PLANNING, IMPLEMENTING, AND EVALUATING AN EXPERIMENTAL LISTENING PROGRAM IN THE FIFTH GRADE

MAHALIA MOORE

PLANNING, IMPLEMENTING, AND EVALUATING AN EXPERIMENTAL LISTENING PROGRAM IN THE FIFTH GRADE

by

Mahalla Moore

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of a planned instructional listening skills program upon the listening achievement of a group of grade five students. It examined (1) the effect of direct listening instruction upon the listening achievement of grade five students, (2) the relationship between listening and reading skills of grade five students, (3) the relationship between listening and intelligence of grade five students, and (4) the specific problems experienced with the listening program, as well as the children's attitude towards the program.

A review of the literature related to this study indicated that the listening ability of children can be improved through instruction. Studies have also shown that children who participated in a planned program of listening instruction not only improved their listening ability, but they also improved their reading ability.

The listening skills program used in this study was built through the use of material from the Science Research Associates Listening Skills Program, IIb. The writer developed specific behavioural objectives for each lesson, and used the responses to these behavioural objectives as formative evaluation throughout the program. The program was taught in 22 half-hour lessons which concentrated on the following specific skills: (1) auditory discrimination, (2) following directions, (3) following sequence, (4) selecting

main ideas and details, (5) note-taking, (6) summarizing, (7) recognizing cause and effect, (8) creative listening, (9) distinguishing between fact and opinion, and (10) making inferences.

The instructional listening skills program was implemented during a 9-week instructional period. The study sample was selected from the grade five population of three elementary schools in the Avalon North Integrated School System. The study sample contained 68 students. These students were divided into an experimental group and a control group. Each group had 34 students. The intelligence quotients of the experimental group ranged from a low of 71 to a high of 115, and the intelligence quotients of the control group ranged from a low of 82 to a high of 116.

Summative evaluation revealed that the experimental group made significant gains in the six listening and reading components--listening vocabulary, listening comprehension, total listening, reading vocabulary, reading comprehension, total reading. The control group showed significant gains in four of the six listening and reading components--listening vocabulary, listening comprehension, total listening, reading comprehension. However, in all components of the study, except listening vocabulary, the experimental group made gains that were superior to the gains made by the control group. For both the experimental group and the control group, the study showed a significant relationship between listening vocabulary and reading

vocabulary, and between total listening and total reading. The relationship between listening comprehension and reading comprehension was positive but not significant.

The findings of this study also indicated a strong relationship between listening and intelligence. Children with higher intelligence quotients listened better both before and after instruction in listening than did children of lower intelligence quotients. However, children who had lower intelligence made greater gains in listening during the instructional listening skills program than did the children of higher intelligence.

The success ratio for each specific skill taught in the listening skills program was assessed to determine the areas of difficulty the children experienced during the program. It was discovered that their greatest areas of difficulty were: (1) selecting main ideas from details, (2) selecting key facts to make a summary, (3) arranging sentences in their proper sequence of cause and effect, (4) creative listening, and (5) making inferences.

The program was also assessed on the basis of the children's attitude towards the program. This was done according to the children's responses to the specific questions: "Did you enjoy the listening program?" and "Do you think you should have another listening program soon?" Out of the 34 students who participated in the program, 32 claimed to have enjoyed the lessons and were in favour of having more lessons of a similar nature soon.

It was recommended by the writer that a program of listening instruction should be introduced early in the school year to give plenty of opportunity for remedial and follow-up work in any listening skills which the children might find difficult. It was also recommended that listening instruction should provide specific purposes for listening, utilize appropriate listening materials, and provide challenging activities for the children.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Until relatively recent years educators have assumed that a child commences his formal school years having developed maximum listening ability which needs neither maintenance nor improvement. Educators are now becoming increasingly aware, however, that there is not only an increasing need to develop the child's maximum ability in the receptive language arts skill of reading but there is also an increasing need to develop the child's full potential in the receptive language arts skill of listening. Burns (1961) suggested that

> The ears of the people of the world are being continuously bombarded by information and misinformation; by propaganda--good and bad--; by drama, lectures, panel discussions, news reports of all types, and by advertising campaigns. (p. 11)

This continuous bombardment of information and misinformation makes it urgent to learn to listen intelligently and discriminately. Despite the importance of listening in communication, research seems to indicate that the ability to listen effectively has not been adequately taught in the language arts program of our schools and, therefore, this important language arts skill has not been adequately developed.

When confronted with the need to listen effectively and to teach this important component of the language arts so

that the child's maximum potential to listen is reached, it becomes necessary for educators to know what research has to say about the nature of listening; to be aware of the factors that influence listening; to know what previous research has to say about listening in language arts; and to contribute one's own findings to the ongoing process of improving the teaching of listening in the language arts program.

The following chapters in this study, therefore, will present the problem; provide a review of the literature and research; indicate the method of procedure; describe the materials used in the study; give the results of the study; and also give the summary, conclusions, and educational implications of the study.

II. NEED FOR THE STUDY

Educators and psychologists agree that listening is the first of the language arts skills which the child uses as he learns to understand the world around him. Piaget (1959), Bruner (1966), and Rogers (1969) stressed the importance of response to environment, including verbal environment, during the child's first years. Rogers concurred with John and Goldstein (1964) when she stated that

> Of special significance in language development are family relationships. The availability of adults is especially important. The mother and older siblings provide important feedback, so that the child hears his words repeated, corrected, and modified. Words become the infant's means of gaining operant control over others; and as his verbal efforts are rewarded, they naturally increase. (p. 154)

Listening, then, is the basic language art through which early relationships are established both within the family, and the widening community. Perhaps the child's early facility in listening is one reason why educators have assumed for so long that listening as a language art needs neither maintenance nor improvement and it has, therefore, been neglected in the language arts curriculum.

Although listening is now considered to be basic to the other language arts--speaking, reading, and writing--by most educators; and although an increasing number of researchers advocate the need for direct instruction in listening, as a language art, listening continues to be a neglected part of most school curricula. The neglect of listening as a language art remains despite the fact that researchers and educators have become aware that more of the child's school day is spent in listening than in any other of the three language arts--speaking, reading, and writing.

The neglect of listening in the language arts curriculum has been dramatically underscored by many writers and researchers. Rankin (1928) stated that the amount of time devoted to teaching listening was inversely related to its social utility in human affairs. Wilt (1950) found substantial evidence to prove that in the majority of elementary schools teachers did not consciously teach listening as a tool of communication, although children were expected to listen 57.5% of the school day. Anderson (1954) agreed. He

reported that

> Except in isolated instances, virtually the only instruction in listening that children and young people receive in the schools is the quite useless admonition "pay attention." Listening at all educational levels has been the forgotten language art for generations. (p. 215)

Beery (1954) also concluded that listening instruction has not been given the emphasis it deserves. She stated that several researchers had found that unless children are taught how to listen, little or no improvement in listening is made from junior high school through college. The negative results of inadequate listening instruction were further emphasized by Dixon (1964). He quoted from Mersand who stated that.

> We are beginning to realize that a considerable percentage of our students have not listened for comprehension and that an even larger percentage cannot listen discriminately. (p. 285)

To determine the amount and kind of preparation in listening which might be available to the teacher who wishes to give instruction in listening Heilman (1955) made a survey of the language arts textbooks published between 1946 and 1954. Eleven of the 15 textbooks he examined had no mention of listening in either the index or the table of contents, and no discussion of the subject in the text itself. Heilman then examined the guidebooks to the language arts curriculum and found that, although listening was recognized as one of the language arts skills, suggestions for teaching listening were both vague and minimal.

Brown (1967), in a later study to assess whether or not language arts textbooks reflected what researchers believed regarding the need for instruction in listening, examined the kind and quality of speech and listening content in language arts pupil textbooks for grade three through six. Two of the questions he raised were:

1. To what degree and how are speech and listening content emphasized?
2. What is the nature of the speech and listening content?

To find answers to these questions Brown examined 54 textbooks. The textbooks he examined were published from 1959 to 1964. His study revealed that

> Listening was stressed rarely even though authorities claim that it is the language medium children use most. Listening was in .63 percent of the lessons and .57 percent of the pages. Furthermore, 1.26 percent of the lessons and 1.37 percent of the pages emphasized speech and listening together. (p. 341)

It would seem, then, that despite the increased number of research studies done in the area of listening, little was done by curriculum planners up to 1965 to emphasize and provide for specific instruction in listening.

Landry (1969) contended that although there are numerous factors involved in the neglect of listening, three of the major causal factors are: traditions, time, and training.

It has been traditional, Landry claimed, to consider listening as a natural skill which develops and matures without direct training. Perhaps this is because we have

not been able to separate listening from hearing. Everhart (1962) supported this view when he expressed the opinion that listening, for the most part, has been thought of as a maturation process reinforced by increased chronological age.

A second major factor that has caused listening to be neglected, Landry (1969) suggested, is an already overcrowded curriculum. In fact, in spite of the importance many researchers advocate for listening in language arts, a number of other researchers in the field suggested that separate periods for teaching listening skills are not necessary. Hildredth (1954) and Lewis and Nichols (1965) each subscribed to an integrated approach to the teaching of listening because of the interrelationships which exist amongst the different phases of language expression.

The danger of an integrated approach, this writer suggests, is that one language art may be emphasized almost to the exclusion of the other. Handwriting and spelling are related to writing, but it is not assumed that a child will become proficient in handwriting and spelling without adequate periods of time in which to practice these skills. However, the interrelatedness of the language arts is recognized. It is also recognized that, like all other language arts, listening requires a content in which to operate effectively. Nevertheless, listening is not only a unitary skill, but it is also a complexity of skills and, therefore, must be taught in order to function effectively

as a tool of communication.

A third major factor in the neglect of listening in schools, Landry claimed, is that teachers do not know how to provide meaningful instruction in listening. In the past little emphasis has been placed upon the teaching of listening skills in most language arts courses in teacher training institutions. This, together with the lack of attention given to listening as a language art in school textbooks and guidebooks, has further compounded the problem.

Evidence to show that listening is being taught as one of the language arts skills in Newfoundland schools is also minimal. Aggarwal (1976), in his study to determine whether listening instruction does have significant effect upon the listening and reading comprehension of middle-class seventh grade students, found that the curriculum of Newfoundland schools gave little emphasis to the teaching of listening. King (1981) supported this view. He examined the Ginn and Nelson integrated language arts programs used in Newfoundland schools and concluded that they emphasized the product rather than the process of listening since they did not acknowledge that there may be specific listening skills which need to be taught and, therefore, have not provided a sequential developmental program of listening skills. This is unfortunate since in listening as in reading, according to Weaver and Rutherford (1974), there is a hierarchy of skills which need to be developed. Weaver and Rutherford, in their review of research literature in listening, identified and

prepared a hierarchy of listening skills composed of three sections: environmental skills, discrimination skills, and comprehension skills. These skills range all the way from fetal movement in response to sound, through to evaluating critically at the sixth grade level. Listening, therefore, is not only a unitary skill but it is also a complexity of skills which need to be developed.

Despite the increased number of research studies published in the area of listening during the last 35 years, appropriate listening instruction in the language arts curriculum of our schools remains an unsolved problem. It would seem, therefore, that the teaching of this important component of the language arts program in Newfoundland schools is left mainly with the classroom teacher who must decide which listening skills are to be taught; what materials should be utilized in the teaching of these skills; and the mode of instruction to be used for each specific skill.

It must be recognized, however, that listening as a language arts skill is beginning to appear in language arts textbooks of teacher training institutions. For example, Green and Petty (1971) provided considerable insight into listening as a language arts skill, and Logan, Logan, and Paterson (1972) offered a program in listening that begins with nursery school and goes through to junior high school level. There is still the need, however, for this kind of thinking to filter down through the educational system and

into the language arts curriculum at all levels of instruction so that the child can benefit from meaningful programs, materials, and instruction.

III. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Listening is basic to all other language arts and as such it should hold, therefore, a position of major importance in the total language arts program of our schools.

The basic position listening holds in the total communication pattern may be observed through the gradual development of the child's auditory abilities before the child commences formal schooling. Even at this early age, however, wide individual differences in listening may be observed. As a result of these individual differences some children adjust well to the school environment while others are unable to cope with the multiplicity of sounds in a new and different environment. If all children are to realize their full potential, pleasurable listening activities must be provided by the teacher to help bridge the gap between home environment and classroom environment. This type of listening will then form a basis for the gradual development of listening skills at the various levels of performance throughout the school grades.

Proper training in listening is urgent since researchers, including Wilt (1950), Brown (1967), Aggarwal (1976), and King (1981), have each found that the amount of direct listening instruction in our schools is minimal when compared to the child's need to listen. Since listening is

such a fundamental and vital tool for learning, acquisition of and versatility in the skill should not be left entirely to the maturation process of the child with the hope that the child's listening will improve as he grows and develops in other areas. Many researchers including Fawcett (1966), Penfield and Marascuilo (1972), Bergey (1978), and King (1981), have proved that listening can be improved through meaningful instruction.

It is unfortunate that research in listening has not yet resulted in improved listening programs in the language arts textbooks of our schools. An examination of the Ginn and Nelson integrated language arts programs now in use in Newfoundland schools indicates that the distinctness of listening as a language arts skill is not recognized since these series do not offer a well planned listening skills program. Listening instruction in Newfoundland schools would seem, therefore, to be relegated to an incidental position rather than to the important fundamental position it should hold as a tool for learning and communicating.

Since achievement in all areas of the curriculum is dependent upon the child's ability to listen effectively, and since the existing elementary language arts program in our schools does not provide a developmental listening skills program, this writer has chosen to use the SRA Listening Skills Program Intermediate Level, IIb, as instruction material in an experimental listening program with the grade five students in the Elementary School, Shearstown, Newfoundland.

The threefold purpose of this investigation is as follows:

1. To determine whether grade five children will show significant gain in their ability to listen effectively following a program of direct listening instruction.

2. To examine the relationship between the child's ability to listen and the child's reading ability.

3. To investigate the relationship between the child's listening ability and the child's level of intelligence.

IV. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The limitations of the experimental investigation outlined for this study are as follows:

1. The study is to be performed on a small sample. There are only 99 children in the study. They are divided into an experimental group and a control group.

2. The study involves only three schools.

3. The study is of a brief duration--a 9-week period.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

I. INTRODUCTION

Listening has played a basic role in man's communication from earliest time, and it is now a well established fact that all other arts of communication are built upon the art of listening. The Harvard Report on General Education (1945) stated that

> Communication is not speaking only but listening as well; You cannot succeed in communicating your ideas unless the other person wishes to hear and knows how to listen. As there are two kinds of language, oral and written, communication breaks up into four related skills of speaking and listening, writing and reading. (p. 68)

Listening is the first of the language arts which the child uses as he endeavours to understand the world around him. Informal listening plays an important role in the life of the child and, therefore, has a definite impact upon the child's social interaction. The relationship of listening to both social and academic growth was asserted by Neville (1959). He emphasized that

> More failures in academic and social growth can be traced to inability to listen than to any other single aspect of the language arts. (p. 232)

Williams (1961) was supported by both Duker (1965) and Witty (1965) when he stated that

> Listening is the basis for so much of our learning whether it is learning to read in first grade or listening to lectures in college. (p. 66)

In view of the basic position listening holds in our total communication pattern, as an area of research it has been neglected far too long, and as an area of instruction even longer. This neglect of listening in the language arts is underscored by the more than three decades which had passed between the publication of the first reading research studies in 1881 and the publication of the first listening research in 1917. This neglect is further emphasized by the sporadic manner in which research studies in listening appeared in educational literature from 1917 to 1948. Indeed, Nichols (1961), in his bibliography, reported that up to and including 1948 only three research studies had been published in the area of listening while 3,000 research studies in reading had been published up to 1948.

Listening as an area of research came to the forefront during the 1950's. Duker (1964) reported that during the 1950's well over 100 graduate theses had dealt with the nature of the listening process and the teaching of listening skills. The trend towards increased research in listening has continued as indicated by the increased number of articles published in educational literature.

The purpose of the following sections of this chapter, therefore, is to review that portion of the literature relevant to the nature of listening, the factors which influence listening, the listening-reading relationship, listening and

intelligence, research in listening instruction, and purposes for teaching listening.

II. THE NATURE OF LISTENING

The nature of listening, it is believed, requires more than just hearing sounds. To get the maximum benefit from listening, the listener must be involved in the kind of way that causes him to react to what he hears. That is, if the listener is truly listening to a speech or piece of music, he will react in some way to what he has heard.

There are, however, differences of opinion amongst various writers as to the components contained in the listening experience itself. Erwin and Rosenberger (1961) identified four steps in the listening process. They are: hearing, understanding, evaluating, and responding. In the first step a series of sounds is heard--words and sentences. Secondly, the listener extracts meaning from the words and sentences. In the third step, the listener evaluates the meaning he has gained, and either accepts or rejects the communication. Finally, there is a response to what has been communicated. This response may be a thought, a body movement, a facial expression, or an audible response.

Taylor (1964) reported that some researchers tend to think that the listening act has three distinguishable stages: hearing, listening, and auding. Those who adhere to this view claim that hearing takes place when the sound waves are received and modified by the ear. Listening, it

is believed, is the process of becoming aware of sound components in sequences which have meaning. Auding is thought to be the process by which the sequences of sound are translated into meaning.

Horrworth (1966) saw listening as one of the three facets of auding. The three facets are: hearing, listening, and cognizing. She defined hearing as the process of picking up sound waves, modifying them, and relaying them to the brain by way of the nervous system. What the child hears depends upon the ability of the child's hearing to pick up sound waves of various tones and volumes. It also depends upon the ability of the child to tune in to one particular voice out of two or more voices, and how well the child can handle the input of many sounds. Further, it depends upon how well the child can handle boredom caused through a repetition of the same intensity of sound.

Listening, Horrworth claimed, is the second facet of auding, and it is the process by which the child becomes aware of sound sequence. It actually represents tuning in to what is heard. At this point responses emitted show the attitude of the listener. That is, listening is the aspect of auding where the attitudes, interests, and values of the child are reflected. Horrworth pointed out that eight of Nichols' (1960) suggested poor listening habits are the result of these attitudes, interests, and values. These habits are as follows:

1. Calling a subject dull;
2. Criticizing the speaker;

3. Getting over-stimulated;
4. Listening only for facts;
5. Faking attention;
6. Tolerating distractions;
7. Choosing only what is easy;
8. Allowing emotion-laden words to interfere with listening, (pp. 1-4)

The final phase of auding in Horrworth's model is cognizing. Cognizing, she believed, is made up of perception, judgment, reasoning, remembering, thinking, and imagining. At this stage sound has already become images, and these images are used to connect past experiences with present experiences. Past experiences, therefore, determine what the listener accepts or rejects from his new experience.

