THE EFFECTS OF LISTENING SKILLS INSTRUCTION
ON STUDENTS' ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the
University of North Texas in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

C. W. Mangrum, B.A., M.Ed.

Denton, Texas

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Although it is widely assumed that listening is among the most important learning skills (Wolvin & Coakley, 1988), an examination of the literature indicates that it has been woefully neglected as subject matter in schools. Listening has also been neglected as an area of research. Surveys have been conducted to see if listening is being taught or can effectively be taught, but little evidence exists to suggest that effectively teaching listening improves students' academic performance.

This study investigated the relationship between listening skills instruction and academic performance among university students. The purpose was to determine if teaching university students comprehensive listening skills improves their academic performance. It was assumed that listening can be effectively taught.

The goal of the study was to compare 75 students who were enrolled in a listening course to a similar group of 75 students not enrolled in a listening course. The students were compared on the basis of grade point improvement the semester after the experimental group had completed the
listening course. The t test was chosen because it can be used for testing the significance of the difference between the means of two independent samples. The grade point averages of the two groups were collected and the means and standard deviations of the two groups were determined. The t-value and the probability of rejection of the null hypothesis were also determined.

The data showed little difference between the mean scores of the two groups or between the standard deviations of the two groups. The observed t-value did not support the hypothesis; therefore, there was insufficient evidence to reject the null, and the conclusion was that listening skills instruction has no impact on university students’ academic performance.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Although it is widely assumed that listening is among the most important learning skills (Wolvin & Coakley, 1988), an examination of the literature indicates that it has been woefully neglected as subject matter in our schools. The 1929 Rankin study found that schools were spending 52 and 30 percent of their time on reading and writing respectively and only 10 and 8 percent on speaking and listening. In 1948, only one school in America, Stephens College, was teaching listening (Wolvin & Coakley). In 1952, Anderson discovered that only a few public schools were teaching listening. Brown and Keller (1962) noted that of the fifty-thousand speech courses being taught at colleges and universities, only a handful were devoted to listening. This kind of research has led the Speech Association of America (1967) to conclude that "For years the skills of oral communication have been neglected, or have been taught only incidentally or sporadically in most of our schools" (p. 79). These kinds of data have led Wolvin and Coakley to conclude that "the most neglected language art skill at all educational levels is listening" (p. 8).

The literature also suggests that listening has been neglected as an area of research. Many surveys (Rankin,
1930; Wolvin & Coakley, 1991; Clark & Gudaitis, 1991) have been conducted to ascertain if listening is being taught; other research has been conducted to determine if listening can be effectively taught (Duker, 1964; Petrie, 1964; Hackett, 1955), but little evidence suggests that the teaching of listening improves student performance. As a result, assertions regarding the value of listening as a learning skill may be based on an inadequate and incomplete understanding of the effects listening has on learning. Clearly, if listening is to be regarded as a primary study skill, that skill ought to be measurable, and the results on academic performance should be predictable.

Statement of the Problem
This study investigated the relationship between listening skills and academic performance among university students.

Purpose of the Study
The purpose of this study was to determine if teaching university students comprehensive listening skills improves their academic performance.

Research Hypotheses
H₀: The academic performance of students who have completed a listening course will be no different than that of students who have not taken a listening course, and tested the alternate:
$H_1$: The academic performance of students who have completed a listening course will exceed that of students who have not taken a listening course.

$H_0: \quad M_{wg} - M_{cg} = 0$

$H_1: \quad M_{wg} - M_{cg} > 0$

Significance of the Study

Because of the development of defensible measures of listening, there has been an increase in the interest of research in the area (Bostrom, 1990). Much of this research has focused on typologies, methodologies of measurement, kinds of tests and appropriateness of delivery techniques, but literature associating improvements in listening with success in or out of the academic world is virtually non-existent.

The sheer number of listening textbooks (Steil, Barker and Watson, Floyd, Burley-Allen, Wolvin and Coakley) available is a testament to the belief that listening can be taught. Even the most respected researchers in the field (Bostrom, Wolvin, Coakley, Yelich and Newton, Binder, et. al.) agree that listening, when approached in an appropriate and scholarly way, can be taught. If thematic research with studies tied together with common threads is desirable, then using listening instruction to predict increases in grade point averages must be of interest.

The assumption that the ability to listen is a separate and unitary skill was attacked by Charles Kelly (1965) who
discovered that the accepted listening tests (STEP and Brown-Carlsen) were more correlated to tests of intelligence than to each other. These data led Kelly to conclude that the ability that had previously been labeled "listening ability" was only an aspect of intelligence. He further concluded that the STEP and Brown-Carlsen listening tests were only different kinds of intelligence tests. At least one researcher (Gardner, 1983) talks of multiple intelligences and use listening as one of them. These approaches are further complicated by researchers who measure listening as cognitive complexity. Regardless of the detractors, the preponderance of data leads to the conclusion that listening is a separate and measurable skill.

Assumptions about listening and learning are too important to remain only assumptions. If, as Heilman (1955) suggests, teachers want to assume that better listeners are better learners simply to affirm their teaching techniques, then data must be collected and presented to confirm or deny that assumption. Traditionally, whether in the secondary or higher education classroom, listening has been confused with posture, if addressed at all, and students receive little instruction on the psychological process (Bostrom, 1990).

Bostrom (1990) correlated listening and memory by explaining that the memory system is often described by the word "storage." Short-term memory and short-term memory
with rehearsal are described as attention. "Long-term memory is what most persons commonly mean when they use the word 'memory.' Usually long-term memory is not activated until at least 60 seconds after the presentation of a stimulus" (p. 10). He concluded that all of these are important in their own way (pp. 10-14).

The course the Southeastern students were enrolled in was designed to effectively increase short-term memory, short-term memory with rehearsal and long-term memory. Wolvin and Coakley (1990) and Bostrom (1990) agree that this type of instruction is most beneficial for lecture retention. The data collected from these courses were used to predict academic improvement.

Definition of Terms

The following terms had restricted meaning and were thus defined for the study:

1. Comprehensive listening is lecture listening as defined by Nichols (1948) who noted that the essential measure of listening is the recall of factual data from a lecture after an unspecified period of time has passed. Carl Weaver (1972) defined listening as "the selection and retention of aurally received data" (p. 12), and Larry Barker (1971) defined listening as "the selective process of attending to, hearing, understanding, and remembering aural symbols" (p. 17). Each of these definitions led to the
conclusion that improving listening skills should improve academic performance.

2. A university student was defined as an undergraduate enrolled at Southeastern Oklahoma State University in 12 or more hours and had completed more than 30 credit hours.

3. Academic performance was operationally defined as the student's grade point average the semester after s/he had completed the listening course.

Basic Assumptions

It was assumed that lecture listening can be taught. Carole Ernest (1968) is one source often used to confirm that teaching listening does not improve students' academic performance. However, Ernest did say, "The correlational analysis results indicate that a positive relationship exists between listening comprehension and academic achievement" (p. 158). Ernest did add a qualifier that the positive relationship is more predictable when the subject matter is well within the ability range of the subjects being tested. Other research (Fergen, 1955; Kramar, 1955) correlated listening to specific intelligence tests used for elementary children, but Ernest denied those results for college students by concluding, "Although there are many students reporting a positive relationship between listening comprehension and intelligence, the present results do not support those findings" (p. 158).
A number of studies have been conducted to affirm Nichols' conclusion that listening can be taught. McClendon (1958), Hsia (1968), and Beatty and Payne (1984), are just a few examples of studies which confirm Nichols' thesis. Although there are other studies that indicate listening tests are more highly correlated with intelligence (Petrie & Carroll, 1976), than with listening ability, Bostrom (1990) concluded that "... these studies demonstrate that persons do indeed vary in their ability to retain information following spoken messages, and often that instructional efforts to improve this ability were successful" (p. 4).

It was also assumed that the Watson-Barker Listening Test is valid for testing the five dimensions covered in the test and a reliable instrument for measuring listening ability (Fitch-Hauser & Hughes, 1987). Considerable research has been conducted to ascertain the validity of listening tests in general and the Watson-Barker test specifically. As early as 1950 Caffrey identified three basic problems in evaluating listening. Elimination of irrelevant factors, isolation of test items from reading factors and standardization of methods of presentation were the main problems. In addition, McCarthy (1958) warned that since listening is closely related to general information, it is important to control for content familiarity. After much research, Backlund, Brown, Gurry and Jandt (1982)
recommended that the following list be adhered to when developing listening tests:

1. use taped stimulus materials (audio-audio/video)
2. use spoken, not written, passages that are read aloud
3. call for simple, minimal responses
4. produce the stimulus message and questions on tape
5. contain test booklets with items in writing
6. use short stimulus material (30 seconds to 3 minutes)
7. use interesting stimulus material (real-life)
8. control vocalizations used in the stimulus materials. (p. 16)

Using these suggestions, the Watson-Barker Listening Test was developed in 1982 and pilot tested over a two-year period (Watson & Barker, 1988).

Tests were administered and analyzed for several thousand subjects representing a variety of different states and geographical regions. Tests were subjected to factor analyses, item analyses, reliability tests, and descriptive analyses. In addition, face validity was assessed by using a panel of listening experts to judge the validity of each item. (p. 25)

To further validate the Watson-Barker Listening Test, Roach and Fitch-Hauser (1984) studied the administration of the test in oral or written form and Applegate and Campbell (1985) conducted a correlational analysis of the Watson-Barker with the Kentucky Comprehensive Listening Tests. A significant correlation was found between the total scores of the two tests.

It was further assumed that the measures of listening ability examined in the test could be readily translated into a student’s ability to comprehend and retain lecture

Limitations of the Study

The sample for this investigation was a non-randomly selected, convenience sample. It was intended that the control exercised in collection and analysis of data and the matching of pairs for the control group would overcome the study deficiencies due to a lack of a random sample. Nevertheless, the results may not be generalizable to a larger population.
CHAPTER II

SYNTHESIS OF RELATED LITERATURE

Early Studies

The vast majority of the researchers point to Rankin’s research (1926) as the germinal work in the listening field. Rankin’s research consisted of surveying individuals to determine how much of their time was spent in each of the various communication activities (Dissertation Abstracts 12, 1952). Interestingly, the Rankin study made no attempt to examine any additional effectiveness in communication skills due to increased attention to listening. He also made no attempt to demonstrate that increasing listening skills enhances students’ academic performance (Rankin, 1926). However, later studies (Binder, Newton, & Yelich, 1980; Wolvin & Coakley, 1990; Barker & Watson, 1980; Brewster, 1966) all point to Rankin as the initiator of modern interest in listening as a teachable skill. It is important that Rankin did find out how much time is spent communicating and broke verbal communication into four basic categories: writing, reading, speaking, and listening (Steil, 1982).

