DEVELOPING STUDY SKILLS
IN THE MIDDLE SCHOOLS

PATRICIA ANNE MULLINS

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MIDDLE SCHOOL

by

Ⓒ Patricia Anne Mullins, B.A., B.Ed.

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"Education is the acquisition of the art of the utilisation of knowledge."

A. Whitehead, (1959). _The aims of education and other essays._

The condition for excellence is a thorough training in technique. Sheer skills must pass out of the sphere of conscious exercise, and must have assumed the character of unconscious habit. The first, the second, and the third condition for high achievement is scholarship, in that enlarged sense including knowledge and acquired instinct controlling action.

A. Whitehead, (1929). _Process and reality: An essay in cosmology._

ABSTRACT

Once a student learns how to read, he is ready for the transfer to 'reading to learn'. Recognizing the value of guiding our students toward growth in learning how to learn, the concern of the classroom teacher is to assist his students in developing a systematic approach to study.

The concept of 'reading to learn', or study reading, is a necessary component of the reading development process. In order for such a development to be realized by our students, basic skills should be utilized as 'essentials' or 'tools' of a study skills instructional program.

This writer has chosen four general areas to be considered when one is developing a study skills program: (1) locating information; (2) interpreting graphs and visual aids; (3) organizing information; and (4) applying systems of study reading. Each component is described in the text, and two appendices are included so that teachers who wish to develop their own study skills program may have access to a reasonably extensive list of resources in the area. Application of the various aspects discussed in this thesis will be dependent upon the interaction of the specific students and teachers involved.

The 'essentials of study skills' described in this paper are perceived as a framework whereby students' awareness of the efficacy of a study skills program can be

actualized. As the student becomes an active participant in his own learning process, the interaction of the concepts of knowledge, meaning, and understanding can become increasingly apparent.

With the dedication and commitment of administrators and teachers toward devising and implementing procedural guidelines for establishing a study skills program, our students may well have an avenue available by means of which they may become proficient learners.

Note: Rather than use the cluttered forms he/she, s/he, his/her, and the like, this writer uses the generic forms.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Identifying effective methods of instruction remains the concern of both the professional teacher and the writer in the field of education. This concern has manifested itself in numerous volumes that have been written in this area. Note Weiner's (1967) translation of Tolstoy's notion of education:

> We are not compelled to study all the conditions which have aided in the coincidence of the tendencies of him who educates, and of him who is being educated. (p. 31)

> School is one of those organic parts of the state which cannot be viewed and valued separately, because its worth consists only in a greater and lesser correspondence to the remaining parts of the state. School is good only when it has taken cognizance of the fundamental laws by which people live. (p. 19)

Gowin (1981) expresses his views as follows:

> A theory of educating will make sense of educative events. The key event is a teacher teaching meaningful materials under human conditions of social control. The teacher initiates the event, the material (curriculum) are guides to the event; the event as a social event has distinctive qualities governing it. We have, again, four commonplaces: teacher, curriculum, learner, governance. (p. 28)

Although these two men lived a century apart, one being a Russian and the other an American, both express what can be meant by the very concept of education. The barriers of time and culture are of no consequence here: both statements can be applicable to any age.

There is much discussion concerning Curriculum and Instructional Development within the current literature in the field of education. Out of this discussion a vast number of sources have arisen from which a teacher may extract useful information and ideas as to what should be considered important when developing an effective curriculum for students. Some of the most renowned writers in this area are Taba, Trump and Miller, and Doll, each with his own definitive ideas regarding curriculum development.

Taba (1962) defines curriculum as:

A curriculum is a plan for learning; therefore, what is known about the learning process and the development of the individual has bearing on the shaping of a curriculum. (p. 11)

Trump and Miller (1968) observe that:

Curriculum is a vital, moving, complex interaction of people and things, in a free-wheeling setting. It includes questions to debate, forces to rationalize, goals to illuminate, programs to activate, and outcomes to evaluate. (p. 12).

Doll (1982) reiterates these notions when he says:

The curriculum of a school is the formal and informal content and process by which learners gain knowledge and understanding, develop skills, and alter attitudes, appreciations, and values under the auspices of that school. (p. 6)

With these thoughts on the educational process, particularly in the area of Curriculum and Instructional Development, the school teacher is able to attain some sort of general understanding of what the notion of "educating" involves.

Being a teacher involves the continual search for ways and means of developing the 'best' possible methods of teaching. In order for this search to be transferred into meaningful processes of educating within any particular classroom scene, the teacher needs to focus his attention on the specific concerns that evolve there.

One major concern that comes to mind is the need for a systematic approach to reading development after the primary and lower elementary grades; that is, if the accepted idea that reading development is a lifetime endeavor is to be realized by our students. Lovell and Kennedy (1984) assert:

> If educators believe their own rhetoric about wanting every student to succeed, about life-long learning and the need to acquire new concepts independently, the sufficient time must be spent on the process of learning how to learn - on developing study skills. (p. 118)

Just what are some of the specific skills required in order to assist students in becoming independent learners, with the ability to retrieve and utilize knowledge from a text? Salinger (1983) attends to this query when he states:

> Study skills assist students in organizing, processing, and using information gained from reading. They include the library and research skills that allow students to approach new material confidently and the flexible reading behaviors that help students adapt to various reading tasks .... These skills are BASIC to making young readers strong users of the printed word. (p. 333)

From actual involvement within the Newfoundland and Labrador school system, this writer has observed very

little evidence to suggest that such a self-educating process is being manifested to any great extent within the present educational system. Therefore, an observed need for change is apparent.

Recognizing the lifelong value of guiding our school students toward becoming independent learners, this writer wishes to examine the importance of the acquisition and utilization of study skills. Many students leave elementary school having grasped the ability of learning to read. In the junior high area in particular, however, students are expected to convert this ability of 'learning to read' into 'reading to learn'. Because this transfer is not attended to as part of a systematic process in reading, students often experience difficulty in subjects requiring extensive study. They are lacking specific tools that aid in developing study proficiency. It is to this end that this paper is directed.

CHAPTER 2

DEFINITION OF STUDY SKILLS

Having been a school teacher in Newfoundland and Labrador for over ten years, from the primary through senior high levels, this researcher is prompted to discuss her concern about the apparent dubious role which study skills development plays within any facet of the school system. Noting the importance of actual teaching involvement and the experience gained from such, this writer will no doubt allude to her perception of the educating process from time to time.

When work on this aspect of reading development was first initiated in some organized fashion, this researcher was concerned about a transitional or developmental line between 'learning to read', emphasized in the primary and elementary grades, and the whole area of independent study, specifically 'reading to learn', which should be a major concern in the junior and senior high school areas. That is to say, once a child is able to read the printed word and gain some awareness of what a particular piece of print is conveying, what then? Obviously, instruction in a reading program goes beyond this level of the reading development process.

Once a student has grown through the basic 'learning to read' stage, it is crucial that he begin to understand the concept of 'reading to learn'. Much time is spent within the school system in attempting to have students

become more knowledgeable; however, little time is spent in assisting students in learning some basic skills of acquiring such knowledge. Nowhere within the school system has the writer witnessed any adequate development of a systematic approach to 'reading to learn' - more specifically, reading for study purposes.

It is in the Junior High School area that such a study skills development program becomes a crucial concern. Students at this point, for the most part, have learned how to read and now require assistance in becoming efficient users of study methods. While many are faced with research type assignments or chapters of material to be studied in a required text, few know how to approach such tasks.

Some students will develop (through their own survival instincts) ways to study and are quite capable of doing well (getting the ultimate A average) in various subject areas. Usually, however, long, anxious hours of reading through pages of material is required (memorizing points that may be considered important) in order to prepare for the most important parts of any course - the test at the end of each chapter and the major final examination. For others there are the endless attempts to precis passages from randomly selected reference material in order to satisfy the required length of an assigned research paper. Askov (1982) reinforces these points when he states:

> With the modern technology available to our
> students, instruction in the skills of locating
> and using information from all sources become
> increasingly important. Unfortunately, in the
> past content area instruction has often focused
> on memorization of facts, which are quickly
> forgotten after the final exam. Even today too
> little attention is being given to instruction
> in the skills that enable students to retrieve
> information when it is needed. These skills
> (are) study skills .... (p. 2)

In view of this, it may well be that this whole attitude
towards study needs to be changed.

