearfulness of communicating with others (Rubin et al., 1997).

Experiential Learning

Dewey (1938) first introduced active learning in the twentieth century believing that "experience does not go on simply inside a person…for it influences the information of attitudes of desire and purpose" (p. 33). Being an advocate for bridging experience and education together, Dewey (1916, 1938) emphasized that learning should go beyond

the classroom, where the student actively participates with his/her environment with the goal of intriguing inquiry for knowledge. A real-life environment can instigate such exploratory action. According to Dewey (1938), reflection is an essential tool as part of this real-life experience; students should ponder their encounter and "extract the net meanings which are the capital stock for intelligent dealing with further experience" (p. 110). In other words, new experiences should build upon old experiences, creating continuity of intellectual growth and stimulation. However, the experience itself must provoke thought.

Kolb (1984) added to Dewey's thoughts on experience believing that learning is a continual process incorporating an experience between a person and the environment they are currently in. Kolb claims that the experience will not necessarily create learning within the individual.

> The central idea here is that learning, and therefore knowing, requires both a grasp or figurative representation of experience and some transformation of that representation. The simple perception of experience is not sufficient for learning; something must be done with it. Transformation alone cannot represent learning, for there must be something to be transformed, some state or experience that is being acted upon.
> (Kolb, 1984, p. 42)

The student needs to be involved in a tangible experience that they can reflect upon in abstract thought. Kolb (1984) states three developmental stages of experiential learning are (1) acquisition where students learn basic skills to use within social comprehension; (2) specialization where students choose and interact with particular

areas that meet their individual traits and desires; and (3) integration where students grow towards "creativity, wisdom, and integrity" (p. 162). Kolb is best known for his four-stage learning cycle that incorporates the use of experience within the learning process. The first stage is the concrete stage where the student performs the endeavor; the second stage is called reflective observation, which incorporates reflection; the third stage is abstract conceptualization, which the student theorizes about what he/she just experience and the fourth stage, active experimentation, is when the student actually sets forth to check his/her theory.

Kolb's (1984) philosophy discusses the domain of service learning, promoting it as part of experiential learning, as it includes human experiences and creates "living systems of inquiry" (p. 121). His belief and Dewey's philosophy are truly emphasized in the concept of service learning, where the student connects with the experience and is guided throughout the process to reflect upon the meaning of service.

Social Development Theory

In the mid-1900s, Vygotsky (1978) theorized that social interaction cultivated cognitive development among children, as peers play a very active role in their learning. In Vygotsky's (1978) book, *Mind in Society*, he maintained that

> every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; second, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals. (p. 57)

Though Vygotksy's research focused mainly on the knowledge of children, this concept can be applied to adult learning. In fact, by emphasizing that adults will learn from each other, this internal knowledge then transfers into progression. Vygotsky also appends the zone of proximal development as part of his social development theory: "The zone of proximal development defines those functions that will mature tomorrow but are in the process of maturation, functions that will mature tomorrow but are currently in an embryonic state" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). According to Vygotsky, the zone of proximal development involves interaction with peers that learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes" when a social environment concurs (p. 90). In other words, a person can produce and learn more through social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978; Eun, 2011).

Vygtosky's social development learning theory affirms itself in the college classroom. In classes where interaction is required between peers and the instructor, group cohesion and informal communication is continuous. Students and the instructor are assisting each other and creating a new awareness by sharing their own personal knowledge and experience through face-to-face time or other forms of interaction. Cooperating and conversing trigger a comprehension not established when working alone. This innovative knowledge amongst peers is then internalized, creating a higher level of learning and cognitive advancement. Eun (2011) discusses that peers may not be at the same intellectual level when coming together in a group. However, "skills and competence is acknowledged, the flow of influence is bidirectional. The more competent participants learn from the interaction as much as the less competent" (Eun, 2011, p.323). The end product is that the student learns from interacting.

In adult communication classes, communication amongst peers as well as the instructor is fundamental. Students work in groups and one-on-one activities, and instructors provide guidance throughout the course to enhance students' communication skills. When service learning group projects are incorporated into the classroom, students are additionally exposed to other interactive opportunities including nonprofit organizations, their staff, and the affected population. When social media tools are added to the functionality of the service learning groups, it provides supplementary means for students' communication. Not only do students experience direct connections with peers in the classroom and through social media, but with other relations outside of their classroom and in their communities. If the class provides a less interactive environment for learning, then students may fail to reach their highest learning potential.

Service Learning

As experiential learning continues to increase in popularity, many colleges have implemented service learning into their curriculum and extra-curricular activities (Johnson & Notah, 1999; Kolb, 1984). In particular, service learning, a form of experiential education, has become more significant at colleges and universities within the last 15 years (Campus Compact, 2005; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Zlotkowski, 2000). President Bush Sr. pushed for service learning context in education by signing the National and Community Service Act of 1990, and President Clinton followed by signing the National and Community Service Trust Act of 1993 funding AmeriCorps and Learn and Service America (Kozeracki, 2000).

Many definitions are offered by different service learning initiatives. The National Service-Learning Clearinghouse (2012) definition will be used for this study. It

states that service learning is a "teaching and learning strategy that integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection to enrich the learning experience, teach civic responsibility, and strengthen communities." Service learning incorporates "service" and "learning" through community service advancing interpersonal and intellectual growth. However, Bringle and Hatcher (1995) manipulate this definition for college purposes stating that service learning is "a course-based, credit bearing educational experience in which students (a) participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs, and (b) reflect on the service activity in such as way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of personal values and civic responsibility (as cited in Bringle & Hatcher, 2009, p. 38). Individuals new to service learning may have a difficult time understanding the difference between service learning and volunteering. Both activities involve individuals donating their time to a nonprofit organization. However, with volunteering, there is no educational objective. When including service learning into the curriculum, there is structure, direction, and evaluation that volunteering usually does not involve (Waterman, 1997).

When service learning is incorporated in the college curriculum, it can be a one-time project where a student dedicates a certain amount of required time at a nonprofit agency. A second option is when service learning is offered as a separate credit course focusing on service learning content. The third option is through an extracurricular activity where the student may or may not receive credit for their volunteer activities (Witmer & Anderson, 1994; Gray, Ondaatje, Fricker, & Greschwind, 2000). Community

colleges commonly follow the first format comprising a graded in-class activity that is related to a grade.

Once the service learning project is activated, it needs to go through four phases. These four phases that meet the service learning pedagogy are preparation, action, reflection, and demonstration (Kaye, 2004). Preparation is the beginning of the project. Students research different nonprofit agencies, their causes, and the population they serve. Students contact the chosen location of interest and discuss their volunteer duties. This is usually followed by human interaction. At this phase, students have the opportunity to learn about different social issues and concerns in their community and how organizations try to resolve these dilemmas. They develop insight and comprehensive research skills assessing what the community needs are and how their contribution can be an asset.

The second element is action. Action defines what it states: the student interacts and performs at a chosen nonprofit agency. This can be answering phone calls, painting a weary wall, feeding the poor, passing out food baskets, etc. Action, also known as the field activity, is a high quality moment for the student, because one-on-one interaction occurs (Eyler, 2000). This is where the student feels as if they are making a contribution to society. Without this significant element, limited reflection can occur. A student may be able to read about the social dilemmas his/her city face, but once they are involved in an actual situation, the learning process changes. This is where experiential learning occurs (Kolb, 1984). According to Waterman (1997), "what is experienced through action will be remembered more vividly than what is merely read, or heard in a teacher's class presentation" (p. 4).

In the third element, many theorists consider reflection to be the key element in service learning. According to Dewey (1933), reflections must include "observations" and "suggestions" (p. 102, 103). Dewey (1933) continues that reflections have five phases. The first phase includes suggestions to make changes followed by the second state: the emotional side of actually feeling the difficulty in the situation. The third segment is the creation of a hypothesis and the analysis. Lastly, the fifth stage tests the hypothesis through creative engagement. Kaye (2004) adds that reflection needs to occur from the beginning of the educational activity and conclude with reflection. However, reflection should be guided by the teacher, so it meets the objectives of the course through feedback and assessment procedures (Hatcher & Bringle, 1997). Reflection essays and journals should include students' reflections on their community service and what they experienced internally. According to Eyler & Giles (1999), the writing portion assists students with an increase in "self-knowledge and growth in personal efficacy" (p. 40). In general, most researchers agree that the main focus of the reflection section is for students to grasp new information, new and useful skills, as well as learning more about oneself (Stanton, Giles, & Cruz, 1999).

The last phase of service learning, demonstration, commonly concludes with a final paper or project presentation that reflects "personal growth and awareness" (Kaye, 2004, p. 11). In this final phase, students may write a reflection paper or present to the class their findings. Findings usually consist of reflective thought, what they learned from their community service, and personal growth (Droge & Murphy, 1999).

With service learning, students must go out into the community and create a relationship with a nonprofit agency that needs their services. This is a win-win situation,

as the student must finish his/her community service hours and the nonprofit agency needs volunteers. Volunteers are in high demand as donations decrease due to the economic hardships Americans are currently going through. Additionally, service learning encourages students to learn about their community. In fact, "service learning extends the classroom into the community" where students "encounter unfamiliar situations that challenge and contradict their perspectives" (Hatcher & Bringle, 1997, p. 156). In essence, service learning provides a different platform for students to learn. They embrace their social environment outside of the classroom, providing a new knowledge about the social issues that affect our community. Research shows that the relationship created between the student and the community organization encourages them to be more involved in current social issues and ignite a need to be actively democratic (Dubinksy, 2006; Anson, 1997; Deans, 1999; Dorman & Dorman, 1997). According to Gray et al. (2000), service learning encourages students to "staying informed about social and political issues, voting and participating in governance in other ways, and developing a sense of personal responsibility to their community and nation" (p. 32). Service learning extends the classroom to an interactive world that involves current issues, politics, critical social dilemmas, and those being affected by them. When students experience this first-hand, they are affected at a deeper level as they are "exposed" to such concerns. Even though this can be demanding on a student, research shows that students enjoy service learning. One study reported 80% of 1,000 students surveyed found service learning as positive, and it helped them comprehend academic material more (Eyler & Giles, 1999).

Gray et al. (2000) add that service learning increases "students' motivation to learn, engagement in the learning process, retention and graduation rates, and achievement" (p. 32). Service learning research claims increased satisfaction among students and a long-term effect of continued volunteering. Those who participate in service learning feel they offer something of value to their communities, which sparks a desire to continue compared to students that are not exposed to service learning (Terry, 2003). Additionally, research claims that the participating individuals are more likely to continue with service learning (Markus, Howard, & King, 1993; Eyler & Giles, 1999).

Service learning programs report positive conclusions. The Miami-Dad Community College discovered student's attitude increased when being involved and responsible to their community (Berson & Younkin, 1998). At several California colleges, researchers found that 60% of students had a better understanding of academic material and also felt more responsible towards their community when involved in service learning projects (Bunney-Sarhad, 1992). Shwartz, Meisenhelder, & Reed (2003) argues that much empirical research shows this unselfish act of devotion helps with life adjustment and personal life significance.