By January, 1955, the study of listening had become enough of a concern for Education, a magazine written for the study of the teaching of the liberal arts, to devote an
entire issue to it. Two articles were particularly noteworthy.

Heilman (1955) suggested that all educators believe listening to be important to learning, but says it is because "To deny this would, of course, leave educators in the extremely untenable position of explaining or rationalizing current methodology and common classroom practices" (p. 283). But Heilman also noted that there is no evidence that listening is part of the curriculum. He continued, "It is assumed that children come to school with the ability to listen and that schools busy themselves with activities rooted in this premise" (p. 283). Basically, educators take the ability to listen for granted and do little to improve the child's skills. Heilman also pointed to corrective measures by teachers: "sit up and pay attention, face the front and listen, pay attention when Mary is talking," as evidence that listening is seen as more of a posture than a psychological process (p. 284). Heilman surveyed fifteen textbooks in educational psychology published between 1946 and 1954 and found that eleven made no mention of listening at all and none dealt with suggestions for improving listening. What is most disheartening for the listening scholar is Heilman's conclusion that "listening MAY [his emphasis] result in learning, but listening is not learning and neither wishing or [sic] more listening will make it so" (p. 287).
Hackett (1955) was also critical about the lack of research in the field of listening. In the concluding article in the January issue of *Education*, Hackett stated, "There is not enough evidence that listening can be taught" (p. 349). According to Hackett, there are three main problems confronting claims about listening; there are few valid studies about listening outside the field of acoustics, few people have enough training to formulate testable hypotheses for testing or evaluation, and listening instruction is of the "hoorah" type that is unarguably platitudinous (p. 349). He continues, "The basic requirements for any scientific study are a method for observing, a system for generalizing . . . and a method of testing the generalizations" (p. 350), and concluded that most studies in listening fail at all three. Finally, Hackett stated that a null hypothesis is easier to defend. His hypothesis: "There is no evidence that knowledge about listening contributes to the ability to listen" (p. 350). For this research, the importance of Hackett's article is obvious, if you cannot teach someone to be a better listener, then teaching listening certainly will have no impact on academic performance.

In an early attempt to show that listening skills are associated with academic success, McClendon (1958) conducted a study at the State University of Iowa by comparing the note-taking practices and listening comprehension of college
freshmen in expository lectures. McClendon's five stated objectives were to determine whether note-taking affects listening comprehension, to discover whether one system of note-taking is superior, to determine whether one system of note-taking is superior with a particular type of lecture, to discover if scholastic aptitude is a determining factor in predicting whether note-taking should or should not be used in a given situation, and to evaluate the relationships of the above objectives under immediate and delayed recall conditions. The importance of his study is the relationship that it assumes between comprehension and listening. Although no direct measurement of academic success is inferred or stated, recall and memory play an important role in academic success. The conclusions of the study are not promising. The general results were that efficient listening comprehension, under both immediate and delayed recall conditions, is not significantly affected by any of the note-taking methods. "Listening comprehension is as effective when subjects are restricted from taking any notes as when subjects employed any of the three methods of note-taking used in the investigation" (McClendon, 1958, p. 227). McClendon did question the quality of the instrument used in his study, but still drew conclusions that indicate he accepts the validity of his findings.

In 1961, Nichols asserted that a "very dramatic page has been turned" (p. 119) because there were a number of
universities teaching listening by that title. In the same article Nichols pursued answers to two questions. First, is efficient listening a problem? Next, since the answer to the first question is yes, is there anything that can be done about the problem? Nichols was prescriptive in the article. "Ten Guides to Effective Listening" (p. 120) is a major heading in the article and he proceeded to list each guide with a description of each. Although Nichols made no claims regarding the increase in efficiency of listening ability, he claimed that improvement in each of the ten areas vastly improves listening ability. There are no quantitative data in the article and no attempt to prove qualitative claims.

Kelly (1963) took a major step in correlating listening with mental ability in his study of listening ability, behavior, and attitudes of the management personnel in a manufacturing plant. A talk was presented to twenty-eight supervisors unaware that they were part of an experiment. Following the talk the supervisors were given a thirty-item multiple-choice test that was prepared to be a test of normal listening performance, not a test of listening ability. After this initial test, the supervisors were given a battery of tests for listening ability. An analysis of the intercorrelations of the factors operative in the various tests was made. The data indicated that general mental ability plays a greater role in listening
comprehension under typical test conditions than it does under normal audience conditions. Kelly notes, "The influence of general mental ability in tests of listening ability is undoubtedly significant as has been noted..." (p. 155).

Brewster (1966) asserts that "results are inconclusive regarding the teaching of listening over lengthy periods of time" (p. 8) and conducted a study to ascertain what the results would be if listening training were conducted in briefer periods by the regular classroom teacher. Brewster used three groups of students with group I having a raw score of 47-67 on the English section of the Washington Pre-College Test and groups II and III scoring 46 or below. Students in group III were given twenty lessons designed to improve listening skills. The students in groups I and II were not given any training. Listening exercises were given to group II. Group I had no listening training, but performed better on the listening portion of the Sequential Test of Educational Progress (STEP) than did the other groups. Interestingly, the students who received direct instruction in listening showed no improvement in their listening ability. No information is given regarding the academic performance of students who showed improvement in listening skills. Although this is an interesting study, it does not accomplish the objective of demonstrating whether improved listening improves academic performance. Because
the students were grouped according to ability, no general conclusions can be drawn.

In 1968, Carole Ernest published an article in *Speech Monographs* that was particularly useful for this research. Ernest stated,

> The main purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between two types of material (historical and technical) and listening comprehension as well as the interaction between type of material and rate of presentation. (p. 154)

But, she also researched the relationship between listening comprehension and intelligence and between listening comprehension and academic achievement (p. 154).

The methodology for the study included fifty-two students from introductory psychology classes who were given tape recorded "general" material, "historical" material and "technical" material of approximately the same length (p. 155). The general selection was at the grade 7 and grade 8 level and the historical and technical selections were each at the grade 13 to 15 level. The fourth selection was Part E of the *Brown-Carlsen Listening Test*.

Using a 2 X 2 factorial design, the subjects were randomly assigned to each of the four experimental groups with gender being the only control. In Phase I, the general material was presented to all subjects at the rate of 140 words per minute. In Phase 2 the subjects heard either the technical or historical material recorded at a rate of either 120 words per minute (slow) or 160 words per minute
Finally, in Phase 3, Part E of the *Brown-Carlsen Listening Comprehension Test* was administered to two of the groups at the slow speed and the other two groups at the fast speed.

Following the presentation of each selection, the subjects completed two 5-point ratings of the material to determine perceived difficulty. The subjects were then tested for comprehension by means of ten true-false questions on the general and historical or technical materials and 21 multiple-choice questions on Part E of the *Brown-Carlsen Test* (p. 155).

A one-way analysis of variance indicated that the groups were comparable in listening comprehension prior to the presentation of the experimental materials. It also indicated the groups did not differ in intellectual ability. Additional results were analyzed using a two-way analysis of variance. These showed that no significant effects were obtained on comprehension scores. The two-way analysis of variance did indicate that the subjects receiving the technical material tended to demonstrate higher listening comprehension than those receiving the historical material (p. 156). A t-test was used in analyzing the comprehension scores obtained on Part E of the *Brown-Carlsen* test and no significant differences were found between the two rates of presentation. Paired t-tests were used to examine whether the subjects familiarity and difficulty ratings of the
materials at different phases of the experiment differed. Results indicated that Phase 3 material was rated significantly more familiar than Phase 2 or Phase 1 materials (p. 157).

Ernest reported three results from her research. First, listening comprehension was not significantly affected by the rate at which experimental material was presented. Next, the difficulty level of a speech was related to its degree of abstractness or concreteness. Finally, the correlational analysis results indicated a positive relationship existed between listening comprehension and academic achievement (pp. 157-158), but correlation is not causation.

It is important to note that Ernest correlated academic achievement on the basis of short, true-false tests and did not use other measurements. She also reported that the correlation was significant and positive for the general material and only when the material presented was "well within the ability range of the subjects" (p. 158).

It is also important that Ernest did not find a positive correlation between listening and intelligence as had been reported in other studies. She did report that the high age range and the small size of the samples may have accounted for the discrepancy.

By the 1970s, more sophisticated studies were being attempted to explore the association between listening
ability and long-term retention of information. One of the more comprehensive studies was done by Petrie and Carrel (1976) to correlate motivation, listening capability, initial information and verbal organizational ability with lecture comprehension and retention. The hypotheses were (1) a significant portion of the variance in immediate lecture comprehension can be accounted for by listening ability, motivation, organizational ability, initial information, interest and topic; (2) listening comprehension and extrinsic motivation are the best predictors of immediate comprehension; and (3) immediate comprehension and initial information are the best predictors of delayed retention. Results were mixed, but delayed retention was positively correlated with listening ability ($r = +.240$), so multiple linear regression analysis was undertaken to test hypotheses one and two (p. 191). "The unique contributions and the partial correlation coefficients for listening ability and extrinsic motivation" were larger than for the other variables, thus supporting the second hypothesis (p. 193). Removing listening ability from the regression equation would significantly reduce the amount of variance by 9.1 percent. Petrie and Carrel concluded that the results confirmed the assumption that tests of general listening ability can be used to predict lecture comprehension, but drew no correlation between lecture comprehension, listening ability, and grade point averages.
Recent Developments

Binder, et al. (1982) provide a comprehensive study of listening and student success at Saint Edward’s University in Austin, Texas. The stated purpose of the study was to develop an "increasingly competent, aware, analytical and involved student population" (p. 8). To achieve this goal, they addressed the widely accepted list of listening habits developed by Ralph Nichols (1955). The experimental group in the Saint Edward’s study tested well below the average entering freshmen on basic skills. The laboratory students averaged 9.9 on the Nelson Denny Reading Test while other entering freshmen averaged 13.8. The other test scores for the two groups respectively were: STEP English Expression Subtest, 30.8 versus 43.5; an Entering Essay (graded on an eight point scale) 3.98 versus 5.33; and the Brown-Carlsen Listening Comprehension Test (percentile for college freshmen) 9 versus 59. Even Binder, et al. admit that "Differences in the skills levels of the groups clearly exist" (p. 48).

