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THE LEARNING ASSISTANCE REVIEW

Journal of the National College Learning Center Association

About *The Learning Assistance Review*

The Learning Assistance Review is an official publication of the National College Learning Center Association (NCLCA). NCLCA serves faculty, staff, and graduate students in the field of learning assistance at two- and four-year colleges, vocational and technical schools, and universities. All material published by *The Learning Assistance Review* is copyrighted by NCLCA and can be used only upon expressed written permission.

Editorial Board

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Letter from the Editor

The leaves outside my window are turning from a vibrant green to a brilliant orange, signifying the end of another year. I always mourn the loss of the leaves during the winter chill. So, too, for the Learning Assistance field and specifically for TLAR; we have lost a leader, an inspiration, and a mentor with the passing of Martha Maxwell, who was instrumental in the creation of TLAR and a long-standing member of its editorial board.

She has been the brilliant beacon setting the bar for excellence in this publication, particularly for me. As we mourn her passing, this issue is dedicated to her and her influence over the years.

I am proud that we have continued to follow her lead by encouraging our professionals to contribute to our discipline. This journal is no exception; we have submissions from both first-time and seasoned publishers. This issue's submissions address the same concerns she had from the onset that continue to shape our discipline, from addressing ways to improve students' reading, writing, study skills, and language acquisition to considering theories in reducing stigma associated with students with disabilities.

For the first time, we are presenting the first part of a two-part series that provides a refreshing look at reading and writing programs. Part I "Teaching Students to 'Cook': promoting Reading in the First Year Experience Course" can be found in the "Join the Conversation" segment. This article provides methods of incorporating critical thinking through reading and learning into the FYE course curriculum through a common reading lesson plan. The second part, focusing on the writing, will be published in our Spring 2010 issue.

Addressing concerns for improving language acquisition for non-native speakers, the article "English Camp: A Language Immersion Program in Thailand" assesses language acquisition through a writing program. The article "SI Plus: A Program Description and an Analysis of Student Feedback" explores combining assistance in study skills and content as part of an SI program. The literature review article "Red Shirting College Students with Disabilities" considers the need for students with disabilities to learn better information management strategies. Finally, the "must own" endorsement of *The Writing Center Director's Resource Book* provides administrators with a tool for their success.

The concerns today echo the same concerns Martha Maxwell saw; they are the same core issues. Through her leadership, the process of providing learning assistance to students has become a recognized discipline in

academe. We are indebted to her and mourn her loss. Thank you, Martha; you sowed the seeds, so we could move forward. Spring will return, I know. Leaders will emerge to take up your quest and advance the field of learning assistance. It is my honor to stand in your shadow.

Christine Reichert

Christine Reichert
Editor

JOIN THE CONVERSATION:
Teaching Students to "Cook": Promoting Reading in the First Year Experience Course

Patsy A. Self Trand and Charlene Eberly
Florida International University

Abstract

The current trend in First Year Experience (FYE) courses is to add critical thinking through reading and writing. Research now suggests this design for a learning strategy based FYE course improves retention rates. This paper provides methods of incorporating critical thinking through reading and learning into the FYE course curriculum through a common reading lesson plan and a sample lesson plan that teaches the four vectors of critical thinking through reading and learning. Student responses to the lessons indicate usefulness for college success.

The First Year Experience (FYE) course or freshman seminar emerged in the late 1800s as a way to address the high percentage of freshmen who either "crashed and burned" or simply failed to thrive in college (Hodges & Agee, 2009). As was true then, the lack of early success in college is a strong predictor of attrition. Yet, the FYE course faded away until about 30 years ago when universities resurrected it in the face of affirmative action, 10% waiver enrollment policies, enrollment quotas (Self, 1997) and open enrollment. Administrators sought to enhance the academic experience of the new students they were admitting. For the next several decades, these courses mainly served as a means to transition students from high school to college (Keup & Barefoot, 2005). In 2002, the alarm was sounded when it was reported that more than 30% of first year students did not return for their second year of college (Smith, 2002, as cited in Mansfield, Pinto, Perente & Worton, 2004) and only 40% are reported to have actually

completed their degrees (Newby, 2002, as cited in Mansfield et.al., 2004). This data sent shockwaves throughout academia and the FYE courses began to adopt another objective: retention.

Today, the FYE course is standard practice at most colleges and universities. A national survey by the National Resource Center for the First Year Experience and Students in Transition (as cited in Keup & Barefoot, 2005) reports 70% of higher education institutions now offer FYE courses. Although FYE courses are still focused on improving the transition from high school to college, they are inextricably linked to retention (Keup & Barefoot, 2005).

Institutions of higher education are seeking to redesign and to add to the existing FYE course curriculum in ways that emphasize critical thinking, an academic foundational skill. Along with writing, critical reading or the ability to read and think analytically about written content is vital for academic success. It is "…not about filling a pail but lighting a fire" (Yeats, as cited in Evenbeck & Hamilton, 2006, p.17). In other words, colleges must do more than feed freshmen; they must teach them to cook.

Background

Academic Socialization Interventions and Learning Strategies Interventions

While the FYE course's value is generally recognized, its format and content vary widely. FYE courses vary in instructional practices; hours or credits associated with the course; course objectives or learning outcomes; involvement of or connections to learning communities; residential and commuter life activities; and the amount of service learning (Barefoot, 1992). Despite variations, Ryan and Glen (2004) report that most FYE courses fall into one of two categories: academic socialization or learning strategies.

The academic socialization approach is an extended-orientation model while the learning strategy approach is an academic support model. Neither model has changed radically since its inception. Although this paper recognizes both approaches—academic socialization interventions and learning strategies interventions—most researchers found retention success with the learning strategies intervention model. The main reason for the success of this model is that it teaches the concepts that transcend all college academic subjects and disciplines: critical thinking and its expression through reading and writing. This article will explore ways to infuse critical thinking through reading as a key component of both models in a FYE classroom.

The academic socialization model developed in the late 1970s and early 1980s in tandem with the learning strategies model. This model was designed to meet the demands of a diverse, non-traditional and first generation college population (Ryan & Glenn, 2004) with little knowledge of the culture of academia. The academic socialization model teaches time management, library usage, responsibility in financial matters and stress management techniques. In addition, critical topics relevant to adolescent

and student life are addressed, including sexuality, drugs, alcohol, career choices and relationships (Gahagan, 2002, as cited in Ryan & Glenn, 2004). The primary goal is to integrate the student into the academic life by teaching the history, behavior, culture and values of academia.

The FYE learning strategy model emerged in the late 1950s and 1960s through learning strategy-based courses (Ryan & Glenn, 2004). These courses were influenced by study strategies and techniques, many of which can be found today in Walter Pauk's How to Study in College (1997). An important model for these courses was Robinson's landmark critical reading strategy, SQ3R (Robinson, 1945, as cited in Pauk, 1997). This concept and other critical reading strategies like it began to surface in reading and study skills courses beginning in the late 1970s. In the early 1980s, these courses were, for the most part, replacing FYE courses, and colleges and universities that did not have a reading and study skills course developed an FYE course that was mostly learning strategies intervention-based (Ryan & Glenn, 2004). The learning strategy course characteristically taught study skills, metacognitive skills, note-taking methods, textbook reading techniques, test preparation, and test "wiseness" techniques (Ryan & Glenn, 2004). The main goal of these FYE courses was to present freshmen with the tools to think critically and succeed academically. In other words, not feed them, but teach them to cook.

Today, neither the learning strategy model nor the academic socialization model follows its defined structure. For example, many learning strategy models include one or two academic socialization chapters, and many academic socialization models include one or two learning strategies chapters. The problem with this combined format is that the practitioner does not offer enough of the secondary model to make a substantial difference. College level learning cannot be taught in one or two lessons, just as academic socialization cannot be achieved with a few chapters. If FYE courses are to develop academic skills for college success, then they must focus on fundamental skills such as reading and writing. More and more universities and colleges are realizing this, and Ryan and Glen (2004) report that FYE courses are leaning towards the learning strategy-based approach.

Course Effectiveness

For the past ten years, researchers have been focusing on the successes of FYE courses. Keup and Barefoot (2005) conducted a study with the goal of exploring the impact of FYE courses on student behaviors, experiences and adjustments. The research team included all models of FYE courses: academic socialization interventions and learning strategies interventions. It sets its sights on data collecting beyond the borders of its university, as well as on collecting data that was longitudinal, multi-institutional and national. The results are remarkable. As compared to the students who did not take first year seminars, Barefoot and Keup report as follows:

> 1. Participants in first year experience courses show enhanced communications with faculty, particularly through informal interactions;

> 2. Students who took first year experience seminars have

better academic practices than their counterparts who do not take the seminars;

3. First year experience seminars are effective in supporting many of the Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education (as cited in Chickering & Gamson, 1991);

4. Participants are "significantly more likely to attend a campus-sponsored event" than non-participants (p. 24).

Clearly, both FYE models are beneficial to students, but does one model move beyond being an information rich course, teaching students to think critically about what they read and how they write? Is it enough to know the ingredients and the nutritional value of a recipe, but not be able to put them together to make a meal?

A study conducted in 2004 by Ryan and Glenn indicated strong support for the learning strategies-based FYE course's effect on first year, full-time students admitted in good academic standing. This study evaluated the two FYE models—academic socialization and learning strategies—for impact on retention rates. Regardless of the academic high school class rankings, SAT scores, and gender and ethnic differences, Ryan and Glenn (2004) reported that "…the one-year retention effect for the strategy-based seminar produced a significant nine percentage-point increase in the retention rate for those freshmen with first semester GPAs equal to or greater than 2.00" (p. 8). The most promising finding was that "the effect was three times larger for those freshmen with first-semester GPAs less than 2.00, who scored a twenty-nine point increase" than for their counterparts in academic socialization FYE seminars (p. 8).

The results of these studies indicate the retention and persistence value of FYE courses and the dominance of learning strategies interventions in increasing retention rates. Also, it may be a clear sign that first year students in most colleges and universities need support in post secondary academic skills more than they need socialization and bonding with faculty members. Davis' research in 1992 examined the effectiveness of FYE courses as they relate to SAT scores at Kennesaw State College. The course did not teach college and university reading-to-learn or critical thinking skills directly. It taught basic academic survival skills, introduced students to academic campus support and screened for written and oral communication deficiencies. The results of the study indicate that the FYE course "disproportionately enhances the retention of students with higher SAT scores" (Davis, 1992, p. 85). This finding contradicts the popular myth that FYE courses are mainly beneficial to at-risk students. Students with lower SAT scores showed no significant differences in retention rates although some did show improved GPAs. Since academic skills were not taught directly, a minimum GPA improvement for students with lower SAT scores was not surprising.