Service Learning and Communication

Service learning and communication seem to go hand in hand for interpersonal relationships and group effectiveness (Applegate & Morreale, 1999). The different communication theories students learn in class can be applied through service learning projects. The combination of lecture and experience allows the student to comprehend communication skills by practicing those skills in a community-based environment (Bergstrom & Bullis, 1999). Not only do students apply skills, but they tend to sharpen

their communication skills when working with diverse populations in these community service projects (Soukup, 1999). Eyler & Giles (1999) found that service learning also facilitates interpersonal skills, a vital objective in communication courses, which assists students in future endeavors.

As communication is a daily activity most people participate in, service learning also provides a chance for students to develop communication skills that can be used outside the classroom. "The concepts learned in the communication classroom are intended to apply to life beyond it. By embedding experiential opportunities into the curriculum, students are afforded an opportunity to see such connections while enrolled" (Ahlfeldt, 2009, p.1). Service learning brings actual experience to students and begs them to explore their external environment and elaborate the communication dexterity they may have learned only in theory. Adding a service learning component to a communications class impels students to leave the classroom and experience communication beyond college walls (Kahl, 2010).

Service learning can be seen as "translational learning" that shows "the practical application of communication scholarship" (Kahl, 2010, p. 300). In other words, this form of experiential learning provides real-life practice in an authentic setting, such as a nonprofit agency. While students are attending such nonprofit organizations as homeless shelters, low-income elder care facilities, and animal shelters, students are taught interpersonal skills, something they may not be exposed to in a classroom (Eyler, 2000). Doors of diversity open as well when students visit nonprofit agencies and those they service, an activity that usually doesn't occur in a traditional classroom setting (LeSourd, 1997). This real-world experience also helps with the interviewing process, increases a

student's confidence in dealing with professional people and affected populations, and enhances communication skills due to working in a team environment with community affiliates (Tucker, McCarthy, Hoxmeier, & Lenk, 1998).

Community College

Community colleges started in the early 1900's, but they began to grow during the enactment of the Civil Rights Act of 1965 and while the G.I. bill was being dispersed to a growing military (Rasch, 2004). By the late 1960's and 1970's, community colleges began separating themselves more from high school academia and creating their own mission and identity (Raby, 1995). The American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) stated that there are currently 12.4 million students enrolled in 1,167 community colleges with 40% attending full-time. The AACC also mentioned that there is an estimated increase of 15% enrollment from 2008 to 2010. The increase may be caused by the estimation that 8 out of 10 jobs will require higher education. Unfortunately, only 31% of the students who entered community colleges for a degree are graduating within 6 years.

Community colleges are considered fairly new compared to universities. They were created to help those seeking a higher education that may have not been prepared for a 4-year university or the high costs associated with attending a university. Community colleges offer local higher education opportunities that can be fairly inexpensive compared to a 4-year university. These colleges also provide a more flexible schedule and offer practical workforce training and skills.

Several founding fathers of community college research have emphasized the need for students to transfer to a four-year university. Arthur Cohen, who taught at

UCLA for a number of years, is well-known for his research on community college growth and change. Though his interest and much of his research lies within the transitional period of a 2-year student to a 4-year student, he holds a general philosophy on the definition of community colleges and what they should provide. Cohen believes that a community college should be accessible to anyone no matter what their educational experience was in high school. The ability for students to enter a community college gives them hope of academic success and skills for employment. The community college itself creates an educational culture, which in turn positively affects the community. Emphasizing the need to invest in teacher recruitment and staff evaluations, Cohen believes these are important to the sustainability and quality of community colleges (Cohen, 1994).

Cross is another trailblazer of community college reform. Cross believes when community colleges were first created, their purpose was mainly focused on equality and equal access, but didn't invest as much time into the quality of a community college education. Her philosophy is that community colleges should be learner-centered, that the purpose is for students to learn. Individual attention directed towards each student's learning skills is necessary as this supports students' academic proficiency. Cross (1998) advocates professional development for instructors' continual reflection and supports service learning at the community college level.

These two philosophies are extremely active today. For example, transfer reform is becoming more prevalent throughout community colleges nationally. In the Executive Summary of the Council for the study of Community Colleges (Kisker, Wagoner, & Cohen, 2011), four essential elements for the transfer of associate degrees to bachelor

degrees are provided. The four elements include commonality of pre-major and early-major pathways, credit applicability, having a junior status once transferring to a 4-year college and/or university, and a guarantee or a priority status for admission. This reform on transferring and articulation encourages an easy shift from a 2-year college to a 4-year college so more bachelor degrees are produced. In turn, this advances the economic success in our nation. Bill and Melinda Gates and Walter S. Johnson Foundation currently fund and examine the transfer process in Arizona, New Jersey, Ohio, and Washington. The state of California is very proactive regarding students' abilities to transfer from a 2-year college into a 4-year institution. California has made it easier for transferability by having community college credits accepted by California's universities. Some universities established a high priority for California community college transfer students into their school as well (Kisker et al., 2011).

Another example of current reform based on learner-centered theory is in the state of Virginia. Currently, the state of Virginia is taking the initiative and focusing on the reform of student success. All objectives and activities are focused around the student and for the student. By 2015, Virginia's Community College System (VCCS) wants to increase the number of students graduating, transferring, and earning a credential to 50%, and to achieve a 75% increase from underrepresented populations (www.vccs.edu). Chancellor Glenn DuBois insists that all Virginia's community college presidents be held accountable for these goals. In order to make sure this goal is being met, the VCCS is collecting data to support their decisions. By using and collecting data for strategic planning, VCCS is creating a cultural change in how community colleges go forward with decision making. At first, VCCS reported that they had low completion rates in

developmental education. Based on this new data, VCCS required more than half of their first year students take a developmental course in the fall of their first year. Twenty-three colleges have already implemented developmental courses in one-credit courses and are "developing a customized diagnostic placement tool that yields an individualized "prescription" for each student" (Kisker et al., 2011).

Several changes at the community college level have allowed service learning to enter the higher education arena as well. Many colleges began adding service learning into their classrooms. In 1988, the Commission on the Future of Community Colleges recommended "that all community colleges encourage a service program at their institution, one that begins with clearly stated objectives…that students participating in service programs be asked to write about their experience and to explore with a mentor and fellow students how it is related to what they have been studying in the classroom" (Commission on the Future of Community Colleges, 1988, p. 12 as cited in Kozeracki, 2000). With additional support from President Bush Sr. and President Clinton, the encouragement to include service learning into college is still present today. Though not all colleges have an active service learning program, many are investigating the value of such programs and choosing to integrate them into their curriculum.

Class Format

Before the internet and online classes existed, classrooms were presented face-to-face. Most commonly, teachers would stand in front of the classroom while students sat at their desks in an orderly fashion and focused their attention on the teacher. As the internet has expanded our physical environment into the World Wide Web, it has influenced how classes are currently taught and offered, especially in higher education.

More than ever before, online classes are being endorsed at universities and colleges (Jackson & Helms, 2008; Wuensch, Aziz, Ozan, Kishore, & Tabrizi, 2008). There are several reasons why colleges have taken this course of action. First, it is cost effective to offer classes online which are known as distance learning. No demand for classroom space is needed which in turn reduces utility costs. Colleges can offer more courses, as they do not have to create more physical space to accommodate growth. Colleges can attract students nationally and internationally, as teaching and learning occurs completely in cyberspace.

Most individuals have experienced school in person, a common experience in the United States. Teaching in such an environment provides strong advantages for the instructor. When facing their students, instructors can create a positive atmosphere by showing their support and guidance to their students (Major, 2008). In addition, eye contact, gestures, voice tone and frequency all occur within this physical space. With direct communication, the professor can analyze and acknowledge students with immediate feedback (Jackson & Helms, 2008). This, itself, creates a social dialogue that allows students to interact with one another verbally and nonverbally (Wuensch et al., 2008). A strong classroom community can be created with elements as "(a) connection, (b) safety, (c) participation, (d) support, (e) belonging, and (f) empowerment (Jackson & Helms, 2008, p. 97). However, El Mansour and Mupinga (2007) argue that such a limiting environment becomes inflexible and creates a "one-size-fits-all" class (p. 243).

In contrast, an online classroom allows students to meet and interact, but in a limited yet flexible capacity. In this environment, learning can literally take place anywhere with internet access. Ritter, Polnick, Fink II, & Oescher (2010) maintain that

"teamwork is emphasized and encouraged and individual competition is de-emphasized" in an online setting (p. 98). Many students prefer enrolling in online courses because it involves less travel time, reduces difficulties in chronic parking problems, offers more classes, and provides students the ability to set their own pace (Jackson & Helms, 2008).

There are disadvantages to distance learning. First, instructors cannot view their students' nonverbal cues and react by changing the classroom structure and/or dynamics (Ritter et al., 2010). By limiting this physical and interactive form of communication, there lacks a sense of community (Dennen, 2005). According to Ritter et al. (2010), a stronger sense of community and connectedness occur in face-to-face classes than hybrid or online courses. With many messages posted and discussed in an online classroom, these messages can disappear or briefly skimmed by students causing difficulty in content comprehension (Wuensch et al., 2010). Students may feel less interaction with peers and the instructor (Wuensch et al., 2010). Additionally, students' struggle with technology may divert their focus from the subject matter (Jackson & Helms, 2008). No matter what the pros and cons are with these different formats, scholars have found online class members and traditional class members equally satisfied with their classes (Jackson & Helms, 2008). This indifferent attitude allows instructors to incorporate service learning in online and traditional class structure.

Social Media

Social media is taking the world by storm through Twitter, blogging, Facebook, Second Life, Google+, and other interactive sites. Hogan and Quan-Haase (2010) define social media as a "two-way interaction with an audience, beyond any specific recipient" (p. 310). This definition can be broken down into "one-way media and two-way media.

Like one-way media, information is broadest from one source to a (potentially unknown) audience. Like two-way media, individuals can react and respond to this communication through the same channels" (Hogan & Quan-Haase, 2010, p. 310). In social media, messages can be dispersed among a few individuals to millions. For example, in Facebook, Facebook members can invite people to view their messages. Their "friends" can be a handful of people to a much larger audience. This gives the writer the opportunity to limit his/her exposure in cyberspace. With Twitter, members' postings can be seen by the entire world so long as they are "following" you. The tweeter does not have to grant a follower permission to follow as Facebook requires.

As many forms of social media are created and dispersed on the internet, there is a strong possibility that higher education will follow the trend. There are many advantages of social media. Increased communication among classmates and teachers, variety in the classroom, and additional ways to learn are some of the positive assets. Quan-Haase (2008) claims those who communicate online actually communicate even more when not on the internet. Some research has shown a positive relationship between the use of such social media sites and how much students are engaged in their school as college clubs (Heiberger & Harper, 2008; HERI, 2007). However, many instructors fail to understand the value of social media in higher education. There can be a learning curve which may cause instructors to deviate from using these tools. Students as well may struggle using social media as a learning tool when they lack knowledge and experience regarding internet activity (Finger, Sun, & Jamieson-Proctor, 2010).

YouTube

YouTube was founded in 2005 and is seen by millions of people who want to share or watch short videos. Individuals can view the videos at no cost and/or sign up as a member and post their own videos with usually a 10 minute limit on the video. These videos can be provided by original artists or reposted from classic movies, old music videos, or even television shows originating years ago. YouTube allows people from across the world to watch others and comment on what they see (YouTube, n.d.). YouTube boasts that 13 million hours of video were uploaded in 2010, and currently 48 hours of video are uploaded every minute. In fact 3 billion videos are viewed daily with 70% of viewers (YouTube, n.d.). Skiba (2007) contends that YouTube can be used to visually stimulate students to keep them interested in educational content by encouraging a dialogue and discussion among students by reflecting on what was viewed (Skiba, 2007). Additionally, YouTube can be used to help students learn certain subjects as well as academic and workforce skills not being offered in classes.