For this study, the primary research question of Binder, et al. (1982) is important. They were attempting to demonstrate that a relationship exists between listening skills and other basic skills areas. Their conclusion states confidently that, "Data . . . indicate that the relationship between listening and other basic skills tends to be a significant and positive one; that is, students who
made the highest scores on the Brown-Carlsen also tended to make the highest reading, writing, and math scores (and GPA’s) while low scoring students scored low in all three" (p. 51).

The second research question asks if there are changes in listening comprehension scores as a result of the laboratory course. The Binder (1982) study stated that "The t value associated with the pre/post difference for both the Fall, 1979 and the Spring, 1980 group is significant at the .001 level (t-test for matched samples)" (p. 51), and concludes that students who receive listening instruction make "significant" score gains on the Brown-Carlsen. These two studies would lead one to believe that since listening skills can be taught and there is a positive correlation between grade point average and listening skills, grade point averages can be improved by teaching listening skills. The second research question is important because a three-semester follow-up study revealed no significant improvement in the grade point averages of students who took the listening laboratory versus those who did not (Yelich and Newton, 1981).

Yelich and Newton compared the Fall 1979 laboratory students with the laboratory eligible students who entered in 1978 but who did not have the listening instruction. "The difference between the mean cumulative GPAs of the two groups was not statistically significant (t = 1.5 with 114
degrees of freedom; p > .05)" (p. 31). Although no conclusion was drawn from these data, it led them to state that "improving listening skills will not improve the grade point averages of college students" (p. 32).

Pearson and Fielding (1983) determined that while listening can be taught, it is easily the most ignored area of the language arts. Their research led them to ask two questions: (1) What is involved in listening comprehension? and (2) Can listening comprehension be taught?

The answer to the first question involves understanding the key components of language. A listener must have some command over phonology, syntax, semantics, and text structure before s/he can listen. When speakers can orchestrate all of these and apply them to interpretation of the text, it can be said that they have experienced listening.

The answer to the second question, can listening comprehension be taught?, is more complex. Pearson and Fielding (1983) found that students trained in either auditory sequential memory or sustained attention to a task made significant gains in auditory sequential memory over a cognitive enrichment group and a no-treatment control group. This finding led the researchers to conclude that "listening training in the same skills typically taught in reading comprehension curricula tends to improve listening comprehension" (p. 11). They also claimed that listening
comprehension can be improved through direct instructional strategies that focus on listening strategies. Pearson and Fielding did not attempt to show any relationship between improving the listening skills of students and their academic success.

Beatty and Payne (1984) gave a different perspective to listening by defining it as a form of human information processing. They defined information processing as "the characteristic ways in which an individual organizes, stores, and uses information in adjusting to various aspects of his world" (p. 85). Basically, listening is taking what is heard and organizing it into language units that can be used for meaning. The purpose of the Beatty and Payne research was to correlate listening comprehension to cognitive complexity.

Cognitive complexity is conceptualized as a continuum of information processing ability. Categorical thinking, rapid closure and simple, absolute rules are at the lower end and the higher end is indicated by that which is abstract and probabilistic. Individual levels of complexity depend upon the degree to which the characteristics are present. The quantity of constructs is not as important as the hierarchical schemata for processing complex information. The basis for their research was assuming that listening is a function of the receiver's information processing ability. Since cognitive complexity does assess
information processing ability, there should be a correlation between listening ability and cognitive complexity (p. 86).

The methodology for the study included a taped version of an informative presentation, 30 undergraduate students enrolled in an introductory speech course and a test to measure cognitive complexity-simplicity. Cognitive complexity scores were obtained, the taped speech was presented, and a 20-question multiple-choice test was administered to measure immediate recall. Steps were taken to insure the validity and reliability of the 20-item test (p. 87).

The results of an analysis of variance for unequal cell sizes indicated overall significant differences in immediate recall among the groups. A follow-up study was conducted to verify the results of the initial study. A different taped presentation was used and eighty-five students took a twenty-item multiple-choice test. The results of the follow-up study indicated overall differences in immediate recall. An analysis of variance for unequal cell sizes was used (p. 89).

Beatty and Payne reported, "The results of the two studies indicate that successively higher levels of complexity are associated with greater comprehension" (p. 89). They also concluded that these kinds of differences would be predictable using their definitions of listening
and cognitive complexity. The study did not make any attempts to specify the causal mechanism responsible for the observed effect, but did claim to lend support to the conceptualization of listening as information processing.

Wolvin, Coakley, and Disburg (1992) found that listening continues to be an important part of the speech communication curriculum. In a survey of over two-hundred-eighty randomly selected colleges and universities, they sought to discover if listening was being taught and the nature of that instruction. Among the respondents, over sixty percent offered listening instruction (p. 60). Twenty-three percent offered listening as a separate course while seventy-seven percent offered it as a unit in other courses.

Of the respondents who indicated that listening was not part of their current curriculum, the reason most cited was lack of adequate personnel. Other reasons cited for not offering a course were delivery of listening units in other courses or a feeling that the course would lack appeal (p. 62).

The importance of this study is the demonstration of continuing interest in listening as a separate area of study within the field of speech communication. Since communication theory stresses the importance of sending and receiving messages it confirms listening as a vital area of study and research in its own right (p. 64).
Bostrom (1990) consolidated many of the accepted paradigms about listening in his book *Listening Behavior: Measurement and Application*. Although Bostrom looks at specific listening situations, the importance of the book is the theoretical offerings of conceptual approaches to listening, measuring differences in listening, attitudes about and affective responses to listening, constructs, schemas and concepts about listening and differences in motivational levels to listening. In the preface, Bostrom underscores the importance of studying the activity when he states that we do not know much about listening as a process, "but there is nothing more important than the way we perceive, process, remember, and understand oral messages" (p. v).

Bostrom posits a number of conceptual approaches to a typology of listening (pp. 1-14) by attempting to answer what is listening? He also asserts that, "One serious problem that has affected thinking about listening has been the assumption that receiving behavior is the same regardless of differing situations and messages" (p. 7). Bostrom states that it is wrong to assume message sending is a multivariate activity and then to treat listening as if it is univariate. Many of the early studies made this assumption (Haia, 1968; McClendon, 1958; Buchli and Pearce, 1974; Beatty & Payne, 1984; to name a few). Later studies attacked this approach to listening, but these studies
demonstrate that persons do indeed vary in their ability to retain information following spoken messages, and often that instructional efforts to improve this ability are successful (p. 4). Others attempted to correlate listening to intelligence, and Bostrom agrees that listening is "probably not a separate and distinguishable mental ability" (p. 5) but that there are intelligent people who are not good listeners just as there are not so bright people who are good listeners.

The conceptual approach Bostrom offers to reconcile the findings of the early studies is to invoke an attitude about listening as part of the explanatory scheme. "This attitude, or the 'willingness' to listen has been defined as a separate component of the listening construct and is similar to basic interest in other's ideas (p. 5). To further his argument, Bostrom draws an analogy to rhetorical sensitivity as developed by Hart, Carlson and Eadie (p. 46). By testing to draw intercorrelations among the types of listening, Bostrom found that no systematic relationships among measures of ability and measures of attitude appear, but that "Most of the significant correlations are within each of these two factors rather than between them" (p. 50). He also reports that there does not appear to be an adequate instrument to measure student attitudes, so it is not advisable to interpret the data as accurate measures. However, Bostrom did report that there was a tendency for
students who are classified as good STL-R listeners to also report enjoying conversational and other recreational communication activities (p. 54).

Schemas are more complex to understand, but do have a role in listening. Schemas are large units of knowledge that organize our world, and though they have been studied for many years, scholars are just beginning to construct and understand their importance (p. 76). "By defining a schema as the central processor . . . we can easily see how a schematic processing system (a memory system using schema) can digest linguistic information" (p. 81). In the process of listening, one takes in large amounts of information and assigns meaning to the incoming stimuli. Bostrom concludes his discussion of schema by stating that the focus is beginning to be on the receiver and the process involved in listening. Schemas are a part of the process that helps listeners interpret, store and reconstruct the messages that are received (p. 90).

Chapter 10 (pp. 144-154) is dedicated to the differences in motivational levels and performance of listening tasks. More specifically, students were subjected to three kinds of instructions: neutral, challenging, and relaxing. The challenging instructions were designed to raise the involvement regarding the test outcome and the relaxing instructions were designed to lessen the stress of taking the test. The different types of instruction did
affect the listening scores. Although Bostrom is inconclusive as to the causes of the effect (p. 152) it is clear that students change their listening behavior according to the motivation provided by the speaker.

Scores on short-term listening predict fairly well the general-concept aspect of lecture listening (with or without taking notes), but only those high scorers on short-term listening with rehearsal predict better general concept lecture listening. (p. 153)

The problem presented is that it is unclear as to why these differences occur. Regardless of the cause(s), listening instruction can be given to alert students concerning the possible reasons they may find for not listening effectively in the lecture situation.

Fitch-Hauser and Hughes (1992) reviewed the inconsistencies regarding definitions and the problems of measurement of listening in their recent article "The Conceptualization and Measurement of Listening" in the Volume 6, 1992, edition of the Journal of the International Listening Association. They state that the wide array of literature available on the subject is testament to its existence, but that there is not general agreement on what subskills are involved in listening (p. 8). The problem created by a lack of agreement on a definition is that it inhibits progress in research and makes cumulative findings and comparative studies almost impossible.

To exemplify the problems, Fitch-Hauser and Hughes critique four current listening tests. In examining the
content of the four tests they discovered there is no single common variable, but there is agreement on one element, memory. "Three of the four tests include some type or types of memory" (p. 12). The examination led to two conclusions. Scholars seem to agree that listening is a multidimensional activity, but there is a lack of commonality as to what those dimensions should include.

