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ABSTRACT

Articles in this publication were presented at the 1975 eighth annual Conference of the Western College Reading Association, the theme of which was "College Learning Skills Today and Tomorrowland." The keynote address presented by Gene Kerstiens was titled "The New Learners: Focus for the Future." Titles of some of the other 36 articles are: "College Learning Skills: Yesterday's and Tomorrow's Skills Today," "Dynamics of a Successful Tutorial Program," "Cloze Procedure and the Affective Domain," "Standardized Reading Testing in College: Some Cautions," "Re-Entry Women: Some Programmatic Considerations," "Monolingual and Bilingual Perception of Vocabulary Usage," "A Survey of Learning Program Centers in U.S. Institutions of Higher Education," "Miscue Analysis: Some Diagnostic and Instructional Implications," "Interfacing Tutoring and Reading Programs: Training Tutors To Do My Job," "Tools for Training Instructors of Adult Reading: Fantasy or Reality," "Self-Paced Instruction--Is It Really Individualized?" "The Effect of the Cloze Procedure in Teaching Comprehension to Culturally Different College Students," and "Alternative Learning and Reading." (JM)

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**PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
EIGHTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE
OF THE**



**VOLUME VIII: COLLEGE LEARNING SKILLS
TODAY AND TOMORROWLAND**

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EDITOR'S PREFACE

In the preparation of this WCRA *Proceedings*, a sincere attempt was made to reproduce the efforts of all the contributors in their original forms; however, many of the articles had to be trimmed to save money. For example, the extended article of the keynote speaker, Mr. Gene Kerstiens and the speech by Mr. Royce Adams were passed untouched, while others were held to three to four pages. One exception was made for Ms. Enright. Since her paper gave a historical perspective of Learning Centers in America which required twelve pages, the editorial staff agreed to present the paper in its entirety. We hope you approve.

To those of you whose articles were reduced, I apologize.

To the editorial staff, I express my deep appreciation for your valuable suggestions, criticisms and editing.

To the members of the Western College Reading Association, I thank you for appointing me your *Proceedings* editor.

Roy Sugimoto
August 1975

NINTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE:
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**PROCEEDINGS
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OF THE**

**WESTERN
COLLEGE
READING
ASSOCIATION**



**THEME: College Learning Skills Today
and Tomorrowland**

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KEYNOTE ADDRESS THE NEW LEARNERS: FOCUS FOR THE FUTURE

Gene Kerstiens
El Camino College

Accounts of the traditional students who encounter typical academic difficulties in our colleges are well represented in the professional literature. We have identified these students' learning problems and have developed a kind of stereotype, a rather comfortable composite; and the faster this comfort fades, the more some of us grieve over it. But those of us whose business it is to facilitate learning are compelled to take notice of the increasing number of non-traditional students with atypical learning problems, life styles, and ambitions. (29:23) These students are the new learners, now considered mavericks and misfits in the academic establishment. However, they are the vanguard of population that promises to grow geometrically rather than incrementally during the next five years.

This paper will be concerned, first of all, with identifying some characteristics of this growing population of learners, who are older, more practical, poorer, more disabled, and ethnically and linguistically more different — altogether more complicated, interesting, and challenging individuals. Second, this paper will discuss the reasons why this increase and qualitative mix is inevitable, whether or not we welcome it. And finally this paper will indicate some of the changes — or advances — that will probably occur in terms of scheduling, staffing, facilities, materials, and learning strategies so that this student can be effectively accommodated. All of these changes are in an embryonic or infancy stage on many of our campuses now. (5:6-7)

CHARACTERISTICS

The new student will be older. The notion that the preponderance of our students are or will be youthful transfers from high school is diminishing. Last year college enrollment was up four percent; yet the number of

students transferring directly from high school was down seventeen percent. (14:2-3) Returning women and mothers in their thirties and forties, now numbering 410,000 in higher education (21:34), partly account for this age differential. So do the adult males, who now have enough leisure to take classes in order to update skills needed for promotion or to prepare for a different occupation. Finally, we are now getting and can expect many more of the elderly, the senior citizens, who are disinclined to believe that "intelligence and memory decline in advanced adulthood except for a few outstanding people." (36:64) These persons as well as the researchers who are qualified to judge (6:99) are convinced that while the elderly may have lost their teeth, they have not lost their marbles. Thus, the concept of continuing, life-long education that is now a trend promises to become the mean. (34:47; 4:4)

The new student will be more practical and pragmatic in a number of ways. For instance, he will not be so BA degree oriented. Appropriately, the American Council on Education makes this statement: "The BA degree is the most over-used level for upgrading a vocation or profession. Frequently the degree has no functional relationship to the demands of the job." (27:3) The National Advisory Council on Vocational Education states, "The need, clearly, is for the prompt integration of our fractured system of education around the concept of career education. And the people know it." (23:3) Accordingly, this new student will be career-minded, witnessed by the fact that 66% of community college enrollees pursue occupational training. (1:1) Cooperative Career Education, in which 10% of California Community College students engage, will involve 25% of school populations within five years. (33) These students will also be consumer-minded students, who are alert to alternative methods of ingesting knowledge and training, as a result of their experience in business and industry. They will be interested in job competencies rather than degrees, and so will their employers. (32:487) Whatever the virtues of a classical liberal arts education, these students will be demanding the kinds of skills they can apply immediately and concretely, not ultimately and philosophically. (28:48)

We will be dealing with a poorer student. Poverty in the academic establishment is big business. It's funded. Recruitment programs will continue to bring and sustain a student whose transportation problems occasion spotty attendance. He will be tardy in getting books and assignments and will have health problems affecting his learning. This student will be less able to cut red tape, read and complete the long and sometimes embarrassing qualifying forms, wait out the lines at the financial aids office, and, most of all, sustain the motivation necessary to develop basic academic skills. This student's attitude and life style may be viewed in capsule form in Annette Chamberlin's "Julian in Blunderland," (9) a portrait of a life style not easily infused with the survival skills necessary to achieve comparatively long-range educational goals and ill-suited to the scheduling of fifty-minute lectures punctually delivered three times weekly.

We will see more handicapped students, including the orthopedically handicapped, ~~the deaf and hearing-impaired~~, the blind and partially sighted, speech-impaired, and the multi-handicapped. Estimates run that between six and twenty percent of our population can be so classified. (18) In California alone there are 48,000 of these people, only a fraction of whom are going to college. As the architectural barriers impeding the orthopedically handicapped are razed through enabling legislation and as more and more learning specialists are trained to effectively treat these and other handicapped in appropriate facilities, we can conservatively expect a 300 percent increase in the disabled student population on our campuses during the next five years. In response to the vocational education offerings of California community colleges, we can also expect to be working with another handicapped type, the mentally retarded, who comprises four percent of our population and who formerly was never expected to appear on a college campus. Regardless, the Office of the Chancellor, California Community Colleges, has plans on the drawing board to serve the mentally retarded, so we can expect the reality within five years. (25:2)

Principally because of the de facto moratorium on the deportation of an estimated 4,000,000 illegal aliens in this country, because of our more lenient interpretation of immigration laws, and because of our growing foreign student and foreign trade programs, we can expect more students wishing to master English as their second language in our college/adult programs. Ethnically these people are habituated to revere educational institutions; and, with an almost frightful eagerness, they will be seeking an effective means of achieving, first of all, linguistic survival skills, and then, the sharper skills necessary to engage in the college experience.

We also will continue to get more students from outreach and rehabilitation programs, especially programs designed to retrain the person who will need to engage in as many as six different jobs during his lifetime. (31:27) And finally, we can expect to cooperate more effectively with all sorts of governmental agencies, for instance, the prisons, from which we will be receiving students on rehabilitative probation leave.

All of these students, coming in greater and greater numbers — the older, more practical, poorer, the disabled, the ethnically, linguistically and socially different — are going to complement our enrollment and comprise a new pluralism. They are not going to be perfunctorily shunted into segregated dead-end programs on our campuses but are, *inevitably*, going to be integrated into the college/adult community because of certain enabling factors: continued and increasing financial support plus improved and more effective methods of treatment that assure success.

FACTORS ENABLING CHANGE

Only a few years ago, the word through the educational grapevine and in the professional literature was that seed and subsistence monies were drying up and that our "experiment" in educational socialism — or

democracy, if you prefer — was over. But the contrary is true. If one governmental support program phases out, another takes its place; but most of them go on. For instance, the Vocational Education Act is alive and strong. The HEW, EOPS, Higher Education Acts, BOGS, Work-Study Programs, and (in California) Assembly Bill 1246, are steady. There is still a good deal of NDEA and NSF money around, not to mention private funding. Soft money is becoming firmer and firmer. Moreover, a legislature for whom we voted has decided that these monies will be spent to enhance students' economic and social mobility. Therefore, appropriations will be appointed specifically for the kinds of programs serving the non-traditional student we have been discussing.

Although these programs will cost more (12:4), they will be less expensive than those we currently foster. Consider, for instance, that it costs \$6,400 for two years of college for the average person on the G.I. Bill. Compare that figure with the \$8,000 to \$10,000 per year needed to sustain a person on a public service job provided him after he was laid off. Economically it pays to educate the unemployed, and there is legislation on the drawing boards for a G.I. Bill for the unemployed. (15)

The second reason why this change is imminent is that studies consistently confirm our conviction that we can successfully treat the non-traditional student. Which is to say that we are becoming more successful at bringing about desired and desirable behavioral change in individuals who were once thought to be unreasonably difficult, uneducable, incompetent, and even hopeless. For instance, we have seen remarkable advances in the training of the handicapped, who no longer appear to be so "abnormal" and who can be helped to lead exceedingly rewarding and productive lives. Again, the 500 colleges that sponsor life-long learning programs report that the elderly can acquire new skills and find valuable outlets for these skills. (36) Finally, recent research indicates that our time-honored notion that the *defined* mentally retarded individual cannot learn to read is in serious question and may have been exploded. (10)

As funds are forthcoming and success is within our reach, it is we — the learning facilitators, reading specialists, the "remedial" instructors, or whatever we are called — who are destined to employ the funds and to initiate the programs, and, hopefully, to enjoy the success, which will probably come about as we effect the following changes.

THE CHANGES

Our concept of instructional time and timing will change substantially. We can improve on the quarter and semester system. We can expect more mini-courses, modular instruction of one week's duration, and short courses completed during a weekend period. (3:37-38) We can expect more single-concept or single skill courses, generating perhaps one quarter of unit's credit. More students will contract to learn specific skills, and they

will do this in self-paced, individualized, personalized instructional systems, in laboratory situations open ninety hours a week. (8:xv) Time options like these will serve the non-traditional student who requires this kind of flexibility and intensity and immediate attention — indeed, he will demand it. Just as stores, markets, a multitude of services, and now even some banks have expanded their services and adjusted their hours and offerings, so will we. Consequently, students who drop in and drop out at irregular intervals to learn at their own discretion will be considered respectable, not instances of recidivism.

Our concept of learning space and facilities will change, especially to serve many students pursuing an external degree in off-campus situations. (11:48) Therefore our edifice complex will be resolved and instructional space will demonopolized. For instance, learning at home or in other non-campus facilities via the various media including open-circuit and cable TV will become more prevalent, and students may choose to encounter instructors only when ready to prove competencies. (35:14) And this tele-training will prove itself to be effective, research indicating that the failure of educational technology until now is chiefly attributable to faculty resistance and some unsound production practices. (27:9-11) Finally, expanded, off-campus, decentralized learning is inevitable when we consider the challenge of the energy and ecological crisis as well as eco-spasms. Consider, for instance, the amount of energy expended, the environment polluted, and the budgets depleted as thirty-five students journey-to and from the campus classroom.

Our uses of the media will become more enlightened. Having forgiven ourselves and our colleagues for some of the mindless abuses of the media, we will make technology work better for us as problem-solving expedients. For instance, we might as well realize that the computer has tenure on our campuses. It can, especially in larger colleges, be the most humanizing single technological investment we can make. (2) It can collect, store, retrieve, compute, compare, compose, collate, and translate critical and necessary student data that would otherwise be forgotten, become lost in the files, or be too bothersome to retrieve. Also the potential of the videocassette, for both individual and group viewing, has barely been tapped. What better way, for example, to teach listening-notemaking skills? Nor have we yet to see the golden age of what has been called the "humble media" (17:21-23) — cassette players and recorders, 8mm films, 35mm slides, filmstrips, single-concept films — which are waiting for better, more relevant, more sensibly packaged, professionally produced 'software to fill the materials gap. (22) And such void will be filled as we progress from our parochial posture to one of cooperation, and as we engage in a selfless and trusting consortium of instructors, producers, publishers, and actors, utilizing professional recording equipment, modern production facilities, and a system of instructional refinement sensitive to field testing input so that students will have the accountable alternatives that they deserve.

Our management of human resources will become more adequate. Having been liberated by the properly prescribed media, learning specialists, as we fancied our roles years ago, will be spending their time trouble-shooting non-routine learning problems instead of lecturing so much — what Mager calls the "spray and pray method." And perhaps fewer of us will engage in one of the shallow alternatives to the lecture method, the habit of emerging classes that purport to develop skills. (30:23) Moreover, we will learn to better manage our time and the time as well as the methods employed by tutors, technicians, and other para-professionals to effect humane, cost-effective, individualized learning, because that's what our business is all about. (20:65; 22; 16:44-47) We will, then, retrain ourselves and others to respond to the demands of the new student. (26:86-87)

THE OUTCOME

It is we, the learning facilitators, more than those in other persuasions or disciplines, who are best equipped intellectually and emotionally to initiate the innovative programs that will serve the new learners. This responsibility, left to others less able, is liable to devolve into a rigid curricular framework that refuses to self-destruct (19) and encourages students to abide by the first law of academic demography: "If you let students go elsewhere, they will." (24:7) We can best accomplish this revolution by developing a new synergism (13:28), a blending of human resources — ourselves, tutors, technicians, counselors, the learners themselves — and the media in all its forms, so that the unified effect will be much greater than the sum of the individual parts. The demands on us will be much greater than those exacted on others in our colleges because our purpose involves growth, not maintenance. The challenges will not be met by those who merely lucidly analyze the situation, but by those who can change it.

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COLLEGE LEARNING SKILLS: YESTERDAY'S AND TOMORROW'S SKILLS TODAY

W. Royce Adams
Santa Barbara City College

It would be extremely presumptuous and very dishonest to pretend that I know all about yesterday's learning skills, all about today's learning skills, let alone prognosticate for tomorrow. But there are three areas related to college learning skills that I would like to touch upon: one, theories of learning; two, methods and materials used for learning; and three, the instructor's role in student learning.

If you will, then, think for a moment about theories of learning. How can the theories of learning from yesterday and today help us tomorrow? What do we know about theories of learning? Do we use these theories in our instruction? Do we use them to select materials and methods we use? Are our theories sound and researched?

A good instructor is a practitioner. A good practitioner will draw upon what theory and research can tell him. Doing so will enable the instructor to develop and evaluate instructional programs so that the establishment of a learning center, reading lab, reading-study skills center, or whatever you choose to call it, will provide the best for the students at each individual college. Thus, knowledge of the different theories of learning — often relegated by teachers as less important than methods — is a vital element in evaluating present materials, in developing programs, and in writing learning materials that will work.

In the May, 1974, *Teachers College Record*, Joanna Williams states that "an important feature of today's research is that it is becoming again more and more theory-based, partly because our general interests in cognition lend themselves rather naturally to an analysis of reading". (8) In line with the title of this presentation, Mrs. Williams looks at "yesterday," the forties-and-fifties theories of Thorndike, Orton, Fernald, Frostig and Kephart, and how they fit in with today's theories. The theories of these

people were largely clinical with all sorts of techniques proposed that were basically neurological or language oriented, most of them geared to elementary students with little being done at the secondary level. In other words, most reading or learning skills programs were focused on readiness activities, that is, basic skills that were preliminary to and necessary for the development of regular academic skills. If a student couldn't read well, the deficiency was generally thought to be in the area of perceptual-motor skills. It was thought that once perceptual-motor skills were developed, the acquisition of cognitive skills would occur. Such a theory is not prominent today.

Many classrooms and reading textbooks are still using this type of approach, although generally speaking, perceptual-motor activities are now recommended as a helpful component to instruction rather than an end in itself. Today, there is a move towards the theory that instruction in reading should be direct without waiting for the development of neurological skills or readiness skills. Most of these theories seem to come from research in cognitive psychology. Until recently the field of cognition, that is, the study of the way knowledge is acquired via perception, memory and thinking, was not too exhaustive. But today, the interest is high.

"Reading is thinking" is by now a cliché in reading. However, proponents of the cognitive process feel that reading, like thinking, is a complex, intricately organized skill. Today, there are several cognitive theories, but let me cite two that seem most characteristic. Eleanor Gibson's theory, for instance, is based on discovering the unit-forming principles in reading activity, then providing training methods that will increase the reader's understanding of structure. David Elkind has another cognitive theory. His is based on the assumption that there are well-defined stages of reading development and that the learning processes reflected by a reader depend on his level of development; therefore, Elkind believes it is first necessary to diagnose the learner's cognitive level and then determine what processes are associated with that level. Unlike the predominant theories of the forties and fifties, Elkind does not believe in the importance of discrimination and association as part of perceptual development. So the theory pendulum has swung the other way.

Today's theories, then, seem primarily based on cognition. The cognitive theorists seem to feel that reading is a complex set of skills and that the key to learning is to find the right structure or order to present the skills necessary for learning. Exactly what these skills are and in what order they should be presented and how they relate to each other have not been proven, but there seems to be much study and research going on in this area today. But the cognitive theorists claim there is knowledge of how a good program of instruction works: a good learning program is (1) structured and organized in levels of skills; (2) it minimizes possibilities of failure; (3) it starts simple and progresses to more complex items; (4) it provides direct instruction with feedback to check learning; and (5) it provides for individual differences in rate of learning and, in some cases,

preferences as to what to learn. This cognitive approach appears in many forms of programmed instruction as well as modular-pacing type programs.

Patricia Cross supports this in her recent tabulations, entitled "1970 to 1974: Years of Change in the Community College". (1) Her collective data shows that in the last four years, self-pacing materials, programmed instruction, and the use of skills centers have all shown a phenomenal jump. Use of self-pacing experienced the greatest growth: from 31% of the colleges sampled in 1970, to 68% in 1974. Use of programmed instruction jumped from 44% to 74% and now reflects the most used of instructional methods. Obviously, the cognitive theorists have found authors and programmers in agreement with them.

Before leaving my discussion of theory, let me leave you with these questions for consideration today and tomorrow:

1. Should a good program be structured and organized?
2. Should a good program minimize the possibility of failure?
3. Should a good program start simple and progress to the more complex?
4. Should a good program provide direct instruction with feedback?
5. Should a good program provide for individual differences?
6. How does your course or program fit in with the cognitive theories of today?

Let me go now to my second area — methods and materials used for learning.

When I first started teaching in California in 1958, I was an accredited teacher in Missouri. However, to get my General Secondary Teaching Credential for California I was forced to take something like twenty units of certain education courses. At no time was I required to take a course on reading theory or methods. I was required to take courses on the history of education, audio-visual aids, and other classes I choose to forget because of their irrelevancy and boredom.

My first teaching assignment, however, included two reading courses. I was so green that I thought teaching reading would be a breeze. Students and I would read books and stories and we'd sit in class discussing these great works. As a literature major, it sounded like an ideal assignment. Well, what to my wondering eyes should appear in these classes but thirty-five or forty teenagers would couldn't read the labels on cans! It was incredulous to me that people couldn't read by the time they had reached high school.

I was ready to quit after two or three weeks, but the principal convinced me that there was a great future in teaching reading at the secondary level. He was right, of course. But it wasn't easy. Not only did I not know how to teach reading, I had no materials to teach with. In addition, budgets were slashed when it came to reading. Courses were taught in everything from the nurse's examination room to rooms in the P.E. building with music blaring through speakers, that couldn't be turned off.

Fortunately, the principal who had conned me into taking all reading courses my second year, began to send me to conferences, recommended schools to visit, and began to budget money for reading materials. Then one day he walked into my room with something called an SRA Kit. How I loved the first SRA Kit I ever saw! It was the answer to my prayers—I thought I could now individualize instruction, right? Then, there were all those watered-down *Reader's Digest* books for poor readers. Next, I discovered the Globe books — the classics written at third and fourth grade levels. Then came the tachistoscopes in all their "glory" — Controlled Readers, Tach-X, Shadowsopes. Those were the years of the Thorndike, Orton, Fernald, Fostig perceptual-motor theories. And thanks to NDEA funds, small fortunes were spent — and often wasted — on machines and gadgets. But NDEA and Evelyn Wood helped give birth to reading labs.

Reading labs came in all sizes and shapes. Mobile units, air units, and sometimes entire classrooms were converted into 40-60 station carrels. Then came Dial Access — the answer to the administrator's dream! (Today, however, most of these places are empty.) Still, the 1960's became the years of show cases. It became a necessity to have a lab of some type: (1) it gave the teacher a way to "individualize instruction" and it kept the students busy and happy; (2) it gave the administration something to show off to PTA and visiting administrators. In the rush to create remedial courses, it was discovered that even good or average readers could benefit from training. And then developmental reading programs were born.

In the colleges, however, very little was being done in the way of teacher training at the secondary level, let alone for two-year or four-year colleges. A few colleges had labs, mostly via the Psychology department or Education department. But the majority of colleges held the philosophy that if you can't read, you don't belong in college. But by 1967, the need for college reading programs was felt strongly enough for WCRA to be formed — and look at the size of the organization today.

But material and method-wise, we college teachers of reading were scratching hard for appropriate materials. Many of the materials we had to choose from were either the same things high schools were using or too developmental and not remedial enough. Most of us involved in the continual search for better results and better materials found most materials inadequate for the nature of our students. As a result, we created our own materials and found that our reading labs were turning into Learning Centers. Today, many Directors of Reading Labs are becoming Directors of Learning Centers. We find ourselves having come a long way from nurse's examination rooms.

Referring to Pat Cross's findings again, she claims that the following types of materials and techniques have been or are being used at the colleges she questioned:

Programmed instruction	74%
Self-paced learning modules	73%

Pacing methods (emphasis on achievement regardless of time taken)	68%
Skills centers	67%
Peers tutoring	65%
Emphasis on A-V aids	64%
Team teaching	45%
Peer counseling	52%
Personalized System of Instruction (PSI)	22%
Computer-Assisted Instruction (CAI)	16%
Cognitive mapping	10%

What will the favorite method and materials be tomorrow? It's anybody's guess, but let me leave you with these questions:

1. What methods and materials do you use in your program and why?
2. Do the methods and materials you use really agree with your theory of learning?
3. What materials would you like to see developed and why? For your convenience or the students'?

The third area I want to discuss is the instructor's role in student learning. While we are gaining recognition, prestige, money and enormous problems, we still need to do some things we talked about doing "yesterday." One of those problem areas that is still with us today is our inability to get content area instruction more involved in teaching reading.

I believe that content area instructors should be teaching reading and study skills. The problem with this premise is manifold. For one, the content area instructors, particularly at the college level, disagree with the premise. For another, content area instructors, on the whole, have never been exposed to a course on reading theory or skills, thus they don't often know what reading instructors mean when they talk about content area people teaching reading and study skills. For still another, many reading instructors are not prepared properly to gain the interest or the involvement of other instructors. They often alienate subject matter teachers in their zeal. But the biggest problem in reaching content area instructors to obtain their cooperation in a truly developmental reading program at a given school is that we reading instructors have defeated our own attempts at such a goal because we have turned reading — which is a skill — into a course. And if not one course — several. And in many cases — reading labs and reading centers.

- How many times have you heard this: "Gee, this kid can't read his history book. He needs to be taking a reading class." The premise here is that a reading course will help that student read his history text successfully; another usually false premise. Reading classes typically mold themselves to some course outline written by the instructors teaching them. The typical reading course is not designed to help a student read his history, but designed as a regular course, in a regular meeting place, at the same time on certain days of the week, with assignments that cover

everything from vocabulary development drills to timed reading and comprehension tests. How does this help the student who wants to read history better? He might even raise his general reading level during the course so that statistically the reading instructor can prove he is doing a good job of teaching reading. No doubt he is; but not in the content areas or the student's specific area of need. Yet, the content area instructor thinks that once a student who can't read his history book has completed a reading course, he should be able to read his history text better. Most research studies do not support this premise.

Let's go back to the first premise: the content area instructor should teach reading and study skills, too. Is it true?

Emphatically, yes! The subject matter teacher:

- knows the vocabulary of his subject better than anyone else.
- knows the text he is using better than anyone else, both from the content standpoint and the difference in facts and inferences and biases an author has in the subject.
- is familiar with the many resources outside the text, both for the super student who wants more and for the slower student who needs a different text or a broader background.
- is the most knowledgeable one to set purposes in reading the text, particularly study purposes.
- can understand complex concepts and relationships upon which many textbooks are set; in other words, he has a backlog of reading and experience to bring to the interpretation of the book content.
- should be able to motivate students' interest in reading since it is his selected subject he is teaching.
- makes up the tests the student must take; therefore, he is most capable of preparing a student for studying the book in a particular manner.
- uses a textbook or books as the basis for his course; that makes him a teacher of reading whether he likes it or not.

When I first started teaching reading about 16 years ago, there was a theme from years ago that was a rather prevalent and catchy phrase: Every teacher a teacher of reading. I'm not certain we've come any closer. Most reading classes are still courses or lab situations which we parallel in importance or status with language labs or science labs. Most states still do not require that secondary teachers or college teachers take a methods course in reading. When a new teacher arrives on campus (at least on mine) and sees that there are reading courses and lab, he naturally assumes, since he wasn't educated any better, that his job is to teach a subject and our jobs are to teach those "poor dumb kids" who don't know how to read.

On top of all that, the courses we do teach in reading are quite often not accepted by four year schools for transfer credit, and some two-year schools do not even offer reading courses for graduation credit, although Cross says we're gaining on that, too. We are often placed geographically in weird quarters to teach our "remedial" classes, such as a nurse's examination

room or some corner of the P.E. building. And many of us were picked from the ranks to teach reading and have learned more from experience than from our own educational preparation.

So how do we change our image and do something about turning our reading courses into an expected panacea for subject matter instructors?

1. We can't be expert in every subject, but we do or should possess the knowledge necessary to help subject matter teachers.
2. We can make sure that our reading courses are based on the needs of the students at our own schools.
3. We can put pressure on four year colleges and universities with teacher training programs and put pressure on publishers to design books using what we know about study skills techniques.

I'd like to examine each one of these points more closely. The first is spreading the knowledge we do possess about reading skills in the subject matter areas.

1. *Use available research.*

- a. Betts' & Marksheffel's (4) studies indicate that standardized reading tests place students anywhere from one year to four years above their instructional level. Studies such as this can be used to break the ice with subject matter instructors.
- b. Find research information for particular subject areas, such as Walter Hill's "Content Textbook: Help or Hindrance?" (2), *A New Look at Reading in the Social Studies* (6), or *Fusing Reading Skills and Content* (5). These works will show that:
 - (1) reading instruction in the content areas is neglected,
 - (2) readability formulas are neglected by subject matter,
 - (3) vocabulary load is excessive,
 - (4) some comprehension concepts are poorly taught (chronology, cause-effect),
 - (5) study skills are neglected, and
 - (6) disabled readers are neglected.

2. *Provide services for the subject matter teacher.*

- a. Offer to come to the subject matter teacher's class and test his students. Select a representative sample from the text being used. Develop about ten questions with enough space for fill-in answers; no objective questions. 70% correct is capable; 55-65 should be tested further; 50 or less, direct to you.
- b. Offer to come to class and explain study skills techniques.
- c. Offer to tabulate readability tests on textbooks being used or considered.
- d. Offer to give a standardized test for speed and comprehension and vocabulary for his class.
- e. From test results, work up modules in vocabulary and comprehension of subject matter.
- f. Offer to come to division meetings and explain what your pro-

gram does and doesn't do. Bring handouts on study skills techniques and materials available for his use.

- g. Offer to hold in-service training workshops (for a division):
- (1) study skills techniques,
 - (2) discuss student problems in reading,
 - (3) how to effectively use the textbook in class (skimming, surveying),
 - (4) preparing students for tests.
- h. Offer to hold school-wide workshops, or create an Academic Senate Committee on Reading-Study Skills using your course or lab as the backbone. We need to dispel the information to the subject matter teacher that time spent discussing study techniques, over-viewing the book, how to use chronologies, glossaries, how to survey, etc., is all part of that teacher's job since he knows the book and the material best.
- i. Invite local high school teachers to come to the workshops.
- j. Offer to train tutors in study skills and a particular subject.
- k. Get the bookstore to stock helpful books in reading and study skills.
- l. Re-do our own courses to fit student needs in subject area modules or mini-courses.
3. *Put pressure on the four year schools and the high schools.*
- a. Develop credit or at least pay advancement credit for reading skills workshops, through your local four year schools. Get administrative help.
 - b. Use your courses as a teacher prep lab.
 - c. Offer to give summer workshops for coordinating high school programs.
 - d. Ask four-year schools to use our labs for teacher training courses that provide pragmatic methodology and on-the-job training.

Those are all tasks from "yesterday" that we have not finished today. Let's work on them for "tomorrow."

The success or failure of a good learning skills program ultimately depends upon those instructors or administrators involved in it. I'm talking about a reading course, a reading lab, a learning center, a teachers' preparation course. It doesn't matter. Because, without a good instructor, any program will be as flat as an open bottle of gingerale that's been left in the refrigerator for a week. It's really the instructor that colors, molds and determines not only the effectiveness of a good program, but the character of the students who take the program.

So I ask you:

1. What type of professional training have you had for the teaching of learning skills?
2. Are you adequately prepared to teach tomorrow's learning skills?
3. Is your function as a learning skills person isolated from or part of the entire campus?
4. What are your strengths and weaknesses in your present job?

We should be committed to developing personalities, not products or automatons. We need individuals in all their human uniqueness, not, as Frank Jennings says, ". . . two-legged domesticated animals to be fed and raised for a purposeless existence" (3:xi). The more competent learners our society can produce, the greater will be our capacity for doing good to ourselves.

The Golden Age of Learning Skills is yet to come. Today, we are just beginning to learn about the learning process and its complexities. We haven't found the answers yet, but before we jump into tomorrow, let's make certain we don't neglect what we learned yesterday and how it fits into what we know and are doing today. Let's work together to blend theory, methods and materials, and instruction toward this end.

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DYNAMICS OF A SUCCESSFUL TUTORIAL PROGRAM

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INTRODUCTION

The dynamics of any successful operation, including a college/university-level tutorial program, should include the following components: well-planned objectives, goals and standards, enough capital staff, an in-service training program; adequate financing and space, efficient paper management procedures, and an effective means of evaluation — including the willingness to use feedback thus obtained.

PURPOSES, OBJECTIVES, GOALS, STANDARDS

A successful program does not just happen — it is made to happen by people who know what they are doing and why they are doing it. That is, they have carefully planned in advance what should be done by whom, why, when, where and how (1:13). Major steps in planning include formulating policies, taking inventory of resources, formulating purposes, objectives, goals and performance standards, and developing an effective method of evaluation, including the use of feedback obtained (1:13-15; 5:221-230). Policies and resources vary according to situation; however, the principle and practice of formulating purposes, etc., are mandatory for anyone seeking to run a dynamic tutorial program.

A *purpose* may be defined as "a broad statement of an aspiration" (1:13). A primary purpose for a tutorial services program is to provide students needing tutorial assistance with a qualified tutor (2:1). Of course, other purposes could be added, or certain policy limitations could be placed upon the type of student eligible for tutoring — e.g., free tutoring for all, or only for EOP/veteran/handicapped students, etc.

An *objective* is a more specific statement which, if achieved, will produce progress toward fulfilling a purpose (1:14). Two such objectives at California State University, Fresno are to "gain the confidence and cooperation of school deans and department chairpersons . . ." and to "provide adequate funding . . ." (2:1).

A *goal* is a still more specific statement designed to facilitate achievement of a stated objective. Three imperative goals are to interview each tutor applicant to assess his/her qualifications, to interview each tutee to assess his/her needs and to train and regularly consult with tutors. A fourth goal could deal with advertising.

Finally, a *performance standard* is "a measurement by which performance can be evaluated" (1:15). Essentially, a good job description clearly states performance standards (i.e., behavioral expectations). For example, a program director may have responsibility to "supervise advertising/communications pertaining to program offerings," "develop sources of revenue, staff and material" and "train tutors in the area of study skills and time management" (2:2).

Evaluation will be discussed in another section.

STAFF

A successful tutorial program has at least three categories of staff: professionally trained coordinators (titles vary), qualified peer tutors, and secretarial support. Preferably, at least one of the professionals should have a master's degree and experience in identifying learning and reading disabilities so as properly to assist or refer students with such difficulties. The rest should have at least the bachelor's degree with a year of related experience. Rather than be distracted by further specific requirements, however, we will focus on qualities and behaviors of professional staff — warmth, friendliness, willingness to listen, ability to relate to a variety of cultures and socio-economic strata, ability to identify the problem; i.e., effective counseling-type behaviors similar to those described by Carkuff (3).

Tutees often are able to relate more effectively to qualified peers than to their instructors, especially older and more prestigious faculty. Quite often the instructor in question really desires to help — but we are dealing with the phenomenon of student perception, i.e., the realm of the student's view of reality, however faulty. Ideally, tutors will have represented in their ranks a sexual and racial balance for sake of equity. Occasionally, however, the most effective tutor-tutee pairing will be on the bases of sex and/or ethnicity, but more for sake of meeting the tutee's personal-social needs.

Ideally, qualified tutors in a given discipline should be recommended by a faculty member who knows how well the applicant understands the content. Also, we suggest tutors have at least a "B" average in the discipline and 2.75 overall GPA (out of 4.00). These criteria should

demonstrate to the faculty and student body that the tutorial service has reasonably high standards and is operating in cooperation with them, rather than as an isolated, independent agency. We have found, too, that the program gains respect and credibility with the faculty when the director spends time communicating personally with the academic vice-president, school deans and department chairpersons about the program, and offers evaluative data regarding the program's effectiveness; i.e., good "PR" also facilitates program effectiveness.

Personal characteristics of tutors should include warmth, friendliness and desire to help, as well as promptness, preparedness, ability to communicate content, and resolve problems. The tutor should discuss some problems, such as emotional or financial, with one of the professional staff regarding appropriate referral to another campus service. However, other problems can and should be handled directly by the tutor, especially basic study skills and time management. These skills would be discussed during in-service training sessions. Finally, a tutor needs to maintain regular contact with the professional staff for purposes of communication and feedback.

Initial contacts with people are very important, often setting a positive tone or negative impression of a given service agency; therefore, it is crucial that secretarial staff be able to greet people warmly and use proper telephone etiquette. Secretarial staff are important team members and should be treated and trained accordingly.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

A program director or any staff member cannot rest on past training and accomplishments. Each one should be involved in some kind of a professional renewing program. Individual reading of appropriate literature and attending professional meetings such as the WCRA annual conference are important; however, planned group activities are also necessary, such as "hands-on" experiencing of new ways of doing old things. In-service training is necessary for every staff member — professional, peer tutor, and secretary.

PAPER MANAGEMENT

Efficiency enhances effectiveness — to a limit, of course. Forms for application, recommendation, hours tutored, money spent, evaluation, etc., are necessary. Poorly devised forms can aggravate and intimidate students, and can deter a program's success. Inadequate or incomplete record keeping prevents or, at best, hinders full program evaluation. One should aim for attractive, color-coded, concise forms and complete — but not oneofous — record keeping.

MONEY

Few programs seem to have too much money; most seem to struggle with too little. Limited funds should cause the management to consolidate, cut costs, find creative ways of achieving goals and objectives, and, above all, really distinguish between primary and secondary priorities — necessary elements in the "good, prior planning" process.

One primary principle to heed is: "avoid a patch-work budget;" i.e., strive to have your own line-item budget, not one comprised of funds "donated" by several sources, each of which currently seems to be becoming progressively smaller and tighter.

SPACE AND LOCATION

Ideally, a successful program should have its own space for individual and small group tutoring for purposes of control and accessibility; however, such is not always the case. Then, it becomes necessary to trust tutors to use good judgement in choosing appropriate locations (part of the selection and in-service training processes). Of course, it is necessary for professional and secretarial staff to have their own private office space.

Accessibility to the tutorial service is also important. Location near major student traffic flow enhances student utilization of the service.

EVALUATION

Effective evaluation is crucial to the success and dynamic of any program. Attempting to evaluate program effectiveness implies, of course, that we know what our goals and objectives are; i.e., we know what we are trying to do. A basic premise regarding evaluation is that one really must be willing to look honestly both at oneself and at the total program, and then be willing both to face up to negative feedback and to act constructively upon it. Evaluation should be done periodically — e.g., monthly, at end of semester/term, annually, etc. Data may be obtained by personal interviews and questionnaires, as well as comparing grades earned to hours tutored. Staff performance and office procedures — all phases of the operation — need to be scrutinized. Then, the system must be modified accordingly based upon feedback (5:221-30). Keep in mind the adage: "Some people are doing things very well which they shouldn't be doing at all." Often, a procedure or function once vital is no longer necessary. But the question is: are we willing to evaluate and change, if necessary, out-moded but comfortable ways of doing things?

An important source of regular, immediate feedback is found in staff meetings in which all team members are able to freely and openly discuss all aspects of the program.

