The intent of this annual conference is to provide a medium of exchange for practitioners in the field, with each person acting as a resource person for the others. To provide topical focuses, two presentations were made: Dr. Joan Roloff discussed "The Place of the Learning Center in Remedial/Compensatory Education in Community Colleges," and Dr. Henry Fea discussed "The Affective Component of Study." Dr. Roloff typifies the new wave of remedial instruction, personalization of teaching. The concept of incorporation of the classroom setting with individualized instruction in the learning center, utilizing the discipline instructor, as well as the specialist, widens the impact of educational aid available to the student. Dr. Fea examines six affective elements of study which yield evidence that the affective component may be more potent than the cognitive component. His categorizations include: the unfinished task, busy work, remembering and forgetting, time planning, rationalization, and personalization of material. The majority of the conference was planned as a group discussion with four designated topics: reading, mathematics/science, English, and developmental centers. Two papers are included on reading. The first discusses content areas and informal diagnosis of level of reading attainment, and the second provides a confluent reading/writing fundamentals curriculum. (NHM)
CONFEREECE ON COMPENSATORY/REMEDIAl EDUCATION

April 3 & 4, 1975

Howard B. Larsen
Steven G. Olswang
Editors

Center for Development of Community College Education

Frederic T. Giles, Director

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Report of the Conference Proceedings

The first Conference on Compensatory/Remedial Education was held on April 30 and May 31, 1973. In the Preface to the Occasional Paper No. 21 reporting the proceedings, the editors stated:

"What is not included is an account of our hope that this Conference might become an annual gathering for the sharing of promising techniques and materials, for a forum in which we could bounce ideas off of one another for good criticism and advice..."

The intent of the third conference was to accomplish just those goals; and, in reflection of the event, we feel it accomplished those purposes. It provided a medium for exchange for practitioners in the field not available elsewhere, with each person acting as resource person for the others. While no specific panaceas evolved for working on remedial skills with students in community colleges, none were supposed to. However, new and fresh ideas for reaching some answers to the problem were formulated, which is more than each of us could have hoped for.

The format of the Conference was structured on an informal plane. At the outset, to focus on the major topics of interest, two resource persons made presentations. Dr. Joan Roloff of Chaffey Community College in California discussed "The Place of the Learning Center in Remedial/Compensatory Education in Community Colleges." (Text reproduced herein.) From her first-hand knowledge of setting up and making available individualized learning procedures and techniques, Dr. Roloff typified the
new wave of remedial instruction, personalization of teaching. The concept of incorporation of both the classroom setting with individualized instruction in the learning center, utilizing the discipline instructor, as well as the specialist, widens the impact of educational aid available to the student.

Dr. Henry Fee, Professor of Educational Psychology at the University of Washington, presented for discussion, a report and analysis of the affective component in the study mechanism. It is his feeling that exploration of this avenue of approach is best suited for the encouragement of the remedial student to improve educational motivation. (Text reproduced herein.)

The majority of the Conference was designated to group discussion, both informal "floating" interest groups and designated topic groups. The four designated topics for group discussion were 1) Reading; 2) Mathematics/Science; 3) English; and 4) Developmental Centers. Each group met separately and discussed topics related to their particular discipline and interest.

The Reading group focused mainly on two themes: how to diagnose level of reading attainment, and once determining that level, development of the best techniques and reading materials for improvement. The discussion leader, Karen Strom Spring of Seattle Central Community College brought forth considerable material on both issues, some of which are in-
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corporated as appendices to the text of her contributed paper printed herein. Largely, the group agreed that it is essential to develop (on an ad hoc - separate level - separate institution basis, if need be) reading materials particularly geared to specific content areas in order for reading to have any relevance to career oriented students.

The English discussion group, lead by Barbara Morgridge of Edmonds Community College, centered their exchange on the varying ways institutions administer their remedial English curriculum. It appears there is little uniformity in both structure and instruction among community colleges, with differences in horizontal versus vertical sequences, as well as developmental center staff versus regular English faculty giving the instruction. While no agreement was reached as to which ways are better, new possibilities and ideas were brought forth.

Teaching helpers, like student tutors and paraprofessionals, in conjunction with individualized instruction through the means of programmed texts and developmental center instrumentalities was the topic of the Math/Science discussion group. Ruth Hendricks of Highline Community College, the discussion leader, noted the major problem for math instruction (as well as all remedial instruction) is lack of funds, not only for staff, but for development of modules for instruction. The utilization of assistance students as tutors, possibly on a work-study basis, is one means of circumventing the financial problem. It was felt, addition-
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ally, that interdisciplinary cooperation would greatly facilitate instruction in this area, with each other discipline providing content problems especially geared to their area as a means of making the instruction of math particularly meaningful to each student in the remediation program.

Do Developmental Centers create the feeling of isolation? The entire philosophy of such centers is to provide individualized personal instruction for the Community College student operating at a remedial level, yet the Development Center discussion group, led by Bobbie Bopp of Whatcom Community College, felt that group interaction must be built into the program. This may be accomplished through small group instruction sessions, full class sessions, and, of course, group counseling sessions. The need to work counseling into the developmental center on a full time basis was very strongly felt. Furthermore, interaction with the discipline instructors, and not just the developmental center specialists, is essential for the overall progress of the student.

It is obviously impossible to relate the multitude of ideas and topics exchanged and discussed during the two-day course of the Conference, what is important is that so many topics were discussed, both on individual and group levels. There are very few mediums which facilitate colleague interaction, and our object was wholly to provide such. For this alone, we feel we were successful.
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We thank the contributors and participants, for their dedication to the field, made the entire Conference a haven for learning. Contacts for future bipartisan exchange of materials were developed, and the Center offered itself as "central control" for overall dissemination. Our work is not complete, but only beginning in that area. If you have materials of value to all, or comments and ideas for bettering the future Conferences, please send them to:

RESEARCH ASSOCIATE
Center for the Development of Community College Education
M217 Miller Hall  DQ-12
University of Washington
Seattle, Washington  98195

We look forward to next year's conference, and hope you plan to join us.

Steven G. Olswang
Conference Coordinator
THE PLACE OF A LEARNING CENTER IN REMEDIAL/COMPENSATORY EDUCATION
IN A COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Joan G. Roloff, Ph.D.
Coordinator of the Learning Center
Chaffey College
Alta Loma, California

Since I was last here at this conference, a good deal has changed for me professionally. Instead of being in charge of a developmental program which involves regular, structured classes, I am now in charge of a new Learning Center, where the work is entirely individualized. Previously, I shared with you some of my basic philosophy concerning remedial/compensatory education; today I would like to share with you some of the specific ways I think a Learning Center can contribute to compensatory education in a very positive fashion, by using the evolving new Learning Center I am gradually creating as an example. Some of the problems I have faced, the solutions I have found, and the systems my staff and I have worked out to cope with the realities of our situation may be of use to you in your own professional environments. I intend these remarks as provocative, not definitive. The real value of conferences such as this one, it seems to me, is in the sharing of experiences and ideas among all of us; and I hope that at the conclusion of this presentation we can discuss together the various ways in which we are approaching and solving our problems on individual campuses.