Maximum likelihood factor analysis was used to determine whether test items hypothesized to represent each of the constructs comprising the listening skills test are homogeneous. Maximum likelihood factor analysis offers statistical tests to determine whether a factor analysis model represents the interrelations in a test battery. The likelihood ratio statistical association of the maximum likelihood factor analysis provides a statistical test of the hypothesis that a factor analytic model with a specified number of common factors applies for a population. For the Watson-Barker Listening Test the hypothesis of no common factors is not rejected, although items 21-30 and items 31-40 appear to be single factored scales.

Table 1

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* 0 = H₀
   1 = H₀: One factor is sufficient (to explain the observed correlations)
   2 = H₀: Two factors are sufficient
   3 = H₀: Three factors are sufficient  (p. 15)

Wolvin and Coakley (1991) conducted a study of students who had taken a listening course offered at the University of Maryland. The course is designed to help students understand listening, develop a willingness to listen and enhance their listening abilities. The survey asked respondents what influence the taking of the listening course had had on them as college students. The students' responses indicated no impact on their grade point averages.
Thirty-two students indicated that their grades had improved after taking the course, while another thirty-two indicated their grades had not improved. Most respondents did indicate that the listening course had a favorable influence on them, although it did not seem to change their academic standing.

The final study for review is one conducted by Rubin, Graham and Mignerey (1990). A longitudinal study was conducted at a large mid-western university to determine if there is a relationship between communication competence and academic success. The investigators question the accuracy of any conclusions because the sample was too small, but did find a high correlation between communication skills and grade point averages. Although the university communication skills course seemed to play no role in the predictive model, communication skills were correlated to academic success. "Completion of a high school communication skills course (p=.025) and first-year personal report of communication apprehension (p=.016) were significant predictors of college GPA at the end of 4 years" (p. 7). Fourth year GPAs were regressed onto eight predictor variables using stepwise procedures. Five predictors resulted in an R of .91, explaining 82% of the variance. Although stepwise procedures were done, no regression was specifically related to listening and no listening correlations were drawn.
CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES FOR COLLECTION OF DATA

Subjects

One hundred fifty individuals between the ages of nineteen and fifty-one served as the subjects. Seventy-five subjects were chosen because of their enrollment in the listening classes at Southeastern Oklahoma State University during the Spring 1992 semester. The subjects' gender distribution was forty-three females and thirty-two males. Forty-nine of the subjects were in the eighteen to twenty-two age range, fourteen were twenty-three to thirty, eleven were thirty-one to forty and one was over forty. Fifteen of the subjects had cumulative grade point averages of below 2.0, forty-one ranged from 2.01 to 3.00 and nineteen had grade point averages from 3.01 to 4.00. Thirty-six members of the experimental group had completed thirty to sixty college semester credit hours, seventeen had completed sixty-one to ninety semester credit hours, seventeen had completed ninety-one to one hundred twenty semester credit hours and five had completed over one hundred twenty semester credit hours. All of the above data were observed and collected during the semester the subjects were enrolled in the listening course.
The other seventy-five students were in the control group. The members of the control group were selected by computer matching in the Registrar's Office at Southeastern Oklahoma State University because they most closely matched the experimental group on the criteria of gender, age, total hours completed, cumulative grade point average during the semester that the experimental group was enrolled in listening and number of hours taken the first semester after the experimental group had completed the listening course. These students were not given the listening course treatment given to the experimental group.

The pretest-posttest control group design, as recommended by Campbell and Stanley (1963), was selected as the research design. In studies using the pretest-posttest control group design, the researcher seeks out a similar group not undergoing the treatment from which to collect data. The design is represented below where 0 is a group and X is the treatment (p. 13).

```
  0  X  0
   ----
    0  0
```

As to the tests of significance, it is suggested that differences between the experimental and control groups be analyzed (p. 28). To test the difference in group means, the t-test was selected.

Although most transcript information was available neither names nor identification numbers were provided so the anonymity of the subjects was guaranteed.
The first seventy-five subjects, group I, enrolled in COMM 1553, Listening. Although there is information given that indicates there are a number of types of listening and listeners, the focus of the course was on lecture listening and information comprehension and retention. The text used in the course was *Perceptive Listening* by Florence Wolff, Nadine Marsnik, William Tacey, and Ralph Nichols. This text was chosen because the authors maintain, "that if we learn listening theories and skills and apply them daily, we can improve our ability to listen" (p. 2).

**Materials Presented**

The listening course syllabus (Appendix B) indicates that content areas other than lecture type listening were covered, but the course was purposely dominated by lecture listening. The syllabus shows the oral-aural process, misconceptions about listening, kinds of listening, and processes to enhance listening as course subjects. Each of these was designed to enable the student to lecture listen more effectively.

The first week of the course was spent helping the students understand how significant a role listening plays in their everyday activities. The first two exercises were designed to convince students that they spend more time listening than in any other communication activity.

Exercise 1 was used specifically to create an awareness in each student of how much time university students spend
in lecture type listening. The students were directed to include at least one-third of their twelve-hour time span in class attending periods. It was also important that the students started associating listening with note-taking. While most students readily associated good note-taking with good grades, they did not necessarily make the same association between good listening and good note-taking.

EXERCISE 1
CALCULATION OF LISTENING TIME

Approximate time: 48 hours outside of class.

Objective: To enable students to estimate the amount of time consumed by reading, writing, speaking and listening during 12 hours of communicating.

Procedure: Prepare an exercise form.

1. On the top line of the page center and print the title, "Time Log of Communication Skills."

2. Skip a space after the title, and number from 1-24 at the extreme left-hand side of the page.

3. In the space skipped at the top, print the headings for six (6) columns beginning at the left side of the paper: Time Period (draw a vertical line 1 1/2" from the number column), Activity (make a vertical column 3" wide adjacent to the Time Period column). Divide the remaining space into four equal, vertical columns. From left to right, print the headings: Writing, Reading, Speaking, and Listening.

4. At the bottom of the page, skip a space after #24; indent and print: Total Minutes. Skip another space and print: Percent Usage of Time.

5. The Time Log will be kept in 30-minute periods for 12 hours of communication; e.g., 1:00-1:30 p.m., 3:30-4:00 p.m. The 12 hours of communication may be extracted over a 48-hour period.
6. I will alert you as we begin the last half hour of the class period. At the end of class, estimate how many of those thirty minutes you wrote, read, spoke, and listened. Continue monitoring your communication activities within half-hour periods. Skip nonwaking time and the time spent in meditation and daydreaming.

7. After logging in 12 hours of communication activity, add the Writing, Reading, Speaking, and Listening columns. Record the totals on the designated lines. Calculate the percentages for each skill by dividing the total minutes by 720 (minutes in 12 hours). Do the long-division calculations on the back of the page.

After completing the listening time logs, it was important that the students understood that listening time was consistent among most people. The basic findings of the 1926 Rankin study were given to the students as a level of comparison. This study was used because its findings have remained consistent and it showed the students that over a sixty plus year history, time spent in communication and listening has remained fairly constant (Bostrom, 1990).

**EXERCISE 2**
**ASSESSING LISTENING TIME LOGS AND THE RANKIN STUDY**

**Approximate time:** 30 - 45 minutes.

**Objective:** To enable students to compare their Time Log listening activity with the classic Rankin study results.

**Procedure:**

1. Ask a student to write on the board the basic knowledge gained from the Rankin study. (The average adult spends 70% of the waking hours communicating of which about 9% is spent in writing, 16% reading, 30% speaking, and 45% listening.)
2. Form the class into small groups of 5 to 7 members for a 20-minute discussion. Return to each student the Time Log of Communication Skills that had been submitted previously for inspection or evaluation.

3. On the board write the following questions to serve as the basis for the group discussion:

   a. How do the Percentage Usage of Time totals in the various Time Logs compare? Is there a large degree of similarity or dissimilarity? Explain.

   b. Do most of the Time Log data in the group reflect general agreement or disagreement with the Rankin study results? Explain.

   c. Specifically, what has the group learned from this exercise?

4. Select a Reporter from each group to present to the class the responses to the above questions.

Once students were convinced of the importance of listening, it was considered that the subject matter of the course would become more important to them.

The oral-aural process unit focused on the receiver as the most important part of the communication process. It began with a definition of listening from the Anglo-Saxon words *hylstan* meaning hearing and *hlosnian* meaning to wait in suspense (Wolff, et al., 1983, p. 6). It then takes the process to the next level, "listening is an active process involving hearing, understanding, integrating, and responding. That is, you hear words, give them meaning, determine how you feel about them, and decide how you will respond to them (p. 7). Listening training began with attending messages, and the subjects were taught to place importance on classroom lecture stimuli (p. 12). So that
the students could better understand the levels of hearing messages, exercise 3 was utilized. This was a student performed exercise to internalize the levels of hearing used in everyday conversation.

EXERCISE 3
THREE LEVELS OF HEARING

Approximate time: 30 minutes.

Objective: To enable students to fully understand, simulate, and experience the three levels of hearing.

Procedure:

1. Ask the participants to form into triads.

2. During the next fifteen minutes, each triad is to develop a simulation of the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels of hearing.

3. Encourage the participants to be original yet accurate in developing the three simulations. Stress the fact that each simulation will be presented to the class with a time limit of 30 seconds.

4. As each simulation is presented ask the class to identify the level of hearing demonstrated.

Finally in the oral-aural processing unit, subjects were given specific instruction on how to better remember data by chunking them properly. Exercise 4 was designed to give students the opportunity to present information and to survey a variety of subskills necessary to enhance listening ability.

To better understand the communication process and to comprehend the role listening plays in the total process,
Exercise 4 gave the students an opportunity to be senders and receivers of aural messages. Having the students send the messages enabled them to evaluate the aural receiving process in a much more effective manner. After each presentation discussions were held to evaluate the differences between what the speaker had intended and what the receiver had assumed. The awareness made the students more cognizant of carefully processing lecture information (Wolff, et al., 1983).

EXERCISE 4
SPEAKING, LISTENING, AND RETAINING

Approximate time: Two class periods.

Objective: To enable students to "polish up" speaking skills, and to improve listening competency and retention.