In this study, students from the experimental group utilized YouTube throughout the course for speeches as well as the final group presentation. The videos consisted of the students themselves reflecting about the project, videos to enhance what they were trying to communicate to the class, or a visual aid of the group in the act of volunteering.

Blogging

Blogging has become very popular in the last decade, especially last year when WordPress, a blogging website, reported that over 100,000 new WordPresses were created every day, and 346 million people view 2.5 billion pages monthly (WordPress,

2012). Kirkpatrick (2008) reports Technorati tracks over 133 million blogs. With over 12 million Americans maintaining a blog, 57 million Americans actually read them. In fact, 1.4 million new blogs are posted daily (Miller, 2012).

Blogging is a form of writing a journal, opinion, or critique on a website for people to follow. However, blogging has been around since the late 1990s (Williams & Jacobs, 2004). With more and more entering the world of the Internet, the public have begun blogging on websites such as www.blogger.com and www.wordpress.com or blogging on specific interest websites that have a blogging link. Williams & Jacobs (2004) define blogs as informing an audience about several different items that interest the writer which can be personal, newsworthy, or subject specific. This can be a "monologue" or a "dialogue," where it can be "an active partner in communication" or just a conversation with the self (O'Donnell, 2006, p. 8). Sometimes it's open for everyone to view while others may be more private and only a few are allowed to view the writings of the blogger. With content-specific sites, the blogger can reach a large audience that has the same interests or comments as the blogger. As Williams & Jacobs (2004) state "with a soapbox all to themselves, blogs provide their maintainers with the rare opportunity to act as an oracle of information" (p. 233).

Though blogging can be a form of stating one's opinion, it can also promote a conversation with others, including conversations within a university (Williams & Jacobs, 2004). Roblyer and associates (2010) reported that a third of the students and staff ran blogs officially or within instruction (National School Board Association [NSBA], 2007). According to Ferdig & Trammel (2004), blogs can create an interactive dialogue between students and teachers creating critical thinking, participatory learning,

and increased flexibility in teaching and learning. With blogging, the reader can be unknown, reading the blog but never commenting. Nonnecke & Preece (2001) define this as a form of being a passive participant, where they maintain part of the blogging atmosphere but don't actively interact with blogger and his/her followers. Still, blogging allows an intimate environment that can provide online friendships for those that may find it difficult to obtain friendships in a traditional classroom (Powazeck, 2002).

There are advantages and disadvantages managing this form of open writing in a classroom environment. A positive aspect of blogging is that it supports learning by providing a platform for students' opinions and allowing them to share their reflective thoughts (Kerawalla, Minocha, Kirkup, & Conole, 2008). With definitive guidelines for students, quality reflection can occur. Once these blogs have been posted, other students can read the blogs and then post their own comments, creating a student dialogue outside of the classroom. Ratcliff (2004) emphasized that blogs can help students amalgamate their thoughts and create associations through the process of writing, which can meet course objectives. However, students can write blogs that have no educational or reflective value. They may decide to create a rant about someone or something, causing negativity amongst participants. A teacher needs to supervisor these blogs with the intent to stimulate reflective thought related to the class. There is always the possibility a student may deviate from such direction, but with positive encouragement, the student may revert back to the task of purposeful reflection.

In the pilot study section, two communication classes were required to blog weekly in the form of a required journal entry. Once they established a blog site on

www.blogspot.com or www.blogger.com, they were required to follow other students in the class, allowing other peers to view their journals and write comments.

Twitter

Twitter is growing and evolving on a daily basis with over 230 million plus "tweets" per day and 100 million people connected to Twitter (Bosker, 2011). Twitter is a website where individuals can sign up and post short comments about anything. They can follow other members or have members follow them, with or without their permission. Fox, Zickhur, and Smith (2009) found that the median age of "tweeters" is actually younger than those using Facebook. Users are limited to 140 characters, including spaces, giving users an opportunity to collect their thoughts and write in a short frame. Once Twitter is successfully downloaded to a cell phone, tweets can turn into texts and students can respond immediately. This allows 24/7 dialogue to occur. The negative aspect is that not all students have cell phones or access to using texting all the time, so they must revert back to the Internet and the immediacy is gone.

Twitter may be thought of as a social network of casual activity between friends or as a form of mass communication and marketing. It can also be a positive and beneficial attribute in higher education (Rinaldo et al., 2011). Junco, Heiberger, and Loken (2011) published the first experimental evidence suggesting that Twitter enhances grade point averages and increases activity for students and teachers as well as influences the classroom experience and enhancing students' motivation for relations.

As mentioned above, Twitter can be used for social affairs or higher education. Twitter can "illustrate different aspects of curriculum content" (Lowe and Laffey, 2011, p. 185). Markett, Sanchez, Weber, and Tangney (2006) mention that social network tools

extend the "student's social space and can blur conventional boundaries if interweaved with more conventional face-to-face interactions" (as cited in Lowe & Laffey, 2011, p. 185). This can be seen positively as a way for students to connect outside of the traditional barrier of classroom contact only. However, this can also encourage negative aspects of communication, where the educational realm merges into the personal realm, which some teachers consider inappropriate. Tweeting can cause students to share personal news, but personal information can be real-life examples of social issues, projects, and work scenarios, creating a genuine learning community (Lowe & Laffey, 2011). "We feel that twitter provides the best of both worlds by (a) being able to contact students in a familiar and widely used environment; (b) the ability to provide short, concise messages that students can either follow or disregard; and (c) the power of email and other full service applications with the ability to link out to the external environment, and with added convenience and flexibility" (Lowe & Laffey, 2011, p. 188). Rinaldo**,** Tapp, & Laverie (2011) support this comment adding that Twitter helps manage students' time better while increasing student involvement.

Dunlap & Lowenthal (2009) mention three things needed for the effectiveness of Twitter: (a) students they are tweeting with, (b) the frequency level, and (c) how thorough and aware students are about their contributions to the dialogue. For Twitter to work in an academic environment, there needs to be continuous dialogue between classmates that is multifaceted while contributing to the content of the class. This can be in the form of a reflection, such as responding to an academic question.

Twitter can be a great source for students' reflections in a quick and short fashion. Lowe & Laffey (2011) mention the process of writing a tweet encourages the student to

condense their thoughts into 140 characters. With information being dispersed in limited text, it can be an efficient way to keep the class interacted, especially involving course projects or quick discussion on current classroom topics. As an educational resource, students as well as the instructor can inform other class members of current project updates and educational events, especially nonprofit events that they are participating in. Twitter gives students the opportunity to have a voice and receive feedback from the class, also referring them back to their Facebook page (Dunlap & Lowenthal, 2009; Grosseck & Holestescu, 2008). However, Twitter is known to be somewhat addictive and may even promote poor grammar with incomplete sentences and creative spelling (Grosseck & Holetescu, 2008).

In the pilot study segment, students in two communication courses were required to sign up for Twitter by the second week of class, post their Twitter address on Blackboard, and then follow all class members while the students in the other two communication courses only used texting, blackboard, and email. It was recommended that they check Twitter weekly to read other tweets as well as the instructor's tweets. They were also encouraged to use Twitter as a tool for group interaction and group management.

Conclusion

Research establishes that service learning can create positive effects on college students, including the enhancement of communication skills. In addition, creating a committed viewpoint to service in one's community may be an additional attribute a student learns. When involving college students in such experiential learning projects as community service projects, research shows that students may learn critical thinking

skills, enhanced communication skills, and a strong community service attitude. It can also be argued that the use of social media tools with its extreme popularity in the last decade may enhance the forms and variety of communication, creating a richer experience when involved in community service.

CHAPTER 3: METHOD

Design

This study used a quasi-experimental, pre- and post-design with a control group and an experimental group. The experimental group, which was not aware that community service was part of the curriculum, was required to complete a group service learning project in their communications class. As part of a pilot study, the experimental group was divided into two groups: group 1 used Twitter and blogging as part of the service learning project and group 2 did not. The control group consisted of communication 101 students, but they did not participate in a service learning project or use any social media tools. All participants in this study were not self-selected, as they randomly enrolled in these communication courses without any knowledge of the class structure for the experimental or the control groups.

The purpose of applying a quantitative method is to describe whether a result occurs due to the dependent variable, service learning. The researcher chose this type of technique to acquire data that would illustrate if a significant difference occurred when incorporating the independent variables of service learning and social media tools.

Participants

There was only one inclusive criterion for participation in this study. Participants needed to be enrolled in the communications course offered by a local community college. The control group also needed to be enrolled in a communications course

offered by the same local community college. Enrollment usually occurred during the previous spring or summer through the community college website.

Male and female participants (N = 134), ages between 17 to 65, were asked to complete a survey at the 4th week of the semester and at the conclusion of the semester, resulting in a period of 15 weeks of class. The data analyses included data only from participants attending and completing the class. The majority of participants were of Caucasian descent (77%) and 51% had at least a few months of service learning experience. Table 1 in the Findings section provides this demographic information, gender percentage, and age.

Participants agreed to an Institutional Review Board (IRB) approved consent form by completing the survey. This consent form stated that they understood the purpose of the study and whether they chose to complete the survey or not, it would not affect their grade as it was anonymous and voluntary with no grade value. Participants were all college-aged individuals as they were attending a local community college. Participants were recruited from the communication classes in which the researcher was teaching. The control group was recruited from a colleague's communication class that the researcher had no contact with. Participation in the study was voluntary to avoid undue influence, and students had the opportunity to opt out of the study at any time.

The study was reviewed and approved by the Boise State University IRB to protect participants. Data collection occurred through hard copies that were entered into Qualtrics, a survey software program. Data were stored on a data storage drive locked in the Public Policy Building, at all times, and password protected.

Instruments

Two main assessments were used for data collection: the Communicative Adaptability Scale (CAS) and the Community Service Attitudes Scale (CSAS). The purpose of these surveys was to obtain information about the research questions relating to the effect of service learning on students' communication adaptability and service learning attitude.

Communicative Adaptability Scale

To measure communication skills, the Communication Adaptability Scale (CAS) was chosen. This assessment was selected because its validity and reliability was proven in previous studies (Wheeless & Duran, 1982; Duran, 1983; Duran & Kelly, 1988, Duran & Zakahi, 1988; Duran, 1992; Hullman, 2007). The CAS assesses communication competence which reflects flexibility and adaptability in social settings appropriately. Communication competence literature argues that one is competent when he/she corresponds his/her behavior to a particular venue (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2002). In other words, being able to successfully communicate in a plethora of interpersonal situations to which one is exposed. According to Spitzberg and Cupach (2002), being flexible and adapting to one's environment are the "hallmarks of competence communication" (p. 107). Wheeless and Duran (1983) add that a sign of communication proficiency is the ability to feel comfortable with different people. According to Downs, McGrath, Stafford, and Rowland (1990), the CAS had more constant factors compared to other communicative style measurements. Chen (1992) utilized the CAS to measure foreign students' flexibility and adaptability based on Duran's (1983) research, showing that certain gender traits were highly correlated with adaptability. The CAS was also

implemented as an 'other-report' and proven to be valid and reliable as a measure of communication competence (Hullman, 2007).