Listening, then, is selective according to the attitudes and values already developed. Any measure that is used, therefore, to improve the auding experience must take into account the total auding process and must also include proper attitudes toward the subject matter.

Horrworth further pointed out that auding is the first language art. It would be difficult to argue against this position since children learn to speak any language by listening to the speech sounds emitted by others.

A study by Nichols and Lewis (1965) suggested that listening has only two distinguishable phases. They omit auding as a term. They claimed that the two phases of listening are: hearing and listening. Perception and discrimination, they believed, are aspects of hearing, and listening is attaching meaning to sounds.

It is evident, then, that although there are points of disagreement amongst the various researchers about the terminology that should be used to describe the nature of listening, they are basically in agreement about the nature of listening. In the models under study here, however, hearing is agreed to be the basic component in the listening process. It follows, therefore, that factors involving hearing affect the total listening experience.

III. FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE LISTENING

Physiological Factors

Hearing is the first step of the listening process. Green and Petty (1971) identified several factors involved in the hearing process itself. They are: auditory acuity, binaural hearing, auditory perception, auditory discrimination, masking, and auditory fatigue.

The ability to receive sound waves at various tones (frequencies) and levels of loudness (intensities) is known as auditory acuity. Bond and Tinker (1973) informed us that

> Speech sounds of the normal voice range from 128 cycles (vibrations) to 4,000 cycles per second. There are also some frequencies of sound in speech between 4,000 and 8,000 cycles per second. Middle C on the piano or other musical instrument produce 256 cycles per second. This is about the pitch of the average woman's voice. (p. 121)

The other aspect of auditory acuity is intensity. Intensity is measured in decibels. Inability to respond to normal frequencies and intensities represents a hearing loss. It is estimated that 5 to 10% of all school children have a

handicap with auditory acuity.

Children with high tone deafness have more difficulty with consonant sounds than with vowel sounds. This suggests that children with high tone deafness have a compounded problem when being taught consonant sounds by a woman teacher. Bond and Tinker (1973) further reported that in a study of 288 children, 25% of these children had hearing losses at high frequencies. Children who speak too loudly or too softly and who have difficulty with consonant sounds should be tested for possible high tone deafness. Difficulties with pronunciation, articulation, rhyming, and phonetic exercises, then, may be caused by auditory acuity deficiencies.

Binaural hearing deficiency is another factor contributing to hearing loss. This is the inability of the listener to tune in to the speaker to whom he wishes to listen if there are two or more people in conversation. It is the inability of the listener to co-ordinate the hearing of both ears. Taylor (1964) concluded that the less capable listener has binaural hearing deficiency.

Auditory perception is the listener's ability to perceive sounds. That is, each speech sound must be heard, identified, and recognized as different from every other speech sound. It is also the listener's ability to identify a group of sounds as a symbol--word--to which meaning is attached. Further, it is the listener's ability to identify a group of words such as a phrase or sentence and attach meaning to it.

The listener's ability to deduce the meaning of unknown words or phrases through the use of context is also an aspect of auditory perception. This is important, since in listening as in reading it is often necessary to get the meaning of the word from the context in which it is used.

Auditory discrimination is closely related to auditory perception since the listener not only needs to perceive sounds, but he must also have the ability to discriminate between and amongst them. That is, the listener must be able to discriminate between the speech sounds of letters and also the speech sounds of words. For example, the listener must be able to distinguish between the spoken sounds of letters such as b, d, p. He must also be able to note the similarities and differences in the sounds of such words as "can" and "cane", "pin" and "pen", "boat" and "coat", and "bat" and "bad".

It is possible, however, for a child to have normal hearing and yet have difficulty with sound perception and discrimination. This is particularly the case with children who are unfamiliar with a particular language or dialect. Nonetheless, there is the possibility that a child who has inarticulate speech in any language or dialect may be impeded by a deficiency in auditory perception and auditory discrimination as a result of loss of hearing. The two are interrelated.

It must be stated, however, that many children who have difficulty with auditory perception and auditory discrimination may be reflecting only a lack of understanding of what

they are asked to do, little motivation to remember what they hear, or inattention to what is said rather than a deficiency in hearing.

Masking is also a difficulty involved in hearing. The superimposition of other sounds upon the sound to which the listener is already listening is known as masking. It is necessary, therefore, to eliminate noise in order to provide a suitable listening atmosphere if the child is to gain maximum benefit from the listening experience.

Auditory fatigue is caused by endeavouring to listen to a monotonous or droning sound.

A deficiency in any one of the foregoing aspects of hearing is an impediment to the child's listening ability.

It is not only the child who has difficulty in hearing that has difficulty in listening. The child who is undernourished may also find it difficult to tune in to the listening experience. It takes energy to listen. Energy comes from nourishing food. If the child's energy supply is limited, his ability to listen also suffers as does his general ability to achieve.

The child may also be listening at less than his maximum ability because of a chronic illness, anxiety brought about by home circumstances, or lack of sufficient rest. These, then, are problems which may be transferred to the classroom and become problems impeding listening.

Psychological Factors

Logan and Logan (1967) contended that personality traits, attitudes, and biases are psychological factors

which may contribute to poor listening. The child may have areas of sensitivity which react to cause "deaf-spots" in his listening. That is, the listener may be distracted by emotionally-laden words or phrases used by the speaker. These words and phrases used by the speaker may become infused with subjective meanings causing the listener to lose his objectivity. For example, the listener may be reminded of a personal experience, a joke, a pet name, a friend, or even a foe.

Logan and Logan (1967) further stated that

> Poor listeners, on the whole are more biased than good listeners. The poor listener has less emotional control, broods about what the speaker is doing to destroy his pet theory, stops listening to the speaker, and concentrates on organizing a rebuttal of his own. (p. 49)

The good listener, on the other hand, listens with courteous attention, an open mind, and waits until he has heard the speaker's entire message before he makes a judgment.

Environmental Factors

Two other very important factors which influence listening are: physical environment, and social environment.

The acoustics of the classroom is a physical environment factor which needs to be considered. That is, the child should be able to hear without strain. Seating arrangement should be such that each child has equal opportunity to hear and be heard.

Opportunity to alternate roles should also be considered. The children should be encouraged to alternate roles

in discussions, role playing, members of audiences, and speakers for groups. This alternating of roles gives the children occasion to be both a leader and a follower--a listener and a speaker. In this way the children become accustomed to moving easily from the role of listener to the role of speaker and vice versa.

Auditory and visual distractions should also be at a minimum for these too distract the listener and, therefore, cause poor listening. A proper classroom temperature should also be maintained--neither too hot nor too cold.

The social climate of the classroom is also important to good listening. Here the teacher is responsible for setting the tone. An atmosphere which encourages children to experience, express, and evaluate ideas will lend itself to growth not only in listening and other areas of the curriculum but also in the social and emotional growth of the child. Children are keen to sense an atmosphere of acceptance and encouragement. In such a climate both the communication skills of speaking and listening are aided.

When discussing the child's listening environment the teacher is also a factor to be considered. Trubowitz (1975) emphasized that teachers should be examples of good listeners. He stated that part of the problem of poor listening is a lack of teacher training in this area. He declared that

> School administrators and college instructors tell beginning teachers, "Don't ask questions calling for one word answers. Ask more open-ended questions. Never repeat a question." No one, however, gives much attention to helping teachers become better listeners. (p. 320)

Trubowitz further suggested that

> If listening involves establishing positive relationships, if it requires the ability to perceive and feel with another person, if it aims to have children express their feelings and ideas freely, then we need school and class environments where children feel they are truly heard. We need teachers who can hear and respond. (p. 320)

To help teachers become a positive listening factor in the child's listening environment Trubowitz (1975) offered the following 10-point check list by which teachers may evaluate their own listening behaviour. The 10 points are:

1. Teachers have contact with supervisors who listen.
2. Teachers become sensitive to the stresses that distort perception.
3. Teachers grow in their understanding of how people's views of their job pressure them to talk more and listen less.
4. Teachers learn to value their own silence and are attentive as children conduct discussions.
5. Teachers evaluate themselves as listeners.
6. Teachers become aware of how a room has impact. For example, rigidity in furniture arrangement and lists of rules posted about not calling out, not talking, and raising hands to be recognized--these are all signposts telling children that they will have little chance to talk, that school is a place where they listen rather than are listened to. Children respond differently in small groups and to a teacher not being pinned down behind a large desk, but rather moving about from group to group and from child to child. In such a room they listen with their eyes as well as their ears.
7. Teachers find other ways to create more responsive environments--they give time alone to individual children.

8. Teachers use para-professionals to give listening time to children who rarely in their lives have had an adult all to themselves.

9. Teachers schedule problem-solving sessions in which children discuss subjects such as "Why do fights and arguments start?" "What can we do to keep our things from being stolen?" "Why do people tease and what can we do about it?"

10. Teachers learn how informal situations encourage children to talk more freely. (pp. 319-322)

Experiential Factors

Logan and Logan (1967) suggested that we listen with our experience. The child who has had rich and varied experiences is already interested in many facets of living when he commences formal schooling. On the other hand, a child who commences formal schooling from an impoverished experiential background will need to find in the school curriculum the opportunity for broadening his experiences.

Bernstein (1960) found that one of the experiential factors which adversely affected listening in the classroom was the restricted language codes used in working class households. He indicated that in the lower class household, discipline is authoritarian, partly because the parents have not the vocabulary with which to explain or persuade. This lack of verbalization is also carried over into the realm of affection where it is expressed as a hug rather than "I love you, darling." Language for the child, therefore, is concrete rather than abstract, providing only generalizations

rather than exact discriminations. This, Bernstein suggested, is effective within the family but it is inadequate for the thinking and listening required at school. This lack of language development, therefore, causes the child to fall behind his peers in the communication skills of speaking and listening even though he may have the potential ability of his peers.

Penfield and Marascuilo (1972), in their study of the family's socioeconomic condition and its relationship to the child's listening ability, found that no differences showed in the children's listening ability in relation to their socioeconomic condition at the grade two level, but by the time these same children reached the grade five level there was a distinct change in their performance. The change favoured the children at the higher socioeconomic level. This finding also substantiates the findings of Clarke (1965) and Coleman (1966). They found that as children progress through the grades, performance differentials in listening between high and low socioeconomic groups become progressively greater.

Both Ross (1964) and Nesbitt (1968) found evidence to support the view that, in the main, good listeners come from middle and upper-middle class families, while poor listeners come from lower and lower-middle class families.

Penfield and Marascuilo (1972) further suggested that

> As children progress through school, the environmental conditions under which they are existing come to play a stronger and stronger role in the acquisition of

> information via the listening process. Our results indicate that training in listening skills narrowed the gap between SES levels at the fifth grade. (p. 223)

Binder (1971) also summed up some of the negative experiential factors with which children from impoverished listening backgrounds have to cope when they commence school:

> The transition between home and the relatively calm classroom may be too much for him (the child). His ability to give attention depends largely upon the types of listening existing in the home. Sometimes, in order to protect himself, he has learned not to listen. Knowledge of the effects of too much adult talk, exclusion from conversation, rejection, and general unhappiness in the home can certainly give some understanding of why some children cannot listen for substantial periods. (p. 68)

Summary

It is generally accepted by researchers that hearing is basic to listening. Since research indicates that in some cases 25% of elementary school children have some degree of hearing loss when listening to high frequency sounds, the teacher should be alert to this problem and, where possible, give special attention to the child experiencing this difficulty. It should be especially noted that children with this difficulty require special help with consonant sounds.

Since in some instances good listeners have shown as much hearing loss as poor listeners, it is not to be concluded that all poor listening is a result of poor hearing. The possibility exists that the child has traits, attitudes, and biases with which he requires help before his mind is

clear to gain the maximum from the listening experience.

The physical environment and social climate of the classroom are also important to the child's listening. Each child should be able to hear and be heard in an atmosphere of acceptance and encouragement.

There are, then, many factors relevant to listening, but perhaps the greatest influence to effective listening is the listener's own background, his experiences, and his ability to use language. The teacher, keeping in mind both the needs of the child who has had a stable background and rich and varied experiences, and also the child whose background and experiences have been impoverished, must provide opportunities to enrich and expand the listening abilities of the child who is already superior to his classmates in listening ability, and also provide opportunities for the development of the listening ability of the child whose opportunities and experiences in developing listening have been less than adequate.

IV. LISTENING-READING RELATIONSHIP

Listening and reading are both receptive language arts. They are linked together in a manner similar to the expressive language arts of speaking and writing. To gain the maximum benefit from both listening and reading requires the total involvement of the individual in the receptive process. Both the good listener and the good reader are thinking, reacting, forming responses; and deciding on a

course of action as they listen or read. Without this total involvement in the listening or reading process, the listener hears only words but does not understand; without active engagement in the reading, the reader becomes nothing more than a word caller.

There are also various other similarities between the receptive language arts of listening and reading. Both listening and reading require a readiness to receive a communication. This readiness requires a motivating force to create interest in what is to be heard or read. Ability to perceive sounds correctly is also basic to both listening and reading. That is, the child must have the capacity to distinguish between the sound of, for example, "killed" and "grilled", otherwise the message will be distorted. Similarly, a child must see the difference between "blank" and "blink" or his understanding of the message he reads is negated. Both in listening and in reading, the words, phrases, and other lexical units of language must have meaning for the receptor or he must be able to attach meaning through the use of context clues. If meaning is not attached to these units of language, whether it is in reading or in listening, communication is lost.

In order to comprehend the message both in listening and in reading, the listener and reader must be able to understand not only single words, but also phrases, sentences, and paragraphs. Both listening and reading depend upon the receptor's past experiences to help him

relate what is being heard to what he already knows. In this way the receptor can think about and examine the present message creatively or critically according to his past experiences.

The processes of both listening and reading also use the signals of the language. The signals for listening are pauses, intonations, and key words. The signals for reading are the punctuation marks.

Many researchers have investigated the relationships between listening and reading. One of the earliest studies was done by Rankin (1928). He compared the results of his study in listening with a composite reading score based upon the Detroit Reading Test, the Monroe Reading Test, the Thorndike-McCall Reading Test, and the Stanford Achievement Reading Test. The result of his investigation indicated that listening and reading had a correlational relationship of .48, and he, therefore, concluded that listening and reading are interrelated.

Young (1936) reported that children retained more from an oral presentation by the teacher than they did from their own silent reading. He also found that an oral presentation together with simultaneous silent reading by the students was as effective as oral presentation by the teacher alone. The students who performed poorly in listening comprehension also performed poorly in reading comprehension. Young concluded, therefore, that at the intermediate level, children improve their ability to comprehend through reading at

approximately the same rate they improve their ability to comprehend through listening.

Larsen and Feder (1940) conducted a study in which they investigated the relationship between reading and hearing comprehension. They reported that up to about fifth grade, the lower the reading ability of the student, the greater was the advantage of listening over reading. Conversely, the higher the reading level of the child, the more superior was the reading mode over the listening mode of presentation.

Goldstein (1940), in his study, used the McCall-Crabbs Standard Test Lessons In Reading as measuring instruments for his investigation. He projected these lessons on a screen for reading and recorded them for listening. The results of his study indicated a relationship of .78 between listening and reading.

Armstrong (1953), in his study of 200 children ranging from grades one through eight, found that a child's listening vocabulary was clear evidence of his potential in reading. The following table gives the results of his study:

Age in Years and Months	Mean Number of Words Visually Known	Mean Number of Words Auditorially Known (includes number in column 2)
6 Years and 6 Months	848	3,048
7 Years and 6 Months	1,184	3,476
8 Years and 6 Months	1,900	4,240
9 Years and 6 Months	4,040	5,120
10 Years and 6 Months	6,040	6,600
11 Years and 6 Months	6,080	6,640
12 Years and 6 Months	7,240	7,480

Hogan (1953), in her carefully controlled study, revealed that a group exposed to instruction in listening made significant gains in both listening and reading comprehension. The control group which did not participate in listening training made little or no significant gains either in listening or reading.

The effect of training in listening for certain purposes was investigated by Kelty (1954). She also investigated the effect of training in listening upon the ability of fourth grade pupils to read for these same purposes. She found that practice in listening to select the details of a passage resulted in significant gain in reading for these same purposes. However, training in listening to select the main idea and to draw conclusions showed a positive but not significant relationship to reading for these same purposes.

Hall (1954), in his doctoral study which involved fifth grade students, found a positive correlation of .56 between reading and listening.

A study to assess the relationship between reading and listening comprehension was done by Lewis (1953). In this study, involving upper elementary grades, he found that listening instruction for such purposes as noting details and predicting outcomes had a significant effect upon the children's performance both in reading and listening.

Pratt (1956) developed and implemented a listening program to determine the extent to which grade six students would improve their listening ability following instruction.

A further aspect of this study was to assess the relationship of listening ability to reading ability. The results of his study indicated a positive correlation of .64 between listening ability and reading ability.

Plessas (1957) administered the California Auding Test to 15 classes of eighth-graders. The results of the test were used to help select a group of high auders and a group of low auders. He then compared their respective performances on other tests and found high auding ability to be positively related to a variety of high reading abilities. The co-efficients of the correlations of these abilities ranged from .27 to .80 in the various aspects of reading achievement.

Nichols and Stevens (1957) also reported a positive correlational relationship between listening and reading. They found that listening and reading had a relationship of .70, but when the intelligence factor was held constant, they found the relationship of listening and reading to be .50.

Barbe and Carr (1957), in their study of 46 pupils in grades two through four, suggested that listening ability was probably a better predictor of reading potential than was mental age.

In a study of 110 children, Owen (1958) found that a closer relationship existed between listening and reading for these grades two, three, and four children than existed between listening and intelligence or reading and intelligence. He indicated that reading potential can be obtained

best by using both listening tests and intelligence tests as measures of reading potential.

Toussant (1962) also found that reading potential is best determined by using a listening test in conjunction with other tests, while Schultz (1960) found that the results of an oral vocabulary test was a better predictor of reading potential than either a written vocabulary or an intelligence test.

Witty and Sizemore (1958) considered the relative value of oral and visual presentation of materials. Their findings are summarized below:

1. Listening as a way of learning is more effective in early childhood.
2. Listening seems less effective than reading as an adult way of learning certain materials. This is particularly so if critical discrimination and analysis are involved.
3. Listening is often reinforced by simultaneous use of visual and kinaesthetic approaches to the subject.
4. Success in learning through listening, as with other sensory approaches, depends to a considerable degree upon the individual's experience in listening. (p. 552)

The following are findings of Hampleman (1958) when he compared listening comprehension ability with reading comprehension ability at the fourth and sixth grade levels:

1. Sixth grade pupils are significantly superior to fourth grade pupils in both listening and reading comprehension.

2. Listening comprehension is significantly superior to reading comprehension for fourth grade pupils, sixth grade pupils, boys, and girls.