When I began work at Chaffey College last August 1 as the first
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Joan G. Roloff

Coordinator of the Learning Center, I walked into a situation in which there was a great deal of commitment to the concept of a Learning Center on the part of the administration, which, of course, was a great advantage, and the usual division of opinion on the part of the faculty: there were those who recognized the need for such a service to students in an open-door college, particularly in an environment in which a higher and higher percentage of our students are older people who have been out of school for a considerable period of time; and there were the usual group who always feel that any special service for students is a waste of money that would be better spent on increasing the academic offerings in particular divisions. I also walked into a particularly nice physical situation, which demonstrated to me that the college really did have a commitment to the establishment of an adequate Learning Center: they had built me a new building, which was almost completed when I began the job. It's small—just one room, about 35 x 30, plus two smallish offices. Naturally, we have already outgrown our space in two-thirds of a school year; but it is nice to have a place of our own, which is fresh and clean and new, and the principle of the school's providing a special place for us was what seemed especially significant to me. I was also given a full quarter for planning my operation and ordering equipment and materials; before officially opening to students—but that turned out to be a joke: as soon as school started, the students began finding us, and during Fall
Quarter, in spite of the fact that we weren't officially open at all, my secretary and I, who were then the total staff, put in 331 student contact hours, plus 52 hours of reading text material onto tape for students who could not handle the medium of print adequately because of visual difficulties.

I ran into my first problem, naturally, the first day I was on the job. When I inquired about budget for the 1974-75 school year, it turned out that I had been assigned a budget which included the salary for a secretary, and some money for equipment, materials, and supplies, but no money for other staff. Somehow, no one had thought about that. Since obviously a real Learning Center, based on the principle of individualized and personalized instruction, cannot operate without the staff to work with students, I began work with that mind-boggling problem staring me in the face. And this brings me to the first principle I think it is important to stress in the operation of a Learning Center or any other system of remedial education: in budget requests, money for adequate staffing seems to me to be the highest priority item, far more important than any amount for equipment and materials. Only through the direct one-to-one relationship with students, I believe, can any really significant change in learning patterns take place; the human element remains all-important in the learning situation.
As the Fall Quarter went on, I found myself doing three major things in addition to working with the students who sought us out: searching for additional sources of funds with which to hire staff, deciding on equipment and materials to purchase in order to have adequate programs available for students who wanted extended help in developing their basic skills, and working on a data collection system with the Office for Educational Development and Research, who at Chaffey is a man who is very much committed to the idea of a Learning Center and who has been of tremendous help to me in all phases of developing the Center. The second major principle I want to stress in this presentation is the importance of an adequate data collection system, to use as a base for making projections for future needs in terms of staff, equipment, materials, hours of operation, etc., and also as a base for continuing evaluation of the Center. Included in the folder I have given you are examples of the kind of data collection we are doing: an Initial-Entry Form which we fill out in an interview with each student when he first comes into the Center, and two IBM cards, one which is filled out with information from the Initial Entry Form and one which is filled out each time the student comes into the Center. With the data collected through the use of these items, most of the questions listed on page 8 of the overview look at the Learning Center which is also in your folder can be answered, providing us with important information for planning and evaluation.
Deciding on equipment and materials is always an "iffy" matter, because it is difficult to predict what students will like and want to work on, and their enjoying what they are working with, or at least feeling that it is worthwhile for them, seems to me to be a crucial aspect of their progress in educational skills development. The largest number of items I purchased are materials for reading improvement, with English mechanics, spelling, and vocabulary second; in addition, we have materials on phonics, arithmetic, composition, and study skills. I have found that materials on study skills seem to be the most difficult to find, outside of simple worksheets or basic books; those of you who are interested in authorship might look into developing a study skills program in some medium other than print, for students who cannot or do not relate well to print as a medium for learning. I have also found, as I expected, that what students like to work on is not necessarily what I would have thought they'd have liked at all—one of our most popular programs is the series of mini-courses on English mechanics put out by Educulture, and this is a program that I consider exceptionally dull. The third major principle I would like to stress here is that the important thing about equipment and materials is to have as wide a variety as possible available, both in terms of content and in terms of types of media. This makes allowance for different learning styles and different preferences of students, and also allows
instructors to try a variety of approaches to help a student remedy a learning disability or skills deficiency.

Searching for additional funds turned out to be one of my really interesting quests this year, because I learned so much about various sources of funds through my persistence. By far the most important source of funding for remedial-compensatory education in California, and perhaps there is a similar system in your area, turned out to be the California State Plan for Vocational Education. In California, 15% of vocational education funds are earmarked for disadvantaged students, with supportive services, including remedial education and tutorial services specifically delineated as a part of the required allocation of funds. It was through our Dean of Vocational Education that I was able to get temporary funds for this year to hire two half-time Instructional Assistants and a half-time certificated reading specialist. I was able to get enough money to hire two additional full-time Instructional Aides for a temporary six-week period, during our busiest time Winter Quarter, through additional vocational education funds earmarked for supportive services to the physically handicapped, because we supplied instructional assistance, including tutoring, typing, taping, and transcribing, to physically handicapped students for a total of 152 hours Fall Quarter and 311.5 hours Winter Quarter. The coordina-
tor of Services for Physically Limited Students, and I am presently working on a system whereby he can contribute a certain amount of money regularly to the budget for the Learning Center, on the basis of projected use of our services by the students enrolled in his program; and we are attempting to set up a regular taping service for students who cannot read their textbooks because of physical limitations through money from Vocational Rehabilitation. I was also able to get one lump of one-time money from the Fund for Innovation administered by the Vice-President for Instruction, with which to purchase some carrels, tables and chairs, and some basic equipment which my own budget did not allow for. The principle I am trying to stress here is that you need not be limited by district funds; if you "scrounge" hard enough, I think that usually you can get additional funds with which to operate a program of compensatory education--through the Federal Government; through the state government; through special funds available on campus; and through a source I had not thought of until I heard a speaker on proposal writing at a reading conference I attended recently: he suggested that we should check out local sources--philanthropic and service organizations that might be interested in supporting innovative educational programs.

The types of services provided through a Learning Center or its equivalent should, in my opinion, be broader than just the services which
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John G. Roloff

fit under the term "remedial-compensatory education." As you will notice in my statement of philosophy about my Learning Center, I think it is important that a Learning Center avoid being labelled the "dummy room" of the college. I have made a real effort, and will continue to do so, to involve other instructors in the process of using the Learning Center to develop and store enrichment units of various kinds for their regular classes. So far we have been, I think, reasonably successful: two of the econ instructors are sending their students to the Learning Center weekly to listen to taped lessons, work through printed study modules, and take short quizzes on the material; and we are storing study-practice materials for two different nursing programs. A psychology enrichment corner is being planned, and one econ professor has one class of released time for the Spring Quarter to develop a new series of modules for a different econ course.

Let me just run through the types of services we have been providing so far, for the purpose of stressing the principle that a service such as a Learning Center should provide as wide a variety of types of services as is possible. Our base service, of course, is to help students improve their basic educational skills: reading, language mechanics, vocabulary development, writing, study skills, and computational skills. But beyond this, we are also providing the opportunity for instructors
to store enrichment units—the econ, nursing, and psychology programs I mentioned; we have provided special services for physically handicapped students which were not available elsewhere on campus; we provide short-term tutoring and editing services for students for specific course assignments; we have begun an ESL program, which is small right now but which we want to expand as rapidly as possible; and we have begun to involve other instructors in the preparation of materials to be used by their own students for course enrichment. On page 7 of the handout on my Learning Center that I have given you, you will find some other possible future objectives.