In this study, the CAS subscales matched and measured the class objectives students were required to meet, such as interpersonal skills and social skills knowledge highlighted in an introductory communications class. Also, social media tools were investigated per the pilot study to see if such devices influenced communication adeptness. Those objectives, also listed in Duran & Kelly's (1988) scale, are social composure, social confirmation, social experience, appropriate disclosure, articulation, and wit. The CAS is considered an "overall measure of competence by creating a linear composite of six dimensions" (Duran & Zakahi, 1988, p. 139). Each of these elements is necessary for students to master and become competent communicators. Duran (1983) first created the instrument with a total of 20 items (Duran, 1983), but then increased the instrument into a 30-item instrument (Duran & Kelly, 1988) on a 5-point Likert-type scale from 5 = always true of me to 1 = never true of me that measures six different items of communicative adaptability. Duran (1992) argues that the CAS competently measures communication ability as it has been "associated with various interpersonal process and outcome variables such as cognitive complexity, interaction involvement, communicator style, and communication status" (p. 265). The internal consistency found the validity of the following six dimensions as: social experience (.80), social confirmation (.84), social composure (.82), appropriate disclosure (.76), articulation (.80), and wit (.72) (Rubin, Palmgreen, & Sypher, 1994). This scale is a reliable source of measurement for this study, as it shows how adept a student is as a communicator. Please see Appendix C for full instrument.

Community Service Attitudes Scale

The Community Service Attitudes Scale (Shiarella, McCarthy, & Tucker, 2000) was utilized for a secondary measurement on students' attitudes toward community service. This assessment was elected, because it quantified students' proactive attitudes on volunteer activities, the choice to engage in community service, and whether their attitude shifted on what community service meant to them. This scale specifically follows Schwartz's (1977) model of altruistic helping behavior. Altruistic helping behavior is "how aware individuals are of the needs of others and to what degree they want to help others" by providing steps that discuss the "person's progress, beginning with the perception of the existence of a need and ending with an overt response of help" (Shiarella, McCarthy, & Tucker, 1999, p. 3-4). Schwartz's (1977) model features different phases: (1) activation stage where a person feels a need to respond, (2) the obligation stage where a person is morally compelled to help, (3) the defense stage when a person evaluates whether it profits them to help, and (4) the response stage, determining to help (Bringle, Phillips, & Hudson, 2004). A person goes through each phase chronologically until he/she has reached the final stage to choose volunteer work. Bauer, Moskal, Gosink, Lucena, & Munoz (2007) utilized this instrument to investigate what faculty and students thought of community service. In general, faculty had a higher positive attitude than students based on their theory that they were more established in their careers.

The scale consists of 54 items with a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree that was revised from the original scale that consisted of 70 items. The scale measures community service attitude and intentions for

participating in community service within a chronological progression "beginning with the perception of the existence of a need and ending with an overt response of help" (Shiarella, McCarthy, & Tucker, 2000, p. 287). Examples of the survey consisted of questions as to whether the participant feels they are somewhat responsible for improving their community, whether they feel bad about people's desolation, and whether community service is necessary.

The internal consistency reliability of this test showed the following in certain segments: awareness (.78), actions (.83), ability (.82), connectedness (.90), moral obligation (.84), empathy (.83), costs (.85), benefits (.80), seriousness (.86), and helping (.89) (Shiarella et al., 2000) This scale is being used for its reliability in measuring students' awareness of peoples' needs and the level of desire to actually assist others who need help. According to Shiarella et al. (2000), the "CSAS can help inform and increase researchers' and educators' understanding of students' attitudes toward community service projects performed for college credit or as a course requirement" (p. 299). Please see Appendix D for the complete instrument.

Procedure

Participants were recruited from a Northwestern United States community college. The sample size consisted of 137 students. Prior to collecting data, a protocol application was submitted to the Institutional Research Review Board (IRB) to request authorization to conduct the research. The IRB granted approval with the condition that the assessments are taken anonymously and are provided full disclosure that taking such assessment would not affect their grade and participation was voluntary. Participants received a consent form prior to tasking the assessments.

Participant Recruitment

Within the fourth week of class, students enrolled in the introductory to communications 101 classes voluntarily and participated by taking the assessments, CAS and CSAS. The only recruitment that occurred is whether the students voluntarily enrolled in a communication 101 classes at the community college. In those four classes, students could choose to take the pre- and post-assessments provided by the instructor. Participants were not required to complete the surveys and were told that whether they chose to participate had no effect on their grade. At the end of the semester, the students completed the same surveys so pre- and post-data could be collected.

Pre-Intervention

Pre-intervention measures occurred the 4th week of class before any service learning activities began. Data collection occurred over a week based on the response of participants to the emailed survey as well as the collection of hard copies of the survey. The principal investigator was assisted by a graduate student and classroom assistants for the collection of data to avoid any conflict of interest issues. The same graduate assistant collected the data for the pre- and post-intervention surveys as well. Completing the survey took approximately 10 minutes for participants.

Control Condition

In the control condition, students in three different communication 101 classes took the pre- and post-assessment of CAS and CSAS during the 4th week and the 15th week of class. These students had a different communication instructor and were not required to do a service learning project. This control group used the same communications book and the same course material, but the requirements of the class were different from the experimental group.

Intervention Protocol

Participants were encouraged to begin preparation for their service learning projects by the fifth week of class, even though they were not required to start immediately after the pre-intervention survey. Participants were randomly chosen for their group service learning projects with the option to do the assignment individually. Participants were encouraged weekly to start working with their groups on the service learning project even though the presentation of their project would be due in early December 2011. The instructor set aside an average of 15 minutes per class period to work on the service learning projects, ask questions, conduct team building exercises, view YouTube videos, and learn presentation software. The instructor also requested all classes to start reflecting in their journals about their service learning projects once the students began working in their groups. In addition, participants were also advised that a reflection paper consisting of 3 pages was due at the end of the semester. Please see Appendix E, F, and G for the syllabus.

Post-Intervention

Post-intervention measures occurred the 15th week of class after service learning activities concluded. Data collection occurred over a week. All forms received were anonymous and entered into the Qualtrics program.

Data Analysis

A series of t-tests were conducted between the experimental and control group to evaluate whether there was a significant difference between communication competency and service learning attitude resulting from the dependent variable, service learning. As per the pilot study, the same t-tests were used for evaluation of significant change between the pre- and post-test. T-tests were conducted for each individual group comparing the pre- and post-test of the CAS and the CSAS. T-tests discover whether the groups are significantly different within each group as well as from each other. The test also evaluates whether an additional intervention, the use of social media tools, made a significant difference to participants' responses on the assessments.

Table 1. Method Model

	Experimental group (N=73)	Control Group (N=64)
Pre-test	Yes	Yes
Intervention (15 hours of service learning activity)	Yes	No
Post-test	Yes	Yes

Table 2. Pilot Study Method Model

	Twitter/Blogging group (N=25)	No Twitter/blogging group (N=44)
Pre-test	Yes	Yes
Intervention (15 hours of service learning activity)	Yes	Yes
Intervention (Twitter & blogging)	Yes	No
Post-test	Yes	Yes

The Likert scale was used to interpret items on both the CAS and the CSAS. The responses were analyzed through the use of a statistical software program.

Ethical Considerations

This study involved human participants and their responses to two assessments. In order to maintain their anonymous status, each participant received a consent form, with explicit details regarding their confidentiality and data protection, as approved by the IRB. All participants were given significant time to thoroughly complete both surveys and re-evaluate their responses. The surveys did not request any names or status, only demographic information they chose to provide voluntarily.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

This chapter presents the findings from the Communication Aptitude Scale (CAS) and the Community Service Attitudes Scale (CSAS) among participants enrolled in Communications 101 courses at a Northwestern community college. First, information on the demographics is presented. The chapter continues with the findings based on the collected data within these Communication 101 courses and its students. The statistical analyses were formulated through the use of SPSS. The presentation of the results is organized based on the research questions.

Descriptive Statistics

The researcher distributed the survey to eight Communication 101 classes during the 4th week of the Fall 2011 semester. Four of the Communication classes retained the researcher as the instructor. The other four Communication classes had another communications instructor from the same college. Participants were then given hard copies of the survey by the instructor's assistant while the instructor was out of the room. In the four control group classes, the researcher distributed hard copies to participants and collected them within a period of 15 minutes. The overall response rate was 82% with 137 total participants.

Demographics

Table 3 represents the demographics of the participants, which include 77% white with 27% being of an ethnic background. Forty-five percent (45%) were male and 55%

were female. The percentage amount of traditional-aged students (18-25) was 64%. The percentage amount for nontraditional students was (26 and above) 36%. The percentage for participants with no prior community service experience or with a few days of such experience was 49%. Fifty-one (51%) of participants did community service for a few months to one year or more. Different demographics between the groups are provided in Appendix E.

Table 3. Demographics

Group	N	Valid Percent
Male	60	44.8%
Female	74	55.2%
Age group (18-25)	85	63.4%
Age group (26+)	49	36.6%
SL experience (0-few days)	64	49%
SL experience (few mth+)	65	51%
White	103	77%
Minority	31	23%

Research Questions

1. Does communication competency change when implementing a service learning component in an introductory communication course curriculum per the Communication Adaptability Scale (CAS) subscales? Is there a significant difference of competency levels among the control group and the experimental group per the Communication Adaptability Scale (CAS) subscales?
2. Do community college students' attitudes toward community service change when implementing a service learning component in a communications class

per the Community Service Attitude Scale (CSAS) subscales? Is there a significant difference of attitude levels among the control group and the experimental group per the Community Service Attitude Scale (CSAS) subscales?

Data Analysis

Each group consisted of community college students that are enrolled in a Communications 101 course. Each participant received two pre-tests, the Communication Aptitude Scale and the Community Service Attitude Scale. The Control Group was not required to complete a service learning project. The experimental group was required to complete a service learning project, which was the dependent variable. As part of a pilot study, two of the classes in the experimental group applied additional social networking tools (Twitter and blogging) to their service learning project. All participants were in a 16-week Communications 101 course simultaneously.

T-Test

In order to understand the data, t-tests were performed to find whether a significant difference occurred between the experimental group and control group when comparing the CAS and CSAS subscale scores. The tests analyzed whether the treatment of service learning caused an effect or no effect among these categorized groups. The alpha level of $p < .10$ was applied to test the mean difference. The hypothesis is that there will be significant differences between one of the independent variables and dependent variable. The null hypothesis is that there will be no difference on any subscales for any of the groups.

Hypothesis Testing and Results

Research Question One

T-tests were selected to answer the question "does communication competency change when implementing a service learning component in an introductory communication course curriculum per the CAS subscales? Is there a significant difference of competency levels among the control group and the experimental group per the CAS subscales?

T-Test

Independent sample t-tests were conducted to examine the effect of service learning among the experimental group as well as the control group that had no exposure to a service learning project. A t-test was conducted on the pre- and post-test results of the control group and the experimental group. The results for the descriptive statistics for the CAS means are presented in the appendices. In the control group, significant results were found in the Appropriate Disclosure subscale where the pre-test (M=3.4, SD=.8) is significantly different from the post-test (M=3.7, SD=.8); t(120) = -1.8, p = .074.