3. For fourth and sixth grade pupils listening comprehension shows greater superiority over reading comprehension with easy material than it does for difficult material.

4. The relationship between listening and reading comprehension does not appear to be altered by length of passage.

5. Increase in mental age decreases the difference between listening and reading comprehension. (p. 53)

Dow (1958) and Hildredth (1958) concluded that reading comprehension and listening comprehension are similar since both are receptive language arts. They reasoned that since listening comprehension depends upon the comprehension of spoken language, listening to correct English structures helps to improve recognition of these same English structures when they are found in print.

Bonner (1960), in her study of 282 grades four, five, and six pupils at Maxwell Elementary School, Montgomery, Alabama, endeavoured to find answers to several questions related to listening and reading. Two of these questions were:

1. What is the relationship of listening ability to reading ability?

2. How are reading, listening, and intelligence interrelated?

Bonner found that

1. The correlation between listening vocabulary and reading vocabulary

at the fourth grade level was .53, at the fifth grade level .65, and at the sixth grade level it was .54.

2. The correlations between listening and reading comprehension was .57 for the fourth grade, .66 for the fifth grade, and .53 for the sixth grade.

3. The multiple correlation of listening, intelligence, and reading for the fourth grade was .55. In the fifth grade the correlation was .70, and .62 in the sixth grade. (p. 2167)

These correlations indicate a significant positive relationship between listening and reading.

An investigation was carried out by Kraner (1963) to compare the effectiveness of two methods of listening and reading instruction in an eighth grade language arts program. One hundred and fifty-seven students enrolled in six regularly scheduled English classes were assigned by classes to one of two principal groups--an experimental group and a control group. Both the experimental group and the control group were made up of high and low ability students. The experimental group received instruction through the first 25 taped lessons of a Listen and Read Program, while the control group received teacher composed lessons of the same basic concepts as those found in the first 25 lessons of the Listen and Read Program. When the gains of the high ability students were compared with the gains of the low ability students it was found that the Listen and Read Program was significantly more effective with low ability students than with high ability students for both listening and reading comprehension. However, both the high and low ability

students profited equally from instruction that used the taped exercises for immediate recall, following directions, recognizing transitions, word meanings, lecture comprehension, reference skills, interpretation, verbal and graphic study skills, and word usage.

Skiffington (1965) investigated the relationship between listening and reading by using two groups of average eighth grade students in his study. One group served as an experimental group while the other group served as a control group. A standardized reading test, an auding test, and an intelligence test were administered to both groups before training in listening was commenced. The experimental group listened to 26 pretaped auding training exercises over a period of 9 weeks. No formal instruction in reading was given either in the experimental group or the control group. At the end of the 9-week period standardized reading and listening tests were again administered both for the experimental and the control group. The results of these tests indicated that grade eight students who received auding training exercises showed a significant difference in gains in reading achievement over the grade eight students in the control group who received no instruction in auding. Training in auding also resulted in significant improvement in specific aspects of reading such as growth in paragraph comprehension and in alphabetizing. A positive, though not significant, trend also resulted from training in listening as related to certain aspects of reading. These aspects

were: rate of reading, rate in relation to comprehension, directed reading, word meaning, sentence meaning, and use of an index.

Many (1965), in his study of 352 pupils from 14 sixth-grade classrooms situated in three Midwestern United States communities, examined the relationship between listening and reading. His study revealed a correlational relationship of .68 between listening and reading tests scores. Brown (1965) also studied fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children and found that listening and reading were highly correlated. He also found that listening was more closely related to reading than it was to intelligence.

Duker (1965), in his 1964 bibliography, included 200 entries on the interrelationship of listening and reading. The entries he included dealt with:

1. The correlation between listening and reading test scores.
2. The effects of teaching listening on reading and vice versa.
3. The evaluation of listening skills as a measure of reading potential.
4. Listening skills as a factor of reading skills. (p. 321)

Duker reported a growing awareness of a positive relationship between the receptive language arts of listening and reading.

Winter (1966) made a study of a sample of 563 fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children. These children were selected from elementary schools in Arlington, Texas. The

results of her study showed listening to be positively related to reading. She found that listening and reading comprehension had a significant relationship of .53 for all three grades in the study. She also found a positive correlation of .51 between listening vocabulary and reading vocabulary for the three grades in the study.

A further study of fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students was conducted by Fawcett (1966). The total population of her study was 638 students from four elementary schools in Western Pennsylvania. The results of her research indicated that reading comprehension is significantly related to listening ability at the 1% level of confidence.

The chief purpose of Reeve's (1968) investigation was to study the relationship between listening performance and reading performance as measured by standardized tests. These tests were: The Listening Test from the Sequential Test of Educational Progress, Forms 4A, and 4B; and the Reading Test from the Stanford Achievement Battery of Tests, Form Y. The subjects were 247 sixth grade children in the Decatur, Alabama City School System. The purposes of the study were:

1. To find whether a significant difference existed in the listening performance of high, middle, and low readers.
2. To find whether there was a difference in sixth grade listening performance
   (a) when pupils were allowed to read the possible alternative responses to the given questions as the examiner read them aloud, and

(b) when directions for pupil responses to the listening tests allowed no opportunity for them to read the possible alternative responses.

3. To find whether any such differences as indicated by number 2 existed for high, middle, and low performers.

The findings were as follows:

1. Highly significant differences were found in the listening performance of high, middle, and low reading performers. The good readers tended to be good listeners, average readers tended to be average listeners, and poor readers tended to be poor listeners. The greatest difference in listening performance occurred between the high and low readers and the least difference in listening performance was found between the high and middle groups. However, the difference between the high and middle groups was still statistically significant.

2. The total population made significantly higher listening scores when they had the opportunity to read the possible alternative responses for the given questions as well as listen to them. The difference between the scores under the two types of test administration was significant at the .01 level of confidence.

3. Statistically significant differences were found under two types of test administration for each of the three reading levels--high, middle, and low. The scores on the test in which pupils had the opportunity to read the possible alternative responses for the given questions consistently exceeded the scores on the test in which pupils listened only to the possible alternative responses. The results of the two methods of instruction also showed

> statistically significant differences for both boys and girls in favour of the method of instruction in which children had the opportunity to both read and listen to the possible alternative answers. (p. 6563)

Lunsteen (1971) emphasized that listening and reading are similar since both of these languages arts skills are involved in receiving a message. She reported high positive correlations between the two skills. She also suggested the possibility that similar mental processes account for both listening and reading comprehension. She further suggested that more research in these areas may provide insight into more improved teaching strategies.

Kennedy and Weener (1973) randomly assigned 80 third-grade, underachieving readers to four groups having almost exactly the same mean reading grade level. The experimental reading group received training visually with the Cloze Procedure and the experimental listening group received training auditorially with the Cloze Procedure. One of the two control groups remained in the classroom and received no treatment while the other control group spent the same average time in practicing oral reading as the experimental groups spent in their instructional program. All subjects were individually posttested both auditorially and visually with the Cloze Procedures of both listening and reading. They were also tested in groups by using the Durrell Listening-Reading Series, Intermediate Level.

The results of the auditory and visual Cloze Procedures posttest indicated that there was no difference in the

performance of the experimental reading group and the experimental listening group. However, both the experimental reading group and the experimental listening group performed significantly better on these tests than did the two control groups.

The experimental reading group performed significantly better on the Durrell Listening-Reading comprehension subtest than the other three groups. The experimental reading group also performed significantly better on the listening subtest of the Durrell Listening-Reading Tests than did the control groups.

The experimental listening group scored significantly better on the listening comprehension subtest of the Durrell Listening-Reading Tests than the control class, but they did no better on the reading comprehension subtest of the Durrell Listening Series than the two control groups. It is concluded, therefore, that in this study only visual training with the Cloze Procedure benefited reading comprehension; whereas both auditory and visual training with the Cloze Procedure benefited listening comprehension.

Taylor (1972) used the SRA Listening Skills Builder Program, the SRA Listening Program, and the Audio Reading Progress Laboratory to determine the effectiveness of an intensified program of listening experiences administered regularly to third grade students. The results she obtained indicated that children who participated in a planned regularly administered listening program made superior gains on

standardized achievement tests when compared with the results obtained by children who did not participate in a planned, systematically administered program of listening instruction.

Bergey (1978) conducted a study of the listening ability of 18 grade three and 12 grade four children in a Seven-Day Adventist School in St. John's, Newfoundland. These children were enrolled in the one classroom where both grades were taught by the same teacher. To obtain an initial measure of verbal aptitude the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test was administered. The results of this test revealed that their verbal intelligence scores ranged from a low of 62 to a high of 141 with a class mean of 99.5. To obtain initial measures in both listening and reading, the Durrell Listening-Reading Test, Intermediate Level, Form DE was administered. The children were then instructed through the use of 15 taped lessons and accompanying student workbooks. These lessons were a commercial package entitled the Educational Development Laboratories Series. Eight additional lessons taken from the Barnell Loft Specific Skills Series were also used as follow-up and reinforcement.

During an 8-week period the children received a 30-minute period of instruction in listening each school day. The Durrell Listening-Reading Series, Intermediate Level, Form EF was then administered as a posttest. The results of this study indicated that, over an 8-week period, the combined groups of grades three and four made a grade equivalent gain of 0.3 in listening comprehension, and a 1.0 gain

in reading comprehension. When the statistics for the grades three and four were analyzed separately, it was found that the grade three class made a grade equivalent gain of 0.2 in listening comprehension, and a grade equivalent gain of 0.8 in reading comprehension. The grade four class made a grade equivalent gain of 0.6 in listening comprehension, and a grade equivalent gain of 1.2 in reading comprehension. The results of this investigation indicated, therefore, that a program of instruction in listening not only significantly improved the children's listening comprehension, but it also showed superior gains in reading comprehension.

King (1981) developed a listening skills program for sixth grade children and implemented it at Gould's Elementary School, Goulds, Newfoundland. The program consisted of 30 lessons. Twenty-nine grade six students participated in the study. The skills taught were: following directions, following sequence, summarizing main ideas, detecting main ideas and significant details, recognizing cause and effect, visualizing for the purpose of illustrating, making inferences, drawing conclusions, outlining, identifying mood, and distinguishing fact from opinion.

Prior to the implementation of the instructional program in listening the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test was administered to determine the verbal intelligence score of each child. These scores ranged from a low of 79 to a high of 140. The mean score for the class was 103.4.

A pretest using the Durrell Listening-Reading Test, Intermediate Level, Form DE was administered to determine

initial listening and reading scores, and a posttest using the Durrell Listening-Reading Test, Intermediate Level, Form EF was administered to determine the degree of improvement, if any, in listening and reading during the instructional period.

The gains of the posttest over the pretest indicated that a program of instruction in listening skills significantly improved not only the listening ability of the students but also their reading ability as well. This improvement was significant at the .05 level of confidence when calculated according to the Pearson product moment correlation and the t-statistic.

Green and Petty (1971) gave some parallelisms and differences between listening and reading. Some of the parallelisms are as follows:

1. Certain elements are common to both areas--vocabulary, sentence patterns, organizational structure.
2. Both require relating to past experiences: that is, the ideas or concepts in the materials read or listened to must be partly familiar.
3. Both may be done more effectively when their purposes have been clearly defined.
4. In both, the word is usually not the unit of comprehension but it affects understanding of the phrase, sentence, or paragraph. Children must hear or read certain key words accurately, and they must understand the meanings of individual words in the context in which they are used.
5. Both require attention to signals--punctuation in writing and pauses and intonations in speech.

6. Both involve critical and creative interpretation of material. Pupils must consider the source of material, its relevancy, and the emotional power of words. (p. 160)

The above similarities of listening and reading do not suggest, however, that there are no differences between listening and reading. Neither do these similarities mean that skill in listening will mean equal skill in reading and vice versa. Reading allows the reader to "go back", to take time to look up a word in a dictionary if the meaning is not clear, to control the rate of input, and pause to assimilate or reconstruct what has been read. Listening does not permit these advantages. On the other hand, reading lacks the personal contact with the speaker that is often present in the listening experience. Voice inflections, facial expressions, and gestures are aids to communication in listening which the reader does not have in the reading experience.

Summary

Experimental research in listening and reading has indicated that these two components of the language arts are interrelated. It has indicated, for example, that reading comprehension is significantly related to listening ability. However, a child may know the reading skills without having developed his potential in listening. On the other hand, research has indicated that improved listening ability is a sound predictor of the child's capacity to improve his reading ability. The reverse is also possible unless the child has physical defects. When all who are concerned with the

teaching of reading take into account the findings of the listening-reading research discussed in this chapter, reading instruction will almost certainly be more advantageous to the child.

V. LISTENING AND INTELLIGENCE

Language activity, whether expressive or receptive, is a thinking activity. Most teachers assume, therefore, that a strong relationship exists between listening and intelligence. Most researchers in the field of listening and intelligence have reported results which seem to support this view.

Pratt (1956) studied the relationship between listening and intelligence. The population from which he selected his sample was the grade six classes from the State of Iowa, and the States contiguous to Iowa, in the United States. His sample was made up of 40 grade six classes which he randomly selected. The Pintner Intelligence Test, Form B, Intermediate Battery, was administered to determine the intellectual ability of the students, and the Tests of Listening Ability, which Pratt himself developed, was administered to determine the students' listening ability. An analysis of the data from these two tests indicated that listening and intelligence had a correlation of .66.

Anderson and Baldauf (1963) conducted an investigation of the fifth grade students of Cedar Rapids Public Schools, Iowa. They selected a random sample of 420 students from

the total grade five population of these schools. The Otis Mental Ability Test was administered to measure intellectual ability, and the Sequential Tests of Educational Progress, Listening Test 4, was administered to measure listening ability. The results of these tests indicated a relationship of .58 between listening and mental age.

Ross (1964) examined the relationship of listening to intelligence in a community in southern California. His subjects were 43 fifth-, sixth-, and seventh-graders from the public school system. They were identified as being in the lower third of their class in listening ability. The Sequential Tests of Educational Progress, Listening Test 4, was utilized to measure listening ability, and the California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity was used to measure intelligence. When the results of these tests were analyzed it was revealed that good listeners in the study had greater intellectual ability than the poor listeners in the study. Differences between the two groups were significant at the .05 level of confidence. Brown (1965) supported the findings of Ross. He found that there existed a correlation of .775 between listening and intelligence for grade four, a correlation of .668 between listening and intelligence for grade five, and a correlation of .76 between listening and intelligence for grade six.

Fawcett (1966) administered the Sequential Tests of Educational Progress, Listening Test 4A, and the California Tests of Mental Maturity to the 638 pupils in her study.

Her sample consisted of fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children. Analysis of the data collected from these tests showed a relationship of .51 between listening and mental age. This correlation was significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Winter (1966), in her study of 563 elementary school children in Arlington, Texas Public School System, also endeavoured to determine the relationship between listening and intelligence. The Sequential Test of Educational Progress, Listening Test 4, and the California Test of Mental Maturity were administered. The results of Winter's investigation showed the relationship of listening and intelligence to be significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Logan and Logan (1967) suggested, however, that one factor which has deterred a systematic listening program in our schools is the misconception that listening is largely a matter of intelligence. They claimed that

> Although there is a positive correlation between listening ability and intelligence as there is between intelligence and behaviour in response to situations; the relationship between listening and intelligence is not nearly so significant as many have assumed. It is more correct to say "We listen with our experience" than "We listen with our intelligence." Observe how one "pricks up his ears" when the conversation turns to a subject in which he can speak from experience. How well we listen is determined by the extent to which we develop and utilize skills required for effective listening. (p. 46)

Childers (1970) conducted an investigation of 111 elementary school pupils in a large urban Midwestern school

system to determine the relationship of listening and intelligence. His study seems to bring into focus, not only the role that intelligence has to play in listening, but also the role to be played by experience. Childers used the Kuhlman-Finch Test to measure intelligence and the Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty, Listening Test to measure listening ability. In this study Childers compared two groups of low intelligence students with one group of high intelligence students across three grade levels. He found that, after receiving instruction in listening, the experimental group of low intelligence students scored significantly higher than another group of low intelligence students who did not receive instruction in listening skills development. He also found that the experimental group of low intelligence students who received training in listening development did not score significantly different from the group of high intelligence pupils who did not receive instruction in listening development.

The results of this investigation seem to suggest, therefore, that there is a positive relationship between listening and intelligence, since the high intelligence group had already attained the listening level of the experimental group without participating in a program of listening instruction. However, it must also be noted that the experimental group of low intelligence students, after they had received appropriate experiences in listening through a program of listening instruction, attained the same level of

listening as the high intelligence students. These findings indicate that children of high intelligence have an advantage over low intelligence children in listening--an advantage that can be minimized through appropriate training in listening.

Summary

A number of educational researchers have found a positive relationship between listening and intelligence. Pratt (1956) found a correlation of .66 between listening and intelligence, and Anderson and Baldauf (1963) reported a relationship of .58. Ross (1964) found a relationship between listening and intelligence at the .05 level of confidence, and Brown (1965) found correlations of .775 for grade four; .668 for grade five, and .76 for grade six. Fawcett (1966) and Winter (1966) found a positive relationship between listening and intelligence at the .01 level of confidence. Logan and Logan (1967) agreed that there is a positive correlation between listening and intelligence, but also emphasized that this positive relationship should not deter us from providing appropriate listening experiences for children of lesser intellectual ability, since "We listen with our experience." Childers (1970) supported this view. He found that children with high intellectual ability were better listeners than children of low intellectual ability. He also found that when low ability children were given meaningful experiences in listening, through a listening skills instructional program, they attained the listening

level of the high intelligence students.

The results of the foregoing studies in listening and intelligence imply that children of high intelligence have an advantage in listening over children of low intelligence. However, this advantage can be minimized when low ability children are given appropriate experiences in listening instruction.

VI. RESEARCH IN LISTENING INSTRUCTION

One of the earliest research studies in listening was conducted by Wilt (1950). She investigated the extent to which elementary school children were expected to listen throughout the school day. She discovered that elementary school children listened 57.5% of the time they spent in the classroom. However, despite the high percentage of time spent in listening, the elementary children in her study were not given systematic listening instruction. Wilt found that the distribution of listening time was as follows:

Distribution of Listening Time

(Children listening to)	%
Teacher-talk	33.0
Teacher-read	3.5
Teacher-child conversation	6.0
Questions-answers	14.5
Child-talk	6.0
Child-read	9.5
Child-child conversation	6.5
Group discussion	6.0
Radio talk	7.0
Choric activities	1.0
Singing	7.0

In view of these findings Wilt recommended that a wide variety of listening experiences be introduced to help children adapt their listening to serve the purposes of a variety of listening activities. Wilt's assumption that listening ability can be improved with instruction has been the basis for the thrust of many research studies in more recent years. A representative number of these research studies are summarized in this section.