SUMMARY

The important components in a dynamic, successful tutorial program are comprehensive planning of purposes, goals, objectives and standards, enough capable staff, an in-service training program, adequate funding and space, efficient office procedures, and an effective means of evaluation. Although this list may not be comprehensive, no item discussed is extraneous.

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CLOZE PROCEDURE AND THE AFFECTIVE DOMAIN

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Historically, group reading tests or reading sub-tests of achievement batteries commonly selected for use with secondary and college students consist of vocabulary and comprehension sections. Scores generally reflect little more than students' recognition of word meanings, extent of conceptual background, and recall of facts contained within a series of short passages. Assessing the student's knowledge of the sequential nature of language and the extent to which he is able to relate one sentence and/or concept to another (preceding or following) is a task rarely measured, despite the fact that such information would enable reading instruction to be more truly individualized. Likewise, an instrument which provides an instructor and/or a counselor with information about a student's attitude towards material or towards cultural mores while at the same time measuring ability to function in a textbook has not been forthcoming.

One instrument which may prove useful is the cloze test, an informal reading comprehension measurement constructed by the instructor in which a message is mutilated by deleting words (recent research suggests every seventh or ninth) and substituting underlined blank spaces of constant length. The term "cloze" comes from the Gestalt concept of "closure," the human tendency to arrive at closure, i.e., to form complete wholes, by filling in the empty spaces in the structure and was first applied to the technique by Wilson Taylor (1). The student taking such a test must "guess" the precise word which was deleted from each space.

The concept underlying the cloze as a test instrument is that the greater the match between the language function, background experience, and interests of the author and the reader, the more accurately the reader will be able to predict the deleted words and, hence, arrive at closure. The extent of his ability to do so signals his degree of comprehension of the printed material.

Cloze tests differ from other completion-type tests in that cloze units are chosen mechanically at regular intervals from a continuous message; responses are, thus, related in such a way that failure to predict accurately a given word may influence subsequent responses. Scores are obtained by counting the number of words correctly supplied and figuring percentages. Averages of these, in turn, may be compared with reading levels. Bormuth (2) suggested that a score of 38% on a cloze test is the equivalent of a score of 65% on a multiple choice type test and equals frustration reading level; 44% is the equivalent of 75% and equals instructional reading level. A high score of 57% on the cloze would be compared with 90% on a multiple choice test and would indicate material at the individual's independent reading level.

Administration of a series of cloze tests constructed from a text should reveal the percentage of students who would find it frustrating. That is, if the average score of 5-7 tests selected from early, middle, and last passages of the book reveal a percent below 44, the text may be determined as too difficult for those students so scoring. Conversely, average scores of 90% would indicate a text too easy for those students.

Rankin (3) has identified the following uses for the cloze:

1. to measure pre-reading knowledge of the content of an article or book;
2. to measure general reading ability (high correlations between cloze scores and standardized reading test scores have been reported);
3. to measure structural comprehension (inter-relationships between ideas);
4. to measure lexical comprehension;
5. to measure reading comprehension as an on-going process by administering cloze tests both prior to and immediately following the reading of an article.

Rankin also suggests that by holding class population reading levels constant and applying several cloze tests from the same text to students, the readability level of the text, at least within broad parameters, may be determined.

Impressive as these uses may appear, cloze analysis of individual student responses on cloze tests or exercises may yield more precise information for secondary and community college instructors in the form of strengths and limitations of students in specific language skills areas as well as their attitude towards the subject matter. Some additional specific reading and language skills identified are the following:

1. knowledge and/or understanding of the technical vocabulary to be found in the material;
2. accuracy of spelling of both technical and non-technical vocabulary;
3. ability to use context clues;
4. knowledge of noun-verb agreement and other accuracies of grammatical sequence or subtleties of language.

It is further suggested here that specific responses used by students to

complete cloze units may reveal attitudes because the words themselves may be identified, as Raths (4) would intimate, as positive or negative, and, thus, be indicative of a developing value system. This suggestion is in accord with the second and third levels in *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Affective Domain*, by Bloom (5).

Scoring of a Cloze test (see appendix) administered to a class of 23 senior high school students in a social studies room in Costa Mesa, California, reveal this range of scores:

38% or below	14 students
44-46%	4 students
56% or above	5 students

Since this particular test was used as a pre-test (prior to a first reading of the entire selection) one or more of the following assumptions may be valid:

1. for 14 students, the text was too difficult for independent reading;
2. for 14 students, knowledge of the subject was so limited that reading this passage was more difficult than it might have been following instruction in basic concepts of the author;
3. negative or positive attitudes of students towards the subject matter may have interfered with more deliberate and, hence, more accurate responses.

Analysis of responses of this particular class provides the following data:

Misspellings:

<i>pregnancies</i>	7	<i>arrangement</i>	1
<i>divorces</i>	2	<i>enforcement</i>	1
<i>hungry</i>	2	<i>demonstration</i>	1
<i>harass</i>	2	<i>bribe</i>	1
<i>Puerto</i>	2	<i>hassle</i>	1
<i>effect</i>	1	<i>opinion</i>	1
<i>advice</i>	1	<i>appearance</i>	1

Of the spelling errors, confusion of affect-effect and of advise-advice accounted for two of the errors.

Lack of Knowledge of Technical Words: Four errors appeared to be caused by lack of knowledge of the word "arraignment." In the cloze unit directly followed by that word, (sentence 16), one student wrote "in," two wrote "long," and one inserted "around."

Failure to Use Context Clues: An error was determined as caused by this skill lack when the word inserted was grammatically correct (noun in the position of a noun, etc.) but when it did not "make sense." Exclusive of "no response," a total of 39 errors can be attributed to students' inability to determine the correct word by use of context clues.

Inaccuracies of Grammatical Sequence: 92 responses fell into this category and were made, largely, by those students having the lowest cloze scores. Many of these errors could have been avoided had students reread

the preceding or subsequent material and related ideas to each other. On the other hand, carelessness, which may be indicative of student attitude towards the task and not to lack of knowledge, may have been the cause of certain grammatical errors.

Some examples of grammatical errors occurred in sentence 9: "... and, in some Negro ghetto . . ."; sentence 7: "In almost any slum there are a vast conspiracy . . ." (lack of number agreement). Sentence 11 appeared to be one of the most difficult for students to complete correctly. "A brief experience of a night in a cell made an abstraction personal and immediate." Seven students did not complete the unit; 3 of 23 students correctly supplied the conjunction "and"; 13 students responded with words such as "change," or "feeling," and by doing so indicated that they had interpreted the word "abstraction" as "abstract." Had the sentence read "A brief experience of a night in a cell made an abstract personal immediate," the word "change" would, at least, have been grammatically correct.

Responses which would appear to be indicative of attitude and, thus, lend themselves to values-clarification techniques occur for the most part in seven sentences: numbers 2, 5, 11, 15, 18, and 20. In sentence 2, 6 of 22 responses named such items as "air conditioner," "car," "t.v." and "cadillac"; one response was "Bible." Interestingly enough, the student who so responded revealed other religious-oriented attitudes in several of his units. Aside from the fact that these students obviously had not related the first deletion (sentence 2) to the preceding sentence, in which "family structure" is the subject and the reference for the first cloze unit, it is noteworthy that, despite the fact that they were studying social implications of poverty, students tended to think solely in terms of material possessions.

Similarly, attitudes attributed to the poor regarding law enforcement are revealed in sentence 6 where police are described as those who "hurt" (3); "hassle" (2); "hate" (5) or "harass" (3). Since 17 of 22 responses are considerably more negative than the correct word "arrest," one must wonder if students hold these attitudes themselves towards the police or are, as the passage requires, attributing them to the poor.

Perhaps the most revealing unit occurs in sentence 15. "They did not have money for bail or for lawyers ." Of the 20 responses (three students did not attempt this unit), 3 are "bribes" or "bribery." Other insertions included "fines" (3); "bond" (3); "a cell" (1); "charges" (1); "damages" (1). Of the remainder, 7 were correct; the others could be termed "miscellaneous." Values clarification techniques might be used to elicit thinking about moral implications or the social consequences of making and/or accepting bribes. Similar techniques might be used in discussing sentence 20 in which the poor were identified by 50% of these students as a "minority" (1); "colors" (1); "alien" (2); "problem" (1); and "race" (2).

Finally, this particular selection invited comments from at least two

students. One young man read sentence 17 and wrote, in large, firm letters in the margin: "Good!" Another student reading sentence 10 felt compelled to insert, "Abbie Hoffman, probably." It would appear that these students had arrived at some emotional involvement with the topic.

Implications for instruction for this group of students, based upon the available data, are significant. Exercises need to be devised to teach students how to use context clues as well as the importance of the sequential nature of grammar and its relation to meaning. Cloze exercises themselves are useful for this purpose and are easily constructed, administered, and scored.

Alert teachers will discover other needs as revealed by responses of varying groups. Tests may be constructed and scored very quickly; analysis of errors is more time consuming, but for the instructor who is interested in reaching more students in both areas of attitude formation and reading improvement, probably no other single instrument will prove as useful.

Appendix

THE POOR AND THE POLICE*

(1) The family structure of the poor, for instance, is different from that of the rest of the society. (2) There are more homes without a father; there are less marriages, more early pregnancies, and, if Kinsey's statistical findings can be used, markedly different attitudes toward sex. (3) As a result of this, to take but one consequence of the fact, hundreds of thousands, and perhaps millions, of children in the other America never know stability and "normal" affection. (4) Or perhaps the policeman is an even better example. (5) For the middle class, the police protect property, give directions and help old ladies. (6) For the urban poor, the police are those who arrest you. (7) In almost any slum there is a vast conspiracy against the forces of law and order. (8) If someone approaches asking for a person, no one there will have heard of him, even if he lives next door. (9) The outsider is "cop," bill collector, investigator, and, in the Negro ghetto, most dramatically he is the "Man." (10) While writing this book, I was arrested for participation in a civil rights demonstration. (11) A brief experience of a night in a cell made an abstraction personal and immediate; the city jail is one of the basic institutions of the other America. (12) Almost everyone whom I encountered in the "tank" was poor: skidrow whites, Negroes, Puerto Ricans. (13) Their poverty was an incitement to arrest in the first place. (14) A policeman will be much more careful with the well-dressed, obviously educated man who

might have political connections than he will with someone who is poor. (15) They did not have money for bail or for lawyers. (16) And, perhaps, most important, they waited their arraignment with stolidity, in a mood of passive acceptance. (17) They expected the worst, and they probably got it.

(18) There is, in short, a language of the poor, a psychology of the poor, a world view of the poor. (19) To be impoverished is to be an eternal alien, to grow up in a culture that is radically different from the one that dominates the society. (20) The poor can be described statistically; they can be analyzed as a group. (21) But they need a novelist as well as a sociologist if we are to see them. (22) They need an American Dickens to record the smell and texture and quality of their lives. (23) The cycles and trends, the massive forces, must be seen as affecting persons who talk and think differently.

*Source Unknown

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STANDARDIZED READING TESTING IN COLLEGE: SOME CAUTIONS

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Many students entering college find their academic experience difficult because of limited mastery and application of those reading skills necessary to cope with college assignments. As a result, colleges and universities frequently require a reading test to assess student ability in order to place them in appropriate skill classes, if necessary. The use of standardized instruments for the initial screening is advantageous because they have the ability to test large numbers of students (a) at one sitting, (b) in a relatively limited time frame, (c) at limited expense, (d) provide materials prepared by experts in particular areas, and (e) are normed on a sample representing multifarious socio-economic, political, geographical populations. However, despite their expedient use, there are cautions that need to be noted if standardized tests are to be used effectively. If the cautions are ignored, the resultant programs are often weak and the faculty is perplexed by misassessment of student needs. Consider the importance of the following ideas:

1. *Standardized reading instruments sample minimal skills.* Survey instruments are specifically designed to reflect a student's general reading performance compared with the group sample to formulate the norming tables. They are not intended to produce a listing or graphic profile of specific strengths and limitations in numerous skill mastery areas. Due to their fundamental intent, these instruments often only tap basic components such as vocabulary, general comprehension, and rate of reading. It can be noted that even within these fundamental skill areas, the items incorporated in the test do not necessarily reflect those skills relevant to academic success. For example, these measuring devices seldom sample technical vocabulary for vocational and professional groups or multiple meanings of words within social/occupational groups. They do not attempt to measure higher levels of comprehension such as analysis of author bias,

critical reading, detection of propoganda techniques, or the rate of reading of material as it relates to particular curricular areas. As a result, the test performance of a student does not assuredly reflect how well he can perform on other than fundamental reading skills and does not distinguish or segregate skills to reveal specific areas of limitations. It is essential to add, however, that those students who receive higher scores on survey instruments are more apt to perform well on daily reading tasks than those who receive low scores.

2. *The nature of standardized tests samples performance in a very structured setting.* The pragmatic limitations of time, expense, varying populations to be sampled, etc., necessitate limiting the items to be sampled to those skills that can be effectively measured in a highly structured setting. Because of the artificiality of the test setting, the number of correct responses on the test could reflect physical/mental health status, room conditions, or past experience in test-taking rather than true general performance ability. Furthermore, some skills necessary for adequate performance in the classroom cannot be measured well on a pencil/paper task given within restricted time limits.

Omitted from standardized instruments for this reason are skills of application (use of vocabulary in oral interaction or written activities) and long-term memory of materials read. Most comprehension recall is immediate on test instruments, while much time frequently passes between reading and the occasion for formal recall in a class setting. Standardized tests also do not measure comprehension of large printed units, such as performance on chapter or book readings, comprehension of non-textbook materials (journals, research studies, charts), use of study skills, and library skills for daily study. They provide no indication of listening skills, sustained rate of reading on highly technical material, or flexibility of reading skills from task to task. The measurement score obtained will need to be augmented with observation of the student under typical study conditions before true evaluation of ability can be made. The test samplings then becomes a guide for detecting students with possible reading problems who might benefit from more intensive individualized reading evaluation.

3. *The conditions inherent in any test situation will often produce increased anxiety in the testee.* This factor becomes particularly influential at the higher levels of schooling. By the time a student is about to enter college, he is keenly aware of the use, and often misuse, of test scores for instructional placement or determining curricular opportunities. Furthermore, the student is acutely cognizant of the competition he faces in the college setting. The anxiety produced by the proposed measurement of his competencies compared with those of his capable peers has a debilitating effect on test performance. The result of induced anxiety often produces physical discomfort leading to incorrect and misplaced responses, confused thought processes, misunderstanding of directions, and slowing of response time.

In addition, anxiety is particularly strong when a student believes his

value as a student is being sampled by an instrument that bears little relationship to his own interests, needs, or motivation. The lack of relevance to his immediate life creates mild frustration leading to greater anxiety. The detrimental effects of anxiety on reading test performance must be considered when interpreting test results for placement or instructional programs.

4. *The results of the measurements of reading are often not reported in useful terms for college students.* As measuring tools, the results of survey tests are often reported as a quantitative comparison of an individual's performance with the performance characteristics of the national norming group. These comparative scores are frequently reported in either grade level equivalents or percentiles/deciles/stanines/quartiles. Although both forms of reporting are useful for group analysis, they have limited use when used for individual interpretation. Percentiles, and similar reporting forms, indicate a student's standing within a total group of testees which is valuable for group analysis, but has little relevance when determining the program needed to remediate weaknesses of individual participants, except in gross terms of vocabulary, comprehension and rate.

On the other hand, although grade equivalents appear more specific, they also require cautious interpretation. These scores are often extrapolated or estimated from the progression of scores at the elementary and secondary school levels. The extrapolation is necessary since the interpretation of which reading skills are needed will vary from school to school and program to program. Thus a score of 13.6 will have numerous interpretations depending upon the interpretator's criteria for 13th grade achievement. Whatever the reported results, the weakness of their application in terms of individual placement must be recognized.

SUMMARY

Although basic consideration of specific cautions are necessary for effective use of standardized reading instruments, their usefulness in surveying group needs cannot be minimized. If used as measurements of only probable prediction and coupled with individual follow-up testing, they can provide invaluable information for university and college faculties. Without cautious interpretation that considers the anxiety produced, the limitations of skills sampled, the artificiality of the test situation, and the means of reporting comparative results, testing programs can be misleading in assisting individual students.

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RE-ENTRY WOMEN; SOME PROGRAMMATIC CONSIDERATIONS

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The *Chronicle of Higher Education* in its December 23rd, 1974, issue has described aptly the situation faced by great numbers of re-entry women.

"As they came to the campuses, the mature women found that colleges and universities had few if any arrangements to meet their particular needs. Required courses were held at impossible times. Review classes in special fields were non-existent and the personal and academic problems that evolved from combining family responsibilities, college and re-entry into the job market, were foreign to counselors who spent their time advising young people."

Yet the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor listed 376 institutions nationwide with special programs for adult women in 1971. Since that time, some of the programs have folded while still others have come into existence. One such program originated at the University of California at Davis where an awareness exists for the needs of women who reenter. Jeanne Smith, who originated the special class, described the returning women she has seen as having lack of confidence, low self-expectation and a need for specialized counseling.

As Jeanne Smith, counselor with the Division of Extended Learning, and I worked together in her program it became clear, too, that the recovery of skills attendant to academic success became a major factor in improving self-concept and self-expectation, particularly as they relate to the learning process. What evolved was a synergistic effort on the part of the Learning Assistance Center with the Counseling Center, University Extension and the division of Extended Learning Part Time Degree Program. The following presentation, then, is a description of a reassessment course given through the Extension Division of the

University of California at Davis and the way in which the campus Learning Assistance Center participates in a supportive effort to facilitate re-entry for women into the high educational process.

COURSE DESCRIPTION

Running for six weeks, the course titled "You Too Can Return To College," covers the following sequence:

1. Introductions and group sharing, consideration of personal factors and the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory is administered. The class is also asked to write a life diary.
2. The SCAT is administered and the diaries are discussed in diads — participants list ten roles which they perform. They are asked to prioritize roles. The dynamics of family structure and significant other roles are discussed. The realities of "pressured student" emerge.
3. Participants receive SCAT results and the remainder of the time is spent in a study skills presentation by a member of the staff of the Learning Assistance Center. Special emphasis is placed on time scheduling and the necessity for 'space', listening, note-taking and reading skills also receive attention.
4. The fourth session includes a discussion of the SVIB-SCII results and the group is asked to fantasize the perfect job — Counseling Center.
5. Career Opportunities — Placement Center.
6. Discussion of opportunities at three levels: Junior College, State Colleges, and University of California.

The course is finalized with a personal interview with Jeanne Smith; several alternatives are discussed, and an option is left open to begin to test these alternatives when the woman is ready.

Where, you might ask, does a Learning Assistance Center fit into such a program beyond the minimal participation just mentioned? There are several areas the Learning Assistance Center personnel possess the skills and material so as to be extremely helpful to the re-entering woman.

TIME MANAGEMENT

The area of time management takes on quite a different dimension when the student involved is also a wife and mother. Here, not only must time as a quantitative entity be considered, but also the qualitative aspects of time be considered. It is one thing for a single, young, full-time student to allot time intelligently for studies and relationships; but for a woman who has had very little experience in setting aside time for herself, her needs, and her goals are quite another. In looking at a viable time schedule, the Learning Assistance Center's personnel can be most helpful in understanding and encouraging the re-entry female student to allot time for herself. When

time is planned for family activities on a more specific continuum, those activities become much more qualitative, thereby relieving the guilt feelings with which the re-entry woman usually deals. There are many routine activities that must continue for most women.

The evaluation of one's study space often raises some pointed questions: where in most households does wife-and-mother have any space that is just hers? Dad may have his den, study, or work bench area and there is the hallowed family room, but Mom has none of these. One woman responded that her space was a three-foot square around the stove — a space not conducive to neat papers certainly. By stressing the need for a space which is set aside only for study, the Learning Assistance Center person can encourage and reinforce not only good study environments, but can aid in the development of selfhood, and a positive self-concept so often lacking in the re-entering woman.

NOTE-TAKING

Note taking is a useful skill. Often mothers have developed the habit of tuning out noise, kids, boring neighbors, etc. Most of such listening behavior has become unconscious, yet when confronted by a course which is dull, delivered with intonations reminiscent of the Latin Mass, some women may unconsciously respond with the tune-out, only to realize at some point in a course that they are not getting the main concepts. It is helpful, too, to encourage a 'must do' list as differentiated from a 'should do' list. Establishing priorities takes on a new dimension when student-wife-mother can write a smashing paper while looking right at a stack of dirty dishes.

TEST-TAKING AND VERBAL SKILLS

"No one was born knowing how to take tests. Although intelligence is probably hereditary, grade averages are not. Test-taking is a skill that can be learned by anyone." (Norman 2:254) It is with this philosophy that the study skills section in the re-assessment course has a particular meaning. As SCAT scores are reviewed the student has to admit her shortcomings in certain skills. It is essential that the techniques for improving verbal and math skills be introduced and emphasized. While not all Learning Assistance Centers have math programs like ours, most reading labs are well equipped with materials that will aid the re-entering student in improving verbal skills. Vocabulary programs for improving scores on the SCAT and most standardized tests also help to improve reading rates and comprehension.

SUPPORT GROUP

A final aspect of the program which deserves mention is the support group. This group is an informally structured one that meets at noon in numbers which vary from ten to thirty women throughout the quarter. In one

six-week period, I met with the group to give a detailed workshop on study skills. This past quarter I have again directly participated as a co-leader with Jeanne Smith discussing communication, time-management and the delicate balance of family relationships as Mom goes back to college.

In summary, Learning Assistance Centers can be a valuable component for re-entry women. Most possess the staff and the materials, which, when used in conjunction with creative programming, can provide the means for recovering skills for effective learning. Such a contribution has direct bearing on the relationship between self-concept and the learning process, thereby enriching academic experience for the returning woman.

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MONOLINGUAL AND BILINGUAL PERCEPTION OF VOCABULARY USAGE

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Grammar rather than vocabulary receives the dominant emphasis in modern approaches of teaching a second language. Thus, structure and not content is perceived to be more important. This view, no doubt, is based upon those grammarians (Bloomfield, 1933; Francis, 1958; Fries, 1940; Nida, 1960; Sapir, 1921; Sledd, 1959) who stressed the importance of structure in language. Perhaps, the Sapir-Whorfian hypothesis (Carroll, 1956) which states that perception shifts from language to language is the most radical of all the attributions accorded to the syntax of languages by structuralists. Miller (1968) traces the theory of linguistic relativity to Johann George Hamann who developed this hypothesis out of a religious conversion.

The simplicity of the linguistic relativity hypothesis appeals to those who accept the theories found in the stimulus-response branch of psychology (Hebb, 1949; Hull, 1943; Skinner, 1957). The simplicity of this hypothesis gives it a cleanness which makes it appear scientific to those who want to make sure that psychology is scientific. However, there are linguists and psychologists (Brunner, 1973; Chomsky, 1957; Lenneberg, 1967; Piaget, 1926; Vygotsky, 1962) whose works question the influence the structuralists insist that syntax has on perception and language acquisition.

Chomsky's approach to study language via transformational grammar, like the Sapir-Whorfian hypothesis, has not been scientifically verified. Initial attempts at M.I.T.'s artificial-intelligence laboratory to use Chomsky's transformational rules for programming the computer to understand simple linguistic statements failed (White, 1975). However, a

breakthrough was made in the M.I.T. laboratory based on the theories of Halliday's language-systemic grammar and Lamb's stratificational grammar (White, 1975). These two closely related analyses of language allowed Terrence Winograd to program the computer to perform some of the functions equivalent to a human being's understanding a language.

Understanding a language is an essential characteristic a person must have before a language can exist for him. Idiomatic expressions (Drop dead! You're pulling my leg.) and ambiguous statements (Flying airplanes can be dangerous. He is a new car dealer.) are often used to illustrate that there is something more fundamental than structure to understanding a language. Perhaps, vocabulary competencies in each of the language environments found in a community are also essential for language effectiveness. Most people find themselves in situations which require different vocabularies to express the same concept. Three typical language environments may be learned, formal, informal. It is the vocabulary which varies from one language environment to another more than do the concepts expressed. A vocabulary item indicates a relationship between two or more concepts. Concepts are the mental divisions man makes among the concrete and abstract phenomena of his environment so he may generate, maneuver, and control their relationships in a manner to satisfy his physical, emotional, social and aesthetic needs. Thus, a word expresses a relationship among two or more concepts. A learned word usually expresses a relationship among two or more concepts. The word *synchronize* indicates a relationship of with or togetherness (*syn-*) of two or more objects in action (*-ize*) at the same time (*chron-*). Thus, at least three concepts have to be understood to have a knowledge of what the word *synchronize* means. Of course, to appreciate the ideas of together, action, and time, one must also have an awareness of separateness, inaction, and insynchronous. Conceptual thinking requires an understanding of antonymic relationships as well as synonymic relationships. Thus, a word in isolation cannot stimulate conceptual thinking.

The word *little* may be considered appropriate for a formal language setting. It is native to the English language. The base or root in *little* is the Anglo-Saxon *lyt* which means small. Thus, *little* expresses a conceptual relationship in the concept of size. To fully understand what the word *little* means one has to understand the relationship of the word *large* to the same phenomenon to which *little* has reference.

Another characteristic, besides being native to the language, for a word belonging to the formal setting is frequency of use. According to the American Heritage *Word Frequency Book*, *little* is in the top one hundred high frequency words of the 86,741 corpus used in the American Heritage study. *Diminutive*, a synonym for *little* which is appropriate for a learned setting, has a low frequency which places it in the 25,200 rank of the American Heritage corpus. *Teeny*, a synonym for *little* which would be heard in an informal setting, also, has a low frequency count and ranks in

the 38,400 scale. Perhaps, *runt* is an informal word too. In the American Heritage corpus, it ranks in the 23,200 scale. Thus, one of the characteristics of informal words is a rather low frequency use.

Another characteristic of informal words is that these words are at best quasi-idiomatic. These words, also, are less precise in definition which often creates ambiguity. The syntax or structure of the written language in most cases does not enhance or clarify conceptual relations these words are intended to express. They are powerful words for oral language; but only the masters can make them live in print.

THE STUDY

The above understanding of language and vocabulary raised the question: do bilinguals have a different perception than monolinguals as to what words are appropriate for different language settings? To begin the search for a definitive answer to this question, ten words were randomly selected from Form D of the Nelson-Denny Reading Test. The ten words: emerge, humiliate, atrophy, elicit, intuitive, delectable, susceptible, naive, tenacity, inflammatory. For the base concept represented by each of these words, nine synonyms were chosen: three learned, three formal, three informal. Thus, there was a corpus of ninety words — thirty words for each of the language environments. Subjects were asked to indicate the appropriate language setting for each of the ninety words by placing a check under either learned, formal or informal. They were also asked to choose a definition for each word from a choice of four possibilities.

The subjects were 142 freshmen enrolled in a class designed to help students improve in reading and study skills. Students who received a composite score of 21 or less on the ACT battery of tests were required to take this course. Among the 142 subjects, there were 64 who identified themselves as Anglo; 57 identified themselves as Chicano. The remaining 21 were of other ethnic groups.

Before subjects began individually to respond to this vocabulary perception instrument, the three different language environments were explained and seven examples illustrating the tasks were completed by the groups of about 25 students. Subjects had approximately 45 minutes to complete the task. All but three subjects completed the task in the time allowed.

THE RESULTS

Only the performances of the Anglo and Chicano subjects will be presented. The main focus of the data will be on mean scores since the raw data has not been, as of yet, analyzed with the statistical sophistication which would warrant direct comparisons of the performances of subjects from these two

ethnic groups. Dr. Morris Finkner, the statistician whose counsel was followed for this research, does not believe that the *t* test or analysis of variance are appropriate for comparative analysis across ethnic boundaries. Therefore, this type of statistical treatment will have to be deferred until Dr. Finkner is prepared to make an appropriate analysis.

Table 1 presents for the Anglo and Chicano subjects the mean percentages of the 90 words perceived as being appropriate for learned, formal and informal language environments along with the mean percentages of correct definitions.

TABLE 1

Mean percentages for the Anglo and the Chicano Subjects for the 90 Words Perceived As Being Appropriate for Learned, Formal, and Informal Language Environments along with the Mean Percentages of Correct Definitions.

Anglo N = 64

Chicano N = 57

	ANGLO	CHICANO
LEARNED	23.4	30.2
Correct Definitions	29.1	29.8
FORMAL	42.5	40.1
Correct Definitions	48.3	38.7
INFORMAL	34.1	29.7
Correct Definitions	54.1	43.8

It is obvious that Chicano subjects perceived more words belonging to the learned and fewer to the informal language settings than did Anglo subjects. It is interesting that Chicano subjects were a shade better than Anglo subjects when choosing meanings for words perceived to be appropriate for a learned environment. However, Chicano subjects were not as correct as the Anglo subjects in selecting definitions for words perceived appropriate for formal and informal settings.

Table 2 presents mean percentages for the language settings and correct definitions based upon English and Spanish being first and second languages for the subjects.

TABLE 2

Mean Percentages for the 90 Words Perceived As Being Appropriate for Learned, Formal, Informal Language Environments along with the Mean Percentages of Correct Definitions Based upon English and Spanish Being First and Second Languages.

	ENGLISH NO SECOND LANGUAGE N = 65	ENGLISH FIRST LANGUAGE N = 104	ENGLISH FIRST SPANISH SECOND N = 31	SPANISH FIRST ENGLISH SECOND N = 35
LEARNED	23.3	24.4	27.8	31.0
Correct Definitions	27.7	29.5	28.2	32.0
FORMAL	42.5	42.2	40.6	40.0
Correct Definitions	44.6	45.0	43.5	39.1
INFORMAL	34.2	33.4	31.6	29.3
Correct Definitions	51.1	50.6	49.6	40.1

The means for the number of learned words increase as they go from English with no second language to Spanish as the first language. It is also interesting that subjects with Spanish as their first language were better in choosing the correct definitions for words they perceived as being appropriate for a learned environment. There is less difference among the means for the number of words perceived appropriate for a formal setting. However, subjects with Spanish as their first language appear to be less proficient in selecting definitions for words classified for both the formal and informal language settings. This is directly opposite for their performance with learned words.

DISCUSSION

These means show that subjects with Spanish as their first language and English as their second classified more words as being appropriate for a learned setting than did those who spoke only English. The superiority of

the subjects with Spanish as their first language in selecting correct definitions for learned words may be a result of their proficiency in a romance language. Certainly, many of the root words found in learned English words are common in the Spanish language. It appears that this research may indicate that the vocabulary needs for those who speak English as a second language are different compared to those who have it as their first language. New ways of assessing vocabulary needs must be developed. Perhaps, thinking of words as being appropriate for either a learned, a formal or an informal language environment offers an approach which could make vocabulary assessment more meaningful. Certainly, education should enhance students' abilities to function effectively in all the facets of a speech community.

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USING TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS IN THE COLLEGE LEARNING CENTER

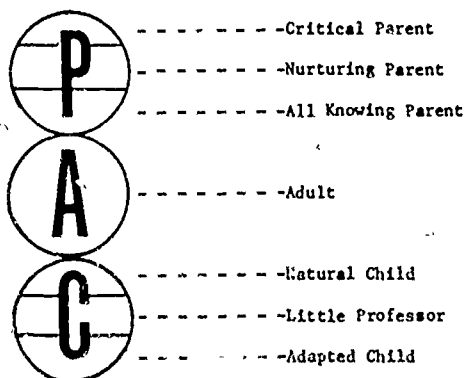
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Transactional Analysis, popularized by Berne (1), Harris (6), and Steiner (9), offers the reading instructor a practical frame of reference for working with students and understanding behavior. Many times students who come to the college learning center for assistance with reading and learning problems bring with them feelings, attitudes and habitual ways of responding to others which interfere with attempts to develop skills for academic survival. Reading instructors, too, are sometimes unaware of how their own interactions with students may complicate the learning process.

The purpose of this article is to present Transactional Analysis as a model for self-awareness and interpersonal communication in the process of working with others. Transactional Analysis can be subdivided into four basic areas for practical application: 1) structural analysis, 2) transactional analysis, 3) game analysis, and 4) script analysis.

STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS

At any given time, a reading instructor or student is in one of three ego states — Parent, Adult, or Child — through which all communication takes place.



The Parent ego state consists of three parts, each of which operates like a tape recorder containing rules for living which have been developed over a period of years. When the "play button" is pushed by some external event, some of the recorded attitudes, values or behaviors are verbally and/or non-verbally transmitted, often automatically. For example, the reading instructor, noticing a student having difficulty using a programmed text for vocabulary development may automatically respond from one part of his Parent ego state: "You should know how to use that book by now!" (critical Parent); "Here, let me give you some help" (nurturing Parent); or "I'll bet you're having the same trouble I had when I first tried to use that text" (all knowing Parent). Student reaction to the examples above might be positive, or negative, depending upon how the student perceived the comment and what attitudes he had about critical, nurturing, or all knowing approaches to a dyadic relationship.

The Adult ego state is like a computer, evaluative and problem-solving. The Adult does not check information as to whether it is "right" or "wrong" but rather if it is workable, practical, predictable, useful, etc. The Adult deals with current reality.

In TA, the Child is seen as the source from which the best in human beings come — the only possible source for creativity, recreation, and procreation, the Child part of a person is the "seat of most feelings." The Child can be divided into three parts:

1. **Natural Child** (affectionate, impulsive, fearful, rebellious)

The Natural Child acts on his own feelings regardless of what his internal Parent wants. The Natural Child is manifested by autonomous forms of behavior such as rebelliousness or self-indulgence.

2. **Little Professor** (intuitive, creative, manipulative)

The Little Professor curbs the desires of the Natural Child and searches the social situation for an acceptable release of the Natural Child's wants. This is the computer or sub-adult form which supplies intuition and curbs the desires of the Natural Child in order to feed into the Adapted Child for a socially acceptable release of the Natural Child's urge.

3. **Adapted Child** (complying, withdrawing, procrastinating)

The Adapted Child is manifested by behavior dominated by parental influence and is the end result of the modified Natural Child's urges.

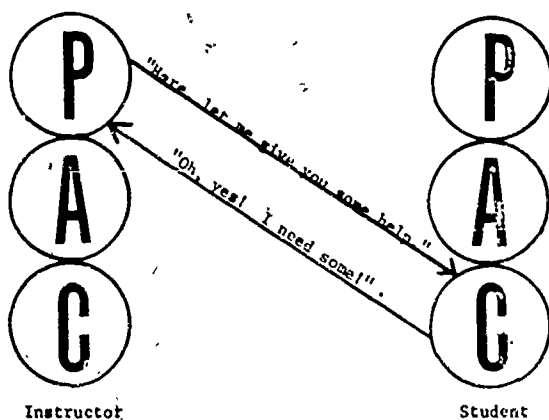
In the example given earlier, the student response to the critical Parent instructor comment ("You should know how to use that book by now!") might be a resentful "Get off my back, I'm doing the best I can!" Such a natural Child student response could provoke additional critical Parent comments on the part of the instructor. If, however, the reading instructor is aware that his comment was perhaps a little brusque, that the student obviously resents an attitude of negative evaluation and that a poor instructor-student relationship is developing, the communication pattern can be altered. Such awareness on the part of the instructor is extremely

important. Before a student can develop an improved self-concept about himself as a learner, he must have positive experiences with those in authority and obtain successful results to attempts at skill development.

TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

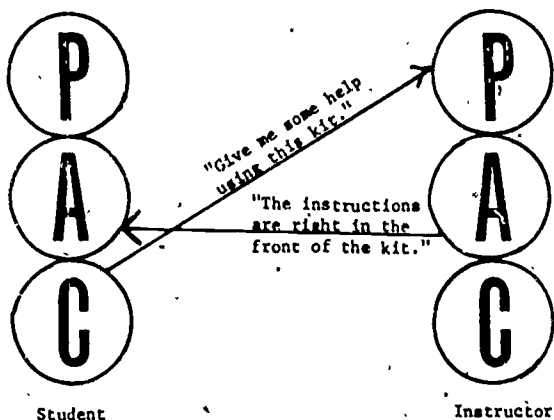
Transactions are units of social interaction and can be verbal or non-verbal. Whenever one person transacts with another person, the transaction can proceed from the Parent, Adult, or Child of one person to the Parent, Adult, or Child of the other person. Every transaction is made up of a stimulus and a response and can be classified as *complementary*, *crossed*, or *ulterior*.

A complementary transaction involves only two ego states and the stimulus and response lines of communication are parallel as follows in this Parent to Child complementary transaction between reading instructor and student:



As long as the lines of communication are complementary, communication can be promoted indefinitely. However, the reading instructor must also be aware of the fact that sometimes complementary transactions can impede rather than promote learning. In the example above, a dependency rather than a helping relationship may develop if future transactions do not elicit Adult ego state responses on the part of the student.

In a crossed transaction the response is aimed at an ego state different from the one which started the transaction. A student may speak from his own Child ego state to the Parent ego state of the reading instructor:



However, if the instructor knows the student is able to follow written directions, he may choose to respond to the Adult, rather than the Child, ego state of the student. If the student does not want to assert himself in an adult-like manner at the time, he may react with anger or frustration. The next response the instructor makes must be based on awareness of what has just taken place.

An ulterior transaction occurs when a student or instructor says one thing and means another. As noted by Capuzzi and Warren (5:227):

A poor reader, too, often sends double messages. His Adult may say, "I cannot understand the paragraph," while his Child is saying, "I want your attention, and if necessary, I will misunderstand this paragraph until I get it." Sensitive reading teachers will try to be aware of the emotional message of the student's Child before making a response.

GAME ANALYSIS

In Transactional Analysis a game is a recurring series of ulterior transactions with a feeling either good or bad payoff. The use of the word game should not be misleading as the term does not imply fun, or even enjoyment, as explained by Harris (6).