Procedure:

1. Make the following assignment:

Research an interesting topic. Develop a substantive, typed outline, using carbon paper for a second copy, for a 90- to 120-second oral message on the topic. After the outline, triple space the typing of the speaking objectives listed on the board. (The list of objectives may include: a. Message Times--90-120 seconds; b. Valuable Research; c. No Mannerisms--"uh" or "you know"; d. LOMM--Large, Open, Moving, Mouth for Correct Articulation; e. Three Cues from Outline; etc.) After typing the triple-spaced objectives, prepare and type three multiple-choice questions relating to the message. Underscore the letter of the correct response among the four responses. Type a footnote of the research source.

2. On the day two copies of the outline are due, encourage the students to keep the clearer copy of the outline to use for oral preparation and delivery of the message. Collect the other copy. Explain and demonstrate each
of the objectives typed after the outline. Instruct the class how to orally prepare the messages according to the objectives for the next class session.

3. On the day messages are presented, each speaker will ask three multiple-choice questions immediately after the delivery. Listeners will take a written, ongoing test until all students have spoken.

4. After correcting the written test in class, discussion may follow: How was listening and memory retention affected in relation to the nature of the topic and the ability of the speaker? What does your test score reflect about the level of listening competency? If you were to participate in a similar exercise in the future, what would you do to improve as a speaker and as a listener?

Because we listen to different speakers with different purposes expounding different messages in different situations, we need to develop an extensive number of subskills. In Human Listening: Processes and Behavior, Weaver enumerates what he calls "a long but not complete" list of forty-one listening related skills. To:

- get main ideas
- hear the facts
- make valid inferences
- get the central theme
- retain pertinent content
- identify the main and supporting ideas
- perceive differences between similarly worded statements
- identify correct English usage
- use contextual clues to determine "word meanings"
- comprehend oral instructions
- hear details
- hear difficult material
- adjust to the speaker
- listen under bad conditions
- resist the influence of emotion-laden words and arguments
- take notes
- structuralize a speech
- prevent the facts from interfering with hearing the main idea
- improve concentration by use of special techniques
- hear speaker’s words
- follow directions
- judge relevancy
- recognize topic sentences and to associate each topic sentence with some previous bit of knowledge
- recognize what the speaker wants the listeners to do
- understand how words can create a mood
✓ understand connotative meanings
✓ predict what will happen next
✓ understand denotative meanings
✓ identify speaker attitudes
✓ get meaning from imagery
✓ notice sequences of ideas and details
✓ check for the accuracy of new information
✓ avoid the effects of projection
✓ evaluate and apply material presented
✓ in trospect and analyze one’s own listening disabilities
✓ judge validity and adequacy of main ideas
✓ discriminate between fact and fancy
✓ judge whether the speaker has accomplished his purpose
✓ recognize self-contradictions by the speaker
✓ be aware of persuasive devices used by the speaker
✓ develop curiosity

The unit on misconceptions about listening also focused on lecture listening. Subjects were taught that listening may be controlled some by intelligence, hearing ability and previous experiences in the field, but that listening is a learned behavior that can be improved through practice (Wolff, et al., 1983, p. 25-41). Chapter 2, exercises 1 and 2 were designed to affirm to students that they can become caught in their own misconceptions about the listening process.

According to Wolff, et al. (1983), there are ten common misconceptions about listening. The subjects were asked to prepare a log entry in which each of these misconceptions were listed on the pages. The misconceptions used included listening was related to intelligence, listening was related to hearing, good listening was automatic, practice would eliminate the need for training, better reading skills would improve listening, reading skills were more important than
listening, listening was more of a speaker responsibility, listening was passive, listening meant agreement and consequences of poor listening were minimal (pp. 25-41).

During this exercise the subjects were to correlate their own poor listening to one of the misconceptions.

Chapter 2
EXERCISE 1
CALCULATION OF PERSONAL MISCONCEPTIONS ABOUT LISTENING

Approximate time: 48 hours outside of class

Objective: To enable students to identify misconceptions about listening which function in their own lives and which keep them from seeking techniques for learning to listen more efficiently.

Procedure: Instruct class to choose a difficult listening situation which they encounter during the next 24 hours. (This may be a class, a training session, a political meeting, or a citizen’s meeting.) Give the following directions:

1. Prepare a Log entry in which you list each of the ten misconceptions about listening at the far left side of the page allowing four to six spaces between each misconception;

2. During the listening experience, check or indicate by one or two words each time one of the misconceptions causes you to listen carelessly;

3. Immediately after the listening experience, go over each misconception and write a one-paragraph analysis of exactly what happened and exactly why you feel you fell prey to that misconception;

4. At the end of this exercise, write a summary in which you identify the specific false assumptions which seem to have influenced your listening performance and the reasons why you think they have influenced you.
5. (Indicate to the class when the Log entries are to be returned to class to be used in Exercise 2.)

After correlating their misconceptions about listening to specific types, it became important for the subjects to understand how the strength of the misconception affects listening ability. Chapter 2, Exercise 2 was developed so that the subjects would have the opportunity to discuss the strength of their misconceptions and start relating them to decreased listening effectiveness. The exercise also used small group techniques so that the students could give one another feedback on the strength of the misconception.

EXERCISE 2
ASSESSING STRENGTH OF MISCONCEPTIONS ABOUT LISTENING

Approximate time: 45 - 60 minutes

Objective: To allow students to pinpoint the precise misconceptions affecting their listening behavior.

Procedure: Form class into small groups of 5 to 9 members for discussion (20-30 minutes). Instruct the students as follows:

1. Share your own experiences and point out what misconceptions you found operating in your life;

2. Use your Log entry as a basis for answering and discussing the following questions:

   a. What one misconception seemed to bear the most influence on your listening habits? How do you explain this?

   b. Do you see a pattern of misconceptions about listening in your Log entries?
c. What cost to yourself did you discover as a result of adhering to these misconceptions?

3. Ask each group to appoint a recorder to summarize the finding and report to the entire class. Summarize the most common misconceptions on a chalkboard and discuss reasons for their prevalence.

Importantly, the subjects were taught that attitude and open minds are critical to good listening. Perceptive Listening states, "After we hear and select, assimilate and organize, retain and covertly respond to aural stimuli, we may or may not agree. This is another intellectual operation. . ." (p. 38).

Chapter 2, exercises 3 and 4 were designed specifically to help students separate hearing and listening roadblocks. Students were taught that hearing roadblocks are easier to overcome than listening roadblocks. The purpose of these exercises was to prepare the students to be receptive to information on overcoming listening roadblocks.

EXERCISE 3
CALCULATING DIFFERENCES BETWEEN HEARING AND LISTENING ROADBLOCKS

Approximate time: 48 hours outside of class

Objective: To allow students to fully understand and to pinpoint the difference between hearing and listening roadblocks.

Procedure:

1. Ask students to choose a difficult listening experience during the next 24 hours and record in their Logs:

   a. Each time they failed to listen well;
b. The reason they failed to listen well.

2. Within a 24-hour period ask students to review each listening difficulty and each reason and then determine whether they experienced:
   a. A hearing roadblock;
   b. A listening roadblock.

3. Indicate to students that the Listening Logs will be used for Exercise 4; indicate the day they should be returned.

After completing the forty-eight hour listening logs, the subjects were placed in small groups to discuss how to differentiate between hearing and listening roadblocks. Although they discovered that listening roadblocks were more difficult to overcome than hearing roadblocks, through creative problem solving techniques the students were asked to suggest ways to remove each of the roadblocks they had listed.

EXERCISE 4
REMOVING HEARING AND LISTENING ROADBLOCKS

Time: 30 minutes for group discussion
       30 minutes for class involvement

Objective: To enable students to understand that hearing roadblocks are easy to remove, but that listening roadblocks are stubborn and require specific training before they can be eliminated.

Procedure:

1. Ask students to use their Log entry on listening and hearing roadblocks for this exercise.

2. Form the class into small groups of 5 to 9 members for discussion (20-30 minutes).
3. Ask group members to share their experiences and consider answers to the following questions:

   a. What is the difference between a hearing and a listening roadblock?

   b. What specific steps can you take to remove hearing roadblocks?

   c. Why is it more difficult and challenging to remove listening roadblocks?

4. Ask a recorder for each group to report to the entire class on steps to remove hearing roadblocks. List them on a chalkboard.

5. Discuss ways in which steps for removing roadblocks to hearing can be put into practice. Point out that steps for removing roadblocks to listening will be the substance of much of the remainder of the course.

Four basic types of listening were covered by course content: discriminative, evaluative, appreciative, and empathic. The text states that, "The first three kinds of listening—discriminative, evaluative, and appreciative—are basically intrinsic operations. That is, we listen for personal gain or profit that is intrinsic to our own personal needs" (Wolff, et al., 1983, p. 47).

For the purpose of the study, it was considered important that students be able to discriminate among the various types of listening. Even though discriminative and evaluative listening are more important for lecture listening, it was important for students to know that they may have been listening to the lecture, but not in the most effective way. Chapter 3, Exercise 1, was designed for
students to understand the variety of types of listening and how much time they spend in each.

**Chapter 3**
**EXERCISE 1**
**CALCULATION OF TIME SPENT IN EACH KIND OF LISTENING**

**Approximate time:** one week (outside of class)

**Objective:** To enable students to recognize each of the four kinds of listening they do and to become aware of the amount of time they spend doing each.

**Procedure:** Instruct students to set aside two pages of their listening Log for this exercise. Give the following instructions:

1. On the first page of the Log list the four kinds of listening across the top of the page leaving about an inch of space between.

2. At the left margin of this page write the days of the week leaving about an inch of space between.

3. Each day, note your listening experiences at half-hour to one-hour intervals. Identify each listening experience by using a word or two to describe the incident.

4. At the end of each day, set aside 15 to 20 minutes to review and summarize the kinds of situations you encountered and the kinds of listening you did.

5. At the end of one week label the second page of your Log "Kinds of Listening Overview," and use it to summarize your listening week. Consider answers to some of these questions in organizing your summary:
   a. What kind of listening did you do most often?
   b. Is this kind of listening related to your role in life? (e.g. Student, supervisor, parent, professional, etc.)
   c. Which kind of listening was the most difficult for you? Why?
d. Which kind of listening was easiest for you? Why?

e. What was the most important knowledge you gained from this exercise? Be specific.