One of the earlier experiments in listening instruction was carried out by Hogan (1953), and reported by Logan, Logan, and Paterson (1972). It was confirmed that over a 6-week period an experimental group made superior gains over a control group by listening to readings, radio programs, sound motion pictures, individual and group reports, discussions about standards of listening, and separating fact from opinion in radio advertising.

Hollow (1955) designed a study to assess whether or not a planned systematic program of listening instruction would advance the listening comprehension level of intermediate grade children. The results of her study indicated that the experimental group involved in her study showed superior gains over the control group; the children with low, average, and high intelligence benefited from systematic instruction in listening comprehension. Reading comprehension, spelling, language, and intelligence were all factors which showed a positive relationship to listening comprehension.

Edgar (1961) matched two groups of fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children to determine the difference in gains, if any, between the experimental group that listened to 10 half-hour recorded lessons, and the control group that read the same material and answered the same questions that were answered by the experimental group. The instructional materials included the use of analogy, exposition, vocabulary practice, and the story approach. Edgar posttested the groups 6 weeks after the pretest and found that the experimental group had made significant gains in listening in each type of material used, but the greatest gain was made by use of the analogous material.

Devine (1961) used two matched groups of ninth-graders in his study. In an effort to improve critical listening ability he developed a series of recordings and used them to instruct the experimental group. Following instruction, the experimental group showed a statistically significant gain in recognizing the bias of the speaker, separating fact from opinion, and discriminating between factual and emotive language.

Trivette (1961) employed 147 fifth grade students in her experiment to assess whether or not specific listening skills could be effectively taught. The children were pretested and then given training in listening for main ideas, details, and inferences. The results of the posttest proved that training in specific listening skills was effective for most students in the study. That is, 77.5% of the students showed improvement in listening.

Canfield, in his (1961) study, endeavoured to determine how useful lessons in listening were to fifth grade pupils. He used three groups. They were matched on intelligence and were then administered the Sequential Test of Educational Progress, Listening Tests, 4A. On this test the control group was found to have a mean score significantly higher than the other groups. Provision was made in the statistical analysis to take care of the difference in listening achievement. One of the three groups was then given instruction in listening. The instruction consisted of 12 lessons. The aims of the lessons were to

1. Listen for main ideas when they were stated in a topic or key sentence;
2. Infer main ideas when they are not stated;
3. Listen for main ideas when they are expressed as a feeling;
4. Distinguish between main ideas and important details;
5. Distinguish between relevant and irrelevant details;
6. Listen for main ideas based on opinions;
7. Listen for transitional phrases. (p. 148)

To study the result of indirect instruction in listening skills, the second group of children was given 12 lessons as well. The materials used were the same as the materials used in the first group. However, the main purpose of the study was different. The purpose was to develop social studies concepts and, at the same time, to determine whether or not listening skills are improved while concepts are being

developed. The control group was given no special training. They took part in the regular language arts program.

Following instruction, the Sequential Tests of Educational Progress, Listening Test, 4B was administered. The group that was given direct instruction in listening scored a mean gain of 4.36; the group that was given indirect listening instruction made a mean gain of 3.49; and the control group made a mean gain of 1.42. The gains of both the group that received direct instruction in listening and the group that received indirect instruction in listening were significant at the .01 level of confidence. However, the group that was given direct instruction in listening made the greater gain. The gain of the control group was not significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Lunsteen (1963), in her study of fifth and sixth grade children, defined critical listening as the process of examining spoken materials in the light of related objective evidence, comparing the ideas with some standard or consensus, and then concluding or acting upon the judgment made. She concluded that, given appropriate instructional materials and opportunities for appropriate experiences in listening, elementary school children are capable of improving their critical listening ability. In a follow-up study of the students who participated in her experiment, Lunsteen found that the improvement the experimental group had made in critical listening during the experiment was permanent.

Fawcett (1966) made a study to assess the effectiveness of teaching listening skills to fourth, fifth, and sixth

grade students. Her study involved 638 students from four elementary schools in Western Pennsylvania. Fawcett found that students who received listening instruction showed significant improvement over those who did not receive such instruction.

Johnson and Richardson (1968) worked with the students attending speech classes at Auburn University. They divided the students into three groups, each containing an equal number of freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors. Their aim was to improve listening through practice, to give a motive for listening, provide immediate feed-back, and to use techniques already accepted in speech classes.

Group A was required to listen to six tape-recorded 10-minute lectures at the rate of one per week for six consecutive weeks. Ten tape-recorded questions of a multiple choice nature were answered by the students following each lecture. The responses given by the students were graded and given back to the students prior to the next lesson.

Group B was required to listen to four different speeches given by four different students each week. Motivation to listen carefully was created by telling the students that following the speeches they would be required to respond to questions asked on one of the lectures. The speeches were given for six consecutive weeks. Reinforcement was provided by returning the graded sheets to the students the day following the speech.

Group C was not given an intensified listening experience. Instead, they were involved in evaluating about 100

speeches per quarter in their regular speech training classes. They were to assess these speeches for invention, organization, style, and delivery. All three groups were then posttested to determine the effectiveness of the experiment. It was found that Groups A and B had made significant improvement in their listening ability as a result of the intensified period of instruction, while group C had made no significant improvement in their listening performance.

An analysis of variance test was then applied in which each group was compared with the other. The results of the analysis of variance test also showed the treatment given to groups A and B to be significantly superior to the treatment given group C. It was concluded, therefore, that specific instruction in listening resulted in improved listening ability.

Eleven basic skills involved in effective listening were isolated by Penfield and Marascuilo (1972). These skills were also believed to underlie an effective understanding of oral and written communication. The skills isolated were: inferring connotative word meaning, identifying the stated main idea, predicting the sequence of thought, inferring the speaker's purpose, applying standards to judge persuasion, inferring the main idea from specifics, judging logical validity, and identifying ambiguities.

The subjects in this study ranged from grades two through five. They were randomly assigned to treatment and nontreatment conditions. The experimental group was given

training by means of 22 recorded lessons and two review sessions. Three variables were controlled. They were: socio-economic status, sex, and training. For the two groups being studied, training was found to be effective in raising the performance level of the students. Neither the grade two students nor the grade five students showed a significant difference in performance relative to sex. This finding supports the conclusion of Bonner (1960), Devine (1961), and Fawcett (1966).

A significant finding in this study was that, although there were no socioeconomic differences in performance at the grade two level, at the grade five level there was a distinct change in achievement in favour of the students at the high socioeconomic level. This finding endorses the findings of Clarke (1965), and Coleman (1966).

A further finding of this study was that training in listening skills narrowed the gap between socioeconomic levels at the grade five level. This result suggests, therefore, that training in listening is probably a partial solution to the problem of low school achievement.

Bergey (1978) made a study of the listening achievement of 18 grade three students and 12 grade four students. Included in his sample of 30 students were six children who spent part of each school day in a special education class. Bergey hypothesized that, as a result of participating in an 8-week listening instruction program, the children in his study would raise their listening comprehension scores

more than could be reasonably expected without taking part in a listening instruction program. He emphasized flexibility of approach in his listening program. The different approaches were: listening while reading, listening for a purpose, directed listening, and recreational listening. The skills which Bergey taught were:

1. to follow directions;
2. to locate answers;
3. to use content;
4. to detect the main idea;
5. to get the facts;
6. to predict;
7. to compare;
8. to detect sequence;
9. to draw conclusions;
10. to visualize;
11. to summarize;
12. to recognize cause and effect;
13. to distinguish between fact and opinion;
14. to distinguish between fact and fancy. (p. 18)

When the results of the listening instruction program were analyzed it was found that the grade three class made a mean grade gain of 0.2 over the 8-week period. This improvement in listening according to Durrell (1970) was to be expected, and was, therefore, not considered significant. However, the grade four class made a mean gain of 0.6 in listening

comprehension over the 8-week period. This, when measured by the t-statistic, showed a significant increase in listening performance.

Perhaps the most striking aspect of Bergey's (1978) study was the results obtained by the children who spent part of each school day in a special education class. Bergey explained that

> When the vertical movement of the six special education students was compared with the vertical movement of the six students who received the high-IQ ratings in the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Tests, the results were quite interesting. The special education students showed a mean gain of 2.6 in their rank order placements, while the six gifted students showed a mean gain of 0.8 on the same placement continuum. (p. 30)

King (1981) investigated the effect of an experimental listening instruction program on the listening achievement of 29 grade six students over an 8-week period. The program consisted of lessons built around the following specific skills:

1. to follow directions;
2. to follow sequence;
3. to summarize main ideas;
4. to detect main ideas and significant details;
5. to recognize cause and effect;
6. to visualize for the purpose of illustrating;
7. to make inferences and draw conclusions;
8. to outline;

9. to identify mood;

10. to distinguish fact from opinion.

The Durrell Listening-Reading Test, Intermediate Level, Form DE was administered as a pretest and the Form EF of the same test was administered as a posttest. The results of these tests revealed that the mean grade equivalent scores for listening comprehension in the pretest was 5.8, and in the posttest the mean grade was 6.5. The results showed, therefore, a mean gain of 0.7 of a grade. This result, when measured by the t-statistic, showed a significant gain at the .05 level of confidence.

Summary

Since the results of research indicate that the highest percentage of time spent in the classroom is spent in listening, it is only reasonable to emphasize that the child should be instructed to attain his maximum potential in this multi-purpose component of the language arts. Results in listening further reveals that both the gifted child and the child of low mental ability improve their listening ability as a result of instruction in listening. It has also been shown that indirect listening improves listening ability, but in order to gain the maximum benefit from the listening experience a well planned program of listening instruction is necessary. Since listening is a multi-purpose component of the language arts--that is, the child is expected to listen for a variety of purposes and to various types of materials--a variety of purposes and types of material should be

included in the listening program. Finally, the teacher's task at every level of education is to become aware of the importance of listening; to utilize appropriate listening materials; to provide challenging listening activities; and to instruct in a manner that will be both meaningful and rewarding to the child.

VII. PURPOSES FOR TEACHING LISTENING

The purposes for teaching listening must include the kind of listener we wish to develop; the meaningful skills to be taught to develop good listeners; and reasons for giving direct emphasis to listening. Duker (1961) suggested that meaningful listening should include the following:

1. A listener who listens;
2. Selective listening;
3. Skillful listening;
4. Critical listening;
5. Courteous listening;
6. Attentive listening;
7. Retentive listening;
8. A curious listener;
9. Reactive listening;
10. Reflective listening. (pp. 170-174)

Duker explained two of his purposes for teaching listening as follows:

1. A good listener must be a reacting listener. He is more than a mere human blotter soaking up words as he

listens to them. He actively reacts and changes his course of action when this seems desirable as a result of listening. He doesn't consider the listening experience ended at the close of the speaker's presentation. He goes on to find out more about the subject involved. He lets the speaker know orally or in writing of his reaction. He discusses what he has heard with others and thinks about it. I need not belabour the point that those teachers who insist on an acceptance of the truth of every word they utter and who have all sorts of dodges available to avoid saying "I don't know" are hardly likely to foster this kind of reactive listening.

2. 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 reasoning; 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. Sharing becomes the keynote, rather than merely taking. We do not and cannot live alone, but we do not truly become members of society until we are willing to reflect on the contributions of other members of that society. To lack the ability to do this is a mark of loneliness. Children are often lonely, not only in the commonly accepted sense of the word, but mentally lonely, ideationally lonely, intellectually lonely. This fact offers an unparalleled opportunity for the creative, thinking teacher who can use listening experience as a pathway to lead these children out of their sterile intellectual loneliness to a rich realization of the values offered by others. To an extent, teaching this kind of listening can become a way of teaching the art of living and that, after all, is the true function that we, as teachers, have to perform.
(p. 174)

Listening, then, is not only receptive, but it is also reactive, reflective, and responsive. Understanding of and feeling for the listener are also important factors in the listening experience.

Asher (1966) emphasized the need for pleasurable listening experiences. He claimed that listening should include a total physical response. He further explained that it is the child's total physical response that causes the "missionary child theory" of total absorption to work for children and not for adults. Children, he claimed, combine physical locomotion of the whole body in the listening act. For example, "Come on, Tommy, let's ride our bikes!" On the other hand, adults tend to be immobile and inert when they speak or listen. For example, "Hello, John. Anything new today? A baby boy, eh? Well, congratulations!" Asher suggested that it is the pleasurable action that gives the child the motivation required to stimulate listening. It works better for the child than for the adult because the child has not yet acquired the inhibitions that are acquired in later life. Active listening, then, appears to be more successful than passive listening.

Farrell and Flint (1967) suggested that the primary teacher may evaluate the listening skills of the children by asking the following questions:

1. How well do the children follow oral directions?
2. How often must I repeat instructions?

3. Do children's responses reveal comprehension through listening?

4. Are children accurate in giving recall information and description after a listening experience?

5. Is there appropriate questions of content, new words, and concepts?
(p. 528)

If, after evaluation, it is believed that children are listening passively rather than actively, it indicates that they need a purpose for listening. A purpose should be provided since listening in the upper grades is dependent upon the development of auditory perceptions in the beginning school years. To do this useful and enjoyable activities are necessary. This may be accomplished by using musical games that discriminate between pitches, tones, tempo, and speed changes. Children may also be encouraged to listen to sounds they hear at home; to listen to sounds they hear going to school and from school; to listen to the sounds they hear at school; and to listen to the sounds they hear when shopping with their parents in a large supermarket or departmental store.

At the elementary level the primary level purposes for listening should be further developed, but other purposes for listening should also be added. Logan, Logan, and Paterson (1972) suggested the following purposes for listening at the elementary level:

1. Listening to follow directions;

2. Listening for information;

3. Listening for enjoyment;
4. Listening to evaluate (critical listening);
5. Listening to appreciate (making esthetic judgments);
6. Listening to communicate;
7. Listening to discriminate speech sounds;
8. Listening to solve problems. (pp. 57-58)

To teach each and all of these skills the authors advocate that objectives be set up, techniques be utilized by the teacher, activities be participated in by the children, and co-operative evaluation be done by both teacher and pupils. For example, listening to follow directions might have the following:

Objective:	Listen actively for who, what, when, where.
Technique:	Organize material so that it is systematic, explicit, brief.
Activity:	Follow directions for cutting and folding paper, drawing pictures, or writing, according to oral instructions.
Evaluation:	Did the speaker wait until the children were ready to listen before giving directions?

At the junior high school level personal communication becomes important. Logan, Logan, and Paterson (1972) suggested that the following are important purposes for listening at this level: evaluating evidence, propaganda, high-powered salesmanship gimmicks, fact versus fiction, myth versus reality, and truth versus propaganda. To listen for

these purposes radio and television programs such as documentaries, panel discussions, dramatic productions, and news commentators are useful materials to study. The authors further suggest, and the writer agrees, that a gradual spiralling of listening activities through the grades may well result in the development of more critical and more mature ability to listen.

Summary

The teaching of listening must take into account two very important factors--the listener and the purposes for teaching listening. Duker (1961) claimed that we must not make the same mistake in the teaching of listening that we have made in the teaching of reading. That is, listening must be made such a pleasurable experience that the child will continue to make listening a part of his daily activities long after he has completed his formal schooling. This means motivating the child to listen through active involvement in the listening experience rather than demanding that he listen. The purposes for listening must take into account the developmental readiness of the child. The primary teacher must build upon the skills of listening that the child has already acquired, and the elementary teacher must endeavour to broaden and refine the child's listening skills throughout the elementary school years in order to prepare the child for the more critical aspects of listening that will be required at the junior high school level.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

I. PURPOSES AND OBJECTIVES

A review of the research literature related to listening has shown that, if children are to reach their potential in listening, then the teaching of listening must be intentional and not incidental. Research results have also shown that instruction in listening skills not only helps to develop children's listening ability, but it also contributes to improved reading comprehension. Czekanski (1974) stated that the parallel between reading and listening is of such magnitude that if one were to substitute the word reading for listening in the objectives for a good listening program, one would have a better than average set of reading objectives. It was with this in mind that the writer selected and conducted a short experimental program in listening with a group of grade five children to:

1. Determine whether grade five children will show significant gain in their ability to listen effectively after participating in a program of direct instruction in listening skills;
2. Examine the relationship between the children's ability to listen and their ability to read;
3. Investigate the relationship between the children's listening ability and their level of intelligence.

The following are the specific skills around which the experimental program was built:

1. to discriminate between sounds, syllables, and tones;
2. to follow directions;
3. to follow a sequence of events;
4. to distinguish between the topic, the main idea, and the details;
5. to listen to make mental notes;
6. to select and then write the key words of mental notes;
7. to summarize by selecting key words, key ideas, and key facts;
8. to recognize cause and effect when stated in different ways;
9. to recognize several effects from one cause;
10. to listen creatively--to determine the mood of words and to draw pictures illustrating mood;
11. to distinguish between fact and opinion;
12. to make inferences about people, places, things, actions, and time.

The investigator hypothesized that children who would participate in the foregoing listening-skills-development program would also show significant improvement in their listening ability and also their reading ability.

II. DESCRIPTION OF THE POPULATION

The writer is presently employed as a teacher in St. Mark's Elementary School, Shearstown. Since listening instruction is rarely emphasized in the language arts textbooks it is not surprising that St. Mark's Elementary in the Avalon North Integrated School System, like many other

schools in the province, does not offer a systematic listening program. The writer, therefore, approached the principal of St. Mark's Elementary School seeking permission to instruct the grade five students in a program of listening skills. The principal, being aware of the importance of listening in all school subjects, was keen to co-operate. He, together with the grade five teachers, agreed that a 35-minute block of time be made available to the writer every second school day for as long as should be deemed necessary.

The writer found it beneficial to implement the listening program in a school where she had already taught and gained insights into the children's background experiences, behavioural problems, and academic strengths and weaknesses. Prior to implementing the listening program the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test was administered to the 42 grade five students to determine the intellectual ability of the children involved in the listening program. This test was administered by the school guidance counsellor. The Durrell Listening-Reading Test, Intermediate Level, Form DE, was administered by the writer to measure both the listening and reading ability of these children. A 9-week listening instruction program was then implemented by the writer. Throughout the 9-week period eight students missed one or more of the sessions. When the data for the listening instruction group were analyzed, these eight children were eliminated from the investigation. The remaining 34 students became the experimental group. Their intelligence scores

ranged from a high of 115 to a low of 71. The mean intelligence score for the 34 students was 90.3 (see Table I). At the conclusion of the listening instruction program, the Durrell Listening-Reading Test, Intermediate Level, Form EF, was administered as the posttest.