I would like to bring up one last matter concerning the place of a Learning Center in remedial-compensatory education—or, in this case, any system of such education which may be operative in your particular school: the administrative structure of such a program. The principle I should like to stress here is that whenever you possibly can, fight to keep or to get such a program autonomous—that is, not attached to a particular instructional department or division, in terms of budget and whom you report to. This makes a tremendous difference. I am convinced in terms of political and psychological ramifications among the faculty and administration, and therefore in how well we can ultimately serve the students. If you can report directly to the Dean of Instruction or
the Dean of Student Services (I don't think it matters much which), you can keep the entire operation much "cleaner" and have more of an opportunity to expand your real services to all students and all faculty. The trend nationally seems to be towards combining all student resource services, the library, learning center, tutoring service, audio-visual service, etc., into one administrative unit, creating what is commonly called a total Learning Resources Center; and that seems to me to be an acceptable organizational structure. What is dangerous is to be attached to a particular instructional division—because then instructors in other divisions look on you as "belonging" to that particular division, and your services are less likely to be truly campus-wide, as they ought to be—not to speak of the fact that your budget has much less chance of real consideration if it is tied into the budget of one division.

As I work with the establishment of this new Learning Center at Chaffey College, I am more and more convinced that this concept, of a totally individualized student-help program, is a healthy and workable one for the students we are now serving in community colleges. Flexibility is the key factor here: the more flexible a program we have, the better we can serve each student as an individual human being.

Obviously, students sense a need for such a service: my staff and I, during Winter Quarter, our first quarter of official operation, put
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in 2,198.5 direct student contact hours, not counting the hours of taping and transcribing we did—an average of 183 hours per week. And this was with very little advertising, because of my limitations of space and staff—just posters, flyers at registration, and one newspaper article. But whether or not you have on your campus a Learning Center or equivalent, the principles that I have been discussing apply, I think, to all remedial-compensatory education. Most important are a humanistic stance and an emphasis on a personal, one-to-one relationship with each student, rather than a machine-oriented system; provision for a variety of equipment and materials; a thorough data collection system; a constant search for additional funds; providing a variety of types of services; and maintaining or trying to get as much administrative autonomy as possible. By keeping these principles in mind, we can make progress in providing students who need it with supportive educational services and make a real effort to be sure the community college maintains an open door, not a revolving one.
THE AFFECTIVE COMPONENT OF STUDY

Henry R. Fea, Ph.D.

Traditionally, the cognitive component of study has been researched and discussed. Hints and suggestions have emerged on reading skills, note taking, outline, underlining, and library procedures (Wagner, 1965; Riter, 1971; Fisher and Harris, 1974). However, there has been no consensus of opinion as to the merits of these (Hoon, 1974).

While research on the affective component of study is sparse, it does yield meager evidence that the affective component may be more potent than the cognitive, and certainly worthy of exploration (Burnett, 1973; Anderson, 1975). Therefore, let us examine affective elements of study which have shown promise through use.

1. THE UNFINISHED TASK - Traditionally, a study has been taught to complete assignments. It has been stressed that given time and the necessary stamina, leaving a task incomplete is unreasonable and possibly unethical. There is evidence, however, that tasks which are left for later completion may result in more efficient learning and longer memory (Martin & Davidson, 1964). Because this is a habit (and is replacing another habit), it will take time and energy to initiate. But the project is no more difficult than remembering to leave the cap off the tube of toothpaste. Suppose a student is assigned a chapter to read. His usual procedure is to hope that the instructor will have forgotten the assignment by the next class meeting, and therefore do
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nothing. But assuming he accepts the assignment, he will read the chapter from the beginning to end, close the book and say to himself, "Well, that's that—I've finished the chapter." The student's mind echoes the words and says "That's that. Now I can forget it." And it does. If the student follows that "Unfinished Task" technique he will read the chapter with the exception of the last section. Then he closes the book. He says to himself, "I must remember to read that last section of the chapter." And his mind echoes, "I must remember, I must remember." Note that the time spent in reading is the same in both instances. If the student's learning is improved and memory enhanced by following the second procedure, it will be to his advantage. Remember, it is a habit, and like any other habit, will take time to acquire.

2. BUSY WORK— "Busy Work" is considered to be that collection of activities through which a student puts himself, which take considerable time and some effort, and which the student labels "study," but which are not study. Every individual has the ability to convince himself that he is studying, when all he is doing is busy work. An excellent example is the good high school student. (The poor high school student does not read anything.) The good high school student proceeds as follows: He reads the text that was assigned and he underlines as he reads. If asked why he is underlining, he will state that he is
underlining the important parts of the text so that he will remember them. That is not true. He is underlining parts so that he can forget that which is not underlined. It is not a technique for learning; it is a technique for forgetting.

The student feels satisfaction when he has completed underlining parts of a chapter. But the satisfaction does not come from knowing that which is underlined—it comes from the knowledge that he need do nothing about that which is not underlined. His next step (the next time he "studies") is to make notes on the underlined material. This time he audibly expresses the technique he is using. When he has finished writing his notes on the underlined material, he slides the text away saying, "Now I can forget the text." And his mind obliges. Just before an examination on the chapter he writes notes on the notes he made. His aim is to condense his notes into one page. When this is done, he confronts the one page of condensed material and the hard truth dawns on him, "I must study this page the night before the examination." This is true. All the rest has been "Busy Work," a "going through the motions" with the optimistic feeling that he is studying, but with the reservation that he will "really learn" the night before the examination. He goes to the examination with a study background of one page the previous evening. Heaven help him if the instructor sets questions on the material that was "read" or the material that was "un-
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derlined."

Recall of telephone numbers provides a simple example of the way the mind operates under circumstances similar to that described above. When you are supplied with a telephone number you say, "Just a minute. I'd like to write it down so I will remember it." And that isn't true, is it? You write it down so that you won't have to remember it.

If a student changes this Busy Work habit, he will be amazed at his ability to remember. He begins with the resolution: "I'm going to read this section of the text, then close the book, and attempt to recall the important ideas and facts that I read—and everything that I cannot recall I will reread." The student finds himself reading to remember because the penalty is rereading. Remember, it is a habit, and will take time to acquire.

3. REMEMBERING AND FORGETTING - Those factors involved in memory are psychologically deep. First, it is necessary to recognize that there are two processes—that forgetting is just as much of an active process as remembering. If human beings could not forget anything their situation would be just as difficult to live with as if they could not remember anything.

Suppose a speaker said, "Say, let me tell you..." and the listener remembered every word the speaker had ever used, his inflection and why
he had said it. Suppose an individual remembered everything that he had ever eaten—the good and the bad—whether he felt well or ill, life would be so horrible that many would commit suicide.