Significant results for the experimental pre- and post-test were found in the subscales of Social Composure, Articulation, and the overall CAS score. The social composure subscale pre-test (M=3.6, SD=.61) is significantly different from the post-test (M=3.8, SD=.67); t(122) = --1.7, p = .086. The articulation subscale pre-test (M=3.4, SD=.82) is significantly different from the post-test (M=3.7, SD=.82); t(122) = -2.7, p = .008. Third, the overall CAS score pre-test (M=3.5, SD=.44) is significantly different from the post-test (M=3.7 SD=.42); t(132) = -2.1, p = .040. Pre- and post-test charts for

the CAS are located at the end of this chapter. The demographic pre- and post-table showing significance are located in the appendices.

Table 4. T-Test Subscales

	N	Mean (SD)	t	df	p	Mean gains
Control group pre social composure	64	3.5 (.75)	-.73	122	.47	
Control group post social composure	60	3.6 (.6)				+.1
Experimental pre social composure	73	3.6 (.61)	-1.7	33	.086*	
Experimental post social composure	62	3.8 (.67)				+.2
Control pre articulation	64	3.6 (.83)	-.26	22	.79	
Control post articulation	60	3.66(.93)				+.06
Experimental pre articulation	71	3.4 (.82)	-2.7	31	.008***	
Experimental post articulation	62	3.7(.69)				+.3
Control pre appropriate disclosure	63	3.4(.8)	-1.8	122	.074*	
Control post appropriate disclosure	59	3.7(.8)				+.3
Experimental pre appropriate disclosure	71	3.5(.6)	-1.2	130	.229	
Experimental post appropriate disclosure	61	3.7(.7)				+.2
Control pre overall CAS	64	3.49 (.40)	-1.4	122	.17	
Control post overall CAS	60	3.6(.47)				+.11
Experimental pre overall CAS	72	3.5 (.44)	-2.1	132	.040**	
Experimental post overall CAS	62	3.67(.42)				+.17

*p< .10; **p< .05; ***p< .01

Founded on the results comparing gains and losses between the groups, evidence shows that there are four subscales positively influenced by service learning, including

that the overall CAS score of the experimental group had a .1 higher increase than the control group.

Pilot-Study

As part of a pilot study, the experimental group was categorized into two different groups. Group 1 was required to complete a service learning project using some social media tools while the other group was required to complete a service learning project using Twitter and blogging on a weekly basis. Per the pilot study, the results exposed a significant result on the articulation subscale of the CAS for the group with service learning and limited social media tools.

Table 5. Articulation T-Test

	N	M	SD	t	df	p
SL only group pre-test	45	3.3	.82	-2.5	86	.013**
SL only group post-test	43	3.7	.67			
Control pre-test	64	.6	83	-.26	22	.79
Control post-test	60	.66	93			
Twitter/blog group pre-test	26	.47	83	-1.1	3	.27
Twitter/blog group post-test	19	.74	74			

**p<.05

Research Question Two

Several t-tests were utilized to answer the question "do community college students' attitudes toward community service change when implementing a service learning component in a communications class per the Community Service Attitude Scale subscales? Is there a significant difference of attitude levels among the control group and the experimental group per the Community Service Attitude Scale subscales?"

T-Test

The t-test results when comparing the control group and the experimental group showed some significant results. The control group showed significant change from their pre-test to the post-test in the category of Ability, with the pre-test (M=4.07, SD=.43) being significantly different from the post-test (M=4.19, SD=.49); t(124) = -2.13, p = .035. The control group also showed significant change from their pre-test and post-test on the Actions subscale, with the pre-test (M=5.64, SD=1.1) being significantly different from the post-test (M=5.97, SD=.9); t(124)=-1.8, p = .068. For the experimental group, significant differences were found between the pre-tests and post-tests of the CSAS subscale of Seriousness.

Table 6. T-Test for CSAS Subscale

	N	M	SD	T	df	p	Mean gains
control group pre-seriousness pre	65	5.1	1.3	-1.34	128	.182	
control group post-seriousness	61	5.4	1.3				+.3
Experimental pre-seriousness	69	4.87	1.5	-2.1	124	.041**	
Experimental post-seriousness	61	5.4	1.5				+.53
Control group pre-actions	65	5.64	1.1	-1.8	124	.068*	
Control group post-action	61	5.97	.9				+.33
Experimental pre-actions	69	5.7	1.1	.90	128	.928	
Experimental post-actions	61	5.7	1.4				+.0
Control group pre-ability	65	5.19	1.4	-2.13	124	.035**	
Control group post-ability	61	5.7	1.3				+.51
Experimental pre-ability	69	5.4	1.3	-.326	128	.745	+.09
Experimental post-ability	61	5.49	1.6				

**P<.05

However, the CSAS emphasizes certain phases students must go through. The end result is to reach Phase 4 (helping) with higher scores, as this defines whether the student will seek volunteer work. As the point chart illustrates at the end of this chapter, the experimental group finishes Phase 4 with a higher score than the control group.

Summary

In this study, the effects of service learning on community college students were examined by investigating whether service learning created higher communication adaptability scores and a more positive community service attitude among communication students who were required to complete community service projects. Based on the t-tests, it was discovered that the experimental group had significant results in the Social Composure, Articulation, and the overall CAS scores. There was also a significant difference found in the control group regarding the appropriate disclosure subscale. Supported by the t-tests for CSAS, significance was found for the subscale of Seriousness for the experimental group. The CSAS results also showed a significant change for the control group on the Ability and the Action subscales.

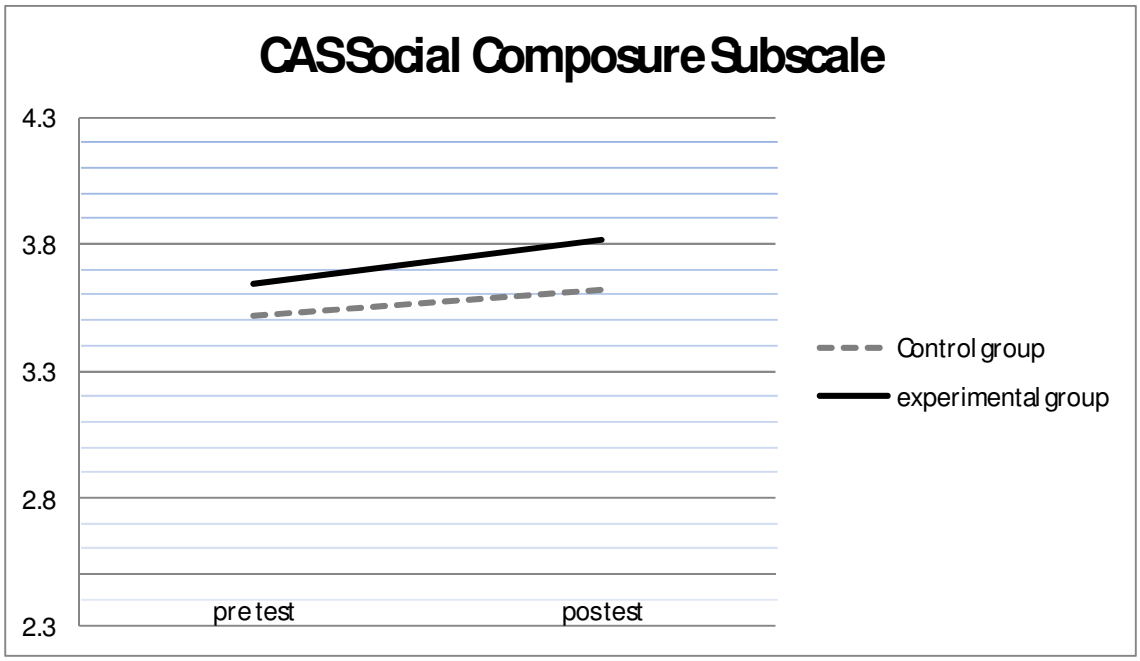

Figure 1. **Pre-test and post-test results for CAS Social Composure Subscale**

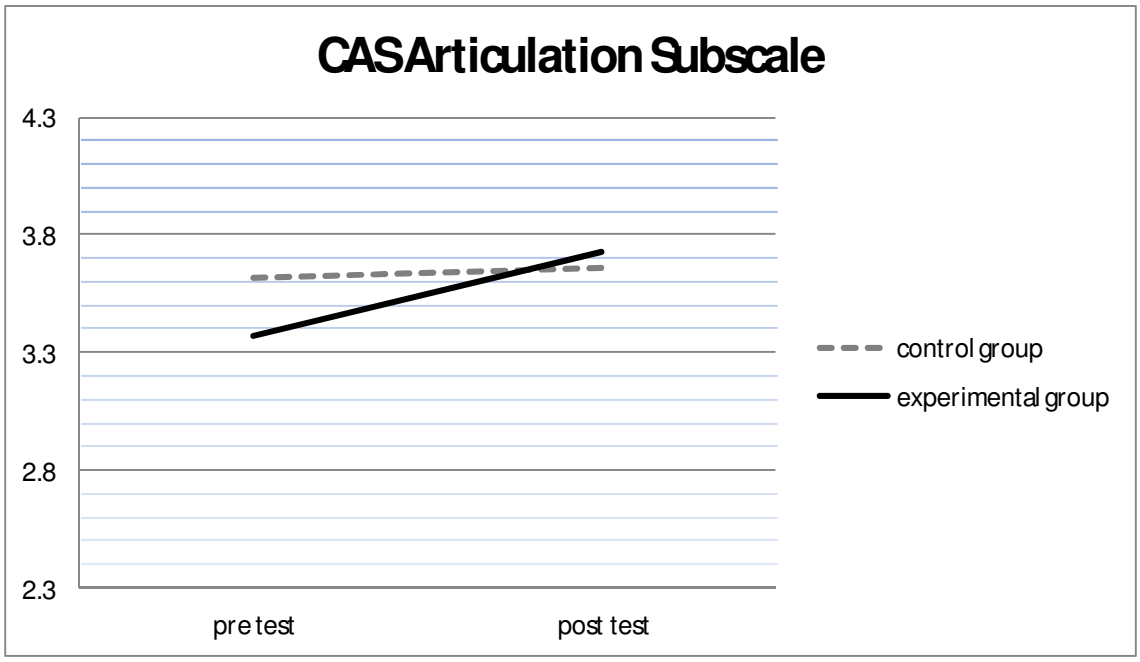

Figure 2. **Pre-test and post-test results for the CAS Articulation Subscale**

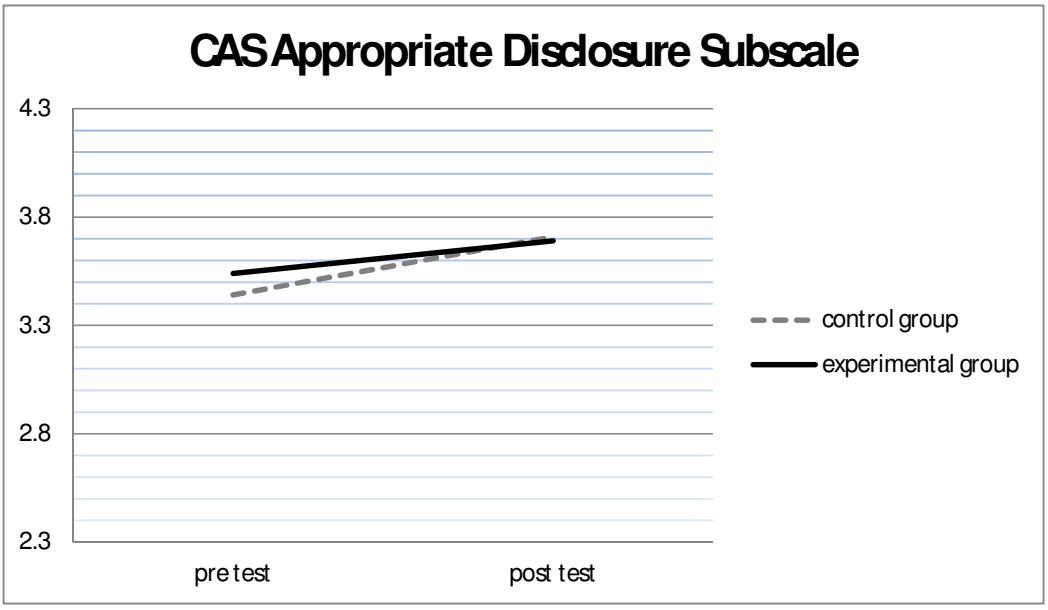

Figure 3. Pre-test and post-test results for the CAS Appropriate Disclosure Subscale