Two other schools in the Avalon North Integrated School System were approached by the writer who sought permission to involve the fifth grade students of these schools in the investigation. The principal and grade five teacher from both the Amalgamated School, Bay Roberts, and the Elementary School, Clarke's Beach, were most co-operative. They gave permission to have the various tests administered to the fifth grade class of their respective schools, making available the necessary time in which to administer the tests. The Durrell Listening-Reading Test, Intermediate Level, Form DE, was administered by the writer as the pretest, and after a 9-week period in which the students participated in the regular language arts program of their respective schools, the writer administered the Durrell Listening-Reading Test, Form EF, as the posttest. Prior to administering the pretest, the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test was administered by the school guidance counsellor to determine the intellectual level of the students. At the end of the 9-week period a control group of 34 students was selected from the 57 children who were tested. The students selected were those whose level of intellectual ability was closest to the intellectual level of the experimental group.

Table I

Experimental Group Profile

I.Q. as Measured by Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test

Student	I.Q.
4	115
5	113
6	110
8	106
9	105
10	104
11	103
12	100
13	99
14	98
16	97
17	95
18	95
19	94
20	92
21	90
23	89
24	88
25	87
26	86
27	85
28	82
29	81
30	81
31	81
32	80
33	80
34	80
35	79
36	79
39	76
40	75
41	75
42	71
Total Mean Score	90.3

The selection was done to: (1) equal the number of students in the experimental group, and (2) to avoid extremes in intelligence quotients between the experimental group and the control group. After this process of elimination the intelligence quotients of the remaining students ranged from a high of 116 to a low of 82. The mean intelligence score of the 34 students whose intelligence scores were closest to the intelligence scores of the experimental group was still superior by 9.0 points. The control group's mean intelligence score was 99.3, while the experimental group's mean intelligence score was 90.3. This, therefore, gave the control group an advantage in ability over the experimental group (see Table II).

III. INSTRUMENTS AND MATERIALS

The Science Research Associates Listening Skills Program, Intermediate Level, IIb was the material used in the listening instruction program. Before each lesson was presented, the writer listened to the tape and developed behavioural objectives for each specific listening skill. She also instructed the children in the purpose for which they were to listen. Following each presentation the students' responses were evaluated and the percentage of correct responses for each behavioural objective was recorded (see Appendix I).

The aim of the lessons in listening was to develop increased proficiency in the following specific skills:

Table II

Control Group Profile

I.Q. as Measured by Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test

Student	I.Q.
1	116
2	114
3	113
4	112
5	112
6	111
7	110
8	109
9	107
10	107
11	107
12	106
13	106
14	106
15	104
16	103
17	102
18	100
19	98
20	98
21	97
22	95
23	94
24	94
25	90
26	88
27	87
28	87
29	87
30	85
31	84
32	83
33	82
34	82
Total Mean Score	99.3

Lesson 1, sessions 1 and 2: Auditory discrimination

Lesson 2, sessions 1 and 2: Following directions

Lesson 3, sessions 1 and 2: Following sequence

Lesson 4, sessions 1 and 2: Main ideas and details

Lesson 5, sessions 1 and 2: Note-taking

Lesson 6, sessions 1 and 2: Summarizing

Lesson 7, sessions 1 and 2: Cause and effect

Lesson 8, sessions 1 and 2: Cause and effect

Lesson 9, sessions 1 and 2: Creative listening

Lesson 10, sessions 1 and 2: Fact and opinion

Lesson 11, sessions 1 and 2: Inference

In addition to the skills which the 22 recordings develop, the following five skills are an integral part of the separate lessons: vocabulary, organization, critical listening, appreciative listening, and skill in listening for a specific purpose.

The writer stated and discussed with the children beforehand the skill being developed in each lesson. That is, the writer instructed the children to listen for a purpose.

Throughout the entire project the children's responses for each lesson were checked and returned to them prior to the beginning of the next lesson. This procedure provided opportunity for formative evaluation of the children's responses throughout the listening instruction program. The results of this formative evaluation were determined by the percentage of correct responses to each behavioural objective

(see Appendix I). A summation of the formative evaluation was calculated for each listening skill in percentage form and was tabulated (see Appendix II).

IV. DESCRIPTION OF THE PROCEDURE

On opening day, following a brief discussion on the need to listen effectively in today's complex society, the writer explained to and discussed with the experimental group, the different levels of listening. That is, the writer explained that the listener listens at different levels according to his need to communicate in different situations. For example, the listener listens for information, for directions, and for pleasure. He also listens to gain new insights, and to explore new ideas. To do this different levels of listening are involved. The writer used Greene and Petty's (1971) nine types of listening to help explain to the children the different levels at which the listener performs. They were:

1. Hearing sounds or words but not reacting beyond bare recognition of them;
2. Intermittent listening, with the mind wandering in between;
3. Half-listening or listening only closely enough to know when it is his turn to do something;
4. Listening passively with little or no response;
5. Listening narrowly, missing significant parts but accepting that which is familiar or agreeable to him;

6. Listening and forming associations with related items from his own experience;

7. Listening closely enough to get the organization of the material--to get the main idea and supporting details;

8. Listening critically, including asking for more data on the statements made;

9. Appreciative and creative listening with genuine mental and emotional responses. (p. 162)

The discussion was held for the purpose of helping the children assess their own need to listen well; to motivate them to adopt positive listening attitudes; and to develop proper listening habits.

At the beginning of the next session the writer began to administer the pretest. The instrument used for this purpose was the Durrell Listening-Reading Test, Intermediate Level, Form DE. This test was administered in four 35-minute sessions. Two of these sessions were spent with listening tests and two were spent with reading tests. The tests were then scored and the raw scores were converted to grade equivalents. This procedure was followed for both the experimental group and the control group.

Prior to commencing the instructional listening program a further discussion was held with the experimental group in which Logan and Logan's (1967) purposes for listening were discussed with the experimental listening group. They were:

1. Listening to follow directions;
2. Listening for information;
3. Listening for enjoyment;
4. Listening to evaluate;
5. Listening to appreciate;
6. Listening to communicate;
7. Listening to discriminate sound.
(p. 52)

A discussion of these purposes for listening was held to help the children to form an overview of reasons for listening, and to further stimulate them to gain the maximum from the instructional listening skills program which was about to commence.

The Science Research Associates Listening Skills' Program, Intermediate Level, IIb, was chosen by the writer for use in the instructional listening program. This program consists of 11 teaching tapes which give instruction in 10 listening skills. These skills were taught in 22 30-minute instructional periods. Before each listening instruction session the writer listened to the taped lesson to be used and developed behavioural objectives for it. Following each listening instruction session the children's papers were collected and their responses for each behavioural objective were evaluated (see Appendix I). At the end of the listening instruction program the percentage of correct responses for each separate listening skill was determined and recorded. The mean percentage of correct

responses for the entire program was also found (see Appendix II).

At the end of the instructional period, the Durrell Listening-Reading Test, Intermediate Level, Form EF, was administered as the posttest. The raw scores were then converted to grade-equivalents and a t-test was employed to determine whether the means of the posttest were significantly different from the means of the pretest. This procedure was followed both for the experimental group and the control group. The results will be discussed in the next chapter.

Summary

In this chapter the specific relationships to be examined were stated. They were: the relationship of a program of direct listening instruction to the improvement of grade five children's listening ability; the relationship between grade five children's listening ability and their ability to read; and also the relationship between grade five children's listening ability and their level of intelligence. To deal with these relationships an experimental group and a control group, each having 34 grade five students, were selected from three schools in the Avalon North Integrated System. Both groups were administered the Lorge Thorndike Intelligence Test to measure mental ability. They were also administered the Durrell Listening-Reading Test, Intermediate Level, Form DE as a pretest to determine the listening and reading ability of both the experimental group

and the control group. The Science Research Associates Listening Skills Program, Intermediate Level, IIb was then used as instructional material for the listening skills program. Formative evaluation of each specific listening behavioural objective and listening skill was done throughout the program and a summative evaluation for each listening skill was done at the conclusion of the instructional listening skills program.

Following the 9-week period in which the experimental group participated in the instructional listening skills program and the control group participated in the regular language arts program of their respective schools, the Durrell Listening-Reading Test, Intermediate Level, Form EF--a parallel test to the pretest--was administered to both the experimental group and the control group. This was done to determine the degree of improvement in listening and reading ability during the instructional listening skills program. The results of these tests and also the instructional listening skills program will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

INTRODUCTION

The results of the investigation are discussed in this chapter. The first section deals with the effect of direct instruction upon the listening achievement of grade five children in the study.

The second section examines the relationship between listening and reading skills of the fifth grade students in the study.

The third section deals with the relationship between listening achievement and intelligence of the grade five children in the study.

The fourth section examines the specific problems the children experienced with the listening program and also deals with the children's attitude towards the listening program.

I. EFFECT OF LISTENING INSTRUCTION UPON LISTENING ACHIEVEMENT

The listening achievement of both the experimental group and the control group are analyzed in this section of the study. This is done to determine the degree of significance an instructional listening skills program has had upon the listening achievement of an experimental group of 34 grade

five students. The results of the experimental group are then compared with the results of the control group which also consisted of 34 grade five students. The students involved in the control group participated in the regular language arts program of their schools.

The Experimental Group

Listening vocabulary. The listening vocabulary mean grade-equivalent score in the pretest was 5.3 and in the posttest it was 5.9. The difference between the two means was 0.6 of a grade. This result, when measured by the t-statistic, was significant at the .05 level of confidence (see Tables III and IV).

Listening comprehension. The mean grade-equivalent score in listening comprehension in the pretest was 4.0, and in the posttest the mean grade-equivalent score was 4.8. This showed a gain of 0.8 of a grade. The mean grade-equivalent score when measured by the t-statistic, was found to be significant at the .05 level of confidence (see Tables III and IV).

Total listening. The total listening mean grade-equivalent score for the pretest was 4.8 and the total listening mean grade-equivalent score for the posttest was 5.5. This represents a mean gain of 0.7 of a grade. The t-statistic was then applied and the result was found to be significant at the .05 level of confidence (see Tables III and IV).

Table III

Experimental Group
Student Profile
Grade-Equivalents for Listening
As Measured by Durrell Listening-Reading Tests,
Intermediate Level

Student	Vocab. (Post)	Vocab. (Pre)	Comp. (Post)	Comp. (Pre)	Total (Post)	Total (Pre)
4	5.9	5.7	6.2	5.1	6.1	5.5
5	7.0	6.6	4.8	5.1	6.1	6.0
6	7.2	7.1	4.6	4.6	6.1	6.1
8	7.4	5.9	5.4	5.2	6.8	5.7
9	6.5	7.1	6.5	4.6	6.5	6.1
10	7.1	6.3	3.8	4.9	5.7	5.7
11	7.8	6.7	5.5	6.3	6.8	6.6
12	7.1	6.1	7.7	6.0	7.5	6.1
13	5.5	5.3	5.1	3.5	5.3	4.6
14	6.4	5.4	6.7	3.5	6.9	4.6
16	5.0	5.1	5.1	2.3	5.0	3.9
17	5.5	5.2	2.4	3.0	4.2	4.3
18	6.4	5.9	6.5	5.4	6.5	5.7
19	7.3	6.2	5.4	4.4	6.5	5.5
20	5.9	5.0	5.1	3.2	5.6	4.2
21	5.5	4.9	3.6	3.9	4.8	4.5
23	5.8	5.6	3.3	3.3	4.8	4.7
24	5.8	5.3	3.0	3.2	4.7	4.4
25	5.4	4.6	4.6	3.0	5.1	3.9
26	6.5	4.8	3.3	4.1	5.2	4.5
27	5.6	4.6	4.6	3.0	5.2	3.9
28	5.0	4.5	4.4	4.6	4.8	4.5
29	4.6	4.6	5.7	4.4	5.3	4.5
30	5.7	5.2	4.1	2.9	5.1	4.2
31	4.5	4.6	3.8	3.0	4.1	3.9
32	4.8	4.5	4.4	4.9	4.6	4.6
33	5.3	4.6	3.5	3.0	4.6	3.9
34	5.3	3.9	5.7	5.1	5.5	4.3
35	5.0	4.1	4.1	2.6	4.6	3.4
36	5.3	4.2	5.7	3.8	5.5	3.9
39	6.6	5.6	4.8	4.1	5.9	5.0
40	5.4	3.9	5.7	3.8	5.6	3.8
41	4.5	5.3	4.8	2.3	4.6	4.0
42	6.7	5.6	4.6	5.4	5.9	5.6
	(5.9)*	(5.3)*	(4.8)*	(4.0)*	(5.5)*	(4.8)*

*Bracket, ( ), indicates grade-equivalent mean.

Note: Students 1, 2, 3, 7, 15, 22, 37, and 38 were absent.

Table IV

The Experimental Group
Pretest and Posttest
Comparison of Grade-Equivalent Means
For Durrell Listening-Reading Test

	LISTENING			READING		
	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Total Listening	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Total Reading
Posttest	5.9	4.8	5.5	4.3	4.8	4.5
Pretest	5.3	4.0	4.8	4.0	3.5	3.8
Difference	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.3	1.3	0.7
t-value	7.35	4.08	7.75	2.66	3.88	2.85

N = 34

The Control Group

Listening vocabulary. The listening vocabulary mean grade-equivalent score for the pretest was 5.5 and for the posttest it was 6.1. The mean gain over the 9-week period was 0.6 of a grade. When measured by the t-statistic, this result was significant at the .05 level of confidence (see Tables V and VI).

Listening comprehension. The listening comprehension mean grade-equivalent score for the control group in the pretest was 5.5, and in the posttest it was 6.0. This showed a mean gain of 0.5 of a grade. This mean grade-equivalent gain, when measured by the t-statistic, was found to be significant at the .05 level of confidence (see Tables V and VI).

Total listening. The mean of the total listening grade-equivalent scores was 5.5 in the pretest and 6.0 in the posttest. This indicated a mean gain of 0.5 of a grade over the 9-week period. This result, when measured by the t-statistic, was found to be significant at the .05 level of confidence (see Tables V and VI).

Summary

An analysis of the data collected for this study has indicated that both the experimental group who participated in the instructional listening skills program, and, also, the control group who participated in the regular language arts program of their schools, made significant improvement in their listening ability at the .05 level of confidence.

Table V

Control Group
Student Profile
Grade-Equivalents for Listening
As Measured by Durrell Listening-Reading Tests,
Intermediate Level

Student	Vocab. (Post)	Vocab. (Pre)	Comp. (Post)	Comp. (Pre)	Total (Post)	Total (Pre)
1	7.8	6.6	7.1	6.3	7.6	6.5
2	6.7	7.5	5.7	6.7	6.3	7.3
3	6.5	5.5	6.9	6.0	6.7	5.7
4	7.0	6.3	6.9	5.8	7.0	6.1
5	5.8	5.4	5.8	6.3	5.9	5.8
6	6.0	5.3	4.4	4.2	5.4	4.9
7	7.9	6.7	6.5	6.3	7.4	6.6
8	8.7	7.3	10.0	6.5	9.0	7.1
9	7.9	5.3	9.3	10.0	8.3	6.6
10	6.7	6.2	7.4	5.5	7.0	5.9
11	5.7	4.7	4.9	3.5	5.4	4.1
12	6.5	5.2	5.4	5.5	6.1	5.3
13	5.7	5.4	5.8	5.2	5.9	5.3
14	7.2	5.7	8.1	7.4	7.5	6.3
15	7.6	6.5	9.3	10.0	8.1	7.5
16	5.9	5.1	3.8	4.6	5.1	4.9
17	5.0	5.2	5.4	3.3	5.1	4.4
18	7.5	4.5	9.7	6.5	8.1	5.3
19	6.2	5.2	5.1	4.9	5.7	5.1
20	5.7	5.4	5.5	4.1	5.7	4.9
21	4.4	4.3	3.8	3.3	4.1	3.8
22	4.4	4.8	5.1	5.4	4.6	5.0
23	5.2	4.8	7.4	6.0	6.0	5.3
24	5.6	5.8	5.4	4.1	5.6	5.1
25	4.5	4.9	4.9	5.1	4.6	4.9
26	4.3	4.4	4.1	2.9	4.1	3.7
27	6.2	5.8	4.2	5.1	5.4	5.6
28	5.7	4.9	4.6	4.6	5.3	4.8
29	6.2	5.1	5.4	4.8	5.9	4.9
30	4.3	4.8	3.0	3.3	3.7	4.1
31	6.4	6.4	6.2	7.4	6.3	6.8
32	5.1	4.8	4.2	4.4	4.8	4.6
33	5.2	5.9	5.1	6.3	5.1	6.1
34	5.5	5.8	6.3	4.4	5.9	5.3
	(6.1)*	(5.5)*	(6.0)*	(5.5)*	(6.0)*	(5.5)*

*Bracket, ( ), indicates grade-equivalent mean.

Table VI

The Control Group
Pretest and Posttest
Comparison of Grade-Equivalent Means
For Durrell Listening-Reading Test

	LISTENING			READING		
	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Total Listening	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Total Reading
Posttest	6.1	6.0	6.0	4.8	5.7	5.0
Pretest	5.5	5.5	5.5	4.9	5.1	4.9
Difference	0.6	0.5	0.5		0.6	0.1
t-value	5.02	2.31	4.55	-1.00	3.12	1.85

N = 34

for each of the three components of the study--listening vocabulary, listening comprehension, and total listening. Although both the experimental group and the control group made significant gains in each of the three components of listening; nevertheless, the experimental group made superior gains over the control group in both listening comprehension and total listening. That is, the improvement of the experimental group over and above the improvement of the control group indicated a mean grade-equivalent gain of 0.3 in listening comprehension, and a mean grade-equivalent gain of 0.2 in total listening. Both the experimental group and the control group made the same degree of improvement in listening vocabulary.

II. LISTENING-READING RELATIONSHIP

In this section of the study the reading achievement of both the experimental group and the control group are analyzed. The experimental group's data are analyzed to determine the degree of significance an instructional listening skills program has had upon the listening achievement of a group of 34 grade five students. The control group's data are analyzed to determine the degree of improvement a group of 34 grade five students made by participating in the regular language arts program of their schools. In addition to comparing the reading achievement of the experimental group and the control group, the listening-reading relationship for each component is measured by using the Pearson product

moment correlation and the t-statistic. That is, correlations are found for listening vocabulary and reading vocabulary, for listening comprehension and reading comprehension, and for total listening and total reading. This is done for both the experimental group and the control group.

The Experimental Group

Reading vocabulary. The mean reading vocabulary grade-equivalent score in the pretest was 4.0 and in the posttest it was 4.3. This showed a 0.3 of a grade improvement. When measured by the t-statistic, this result was found to be significant at the .05 level of confidence (see Tables IV and VII).

