LISTENING SKILLS IN RELATIONSHIP TO READING ACHIEVEMENT

A thesis submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Elementary Education

by

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ABSTRACT

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As an elementary school substitute teacher, this writer has traveled around from class to class, from school to school and has observed that many children do not know how to listen to the teacher or to each other. Although the school must certainly recognize the importance of listening in the elementary classroom, this entire area of learning has continued to occupy a minor, and, sometimes, a nonexistent position in the curriculum.

Because of this interest in the field of listening, the writer surveyed the literature pertaining to the interrelationships between reading and listening. This survey included the importance of listening, the neglect of listening in the elementary school, the various interrelationships which exist between reading and listening, the importance of teaching listening and suggestions for teaching
listening.

The information in the study was obtained from abstracts of master's theses, doctoral dissertations, articles in educational journals and periodicals, entire books, sections of books, pamphlets and educational encyclopedias.

The major findings of the study were:

1. Listening is important in every stage of schooling.
2. Most elementary schools are deficient in developing listening skills.
3. Most teachers have not been trained to teach listening.
4. Many listening skills are similar to the skills used in reading.
5. Reading at various stages is dependent upon listening.
6. Listening can be taught.
7. Listening should be taught.
8. Listening skills can be improved through systematic instruction.
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Purpose and Design of the Study

As an elementary school substitute teacher, this writer has traveled around from class to class, from school to school and has observed that many children do not know how to listen to the teacher or to each other. They fidget or daydream while their peers are reporting; they half-listen to the teacher's instructions with the knowledge, perhaps, that these instructions will be repeated and repeated.

Although the school must certainly recognize the importance of listening in the elementary classroom, this entire area of learning has continued to occupy a minor and, sometimes, a nonexistent position in the curriculum.

Because of this interest in the field of listening, the writer surveyed the literature pertaining to the inter-relationships between reading and listening. This survey was designed to answer the following questions in the various chapters of the paper.
Chapter II

1. What is the difference between the terms "hearing" and "listening?"

2. Why has the term "auding" been suggested as a substitute for "listening" when it refers to language?

Chapter III

1. Is listening really important?

2. Why has listening been neglected in the elementary school program?

Chapter IV

1. Are listening and reading skills related?

2. If a relationship does exist, in what ways are the two skills similar?

3. Can listening skills be utilized to predict potential in reading?

4. Will the teaching of listening affect a child's reading ability?

5. Does a correlation exist between listening and reading test results?

6. Is there a reading method which focuses on listening?
Chapter V

1. Should listening become a part of the school curriculum?
2. Can listening skills be taught?
3. What qualities differentiate good listeners from poor listeners?
4. What kinds of listening are there?
5. What listening skills should the school teach?
6. How does the teacher actually teach listening?

Sources Used for the Study

To locate the answers to the above questions, the writer read through abstracts of master's theses, doctoral dissertations, articles in educational journals and periodicals, entire books, sections of books, pamphlets and educational encyclopedias.
CHAPTER II

DEFINITIONS

Hearing and Listening. According to Sara Lundsteen, one important reason listening has not received the attention accorded to reading is that listening has been poorly defined (46:8). This assertion leads to a discussion of three terms: hearing, listening, and auding. Much has been written about the meaning of each term.

Children probably engage in the activity of hearing more than in listening. Hearing ranges from vague awareness of sound to the superficial reception of specific sounds. Thus children can watch television in a room where adults are talking and not be aware of what the adults are saying. Both hearing and listening are taking place.

Kenneth A. Harwood distinguishes between listening and hearing in the following manner:

If we think of a message starting at an information source (speaker's brain), passing through a transmitter (speaker's vocal mechanism) where it is converted to a signal (air pressure waves), passing through a channel (the air), being reconverted by a receiver (hearer's ear), and reaching a destination (hearer's brain), we may be able to make the distinction. Conversion of the
pressure waves to neural changes which move
to the brain for interpretation is the func-
tion of the ear and may be called listening.
Thus if no signal is presented to the re-
ceiver, neither hearing nor listening may
ordinarily take place. If a signal is pre-
sented to the receiver, the receiver may or
may not be able to receive, convert, and
forward all of it (hear) and the destination
may or may not be able to receive and inter-
pret all of it (listen) (30).

Landry states that teachers have equated listening
with hearing. They have assumed that what has been heard
must have been understood. Listening, however, is much
more complex than hearing. Simply stated, he says that
listening involves "giving active and conscious attention
to sounds in order to gain meaning. It involves compre-
hension of meaning as well as relating the sounds to our
experiences" (42:601).

MacIntosh says that "listening makes possible the
incorporation of what has meaning to the listener, in
which process concepts are deepened and new intellectual
maturity is promoted" (48:18).

Among other definitions of listening which have
been suggested:

...an analysis of the impressions resulting
from concentration where an effort of will
is required--Tucker

...understanding spoken language--Rankin
...the attachment of meaning to aural symbols--Nichols

...a selective process by which sounds communicated by some source are received, critically interpreted, and acted upon by a purposeful listener--Jones

...the process of reacting to, interpreting, and relating the spoken language in terms of past experiences and future courses of action--Barbe and Myers

...the conscious purposeful registration of sounds upon the mind (which) leads to further mental activity...all true listening is creative--Hook (59)

...the ability to understand and respond effectively to oral communication--Kenneth Johnson

...the act of giving attention to the spoken word, not only in hearing symbols, but in the reacting with understanding--Richard Hampleman (79)

These writers all agree that listening, unlike hearing, does require conscious effort.

Auding. Because of the confusion which has resulted from the variety of meanings attributed to the term "listening," Don Brown, John Caffrey, and E. L. Furness have asserted that a term was necessary to designate clearly and precisely the comprehension of orally presented language as distinct from "listening" to other sounds (59). In 1954 Don Brown coined the term "auding" as a substitute for the term "listening" to mean "the
process of hearing, listening to, recognizing, and interpreting the spoken language" (79). He states that the relationship between listening and auding lies in the fact that listening is a factor in reading. Auding is confined to language; listening is not (60:150).

The proponents of the word "auding" insist that it is necessary to differentiate between the two concepts, the signal level of listening and the process of auding, so that "more attention may be given to the development of the learned linguistic skills involved in the act of auding" (60:151). Caffrey feels that if we continue to use the term "listening" to describe those skills more accurately termed "auding," we shall achieve results comparable to those which we might obtain by confusing reading with looking. He states that while "listening" merely means taking in sounds, "auding" means interpretation, infers comprehending spoken language, and making intelligent responses to the sounds (60:151).

Russell and Russell explain the two terms in the following manner:

The many varied activities and purposes for listening in the modern world suggest that words like 'hearing' or even 'listening' are not specific enough to describe accurately all of these modern activities. So we say that children hear generally,
they listen to sounds, but they learn to 'aud' or to 'listen with comprehension and appreciation' (59:151).

The following illustration by Russell and Russell further clarifies:

Children hear the whistle of a train, the chirp of country frogs, or the roar of city traffic. They listen, vaguely and passively or more accurately and actively, to a popular song or a news broadcast. But when they listen to a teacher or parent to follow specific directions, to get facts in a classmate's report on Norway, or to understand two sides of a panel discussion of teen-age driving, they may be said to be "auding" for they are listening with comprehension and interpretation of verbal symbols (60:151).

E. L. Furness also concluded that auding is the best term:

The evidence seems to indicate that the term 'listening,' as it is commonly employed today, is inadequate. The evidence seems to indicate too, that comprehending aurally or 'auding' is the more adequate term; and that 'auding' consists of at least six processes: (a) hearing, (b) listening, (c) recognizing spoken language, (d) interpreting oral symbols, (e) supplementing meaning and knowledge of the symbols, and (f) being aware of facts or assumptions not uttered (59).

Gloria L. Horrworth has formed a paradigm for auding: auding = hearing + listening + cognizing. She defines auding as "a gross process of listening to, recognizing and interpreting spoken symbols. Auding embraces the art of hearing, listening and comprehending"
In spite of these pleas for the use of the more precise term "auding," the suggestions have not been widely accepted or adopted. In this paper the writer will continue to use the more commonly accepted term "listening."
CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The Importance of Listening

Thousands of years ago, Zeno, the Greek philosopher declared the importance of listening by saying, "We have two ears and one mouth that we may listen the more and talk the less" (2:47). Recently Helen MacIntosh said,

Research in human growth and development and in learning reveals that, for most physically and emotionally normal human beings, learning to communicate beyond the stage of crying or random babbling involves learning to listen, to speak, to read, and to write, in the order listed (48:9).

As early as 1926, Paul Rankin conducted a study which demonstrated that individuals spend more time listening than in any other communication skill (14:747). With the extensive development and use of the mass media of oral communication today, listening has become increasingly important. It is our most rapid channel of communication. Radio, television, and movies have become an integral part of our lives. These, coupled with the increasing amount of group discussion, public forum and debate have
made the spoken word "the most powerful medium of communication the world has ever known. This medium may prove to be the most dangerous unless every rising generation is taught how to listen," according to Allen Erickson (20:128).

Lundsteen lists her assumptions and speculations regarding the importance of listening as it relates to the mass media:

1. One of our foremost problems today is the influence of mass media designed to produce conformity rather than individuality. Minds and self-pictures are shaped in the same mold as if by a giant cookie cutter.

2. People react because of how they have unconsciously learned to listen.

3. How people have learned to listen strongly affects how they learn to think and to solve problems. They go to 'war' in homes, schools, nations and in the world; or they go to 'peace'; or they just muddle along indecisively--at least partly because of how they have learned to listen (46:4).

Listening is certainly an important skill in the schoolroom. For the beginning reader, Brown says that listening is the only usable channel. The teacher must depend upon this channel "exclusively in teaching the child to use the reading channel" (2:51). It has significance, however, for every teacher of reading, from the first
grade to graduate school and "is fraught with implications and potentialities which demand careful exploration" (2:48). Turchan states that a student's ability to listen has a direct influence on the learning results achieved and the study habits which are developed during his school experience. The good listener has "a distinct learning advantage over the poor listener" (81). Stressing the frequent use of oral reading by teachers and pupils at all grade levels, Donald Bird states that listening, the counterpart of oral reading deserves serious study and attention by all teachers. "Effective listening is important if oral reading is to become successful communication" (1). Nichols says that listening should be investigated because it is "one of our main avenues of information" (24:60).

The Neglect of Listening

Until recently educators have virtually ignored the entire area of listening. It was not until the second quarter of the twentieth century that they turned their attention at all to listening and not until 1950 that any extensive research and writing on the subject appeared. Speaking in 1949 at a meeting of the Central State Speech Association, James I. Brown stated, perhaps semi-facetiously, that research in listening was 8,400 studies
behind research in reading. He devised his formula by taking the difference in the number of studies done in the two fields and multiplying by three, since time spent in listening appeared to be roughly three times as great as that spent in reading (39).