6. Indicate to students when this Log entry is to be returned for grading and/or small group discussion.

Discriminative listening "is the kind we do when we come to a particular place for the purpose of listening to learn. We practice it during class lectures, training sessions . . ." (Wolff, et al., 1983, p. 47). Chapter 3, exercise 2 was designed specifically to aid students in their understanding of discriminative listening.

EXERCISE 2
DISCRIMINATIVE LISTENING

Approximate time: 48 hours (outside of class)

Objective: To allow students to fully understand discriminative listening and strategies for improvement.

Procedure: Instruct students to choose and attend an information gathering session during the next 24 hours. (It can be either formal or informal: a class; training session; sermon; or a session with a garage mechanic, doctor, dentist, family member, etc.) Ask students to participate during the session as follows:

1. Determine both the speaker's goal and your own goal;
2. Determine the main idea of the message;
3. Determine the speaker's pattern of organization;
4. Deliberately send positive feedback; and
5. Ask questions.
6. Evaluate, in writing, the results of this exercise by answering these questions.

   a. Was it difficult to determine the speaker's purpose? What clues did I use to do so?
   
   b. What clues did I use to determine the main idea of the speaker's message?
   
   c. What pattern of organization did the speaker use? What difficulty did I have in determining the pattern? Was it necessary to give 51 percent of even more effort to this step?
   
   d. How many questions did I ask? Did questioning help me to consciously add new ideas? Did I neglect to ask a question that would have helped me to understand?
   
   e. What experiences of my own that I brought to this listening experience helped me to do a better job of learning and growing intellectually?
   
   f. Did I get any new ideas?

7. Indicate to students when this exercise must be returned for grading and/or class discussion.

Although students were allowed to use non-classroom situations, the follow-up lecture focused on ways to get more from lecture presentations. The suggestions given for improving discriminative listening included concentrating on the main ideas, concentrating on the organization pattern, paying close attention to the speaker and formulating questions about the subject matter.

   Evaluative listening is most often done when listening to persuasive messages (Wolff, et al., 1983, p. 51). The subjects encounter presentations such as political presentations. It is also true that they encounter informal persuasion numerous times daily (p. 52). Chapter 3,
Exercise 3 was designed to make students aware of the importance of persuasion in everyday encounters.

EXERCISE 3
EVALUATIVE LISTENING

Approximate time: 48 hours (outside of class)

Objective: To enable students to recognize evaluative listening situations and to test individual strategies for improving evaluative listening.

Procedure: Instruct students to listen to either a formal or informal persuader within the next 24 hours. (Any salesperson, friend, co-worker, family member, radio or television persuader who attempts to influence your attitude or beliefs.) Ask students to perform the following steps:

1. During the communication process, determine the speaker’s goal and your own goal.

2. Decide whether or not the speaker:
   a. Got your attention;
   b. Discovered what you wanted;
   c. Showed how your purpose to listen could be served; and
   d. Suggested ways you could get started to achieve a goal.

3. What conclusion did you reach after immediate appraisal?

4. Within 8 to 24 hours, conduct a delayed analysis of this persuasive encounter by considering these questions?
   a. Did the speaker use induction, deduction, or both?
   b. Was the speaker’s evidence recent, competent, and free from prejudice?
   c. Did the speaker employ fallacies in reasoning?
   d. Did the speaker use propaganda techniques?
   e. Did the speaker appeal to your wants and needs?
5. Finally, answer these questions:
   a. What was my original position on this matter?
   b. To what in the speaker's presentation did I respond?
   c. Was I objective?
   d. Was I genuinely persuaded?

6. Indicate to students the day this Log entry will be due for grading and/or small group discussion.

After the exercise was completed, the subjects were given specific information that would enable them to evaluate lecture presentation for persuasive content. The instructor in the listening course related evaluative listening to classroom lectures by explaining to the subjects that most fields of study have several approaches and the instructor selects a particular approach as the better. The subjects were then taught to be better evaluative listeners by increasing their knowledge in the specific area (course of study), learning to recognize strategies used by the persuader, recognizing commonly used fallacies of language and argument, and identifying any personal changes of belief or attitudes.

The subjects were then taught three basic processes for enhancing their listening ability. Subjects were given specific instructions on how to physically, emotionally, and mentally prepare to listen.

A number of suggestions were given to the subjects for physical preparation to listen, chief among these was keeping themselves in good physical health. Subjects were
asked to disregard the notion that listening is a passive act and taught that it is actually hard work. Specifically, as students, the subjects were instructed that entering class in a state of exhaustion would hamper their ability to comprehend lecture information. Further lecture information was presented that indicted that lack of a balanced diet, lack of exercise, severe mental stress and an unhealthy lifestyle in general would cause poor listening performance.

The lecture information given to improve the mental/emotional preparation to listen included reviewing the reasons for taking the course before lecture information is to be received, increasing vocabulary in the field of study, and studying and attempting to understand human nature. Students were then required to attend a guest lecture presentation in one of their classes. Chapter 4, Exercise 1, was presented to affirm their ability to adequately prepare for information to be covered.

**Chapter 4**
**EXERCISE 1**
**IMPLEMENTING SELF-PREPARATION TO LISTEN**

**Approximate time:** 20-30 minutes in or outside of class

**Objective:** To enable students to plan specific activities for self-preparation to listen at future events.

**Procedure:**

1. Establish a format for students to use in the listening Log for this exercise. Include the following data:
a. Description of event, e.g., a televised address by the President of the United States, a guest-speaker lecture in a philosophy class, etc.

b. Speaker’s name and position held

c. Date and time (select an event occurring within the current week)

d. Topic of message, if known.

2. Instruct the class to arrange three vertical columns with the headings: Physical, Emotional, and Mental.

3. Explain several specific kinds of self-preparation activities participants might record in major words in the three columns: Physical (type of clothes to be worn, eating or resting before or after the event, etc.); Emotional (feelings about the topic, speaker, situation, or any emotional distraction that have or may occur during this type of event, etc.); Mental (indicate the kind of research or study to be performed preceding the event; list personal problems that need to be resolved or temporarily set aside, etc.).

4. One week later and after all listening events have transpired, ask students to: (a) write a "plus" before the self-preparation items accomplished before the event, and a "minus" before those not accomplished; and (b) count and record the number of plus and minus signs tabulated.

5. Instigate class reaction to these questions: Are there more plus or minus signs adjacent to the self-preparation items? Which items were the least and most difficult to accomplish? Why? Other than this exercise, what can you do to improve your desire and proficiency to perform self-preparation to listen?

Students were consistently reminded that they should avoid mental/emotional distractions during class lectures.

The next treatment in the course was to convince the subjects that attention and concentration can be sustained throughout the typical lecture. Two additional exercises (2 and 3) from Chapter 4 were utilized to help students improve
lecture listening. Exercise 2 was designed to help students understand how following organizational patterns used by speakers enhances their understanding of the information presented.

EXERCISE 2
DETECTING ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS IN AURAL MESSAGES

Approximate time: 30 minutes using 15 speakers in class
15 minutes for class discussion (optional)

Objective: To enable students to recognize organizational patterns in aural meetings.

Procedure:

1. For the next class session, ask students to write a personal message (maximum 50 words) to exemplify each of six organizational patterns discussed in Chapter 4.

2. During the following session invite each participant to present a 30-second message for any two of the six prepared messages using effective speaking techniques as noted in the objectives listen in Exercise 3. After each message ask the class to identify the organizational pattern of the message. Check the corrections of the detected organizational patterns with the respective speakers.

3. General class discussion (optional): How does detection of organizational patterns facilitate competent listening? How should one listen to formal or informal messages that are disorganized? Do aural messages frequently contain more than one organizational pattern? Explain.

The next exercise was used to teach the students how emotional distractions inhibit the reception of information and keep the listener from remembering and understanding what was presented.
EXERCISE 5
EMOTIONAL MASKING

Approximate time:  15-20 minutes in class
                  15-20 minutes outside of class

Objective:       To enable students to realize that
                 emotions can be controlled while
                 listening.

Procedure:

1. Instruct the class to draw two columns on a page in the
   Listening Log. Head one column "Emotional Words" and
   the other "Emotional Situations."

2. For the next class period, students are to list ten
   words and situations that in the past have caused them
   to wear "emotional masks," e.g., the words failed and
   laid off when speaking with a professor or a plant
   foreman.

3. At the next session have the students form small
   groups. For 15 minutes they are to scrutinize the
   emotion-making words and incidents noted by each group
   member and discuss the following questions: In the
   listening situations listed, how might attitudes and
   behavior be modified to prevent wearing emotional masks
   while listening?

4. Appoint a Reporter from each group to summarize the
   group discussion for the class.

Basic information was given directing the student to
mentally ask questions about the lecture and extend and
enrich the listening opportunity. To increase concentration
specifically, subjects were presented suggestions for
improving listening that included: previewing the daily
schedule of expected listening events, keeping away from
individuals that might distract concentration, and using
constant mental reminders to keep on task (Wolff, et al.,
1983, p. 121).
Finally, seven prescriptive listening techniques were presented to the subjects. Technique number one was generating interest in the speaker's topic. This technique was followed by units on adapting to the speaker's appearance and delivery, overcoming and adjusting to distractions, listening for concepts and major ideas instead of facts, abstaining from faking attention and pretending to listen, listening to the entire message before judging and refuting, and effectively listening to difficult expository material (Wolff, et al., 1983, p. 180-201). Each of these units stressed to the subjects the importance of using the techniques in the lecture situation.

The course was intensive and designed specifically to enhance student's lecture retention skills. A copy of the course syllabus appears as Appendix B. The entire course was a three-hour course and met three times per week for sixteen weeks.
CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

The test to discover the significance of the study followed accepted practice for educational statistics and convenience samples. Anderson (1987) describes a convenience sample as one that is readily available to the researcher and gives useful information. His only caution is that the convenience sample contains no evidence that it informs us about any group other than itself, and the conclusions cannot be generalized to a larger population (p. 150).