Reading comprehension. The mean grade-equivalent score in reading comprehension was 3.5 in the pretest and 4.8 in the posttest. This showed a grade equivalent gain of 1.3. This gain, when measured by the t-statistic, was found to be significant at the .05 level of confidence (see Tables IV and VII).

Total reading. The pretest mean of the total reading grade-equivalent score was 3.8, and in the posttest the mean of the total reading grade-equivalent score was 4.5. This represented a mean gain of 0.7 of a grade. This, too, when measured by the t-statistic, was found to be significant at the 0.5 level of confidence (see Tables IV and VII).

Listening-reading vocabulary. The Pearson product moment correlation was used to measure the relationship between the means of both listening vocabulary and reading

Table VII

Experimental Group
Student Profile
Grade-Equivalents for Reading
As Measured by Durrell-Listening-Reading Tests,
Intermediate Level

Student	Vocab. (Post)	Vocab. (Pre)	Comp. (Post)	Comp. (Pre)	Total (Post)	Total (Pre)
4	5.7	5.3	5.1	6.0	5.5	5.6
5	5.6	5.1	7.4	6.2	6.3	5.6
6	5.0	5.4	6.3	5.1	5.6	5.3
8	6.7	4.9	7.1	4.4	7.0	4.7
9	5.4	5.3	5.8	4.6	5.6	5.0
10	5.1	5.2	6.0	4.4	5.5	4.9
11	5.7	5.2	6.2	5.4	5.9	5.3
12	5.5	6.2	6.2	3.8	5.8	5.2
13	5.3	5.3	6.0	4.9	5.6	5.1
14	5.4	3.1	5.5	2.0	5.5	2.7
16	3.8	4.1	5.5	3.8	4.4	3.9
17	3.2	3.6	3.3	2.0	3.2	3.0
18	4.9	4.4	5.5	3.5	5.1	3.9
19	6.3	4.4	5.7	3.8	6.1	4.1
20	4.4	4.1	5.4	3.0	4.8	3.6
21	2.8	3.0	3.9	2.1	3.2	2.7
23	4.9	5.0	5.7	3.6	5.2	4.4
24	3.6	3.1	3.5	2.9	3.5	3.0
25	4.8	3.4	2.4	3.5	3.8	3.4
26	4.0	3.5	5.4	4.2	4.5	3.7
27	3.1	3.1	3.6	2.0	3.3	2.7
28	3.1	3.4	3.9	1.7	3.4	2.8
29	1.2	3.0	4.4	3.0	2.7	3.0
30	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.2	3.3	3.3
31	1.6	1.3	2.6	2.6	2.0	1.8
32	4.5	3.2	3.8	3.8	4.1	3.4
33	4.1	2.9	3.3	3.5	3.7	3.1
34	3.7	4.2	4.1	3.0	3.8	3.6
35	3.3	3.1	3.8	1.7	3.4	2.5
36	3.8	3.7	4.1	2.9	3.8	3.3
39	5.4	2.8	3.3	2.9	4.6	2.8
40	4.5	3.9	5.4	3.8	4.8	3.8
41	3.8	4.2	4.1	3.2	3.8	3.7
42	3.8	3.3	3.8	2.4	3.7	3.0
	(4.3)*	(4.0)*	(4.8)*	(3.5)*	(4.5)*	(3.8)*

*Bracket, ( ), indicates grade equivalent mean.

Note: Students 1, 2, 3, 7, 15, 22, 37, and 38 were absent.

vocabulary. The results indicated a relationship of .75. This result was then tested by using the t-statistic. The resulting value of t was found to be 11.21. The t value was then compared with the critical value of t, which was 2.04. The result was found to be significant at the .05 level of confidence (see Table VIII).

Listening-reading comprehension. The Pearson product moment correlation was used to measure the relationship between the means of both listening comprehension and reading comprehension. A relationship of .45 was found between the two means. When this result was tested, using the t-statistic, the value of t was found to be .49. This result was then compared with the critical value of t, which was 2.04. The relationship between the means of listening comprehension and reading comprehension in this study was not significant at the .05 level of confidence (see Table VIII).

Total listening-total reading. The Pearson product moment correlation was employed to measure the relationship between total listening mean grade-equivalent scores and total reading mean grade-equivalent scores. A relationship of .79 was found between the two means. Using the t-statistic, this correlation was tested and the resulting value of t was found to be 8.11. This value of t, when compared with the critical value of t which was 2.04, was found to be significant at the .05 level of confidence (see Table VIII).

Table VIII

Experimental Group
Correlations Between Different
Listening and Reading Components

Components	Correlation r	t-values	Critical Value	Level of Significance
Vocabulary	.75	11.21	2.04	.05
Comprehension	.45	.49	2.04	.05
Total	.79	8.11	2.04	.05

The Control Group

Reading vocabulary. The reading vocabulary mean grade-equivalent score in the pretest was 4.9, and in the posttest the mean grade-equivalent score was 4.8. The result showed a negative effect (see Tables VI and IX).

Reading comprehension. The mean grade-equivalent score in reading comprehension in the pretest was 5.1, and in the posttest the mean grade-equivalent score was 5.7. This showed a grade-equivalent gain of 0.6. This gain, when measured by the t-statistic, was found to be significant at the .05 level of confidence (see Tables VI and IX).

Total reading. The pretest mean of the total reading grade-equivalent scores was 4.9, and the posttest mean of the total reading grade-equivalent score was 5.0. This represented a mean gain of 0.1 of a grade, but when measured by the t-statistic, this improvement was not significant at the .05 level of confidence (see Tables VI and IX).

Listening-reading vocabulary. The Pearson product moment correlation was used to measure the relationship between the means of both listening vocabulary and reading vocabulary. A relationship of 0.75 was found between these two means. This result was then tested, using the t-statistic. The resulting value of t was 7.30. The t-value was then compared with the critical value of t, which was 2.04. The result was found to be significant at the .05 level of confidence (see Table X).

Listening-reading comprehension. The Pearson product moment correlation was used to determine the relationship

between the means of total listening comprehension and total reading comprehension. The result indicated a relationship of .59. When the t-statistic was used to determine the significance of this correlation the value of t was found to be .85. This value of t was then compared with the critical value of t, which was 2.04. The result was not significant at the .05 level of confidence (see Table X).

Total listening-total reading. The Pearson product moment correlation was used to determine the relationship between the means of total listening grade-equivalent scores and total reading grade-equivalent scores. A relationship of .73 was found between these two means. This result was then tested by using the t-statistic. The value of t was found to be 4.69. This value of t was then compared with the critical value of t, which was 2.04, and found to be significant at the .05 level of confidence (see Table X).

Summary

An analysis of the data for this study indicated that the experimental group made significant gains in reading as a result of participating in a 9-week listening skills instructional program. That is, between the pretest and the posttest, the experimental group made significant gains at the .05 level of confidence in each of the three components of reading--reading vocabulary, reading comprehension, and total reading. The improvement of the experimental group over the control group was a mean grade equivalent of 0.3 for reading vocabulary; a mean grade equivalent of 0.7 for

Table IX

Control Group
Student Profile
Grade-Equivalents for Reading
As Measured by Durrell Listening-Reading Tests,
Intermediate Level

Student	Vocab. (Post)	Vocab. (Pre)	Comp. (Post)	Comp. (Pre)	Total (Post)	Total (Pre)
1	5.2	5.8	6.3	6.5	5.7	6.1
2	7.6	7.2	7.7	8.9	7.7	7.7
3	6.8	6.6	7.1	9.3	7.0	7.3
4	5.4	5.9	7.4	5.7	6.1	5.9
5	5.3	5.6	7.7	5.8	6.1	5.7
6	5.4	4.8	4.9	4.1	5.2	4.5
7	7.2	6.7	8.4	8.9	7.6	7.3
8	8.7	8.3	7.7	9.7	8.3	8.6
9	7.6	6.4	10.0	6.9	8.9	6.6
10	5.7	6.2	7.4	6.3	6.3	6.3
11	4.1	3.7	4.9	4.2	4.3	3.8
12	6.2	6.5	6.7	6.7	6.4	6.6
13	5.5	5.4	6.7	6.2	6.0	5.7
14	5.5	5.2	7.4	4.8	6.2	5.0
15	4.6	4.8	5.8	5.2	5.1	4.9
16	4.4	6.0	5.4	4.9	4.8	5.6
17	5.0	4.1	6.0	5.2	5.4	4.5
18	4.7	5.1	5.5	4.6	5.0	4.9
19	4.6	4.6	5.1	3.9	4.8	4.3
20	5.0	3.8	4.9	3.3	4.9	3.5
21	2.3	3.8	5.4	3.3	3.4	3.5
22	4.1	3.4	6.5	5.4	5.0	4.1
23	4.3	4.5	6.2	5.2	5.0	4.8
24	4.0	5.7	6.0	5.4	4.8	5.6
25	3.3	3.6	5.2	4.9	3.9	4.0
26	2.3	4.1	5.4	2.3	3.4	3.3
27	2.3	3.1	2.7	3.0	2.5	3.1
28	3.2	3.5	3.2	2.3	3.2	3.0
29	4.8	4.8	3.8	3.8	4.3	4.3
30	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.3	2.9	2.7
31	5.1	4.9	4.2	3.6	4.8	4.3
32	3.1	3.6	3.6	3.8	3.3	3.6
33	3.2	3.8	3.9	2.9	3.4	3.4
34	3.1	3.2	3.3	4.1	3.1	3.5
	(4.8)*	(4.9)*	(5.7)*	(5.1)*	(5.0)*	(4.9)*

*Bracket, ( ), indicates grade-equivalent mean.

Table X

Control Group
Correlations Between Different
Listening and Reading Components

Components	Correlation r	t-values	Critical Value	Level of Significance
Vocabulary	.75	7.30	2.04	.05
Comprehension	.59	.85	2.04	.05
Total	.73	4.69	2.04	.05

reading comprehension; and a mean grade equivalent of 0.6 of a grade for total reading.

An examination of the data collected for the control group showed significant improvement in only one component of reading. That is, between the pretest and the posttest, the control group that participated in the regular language arts program of their schools, made significant gain at the .05 level of confidence in only one of the reading components--reading comprehension. However, the total reading component showed a positive though not a significant gain at the .05 level of confidence. The reading vocabulary component showed no improvement.

The results of this study indicated, therefore, that children who participated in a 9-week instructional listening skills program not only improved their listening ability beyond the level of the control group who participated in the regular language arts program of their schools, but they also significantly improved their reading ability beyond the reading improvement made by the control group. It is concluded, therefore, that for this study, a well planned program of listening instruction improved the reading ability of the grade five students in the study.

The data for the experimental group and the control group were also analyzed to determine the relationship between the components of listening and the components of reading. The experimental group showed a listening vocabulary and a reading vocabulary correlation of .75; listening

comprehension and reading comprehension showed a correlation of .45; and total listening and total reading showed a correlation of .79. The correlations for listening vocabulary and reading vocabulary, and for total listening and total reading, were significant at the .05 level of confidence. The correlation between listening comprehension and reading comprehension was positive, but not significant, at the .05 level of confidence.

The data for the control group indicated a correlation of .75 for listening vocabulary and reading vocabulary; a correlation of .59 for listening comprehension and reading comprehension; and a correlation of .73 for total listening and total reading. The correlation of .75 for listening vocabulary and reading vocabulary, and the correlation of .73 for total listening and total reading were each significant at the .05 level of confidence. The correlation of .59 between listening comprehension and reading comprehension was positive, but it was not significant at the .05 level of confidence.

The significant correlations for two components of the experimental group--listening vocabulary and reading vocabulary, total listening and total reading--and also the positive, though not significant, relationship between listening comprehension and reading comprehension, suggest that the language arts skill of listening and the language arts skill of reading are positively related. The significant correlations of the control group seem to parallel the results of

the experimental group. That is, the control group also showed a positive relationship between listening vocabulary and reading vocabulary, and between total listening and total reading. The control group also showed a positive, though not significant, relationship between listening comprehension and reading comprehension.

III. LISTENING AND INTELLIGENCE

In this section of the study the data for both the experimental group and the control group are analyzed to assess the relationship of listening ability to intellectual ability. The experimental group is divided into two groups--a group whose intelligence quotients are 100 and over and a group whose intelligence quotients are below 100. There are eight students in the high intelligence group and 26 students in the low intelligence group. The control group is divided similarly. It must be noted, however, that the control group is divided into a group of 18 students whose intelligence quotients are 100 and above, and a group of 16 students whose intelligence quotients are below 100.

The Experimental Group

The results of this investigation revealed that children with an intelligence score of 100 and over were better listeners both on the pretest and the posttest than children whose intelligence scores were below 100. The mean grade-equivalent score on the pretest for children whose intelligence scores were 100 and over was 6.0. The mean grade-equivalent score on the posttest for those same children

following instruction in a program of listening skills was 6.5. This result showed a mean grade-equivalent gain of 0.5 over a 9-week period (see Table XI).

The mean grade-equivalent score on the pretest for children whose intelligence quotients were below 100 was 4.4. The mean grade-equivalent score on the posttest for these same children following instruction in a program of listening skills was 5.2. This represents a mean gain of 0.8 of a grade over a 9-week period (see Table XI). It must be observed, therefore, that while the children whose intelligence quotients were 100 and over showed a mean grade-equivalent gain of 0.5 and also continued to remain superior in listening to the children whose intelligence quotients were below 100, the children of lower intellectual ability made greater gains. The results for the children of low intellectual ability showed that they made a mean grade-equivalent gain of 0.8 in the posttest. This represented a mean grade-equivalent gain of 0.3 over those children whose intelligence scores were 100 and over. These results would seem to suggest, then, that listening instruction is a strength to be utilized to help the child of low intellectual ability.

The Control Group

The results of the control group indicated also that children whose intelligence scores were 100 and over were better listeners at the commencement of the study than children whose intelligence scores were below 100. During

Table XI

Relationships Between
Intelligence and Listening
For the Experimental Group

Components	I.Q. 100 and Over	I.Q. Under 100
Listening (Posttest)	6.5	5.2
Listening (Pretest)	6.0	4.4
Difference	0.5	0.8

I.Q. 100 and over, N = 8
I.Q. under 100, N = 26

Note: All scores are given in grade equivalents.

Table XII
Relationships Between
Intelligence and Listening
for the Control Groups

Components	I.Q. 100 and Over	I.Q. Under 100
Listening (Posttest)	6.8	5.2
Listening (Pretest)	5.9	5.0
Difference	0.9	0.2

I.Q. 100 and over, N = 18
I.Q. under 100, N = 16

Note: All scores are given in grade equivalents.

the 9-week period, they also made superior gains over the children whose intelligence scores were below 100. The mean grade-equivalent score on the pretest for the group whose intelligence scores were 100 and over was 5.9, and on the posttest the mean grade-equivalent score was 6.8. This represents a mean grade-equivalent gain of 0.9 of a grade. The results of the control group revealed also that children whose intelligence quotients were below 100 had a mean grade-equivalent score in listening of 5.0 on the pretest and 5.2 on the posttest. This was, therefore, a mean grade-equivalent gain of only 0.2 in listening, over the 9-week period. These results seem to parallel the findings of the experimental group.

Comparison Between Experimental Group and Control Group

The results of the control group seem to parallel the findings of the experimental group. That is, both the high intelligence group of the experimental group and the high intelligence group of the control group were superior to the two low intelligence groups in listening ability in the pretest. It must be noted, too, that during the 9-week period the high intelligence group of the control group made gains in listening that were superior to the gains made by the high intelligence group of the experimental group. However, it must also be noted that the control group had a greater number of students whose intelligence quotients were 100 and over (N=18) than did the experimental group (N=8) (see Tables XI and XII). This may account for what appears to be

superior gains by the high intelligence group of the control group over the high intelligence group of the experimental group. However, further investigation is required, with each student of an experimental group matched on intelligence with each student in a control group, to determine the accuracy of this assumption.

The results of the control group's low intelligence group also seem to parallel the findings of the experimental group's low intelligence group. That is, following a 9-week period in which the experimental group's low intelligence group participated in an instructional listening skills program, they made a mean grade-equivalent gain of 0.8 in listening, but the control group's low intelligence group who did not participate in an instructional listening skills program, but instead, participated in the regular language arts program of their schools, made a mean grade-equivalent gain of only 0.2 in listening. These results indicated, therefore, that the experimental group's low intelligence group made a mean grade-equivalent gain of 0.6 in listening over the control group's low intelligence group. It must also be noted that the experimental group's low intelligence group had more children of low intellectual ability (N=26) than did the control group's low intelligence group (N=16). This may also account for the fact that the control group's low intelligence group was superior to the experimental group's low intelligence group in listening ability in the pretest. That is, the control group's low intelligence group had a

mean grade-equivalent score in listening of 5.0 in the pretest, but the experimental group's low intelligence group had a mean grade-equivalent score of only 4.4 in the pretest. A greater number of children with slightly higher intellectual ability may have given the low intelligence group of the control group an advantage in listening ability over the experimental group's low intelligence group in the pretest.

Summary

The results of this investigation would seem to indicate that, both before and after participating in an instructional listening skills program, children of high intellectual ability are better listeners than children of low intellectual ability. The results of this study seem to suggest also that children of low intellectual ability who participate in an instructional listening skills program make superior gains in listening to children of low intellectual ability who do not participate in an instructional listening skills program.

According to the results of this investigation, however, it is inconclusive as to whether children of higher intelligence who participate in an instructional listening skills program make superior gains to children of high intelligence who do not participate in an instructional listening skills program. It is inconclusive, too, as to whether the results obtained in listening for the two low ability groups are as closely related to each other as they might be were each child from each group matched on intelligence. Further

investigation is necessary, with the students of the experimental group matched on intelligence with the students of the control group before a more accurate conclusion can be reached for these two aspects of the study.

IV. THE LISTENING PROGRAM

This section of the study examines the areas of greatest difficulty experienced by the children who participated in the instructional listening skills program. It also examines the attitudes of the children toward the listening program.

To determine the areas of greatest difficulty experienced by the children who participated in the instructional listening skills program, the result for each listening skill was calculated and recorded in percentage form. The results indicated that the children experienced their greatest difficulty with the following listening skills:

1. The children experienced difficulty in selecting main ideas from details in certain sections of the lessons. The overall success for the skill was 68%.

2. Difficulty was also experienced in selecting key facts to make a summary of the story. The overall success for this skill was 67.25%.

3. Certain aspects of the lessons on cause and effect were difficult for the children. That is, they found it difficult to arrange sentences in their proper sequence of cause and effect to form a chain of events. The overall success for this skill was 74.08%.