Attempts to revamp the academic socialization FYE course content with learning strategies or to enhance a weak learning strategies model with critical thinking through reading and writing must also take into account the fact that FYE classes already have multiple agendas and mandatory non-academic curriculum. In addition, FYE courses are not always taught by faculty who are adept at teaching academics, and thus, methods to enhance

the classes must be offered in practical, easy-to-incorporate approaches. Fortunately, it is precisely because both critical reading and writing are fundamental in nature that they can be taught in conjunction with virtually any content. Thus, it is possible to truss two chickens with one string and accomplish the goal of incorporating academics by introducing instruction in critical reading and writing excellence while keeping the prescribed course content.

Infusing Reading into the FYE Course

The pedagogy of teaching reading expanded when formal reading instruction reached the university level. Teaching reading in primary schools focuses on the goal of reading comprehension of story, phonics and word recognition with little instruction on understanding content text. Secondary teachers mainly focus their instruction on phonics, phonemic awareness, vocabulary and comprehension strategy, which are commonly referred to by most reading specialists as the "Big Five." In most community colleges or colleges with open enrollment, the schools are charged with delivering remedial or developmental reading instruction, essentially an expansion of the secondary school's comprehension strategy skills. At this level, instruction focuses on more in-depth basic comprehension skills: finding main ideas, drawing conclusions, understanding details, making an inference, recognizing vocabulary in context, finding relationships between and within sentences, and understanding the author's purpose. These skills are an extension of the Big Five's comprehension strategy component, but they are secondary level skills even though they are taught in college. Also, these skills remain focused on the narrative structure, not the expository.

College and university level reading courses guide students into thinking critically about their reading by teaching them many tactical strategies and techniques to assist them in making the intellectual leap into challenging discourse. It is through this intellectual leap into reading that FYE courses can begin to teach freshmen to think critically about their reading assignments. For the purposes of this article, critical thinking through reading is defined as the ability to comprehend using cognitive, metacognitive, and affective tasks (Holschuh & Aultman, 2009) and topic knowledge and domain knowledge (Alexander, 2005). Topic knowledge is the gained knowledge the student learned through instruction while domain knowledge is the broader, lifetime knowledge the student acquires.

The result of most early reading programs is what Schoenback, Greenleaf, Cziko & Hurwitz (1999, cited in Gunning, 2002) called the "quiet crisis." The quiet crisis refers to the failure of large numbers of middle and high school students to understand their middle and high school content texts even though they have passed all state literacy standards. Furthermore, as the students move forward into colleges and universities, the crisis moved with them. Although many students can pass basic skills tests and developmental courses, they cannot always understand the multifaceted ideas and language structures embedded in their academic texts; they cannot read and think critically about the discourse and express and apply their new knowledge in an organized critical written format. However, they are competent enough to pass most university core classes but struggle in majors that demand critical thinking, reading, and writing. For research universities that strive to build programs of the highest academic and research standards, what the

Carnegie Institute labels "research one" status, it is particularly difficult to find students who can matriculate at the level they demand. As a result most universities, especially research universities, offer a non-remedial university reading course or reading program in hopes of developing strong critical thinkers and readers. With a little effort, the FYE course can serve as the place to begin non-remedial reading instruction.

Among the major reading activities that should be included in every FYE course are a common reading and the instruction of the four vectors: note taking, textbook comprehension, memory skills for exams, and test wiseness. On the university level, these vectors are highly subject specific, thus one strategy will not fit all subjects and no strategy should be presented as such. Students must be able to shift paradigms and learn different strategies and how to adapt those strategies within the framework of a content course.

Method

In examining courses that are strictly reading-to-learn, Pintrich, McKeachie and Lin (1987) investigated the research on retention factors related to such a course. The results showed that reading-to-learn courses work best when three types of knowledge are included in the strategy and technique models: declarative, procedural, and conditional. Declarative knowledge refers to the understanding of available strategies, procedural knowledge is the understanding of how to apply those strategies, and conditional knowledge is the understanding of when to use them and why. The research results suggested that the reading-to-learn course is effective in producing significant changes in students' learning (Pintrich, et.al.,1987). This research set the foundations for teaching critical thinking in reading strategies. It guides the reading instruction beyond the basic skills comprehension question approach, common in developmental and remedial reading programs. The guidelines from this research were used in a FYE classroom.

Participants

In a state university located in the southeastern United States, one FYE instructor incorporated a reading-to-learn component into two FYE courses. One FYE course consisted of 19 pre-medical majors and the other course of 18 students with a range of majors. Participants in the two FYE classes reported that they had either been in honors classes or advanced classes during high school. All students reported a minimum of a 3.3 high school GPA. Since this was their first semester in college, they did not have a college GPA.

Procedure

Both classes were given instruction in a minimum of three different strategies and techniques in each of the four vectors. As part of the class assignment, the students were also asked to apply each of the techniques to their reading assignments in content courses and to information read in the FYE text. (see sample critical reading lesson activity 1).

Since reading-to-learn vectors were taught during the first three weeks of the semester, students were encouraged to continue to use the strategies

and techniques as needed in their FYE and content classes. At the end of the semester, students were asked to rate their experiences with each method taught. Students were encouraged to be honest and told that their opinions would affect the instruction of the next FYE class (see Tables 1–4).

STUDY SKILLS PROJECT: LEARNING BOOKLET	
This project should be a reality report. That is, you need to start planning how you plan to learn the core curriculum.	
This Project Must Include:	
Cover page	Be creative.
Note Taking	A chart or outline of three different techniques of note taking you learned in class. For each method give 4-8 sentences detailing (1) definition of method (2) steps of how to do this method (3) statement of when to do this method (4) a visual of how the method should look.
Text Book Comprehension/Critical Reading	Make a chart or outline of three different techniques of note taking from texts or handouts. Chapter 4 and lecture notes should help you. For each method, give 4-8 sentences detailing (1) definition of method (2) steps of how to do this method (3) statement of when to do this method (4) a visual of how the method should look. Include three examples.
Study Skills	Make a chart of three study and learning methods or memory techniques you can use in order to get ready for exams. For each method give 4-8 sentences detailing (1) definition of method (2) steps of how to do this method (3) statement of when to this method (4) a visual of how the method should look.
Application	Make a copy of your next semester's schedule that you made with your advisor. For each course, write a statement how you plan to (1) take notes (2) read (3) study.

Figure 1. Sample Critical Reading Lesson Activity I: Teaching the four vectors of reading to learn in college.

This activity was revealing to the students as well as the course instructor.The cover page allowed students to be creative and fostered self expression. It allowed students to create their own cover pages without the rigid directives found in most English composition courses and general writing assignments in content courses. As one student put it, "This is who I am in this course and university."

Results

Following Pintrich, McKeachie and Lin's (1987) research, students were able to understand salient parts of all the strategies and techniques and why and when they must change paradigms. In class discussions, students reported that going beyond the lecture and applying the strategies and techniques to authentic texts helped them to fully understand the importance of changing paradigms. The sharing of the learning booklets with classmates generated excitement about learning what to do for different disciplines. The note taking strategies taught were Cornell (Pauk, 1997), Two Column Note Taking (Strickhart, Mangrum & Iannuzzi, 1998), and REAP (Muskingum College, 1987). Cornell is a note taking method that dates back to when learning strategies courses were first taught and before they were adopted by the FYE courses. The textbook comprehension strategies and techniques were SQ3R (Robinson, 1945 cited in Pauk, 1997), Picture Label, (Trand

& Lopate, 2009) and annotating notes. SQ3R is one of the key learning strategies that also dates back to beginning of reading courses. Rehearsal, association, visualization, enclustering, and mnemonics were taught for the memory section. Test wiseness consisted of teaching students to make summary sheets, concept maps and sample tests.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of General FYE Student Evaluation of the Reading to Learn Techniques

Question	N	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation	Range
Do you feel the note taking strategies will be helpful in your academic career?	18	3.94	4.00	1.11	4.00
Do you feel the textbook strategies will be helpful in your academic career?	18	3.72	4.00	1.02	4.00
Do you feel the memory skills techniques will be helpful in your academic career?	18	4.06	4.50	1.12	4.00
Do you feel the test wiseness techniques will be helpful in your academic career?	18	3.95	4.00	1.25	4.00

Scoring guide: 1 = never; 2 = 25% of the time; 3 = 50% of the time; 4 = 75% of the time; 5 = almost all of the time and greater than 75% of the time.

All vectors were rated virtually the same with memory techniques edging slightly ahead in its ranking as helpful in an academic career. Memory is the only vector that enhances the students' creativity and allows them to learn using the method of their own choosing. This is because in order for a memory technique to work, it must be personable, fast, fun and fearless (Browning, 1983). The other vectors force students to remain within the boundaries of the lecture and discipline.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Premedical FYE Student Evaluation of the Reading to Learn Techniques

Question	N	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation	Range
Do you feel the note taking strategies will be helpful in your academic career?	19	4.36	4.00	0.68	2.00
Do you feel the textbook strategies will be helpful in your academic career?	19	3.84	4.00	0.76	3.00
Do you feel the memory skills techniques will be helpful in your academic career?	19	4.53	5.00	0.51	1.00
Do you feel the test wiseness techniques will be helpful in your academic career?	19	4.00	4.00	1.00	3.00

Scoring guide: 1 = never; 2 = 25% of the time; 3 = 50% of the time; 4 = 75% of the time; 5 = almost all of the time and greater than 75% of the time.

The section with pre-medical students scored all of the vectors slightly higher than the mixed majors group. The students in this pre-medical section considered themselves the cream of the university and were determined to set high standards for themselves. Their learning booklets were thicker with most of them having tried the vectors in all of their classes in search of a "goodness to fit."   Applying the strategies to every course allowed the students to become very familiar with the strategies' ability to support critical thinking in different content courses.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of Premedical FYE Student Evaluation of the Reading to Learn Techniques

Question	N	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation	Range
Do you feel the note taking strategies will be helpful in your academic career?	37	4.16	4.00	0.93	4.00
Do you feel the textbook strategies will be helpful in your academic career?	37	3.78	4.00	0.87	4.00
Do you feel the memory skills techniques will be helpful in your academic career?	37	4.30	5.00	0.94	4.00
Do you feel the test wiseness techniques will be helpful in your academic career?	37	3.97	4.00	1.11	4.00

Scoring guide: 1 = never; 2 = 25% of the time; 3 = 50% of the time; 4 = 75% of the time; 5 = almost all of the time and greater than 75% of the time.

Overall, in examining all the vectors with both classes, collectively the FYE students rated memory techniques slightly higher than the other techniques. Textbook comprehension strategies earned an acceptable rating of an average of 3.7838, marking it closer to the 4 rating of using the technique 75% of the time. But in each case, textbook comprehension scored slightly lower than the other vectors. This may indicate that since critical reading is an acquired skill, students did not receive adequate time in the three-week instruction to benefit from the techniques.