One way to approach such change is to offer students
an alternate course of action. The alternative may be
that of a study skills program.

A number of writers have expressed the importance of
developing methods of study. Barron, McCoy, Cuevas, P.,
Cuevas, S., and Gay (1983) assume a forceful stance on the
issue as they assert:

> One might assume that concentrating on providing
> excellent instruction in the various word
> identification strategies and comprehension
> skills will automatically produce mature,
> flexible readers. Such is not the case.
> Students need systematic, planned instruction in
> a series of functional skills. These functional
> skills, necessary for life-long learning, are
> generally termed "study skills". (p. 329)

It is Saleebey (1984) who supports this point when he
says:

> Trying to learn without any systematic "process"
> skills is like trying to travel without a sense
> of direction. Without adequate study skills,
> learners flounder. (p. 44)

The emphasis in each of these cases is the need to develop
some basic skills that will assist students in their
learning, as Marshak (1984) so accurately proposes:

Study skills, the skills for learning, are as
fundamental as any other skills we can teach
.... Yet many in our profession still view the
potential of teaching study skills with too
narrow a lens. (p. 107)

This "too narrow a lens", as Marshak describes it,

has to be broadened. Rickman (1981) considers this point:

In contrast to the general assumption that study
skills are absorbed automatically, today's
students need a thoughtfully and carefully
planned program of learning skill development
.... The acquisition of study skills by students
is essential for effective learning and
participation now and throughout their lifetimes
.... Such skills, when mastered, are among the
most permanent of learnings and continue to be
functional for as long as they are used.
However, skills do not develop spontaneously as
part of the natural maturing process. (p. 363)

Walker (1974) reiterates the importance of such a

study skills program:

The curriculum of the middle school requires
that students regularly go beyond the task of
learning to read into the more complicated area
of reading to learn, since he must now use
reading as a means for beginning a variety of
subject matters. This area of reading is termed
study reading.

Study reading is not something a middle
school student comes equipped with naturally.
To the contrary, it is composed of a variety of
skills which must be taught within the framework
of content areas. (p. 175)

It becomes even more apparent that the need for study

skills development is not only an important aspect of any

particular course, but must be considered an essential in

the preparation of our young to become the independent

learners they deserve to be. Such self-educating

development will benefit the students, not only within the

confines of their formal years of education, but through-
out their lifetimes.

' Far too often, study skills are assumed to be
acquired by some sort of miraculous means. If study
skills are not attained through such means, one wonders
why they are not attended to in any instructional manner.
In discussing study skills, Bowers and Farr (1984) make
the point that:

> Junior High and Middle School students have
> special needs that, for too long, have gone
> unmet .... these skills are not naturally
> acquired, nor are they specifically taught in
> the elementary school or at home. (p. 121)

Yet it must be remembered that there is the
occasional reflective teacher who, through his own
initiative, realizes the importance of study skills for
the students. Such endeavors, however well-intentioned,
may meet with little success since skill development is an
ongoing process which requires reinforcement through the
curriculum. Schilling (1984) reinforces this point when
he states:

> I believe that many necessary study skills are
> being taught in the intermediate grade
> classrooms, but not with enough commitment to
> obtain results that are obvious to parents and
> to the teachers who instruct these students
> later. Intermediate grade teachers are
> committed to teaching reading, language arts,
> and math skills. We need the same commitment to
> study skills. (p. 620)

Commitment is a key term here. Without the
commitment of those involved in developing the curriculum
and of those who purport to see that it is upheld, study

skills development will fail to be an integral part of our school system. The avenue to be followed, in order to make a noticeable impact, is one of a systematic approach to the development of study skills across the curriculum. This goal may be realized through the dedication of administrators and teachers towards devising and implementing procedural guidelines for establishing a study skills program.

Just what is meant, then, by the notion of study skills? Looking at the words 'study' and 'skills' separately may assist one in developing an understanding of this concept. Webster's Third International Dictionary defines study as: "the application of mental faculties to the acquisition of knowledge", and skills as: "knowledge of the means and methods of accomplishing a task". It may be said, therefore, that effective study skills focus on applying a variety of methods to what is being read in order to extract knowledge. Students must be taught how to acquire such knowledge from what they read and in this vein Samuel Johnson's line (1755) is quite apt: "Half knowledge is knowing where and how to find it".

Presently, the regurgitation of several paragraphs of a text appears to be the most frequently applied procedure for many in studying a particular topic. There are many students in the Junior High area who know how to read, yet are not equipped with certain basic skills that will assist them in reading to learn. When one considers

reading to learn, a major area which demands focusing is
the notion of study skills. These skills enable a
systematic approach in learning how to study. Study
skills, learning skills, are therefore functional, not to
be taught in isolation, but in a developmental sequence of
acquiring knowledge.

Most students are not taught methods of studying, or
at least have never been required to utilize skills that
have been acknowledged, yet not truly developed - such as
the use of the library in studying. A skill needs to be
more than talked about - it must be used, practiced. You
can talk to a child until he becomes totally bewildered
about the various movements required in order to swim
properly; it is only through demonstration and the
practicing of the various procedures that the child is
able to become a capable swimmer. Study skills also must
be perceived as ways, or movements, toward becoming
proficient learners. Such tools, when acquired through
demonstration and purposeful practice, become a part of a
broader scheme of things - the total educating process.

CHAPTER 3

ESSENTIALS OF STUDY SKILLS

From the preceding discussion, it appears obvious that study reading is a lifetime endeavor. With this in mind, this writer wishes to emphasize a narrow, yet essential, scope of the total involvement of study learning. What is offered is a framework or skeleton from which a study skills program may be developed. It requires the input of an individual teacher who acknowledges that there are methods that may be used to assist his students in knowing how to approach a particular text and learn from it. How these skills are to be implemented is determined by the individual teaching, learning, and curriculum situation (see Appendix A).

There are numerous skills that may be considered in any discussion of a study skills program. It would probably be most beneficial to concentrate on what might be identified as 'essential components' of any study skills program. These essentials must be clearly defined and examples of their use given in order that students may benefit from the application of such.

There are four general areas that shall be considered here: (1) locating information; (2) interpreting graphics and visual aids; (3) organizing information; and (4) applying systems of study reading. Each is developed through careful explanation and application of a number of

categories within each component. An overview of such is
perhaps best expressed in the diagram and outline which
follows.

Essential Components of a Study Skills Program

I.   Locating Information

Research/	Technical	Scanning
Library	Reading of	and
Skills	a Text	Skimming

II.   Interpreting Graphics/Visual Aids

Maps	Charts	Graphs	Pictures
	and		and
	Diagrams		Cartoons

III.   Organizing Information

| Outline | Mapping | Mnemonic |
| | | Devices |

IV.   Applying Systems of Study Reading

| SQ3R | PQRST | REAP |

I.   Locating Information

A.   Research/Library Skills

1.   Card Catalogue
2.   Dewey Decimal Classification System
3.   Vertical File

4. Reference Material
   a. Handbook
   b. Atlas
   c. Newspaper
   d. Dictionary
   e. Yearbook
   f. Periodical
   g. Almanac
   h. Gazetteer
   i. Encyclopedia

B. Technical Reading of a Text

   1. Title Page
   2. Copyright Date
   3. Table of Contents
   4. Preface
   5. Index
   6. Glossary
   7. Appendix
   8. Bibliography and Footnotes

C. Scanning and Skimming of a Text

II. Interpreting Graphics and Visual Aids

   A. Maps
   B. Charts and Diagrams
   C. Graphs
   D. Pictures and Cartoons

III. Organizing Information

   A. Outline
   B. Mapping
   C. Mnemonic Devices

IV. Applying Systems of Study Reading

   A. SQ3R
   B. PQRST
   C. REAP

What is presented in this paper are practical,
functional, aspects of a study skills program. How and

when each may be referred to within any educational system is the concern of those directly involved. This writer wishes to offer some guidelines which have, over the years, been beneficial to her and her students.