4. The children found creative listening difficult. The success level for this skill was 65.6%.

5. The children found it difficult to make inferences. The overall success level for this skill was 67.72%. (See Appendix II)

The attitude of the children towards the listening program was positive. Throughout the entire program there were no behaviour problems of any significance. On the day of the final listening instruction session the questions, "Did you enjoy the listening program?" and "Do you think you should have another listening program soon?" were distributed to the children. The responses to these questions were mainly positive. Out of the 34 students present, 32 claimed to have enjoyed the lessons and were in favour of having more lessons of a similar nature soon.

At the end of the instructional program a discussion session was held. In this session the children were asked to discuss and then form responses to the following questions: "What do you consider to be good reasons for listening?" and "What do you consider to be good manners for listening?" The children were divided into small groups, and a leader for each group was chosen. The results of their discussions relative to the first question were collected by the writer. The substance of the children's responses is as follows:

1. We should listen to follow directions in all academic classes, in music and in physical education.
2. We should listen carefully to messages given over the public address system by the principal, and also to teachers who do inter-grade instruction, such as the physical education teacher and the music teacher.

3. We should listen carefully to the classroom teacher when she is explaining lessons, giving assignments, and especially when she is giving dictation sentences.

4. We should listen carefully when other children are reading orally to the class. That is, we should listen when other children are doing choral activities, presenting a short play, reading their creative stories, or reading a story from the basal reader.

5. We should listen to class discussions to find out how other children form opinions and draw conclusions.

6. We should listen carefully when we are in school assembly.

7. We should listen carefully to take messages over the telephone.

8. We should listen to the news carefully to find out about important happenings, to find out what the weather will be like for going to school the next day, and to enjoy favourite programs on television and radio.

The children's responses to the second question were more descriptive. They were as follows:

1. Sit comfortably and be pleasant.

2. Avoid making "clicking" noises with your pencil or ruler.

3. Do not "shuffle paper" and make "crackling noises" with plastic bags.

4. Keep your chair and your feet from making noises.

5. Avoid talking to other children and "muttering" to yourself.

6. Look at the person who is speaking.

7. Avoid having to ask the speaker to repeat the message too often. Listen carefully the first time.

8. Do not interrupt the speaker, but wait until the speaker says, "Now boys and girls, are there any questions?"

Summary

When the results for each listening skill were calculated it was found that the children experienced their greatest difficulty in selecting main ideas from details, selecting key facts to make a summary, arranging sentences in their proper sequence of cause and effect, listening creatively, and listening to make inferences.

The listening attitudes of the children were positive throughout the listening program. Their responses to the two questions asked seem to indicate that they have an awareness that listening is important to success both in the classroom and outside the classroom. The use of discussion groups also served as a worthwhile technique to help the children express less formally their insights and feelings towards the listening program generally. The children's enthusiasm was maintained throughout the listening program and the children were motivated to participate in another listening skills development program when it is offered.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains a summary of the study's purpose, the methodology and procedure used for the study, and the results of the study as disclosed by an analysis of each component in the study. The results are evaluated and their implications for the teaching of listening, and for further research are presented.

I. SUMMARY

The Purpose and Procedure of the Study

The purpose. This study examined both the formative and summative effect of a planned listening skills program upon a group of grade five children in St. Mark's Elementary School, Shearstown. It examined: (1) the effect of an instructional listening skills program upon the listening achievement of children, (2) the relationship between listening and reading skills of children, and (3) the relationship between listening and intelligence of children.

Instrumentation and procedure. The instructional program used in this study was the Science Research Associates Listening Skills Program, Intermediate Level, IIb. The program consisted of 10 listening skills, taught in 22 instructional sessions. The following are the specific

skills which were taught in the program: (1) auditory discrimination, (2) following directions, (3) following sequence, (4) detecting main ideas and details, (5) note-taking, (6) summarizing, (7) recognizing cause and effect, (8) creative listening, (9) distinguishing between fact and opinion, and (10) making inferences.

The writer implementated the experimental listening skills program in a class of 42 grade five children during the months of February, March, and April. Before commencing the instructional program a session was held to give an overview of the program and to encourage and motivate the children. The program was implementated in 22 30-minute sessions. The sessions were held every second school day. A brief discussion was held preceding each lesson during which the children were told the purpose of the lesson. Another brief discussion was held at the end of the lesson. In this discussion the writer endeavoured to ascertain the children's attitude towards the lesson and to motivate them for the next session's lesson. Each lesson was presented through taped instruction. At the end of the program a summary session was held in which the children discussed purposes for listening, manners involved in listening, and also their personal feelings towards the total listening program.

A pretest was administered before the commencement of the study. The raw scores for each component of the test were computed and then converted to grade-equivalent scores. To measure the significance of change between the various

components of the pretest and the various components of the posttest the t-statistic was used. Correlations between listening components and reading components were calculated by using the Pearson product-moment correlation, and the results were tested by using the t-statistic.

Findings

Listening and reading. The posttest gains over the pretest for the different components of listening and reading were significant at the .05 level of confidence for the experimental group. The gains in grade equivalents were as follows: listening vocabulary, 0.6; listening comprehension, 0.8; total listening, 0.7; reading vocabulary, 0.3; reading comprehension, 1.3; and total reading, 0.7. The correlations for listening vocabulary and reading vocabulary, and for total listening and total reading, were significant at the .05 level of confidence. The correlation between listening comprehension and reading comprehension was positive, but not significant, at the 0.5 level of confidence.

For the control group, the posttest gains over the pretest were significant at the 0.5 level of confidence for four of the six components. The gains in grade equivalents were as follows: listening vocabulary, 0.6; listening comprehension, 0.5; total listening, 0.5; and reading comprehension, 0.6. The results for the other two components were as follows: the posttest showed a grade-equivalent decrease of 0.1 for reading vocabulary, and an increase of 0.1 of a

grade for total reading. Neither of these results was significant at the 0.5 level of confidence. The correlation between listening vocabulary and reading vocabulary, and the correlation between total listening and total reading were each significant at the .05 level of confidence. The correlation between listening comprehension and reading comprehension was positive, but not significant, at the .05 level of confidence.

To summarize, then, the experimental group made significant gains at the .05 level of confidence for the six components of the study over the 9-week period. During the same period, the control group made significant gains at the .05 level of confidence in four of the six components of the study. However, in all components of the investigation, except listening vocabulary, the experimental group made gains that were superior to the gains made by the control group. In grade equivalents, these gains were: listening comprehension, 0.3; total listening, 0.2; reading vocabulary, 0.3; reading comprehension, 0.7; and total reading, 0.6 (see Table XIII).

Listening and intelligence. The experimental group, whose intelligence quotients were 100 and over, had a listening mean grade-equivalent score of 6.0 in the pretest and 6.5 in the posttest. The listening mean grade equivalents for the control group, whose intelligence quotients were 100 and over, were 5.9 in the pretest and 6.8 in the posttest. The experimental group, whose intelligence quotients were

Table XIII

Comparison Between the Mean Grade-Equivalent Gain of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

	LISTENING			READING		
	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Total Listening	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Total Reading
Experimental Group	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.3	1.3	0.7
Control Group	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.6	0.1
Difference	0.0	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.7	0.6

less than 100, had a listening mean grade-equivalent score of 4.4 in the pretest and 5.2 in the posttest. The listening mean grade equivalents of the control group, whose intelligence quotients were less than 100, were 5.0 in the pretest and 5.2 in the posttest. Higher intellectual ability in both the experimental group and the control group resulted, therefore, in better mean grade-equivalent scores in listening. Children of higher intelligence, according to the results of this study, appear to be better listeners than children of lower intelligence. However, children of lower intellectual ability who participated in an instructional listening skills program made superior gains to children of lower intellectual ability who did not participate in an instructional listening skills program. The results of this study indicated, therefore, that children of lower intellectual ability were capable of improving their listening ability when given appropriate instruction in listening.

Listening attitudes. The children exhibited a positive attitude throughout the listening program. The group discussions before and after the listening program helped the students to assess the importance of developing good listening habits. Their responses to the questions asked indicated their enjoyment of the program, and also their readiness to participate again when, and if, another listening program is offered, indicated their positive attitude towards the program.

II. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Two important implications arising out of this study are: (1) listening skills should be taught, and (2) further research is required.

Implications for Teaching Listening

1. The need for instruction in listening was evident in the children's responses to the discussion questions, in the results computed for the listening skills, and also in the degree of success attained by children of lower intellectual ability.

2. Listening instruction requires a planned program in order to achieve its goals. Indirect instruction improves listening, but to gain the maximum from the listening experience direct instruction in listening is required.

3. Listening is a multi-purpose component of the language arts in the sense that children are expected to listen for a variety of purposes, and to various types of material. A variety of purposes and types of material should be included, therefore, in the program of instruction in listening.

4. Children should be made aware of the purpose for which they are to listen. This motivates them to listen for relevant information to complete the task. Both motivation for listening and reinforcement following the listening experience are aspects of listening instruction which should not be ignored.

5. The results of this investigation exposed the areas of the listening program where the children experienced difficulty in listening. For example, selecting main ideas from details, making a summary, finding cause and effect, being creative, and determining inferences, were aspects of the program in which the children found difficulty. These are areas, therefore, where ample opportunity should be provided to adequately develop listening skills.

6. This study revealed that children who participated in the experimental listening program having intelligence scores below 100 showed greater listening improvement than did the children whose intelligence scores were 100 and above. Listening instruction, then, is a strength to be utilized to instruct the slower learner.

7. The results of this investigation also indicated that children who participated in a planned program of listening instruction also improved their reading ability more than those children in the control group who did not participate in an instructional listening skills program. This suggested, therefore, the interrelatedness of listening and reading and the value that listening instruction has for the improvement of reading.

8. Listening lessons should be introduced early in the school year to provide opportunity for remedial and follow-up work.

9. At all grade levels teachers should utilize appropriate listening materials, provide challenging activities,

and instruct in a manner that will be both meaningful and rewarding to the child.

Implications for Further Research

The results of this study revealed that further research is required before it can be determined whether there is a significant relationship between listening comprehension and reading comprehension. The findings of this study were inconclusive for these components.

2. According to the results of this study, more research is also required before an adequate assessment of the effect of direct instruction in a program of listening skills can be determined for children of higher ability. The results for this study were inconclusive.

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APPENDIX I

THE LISTENING PROGRAM

A LISTENING PROGRAM

Directed Listening

A. Listening Skills Program, Level IIb, Lesson 1, Auditory Discrimination.

1. Introduce the tape according to the instructions given in the teacher's guide.

2. Behavioural Objectives:

(a) The children will listen to the tape and will then demonstrate their ability to discriminate between the beginning sounds of words by

(1) placing a check mark beside number one on their paper each time a word commences with the consonant p in a tongue twister.

(2) placing a check mark beside number two on their paper each time a word begins with the consonant b in a riddle.

(3) writing a check mark beside number three on their paper each time a word commences with the consonant l in the ending paragraph of a story.

(4) writing yes or no beside numbers one through ten to indicate whether or not pairs of words begin with the same consonant sound. For example: lily, like; little, hurry.

(b) After listening to instructions from the tape, the children will demonstrate their ability to determine the number of syllables and tones in words by

(1) writing the number of syllables and tones they hear in single words.

(2) writing the number of syllables and tones they hear in a haiku poem.

3. Evaluation Items:

The children's work will be evaluated according to their ability to follow the instructions from the tape. They will also be evaluated according to their written responses to the evaluation items on the tape.

4. Percentage of Correct Responses:

(a) 91%

(b) 92%

B. Listening Skills Program, Level IIb, Lesson 2, Following Directions.

1. Introduce the tape according to the instructions given in the teacher's guide.

2. Behavioural Objectives:

(a) After twenty minutes instruction and practice in following directions the children will listen to a general description of an F102 Dart Airplane and will then demonstrate their ability to follow directions by

(1) making a mental picture of the plane.

(2) making a sketch of the F102 Dart Airplane.

(b) After listening to a general description of an F102 Dart Airplane, the children will demonstrate their ability to follow directions by placing a check mark beside the evaluation item that

(1) identifies the plane's delta wings.

(2) identifies the plane's nose spear.

(3) identifies the plane's vertical stabilizer.

(c) After listening to appropriate rules to be followed while hiking, the children will exhibit their ability to follow these directions by answering yes or no to the following questions:

(1) If you become lost should you stay calm?

(2) Should you stop and look about you for familiar landmarks?

(3) Should you keep quiet if you are lost in a forest?

(4) Can trees or rocks give some protection from cold or rain?

(5) Should a person who is lost be very quiet?

(6) When you are about to go hiking, is it important to tell a responsible person where you are going and when you expect to return?

(d) The children will listen to the story entitled "Lost" and will then demonstrate their ability to listen to follow directions by relating the appropriate rules for hiking to the events of the story by answering yes or no to the following questions:

(1) Should the boy walk about and look for his father?

(2) Does the boy need to look for protection?

(3) Should the boy shout for help?

3. Evaluation Items:

The children's responses will be evaluated according to their ability to sketch with a pencil the mental picture they have made of the F102 Dart Airplane; their ability to correctly identify the various parts of the plane as identified by the behavioural objectives; and by their ability to correctly answer the questions indicated by the behavioural objectives.

4. Percentage of Correct Responses:

(a) 68%

(b) 68%

(c) 90%

(d) 90%

C. Listening Skills Program, Level IIb, Lesson 3, Sequence.

1. Present the tape according to the instructions given in the teacher's guide.

2. Behavioural Objectives:

(a) After ten minutes instruction in listening for signal words and time sequence words the children will demonstrate their ability to follow the sequence of events in a collection

of brief stories entitled "Horse Tales" by writing yes or no beside a series of words to indicate whether or not they are all signal or time sequence words.

(1) first, last, next

(2) one day, tomorrow, next week

(3) soon, fast, never

(4) then, now, finally

(5) last night, in the morning, quickly

(b) After listening to Aesop's fable about a horse and a lion, the children will answer three multiple choice questions to indicate the sequence in which events happened in the story by circling the letter (a) or (b) indicating the correct response.

(1) What happened first?

(a) A handsome horse came trotting by.

(b) The horse went to see the lion.

(2) What happened first?

(a) The lion just couldn't get his mind off that horse.

(b) The horse went to see the lion.

(3) What happened first?

(a) The lion heard a whinny of laughter.

(b) The horse kicked with his up-raised hoof.

(c) After listening to the introduction to the story entitled "Mountain Man", the children will show their ability to recognize and state in time order the following five natural sequence of events in Jim Bridger's life:

(1) He was born in 1804.

(2) He was first a hunter, trapper, and trader.

(3) He next made many important discoveries to the North Western United States.

(4) He then served as a scout, guide, and surveyor in government circles.

(5) Finally, he went to Missouri where he died in 1881.

(d) After listening to the main part of the story entitled "Mountain Man" the children will demonstrate their ability to recognize additional and flashback dates and integrate them in their correct order of sequence in the story by listening to and

(1) listing four dates on the left side of their paper..

(2) matching the four events given orally with its correct date on their paper by writing the correct number of the sentence beside the correct date.

1804 He was born in Virginia.

1822 He became the youngest member of a fur company's expedition.

1868 He retired from government service.

1881 Jim Bridger died in Missouri.

3. Evaluation Items:

The children's responses will be evaluated according to their ability to correctly identify signal words, to correctly follow a sequence of events, and their ability to recognize and integrate flashback dates in their proper order in the story.

4. Percentage of Correct Responses:

(a) 82%

(b) 95%

(c) 92%

(d) 72%

D. Listening Skills Program, Level IIb, Lesson 4, Main Ideas and Details.

1. Present the tape according to the instructions given in the teacher's guide.

2. Behavioural Objectives:

(a) Following ten minutes instruction and practice in identifying topics, and after listening to five news items on "TV Report" the children will show their ability to detect the topic of these reports by selecting either (a), (b), or (c) of the multiple choice item that

(1) identifies the topic of the first news item.

(2) identifies the topic of the second news item.

(3) identifies the topic of the third news item.

(4) identifies the topic of the fourth news item.

(5) identifies the topic of the fifth new item.

(b) After listening to five news items of a "TV Report", the children will demonstrate their ability to detect main ideas by selecting either (a), (b), or (c) of the multiple choice evaluation items that

(1) identify the main idea of the first news item.

(2) identify the main idea of the second news item.

(3) identify the main idea of the third news item.

(4) identify the main idea of the fourth news item.

(5) identify the main idea of the fifth news item.

(c) The children will listen to the story entitled "Canadian Artist" and will then exhibit their ability to select main ideas by writing "main idea" beside the

(1) evaluation items that support the main idea for the first part of the story.

(2) evaluation items that support the main idea for the second part of the story.

(d) After listening to the story "Canadian Artist", the children will demonstrate their ability to select supporting details by placing the letter "d" beside

(1) the evaluation items that support the main idea of the first part of the story.

(2) the evaluation items that support the main idea for the second part of the story.

(e) After listening to a selection about two Indian totem poles, the children will show their ability to choose the main idea of the selection by

(1) making a mental picture of the two totem poles.

(2) sketching the two totem poles.

(f) After listening to the selection about two totem poles, the children will exhibit their ability to listen to make mental notes of the details of the Indian totem poles by

(1) drawing a creature sitting upright at the bottom of each totem pole.

(2) giving the creature gleaming white teeth.

(3) giving each creature a long snout.

(4) giving the creature two round white eyes.

(5) drawing a yellow beaked bird on each creature's head.

3. Evaluation Items:

The children's responses will be evaluated according to their ability to listen and correctly select the topic and main idea of the five news items; their ability to listen to choose the main idea and supporting details of both the first and second part of the story; and their ability to listen, visualize, and sketch a picture giving both the main idea and supporting details of the story.

4. Percentage of Correct Responses:

(a) 88%

(b) 79%

(c) 62%

(d) 69%

(e) 67%

(f) 53%

D. Listening Skills Program, Level IIb, Lesson 5, Note-Taking.

1. Present the tape according to the instruction given in the teacher's guide.

2. Behavioural Objectives:

(a) After approximately ten minutes instruction and practice in mental note-taking, the children will listen to a list of items to be purchased at the store and then prove their ability to listen to retain the message by

(1) writing the name of the store where the items are to be purchased.

(2) writing the name of the three items to be purchased at the store.

(b) After listening to a seamstress giving a girl a message for her mother, the children will show their ability to make and retain the mental message by telling

(1) who gave the girl the message.

(2) which three items the caller needed.

(3) why the caller needed the three items.

(c) The children will listen to a father giving his son a message to be passed on to his grandfather and will then indicate their ability to listen to make mental notes by answering the following questions:

(1) Who is going to call?

(2) What is the boy to tell the caller?

(3) When are the boy's father and grandfather to meet?

(4) Where are the father and grandfather to meet?

(5) Why are the father and grandfather to meet?