To be classified as a game, the series of transactions must meet four requirements: (1) The players seem to have an honest reason for the transaction; (2) They exchange hidden messages; (3) They experience a payoff; (4) The Adults of both players are unaware that they are in a game.

Berne (2) describes many games that people play in social situations and many of them occur between instructor and student. A common game is WHY DON'T YOU . . . YES BUT (WDYB):

Student: I just can't get the answers to the comprehension questions for this selection.

Instructor: Why don't you re-read it more carefully?

Student: I tried that.

Instructor: Perhaps you are just trying too hard. Could you put it aside and come back to it later?

Student: I did that already, but it didn't work either.

The instructor may be thinking "Why don't you get lost, you're not interested in my suggestions" and the student is thinking, "She doesn't care if I learn or not, or she would be more helpful." What are the payoffs for both? The student validates his poor opinion of his own ability. (Didn't I get an "F" last year?) And the instructor validates her idea that some people are too lazy to help themselves. (Didn't her father tell her that years ago?)

For a complete explanation of games and their differential payoffs, instructors can refer to *Games People Play* by Dr. Eric Berne (1). Some of the more familiar games which appear often include: **blaming games** (If it weren't for you . . .), **games needing a rescuer** (Poor little me!), and **self-defeating games** (Kick me!).

When an instructor is well informed regarding games, he is able to counteract or stop the game playing in the teaching situation. There are a variety of approaches the instructor can use. For example, the instructor may refuse the payoff for himself or withhold the payoff from the student. In the game Why Don't You . . . Yes But, the student may present a problem for which he has no solution and appears to be helpless. The instructor may be tempted to offer solution after solution — none of which are going to be accepted by the student. The payoff for the instructor is frustration and the payoff for the student is that he doesn't have to change. If the instructor suspects the game he might say, "I'm feeling, no matter what I suggest, the suggestion will not be accepted." At this point, the instructor could put full responsibility for the solution on the student.

SCRIPT ANALYSIS

Scripting first occurs nonverbally. An infant quickly begins to develop an estimation of his own self-worth through experiences of being touched and cuddled or being ignored by others. Gradually, he begins to see facial expressions and responds to them as well as to touch and to sound. A child who is cuddled affectionately, smiled at, and talked to frequently receives different messages from a child who is seldom touched and is responded to with fright, hostility, and anxiety (7).

As time passes, children begin to understand the scripting messages their parents put into words. Messages such as "You'll make some lucky man a wonderful wife," "You've always been the black sheep of the family," or "You'll never amount to anything," often serve as instructions the individual feels compelled to follow later in life. A child can be academically scripted when parents and teachers say such things as "Joe was never cut out to be a student," "You'll be lucky if you graduate from high school," or "Our children have always been at the top of their class."

Although every person is born a unique individual with inherited capacities and potentialities to develop, each person makes decisions very early in life about his own self-worth and the worth of others. These decisions may be closely related to the scripting he has integrated from parents and teachers. As illustrated in the scripting samples given above, some people receive and accept messages from significant people that discount them in some way, and other people receive and accept messages that make them capable and coping individuals.

How can the reading instructor help a student who has become "spellbound" by past scripting? The first step involves instructor understanding of how scripting results in one of four basic life positions as described by Jongeward and James (8):

The First Position: I'm OK, You're OK

This is the healthy position, the "get on with" winners position. Usually, a person who maintains this outlook about himself and others can cope effectively with his problems. His expectations of himself and others are likely to be valid. He accepts the worth of himself and others.

The Second or Projective Position:

I'm OK, You're not-OK

This is the position of the child who distrusts others. It is the "get rid of" position. A youngster who has been battered, physically or psychologically, may develop a sense of I'm OK from a comparison of himself with others in his environment. Nothing could be worse than IT or THEY, the identified or unidentified forces in his life that make life so unbearable. His life script becomes "Everything is Their fault."

The Third or Introjective Position:

I'm not-OK, You're OK

This is the position of the child who feels unworthy or depressed. It is the "get away from" position of withdrawal, running away, or committing suicide. Sometimes an individual in this position lives a script with the lines "I'm OK — If." In this case, he bows to the wishes of others, sacrifices his own integrity, and in the end, finds that "No matter what I do, it is not enough. I'm still Not-OK." (Harris, 1969).

The Fourth or Futility Position:

I'm not-OK, You're not-OK

This is the position of the child who feels that life is not worth living, that he cannot win. It is the "get nowhere" position. To escape his predicament, he may do almost anything, even commit suicide, homicide, or go insane. The individual in this position may live a script of, "Get through life anyway I can because I'm not going anywhere anyway."

The instructor can be of more help to a student if he understands the life position from which the student seems to operate. For example, a student who operates from an I'm not-OK, You're OK position may say to his instructor, "Why can't I get a good score on these exercises? I never seem to do things right! The other students have no trouble. Tell me what to do." Such a student might be spellbound by past scripting such as, "You're a loser," or "You never do anything right." His inner child, complying with such "witch" messages may feel helpless and hopeless and maintain such feeling "rackets" (automatic reactions to stress which are habitual and may not be appropriate for the present situation) with games of "Stupid," "Poor Little Me," "Kick Me," "If Only," etc.

Through discussion, individual conferences, and cooperative planning of learning programs promoting gradual improvement, reinforcement, and success experiences, the reading instructor can help students develop new academic self concepts. Self-awareness on the part of the reading instructor and sensitivity to the needs and perceptions of students can play important roles in learning assistance programs designed to encourage an I'm OK, You're OK today for a Winning with People "tomorrowland."

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SELF-PACING IN READING AND WRITING PROGRAMS: WHAT DOES THE FUTURE HOLD?

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Self-pacing, an increasingly popular approach to teaching, is based on the organization of material into modules, each presenting specific behavioral objectives, some exercises and activities, and criteria, which are set to determine the successful completion of the module (9).

Time factors constitute the chief advantage of self-pacing. The students may enter and finish the course at their own pace, perhaps long before other students. They may pre-test out of some modules, and they may repeat any lesson at will. Instructional time can also be saved, because the major part of the teaching task is done by the module.

Another advantage is that the modules give the students some control over the learning task because they know exactly what kind of work is expected, how much is expected, and what the criteria are for various levels of success. Provisions can also be made for individual learning styles. For example, students may use a taped program or a written exercise, depending on their preferred learning styles.

Self-paced systems, however, sometimes involve factors which are not particularly helpful to students.

Self-pacing, for example, does not diagnose individual strengths and weaknesses, nor is it based on individualized prescriptions. Although the student works "individually," the same course material is prepared for all. If there is a "diagnostic" test, it often points out general areas of weakness but not reasons for the problems.

Another negative factor is that material presented modularly must often be fragmented so that specific behavioral objectives and exact evaluation criteria can be included in each module. Devising specific criteria to measure the student's ability to synthesize, react to, enjoy, or use what

he has learned is so difficult that it is often easier to concentrate on measuring the fragmented skills. Thus, the student must often learn from modules presenting many separate but carefully measured skills which he may never be able to correlate.

As far back as 1941, researchers were questioning the advisability of measuring finely differentiated skills in reading. See works by Davis (3), Hunt (6), and Lennon (7).

We also need to be aware of the regression effect (2). This is the phenomenon which causes us to question the posttest scores of almost all students on the upper and lower ends of the scale on standardized posttests which attempt to measure progress since the pretest. If posttests are to be a part of a self-paced program, we need to be aware of this possible distortion.

Another advantage lost to the student in a self-paced program is the opportunity to interact with other people. Often, in traditional classes, a supportive psyche develops from group interaction. Although some students are motivated by programmed learning, others cannot cope with the lack of human contact which often accompanies learning module programs. The student also needs human contact with the instructor to allow for informal diagnosis and realistic pacing of instruction. Only by face-to-face contact can the instructor learn about personal factors that affect the student and his learning potential. We must also consider the opportunities for feedback which are open to the teacher. Unless the program calls for teacher-student interaction, many students will neglect to bother the teacher, causing him to question his function within the program.

In order to avoid some of the negative factors in a self-paced program, we recommend a combination of the best of the self-pacing, true individualization, and group interaction. Because of the pressures to self-pace from the administrative superstructure or from the effects of overcrowding or staggered admissions practices, it is probably unrealistic to say that self-pacing will disappear from two- and four-year colleges.

The question is, how do we go about creating a meaningful self-paced program in communication skills? Our main goal is not merely to produce a proficient reader or writer, but to produce someone who does indeed read, whose reading makes a difference in his life, and who can write about what he knows.

SELF-PACING IN A READING PROGRAM

In the reading program at Metropolitan State College, Denver, the individualized facet consists of the following components: Through instructor-student conferences, informal diagnosis leads to an individual prescription, which is based on standardized test scores (10); informal reading inventory; student's statements of goals; student's interests; student's other courses; amount of time available considering work and family demands; and visual screening (telebinocular and reading eye

camera when required). A prescription sheet is filed in the student's folder in the reading lab; as perceived goals and interests change, the prescription is revised. Individualization includes self-selection of reading materials and/or reading machines and vocabulary words.

This is no less self-paced than a packet approach, because the student works through his individual prescription at his own pace and records his own progress.

Meanwhile, students attend class sessions for group interaction. Group activities include uninterrupted sustained silent reading (8); discussions of the reading process, i.e. making a prediction about the material and then reading to confirm that prediction (4); reading and discussing ideas in paragraphs, essays, and textbooks; relating to content areas and real-life situations; and making vocabulary study useful.

A typical lesson may proceed as follows: The concepts of main ideas, paragraph development, and interaction with the author's thoughts are introduced in the group session, through presentation of a variety of materials. Students then compose paragraphs of their own for analysis of main ideas and patterns of development and reasoning. Because students use their own ideas and language, reading skills become more relevant.

Self-pacing occurs in the reading lab when the student practices the paragraph skills using materials he selects and then decides when he is ready to take a performance test. This leads to re-grouping for further instruction and practice or to the introduction of a new skill. The student meets with the instructor again in an individual conference to determine how to proceed.

SELF-PACING IN A WRITING PROGRAM

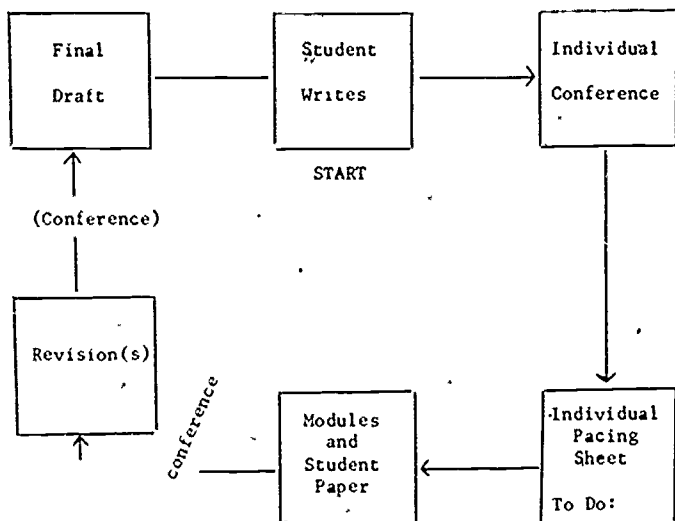
How can self-pacing be combined with other approaches in a writing program? One of the most important considerations is that we use the student's own writing material as the basis of the learning module. This is a key point because it helps us to avoid the frequent lack of transfer experienced by students who do grammar exercises based on someone else's sentences or grammar.

As we contemplate designing a composition module, for instance, we carefully consider what we are trying to produce — a skilled writer who can compose mature and readable sentences full of information. If we are to avoid the super-fragmentation which we have already observed as the result of some learning packet and programmed book situations, we should concentrate on the larger skills — such as writing mature sentences — and allow the minuscule skills such as comma-usage to stay in their proper perspective. This is not to advocate ignoring the polite writing conventions. To be sure, future employers will rate our students on their ability to handle spelling and standard verb endings. But, we would avoid forcing the student to think of these items as ends in themselves. We need to impress upon the student that the main purpose of writing well is to communicate

well; only secondary is the social purpose of writing with the accepted conventions.

In short, the student who is working on a self-paced program using his own writing as the basis of any work may not produce as correct a composition as the student who has drilled on grammar rules, but he will produce a more mature paper in terms of embedding efficient sentences (5), providing details, and eliminating deadwood.

Here is a sample of a combination of the self-paced concept and the individualized concept integrated into a single program:



After an initial effort at composition, the student brings his work together with his completed module to the instructor for a conference. At this point, the instructor examines the paper, noting verbally to the student his strengths and weaknesses. From this interaction between the instructor and student comes the diagnosis, which is written by the instructor on the pacing sheet. This sheet tells the student what modules he needs to apply to his paper as he starts to rewrite it into a final draft. This step replaces the usual pre test, it can allow the student to omit some of the prepared packets. By providing personal contact, the conference may also allow the teacher to discover why some of the weaknesses appear in the student's paper. After the sheet is filled out, the student will know exactly how many modules he must complete and can pace himself accordingly.

The last module a student works through directs him to re-assemble his revised sentences and prepare a new draft, which he brings to his instructor at another conference. If the revision is acceptable and incorporates the principles and practices of the modules assigned, the instructor fills out a performance sheet, noting the levels of performance achieved by the student for each module. This step substitutes for the post

or progress test and provides an objective measurement of the student's mastery. If the draft reveals weaknesses noted in the first conference, the student can be directed to an alternate module, or if the draft shows new weaknesses, the student can be directed to another module and asked to do one more revision. So the student continues on through the pattern of writing, conferring, and revising via the learning packets until he has achieved his desired grade level on the required number of performance sheets.

Although this paper presents only a few of the many strategies we have tried, it is evident that the most promising future use of self-pacing must involve integration with group support and true individualization in order to produce the person skilled in reading and writing.

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READING DIFFICULT WRITING IS A PROBLEM SOLVING PROCESS

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At the Reading and Study Skills Laboratory, a voluntary noncredit student service of the University of Texas at Austin, we offer essentially two programs through which a student may devote time to improving his reading comprehension. He may enroll in a four week long class, or he may work in our self-help laboratory under the guidance of an instructor and a lab advisor (a peer tutor) for an indefinite time. Two or three times as many students enroll in classes as enrolling in the self-help lab. Since the latter requires considerable self-motivation, we tend to counsel students in the direction of the classes.

For the last several years, we at RASSL have had a problem with the teaching of reading comprehension. These students come closest within our population to being those in academic trouble. The bulk of our instruction was carried on in four week classes. What meaningful help could we offer in such a short time? Without clear-cut goals for these students, the task of improving their reading comprehension seemed overwhelming. Without goals we had no clear idea how to measure change in them. We had ceased to use a short multiple-choice pre-test in which none of us had confidence, but we had nothing with which to replace it. Another significant dimension of the problem was what could be described as a lack of conceptual base around which to center the techniques we were using. The value of our methods — locating the topic sentence, analyzing paragraphs for structure — were not always immediately apparent to the students. We were in the same position as an "outside expert" in a medical model:

... the patient is sometimes unwilling to believe the diagnosis or accept the prescription offered by the consultant ... [if] the doctor ... has not built a common diagnostic frame of reference with the patient ... a communication gulf will arise

which will make the prescription seem irrelevant and/or unpalatable. (12:7)

THE PROBLEM SOLVING PROCESS

Just what is the sequence an individual goes through in order to solve a problem? There is general agreement on several stages which may occur in a variety of sequences and modifications. Dewey (4:16) generalized these two: an initial stage of doubt, perplexity, and mental difficulty, followed by searching and inquiring after information to resolve the doubt. G. Wallas (4:15) arranged the same steps into four which are strikingly like the scientific method. preparation (where the problem is clarified and defined and information gathered); incubation (an unconscious time of creative leisure); inspiration (an "aha!" or "Eureka!" experience); and verification (checking the solution). Alex Osborn (4:17) elaborated these to ten steps and taught the importance of distinguishing between the generation of ideas, which is a free and uninhibited creative act, and the classification or evaluation of ideas, a critical act. Borrowing from D'Zurilla (6), we have chosen a five-step model which describes first becoming aware that you have a problem, then defining and analyzing it, generating alternatives, weighing them to choose a solution, and testing the effectiveness of the solution.

COURSE WORK

The coursework consists of two parts. First is the teaching of various methods of attacking reading. Teaching students our equivalent of SQ3R gives them a specific technique which they can practice at home. Then we move into instruction in the usual comprehension tools — reading for the main idea, locating topic sentences, distinguishing between general and specific statements, reading for paragraph structure, text-marking. I also require of them constant practice in writing concise summaries. So the first part of the course is the teaching of specific coping skills with suggestions about how they can apply these in their own work.

At some point in the class, often on the first day and recapitulated later, I describe to them the frustration threshold in reading and ask them how they know when they've encountered it. Not all their reading is difficult, I remind them; much is within their range in terms of vocabulary, syntax, background, and innate difficulty of ideas. But how do they know when they are being asked to read beyond their limits? I help them list feelings and behaviors — sleepiness, poor concentration, inability to recall, rereading, frustration, defeat, giving up, panic, anxiety — all of which may be clues to a problem in reading. The question is, then, what to do when they reach this point?

The last two weeks of the course consist of problem solving with difficult reading materials in order to provide them with guided experience

in answering that question. I've found excerpts from the genetics text presently in use at U.T., John Stuart Mill, articles from journals of sociology and psychology are all well into the frustration levels of most of these students. Specifically, I direct their reading of a given passage. I ask them to preview it or skim it and then to ascertain whether they anticipate any difficulty. I may ask them to review their background in the subject, or to rank the article on a scale of one to ten according to its interest or difficulty for them. At this early stage in reading, lack of interest, sleepiness, boredom, difficulty concentrating may be problems with the reading task. At this point I can either provide answers or, preferably and in keeping with the problem solving model, urge a brainstorming session about possible responses: what have they done in the past to cope? what new could they try?

Then, I have them read the passage in more detail, instructing them to watch their feelings and responses for symptoms of difficulty. I ask them to attune themselves to trouble spots and once they're located, to define the specific nature of the problem. A student puzzling over John Stuart Mill might discover that there are no examples, that a paragraph consists largely of generalization. Once the problem is defined, again we can brainstorm ways of resolving that difficulty. It is important to consider throughout the emotional effects of frustrating reading: some student may be defeated or confused by vocabulary terms that he can't understand unless he knows all the words.

The teacher's role here is quite complex. There is a delicate balance to be maintained between giving too much information — doing their work for them, which robs them of the opportunity of learning their own resourcefulness — and not giving enough assistance, which may be very frustrating. One must be able to endure long silences and high frustration levels as students ponder over problems. How much assistance to give is one of the issues under examination through experimentation in problem solving; some help and guidance have been considered essential to effective learning (3). The teacher becomes here a process consultant. He understands that the learner

... must learn to see the problem for himself, to share in the diagnosis, and to be *actively involved* in generating a remedy. The process consultant may play a key role in helping to sharpen the diagnosis and in providing alternative remedies which may not have occurred to the client. But he encourages the client to make the ultimate decision as to what remedy to apply. Again, the consultant does this on the assumption that if he teaches the client to diagnose and remedy situations, problems will be solved much more permanently and the client will be able to solve new problems as they arise. (12:7)

The teacher, like the process consultant, guides the learner through the process, which may on occasion be painful. He helps the learner identify the

problem; he slows down the tendency to impulsive behavior; he urges the unnatural behavior of thinking up a variety of solutions and not making judgments while doing so; he suggests bases for possible choice; and he reassures the learner that to do all this is not a waste of time. (12:46-50)

A variety of problems and questions remain to be resolved concerning the use of a problem solving approach to teaching reading comprehension. Is there value in instructing the students overtly in the principles of problem solving, or can they incorporate the process into their behavior without it? How to measure success in problem solving, synonymous here with reading comprehension? At present I am content with the value of written summaries and comparison with a model since there is a deep pessimism at RASSL concerning conventional reading tests and their efficacy. New directions include rewriting the course objectives to better measure students' learning of the problem solving model; designing a daily record of problematic situations so students can keep a diary outside of class of problematic reading situations. Students have expressed the desire for greater individualization within the class, longer classes (a constant request), and problem solving in class using their own books.

CONCLUSION

One author has complained that

- many stimulating reports on problem solving experiences at all grade levels are available, but commonly these represent a teacher's after-view of a new but essentially uncontrolled situation. While such expositions may lead readers to launch their own trials with effective thinking procedures, they provide very limited evidence as to the value of the problems approach as measured against other means of instruction and curricular organization. (7:263)

True. But a good idea deserves voicing, and frequent voicing if necessary. The problems approach to teaching does work well. And there is a symbiotic relationship between excitement and exploration, so maybe another attestation to its value will invite experiments into why it works. One writer points out that the technological revolution in education may well change the teacher's role entirely, from one of dispensing content to that of a process consultant as described above, who attends to the learning process and problems that inhibit it. (9:1) Most notably, the problems approach clarifies the role of a teacher as one whose responsibility it is to help create independent and resourceful learners. Problem solving

is a way of speaking of the quality of the transactions an individual has with his environment, and particularly a way of speaking about the competence an individual displays in dealing with an environment which involves many 'novel' (or variant) situations. (14:1)

So a prime reason for teaching problem solving is to develop human potential, to enable an individual to maximize his skills and his resources so that he can establish his independence and fulfill himself in relation to his environment.

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COLLEGE READING SPECIALISTS: ARE THEY BEING SHORT-CHANGED BY GRADUATE SCHOOLS?

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INTRODUCTION

Professionals in primary and secondary reading have a body of advanced training, a theoretical background and an abundant supply of scholarly material that invigorates them. We in college reading are not so blessed, which is one of the reasons for WCRA.

Perhaps not quite so true in two-year colleges, but it is perfectly clear in four-year schools that we in special programs, be they women's studies or study skills centers, operate on the fringe of academic respectability, too easily denied the possibility to merge into the main stream of the college's professional life. We operate on the outskirts for reasons of which we are probably all aware. Most of those reasons center around the kind of student we traditionally are alleged to serve: remedial. Also true is that we are not a part of a traditional discipline.

Due to these things we are often isolated and forced into assuming different kinds of unflattering postures in order to gain the much needed recognition and support. While it may seem an odd place at first to look for the balm, I believe our collective hope lies first of all with this country's graduate schools. If this appears to be an effort to look elsewhere for one more thing on which to pin our hopes, it isn't quite that simple, for I see college reading programs making themselves more secure by attaching themselves to teacher training programs.

At this time many of us are products of Schools of Education that offered primary and secondary curricula. These schools and state legislatures need to be encouraged to fund programs for college

reading/study skills specialists. Part of the impetus is already there in the current drive for literacy. People are just beginning to be overwhelmed with the implication of 45 to 65 percent of freshmen at University of California campuses alone who fail literacy entrance exams. I believe that we can look to such situations to assist us in the formulation of graduate programs in college reading and study skills that would prepare teachers to realistically combat growing student illiteracy.

It is probably a mistake, however, not to exert our own combined influence. One way that I see the membership contributing is in accumulating courses for credit not only for its participating students but also aimed at college teacher preparation. There are some immediate goals that could be challenged by this two way process:

1. As college reading is in need of more theoretical underpinnings, its practitioners need not only the facility for explaining a technique, but also the understanding in some detail of how that technique is a complement to something basic in man's chemical or psychological make-up.
2. College reading instruction has to solve an identity crisis that is summed up by the question asked by too many of our colleagues, "You mean you teach speed reading?"
3. College reading instruction, for its own future, has to develop specialized training courses.
4. As faculty persons who compete for tenure and promotion, we need the support that ultimately removes us from the remedial to the normal.

SURVEY

Reading teachers in all colleges and universities in the U.S. were contacted as to what they felt most valuable and what was lacking in their own training for their job. In other words, what preparation would have made their professional lives easier as they began their careers? At the same time, a similar survey was sent to all schools of education in the U.S. to discover how they were preparing college teachers of reading. The return ratio on these two surveys was gratifying — over 50%.

RESULTS

The results were somewhat less than gratifying in terms of college reading instruction as a profession. Schools of education generally see no difference between this kind of instruction and teaching reading at the elementary or secondary levels. College reading specialists assume various negative attitudes.

College reading teachers were far more vocal than schools of education. Several things stood out glaringly, (1) feelings of isolation, apology for their profession, desperation for more information, and (2) virtually all — with

few exceptions — taught within the same state where they earned their highest degree. Perhaps this latter point seems unimportant, but consider for a moment the mobility and resulting cross-fertilization of ideas and resultant professionalism within virtually all other disciplines. By comparison, we college reading specialists are incestuous in our professionalism. Instead of cross-fertilization, we largely maintain the status-quo in college reading. Only those of us who make herculean efforts to visit other campuses in other states as well as nearby, to attend and participate in conferences, and the like, manage to gain new ideas and to grow professionally. And even in this we are thwarted, because the literature is sparse, and WCRA, a relatively small and regional organization, is one of too few organizations catering to college reading specialists' needs.

In terms of the survey questions, 28 responding (N=245) universities claim to have a program specifically for training college teachers of reading. Of these, 14 claim to offer one-half or more of the 22 courses suggested as meaningful to the college reading specialist. An additional 14 universities say they plan such a program in the future. Eight of those plan to offer one-half or more of the suggested curriculum. Only 28%, or 8 universities, now offer a course relating to the psychology of college reading, while 56% of college reading specialists replying (N=750) wished they had been offered such a course. Twenty-one percent, or 6 schools of education, offer training in teaching reading to bidialectical, bilingual or culturally disadvantaged college students. Fifty-seven percent of college reading specialists wished for training in bilingual, bidialectal training and 61% desired training in teaching reading to culturally disadvantaged students. Another large gap existed in training for dealing with paraprofessionals. Seventeen percent, or 5 universities, offer such training, while 57% of practitioners desired it. Out of approximately 445 schools of education in the U.S., approximately 42 offer or plan to offer within the next few years a program to professionalize college reading teachers.

CONCLUSIONS

I think the need is obvious. While education courses are certainly no panacea, certainly they can lend the underpinnings of theory and practice afforded other areas of teaching and at the same time add professionalism to the field. Furthermore, with greater professionalism, college reading can move toward greater mobility of teachers and resulting cross fertilization of ideas, rather than as so often happens, relying primarily on part-time graduate T.A.'s and faculty wives. On the job training is fine for a clerk, a waitress, or a cashier. Teaching reading in a college or university should be something more than that — and in fact is, as we all know. We must demand our due from graduate schools where we get our professional training.

Responding Universities Offering Graduate Work in College Reading

1. University of Southern Mississippi
2. West Virginia University
3. University of Alabama
4. Temple University
5. University of Nevada
6. The American University
7. University of Colorado
8. West Illinois University
9. Oregon State University
10. University of Oregon
11. Florida State University
12. Southern Connecticut State College
13. University of Wyoming
14. West Washington State College
15. University of Tennessee
16. University of Missouri, Kansas City
17. University of Oklahoma
18. University of Illinois
19. Texas Christian University
20. University of Virginia
21. Southern Illinois University
22. Kentucky State University
23. Colorado State University

Universities Planning Future Programs

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. University of Pittsburgh | 1975-76 |
| 2. City University of New York | being developed |
| 3. University of Wisconsin | may offer in future |
| 4. Northwestern University | 1975-76 |
| 5. University of Scranton | 1977-78 |
| 6. Chicago State University | 1975-76 |
| 7. University of Northern Alabama | 1977-78 |
| 8. Illinois State University | 1976-77 |
| 9. Southern Illinois University | 1975-76 |
| 10. Bowling Green State University | 1978-79 |
| 11. University of Washington | 1975-76 |
| 12. Brooklyn College | 1977-78 |
| 13. Creighton University | 1977-78 |
| 14. Shippensburg State College | 1975-76 |
| 15. Stanford | "limited," "unofficial" program |
| 16. University of Maine at Orono | maybe in future |
| 17. University of Kansas | 1977-78 |

A SURVEY OF LEARNING PROGRAM CENTERS IN U.S. INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

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The survey is one of the accepted methods for giving definition and continuity to a newly evolving field. Using the survey method, the authors attempted to give definition and continuity to the recent Learning Center movement. The authors' search of the literature for surveys which may have already accomplished this, included, but was not confined to, ERIC, The Minnesota Retrieval System, *NRC Yearbooks*, *WCRA Proceedings*, and nationally disseminated education and media periodicals. Over 50 reading program surveys at the state and national level were evidenced in the literature (1, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13, 14); however, there were few surveys of study skills programs (2, 4, 5, 15). National surveys of learning program centers were almost non-existent (11, 12), and no comprehensive national survey of Learning Centers in institutions of higher education was found (3). In order to discern general trends, functions, and purposes, all college and university Learning Centers in the United States were sent questionnaires in the fall of 1974.

PROCEDURE

The survey instrument consisted of 70 items on administration, budget, other programs, facility, staffing, services, clients, hardware/software, and evaluation. After two mailings, one in October and one in December, to the 3,389 campuses of 2,783 institutions listed in the *Educational Directory*, 1258 responses were received, providing a campus return rate of 38%.

Every state was represented in the sample. All information received from the questionnaire was processed by a Control Data Corporation 3150 computer, using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences and was cross tabulated according to institutional regional location, level (two year, four year, or four year and above), enrollment, type of offering (liberal arts, professional, or technical), and whether the institution was public or private. In addition, the names of the program centers¹ were categorized and cross-tabulated with the data. The five categories of program center names were as follows: "learning center," "learning resource center," "reading/writing lab," "tutorial program," and "other."

RESULTS

Since reporting all results would be impossible, items of particular interest have been selected for inclusion in the following tables²

Table 1 presents the frequency and percentages of returned forms by the different cross-tabulated variables.

TABLE 1
Returned Forms by Cross-Tabulated Variables

Variables	Responses: Frequency (Percentages)
Regional	
Northeast—Conn., Del., Me., Md., Mass., N.H., N.J., N.Y., Pa., R.I., Vt., Wa. D.C., and W.Va.	342 (27.2)
South—Ala., Ark., Fla., Ga., La., Miss., N.C., Okla., S.C., Tenn., Tex., and Va.	342 (27.2)
Midwest—Ill., Ind., Iowa, Kans., Ky., Mich., Minn., Mo., Nebr., N.D., Ohio, S.D., and Wis.	324 (25.8)
West—Alas., Ariz., Cal., Colo., Hawa., Ida., Mont., Nev., N.M., Oreg., Utah, Wash., and Wyo.	250 (19.9)
Total	1258 (100.1) ³
Public Institutions	
Private Institutions	670 (53.3)
Total	588 (46.7)
Total	1256 (100.0)
Level of Institution	
Two Year	487 (38.7)
Four Year	327 (25.9)
Four Year and Above	444 (35.1)
Total	1258 (99.7) ³
Student Population	
1-100	483 (38.5)
101-200	375 (29.8)
201-300	179 (14.2)
301-400	20 (1.6)
over 400	32 (2.5)
Total	1256 (100.1) ³

Name of Program Center	
Learning Center	217 (31.0)
Learning Resource Center	43 (6.1)
Reading/Writing Lab	164 (23.4)
Tutorial Program	11 (1.6)
Other	<u>265 (37.9)</u>
Total	700 (100.0)
Type of Offering	
Liberal Arts and Teacher Preparatory	402 (32.0)
Professional and Technical	124 (10.0)
Both	<u>728 (58.0)</u>
Total	1254 ⁴ (100.0)

Table 2 presents some of the more important questions and responses. These questions have been excerpted from the questionnaire and renumbered.

TABLE 2
Questions and Responses

Questions	Responses: Frequency (Percentages)
1. Is there a reading/study skills program on your campus?	
A. No, and there are no plans for the establishment of one in the near future (two years).	363 (29.3)
B. No, however there are plans for one becoming operational within two years.	115 (9.3)
C. Yes.	<u>761 (61.4)</u>
Total	1239 (100.0)
2. The program became operational:	
A. before 1960.	62 (9.1)
B. 1960 - 1964.	49 (6.4)
C. 1965 - 1969.	210 (27.6)
D. 1970 - 1972.	261 (34.3)
E. 1973 - 1974.	<u>173 (22.7)</u>
Total	759 (100.1) ³
3. Most of the financing used to establish the program was obtained from:	
A. audio-visual department or library.	30 (4.0)
B. departmental funds.	306 (40.6)
C. grant.	188 (25.0)
D. student services.	97 (12.9)
E. other.	<u>132 (17.5)</u>
Total	753 (100.0)

4. The department which presently administers program center is:
- | | |
|----------------|-------------|
| A. Counseling. | 72 (18.0) |
| B. Education. | 54 (13.5) |
| C. English. | 92 (23.0) |
| D. Library. | 18 (4.5) |
| E. Other. | 164 (41.0) |
| Total | 400 (100.0) |
5. The main program center is housed in:
- | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------|
| A. Education Department building. | 153 (20.9) |
| B. Library building. | 151 (20.6) |
| C. Student Center building. | 52 (7.1) |
| D. Temporary building. | 47 (6.4) |
| E. Other. | 329 (44.9) |
| Total | 732 (99.9) |
6. The program center's administrator earned his highest degree in:
- | | |
|-----------------------------|------------|
| A. Counseling and Guidance. | 124 (16.9) |
| B. Educational Psychology. | 53 (7.2) |
| C. English. | 138 (18.8) |
| D. Reading. | 222 (30.2) |
| E. Other. | 197 (26.8) |
| Total | 734 (99.9) |
7. The program center offers academic credit on a regular basis for:
- | | |
|--------------------------|------------|
| A. none of its clients. | 264 (35.2) |
| B. a few of its clients. | 102 (13.6) |
| C. most of its clients. | 192 (25.6) |
| D. all of its clients. | 191 (25.5) |
| Total | 749 (99.9) |
8. Are reading classes taught by the program center?
- | | |
|--|-------------|
| A. No. | 148 (20.1) |
| B. Yes, and they are mostly remedial in nature. | 203 (27.5) |
| C. Yes, and they are mostly developmental in nature. | 387 (52.4) |
| Total | 738 (100.0) |
9. If yes, are these reading classes taken for college credit?
- | | |
|---------|-------------|
| A. No. | 230 (37.5) |
| B. Yes. | 384 (62.5) |
| Total | 614 (100.0) |
10. Are study skills classes taught by the program center?
- | | |
|--|-------------|
| A. No. | 157 (21.3) |
| B. Yes, but they are not taken for college credit. | 283 (38.4) |
| C. Yes, but they are taken for college credit. | 297 (40.3) |
| Total | 737 (100.0) |
11. The primary source of referrals to the program center is:
- | | |
|---|-------------|
| A. another student's recommendation. | 49 (6.8) |
| B. class held in center. | 92 (12.7) |
| C. counselor and/or faculty recommendation. | 422 (58.2) |
| D. self-referral. | 162 (22.3) |
| Total | 725 (100.0) |

12. The <u>chief</u> means by which the program center's effectiveness was evaluated last year was:	
A. campus administration evaluation.	98 (14.0)
B. center usage.	181 (25.8)
C. client questionnaires.	179 (25.5)
D. increased mean Grade Point Average of clients or reduced college drop-out rate of clients.	114 (16.3)
E. other.	<u>129 (18.4)</u>
Total	701 (100.0)
13. The program center's permanent staff earned their degrees in:	
A. Counseling and Guidance.	194 (16.1)
B. Educational Psychology.	92 (7.6)
C. English.	321 (26.7)
D. Reading.	370 (30.7)
E. Other.	<u>228 (18.9)</u>
Total	1205 (100.0)

- ¹ The term "program centers" encompasses programs and/or centers.
- ² Requests for additional information should be addressed to the authors.
- ³ Percentage totals do not add up to 100% in all cases due to computer round-off error.
- ⁴ The totals for these variables differ slightly because not all the information was available for each campus responding.

DISCUSSION

The majority (57% or 434) of learning skills program centers in institutions of higher education in the United States becoming operational after 1970 confirms the youthfulness of the Learning Center movement. The fact that more than half of the program centers are less than five years old is consistent with the fact that nearly all (85% or 644) the program centers are less than ten years old.

A perusal of the cross tabulated data reveals a number of discernable trends. The following generalizations are derived from the survey data:

— Over one half (61% or 761) of all respondents reported having program centers. Sixty nine percent (171) of the respondents from the Western region stated that they had program centers in operation. The lowest percentage of program centers in operation (51% or 171) according to region was recorded for the Northeastern region. Sixty-four percent (217) of the respondents from the Southern region and 63% (202) from the Midwestern region noted having program centers.

— Forty two percent (86) of the program centers called "learning centers" and 43% (18) of the program centers called "learning resource centers" became operational during 1970-1972, 54% (87) of the program centers called "reading/writing labs" were initiated earlier.

— In two-year colleges, funds used to establish the program center were derived for the most part from the academic departments (44% or 164). In contrast, four-year institutions with post-graduate programs tended to have been established using funds from student services (23% or 55). Four-year colleges and universities showed no significant trend in this area.

— The largest frequency (20% or 19) of program centers called "learning centers" are presently administered by Counseling Departments. Dissimilarly, the largest frequency (30% or 30) of program centers called "reading/writing labs" are administered by English Departments.

— Twenty-five percent (50) of the program centers called "learning centers" and 46% (19) of the program centers called "learning resource centers" are housed in the library. Other categories of program center name showed no significant trends.

— An equal percentage (21% or 43) of "learning center" administrators hold their highest degrees in Counseling and Guidance or English rather than in Educational Psychology (6% or 13) or Reading (19% or 39). Fifty-four percent (82) of "reading/writing lab" administrators hold their highest degrees in Reading. In "learning resource centers," there is a much higher percentage (46% or 19) of administrators with degrees in fields other than Counseling and Guidance, Educational Psychology, English, or Reading.