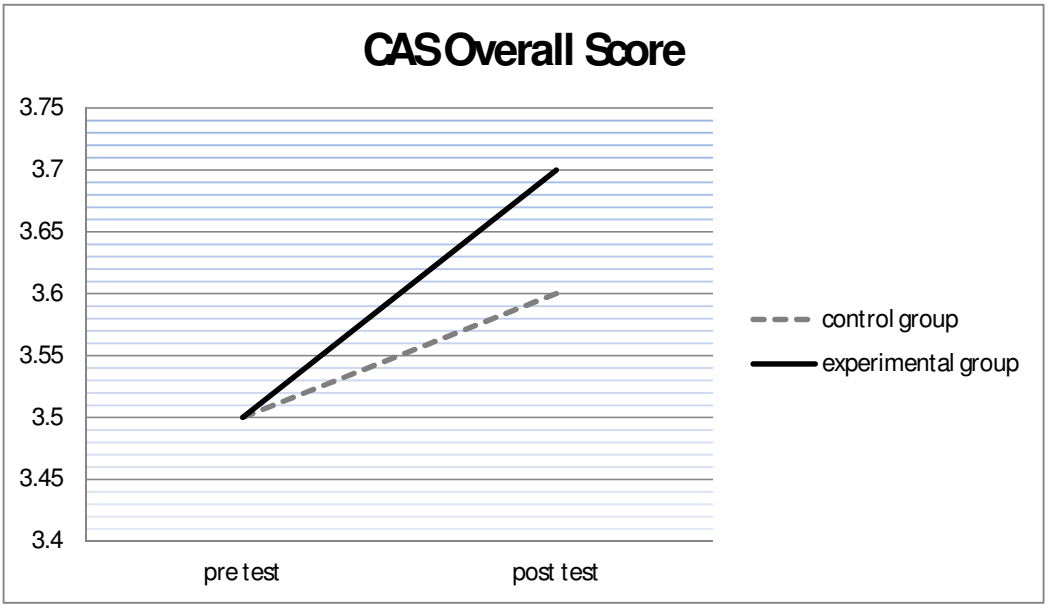

Figure 4. Pre-test and post-test results for the CAS Overall Score

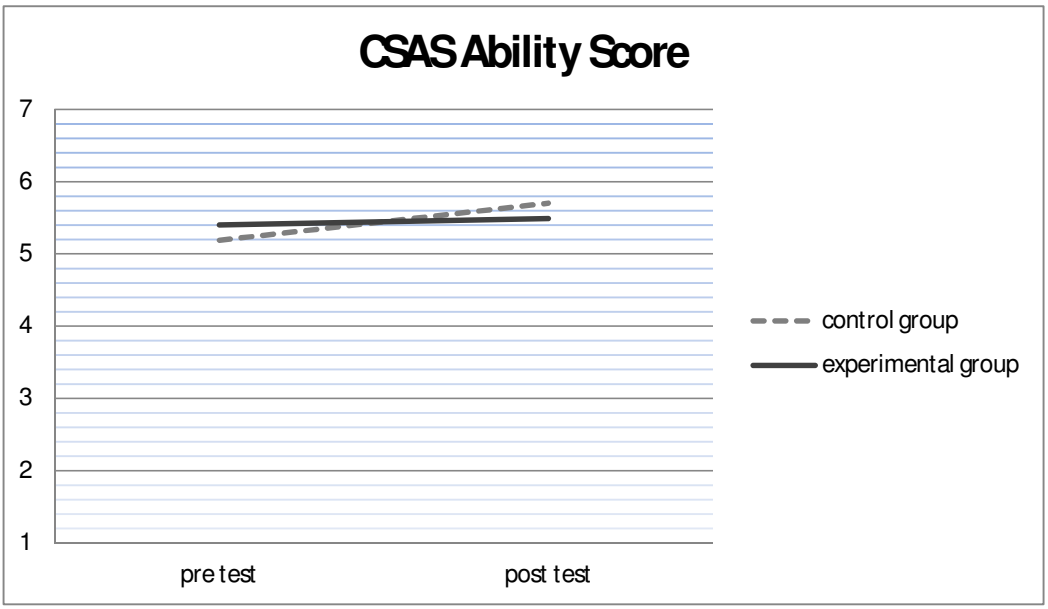

Figure 5. Pre-test and post-test results for the CSAS Ability Score

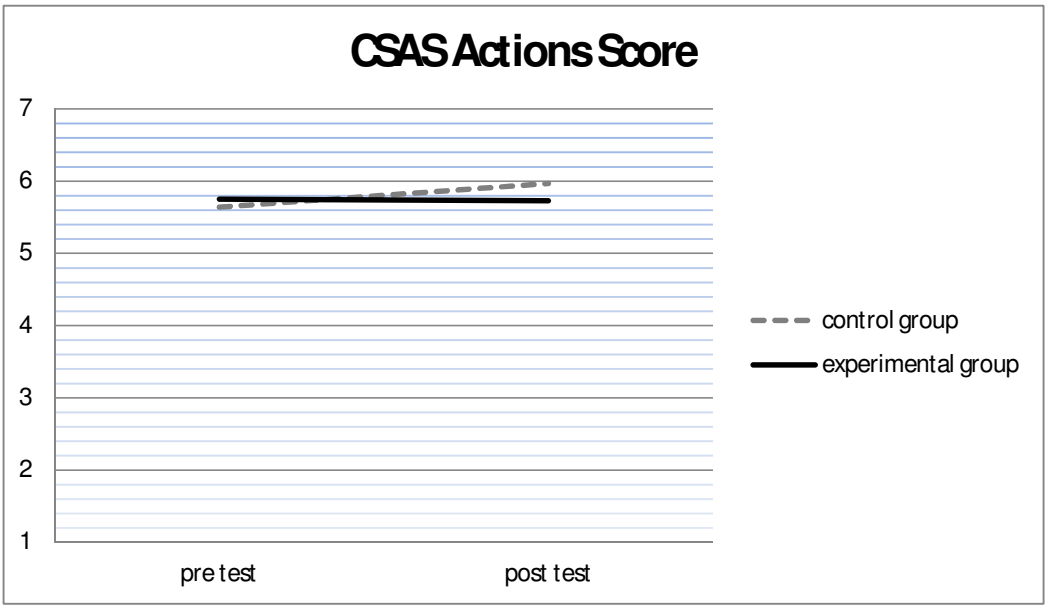

Figure 6. Pre-Test and Post-Test Results for the CSAS Actions Score

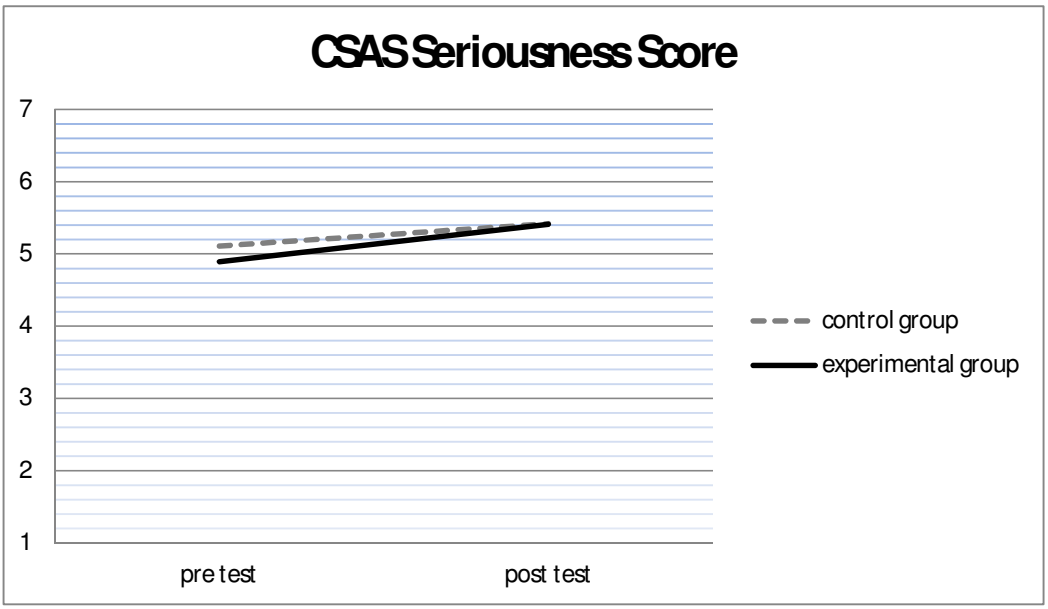

Figure 7. Pre-test and post-test results for the CSAS Seriousness Score

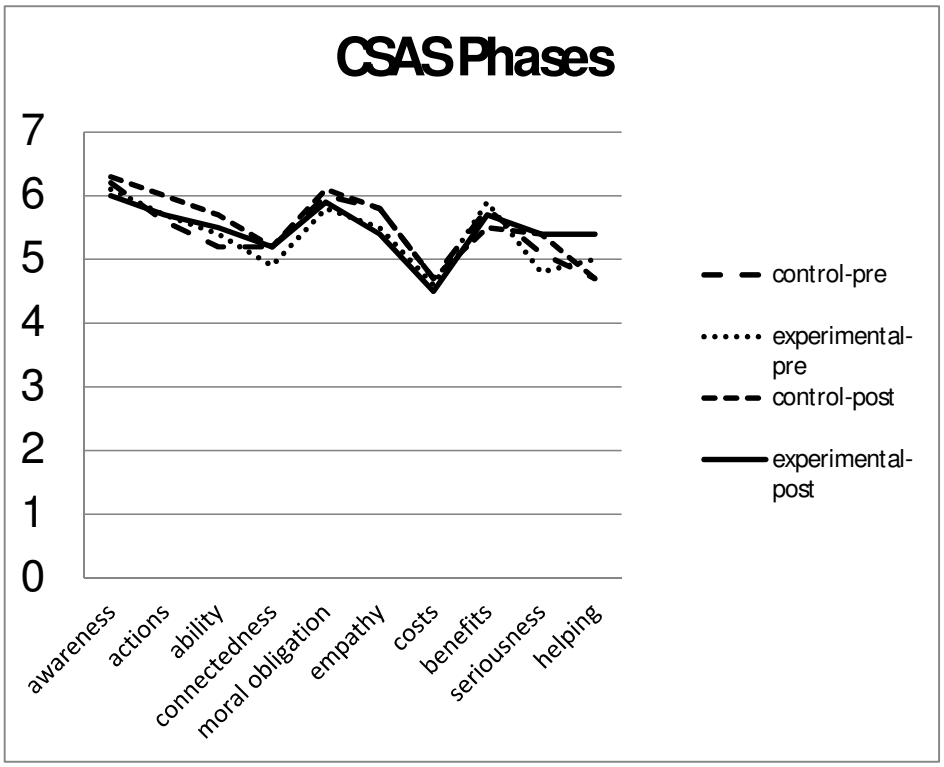

Figure 8. Differences of CSAS Phases Scores for the control and experimental groups

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether service learning with the use of social media tools influenced students' communication aptitude and their attitude toward community service. In this chapter, the CAS and CSAS results will be examined and described. Limitations of this study will be defined at the end of the chapter.