I.   Locating Information

In order for students to gain knowledge they must be made aware of how to locate information through various means. Two of the most obvious resources for most students are their teachers and textbooks. Some students resort to complete dependency upon these; however, there comes a time when such insular resources are insufficient for exhaustive study.

Because of the nature of the secondary school curriculum, students have to equip themselves with some basic skills required in order to become independent learners. At this level students are expected to complete various assignments which entail independent research. With this in mind, the locating skills discussed in this paper will involve three areas: Research/Library Skills; Technical Reading of a Text; and Scanning and Skimming of a Text.

A. Research/Library Skills

Certainly one of the most essential resources of any school is its library. It is in this center that students can be introduced to a number of avenues for obtaining information. Rather than attempt to develop a

library/research skills program, this paper will attempt
to point out and explain some of the basic components that
are required for the students to utilize the resources of
a typical school library. Such aspects to be considered
are: (1) the Card Catalogue; (2) the Dewey Decimal
Classification System; (3) the Vertical File; and (4) the
Reference Material.

1. The Card Catalogue

The <u>card catalogue</u> is an alphabeti**cal**ly ordered
collection of index cards which describes, records, and
identifies all holdings within a library system. The card
catalogue is often referred to as a key to the library,
since it unlocks the system and enables accessibility to
items that are held there. It therefore must be
organized, current, and accurate if it is to be an
efficient component in aiding students in gathering
information.

There are usually two major sections within such a
collection: one collection of index cards is ordered
alphabetically by authors' surnames and the other by
subjects. Some libraries are fortunate in that they have
a third component in their card catalogue, that of a title
ordering of items within the library system. (It is
pertinent to note that large public and university
libraries usually have all recent entries within the
collection accessible to the user by means of a viewer.
The viewer uses microfiche which allows the volumes of

index cards to be reduced to a small convenient sheet of microfilm. Although such technology has not been initiated within the present school library system, it is a conceivable projection for the foreseeable future).

Each individual index card within a card catalogue, be it by way of author, subject, or title, is called a "unit card". This card contains all the pertinent information about any particular item within the system. On the three pages that follow, examples of the three types of unit cards (the author, subject, and title) for one item in a library are given.

Unit Cards

Author Cards

Call Number D.D.C.S.	523.8 ASI
Author's Name	Asimov, Isaac
Title Statement Author Statement	How do we find out about black holes? / by Isaac Asimov
Illustration Statement	illust. by David Wool New York: Walker, 1978.
Imprint	
Collation	64 pp.; illust.; 22 cm. (How do we find out ... series)
Annotation	Discusses why scientists believe in the existence of black holes; what they are, how they are formed, and how they are detected.
Tracings	Black holes (Astronomy) Wool, David Title

Subject Card

Subject	Black holes (Astronomy).
Call Number D.D.C.S.	523.8 ASI
Author's Name	Asimov, Isaac
Title Statement Author Statement	How do we find out about black holes? / by Isaac Asimov
Illustration Statement	illust. by David Wool New York: Walker, 1978.
Imprint	
Collation	64 pp.; illust.; 22 cm. (How do we find out ... series)
Annotation	Discusses why scientists believe in the existence of black holes, what they are, how they are formed, and how they are detected.
Tracings	Asimov, Isaac Wool, David Title

Title Card

Title	How do we find out about black holes?
Call Number D.D.C.S.	523.8 ASI
Author's Name	Asimov, Isaac
Title Statement Author Statement	How do we find out about black holes? / by Isaac Asimov
Illustration Statement	illust. by David Wool New York: Walker, 1978.
Imprint	
Collation	64 pp.; illust.; 22 cm. (How do we find out ... series)
Annotation	Discusses why scientists believe in the existence of black holes, what they are, how they are formed, and how they are detected.
Tracings	Asimov, Isaac Wool, David Title

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Definitions of Terms Relating to the Unit Cards

Call Number: the number given to each specific item in the collection; identification number for the item; the number which is used to call forth an item from the system. (See Dewey Decimal Classification System, D.D.C.S.)

Title Statement: the full title of an item in the system.

Author Statement: the names of all the authors of a given item.

Illustration Statement: the names of all the illustrators for a given item.

Imprint: the city of publication, publishing company's name, and year of publication.

Collation: additional detailed information about an item. The collation usually tells the number of pages in an item, if there are illustrations or tables, size of item, and the series title, where applicable.

Annotation: a brief description of the item.

Tracings: a list of all entries where the item may be found, i.e. author, subject, or title cards. Tracings are for the benefit of the professional librarian. All cards on an item must be removed from the catalogue if an item is no longer in the library.

2. Dewey Decimal Classification System (D.D.C.S.)

All items in a library are organized through a systematic ordering standard. The particular system most small libraries use (including all public school libraries) is the Dewey Decimal Classification System. This system divides all items within the library into ten main classes. These major divisions are:

Dewey Number	Main Class
001-099	General Reference
100-199	Philosophy and Related Disciplines
200-299	Religion
300-399	Social Sciences
400-499	Language
500-599	Pure Science (Natural Science)
600-699	Applied Science (Technology)
700-799	The Arts (Music, Drama, etc.)
800-899	Literature
900-999	History, Geography, Biography

Each main class is divided into ten divisions according to subject. Part of such a division is demonstrated in the grouping which occurs in Literature (800 section):

810-819	American Literature in English
820-829	Literature of English and Anglo-Saxon languages
830-839	Literature of Germanic languages
840-849	Literature of Romanic languages
850-859	Italian, Romanian, Rhaeto-Romanic

Each of these subjects has ten subdivisions:

810	American Literature in English
811	Poetry
812	Drama
813	Fiction
814	Essays

Each subdivision may be further divided by using a decimal point and a digit:

810.01	Philosophy and theory of American Literature
810.03	Dictionaries, encyclopedias, concordances of American Literature
810.05	Serial Publications of American Literature
810.07	Study and Teaching of American Literature
810.09	Historical and geographical treatment of American Literature

Since the D.D.C.S. is a decimal system, numerous subdivisions may occur.

810.07	Study and Teaching of American Literature
810.074	Museums, collections, exhibits, guidebooks, catalogs, lists of American Literature
810.076	Review and exercise - workbooks and tests dealing with the study and teaching of American Literature

It is through the use of such a standardized system that all holdings within a library are organized. This allows for each particular item to be assigned a specific number, which is placed on the item; consequently, the item is arranged in the proper sequence on the stacks of a library. These specific numbers are referred to as "call numbers". An item may be <u>called</u> from the holdings by locating the specific item through finding the call number on the item. It becomes evident that such a classifica-

tion, an ordering process, requires that the item be accurately arranged; otherwise the system will break down.

3. The Vertical File

The vertical file, or pamphlet file, is a collection of pictures, leaflets, pamphlets, and newspaper and magazine clippings, arranged alphabetically by subject headings. The filing of this material may be accomplished through the use of filing folders, clipping envelopes, and large and small pamphlet boxes. Most school libraries keep such filing folders in a filing cabinet and other materials, such as pamphlet boxes, on specially designed shelving units.

The material in a vertical file should be kept current through the weeding out of dated entries and the addition of up-to-date materials. This procedure allows the vertical file to remain the most current ready-reference section within the school library. It is thus through the use of the vertical file that students may view a current collection of materials from various sources.

4. Reference Material

When students wish to study a particular topic, one place where they may obtain an overall view of it is in the reference section of a library. Reference materials, in general, offer succinct explanations and views on numerous subjects. It is often the case that through

scanning various articles in periodicals, or entries in encyclopedias, students get a fix on their subject of study. True also is the fact that reference materials offer the students updated material in a subject as well as factual information.

There are numerous forms of reference materials. (Already mentioned is the importance of a vertical file in the reference area of the library). In a school library, the most available sources of reference materials include: h̲andbooks, a̲tlases, n̲ewspapers, d̲ictionaries, y̲earbooks, p̲eriodicals, a̲lmanacs, g̲azetteers, and e̲ncyclopedias. Students should be familiar with the type of information that is obtainable in the "handypage" of a reference source.

Forms of Reference Materials (see Appendix B)

Handbook:
: a concise reference book covering a particular subject or field of knowledge (Webster's Third International Dictionary - W.T.).

Atlas:
: a bound collection of maps (W.T.).