Forgetting is just as valuable as remembering. Human beings must learn to control the two. Consider two hypothetical situations, one in which forgetting is needed and the other remembering is needed. Suppose the first situation is a quarrel which you had with a friend this morning—your very best friend—and it was one of those bitter, bitter quarrels, in which you said things that you know you shouldn't have said and in which he said things that you're quite sure he may have been hoarding for many years and that you can never forgive. The quarrel is over and you walk away and you say to yourself, "I must forget this, or we can never be friends again. I must forget." And with your whole heart you hope that you will forget it.

Consider the second situation. This morning you went to a lecture and the instructor said to you, "This material is vital to you in your profession and also will be on the final examination. So you said to yourself, "I must remember this. It's absolutely vital that I do."

There are the two situations—one in which with your whole heart you hope you will forget, and the other with your whole mind you hope you will remember. How do you proceed? In the first situation you have just said to yourself, "I must forget this, or we can never be friends
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again. With your next breath you say, "How did this start? What started this quarrel? Oh, yes, ... and then what did I say?" And you find yourself somewhere where you can sit undisturbed, where it's very quiet, where there's nothing exciting around you and you can concentrate on your thoughts. A good place, of course, is to go to a lecture, because you've learned long ago that you can concentrate on your own problems in lectures. So you do; and you're highly emotionally involved. You say, "How could he have said that? I remember distinctly. These were his very words... and then I said, this, and he said, that, and then I said, that..." At one o'clock in the morning you are tossing to and fro on your bed and you're saying to yourself, "For heaven's sake, why can't I forget it? I go over and over and over this quarrel. Why can't I forget it?" Now the reason you can't forget it is that you have used every learning technique known to psychologists to help you remember. Every one. You told yourself you must forget it, but you have used every technique to help you remember.

Why did you remember this quarrel? These are the techniques for remembering. First, emotional involvement—as high an emotional involvement as you can get, within limits; second, quick review—review almost immediately that the event has occurred, because forgetting begins immediately; three, organization; and four, real meaning. See what you were doing—"How could he have said that?" and you feel yourself burning all over again with anger. "How did this begin? What happened then?"
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See how you are organizing it so carefully? Thirdly, remember, immediate review? You hardly got out of sight and you were reviewing. And fourthly, "I wonder if he really meant that? What did he mean when he said that I was the meanest character he has ever known? What did he mean? What did he mean? Where was I mean? Had I been mean to him? Have I done this, this, and this?"

Consider the lecture situation—which you told yourself must be remembered. The instructor got very excited. He was really emotionally involved. He said, "THINK of it! This is the most vital thing that's ever happened to mankind." And you sat there and couldn't care less, could you, except it was going to be on the exam. You weren't emotionally involved. Second, as soon as the lecture was over you stood up and said, "Well, who's for coffee? I have a chance to arrange a date for this weekend between now and the next class." No emotional involvement, no organization, no meaning, no immediate review. That night, or the next day, when you got around to your notes again, you looked at them and they might as well have been written by a stranger.

What can be done to forget? To remember? What are the techniques? It's just as important to be able to forget that quarrel as it is to be able to remember what is going to be on an examination. How could forgetting have been promoted in the quarrel? You can't avoid the emotional involvement—it's already there. But you can avoid exploring everything
for meaning, organizing, and immediate review. The best thing is to get involved in something immediately that would prevent you from reviewing, prevent you from organizing and prevent you from searching for meaning. The simplest method is to go and pick a quarrel with someone else, preferably someone very large, because then you will very quickly forget the quarrel that you had this morning. Just go out and the first large person that you see in front of you, kick him in the shins as hard as you can. The events that follow will help you forget the quarrel with your friend (not recommended).

Is there something less drastic? Perhaps you have an aunt who gets very excited if she senses anything in your letters to her that show that you are disturbed. You immediately receive several phone calls and some letters and she asks if she shouldn't come out to see you, and so the result is drastic. So if you had this quarrel with your friend, sit down and write to Aunt Martha, with the idea that you will post this letter as soon as it is finished. Concentrate on the letter or you are going to get into difficulties; you know that. You are preventing yourself, while the time ticks away, from reviewing, from organizing and searching for meaning. And if you can get the letter written and then choose something else which occupies your mind (because every hour makes a difference); if you can hold the quarrel relatively out of mind for three or four hours, you can meet your friend that evening and say, "We fought about
something this morning. I can't remember much about it, but it was foolish, I know that. Let's shake hands and forget it," and you can sleep that night.

How can remembering be promoted in the lecture? Get emotionally involved somehow. If you can't do anything else, write in the text, in the margin: "This author is crazy. He doesn't know what he's talking about. He's stupid. I'm quite sure I could have done better." Or think about the lecturer, if you want to. Get emotionally involved somehow. Transfer the emotion to yourself as soon as you can. Say, "Surely I can remember three points about this. If I can't remember three points about this lecture as soon as the lecture is over, next time I walk past a storm sewer I'm going to drop a dollar into it, or a couple of half-dollars. And I'm going to be so angry at myself for losing a dollar so foolishly that next time I'll remember. You can get emotionally involved over this even if you can't intrinsically over the subject matter. You can get emotionally involved by setting up some sort of contest with yourself--some challenge where either you'll lose and feel angry at yourself, or you'll win and feel elated. It doesn't matter which emotion is involved. One way to remember what the lecturer says, or at least to start to know the lecturer, is to bet your friend that you can remember that the lecturer says "and" or "n'd" fifty times in a lecture and you will count them. Your concentration is fantastic during that next lecture.
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The subject isn't good, because it doesn't give you anything valuable that first time, but it teaches you to concentrate.

So first, get emotionally involved. Second - review immediately. The time between lectures is ten minutes. In ten minutes you can review any lecture ever given because no instructor can cover so many points in forty-five minutes that it is impossible to review them in ten. The mind can go like lightning and the voice cannot. Remember that - that between the time the lecture closes and the beginning of the next lecture you have plenty of time to review the lecture and to organize it, to recall it, to place it in proper sequence and to test yourself on the meaning. If you learn that technique, (I know it's difficult because it's so nice to stand up and stretch and say, "Well, let's talk about some interesting things for a few minutes.") But adopt the technique of working when you work and then relaxing and playing when you play.

The individuals who do this listen very carefully to lectures, they organize as soon as they are done and all they have to do is glance at their notes that night. Many many individuals on campus all over the country are being given credit for enormous intelligence and all they have is good study techniques. The individual who uses this needs to study his notes almost not at all. He can go out every evening, except for reading assignments. That's remembering and forgetting. To understand the psychology behind them and to set up habits so that these
techniques, if you wish, will work for you instead of against you. When you want to remember, you can; when you want to forget, you can. The techniques will work for everyone. They must be adapted in specific ways to your specific life, but the techniques are universal.

4. TIME PLANNING - This refers to the length of period a student should use for study and the length of break which he should take between study periods. It is dependent upon what is known as the rate of perseveration. It could be described as the rate of inertia.