Although 1881 marked the beginning of reading re-search, it was not until 1917 that the first research in listening appeared. By 1948 three research projects on listening had been published compared with 3,000 studies in the field of reading. Duker's bibliography published in 1961 listed only 725 professional articles and studies which had been published to date. Elementary English published its first articles on listening in February 1946. Not until 1955 did the Review of Educational Research even include a summary of studies on listening and not until 1960 did the Encyclopedia of Educational Research contain listening as a topic (42:602).

Research is now on the increase in this important subject. Most of the findings have been reported in academic theses. As of 1969, more than 165 doctoral and 220 master's theses had been written on the topic (14:748).

A relatively small number of books on listening have been published. Are You Listening? by Nichols and
Stevens, and Listening: Readings by Duker, are perhaps the best known. An article by Zelko in 1957 in Parade is an example of an early attempt to acquaint the public with the importance of listening. Articles on listening are appearing more and more frequently in professional journals and most of the very recent language arts textbooks contain at least a small section on the subject of listening.

Although research has consistently shown that pupils spend more time listening than in any other language arts activity, most elementary schools are still seriously deficient in supplying programs which develop listening skills. Listening is generally the least emphasized of the Language arts skills. In 1949 Miriam Wilt discovered from observations made in eighteen elementary school classes that the students were required to spend a large proportion of the school day in listening activities, much more time indeed than their teachers had estimated. In the first grade, for instance, they spent on an average of eighty-four per cent of the day listening to the teacher. Despite these findings, Miss Wilt discovered that of 1,400 teachers surveyed, sixty-one per cent ranked reading as the language arts skill most important to teach while only sixteen per cent ranked listening in this position (14:747).
Donald Landry feels that this unawareness of the importance of listening is a result of three factors: time, training, and tradition (42:599). Many teachers feel that the already crowded school day does not permit time to add another subject. Authorities such as Hildreth, Cox, Lewis, and Nichols, however, believe in integrating the different phases of language instruction by capitalizing on the interrelationships that do exist among the various language skills. Speech and listening, for instance, could certainly be coordinated.

Most teachers have never received training in the teaching of listening. Stewart Van Wingerden reported in his doctoral dissertation in 1965 that only nine per cent of three hundred intermediate-grade teachers selected at random had taken a college course dealing with listening (82). Ralph E. Kellogg recently, in a research project funded by the U. S. Office of Education, studied first grade reading and language arts methods and surveyed fifty teachers in San Diego judged to be typical of the best elementary teachers across the nation. These teachers included little direct instruction in listening skill development (42:599). What can therefore be said for the so-called average teacher? Would he or she include any direct instruction in listening? Perhaps this might be
further clarified by examining the language arts books in current usage. Few contain more than a cursory discussion of listening. Some exclude the subject completely; some blend it with speaking or oral language. In 1967 K. L. Brown reported that a survey of fifty-four of the leading textbooks in grades three to six showed that less than one per cent of the content was devoted to lessons on listening (46:4).

Tradition is the third factor related to the neglect of listening in the schools. Until recently the listening skill in school has largely been taken for granted. Many have felt that the ability to listen was either inborn or was acquired by osmosis and thus required no formal training. During her observation in eighteen classrooms, Miriam Wilt discovered that the majority of elementary teachers do not consciously teach listening as a fundamental skill of communication. In not one classroom visited was there "any indications that teachers were helping children to become better listeners. While teachers expected children to listen fifty-seven per cent of the classroom time, purposes or standards were never mentioned. Children listened, half-listened or daydreamed through the activities, and the quality of listening was never evaluated. A classroom in which listening is
considered an important factor should show evidence of it in the types of listening activities and through the participation of the children in the listening experience. This evidence was conspicuous by its absence" (88).

In his study, Stewart Van Wingerden concluded that the teachers surveyed were very diverse in their estimates of the amount of time they spent teaching listening and the methods they used. Those who did teach listening tended to use the incidental approach much more than the direct planned approach and there were indications that the estimates of the total hours spent teaching listening were, in some cases, unreasonable (82).
CHAPTER IV

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LISTENING AND READING

Listening Skills As a Factor of Reading Skills

For some time now, researchers, including James Brown mentioned in Chapter III, have asserted that a relationship does exist between listening and reading. Both these skills are concerned with the decoding aspect of the communication process; both are tools of reception. Hildreth concluded that language is a basic factor in reading, that a definite relationship does exist between reading and hearing comprehension, and that there does exist a possible connection between reading difficulties and inferior language (34:538). Turchan states that the initial instruction in reading usually comes through the spoken word of the teacher. At this time, listening by the child is essential (81:217). Thompson says that reading itself is a kind of mental listening (78:261). Lundsteen states that reading may be so completely dependent upon listening as to appear to be a special extension of listening (46:3).
Muriel Crosby emphasizes the relationships between the oral and written forms of language by declaring that until these relationships are clearly understood by the teacher, "until the supportive function existing among listening, speaking, reading and writing skills is understood, it is unlikely that a child will reach his full potential in any one, particularly in reading." She says that greater success in reading achievement may be attained through the recognition of the significance of listening, speaking and writing in the reading process than through "dogged and persistent concentration on reading as an isolated aspect of the language arts" (8).

Listening and reading require the same mental processes. Both are basic means of communication and "use the same pattern of receiving stimulus, identifying that stimulus, and giving meaning to it through integration with past experiences" (45:379). MacIntosh compares listening to reading by stating that both involve the selection of appropriate meanings and the organization of ideas according to their relationships (48:3). Kathleen Hester says that listening is not a specific skill, but rather a cluster of specific abilities which are related to those needed in reading. Both listening and reading involve meaningful
association with oral or written symbols and the interpretation of words in the context of sentence and paragraphs. She lists the following similar behaviors found in reading and listening:

- discrimination of words in respect to their similarities and differences; vocabulary and concepts; concentration of the task at hand; experience with language purposes; anticipation of meaning; mental reorganization of the ideas gained; noting details; following directions; detection of clues that show the speaker's or the reader's trend of thought; inferences made; thinking with words; and enjoyment experienced.

Both listening and reading involve meaningful association with oral or written symbols and the interpretation of words in the context of sentence and paragraphs (32:262). In addition to these similarities, Shane mentions the interpretation and reflection upon the processes from which new ideas emerge.

In a comparison of reading and listening skills, Turchan states that understanding in both is dependent on the same experience background of the child. The teacher must consider his experiential background to determine his readiness for both reading and listening. In both skills, the student must think. He reacts to a stimulus which arouses or challenges this thinking. A third similarity
between the two skills is that both have an intrinsic developmental sequence (81:217).

Thompson quotes Cooper as follows: "...if one can learn to improve in comprehension of the materials he listens to or to materials read to him from a book, one should be able to understand similar materials by reading to himself. If he learns to be more attentive when listening to oral expressions, the same skill should transfer to the art of reading to himself" (78).

Clyde Dow says that transfer of training is likely to occur if two skills are similar. Since reading and listening are similar in many aspects, much of the same information may be applied to these two receptive skills. He lists the common factors which are aspects of both reading comprehension and listening comprehension:

1. **Problem of meaning.** In both reading and listening we are concerned with arousing thought... In both cases the activity of the central nervous system is to use these symbols to stir up meaning on the basis of our past experience. In both cases we are acting as 'receivers' to the stimulation of someone else's pre-arranged symbols. This 'commonality' of receiving and arousing thought--with all the possible difficulties that such reception is heir to--is one of the strongest reasons for considering information about reading and listening together.
2. **Motivation, concentration, set.** Both listening and reading demand that the receiver motivate himself to receive the ideas and to concentrate on the ideas by excluding all distractions.

3. **Organization.** A discussion of organizational patterns and the closely related aspect of transitional words, phrases, and sentences can make a significant contribution to enabling students to become better readers and listeners.

4. **Purposes in reading.** At times one reads or listens for complete details, sometimes only for a single detail.

5. **Retention and recall.** The basis of all reading and listening comprehension is a certain amount of memory. Remembering is fundamental to both reading and listening.

6. **Vocabulary.** Understanding individual words, phrases, and sentences is the basis of comprehension in both reading and listening.

7. **Tone and intent.** Both in reading and listening, if students are to comprehend adequately, they need to have some understanding of the facetious twist, the wry intonation, and the tongue-in-cheek type of remark.

8. **Note making.** Used to recall what we have heard or read when the original source is no longer available to us (13:118-122).

Cantrell and Caauwe discuss at length the interrelationship between reading and listening at various phases in the child's schooling. During the readiness
period, he is continually seeing places in school and hearing name-words attached to them. In the classroom he also sees objects and hears words used to identify them. He listens to follow directions, listens so that he may learn to appreciate, enjoy and gain further knowledge through talking and participating in activities. While he listens to the spoken words and sees the printed words, he develops the ability "to think, reflect, identify and formulate a response to a given stimulus even though there has been little emphasis put on the actual reading of words." These basic skills, which are developed through the primary grades, are the skills and abilities which interrelate listening with reading (5).

In grades one to three the children develop an interest in reading by listening to stories read and by creating experience stories. At this level the teacher's enunciation and pronunciation may have an important effect on the child's ability to hear the exact sounds of words he will later read. As the child is beginning to read, he must depend upon listening as a transition medium (5:58).

The child's skill in word recognition is dependent upon his ability to listen and associate sound and meaning with the printed symbol. In most basal readers, as the
child acquires a basic sight vocabulary, he must learn to listen to interpret what he has read. Listening and reading are continuously interrelated in developing this sight vocabulary in his basal readers, experience charts, word games, workbooks, etc. He listens to familiar words and may be asked to give more than one meaning; he may be asked to use descriptive words, to hear beginning and ending sounds of words, rhyming words, etc. When phonics and structural analysis are introduced, listening is of prime importance in being able to relate what he hears to what he sees (5:59).

Lundsteen quotes work by Edfeldt to indicate that the initial process of learning to read may include superimposing the symbol read upon the auditory one. Apparently no one reads totally by vision (46:10). She suggests that with respect to reading and listening, children should translate the printed, left-to-right spatial relation into the first-to-last temporal relation of spoken sounds. "Once the child has adequate reading skill, the two receptive processes (reading and listening) should be mutually supportive, development in one enhancing development in the other" (46:10).
Evaluation of Listening Skills As a Measure of Reading Potential

The results of several studies have indicated that listening can be useful in predicting reading potential. Several years ago Iver Moe conducted such a study on the first, second, and third-grade levels. On the first-grade level, he sought to determine the significance of auding ability as a predictive measure of reading performance compared with mental age, non-verbal intelligence mental age, verbal-intelligence mental age and with scores from two different reading readiness tests. His findings demonstrated that a single measure of auding ability predicted reading performance five months later as well as or better than either of two reading readiness tests or an intelligence test. Thus auding measures were found to be specially useful in the first grade as predictors of reading performance. With the second and third grades, he found that a measure of auding ability was a useful predictor of reading performance when compared with measures of mental age, verbal and non-verbal intelligence (55).