Newspaper:
: a paper that is printed and distributed daily, weekly, or at some other regular and usu. short interval and that contains news, articles of opinion (as editorials), features, advertising, or other matter regarded as of current interest (W.T.).

Dictionary:
: a reference book containing words usu. alphabetically arranged along with information about their forms, pronunciations, functions, etymologies, meanings, and syntactical and idiomatic uses (W.T.).

Yearbook: a book published yearly as a report or summary of the statistics or facts of a year and intended as a reference book (W.T.).

Periodicals: a magazine or other publication of which the issues appear at stated or regular intervals - usu. used of a publication appearing more frequently than annually but infrequently used of a newspaper (W.T.).

Almanac: a publication containing a collection of useful or otherwise interesting facts or statistics usu. in the form of tables and often covering the period of a given year (W.T.).

Gazetteer: a geographical dictionary in which names and descriptions of places are usually given in alphabetical order; often: a book in which something is treated esp. in regard to geographical distribution and regional specialization (W.T.).

Encyclopedia: a work that treats comprehensively all the various branches of knowledge and that is usu. composed of individual articles arranged alphabetically; also: such a work treating only a particular branch of knowledge (W.T.).

B. Technical Reading of a Text

What is involved in technically reading a text? This type of reading is a cursory reading approach towards a text in order to obtain specific information that may be of use to the student.

One should attempt to evaluate the usefulness of a particular text before the actual study reading is begun. This evaluation may involve various criteria considered important to the study of a topic. When a student "technically" approaches a specific text, consideration

should be given to the inclusion of the title page,
copyright date, table of contents, preface, index,
glossary, appendix, bibliography, and footnotes.

Description of aspects to be considered in the "technical reading" of a text

Title Page: the page, at the beginning of a
                     text, which includes the
                     complete title, the author, and
                     publisher.

Copyright Date: the date on which the author
                     has had his work published.

The copyright date is important as it allows for
consideration of the appropriateness of a text in terms of
how current the material. (A 1950 publication of a text
dealing with computer technology is of little use to the
present day student, unless of course the historical
development of the computer is an aspect of his specific
concern).

Table of contents: the listing of the chapter
                     titles and the page number on
                     which each chapter begins.

The table of contents is used in considering general
areas of a text which may apply to a student's line of
investigation.

Preface: an introduction to a text.

The preface gives introductory information that
assists in the understanding of the text and/or explains
the purpose the author had in writing the text. Such an

introduction allows the reader to consider the general overview of the text.

Index: an alphabetical listing, at the end of a text, of specific topics and/or authors referred to and the page numbers on which they are discussed.

Glossary: an alphabetically arranged listing of terms that are pertinent to the understanding of the text, and a description of each.

The glossary is a tool which a student may be well advised to consider in order to gain an understanding of various concepts discussed, especially if the text is of a highly technical nature.

Appendix: a section, usually at the end of a text which offers extended explanation of material covered in a text, usually in the forms of lists, graphs, diagrams and/or tables.

Bibliography: an alphabetically arranged (by author) list of references that have been alluded to directly or indirectly, in the text.

A bibliography is useful to the student since it gives him a list of other works that may be considered in the study of a particular topic. The student may realize that not all that is to be said about an area of study can be found in one text.

Footnotes: notes in the text which give
                                    explanations of concepts and/or
                                    the reference citations of
                                    quotations. Footnotes are
                                    usually given on the page a
                                    particular term or quotation is
                                    used. It may also be listed at
                                    the end of a chapter or entire
                                    text.

It may be considered that the inclusion of some of

the above is of more importance in some cases rather than

others. (An appendix and/or a glossary may not be

required in a text that is self-explanatory, however, it

is essential in a text that requires a more detailed

explanation than the actual text offers). The student

should be informed of the importance of each and of what

may be gained by directing his attention towards such

considerations while deciding the usefulness of a

particular piece as it relates to his line of

investigation.

Some students choose a text because of its title,

begin reading at the first word in the first paragraph,

and then continue from there. Often students are halfway

through a text before they realize that the particular

writing is really not so appropriate as they had thought

in the beginning. This waste of time and effort may be

alleviated somewhat if students were more aware of how to

"technically" read a text.

C. Scanning and Skimming of a Text

Not every word in a text on a particular topic need be read. A selective process is required whereby a student pulls from the text pertinent pieces of information. Such a process involves the understanding of scanning and skimming types of reading.

> Scanning is a 'skip-search' type of reading where you are looking for very specific pieces of information .... If, for example, you are looking up a name in a telephone book, you use the alphabetic cues provided by the directory. You systematically run your eyes through the combination of letters until you come to the general area where the name will appear. Then you look more closely to find the specific name and telephone number. Naturally, it would be fruitless to start on the first page of the directory and read through it.

> Scanning can save more time than skimming, but you must know precisely what you are looking for and should have a general idea of what the answer is going to look like. (Hess, Shafer, and Morreau, p. 17)

The purpose of scanning is to search through a text to find specific information: a particular date in a History chapter; a formula in a Mathematics book; or a specific word in a piece of writing. All other information offered in the text is ignored; the only focus in the reading situation is to obtain the required information.

Skimming is a more detailed type of reading than is scanning.

> Skimming is selective reading. There are three levels of skimming: 1) previewing - looking at a total book or article to get a general idea of what the material contains, 2) overviewing - looking at the chapters contained in a book, and

3) surveying - looking more closely at selected chapters of a book or selected paragraphs in an article. (Hess, Shafer, and Morreau, p. 3)

Skimming involves directing one's attention to what is included in a text. This type of reading is essential in the selection of various texts to be used in a detailed study of a topic. A student must "preview, overview, and survey" a text to decide if it is appropriate for use in a particular line of inquiry.

In the selection process of acquiring materials for a study, scanning and skimming types of reading are essential. A student may scan a text's index to check if there is any reference to his specific topic of concern. The student's next step is to skim the entire text to acquire a sense of what is covered. This is done by going through all the entries in the index and the table of contents to identify the general areas covered in the text. The preface and postscript should be read in their entirety. Then the student should look through various chapters to acquire a more intense awareness of what has been written. The student may focus his attention on such areas as sub-headings within a chapter, the first paragraph, the first and last sentences in all other paragraphs, and all of the last paragraph or summary if one is offered.

Through such a process the student may obtain a "feel" for what has been discussed in the text. From this

point the student is equipped to begin a more exhaustive
study of the material if he deems further study important.

II. Interpreting Graphics and Visual Aids

Often there is more to a text than the actual print
itself. Additional information may be offered to the
reader that assists him in understanding the material
being presented. Such aids are in the forms of maps,
charts and diagrams, graphs, and pictures and cartoons.

Since most social studies texts contain maps, it is
important that students understand that maps, in general,
are visual descriptions of geographical concepts. These
visual aids may give detailed descriptions of an area as
small as a city block or as large as the known universe.

In being informed of the importance of acquiring
knowledge of how to read maps, basic concepts as
projection, direction, latitude, longitude, scale, symbol,
and legend need to be defined and reinforced in any map
study. Also, in order to comprehend a text it is often
required that the students have an understanding of how to
read a specific type of accompanying map. 'It is therefore
necessary to have knowledge of the various features
expressed on topographic maps: relief, rivers, communi-
cations, cities, and boundaries.

Charts and diagrams may also be used to reinforce
print. A particular section of a text may be reproduced
in a visual medium, along with the written word. It is

essential that such visual aids offer clear explanations
of the various symbols that often make up the chart or
diagram.   These symbols may be explained in an
accompanying legend or in the text itself.

Students often find that they can more readily
understand concepts if they develop their own chart or
diagram wherein the essentials of a concept are expressed.
Such a visual description is often seen as a clarification
point: the text is stripped; the core principles remain.

Often it is also necessary to comprehend graphs in
order to grasp discussions in social studies texts. These
graphs are visual distributions of statistical data
showing relationships among two or more variables.
Students therefore have to be equipped with knowledge of
the various terms associated with reading graphs, as well
as the different types of graphs used to explain
distribution.   Students should realize that there are a
number of different types of graphs, the main ones being:
bar graphs, pie graphs, line graphs, and pictographs.   In
order to read any graph, students have to know what is
meant by such terms as: distribution, legend, symbol,
key, percent, and intervals.   With such knowledge,
students are able to apply the printed text to the
accompanying graphs.   The students, therefore, do not see
the graphs as useless, yet sophisticated, visual aids.
Understanding how to read them enhances the text's
usefulness, the very purpose of the graphs themselves.