Table 4

General Statistics Results of Strategy Adoption

Strategy	FYE course - General			FYE course – Pre-medical		
	Strategy Usage			Strategy Usage		
	Decline	Plan to	Presently	Decline	Plan to	Presently
Cornell	2	11	5	1	12	6
Two Column	2	22	5	2	12	5
REAP	2	11	5	1	12	6
SQ3R	10	5	3	4	12	3
Annotating Reading	2	11	5	1	12	6
Picture Label	7	10	1	6	9	4
Memory Techniques	3	5	10	0	4	15
Test Wiseness	4	6	8	2	9	8

Scoring guide: 1 = do not plan to adopt (decline); 2 = plan to adopt; 3 = presently using

Discussion

The majority of the students in the mixed majors FYE course indicated that they do not plan to use SQ3R; whereas, the majority of the pre-medical group plan to use it or presently using it. Memory techniques proved to be extremely useful for both groups with virtually everyone indicating that they plan to use the techniques or are presently using them beyond the class requirements. Whereas the pre-medical group collectively saw the value in all the vectors rating all of them, more often than not, in the categories of "plan to use" or "presently using," the mixed majors FYE course students viewed the vectors valuable but with less vigor than the pre-medical students. The vast majority of the students reported that either they are using or plan to use the techniques, a clear sign of their value.

Critical thinking using a common reading

Most FYE courses, particularly those that follow a learning strategies interventions model, include a common reading. This is a fiction or nonfiction book that all enrollees into the course are required to read. This assignment can prove to be beneficial to the students as well as the faculty. In addition to getting students to read, texts can be chosen for a particular theme. Here are some guidelines when choosing a book for a common reading.

1. Choose a book that is attention-grabbing enough to engage all students.

2. Consider the students' diversity, allowing students to grow outside their shells.

3. Before choosing a book, decide on a message that you want to convey.

4. Choose a book that is on the students' instructional level, not independent reading level.

5. Do not rely on questioning about the book as a means of discussion and assessing readership.

6. Set aside about ten to fifteen minutes of class time for book related activities.

7. If questioning is a factor of the reading assignment, refer to a reading specialist/professor who can suggest questions and critical thinking activities that relate to the reading standards.

Common readings can facilitate critical thinking through reading by using an advanced literature circle (Trand & Lopate, 2009). Forming literature circles (Day, Spiegel, McLellan & Brown, 2002) began as a small group activity that allows students to respond to books while improving reading skills in secondary schools. However, advanced literature circles (Trand & Lopate) allow students to think critically about what they are reading (see sample critical reading lesson activity 2). This sustained immersion into text with peer and instructor reinforcement can be considered a crock pot for cooking.

LESSON SUMMARY	
Content	The student will learn about (the topic of the subject) and be able to think and write critically about the subject.
Social	The students will enhance their knowledge of (social aspects) and be able to think and write critically about the relations of the topic to self, other texts and the world.
Process	The students will engage in the reading silently and orally through the strategy of literature circle.
Affective	The student will enjoy the experience of learning about the topic, understand its relationship to self, other texts and the world and enhance an appreciation of the reading experience.
PROCEDURE	
1. FYE professors select book.	
2. On the first day of class, professor assigns students into groups of six.	
3. Professors explain literature circle to the students and assign responsibilities. Students are instructed that each week they will change roles.	
LITERATURE CIRCLE RESPONSIBILITIES	
Group director	The group director leads the group discussions, keeps the flow of the reports fluent, and concludes the sessions with a call for role reassignment for the next meeting.
Passage analyst	The passage analyst focuses on key areas of the passage and relates it to self, other texts, and the world. The analyst reads a few passages aloud as the relationships are made.
Academic Vocabulary Builder (AVB)	The AVB is responsible for all terms and concepts in the text and discusses them in relation to the denotative and connotative meanings. The AVB also identifies literary terms and figurative language and references their impact on the story's message, characters, plot and/or conclusion

Figure 2. Sample Critical Reasing Lesson Activity II: Teaching how to create and sustain literature circles.

Advanced literature circles (Trand & Lopate, 2009) guide the entire class into thinking critically about their reading. This assignment addresses the underpinnings of critical reading: cognitive, metacognitive, and affective tasks and topic knowledge and domain knowledge. The "summarizer" fulfills the cognitive task. Pure understanding of the story sets the standard of the discussion. Metacognition, the ability to monitor self understanding of the story, develops with the researcher's task. The "researcher" makes unclear concepts clear and uncovers new knowledge for understanding. The researcher also expands on information in the story for clearer understanding

and provides an opportunity to challenge the message or theme. The task of discovering an affective result can be achieved through the "technology representer" and the "academic vocabulary builder". These tasks guide the reader in visually and cognitively representing the intended result and lasting affect of the author's and reader's schema. The "passage analyst" connects the topic to self, to other texts, and to the world, allowing other students to think critically about the story. This role supports the development of topic and domain knowledge.

Future Research

Although research is beginning to direct FYE programs toward the inclusion of learning strategy models, much more research needs to be done. Research should be longitudinal and inclusive of all types of students from a variety of higher education institutions throughout the United States. Studies need to explore student responses to critical thinking as expressed through reading and writing. Students' responses on the usefulness of such strategies should be sought during the freshmen and junior years because inquiries made in the freshmen year can give only perceived usefulness responses. Student responses given in the junior or senior year will more accurately suggest actual usefulness and validity for learning. As in previous studies, researchers need to track students who do not take an FYE course and those who do.

Conclusion

University level reading-to-learn and critical thinking have long been considered part of the hidden agenda. Reading has often been ignored or taught to students by well meaning but non-reading degreed faculty and staff. As a result, what passes for reading instruction usually consists of reading a book and answering questions at the end of the chapter or text. Accordingly, reading in complex domains and the transformational learning that results are rarely realized in the university classroom nor correspondingly taught. The purpose of the article was to spotlight three ideas crucial to FYE development: (1) that learning strategy interventions are important in all FYE courses with reading-to-learn and critical thinking as main components, (2) that the academic personnel exist to serve as a resource and can be found in the Reading Department in the College or School of Education or the university's reading lab and (3) that FYE classes should have as their main objective helping students make the intellectual leap into college and to success beyond the academy, in other words, teaching them to cook.

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Red-Shirting College Students with Disabilities

Jack Trammell
Randolph-Macon College

Abstract

College and university students with disabilities, both visible and invisible, must deal with what sociologist Erving Goffman called information management; they must control and protect their stigmatized identity by considering who to tell what, how much to tell, and when to tell. A growing body of stigma-related educational research, as well as cultural evidence, suggests that postsecondary students with disabilities experience a significant stigma effect; they are in essence forced to wear a red shirt. This literature review article and the research associated with it suggest that disclosure may create as many problems as it solves and points out the need for students with disabilities to learn better information management strategies. The implications for learning support are myriad and suggest that DSS offices may need to re-educate the entire community, giving practical suggestions.

Defining the Problem

In the popular 1960s television series *Star Trek*, Producer Gene Rodenberry broke new ground with a number of entertainment firsts. In the midst of the Civil Rights movement, one show included an inter-racial kiss. While women were protesting for equal rights, the series portrayed women in positions of leadership. Finally, despite the famous "cold war" between the United States of America and the Soviet Union, the series portrayed a Russian without a negative stereotype. Further, throughout the series, aliens were not presented as an abject "other" to offend or truly frighten, but as diverse participants in a wider society. In essence, *Star Trek* was one of Hollywood's earliest and most successful efforts at dealing with social otherness and constituted an honest intellectual attempt to decrease social distances between "normal" people and various minorities or stigmatized identities. Perhaps the most notorious form of "otherness" portrayed on the show was created in a more subtle form: red-shirted security guards. These red-shirted characters (generally white males) were only briefly on screen before they suffered some kind of terrible, sudden, and usually unpleasant

demise. They represented a uniformed, characterless, expendable work force whose individuality was intentionally diminished and could be abruptly removed at any time without anyone ever missing them.

In a similar fashion, disability has often been a metaphorical red shirt, a type of intentionally or unintentionally bestowed label that immediately creates otherness. In the case of postsecondary students with disabilities, students must wear "this shirt" when they choose to disclose their disability to a college or university in order to receive accommodations. Three aspects of this decision are vital and underappreciated in terms of current practice: a general unawareness of or lack of concern about the red shirt effect by teaching faculty, a severe shortage of research related to disability stigma effects and postsecondary students, and, finally, a need to balance costs and benefits with special consideration to cases where disclosure can lead to more harm than good. Attention to these three aspects will highlight that disclosure means wearing the red shirt.

Literature Review

Disability has lagged behind many other forms of stigmatized identity in terms of scholarship and advocacy. Slavery was abolished in 1865; women gained the right to vote in 1920; individuals with disabilities were not completely liberated in the eyes of the law in both public and private settings until the 1990 passage of the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) and the subsequent Americans with Disabilities Act Amendment Act (ADAAA)in 2009.

Many current disability scholars see various factors behind this relative lag in social movement. These factors do not always seem consistent with the universal nature of disability and the long history of human experience with disability.   Disability historian Douglas Baynton (2006) calls disability not just a label, but also "a fundamental binary opposition," a dichotomy between the normal and abnormal that conforms to a widely agreed upon understanding of how our social world operates (p. 82). Lennard Davis (2002) , taking it one step further, suggests that Dismodernism, or a post-post modernist focus on both the uniqueness and universality of the disability experience is, in spite of social resistance, the new paradigm through which to understand the human experience in the 21st century. Disability scholars Doris Zames and her sister Freida remind readers that "handicapism" is the only "ism" we will all experience if we live long enough (Fleischer & Zames, 2001; Scotch, 2001). Yet even with these new dialogues appearing, disability remains difficult to discuss.

Richard Scotch (2001) quotes sociologist Paul Higgins (1992) in describing the red shirt's unintended effects: "Policy that makes disability exceptional [as in the case of college and university disability support services] also separates disabled people from non-disabled people" (p. 389).   Or, as Scotch (2001) states in his own words, "Segregated programs persist and a separate community of people with disabilities continues to be reinforced by 'special' service strategies and the stigma that pervades our culture" (p. 389). In another words, it's "us" and "them."

In spite of these advances led by leading scholars, disclosure remains a

peculiar and understudied event. There is very little research, for example, about why some students with disabilities choose not to disclose. In Foucauldian terms, the disclosure process links "forms of power that turn individuals into subjects by tying them to identities" (Tremain, 2005a). Disclosure is not an insular action. It would seem that disclosure requires acknowledging a disability identity, and some individuals are not willing to accept that (Davis, 2002, 2006).

Disclosure involves sharing potentially harmful information and is inherently risky. In the 1960s, Erving Goffman interviewed stigmatized individuals and found almost universally that they were held hostage by the possibility of damning information about their identities being shared with others.

In almost all cases, the consequences of losing control over this information were alienation, stigmatization, and marginalization (Edgerton, 1967; Goffman, 1961, 1963). Disclosure as it is currently understood has evolved out of practical necessity (the ADA) and what are now historically acknowledged inequalities, but it has arguably continued to evolve into an openly accepted and variant form of social oppression (Davis, 2002; Kearney, 2003).