Gates found that the ability to listen to a story and to supply a reasonable ending was the best single predictor of success in learning to read (74:63).
William E. Young in 1936 asserted that children who do poorly in listening also do poorly in reading (74:63). Lundsteen says that the ability to listen seems to set limits on the ability to read (46:3). Spache has made a similar declaration (36). Edna Furness feels that when the listening ability of a child is greater than his reading ability, this may indicate that he has greater potential for reading than was suspected (25). This predictive value of listening was assumed in the conclusion of Berg that "if a student is able to comprehend well above his present reading level, there is a good reason to suspect that he can be taught to read up to his level of auditory comprehension" (69).

Chall, Durrell, and Durkin have presented evidence that suggests that ability to discriminate sounds or parts of words is even more associated with first-grade reading success than I.Q. scores. Research reviewed by Borbeck and Wilson, Russell and Fea, implies that a positive relationship exists between auditory discrimination of patterns and early reading achievement (46:14). Toussaint in 1961 conducted a testing program to determine which factors would best estimate reading potential. She found that a combination of listening, arithmetic and I.Q. test results gave the best estimate (16).
James Brown reported on data collected at the University of Minnesota for 307 incoming freshmen who had all taken reading and listening tests upon entrance. When retested at the end of the first quarter, the 129 whose listening percentiles had been higher than the reading percentiles improved over 12.0 raw score points in reading. The 178 with listening percentiles the same or lower than the reading percentiles averaged only 3.7 raw score points. "Judging from these figures, listening test scores do tend to reflect undeveloped reading potential." Comparing students whose difference in listening and reading scores were great with those whose difference was slight, Brown noted that generally results showed that the greater the difference, the greater the potential or improvement. Those with the least difference averaged only 7.8 raw score points improvement, compared with 22.5 raw score points for those with the greatest difference. The converse also appeared to be true. In sixty-three case studies, forty-one with higher reading potentials than listening potentials made an average gain of 6.4 raw score points in listening; twenty-two with higher listening percentiles gained only 4.5 raw score points. "Apparently, each tends to uncover potential in the other area, whether it be reading or listening" (2:50).
The Effects of Teaching Listening on Reading Skills

The preceding research reports have indicated that listening skills can be utilized as a measure of reading potential. Another very significant relationship exists between listening and reading: the effects of teaching listening on the development of reading skills. Again, much favorable research has been reported in this area. One such study, conducted by Maurice Lewis in 1951, then principal of Oak Park School in Des Moines, Iowa, was a result of recommendations by Paul McKee that training in listening would help pupils in the intermediate grades learn to read for various purposes. Using 357 intermediate-grade pupils in the experiment, Lewis attempted to determine the effect of training in listening (1) "to get the general significance of a passage," (2) "to note the details presented on a topic by a passage," and (3) "to predict the outcomes from a passage," upon the ability of intermediate-grade pupils to read for those same purposes (44:115).

For six weeks the experimental groups received training in listening for the three purposes in addition to their regular reading instruction. The control group
received no training in listening and neither group re-
ceived instruction in reading for the three purposes.
Thirty lessons of approximately fifteen minutes duration
were given to the experimental group. Each lesson in-
cluded one listening exercise for each of the three pur-
poses.

Form A, Nelson Silent Reading Test had been used
as a pretest and Form B of the same test was given upon
completion of the program of teaching listening. With the
findings significantly in favor of the experimental groups,
Lewis concluded:

1. Training in listening (1) 'to get the
general significance of a passage,'
(2) 'to note the details presented on
a topic by a passage,' and (3) 'to pre-
dict the outcomes from a passage,'
seems to have a small but statistically
significant effect upon the ability of
intermediate grade pupils to read for
those purposes.

2. The training in listening seems to affect
reading for each of the three purposes
about the same amount (44:117).

Results of Form C of the test given four weeks
later showed no significant difference between the groups.
Lewis states that this may be a result of the fact that
the children were given no opportunity to practice the
skill during the four-week period between the final test
and the delayed-recall test. Another possibility, he
hypothesizes, is that the skill was not "over-learned.""It is not probable that the ability to read effectively for certain purposes can be gained in six weeks. Three or four years are normally devoted to such skills in the elementary school" (44:118).

David Russell reports on similar research performed by Ursula Hogan and L. E. Pratt in which favorable results were achieved by the experimental groups (66). Hogan used 189 subjects from eight classes as experimental and control groups. During a six-week period, the experimental group listened to readings, radio programs, motion pictures, individual and group reports. They discussed standards for listening and worked at differentiating between fact and opinion in radio advertising. Children were pretested and post-tested twice on materials from a radio transcription. Superior gains were reported for the experimental group taught one lesson a week for five weeks followed by practical applications of this skill sometime later in the week. Results were favorable for the experimental group.

Hollingsworth discusses studies by Lubershane, Marsden, and Kelty which also report favorable results by the experimental groups (36:122-124). Lubershane had seventy-two fifth graders divided into a control group
which received no listening exercises and an experimental group which was given auditory training exercises designed to improve written responses to oral commands. The Metropolitan Reading Test was administered before and after training. There was generally greater growth in reading ability in the experimental group which "suggested strongly that the auditory exercises had a positive effect on reading growth" (36:123). In Marsden's study, listening lessons were presented to fifth and sixth-grade pupils. These lessons consisted of several short stories which were read by the teacher. Marsden concluded that the skills of reading a selection to note its main idea, to draw conclusions, and to note details were improved when opportunity to practice listening for these three purposes was given (36:122). Kelty conducted a similar project with 188 fourth-grade pupils to determine the effect that training in listening for the following purposes had upon reading for the same purposes: (1) deciding upon the main idea of a selection; (2) deciding upon the supporting details given in a selection; and (3) drawing a conclusion. While the control group received no instruction in listening, the experimental group was given thirty fifteen-minute lessons in listening over a period of thirty days. Kelty concluded that practice in listening for certain
purposes favorably affects the ability of fourth-grade pupils to read for those same purposes (36:123).

Special training in listening can result in improved reading skills at the college level also. Edwin S. Hill in his doctoral dissertation reported on a group of college freshmen enrolled in reading improvement classes who received special training in listening. Among his findings, Hill stated that training in listening comprehension improves reading skills. Those students who received special training in listening comprehension continued to maintain their more developed skill also (35).

Unlike the previous studies mentioned, one reported by Harriet Ramsey Reeves in her doctoral dissertation concluded that the kind of listening training used in the study did not favorably affect the retention of listening and reading achievement. Twenty fourth-grade classrooms were divided into control and experimental groups with the experimental groups receiving thirty tape recorded listening lessons of fifteen minutes duration. These lessons consisted of four short selections followed by questions about the main ideas and details. Reeves did admit that "perhaps no training in listening is better than the training of the type described herein" (63).
Correlation Between Reading and Listening Test Results

Lundsteen describes the science of measuring listening in the following terms: "relatively scarce, reasonably reliable, but often confused; lacking in imagination, but becoming more widespread, with a greater range; and attracting increasing interest" (46:81).

The Buros' Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook published in 1959 lists eighty-four different reading tests available for measurement (2:47). By contrast to this number, there are relatively few tests available for measurement of listening. Harcourt published the Durrell-Sullivan Reading Capacity Test in 1937, the first published tests designed to measure listening in the elementary school. In the mid 1950's the Brown-Carlsen Listening Comprehension Test was developed for secondary school and college. A few years later the Sequential Tests of Educational Progress, commonly referred to as STEP, were devised. These tests, on four levels, are recommended for use in grades four through fourteen and include one on listening. The STEP Listening Test measures comprehension, interpretation, evaluation, and application.

Two tests for assessing abilities important to
listening are the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (ITPA) and the Wepman Auditory Discrimination Test. ITPA is intended for individual use with children between the ages of two-and-one-half and nine and has four subtests relevant to listening. The Wepman Auditory Discrimination Test for ages five to nine assesses the ability to discriminate changes in frequency, intensity, or pattern of auditory stimuli (46:68).

In 1967 the Educational Testing Service added listening tests in the Cooperative Primary Tests, one form for grades one and two, and one for grades two and three. This test includes identifying illustrative or associated instances, recalling elements, interpreting the ideas presented and drawing inferences. The Durrell Listening-Reading Series, a group test provides a comparison of children's reading and listening abilities. As revised in 1969, the test determined to assess vocabulary and sentence comprehension at three levels, roughly grades 1-3.5, 3.5-6, and 7-9. The series is reported to measure the degree of retardation in reading as compared to listening (46:69).

Lundsteen lists nine uses of a standardized listening test:
1. To assess the range and distribution of listening ability in a particular group so that difficulty of oral material can be adjusted.

2. To assess and predict the listening ability of individual children (in a rough way) with respect to language features.

3. To direct placement, instruction and improvement of instruction.

4. To see if the child has learned what he is being taught or needs more of various kinds of instruction.

5. To measure the improvement of listening skill over a period of time.

6. To estimate reading potential.

7. To give children feedback on the results of their efforts and to give evidence for advising next steps.

8. To test assumptions, proposals, and models about listening.

9. To compare reading and listening skills in order to make the most of the best mode of reception (46:67).

Several authorities in the field of listening have asserted that a correlation does exist between reading and listening test results. In studies conducted by Charles Brown in 1965, listening and reading scores were highly correlated. In addition, listening was more closely related than reading to scholastic achievement (60:153). Hollingsworth stated that a listening test is as effective
a predictor of success in reading as a standardized reading test (36).

Iver Moe determined that, in a study of first-grade children, the measure of auding ability correlated positively with scores on standardized reading tests and were particularly useful as predictors of reading performance (55). Cleland and Toussaint found that the STEP Listening Test showed the closest relationship with reading of the selected listening tests they investigated (36:121). Wilkinson reports on studies by Caffrey, Hollow, and Pratt, in which there is a high correlation between reading comprehension tests and listening comprehension tests in the primary school (84).

Although some researchers have been favorably impressed with these listening tests, many others have been highly critical. Carroll says that it is difficult in testing to rule out extraneous cues which will help the individual to respond in a certain desired way, which will hinder him, or introduce an overload of artificiality (46:64). As an example of this, it is likely that some of the "best" listeners under testing conditions may have high mental ability and yet are normally under nontest circumstances relatively inattentive; some others simply
do poorly in any test environment (46:65). Smith found that cultural bias operates in listening tests much as it does in reading tests (46:65).