— Of the institutions responding from the Northwestern region, a much higher percentage (51% or 84) than of institutions from other regions stated that they offered no credit. In comparison, a lower percentage (25% or 42) in the Western region do not give course credit.

— Of those program centers offering credit, "reading/writing labs" tended to offer credit much more frequently (67% or 106) than either "learning centers" (44% or 91) or "learning resource centers" (43% or 17). Close to 60% of those program centers in the South (53% or 123) and West (59% or 99) offer credit to all or most of their clients as opposed to 51% (101) of the centers in the Midwest and 36% (60) in the Northeast.

— Program centers in institutions with post-graduate instruction tended to have clients who were more frequently self-referred (49% or 80) than program centers in two-year colleges (16% or 58) and four-year colleges (19% or 24).

— More program centers (37% or 59) in the Western region tended to be evaluated by center usage than by campus administrators, client questionnaires, increased GPA, or reduced attrition. The other regions displayed no significant trends.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The survey found a tremendous dispersion of information indicating many different kinds of program centers with a diversity of functions. The survey bore out the heterogeneity of the Learning Center movement.

Though the survey substantiated the intuitive understandings of many learning facilitators, one finding may surprise some: program characteristics had more statistical significance when correlated by level of institutional or program center name than when correlated by region. This demonstrates that regional similarities do not have as much effect upon program functions as does institutional level and program name.

Further comparative analysis of the Learning Center is necessary to determine how the movement will continue to evolve. For example, will the Learning Center offer more courses for credit and become an academic department or will it continue as an academic support agency? Will the functions of Learning Centers be modified to include instruction in the content fields? Will the Learning Center movement gain continuity or will each program center be totally unique? Future surveys of the type we have conducted could answer many questions raised here about the future of the Learning Center.

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ACCOUNTABILITY FOR TUTORS: THE UNIVERSITY OF IDAHO TRAINING PROGRAM

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TUTORS: ACCOUNTABLE FOR WHAT?

The present term "accountability" is a new bottle for an old wine. The notion that teachers should produce learning is basic to the concept of instruction; the conclusion that teachers should be able to demonstrate that learning has occurred is a logical extension of the belief that men shall be known by their fruits. How does the concept of accountability elaborate upon this? It contains the expectations that instructors will know students, establish appropriate common goals, assess student needs, set immediate objectives, and evaluate progress in a continuous feedback loop. In general, then, accountability describes the limits to and the rationale for instruction.

As director of tutorial services at the University of Idaho, I have often been aware of a difference between expectation and need among the students who seek a tutor. Students want someone to help them get through the immediate assignments in a particular class, someone to answer their questions and fill in missing information. They see a peer tutor as someone who has passed successfully, if inexplicably, through the course and will help them get through also. Too often, such students only turn to reading and study skills systems programs when they have experienced general and perhaps massive academic failure. What they actually need to improve is a better approach to learning rather than greater powers of memorization. Can a tutor provide them with the benefits of skills diagnosis, step-by-step task instruction, learning strategies assistance, the monitoring of progress?

At the University of Idaho we began our tutor training program with the conviction that tutors can be taught to provide students with learning skills and in fact should be held accountable to do so. How is a tutor accountable for the effectiveness of his service? The first consideration is the limits

of the tutor's responsibility. Tutors do not determine course goals or subject matter and cannot adjust materials to make them more appropriate for any particular student. They can, however, affect the means by which a student meets a pre-set goal. Appropriate objectives, then, would be to increase student skills in learning by revealing underlying structure of the course, instructor's objectives if not directly stated, and by practicing effective study strategies with the student.

To accomplish this skill-building, the tutor must know a student's academic history, interests, goals, motivation, and skills in the tutored course and related courses. The information gathered must be recorded for comparisons with past and future performance, as one means of assessing the effectiveness of the tutoring. Evaluation of the tutor should not be measured by the student's cognitive gains or grade-point improvement, although this is a common result of tutoring. More appropriately, the student's attitudes, confidence, and awareness of strategies for approaching this and similar courses should be measured.

THE UNIVERSITY OF IDAHO TRAINING PROGRAM

For two years the University of Idaho Learning Resource Center has trained tutors in techniques that make use of the intimate, efficient relationship between student and tutor while preparing tutors to be more deliberately and systematically accountable for the learning of students. This is accomplished in group training sessions supplemented by individual consultations.

Orientation

The first tutor training session provides a general orientation to the program, including historical background, program development, current structure, and financing. The fact that funds for tutors are provided by Associated Student Body fees reinforces the tutor's sense of "ownership" in the program. As students themselves, tutors are contributors to the service. This meeting also outlines the tutor's obligation to keep regular records which are submitted to the Learning Center each month.

Tutor Strategies

The second session explains expectations made of the tutor in his or her relationship with the student, including specific techniques for informal diagnosis of student background and skills. The diagnostic learning survey is a sequence of questions to assess student background, purpose for taking the course requiring tutorial assistance, academic major, preparation for the course, experience with similar courses, and the place of the course in the student's major. This is recorded as a preliminary evaluation in the tutor's journal, with the final stipulation that the tutor's description should provide the reader with an accurate "snapshot" of the tutee.

This first evaluation is to be supplemented with a mini-diagnosis at the beginning of each tutoring session. The tutor ascertains student skills in listening, reading, comprehension and problem-solving with another series of questions. To determine comprehension and to illustrate techniques the tutee can apply to check on his comprehension, the tutor asks for the main idea of the recent lectures and textbook chapters, then checks and reviews student notes to point out main concepts, and briefly reviews the text to show the student where major ideas are found.

When problems are spotted, such as confused, sparse, or too-detailed notes, the tutor can make suggestions for improvement or recommend that the student seek help at the Learning Center. To assist the tutor with this skill tutors are given the rudiments of a two-column, guided note-taking system and the basic operations of the standard SQ4R study system in the third training session. Records of student progress, including quiz, test, and lab scores, are also recorded in the journal. The mini-diagnosis can lead to quizzing students further on terminology or concepts from text or notes, if needed.

Tutors are encouraged to relate with their students the contents of the courses as seems best, with the requirement that whenever possible tutors observe students at work. Watching or listening as a student copes with course work gives tutors clues where skills or knowledge break down. Only at this point may a tutor provide information or systematic review of course content.

Study Skills for Tutors

In the third session tutors are introduced to a variety of study skills and supplementary materials available at the Center. The advantages of a two-column, guided note-taking system are explained as the system is demonstrated. A number of books making general and specialized application of the SQ4R study system are pointed out, and each step in the system is explained. Vocabulary and spelling self help books are examined, and tutors are given a guidebook which suggests ways to identify problems in reading, spelling, and vocabulary, along with techniques for remediation. Tutors are also encouraged to gather information for their students in whatever ways seem promising. This may include visits with the student's instructor, or accompanying the student to class and taking notes which are later compared.

The University of Idaho Training Program is designed to provide optimum assistance in a sympathetic climate of learning from experienced fellow students, who are held accountable for their efforts.

Evaluation

Tutors and students are expected to conduct mutual final evaluations of the tutoring experience. Although sample forms are available at the Center, the best forms have been those written by a particular tutor for

students in a particular course of study. These evaluations can be a subjective, personal reckoning, rather than an objective one; they give the student a chance to say if he arrived where he was hoping to, and if he learned more than was expected. The tutor's own evaluation of the experience is an opportunity to reflect upon the student's comments.

COLLEGE LEARNING SKILLS: FRONTIERLAND ORIGINS OF THE LEARNING ASSISTANCE CENTER

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No one is as critically aware of the youthfulness of the Learning Center movement as those caught up in it (22). That the reading or learning practitioner is a forward-thinking zealot thriving on a diet of innovation (26) is illustrated by the theme of this conference, "College Learning Skills — Today and Tomorrowland."

However, before rushing into Tomorrowland, I recommend a stroll through Frontierland. In carving a frontier, as in forging any new field, an interlude for integrating past occurrences, accomplishments and hazards promotes continued, but directed, progress. In the Learning Center movement, where the formalized Learning Assistance Center concept is four years old (19), where 57% of the Learning Centers in the country have become operational since 1970 (21) and where a Learning Assistance Center director is considered a mature practitioner after only four years in the field (40), a glance at where we have been and how we got here is, at least, an antidote for Disneyland and high-speed vertigo.

Using a composite definition of the Learning Assistance Center as a *place concerned with learning environment within and without, functioning primarily to enable students to learn more in less time with greater ease and confidence, offering tutorial help, study aids in the content areas and referrals to other helping agencies; serving as a testing ground for innovative techniques, materials, and programs* (19:35); and *acting as campus ombudsmen* (39); I reviewed the professional literature for evidence of the early origins of the Learning Assistance Center. Sources included, but were not limited to, ERIC, the Minnesota Retrieval System, NRC Yearbooks, WCRA Proceedings, and nationally disseminated education and media periodicals. Since most articles, monographs and books relevant to College Learning Centers were primarily descriptions and statements rather than research reports, criteria for consideration was unsophisticated and threefold: What was the publication date? Is the

program conceptualized or actualized? Are Learning Assistance Center components identifiable?

Categorized by decade, the literature selected falls into four separate periods. If we assume literature records what is happening in the field and if we disregard some overlap, we can discern general trends which characterize each age of development. Seen cynically, the stages might appear cyclical, however, the development of the Learning Assistance Center viewed retrospectively can be considered evolutionary and, in some respects, revolutionary.

AGE OF CLINICAL ASPIRATION: PROGRAMS BECOME SCIENTIFIC

1916-1940

Early programs and practices in the nineteen twenties and nineteen thirties would later become woven into the Learning Assistance Center fabric. The idea that a student could study to become a student can be traced to a study skills guide first published in 1916 (73). Although this guide instructed both high school and college students, a study procedures handbook published in 1929 was addressed to college students exclusively (70). Learning skills covered in these guides include textbook reading, listening and notetaking, studying for and taking exams, concentration and memory (73), study environment and time management, library skills, vocabulary skills, critical thinking, lab procedures and study procedures in the content areas (70).

The issue of a college or university involving itself in an organized effort to save students with less than adequate academic etiquette is alive by the late twenties. Most authors justify the skills programs, noting a student's skill must be learned as a doctor's or lawyer's (14:529), a swimmer's (8:201), or an apprentice's (1:389) skill is learned. One team states that the college study skills course is more of a service to society than to the college and recommends that, if the college can afford to pick and choose, the college should not admit students who are poor risks (33:44, 45).

Study skills courses, called "how to study" courses in the late nineteen twenties and thirties, were offered to entering freshmen and to freshmen on probation as ten week or one semester orientation courses (14) (8). At the University of Buffalo, beginning in 1926, admission for underachieving high school students was contingent upon successful completion of a three week summer skills course (33:685). Materials used in the "how to study" classes were assignments from the freshmen courses. Time management, library skills, outlining, notetaking, studying for tests, and reading efficiency were treated, the format was mainly lecture and discussion. Evaluation was in terms of grades (14) (1) (34), persistence (34), pre, post tests (1), efficiency ratios (number correct / time) (13) (14), and subjective questionnaires (1) (13). By 1934, "how to study" classes were organized as study methods laboratories (8:195).

The need for a more specific, systematic, and scientific approach to study skills instruction surfaced through the "how to study" courses.

Reading was singled out as the most important skill (13) and remedial reading was discussed in approving tones as the scientific panacea. A 1927 study (13) and a 1929 survey (52) point out that remedial reading was not a course in itself, but only a topic in a "how to study" course. Of the nine schools out of forty in the United States identifying poor readers, seven included reading in the "how to study" course (52). In his discussion of college remedial reading, Parr pointed to a particularly progressive program which boasted instrumentation and instruction regarding eye movements and vocal processes (52:548). The college adult reading program would develop as the bastard child of the psychology laboratory, where technologically naive reading teachers would go to borrow devices like the tachistoscope (62:190). In this way, the art of study became the science of study. The idea of skills instruction, the relation to professionalism, the need for specificity or treating a problem in small parts, the seductive power of hardware or mobilizing all available resources are concepts which would later reappear in the Learning Assistance Center model.

THE AGE OF DISENCHANTMENT: REMEDIAL READING IS NOT THE ANSWER 1940-1950

In the nineteen forties, remedial reading programs gained wide support (5) (66). One survey of California programs reported that 10 out of 22 respondents stated they believed remedial reading should not be part of every junior college curriculum, and the remaining 12 did not answer the question (76:195). Courses were held in laboratories instead of classrooms, and programs were characterized by instrumentation (60).

Individualization, though preferred, was dismissed as too expensive (56) (65), but a combination of group and clinical work seemed a fair compromise (65). A program planned at the University of Minnesota provided for diagnosis of reading difficulties. After a remedy was prescribed, outlined, and placed in the student's file, the student would then report for supervised practice by appointment "where it is felt this work can be done more expediently by him alone than in the group" (65:376). When more appropriate, group work was planned.

Weekly individual conferences in a remedial reading course with a ratio of one counseling intern to four reading students afforded a second compromise to total individualization (56). The private conference scheduled for seriously deficient students (66) or for orienting freshmen (1) had been reported in the literature since the thirties, but the Brooklyn College program combined two hours in class with one hour in a regularly scheduled conference (59). Another provision for individual differences was to offer clients three different courses (75) or to give clients the choice between group work or personal counseling (20). Yet, for all the flexibility of the remedial reading and study skills laboratory courses, only one out of

67 college and university programs claimed to be individualized according to a 1951 survey (5:7).

In addition to the frustrating inability to realize a truly individualized program, the inclusion of upper division students in study methods courses (20) rendered the term "remedial" completely unsatisfactory. At this time the term "developmental" was popularized to mean a higher level reading course, but one author predicted abandonment of both terms (71). Since achieving maximum efficiency was the newly stated goal of the reading and study methods programs, the term "remedial" was deemed inappropriate (75:575), and a "remedial emphasis" was to be avoided at all times (20:121).

A third factor paving the way for the advent of the Learning Center and contributing to the Age of Disenchantment, was the recognition that reading remediation alone was not enough, that other difficulties interfering with student achievement must be treated, and that "if one way of handling the student's problem does not seem to yield results, another way must be attempted" (60:623).

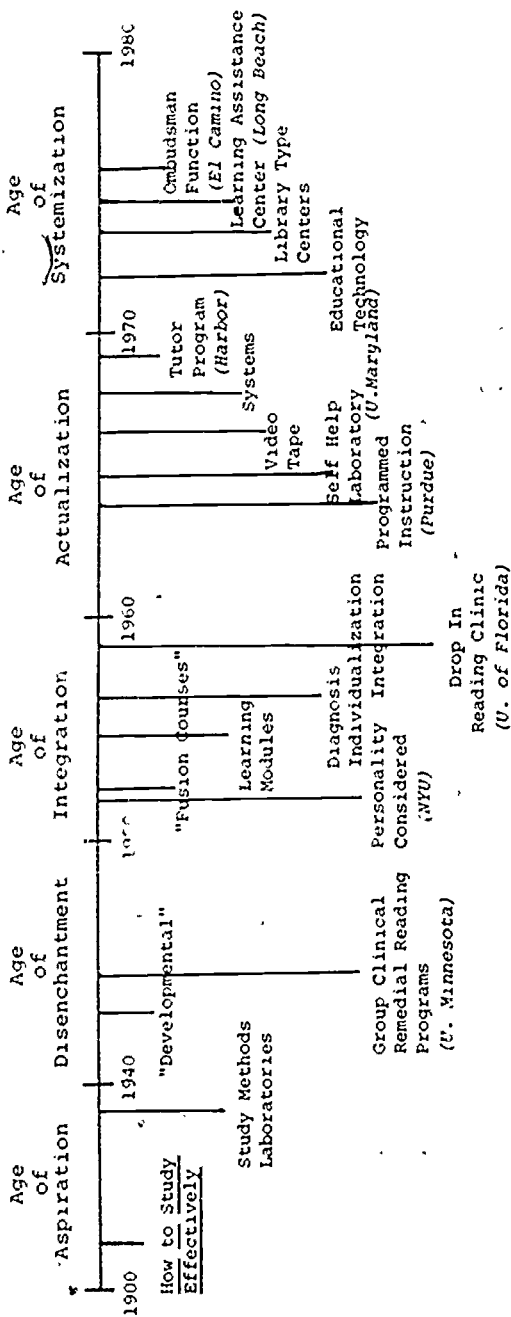
THE AGE OF INTEGRATION: PROGRAMS TREAT THE WHOLE STUDENT 1950-1960

The question receiving attention in the beginning of the nineteen fifties was "Why do study skills reading programs treat only one facet of the student's skills when many factors work together to insure his academic success (60) (41), and when all students do not learn the same way or share the same weaknesses (7)?"

When they reviewed the literature in 1951, Tresselt and Richlin credited only Robinson's program at Ohio with considering both the student's affective side and his academic side. Describing their New York University two-credit "how to study" course, Tresselt stated that of the three variable categorizing students, ability, personality, and study techniques — personality played the most important role in terms of academic achievement (64). While it was felt study techniques could be handled in the class, more "basic problems" such as personal adjustment were felt best treated in individual interviews. Students enrolled in the University of Michigan's program were screened diagnostically to determine their reading ability, vision, and personality structure, if indicated, referrals to other campus services were also made (61). Personal adjustment and attitude were examples of the "non writing" areas considered in a remedial writing program (72:291).

In addition to the student's feelings being integrated with his academic performance, his course content was also seen working together as a total learning experience (27) during the Age of Integration. "Reading, writing, speaking and listening are aspects of the single process of communication" (11:165) was the thought of the period and those aspects were integrated into combined communication courses. Though not unopposed (2), "fusion

ORIGINS OF THE LEARNING ASSISTANCE CENTER



courses" were operating in a large percentage of California remedial reading programs (49).

Administrative diversity resulted from the belief to be inherited later by Learning Assistance Center practitioners that the reading and study skills client needed more alternatives than the tachistoscope and workbook exercises alone could provide. Although Psychology departments, Educational Psychology departments, and English departments administered programs up to this time, most programs developed under student services (42:2841), and Bamman's survey, published in 1954, showed counseling services leading other departments in administering programs (4:58). That the college reading and study skills program was not becoming just another content course or General Education requirement is seen in the frequent use of the term "service function" in the program descriptions (60) (61:42).

The service orientation of college reading and study skills programs allowed a broad base from which to help students who had multi-faceted and interrelating scholastic problems, and the laboratory organization allowed the flexibility needed for individualized endeavors (27) (47). An early form of learning modules (41:23) and the drop-in clinic (60) contributed to meeting the needs of a student viewed as an individual and as a whole. In 1956, a program was outlined which combined lecture/lab sessions with content tutoring, remedial instruction, and individual counseling (12).

Tenets for the nineteen fifties were outlined by Blake: diagnosis individualization, integration, developmental (as opposed to remedial), and "student centered rather than content centered" (11:165). Thus, the schema for skills development was set with students visiting labs on the recommendation of other students (61) and finding a program outlined for their specific needs (65) (11) as academic citizens trying to achieve maximum efficiency (75).

THE AGE OF ACTUALIZATION: GOOD IDEAS BECOME REALITIES 1960-1970

By the nineteen sixties, many of the philosophies and theories that previously could only be lauded (11) could now be realized. Self-paced, individualized learning became an actuality with the implementation of programmed instruction (54). In 1966, a California junior college survey called for "modern materials" to increase the efficiency of self-instruction (51), but these materials were reportedly being put together at the University of Minnesota since 1958. Raygor wrote that the key to individualizing the University of Minnesota program was the development and availability of self-instructional materials (55:170). The program there was four part, after diagnosis, the student would participate in an interview where he would help determine his schedule and his learning activities. Then the student would work to improve his weak areas in monitored

practice sessions. Ideally, evaluation would then follow (55). In two studies comparing methods of course organization, self-paced or programmed courses were shown especially beneficial for the freshmen and the upperclassmen with lower ability (43) and for the student who might otherwise drop out of a study skills program (45).

Programmed, self-instructional materials allowed the reading and study skills programs to meet the changing needs of their more sophisticated clientele. Graduate students were enrolled in Stanford's program (4) and 44% of the applicants to another program recorded college board scores in the upper half of the distribution of University students (45.88). The subjects in nine out of 22 studies reviewed by Entwistle were "college students" instead of "freshmen" (25).

Another reason individualized instruction became affordable in the nineteen sixties was innovations in the field to be later called Instructional Technology. As early as 1958, instructional television was well received by State University of Iowa students (69). Videotape was incorporated into skills instruction (50) and the computer was put to work efficiently and humanly (10) (37) (74). From technological modes of thought came the application, in 1967, of the systems approach to reading and study skills programs (74). Systems provided an answer to meeting the student's individual needs since "the strength of learning systems rests in the analysis of alternate pathways through which desired terminal objectives may be obtained." (74.109) Christ's SR/SE Laboratory was a usable system for learning assistance based on diagnosis, referral, follow-up and modification (18:214) while offering alternatives to students having individual learning styles.

The lab was the stage for the events of the Age of Actualization, and as the term "laboratory" gave way to the term "center" in the later nineteen sixties, a wide diversity of center names developed. The Instructional Resources Services planned for the St. Louis Junior College District consisted of an Instructional Materials Center and a language lab and made the claim that the program was "effective in bringing students up to an acceptable level of performance." (35:13) The Learning Cen at Stephens College was designed primarily for convenient hardware sharing (3). The Fundamentals Learning Laboratories in North Carolina colleges were primarily adult education centers to assist students preparing for high school equivalency exams, but they also served students interested in their own "educational improvement" and students needing academic assistance to complete their college requirements (15.80). The Study Skills Center at Lane Community College was unique in the nineteen sixties because it, like the College Reading Laboratory at the University of Maryland, was not a library oriented arrangement nor an expanded adult education program. It is described as a programmed materials center supplementing and reinforcing the general curriculum in addition to offering reading and study skills assistance (23). The educational breakthroughs characterizing the

Age of Actualization were quickly implemented, and by 1970, at least fifteen different center titles could be found in the literature (3) (15) (17) (23) (26) (29).

**THE AGE OF SYSTEMATIZATION:
THE LEARNING ASSISTANCE CENTER IS ORGANIZED
1970-1980**

By the nineteen seventies, the confusion of center names mirrors the diversity of center origins and center functions. Many hybrid centers had been developing in semi or total isolation from one another. In 1970, four main center categories of Instructional Materials Center, Reading Laboratory, Study Skills Center, and Audio-tutorial System were determined (17:5-6). Another attempt at categorization in 1975 (21) distinguished between the library type of center which developed in a hopeful effort to reevaluate non print media and to reembrace the audiovisual department (24) (26) (53), the reading and writing laboratory which was nurtured under the wing of the English department, and the Learning Center which integrated a wide diversity of functions — all geared to buttressing the student for the academic challenge while dedicating itself to improving higher education (21). The Learning Assistance Center concept, formulated by Frank Christ, is composed of many of the center characteristics organized systematically (19) as one support service (63) honoring the marriage of instruction and technology (38).

Factors influential in the continued growth of the center through the seventies include decelerating enrollments, changes in admissions policies, reinterest in teaching students to learn, endangered financial support and the belief that learning continues beyond formal education (48). The issue of student rights, the more frequent appearance of the non-traditional, non-initiated student, and the conviction that the Learning Assistance Center should be the catalyst for change on college and university campuses (29) (39) led to the center accepting the function of watchdog (57) (16) and nipping the heels of the establishment now and then. On the other hand, the Learning Assistance Center also maintains a wise neutrality on campus: "the resource center does not define the goals of the learning it supports, it accepts the goals of the faculty and the students." (28.5) The development of mini courses or individual instructional units to supplement regular course content (31) and the insistence on real results from programs that treat personality factors (6) (32) (44) reflect both the Learning Assistance Center's academic ties and the Learning Assistance Center's relation to counseling services in its growth pattern.

The nineteen seventies, the Age of Systematization, would be marked by the coming together of isolated components derived from varying factors into an organic, responsive and accountable support organization operating out of a facility offering a relaxed ecology — the Learning Assistance Center.

CONCLUSION

When the Learning Assistance Center's origins and development, beginning with the yen to be scientific and continuing to the rewards of combining technology with humanism, are considered in retrospect, they show the evolution and the revolutionary realignment of many very basic educational concepts. The historical irony of the Learning Assistance Center is that, while it embodies most of the educational philosophies theorized since 1900, it works actively for futuristic education. Its present status reflects the diverse range of its origins and the snowball sequence of its development. The next stage in the history of the Learning Assistance Center may well be its systematic integration into the campus as a whole — taking its rightful place as the support service for the academic community.

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MISCUE ANALYSIS: SOME DIAGNOSTIC AND INSTRUCTIONAL IMPLICATIONS

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THE MISCUE CONCEPT

Miscue analysis, based on a psycholinguistic view of the reading process (6), was originally developed by Kenneth Goodman as a research technique to describe the reading process. He noted that all readers, proficient and less proficient readers, produced oral reading responses that differed from the actual text (expected responses). Traditionally labeled *mistakes* or *errors*, miscues and observed responses are the result of the reader's simultaneous use of language and non-language cues.

K. Goodman (16) identified three language cue systems: (1) grapho-phonetic cues — spelling patterns; sound patterns, created by intonation; sound symbol relationships; (2) syntactic cues — grammatical sequences and language interrelationships; function words; inflections; punctuation; and (3) semantic cues — the reader's experiential and conceptual backgrounds expressed through words and phrases within the context of what is being read.

Reading comprehension occurs as the reader processes available language and non-language cues (pictures, charts, teacher assistance). Using a minimal amount of the most useful cues, the proficient reader employs sampling, predicting, confirming, and correcting strategies to make sense out of what he's looking at. Y. Goodman, Burke, and Sherman (12) have suggested instructional procedures to develop these strategies.

The term *miscue* is preferred to reading *error*. The label *error* assigns a negative value to the reader's response and is misleading because it suggests that proficient reading is errorless. In fact, the difference between proficient and less proficient readers is not that the latter make more errors than proficient readers. More proficient readers commit more *high quality*

miscues (miscues retaining the meaning of the text but lacking a close visual match when compared to the expected responses). The miscues of less proficient readers are frequently *low quality miscues* (miscues reflecting a close visual match when compared to the expected responses but making little or no sense in the context of the story as a whole).

Frank Smith's (17) recent analysis of the reading process convincingly demonstrates that "the more often you want to be right, the more often you must tolerate being wrong" (p. 24). Smith asserts that the teacher who discourages readers from making miscues is interfering with learning to read. He concludes that a reader must be encouraged to guess, with teachers rejoicing when *high quality miscues* are produced by the reader. Smith suggests that to err is not only human, but is a requirement for learning, regardless of the subject matter under consideration.

Miscues are not random. A reader substituting "a" for "the" in a sentence like:

(a)

Mr. Stevens walke^d to the store.

is replacing "the" with another word having the same grammatical function as the text word. Glenn (3) noted that more proficient second, fourth, and sixth grade readers frequently read "seventh grade" in the following sentence from the Gilmore Oral Reading Test, Form C:

(seventh grade) :

Dick is now in Grade Seven.

These readers are not simply attacking words; language is being processed. Since "Grade" and "seventh" are not alike in sound or graphically similar, it might be suggested the readers are not looking very closely at the words at all.

Utilizing a linguistic foundation, taxonomies of the relationship between the observed responses and the expected responses have been developed (Burke, 2; K. Goodman, 4; Y. Goodman, 8; Y. Goodman and Burke, 10). The reader's miscues are analyzed on selected variables. For example, did the miscue result in a change or a loss of meaning? If the miscue didn't make sense, did the reader correct or attempt to correct it? How close did the miscue look and sound like the expected response? Instead of quantifying (counting) errors, miscues are qualitatively examined for their effect on meaning.

ANALYZING MISCUES

Reading Miscue Inventory by Goodman and Burke (10) is a formalized version of miscue analysis. However, teachers may utilize the following truncated procedures:

1. A story is selected. It may be from a trade book or textbook. The story should be difficult enough so that the reader generates between thirty and fifty miscues, but not so difficult that he will not be able to complete the selection.
2. The selection is prepared for reading and audiotaping. A worksheet is used by the teacher to accurately record the reader's oral responses which differ from the printed page.
3. The reader is asked to read and is informed that he will be asked to retell the story. No assistance is given by the teacher during the reading.
4. The reader retells the story after he has completed the selection. The retelling is neither aided nor interrupted by the teacher. After the student has completed his retelling, he is asked open-ended questions based on information volunteered during the retelling. For example, if the reader mentioned a car during the retelling, the teacher might ask, "Can you tell me anything else about the car?" This question might trigger additional information understood and remembered by the reader but not mentioned previously. The reader might respond that the car was blue, and antique, and owned by a famous doctor. Direct questions by the teacher relating to specific information contained in the story should be avoided. For example, "What color was the car?" A comprehension rating is determined and assigned according to the teacher's manual (10).
5. Utilizing the audiotape, the teacher's original coding is checked and the miscues are coded.
6. Miscue patterns are analyzed according to the analytical method selected.

The passage in Figure 1 is taken from "A Day at Home" (11) and is marked to reflect the miscues that Marsha, a fourteen-year-old, made while reading it.

NUMBER OF MISCUES

Miscues result from many factors. For example, the concept load of vocabulary and the author's writing style may significantly influence the number of miscues.

Miscue research (7, 9, 14, 18) suggests that examining the quality of the miscues rather than counting them permits teachers to make more insightful diagnostic and instructional decisions.

Using a recently published short form for analyzing miscues by Goodman, Burke, and Lindberg (2), Marsha's reading of "A Day at Home" was examined. Marsha committed miscues at the rate of thirty per hundred words read (a total of sixty-three miscues). Over sixty percent of her miscues resulted in no change or minimal change in meaning.

Marsha made many miscues that didn't make a difference (lines 6 through 12). She corrected some miscues that didn't make sense (lines 3 and

1 Then he saw something bad. He

2 ^{broken} saw dark smoke coming out of the window

3 ^{come} of Mrs. Miller's house. Bob ^a went that

4 no one was in the house to see the smoke.

5 ^{the fall} In a few minutes ^{he} a fire truck ^{came} came

6 ^{Fireman's} down the street. Firemen jumped down

7 ^{pushed the} and pulled ^{out of} hoses ^{off} the truck. And

8 ^{then} they ^{sand} sprayed water on Mrs. Miller's

9 house.

10 ^{With they would} When there was no more smoke ^{and then} the

11 firemen stopped spraying ^{the} water ^{and} the

12 ^{then} They put the hoses ^{back in} on the fire truck.

13 And the fire truck wen away.

(Substitutions are written above the text word; omissions (letter, word, or punctuation) are circled; insertions are marked with a ^; corrections are indicated by the symbol © and the text repeated is underlined).

Figure 1. A Sample Coding of Marsha's Miscues

5). The predictability of the story's content may account for her disregard of correcting some miscues (lines 5 and 10). Marsha's retelling of the story indicated a reasonable understanding of the material. Despite her rate of thirty miscues per hundred words read, she was able to reconstruct the author's message.

READER CORRECTED MISCUES

One distinguishing characteristic of proficient readers is their correction of miscues that don't make sense or which are grammatically unacceptable. Less proficient readers often do not attempt to correct miscues, even when the miscues don't make sense within the context of the story.

Instructional Implications

Reading materials are difficult for a reader if he cannot comprehend them. Material is suitable, regardless of the number of miscues made, when the reader is able to understand the author's message.

Counting the number of miscues is not an accurate guide for determining the difficulty of the reading material for the reader. The traditional concept of reading levels (instructional, frustration, independent) based on Killgallon's study (13), is not a viable technique for determining suitable reading material for the reader (1, 15).

Readers should be instructed to employ correction strategies actually used by proficient readers. If a miscue makes a difference in terms of meaning, the reader should correct it or at least attempt to correct it. Miscues that don't affect meaning don't make a difference. Readers need to learn to deal only with those miscues which interfere with comprehension. If a reader stops to correct each miscue, disregarding its effect on meaning, comprehension becomes difficult because of short-term memory and visual-processing limitations of the brain (17).

CONCLUSIONS

Miscues are oral reading responses that differ from the actual text (expected responses). All readers make miscues. The difference between proficient readers and less proficient readers is not that proficient readers make fewer miscues, but the miscues of proficient readers generally retain the meaning of the story, regardless of their graphic and sound similarity when compared to the expected responses. The miscues of less proficient readers frequently do not make sense in the context of the story but may closely look and sound like the expected responses.

Miscue analysis reveals the reader's control of the reading process. It provides a teacher with insights about the reader's effectiveness in using language clues. Miscues are analyzed according to selected linguistic criteria, including such factors as (1) graphic and sound similarity; (2)

grammatical function, (3) semantic and syntactic acceptability; and (4) meaning change.

When the goal in reading is comprehension, miscues often make a difference only when they interfere with comprehension; they don't make a difference if comprehension is unaffected. Therefore, reading material is appropriate when the reader understands it, regardless of the number of miscues made.

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CONSIDERATIONS IN BUDGET PLANNING FOR LEARNING ASSISTANCE CENTERS

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All too often crucial budgetary decisions for Learning Assistance Centers are made by department chairmen, deans and business managers who have little or no expertise in making these decisions. Leadership persons responsible for budgetary matters of a Learning Assistance Center should be less dependent on others for sound information and planning budgets. They should be able to negotiate and defend their budget requests from a position of strength based on clear goals, a team approach, collecting output indicators, maintaining a bookkeeping system, and sustaining a budgetary flexibility — features of budget planning discussed in this paper.

The budgetary process differs from campus to campus. This paper will not provide specific recommendations on how to plan a budget for a Learning Assistance Center, since each Center has different objectives and operates in a different academic environment. What will be discussed, however, are considerations that should go into the development of any budget.

SIX CONSIDERATIONS

First, there must be clear goals and objectives. At the Learning Assistance Center for the University of California at Davis, we prepare an Administrative Supplement to the Academic Plan which is revised yearly. In this supplement we define the purpose and background for the Learning Assistance Center and provide a statement of objectives and a description of the current operation of our Center. This document clearly states what goals and objectives the administration will support. This broad set of guidelines provides our Center with the necessary direction to help us define the parameters within which we will work. In our statement of the

academic plan, we set forth our high priority areas for current operations and future plans. Taking this document as a starting point, we then are better able to request resources such as the number of staff, the amount of materials, equipment, and space that are required to meet our goals and objectives.

An example of a "general statement of purpose and goals" from our Administrative Supplement follows:

The learning Assistance Center collects and develops literature for study skills assistance and provides individualized and group workshops for any registered student who wishes to improve reading, learning, and study skills. LAC also provides a campus-wide tutoring program for all students who have academic deficiencies or need help in mastering course material.

EOP Administration and Advising provides liaison to academic departments and to the dean's office in the College of Letters and Science, coordinates the Summer Enrichment Program, serves as initial point of contact for EOP student problems, and conducts surveys on academic progress of EOP students.

Second, there must be a team effort in budget planning. An essential element in making the team approach work is to provide the staff with as much information about funding sources, student enrollment figures, and personal regulations that affect staff changes. A team approach does not mean a director or coordinator must give up final decision making responsibility, but that the staff feels comfortable expressing honest opinions about how they think funds should be allocated.

Third, the leadership person in this team should have sufficient knowledge of the overall budget process and the institution of which the center is a part. It should be clearly understood what real authority the administrator has over the budget. Can funds be carried over from one fiscal year to the next? What are the various deadlines for submitting the budget?

Understanding the intricacy of a budget process requires more than casual on the job learning. It requires reading a policy and procedure manual carefully, interviewing one's immediate supervisor, contacting the campus budget office, and becoming less dependent on emergency information provided by others.

Fourth, adequate information about a program's output should be collected on a routine basis. We all know how difficult it is to select output indicators that truly measure what we do. The subjective non quantifiable dimensions of the work we do with students are still not easily compiled. We can, however, provide some indications of what our output is and some evaluation of how effectively we have performed. On the Davis campus, the Learning Assistance Center provides our budget office with some gross measures of our output. They are used to develop trends for long range budget projections up to ten years. The budget office provides its

recommendations to the Vice Chancellor for Student Affairs Office which makes final decisions on the allocation of available funds. Here is an abbreviated list of some output indicators.

Workload Indicators	Actual 73-74	Quarterly Average 73-74	Fall 1974	Percent Change
<u>Intake Process</u>				
Total # of students served	1481	495	887	80%
# of consultation hours	1264	421	870	106%
<u>Workshops</u>				
# of workshops	29	9	22	144%
# of students in workshops	314	104	331	218%
# of hours conducting	148	49	118	142%
<u>Tutoring</u>				
# of students receiving	230	79	177	124%
# of tutoring hours	3539	1179	2048	73%

Fifth, an adequate bookkeeping system is essential to maintain flexibility in dispersing budgeted allocations. Many programs are highly dependent on a central accounting or administrative office, and statements regarding expenditures and balances often have a time lag of two to three months. If at all possible, administrators should strive to have monthly statements of all encumbrances and income.

Sixth, how effectively do you use whatever flexibility you may have to take advantage of attrition in your staff? For example, when a staff position is vacated during a non-peak period, can you refill the position at a later date? If the person leaving has considerable seniority, can you open the position at a lower rate of pay? The above examples are highly dependent on the amount of authority and flexibility you have in re-allocating appropriations in your budget.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the main sub-accounts of a budget should include: staff salaries, materials, equipment and space. Guidelines for flexibility should be maintained to make mid-year corrections based on student participation in the program. The budget should be justified by a detailed evaluation report accompanied by workload data to provide analysis of student reaction to the programs.