There is evidence to show that colleges and universities possibly create stigma by requiring disclosure (as the ADA mandates). To cite one example, students with various invisible psychological disabilities (anxiety, depression, attention deficit disorder, etc.) are often not comfortable discussing them and intentionally decline accommodations for this reason (Corrigan, 2005; Marson, 2004; Oliver, Reed, Katz, & Haugh, 1999). From a sociological standpoint, students who choose not to disclose do so in part to protect their identity and, in the words of sociologist Erving Goffman (1963), are attempting in one sense to "pass" as normal.

Many students choose not to disclose because they have seen what happens to other students who have disclosed or feel as if they instinctually know what will happen to them if they disclose (Trammell, 2002). Veronica Crawford, in an account of her multiple disabilities, calls disclosure the double-edged sword because any possible benefits to be gained from accommodation are often offset by the negative effects of social distancing and discrimination (Crawford, 2002; Hartmann, 2003).

Disclosure should lead to accommodation, but it can lead to discrimination, as well. Students must disclose if they want to be accommodated, and disclosure means putting on the red shirt. As research into mental illness has shown, telling is "risky business" (Hinshaw, 2007; Olney & Brockelman, 2005; Wahl & NetLibrary Inc., 1999). Disclosure opens a Pandora's Box for all parties involved, demanding that institutions also recognize and openly acknowledge the risks, along with offering an answer regarding whether there is more harm than good when certain accommodation decisions are made. This cost benefit analysis, however, is not considered universal practice in Disability Support Services (DSS) offices at this time (Corrigan, 2005; Robertson & Dykes, 2007; Smith & Erevelles, 2004). The semantics of disability complicate the issue. The name of the accommodations office (e.g., Disability Support Services or DSS) can be seen as problematic. McWhorter

(2005) bluntly states that the word disability, like the term "handicap" in the 1970s, has become a highly stigmatized and controversial term. Moreover, Shelley Tremain (2005a) writes that, "Assumptions about disability as negative ontology remain unchallenged" (p. 16).

Although for some time there has been a lively movement promoting "person first" language, and for very noble purposes, a reasonable person might argue that the word is not the problem, and that as long as the abstraction remains a negative one, it simply doesn't matter what temporary terminology is chosen to serve as a label. Currently, however, many consider the word "disability" already a compromised term (Davis, 2002; Longmore & Umansky, 2001).

To combat semantics in the U.S., some states have chosen to merge their gifted and talented programs with their special education departments, creating one over-arching office for exceptionalities. This type of linguistic reframing is consistent with the theory of twice exceptionality (2E), which maintains that disability and ability are two sides of the same coin. That ability is better seen as a continuum along which all humans slide back and forth daily and throughout their lives (and contradicts the early 20th century notion of intelligence). Some postsecondary offices have done the same (Eisner & Sornik, 2006). These efforts are well intentioned, to be sure, though they potentially muddy the water for those who would segregate students with exceptional ability from those with standard abilities, as has been historically the precedent. It may also confuse students.

The semantics of disability actually constitute the primary battleground for equal access in both Western and non-Western countries. Since cultural definitions remain the predominant variable within the social model of disability, the language used to debate disability constitutes the forum where social otherness and understanding are actually negotiated. Because the word "disability" itself is so charged with manifold meanings and threatening stereotypes, requiring students to visit an "Office for Disability Support" as a first step in getting accommodations forces a preliminary label on them before the accommodation process can even begin to unfold.

To confirm this red-shirt effect, growing empirical evidence is found in both quantitative and qualitative research across the disciplines of psychology, education, history and sociology (Danforth & Gabel, 2006; Tremain, 2005b). A recent study at three colleges and universities found significant levels of disability stigmatization amongst college students who had self-disclosed disabilities in order to seek accommodations (Trammell, 2006). The results considered both visible and invisible disabilities, such as depression and anxiety. As record numbers of students with mental health issues finish high school, take standardized tests, and attend postsecondary schools, the stigma associated with mental illness impinges increasingly on postsecondary academic life (Angermeyer & Matschinger, 2003; Brinckerhoff, 2002; Brinckerhoff, Shaw, & McGuire, 1993; Coleman, 1997; Ekpone & Bogucki, 2004).

While this cited research is important, there remains an inadequate pool of studies to develop a focused construct of how the red-shirting effect works specifically with students with disabilities and in more generalized ways, such as how it differs or is similar to race or gender-related stigmas.

Discussion

For college and university students, the lack of acknowledgement of a red-shirting effect, and the paucity of stigma research, make negotiating the accommodation process and adjusting to their disability identity very difficult. Since college and university students are required to disclose in order to receive accommodations, they are by definition forced to become disability identity information managers. Looking at the practical implications, few would suggest that there is any alternative to disclosure if accommodations are needed, yet the effects must be accepted. Although the optimism of universal design (UD) shows promise of someday making the world of academics more accessible without special accommodations, the reality is more stark (Bowe, 2000; Davis, 2006; Rose, Harbour, Johnson, Daley, & Abarbanell, 2006).

Because college students are required to accept the label up front before anything else can happen in the accommodation process, the practical question becomes how to help them manage their disability identity. Can they be better equipped to handle their own information management?

Studies have long shown that stigma interferes with assimilation into the educational community and can be related to chronic underachievement (Bakker & Bosman, 2003; Blascovich, Mendes, Hunter, & Lickel, 2000). Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) research, for example, has consistently shown relationships between ADHD and social difficulties and academic struggles (Canu, Newman, Morrow, & Pope, 2008; Weyandt & DuPaul, 2006). General stigma research suggests that the effect of stigma is ultimately a direct challenge to a stable sense of self, a potential crisis of identity (Crocker, Major, & Steele, 1998; Crocker & Quinn, 2000; Levin & Laar, 2006; Olney & Brockelman, 2005; Olney, Brockelman, Kennedy, & Newsome, 2004). For postsecondary students with disabilities, this often leads to the questions, "Do I really deserve to be here?" or "Do I really belong here?"

Ultimately, the students with disabilities who are the most successful are those who are able to answer these questions: Who do I tell? How much do I tell? When do I tell? They are the students who are best at information management. It is far from clear, however, how successful students learn to manage information and how those who aren't successful might learn such skills.

Even with growing evidence of stigmatization, much of the discrimination that still occurs is passive and unmeasured, and developing an overarching theoretical framework to study the core issue remains a challenge (Davis, 2002; Monaghan, 1998; Trammell, 2006). Since many students, particularly those with physical disabilities, have been suffering from stigma from a very early age, there is even a tendency for some students to accept their secondary citizen status without question (Fleitas, 2000; Green, 2003; Juvonen & Graham, 2001). The "real world" students are being prepared for is one in which more than ninety percent of disability litigation is decided in favor of employers and defendants, rather than the individual or group with disabilities bringing forward the complaint (Fleischer & Zames, 2001; Marson, 2004). The real world is one in which the United Nations reports that

ninety-eight percent of children with disabilities in undeveloped countries receive no formal education at all ("U.N. stamps promote rights for persons with disabilities," 2008).

Nonetheless, acknowledging that students must choose to disclose to get accommodations, the issue then becomes one of information management skills (Goffman, 1963). After initial disclosure, most disability support offices on college and university campuses require students to communicate directly with their professors about their disabilities. This often means asking the student to deliver an official accommodation letter or communication to his or her professors that requests specific adjustments to the academic environment, such as permitting extra time on tests. What often goes without consideration is that an already stigmatized student is forced to confront the most powerful actor in his or her academic environment— the Ph.D. professor, the expert in his or her field—and to enter into the social exchange by introducing him or herself with what has historically been perceived as a weakness, a flaw, or a request for an unfair advantage (Campbell, 2005; Covey, 1998; Longmore & Umansky, 2001). While the accommodation letter legitimizes the student's disability in much the same way that applicants for Social Security claims or Workman's Compensation must "prove" their handicapping conditions in order to gain benefits, it also places them more at risk within what is already a heightened social disadvantage.

Of all the relationships that evolve in the postsecondary educational environment, that which evolves between the student and the professor is central to the entire college or university experience, particularly in the liberal arts environment where it is fostered from the start of a student's educational career (Grossman, 2001). In a similar fashion to the way medical sociologists such as Ivan Illich and Talcott Parsons have defined the interactions of the doctor-patient relationship—the roles each play and the primacy of medical authority—students and professors also inherently engage in an unequal dialogue (Barnes, Mercer, & Shakespeare, 1999).

Bringing disability into the equation can potentially upset the natural evolution of the professor-student relationship. Because disability continues to be perceived in largely negative terms, students are understandably reluctant to begin an important relationship by talking about it. Their own evolving identity is somewhat fragile as an underclassman and is often shaped initially by grades and classroom performance (Barnes et al., 1999). The professor-student relationship, like the doctor-patient relationship, had been a fairly stable social norm in the late modern era. The relatively recent infusion of information about disability fundamentally alters and challenges traditional academic roles. No matter what the reason for a student's failure in any given class, if disability has been disclosed, there will always be questions about whether the student worked hard enough, the student was diligent in pursuing accommodations, the student was otherwise qualified, or even whether the professor has somehow intentionally or unintentionally discriminated against him or her.

Proposed Solution

This risk can be partially off-set by high school transition programs and disability support orientations paired with individual meetings at the postsecondary level that train students in strategies for information management—who to tell, when to tell, and how much to tell. Such programs are scattered and uncoordinated, where they exist at all. Such programs and freshmen orientations should specifically teach information management skills.

As students hand letters of accommodation to their professors or engage in similar discourses, they literally put on the red shirt and hope that nothing bad will happen. The reaction of the letter's recipient, as Goffman (1963) noted, becomes of primary importance. How will the professor react? Will a shadow cross his or her face because he or she has received other letters like this one and perhaps perceived that the accommodations were unreasonable, unfair, or abused? Will he or she smile pleasantly instead, remembering a former student with a learning disability who persevered in the face of adversity (and thus unintentionally reinforce a stereotype that suggests it is not enough to simply do; students with disabilities must do more) (Longmore & Umansky, 2001). Some students, using an instinctual form of information management, simply choose not to disclose because it seems safer.

Therefore, postsecondary staff and faculty also need more information. They need to be educated about the problem and given resources to help them work with students who are better information managers. More faculty, staff, and students in higher education must begin to think about disability in terms of information management. Historian Paul Longmore argues persuasively that disability has been neglected, ignored, and misunderstood in American historical analysis when compared to other stigmatized identities (Longmore & Umansky, 2001). DSS offices should prioritize educating the campus community.