Lindquist has criticized both the Brown and Carlsen test and the **STEP** test stating that there is no convincing proof that either one measures anything different from a silent reading test (84:142). They use **written** material which is spoken. Wilkinson points out that a listening test should be based on spoken language. "It (the Brown-Carlsen taxonomy) reads oddly like the old instructions for making a precis for examination purposes, ...large aspects of the ways language operate in the spoken mode (by phonology for instance) are excluded. Further, by concentrating on particular features of the material in order to include certain types of test items, there is a danger of producing English which has no existence outside the test situation" (84:143).

Another criticism leveled by Wilkinson is that the reliability of the Brown-Carlsen and other similar tests varies. Since they are intended to be read aloud, a good or poor reader giving the test can make a significant difference in the scores the test takers obtain. A solution to this problem would be to tape-record all listening tests (84:143).
Jackson, in his review of the **STEP Listening Test** in the *Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook*, states: "One suspects that a certain number of items could be answered by choosing the most sensible sounding response or by relying on previously obtained information, without reference to the passage at all. It might be an interesting experiment to see whether a group of students could obtain a better-than-chance score by marking the items without hearing the passages read" (86:442). William Charles Wilson conducted an experiment in his doctoral dissertation to determine how well sixth-grade pupils could do on the test without hearing the paragraphs read. The test was administered to two heterogeneously grouped sixth-grade classes in Placer County, California, designated by teachers and administrators as being average classes.

When the test was given, the material necessary for answering the test questions was not read. Children were told that it was to be a guessing test in which they were to make the best guesses they could. Questions and suggested answers were ready by the examiner; children had the test booklets which contained suggested answers but not the questions. The results of the experiment indicated that all children in Class A made better-than-chance scores
on the test; in Class B, only one child scored below the chance score. He, incidentally, was being considered for transfer to a class of mentally retarded. Many of the answers were guessed correctly by all or nearly all of both classes (86:443).

David Russell suggests the use of unpublished theses and dissertations as the best sources of tests of listening skills. He mentions studies by Caffrey, Devine, Hogan, Lundsteen, and Pratt. "Obviously these scattered examples should be brought together in relation to a theory of listening" (66:176).

Wilkinson discusses a listening comprehension test designed at the University of Birmingham in England which attempted to avoid the defects of previous tests. "It took as the basis of its material the spoken language—for instance, spontaneous recorded conversation made up one test; and included linguistic concepts such as register and style" (84:143). The test material and questions were recorded on tape, and subjects had multiple choice answers on sheets before them.

Comparison of Listening-Reading to Reading Alone

Some research has been conducted on the use of simultaneous listening-reading as opposed to the use of
either listening alone or reading alone.

Bill Martin, Jr. utilizes the listening-reading procedure as an integral part of his Sound of Language series and James Moffett highly endorses this method. The following section will discuss: Bill Martin's approach in detail.

In a study conducted by Stromer to examine some of the relationships between reading, listening, and intelligence, data collected seemed to indicate that the reading-listening method of training tends to increase the reading rate of the subjects (36:122).

Ronnie Phillip Edwards, in his doctoral dissertation, did a comparison between the administration of the standardized Iowa Tests of Basic Skills and the administration of the same test using simultaneous listening-reading for fourth and sixth graders. He used the tests to measure vocabulary, reading comprehension, language usage, map reading, arithmetic concepts and arithmetic problem solving. For the listening-reading administration, the children scored significantly higher on vocabulary, reading and language usage. On the vocabulary section, the poorer readers scored significantly higher on the taped session relative to their performance on the regular administration than did the better readers. Thus, for retarded readers,
rankings in areas other than reading skills would change if given the opportunity to demonstrate their proficiency on tests not requiring reading (19).

Richard Bruland found in a study of fifth-grade classes that on a simultaneous listening and reading presentation, students achieved significantly higher comprehension scores on daily and unit tests than on the listening only presentation (3).

**The Bill Martin Series Exemplifies the Listening-Reading Approach**

Bill Martin, Jr., a strong advocate of the listening-reading approach, introduced his *Sounds of Language* Readers in 1966, which he describes as a total linguistic experience from which children can analyze language, later verbalize their understanding of how it works and organize and extend their comprehension of what is read. The teachers' editions contain page by page annotations, located on the exact spot where needed, color coded to differentiate between information to help introduce and present literary content and key-skill building activities which grow out of literary content. The annotations, he says, "are a substitute for our sitting down together to discuss ways that we can help children learn to use and to
love the language" (51). These annotations contain questions and suggestions to help the teacher feel at ease using the books.

A complete description of the learning philosophy for the series is presented at the back of every teacher's edition. Of prime importance in this philosophy is the part that listening plays. As Bill Martin says, "Listening is just another form of reading, insofar as both reading and listening are acts of getting meaning from symbols" (51:17).

Maurice Lewis, noting the similarities between listening and reading, says that the only difference between the process of listening and the process of reading is that "in one case the words in the selection are recognized by means of visual stimuli coming through the eye" (44:115). Harriet Reeves in her doctoral dissertation says that, since reading and listening are both receptive language skills and since they both deal with common word symbols, we can assume that there is a relationship between them (63). Relationships between reading and listening have also been reported by numerous other experts in the field already mentioned in this paper.

The six aspects of listening that influence reading development, according to Bill Martin are:
1. Listening for esthetic pleasure.
2. Listening to intake knowledge.
3. Listening to enjoy the intrigue of sounds such as the sounds of music and the sounds of voices.
4. Listening to claim membership in a conversational group.
5. Listening to understand directions and instructions that orient immediate behavior.
6. Listening to the inner voice of experience by which one evaluates thoughts and feelings.

In the Sounds of Language program, "which places priority on the oral aspects of language," listening is a major reading skill (51:19). This fact has been expressed by many including Gertrude Hildreth, who implies that the development of listening in school will have an important effect on competency in reading (10:95).

Bill Martin hopes to develop a reader who constantly hears what he sees on the printed page as he reads and "who knows how to listen to his inner voice telling him what the whole reading encounter means. In reading a story, a good reader relies on the ear of memory to recreate the sentence sounds in which the story exists. Even more basic to the reading-listening skill is the ability
of a young child to 'hear his storybook talking to him' and to know thereby the pleasure of listening while reading."

A child can read whole units of meaning once he hears the sounds in his ears. "He simply is translating his speaking-listening experience into a reading-listening experience. Successful reading, therefore, is a two-way process involving the author-speaker and the reader-listener" (51).

Kathleen Hester states that a major reason for the choppy word-by-word reading in the primary grades results from the failure of the child to obtain a listening concept resulting in his inability to think how the words would sound if the writer were talking (32:52).

One of the listening activities common to the typical primary classroom occurs in the reading circle. Commenting on this type of reading, Virginia Goldsmith says that the method "tends to have a negative effect on the children who need oral language success most. It turns poor readers off, tunes them out, makes them suspicious of the printed word" (26:35). Miriam Wilt deplores this type of reading also, suggesting that oral reading consist of materials that are fresh, interesting and meaningful to the children so that they are encouraged to develop critical and intelligent habits of listening (88).
The oral aspect of Bill Martin's program is certainly unlike that of the typical program in operation in many public schools. In his approach, he directs the teacher to read the passage to the children, sometimes more than one time, while the children follow the words in the book. When they become familiar with the sentence sound, they join in with the teacher, thus acquiring the ability to read with their ears as well as with their eyes. They also develop the meaning of the sentence by imitating the inflections in the teacher's voice. James Moffett endorses this method of having the children listen to the texts as they follow the words visually. He says that the child sees and hears words simultaneously "and has the opportunity also to associate intonational contours with sentence endings." He says that he cannot explain why this method of teaching reading has not been experimented with more widely (56:91). Ruth Strickland says that by listening to the teacher telling or reading a story, children learn to "give concentrated attention to weaving together sequences of meaning and building moving panorama of mental pictures (76).

For certain starred poems, Bill Martin suggests that the teacher read these selections aloud to the children several times before they meet them in print.
They will then approach them as poems and not as a collection of words, because they will be able to read them with the language sounds ringing in their ears. With the sounds clearly in the ear, the child will have little difficulty reading the familiar rhyme in its printed form. "Once his ears begin telling him what his eyes are seeing, he approaches the reading with confidence and expectation" (51:5).

When the children have acquired the facility of grasping the mood and sense of poetry rather easily, they will then begin to pick up unfamiliar poems and read them for themselves. Ruth Strickland has also suggested this method of reading poetry. She says that primary children cannot read poems until they have first listened to them. Merely recognizing words will not impart to them the meaning. They cannot discern the rhythm and pattern of the poetry by reading the words for themselves. After a child has heard the teacher read a poem several times, he will pick up a book and read it for himself. This will finally encourage him to read new poems for himself (76).

The entire Sounds of Language program focuses on the reading of complete sentences rather than individual words. This skill will come naturally to children, according to Bill Martin, once they are familiar with the
sentence sounds and have learned to reproduce these sounds on the tongue. By having the children join in with the teacher in the oral reading of a selection and by inviting the children to devise their own stories about the illustrations in the book, the teacher will be helping the children to read in the same manner in which they learned to speak.

Words are not pretaught. But then, as Martin indicates, no one pretaught children isolated words when they began to talk. "They intook clusters of words bound together by strong sentence sounds. Later they learned to isolate those words and regroup them in new sentence patterns" (51:5). So similarly with reading, a child can take apart a sentence to focus on and analyze individual words once he hears the sound of the sentence in his ears. Children will learn their vocabulary in this reading program through the following philosophy:

1. **Vocabulary is learned in the context of memorable sentence sounds.** Once the child hears a poem a few times, he will say it with the teacher and, because of the uniqueness of the material used, will have become exposed to an interesting, stimulating vocabulary absent from the average basal reader. He may then latch on to a particular word or to particular words which delight him.
These words, Bill Martin says, will become irretrievably his.

2. **Learning vocabulary in the context of story and sentence structure.** When a particular pattern is followed in a story or poem, children sense the pattern and begin to predict what the next episode or sentence will be like. For instance, the story, "The House That Jack Built" has certain repetitive structural patterns running throughout. Thus Bill Martin incorporates much of this type of dependably structured language into the program to help children learn new vocabulary and to develop skill in using structure to decipher unknown words. In addition to the use of repeated structure patterns to unlock words, pictures and language clues will also help. Since ours is a word-order language, children are already accustomed to using structure in conjunction with their spoken language. It is only when a reading program helps children relate the structure of spoken language to the structure of printed language that children can attain linguistic wholeness. Thus, oral reading by the teacher of materials the children will later read for themselves attunes children's ears "to the sentence sounds in which linguistic structure becomes tenable" (51:29).
3. **Learning vocabulary by identifying the printed form of a word.** After hearing much of the materials read aloud, particularly in the early stages of the reading program, the children hear the sounds of the language in their ears. When they encounter the printed form of the language, they are able to make the one-to-one correspondence between the sound and sight of sentences, individual words and even detect the relationship of sound and sight of parts of words.