Pictures and cartoons supply an extra component to a text. They offer an aesthetic extension of a visual aid which describes the text.

Young students find the assistance of a picture very useful, as it may tell in one glance what may take a whole page of print to explain. It is also true that some older students find pictures distracting; they like to create their own mental picture of what is occurring in print.

Cartoons may be more sophisticated, for some students, to appreciate than pictures, as they attempt to ridicule someone or something or to make a point - which may not be grasped by a reader who is not versed in the particular area. Satire, even though usually humorous in the form of cartoons, is not always easily understood by a child who is unaware of the foundations of such humor. Students who realize what cartoons do and have background information about a particular situation are able to appreciate cartoons more readily than those who see a cartoon without such prior knowledge.

Pictures and cartoons allow print to become more pertinent to the reader, yet they offer explanations that are often missed by a child who is having difficulty with print.

Visual aids and graphics are essential components in understanding some texts. Students who are equipped with knowledge of the use of such tools are better prepared than those who come upon a text without such knowledge.

It is in the realm of a teacher's responsibilities to assume his students are sensitive to the importance of these aids in approaching the study of such texts.

III. Organizing Information

When a student is studying a chapter of a text or gathering ideas in the study of a particular topic, how may he organize the information? Most students have some means of taking notes. Often such a process involves copying sentences directly from a text to be memorized for later regurgitation or to be reworded for some form of written presentation. Such means are unacceptable if a student is to learn how to become an efficient learner.

Much has been written on the general process of notetaking (see Brown, D., 1977, <u>Notetaking</u>). Nevertheless, it is the purpose of this writer to present what she considers major organizational skills which have proven themselves to be most worthwhile for her and her students: the use of outlines, maps, and mnemonic devices.

A. Outline: an organizational system of focusing on the main ideas and supporting details within a text.

Format: I. Main idea

        A. Subtopic
           1. Supporting detail
           2. Supporting detail

```
B.  Subtopic
    1.  Supporting detail
    2.  Supporting detail
        a.  Explanatory detail
            1.  Further support
```
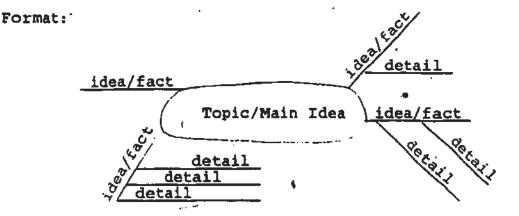
Outlines may be developed for two major purposes in studying: (1) to set up the sequence of study in a chapter of a textbook; and (2) to extract from a text the important issues of concern to the reader as they apply to his study.

When approaching a chapter, such as one in a social studies textbook, students should be aware that the text is purposely designed so that the major points discussed are set out in the headings and subheadings, with major concepts printed in italics or boldface lettering. A typical textbook chapter format offers the student the opportunity to set up an outline for study purposes.

In utilizing a particular text as part of an extended study of a topic, students may use an outlining process to help in organizing the ideas offered. This process is similar to the one discussed above; however, the student in this case is only interested in what may be applied to his topic. Much of the text may be of little specific use to the student and is helpful only in the sense of developing a general awareness of the topic.

B. Mapping: a structuring of information in a graphic format (also referred to as <u>webbing</u> or <u>treeing</u>).

Format:

```
              idea/fact              idea/fact
                                       detail
                  ⎛  Topic/Main Idea ⎞  idea/fact
          idea/fact                       detail
                    detail          detail
                    detail
                    detail
```

Some students seem to prefer the open format of
mapping rather than the more structurally rigid outlining
process; and just as outlines may be used to set up a
study structure for the student, so too may the process of
mapping be employed. Given the format presented above,
the main idea/topic is the heart of the structure, while
all the ideas/facts and details are arteries and veins,
essential in order to sustain the basic function of the
map itself.

C.   Mnemonic devices: methods of improving the
                               efficiency of remembering
                               information.

There are times when a mechanical memory process is
the most effective way to retain information. Students
may wish to remember some factual information that may
later be recalled with little difficulty. When such is
the case, a mnemonic device which may be used to assist
students is a helpful acronym.

Acronym: a word formed from the initial
letter or letters of each of
the successive parts or major
parts of a compound term
(W.T.).

Students seem to enjoy using acronyms. One case
which comes to mind is of little Bobby in a "slow" grade
four class. When discussing the spelling of various words
with his classmates, he was so proud that he was the only
one who knew how to spell Geography - George Ellison's old
goat ran after Paddy Hollett yesterday. The child
obviously found comfort in remembering the sentence which
made more sense to him than the letters in isolation.

Early on, in dealing with the reference section, this
writer thought it useful for the student to think of a
page in a reference text as a handypage, thus helping the
student to remember the various types of reference
material: handbooks, atlases, dictionaries, yearbooks,
periodicals, almanacs, gazetteers, and encyclopedias.

Some acronyms may be used to help students think
about how to approach their assignments. In writing a
paper, the slower process is a good way to approach the
exercise:

              s - select a topic you can handle
              l - list all your ideas related to the
                  topic
              o - order your ideas
              w - write a first draft
              e - examine your draft for errors
              r - revise before turning in the final
                  paper.
(Russell, 1983, p. 23)

Students may find the _smile_ method a useful procedure to
think about when writing an examination:

                    s - stop worrying. Be prepared.
                    m - make sure you follow directions
                            given.
                    i - information must be to the
                            point/no padding.
                    l - look things over carefully before
                            handing in.
                    e - extensive review on a planned
                            basis is essential.
                    (Russell, 1983, p. 60)

Students should be introduced to the process of
association which occurs in developing a mnemonic aid.
They may associate a certain word or phrase with the
information they wish to retain. Students may then be
more alert to the usefulness of developing their own
mnemonic devices when attempting to remember information.
As Shimamura (1984) suggests, they may "_Mova_ their memory"
(p. 163).

The first four letters of this acronym point to the
four principles of memory: meaningfulness, organization,
visualization, and attention (see Higbee, 1977). In his
book _Your memory_, Higbee summarizes the importance of
these principles in learning when he says:

> The more meaningful something is to you, the
> easier it will be to learn .... Organization
> makes a difference in your ability to remember
> .... The research has shown that very striking
> improvement can be seen in many kinds of memory
> tasks when people are asked to visualize the
> items to be remembered as compared with learning
> them through rote repetition .... Failure to pay
> attention is frequently the real reason why we
> "forget". (pp. 54 and 55)

How well students organize the material presented
when studying, to a large extent, determines how
successful they are in learning the material. The
structuring processes involved in developing outlines,
maps, and mnemonic devices assist students in focusing
their attention towards what they consider meaningful in a
text. Students are then capable of generating active
participation in studying, rather than obtaining their
information through some form of read, reread, then read
again absorption.

IV. Applying Systems of Study Reading

Once a student has gained knowledge related to
locating, interpreting, and organizing information, he is
able to approach a text differently and may develop his
own strategies for studying.

There are numerous study strategies, or systems of
study reading, which have been developed over the years.
It must be remembered that these strategies are just that
- tactics to be considered, not formulas to be memorized.
Application of these procedures is as flexible as the
individual needs of those who decide to use them; the
particular learning situation may dictate some divergence
from any particular component.

The three processes of studying this writer wishes to
present are: Robinson's (1941) SQ3R; Spache and Berg's
(1966) PQRST; and Eanet and Manzo's (1976) REAP. These

are offered as examples, not as the only systems of
developing study reading processes. It must be remembered
that there are other ways and that indeed the innovative
student may well develop his own efficient system. (If it
works, use it!)

I.   SQ3R: (1) S - Survey (or preview). Read
             the title; introductory paragraph;
             the headings and subheadings; look
             at pictures and other graphics,
             reading the explanation beneath
             each; read the summary and ques-
             tions. Ask yourself what major
             points are to be developed.