Consider an example. Suppose you and your roommate are studying and your roommate makes a suggestion that you stop studying and go bowling. So you go bowling and about the middle of your second frame someone says to you, "Wake up! It's your turn." And you shake your head and say, "I'm sorry. I was thinking about what I have been reading." On the other hand, you leave the bowling when you finish, go back to your room and you try to study. You can't. You talk for at least half an hour, then you wash, and you lie around, finally you can get back to study, but it takes a long time. Your roommate sits down the moment he walks in the door and he's deeply concentrating on his studies two minutes later. He has what is known as a low rate of perseveration. He can get absorbed in his studies quickly and out of them just as quickly. You have a high rate of perseveration. It takes you a long time to reach a level of
deep concentration and a long time to switch to another topic upon which to concentrate.

Now, what does this mean in terms of study behavior? It means that you must learn your rate of perseveration. If you happen to be one whose rate of perseveration is very high, you should use very long periods to study and infrequent periods. If you had an extremely high rate of perseveration, it's possible that you should study just once a week and study all night when you do so.

On the other hand, if you have a very low rate of perseveration, it's quite possible that you should study for ten minutes and no longer at a stretch, and then take at least a fifteen minute break to do something else in between study periods. Now what happens if you can't do this? If you have a very low rate of perseveration, you sit down to study for an hour or two hours, as is the custom, and what you do is concentrate deeply for ten or fifteen minutes and then you find yourself doing "busy work." You can't concentrate, you can't keep your mind on the topic, so you say to yourself, "Well, perhaps if I underline it would help." So you start underlining and writing notes and going through all the motions. Now if you did but realize it, your study period is over in ten to fifteen minutes. That's as long as you can concentrate deeply, and it is foolish to try to study when you are not concentrating deeply. So evaluate yourself in comparison to others. Do you
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have a high or low rate of perseveration? If you have a high one, try to plan for long, uninterrupted and infrequent periods of study. If you have a low rate of perseveration, try to plan for frequent periods of study, which are of brief duration. Think about that. It requires that you critically evaluate yourself. There are no objective measures here. If you find that you can study for only brief periods of time and your concentration is gone, instead of switching to busy work, try planning your life—planning your study, so that you get frequent short periods to study during the day.

5. RATIONALIZATION - Rationalization is difficult to recognize but it is wise that you begin to recognize rationalization in yourself when you are studying. Consider rationalization this way: You feel that you should study tonight, but you go to a movie. You say to yourself, "Well, if I go to a movie tonight I'll study harder tomorrow night." Or, "It's a good thing I went to the movies. I've been studying hard for two or three nights and I must be fatigued with study." That's a simple form of rationalization, but the problem arises when this happens: You stay away from a lecture and you either had a very good reason for staying away from the lecture, in which case you don't feel guilty, or you didn't have a very good reason for staying away from the lecture, in which case you do feel guilty. Now if you didn't have a good reason for staying
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away from the lecture and you feel guilty, you proceed to argue this way: You say to your classmate (who was in class), "I don't suppose I missed very much today, did I?" He doesn't want to review the whole lesson, so he says, "Oh, no, I don't think you missed much." So you say, "Good, I didn't think I would." So you've retained your self-respect, but lost the opportunity to check what you did miss. And the same with missing reading a chapter. Now if that happens, you find that you lose the possibility of studying any area where you put it off for some reason and your self-respect becomes involved. Watch yourself and others and see if you do this.

If you rationalize frequently it can be harmful. One of the drawbacks of being a student, is that your day's work is never done. If you are a laborer and you have one thousand cases of soap to stack in a day, your day's work is done when the cases are packed. Your mind is free and you don't feel guilty. But study doesn't work this way. If you're a conscientious student, you're never quite sure whether you should be putting in more time, whether you should be studying harder, or for longer hours. There's a constant guilt feeling. Every student should have some recreation and some time to study, but because of this constant guilt feeling you have to watch rationalization in studies. It can become a serious problem, so that a student can talk himself into believing that the text contains nothing important and the lectures contain nothing
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important.

6. MAKING IT YOUR OWN - What does it mean to make a thing your own? This is discussed in many texts but has never been explained in such a way that it is clear to those who read it. There are but three ways to remember something. One is to rote memorize it. The second is to write it a sufficient number of times, but the waste in energy and low mental effort and enormous time required make this method more unrewarding.

The third way is to make it your own. Now this way has certain values; if a thing becomes your own it is never forgotten. Students who say, "Well, it's no use studying two weeks before an exam, because you forget things before the exam comes," are using just one method. They're using rote memory, which erodes quickly. If they made it their own, it would be their own for years. They could study for examinations years before the exam. Now how does a student make something his own?

Consider an example: The word "quadrat." It is to be hoped that the student does not know the meaning of this word because the object of the next few paragraphs is to "make it his own." If the student is told the meaning of quadrat he will have forgotten it in twenty-four hours. If he makes it his own, it will be his permanently.

A quadrat is a little lead slug used by a typesetter to place between words. A type-setter has tall slugs for the letters. To set up the
word "Cat" use a tall slug with a C on the top of it, and then a tall slug with an A on the top of it, and a tall one with a T on top. Then, there must be a slug which prevents these from sliding around, but doesn't print—for the space between words—a low slug. It is known as a quadrat. Reporters and typesetters commonly call them 'quads' but the proper name is quadrat.

You won't remember that unless you make it your own. Now how can you make it your own? It's a very personal thing. A teacher might remember it this way: Children who are poor readers, who cannot read the words, are reading the quadrats—that is, they're reading the blanks between the words. Now you may say, "That's ridiculous." It is. But the teacher who thought up this parallel has never forgotten the meaning of quadrat. You can't remember it that way, because that isn't yours—it isn't part of your personal life; it isn't part of your profession. But you can remember it by making it part of your personal life or profession. Try it.

A nurse thought as follows: "I suppose that you could think of the space between beds, where there are no patients, as the quadrats. The way the hospital wards are getting smaller and smaller, they will have to get thinner and thinner nurses to fit into the quadrats." The word has become her own for that nurse. She will never forget it. It's part of her profession and it's part of her life.
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You take the word quadrat and in some way use it so that it still means partly what it is intended to mean, but in a way in which it fits your particular life and you'll never forget it. That's the way it's done. That's what it means to make a thing your own.

By rote mémorization you simply repeat to yourself if you want to: "A quadrat is a lead slug used in typesetting." You won't remember it very long; you'll review it before a test, and perhaps you will remember it during the test, and then you will forget it very quickly. But if you will in some way make it part of your life, you will never forget it. Try it with the next word you need to learn.
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BIBLIOGRAPHY


TWO ISSUES IN READING IN COMMUNITY COLLEGES:
CONTENT AREAS AND INFORMAL DIAGNOSIS

by
Karen Strom Spring, Ph.D.

It is a mundane fact that, 'electronic generation' or not, most information which is relayed through schooling is relayed via print. The community college student who is still reading on an elementary or junior high school level is going to be hard-pressed to get information from his/her classes, whether it be Food Trades, Cosmetology, or Sociology. Yet, these people are, after all, adults. Though their skill levels may be elementary, their life experiences, motivations, interests, are very adult (much more "nitty-gritty" than "Chitty-Chitty-Bang-Bang"). The issues are how to aid community college students who are not reading on the college level, while taking into consideration that:

(a) They are adults (the average age at our community college is 28).

(b) There is often a large multi-cultural population, especially in urban community colleges

and following largely from (a) and (b):

(c) These students want to learn information; often they have a very particular trade or content area in mind.