Discussion of the Findings

Four preliminary research questions were established in this study. Those questions were: (a) does communication competency change when implementing a service learning component in an introductory communication course curriculum per the Communication Adaptability Scale (CAS) subscales? Is there a significant difference of competency levels among the control group, the experimental group, and experimental group with social media tools per the Communication Adaptability Scale (CAS) subscales, (2) do community college students' attitudes toward community service change when implementing a service learning component in a communications class per the Community Service Attitude Scale (CSAS) subscales? Is there a significant difference of attitude levels among the control group, the experimental group, and experimental group with social media tools per the Community Service Attitude Scale (CSAS) subscales? Discussions about these two questions are presented below.

Communication Adaptability

Educational philosophers as Dewey (1916, 1938) and Kolb (1984) have defined that learning occurs through experiences. Those experiences also provide an opportunity for students to learn from their peers, developing their social intellect as well as improving their internal cognitive progression (Vygotsky, 1978). In college surroundings, specifically a communications class, instructors can provide the interactive social atmosphere, challenging communication techniques outside classroom barriers, which help with course objectives. Those course objectives are knowledge, skill, and motivation that must be taught so students are competent communicators in various settings, including the immediate community (Spitzberg & Cupach, 1984). By adding community service in the form of service learning into the communication's class curriculum, that vital social experience stimulates comprehension and awareness (Vygotsky, 1978), while enhancing their communication skills to better converse with their peers and educators (Eun, 2011).

The t-test results in this study support the theory that service learning produces better communication skills. Several t-tests showed significant results for the experimental pre- and post-test in Social composure and Articulation subscales and the overall CAS score. In the subscale of social composure, the following statements were provided for participants to answer on a Likert scale: (1) I feel nervous in social situations, (2) In most situations I feel tense and constrained, (3) When talking, my posture seems awkward and tense, (4) My voice sounds nervous when I talk to others, and (5) I am relaxed when talking to others. These questions specifically ask the participant to share their emotional feelings towards conversing in social settings.

Students' social composure confidence increased after actively volunteering, suggesting that communicating outside the classroom and in the community caused them to feel more comfortable and confident when conversing with others. This supports Kolb's theory (1984) that actively participating in experiential learning causes personal transformation and progression. Vygotsky's (1978) philosophy is also supported by this study's findings that developmental stimulation occurs when collaborating with others.

The second subscale, Articulation, provided the following statements: (1) When speaking I have problems with grammar, (2) At times I don't use appropriate verb tense, (3) I sometimes use one word when I mean to use another, (4) I sometimes use words incorrectly, and (5) I have difficulty pronouncing some words. Quantitative results of this study show that grammar and language skills significantly increased. This subscale's significant data indicates that service learning improves participants' grammatical skills. Such results support the fact that service learning, as a form of "practical application of communication scholarship" (Kahl, 2010, p. 300) reduces participants' insecurities when practicing communication with others (Rubin, Rubin & Jordan, 1997).

In the overall CAS score, the five subscales included are social composure, appropriate disclosure, articulation, wit, social experience, and social confirmation. The pre- and post-test outcome of the overall CAS score showed significant changes for the experimental group. This overall score, which consists of all five subscales accumulated, illuminates that service learning significantly increases students' positive perception of their communication aptitude and competence. Service learning generates thought and reflection (Kolb, 1984), alters one's behavior, and increases competent interpersonal communication (Duran, 1983), which directly relates to the objectives of an introductory

communication class. Results suggest that incorporating service learning can substantially improve one's communication proficiency and supports Kolb's (1984) theory that this form of learning increases cognitive growth.

It must be noted that the control group's overall CAS score only increased .1 over a course of 16 weeks. This may imply that students are not receiving the substantial education they should acquire when entering an introductory communications course. These results reinforce that service learning should be introduced to help improve students' communication proficiency.

As defined in the gain and loss table, four subscales increased by at least .1 over the control group, specifically the overall CAS score. Such scores reconfirm the t-test findings that service learning positively affects social composure, articulation, and the overall communication aptitude of students.

As part of the pilot study, the Communication Adaptability Scale exposed significant differences between the pre- and post-test articulation subscale for the group that was required to finish a service learning project but without the use of any social media tools. Additionally, further research resulted that the CAS overall score was significantly different between the group that had none or little service learning experience compared to the group that had one month to over one year of previous service learning experience. See appendices for results. This may imply that the more exposure a student has to service learning, the more communicative adept they are. As Vygotsky (1978) commends, more social exposure can create higher achievement of learning.

Community Service Attitude

A large, but recent amount of research has transpired observing the positive effects of service learning. Dewey (1916, 1938), an educational philosopher on the positive effects of experience and education combined, supports the concept of service learning. Kolb (1984) supports Dewey's thoughts, but adds that the experience should create awareness and intellectual advancement, identifying this as experiential learning. Service learning, as a mode of experiential learning, constructs an environment where students actively participate in a nonprofit organization while reflecting on their contribution. In other words, the classroom is physically extended into the community, initiating a positive educational experience (Hatcher & Bringle, 1997). Additional research has proven that service learning creates an awareness of civil engagement which leads to more community service participation as well as increased motivation, retention, and satisfaction among students (Gray et al., 2000). An added benefit is that community service helps with finding purpose in students' lives as well (Schwartz, 1977).

When combining the positive effects of service learning and communication skills, students learn and the community benefits. With the CSAS t-tests, a significant outcome was discovered for the "seriousness" subscale for the experimental group. The seriousness subscales generates the following statements: (1) lack of participation in community service will cause severe damage to our society, (2) without community service, today's disadvantaged citizens have no hope, (3) community service is necessary to making our communities better, (4) it is critical that citizens become involved in helping their communities, (5) community service is a crucial component of the solution to community problems. This effect implies that students engaged in service learning

believe that community service is not only essential but critical for community amelioration, supporting Smith's (1994) research that volunteering sharpens students' awareness that their skills alternate a community's triumphs.

The outcome for the pre- and post-test of the control group showed a significant increase in their ability and actions in the community. Consequently, the control group, which did not participate in any community service for their class, felt that volunteers could improve social issues in the community: particularly, their own personal skills and contribution would make a difference. Due to no direct exposure to community service, results may suggest that students believe they can make change while not volunteering. Additionally, data may also indicate that students are aware of volunteers and how much their efforts positively affect local community agencies. Perhaps attending a college communications class without service learning could support the students' belief that their contribution to the community does in fact make a difference. However, when students participate in community service, their direct exposure to the realities of all the social problems organizations face may dispel any positive thoughts that they do assist in creating the community as a better place for people to live and work.

The control group showed significant results for the subscales of ability and actions that occur in the first phase of the CSAS assessment in the final phase, their scores decreased more than the experimental group. In Schwartz's (1977) altruistic helping model, which the CSAS was designed upon, the person progresses through four phases, with the final phase as indication that the person will assist in volunteer activities. Though students' attitudes in certain categories might fluctuate through the course of the phases where the control group has gained more, the experimental group ends on a high

note in the last phase of helping. The fourth and final phase implies that these students who completed a community service learning project will continue their volunteering activities. The results indicate that the experimental group has a higher rate of continuing with community service, suggesting that service learning encourages students to keep helping others.

Limitations

Although this study exposes the positive effects of service learning on communication students, certain limitations must be noted. First, the participants were recruited from one community college and all experimental courses were taught by one instructor, the researcher. Being the instructor and the researcher may have unintentionally changed participants' attitudes. Hence, the results of this study may not generalize to students in different colleges, with a different instructor, and/or with different class disciplines. Future research should be conducted with a different college and different classes to reproduce these findings.

The second limitation was the amount of participants. Several participants dropped out of the research project after the pre-surveys were distributed for numerous reasons, such as dropping the class, failing to fill out the post-survey or not attending class when the post-survey was passed out. Third, supplementary data could have been collected if each participant was followed from the pre-test to the post-test, allowing a within subjects ANOVA to be utilized. This additional test could provide more detailed information that would further examine the effects of service learning on each individual participant. Lastly, this study could have utilized different assessment tools that provided more relevant information. However, the researcher investigated the most appropriate

valid and reliable measurement found to evaluate community service attitude when the study occurred.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

This study indicated that significant communication changes occurred when incorporating service learning in an introductory communications classroom. The results encourage the implementation of service learning into college curriculum as an interactive and stimulating method to meet class objectives. With service learning as well as social media tools being contemporary research topics, this study provides a springboard for other research relating to service learning as a technique to not only encourage academic excellence, but to promote volunteerism in our communities.

Future Research

Service learning is a novel discipline in the academic world, requesting that more researchers explore the relationship of service learning and the success of college students, especially financially challenged students. This study specifically touches on the importance of service learning in the college classroom as well as the positive use of popular social media tools as Twitter and blogging as a form of student engagement within a community service project. Researchers should examine the long-term results of implementing community service not only on students but on instructors as well. Furthermore, researchers should evaluate the long-term benefits of social media tools in a community college class, especially among non-traditional and low-income students. These two groups may lack the technology hardware and the technology knowledge about social media tools, making the experience either valuable or detrimental to their

educational experience. Whatever the results may imply, researchers should offer solutions on how to use such media tools correctly for these particular populations.

CAS results illustrated the lack of superior communications skills at the end of the Fall course for the control group. It should be further examined why there is a lack of improved communication dexterity and how to resolve this dilemma. This leads to the topic of accountability for discussion and whether this is a necessity in community colleges.

Another thought this study produces is the belief patterns of men and women on community service. When running several t-tests among demographics, results showed a significant difference in several CAS and CSAS subscales. This area demands additional research on why men have a less enthusiastic attitude of community service than women before and after experiencing volunteer activities.

Future research should include an analysis of what type of community service has the most significant effect on participants seeking future volunteer activities. Additionally, researchers should focus on whether the amount of time spent on such projects creates a different outcome on community service attitude. This may provide new knowledge on whether certain activities create the most positive results, allowing service learning educators to strategize their curriculum accordingly.

Lastly, the pilot study raises many questions regarding the use of social media tools in the classroom. This needs to be further explored in a larger group of participants with ones that struggle with internet access and those that are highly involved with social media. This might encourage educators to investigate constructive ways to provide a technological aspect to classes easily accessible by all students.