             (2) Q - Question. Turn each
             subheading into a question. Avoid
             closed questions that can be
             answered by mere yes or no.
             Instead ask the "who," "what,"
             "where," "why," or "how" type
             questions.

             (3) R - Read. Read to find the
             answer to your question. This is
             active reading. Reading for your
             own purposes (to answer your own
             question) keeps your mind on the
             material at hand. Be aware that
             your question may not cover all
             the important material so that you
             may have to add a question or
             revise your original one.

             (4) R - Recite. Cover up what you
             have just read under the first
             subheading and try to answer your
             question from memory. Check on
             those items you don't remember.
             Always master one section before
             moving on to the next one. Repeat
             steps 2, 3, and 4 with each
             successive section.

(5) R - Review. Upon completion
of the chapter, spend a few
minutes going back over the text
and your notes to try to get an
overall picture. Knowing that
some forgetting will always occur,
occasional reviews keeps this to a
minimum. (Tonjes and Zintz, pp.
248-249)

II. PQRST: (1) P - Preview the selection.
Read the title, headings, first
and last sentences of paragraphs.
Introductory or summary paragraphs
should be read. Previewing is a
thinking process preceeding
reading. It may give all the
information needed or it may
indicate just what part of the
selection is needed.

(2) Q - Raise questions about the
content during the previewing.
Jot down some questions from the
preview. Headings can be made
into questions.

(3) R - Read to answer the ques-
tions posed in steps P and Q.

(4) S - Summarize by making brief
notes based on answers to preview
questions. Find the main idea for
each paragraph. Select a final
main idea for the entire
selection. A written summary is
not always necessary.

(5) T - Test understanding by
attempting to answer preview
questions without looking at the
notes or the selection. Try to
phrase some questions that an
instructor might ask. (Schnepf
and Meyer, p. 152)

III. REAP: (1) R - read to discover author's message.

(2) E - encode the message by putting it into your own words.

(3) A - annotate by rewriting the message in notes for yourself or others.

(4) P - ponder or process the message by thinking about it yourself or discussing it with others. (Tonjes and Zintz, p. 249)

Study strategies, along with locating, interpreting, and organizing information skills, are what this writer considers the essential components of a study skills program. A student who is exposed to a systematic development of the micro-elements of each, as they pertain to the total schema of reading to learn, is given a framework by which studying becomes an individual's processing of information format. Application of the various components is dependent upon the learner and the specific learning situation.

CHAPTER 4

EPILOGUE

Samuel Johnson (1755) states that "knowledge is of two kinds. We know the subject ourselves, or we know where we can find information upon it". The aspect of information retrieval, described in his second "kind" of knowledge, has been attended to thus far in this paper: the systematic development of study skills, aiding students in the utilization of the 'tools' of learning, is realized as an essential component within the educating process.

Along with Johnson's description of knowledge, in terms of one being able to "find information", however, comes another aspect of knowledge: the efficacy of such study skills in a learning process. - Why should students be offered a framework to be used in a study of a particular issue?

To begin with, students must be guided toward understanding the importance of knowledge in their lives. A. H. Whitehead points to just such an understanding when he says:

> The true method of philosophical construction is
> to frame a scheme of ideas the best one can, and
> unflinchingly to explore the interpretation of
> experience in terms of that scheme. (p. xiv)

Knowledge here refers to that aspect of an individual's life whereby he is able to "frame", or develop, a way of

thinking that allows for the "interpretation" of one's "experience" as it applies to each individual.

The nature of knowledge, epistemology, thus becomes pertinent to the learner. It is important to assimilate the 'essentials of study skills', or "to frame a scheme of ideas", into one's process of learning in order to avail oneself of the knowledge that may be gained through study of a topic.

The student must be an active participant in the learning process. The experience gained through such personal involvement enables a student to feel a part of the learning process - not just a sponge absorbing facts and details for later regurgitation during such arduous tasks as writing a factual examination, or reciting a predetermined standard answer in a class 'discussion'.

Understanding gained through the acquisition of knowledge of a subject is what makes learning exciting. Facts and details, themselves, offer little if they do not become a part of one's understanding of a particular concept.

Once a student understands the meaning within a message being conveyed, either through verbal or written expression from another human, he is learning not only more about a particular subject but also more about himself: the ability of each human to grow through shared experience. Here lies the importance of the concepts of

knowledge, meaning, and understanding. Jefferey Franks

(1972) has something to say about each:

> "Knowledge" refers essentially to static, semi-
> permanent long-term memory relationships.
> "Meaning" refers to relations and the particular
> present environment context. "Understanding" is
> a function of the extent to which adequate
> (coherent, complete) meanings have been
> generated in a particular context. (p. 325)

Thus the concepts of knowledge, meaning, and understanding

are interrelated. "To learn" involves experiencing each

and assimilating the effects of the learning process into

our lives. Burgers discusses the importance of such

conceptual activity - "giving meaning to something and

thereby giving it relevance" (p. 192), when he talks about

learning in terms of "to live":

> To live is not merely to reproduce patterns. To
> live is a never ceasing attempt to make use of
> possibilities and to recognize new
> possibilities. A major feature of life is to
> grasp new forms of relationships and thereby to
> come into possession of new information. Part
> of this information becomes codified; another
> part is carried along in a subjective form which
> acts as a permanent source for new information
> and new experimentation .... Life is an ever
> ending struggle against which otherwise would
> appear as mere statistical chance and chaos. It
> is an increasing attempt to create order in
> domains .... (pp. 204-205)

Burger's notions on living are quite apt in any discussion

on the processes involved in learning.

Another giant in this area is Klinger (1977). He

talks about education in terms of personal freedom, and

the teacher's responsibility to ensure his students are

'trained' with basic concepts that allow for such "inner

freedom":

> Insofar as one wishes to create individuals with
> the largest possible sphere of inner freedom,
> the way to do so is to teach people quite
> explicitly the _techniques_ they might use to free
> themselves. Such education would acquaint them
> with the widest possible array of human
> possibilities, train them, ... and teach them to
> teach themselves the skills for goal-striving
> that they may need later and cannot anticipate
> now. (p. 245)

Obviously, the teacher plays an important functionary

role in assisting students in becoming learners in

Klinger's terms.

Drews (1972) offers a supportive view to Klinger's

notions in terms of the relationship between the teacher

and the student:

> My assumption is that a school, a classroom, or
> even an informal gathering, needs self-
> actualizing leadership if significant learnings
> are to take place and students are to feel that
> something has happened which was worthwhile.
> The atmosphere should be one in which the
> teacher suggests and guides, but where the
> initiative to learn and the energy required for
> continued learning comes from the student.
> First and foremost learning is the _learner's_
> responsibility. As the teacher comes to know
> students as individuals with distinctive hopes,
> desires, and interests, she can guide,
> encourage, and educate in the ancient sense of
> "leading out". (p. 149)

What then is the responsibility of any 'schooling

institution'? O'Brien (1980) expresses a view that is

quite acceptable to this writer (O'Brien speaks in terms

of learning that goes on within a university. This writer

believes that the word 'school' may be substituted for the

word "university" and the point made remains valid):

> Our job truly is to teach students to be
> learners - when there are no teachers.

> If we emphasize again the notion of the
> University as a learning community and not only
> a teaching institution, then we have to believe
> in learning outside the conventional classroom
> structure. To express that notion, the
> University could make explicit what is already
> implicit in its basic philosophy. The basic aim
> of the University is to <u>start off</u> a process of
> education which continues for a lifetime.
> (p. 4)

This "start off" point is what a teacher hopefully strives

to help each student achieve. This is the point at which

students become independent learners - 'independent' in

the sense that they no longer require their teachers in

order to actively engage in their own learning process.

It is to this type of development within a student's

schooling that Bolten (1977) speaks:

> If being educated meant no longer needing a
> teacher - a definition I would recommend - it
> would mean that you had been presented with
> models of learning, or people playing this
> external role, and that you have learned how the
> role was played and how to play it for yourself.
> At that point you would declare your
> independence of instruction as such and you
> would be your own teacher. What we all hope of
> course, is that as the formal, institutional
> part of education is finished, its most
> conspicuous and valuable product will be seen in
> the child's ability to educate himself. (p. 53)

The learning process continues throughout the

individual's life. The schooling process, in an

institutional sense, lasts for a fixed number of years.