(d) After approximately ten minutes instruction and practice in listening, the children will prove their ability to listen to select key words from a taped telephone message by answering the following key questions with key words from the message:

(1) Who called?

(2) What did he call about?

(3) When did he call?

(4) Where?

(5) Why?

(e) The children will listen to a telephone conversation and then show their understanding of the message by writing the following key words:

(1) call

(2) Mr. Cook

(3) shop

(4) 5:30 p.m.

(5) T.V.

(f) After listening to a teacher giving instructions for a homework assignment, the children will demonstrate their ability to listen to make accurate notes by writing

(1) the key numbers for the reading assignment.

(2) the key numbers for the questions to be answered.

3. Evaluation Items:

The children's responses will be evaluated by their ability to listen to make accurate answers by writing key words to answer key questions; by writing key words when the key questions are omitted; and by making notes of key numbers.

4. Percentage of Correct Responses:

(a) 80%

(b) 87%

(c) 81%

(d) 92%

(e) 85%

(f) 90%

F. Listening Skills Program, Level IIb, Lesson 6, Summarizing.

1. Present the tape according to the instructions given in the teacher's guide.

2. Behavioural Objectives:

(a) After listening to approximately ten minutes instruction in summarizing, and after listening to the story entitled "The Australian Dingo", the children will demonstrate their ability to select the following key facts from the story:

(1) name of the dog.

(2) where the dog lives.

(3) what he looks like.

(4) habits.

(b) The children will show their ability to use key facts to make a summary of the story entitled "The Australian Dingo" by writing a summary that contains the facts of the following summary:

The Australian Dingo is about two feet tall and weighs about fifty pounds. His short coat is tan or red with white marks. He has pointed ears and a bushy tail. He is a wild hunting dog. He is not a very good pet, but is kept in zoos.

(c) After the children listen to the story entitled "The Basenji" they will prove their ability to select important facts from the story by writing the following key words:

(1) Basenji

(2) old breed

(3) small

(4) fox-like head

(5) no bark

(6) short coat

(7) red, black, tan-with white markings

(8) tail curls

(9) good pet, hunter, worker

(d) The children will exhibit their knowledge of summarizing by using the facts of the story entitled "The Basenji" to

(1) write a story.

(2) draw a picture.

(e) After listening to parts I, II, and III of a story about a trip into the Jordanian Desert entitled "A Journey", the children will show their ability to listen to select the summary ideas from the following multiple choice answers:

(1) (a) The bedouins cook in tents.

(b) The bedouins have a special truck.

(c) The bedouins cook and care for all of us and move the camp each day.

(2) (a) We went to sleep early.

(b) We enjoyed a very pleasant first evening.

(c) We were served a hot dinner.

(f) After listening to parts IV and V of the story entitled "A Journey" the students will demonstrate their knowledge of selecting the summary ideas of the passage and writing sentences that give the information of the following summary sentences:

(3) Mr. Dorsey told several ways to ride a camel.

(4) Desert rainstorms come and go quickly.

(g) After listening to part VI of the story entitled "A Journey" the children will write the following notes as dictated by the storyteller:

(5) Driving to the desert

The Camp

The First Night

Riding the Camel

The Last Night

(h) The children will prove their ability to listen to summarize by using the notes already dictated in number five above to write a summary of the entire story.

3. Evaluation Items:

The students' responses will be evaluated according to the number of key facts they have selected and used in accurate summaries; according to their ability to select accurate summary ideas from multiple choice answers; according to their ability to construct their own summary idea sentences; according to their ability to listen to take notes; and according to their ability to make a summary of the entire story.

4. Percentage of Correct Responses:

(a) 32%

(b) 32%

(c) 97%

(d) 83%

(e) 86%

(f) 61%

(g) 94%

(h) 48%

G. Listening Skills Program, Level IIb, Lesson 7, Cause and Effect.

1. Introduce the tape recording to the instructions given in the teacher's guide.

2. Behavioural Objectives:

(a) After approximately ten minutes instruction in determining cause and effect, the children will listen to a section of a story about "Fences in America." They will then indicate their ability to listen to recognize cause and effect by listening to question number one and then placing the letters a, b, c, or d beside the statements only if they correctly answer question number one.

(1) What caused the early settlers to build fences?

( ) The need to protect crops caused the settlers to build fences.

( ) The need for privacy caused the settlers to build fences.

( ) The need to keep tame animals from running away caused the fences to be built.

( ) Two reasons for building fences were told in the story.

(b) The children will listen to the second section of the story about "Fences in America." They will then listen to the following statements to determine whether each statement is true or false and place the letter t beside the true statements and the letter f beside the false statements.

(2) In New England fences were made from rocks because rocks are plentiful and make strong fences. _____

(3) Because rock fences were strong one can still see fences that were built before George Washington became President. _____

(4) As men pushed westward more rail fences were used because there were not enough rocks, and timber was plentiful. _____

(5) Prairie farmers used hedges for fencing because hedges were pretty. _____

(6) Thorny hedges were good because their barbes discouraged cows and other animals from crashing through the bush fence and from eating it. _____

(e) After listening to the third and fourth section of the story about "Fences in America" the children will show their understanding of the passage by

(7) drawing a sketch to show why the settlers were called nesters.

(8) answering "yes" or "no" to the statement: Barbed wire affected the west in many ways.

(d) The pupils will listen to the story entitled "Volcanoes and Earthquakes" and then show their ability to select cause and effect statements by listening to the following statements and placing "yes" beside the number if the statement is correct and "no" beside the number if the statement is incorrect.

(1) Some people called the volcano a monster because it was growing so large and so frightening. _____

(2) The lava moved slowly because it was thick. _____

(3) Because the lava from the volcano was thick and moved slowly people in the village had time to take their belongings and escape. _____

(e) The children will analyze the following statements by listening to determine whether they are good, bad, or neither and then writing one or more of these terms beside each of the following numbers:

(4) The volcano frightened the people. _____

(5) They had to leave their homes. _____

(6) The village was buried. _____

(f) The children will listen to the following statements and will then write "yes" beside the statement if it is a statement of cause and effect and "no" beside the statement if it is not a statement of cause and effect.

(7) Sometimes pressures cause the lava to move closer to the earth's surface. _____

(8) The rock layers above it cannot keep it down and some of the gas escapes. _____

(g) The children will listen to determine and then write "yes" if the statement tells an effect of the New Madrid Earthquake and "no" if it does not tell an effect of the New Madrid Earthquake.

(9) Joe Pots was glad the day had come to an end. _____

10. Trees were shattered in splinters. _____

11. The course of the Mississippi River was changed. _____

12. Joe Pots worked on the docks of the Mississippi River. _____

3. Evaluation Items:

The children's responses will be evaluated according to their ability to listen to recognize cause and effect when they are stated in various ways as indicated by the behavioural objectives.

4. Percentage of Correct Responses:

(a) 67%

(b) 83%

(c) 78%

(d) 75%

(e) 87%

(f) 97%

(g) 70%

H. Listening Skills Program, Level IIb, Lesson 8, Cause and Effect.

1. Introduce the tape according to the instructions given in the teacher's guide.

2. Behavioural Objectives:

(a) After listening to approximately five minutes instruction in cause and effect, and after listening to the first section of the story "Let it Be", the children will show their ability to understand as they listen by placing "yes" at the end of any sentences which include both a cause and effect and "no" at the end of any sentences which do not include a cause and effect.

(1) The stage coach was late because the driver, Yarnell, had an accident. _____

(2) Yarnell could not continue the trip because he was hurt. _____

(3) Another driver was needed because Yarnell could not continue the trip. _____

(4) Henry Clay agreed to let Tim drive because Yarnell said he could not drive. _____

(b) The children will listen to the second section of the story entitled "Let it Be" and will then determine whether or not each sentence is an effect of the driver's challenge to Tim to race by placing "yes" beside the number of the sentences that are an effect of the driver's challenge and "no" beside the number of the sentences that are not an effect of the driver's challenge.

(5) Tim wanted to race. _____

(6) Tim remembered that he was responsible for the safety of his passengers, and refused to race. _____

(7) The driver was disgusted with Tim. _____

(8) Mr. Clay was pleased with Tim. _____

(c) The children will listen to the third section of the story, "Let it Be", and will then listen to write the following five sentences, each under the other, beside number nine as they are dictated by the storyteller.

(9) The horses galloped out of control.

Tim and Mr. Clay were thrown in the mud.

The tree began to fall.

Lightning struck the tree.

A wheel hit a soft mud spot.

(d) After the children have listened to and written the sentences as dictated by the storyteller in number nine, they will then indicate their ability to listen to arrange the sentences in the proper sequence of cause and effect to form a chain of events by writing the following:

(1) Because the lightning struck the tree, the tree began to fall.

(2) Because the tree fell, the horses galloped out of control.

(3) Because the horses galloped out of control, a wheel hit a soft spot.

(4) Because a wheel hit a soft spot, Tim and Mr. Clay were thrown into the mud.

(e) After listening to the first section of a story entitled "Big City" the students will listen to the following selected sentences from the story and then demonstrate their ability to distinguish between sentences that have a cause and effect by putting "yes" beside its number, and by putting "no" beside the number of each sentence that has omitted either the cause or the effect.

(1) The city planner helps the city grow in an orderly and ideal way. _____

(2) We are now aware of the problems that sometimes arise from unplanned growth. _____

(3) Each city is different. _____

(4) A city's geography or history gives it a particular character. _____

(f) After listening to the second section of the story entitled "Big City", the children will indicate their ability to listen to follow instructions to determine the cause and effect of a business deal by

(5) drawing a rectangle twice as long as it is wide, by marking 400 beside its length and 200 beside its width, and by dividing the property into two apartment lots 200 x 200 feet. They will then determine and write the amount the farmer will make if he sells the property at $18,000.00 per lot.

(6) writing the following as dictated by the storyteller:

16 lots $4,000.00 each 85 x 85 feet each

Street $20,000.00 30 feet wide

Draw rectangles representing 16 lots - 8 on each side of the street.

(7) (a) How much can the farmer make if he sells to the man who wants to build apartments?

(b) How much can the farmer make if he sells it to the man who wants to build houses?

(c) Will the farmer decide to sell to the apartment builder or the house builder?

3. Evaluation Items:

The children's responses will be evaluated according to their ability to listen to distinguish between sentences that show cause and effect and those sentences that omit either the cause or the effect; to indicate their ability to listen for several effects from one cause; to listen to arrange sentences in their accurate order of cause and effect to form a chain of events; and through a series of given facts and instructions to arrive at the appropriate cause and effect.

4. Percentage of Correct Responses:

(a) 90%

(b) 83%

(c) 58%

(d) 29%

(e) 72%

(f) 74%

I. Listening Skills Program, Level IIb, Lesson 9, Creative Listening.

1. Introduce the tape according to the instructions given in the teacher's guide.

2. Behavioural Objectives:

(a) After ten minutes instruction in listening to think, to visualize, and to feel mood, the children will listen to a poem entitled "Some Day I'm Going to Follow the Wind" and then show their ability to listen creatively by sketching a picture of one place they have visualized in the poem and to which through imagination they have followed the wind.

(b) The children will show their ability to listen, think, visualize, and feel the mood of the poem entitled "Train Ride" by sketching one scene they have visualized while listening to the poem.

(c) After ten minutes instruction time in listening to selections from the tape entitled "Silly, Sad, or Spooky", the children will exhibit their ability to listen to the music, tones, and words of a selection to sense its mood. They will then write "yes" beside the words that describe the mood and "no" beside the words that do not describe its mood.

(1) sad, sorrowful, soulful

(2) excited, happy

(3) spooky, suspenseful

(d) The children will listen to a poem about the sea and then demonstrate their ability to listen to words, tones, and music to determine the mood of the poem by putting "yes" beside the words that describe the mood of the poem and "no" beside the words which do not describe the poem.

(4) silly, funny, jolly

(5) dreamy, quiet, thoughtful

(6) exciting, dangerous, suspenseful

(e) After listening to the music, words, and tone of a passage, the children will show they understand the mood of the passage by writing three words which accurately describe it.

(7) , , ,

3. Evaluation Items:

The children's responses to the behavioural objectives will be evaluated according to their ability to listen to express the mood of poetry by drawing pictures; and to listen to sense the mood of selected prose and poetry through choice of words.

4. Percentage of Correct Responses:

(a) 63%

(b) 61%

(c) 64%

(d) 68%

(e) 72%

J. Listening Skills Program, Level IIb, Lesson 10, Fact and Opinion.

1. Introduce the tape according to the instructions given in the teacher's guide.

2. Behavioural Objectives:

(a) After listening to approximately eight minutes instruction in distinguishing between fact and opinion, the children will listen to the story entitled "The Twister." They will then show they understand the difference

between fact and opinion by listening to the following sentences and writing F beside the number of the sentences that are statements of fact, and O beside the number of the sentences that are not a statement of fact.

(1) The Gray's three-bedroom house at 1732 Thornton Road was the only house on the block lashed by the storm.

(2) Mrs. Gray said that she thought this was the strongest wind she had ever seen.

(3) Mrs. Powell had seen the funnel hit the house.

(4) Your roof is in my front yard.

(5) She saw the ceiling had collapsed onto the top bunk.

(6) Matthew arrived to say that he believed their roof was down the street in the Powell's yard.

(7) Only my brother could sleep through a twister with the ceiling falling in on top of him.

(8) Mrs. Gray said that she guessed that the family's pet dog and cat had been blown away.

(b) After listening to a news report the children will show their ability to listen to judge the facts and opinions presented to determine whether there was really a tornado by writing a paragraph recalling statements of fact and opinion.

(c) The students will listen to a story entitled "The Greatest Show" and then show their ability to listen to select fact from opinion by putting an A beside the number of the sentence if it is a fact and putting B beside the sentence if it is an opinion.

(1) ( ) Hyperbole means extreme exaggeration.

( ) A statement of fact.

(2) ( ) Circus bill writers use hyperbole.

( ) Circus bill writers expressed honest opinions.

(3) Everyone seemed to

( ) enjoy the exaggerated advertising.

( ) dislike the exaggerated advertising.

(d) The children will listen to the story entitled "The Greatest Show" to determine how the circus has changed and to understand what life is like now for circus performers. They will show their ability to listen for fact and opinion and then place an F beside statements of fact and an O beside statements of opinion.

(4) In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries circuses travelled over the country by train. _____

(5) Circuses have changed during this century. _____

(6) Circus advertising of the early twentieth century was dishonest and, therefore, bad. _____

(7) The public usually realized that circus bill writers used hyperbole. _____

(8) A circus is great entertainment. _____

(9) Life for a circus entertainer is difficult. _____

(10) Children with the circus have a lot of fun. _____

(11) People from many countries make up the circus community. _____

3. Evaluation Items:

The children's responses will be evaluated according to their ability to accurately select statements of fact from statement of opinion.

4. Percentage of Correct Responses:

(a) 77%

(b) 64%

(c) 75%

(d) 68%

K. Listening Skills Program, Level IIb, Lesson 11; Inference.

1. Introduce the tape according to the instructions given in the teacher's guide.

2. Behavioural Objectives:

(a) After listening to approximately fifteen minutes instruction in making inferences about sounds, settings, times, and seasons, the children will then listen to a passage about seasons to determine and indicate their ability to choose the correct answer from the following multiple choice question.

(1) (a) Winter

(b) Spring

(c) Summer

(d) Fall

(b) After listening to an appropriate selection, the children will show their ability to choose the correct setting by selecting the accurate multiple choice answer.

(2) (a) a desert

(b) a dock

(c) an airport

(c) The children will listen to a paragraph describing Jamaica, and will then show their ability to infer whether Jamaica is

(3) (a) a continent

(b) a city

(c) an island

(d) The children will listen to a selection about a sofa, and will then show their ability to listen between words to select the correct word to describe it by choosing one of the following multiple choice words:

(4) (a) hard

(b) green

(c) soft

(d) different

(e) A paragraph that describes China will be read, but the word "China" will be left out. The children will prove their ability to infer the country described by accurately selecting from the following countries:

(5) (a) Germany

(b) China

(c) Australia

(d) Egypt

(f) The children will listen to a passage describing parts of the Middle East and Africa. They will then show their ability to select the mode of transportation being used by selecting the appropriate multiple choice answer from the following four choices:

(6) (a) a schooner

(b) an elephant

(c) a jeep

(d) a camel

(g) After listening to a paragraph describing the type of clothes being worn, the pupils will then make an inference about the type of weather being experienced by selecting either

(7) (a) hot

(b) raining

(h) The pupils will listen to the exclamations: "Help! Get Him! Catch Him!" They will then respond by writing an appropriate inference about what is happening. Some of the possibilities are:

(8) (a) Someone is chasing a robber.

(b) Children are playing a game.

(c) The toddler is going to fall over the stairs.

(i) After listening to the statement "Willie scolded his dog," the children will respond by writing an appropriate inference about why Willie scolded his dog. Some possibilities are:

(a) The dog drank the cat's milk.

(b) The dog hid Willie's slipper.

(c) The dog barked loudly when the guests arrived.

(j) The children will listen to a paragraph describing the arrival of the Stanton Stage Coach, and will then infer why its driver, Ward Yarnell, fell from the coach. They will do so by writing an appropriate response. Some possibilities are:

(10) (a) Ward Yarnell had been shot.

(b) Ward Yarnell was sick.

(c) Ward Yarnell had lost his balance.

(k) The children will listen to approximately ten minutes instruction in making inferences. They will then listen to the story entitled "The Dupe" and then demonstrate their ability to make inferences about people, places, things, action, and time by writing accurate responses to the following:

(1) Write one word you think describes old Craig.

(2) Write what you think old Craig will infer about the man.

(3) What did old Craig infer about the man?

(4) What did old Craig decide as he listened to the man?

(5) How do you think old Craig felt about his scheme?

(6) What did the man infer about old Craig's plan?

(7) What do you think happens next in the story?

3. Evaluation Items:

The students' responses to the behavioural objectives will be evaluated according to their ability to listen to make appropriate inferences about sounds, settings, times, seasons, people, places, things, and actions.

4. Percentage of Correct Responses:

(a) 54%

(b) 69%

(c) 72%

(d) 54%

(e) 46%

(f) 54%

(g) 62%

(h) 56%

(i) 36%

(j) 67%

(k) 60%

APPENDIX II

THE LISTENING PROGRAM

SUMMARY OF CORRECT RESPONSES

The Listening Program

Summary of Correct Responses

by the Experimental Group

Listening Skills	Percentage of Correct Responses
Auditory discrimination	91.50
Following directions	79.00
Sequence	85.25
Main ideas and details	68.00
Note-taking	85.83
Summarizing	67.25
Cause and effect	74.08
Creative listening	65.60
Fact and Opinion	71.00
Inference	62.72
Mean Percentage Score	75.02