INTERFACING TUTORING AND READING PROGRAMS: TRAINING TUTORS TO DO MY JOB

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INTRODUCTION

When a student requests tutoring he wants help with understanding the content of a course. He often does not perceive that his approach to learning may be interfering with his learning. That's why he came to T.A.P. (Tutorial Assistance Program), not R.A.S.S.L. (Reading and Study Skills Lab).

While a student is experiencing academic difficulty in one or several courses, he has problems in learning general study skills information, as offered through RASSL programming, and using it effectively in that course. "Nothing works . . . that works in all my other courses but this one . . . I don't even see how to begin with that prof and what he's covering." He came because he wants help with *that* book and *that* prof in *that* course. Therefore, he seeks tutoring. Only through actually showing the student how to use a systematic approach in reading *that* text does he *begin* to understand that "it works here too."

THE PROGRAM: WHAT WE HAVE BEEN DOING THESE LAST SEVEN MONTHS . . .

Based on these observations and RASSL's commitment to Outreach Services — taking learning services to students where and when they are learning rather than waiting for them to seek out RASSL — I was released half-time as consultant to the new Tutorial Assistance Program being established in the Dean of Students Office. Past tutoring programs offered through the Division of Student Affairs at UT-Austin have primarily been brokerage services; names of tutors recommended by departments or

professors were given to students upon request. Little or no supervision or contact except for financial reasons was made with the program office.

The objectives of the new program are:

1. To help a student to identify factors affecting his learning.
2. To offer appropriate referrals for learning skills assistance, personal or academic advising, and/or tutoring.
3. To provide tutoring in courses from certified, trained tutors.
4. To provide supervision and training in the tutorial process.
5. To begin coordinating information and referral sources for other tutorial efforts on campus.
6. To gather data concerning the use and effectiveness of such a program.

To meet the first four objectives, positions and training programs for two kinds of student tutors are evolving: (1) tutor consultants or advisors — those who interview prospective tutees, who serve as paraprofessional learning specialists, and who act as consultants with student tutors in their efforts in guiding a student's learning; and (2) student tutors — those who actually tutor the student in a course.

Training for the tutor consultants has focused on expanding their knowledge and expertise in (1) interviewing skills and diagnostic techniques, (2) learning skills and teaching strategies, (3) consultation techniques, and (4) administrative skills (students are not used to paperwork!). Methods have included workshops on selected topics of interest, weekly staff meetings to work as a group in refining the procedures and administration of the program, individual weekly meetings with me focusing on individual concerns in working with all aspects of the program.

The tutor consultants worked through various study skills books and resources with an eye toward appropriateness of referrals to tutors and students as well as expanding their own knowledge of the content. They have participated in various RASSL programs to observe teaching and interviewing models, and to see how different materials can be used. They have used other resources such as the Counseling Center and the Dean of Students Office. The fall semester concentrated on developing each individual's interviewing and consultative skills; whereas, the spring semester has focused on the more complex and subtle issues such as motivation and concentration with different kinds of students and tutors, varying teaching strategies for different populations, and so forth.

The focus in training the student tutors has been on (1) working with developing their knowledge of teaching strategies and communication skills, (2) raising their awareness as to how learning occurs and approaches which can help or hinder this process, and (3) developing their sensitivity and expertise in working with such factors as lack of confidence, motivation, anxiety, and failure. We have had general tutor orientations, bimonthly small group meetings, and individual consultation (on an unplanned basis at first, but now more structured) with the tutor consultants or me, as interests and concerns dictated.

Topics covered have included factors affecting learning, teaching strategies to help elicit information for organizing the tutoring sessions — especially the first couple of meetings, tutor-tutee relationships, development of a student's independence in learning, anxiety — identifying and solutions, especially test anxiety, ways of teaching students how to study, instructional objectives, development of self-concepts, preparation for test taking; and other study and learning techniques. We have also had Study Problem Sessions co-led by student tutors and RASSL on specific study techniques, and on Studying for Exams in freshman level chemistry, physics and calculus for tutees. There have also been subject area meetings to focus on sharing common experiences and concerns among those tutoring in the same subjects.

SOME OBSERVATIONS AND CONSIDERATIONS

For the first semester the most influential modes of instruction with tutor consultants, probably, were individual and group consultation and the reviewing of materials. Other observations were:

1. You can't really teach anyone much by "telling them how to . . ."
2. None of us is as good as all of us . . .
3. Timing is very important in learning.
4. The same experiences do not necessarily touch base with everyone.
5. Listening is crucial if change is to occur.
6. Hiring "the person" is much more important than hiring "his credentials."
7. Institutional commitment is essential if a quality program is to be developed.

We as a group began to "priorize" topics for training and learning. We set priorities for procedural changes, environmental enhancement, and program development. This mutual involvement and sharing in the decision making aspects of this program has resulted in increased effort on everyone's part.

I want to briefly reflect upon what I would do differently next time:

1. Structure more group contact for both kinds of tutors, especially earlier in the semester before programming actually begins.
2. Structure more individual contact between student tutors and tutor consultants early in the semester.
3. Establish a training library. This will include a procedures manual, a training manual of information and ideas developed this year, tapes covering specific topics such as working with handicapped students, tutoring small groups, motivation, etc. and appropriate or related learning and teaching skills materials.
4. Develop more variety in training experiences, especially related to specific populations and subject areas.
5. Develop and refine the interviewing process for hiring student tutors.

Many of these ideas related to the training program for tutors involve the same concepts and activities the tutors themselves find useful in tutoring students. Both of these aspects in this program focus on becoming aware of what we do — and don't do — to effect our own learning. Just as RASSL serves as one primary resource in learning about learning, so can the tutor — and in ways which are often more relevant to the student seeking his service.

TOOLS FOR TRAINING INSTRUCTORS OF ADULT READING: FANTASY OR REALITY

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Much information on the process of teaching reading to adults is becoming available in the professional literature. However, at present much of this information is scattered. Potential sources of such information include journal articles, school district publications, ERIC entries, pamphlets published by professional organizations, articles in conference yearbooks, current practices in reading and learning centers, and papers delivered at conferences.

Schools of Education throughout the country are being requested to train teachers specifically to instruct adults in reading and study skills. As an example, Cal State University, Fullerton School of Education, has received requests for such courses from five different institutions and agencies in Orange County this semester alone.

In attempting to be sensitive to this need for training teachers of adult reading, courses are being developed and taught. Yet the professor of such courses becomes frustrated at the limited textbooks and related materials available to use in these courses. The new IRA publication by Ken Ahrendt, *Community College Reading Programs* (1975), is a particularly valuable tool for the professor looking at this aspect of adult education in reading. It presents a fine overview of the field of reading at this level and provides an update of Ned Marksheffel's *Junior College Reading Programs* (1967). Ahrendt's book suggests a variety of resources which the professor of adult teacher training courses will want to have for reference.

Tools needed by the professor planning programs training these teachers include (1) those describing the unique characteristics and needs of the adult learner, (2) the reading process and its relationship to the widely varying needs of adult learners, and (3) methods and materials for instructing adults in reading.

THE ADULT LEARNER

Descriptions do exist of the wide variety of learners encountered in current programs designed specifically for adults. Some attempts have been made to translate these descriptions into practical suggestions for the teacher. One such useful resource is NAPCAE's publication, *How Adults Can Learn More - Faster*. (1970) However, little attempt has been made to explain the implications of these characteristics and needs for reading instruction. For example, the marginal, high-risk college student soon learns that his instructors in general feel he cannot learn. (Moore, 1970) Older adult learners express attitudes that are verbalized as "I'm too old to learn," or "The kids know everything." The role of the reading instructor is convincing the student through the use of graphs, charts, and interviews that he can and will learn.

Many of the descriptions of adult learners currently in the literature are based on informal observations. Research is needed now to provide some more accurate descriptions of the following: (1) learning modalities of the adult student; (2) characteristics of effective teachers of adults; and (3) developmental stages of adult cognitive and affective skills.

Counselors have long recognized the need for adult learners to develop coping skills, i.e., those skills which help an individual protect himself in his society. Such skills relate to his ability to function within his own family structure, as well as to maintain his health, job and role as a citizen. Reading instructors need help in seeing the implications of these for planning programs and developing teacher-made materials. They also need to know how to help those students who need to develop learning strategies which rely little on reading skills, such as listening skills and techniques for dealing with persuasive people and advertisements.

Textbooks are needed which present the kinds of information about adult learners described in this section, which are specifically stated in terms of the implications they have for reading instruction.

THE ADULT LEARNER AND THE READING PROCESS

So many of the classical models of the reading process presented in the literature are designed to describe the process of acquiring beginning reading skills, and cease to be useful once a learner reaches about sixth grade proficiency levels. More recent models, especially those based on psycholinguistic theory (such as those designed by Goodman [1972], Ruddell and Bacon [1972] and Smith [1971]), appear to be helpful in describing advanced reading skills. Teachers need to be helped to see reading in perspective, as one of the communication skills, and these models help him to do this.

The teacher of reading to adults needs also to be able to differentiate between what Albert Harris (1970) describes as developmental, functional,

and recreational reading skills, and also to see how a balanced instructional program in reading for adults can provide for all three.

The teacher especially needs help in assisting the adult learner to recognize early the inaccurate perceptions he may hold about his own ability to increase his reading speed while maintaining good comprehension.

Teachers also need to recognize that functional reading skill teaching should include very practical help with the actual learning materials from the student's current courses, as well as assistance in how to plan study time and do the kind of study-type learning required in those courses. Such training can also assist the teacher in helping students use reading skills to avoid test panic, as the student learns a variety of test-taking skills and methods for writing papers and taking class and study notes.

Teachers of adult reading courses need to be familiar with a wide range of assessment devices. They also need to be able to develop their own criterion referenced tests and plan evaluation procedures which will demonstrate the progress students are making to themselves, the administration, and the community as well.

Teachers cannot afford to learn these skills related to assessing and teaching reading "the hard way." Textbooks designed specifically for those teachers must be made available.

READING METHODS AND MATERIALS FOR ADULTS

Once the teacher is able to use a variety of appropriate assessment techniques and has an understanding of the reading process in adults, he needs to be helped to recognize the instructional options open to him. Classroom organization alone provides many choices. A familiarity with the strengths and limitations of total class instruction, team learning, paired learning and individualized approaches is essential to making appropriate instructional decisions. Group learning activities can help adults develop a willingness to ask for and accept help. It may also help them learn to cope better with open-ended exercises and activities, which are frequently frustrating and even frightening to older learners.

A knowledge of the various approaches to beginning reading instruction is essential as the teacher determines which to use in his courses. An awareness of the strengths and limitations of auditory, visual, kinesthetic and language experience approaches to reading instruction, as well as an understanding of their relationship to the student's learning modalities will help teachers make wiser decisions in planning programs and selecting materials.

The teacher also needs to be able to develop courses, and in some cases total programs in reading. This involves skill in writing program and course proposals which include long and short range goals and objectives, and which outline intervention and evaluation procedures as well. Course and program development also involves highly developed organizational skills,

often seen as a major characteristic of the effective teacher. (Gage, 1972) In short, the teacher needs to see how instructional technology can provide a framework for planning reading instruction.

The teacher also needs help in developing needed supervisory skills to assist him in successfully working with paid and volunteer paraprofessionals, other faculty members, and support personnel.

There is an increasingly wide range of materials and equipment available for the adult learner now, which the reading teacher must be acquainted with at all levels from readiness through advanced. Professional texts can present an overview of these materials, but students need to be helped to develop their own criteria and procedures for evaluating them.

The development of teacher-made materials at each of the levels from readiness through advanced can also be explained in texts for the teacher of adult reading. Ways are needed to help teachers to use free and inexpensive materials to prepare these practice materials, relevant to the specific interests of adult learners in their courses.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The potential and inservice teacher of reading to adults has a right to expect textbooks which will help him become the manager of the educational environment. He also has a right to expect fieldwork experiences in his training, which gives him supervised practice in working with adult learners. Community colleges and centers have demonstrated their willingness to provide space and make arrangements to house fieldwork programs. Now it is up to the publishers to recognize that texts are needed for courses training these instructors of reading for adults. The market is there and it is worth a publisher's time and sales efforts to develop it.

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SELF-PACED INSTRUCTION— IS IT REALLY INDIVIDUALIZED?

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In today's educational practices, there is a fast moving trend to solve our curricular problems by organizing many classes — especially developmental or remedial ones — on a self-paced basis. Because of this type of organization, the student is left on his own and given the responsibility of doing the assigned work and doing it well. The instructor's responsibilities center around organizing the curriculum and seeing to it that all students are working at the proper level. Evaluation of progress made in self-paced programs is also the responsibility of the instructor and is accomplished in a variety of ways; i.e., individual conferences, performance contracting, comprehensive tests of material covered, or periodic tests over small portions of material covered. The variety of evaluative methods is as extensive as those people involved with coordination of self paced programs.

IS SELF-PACED INSTRUCTION THE ANSWER?

Although the theory behind this type of curricular organization may be very sound, some questions need to be asked concerning the results that are being obtained from these programs. Are we achieving the goals that we had intended to achieve? Is self-paced instruction the ideal instructional system for all students?

In the opinion of this writer, it is not. Self-paced instruction was, of course, originally instituted to overcome the problem of individual differences, but it is this very fact that makes self-paced instruction ineffective as an instructional system for all students. For instance, if we truly believe that all students are different, why then do we insist upon all students working in the same instructional system? When we speak of

individual differences, are we speaking only of differences in actual learning rates and abilities, or are we considering differences in the way in which individuals learn? Are we considering the learning strategies that have been brought to our attention by proponents of cognitive mapping? Are we considering the fact that some students simply learn best in a "lecture-type" class? It appears that we may only be considering the former, a consideration which is quite inconsistent with our expressed belief in individual differences.

However, once in a self-paced program, the students, because of their differences, are expected to work independently; and since they are working at their own level, we assume that they will be able to successfully complete the assigned tasks. But, if a student is assigned work at his own level, does it necessarily follow that he will do the work? Students who have been continually frustrated by failure in academic settings or students whose self-motivation and discipline are weak or whose self-concepts are low are going to be very reluctant to do any work. These students have a very poor concept of success, yet we are placing them in self-paced curricula and expecting them to succeed. Most of them are products of an educational system in which they have failed miserably; and all too often, their educational backgrounds contain exposures to self-paced curricula which did nothing to retard their continued failure. Therefore, it is not realistic to conclude that self-paced instruction is the only answer for them.

If self-paced instruction is not the only answer, then what if? Perhaps before the question is answered, however, we should determine the differences between self-paced and individualized instruction. In the past, these two terms have been used interchangeably, both carrying the connotation that students engaged in this type of instruction were working at their own level and at their own pace. When the terms were mentioned, we may have envisioned learning modules or audio-tutorial systems, individual conferences, and pre-test, post-test evaluations. The contention of this writer is that this system of instruction is self-paced, for a system of instruction in which students work at their own level and at their own rate can only be classified as self-paced instruction. For some students — students for whom self-pacing meets their individual needs — it is also individualized instruction; but it is not completely individualized instruction, because it does not meet the individual needs of every student.

What Is Individualized Instruction?

Ideally, individualized instruction is a system which tailor-makes learning in terms of learner needs and characteristics. (1) Individualized instruction is not a system of instruction that limits itself to having the student work on his own, at his own level, and at his own pace. It does not limit itself to any one particular method of instruction, for no one method of instruction is applicable to all students. Individualized instruction is the eclectic approach to education; it uses no particular method of instruction,

but takes the best and most useful parts of all methods and incorporates them into one system — individualized instruction.

Ideally, the above definition sounds great. But, how does one go about putting such a system into practical use? How do we take thirty students who are all different, possessing different abilities, rates of learning, and ways of learning, throw them into one classroom, and individualize our instruction? Obviously, we cannot teach in thirty different ways at the same time, nor can any of us teach using thirty different teaching strategies and be equally effective with all of them. So, how do we handle it?

First, there should be a thorough re-evaluation of our instructional objectives. Is our curriculum designed to help the student learn something — skills or information — vital to that person's education, or is the curriculum designed to allow us to teach what we are interested in or what tradition dictates we should teach regardless of whether or not it is important or helpful to the student? Once this evaluation has been completed, new instructional objectives should be established, objectives that meet the individual needs of our students.

Second, we must come to understand that in order for instructional strategies to be effective, they must be flexible. Just because self-paced instruction worked well for one group or person does not mean that it will work equally as well for another group or person.

The best description of individualized reading and also individualized instruction that this writer has seen is a quote from an article authored by Leland Jacobs:

Individualized reading is not a single method, but a general approach allowing many variations; that it does not guarantee good results; that it does not eliminate the need for group reading; that it does not support a laissez-faire attitude toward instruction. It can never be effectual in improving students' abilities to read if it becomes a patent procedure, a sentimental devotion, a rite or ceremony, an exclusive ideology, a vacuous symbol, a standardization, a slogan, a dogma . . . Individualized reading actually ceases the moment procedures replace perceptiveness; routine supersedes reflection; things take over for thinking; custom curbs creativity. (4:5)

The critical determinant of teaching success is teaching competency and creativity rather than the system of instruction. (2)

Third, the upper-most thought in our minds must always be, "What is best for the student?" We must strive toward working with each individual student as a partner in fulfilling his needs, because he comes first: his needs, interests, and problems.

Many studies concerning self-paced instruction as compared to other types of instructional systems have found no difference in results between the systems. Some have found progress better in conventional systems. (3) The important point is that no one system of instruction, be it self-paced,

audio-tutorial, lecture, discussion, or whatever, is better than any other system when applied to the total populous of learners.

THE COMPENSATORY EDUCATION PROGRAM AT SOUTH PLAINS COLLEGE

The Compensatory Education Program for students whose educational backgrounds were deficient in skills prerequisite to success in college was instituted. Careful review of the problem revealed that far too many of our students did not possess the necessary skills to complete college level work. Therefore, curricular organization in all classes (Communication Skills, College Reading Skills, Mathematical Skills, American Studies, and Introduction to Physical Science) was centered around developing those skills and at the same time increasing self-confidence and self-discipline.

In order to achieve that goal, instructional objectives for each course were re-evaluated on the basis of the skills that would be needed to gain competency in that particular area. Instructional strategies were also re-structured with the hope that the "learn for a grade" concept could be eliminated, and the "learn for my own betterment" concept could be established. This re-designing, then, entailed the use of many and varied instructional strategies, depending on individual needs, abilities, and problems.

Working with each student as an individual assumed an important role in the goals of the program; however, working with individual students through complete self-pacing was not considered to be essential.

The program was organized so that each instructor was given freedom in using whatever method of instruction best met student needs. If through counseling and extensive diagnostic testing, self-paced instruction is found to be the best method of instruction, appropriate self-paced or audio-tutorial programs are available in all areas of the curriculum. Again, the determining factor is individual needs and abilities as determined by the instructor.

Since the primary objective of the Compensatory Education Program is to build skills prerequisite to college success, the pre-/post-test method is the foundation of the evaluative process. From these tests the program has proven to be very successful. This writer feels that this success is directly attributable to the eclectic approach that has been taken in organizing the instructional systems.

SUMMARY

The intent of this writer was not to say that self-paced instruction should never be used, for it should be; but it should not be viewed as the only approach to solving the problem of individual differences within our classrooms. Students who possess the necessary skills, self discipline, and self concept, seem to do quite well in self paced instruction. But the author

is also convinced that some students are not going to do well because their individual learning needs and capabilities are not suited for self-paced instruction.

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"BUT WHAT ABOUT THE STUDENTS?"

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SUMMARY

This interactive presentation focused the responses of fifteen non-traditional students on the assistance provided by the Citrus College Learning Skills Center during the past five years. Participants included veterans, mature women, physically handicapped students, ex-continuation high school students, minorities, and three students presently attending four-year colleges. Integrating the impact of learning center programs and services on personal and academic development, the group detailed backgrounds, vocational and academic goals, and present goals.

Concurring that the campus Learning Skills Center had become both an entry point and a place to receive continuing support and assistance, students agreed interfacing classroom and laboratory experiences were initially effective with independent study in the laboratory after a semester in classes. Mini-classes, the assistance provided by laboratory aides and student tutors, and the opportunity for a variety of flexibly structured learning experiences contributed to persistence in the college environment. Furthermore, the Center facilitated adjustment to the campus community.

Audience concerns were training and utilization of student staff, development of self-concept, perceived to be positive in these students, and evaluations of transfer students as to the impact of learning center programs on their success at four-year institutions. Perhaps, two-year and four-year colleges ought to design cooperatively, within a learning center framework, special programs to assist the transfer student during his/her initial involvement with upper-division classes. Increasing numbers of non-traditional learners, their variant institutional backgrounds and preparations, and the needs of students for whom academic success is a new and tenuous experience, combine to present problems to the transfer student. Finally, audience response indicated the interactive format provided a meaningful opportunity to explore a range of issues and concerns with students as a resource.

HOLY GRAILS AND MONOGRAPHS

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International Reading Association

Someone once asked me to list the five books which most influenced me as an educator. Not at all tongue-in-cheek, I listed *Chicken Little* first, then *Wynken, Blynken and Nod* and the *Holy Bible*. From that point it remains a toss-up among a whole bunch of books: A. S. Neill's *Summerhill*, *The Return of the Native*, More's *Utopia*, *A Tale of Two Cities*, 1984, *Brave New World*, *The Little World of Don Camillo*, *Huck Finn*, and so on. These latter ones, in fact, probably did not influence me so much as they simply verbalized beliefs, attitudes and ideas that I had already arrived at on my own. But, *Chicken Little*? Pow! That story hit me like the piece of sky that fell on Chicken Little's head. It introduced me to the finiteness of life and physical reality, to the expendability of individual lives within the cosmos, to the unwarranted self-assurance of the adult world, to the imponderable endlessness of the universe that bounds this sky of ours. Did those things, in turn, influence my later career as a teacher? Yes, indeed! Like nothing else!

Perhaps it follows, then, that if I consider *Chicken Little* to be the most influential book in my life as an educator, I should not consider myself an educator. Some critics will certainly notice that neither B. F. Skinner nor Robert Mager, or, since this is a conference of reading instructors, neither William S. Gray nor William H. McGuffey is represented among my top five — or six or seven or what-you-will. How could I possibly call myself an educator when I have failed to include so much of what is considered basic or current to my special field of inquiry?

Many of us will assume that this personal anecdote tells us more about me than it tells us about our topic here today — the tools that people want in education, especially in that educational specialty known as reading. I am not so sure, though, that the assumption is a safe one.

I read recently that there are 435,000 books in print at the present time

in the United States alone. The reference went on to note an estimate that more than 50 million books have gone out of print since books were first invented. Before every one of those 50 million volumes was created, somebody — perhaps no one other than the lonely author himself — believed that here was a book for which there was a definite need. Here was a tool, an answer, an aid that someone else somewhere would want. When I consider the number of manuscripts that never were accepted for publication, that never got turned into one or another of those 50 million books, or even the 435,000 still in print in this nation, I wonder how anyone could possibly ask for more. Some years ago, for instance, I heard that one major publishing firm had rejected 4,000 manuscripts for every one it had published in a given year. Talk about exponential factors! What is it you could possibly want that is not already available?

Of course, if one follows such facts and logic far enough and turns eventually to the question of the specific motivation for publishing a book or article in the first place, one can easily conclude that no one wants a book produced in order to read it; rather, that there are only people who want to write books and, coincidentally, enough buyers with sufficient money to enable the publisher, at least, to stay afloat financially. If readers really knew what they wanted in a book, we would simply need to give them keyboard access to a data bank — the half million words in our language — and a handsome three-ring binder next to the checkout counter, then turn them loose, every soul producing a single copy of *the one book* that will satisfy that soul. There would be no readers, only writers and, maybe, buyers, with the buyers simply a sideline, a coincidence, a byproduct of publishing as an activity.

As potential buyers of books, we have been caught up in a couple of myths. One is the myth of the exponential growth of knowledge — that it doubled between one A.D. and 1500, again between 1500 and 1750, again by 1875, and so forth, and that now it is doubling every few years to the point that specialists cannot keep up with new knowledge even in their own specialties since there are not enough hours in the day to read all that is being produced. (Quick! Quick! Find Evelyn Wood!) Take your pick of the people who have stated such a belief.

In reviewing much of what does and does not get published in one educational specialty, I personally suspect that we are not at all faced with exponential growth of knowledge in our civilization. Growth, yes. Exponential in some few, narrowly defined specialties, probably. But generally exponential — no.

Exponential growth of total printed output is another matter. I have few doubts that the number of woodland acres transformed into bound pages of print is increasing exponentially. More and more pages seem to be printed each year, but how much of the outpouring adds to what has already been known and said? We are almost as a culture and as a profession in the position not of climbing mountains simply because they are there, but of churning out books because the pulpwood is plentiful and the

presses are close at hand. Where presses fail — or turn us down — we turn to Ditto, A. B. Dick, Xerox or IBM. But, publish we will!

The second myth that particularly victimizes those of us in professional education is the myth that we know what we are doing. If we don't know what we are doing, the myth turns on us and tells us that we damned well better know what we are doing for we will be held accountable!

Like any other matters of faith, these two myths shape our lives, especially our professional lives. They make us zealous crusaders, seeking that which we do not know so that we will be able to do better what we are not sure we are doing at all. The quest after the Holy Grail was never more fervent — nor pointless.

All of this must sound quite heretical, coming as it does from one who has within the past year been named to a central position of responsibility in the publishing division of a major professional association dedicated to the promotion of literacy and the improvement of reading instruction everywhere. However, I arrive at similar conclusions, even when I take an altogether different approach to the problem implicit in our topic: What are professionals asking for? What do they want to see in print?

At one level, graduate seminars and study centers, they want research reports, lab reports. They want to know what is going on. "Is somebody discovering something that I don't know about?" On another level, in classrooms from kindergarten through community college, they want to know what works — the green pages from *Early Years*, "How to Use Transactional Analysis in the Reading Lab" (footnoted Dave Capuzzi) — classroom diaries and pedagogical cookbooks, the former for human uplift and release, the latter strictly for business. The all-time bestseller from the International Reading Association's booklist is Kress and Johnson's little volume on *Informal Reading Inventories*.

I wish everyone luck in finding what they seek. In my position I will certainly help them try to find it; I will try to place the Holy Grail in some easily accessible place — a different Holy Grail for every seeker, to whatever extent available resources allow. But, that attempt at wish fulfillment, my official role of trying to fulfill others' wishes, returns me sooner or later, usually near the end of a day near the end of a week near the end of an attempt, to Chicken Little and the really big questions in life and in education.

"We have met the enemy and he is us," said Pogo in the most widely quoted statement of the century. "The kingdom of God is within," said Christ in what is for me an earlier version of Pogo's little observation. They both have said the same thing, as far as I can tell. "Seek ye first the kingdom," "know thyself," however you choose to phrase it. If that kind of response from me to the question of the day sounds like a copout, you will have to forgive me. It is the most truthful response I can offer when I am asked what people are looking for in their professional literature in reading. I am not really sure what it is that people are looking for in their professional literature. I don't have an answer, and I really don't believe

anyone does. Perhaps there are no answers, only the question and the quest. Perhaps settling on an answer is not important or necessary to excellence in education; perhaps only the quest is important.

The quest can have its valuable spin-offs, its bestsellers and gems within the profession, even as Lancelot found his Guinevere. The blessed few among us win fame or find secret magic in this or that spin-off. Some become the saints and apostles of our profession. But, most of us poor sinners, we keep questing after truth, buying books, or writing them, and scanning catalogs. Maybe the search is our reward. After all, Lancelot discovered that Guinevere really belonged to someone else.

Let's get on with the questions.

INDIVIDUALIZED APPROACH TO DEVELOPING INDEPENDENT LEARNERS IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

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The Reading Lab at Ohlone College, Fremont, California, has developed a comprehensive and unique program, which is designed to help students on all levels of ability to become more independent in the learning process. This program or system consists of several interrelated components: eight individualized reading and study skills courses, eighty-one videotapes, and a sixty page-*Tutor's Handbook*. This article describes the main elements of each of these components, their interrelationships and how each assists the individual student to become an independent learner.

COMPONENT ONE: EIGHT INDIVIDUALIZED COURSES

The first step in the construction of this program was the development of eight individualized skill building courses offered in the reading lab. The courses were entitled: Vocabulary Improvement, Skimming and Scanning Techniques, Improvement of Learning Techniques, Speed Reading, Reading Rate Improvement, Improvement of Word Attack Skills, Reading Comprehension Improvement and Spelling Improvement. Each course carries one unit in English, with the exception of the skimming and scanning course which is a half-unit. The student has the option of enrolling in each course for a letter grade or on a credit/no credit basis.

Most of the skill building materials used in these courses are commercially available materials; thus, we are able to structure the courses to be truly multilevel as well as self-pacing. The materials are available to our students in an open lab situation, which allows each student to schedule his required three weekly lab hours to suit his own schedule. (The lab is open from 8:00 A.M. to 9:00 P.M. each week day and we are hoping to open it on weekends next year.) During his first hour in the lab, each student is

pretested with an appropriate standardized test; a posttest is administered at the end of the course to measure the student's progress. The second hour consists of an orientation to the particular course in which the student is enrolled, an explanation of his test results with a list of recommended skill building materials for his use; each student also receives a folder containing the necessary worksheets, guidesheets, and record forms for the course.

COMPONENT TWO: VIDEOTAPES USED IN THE COURSES

Once these eight courses were in operation a major problem or concern became apparent. Because the emphasis in the lab was the individualization of the course of study for each student, the lab personnel found themselves in a situation in which most of their time was devoted to demonstrating and explaining the use of materials and equipment to students. This undesirable situation hindered the instructor, the instructional assistant and student tutors from devoting sufficient time to assisting individual students as their instructional needs arose. Although there were student clerks available in the lab, the quarterly changeover of new clerks and their varying schedules made the attempt to train them on the use of the materials a monumental and frustrating task. Our successful solution to this problem was the production and use of eighty-one videocassette tapes. These videotapes were produced by the reading lab supervisor with the cooperation of the college's audiovisual department and are divided into five categories: 1) orientation, 2) how to use machines, 3) how to use texts, 4) study skills lessons, and 5) tutor training presentations.

For each of the eight courses, there is an orientation tape which presents the student with an explanation of the purposes, procedures, and materials for the course in which he is enrolled. Thus, the student is not restricted to coming at personally inconvenient times for an orientation hour, and late enrollees can be started immediately on their work with minimal interruption of other students who are already working on course materials. The individual instructional assistance being conducted by the reading lab personnel can continue without disturbing interruptions.

The same value applies to the videotapes which demonstrate and explain the use of each machine and programmed text used in the courses. For example, if a student enrolled in the reading rate course is directed to use the controlled reader, he merely obtains the videotape entitled "How-To-Use the Controlled Reader"; the videotape explains the purpose and values of using the machine, how to operate it, and how to use its accompanying materials. The student can easily and conveniently replay any section of a tape if he feels he did not grasp the information the first time or if he wants a clearer understanding of a demonstration. Meanwhile, the reading lab personnel are able to work with students who need individual instruction, testing, encouragement, or counseling.

At the same time, each student is able to receive immediate information and demonstrations on how to use his assigned skill building

materials as he progresses through his individualized program. The use of headphones and the simplicity of operating a videocassette player make the procedure easy and convenient.

COMPONENT THREE: STUDY SKILLS VIDEOTAPES

The fourth category of videotapes, the study skills lessons, is used to reach the college community in general. These videotapes are available in the reading lab for individual and informal use by any student or instructor at Ohlone College. There are presently fifteen tapes which have been produced by the lab supervisor, and they include such topics as: "Setting Up a Study Schedule," "How to Read a Chapter Effectively," "How to Remember Better," "How to Take Essay Exams," and several other common study concerns of students. These videotapes have been well received, and many individual instructors and counselors have viewed them in order to share the study skills suggestions with their classes. Lists of the videotapes have been distributed and their availability to students advertised in the school newspaper. Individual students may come to the reading lab at their convenience to view one or more of those videotapes which suit their needs or concerns. Each videotape has accompanying worksheets, guidesheets, and voluntary check tests so that the student can check his understanding of the information presented.

COMPONENT FOUR: TUTOR TRAINING VIDEOTAPES

Although most of our students in the reading lab are able to proceed through their individualized programs independently with occasional instructional assistance from the lab personnel, each quarter we also identify a percentage of enrollees who need extended tutoring help due to their extremely remedial level. We have found that these seriously remedial readers and non-readers must have the assistance of one-to-one or small group tutoring. In order to meet the special needs of these remedial students we have developed a system of individualized diagnosis and prescription; the core of this system is the series of videotaped lessons used by our specially selected reading tutors.

Once we identify a possible candidate for special tutoring, he is assigned a reading tutor. This identification may occur through a low score on the pretest administered in one of the lab courses, through personal observation by the lab personnel, through the recommendation of a classroom instructor or counselor, or through the initiative of the remedial student himself. Once identified, the student is administered a battery of diagnostic tests designed to locate his specific weaknesses in reading skills, and based on these test results he is prescribed materials designed to remedy these specific needs.

In most instances the actual tests are administered by the tutors who receive training on how to administer each test by the use of the

appropriate videotapes. Of course, it is the lab supervisor who scores and analyzes each test once it is administered. For each program or set of materials prescribed for his tutee, the reading tutor must view the appropriate videotape which explains the purposes of the material and presents a detailed explanation or demonstration on how to use it. During the quarter, as the tutor works directly with the tutee, the lab supervisor periodically conducts discussions with the tutor and tutee to check their progress, change assignments as necessary, and provide guidance and support.

COMPONENT FIVE: THE TUTOR'S HANDBOOK

The fifth major component of this comprehensive program aimed at developing independent learners consists of a sixty page *Tutor's Handbook* developed by the lab supervisor and available for use by the many subject area tutors who are tutoring other students on the campus. The handbook contains several sections, the most important being the sections entitled "Study Skills Suggestions" and "Learning Resources on the Campus." It is stressed to the tutors that their primary responsibility is to assist their tutees in the specific subject in which they will need help. However, it is also emphasized that if the tutors share the study skills suggestions in the handbook with their tutees, they will help the tutees develop into independent learners, which should be the latter's ultimate goal. Before being allowed to take out his copy of the handbook, each tutor must view a videotape which explains the purpose and effective use of the handbook. Several instructors also have used the handbook as a resource book for study skills suggestions to present to their students in class and in personal conferences; the reference librarian has duplicated the section of the handbook describing learning resources in the library and distributes them to students during library orientation presentations. An outline of the *Tutor's Handbook* is presented below.

1. Introductory Section — contains information on how to use the handbook, the table of contents, ten basic principles for working with a tutee with a cartoon to illustrate each principle, and a three page tutor's checklist.
2. Section One: Diagnostic Testing — contains suggestions for informally determining how well the tutee understands his text when reading it and a mathematics diagnostic test to use when appropriate.
3. Section Two: Study Skills Suggestions — contains information on several study skills topics such as "How to Concentrate" and "How to Take Lecture Notes."
4. Section Three: Learning Resources on Campus — contains information on various services, courses and labs on campus designed to help students achieve in college.
5. Section Four: Master Vocabulary List — this is a list of essential

words compiled from lists made available by each department on campus.

6. Appendices A, B, and C — consist of a study habits checklist for tutee's use in analyzing his study habits, a bibliography of books on how to study and a list of the hundred most frequently misspelled words.

CONCLUSION

The program we have in the reading lab at Ohlone College is in operation today with a solid foot in tomorrow. We believe we have started in the right direction to meet the needs of each student through an individualized system which balances the use of technology with the personal and the meeting of specific problems with an awareness of the need to produce a truly independent or self-sufficient learner. We have made improvements in our materials and procedures each year and will continue to do so as we recognize our weaknesses and become aware of more effective ways to help our students.

THE EFFECT OF THE CLOZE PROCEDURE IN TEACHING COMPREHENSION TO CULTURALLY DIFFERENT COLLEGE STUDENTS

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Since Wilson Taylor's (6) article on the cloze procedure appeared in 1953, researchers have been studying its potential for reading instruction. They have also been recommending the experimental use of cloze, based on the assumption that

... by going through the task of completing cloze units, a reader will gain insights into the process of using context, recognizing the interrelationships of language, and consequently improving comprehension skills. (3:5)

Recognizing that this assumption could have implications for teaching comprehension to the culturally different student, this study was an attempt to examine the effect of cloze on reading comprehension of culturally different college students who were in a reading development class.

Specifically, the problem of this study was: Does regular use of the cloze procedure as an instructional technique help to improve the reading comprehension of culturally different college students?

HYPOTHESIS

Culturally different college students in a developmental reading class who have regular instruction in the cloze procedure will score significantly higher in reading comprehension when compared with a similar group of students who do not have instruction in cloze.

RATIONALE FOR THE HYPOTHESIS

Studies have consistently shown that students who come from linguistic backgrounds other than Standard English are likely to experience difficulty

in the use of Standard English. In teaching these students it is important for teachers to accept the language which the student brings to the classroom, however different, and to let it serve as a vehicle for all language learning (2). This is especially true during the early years of schooling. By the time a student reaches college, however, he is preparing for a profession or vocation in which he needs not only to read extensively but is expected to exhibit acceptable language patterns in Standard English. Cloze forces the student to think in the language, which may be especially helpful for the culturally different student.

Reading comprehension pertains to the identification of meaning of words, phrases, sentences and passages as a whole. According to Smith (5), three areas which are crucial in teaching reading comprehension are: vocabulary development, promoting language learning through syntax, and making use of context clues and redundancy. The cloze procedure requires focusing closely on what one is reading. Some of the areas in which cloze instruction may help a student are:

1. developing word meaning skills,
2. forcing the student to rely on the grammatical elements of a sentence, and
3. developing the ability to use context clues.