4. **Learning vocabulary by analyzing the printed symbol of a word.** Once a child recognizes the printed form of a word, he is helped to analyze various characteristics of the word such as the number of syllables, the comparison of the word to other familiar words, etc. The type of analysis might depend upon the needs and wishes of the child, rather than the predetermined instructions of a publisher. After the analysis, the child might again return to the original context in which the word was found and re-read it.

5. **Learning vocabulary by using known words in new contexts.** The teacher writes down on separate cards words for each child which have particular significance for him. These become his to manipulate and categorize in endless number of ways. Since writing is one of the
emphases of the program, the child is encouraged to use these words in his writing. They are important to him because they are his and he is anxious to learn and use them. This idea is reminiscent of the teaching method used by Sylvia Ashton-Warner in teaching the Maori children to read. Their own vocabulary words provided the basis for their own individualized reading books. Not uncommon in their stories were the words "jail," "drunk," and "beer" (83).

Reading objectives have been variously stated by different people at different times. The National Committee on Reading in 1925 listed its general objectives of reading instruction which still hold true today, nearly half a century later: rich and varied experiences through reading; strong motives for and a permanent interest in reading; and desirable attitudes and economical and effective habits and skills (24:87). The first objective refers to reading as an approach to thinking clearly, working effectively and to problem-solving. Bill Martin's method accomplishes this objective. He suggests that by means of skillful post-reading discussion and questions he will encourage the children to do critical thinking and not merely to give factual answers to uninspiring questions. Suggestions for these open-ended questions are
given in the annotations.

The second aim refers to interest and motivation. Again the Sounds series meets this objective. Martin has drawn from a fascinating collection of poems, stories and articles for his books. Commenting on the kinds of selections included, Bill Martin writes: "Good writers seem to have a knack for stringing their thoughts on memorable sentence sounds. Their writing, therefore, tends to be meaningful to a wide audience of readers. We have attempted to select that kind of writing to launch children into the sophistications of reading. Reliance on memorable sentence sounds makes it possible, right from the start, to include stories, poems, and articles using a wide and exciting range of sentence patterns and vocabulary" (51:13). The delightful artwork which accompanies the selections cannot help but capture the hearts of the young readers.

Even the print has been varied to capture the child's imagination. Reading from one story to the next, the individual notices that not only does the size of the print change, but that it is placed on the page in different patterns, in the pattern of spoken language. "Type, expertly used, can assure a reader that he has something interesting in store for him and that the printed
language correlates in a reasonable way with spoken language" (51:17). Since the individual books are not based on graded vocabulary, another motivation for the child is the fact that he can begin by reading any story in the book, guided by his own interest rather than by the location of the story in the book.

The third aim of the National Committee on Reading is two-fold: the development of desirable attitudes towards reading and the development of skills. "The child who dislikes the reading period, who fails to enjoy reading, and who does not find reading helpful in learning will not develop desirable attitudes toward it" (24:88). Bill Martin concurs. He says that "the first purpose of beginning reading instruction must be to fulfill children's expectancy that reading is a worthwhile experience" (49). By developing an "ear" for language, the child will begin to understand that reading is a "visual-aural experience, richly rewarding, and that he can expect similar experiences whenever he turns to other books" (50). A positive attitude towards reading is certainly very much predicated on a child's success with his first reading experiences. Bill Martin lists the four factors which help to bring this about in relation to his system of teaching reading:


1. Having heard the poem several times, the children can anticipate its structure and its rhyming scheme.

2. The pictures in the book are strong visual clues to help trigger the sounds that are now anchored in the children's ears.

3. Reading in unison creates an oral climate of assurance for any child who might falter.

4. The brevity of the book and the children's self-evident success in dealing with it prompts them to read it over and over.

The development of skills using phonics, structural analysis, pictures and context, as suggested by the Committee on Reading, is built into every page of every story and poem in the series. The Committee also suggests that a child should "learn to read meaning into symbols on the page. He should become proficient in reading sentences and groups of sentences; he should learn how to comprehend ideas that are expressed and also those which are implied—that become evident 'between the lines.' He should learn to interpret figurative language" (24:87). These ideas sound as though they might have come from Bill Martin himself. They are all very much a part of his suggested
The Sounds of Language Readers were enthusiastically received by a reviewer for the Reading Teacher. Terming the series "A New Approach," he concluded his review: "Hopefully it (the series) will receive the careful and objective testing that it merits" (22:177). Bernice Christenson, Instructional Specialist in English and Reading for the Los Angeles City Schools says that the books are motivation for reading. "They are great for language learning, usage and awareness, a good listening experience."
CHAPTER V

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ON THE TEACHING OF LISTENING IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

In Chapter IV of this paper, the author has quoted from extensive research to designate the relationship between listening and reading. If it is true that a positive relationship does exist between the two skills, then does it not follow that listening skills should be taught in the elementary school much as reading now is? Miriam Wilt thinks that it should. "A world citizenry that listens nearly half of its waking hours needs teachers who think skill in listening is important, more important perhaps, than anything else they teach" (88).

Donald Landry says that now we know that this skill must be taught "in order to function as effectively (as spelling) as a tool of communication in our schools" (42:603). James Brown says, "Emphasis on both listening and reading should help the child to the fullest possible extent, producing a mature individual who listens accurately and reads with full understanding" (2:59).
Anderson suggests that listening instruction should be as systematic as that offered in teaching developmental reading and Fitzgerald concurs. "An instructional program in listening should be planned just as carefully and carried out just as enthusiastically as programs in speaking and writing" (24:67). "Children no doubt have a potentiality for listening as they do for reading, but training is necessary to develop the power. It is a mistaken idea that one grows into listening through incidental learning. On the contrary, it may be truthfully said that people have built up a resistance to listening because of the circumstances of their environment. Therefore they should be taught the purposes, values and procedures of profitable listening" (24:61).

Both Muriel Crosby and Donald Bird feel that the school should teach listening at all levels in accord with the growth and development of the child (8:25; 1:110). Marion Monroe Cox says that we should give listening a place in the elementary curriculum on a par with reading. A separate period should be set aside for the systematic development of this skill and teachers should be as well trained to teach listening as they are to teach reading (7:216).
MacIntosh states that children should grow in their ability to listen for new information and to gain insights and appreciations, with particular attention to specific data and their sources. They should be guided through skills so that they will reach the point where they can listen with critical evaluation to judge the relative importance of ideas (48:12).

Comparing the abilities needed in listening to those used in reading, Thompson says that without trained listening, it has been estimated that about only twenty-five per cent of the material could be recalled. He further states that one justification for teaching listening is that "emotional response and changes of attitudes are greater as a result of listening than of reading."

This is evident in the home and also in the medical field where listening does more in changing attitudes than the act of reading (78:262). C. E. Irvin declared that training in listening "is no longer a novel or interesting idea but is rather an increasingly acceptable, necessary, and beneficial member of the communication skills curriculum" (20:128).

Wiksell (36), Caauwe and Cantrell (5:56) mention that listening demands a great deal more than reading.

The reader proceeds at his own rate, adapting his rate to
the difficulty or nature of the reading material, stopping to evaluate ideas, organize his thoughts or reread the material. The listener, however, must follow the speaker no matter what the speaking rate may be and there is little time for reflection. Since he usually has no opportunity to re-listen to what has been said, there is more of a finality.

Another justification for teaching listening is the view that listening comprehension of young pupils is superior to reading comprehension. Turchan says that listening is the major avenue for learning through the primary grades. Listening comprehension is superior to reading comprehension in this period and the young child retains what he learns through listening longer than what he learns by reading. Children with limited listening vocabulary usually have difficulty in reading (81:217). Hambleman (79:157), Dechant (10:96), and Shane (71:121) feel that listening comprehension is superior to reading comprehension for children through the intermediate grades.

Several researchers have reported that listening is more effective than reading as a means of instruction for below-average students. James Brown says that this is true for the average student as well (2). In his doctoral dissertation, James E. Swalon concluded that when the
reading ability of the students in his study was below the difficulty of the article they were using, they comprehended better through listening than through reading (77). Lynette Saine states that often the non-readers and the stumbling upper-elementary grade readers who have comprehension potentials far above their reading levels, "cannot apply higher-level reading skills to printed materials, but they are capable of this type of mental activity apart from the printed page. At this point listening may perform a kind of supportive and complementary role in maintaining and protecting these possibilities in higher-level skills of communication" (69). Hildreth declares that "for some children, especially for children in the lower grades, for children who are slow learners, and for children who are poor readers, it (listening) is the most important means for achievement" (10:95).

In 1957 the Central New York School Study Council concluded that if we did more direct teaching of listening, we could improve the quality of learning (72:65). The National Council of Teachers of English says that listening should be taught because it is the most used of the language arts, is often poorly done and evidence exists to demonstrate that listening may be improved through training (41:114).
Research over the past twenty years has indicated that instruction in listening improves listening abilities. One such study was reported by Annabel Elizabeth Fawcett in her doctoral dissertation in 1963. She created and administered listening lessons for fourteen weeks to all the pupils in grades four, five and six of four elementary schools in Western Pennsylvania. Using the STEP Listening Test, she compared the pre- and post-test scores of this group with those of a control group which received no instruction in listening. She concluded that listening could be improved through instruction and that those students who received listening instruction evidenced significant improvement; those students who did not receive such instruction did not show improvement (21).

In the same year, Sara Lundsteen disclosed the results of her study using carefully prepared lessons in critical listening over a period of nine weeks to approximately 140 fifth and sixth-grade pupils from Dallas, Texas. She found significantly superior gains by the experimental group as compared to the control group which received no instruction. She concluded that "the content, the concepts, the processes, and the abilities in critical listening are amenable to empirical analysis and can be improved by practice" (66). In 1965 she did a follow-up
of her previous study to determine the degree of permanence of learnings and the amount of transfer to in-school and out-of-school learnings. The following year she administered the test used in her previous study to students from the original experimental and control groups. She requested that the students from the experimental group write anonymously of the ways in which they had used the critical listening lessons during the year. She found that this group of students continued to score higher on the test than did those in the control group and that students in this group reported instances of transfer of learnings (11).