The promise of universal design remains a desirable objective. As historian Linda Kerber (2006) wrote, "Those who articulate the needs of the disabled articulate the needs of us all" (p. 3). Perhaps most importantly, DSS offices can take a critical look at the disclosure process itself and identify ways to reduce stigma. Even something as ubiquitous as changing the name of the office (or redesigning signs) can signal a change in the attitude landscape. To the extent that the environment becomes easier to navigate, students with disabilities will find it easier to develop their information management skills. Ultimately, Simons & Masschelein (2005) state that such a process must result in success "Beyond the terms of exclusion and inclusion" (p.209).

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SI Plus: A Program Description and an Analysis of Student Feedback

COURTNEY J. JARRETT AND JACQUELINE A. HARRIS
BALL STATE UNIVERSITY

Abstract

To enhance the establishment of study behaviors, the traditional model of Supplemental Instruction was complemented with study strategies presented within a World Civilizations classroom to all the enrolled students. Organization of the program, delivery of the study strategies, and student reactions are discussed. During the six semester study from Fall 2004 to Spring 2007, results of student satisfaction surveys conducted at the completion of the semester indicated high satisfaction ratings regarding the enhanced SI model, not only for the course itself but also for the students' ability to apply their newly learned study stills in other classes.

In the past 30 years, there has been a shift in emphasis from teaching to student learning. Incorporating student learning outcomes into higher education necessitates that specific learning strategies be taught so that students can be successful in the new environment (McGuire, 2006). This is in conjunction with student surveys that report a desire to learn more about improving their study skills. In surveying 98-120 first-year college students, Noel-Levitz (2009) reported that 74.8% of the students "would like to receive some instruction in the most effective ways to take college exams," and 57.3% reported that they "would like to receive some help in improving study habits" (p. 12). More specifically, 41.4% indicated they "would like to receive tutoring in one or more courses" (p. 12).

Colleges and universities responded by establishing academic support systems with student involvement as a key component. Opportunities abound for student involvement, including but not limited to peer tutoring, study groups, study tables, workshops, and Supplemental Instruction (SI). This study examines the effectiveness of merging two well-established systems— SI and course attached tutors— into one "value added" service. During a period of several semesters, this project focused on incorporating academic support into a history class by presenting tips for college study skills to students along with Supplemental Instruction.

Background

Although a quick workshop or in-class presentation may be viable for exposure to study tips, a real change in study attitudes, behaviors, and habits will only occur over an extended period of time (Leamnson, 1999). Complicating matters further, students may not be motivated to learn independently and thus need experiences that increase strategic learning (McGuire, 2006). Tutoring and Supplemental Instruction offer opportunities for change; additionally, there is an understanding that study habits are simply routines, which can develop and change over time (Boylan, Bonham, Claxton, & Bliss, 1995; Congos & Schoeps, 1993; McCarthy & Smuts, 1997; Hodges, 2001; Ogden, Thompson, Russell, & Simmons, 2003). Consequently, the development of academic assistance programs, implemented over a period of time, is very important. Besides the individual student variables, there are also positive aspects of both tutoring and Supplemental Instruction. In both settings, students have a model student available to them to answer individual questions. They also have extended one-on-one contact with a consistent assistant.

There are some negative aspects involved with these delivery systems. Tutors do not have many opportunities for contacts with great numbers of students. They lose students throughout the semester, and frequently, tutors do not know if the students have reached their academic goals or if the students left for other reasons beyond dissatisfaction with the tutoring process. Additionally, tutors are knowledgeable about the course, but they do not know exactly what was presented in class or how the teacher presented or stressed the content. SI leaders have difficulty addressing individual needs because of the group setting. Generally, SI leaders apply study strategies to class content, but time constraints or student demands frequently do not permit this to happen.

Student expectations can add to the challenges SI leaders or tutors face because students may have unrealistic expectations of what tutors or SI leaders can do in the sessions. If the supplemental material is not directly related to course content, students may become impatient or disillusioned. Additionally, tutoring and SI only work if sessions are scheduled at times when students can attend and are not restricted by other responsibilities. This specific program was created to balance individual learning styles and course content with the best of both tutoring and SI worlds.

In this research, the traits of tutoring and Supplemental Instruction are combined, the SI leader role is expanded into the classroom, and the model is labeled "SI Plus," thus providing study skills as part of the well established SI model. The SI leader attended each class and held out-of-class review sessions twice a week. The difference with this approach and traditional Supplemental Instruction is that the SI leader was able to take a much more active role within the classroom. During each class period, the SI leader had approximately five minutes to present a relevant study skills tip that applied to the material at hand. Through this approach, the SI leader had access to everyone in the class as well as additional contacts through the smaller SI sessions.

SI leaders were trained to reinforce the educational instructional model

of "teach, practice, and apply" (Reinhartz & Van Cleaf, 1986). Too frequently, students receive and even practice study strategies during content-oriented tutoring, but they resist taking the next step: applying the strategies to the courses they are studying. The benefit of the SI Plus program is that the SI leader was able to teach a strategy to the whole class, demonstrate guided practice, and then follow up with independent practice and applications in the SI sessions and through individual office hours. SI Plus offered the application of study strategies to specific course content.

Method

Participants

Most of the students were freshmen, but sophomores, juniors, and seniors were also enrolled in the history classes. No one in the classes was excluded from treatment. The only way students were excluded from the survey was if they were absent from class on the day it was administered. Students were not recruited for this study; instead, they were enrolled in a class as usual; the study was part of the class content. This program would work in a large or small class, but in this case, the semester started with an enrollment of approximately 200 students.

Procedure

This research was conducted at a four-year, public, Midwestern university. Within the University College Learning Center's academic support program, both tutoring and Supplemental Instruction were— and are— offered to students as separate services. To staff the SI Plus program, a student who had taken a class and completed it with a letter grade of A or B was hired by the Learning Center and asked to attend the class. The Supplemental Instructor for this study started during her senior year in an undergraduate program and continued through her doctoral work. Because she was a history major and had previously worked closely with the professor who taught this history class, the candidate was familiar with the both the course and the instructor. The job of the SI leader was to meet with the professor, take notes, act like a model student and hold at least two out-of-class review sessions each week. There was usually an additional office hour offered for student assistance each week. SI hiring preference was given to a student who had experience in tutoring in the Learning Center. Once hired, the prospective SI leader received training in Supplemental Instruction.

This "SI Plus" model was implemented in a World Civilizations class. This was traditionally a high-risk class with a high percentage of grades being D, F, and W (for withdrawal). The 15-week class met Tuesdays and Thursdays from 9:30 – 10:45 a.m. The SI leader attended every class and was allotted five minutes of class time to relate some study skills information to students. Based on the syllabus, she provided short but consistent lessons targeting material covered during the class period. The lessons were presented at various times throughout the individual class periods, so the students saw them as incorporated within the class, not just as an auxiliary component. The SI leader also conducted out-of-class SI sessions twice weekly and held one additional office hour weekly in the Learning Center. The Supplemental Instruction sessions outside of the classroom also covered both content and study strategies.

In arranging this program, there were several important considerations. The most important consideration was to have a good SI leader in place. The SI leader needed to have a solid knowledge base of study skills and course content. Another important quality was creativity; the SI leader needed to demonstrate an ability to quickly generate ideas to adapt the study skills to the class material. The SI leader needed to be organized and present relevant content information in an interesting manner. A crucial factor was to have a flexible professor who would see the value in giving five minutes each class period to this venture. These components were necessary to support a good working relationship between the SI leader and the professor, a key to the success of this model.

The SI leader presented a variety of topics to the class, and the presentation of these lessons is considered to be the "treatment" in this study. This treatment was done for six semesters from Fall 2004 to Spring 2007. During each semester, the SI leader presented approximately 25 topical lessons. In the daily lessons, she frequently discussed making study schedules, keeping track of study hours, and making "to do" lists as organizational techniques and ways to manage time wisely. She discussed taking notes, mapping techniques, and effective textbook strategies as methods of capturing concepts that needed to be learned. She used various strategies for assisting students in differentiating between the main ideas and details of what they were hearing and reading.

The SI leader was able to review the students' notes and comment upon them in the SI sessions. During this time, she helped the students make associations between the new information and what they already knew. She taught them active listening techniques and to self-monitor their understanding. Frequent tests and quizzes during the semester led to increased nervousness and anxiety. She addressed these concerns in numerous sessions with a two-pronged approach of instruction on relaxation exercises and test preparation strategies. The class included testing through essay exams, so preparing with outlines was one of the major strategies the SI leader discussed. Self-testing was also addressed over the course of the semester.

Evaluation Instrument

Each semester, an in-class survey was conducted separately from the traditional course evaluation. The purpose of this was to gather feedback, specifically on the SI leader's performance within the class as a type of quality control measure. The specific survey responses follow in the next section.

Results

The following information is a summary of the surveys that were collected at the end of each semester, starting from Fall 2004 and ending at Spring 2007. The first five questions are totals from all the surveys. The total number of students who completed the surveys for these six semesters was 564.

Students who used the SI-Plus program consistently received better grades than those who did not use the program. Comparing the mean grades

for the six semester span of the program, students who used the SI-Plus program on average had 34% higher grades than those who did not use the program (SI-Plus participants mean grade was 2.766 compared with 2.059 mean grade for Non-SI-Plus participants). Specifically, the mean grades for each semester were as follows:

Table 1

Mean grades earned by students using the SI-Plus program compared to those who were not; N=564.

Semester	SI	Non-SI
Fall 2004	2.735	2.101
Spring 2005	2.841	2.316
Fall 2005	2.644	2.153
Spring 2006	2.680	2.189
Fall 2006	2.825	1.196
Spring 2007	2.869	2.398

The student satisfaction survey results were overwhelmingly positive with more than 90% of the responses in the most favorable ranking.

For Questions #1 and #2, 100% of the respondents reported "Somewhat" or "Very Evident." On Question #3, 89% of the respondents reported "Yes," the SI leader had used a variety of methods in the study skills lessons. For Question #4, 91% of the respondents reported that they occasionally or frequently tried the study strategies that were presented in class. If they answered occasionally or frequently, they were asked how many of the skills they tried; 419 of the respondents tried two or more of the study skills.

The responses to questions 6-14 were compiled as follows:

Question 6: Which ones did you try?

Almost half of those surveyed tried note-taking, with 26 percent (100) of the responses and time management strategies, with 23 percent (90) responses. Although not as popular, respondents tried strategies for reading textbooks, with 18 percent (70) of the responses, reviewing, with 11 percent (44) of the responses, and test preparation, with 9 percent (37) of the responses. The least attempted strategies included making outlines, with 8 percent (32) and using flashcards, with 5 percent (21) of the responses.

Question 7: In what ways were they useful?

Almost half of those surveyed said they gained the most by improving their test preparation, with 23 percent (83) of the responses, and remembering, with 21 percent (73) of the responses. The following three categories were a close cluster with improved organization, with 18 percent (64) of the responses, saving time, with 15 percent (54) of the responses, and saving

time, with 14 percent (54) of the responses. The category with the least improvement was in notetaking, with 9 percent (32) of the responses.

Question #8, "Have you tried the strategies in other classes?"