It is the responsibility of administrators and teachers to

aid students in recognizing their potential in terms of

their personal growth toward what Maslow (1968) calls
self-actualization:

> Self-actualization is a relatively achieved
> "state of affairs" ... it is rather a hope, a
> yearning, a drive, a "something" wished for but
> not yet achieved .... This means for us that
> that which the person _is_ and that which the
> person _could be_ exist simultaneously for the
> psychologist, thereby resolving the dichotomy
> between Being and Becoming. Potentialities not
> only _will_ be or could be; they also are. Self-
> actualization values as goals exist and are real
> even though not yet actualized. The human being
> is simultaneously that which he is and that
> which he yearns to be. (p. 160)

This "yearning to be", as an aspect of personal growth,
requires that an individual be open to new experiences -
'open' in the sense that he recognizes a particular way of
'doing' things, and then is able to use this sense of
'being' to strive towards a greater understanding of
self. Learning takes place when there is active involve-
ment by the participant, the student, as each strives to
understand how what he is being exposed to relates to his
world. The student starts from his personal vantage point
and from there, through an inquisitive process, grows. I.
A. Richards (1965) discusses this in terms of "the kinds
of ability the world needs":

> First and foremost, ability to inquire, ability
> to compare, ability to select on the basis of
> comparing, ability to try out, ability to see
> what the outcome of the trial is, ability to
> change one's mind through seeing how and why the
> view taken has been wrong, in brief, _intelligent_
> _exploratory_ conduct .... It is these abilities
> rather than the mere reproduction of received
> impressions that we must need to cultivate ....
> What we have done always guides what we will do.
> All exploratory conduct selectively applies what

it has learned already in going on to learn
more.

> What we have to do is to give the learner
> the best chance possible to abstract from the
> sequences of materials put before him the
> <u>structure</u> on which its modes of working depend,
> and to abstract this structure as extensively as
> possible. (p. 133)

Richard's description of "intelligent exploratory

conduct" must be implemented as part of the relationship

between a student and the agents which aids in his

development; as Maslow (1968) points out:

> Personal growth demands courage, self-
> confidence, even daring; and non-love from the
> parent or the mate (relative to this paper - the
> teacher) produces the opposite, self-doubt,
> anxiety, feelings of worthlessness and
> expectations of ridicule, all inhibitors of
> growth and of self-actualization. (p. 98)

The student must feel that he is free to experience,

to be an active participant in his learning process,

without feeling the restrictions of the "inhibitors" of

which Maslow speaks.

Jean Piaget (1970) discusses the importance of life's

"experience" in affecting one's development when he says:

> Experience is always necessary for intellectual
> development .... But I fear that we may fall
> into the illusion that being submitted to an
> experience - a demonstration - is sufficient for
> a subject to disengage the structure involved.
> But more than this is required. The subject
> must be active, must transform things, and find
> the structure of his own actions on the objects.
> (p. 138)

Life is more than the 'act' of a "demonstration" of

experiencing for any individual; study is more than the

'act' of structuring details for any student.

Novak and Gowin (1984) discuss the "significance (of) educational experience":

> To learn meaningfully, individuals must choose to relate new knowledge to relevant concepts and propositions they already know. In rote learning, on the other hand, new knowledge may be acquired simply by verbatim memorization and arbitrarily incorporated into a person's knowledge structure without interacting with what is already there.
>
> Under any instructional strategy, learning can vary from being almost rote to being highly meaningful - from <u>reception learning</u>, where information is provided directly to the learner, to autonomous discovery learning, where the learner identifies and selects the information to be learned. (p. 7)

As a result of all the aspects of the learning process discussed in this paper, it would seem valid to say that the chief aspiration of a teacher is to foster, within the processes of a student's mind, a sense of striving for self-awareness; to look at oneself in relation to the world and to be able to respond intelligently in terms of what is plausible in his life's scheme. This consciousness of learning to understand, to interpret, involves assessing, criticizing, and formulating a considered perspective on a subject being presented; thus the independent learner exhibits intelligent exploratory conduct. It is in this life circumstance that the basic principles of education, at least those which have been discussed throughout this paper, become actualized.

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APPENDIX A

The following is a list of resources which this
researcher feels may benefit the teacher in a search for
materials that might be used in developing aspects of a
study skills program. The list contains texts and audio-
visual materials dealing with specific skills discussed in
Chapter 3.

APPENDIX A

Texts

Alder, M., & van Doren, C. (1972). How to read a book. New York: Simon and Schuster.

Alexander, R. (1983). Instructor's big book of study skills. Toronto: The Instructor Publications.

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Thomas, E., & Robinson, H. (1982). <u>Improving reading in every classroom</u> (2nd ed.). Toronto: Allyn and Bacon.

Tillema, H. (1983). Webteaching: Sequencing of subject matter in relation to prior knowledge of pupils. <u>Instructional Science</u>, <u>12</u>, 321-332.

Tonjes, M., & Zintz, M. (1981). <u>Teaching reading / thinking / study skills in content classroom</u>. Iowa: Wm. C. Brown.

Tyler, J. M., & Chese, W. (1973). <u>Practice in research and study</u> (Books A and B). Toronto: The Instructor Publication.

Vacca, R., & Vacca, J. (1986). <u>Content area reading</u>. Toronto: Little, Brown.

Van, V. (1984). <u>Media skills for middle schools: Strategies for library media specialists and teachers</u>. Littleton, CO: Libraries Unlimited.

Vaughan, J., & Estes, T. (1986). <u>Reading and reasoning beyond the primary grades</u>. Toronto: Allyn and Bacon.

Walker, H., & Montgomery, P. (1983). <u>Teaching library media skills</u> (2nd ed.). Littleton, CO: Libraries Unlimited.

Zintz, M. (1966). <u>Corrective reading</u>. Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown.

<u>Audio-Visual Materials</u>

<u>Bam Bam tackles a term paper: Unit II: Organization</u> (Filmstrip and tape). (1978). New York: Barr Films - Hanna Barbara Productions.

Carter, C., Peace, G., & Thornly, G. (1975). <u>Working with maps</u> (Kit). London: George Philips.

<u>Huey learns his lessons: Disney's world of study skills</u> (Filmstrip and tape). California: Walt Disney Educational Media.

McCullar, B. (1964). <u>How to study and why!</u> (Record).
New York: American Recording Society.

<u>Reading maps</u> (Film). (1955). New York: Encyclopedia
Britannica.
(16 mm. 11 min., color - Illustrates the language of
maps. Explains meanings, uses, and making of maps in
simple terms).

APPENDIX B

The following is a list of examples of the various types of reference materials discussed in the <u>handypage</u> section of <u>Locating Information</u> in Chapter 3.

APPENDIX B

Handbooks

Cogar, L., & Melvin, R. (1982). Reader's theatre handbook (3rd ed.). Toronto: Scott Forbes.

Feder, L. (1964). Crowell's handbook of classical Literature. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell.

Gillie, C. (1972). Longman companion to English Literature. Longman, Eng.: Longman.

Guth, H. (1985). New concise handbook: With new MLA style. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Hart, J. (Ed.). (1965). The Oxford companion to American Literature (4th ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.

Harvey, P. (Ed.). (1955). The Oxford companion to classical Literature. New York: Oxford University Press.

Holman, C., & Harmon, W. (1986). A handbook to Literature (5th ed.). New York: Macmillan.

Publication manual of the American Psychological Association (3rd ed.). (1983). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Shipley, J. (1956). Guide to great plays. Washington, DC: Public Affairs Press.

Story, N. (1967). The Oxford companion to Canadian History and Literature. New York: Oxford University Press.

van Zyll de J. (1983). Handbook of Canadian mammals. Ottawa: National Museums of Canada.

Zehavi, A. (Ed.). (1973). Handbook of world religions. New York: Franklin Watts.

Atlases

Dodge, J., Hudson, G., Melvin, R., & Ott, R. (Eds.). (1964). _Encyclopedia Britannica world atlas_ (unabridged ed.). Toronto: William Benton of Encyclopedia Britannica.