To determine whether a systematic program of teaching children to listen was beneficial, Hollow matched one hundred intermediate pupils in an experimental group with one hundred in a control group on the basis of listening ability, I.Q., and chronological age. The experimental group was given lessons of twenty minutes duration to develop basic listening abilities such as the ability to summarize, grasp main ideas, recall ideas accurately in sequence, and to make inferences. The lessons included preparatory, presentation and post-listening periods and were given for six weeks. Time was permitted for practice as well as instruction. The control group continued in
the regular language arts program. Results indicated that
the children taught listening improved significantly more
than those who received no instruction. Pupils of low,
medium and high I.Q.'s benefited quite comparably from the
listening instruction. "The main implication was that
since listening is so important in life, and so undeveloped
in elementary school youngsters, it should be carefully
taught--not in isolation--but in integration with the whole
program of elementary education" (24:71).

G. Robert Canfield reported on a six-week program
of listening improvement with three groups of fifth-grade
pupils using two groups as experimental and one as control.
The purpose of the study was to determine whether direct
listening instruction was superior to indirect teaching of
listening. Children in both experimental groups listened
to determine main ideas, to distinguish between main ideas
and details, to differentiate between relevant and irrele-
vant statements, to listen for opinions and to search for
transitions. The control group received no specific in-
struction in listening improvement. The findings indicated
that there was no significant difference between gains of
pupils taught by direct or indirect methods. Both experi-
mental groups, however, made gains significantly greater
than the control group (6:145).
Sister Mary Ethel conducted a six-month program for teaching eight basic skills of listening to first-grade children. The lessons, ten to fifteen minutes in length, were in the form of games. The children listened carefully to a definite set of directions and then to a story, riddle or poem. The teacher emphasized the following eight skills: grasping main ideas in a paragraph; following sequence of ideas; understanding instructions; recognizing central thought; recalling details; getting the main idea from the context; recognizing relationships; predicting outcomes or drawing conclusions. The skills were presented in rotation. As a result of the instruction, there was significant improvement in the development of listening power and a favorable effect upon reading development (24:73).

David Russell reported on studies by Ursula Hogan and L. E. Pratt which demonstrated that training in listening improved listening ability (66:192). Hogan used 189 subjects from eight classes as experimental and control groups. During a six-week period, the experimental group listened to readings, radio programs, motion pictures, individual and group reports, discussions of standards for listening and discussions of differentiating between fact and opinion in radio advertising. Children
were pretested and post-tested twice on materials from a radio transcription. Superior gains were reported for the experimental group. Pratt randomly assigned forty classes of sixth-grade children to experimental and control groups. Teachers of the experimental groups taught one lesson a week for five weeks followed by practical applications of this skill sometime later in the week. Results were favorable for the experimental group.

In her doctoral dissertation from the University of Maryland, Edna May Merson sought to determine the effect of a program of planned listening lessons on listening comprehension, reading comprehension and reading vocabulary of fourth-grade pupils. She found that the use of the forty-five planned lessons had a positive and significant effect on the listening comprehension of the children. She found no difference in the reading comprehension (52).

Robert Davitt in 1970 designed a study to assess the outcome of using a resource guide to teach listening skills to fifth graders. He found that the resource guide, "when developed with proper objectives," stimulates the environment in which children will learn more effectively. "When developed with proper objectives," it positively affects the student's ability to listen (9).
Ralph Kellogg reports an improvement in both listening and reading as the result of a listening skills program conducted in the first grade of twenty-two elementary schools involving thirty-three classes in San Diego in 1966 (40).

In his master's thesis, Kenneth Johnson found a significant improvement in listening skills after only four and one-half hours of listening practice and instruction. Eleven weeks later, this improvement was still evident (15). In a subsequent study at the University of Southern California, he found that training improved listening comprehension significantly (20:128).

Allen G. Erickson, in his doctoral dissertation, reported an increase in listening ability for 309 college communication students who had received twelve weeks of systematic listening instruction (15). Ralph Widener and Arthur Heilman also found that training improved listening significantly (20:128). An additional study at the college level by Edwin Hill in 1961 revealed that sixteen sessions of special training in listening improved both listening skills and reading skills (35).

Some studies have been conducted which report no improvement in listening skills as a result of training in listening. Billy Harold Groom stated in his doctoral
dissertation from the University of Nebraska in 1970 that the planned program of teaching thirty informative listening lessons to randomly selected fifth and sixth-grade students was not superior to the regular language arts program. He did state in his conclusion, however, that the teaching of listening skills is an important part of the language arts curriculum. "Since this study would indicate that there is uncertainty as to what specific factors are involved in listening, additional emphasis should be placed on research emphasizing the nature and development of listening ability or abilities and to the application of these findings to structure and sequence in the language arts curriculum" (28).

Thomas M. Goolsby, Jr. and Richard A. Lasco reported on a study of five-year-old children randomly selected from five kindergartens of an average population and randomly assigned to three groups. Different amounts and kinds of training in listening were applied for each of the three groups. Results indicated that the different treatments did not make for a difference in performance. The training, however, lasted only four days and consisted of the presentation of a series of four stories. The authors do admit that an experiment of longer duration
"might show greater effects of questioning and reinforcement in learning to listen critically" (27:469).

Wilkinson refers to a study of college freshmen conducted by Petrie in which training in listening resulted in no improvement. He states, however, that perhaps the training period of four fifty-minute sessions was insufficient (84:141).

Most of the research cited does indicate that training in listening does improve listening abilities. Children do differ in their listening abilities. Some come to school with poor listening habits, others develop poor habits early in their school career. Because our life is bombarded with sounds, it is difficult today to be an effective listener. Even in a schoolroom a child may be subjected to many different disturbing sounds during the course of the day such as teacher talking to a small group of students, individuals visiting the class, other classes moving outside the classroom, bells ringing, interruptions on the public address system, noise of the pencil sharpener, people coughing, sneezing, etc. As a result of this multitude of sound, children learn to listen to that which seems important to them and they simply hear the other sounds around them.
Paul Rankin enumerates some of the abilities possessed by a good listener patterned largely after those given in the Report of the National Committee on Reading, National Society for the Study of Education in their Twenty-fourth Yearbook. These include: the ability to hear; strong purpose to listen in a wide variety of listening situations; ability to understand and appreciate the thoughts, sentiments and ideals presented in relatively long units of oral expression; ability to recognize and interpret oral punctuation, that is, the system of voice inflections and pauses; ability to utilize the vocal adjustments and facial and bodily expressions of the speaker. In specific situations specific abilities are needed such as the ability to analyze or select meanings, the ability to associate and organize meanings, the ability to evaluate meanings, the ability to retain meanings, the ability to select in a given listening situation the specific listening mode which is appropriate to the situation (62).

Miriam Wilt says: "A good listener evidences a constellation of behaviorisms: he is intellectually curious, selective, courteous, accurate, tolerant and understanding. But you will say these are not listening skills; this is life--and you will be right" (87).
Sam Duker lists the qualities of a good listener as follows:

1. A good listener knows how to listen and actually does listen. Teachers must make listening a pleasurable rather than a threatening activity. This will encourage listeners who know how to listen to actually listen in their daily life activities.

2. A good listener is skillful in identifying the main ideas in what he is listening to. He must also be able to identify details and determine whether they are illustrative, essential or irrelevant.

3. A good listener must be selective in his choice of what to listen to. He should be taught proper, discriminative and selective use of the listening skill.

4. A good listener is a critical listener and is concerned about the speaker's purposes and motives. He is not misled by catch phrases and emotionally loaded words.

5. A good listener is a courteous, considerate listener.

6. A good listener is an attentive listener. He must concentrate, be able to shut out extraneous noises, audience disturbances and other distractions.

7. A good listener is a retentive one. He remembers what he has heard and adds it to knowledge previously acquired.

8. A good listener is a curious listener. He constantly asks questions of himself as he listens. Is the speaker convincing? What are the speaker's motives? What background does the speaker bring to his speech? What parts of the speech are facts? What parts are opinion?
9. A good listener must be a reacting listener. He reacts to what he has heard and goes on to find out more about the subject involved. He lets the speaker know his reaction orally or in writing.

10. A good listener is a reflective and creative listener. He brings to bear on his listening not only what he already knows of the subject, not only his best thinking, his standards of reading and his critical powers, but also his philosophy, his feelings, and his very way of life. As he brings these to his listening, just as he should bring these to his reading, he enriches the listening experience beyond measure (16:206-210).

Seth Fessenden states that there are different levels of listening beginning with the simplest and reaching the most complex:

1. We learn to isolate sounds, ideas, arguments, facts, organization and the like. At this level there is no evaluation or analysis.

2. We learn to identify or to give meaning to those aspects which we have isolated.

3. We learn to integrate what we hear with our past experiences.

4. We learn to inspect the new and the general configuration of the new and the old data. We note similarities and differences; we are beginning to evaluate.

5. We learn to interpret what we hear.

6. We learn to interpolate the comments and statements that we hear. We give
to the speaker the meanings that we think he is trying to indicate.

7. We learn to introspect as well as listen. We note the effect of that which we hear has upon us and we note the effect that this knowing how we are being affected affects us (23).

There is general agreement by the authorities in the field that the teaching of listening skills is important for an effective educational program. Ralph Kellogg discovered, however, that when he went around asking teachers what a listening skill was, most were unable to respond (46:47).

Althea Berry suggests the importance of recognizing the relationships of listening to other language arts, of conditions for listening, of the use of opportunities for listening, of developing goals for listening and of employing improved equipment and instruments in listening programs (24:73). Harold Anderson says that teaching the skills of listening involves awareness of the importance of listening; knowledge of the abilities, skills, understandings, attitudes and appreciations acquired through the spoken word; assessment of the present listening abilities and habits of pupils; and provision for direct, systematic instruction in listening (41:119).
Sara Lundsteen has compiled a list of listening skills from many well-known authorities including Berry, Brown, Early, Hogan, Nichols, Niles, and Russell. They represent the type of skills which the school should help to develop in the children.

**General Listening Skills or Goals**

1. To remember significant details accurately.
2. To remember simple sequences of words and ideas.
3. To follow oral directions.
4. To understand denotative meanings of words.
5. To understand meanings of words from spoken context.
6. To listen, to answer, and to formulate simple questions.
7. To paraphrase a spoken message.
8. To understand connotative meanings of words.
9. To identify main ideas and to summarize (the who, what, when, where, why).
10. To listen for implications of main ideas.
11. To listen for implications of significant details.
12. To understand interrelationships among ideas expressed or implied and the organizational pattern of spoken materials well enough to predict what will probably come next.
13. To follow a sequence in: (a) plot development, (b) character development, (c) speaker's argument.

14. To impose structure on a spoken presentation, sometimes including note-taking, by: (a) realizing the purpose of the speaker, (b) remaining aware of personal motives in listening, (c) connecting and relating what is said later in the presentation with earlier portions, (d) detecting the skeleton of main and supporting points and other interrelationships.