Since there appears to be a close relationship between the two, the effectiveness of cloze on comprehension was being tested in this study.

VARIABLES

Independent Variable. Instruction in the cloze procedure. In the present study, the cloze procedure is defined as "a method of systematically deleting words from a prose selection and then evaluating the success a reader has in accurately supplying the words deleted" (4:2).

Dependent Variable. Level of comprehension. The level of comprehension was determined by the measures obtained on three subtests of the Iowa Silent Reading Advanced Test: New Edition. Equivalent forms of this test, Form Am and Form Bm, were given as pre-test and post-test, respectively. The particular tests included in the battery were: Test 1C—Comprehension as related to rate; Test 5—Sentence meaning; and Test 6—Paragraph comprehension.

POPULATION AND SAMPLE

Subjects were 20 students enrolled in two sections of Education 320 (Power Reading), a 3 unit course at California State University, Fullerton, taught by the author. The two sections of the class were taught in successive semesters. Enrollment in the classes was voluntary. All but one of the students in the sample were Chicano or Black. The exception was a student in the control group who was from a bilingual background in which German was spoken in the home.

The experimental group (Group 1) and control group (Group 2) consisted of 10 students each. Equivalency of the groups on reading comprehension was established on the basis of pre-test scores. Results of the t-test ($2p < .05$, $df = 18$) showed that there was no significant difference in comprehension between the experimental and control groups at the beginning of the study. Table 1 shows the breakdown of sex, ethnic background, age, and year in college of each group, establishing that the two groups were similar.

TABLE 1
CHARACTERISTICS OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

CHARACTERISTICS	EXPERIMENTAL	CONTROL
Semester Enrolled	Spring 1974	Fall 1973
Sex: Male	6	7
Female	4	3
Ethnic Background: Chicano	7	8
Black	3	1
Other	0	1
Age Range: Under 20	2	2
20-22	4	5
23-25	2	1
Over 25	2	2
Year In College: Freshman	3	2
Sophomore	2	3
Junior	3	3
Senior	2	2

Experimental Group N = 10

Control Group N = 10

TASKS PERFORMED BY BOTH GROUPS

Both groups had the same instruction except for cloze. The total instruction period was 15 weeks for 3 hours a week, a total of 45 hours. Classes met alternate days. The classroom and instructor were the same for both groups. The class activities included:

1. Training in developing reading rate through the use of pacers, reading films and timed essays;
2. Regularly responding to comprehension questions following the reading exercises;
3. Tachistoscopic training, to develop visual discrimination, accuracy and memory retention;

4. Development of critical reading skills;
5. Instruction in study skills through lecture, discussion, individual instruction, and assigned reading.

CLOZE INSTRUCTION

Group 1, in addition to the above tasks, was given instruction in the cloze procedure. Exercises were administered to the students at the rate of one every other week. Each was a 50-item cloze exercise of a 350 word passage, using an every 7th word deletion pattern. The deletion was replaced by a 15 space line. The answers were recorded directly in the cloze passages. Contractions and hyphenated words were counted as one word. All punctuation was retained. To provide orientation to the context of each passage, the first and last sentences were left intact. In scoring, only the exact replacement of the deleted words was counted as correct. The passages were taken from materials of high motivational value including articles from Readers' Digest and books such as, *The Autobiography of Malcolm X* and *Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee*. The exercises were corrected and scored by the students themselves.

Following the scoring exercises, there were oral discussions in which the entire class participated, either in small groups or as a total class. During these discussions the students were encouraged to talk about their errors and analyze them. They discussed their reasons for using the words they did, the kinds of errors they made, and some of the difficulties they encountered. These discussions seemed to help the students in enhancing their vocabulary skills, through analyzing their choice of words and comparing them with the authors'. The discussions also enabled the students to analyze two other important aspects of reading comprehension: the way in which they used context clues to aid comprehension, and the importance of using correct syntax in completing sentences.

In addition to the exercises described above, the students in group 1 were assigned a textbook on college reading and study skills. This text consists of 25 chapters, each of which is followed by a 50-item cloze test designed to test the student's comprehension of that chapter. The students were assigned to complete the tests, correct and score them. The records showed that not all students completed all of the tests. Moreover, time did not permit class discussions of these tests. However, individual conferences were held if the need was indicated.

DATA ANALYSIS

The hypothesis was tested statistically by the t test, by comparing the means of the gains of group 1 and 2 on each of the three subtests. The $p < .05$ level of significance was used, and $df = 18$. The critical value of t was 2.101.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

As seen in Table 2, the results of the t test show no significant difference in gain in reading comprehension between the experimental and control groups.

TABLE 2
COMPARISONS BETWEEN PRETEST AND POST-TEST SCORES
FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS
ON SUBTESTS 1C (COMPREHENSION), 5 (SENTENCE MEANING),
AND 6 (PARAGRAPH COMPREHENSION):
IOWA SILENT READING ADVANCED TEST

GROUP	MEAN GAIN	S.D.	t
Subtest 1C			
Experimental	17.7	10.7	.79*
Control	12.4	18.4	
Subtest 5			
Experimental	12.4	16.5	1.19*
Control	3.8	15.9	
Subtest 6			
Experimental	18.9	12.7	-.64*
Control	23.1	16.3	

Experimental Group N = 10

*Critical Value t = 2.101

Control Group N = 10

CONCLUSIONS

The major conclusions resulting from this study were:

1. Students in both sample groups, those who had cloze instruction and those who did not, scored higher in reading comprehension, as measured on the three subtests of the Iowa Silent Reading Advanced Test, at the end of the instruction period.

2. Students who received cloze did not score significantly higher in reading comprehension than those who did not receive cloze.

An additional conclusion, based on the instructor's analyzing of the types of errors made by the cloze group, was that students made decreasing numbers of errors in syntax and in failure to use context.

The reader is reminded that the conclusions of this study are limited in generalizability to populations which are similar to the sample population.

INTERPRETATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

One of the limitations of this study might have been the failure to maximize the cloze instruction. What might the results have been if the experimental group had been given cloze instruction under supervision two or three times a week, for example, instead of once every other week?

An alternate interpretation is that training in rate development, which was an important part of the instruction in the course, is antithetical to the cloze procedure. In cloze, one sacrifices attention to speed to attention to detail.

Extensions of the present study, with college students of all backgrounds, are strongly recommended. Larger samples could be used; cloze could be made a more integral part of the instruction; and concurrent training in reading rate could be assigned as a moderator variable and manipulated to determine its effects on comprehension as it interacts with cloze instruction.

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A CONFLUENT READING/WRITING FUNDAMENTALS CURRICULUM

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Every good teacher knows that the learning which takes place in his (her) classroom is a function of aptitude and attitude. What the student learns is determined in part by what he thinks, and in part by how he feels about the subject, the learning process going on, and himself. There is sufficient evidence, both informal and empirical, to corroborate this position (2, 6, 7, 10). Attitudes significantly affect the acquisition of measurable skills. They are important even if we define learning as a "change in behavior." And if our definition of learning is extended to embrace also the idea that learning is a "change in perception," then the student's attitudes become the very stuff of the learning process.

Attitudes, feelings, values — these evanescent entities, difficult to define ontologically, and even more difficult to measure empirically — are generally categorized under the rubric of "affect." For the purpose of this discussion, it is convenient to consider the learning process as an integration of two processes: affective and cognitive.

Most language arts fundamentals courses will deal specifically with cognitive relationships in the form of reading, writing, and study skills. Yet the student's values, concerns, and feelings are always present. Sometimes they assist in the learning process; frequently they impede it; rarely are they an intentionally structured component of a curriculum; almost never are they seen as objectives in themselves.

Confluent education holds that any learning involves the affective as well as the cognitive domain. Affective components are present in the student, in the subject matter, and in the relationship between the two. It is the purpose of this discussion to indicate how affect and cognition can be brought into meaningful relationship, or "confluence," in the classroom lessons which teach reading and writing. The processes used are group

dynamics and Gestalt awareness exercises. The tools are reading and writing; the materials are standard curriculum materials, and the interests and concerns are almost universally identifiable in students. The result is an improvement in study habits, teacher acceptance, and self-concept.

CONFLUENT LANGUAGE ARTS PROGRAM

The first postulate for a Confluent Reading/Writing Program using an approach promulgated by Weinstein and Fantini (4) and Newburg and Borton (3) holds that just as a student can learn about reading, writing, or math, subjects which are "outside," so can he become aware of and learn to deal rationally with his own concerns and interests, subjects which are "inside." These concerns are generally defined as lying within the parameters of identity, connectedness, and power.

Identity concerns are defined as those dealing with a person's sense of worth, self-image, and self-esteem. They deal with "Who am I?" and "What am I worth?" (5:4) Connectedness concerns involve aspects of behavior dealing with a sense of positive affiliation with others. They raise the questions "To whom do I belong?" "Who are the significant others?" (5:5) Power issues are those aspects of behavior aimed at providing the person with a sense of influence over what is going on in his life. (5:5)

The second theorem for a Confluent Language Arts Program derives from Gestalt therapy. Fritz Perls defines Gestalt psychology as "field theory" psychology. According to this theory, the perception of a thing takes place not by itself, but within a "field" which contains its opposite. The perception of day is realizable only by the existence of night; the emergence of a clock on the wall is possible only by an awareness of the wall, or what is "non-clock." The part can be defined only in relationship to the whole. (9)

As Wallen points out, Perls applied this theory of perception to organic perceptions and feelings. (13) Living is seen as a continual process of completing Gestalten. The example Perls gives is that of a person reading a book. The book is the figure, the reader's body is the background. As he reads, he becomes aware that he is thirsty. The sensation of thirst in his throat now emerges as figural, and the book becomes part of the background. Perhaps our reader now imagines a glass of water. He gets up, satisfies his thirst, and returns to his reading. His actions have been determined by his need, the need of his organism to be in a state of balance, a state of wholeness. Thus, needs organize both perception and behavior.

In the current discussion, Gestalt awareness is the vehicle through which the student becomes aware of not *what*, but also *how* he goes about knowing. Hence, the learning process, which includes learning how to read and write, is seen as not just an end in itself, but as a vehicle for self-knowledge.

The third postulate for a Confluent Language Arts Curriculum is group dynamics. "Group dynamics" is the term for that aspect of human relations

which deals with the interaction among members of a group. Traditionally, a "group" is defined as a collection of individuals. In a typical group dynamics situation, intra-personal growth, or growth within the individual, is facilitated through feedback from other members of the group. This feedback includes the perceptions and intuitions of these individuals.

A second way in which group dynamics leads to intra-personal growth involves the integrating of selves. Shapiro (11) and Assigioli (1) also conceive of the group as a set of separate selves or sub-personalities within the individual. One's subpersonalities may be, but usually are not, in total accord with one another. By identifying and rationally dealing with such selves, the individual can become more "integrated" or, in Gestalt terms, more "whole." Here the term "group dynamics" comes to mean the interaction among separate selves within the same individual.

These three theorems can now be brought together in the form of two Confluent reading and writing lessons.

Lesson 1: Reading

Students are divided into groups of four. Each is given the following list of "conversation starters":

Directions: Whenever you feel ready, any member of the group can read any statement he feels like reading. Don't feel you have to stick to these. Use them as a basis or springboard for discussion. Be spontaneous. Be funny. Be honest.

On vacations, I like to . . .

If I had an extra \$50 I would . . .

If I ran the schools I would . . .

One thing I like most about school is . . .

When I'm alone I usually . . .

The worst teacher I ever had . . .

I get angry when . . .

The best teacher I ever had . . .

When I enter a new group in school I feel . . .

I'm most happy in school when . . .

In school, I do worst when . . .

Tests are . . .

I trust teachers who . . .

Finally, as a *group*, list five things you would do if you had complete charge of running a school.

Reading assignment: Read the essay in your text that gives one man's opinion concerning education.

Lesson 2: Writing

Pick an object in the room that interests you. Imagine yourself as that object. Now, write the words, phrases, or ideas which describe how you appear on the "outside": color, size, shape, function. When you have finished, write the words and phrases

which describe how you feel on the "inside": what you like, what you do, what you don't like.

Break into groups of four. Share your perceptions and ideas. Stay in the present tense in describing yourself: "I am the . . .", "I like . . ."

Continuing in your groups, address yourself to the question, "How many of the qualities attributed to the object can I 'own' as my own?"

Writing assignment: Take the ideas and words generated in your discussion and description and organize them into an outline. Turn this outline into an essay.

The first lesson deals with reading skills. It also develops personal growth. This is accomplished through both content and process. The content of the reading lesson is organized to allow the student to make a personally relevant connection between himself and the material to be read. In so doing, it deals with not merely what the author says, but how that is relevant to the self. Hence, it catalyzes an interaction between the author's concerns with education and the student's concerns with his own education, as these are related to identity and power. A convenient way of looking at the relationship is provided by Harmon and Simon (12): 1) Values clarification — To what extent am I concerned with my success in school? How do I deal with frustrations to this success? 2) Conceptual — This is a concern for identity and power which others experience. 3) Factual — The author of the article thinks grades, tests, and incompetent teachers should be abolished. It is noted here that we are working from the student's concerns to the curriculum material. In moving from values clarification and the student's internal referencing system, we are using the essay as a source of information for, and feedback about the self. At the same time, the very process involved in the interpersonal dynamics of the group use of conversation starters deals with the concern of connectedness.

The second exercise deals with writing skills. It also deals with personal growth. By imagining himself as an object in the room, the student is projecting a part of his personality into that object. For Perls (9:128-133), a projection is a part of one's self. Projections create "holes" in the personality. The part of himself which the student projects in this exercise may not be a part which he generally disowns. Nevertheless, the basic process that deals with "re-owning" the projection is available for personal growth. This is the process of integrating attention with awareness. In this exercise, it consists first of owning (role playing) the projections, and then abstracting or cognizing the experience. This second step is accomplished through discussion and writing. In terms of the group dynamics discussion given earlier, these projections are of the same nature as subpersonalities. By dealing with them rationally the student becomes more "whole," more "integrated," more "aware" of himself.

CONCLUSIONS

In these two lessons, it is seen that the traditional reading and writing components of a language arts curriculum can become vehicles for self-knowledge and personal growth. By dealing with the concerns for identity, connectedness, and power, and by applying the process of Gestalt and Group Dynamics, classroom lessons can develop not only cognitive skills, but the student's human potential.

The three theorems of the Confluent Language Arts Curriculum have been empirically tested. The lessons here, and similar lessons, were used in a Reading/Writing Fundamentals Curriculum given to a group of low-achieving students during a six-week Summer Session at a community college. A control group was given a curriculum identical in every respect, except that the affective component was not intentionally structured. Pre- and post-tests were given to both groups. In comparison with the control group, the treatment group showed improvements in reading comprehension, work methods, and teacher approval. It showed significant improvements in self-concept. (8) Thus, it is possible to develop both learning skills and human potential within the same curriculum.

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ALTERNATIVE LEARNING AND READING

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Pima College opened to 3,728 students in September, 1970, with most facilities housed in temporary quarters and a portion located at a partially completed campus. All college programs were moved to a 273-acre campus site on West Anklam Road in January, 1971.

In order to meet rapidly growing enrollments, a downtown Tucson campus was opened in September, 1974, and plans are being made to establish a satellite campus at a southeast side site after 1975.

College enrollments, by the spring of 1974, reached 12,176 students, and it is anticipated the number will grow to 14,100 in the fall of 1974 with 8,083 on the West Campus, 2,041 at the downtown satellite campus and the remainder in off-campus classes.

PROGRAM INFORMATION

The Reading area functions as an independent, academic area within the General Studies division, and its "status" is that of any other subject area.

The catalog description is a general statement which has helped students select reading courses.

REA 100 Reading Improvement / 4 cr. hrs / 4 periods

All students should register for REA 100 series which is composed of three levels. Level placement for each student is determined by diagnostic testing and teacher evaluation after enrollment. Classes meet four hours a week but special schedules can be arranged for students who would otherwise have a class conflict. Non-native speakers of English should see English as a Second Language. Group and individual instruction emphasizes vocabulary, comprehension, study skills, and reading speed in each of the three levels

which are REA 100—Reading Improvement; REA 101—Developmental Reading; REA 102—Critical Reading.

Within the course design there are three levels of reading—improvement, developmental, critical—which form the core offerings. Through an in-area sub-division of these three levels, students can obtain aid at a level of need.

All students are given the Nelson-Denny test, Form A for placement, which is generally based on the comprehension score. Form B is used as the post test.

The area has approved the following minimum requirements, adopted January, 1975, for the Reading 100 Series:

1. 25 to 100 controlled readings (number determined by instructor).
2. Completion of the assigned text.

Options: In addition to area requirements, individual instructors may assign work as they see a need. This work could include:

1. Various kits
2. Outside timed readings or eye exercises
3. Tach-X or Flash-X
4. Tapes
5. Study skill application
6. Efficiency checks
7. Teacher materials
8. Vocabulary development books (context clues)
9. Spelling 1500 units
10. Reading for understanding.

PERSONNEL

The staff consists of (1) a combination instructor/coordinator, (2) full-time faculty and (3) associate (part-time) faculty. The original five full-time faculty was increased to six. Associate faculty vary from five to eight as needed. The total teaching staff in Reading varies between eleven to fourteen faculty.

The faculty load per week is currently 16 credit hours (4 classes at 4 credit hours). Originally the faculty load was 14.8 (4 classes at 3.7 credit hours).

Besides teaching sixteen hours a week, the faculty is involved with students—having individual conferences, tutoring, calling those who are absent, rearranging schedules, etc. A great amount of public relations work is done for other areas of the college (giving demonstrations to classes, doing readability checks on textbooks, explaining the reading program to both faculty and students). All of these activities are performed at the request of the specific group involved.

THE "OFF-SPRING"

In striving for the "ideal" the area has sought expansion, and it is through the Alternative Learning Center (ALC) that this goal has been partially achieved.

The Alternative Learning Center provides individualized instruction in various subject areas. Designed to supply alternative methods of learning, the center uses individualized, modular, multi-media and personal methods to aid learning. The center can be used to obtain tutoring and supplemental help for classes or may provide complete course work in some areas. Students are allowed to work through subjects at their own pace.

The ALC is the result of a grant, received Spring 1973, for the purpose of establishing a center which provides alternative methods of learning in writing, math, reading ESL, and study skills. Counseling services are also provided.

In the Fall '73, emphasis was given to the preparation of skill modules series which are to be offered as credit courses in the ALC. The modules developed and/or being completed are

1. Study skills
2. Comprehension skills
3. Phonetic skills
4. Spelling
5. Vocabulary.

Currently, module development is in planning for

1. Speed reading
2. Content area reading

In developing the modules, we participated in a Curriculum Development Workshop. These modules were divided into six major areas:

1. Identifying Instructional Modules

In most school settings the curriculum is divided into programs and the programs into courses. Instruction development in this workshop will consist of refining courses into units called *modules* and developing objectives, measures, and instruction for these modules.

A. Modules: Divide the course into blocks of content or competencies upon which student performances will be assessed.

1. Divide the number of modules on the basis of (1) desired length of testing periods, (2) amount to be learned in each module, (3) natural divisions in the course content and/or homogeneity of content.
2. Limit the number of modules per course to a manageable number (from 4 to 10 in a 16 week semester).

B. Time: Establish time periods for each module.

1. Establish time periods on (1) the amount to be learned and the amount of material to be covered and (2) student report periods established by the school.
2. If desired, specify "regular" and "minimum" pacing schedules.

- C. Format: Construct a simplified course display format.
1. Name and number the modules that make up the course.
 2. (Optional) Describe the module in one or two sentences.
 3. (Optional) List the time schedule for completing each module.

II. Writing Module Specifications

The module specification is a brief (one page) overview of the functional parts of the curriculum: learning outcome, performance measures, and instruction. These specifications guide further developments and facilitate review of curriculum at the course level.

A. Heading (optional)

1. Course: Name the course in which the module is taught.

B. Learning Outcomes

1. Response(s): Describe what students will be expected to do.
2. Conditions (optional): Describe the situations in which the students perform.
3. Content: Describe the concepts and principles the students are to learn.

C. Measures

1. Materials: Name the type(s) of measure(s) that will be used to assess student performance. Describe how and where the students' performance will be recorded.
2. Sample item: Write a sample item(s) that could be used to assess the performance(s) described above.

D. Instruction

1. Resources: Name or describe any resources that will be used to provide information to the student or provide the occasion for practicing the competencies described in the objectives and assessed in the measures.
2. Procedures: Describe how the resources will be used. Indicate the sequence of student-teacher activities that will develop student competence.

E. Entry Skills (optional)

Indicate any instructional modules that should be completed before working on this module.

III. Writing Instructional Objectives

Each module should have a limited number of instructional objectives to be attained. These objectives should be specified as precisely and unambiguously as possible. The objectives will be used to guide the design of the performance measures and the instructional assignments.

A. Objectives (initial): Write several instructional objectives that describe the learning outcomes for each module.

1. The objectives may be inferred from
 - (a) instructional resources and activities
 - (b) existing test materials
 - (c) occupational task analysis
 - (d) curriculum descriptions

2. Reduce the number of objectives per module to four or less by combining related objectives into a single more complex performance.
3. If desired, identify "required" and "optional" objectives.
- B. Format: Construct a simplified display of each module's objectives.
 1. Identify the course and module in which the objectives belong.
 2. Number each objective so that performance measures and learning resources can be indexed to them.
 3. (Optional) Write all of the objectives for each module on a single page.

IV. Preparing Student Performance Measures

Performance measures should require the student to perform under the conditions described in the module objectives. Good performance measures enable the instructor to identify low achieving students. They can also provide information about the adequacy of instruction.

V. Preparing Instructional Assignments

Instructional materials and procedures should provide the student with the necessary information to perform the behaviors specified in the module objectives. Also, appropriate practice opportunities must be provided with sufficient frequency to insure that the student will be able to perform at the desired level when the instruction is concluded. The main components of well-designed instructional assignments keyed directly to module objectives are described below.

A. Student Assignments:

1. Resources: Identify the specific sources of information required by the learner to perform the behavior(s) specified in the objectives. Identify specific sources of materials that will provide appropriate practice of the desired behavior. (Optional) Identify additional practice for those students not reaching the specified performance level on a specific source of objective.
2. Procedures: Describe precisely how the learner should use the resources identified to attain the objectives. Describe procedures for obtaining knowledge of results that confirms and reinforces correct responses during instruction.
3. Format: Prepare and easy-to-read assignment sheet for the student's use.
 - (a) Identify the course and module in a heading.
 - (b) Briefly describe the purpose or objective of the assignment.
 - (c) List specific procedures the student should follow.
 - (d),(Optional) List specific resources that are used in the assignments.

B. Instructor Activities:

1. Materials: Identify or describe the information required by the instructor to successfully use the resources described above. (Optional) Describe any materials necessary for training the instructor in using the prescribed resources.

2. **Procedures:** Identify and/or describe the content for any instruction the instructor must produce (e.g. lectures, handouts). Describe clear, complete and easy-to-follow directions and procedures for instructor implementation of the activities and materials related to each objective in the module.

VI. Preparing Record Keeping and Reporting Materials

A well-designed instructional module should include a system for recording and reporting to the individual student his performance on each module objective. In evaluating the adequacy of instruction, it is frequently desirable to obtain—in addition to the performance data—measures reflecting the attitudes of individual students toward the module objectives, measures, and instructional assignments.

A. **Student Performance Monitoring:** Prepare an easy-to-use record keeping and reporting system.

1. **Record keeping:** Construct a format that will indicate clearly each student's performance on each objective. (Optional) Provide for recording "retakes" on particular performance measures.
2. **Reporting:** Construct a performance reporting format that will indicate to the individual student (1) his score on each objective and (2) the specific objectives for which he has not attained mastery.

B. **Course Evaluation (Optional):** Determine specific objectives, measures, or instructional assignments that need to be revised.

1. **Student affect assessment:** Construct an instrument for collecting affective data from individual students that relates specifically to module objectives, measures, and instructional assignments.
2. **Instructional Revision:** Identify specific module objectives for which instruction should be revised; describe revisions of materials and/or assignments likely to enhance student performance and affect with respect to those objectives.

The Alternative Learning Center is both separate from and an extension of the reading program at Pima Community College.

Through its separateness it can reach more students, provide alternative methods of learning, and offer tutorial help while as an extension of the reading program it possesses the ability to give supplemental or extended work in the various reading skills.

HELPING STUDENTS PREPARE FOR QUALIFYING EXAMS

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Increasing numbers of students are seeking help from Learning Centers on preparing for professional school admission exams: Graduate Record Exam (GRE), Law School Aptitude Test (LSAT), Aptitude Test for Graduate Schools of Business (ATGSB), Medical College Admission Test (MCAT), National Teachers Exam (NTE), etc. Test makers and others have long perpetuated the myth that these are true aptitude tests which cannot be prepared for. This myth is repeatedly deflated when we have students who take an exam and don't do well the first time, but after a few months of assiduous effort, manage to score significantly higher on a second testing.

FACTORS INFLUENCING PERFORMANCE

What are the factors in addition to basic intelligence, which can influence the outcome on these standardized tests? Familiarity with the format of the exam and type of question likely to be encountered is very important. Taking a mock exam under timed conditions is often a helpful starting point for a student who wishes to check his strength and weakness. Working speed is a vital consideration. Some students are perfectionists and work very slowly. Hence a low score would indicate a time management problem rather than a lack of ability. Anxiety level during the test is often a significant aspect inhibiting an individual's performance.

SKILLS TESTED

The skills tested tend to be in two general categories for most qualifying exams, verbal and math. The verbal sections usually test a broad knowledge of vocabulary (facility with synonyms and antonyms), an ability to work logically with analogies and an ability to comprehend and interpret complex reading passages. Some people, especially those in the sciences,

have had little experience with synonym or antonym exercises or analogies. Practice in these areas can help broaden the student's facility with language and promote better scores in reading comprehension as well as in the general vocabulary sections of the tests. It seems beneficial to encourage a long-term vocabulary development program stressing structural work with roots and prefixes as well as a one-word-a-day approach to mastering words in context. Several exams (GRE and LSAT) also include sections testing facility with English grammatical structure. Reading comprehension passages usually test students' ability to find main ideas and to draw inferences, so practice materials in these areas are often recommended.

The math sections of most of the tests require basic algebra, geometry and simple computational skills. Brushing up on basic formulas is helpful here. However, the ATGSB and the LSAT require some sophistication with data interpretation on graphs and charts.

In addition to verbal and math skills, some tests require background in certain areas. For example, MCAT and DAT (Dental Admission Test) cover basic knowledge in chemistry, biology, and general science. MCAT also includes questions on physics. If students haven't had these courses recently, a systematic review of this material would be useful. General cultural information questions appear in some exams (MCAT, NTE) but because of a broad scope which covers a wide range of information, historical and current, these sections are difficult to prepare for.

PROGRAM APPROACHES

Most preparation programs are designed to familiarize students with the test directions and question patterns in order to decrease anxiety level and increase self confidence. Working on sample materials seems to be helpful in doing that, and also, in developing accuracy and increasing working speed. Hints on exam strategy can also be useful. In addition, some learning centers (e.g., University of Texas at Austin) have special anxiety reduction programs focusing on techniques of positive thinking, relaxation, etc. The aim is not to give the student the edge on those that haven't prepared (though it usually does that), but to help the student maximize his own potential. A variety of approaches is used to accomplish this goal. Most are offered through reading or learning centers and range from one-to-one individual counseling sessions to group sessions and seminars. A few even offer longer courses.

LOOKING TO THE FUTURE

Several issues were raised at the close of this institute which might stimulate further discussion on this topic. First, it seems there is still a need for more opportunities to discuss specific techniques and exchange more materials. Second, what about the evaluation of our programs? Most of us rely primarily on subjective feed back to get an indication of usefulness. It

seems that here is a fertile area for collection of more data to support our contention that we are really helping students. Third, what about the meritocracy we are inadvertently perpetuating by offering such programs? Is this an issue that deserves further philosophic exploration?

The following is a list of panelists who are willing to share more specific information and/or materials:

ATGSB — Carrie Walker, Learning Assistance Center, Stanford University

LSAT — Idell Holbert, Learning Skills Center, UCLA

MCAT — Percy Russell, Biology Department, UCSD

GRE — Conner Hall, Reading & Study Skills Lab, University of Texas

NTE or LSAT — Mike Hardie, Student Learning Center, UC Berkeley

Math (all tests) — Fred Hollander, Learning Skills Center, UCLA.

HELP FOR HURRIED STUDENTS: WALK-IN, EXAM CENTER AND FOCUS GROUPS

Clare Reinhardt
University of Texas at Austin

INTRODUCTION

The staff of the Reading and Study Skills Laboratory at the University of Texas at Austin have learned that finding titles for our programs, classes and various services is a thorny and persistent problem. Maybe this is dismaying, considering that we purport to be in the vocabulary "biz" among other professional concerns. On the other hand it could be regarded as an encouraging symptom, indicating that we are frequently revising and adjusting our programs to meet student needs, that we are not afraid to experiment.

In the early years of RASSL most of the students we worked with were enrolled in a class. Classes were popular and well-filled, but we wondered about the students who might want help in learning techniques but either didn't know about our existence (and we didn't know anything about them either) or were turned off by the almost-correct belief that just about all we had to offer was classes.

Our increasing curiosity about the students we didn't see coincided in a general way with two other significant factors: (1) our staff was growing in numbers and in versatility of interests and capabilities and (2) our office and teaching facilities were moved across the campus to larger if more remote headquarters.

We are continuing to explore options which present alternatives to classes and I'd like to briefly describe three of these.

WALK-IN SERVICE

Our Walk-In Service has always existed in some version but we haven't used that term for it until quite recently and it would appear to be stolen

from the Counseling Center's older use of the term. As you would assume from the name (we devoutly hope) it indicates that a staff person is available for consultation at any time during Walk-In hours. At present this is nine to four on Monday, Wednesday and Friday, eleven to six on Tuesday and Thursday.

An example of the way this might work is a student might bring a text on which he's being tested in a few days and he's a good many chapters behind in the reading assignment. He might want some tips on covering the material in a limited time, or how to review the material for the test, or both. He may have fifteen minutes or an hour to spend in the office but whoever's on Walk-In would try to present as much relevant information as possible. Or the student might start talking about the textbook but soon branch off into a discussion of the pressure he is feeling in taking eighteen academic hours and working at a job for twenty hours a week. We might refer him to his academic advisor, encourage him to visit the Financial Aids Office, or the Counseling Center. But these suggestions would be subsidiary to any help we might offer on the more immediate problem.

EXAM CENTER

The second of our speedy services is the Exam Center, a seasonal service which appears toward the end of each semester in the foyer of our Undergraduate Library. This library is across the campus from our office so one of the favorable side-effects is the fact that we see a somewhat different population.

Basically we offer from our RASSL booth mimeographed information on those skills most closely tied to preparing for and taking final exams; we also make available one-to-one consultation. Mimeographed information sheets include tips on efficient text reading, how to organize materials for review, time scheduling, memory, test-taking techniques for essay and objective tests, and a step-by-step guide for writing papers. The majority of students who stop at the Exam Center pick up and ask for the various mimeos instead of requesting consultation. For a good many it's the first contact with our service.

We have experimented with slides and synchronized sound track step-by-step instruction on how to review, organize, and prepare for testing, all in about fifteen minutes. Many students were attracted to the slide show but seldom watched it through its complete sequence. We now use a slide show with taped music but it functions primarily as an attraction.

We set up the booth and maintain its operation through the "reading period" or no class days into the beginning of final exams. The schedule includes evening hours until nine or ten for the convenience of the many students who use the library at night.

FOCUS GROUPS

Another kind of fast-service aspect of our program is the Focus Group. Focus Groups are small, informal discussion groups meeting just once for about an hour to cover basic aspects of a pre-announced topic. Throughout the fall and spring semesters we have offered every week, at least once, groups on: Text-Reading Efficiency, Taking Lecture Notes, and Time Management and Concentration. Offered once or twice in the month are Vocabulary Improvement, Test-Preparation and -Taking, Writing Papers, and a session on one of the major Graduate Entrance Exams, such as the Graduate Record Exam, Medical College Admissions Test, Law School Admissions Test.

In February the Focus Groups included: Reviewing for First-Year Spanish Midterms (co-led by a RASSL staff member and an instructor from the Spanish department), Term Paper Preparation (a group held in the Undergraduate Library and co-led with a reference librarian), How to Study History, Dealing with Self-Paced Courses, and Spelling Improvement.

In March we offer a group called Student Rights; a few years ago we would have anticipated information on how to organize a protest march. Now this meeting turns out to be about styles of appropriate self-assertion in the academic setting.

We do not know how many students will ever appear or what their interest in the topic may be. It is a stimulating experience to try to quickly assess those expectations and then to present those skills and information which seem most appropriate. Often under the questioning of a group which participates actively we find ourselves condensing, formulating, encapsulating information in new ways that sometimes can emerge in innovative and freshly satisfying forms, so again, we have learned valuable teaching modes from our students.

All of these short term instructional or information services described have an additional function that is valuable: they frequently serve as a lead in to longer and, in many instances, more effective kinds of skills development, either in our classes, in the Self Help Lab, or in ongoing consultation with an instructor. The Focus Groups in particular often act as clarifiers; they can help someone narrow down and make specific the problem that is pressing him the hardest and give him some indication of which particular skill might be worth spending time and effort on for improving. Especially for the student who is skeptical about our service in general and reluctant to commit himself to time or energy investment, these short term options provide a reasonable mode of his finding out more about us and the way we might be of help to him.

PHYSICAL MASTERY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Peggy Reynolds
San Joaquin Delta College

INTRODUCTION

This program is designed with two purposes in mind: (1) to assist the adult immigrant in acquiring the ability to produce the various English speech sounds so that he or she can speak English intelligibly; and (2) to relieve the ESL teacher of some of the frustrations and time consuming aspects of teaching pronunciation.

Although most ESL manuals acknowledge (usually in the preface) the importance of the English sound system, none, to my knowledge, focus on the physiological aspects of the articulation of each speech sound. The instructor is expected to be able to draw the speech mechanism depicting the position of the articulators during the production of various sounds; or to be able to show the student, by way of mirrors, tongue depressors, etc., the position of the articulators. Drawing the speech mechanism each time speech-sound is introduced is extremely time consuming and is based on the assumption that most instructors can draw a reasonable facsimile of the speech mechanism. It is also assumed that ESL instructors are cognizant of the factors involved in speech-sound production. "Physical Mastery of the English Language" should eliminate the necessity of drawing the speech mechanism and observing the articulators at close range. Hopefully this program will serve as a useful supplementary aid to those teaching English as a Second Language.

DESCRIPTION

The primary objective of this program is to teach the adult immigrant to discriminate and articulate English speech sounds so that he or she is able to participate in oral communication with the English speaking community.

Initially the student is introduced to six symbols which will be used throughout the program (see Figure 1). The symbols represent voicing, unvoicing, sound, spelling, direction of air-flow and dictionary pronunciation. The symbols are accompanied by suggestions on how to explain these symbols to the non-English speaking person.

Physiological diagrams, language master cards and tapes† are utilized in teaching articulation and discrimination of English speech sounds. The diagrams are on eight by eleven inch cards, and show the position of the articulators (tongue, lips, etc.), direction of the breath stream, and phonation involved in the production of each sound. The diagram is accompanied by vocabulary words, and the various spellings for the target sound (see Figure 2). Each vocabulary word is recorded on a Language Master card containing a picture of the word. In addition the word is written in IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet), English spelling, and the dictionary pronunciation is given. Each tape is divided into three parts: (1) auditory discrimination exercises, focusing on the target sound; (2) auditory discrimination exercises incorporating new and previously learned sounds; and (3) exercises that incorporate auditory and visual perception, i.e., auditory recognition of the "f" sound while reading a sentence such as: There are not enough telephones for all of the people in Fresno. The tapes contain two tracks (student and instructor), so the student can record his own pronunciation as he is doing the auditory discrimination exercises. A self-programmed student manual is provided with the tapes.

The instructional aids included in the program are

1. On the reverse side of each diagram are directions for the production of the sound, suggestions for presentation to the students and a list of common spellings for each sound (1).
2. A vowel diagram and a consonant chart with an explanation of each (2).
3. A key to some of the most difficult sounds for students of various languages (3).
4. A key to the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) (3).

The International Phonetic Alphabet was chosen because the Spanish speaking person is familiar with IPA, and because of my own familiarity with this method.

In order to simplify the program, only those symbols which represent General American speech sounds have been included. General American is spoken by everyone in the United States except by those living in the New England States, the States of the old Southern Confederacy, and Kentucky (1).

The order in which the sounds are introduced is based on the desire to make the program more meaningful to the ESL student. Therefore, sounds that share a common feature are presented together in a vowel/consonant

†The tapes will be available if the program is marketed.

sequence, i.e.: front vowels (five sounds—one diagram); plosives or stops (six sounds—three diagrams); fricatives (nine sounds—five diagrams); and so on. In each case only vocabulary words containing vowel sounds that have previously been introduced are presented.

There are a total of forty-six sounds, including the three distinctive diphthongs and the r-colored diphthongs, and approximately four hundred vocabulary words are included in the program.

There seem to be an adequate number of ESL programs available for practice in pronunciation and auditory discrimination. However, I am not aware of any ESL material or programs that provide a physiological diagram for each American English sound.