In step one, the researcher assumed the null hypothesis:

\[ H_0: \text{The academic performance of students who have completed a listening course will be no different than that of students who have not taken a listening course, and} \]

\[ H_x: \text{The academic performance of students who have completed a listening course will exceed that of students who have not taken a listening course.} \]

\[ H_0: M_{\text{ag}} - M_{\text{cg}} = 0 \]

\[ H_1: M_{\text{ag}} - M_{\text{cg}} > 0 \]

Next, the level of significance was set at the .05 level. For the small range involved ninety-five percent
certainty that the result was due to the treatment was deemed adequate.

The t-test was chosen because it can be used for testing the significance of the difference between the means of two independent samples. The t-test also is useful because as the difference between the sample means is increased, and all other factors being equal, the value of t will increase.

The grade point averages of Group 1 (the experimental group) and Group 2 (the control group) were collected the semester subsequent to the experiment, and the mean and standard deviations of the two groups are given in Table 2.

Table 2
Mean and Standard Deviations of Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>GROUP 1 (Experimental, n = 75)</th>
<th>GROUP 2 (Control, n = 75)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MEAN</td>
<td>2.815</td>
<td>2.740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STANDARD DEVIATION</td>
<td>0.928</td>
<td>0.959</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A simple perusal of the results shows little difference in the mean scores between Group 1 and Group 2. The standard deviations between the groups also show little difference.

Table 3 shows the t-Value and the probability of rejection of the null hypothesis for a one-tailed test.
Table 3

The t-Value and Probability of Rejection of the Null Hypothesis for One-Tailed Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>t-Value</th>
<th>0.4844</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Probability, One-Tailed</td>
<td>0.3172</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Obviously, neither the t-Value nor the probability of rejection approached the .05 level of significance. Therefore, there is insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis and the conclusion is that listening skills instruction has no measurable impact on university students' academic performance, given the measurement instruments used.

Although the purpose of this research was to test only the hypotheses presented, there were two other interesting results.

First, a pre-listening test and a post-listening test were given to the subjects in the experimental group. There are five sections to the particular Watson-Barker Listening Test that was used for this study (Appendix A). The seventy-five subjects enrolled in the listening course all showed improvement in listening as measured by each of the five sections of the test. This finding is not surprising in view of the vast amounts of literature available that supports listening can be taught. No pre-testing or post-testing was done for the control group.
Finally, the mean grade point average of the experimental group did show improvement during the semester following the treatment. The mean average for the semester during enrollment in the listening course was 2.735 and it improved to 2.815 the next semester, a 0.08 increase. The mean grade point average of the control group remained constant at 2.74.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

To say that listening is playing a prominent role in contemporary studies in communication and education is to state the obvious. Although it has been over sixty years since the much cited study by Paul Rankin (1929), it has been only in recent years that greater attempts have been made to distinguish among types of listening (Bostrom, 1990; Wolvin & Coakley, 1990; Barker & Watson, 1980; Wolff, et al., 1983) and to quantify what effects listening instruction has.

Discussion

The primary problem facing researchers is the wide variety of ways that listening is defined. Although for casual or even classroom use the disparity may not seem great, for scholarly research there must be some consistency in the operationalization of the concept of listening. Until some agreement is reached on what listening is, little quantitative research can be done.

Another problem facing the listening researcher, related to a lack of a consistent definition, is a lack of
consistency in the various measurement instruments for
listening skills. There are over 25 listening tests
available and over 22 listening subskills are covered by one
or more of the tests. For researchers, it becomes too
important to justify why they selected a particular
measurement instrument. Added to these problems is a real
question of the validity because, "To be valid, a concept
must achieve theoretical and empirical meaning within the
overall structure of one's theory" (Fitch-Hauser & Hughes,
1992, p. 9). They state further that little research has
been done to confirm the concepts of validity for each of
the listening instruments (p. 10).

For this particular study, there were a number of
additional problems. First, the inability to control all of
the possible variables in a university student's life makes
the results suspect. The number of things that might have
some impact on what kind of grade point average any student
might achieve in a given semester is virtually inestimable.
This seems to be a problem with no solution, although using
larger sample sizes would diminish the effects.

There was also some concern over using grade point
averages as the measurement. Even by going to the nearest
tenth, the range is still suspect, 0.0 to 4.0. The limited
range may explain part of the reason that no significance
was shown in the study. Since grade point average is
frequently given as the measurement of success of a student,
it is the logical starting point for this kind of study. In
the future, other measurements might prove to be more useful.

The studies that have been conducted that show listening tests have a higher correlation to intelligence tests than to each other further complicates research (Kelly, 1965, 1967). While intelligence is not a unitary factor, defining listening as remembering lecture information is related to at least one of the intelligence factors. Bostrom (1990) suggests one way of reconciling the problem is to redefine listening so that it includes more than intelligence. In fact, many definitions of listening have been offered that would include an "attitudinal" dimension (Weaver, 1972; Barker, 1971). Including an attitudinal approach does not solve the problem but actually further complicates it. Aside from the difficulty one has in accurately measuring attitudes, it is difficult to validate the measurements when they are attempted. Bostrom (1990) states that the broader definition of listening to include lecture retention causes serious conceptual and methodological problems and that other approaches need to be considered. Although Bostrom does offer his typology, it is not useful for clarifying the research in this paper.

Beatty and Payne (1984) added the dimension of cognitive complexity to the data about listening. But they asserted cognitive complexity is "conceptualized as a continuum of information processing ability," (p. 85) and
listening is conceptualized "as a form of human information processing" (p. 85). It is overly simplistic to bring the two together. Beatty and Payne also operationally defined comprehension only as immediate recall. Much more needs to be done before conclusions can be drawn that cognitively complex individuals are better listeners.

Finally, Heilman's (1955) conclusion that listening is not learning is chilling. In the forty years since Heilman made his statement most scholars have accepted the idea that listening can be taught. If we agree that listening can be taught but have no way of measuring or predicting the effects of that teaching on a student's academic success, then it may mean that Heilman was correct in his observation.

Conclusions

The conclusion is that listening skills instruction has no relationship on a student's academic performance. The data do no support rejection of the null hypothesis.

There are two further conclusions reached after reviewing the data. First, the variables in a student's life are too great for a researcher to control. The type of courses in which the student is enrolled, financial burdens, family problems, or other personal events not related to listening or learning may have a tremendous influence on the grade point average of a particular student in any given semester. A larger sampling could help reduce the impact of
these problems. The other conclusion, problematic from the beginning, is that a zero to four range is simply too small for an accurate judgment of the hypothesis.

Recommendations

Rubin, et al., (1990) did find correlations between eight communication competencies and academic success, but the students in the study had been enrolled in high school communication courses and there was no evidence that the competencies could be taught at the university level with the same resultant correlations. This does offer implications for future research.

Initially, the course should be designed to focus entirely on lecture retention methods and long-term memory. Having the course in a more typical format does not allow the students to make a clear association between what is being presented and the benefits possible on grade point averages.

Although there is not a consensus, the evidence is strong that the majority of scholars accept the Watson-Barker Listening Test as a valid instrument to measure improvement in listening. Parts I, III, IV, and V, of the current test are designed specifically to measure lecture type listening (Watson, et al., 1991). Since listening improvement can be measured accurately through pre-test, post-test methods, perhaps a better research design would be to compare students' post-test results with their grade
point averages. In other words, see if students who improved their listening skills as measured by Watson-Barker also improved their grade point averages and if students who did not improve their listening as measured by Watson-Barker did not improve their grade point averages. Although a much larger sample would be necessary, it would help alleviate the problem of range that is endemic to grade point average usage.

Finally, longitudinal studies should be conducted so that long-term follow-up of students could be studied to see if continued academic improvement is sustained. This kind of study of several hundred students over a period of years could add much credibility to the small amount of information that is now available on the effects of teaching listening.
APPENDIX A

TEST INSTRUMENT
(N) The WATSON-BARKER Listening Test is designed to assess your overall listening ability through a series of video messages followed by questions about the messages. The test is divided into five sections, each representing a different type of listening situation. A narrator will provide specific instructions before you begin each section.

All test items are presented on the video screen. After each item, the narrator will ask a question and then read aloud the four possible answers presented on the screen. Listen to and read all possible answers before marking the correct answer on your answer sheet. After you have marked your answer, direct your attention back to the video screen and get ready to listen to the next test item.

The following sample item is representative of one of the types of items you will hear. In this situation, you are asked to listen to a request and then decide which of the four answers would logically follow from the request. You are asked to mark the letter corresponding to the most appropriate response in the box marked "sample question" on your answer sheet.

Listen carefully.

Sample Item 1: (W) These two letters will have to be sent by overnight mail and please fax this letter by 3:00 o'clock this afternoon. These orders can be sent parcel post.

(N) a. All the mail should be sent out today.
b. The letters should be sent first class.
c. The letters should be faxed.
d. The orders should be sent overnight mail.

If you marked the letter a. on your answer sheet, you chose the most appropriate response. Note that the situation implies that all the mail should be sent out today. None of the other responses are consistent with the situation.

Now, let's begin the WATSON-BARKER Listening Test.
PART ONE

Instructions (N): During the next few minutes you will be watching and listening to ten short segments. You will hear and see them once so watch and listen very carefully.

When you hear a question, listen to the four answers given and fill in the letter you think represents the best answer. When you hear a statement, listen to the four sentences and decide which statement is closest in meaning to or best supports the statement. Then, fill in the letter on your answer sheet that represents the best answer.

1. (W) The trainers' performance was better during the afternoon sessions than in the morning,

   (N) a. The earlier performance was better than the later one.
   * b. The earlier performance was not as good as the later one.
   c. They presented an excellent morning session.
   d. The shortest session was presented in the afternoon.

2. (M) Who used the word processor after John was finished with it?

   (N) a. Ben used it yesterday to modify the annual report.
   b. Ben was scheduled to use it.
   c. Ben used it late yesterday afternoon.
   * d. Ben used it afterwards.

3. (M) If our photographer takes the pictures and develops the film, rather than a laboratory, we're more likely to make mistakes.

   (N) a. Film laboratory work is inferior to our own photographer.
   * b. Developing film in our own darkroom is risky.
   c. For rush orders, send film to a laboratory.
   d. When we develop film, we make mistakes.

4. (W) What made you accept a position with longer hours and less pay?