15. To connect the spoken material with previous experience.

16. To listen, to apply, and to plan action.

17. To listen, to imagine, and to extend for enjoyment and emotional response (includes appreciation for aesthetic, artistic, dialectic richness, felicity of phrasing, rhythmic flow).

**Critical Listening Skills**

1. To distinguish fact from fancy, according to a criteria.

2. To judge validity and adequacy of main ideas, arguments, hypotheses.

3. To distinguish well-supported statements from opinion and judgment and to evaluate them.

4. To distinguish well-supported statements from irrelevant ones and to evaluate them; to sort relevant from irrelevant information.

5. To inspect, compare, and contrast ideas and arrive at some conclusion in regard to them, e.g., the appropriateness and
appeal of one descriptive word over another.

6. To evaluate use of fallacies such as: (a) self-contradictions, (b) "skirting" the question at issue, (c) hasty or false generalization, (d) false analogy, (e) failure to present all choices, (f) appeal to ignorance.

7. To recognize and judge effects of devices the speaker may use to influence the listener, such as: (a) music, (b) loaded words, (c) voice intonation, (d) play on emotional and controversial issues, (e) propaganda, sales pressure, i.e., to identify affective loading in communication and evaluate it.

8. To detect and evaluate bias and prejudice of a speaker or point of view.

9. To evaluate the qualifications of the speaker.

10. To plan to evaluate ways in which the speaker's ideas might be applied in a new situation (46:52).

Before these skills can be taught, certain conditions must exist in the classroom to foster good listening. Miriam Wilt says: "That to which the child is asked to listen in school should be worthy of time and thought" (41:119). Sam Duker, Roy Wilson, James Smith, O. W. Kopp, and others have discussed the prerequisites for good listening.

1. The daily activities should be so planned that the amount of listening required of
the children is not overwhelming. Studies have shown that the average classroom has a percentage of listening so great in a day as to exceed any reasonable expectation of attention and interest. Studies have also demonstrated that teachers are generally unaware of the extent of their unreasonable demands in this respect.

2. Children should be comfortable and free from strain. Listening should be pleasurable rather than threatening.

3. Physical conditions should be proper. Remove all possible distractions. Chairs should face the right direction. Place materials in prominent place. Remove materials not being used. Make certain the children can see well. Temperature and lighting should be favorable.

5. Be a good listener yourself. Look directly at the child when he speaks to you and respond specifically to him. Respect what he says.

6. Avoid needless repetition. Give accurate directions and get in the habit of giving these directions only once. Children will then learn to listen the first time.

7. Use interesting devices to gain attention.

8. Speak in an animated and interesting manner to convey your own interest.

9. Your speaking speed should correlate with the children's listening speed.

10. Listening should not be confined to listening of the children to the teacher. Some of the listening should involve children to children.

12. Praise good listening.

13. Help children eliminate bad listening habits by being aware of them.

14. To foster creative listening, develop an attitude of mental alertness in children. Encourage them to think about what they hear.

15. Help children understand what they have heard.

16. Help children ask questions about what was said.

17. Give children a wide variety of listening experiences. For a good balance, vary these with doing activities (16:203).

Fitzgerald suggests that the teacher conduct an informal evaluation of each listener by asking the following questions:

1. Does the learner show interest, courtesy and good attitudes toward the speaker and the topic?

2. Can the learner summarize essentials of the presentation given in a discussion, panel, conversation or a culminating activity of a unit?

3. Is the learner able to report correctly the main points of an instruction, explanation, broadcast or lecture?

4. Is the learner capable of delivering correctly a message which was received by him in direct communication or on the telephone?

5. Does the learner show ability in distinguishing between oral assertions of
opinion and statements of fact?

6. Is the learner critical of faulty or questionable statements or assumptions made by a speaker?

7. Is the learner developing and improving listening skills? (24:79).

Alexander Frazier has pointed out that listening can be evaluated and taught using pupil conversations and group discussions (41:118). Miriam Wilt feels that more time should be devoted to group discussion and problem solving (88). James Moffett is one of the great enthusiasts of the group discussion idea. He says that group discussion can help to rectify the erroneous feeling children have that they can learn only from adults, which gives them no reason to listen to each other. If the teacher does not permit the group to focus on himself but rather permits the children to talk freely without praise or blame, without raising their hands to speak, they will begin to listen to each other. "Listening to peers, then, is directly related to honoring peer ideas, and the problem of inattention decreases as the peer-to-peer nature of the group becomes real to children..." (56:58). Wilt says, "Children learn best those things they live and do; they learn from each other. They cannot learn how to speak by listening entirely to the teacher speak, nor can they learn to listen
to their peers when they seldom have the opportunity to listen to their peers" (41).

Pronovost suggests that the discussion be a topic of interest to all the children so that the children will listen and participate. In the primary grades, a discussion of favorite clothes, favorite foods, pets, etc. would be most appropriate. This type of activity is useful in increasing the child's ability to listen for and use descriptive words; its obvious function is to develop the ability to listen for statements made by others (61).

Hadfield has suggested stopping during a discussion or presentation to recall important points and has advocated discussion immediately following an instruction to compare information with past learning (24:72).

Miriam Hoffman and Richard Thompson applaud the use of listening centers (24:74;78). These centers include audio-instructional devices, tape recorders, record players, earphones and response sheets. Programmed lessons may be taped. Hoffman lists the values of these centers as follows: purpose, discussion after listening, promotions of critical thinking, self-selection and development of listening pleasure.

Kegler suggests keeping logs of listening activities. "Analysis of these logs will prove helpful in the
The Guide for Teaching Listening for the San Diego schools encourages teachers to build listening skills by assuming that the child is always listening. It suggests asking a question such as, "And what do you think of Mary's idea?" The teacher thus demonstrates by the nature of her question that she assumes the child has listened. If the child was not listening, the teacher could make a courteous remark such as, "Joe, you usually have such good ideas. I am sorry you weren't listening" (59).

Donald Bird has outlined a program of listening training which he has used for freshmen at college. He believes this program can be adapted to any grade level. It is based on the assumptions that listening training is important enough to warrant an allotment of time in the language arts program and that listening effectiveness can be improved by training such as the kind described.

I. Have students discover for themselves the frequency and importance of listening in their daily lives.

II. Exploration of the process of listening designed to show that certain commonplace assumptions about listening are probably not true.

III. Analyzing the principles of listening and studying the behavior of good and poor listeners. He divides this aspect of
listening into three categories: attitudes and actions of good listeners before, during and after the listening experience.

A. Before the experience--liking for a situation, interest in hearing about the subject, determination to listen regardless of feelings about the speaker, sitting where one can see and hear the speaker and adjusting quickly to distractions.

B. While listening--adjusting to distractions in the speaker, the speech, the situation and the listener; understanding the ideas presented; evaluating the ideas presented.

C. After listening--good listener responds to what he hears by asking questions, talking about the ideas, writing about the ideas, trying to apply them.

IV. Guided practice in the various listening skills using direct methods by allotting blocks of time for the study of listening, by making the improvement of listening skills a subsidiary goal and by giving special training in a listening lab for poor listeners.

V. Exercises and experiences in listening--these will vary according to grade level (1:106-108).

In her doctoral dissertation, Sister Mary Kevin Hollow outlined the steps used in presenting a listening lesson to develop the ability to listen for a sequence of ideas in a selection. The teacher reads the selection telling the children to listen to the directions for making
something. They are to listen for two purposes: first, to detect signpost words and second, to remember facts in the correct order. After reading the passage, she asks questions regarding the information and asks for the signpost words which indicate that a new fact or a new event is to be presented in the selection (37).

L. Edward Pratt has suggested giving oral problems that can be worked out without using pencil or paper. The teacher reads the problem only once, emphasizing that it takes concentration and exactness in following the directions (58).

While educators differ in the terminology they use to classify different kinds of listening, most agree that listening can generally be categorized into four classifications. Admittedly, these categories do overlap and activities in one group could also apply to another. For the purposes of this paper, the writer will use the terms suggested by James Smith: attentive listening, appreciative listening, analytical listening and marginal listening (72). Terminology is unimportant. What is important is the necessity to provide a variety of listening experiences in the classroom.

Attentive listening is the most frequently used type of listening in the early primary grades. According
to the Los Angeles City Schools Language Arts Curriculum Book, attentive listening is a key factor in successful oral language growth (43). For this kind of listening most distractions are eliminated and the attention of the listener is focused on one person or one form of communication such as radio, television or phonograph. Attentive listening may be used for gaining attention of the children, for taking roll, preparing for a lesson, giving directions for assignments, daily planning and organizing the class into groups, making announcements and reports, searching for answers to questions in reading assignments, listening to tape recorders, teaching rote poems and songs, teaching music, ordinary conversation and show and tell.

Devices may be used to bring the children back to order quickly and pleasantly. These signals, which may be created at the beginning of the school year, indicate to the children that they should stop what they are doing to listen at once. Such signals might include flicking lights, tapping bells, playing chords on the piano, playing a favorite record or any other similar type device.

Smith suggests creative attention getters which provide a strong motivation for developing principles of creative teaching. These would include listening to hear
the grass grow, to hear the rain, the snow fall, the clock tick, etc. He suggests playing games to accomplish the same purpose. For instance, the teacher might touch one child and say "sh," by putting her finger to her mouth. Each child in turn touches others so that everyone becomes quiet. The object of the game is to catch on quickly and not be the last one talking. Singing a child's name for taking roll is another excellent listening device. The child sings back his name on the same tone of the scale or sings it back in answer to the tune begun by the teacher such as "Are you here, are you here, Mary Brown?" to the tune of Frere Jacques. Smith also suggest singing commands or directions for a change (72:74).

Music can be used very successfully to teach listening. Frequently teachers err by playing a particular selection on the phonograph, expecting the children to sit through the entire composition merely by telling them to listen. Needless to say, this type of experience should be preceded by instruction from the teacher to listen for a particular thing.

Children can be requested to interpret the type of music to which they are listening such as marching, skipping, clapping, etc. After identifying the type of music, they move to the music and use an instrument to beat out
the rhythm. Listening for the beat to march in time to music is also a good activity. Another type of musical activity which works well even in kindergarten is to clap out the rhythm of a familiar song, asking the children to identify the song. (Smith might categorize this activity as analytical listening which will be discussed later).

In connection with clapping, another successful activity to be used with primary children is to have each child clap out the number of syllables in his first name. The teacher then tells them to listen to her clapping. If she claps out their name, they are to stand up. This activity, incidentally, is an excellent introduction to syllabication.

Musical instruments can be used to help children distinguish between high and low sounds. Piano, autoharp, guitar, melody bells and records might be used. Records could be utilized to find similarities and differences in rhythms, in musical instruments, in tempo and in volume.