(d) Standardized tests are difficult (often unpolitic) to administer in open enrollment colleges.
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THE 'CONTENT' AREAS

Content area teachers are becoming more concerned with the basic skills of reading, writing, and studying. Can teachers trained in a particular subject area address themselves to the teaching of these basic skills? To some extent, at least, I think they can—There are certain simple tools which education students in reading learn about but content area teachers often do not, which are simple to use in the classroom. One such tool is the Fry readability formula. (See Appendix A for instructions). Based on a count of the average number of syllables and sentences per hundred words, the approximate grade level of the text can be plotted on a graph. Teachers may well be surprised to learn that their freshman history text (for example) is off the top of the graph (i.e., beyond fourth year of college) in terms of reading difficulty. Others may be surprised to find the novel they use in freshman composition is on the 8th grade reading level. True, there are shortcomings to the Fry graph. First of all (like all readability formulas) it is only an estimate of reading level; secondly, it is based on the premise that reading difficulty correlates with sentence length and number of syllables in the words. It is probably usually true that complicated ideas have more complicated vocabulary and sentence structure, but it is not always true (e.g., "I think, therefore I am"). Nevertheless, it only
takes a few minutes to use the Fry graph, and even an estimate of reading level can be a great asset in choosing an appropriate textbook.

Once the text is chosen, how do you know which students are likely to have trouble with it? If your school administers standardized tests, you may know your students' reading levels. If you do not have such scores or if you are concerned with the validity of those scores, then you may wish to try using "cloze" procedure (See Appendix B for instructions).

A strength of cloze procedure is its validity. That is, it is a test based on exactly those materials which the student will need to read for his/her class; and, furthermore, the "questions" are never subjective or arbitrary, but are built into the procedure. Also, the test usually only takes 15 to 30 minutes to take, so it is easy to use in the classroom. From it the instructor will have a pretty fair estimate of who can probably read the textbook independently, who will need "guided reading," and who may be so frustrated by the material as to derive little or no benefit from it, even with some help. A drawback of the test is that students need a fairly high tolerance for uncertainty, since the procedure involves guessing which word fits the blank. Also, students

*For example, does a tenth grade score on a standardized reading test mean that the student can read a tenth grade sociology text, or chemistry text, or welding text—with equal ease?
must be made to understand that even if they are wrong about as many as half of the words, they are considered to have a good score.

So, for a content area teacher to evaluate the reading level of a text and then to "match" students to it, I'd recommend use of the Fry formula followed by cloze procedure administered early in the quarter.

Let us say (as is often the problem) the only text that really gives the necessary information is on upper college level, but students are reading on about 8th (or even lower) grade level. If such students have not been "screened out" of the class, is it possible to preserve the content of the course and still reach these lower level readers?

Here is a passage from a sociology text used at our community college:

Grade: Mid-College Level
Sentences: 5.3
Syllables: 170

[All theories of socialization attempt to explain how the child grows—or fails to grow—into an adult who is willing to cooperate with others and make the personal sacrifices necessary for social living. But how is this orientation toward moral behavior acquired? Do people behave in a moral fashion because their society punishes those who deviate from the norms? Do they believe in or internalize the rules of acceptable social behavior, or do they evolve their own ethical principles?]

Early research shed little light on this problem. In a famous experiment described in "Studies in Deceit" (1928) Hugh Hartshorne and M. A. May examined the behavior of children in a situation where there was an opportunity to cheat. Their findings were a moralist's nightmare: nearly everyone cheated. There was little correlation between cheating in one situation and another. Children's verbal responses bore no relation to their actual behavior. There was no relationship between cheating and teaching of religious values. Cheating was not a character trait; it was a situational phenomenon. Values of honesty, Hartshorne and May concluded, are relative to each class or group; there is no absolute morality, because the content of notions of right and wrong are determined by cultural values.

Using the principles of shortening sentences and simplifying vocabulary, the passage was re-written to the following levels:

Grade: Ninth/Tenth
Sentences: 9
Syllables: 164

All theories of socialization attempt to explain how the child grows—or fails to grow—into a well adjusted adult. Will he or she become an adult who is willing to cooperate with others? Will he or she make the personal sacrifices necessary for personal living? Just how does the child acquire moral behavior? Do people behave morally for fear of punishment? Do they adopt within themselves society's rules for acceptable behavior? Or do they develop their own ethical (moral) principles?

Early research did not do much to answer these questions. Hartshorne and May (1928) studied the behavior of children who had the chance to cheat.

Grade: Seventh
Sentences: 10.9
Syllables: 155

Theories of socialization try to explain how the child grows into an adult. Will he be well adjusted? Will he be able to co-
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operate? Will he be able to make sacrifices needed for personal living? Just how does the child learn moral behavior? Do people truly accept and believe society's rules? Or do they develop their own ethical (moral) beliefs?

Early research shed little light on these questions. Hartshorne and May (1928) studied the cheating behavior in children. Would children cheat if they got the chance and didn't think they'd get caught?

Grade: Fourth/Fifth
Sentences: 15
Syllables: 146

[How does the child grow into an adult? Social theories try to explain this. Will the child become a well-adjusted adult? Will he cooperate? Can he make sacrifices if he needs to? How does the child learn to be moral? Is it fear of punishment? Does he truly believe society's rules? Or does he form his own moral beliefs?

Early research tried to answer these questions. Hartshorne and May (1928) studied cheating: Given the chance, would children cheat? Almost all the children in their experiment cheated. What children said about cheating did not matter. The religious values they learned did not matter.]

In terms of sheer energy, it may be impractical to re-write entire texts. However, instructors often use "handouts" to supplement texts or lectures. Writing handouts with an eye toward reading level may prove useful in a content area class where some students are reading below grade level. Preservation of the information takes ingenuity on the part of the instructor. If, despite all efforts, some of the subtleties of the original passage are lost, this must be balanced against the possibility that some students may not "get" the subtleties of the original
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passage anyway because of reading difficulty. At least with the re-
writes they can hopefully get some information.

INFORMAL DIAGNOSIS OF READING PROBLEMS:

The problems with standardized testing are legion. There are the
sensitivities associated with "screening" in an institution which is
"open-enrollment." (The two processes do not have to be conflicting,
but they are often construed that way.) There are the problems involv-
ed in the sheer mechanics of trying to administer a test to large num-
bers of students. There are students who cannot deal with such tests;
some who cannot read them. There are the problems of the validity of
standardized tests on multi-cultural students who come from "non-stand-
ard" backgrounds.

But diagnosis is necessary if the instructor is to appropriately
plan the curriculum. The Informal Reading Inventory is one excellent
way of diagnosing students—diagnosing in the true sense of the word;
that is, not simply stating what grade level students read on, but what
kinds of problems they have in reading. An explanation of how to de-
sign and administer an IRI would take too much space here*, but basical-
ly the test consists of lists of words and passages on each grade level
of interest. The student reads out loud to the teacher until he/she makes'

*IRI's are described in many texts, but one source you may wish to refer to
is: Johnson & Kress, Informal Reading Inventories, International Reading
five errors on a particular grade level. Then the student reads a passage on the grade level in which fewer than five (but more than zero) mistakes were made in word recognition, (this is an estimate of the student's "instructional" grade level). Part of the passage is read out loud while the instructor makes notes of errors, such as phonic errors, substitutions, omissions, etc. The student finishes the passage silently and then answers a series of comprehension questions which can be designed to test for particular kinds of comprehension, e.g., main idea, detail, inference, etc.