SYMBOLS

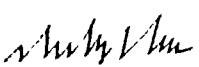
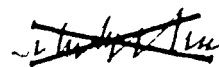

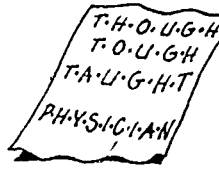
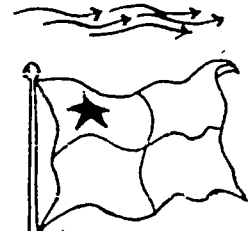

	
VOICED	UNVOICED
<p>[]</p>  <p>SOUND</p>	<p>()</p>  <p>SPELLING</p>
 <p>AIR FLOW</p>	 <p>DICTIONARY PRONUNCIATION</p>

FIGURE 1

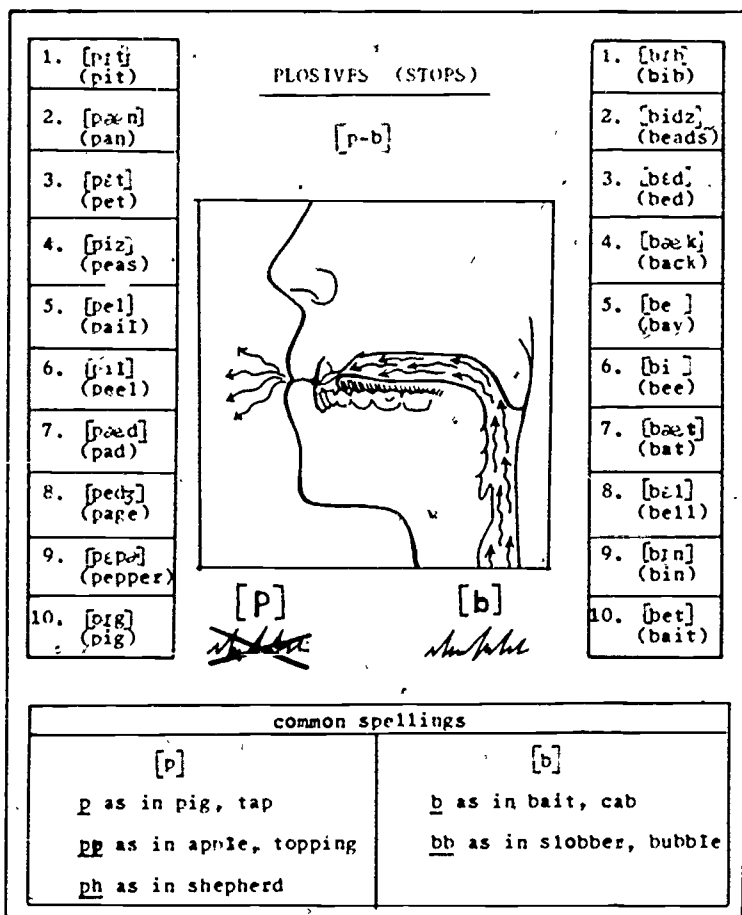


FIGURE 2

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BETTER READ: T. B. A.

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Marshall, Texas

Reading in the content areas has come into the limelight in the last few years. Almost every academic subject area has been represented with materials which enable the student to learn to read and to understand the subject better. However, the area of vocational reading has been neglected by the experts and the specialists. Many people today have seen the abbreviation T.B.A. Nearly everyone has a different meaning and connotation for this abbreviation. This paper will examine a few of the meanings and connotations.

To Be Announced

In developing this paper concerning the importance and the future of vocational reading, it was discovered that vocational reading spans almost all of man's existence. The first evidence of this can be found in the Old Testament. Consider, if you will, the story of Noah in the Book of Genesis.

Make thee an ark of gopher wood; rooms shalt thou make in the ark, and shalt pitch it within and without with pitch. And this is the fashion which thou shalt make it of: The length of the ark shall be three hundred cubits, the breadth of it fifty cubits, and the height of it thirty cubits. A window shalt thou make to the ark, and in a cubit shalt thou finish it above; and the door of the ark shalt thou set in the side thereof; with lower, second, and third stories shalt thou make it. (1)

The foundation for things to come has been laid. From these beginnings can be found, though not necessarily in scriptures, the stories of the building of temples, pyramids, and other structures which placed man into the area of vocations.

Tires—Batteries—Accessories

Greek mythology has its share of chariots and other vehicles. There, too, is related structural building: temples, theaters, and arenas.

We are also indebted greatly to Roman writings for laying the cornerstones and foundations for readings in the area of vocations. In some form — mechanical, structural, or agricultural — man has throughout his existence been involved in vocational aspects.

The Better Alternate

Somewhere along the line literacy entered the picture. Reading began to be made possible as a means of education. With this there gave rise to and the development of reading and literacy instructors.

For the most part, early schools developed liberally educated people . . . primarily preparing clergy. Back in those days, those who could went to school; those who couldn't went to work. Today, this is not so. Today we have the open door and the revolving door. Today it is possible to go to school and not go to work!

Through Bigger Avenues

Vocational education as we know it today developed in the early 1900's. I'm sure we are all well versed in manifest destiny and the industrialization of America. I'm sure we are well versed, too, in America's participation in armed conflicts which gave the strong push for better vocational training and better vocational reading ability.

We are all aware of the need for education or we would not be here. We are aware of the need for reading or we would not be here. Today's job market places a high demand on good sound education. Literacy standards, though perhaps lower than we specialists would like to see, are more present than meets the eye.

Today even menial jobs require standards of reading ability greater than our parents, grandparents, and even our great-grandparents.

Trade schools — business schools — vocational schools: each no longer simply specialize in teaching students their job skills, but are forced into teaching literacy skills in order to have the student survive. Man no longer works by hands alone!

The But Approach

We now have a problem. We have vocational training. We have textbooks which teach the necessary vocational skills. These textbooks are good — in fact, they are great, but students cannot read them!

What do we do? We enroll the student in a learning assistance program to improve his reading skills. For the most part he does not want to be there; he has been put there by low scores on his entrance examinations; he has scored low on these examinations because of poor reading ability. But is it poor reading ability?

Through Better Analysis

Steven R. Wagner and John E. Wilde in "Learning Styles: Can We Grease the Cogs in Cognition?" state:

Cognitive style and conceptual tempo concepts apply a unique blending of perceptual, cognitive and personality factors to the measurement of problem solving strategies. The concept of cognitive style avoids the often artificial dichotomy found in descriptions of child behavior which separates these closely associated areas of mental functioning. (2)

What do we mean by cognitive style? If we agree that each student is an individual, we probably agree that each student has a unique way of noting his surroundings, seeking meaning, and becoming informed. We need to determine if he is a listener or a reader, if he makes up his own mind or seeks consensus with his peer group, or if he thinks like a news commentator, mathematician, or auto mechanic.

It is imperative at the outset to know as much as possible about the student's cognitive style. The technique used is "mapping." By use of tests, observations, and interviews, the instructor seeks answers to the question of how the student derives meaning in his own unique way.

The cognitive map shows us the strengths the individual uses in acquiring meaning from his environment. There are three principal areas explored in "mapping":

1. Cultural determinants
2. Modalities of inference
3. Symbols and their meanings

Cultural determinants — the determination of the effect of social groups on how the student perceives life. His associates or peers greatly influence him in how he views the world around him. The family provides guidelines for behavior from the earliest age. His individuality, his awareness of the factors which distinguish him from others, and how he views these differences, either positively or negatively, influence his behavior and how he learns. Cultural determinants provide a profound insight into the student's world of human relationships.

These cultural determinants are symbolized by I for individuality, F for family, and A for associates.

Next, modalities of inference determines ways in which the student reaches decisions — his mode of thinking. Students who are quick to place items in classes or categories, use rules and norms in determining courses of action, and the like, are known as M — magnitude. Others who are prone to differences or to compare things on the basis of a single characteristic use the pattern D — difference. Or, is the student one who looks for multiple relationships in what he perceives? This is using the pattern of relationships, R. It is possible to utilize all these in one function. This student is known as the appraiser — L. He must weigh all the possibilities before reaching a decision. Lastly, a few may use deductive reasoning. The symbol K is used to identify this pattern of thinking.

This now leaves symbols and their meanings. In this category we look for indications of whether meaning is obtained by reading or listening; in writing or speaking. Two types of symbols, theoretical and qualitative, are created and used by individuals to acquire knowledge and derive meaning from their environments and personal experiences. Theoretical symbols present to the nervous system, and then represent to it, something different from that which they themselves are. Qualitative symbols present and then represent to the nervous system of the individual that which they (the symbols) themselves are to that individual. (1)

- T(VL) — Theoretical Visual Linguistic: ability to find meaning from words you see.
- T(AL) — Theoretical Auditory Linguistic: ability to acquire meaning through hearing spoken words.
- T(VQ) — Theoretical Visual Quantitative: ability to acquire meaning in terms of numerical symbols.
- T(AQ) — Theoretical Auditory Quantitative: ability to find meaning in terms of numerical symbols that are spoken.
- Q(A) — Qualitative Auditory: ability to perceive meaning through the sense of hearing.
- Q(O) — Qualitative Olfactory: ability to perceive meaning through the sense of smell.
- Q(S) — Qualitative Savory: ability to perceive meaning by the sense of taste.
- Q(T) — Qualitative Tactile: ability to perceive meaning by the sense of touch.
- Q(V) — Qualitative Visual: ability to perceive meaning through sight.
- Q(P) — Qualitative Proprioceptive: ability to synthesize a number of symbolic mediations into a performance demanding monitoring of a complex skill.
- Q(PK) — Qualitative Proprioceptive Kinematic: ability to synthesize a number of symbolic mediations into a performance demanding physical motion.
- Q(PTM) — Qualitative Proprioceptive Temporal: ability to synthesize a number of symbolic mediations into a performance demanding timing.
- Q(CEM) — Qualitative Code Empathetic: sensitivity to the feelings of others.
- Q(CES) — Qualitative Code Esthetic: ability to enjoy the beauty of an object or an idea.
- Q(CET) — Qualitative Code Ethic: commitment to a set of values.
- Q(CH) — Qualitative Code Histrionic: ability to exhibit a deliberate behavior.
- Q(CK) — Qualitative Code Kinesics: ability to understand, and to communicate by non-linguistic functions.

- Q(CKH) — Qualitative Code Kinesthetic: ability to perform motor skills.
- Q(CP) — Qualitative Code Proxemics: ability to judge physical and social distance.
- Q(CS) — Qualitative Code Synnoetics: personal knowledge of oneself.
- Q(CT) — Qualitative Code Transactional: positive communication interaction.
- Q(CTM) — Qualitative Code Temporal: ability to respond or behave according to time expectations imposed on an activity.

All these bits of information concerning the student yields a map. From the map, a prescription is written to facilitate learning through the student's major areas of strength. Neither the map nor the prescription is static. Both will change, and it is our purpose to make it change.

The Better Advantage

As specialists in the field of reading improvement, it is our obligation and duty to offer the student the better advantages of being able to read. It is to our better advantage to employ better means of analysis in order to better prescribe learning conditions for our students. Employing the above outlined procedure of better analysis can greatly insure that your students will be better read.

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**"WHAT DID THE AUTHOR SAY?"
A TECHNIQUE FOR LEARNING TO ORGANIZE, UNDERSTAND
AND REMEMBER IDEAS**

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Central Oregon Community College

I

Ideas to be understood and to be remembered must be organized. To organize ideas for remembering, the reader must recognize the relationship of the parts, one to each other and to the whole. This is what students try to do. Yet, it is not uncommon to find students who feel they understand what they read while they are reading, but are unable to recall or apply the information gathered. It is even not uncommon to find students who can't remember what they were study-reading, although their eyes followed the lines of print and their fingers turned the pages regularly. Such students remember they were study-reading, although their eyes followed the lines of print and their fingers turned the pages regularly. Such students are not only passive readers, they are non-organizers. They are the ones who can be heard plaintively saying, "I can't concentrate," or "I can't remember a thing I have read."

Passive reading and non-organizing are not two problems, but one. Simply stated, the reader with no orderly set of the ideas presented on the printed page cannot carry on a dialogue with the author and profit from the reading experience.

"What did the author say?" is a technique for reading skill development that maintains a systematic group approach while accommodating individual needs. For the learner, it is a way of discovering how to read actively, organize, recall, and understand ideas, and effectively write summary, outline, or precis statements of what has been read. For the instructor, it is a teaching technique interwoven with continuous and conterminous diagnosis.

PROCEDURE

I. First Session

1. Students are asked to study-read a one-thousand word article, and to be prepared to recall what was read. (Strang, 4)
2. A time limit for the study reading is established, usually no more than ten minutes.
3. Following study-reading, students are asked to answer in writing the one question, "What did the author say?" Reference to the article during the writing period is discouraged.
4. Special instructions on how to study-read to write answers are not given. Students are encouraged to use the methods they usually apply when studying and writing answers to essay test questions.

II. Second Session

1. A copy of all answers received from class members is distributed to each student. The copy is a true reproduction except for the omission of student names.
2. The criterion answer is shared with the students by use of a transparency on the overhead projector or by inclusion with the class answers as distributed.
3. Students are asked to score by consensus each of the answers using a scale of one to ten. (Figure 1)

FIGURE 1

Scoring Scale for use with "What did the author say?" A score of 1 point is the minimum which can be earned by a student, and no student is to earn less than 1 point. A score of 10 points is the maximum. Scores appearing to fall between number values on the scale are scored at the lower value. Scores are determined by comparing the ideas expressed in the student answer with those included in the criterion answer.

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
The student writes a response to the question, "What did the author say?"	All the main ideas are stated.	All the main ideas are stated.	Most of the main ideas are stated.	Some of the main ideas are stated.	One-half of the main ideas are stated.	One-third of the main ideas are stated.	One-fourth of the main ideas are stated.	One-fifth of the main ideas are stated.	All the main ideas with all significant details, well organized.

III. *Third Session*

1. Instruction is given the class group, using the same article originally read, in:
 - a. Preparing study materials
 - b. Using contextual clues for vocabulary development
 - c. Identifying paragraph functions
 - d. Recognizing main ideas and significant details and the relationship between them.
 - e. Distinguishing between necessary and probable inferences.
 - f. Drawing conclusions.
 - g. Organizing ideas around topics for remembering and understanding.
 - h. Paraphrasing the author.
 - i. Writing an effective answer to "What did the author say?"
2. Skill instruction as necessary is presented hierarchially in more than one class period, and may include articles other than the original.

IV. *Fourth and Subsequent Sessions*

1. Students continue to read one-thousand word articles and to prepare written answers. (See IV-5)
2. Criterion answers are shared with the students, either before answers are submitted to the instructor or at the following class session when the scored papers are returned.
3. Instruction in the techniques of reading as given for the Third Session are continued, repeated, clarified, or extended, in both large and small group meetings.
4. At intervals, class answers are shared with the group as described for the Second Session. Although answers are not identified by name, the students tend to feel the improved answers show others that they can, and are, doing better.
5. After a respectable amount of practice, students are asked to include in their written answers analysis, evaluation, and discussion of the usability and benefit of the information gathered through reading, and to give examples of possible applications of that information.

V. *Culminating Activity*

1. Students are asked to apply the techniques and skills learned to study-reading an assignment in a course textbook other than that used in the reading class.

DISCUSSION

Students who have used WDAS say they have enjoyed and profited from the experience, and their demonstrated improvement in earned scores tends to give substance to the comments. In our experience, scores tend to be at the lower end of the grading scale for the first try, improvement is

noticeable after the third try, and in fewer than a dozen practice sessions, the scores tend to move to the upper end of the scale.

Class scoring of the first set of papers is a judgmental experience essential for successful learning with WDAS, as well as for the serendipity of developing students' awareness of the need for proofreading. Closer student attention to the mechanics of writing and spelling is likely once students have had the opportunity to see their writing with a reader's eye.

Teaching during the third and subsequent sessions should be simple, direct, and specific, and in part determined by the strengths and weaknesses of the individuals evidenced in the written answers. It should emphasize reading as a thinking skill and a process of identifying in the beginning, and a process of interpreting and evaluating ideas later.

An important component of this approach is the specificity of the grading scale. It shows the learner what he is to do and at what level he is to perform on successive tries, and it is designed to provide a measure of small improvement. For all readers, that small regular movement up the scale is singularly rewarding.

Exposure to skill development does not necessarily assure transfer of learning; it must be taught. (Ahrendt, 1) The culminating activity for WDAS provides the student the opportunity for transfer of learning in a useful way.

CONCLUSION

It has been the purpose of this paper to describe one approach to teaching study-reading skills. The procedural guidelines suggested are practical and result from a synthesis of classroom experiences, but they should be viewed as a flexible framework to be adapted creatively to the realities of each particular classroom.

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WHAT MATHEMAGENIC EFFECTS AND COGNITIVE STYLES RESEARCH SHOULD MEAN TO THE READING EDUCATOR

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Learning can be viewed as either a product or a process. The former view suggests that learning is the result of precise manipulations on the part of an instructor. The latter position emphasizes that learning originates in the learner as a result of his mental and physical manipulations. These two philosophical vantage points have resulted in different forms of research and different forms of teaching practice.

This paper shall discuss two lines of research, mathemagenic effects and cognitive style, which are of import to the reading educator and which are derived from the philosophical positions described above. This discussion will provide a basis for describing those factors relevant to increasing the knowledge base concerning reading process and will predict what reading instruction and reading disability remediation of the future might be like.

MATHEMAGENIC EFFECTS

Mathemagenic activities are defined as behaviors which give birth to learning (17). Various studies have been concerned with the manipulation of text presentation, in terms of mathemagenic effects, on learning outcomes. Several investigators (1, 4, 5, 18) have reported that the insertion of questions before and after prose material has certain effects upon intended and incidental learning. These studies indicate that questions inserted after prose passages facilitate intended learning only. The conclusion has, therefore, been drawn that "prequestions" sensitize or focus the attention of the individual to specific features of the text. "Postquestions" are seen as promoting attention to the text as a whole. In other words, questions presented before or after prose material are seen as mathemagenic.

More recent studies concerning mathemagenic effects have been concerned with individual learner differences. Shavelson, et. al (19) investigated the possibility that different question types (high order or low order) and question location in text interact with various aptitude measures in terms of comprehension and retention indices. One such aptitude measure, an advanced vocabulary test, did interact significantly with treatments. This study indicates that people scoring below a certain score on the vocabulary test should receive higher order questions after the text and that above a certain score either no question insertion or lower-order question placement after the text conditions are appropriate for overall retention.

Koran and Koran (12) and Hiller (8) also investigated variables which were hypothesized to be interactive with mathemagenic effects in text. Koran and Koran concluded that both vocabulary knowledge and associative memory were related to incidental learning but not to intended learning from texts. Hiller's study indicated that readability and question type (high and low level) interacted to the extent that all types of questions interfered with learning from a selection with a low readability score, and high level questions interfered with learning from an average readability text. Anxiety and self-confidence measures were also found to be related to learning and retention from low readability passages.

Although mathemagenic effects conceptions are probably viable in the study of reading comprehension and retention, individual differences, in terms of aptitude and affect, may also be inherent considerations in the presentation of text. More research into the relationships between these factors could result in more effective instruction and learning.

COGNITIVE STYLE

Kagan, et. al. (10) defined cognitive style as "stable individual preferences in modes of perceptual organization and conceptual categorization of the external environment." He categorized these preferences into four cognitive style types (9) — impulsive, reflective, analytic, and thematic. Impulsive thinkers have a fast conceptual tempo. They are concerned with giving quick responses. Reflective thinkers take time to thoroughly evaluate situations or problems before responding. People who discriminate the various parts of a complex situation are termed analytic thinkers. Individuals who constantly view complex situations from a wholistic perspective are classified as thematic thinkers. Messick (13) and others have described several other cognitive style categories.

Many investigators have attempted to ascertain the relationships between cognitive style and academic performance (6, 7, 10, 13, 14, 20, 21). Few conclusive results have been reported and many studies have been confounded by instrumentation difficulties (2, 3, 11).

The most promising investigation conducted recently was undertaken by Robinson and Gray (16). They determined that, when verbal and

nonverbal IQ were taken into account, certain cognitive style categorizations (categorical, descriptive, and relational) were significantly related to specific academic skills (e.g. vocabulary, reading comprehension, spelling, language usage, mathematical concepts).

As with mathematic effects, significant breakthroughs in cognitive style research which could have an impact on educational practice will probably result from analyses of interactive variables. The interactions between such variables as verbal aptitude, performance aptitude, attitudes, mathemagenic presentations, and cognitive style could provide the insights needed for such instructional innovations.

CURRENT CONSIDERATIONS AND FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

The research areas covered by investigators of mathemagenic effects and cognitive style comprise very important considerations for reading educators. Empirical investigations will probably shed some light on the currently hazy area of reading comprehension.

Until such time when we are more certain and more aware about the relationships between variables involved in the reading process, certain considerations for reading instruction practice should be heeded. More emphasis should be given to the following in providing more individualized reading instruction: 1. How is the particular reading material being presented? Is it appropriate for the individual's level of sophistication? 2. Are there any factors which interfere with the learning of specific subject matter (e.g. repression, anxiety, inhibition)? 3. How motivated is the individual regarding the subject matter or reading, in general? 4. What form of motivation is largely responsible for the individual's attitudinal state in performing reading-related tasks? 5. How familiar is the student with the material to be read? 6. What is the student's cognitive style and what types of textual presentations would be more mathemagenic on this basis? These questions cannot currently be answered in a very organized, objective way. Observations of such things as notetaking, underlining in text, etc. and verbal reports from the student in an interview format, however, can provide clues and insights into such factors.

It is possible to foresee that some day reading instruction will be so exacting that each student might have an instructional program that will be uniquely his. The basis for such a system may indeed come from research into mathemagenic effects and cognitive style. Basic screening in neurological, perceptual, and decoding skills would precede all other diagnostics. Compensatory education for any physical impairment or basic skill deficiency could then be undertaken. Diagnostics would then be performed in the general areas of accommodation and assimilation.

Piaget (15) sees accommodation and assimilation as interacting factors which underlie intellectual development. Accommodation is the inclination or orientation to information or events. Thus, presentation of material

(readability, format, size or print, use of graphs, pictures, formulas, etc.), psychological factors (repression, inhibition, etc.), familiarity with subject matter, motivation type (e.g. extrinsic, intrinsic, avoiding consequences, or to make gains), and motivation level (arousal) would all involve orientation on the part of the student and can be classified as accommodation factors. Cognitive style (i.e. impulsive, reflective, analytic, thematic, etc.) and mathemagenic presentation (clues, elaboration, contiguity, imagery) are concerned with how a student organizes his thoughts and can be categorized as assimilation factors.

On the basis of accommodation and assimilation diagnostics, reading instruction would be along psychological, social, and skill-based dimensions and would be geared to fit individual needs. Appropriate instruction would be provided for the appropriate individual.

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FIVE MINI-COURSES IN STUDY SKILLS

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INTRODUCTION

At San Jose State University the administration follows the California Master Plan for Education which allows for no remedial courses for credit in the four year college system. There is no provision for correction or modification of the reading and writing problems of the marginal students who have entered the university as freshmen and sophomores under the 4% rule. These 4% students, who include minorities and athletes, are admitted because they possess qualities which the university feels are valuable. There is also no provision made for community college transfer students whose study skills are weak, other than poorly-funded, no-credit programs.

Only students with foreign language backgrounds who have alien status are offered one credit course, English 1AF, which is modified for their needs.

MINI-COURSES

With limited facilities and limited staff, the San Jose State University Reading Laboratory is attempting to provide help for beleaguered students through a series of mini-courses in study skills. These mini-courses are limited to twenty-five students at each session and are offered several times each week, depending upon the signup. The mini-courses and the projected time offerings are advertised in the *Spartan Daily*, flyers are left in the Student Union, and posters are placed in prominent positions around campus. This spring, KSJS, the campus radio station, described the sessions in one of its news broadcasts. No grade or credit is given for attending the series, and no attempt is made to require attendance at all

sessions. The sessions last for 1 to 1½ hours, with time allowed for group interaction, questions and comments.

The mini-courses are five in number — Scheduling Time Well, Note Taking Skills, Outlining and Underlining Textbooks, Taking Essay and Objective Tests, and the last week before finals, a mini-course in How to Survive Final Exams. With each of the mini-courses, one or more handouts are given to each participant. These handouts are brief outlines, detailing the major points of emphasis which the student can take for later perusal. Each course offers a brief lecture elaborating salient points in the outlines, with examples and practice in each of the study skills, as well as an opportunity for students to interact and discuss their problems in each of the areas.

The mini-course in Scheduling Time points out the value of a schedule. The students are shown how to make a schedule and reasons are presented why one schedule might be better than another. The need for frequent schedule revision is stressed and the discrepancies between planning and executing a plan for time usage are noted.

The lecture on Note Taking begins with a brief review of scheduling, and the student is asked to take notes on what he heard. These notes are evaluated for their usefulness, and a program for improved note taking is outlined. This outline includes various suggestions for making notes useful in preparing for examinations and another brief lecture which the student takes notes on is given. He then compares the effectiveness of the first and second practice session. Also covered is a plan for taking notes on his textbooks which can be used in studying for examinations.

The third mini-course is a session in which the student learns effective Underlining and Outlining Skills. Methods for noting relationships between ideas, learning vocabulary, finding series, and cause and effect are presented in this handout. A short practice exercise is given in underlining text-type materials. Then the student marks his own textbook, and a critique session helps him to evaluate what he has done. Outlining skills are demonstrated in an article on study skills which enables the student to benefit as much as possible from a short session.

The mini-courses on Test-Taking cover much the same material, with greater emphasis on development of cognitive test-taking skills in the fourth session and psychological skills in the fifth mini-course. The outlines given to the students point out the differences between learning for recall and for recognition. The need for spaced learning is also emphasized. Practice is given in taking a brief objective exam, showing the importance of qualifiers and pacing oneself. Examples of essay answers are given and their quality discussed. Tips, such as turning the question into the topic sentence of the essay, are demonstrated.

The fifth mini-course is held the last week before finals and draws an apprehensive group. Reviewing the principles of desensitization for test-taking and introspection into their own previously successful methods of taking examinations helps them to feel more confident. A plan for

scheduling adequately spaced study sessions and the importance of nutrition and rest to a confident frame of mind are discussed. Minor points, such as allowing time for a shower and a well-balanced breakfast on the morning of an exam are also presented.

SUMMARY

The mini-courses attract a wide variety of students. Older returning students, foreign students, community college students who find transition to a four-year college difficult, as well as freshmen and sophomores are attracted to the offerings. The courses are being videotaped this spring and will be edited and improved, so that more students can be accommodated by our limited staff. We have found our mini-courses in study skills to be a worthwhile addition to the individualized program of the San Jose State University Reading Laboratory.

**VIALE ALTERNATIVES SPECIFICALLY DESIGNED
FOR PROLETARIAN COMMUNITY COLLEGE
READING PROGRAMS**

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As a reading learning specialist at a small, financially-strained community college, I find that grant-cushioned developmental designs are totally irrelevant to my unique problems and needs. The basic points of contention that are immediately identifiable are in the areas of staffing, budget, students, and grants.

STAFFING: ONE MAN—ONE VOTE SYNDROME

The first problem encountered in small community colleges is one of number, i.e., number of instructors. Generally speaking, small community colleges have a staff of one reading specialist and the very lucky have two reading specialists.

All colleges, backwater colleges included, seem to want to be Harvard. Faculty and administrators run around and say completely esoteric things which of course emulate the Harvardian way — always talking about problems that don't exist — creating great solutions that nobody cares about — but it all sounds like they're doing something useful. A question arises: What can one person do to affect a viable reading program?

A comprehensive reading program is a necessity in a community college. The National Reading Center in Washington, D.C. states: "One third of all freshmen entering college (community and senior) this fall lack the basic reading skills they need to meet the minimal requirements for college study." A correlational study was conducted at Eastfield College using 800 students enrolled in Freshman English 101. The Nelson-Denny Reading Test was administered. Over 54% of these students were classified as remedial readers. The National Reading Center was conservative in its evaluation as compared to Eastfield College students.

Eastfield College Reading Spectrum

This data strenuously challenged the two Eastfield reading instructors. Analyzing the situation, we formalized an educationally sound reading program in light of the data collected.

A graphic illustration of the comprehensive reading program that has been operational for the last five years should explicate the streamlining process.

INDIVIDUALIZED 16 WEEKS	SEMI-STRUCTURED SELF HELP	STRUCTURED 1-8 WEEKS	ONE TO ONE	SPECIAL
TUITION NO FEE CREDIT REGISTRATION	NO TUITION NO FEE NO CREDIT NO REGISTRATION	REGISTRATION NO TUITION NO FEE NO CREDIT	NO TUITION \$2.00 PER HOUR NO REGISTRATION NO CREDIT	NO TUITION NO FEE NO CREDIT NO REGISTRATION
TECHNIQUES IN -- READING/LEARNING 090 3 HOURS CREDIT	CRASH LAB ANY STUDENT WALK-IN		TUTOR 1-1	ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
TECHNIQUES IN READING/LEARNING 091 3 HOURS CREDIT	CRASH LAB SELF-SELECTION	MIM COURSES	TUTOR 1-1	CRAM CLINIC FOR FINAL EXAMS
EFFECTIVE COLLEGE READING 101 3 TRANSFER CREDITS	CRASH LAB INSTRUCTOR REFERRAL	MIM COURSES	TUTOR 1-1	HOW TO SURVIVE IN COLLEGE
SPEED READING/ LEARNING 102 3 TRANSFER CREDITS	CRASH LAB TV COURSE REFERRAL	MIM COURSES	TUTOR 1-1	INDIVIDUAL READING AND STUDY ASSESSMENT
			TUTOR TRAINING INSTRUCTION	REFERENCE LIBRARY FOR READING IN ACADEMIC AREAS

Remedial

Corrective

Developmental

Developmental

DR 090/091 - Techniques of Reading/Learning are individualized, competency based courses designed to help the lowest functioning students improve in achievement levels and study efficiency. Twenty students to a section.

RD 101 - Effective College Reading is designed to help those students who are slightly below grade level. Skills weaknesses are diagnosed in reading and study skills and help is given in those areas. Twenty-six students to a section.

RD 102 - Speed Reading/Learning offers the "grade level" student an in-depth course in total learning efficiency. Up to one hundred students per section (team taught).

Crash Lab is a drop-in lab open each day from 12:00 - 5:00. Students come on their own initiative or teacher referral. A lab tutor can administer placement testing and coordinate a correctional program for the student. Reading instructors assist with special needs of students.

Training of Tutors to work in the CRASH Lab and to be private tutors is done by reading instructors. Developmental Studies, Division offers individual tutoring in academic areas for \$2.00 per hour.

Mini Courses are offered to small groups in areas such as Underlining, Notetaking, Literary Interpretation, Analysis, Reading Rate Improvement. These are taught on Monday, Wednesday, Friday from 12:00 - 1:30 p.m. when there are no classes in session. They are offered in the CRASH Lab in cooperation with Student Services.

English as a 2nd Language provides English competency training on a walk in basis. Special materials and audio tapes are provided in the CRASH Lab.

Cram Clinic is offered during the noon hour each day beginning two weeks before final exams each semester. Any student in the college can participate. Effective massed learning techniques are emphasized.

Survival in College is a two-hour seminar offered during new student orientation. Instant study skills are taught as well as information presented about the reading program and outreach programs of the CRASH Lab.

Reading Study Assessment offers clinical diagnosis to learning disabled students. In conjunction with our counseling staff, a prescription is formulated and the student is matriculated into the best learning environment. Class testing is also offered to all faculty of the college.

Reference Library consists of a limited reference collection available to students through the CRASH Lab. It is composed of compact study guides to academic courses, i.e., Barron Study Guides, Monarch Guides, etc.

BUDGET: A PENNY FOR YOUR THOUGHTS SYNDROME

The second problem is also one of numbers; i.e., amount of funds allocations. A small community college will forever have a small budget. The question arises, then; in dollars and cents, what is necessary for a practical operation of a viable reading program?

At Eastfield College, through our streamlining process, we have found that we can maintain a credibly operational and pragmatically functional program on a budget of less than \$600.00 per academic year that services in excess of 2000 students. This figure does not take into account salary, but rather reflects our cost in maintaining, replenishing, and purchasing materials. Schematically, according to our accounting system, it is broken down into these categories:

READING BUDGET — EASTFIELD COLLEGE		
2331	Copier, mimeo, duplicating	\$ 50.00
2361	Classroom equipment	\$100.00
2410	Classroom supplies	\$225.00
2435	Office supplies	\$ 35.00
2454	Books and booklets	\$130.00
2456	Tests and testing services	\$ 10.00
2490	Other supplies and materials	\$ 30.00
2641	Minor instructional equipment	\$ 00.00
2741	Instructional equipment	\$ 00.00
2752	Office furniture	<u>\$ 00.00</u>
	Total for account classification	\$580.00

Our frugal figure is brought about by the fact that we have adopted a lab manual that is purchased by each student as a worktext; it contains an automatic feedback, instant evaluation, and diagnostic-prescriptive tool for fully individualized instruction. This one instrument, *College Reading & Self Help. Survival for the Sensuous Student* available from Kendall Hunt Publishing Company, Dubuque, Iowa, has saved in excess of \$450.00. Likewise, this saved us endless hours of the unproductive time-consuming clerical tasks, indigenous to competency based instruction.

Our learning facility contains over eighty different multi-modal and multi-level materials. Rather than purchase large lots, however, we purchased lots in three's and four's. The *CRASH Lab Manual* is the instrument that pulls together all of the materials for easy student and instructor utilization. It stands to reason that, of course, no one can birth a

new program with a capital outlay of \$580.00. Yet, an existing facility can expand its course offerings and enter into outreach areas, such as I have described, with minimal funds.

STUDENTS: DIFFERENT DRUMMER SYNDROME

A third problem encountered in proletarian community colleges is yet another numbers problem, i.e., numbers of students. As Bernard Rosenberg so eloquently put it: "Remediation is a sisyphian task at which academics labor so assiduously that many Colleges of Liberal Arts are nowadays accurately designated Colleges of Remedial Arts." Robert Maynard Hutchins looms large as a prophet who anticipated that "the Three R's, Reading, Riting, and Rithmetic, would be replaced by the Six R's, Remedial Reading, Remedial Riting and Remedial Rithmetic." Not even he, however, foresaw that these specialties would reach up and envelop candidates for the Ph.D. degree.

The professionals in our field have gone to great lengths to define those students in dire need of our services. Even a hasty look in our publications provides us with the variant descriptors. They are non-traditional, non-academically oriented, non college level, low ability, slow learners, high risk, low income, poor, needy, deprived, atypical, remedial, and basic. Immediately after defining our student in every conceivable negative way, we hasten to add that we build success and positive self image! What few of us realize, is that our students know that their success, or lack of it, is less a factor of their so called cultural deprivation than it is of good teaching and quality education. We seem to have reached an academic menopause when it comes to producing a sound education for our students.

If you really believe in students, I mean really in your gut believe in these people, then you set up a program that makes it possible to screen them in order to determine what kind of weaknesses and strengths they have very specifically, not vaguely. Then you set up a compensatory program which helps them to take off from where they are to where you would like them to be. Almost everybody who can't read, could read if we taught him.

The real proof of worthiness of a reading study skills learning program is in the academic performance of its students. At Eastfield College, our reading students comprised 16.3% of the Dean's List. This empirically denotes that the skills acquired in our program are internalized by the students and are utilized by them in academic achievement.

With only two full time faculty for a reading staff, we have contact with 33% of the total Eastfield College student body each semester. Granted some of our contact is limited, but it does allow us to humanely touch base with these students. Our faculty and our community know what we are about and use our services to their own benefit.

GRANTS: AMERICA RIGHT OR WRONG SYNDROME

A final problem which is a legitimate concern of proletarian community colleges is in the area of grants. Namely, we do not have them nor do we have the ability to compete for them.

The question arises, are grants necessary for a viable program? Grants are not necessary for a viable learning program. Reading specialists know all the skills to teach. We know how to teach them. And we are not doing it. Perhaps it is time, after all, for different marching orders.

REFLECTION AND IMPLICATION

Success in any college is a function of one's ability to read. A closer inspection of effective reading programs regardless of rural or urban setting, community college or university design, can provide ideas, concepts, and models that will improve education and the reading-learning process.

Reaching students and offering them realistic and humanistic opportunities for higher education is a major concern at Eastfield College. The multi modes of delivering reading and study skills services offer many viable alternatives to all learners. Flexible is the key word in describing the faculty, multiple option is the key word to the students; success is the key word for the program; and total commitment is the philosophy.

MONOLINGUALS TEACHING BILINGUALS: READING IN ESL FOR SPANISH SPEAKERS

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The purpose of this paper is to (1) examine pertinent research concerned with teaching English as a second language (ESL) to non-English speakers, (2) analyze fundamental problems Spanish speakers may experience when taught to read and learn in the target language English and (3) suggest practices for teachers of ESL to assist Spanish-English bilingual readers in their specific linguistic needs.

RELEVANT RESEARCH

Osterberg's (12) research showed that Swedish children who had learned to read in their local dialect first, performed superior afterwards in learning to read in the standard Swedish language. Modiano (11) in her study with Indian children in Mexico concluded that these children have shown superior results in learning Spanish as a second language when taught first to read in their own Indian language. Wasserman and Wasserman (16) stated that helping Mexican-American children to retain their own language while acquiring English as a second language, turns a language disadvantage into a language advantage. Loban (10) espoused that competence in learning to read depends upon a child's competence in the spoken language and Bloomfield and Barnhart (2), Fries (7) and Lefevre (9) emphasized that well developed oral language is a prerequisite to learning to read successfully. Cornejo (3) observed that when native speakers of Spanish are exposed to just oral English, they are not likely to be successful.