Much can be done with listening lessons identifying sounds other than musical ones. For instance, the teacher could set up a table with objects which produce sounds and have the children guess the identity of the object. She could turn an egg beater, rub together two sand blocks, crinkle cellophane, bounce a ball, etc. This same activity
could be developed by having the children work in pairs to
think up sounds they can use on the remainder of the class.
A variation of this would be to put different objects in
cans and shake the cans, one by one.

Children can become aware of all the sounds around
them, in the classroom and out. An excellent activity is
to have the teacher record sounds at home and ask the
children to identify them. These could include the sound
of running water, vacuum cleaner, dog barking, dishwasher
running, typewriter, closing window, etc.

Examples of other types of listening lessons follow:

1. Rhyming words. Say a familiar rhyme and
leave out last rhyming word. Find
pictures of words which rhyme. Make up
poems or stories with obvious words
missing and have the children supply a rhy-
ing word. Have children clap when they
are being read to and they hear a rhyming
word. For upper elementary grade pupils,
the use of simple poetry and nonsense
verse of universal appeal will give the
children practice in the rhyming and the
rhythm of language. This will be par-
ticularly important when experiences with
rhymes and jingles have been inadequate
or non-existent at home and in the early-
grade classrooms.

2. Read a story or a passage to one group of
children. They in turn will tell the
story to children who have not heard it.
3. What word disagrees with the picture? While looking at a picture, the children listen as teacher gives a series of four words, one of which could not be logically associated with the picture. Children are asked to identify the word. This involves close observation, careful listening and remembering the words.

4. Gossip. One child starts a sentence or says a word. This in turn is repeated from one child to the next. When it reaches the last child, what is heard is compared with what the first child said.

5. Who am I? One child is blindfolded and tries to guess the identity of another child who taps him on the shoulder and says, "Who am I?"

6. Comparing two versions of the same story. The teacher will explain to the children that she is going to read them a story and then play a recording of that same story. The record will differ slightly from the story in the details and the children are to listen for the differences. An example would be the story of Sleeping Beauty found in Childcraft compared with the Children's Record Guild version of Tchaikovsky's "Sleeping Beauty." These two differ significantly to be a good comparison.

7. Doing work with beginning and ending sounds and later medial sounds. Clap for words that begin like____ or end like____.

8. Children have to listen to teacher bouncing ball and they in turn bounce the ball an equal number of times. Variation: teacher bounces ball a certain number of times, pauses and bounces it again a different number of times. Child is to repeat this pattern.
9. Walking directions. Various children take turns being the director. They issue directions such as: John, stand up; face front of classroom; walk forward; stop; face the windows; walk around the table, etc.

Appreciative listening is used when one listens for enjoyment. It is a less concentrated type of listening and the listener is more relaxed. In the classroom, appreciative listening is used in the following ways:

1. Listening to a recording.
2. Listening to radio and television programs for enjoyment.
3. Listening to a play or puppet show.
4. Listening to a concert.
5. Listening to stories or poetry being read.
6. Listening to filmstrips and movies.
7. Listening to show and tell.
8. Choral speaking.

In addition to these practical suggestions for appreciative listening in the classroom, Smith suggests some creative situations which would help to develop appreciative listening:

1. Reading stories and poems which lend themselves to listening exercises in which noises can be reproduced by the children. For example, when the teacher reads the word "dog" the children would evoke a "grr."
2. Have children paint, draw or finger-paint while some music is playing. "Nutcracker Suite" by Tchaikovsky, "Slavonic Dances" by Dvorak, "William Tell Overture" by Rossini are some good examples. A variation of this is to have children listen to the music and then paint or draw what it means to them.

3. Create a "round-robin" story. One child tells first sentence, the second child tells the next sentence, etc. until the last child ends it.

4. The teacher could read an appropriate poem and ask the children to draw a picture showing everything they can remember about the poem. Examples might include: "Wynken, Blynken and Nod" by Eugene Field; "My Shadow" by Robert Louis Stevenson; "A Visit From St. Nicholas" by Clement Clark Moore.


Analytical listening as described by Smith is "attentive listening for the purpose of responding in one way or another. Analytical listening means that one thinks carefully about what he hears" (72:86). Instances where analytical listening occurs naturally in the early primary classroom include:

1. Reading--Discussion assignments where children are reading and discussing to find specific points and to select main ideas.

2. Discussing social problems such as seeking a solution to a playground fight.
3. Any discussion involving a decision such as "What day shall we go on our trip?"

4. Listening to oral reading to:
   a. Find a sequence of events
   b. Find supporting details
   c. Draw comparisons

The teacher can devise creative experiences which promote good analytical listenings. These might include the following:

1. Science experiments.

2. Using a flannel board, build listening skills for details, for main ideas, etc. For instance, the teacher places a cutout of a girl in a blue dress holding a doll and another cutout of a girl holding a doll in a blue dress. The teacher might ask a child to select the picture which goes with the sentence: "The girl in the blue dress is holding the doll." Children then devise their own.

3. Quiz games provoke good listening.

4. Scramble. Oral sentences are scrambled and children arrange them in correct order.

5. Using records such as "Listening Activities" by RCA Victor Record Library for Elementary Schools, Volumes I and II; "Listening and Speech Activities Through Music and Story" by Elaine Mikalson, Pacific Records; "Listening Time Stories Album #3" by Louise Binder Scott and Lucille Wood, Bowmar Records.

6. Go to the store. One child begins by saying, "I went to the store to buy something that begins with a ____ (he names a sound) and other children respond."
7. Teacher sings the first phrase of a familiar song and children respond by singing the second phrase.

8. Read a story and have the children draw the answers to questions the teacher asks.

9. Recalling sequence. Read a story and place a number of pictures on the board related to the story. Have the children rearrange them in proper order.

10. Prepare a series of statements that contain contradictions and absurdities. Children can make up exercises of this kind and tape record them to simulate radio announcements.

11. Prepare a series of simple statements from which pupils select expressions of fact or opinion. Next prepare a series of paragraphs in which pupils can find facts embedded in opinion. Advertisements are good sources.

Marginal listening is that kind of listening where there are two or more distractions present. This type of listening may occur in the classroom when:

1. Teacher provides music for children as a background for another activity.

2. Teacher plays music for rhythms.

3. Children paint to music.

4. Teacher counts while children learn a folk dance or popular dance.

5. Children work at one job while other groups work at other jobs.
Some creative experiences which the teacher can provide to help promote effective marginal listening might include:

1. Running a short cartoon film, shutting off the sound and having the children tell the story or reproduce some of the speaking parts while the film is re-run.

2. Dramatizing action poems that require careful listening. Nursery rhymes are particularly appropriate.


4. Listening to records which can be dramatized or interpreted such as "Peter and the Wolf" by Serge Prokofiev.

Many additional suggestions for listening lessons of all types may be found in the books by Russell and Russell, Lundsteen, Pronovost, Smith, Moffett, Heilman and Hester, and in the articles by Thompson, Early, Cox and Wilt. All these sources are listed in the bibliography at the end of this paper.
CHAPTER VI

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Findings

Following is a summary of the findings as they were revealed in the survey of the literature:

1. We spend more time in listening than in any other communication skill.
2. Our system of mass communication makes listening an especially important skill today.
3. Listening is important in every stage of schooling.
4. Listening has been neglected in the past.
5. Research in listening is now being conducted, but listening research still lags behind research in reading.
6. Most elementary schools are deficient in developing listening skills.
7. Many teachers are unaware of the importance of teaching listening.
8. Some teachers feel they do not have time to teach listening.
9. Most teachers have not been trained to teach listening.
10. Some authorities feel that confusion has arisen over the entire subject of listening.
because of the multitude of definitions for the term "listening."

11. Some authorities feel that we should use the term "auding."

12. Many listening skills are similar to the skills used in reading.

13. Listening plays a vital part in the reading readiness period.

14. Reading at various stages is dependent upon listening.

15. Listening skills can be used to measure reading potential in elementary school.

16. Listening skills can be utilized to measure the reading potential of college students.

17. Training in listening has a favorable effect on the development of reading skills in elementary school.

18. Training in listening has a favorable effect on the development of reading skills in college.

19. The Sounds of Language series has been developed using listening as its basis.

20. Bill Martin, the author of the Sounds of Language series, feels that listening is just another form of reading.

21. Several authorities have endorsed the simultaneous listening-reading method of teaching reading.

22. Many researchers have found a high correlation between reading and listening test results.

23. Some researchers have been highly critical of the listening tests now in existence.
24. Listening should be taught.

25. Listening should be integrated with the other language arts.

26. Listening should be placed on a par with reading in the curriculum.

27. Listening should be taught in every grade in accordance with the maturity of the child.

28. Listening skills can be taught.

29. Listening skills can be improved through systematic instruction.

30. Short-term instruction in listening sometimes results in no improvement.

31. Good listeners possess certain qualities.

32. The school should help the child to develop these qualities necessary for good listening.

33. There are different levels of listening.

34. Certain conditions must exist in the classroom to promote good listening.

35. Group discussion is an excellent means of teaching listening.

36. Listening centers are helpful.

37. There are four categories of listening: attentive listening, appreciative listening, analytical listening and marginal listening.

38. Much information is available to teachers for direct instruction in listening.
Recommendations

As a result of the findings in this survey of the literature, there follows a list of recommendations for educators and researchers. It is interesting to note that many of these same recommendations were suggested by Miriam Wilt in 1949 in her doctoral dissertation: "A Study of Teacher Awareness of Listening As a Factor in Elementary Education," from Pennsylvania State College.

1. Teachers should become aware of the importance of listening.

2. Teachers should be taught how to teach listening.

3. The schools should help to develop good listening skills in the children.

4. The teaching of listening should be integrated with the teaching of the other language arts.

5. Educators should become aware of the interrelationships which exist between listening and reading.

6. Educators should investigate the use of the simultaneous listening-reading method of teaching reading.

7. Children should do more listening to each other.

8. More use should be made of group discussion and listening centers.
9. A wide variety of listening experiences should be introduced into the classroom.

10. The teacher should strive to maintain a classroom climate which is conducive to good listening.

11. The frequent current "round-robin" procedure of reading should be altered so that children will be encouraged to listen to each other.

12. Teachers should be taught to evaluate listening in terms of changed behavior, attitudes and understandings.

13. All language arts textbooks in the future should emphasize the importance of listening and should contain a section on how to teach the various listening skills.

14. Curriculum makers should be aware of the sequence of listening skills.

15. The present standardized listening tests should be investigated more thoroughly. Perhaps, better means for evaluation of listening skills are needed.

16. Research in the field of listening has increased in recent years. More research is needed, especially regarding the sequential development of listening skills, the extent to which listening is being taught in schools and in teacher training institutions, better means of formal and informal evaluation of listening skills and the interrelationships which exist between reading and listening.
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