The majority of the respondents reported they had used these strategies beyond the SI Plus course, with 62 percent of the students (358 students) reported "Yes;" conversely, 37 percent of the students (213 students) said "No" they had not tried extending their skills to other courses.

Question #9 "If yes [to question #8], which strategies did you try and in what classes?"

While a variety of classes and strategies were mentioned, the most frequent answer was students used highlighting and note taking strategies.

Question #10: What are the results?

A substantial majority of responses, with 77 percent (233 students) was "good," 18 percent (56 students) of the responses indicated the results were "ok," while just five percent (or 15 students) indicated none, or N/A.

Question #11: "If you have not applied the strategies, why not?"

While a majority of the responses (74 students) indicated students thought they already had good study skills, the next most popular response (with 31 responses) was the strategies, "won't help me," or the strategies were "meaningless." The penultimate response was the students were "lazy" or "too tired," with 23 responses. Finally, 18 responses indicated students either "didn't know" why they did not apply the strategies or they did not think the strategies were applicable.

Question #12: "Have you attended any Supplemental Instruction sessions with the specific SI leader used for this study?

An overwhelming majority of students (36) reported they attended additional Supplemental Instruction sessions with the SI leader; on the other hand, slightly more than 10 percent (156) students had not participated in additional sessions.

Question #13: If "Yes" to question # 12, then how many sessions?

A majority of the students attended all or almost all of the additional sessions, with 58 percent (or 223 students); another strong response was those students who attended at least four sessions, with 25 percent (or 95 students). The attendance rate drops dramatically, with just 9 percent (or 34 students) to attended 3 additional sessions and 8 percent (or 30 students) who attended just one additional session.

Question # 14 Comments/suggestions if we incorporate a study skills tutor in a future class?

Thirty-two comments praised SI leader directly; 13 comments were positive about the program and its helpfulness; five people suggested having the sessions at various times throughout the semester; four comments were

made directly about the SI sessions. Highlights of the statements include: "Make the students go [to the SI sessions]," "Make students obligated to study more."

Question # 15: Would you recommend this program in the future? Why? Why not?

One hundred and eleven students answered this question, and all but four people answered "Yes," plus a positive comment. The positive comments referred to everything from the helpfulness of the tutor, "[SI leader]'s the bomb and if she's getting paid you should give her a raise," to comments about the support it gives the professor, "It reinforces what Dr. [Instructor] teaches," to making the transition to college: "It helped me out a lot in my classes, especially since I was an incoming Freshman." Comments also highlighted the appreciation of general academic support: "It would help anyone since it taught new skills and reinforced old ones." A common report was that "It was definitely worth the class time." The comments not in support of the program were, "Went to study sessions and didn't cover the right material," "I just think it needs to relate more to getting students to study more, rather than techniques on how to study," "Most students, by this time, already know what study habits work best for them," "No, it doesn't help," and finally, "Some people never go to class and just attend the study sessions. I don't know how to fix this, but it is a problem."

In the section for "recalling and tallying these responses," the following categories were made: "All" or "Almost all" was reported by 223 people; "Four or more" was reported 95 times; "Three times" was reported by 34 students; and "Once" was reported by 30 students. The last two questions asked for comments, suggestions, and recommendations for the future and are included in the Appendix.

For the six semesters, the total number of enrolled students was 1,042. The total number of SI participants was 817 students. The total number of contact hours, from both SI sessions and office hours, was 7,073. Individual data for SI sessions compared to office hours is not available; those are totaled together every semester.

Discussion

Based on the survey results, the SI Plus program provided benefits to the students. The students had close contact with a model student. This contact was recognized by the students in their last two survey responses as being helpful. The SI leader was also a bridge to the professor for the students and could discuss areas of concern with the professor that arose during the contacts with the students. She was able to provide feedback on student performance. The SI leader also provided a strong connection to the Learning Center and resources for additional academic support. Frequently, in the traditional SI model, students are reluctant to attend the SI sessions until it is time for a test. With the SI leader being so active within the classroom and teaching them to use more study strategies, SI attendance ranged from five students to 100. The average attendance for each session

was about 50 students. The survey collected extremely high satisfaction ratings on the SI leader and the program. The research found that many students applied the study skills in other classes during the same semester as the World Civilizations class; information on whether students continued to use those skills in subsequent semesters was not gathered.

The students benefited from using the skills throughout the semester. For example, the class had an essay portion on its midterm test. The SI Leader provided in-class examples of outlines in her presentation and discussed how to prepare these with specific topics related to the class material. She then asked the students to prepare practice outlines. In the next SI session, the SI leader reviewed the students' outlines and together they brainstormed topics they thought might be included on the midterm exam. As noted in the summary results, 91% of the students "applied the strategies when studying History 150." Preparing outlines is one of the skills presented that can be relevant for many classes. 78% of the students confirmed that they "tried the strategies in another class." Conversely, the SI leader self disclosed that she also reaped many benefits. She was able to expand her leadership and presentation skills to large groups and to feel comfortable in such a setting. She also felt more ease and comfort when communicating with the faculty member (Hurley, et. al, 2006; Stout & McDaniel, 2006). SI leaders traditionally learn the material of their own discipline more thoroughly and become more efficient students (Stout & McDaniel, 2006).

The positive correlation between SI Plus and student grades had an additional impact on the faculty. As a result, the faculty member reported that he passed the same tips in his other non-SI Plus classes and that he incorporated it in his syllabus in subsequent semesters. This phenomenon echoes the research of Zerger, et. al (2006) that indicates faculty members convey content mastery as well as a strengthened knowledge of study skills. Faculty members saw additional benefits in incorporating SI Plus into their courses because of the positive results.

The economic benefits of SI Plus are obvious. Since an SI leader already in class, having him or her address the entire class with a study skill does not add anything to the expense of the program. Because the SI leader should be knowledgeable and trained in study skills, this training could be obtained from tutoring. All tutors and SI leaders completed CRLA-certified training, so they should have felt comfortable addressing study skills, regardless of the course content. Information about addressing study skills is also included in the official UMKC training for SI leaders.

Addressing the entire class with a study tip is the most cost efficient delivery system that also promotes the academic service component of the university (Zerger, et. al, 2006). A majority of the responses from the students indicated that these tips were useful. The SI leader was seen as a helpful resource both for the class and for services that the Learning Center provided.

Implications

The impact on the students in the History 150 class was instantly visible. Students who incorporated the study skills and regularly attended SI sessions did better on the assignments, quizzes, and tests in the class.

They received better final grades for the class than the students who did not attend SI sessions or class regularly. The overall impact on the students is unknown. This study only examined the students in that individual semester that they were enrolled in History 150. There was no follow up study to see whether these skills were maintained into other courses after the student completed this course with the SI Plus component.

In regard to the impact of Supplemental Instruction, it was beneficial for the SI leader to build rapport with all the students by presenting the skills in class and answering questions. This led to a good working relationship between the SI leader and the students during the SI sessions. Introducing the skills in class made it easier to work on them in the sessions because the students were familiar with the information.

SI Plus can impact learning assistance programs in general. It can be an important tool within the array of services offered. The students who use Supplemental Instruction with a focus on study skills enhancement learn how accessible and valuable the campus learning assistance programs are just by being in the classroom.

Further Study

There are still several areas to investigate. It would be interesting to know to what degree the students have applied the study skills to the history class and in their other classes. A longitudinal study surveying the students could assess if students continued to apply the study skills to classes in the future.

This project worked well because the particular SI leader and professor had a good working relationship. A study determining whether the SI Plus program works with other SI leaders and in other courses would add strength to these results.

Finally, another study could assess whether SI Plus produces similar results in classes from other disciplines. More research and effort should be given to the study skills aspects of Supplemental Instruction. Concentrating on using study skills in Supplemental Instruction in other disciplines is the logical next step.

Conclusion

To improve the formation of study behaviors, the usual model of Supplemental Instruction was enhanced with study strategies presentations within a World Civilizations classroom to all the enrolled students. This study supports the research showing that many college students want more information on how to study effectively (Noel-Levitz, 2009). It also addresses McGuire's (2006) findings that students need experiences to increase strategic learning. The students in this study gained learning experience both in the classroom and in Supplemental Instruction. Combining the best traits of SI and study skills tutoring was well-received by the students, as indicated in their survey responses. At a time of economic concern, SI Plus would be easy to replicate and implement in other classes. Learning assistance programs on any campus should consider this as another important tool for students in their array of services.

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English Camp: A Language Immersion Program in Thailand

Kris Rugasken and Jacqueline A. Harris
Ball State University

Abstract

A summer English camp language immersion program, which began in 2003, provided instruction by native English speakers to Thai college students via collaboration between Prince of Songkla University in Thailand and Ball State University in Indiana, USA. During this program, Thai students were exposed to English formally through classroom instruction and through informal field experiences. During the 2005 program, one English camp leader conducted a study for her three-student group to assess how well the program assisted in language acquisition through writing. The results indicated the immersion program was successful not only in language acquisition but also in cultural understanding for all the program participants.

Due to the economic crises and political challenges in the late 1990s, Thailand was forced to increase its global competition. Among many means for achieving this goal is the enhancement and improvement of English language skills for the Thai students. A grant was offered to Thai universities to promote English to the college students. Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai, Thailand, under President Prasert Chitapong, received grant monies to set up the English Camp Language Immersion Program in 2003 with Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana, USA.

To offset the concerns of a typical second language experience, an English Camp Language Immersion Program was established in 2003. This program supplied English-speaking teachers traveling to Thailand for an intense 15-day camp that included both classroom and field study situations. The goal was for students to gain knowledge of the English language and acquire confidence in their speaking skills. An additional benefit was that all the participants (students and instructors) developed a deeper appreciation of the people and the new culture to which they were exposed.

The program was coordinated by Kris Rugasken, Ph.D., a linguistically-trained Thai-born educator. Taking the language to the students in their own environment broke the resistance students frequently experience

when learning a new language, as described in Wilkinson (1995). Since the program's inception, seven English camp language immersion programs have taken place in Thailand. This study, however, focuses on just one group of students who participated as one learning group in 2005.

The premise for the study was that the immersion program would enhance the students' writing. As a result, the target students were given a 20 minute writing assignment at the beginning of the camp and another 20 minute writing assignment at its completion.

Background

A simple "purpose of immersion programs is to provide input from native language models in naturalistic non-monitored situations" (Garcia & Torres-Ayala, 1991, p. 439). Immersion programs can be found in a variety of formats; the most common situation is for students to be taught a second language within a classroom setting. However, that format has inherent restrictions such as reliance on the teacher's knowledge and pronunciation ability, limitations of materials and environmental contexts, and conflicts between dividing time over grammar lessons and real-life conversational skills. Providing an "integration of content teaching and language teaching is paramount" for students to internalize another language (Swain & Lapkin, 1989, p. 150). Such integration allows them to immediately put the new knowledge that they have just acquired in class to use in their real life.