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APPENDIX A

Demographic Survey

Demographic Survey

Directions: Please circle the answer that most closely matches you

1. What is your gender?
    a. Male
    b. female

2. What is your age?
    a. 18 – 25
    b. 26 – 30
    c. 31 – 35
    d. 36 – 40
    e. 41 – 50
    f. 51 – 60
    g. 61 and above

3. What is your amount of service learning experience?
    a. Zero
    b. A few days
    c. A few months
    d. One year
    e. More than one year

4. What is your race?
    a. American Indian or Alaskan Native
    b. Asian
    c. Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
    d. African American
    e. Hispanic
    f. White
    g. Other _____

APPENDIX B

Informed Consent

Informed Consent

College of Education

TITLE OF STUDY: Communication Competency & Community Service through Service Learning Curriculum

Purpose and Background: The purpose of this study is to help understand individual's attitude toward community service and the level of communication competency. You are being asked to participate in this study, because you are a community college student.
Participants: You are being asked to participate in the study because you are a community college student with experience and thoughts associated with communication competency and community service.
Procedures: Data collection will involve the completion of a brief survey designed to assess your communication competency and community service attitude. These procedures will be done at your school during regular, typical class experiences.
Risks of Participation: The risks involved in this study are very minimal (for example, fatigue from answering questions). You responses and data will not be revealed to other participants in the event, nor will they be given to anyone else in a manner that would reveal your identity. Your identity will never be reported with your responses, or be made public in a manner that could like you to your responses. The Confidentiality section of this page contains further details on ensuring confidentiality and data security.
Benefits: There will be no direct benefit to you from participating in this study. However, the information that you provide may help education professionals better understand how RJE and high quality teaching can be cultivated in teachers, schools, and education.
Confidentiality: All information gathered in this study will be kept completely confidential and all data will be shared as aggregate. No reference will be made in written or oral materials that could link you to your response on this study. All study records will be stored on a password secure computer and locked cabinet at Boise State University for three years, at which time they will be deleted.
Costs: There will be no cost to you as a result of taking part in this study other than the time spent answering the survey.
Contact Information: If you have any questions or concerns about participation in this study, you should first talk with the investigator, Margaret Sass (208.914.3520; margaretsass@boisestate.edu). If for some reason you do not wish to do this, you may contact the Institutional Review Board, which is concerned with the protection of volunteers in research projects. You may reach the board office between 8:00 a.m. and 5:00 p.m., Monday through Friday, by calling (208) 426-5401 or by writing: Institutional Review Board, Office of Research Compliance, Boise State University, 1910 University Dr., Boise, ID 83725-1138. If you are not a BSU student, and you feel discomfort, you should contact your own health care provider.
Participation in research is voluntary: You are free to decline to be in this study, or to withdraw from it at any point. Your decision as to whether or not to participate in this study will have no influence on your present or future status as a BSU or CWI student.

Questions: If you have any questions or concerns about participation in this study, you should first talk with the investigator, Margaret Sass (914.3520; margaretsass@boisestate.edu) or dissertation chair, Dr. Ken Coll (426.2708**;** kcoll@boisestate.edu). If for some reason you do not wish to do this, you may contact the Institutional Review Board, which is concerned with the protection of volunteers in research projects. You may reach the board office between 8:00 a.m. and 5:00 p.m., Monday through Friday, by calling (208) 426-5401 or by writing: Institutional Review Board, Office of Research Compliance, Boise State University, 1910 University Dr., Boise, ID 83725-1138.

Should you feel discomfort due to participation in this research, and you are a BSU student, you may contact the Boise State University Health & Wellness Center for counseling services at (208) 426-1601. If you are not a BSU student, and you feel discomfort, you should contact your own health care provider.

Consent: I have read the above information and agree to participate in the study.

By completing the following surveys, I am consenting to participate and allowing my data to be used in research.

THE BOISE STATE UNIVERSITY INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD HAS REVIEWED THIS PROJECT FOR THE PROTECTION OF HUMAN PARTICIPANTS IN RESEARCH.

APPENDIX C

Communicative Adaptability Scale (CAS)

Communicative Adaptability Scale (CAS)

The following are statements about communication behaviors. Answer each item as it relates to your general style of communication (the type of communicator you are most often) in social situations.

Please indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you by placing the appropriate number (according to the scale below) in the space provided.

5 = always true of me

4 = often true of me

3 = sometimes true of me

2 = rarely true of me

1 = never true of me

Social Composure

____ 1. I feel nervous in social situations. (R)

____ 2. In most situations I feel tense and constrained. (R)

____ 3. When talking, my posture seems awkward and tense. (R)

____ 4. My voice sounds nervous when I talk to others. (R)

____ 5. I am relaxed when talking to others.

Social Confirmation

____ 6. I try to make the other person feel good.

____ 7. I try to make the other person feel important.

____ 8. I try to be warm when communicating with another.

____ 9. While I'm talking I think about how the other person feels.

____ 10. I am verbally and nonverbally supportive of other people.

Social Experience

____ 11. I like to be active in different social groups.

____ 12. I enjoy socializing with various groups of people.

____ 13. I enjoy meeting new people.

____ 14. I find it easy to get along with new people.

____ 15. I do not "mix" well at social functions. (R)

Appropriate Disclosure

____ 16. I am aware of how intimate my disclosures are.

____ 17. I am aware of how intimate the disclosures of others are.

____ 18. I disclose at the same level that others disclose to me.

____ 19. I know how appropriate my self-disclosures are.

____ 20. When I self-disclose I know what I am revealing.

Articulation

____ 21. When speaking I have problems with grammar. (R)

____ 22. At times I don't use appropriate verb tense. (R)

____ 23. I sometimes use one word when I mean to use another. (R)

____ 24. I sometimes use word incorrectly. (R)

____ 25. I have difficulty pronouncing some words. (R)

Wit

____ 26. When I am anxious, I often make jokes.

____ 27. I often make jokes when in tense situations.

____ 28. When I embarrass myself I often make a joke about it.

____ 29. When someone makes a negative comment about me I respond with a witty comeback.

____ 30. People think I am witty.

R = Before summing the items to create dimensions, reverse the score of those that are followed by (R). If the person indicated 5 for that item, give it a score of 1. If the person indicated a 4, give it a 2. If the person indicated a 2, give it a 4. If the person indicated a 1 for that item, give it a 5.

Note: For more information, please use the following reference:

Duran, R. L. (1992). Communicative Adaptability: A Review of Conceptualization and Measurement. *Communication Quarterly, 40 (3)*, 253-268.

APPENDIX D

Communicative Adaptability Scale (CAS)

Communicative Adaptability Scale (CAS)

The following are statements about communication behaviors. Answer each item as it relates to your general style of communication (the type of communicator you are most often) in social situations.

Please indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you by placing the appropriate number (according to the scale below) in the space provided.

5 = always true of me

4 = often true of me

3 = sometimes true of me

2 = rarely true of me

1 = never true of me

Social Composure

____ 1. I feel nervous in social situations. (R)

____ 2. In most situations I feel tense and constrained. (R)

____ 3. When talking, my posture seems awkward and tense. (R)

____ 4. My voice sounds nervous when I talk to others. (R)

____ 5. I am relaxed when talking to others.

Social Confirmation

____ 6. I try to make the other person feel good.

____ 7. I try to make the other person feel important.

____ 8. I try to be warm when communicating with another.

____ 9. While I'm talking I think about how the other person feels.

____ 10. I am verbally and nonverbally supportive of other people.

Social Experience

____ 11. I like to be active in different social groups.

____ 12. I enjoy socializing with various groups of people.

____ 13. I enjoy meeting new people.

____ 14. I find it easy to get along with new people.

____ 15. I do not "mix" well at social functions. (R)

Appropriate Disclosure

____ 16. I am aware of how intimate my disclosures are.

____ 17. I am aware of how intimate the disclosures of others are.

____ 18. I disclose at the same level that others disclose to me.

____ 19. I know how appropriate my self-disclosures are.

____ 20. When I self-disclose I know what I am revealing.

Articulation

____ 21. When speaking I have problems with grammar. (R)

____ 22. At times I don't use appropriate verb tense. (R)

____ 23. I sometimes use one word when I mean to use another. (R)

____ 24. I sometimes use word incorrectly. (R)

____ 25. I have difficulty pronouncing some words. (R)

Wit

____ 26. When I am anxious, I often make jokes.

____ 27. I often make jokes when in tense situations.

____ 28. When I embarrass myself I often make a joke about it.

____ 29. When someone makes a negative comment about me I respond with a witty comeback.

____ 30. People think I am witty.

R = Before summing the items to create dimensions, reverse the score of those that are followed by (R). If the person indicated 5 for that item, give it a score of 1. If the person indicated a 4, give it a 2. If the person indicated a 2, give it a 4. If the person indicated a 1 for that item, give it a 5.

Note: For more information, please use the following reference:

Duran, R. L. (1992). Communicative Adaptability: A Review of Conceptualization and Measurement. *Communication Quarterly, 40 (3)*, 253-268.

APPENDIX E

CAS Descriptive Demographics for Pilot Study

Table E.1. CAS Descriptive Demographics for Pilot Study

	Group 1 (control)		Group 2 (service learning)		Group 3 (service learning with twitter/blog)	
Pre&post	**Mean (SD)**	**N**	**Mean (SD)**	**N**	**Mean (SD)**	**N**
Pre social composure	3.5 (.75)	64	3.57 (.62)	45	3.75 (.59)	28
Post actions	3.6 (.85)	60	3.76 (.74)	43	3.95 (.42)	19
Pre social confirmation	3.74 (.6)	64	3.8 (.69)	45	4.08 (.59)	28
Post social confirmation	3.89 (.63)	60	3.99 (.76)	43	4.07 (.54)	19
Pre social experience	3.63 (.72)	64	3.58 (.73)	45	3.8 (.61)	26
Post social experience	3.69 (.83)	60	3.78 (.79)	43	4.02 (.67)	19
Pre appropriate disclosure	3.44 (.79)	63	3.44 (.59)	45	3.72 (.64)	26
Post appropriate disclosure	3.7 (.79)	59	3.58 (.75)	43	3.9 (.63)	18
Pre articulation	3.6 (.83)	64	3.31 (.82)	45	3.47 (.83)	26
Post articulation	3.66 (.93)	60	3.72 (.67)	43	3.74 (.74)	19
Pre wit	2.9 (.85)	63	2.8 (.89)	45	2.81 (1.03)	26
Post wit	2.97 (.88)	58	2.97 (.88)	43	2.78 (.77)	18
Pre total	4.07 (.43)	64	3.99 (.53)	45	4.09 (.49)	27
Post total	4.2 (.47)	61	4.22 (.54)	43	4.27 (.55)	19

APPENDIX F

Demographic Groups

Table F.1. Demographic Groups

Groups	N	Valid Percent
Male	60	45%
Female	74	55%
Age group (18-25)	85	63%
Age group (26-30)	12	9%
Age group (31-35)	16	12%
Age group (36-40)	11	8%
Age group (41-50)	7	5%
Age group (51-60)	2	2%
Age group (61+)	1	1%
SL experience (zero)	28	22%
SL experience (few days)	36	28%
SL experience (A few months)	25	19%
SL experience (One year)	8	6%
SL experience (More than one year)	32	20%
American Indian or Alaskan Native	4	3%
Asian	6	5%
African American	3	2%
Hispanic	11	8%
White	103	77%
Other	7	5%