Because this test is scored on the basis of an analysis of errors (as well as amount) the instructor has a wealth of information to use. Does the student have trouble with suffixes? With vowels? With blends? With remembering detail? (See sample Diagnosis Sheet, Appendix C) Because the test can be made up by the instructor, it can be adapted to particular purposes. In the Reading Lab of our Community College, for example, the IRI readings are multi-cultural. A content area teacher can design an IRI in his/her own area. This instructor may not be interested in a phonic analysis of the student's reading but may find it useful to know if there is a difficulty in comprehension of, for example, relationships, chronology, inference, and so on. Perhaps the major attraction of the IRI is affective. It is given on a one-to-one basis.
The teacher can put the student at ease; assure him or her that the purpose of the test is to find out where errors are made and so the student shouldn't be upset when he/she makes them. Furthermore, the test is over when a certain number of errors are made which eliminates the frustration and humiliation of facing an IBM answer sheet for one and one-half hours past the point of being able to read the passages.

Cloze procedure is also useful as a diagnostic tool. Here is an actual example taken from a communications class at our college*:

"There is no great mystery surrounding the techniques of public speaking. Most of them are ignonts matter of common sense. Then you could approach the _audience with your usual confidence, you could reason your way to the basic techniques yourself. And the truth of the _is that most of the people become a bit panicky _we think about standing in front of a room _of people who are listening _at us and listening to what we have to say."

A number of observations may be made on the basis of this short paragraph. The student does not always attend to the entire meaning of the sentence, but only to the immediate phrase (e.g., people who are listening). The student has trouble with prepositional relationships or idioms involving prepositions. For example, "crowed" is probably a misspelling of crowded, but crowded should be followed by "with" not "of". Similarly, "listening" should be followed by "to" not "at". The student realized this in the second part of the sentence. Therefore,

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when he/she chose "listening" in the first part of the sentence, it was probably a response to the immediate phrase (people who are ___), without paying attention to the next word "at".

A program for this student should probably include lessons on "relative" terms (e.g., conjunctions and prepositions) and on attending to the meaning and syntax of the sentences (rather than just the phrase). Cloze procedure is particularly useful for teaching as well as diagnosing. The cloze passages could be designed, for example, with only relational terms omitted (or suffixes, or verbs, or "main idea" words, etc.) (See further example in Appendix D) Students and teacher can discuss their choices as a group.

A FEW LAST WORDS:

The suggestions offered in this paper may be a "drop in the bucket" compared to the massive needs of many open-enrollment students and the many social—even moral—concerns associated with dealing with these needs. It is hoped, however, that these few items will be of use in a practical everyday classroom sense. And, ultimately, that's where it's at.
APPENDIX A

DIRECTIONS FOR USING THE FRY READABILITY GRAPH*

1. Select three one-hundred word passages from the beginning, middle, and the end of the book. Skip all proper nouns unless they can be easily decoded by using phonics.

2. Count the number of sentences in each hundred-word passage (estimating to the nearest tenth of a sentence). Average these numbers.

3. Count the total number of syllables in each hundred-word sample. There is a syllable for each vowel sound. It might be convenient to count every syllable over one in each word, and then add 100. Average the total number of syllables for the three examples.

4. Plot on the graph the average number of sentences per hundred words and the average number of syllables per hundred words. Most plot points fall near the heavy curved line. Perpendicular lines mark off approximate grade level areas.

GRAPH FOR ESTIMATING READABILITY

BY: EDWARD FRy

AVERAGE NUMBER OF SYLLABLES PER HUNDRED WORDS

AVERAGE NUMBER OF SENTENCES PER HUNDRED WORDS

GRADE LEVEL
APPENDIX B

CLOZE PROCEDURE

DESIGN:
1. Choice of Passage:
   A. Should be approximately 250 words long
   B. Should begin at beginning of a new paragraph
   C. Should be as typical of the writing in the whole text as is possible. First, try choosing at random; then see if it is typical or not ("not" would include, for example, a long quote from another source). If not typical, choose at "random" again.
   D. Has not yet been dealt with in class.

2. Format:
   A. The first and last sentences of the passage should be left in their entirety.
   B. With the exception of the first and last sentences, omit every fifth word from the passage. Mark the blanks with lines of equal length, despite the length of the omitted words. This is to avoid giving cues to the students as to the word which belongs there.
   C. For easiest scoring, leave 50 blanks.

ADMINISTERING
1. Put students at ease.
2. Encourage guessing. Indeed, the whole point of this is to make as good guesses as possible.

SCORING
When the scoring for cloze test procedure was designed, the assumption was made that only the exact word used in the text would be counted as correct. Synonyms would be considered wrong. This was to avoid any subjective decision making on the part of the scorers—something to be avoided if large scale testing and reporting would occur. There is a liberal enough error allowance for you to be this rigorous in scoring.
However, I would suggest that you score each student's test twice: once where synonyms are counted as wrong and once when they are accepted. If there is a discrepancy—and the scores are not being used in formal research but rather for your own use in the classroom—you may "adjust" the students' score at your discretion.

The cut-off points described here are suitable for community college textbooks (about 8th grade and up). Most published articles on cloze give different cut-offs because they were generally derived for lower-level texts.

1. **Independent Level:** 45 percent or more correct. Out of 50 blanks, this means the student got 23 or more correct. A score on this level means the student is probably able to read the text on his/her own without trouble.

2. **Instructional Level:** 35 percent - 44 percent correct. Out of 50 blanks, this means the student got between 18 and 22 correct. Students reading on this level can probably handle the text as long as they receive some help from the instructor.

3. **Frustration Level:** Below 35 percent correct. Out of 50 blanks, this means the student got fewer than 18 correct. He or she will probably find this textbook frustrating to read, even with some instructions.

*John Bormuth, personal correspondence. May, 1974*
## APPENDIX C

### INFORMAL READING INVENTORY: DIAGNOSIS SHEET LEVEL 3-6

**STUDENT'S NAME** ____________________________  **TEL.NO.** ____________________________

**DIAGNOSING TEACHER** ____________________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROBLEM</th>
<th>COMMENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word by word reading</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incorrect phrasing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor pronunciation</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Omissions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetitions</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Inversions or reversals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insertions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Substitutions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic sight words not known</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sight vocabulary not up to grade level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guesses at words</td>
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<tr>
<td>Consonant sounds not known*</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vowel sounds not known</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blends, digraphs, or diphthongs not known*</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lacks structural analysis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unable to use context clues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fails to comprehend</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unaided recall scanty</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response poorly organized</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### OTHERS:

### WORD RECOGNITION:

- Independent
- Instructional
- Frustration

### COMPREHENSION:

- Independent
- Instructional
- Frustration

*It is so often useful to note if the errors are typically positional, i.e., initial, medial, or final parts of words.*
APPENDIX D

GLOZE AS A DIAGNOSTIC TOOL

Here is an excerpt from an actual cloze test taken by a community college student. Do you see any patterns to the errors this student makes?