When discussing language immersion programs, the general reference is to teach students a new "foreign" language by immersing them in the new language (L2), as if they were born into it, so they learn through context as they did their first language (L1). Typically, the second language acquisition class has a blend of grammar instructions and contextual conversations, the balance of which is determined by the mission, goals and objectives that the program administrators establish.

 Dartmouth College and Manchester Community College in Connecticut established intensive English immersion programs within their institutions. Both institutions reported positive results; specifically, Manchester students learned one-third more material in the intensive program than students in the traditional classes (Liskin-Gasparro, 1998). Immersion programs generally refer to teaching students a new language, but programs have also been designed for other purposes such as teaching students living in a major culture the language of a subculture or minority. Two examples are children learning French in Canada and introducing the "heritage language" of Basque to students in the Basque region of Spain (Walker & Tedick, 2000).

In an effort to find successful components within an immersion program, Swain and Lapkin (1989) found that good listening and reading comprehension were developed further in immersion programs than in regular classrooms. They also reported that students can learn other subjects well through a second language and learning can occur without being detrimental to their native language. However, immersion students were not as competent in the areas of spelling and writing as their peers in the traditionally taught language classrooms.

Hammerly (1987) reviewed six studies of immersion programs which

extended instruction for more than one year. All programs reported results less satisfactory than had been expected. He concluded that the weaknesses of extended immersion programs derive from the following example of an unsupported assumption:

> The younger the better . . . If a careful record of the time devoted to second language interaction were kept in such natural language acquisition settings, adults would likely be found to be more efficient learners. It seems the untutored acquisition of native-like second language pronunciation is the only area in which young children do better than adults probably because of the children's superior motor memory" (p. 398).

The structure of many immersion programs has come under severe criticism. The L2 classroom is not a natural second language acquisition environment; thus, a natural sociolinguistic language acquisition cannot be reproduced in the classroom. "There is nothing natural about learning language within four classroom walls" (Hammerly, 1987, p. 398). A related problem that frequently occurs with classroom management, according to Hammerly, is when students convey their ideas accurately, but do so with faulty language, the answer is frequently accepted by the teacher so the student loses motivation to become an accurate speaker. The role of the teacher in the learning process is once again validated as extremely important.

Similarly, Holoc's (1987) longitudinal study found that students changed their ideas about language learning after face-to-face meetings with instructors. This "implies that second language acquisition is socially constructed from interactions with others" (Kalaja, 1995, p. 196). Tarone and Swain (1995) also found through observations and interviews that students used their second language skills less in informal peer to peer interactions. The students also tended to be more reluctant to use the L2 in informal settings as they got older. However, there was a desire to be taught more informal registers of the target language. It was found that contact increases usage of informal registers (Mougeon & Rehner, 2001). A constructive guideline for building an immersion program is to "involve children in immersive activities outside the classroom with peers who are native speakers of the L2" (Tarone & Swain, 1995, p. 174).

The actual pedagogy of when to teach what to L2 students is also under debate. Cummins (1977) suggests there may be a threshold level of bilingual competence which an individual must attain before his or her access to a second language can begin to have a positive influence on his cognitive functioning. The first stages should include an introduction of the people and culture, using systematic teaching/learning of sequenced instruction, and vocabulary/idiom instruction rather than immersion. The contention is that students need fluency and accuracy.

Rifkin (2005) studied the acquisition of the language arts skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing. He found a significant correlation between the hours of classroom instruction in immersion and non-immersion settings with grammatical accuracy. The data showed that the immersion-based instruction was more efficient with students developing the four skills,

as well as grammar/syntax acquisition, than the traditional classroom. There seemed to be a ceiling effect in the traditional classroom for foreign language instruction. Rifkin suggested the best way to break through this ceiling was for students to begin their L2 study in a traditional classroom, learn key grammatical and syntactical constructs, and then participate in immersive learning experiences. This supports earlier research that classes need to emphasize structure and grammar initially so students can acquire cognitively-based error correction (Hammerly, 1987). Students undervalue the linguistic metacognitive skills they developed in learning L1 and are unaware of how to apply them to L2. Additionally, students are surprised that linguistic development is neither steady nor uniform (Liskin-Gasparro, 1998).

Research on student opinions of immersion programs varies. Swain and Lapkin (1989) found that where language practice is isolated from the substance of content lessons, linguistic competence does not appear to improve. Additionally, it was found that students expected language interactions in the real world to be like the classroom exercises (Wilkinson, 1995). However, a study of short-term travel abroad programs found that students can benefit in many ways. Participants in the short-term programs learned that fluency was not necessary for communication, their future fields of study were broadened by the program, and most importantly, their interest was sparked to continue a course of study about the new language and culture (Gorka & Niesenbaum, 2001).

Liskin-Gasparro (1998) reported that students expressed three themes of concern with regard to learning a language through an immersion context: 1. A high degree of language usage sparked crises in their self-confidence. 2. A love-hate relationship with formal instruction developed. 3. A notion that fluency should be automatic existed for many students. A striking finding in her research was the individuals' insecurity with performance. They reported frustration with "being themselves" in another language (Liskin-Gasparro 1998, p. 171). The students reported the mixed beliefs that language learning is something that happens exclusively in schools and also the conflicting belief that an immersion experience is the only way to learn really well (Liskin-Gasparro, 1998).

Levin (2003) studied student anxiety while learning L2 skills. He found that students who reported higher L2 usage in their foreign language classes felt lower levels of anxiety about using the L2. The implication is that many students felt more comfortable with L2 when they were placed in situations with a high inundation of L2.

Liskin-Gasparro substantiates this concern by quoting from a student's e-mail message written while she was in a Spanish immersion program within Middlebury College in Vermont. She told her friend that her Spanish was getting worse because she spent all her time talking Spanish with her friends who are not native Spanish speakers. She reported that her Spanish appeared to be worse, instead of better (Liskin-Gasparro 1998). This concern illuminates the problem of not having enough models speaking the language appropriately for students to emulate correct pronunciation. This problem was reported by Hammerly in 1987; he stated that many immersion programs involve students in a classroom with only one native speaker.

An additional compounding feature is that frequently, when students are taught English in another country, the teachers have been taught by teachers who were not native English speakers, so their pronunciation and intonation may not reflect the standard language usage.

Method

The Thai student participants had all studied English previously, but the degree of accomplishment varied greatly from student to student. Even students who had studied English for many years were rarely taught by a native English-speaking teacher.

English Camp Program Details

Given all the various forms that immersion programs can take, along with all the inherent strengths and weaknesses of the programs, it seems prudent to continue to explore new and creative delivery systems for language learning. The English Camp program incorporated the following goals of a language immersion program as presented by Walker and Tedick (2000). Their recent examination of numerous immersion programs has prompted the listing of eight core features that can help program directors distinguish one program from another. The core features are always considered on a continuum and include the following:

♦ the L2 is the medium of instruction,
♦ the immersion curriculum parallels the local L1 curriculum,
♦ overt support exists for the L1,
♦ the program aims for additive bilingualism,
♦ exposure to the L2 is largely confined to the classroom,
♦ students enter with similar (and limited) levels of L2 proficiency,
♦ the teachers are bilingual; and,
♦ the classroom culture is that of the local L1 community. (Walker and Tedick, 2000).

As such, the daily camp schedule entailed three hours of classroom instruction, lunch, and an afternoon field trip with the students. Frequently, evening activities were planned. The camp met for 15 consecutive days. The term "camp leader" will be used for the title of each teacher who was in charge of a group of students in the classroom, on the field trips and during recreational evening activities. The number of camp leaders per year ranges from the lowest of 17 in 2003 to the highest of 31 in 2007. In 2009, 20 camp leaders participated in this program. Each camp leader's class included 3-9 Thai college students. The class size fluctuated from year to year. This study focused on one camp leader and her 3 student participants in 2005.

Rugsaken recruited English camp leaders and conducted three training sessions, which included background information on Thai culture, "Dos and Taboos," and the differences between Thai and English. He also supplied each camp leader with lesson plans, resources, and ideas for classroom activities. Although all the camp leaders had the same lesson plans, they were permitted some latitude on the content of their lessons; therefore,

there were variations between the classrooms and the content.

Once in Thailand, the days were very full. There was a suggested topic for each of the days the students met with their camp leaders in the classroom settings. However, each camp leader could develop the content as s/he chose. In general, most days had the following schedule: The morning classroom sessions consisted of grammar lessons, clarification of idioms, oral practice, TESOL exercises, and reading and writing activities. The camp leaders stayed with their students most days during all the subsequent daily activities. Sightseeing was done by the students and camp leaders for the rest of the day. Informal conversations in English occurred throughout the field trip between the students and camp leaders. Because all students were new to the sights, they were as excited and motivated by the new experience as were their camp leaders.

This study focuses on what one camp leader developed with her program. After three days with her class (consisting of three students), the camp leader decided as part of her lesson plan, she would conduct a simple literacy lesson with her class. She wanted to compare authentic writing from the beginning to the ending of the English camp experience to note changes in the students' written production. The impetus for the writing experiences was the various field trip activities. For the first lesson, the students had a field trip to Rajjaprabha Dam after which conversation ensued regarding sights, smells, impressions, etc. of the trip. The class drew a semantic map, or web, of the experience. After making the semantic map, the camp leader asked the students to write an essay for 20 minutes about the experience. At the end of the time, the papers were collected. Twelve days later, at the conclusion of the camping experience, the camp leader again led a discussion which summarized another field trip experience and on a different topic, and a semantic map was drawn based upon what the students said. The camp leader asked the same three students to write another 20 minutes essay on the current discussion.

Results

Comparisons were made between the three students' pre and post writing assignments and are presented for review:

In examining the total words used in the pre- and the post-writings, there was a 116% increase. In counting the total number of sentences produced in the pre and the post writings, there was a 78% increase. All three students increased in their use of nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, conjunctions, articles, prepositions, and pronouns with an exception of one student who used one fewer article in the post writing.

Discussion

In examining these three writing samples, great gains can be seen in word usage from the first to the second writing samples. The students were more confident in putting words on papers, creating new sentences, and using all forms of words. The amount of contact with native English speakers gave the Thai students many opportunities, in and out of the classroom, to develop their English language competency.

Table 1

Results of pre and post writing assignments for three students.

	Student 1		Student 2		Student 3	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Word totals	56	147	57	166	83	114
Sentences	7	15	4	10	7	7
Nouns	13	43	11	32	17	30
Verbs	8	19	9	24	16	16
Adjectives	3	10	6	15	7	12
Adverbs	1	7	4	8	4	10
Conjunctions	4	6	4	13	4	7
Articles	5	6	4	8	4	3
Prepositions	7	19	3	18	6	8
Pronouns	8	20	5	27	16	14

In a comparison of the students' first and second writings, it was obvious that their second writing 12 days later made more sense than the first ones. They appeared to have expressed their ideas more freely and had a better control of syntax than in their first writing. The students were able to be themselves in English as the days passed.