Espenshade, E., & Morrison, J. (Eds.). (1978). _Goode's world atlas_. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Grosvenor, M. (Ed.). (1975). _National geographic atlas of the world_. Washington: National Geographic Society.

Hammond, S. (Ed.). (1982). _Hammond world atlas_. Maplewood, NJ: Hammond.

Madden, J. (1980). _My first atlas_. Maplewood, NJ: Hammond.

Palmer, R. (Ed.). (1957). _Atlas of world history_. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Newspapers

The Citizen. Ottawa.

The Evening Telegram. St. John's.

Financial Post. Toronto.

Financial Times. London.

Financial Times of Canada. Toronto.

Globe and Mail. Toronto.

The Irish Times. Dublin.

New York Times. New York.

Sunday Times. London.

Wall Street Journal. Chicopee, MA.

Dictionaries

Avis, W. (Ed.). (1967). <u>A dictionary of Canadian English</u>. Victoria: Lexicographical Centre for Canada English.

Bartlett, J. (1980). <u>Bartlett's familiar quotations</u> (15th ed.). Toronto: Little, Brown.

Crim, K. (Ed.). (1981). <u>Abingdon dictionary of living religion</u>. Nashvile: Abingdon.

Dutch, R. (Ed.), (1983). <u>Roget's thesaurus of English words and phrases</u>. London, Eng.: Longman.

Groves, P. (Ed.). (1971). <u>Webster's third new international dictionary</u> (unabridged). Springfield, MA: G. & C. Merriam.

Morris, W. (Ed.) (1984). <u>American heritage dictionary of English language</u>. New York: American Heritage and Houghton Mifflin.

Petter, H. (Ed.). (1975). <u>The Oxford illustrated dictionary</u>. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

<u>The Oxford dictionary of quotations</u> (3rd ed.). (1979). Toronto: Oxford University Press.

Stein, J. (Ed.). (1966). <u>Random house dictionary of English language</u>. New York: Random House.

Story, G., Kirwin, W., & Widdowson, J. (Eds.). (1982). <u>Dictionary of Newfoundland English</u>. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.

Vianna, F. (Ed.). (1980). <u>Roget's II: The new thesaurus</u>. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Weiner, P. (1973). <u>Dictionary of the history of ideas: Studies of selected pivotal ideas</u>. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Yearbooks

Encyclopedia yearbook. (1972 -). Toronto: Grolier.

Keeton, G., & Schwarzenberger, P. (1983 -). Yearbook of world affairs. Westview: Sweet and Macmillan.

Moore, P. (1972 -). Yearbook of astronomy. New York: W. W. Norton.

Pearson, B. (1905 -). Canada yearbook. Ottawa: Minister of Supply and Services.

Whitaker, J. (1868 -). Whitaker. London, Eng.: William Clowes.

Yearbook of human rights (1947 -). New York: International Publishers.

Yearbook of science and the future. (1982 -). Toronto: Encyclopedia Britannica.

Note: Updated yearbooks to most multi-volume encyclopedias are also issued.

Periodicals

American Heritage. (Every two months). New York.

Artnews. (Monthly). New York.

The Atlantic. (Monthly). Boulder, CO.

Atlantic Advocate. (Monthly). Halifax.

Atlantic Insight. (Monthly). Halifax.

Books in Canada. (Nine times a year). Toronto.

Canadian Art. (Quarterly). Toronto.

Canadian Fiction Magazine. (Quarterly). Toronto.

Drama. (Quarterly). London.

English Dance and Song. (Quarterly). London.

Fantasy Science Fiction. (Monthly). Toronto.

The Financial Post Report on the Nation. (Quarterly). Toronto.

Folklore. (Biannual). St. John's.

History of Religion. (Quarterly). Chicago.

The Illustrated London News. (Monthly). London.

In Britain. (Monthly). London.

International Journal of Politics. (Biannual). New York.

Journal of American Culture. (Quarterly). Bowling Green, OH.

Journal of Folklore Research. (Quarterly). Bloomington, IN.

Literature and History. (Biannual). London, Eng.

Microcomputers for Information Management. (Quarterly). Norwood, NJ.

Midwestern Journal of Language and Folklore. (Biannual). Terre Haute, IN.

Modern Drama. (Quarterly). Toronto.

Music and Musicians. (Monthly). Leicestershire, Eng.

Newsweek. (Weekly). New York.

Novel. (Three times a year). Providence, RI.

Plays and Players. (Monthly). Leicestershire, Eng.

The Pope Speaks. (Quarterly). Huntington, IN.

Rotunda. (Quarterly). Toronto.

Shakespeare Quarterly. Stratford-upon-Avon, Eng.

Small Computers in Libraries. (Monthly). Westport, CT.

Studies in English Literature 1500-1900. (Quarterly).
    Houston.

Time. (Weekly). Toronto.

World Press Review. (Monthly). New York.

Almanacs

Canadian almanac and dictionary. (1848 -). Toronto:
    Copp Clarke Pitman.

Corpus directory and almanac of Canada. (1972 -).
    Toronto: Corpus.

Hryciuk, M. (Ed.). (1965 -). Corpus almanac and
    Canadian ●●●cebook (21st ed.). Don Mills: Corpus.

McWhirter, N., & McWhirter, R. (1962 -). Guinness book
    of world records. New York: Sterling.

The Newfoundland almanac for .... (1868 -). St. John's:
    H. Winton,

New York times encyclopedia almanac. (1970 -). New
    York: New York Times, Book & Educational Division.

The world almanac and book of facts. (1868). New York:
    Newspaper Enterprise Association.

Gazetteers

Buchanan, R. (1974). _An illustrated dictionary of geography._ London: Heinemann Educational.

Collocott, T., & Thorne, J. (Eds.). (1965). _The Macmillan world gazetteer and geographical dictionary._ New York: Macmillan.

Kerr, D. (Ed.). (1968). _Kerr historical atlas of Canada_ (2nd ed.). Toronto: Nelson.

Knox, A. (1968). _Glossary of geographical and topographical terms ...._ Detroit: Gale Research.

Setlzer, L. (1952). _The Columbia Lippincott gazetteer of the world._ New York: Columbia University Press.

Stamp, D. (1966). _Longman dictionary of geography._ London: Longman.

The Times (London) index gazetteer of the world. (1965). London: London Times.

Webster's new geographical dictionary: A dictionary of names and places. (1972). Springfield, MA: G. & C. Merriam.

Encyclopedias

Barber, A. (Ed.). (1968). <u>The Lincoln library of essential information</u>. New York: Frontier.

Benet, W. (Ed.). (1965). <u>The reader's encyclopedia</u> (2nd ed.). New York: Thomas Y. Crowell.

Bertin, L. (1975). <u>Larousse encyclopedia of the earth</u> (rev. ed.). New York: Crown.

Briggs, K. (1976). <u>An encyclopedia of fairies</u>. New York: Pantheon Books.

<u>The Canadian encyclopedia</u>. (1985). Edmonton: Hurtig.

<u>Collier's encyclopedia</u>. (1983). New York: Macmillan.

<u>Compton's encyclopedia</u>. (1982). Toronto: Britannica Learning Materials.

<u>Encyclopedia Americana</u>. (1982). Toronto: Grolier.

Hamlyn, P. (Ed.). (1959). <u>New larousse encyclopedia of mythology</u>. Toronto: Hamlyn House.

Kurin, G. (1978). <u>Encyclopedia of the third world</u>. New York: Facts on File.

Langer, W. (Ed.). (1975). <u>The new illustrated encyclopedia of world history</u>. New York: Harry N. Abrams.

Menke, E., (1969). <u>The encyclopedia of sports</u> (4th ed.). New York: A. S. Barnes.

<u>Merit student encyclopedia</u>. (1983). New York: Macmillan.

Norris, R. (Ed.). (1970). <u>Encyclopedia of American history</u>. New York: Harper & Row.

<u>The new book of knowledge</u>. (1984). Toronto: Grolier.

<u>New encyclopedia britannica</u> (15th ed.). (1983). Toronto: Britannica Learning Materials.

<u>A Shakespeare encyclopedia</u>. (1966). New York: Methuen.

<u>The world book encyclopedia</u>. (1985). Toronto: World Book.