Since each language has its own system and no two systems are the same, unilingual teachers of English should be aware of similarities and differences in the two languages. While the great majority of Spanish

sounds are capable of approximate renderings in English sounds, the trillings sounds of the Spanish R and RR resemble only vaguely its equivalents in the English sounds of r and rr. Likewise, the renderings of N (EH-n yeh) in the Spanish word *mañana y niño* and LL (EH-l-yeh) in *llamar y llegar* are strikingly different. In contrast, the Spanish words FATAL, UNIVERSAL, ORIGINAL, NOTABLE, IMPROBABLE have their exact counterparts in the English writing system as well as approximate renderings in the English sound system. However, as Elkonin (5) stressed, perception and discrimination of printed characters is only the external side of the reading process behind which lie the more central processes concerned with creating the sound form of the word and comprehending it. Taschow (14) in a comparative study in the German and English languages showed that conceptual and reasoning processes tend to create problems when the native learner reads in the English language. It may result in confusion as Downing (4) explained in the Cognitive Clarity Theory. Vernon (15) also concluded that cognitive confusion is the basic characteristic of reading disability because conceptual and reasoning processes of children are overlooked.

Observations from the Puerto Rican Study (17) in which reading achievements in the target language fell behind oral progress in learning English opens up specific questions. What are some of the demanding reading skills that Spanish speakers must learn? What are special reading deficiencies that complicate learning to read in English? How different is the mother tongue in phonology, morphology and syntax from the English language system? What are some of the interference points between the learner's stronger language, Spanish, and his weaker language, English? What suggestions can be furnished for the classroom teacher of reading in ESL?

FUNDAMENTAL LANGUAGE DIFFERENCES

To seek answers to some of these questions, the following discussion examines phonological aspects of consonants and vowels as Spanish speakers reading English words may pronounce and interpret them (1).

Phonology

A. Consonants

Spanish speakers may pronounce:

Spanish speakers
may interpret:

English
sounds

Position
in word

Pronounced
as

English words as

th

B* + M*

s-d-t-dd

thin = sin, din, tin
father = fodder
birthday = birsdlay

Spanish speakers may pronounce:

Spanish Speakers
may interpret:

English sounds	Position in word	Pronounced as	English words as
w	B	gw	was = gwas
m	M + E*	n	somtime = sontine
ch	B + E	sh	cheap = sheap (sheep) march = marsh
st	B	est	stop = estop stop = estop
t	E	omitted	went = wen (when) want = wan (one)
l or ll	M + E	omitted	help = hep toll = toe, Paul = Pau
e	B	omitted	every = very
s	E	omitted	has = ha, goose = goo
y	B	j	yellow = jello, yes = jes
v	B	b	vanish = banish
d	E	t or w	feed = feet, read = row
ck	E	omitted	kick = ki
r	M	flapped or trilled	very = verrry
g	E	omitted	sing = sin, big = bi
h	B	omitted or fff	have = af, faf
B* = beginning		M* = middle	E* = ending

B. Vowels

Spanish speakers may pronounce:

Spanish speakers may interpret:

Vowel sounds in pronunciation
not distinguished

English words as

ea (long) + i (short)
ai (long) + e (short)
u-e (long) + oo (short)
oa (long) + ough (long)
a pronounced as a

beat equal to bit
bait equal to bet
Luke equal to look
boat equal to bought
cat equal to cat

The Spanish reader therefore may read the English sentence "This cat was very big" in approximately this way "di(s) cat gwas berry bi" and "Mother and father went to help Paul" may be rendered as "Modder ant fodder wen to (flep Pau)."

Morphology

Examining morphological aspects (1), English nouns in plural may have no distinctive forms since the English s ending may disappear. Instead of

possessive morphemes as in *Bob's hat*, the prepositional phrase *hat of Bob* may be used. If, however, the possessive morpheme is used, two nouns are heard *Bob hat* deleting the s-sound. Pronouncing verb forms, the third person singular will be identical with the simple verb forms because of s-sound deletion. Thus, *sleeps* becomes *sleep* and *walks* becomes *walk*. Past tenses are read as present tenses: *came* as *come*, *said* as *say*, *had* as *has*, and *walked* as *walk*. Past tenses may also be confused with past participles as in *he took* becomes *he has took*. When adjectives are compared as *colder* and *coldest*, they become *more cold* and *most cold*.

Syntax

Examining syntactical aspects (1), adjective forms are used in the adverbial position as in: He writes *real good*. Subject pronouns may be omitted in English since they are most often omitted in Spanish: *Hablamos español* is equal to *speak Spanish* in place of *We speak Spanish* and *no puedo escribir en inglés* equals *cannot write in English* in place of *I cannot write in English*. In the Spanish sentence *Le dije que no pude venir* the object pronoun *Le* comes immediately before the verb, while in English it follows the verb as in *I told her that I could not come*. However, its syntactical position in Spanish and English is the same when the object pronoun is used with the infinitive, the present participle and in commands: *No quería gastarlo* equals *I did not want to spend it* (infinitive position), *están haciéndola ahora* equals *they are doing it* (present participle position) and *hagámoslo* equals *let us do it* (command position). The pronoun may also be used to repeat subject or object within the English sentence as in *Mother and daughter, they are shopping* and *They bought it, the table*. The English verb *have* in *I have a book* expresses ownership of the book and may be replaced by *I got a book*. The English verb *do* is replaced by the verb *make* since the Spanish verb *hacer* stands for *do* and *make*. Sometimes the deletion of the English verb *are* is noted as in *Wich one you boys in?* as compared to *Wich one are you boys in?*

Examining the place of function words to express grammatical relationships and to show grammatical meaning of an utterance, Spanish students may read: *He classes* in place of *His classes*. *I can to speak* in place of *I can speak*, and *I don't go to school Saturday* in place of *I don't go to school on Saturday*.

Examining basic sentences in the English Noun-Verb-Adjective arrangement, the Spanish reader may replace the adjective with a noun thus producing a Noun-Verb-Noun pattern: *The child is hungry* becomes *The child has hunger*. In the Noun-Verb-Noun pattern as in *Maria is a secretary*, the Spanish reader may read *Maria is secretary* thus omitting the article *a* after the verb *be*. In the English Noun-Verb-Noun-Noun pattern (N₁-V-N₂-N₃), in which N₂ is the indirect object and N₃ the direct object of the verb, the position of N₂ and N₃ may be inverted by the Spanish speaker even though it is not possible in English.

	N ₁	V	N ₂	N ₃
English:	Mother	asked	Susan	a question
	N ₁	V	N ₃	N ₂
Spanish:	Mother	asked	a question	to Susan
or				
	N ₁	V	N ₂	N ₃
	Mother	asked	to Susan	a question

SUGGESTED ESL TEACHING APPROACHES

To assist ESL teachers in not only coping with but overcoming and preventing some or all of the above analyzed and summarized shortcomings of Spanish speakers in learning English, various ESL methodologies are available (13). Among those Fries (6) Oral Approach emphasizes thoroughness in developing listening and speaking in the target language English which leads then to reading and writing it. Materials are to be mastered in teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil dialogues, read, written and translated; thus, listening and speaking go hand in hand with reading and writing the target language without disregarding the mother tongue. Knowing and understanding the problems of the native speakers lead to adapting the reading-learning materials to specific linguistic needs.

As shown in the San Antonio Language Project (8), directed dialogues are first orally presented, and each pattern repeated, so that Spanish speakers learn English symbols that fit the situation — they learn symbols in a situation and not from a word list or through translation. The oral model in context precedes the written symbolization which the native speaker will read, translate into the mother tongue, reproduce again in English and then use in responding to questions. Independent proficiency is paramount for every activity. The dialogue then is followed up with simple multiple substitutions, singular-plural correlates, minimal pairs and sentence reductions (16).

AN ESL LESSON MODEL

Thus a lesson for the native speakers of Spanish is suggested below in a step by step presentation. The basic dialogue presented by the ESL teacher is:

"What have you in your hand?"
"I have a ball."

- | | |
|--|--|
| <i>ESL Teacher:</i> | <i>Native Speakers of Spanish:</i> |
| 1. presents dialogue orally | 2. listen to English sounds |
| 3. repeats dialogue | 4. listen again for clearer sound discrimination |
| 5. says first line
says second line | 6. repeats orally first line
repeats orally second line |

- | | |
|--|--|
| 7. writes dialogue on chalkboard | 8. sees written symbolization in context |
| 9. reads dialogue from chalkboard | 10. reads after teacher |
| 11. guides to similar language patterns of basic dialogue (shows book) | 12. "What have you in your hand?"
"I have a book" |
| 13. Questions: teacher-pupil interaction | 14. Answer |

Spanish speakers demonstrate mastery of English by pupil-pupil dialogues, selecting answers and saying them with the normal speed of speech, followed by writing and reading them. Then, basic learning is followed-up with extended learning experiences in oral and written English by

1. *Simple substitution*: "I have a ball" in which *ball* is substituted with *book, hat, dog, etc.*
2. *Multiple Substitution*: "I have a ball" in which "*I*" is substituted with *we, you, they* and *ball* with *book, hat, etc.*
3. *Singular-Plural-Verb Correlates*:
The book is big. — The books are big.
The hat is blue. — The hats are blue.
They boy reads English. — The boys read English.
4. *Minimal Pairs*: has-hat; hand-sand; ball-call; book-look.
5. *Sentence Reduction*:

The boy has a book and a ball. = He has them.

The girl has a book and a ball. = She has them.

Step by step contextual teaching and learning through a basic dialogue and follow up exercises can assist Spanish speakers to internalize the target language in co-existence with their mother tongue.

ENTENDIDO

The domain of this paper's discourse was limited to a significant segment of fundamental problems native speakers of Spanish may encounter in learning to read and think in the English language. Specific problems that may arise were discussed from the phonological, morphological and syntactical point of view. These and other problems should challenge reading researchers and teachers of ESL to study further in order to gain greater knowledge in assisting Spanish bilinguals to internalize the English language.

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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF INDIVIDUALIZED REMEDIAL FRESHMEN COMPOSITION

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BACKGROUND

Students entering the University of California are required to demonstrate a writing ability adequate for college work by passing the university's "Subject A" requirement. Meeting this requirement demands the ability to write a reasonably well-organized expository essay without major grammatical errors. Forty-five to sixty percent of students entering the university fail to pass the "Diagnostic Essay" indicating this writing ability, and therefore must meet the requirement through the completion of "Introduction to College English", or "Subject A." Student attitude in this course is a great problem. The student receives no credit, must pay an additional \$45 fee, and feels stigmatized at being forced to enroll in a remedial course, particularly since most received grades of A and B in high school English. Student writing ability ranges from simply "unformed" writers to those students with extremely severe problems in basic grammar and sentence structure. All these factors contribute to the difficulty of teaching Subject A. This study attempted to provide evaluation of the regular Subject A program and an additional "Writing Laboratory" program in basic grammar and composition skills.

In Fall, 1974, 59 of the students required to enroll in Subject A at the Riverside campus of the University of California were randomly assigned to two types of instruction, Classroom Lecture and Writing Lab, each taught by similarly educated and experienced teachers. The Classroom-Lecture Method involved four hours of classroom lecture and discussion weekly in problems in grammar and style, as well as on the organization of essays. Student essay assignments were focused on the style and subject matter of published essays concerned with language and communication, or written on "any topic," as long as the essay was developed in a certain expository mode. Additional treatment of grammar topics was accomplished through

the use of six or more chapter assignments from Helen Mills' *Commanding Sentences*, a book designed for individual programmed instruction in grammar.

PROCEDURE

The Writing Lab method involved two hours of small group discussion (15 students) plus four hours of individual work in the Writing Lab. During the class hours, lecture and discussion focused primarily in essay organization and development, with some discussion of style, and almost no discussion of grammar problems. Essay assignments were individually selected with each student, using topics taken from subject matter covered in his other courses. Papers discussing similarities between men and baboons, the philosophical implications of abortion, the functions of the Presidency, and the process of photosynthesis were typical. These paper assignments were "relevant," because they were based on topics that were important in other courses, and because they were the type of papers that would be required of the student in later college work. To ameliorate problems of grammar and style, the students attended the Writing Laboratory four hours each week. During these hours several writing counselors were available to help students develop and refine their assigned papers. Grammar assignments for each student were based on results of the student's original "Diagnostic Essay," wherein various kinds of errors were categorized. Materials varying in difficulty level, topic, and type were organized so that those which might help a student solve a particular grammar problem could be assigned to the degree the diagnostic test indicated was necessary. During his hours in the lab, the student therefore had a "menu" from which to choose his learning activity: he could choose to work on any one of his grammar problems using the individualized, diagnostically assigned audio-tutorial materials, or he could write or revise his assigned paper, asking a writing counselor for advice when he felt it necessary.

The three hour final examination of the course consisted of alternate versions of the essay examinations used on the initial screening. The papers were coded with numbers and rated "blindly" to prevent any bias in the grading related to the individual student or method. The papers were shuffled to eliminate possible identification of class, method, or pre post order.

Two independent evaluators trained in the use of the Subject A grading scheme, separately rated each essay on a number of criteria: the number of major grammatical errors, including sentence fragments, run together sentences, agreement problems, major verb or part-of-speech misuse, idiom misuse and reference problems; the number of minor grammatical errors, including errors of modification, coordination, subordination, predication, statement, mixed construction, parallel construction, and coherence. Total grade from A to I was based on the number and type of grammatical errors, and the structure, organization, and style of the essay as a whole, using the grading standards of a

"non-remedial" Freshman English class. The correlation between the raters was .77 on number of major grammatical errors, .75 on number of minor grammatical errors, and .83 on "grade," indicating moderate agreement on the part of the raters.

Data were submitted to a 2 X 2 repeated measure analysis of variance to determine the effects of treatment categories (Lecture vs. Lab) with respect to testing occasions (Pre vs. Post). This design was employed for evaluation of the effects of the independent variables on three dependent variables: major grammatical errors, minor grammatical errors, and essay "grade."

RESULTS

For major grammatical errors, minor grammatical errors, and total "grade" on essay there was no statistically significant difference in the mean scores of the Lecture and the Lab groups. For major and minor grammatical errors the mean post-test score was less than the mean pre-test score (major: $F=16.88$, $df=1/114$, $p<.001$; minor: $F=16.80$, $df=1/114$, $p<.001$). For the essay grade, the mean post-test score was greater than the mean pre-test score ($F=31.96$, $df=1/114$, $p<.001$). This indicates that there was significant improvement in scores after instruction in the Subject A course, but that enrollment in a writing lab or lecture group failed to affect scores on the dependent variables. With respect to the magnitude of improvement, the mean number of errors was two less on the post-test than on the pre-test, a 34% improvement. The mean number of minor errors was more than two less on the post-test, a 30% improvement. Improvement in mean grade for the essay was from approximately "D" to between a "D" and a "C."

To achieve these improvements, the lecture class had included much time devoted to grammatical principles and problems. The Writing Lab students spent almost no time in class discussing grammar, instead using the programmed and auto tutorial material to develop understanding of grammatical principles.

ATTITUDES

It was felt that the individual consideration and attention available in the Writing Lab sections might cause the Writing Lab student to develop a more favorable attitude toward the Subject A course. An attitude scale allowed each student to rate the following items on a thirty-point scale (1=excellent, very important, etc., 30=poor, unimportant, etc.): the quality of his paper assignments, the amount of extra help available to him, the quality of this extra help, the amount of improvement he felt he had made, and the usefulness of his Subject A learnings for other classes. Using the attitude item as a dependent variable, a one way analysis of variance was employed to determine differences in the mean attitude scores of the Lecture and Lab groups.

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations of Dependent Attitude Variables Separated by Group

Attitude Item	\bar{x}	sd	n
<u>Quality of Teaching</u>			
Lecture	12.91	5.24	22
Lab	9.21	5.91	24
<u>Importance of the Subject</u>			
Lecture	12.09	6.05	22
Lab	9.37	7.01	24
<u>Quality of Paper Assignments</u>			
Lecture	15.32	7.03	22
Lab	12.45	6.55	24
<u>Amount of Extra Help Available</u>			
Lecture	17.68	7.56	22
Lab	6.20	5.85	24
<u>Quality of Extra Help</u>			
Lecture	15.66	7.97	22
Lab	5.96	4.32	23
<u>Amount of Improvement Felt</u>			
Lecture	12.55	6.84	22
Lab	7.52	5.38	23
<u>Usefulness for Other Classes</u>			
Lecture	18.91	7.25	22
Lab	13.10	9.39	20

Table 2
Analysis of Variance of Dependent Attitude Variables Separated by Group

Source of Variation	ss	df	ms	F	p
<u>Quality of Teaching</u>					
Lec-Lab	157.20	1	157.20	4.66	<.05
Error	1483.78	44	33.72		
<u>Importance of the Subject</u>					
Lec-Lab	59.68	1	59.68	1.38	ns
Error	1897.42	44	43.12		
<u>Quality of Paper Assignments</u>					
Lec-Lab	93.88	1	93.88	2.04	ns
Error	2024.73	44	46.02		
<u>Amount of Extra Help Available</u>					
Lec-Lab	1511.01	1	1511.01	31.08	<.001
Error	2139.04	44	48.61		
<u>Quality of Extra Help</u>					
Lec-Lab	1055.62	1	1055.62	26.71	<.001
Error	1699.63	43	39.53		
<u>Amount of Improvement Felt</u>					
Lec-Lab	283.78	1	283.78	7.53	<.01
Error	1621.19	43	37.70		
<u>Usefulness for Other Classes</u>					
Lec-Lab	354.28	1	354.28	5.10	<.05
Error	2776.86	40	69.42		

RESULTS

All seven measures were favorable to the Writing Lab group. Five of the items were quite significantly in favor of the Writing Lab group. The mean of the Lab group failed to be significantly less than the mean of the Lecture group on the following items: importance of the subject, and quality of paper assignments.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The results of this experiment seem to indicate that the "Writing Lab" method of teaching grammar and composition, as defined in this study, may be as effective in teaching both grammar and usage, and essay structure and organization, as four hours of class lecture on these topics. However, the "Writing Lab" method, which includes two hours of class supplemented by both individually diagnosed and assigned auto-tutorial grammar materials and individual writing counseling, seems to produce a more favorable attitude toward remedial composition instruction. If attitude toward instruction is seen as a valuable component of a composition program, the Writing Lab may be seen as a valid alternative to classroom lecture instruction in remedial composition.

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DEVELOPING PROGRAM EVALUATION: AN ONGOING PROCESS

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Since the Learning Assistance Center at the University of California, Davis Campus has been in existence, the necessity for program appraisal has been realized. This paper will describe procedures utilized by the Center to evaluate its program and the subsequent ongoing evaluation process. In addition, philosophical concerns affecting the evaluation process will be examined.

WHY EVALUATE?

Evaluators are required to have both a prior knowledge of evaluation processes in order to adapt a process to measure individual needs and goals. When looking at any evaluation process, the first step is to answer the question — Why evaluate? A clear concept of the goals for your evaluation will help simplify and direct the evaluation process as well as insure collecting the appropriate data for future decision making.

By first clearly stating your goals and objectives for the evaluation you will be better able to ask the correct questions. This will provide useful and accurate information. Questions that are too general or too specific allowing only limited responses often waste time in development and in tabulation. In addition to the wasted effort the data collected may be false, inaccurate, and misleading.

In looking at program development and growth it is important to allow a varied format. The response of people both to evaluation and program processes vary greatly. To encompass this range of attitudes and to accurately evaluate an area of interest it is important to allow variety to express itself. While forced choice answers are easiest to tabulate they often miss important feedback.

It is important also to examine resources for and method of distribution, collection, and analysis of the data. Time and effort are often especially limited at this point in the evaluation process. A simple survey may generate five times the information desired, requiring ten times the effort expected to interpret the data. This type of frustration quickly terminates any continued interest in the evaluation process.

To maximize the collection of both specific information and flexibility, the Learning Assistance Center has undertaken a set of evaluation procedures from demographic data collection to in depth interviews.

In undertaking an evaluation, it is also very important to develop a positive attitude among the staff about this process. A success/failure orientation tends to group evaluation with failure and blame, rather than growth and discovery. When a staff has learned to view the evaluation process from this growth and decision making perspective, rather than personal judgment and threat of loss or exposure, the evaluation tool will be more readily incorporated in planning, programming, and development as an ongoing process.

The process of evaluation to be described here has helped determine the paths of continual growth for the Learning Assistance Center at Davis. The trends indicated by participant response have been useful in setting priorities for current projects and directing future program development. This allows for client-directed growth, in which the student makes suggestions for program modification which he feels will further meet his needs.

TECHNIQUES USED

In order to gather needed information, four different evaluation techniques were utilized. Our general demographic information is collected from IBM cards filled out during the student's first visit to the Learning Assistance Center. We don't record everyone entering the Center but only those deciding to begin a program. This descriptive information is converted into a computer data bank for use in studying yearly and quarterly trends and changes. This avoids hours of hand tabulation. In addition, a file source for the following other three methods is provided.

The second method is directed specifically toward those people starting a program but attending two or fewer times. This method allows us to gauge response to changes in procedures. The data from mini-surveys (on double post cards sent out twice a year) tend to show course demands plus personal commitments.

Our third method is to invite a random sample of the Center users to spend an hour one evening discussing their experience in depth. We use student interns with interviewing skills to conduct the evening meetings. We provide the interviewees with an orientation to the Learning Assistance Center's facilities and programs and a list of areas in which the staff desires feedback. This in depth information is then compiled by the interviewer and reported to the staff.

The fourth source of feedback is from a four page survey sent to all students using the Learning Assistance Center facilities during the year.

The following questions are samples of those used in the above described techniques.

Demographic Data Questionnaire

1. Have you ever been to the Learning Assistance Center before?
A. Yes B. No
2. Your present class:
A. Freshman B. Sophomore C. Junior D. Senior
E. Graduate
3. How were you referred to the Learning Assistance Center?
A. Friend B. Counselor C. Instructor D. Advertisement
E. EOP F. Dean's Office

Mini-Survey

Please circle services used: Individual Workshop Tutor Lab

Please check the appropriate line(s) which apply to you

- _____ Had schedule conflicts preventing LAC participation
- _____ Got what I wanted from LAC. (space for comments)
- _____ Didn't get what I wanted. (space for comments)

In-Depth Interview Questions

1. What skills did you acquire from workshop participation?
2. Do you have any suggestions concerning lengths of workshops, times offered, or format(s) used?
3. How helpful was tutoring?
4. Was advice received useful?
5. Would you recommend LAC services to a friend?

Year-End Survey

In terms of helping you achieve your educational goals at the University of California at Davis, how would you rate each aspect of the Learning Assistance Center?

List of Aspects	Responses for Each Aspect From Which to Choose	Open-Ended Remarks
Workshops Taken	Great Help Some Help Little Help No Help Does Not Apply	Space provided for comments and suggestions regarding each aspect listed.
Individual Sessions		
Tutoring		
Intake Procedure		
Group Orientation		
Other _____		

In 1973-74, from these sources we received twelve recommendations for changes. Of these, ten were implemented; and therefore, new areas and options were created for evaluation and modification.

IMPLEMENTATION OF RECOMMENDATIONS

The implementation of student recommendations made the operation of the Center more efficient and appealing to the Davis students. As a result, four times as many students came to the Center for assistance in the Fall of 1974 as in the Fall of 1973. This created, at peak times, a three to four week backlog of student appointments. However, this great influx created a need to change some well-liked procedures.

The most significant program change occurred in our initial interview procedure. In 1973-74, the student filled out intake forms and then was assigned an individual appointment with a specialist. During this hour, the specialist would interpret the study skills survey, inform the student of various services offered, administer a diagnostic reading test, and get to know this individual student's situation. The discussion led to a mutual decision regarding the best skill building program for the student. Later, a small group orientation format (at most, six people) was undertaken to alleviate problems presented by increased student usage. This met our immediate need of eliminating long waiting lists and long working hours. With this change in programming, the need arises once again to evaluate how these changes affect the student coming to the Learning Assistance Center. So, the process continues.

CONCLUSION

Although the attempted appraisal of any program may lead to unexpected results and a need for continual re-evaluation, the necessity of client participation in program development is of foremost importance. This client feedback instills new ideas and creativity to assist in maintaining and evaluating a developing program.

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AN URBAN CENTERED READING AND STUDY SKILLS PROGRAM

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INTRODUCTION

The State of Texas designated Texas Southern University as a "Special Purpose Institution of Higher Education for Urban Programming" in June 1973. This made it necessary for various departments and service centers of the University to redesign their learning programs in an effort to meet the needs of their students. The Reading and Study Skills Center was among those instructional entities to redesign its learning program.

A Texas Southern University Faculty Research Grant provided funds to develop and implement this instructional program based on the use of individualized prescribed instructional packets at the college level.

The student population at Texas Southern University is now more diverse, especially since the inception of the Weekend College. A large number of older students whose studies have been interrupted for various reasons, full-time employed students, parents and children from the same family, veterans, bilingual and international students constitute a large portion of the total enrollment. These students bring with them different academic preparations. Many of these students need special reading and study skills programs if they expect to make satisfactory academic progress.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

The Reading and Study Skills program at Texas Southern University operates within the framework of the Individualized Prescribed Instructional model. Some of the chief exponents of the IPI model are Veatch (13), Tyler (12), Wolf (16), Odom (10), Glase (4,5), Spodek (11), Beck and Bolvin (2). It is based on the premise that "The course design must . . . encompass the current prerequisites for a job . . . provide

students with the capability to continuously upgrade their skills after leaving the classroom. In our technological world, that means being able to 'read how' as well as 'to do.' " (Johnson, 9). The program herein described shows how goals and instructional resources are individually prescribed for the express purpose of facilitating learning and academic development of students enrolled in reading and study skills at the college level. It is mainly concerned with (1) the formation of behavioral objectives for each skill taught, (2) diagnosis of reading and study skills, (3) the assessibility of a variety of instructional materials, and (4) careful appraising and plotting of individual student performance and progress.

Student Selectivity

The majority of students enrolled in Reading and Study Skills courses have a composite reading grade equivalent score of 10.0 or below as measured by the *Nelson-Denny Reading Test*. Any student whose total performance is below 13.0 on the *Nelson-Denny Reading Test* is so advised. Those students who score below 10.0 are administered a diagnostic instrument to determine more specifically their reading deficiencies and instructional levels. The diagnostic appraisal is made during the first week of classes. The *Davis Reading Test Form 1A*, *Diagnostic Reading Tests* and a teacher-made informal reading inventory are instruments used to make further diagnosis of students who evidence a deficiency in reading skills. Data generated from these instruments are classified and categorized for instructional purposes.

Instructional Procedures

The instructional program is divided into two broad areas: 1) Reading Skills, and 2) Study Skills. Each area is further divided into units, and units are divided into skills. For example, the unit on location skills consisted of previewing, skimming, scanning, using the preface and/or introduction, using table of contents, using a bibliography, using an appendix, and using the index. The various skills make up the students' instructional packets. A single packet contains activities designed for the mastery of a particular skill. Each packet has its own set of behavioral objectives and activities through which a student works at his own pace. The mastery of a particular skill may require several steps and activities contained within a single packet. To move from one skill to another, a student must master each step with at least 85% accuracy. In the event a student fails to score the minimum per cent of accuracy on a skill test, he is provided with comparable exercises until the desired level of achievement is attained. The student and teacher together check the student's performance on all exercises. The teacher is charged with the responsibility of carefully monitoring each student's progress as he works through the various instructional units.

Learning materials used for the total reading and study skills program are either commercially prepared or developed in the Reading and Study

Skills Center. A variety of trade books, magazines, newspapers, reading skills laboratories, tapes, filmstrips, and films are also part of the resources from which instructional units are developed.

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**A MODEL FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A
READING AND STUDY SKILLS INVENTORY
FOR EVERY CONTENT AREA**

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The teacher in the content area classroom should have a vital interest in his student's ability to read and understand the instructional materials used in his course of study. In order to evaluate each student's ability to read and understand the instructional material, the content area teacher must be aware of both the readability of his textbooks and the reading abilities of his students. It is not enough to say that a textbook is written for seventh grade students since the seventh grade teacher could expect to find reading abilities ranging from third to eleventh grade in a single classroom. Durrell (3) points out that the teacher of fourth grade pupils might expect to have a range of abilities about the same as she would find in all grades of a one-room rural school. Therefore, the classroom teacher needs an instrument to measure each student's reading ability in order to make some practical decisions as to the degree of success each student will have with the instructional materials.

The concept of readability generally refers to the success that an average individual experiences in reading a book. Generally, a readability analysis reports an average readability score or grade level. McGuaig and Hutchings (5) describe the variation of readability and suggest that we must be concerned with the variation and not the average readability of instructional material. To further complicate the problem, we are finding that reader background and interest is highly influential in his reading performance and comprehension (6).

The teacher, then, has the problem of putting the right book in the right pair of hands, or, in this case with instructional materials, knowing where the students can be expected to experience difficulty when reading the textbook. The fact that this problem has not been successfully solved is reflected by Marksheffel's (4:34) observation that: "... at least 40 to 50 percent of the secondary students in America's public schools are being forced to try to learn subject matter from books that are beyond their instructional reading level."

Several techniques of appraising reading ability are available to the classroom teacher. Standardized test scores, teacher observations, and informal reading inventories are but a few of the sources upon which the teacher may draw.

Standardized test scores give the teacher a picture of how the student interacts with the material that the test author deemed important. However, the results of these tests often serve to limit our understanding of the student's ability to deal with a variety of reading material because they do not account for all the factors involved in understanding or learning in a content area classroom.

Teacher observations have been shown to be a viable and accurate source for appraising student's reading ability but it usually takes months of observation and interaction with students before these observations would be valuable or accurate. The content area teacher should not afford that long a time evaluating his students' reading ability.

The informal reading inventory has been shown to be an effective evaluation instrument used by content area teachers. However, the informal reading inventory alone does not give a complete picture of the student's ability to deal with all of the material he will encounter in a particular content area class. Furthermore, content area teachers do not have the thirty to sixty minutes per student needed to administer an individual informal reading inventory. The need for a new method of evaluating students' reading levels arises from the facts that standardized reading tests and teacher evaluation tend to overrate the students' abilities at the instructional level, and informal inventories, while valid and reliable, are quite time-consuming. Sipay (8), Daniel (1).

To effectively determine each student's ability to read and learn in each content area, the teacher needs a group inventory which will evaluate both the study skills and the reading skills necessary for success in his content area. This reading and study skills inventory must be developed to represent all of the instructional material from which the student will be asked to learn, and unlike the standardized test, it must be responsive to the teachers exact demands and input. The balance of this article presents a model for the development of a Reading and Study Skills Inventory (RASSI).

The Reading and Study Skills Inventory (RASSI) developed for a specific content area will allow the classroom teacher to evaluate each student's ability to read and learn in his content area, and to identify each student's specific strengths and weaknesses in the content area. Then, the teacher can maximize the student's strengths while teaching to areas of weakness.

To accomplish these goals the development of the RASSI should include readability analysis of instructional materials used in the content area, the construction of group and individual reading inventories based upon the skills required by the instructional materials and the skills identified by instructors as being necessary for academic success in their content area, and the development of an examiner's manual and interpretation guide. Each of these four components is developed in detail below.

The readability analysis of instructional material may be made using the 1958 revision of the Dale-Chall Readability Formula (7), (9). This analysis is concerned with establishing the relative difficulty of passages taken every tenth page within the instructional material.

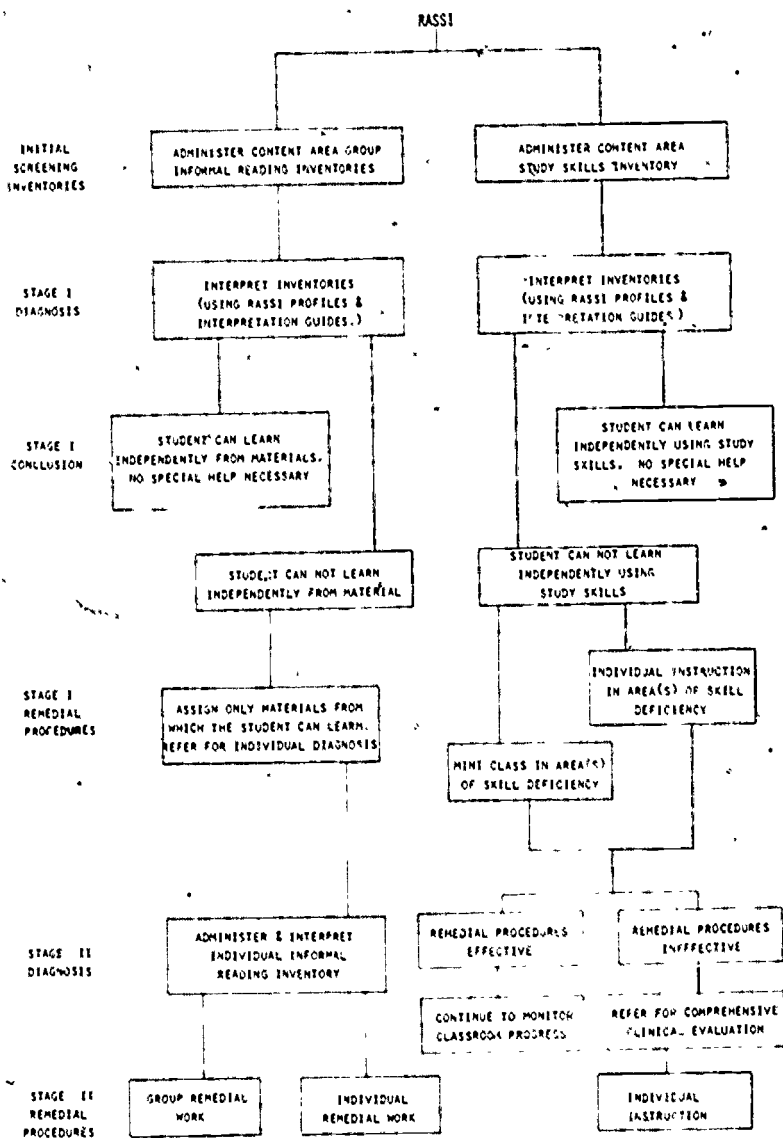
The group reading inventory should include a passage from each level of difficulty identified by the readability analysis. Four multiple choice questions including factual, inferential, and vocabulary use questions evaluate comprehension of these passages read silently. Reading rate for each passage should be measured.

An individual reading inventory should include a passage from each level of difficulty identified by the readability analysis. In the individual inventory, passages are read orally to the examiner who codes oral reading errors to make an analysis of specific reading deficiencies. Comprehension should be evaluated by factual, inferential and vocabulary use questions read to the student. Oral reading rate should be measured.

The study skills inventory should include items to measure the student's ability to accomplish tasks such as using the parts of a book, reading a chart, graph, diagram or illustration, using reference materials, or skills and tasks identified by instructors as being necessary for academic success in their content area.

Finally, the examiner's manual and interpretation guide must include administration instructions, scoring procedures, and interpretation guides with implications for classroom instruction for each section of the RASSI. The RASSI should be administered and evaluated by the content area teacher. The reading specialist and content area teacher should develop student and class profile sheets to help the instructor plan individual and group learning activities. Figure 1, below, is a flowchart to help the reader conceptualize the RASSI administration and interpretation procedures and to synthesize these various procedures.

FIGURE 1
RASSI ADMINISTRATION AND
INTERPRETATION PROCEDURES



Initial screening inventories are administered to all students by the content area teacher as a group inventory. Stage I diagnosis involves the evaluation of the RASSI using the interpretation guides and RASSI profile. The Stage I conclusion identifies those students who can or can't learn independently from the instructional materials.

Stage I remedial procedures for reading skills includes a procedure for classroom practices (assigning only materials from which the student can learn) and the referral procedure (refer the student to the reading specialist for individual diagnosis). The Stage I remedial procedures for study skills provides for either individual instruction or mini-classes in the specific area(s) of skill deficiency.

Referral to Stage II diagnosis for reading skills involves the administration and interpretation of the individual informal reading inventory. The results of this inventory would call for either group or individual remedial work (i.e. Stage II remedial procedures for reading skills).

If the Stage I remedial procedures for study skills proved effective, the student could return to regular class work while the teacher continues to monitor his progress. If the Stage I remedial procedures for study skills proved ineffective, the student would be referred for a comprehensive clinical evaluation and individual instruction (Stage II remedial procedures for study skills).

The development, administration, interpretation and implementation of a Reading and Study Skills Inventory demands the cooperation of the content area teacher and the reading specialist. Through interdisciplinary communication and cooperation, the faculty of a school can develop an effective instrument to evaluate the reading/learning abilities of each student in each content area. Furthermore, inter-disciplinary communication and cooperation is necessary to remediate problem areas. If this model of identification and remediation were initiated, we would be well on our way to insuring that students would not be leaving our content area classrooms without the skills and the desire necessary to read to their fullest potential.

The authors are in the process of implementing a RASSI for the Basic Electricity Core at the Larimer County Vocational-Technical Center, Fort Collins, Colorado. Special thanks should be extended to Mr. David Smith, Coordinator of Supplementary Services, and Mr. Harry Matsunaka, Instructor in Radio/Television Repair, of Larimer County Vocational-Technical Center, Fort Collins, Colorado, for their assistance in developing this RASSI.

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