Implications

This unique program and limited language acquisition study presents an exciting possibility of addressing how an immersion program best evolves. The implications are important because students will prosper the quicker they acquire the second language.

Further Studies

Certainly, many other areas related to the English Camp program could be investigated. Additional comparisons could be made of reading and writing skills as well as cross-cultural studies of Thai and English college students. Researchers should take into account ethnographic variables within the social and cultural environment (Liskin-Gasparro, 1998). Future questions could include how do learners construct social networks and how do these networks interact with language use? How do various learning styles react to the English camp experience? How do students from different disciplines fare in the same program?

Conclusion

This study is uniquely different from other research on immersion programs, but it clearly demonstrates a significant improvement in students' learning. The camp leaders are immersed within a foreign culture. At the same time, the Thai college students are immersed within an English-speaking environment while still in their indigenous culture. It is an immersion program within an immersion program. The English Camp Language Immersion Program needs to be replicated and investigated more fully so that students in various countries can reap the important benefits inherent in its structure. It is a concept that warrants further implementation and investigation.

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BOOK REVIEW:
The Writing Center Director's Resource Book

Reviewed by Josh Reid, Illinois State University (IL)

The Writing Center Director's Resource Book belongs in a privileged place on the shelf of every writing center director and every learning center administrator whose center offers writing assistance. Even learning assistance professionals who do not work in the writing assistance field will want to consult many of the helpful articles on center planning and negotiating the thorny college administration environment.

The Writing Center Director's Resource Book is designed for usability. Each of the 39 essays in the book is a brief 5-10 pages, further divided into easily digestible subsections. The format encourages grazing and quick reference, allowing even the most harried administrators time for reading. Complementing the accessible format, the articles themselves, with only a few exceptions, are written in an unpretentious style, often taking the form of one colleague giving advice to another. And what colleagues! The editors have assembled a who's who of writing center administrators for this book. Virtually every one of the contributors has a distinguished career of service and publications in the writing center field.

In addition to its ease of use and notable authors, the book also boasts an impressive variety of topics, from Neal Lerner's fascinating pre-1970s history of writing center directors ("Time Warp: Historical Representations of Writing Center Directors") to Margaret Weaver's sober evaluation of racial homogeneity at the center ("A Call for Racial Diversity in the Writing Center") to David M. Sheridan's visionary look at the writing center's future as "multiliteracy centers" ("Words, Images, Sounds: Writing Centers as Multiliteracy Centers"). Other topics include the following: writing center summer institutes, professional development, composing strategic plans, campus relationships, multicampus/community college/small college/ secondary school writing centers, writing center location, writing center assessment, writing center ethics, tutor training, and online/electronic instruction. This rich constellation of topics ensures that there will be something here for everyone, whether a tyrannical administrator or someone far advanced in the field.

For more information contact: Josh Reid | Illinois State University | Julia N. Visor Academic Center | Campus Box 4070 | Normal, IL 61790 | jsreid@ilstu.edu

The editors have arranged these articles into two main sections: "Writing Centers and Institutional Change" and "Writing Centers and Praxis." The essays are further divided into eight topic clusters, four in each main section: "What Writing Center History Can Tell Us about Writing Center Practice," "Managing the Writing Center," "Responding to Institutional Settings/Demands," "Writing Centers and the Administration," "Ethics in the Writing Center," "Tutor Training in the Writing Center," "Writing Centers and Electronic Instruction," and "Writing Center Case Studies." For the most part, the writers are drawing directly from their own experiences at their respective institutions, so the entire book leans more towards praxis than towards theory.

While the breadth of coverage of this book is clear, several topic clusters are worth highlighting for all learning center administrators. One of the clearest strengths of the collection is its focus on the myriad professional relationships, from tutors to upper administration, that the learning center administrator must foster. Neglected aspects of these relationships are covered, such as Kevin Dvorak & Ben Rafoth's "Examining Writing Center Director—Assistant Director Relationships," while articles like Jeanne Simpson's "Managing Encounters With Central Administration" gives much-needed advice for how to talk "administratese" with the individuals who hold the purse strings.   Another grouping of articles covers the need to compose strategic plans and assess programs effectively (e.g., Pamela B. Childers's "Designing a Strategic Plan for a Writing Center" and Kelly Lowe's "'If You Fail to Plan, You Plan to Fail': Strategic Planning and Management for Writing Center Directors").   Finally, the editors have dutifully included many cogent pieces on tutor training, such as Bonnie Devet's "The Good, the Bad, the Ugly of Certifying a Tutoring Program Through CRLA." Devet's article, like most of the ones within these topic clusters, might carry a writing center inflection, but the core concepts and advice are applicable to all learning center administrators, even centers without a writing assistance component.

The collection's strengths are inextricably tied to its weaknesses. The short essays facilitate quick consumption and accommodate frenetic administrative schedules, but they often lack depth. Privileging the case studies approach gives the entries a clear emphasis on praxis and institutional context, sometimes at the expense of a theoretical basis. The dazzling array of topics ensures that there will be something for everyone, but it also means that certain au courant subjects in learning center and writing center administration receive inadequate coverage, such as online tutoring. Other weaknesses are less forgivable. Some entries, although fascinating reading, seem more like gimmicks, such as Carl Glover's "Kairos and the Writing Center: Modern Perspectives on an Ancient Idea" and Michael Mattison's "Managing the Center: The Director as Coach." It would have been more helpful to forgo these types of articles, which hinge on applying a classical concept or metaphor to writing center practice, and instead fill in some of the clear gaps in coverage. For example, not one article deals adequately with grant-writing or finding other sources of funding, which is an essential topic for all administrators. Another discouraging omission is a discussion

about managing a writing assistance program alongside a traditional learning center with study skills and content tutoring. Given the number of articles focused on varied institutional contexts for writing centers, this omission seems conspicuous. Finally, while the appendices are very helpful, including sample surveys and budgets, it is unfortunate that so few authors took advantage of them, so one is left with a taste of forms/resources to use but wanting much more.

A collection with a title like this one invites comparisons with Bobbie Bayliss Silk's indispensible *The Writing Center Resource Manual* (2002), now a classic in the field. It is clear that the editors of *The Writing Center Director's Resource Book* do not seek to compete with, but rather to complement, Silk's text. For example, the fact that one is a "resource manual" and the other a "resource book" is not a coincidence. Silk's book is clearly a "how to" book packed with examples and delightful appendices. Murphy & Stay do have articles with this "how to" approach, but most of the essays are more geared towards extracting lessons from particular institutional contexts or reflecting on a concept. The articles give readers something to consider and think about. I have already found them informing my own practice. Murphy & Stay's *Resource Book* is a perfect companion to Silk's *Resource Manual*. One added benefit of the editors' text over Silk's is just how applicable it is to even non-writing center administrators. While writing center administrators should find a copy immediately, there is not one learning assistance administrator, whether involved with writing center direction or not, who will not benefit from its contents.

Pertinent Publishing Parameters

The Learning Assistance Review (TLAR), the national peer reviewed official publication of the National College Learning Center Association (NCLCA), publishes scholarly articles and reviews that address issues of interest to learning center professionals (including administrators, teaching staff, faculty and tutors) who are interested in improving the learning skills of postsecondary students. Primary consideration will be given to articles about program design and evaluation, classroom-based research, the application of theory and research to practice, innovative teaching and tutoring strategies, student assessment, and other topics that bridge gaps within our diverse profession.

Categories for Submission

Articles:

- ♦ Topics: TLAR will accept manuscripts that address our purpose: to publish scholarly articles and reviews that address issues on program design and evaluation, classroom based research, the application of theory and research to practice, innovative teaching and tutoring strategies, student assessment, etc.

- ♦ Types: TLAR will accept manuscripts following all four of the article types outlined in the American Psychological Association Manual: empirical study and articles on review, theory, and methodology. Follow APA manual (chapter 1.4) for specific requirements and structure for each type; regardless, all manuscripts need a clear focus that draws a correlation between the study, review, theory, or methodology and learning assistance practices.

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- ♦ Idea Exchange: Discussion directly related to articles published in TLAR. Submissions are limited to less than 4 paragraphs and are to be constructive idea exchanges. In addition to the name, title, college and contact information from the submitter, Idea Exchange submissions are to include the details of the referenced article (Title, author, and volume/number, and academic semester/year). A submission form may be found online on the TLAR website.

- ♦ Further Research: Article submissions that have a stated direct link to prior published TLAR articles. These articles will be considered following the manuscript submission guidelines.

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Manuscripts and reference style must be in accordance with the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (5th ed.). Submissions that do not comply with APA style will be returned to the author(s). Manuscripts must be original work and not duplicate previously published works or articles under consideration for publication elsewhere. The body of the manuscript may range in length from 10 to 20 pages, including all references, tables, and figures. Longer articles will be considered if the content warrants it. The authors are responsible for the accuracy of all citations and references and obtaining copyright permissions as needed. The only acknowledgments that will be published will be those required by external funding sources.

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Submission packets must include:

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- ♦ A masked manuscript for review
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Please send your comments and/or article submissions to: TheLearningAssistanceReivew@UToledo.edu with a hard copy to:

Christine Reichert, M.A.
Editor, The Learning Assistance Review (TLAR)
e-mail: TheLearningAssistanceReview@UToledo.edu

Coordinator, Student Tutoring and Disability Services
Academic Enrichment Center
The University of Toledo Health Science Campus
Mulford Library Building, Room 506
Mail Stop 1046
3025 Library Circle
Toledo, Ohio 43614
phone: 419.383.4274
fax: 419-383-3150 fax
christine.reichert@utoledo.edu

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The National College Learning Center Association (NCLCA) is an organization of professionals dedicated to promoting excellence among learning center personnel. The organization began in 1985 as the Midwest College Learning Center Association (MCLCA) and "went national" in 1999, changing the name to the National College Learning Center Association (NCLCA) to better represent its nationwide and Canadian membership. NCLCA welcomes any individual interested in assisting college and university students along the road to academic success.

NCLCA defines a learning center as a place where students can be taught to become more efficient and effective learners. Learning Center services may include tutoring, mentoring, Supplemental Instruction, academic and skill-building labs, computer-aided instruction, success seminars and programs, advising, and more.

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NCLCA seeks to involve as many learning center professionals as possible in achieving its objectives and meeting our mutual needs. Therefore, the NCLCA Executive Board invites you to become a member of the Association.

The membership year extends from October 1 through September 30. The annual dues are $50.00. We look forward to having you as an active member of our growing organization.

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Joetta Burrous
Purdue University
128 Memorial Drive
West Lafayette, IN 47907
765-496-3338
jburrous@purdue.edu

</div>

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Christine Reichert
TLAR Journal Editor
The University of Toledo HSC
MS 1046
3025 Library Circle
Toledo, OH 43614

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