"There is no great mystery surrounding the techniques of public speaking. Most of them are ignorant matter of common sense. Then you could approach the audience with your usual confidence, you could reason your way to the basic techniques yourself. And the truth of the ______ is that most of people become a bit panicky ______ we think about standing in front of a room crowded of people who are listening at us and listening to what we have to say."
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 essence of the learning process.

Attitudes, feelings, values--difficult to define 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. Affect is concerned with the emotions, the passions, the dispositions, motives, moral and aesthetic sensibilities, sympathy, capacity for concern, and appreciation. (14:23) The cognitive process is concerned with factual knowledge and formal relationships; it is dis-
cipline in the ways of knowing, involving induction, deduction analysis and generalization. (14:23)

Most language arts fundamentals courses focus specifically on 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.

The concept of confluent education proposes that all 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 with particular application to the remedial/remedial/compensatory programs of this nature in community colleges. The processes utilized are group dynamics and Gestalt awareness exercises. The tools are reading and writing; the materials, standard curriculum materials, and the interests and concerns almost universally identifiable in students. The desired result is an improvement in study habits, teacher acceptance, and self-concept.

The first premise for a confluent reading/writing program using
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an approach promulgated by Weinstein and Fantini (4) and Newburg and
Borton (3) states that just as a student can learn about reading, writing, or math, subjects which are "outside," or remote to him personally, so can he become aware of and learn to understand subjects which are "inside," specifically his own concerns and interests. These concerns are generally defined as lying within the parameters of identity, interpersonal connectedness, and power.

Identity concerns are those related to a person's sense of worth, self-image, and self-esteem. They seek answers to the basic questions of "Who am I?" and "What am I worth?" (5:4) Interpersonal connectedness concerns involve aspects of behavior associated with a sense of positive affiliation with others. They seek answers to the questions "To whom do I belong?" and "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 premise for a confluent language arts program derives from Gestalt therapy. According to this approach, 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 identified
only in relationship to the whole. (9)

Perls applied this theory of perception to organic perceptions and feelings. (13) Living is seen as a continual process of completing "Gestaltten." The example Perls gives is that of a person reading a book. The book is the figure, the reader's body is the background, and 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 a means or a vehicle for self-knowledge.

The third premise for a confluent language arts curriculum comes from group dynamics. Group dynamics emphasizes interaction among members of a group. Traditionally, a "group" is 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 "sub-selves," Shapiro (11) and Assigioi (1) also conceive of the group as a set of separate selves or subpersonalities within the individual. One's subpersonalities may be, but usually are not, in total accord with one another. By identifying and rationally comprehending and integrating such sub-selves, the individual can become, in Gestalt terms, more "whole."

Utilizing these three premises, confluent reading and writing lessons, illustrated by the following, can be constructed for use with the community college student.

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...
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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 interest 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 concerns itself with reading skills, and hopefully stimulates 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, by encouraging him to be concerned not merely with what the author says, but how such is relevant to the self. Hence, it fosters 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) who suggest three areas of investigation: 1) Values clarification—To what extent does the article deal with the student's concerns with his or her success in school? 2) Conceptual—How does the author's material relate to the concern expressed by students for identity and power which others experience? 3) Factual—What does the author of the article think of grades, tests, and the problems created by incompetent teachers? 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 concerns connectedness.
The second exercise pertains to writing skills and 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 affects "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 conceptualizing the experience. This second step is accomplished through discussion and writing. In terms of the group dynamics discussion related 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.

In these two lessons, it is apparent that the traditional reading and writing components of a language arts curriculum can become vehicles for self-knowledge and personal growth. By relating to individual 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 each student's human potential.
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David McCarthy

BIBLIOGRAPHY


### LIST OF PARTICIPANTS

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Location</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John C. Ashford</td>
<td>South Seattle Community College</td>
<td>Seattle, Washington</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nancy Barnes</td>
<td>Chemeketa Community College</td>
<td>Salem, Oregon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Margaret Bernard</td>
<td>North Seattle Community College</td>
<td>Seattle, Washington</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bobbie J. Bopp</td>
<td>Whatcom Community College</td>
<td>Bellingham, Washington</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bob Bower</td>
<td>Southwestern Oregon Community College</td>
<td>Coos Bay, Oregon</td>
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<tr>
<td>Betty Cameron</td>
<td>Vancouver City College</td>
<td>Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mike Chase</td>
<td>Spokane Falls Community College</td>
<td>Spokane, Washington</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lucy Colby</td>
<td>Malaspina College</td>
<td>Nanaimo, British Columbia, Canada</td>
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<tr>
<td>Clara Cox</td>
<td>Tacoma Community College</td>
<td>Tacoma, Washington</td>
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<tr>
<td>Frank DiLeva</td>
<td>Seattle Central Community College</td>
<td>Seattle, Washington</td>
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<td>Charles (Tom) Erickson</td>
<td>Everett Community College</td>
<td>Everett, Washington</td>
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<tr>
<td>Henry R. Fea</td>
<td>University of Washington</td>
<td>Seattle, Washington</td>
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<tr>
<td>Annie Galarosa</td>
<td>Seattle Central Community College</td>
<td>Seattle, Washington</td>
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<tr>
<td>John Green</td>
<td>Selkirk College</td>
<td>Castlegar, British Columbia, Canada</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kathy Gregoire</td>
<td>Edmonds Community College</td>
<td>Lynnwood, Washington</td>
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</table>
LIST OF PARTICIPANTS

Ruth Hendricks
Highline Community College
Midway, Washington

Pat Horner
Bellevue Community College
Bellevue, Washington

Ramy Hough
North Seattle Community College
Seattle, Washington

Laurie Johnson
Vancouver City College
Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada

Susan Jones
Seattle Central Community College
Seattle, Washington

Robert Kintner
Seattle Central Community College
Seattle, Washington

Annette Lambson
Clark College
Vancouver, Washington

Howard E. Larsen
University of Washington
Seattle, Washington

Dave Love
Clark College
Vancouver, Washington

Sylvia Lovelace
South Seattle Community College
Seattle, Washington

Kathleen McCloy
Shoreline Community College
Seattle, Washington

Robert W. McFarland
Highline Community College
Midway, Washington

David McCarthy
Lower Columbia College
Longview, Washington

Andy Martin
Malaspina College
Nanaimo, British Columbia, Canada

Gloria Mercer
Bellevue Community College
Bellevue, Washington
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<td>Alice Milholland</td>
<td>Big Bend Community College</td>
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<td>Barbara Morridge</td>
<td>Edmonds Community College</td>
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<td>Patricia Nerison</td>
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<td>Larry Nichols</td>
<td>Bellevue Community College</td>
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<td>Steven G. Olswang</td>
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<td>Chaffey College</td>
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<td>Thomas P. Sawtell</td>
<td>College of New Caledonia</td>
<td>Prince George, British Columbia, Canada</td>
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<td>Bob Shepard</td>
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<td>W. G. Simmons</td>
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<td>Tacoma Community College</td>
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<td>Karen Strom Spring</td>
<td>Seattle Central Community College</td>
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<td>Nora Tolman</td>
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