   (N) a. A good salary encourages me to work longer hours.
   b. I knew that I would have longer hours and less pay.
   * c. It had more opportunities for advancement.
   d. What matters is how much you enjoy what you do.
5. (M) Last summer he attended their seminar and took advanced courses in investment banking.

(N) * a. He took advanced courses during the summer.
b. He wants to improve his investment banking skills.
c. It's easier to take seminars during the summer.
d. The seminar covered basic topics in investment banking.

6. (M) When is the best time to get the proposal to members of the board?

(N) a. I think the proposal will be ready for the meeting.
b. We gave the proposal to the board before the last meeting.
* c. I'm not sure how much time the board needs to review the proposal before the deadline.
d. I didn't get the proposal in time for the last meeting.

7. (W) Many employees work most efficiently when they have deadlines to meet, even if they're arbitrary ones.

(N) a. Arbitrary deadlines encourage better work.
* b. Deadlines often encourage more efficiency.
c. Employees don't waste time when they have deadlines.
d. Deadlines help employees know what to expect.

8. (M) Departmental paychecks will be withheld if the labor union contract is not settled by Friday.

(N) a. Departmental paychecks are issued on Friday.
b. The paychecks will be sent after the union settlement.
* c. The contract must be settled by Friday for employees to receive paychecks.
d. Friday is the deadline for signing the union contract.

9. (W) I go at 10:00 a.m. tomorrow for jury selection.

(N) * a. I'll miss the department meeting tomorrow morning.
b. I just came from the courtroom.
c. I volunteer for jury duty as often as I can.
d. I was one of 40 people interviewed.
10. (W) Since you think you can handle this problem, why don't you go ahead and do it?

(N)

a. I have considered all the options.
b. You probably think I should handle the situation.
c. I'm surprised you want to handle this yourself.
* d. You think that you can do a better job than I can.
PART TWO

Instructions (N): In Part Two you will hear and see seven short conversations between two individuals. At the end of each conversation, a narrator will ask one or more questions about what was just seen and heard. The conversations and questions will be heard only one time.

After you hear a conversation and a question about it, listen to the four answers given and fill in the letter you think best represents the answer.

(M) When will you finish that report?
(W) I don’t know. I got the charts and graphs ready this morning, but the text needs final editing.

(M) As soon as you finish, would you meet me for a cup of coffee?
(W) After I finish this report, I have to do the secretarial time sheet.

1. (N) When will these employees be able to meet for a cup of coffee?
   a. Later that afternoon.
   b. They won’t be able to meet.
   c. When the report is approved.
   * d. After the time sheet is finished.

(M) Hello, I was told to come to see Mr. Jenkins on the 3rd floor.
(W) I’m sorry, Mr. Jenkins’ office has been moved to our store on the Eastern bypass.

(M) Oh, for goodness sake—I drove all the way across town! Could you tell me where his new office is please?
(W) I’ll be happy to, and I apologize for the inconvenience. But go out the way you came in. Then, get on I-15 and take the East/West bypass exit. Turn left at the light as you get off the interstate and then go down 4 stop lights and our store is on the right.

2. (N) Mr. Jenkins’ office was moved to the store on:
   a. The East/West bypass.
   * b. The Eastern bypass.
   c. The I-15 bypass exit.
   d. The Western bypass.
3. (N) The secretary instructed the customer to:
   a. Turn right after getting off the interstate.
   b. Go through three stop lights.
   c. Turn left at the fourth stop light.
   * d. Get off at the East/West bypass.

(W) Hi, Jerry. I'm at the airport and have to hurry to catch my flight, but I just wanted to call and check to see if I have any messages.
(W) Yes, you received two messages. One from your husband and one from your clients in Chicago. They rescheduled your meeting for tomorrow because the lab results were delayed.

4. (N) The delayed lab results forced the client to:
   a. Cancel the luncheon meeting.
   * b. Reschedule the meeting for tomorrow.
   c. Change the meeting time.
   d. Reschedule the meeting for after lunch.

(M) Is this Adventurer Travel? I'd like to know when flights leave Atlanta for Columbus, Los Angeles, Miami, and Chicago.
(W) I'm sorry you have the wrong company. This is Adventurer Excursions. We plan camping, canoe, and white water rafting trips. Please dial again.

5. (N) The customer was interested in flight schedules to:
   a. Cleveland.
   b. Atlanta.
   * c. Chicago.
   d. Las Vegas.

6. (N) Adventurer Travel helps customers plan:
   a. Camping, canoe, and white water trips.
   b. Cruises to port cities.
   * c. Airline travel to American cities.
   d. Airline travel throughout North America.

(W) I've got good news. We received your credit check and by the look of it, you should receive your loan in a few days.
(M) Well, that's an advantage of a credit bureau. You get information easier from one source.
7. (N) What happened to the customer’s credit check?
   a. It was postponed for a few days.
   b. It was received from the credit bureau.
   * c. It was approved within a few days.
   d. It was received and satisfactory.

8. (N) What is one advantage of a credit bureau?
   * a. Information is easier to retrieve.
   b. Loans are easier to receive.
   c. Credit checks only take a few days.
   d. Loans are retrieved from one source.

(W) You said that your appointment is for Monday at 3:15 and that your name is Mr. Reilly. I’m sorry. I don’t seem to find your name, and Mr. James won’t be out until 4:00 o’clock.
(M) Perhaps my name is not on your calendar. I called Mr. James personally to set up the appointment last week.
(W) Maybe I can help. What was your appointment in reference to, Mr. Reilly?

9. (N) Who scheduled the appointment?
   * a. Mr. James
   b. Mr. Reilly
   c. We do not know.
   d. The secretary.

(M) Well, this year has certainly gone easier for Miss Harrison than last year.
(M) Well, you’ve been around long enough to know our office politics and employee conflicts always make a new manager’s job tough.

10. (N) What did you learn about Ms. Harrison?
    a. She changed jobs during the last year.
    b. Her first year as a manager was difficult.
    * c. She resolved office conflicts this year.
    d. She had personal problems this year.
PART THREE

Instructions (N): In Part Three of this listening test you will see and hear three short talks. After each talk, you will be asked one or more questions. The talks and questions will be seen and heard only one time. You will have to listen very carefully in order to understand what each speaker says.

When you hear a question, listen to the four answers given and fill in the letter that represents the best answer.

(M) Sarah, Good Morning. I came in early to try to clean off my desk. Look since our managers have the communications seminar scheduled from 9:00-12:00, there are several things that I need for you to take care of before 9:00. First, make sure that there are plenty of pencils, pads of paper, ashtrays, and chairs in the conference room. Then, check with the trainers and make sure that all the equipment is working and available. Finally, have all the managers forward their calls to you so you can take their messages. Oh, yes, I would also like you to go through my routine mail. I’ll be back from my meeting downtown about 10:00 o’clock. I’ll answer your questions then.

1. (N) How was the manager contacting his secretary?

   a. By intercom.
   b. By telephone.
   * c. By recording machine.
   d. By memorandum.

2. (N) The arrangements for the seminar needed to be completed by:

   a. 12:00.
   b. 11:00.
   c. 10:00.
   * d. 9:00.

3. (N) What personal business did the manager request?

   a. To forward his calls.
   * b. To go through his mail.
   c. To check with the trainers.
   d. To organize the conference room.
Soon you may be able to apply for federally subsidized low-cost loans for home improvements that will cut your energy bills. The Solar Energy and Energy Conservation Bank will distribute 42 million dollars among states with federally approved loan programs. The states in turn will pass the money on to homeowners and tenants.

Your state energy office can tell you whether or not it has such a program and how it works. The typical loan—the amount will vary according to the state—will be payable over five years and include a $1,500 subsidy, in the form of either a lower interest rate or a reduced principal amount. Anyone can apply for a solar loan, but only people with an annual income of less than $40,000 can get loans for other energy projects.

The program has three other requirements: First, you must get a home energy audit to prove a need. Some utility companies will do it for free. Second, so-called active solar devices, including most solar water heaters, won't qualify. Third, you can't claim the residential energy income tax credit for work done with the loan.

4. (N) The Solar Energy and Energy Conservation Bank provides loan money to:
   
   a. State governments.
   b. Individuals.
   c. Federal agencies in selected states.
   * d. States with approved loan programs.

5. (N) The program requires participants to:
   
   a. Use some form of solar energy.
   * b. Get a home energy audit.
   c. Have incomes of at least $40,000.
   d. Be homeowners.

6. (N) How will the loans be payable?
   
   * a. Over five years.
   b. In 42 monthly installments.
   c. In amounts of $1,500.
   d. In lower taxes.
7. (N) What types of loans are available?

a. Ones to provide home improvement.
*b. Ones to cut energy costs.
c. Ones for home energy audits.
d. Ones for solar heating devices.

(W) If you are one of the 1.5 million Americans who owe back taxes, start sweating. While other federal agencies are laying off employees, the Internal Revenue Service has hired 4,000 more staffers to track down tax deadbeats. That will increase the agency’s enforcement efforts by nearly a third, enabling it to collect an estimated $1.7 billion in additional taxes this year.

8. (N) The Internal Revenue Service is increasing its employees by nearly:

a. 3,000 employees.
*b. A third.
c. A fourth.
d. 4,500 employees.

9. (N) How much additional money should the IRS collect this year?

a. 1.3 billion.
b. 1.4 billion.
c. 1.5 billion.
*d. 1.7 billion.

10. (N) Based on the changes in the Internal Revenue Service:

a. Back interest should be collected.
b. Additional accountants will be needed.
*c. Additional tax money should be collected.
d. Taxpayers will pay additional taxes.
PART FOUR

Instructions (N): At times HOW something is said is more important than WHAT is said. Watch and listen to the following segments. The words could be interpreted in several different ways. Determine the meaning of the message by listening to and watching the feelings and attitudes expressed by each speaker.

After you hear each question or statement, listen to the four meaning choices and fill in the letter you think represents the best choice.

1. (W) Congratulations! You finally made a sale!
   (N) a. I’m proud of you.
   * b. It took you long enough.
   c. It’s easy once you get the hang of it.
   d. I had confidence in you.

2. (M) Have you finished that report?
   (N) * a. I could have done it myself hours ago.
   b. You get a lot accomplished in one day.
   c. You seem to have so much piled on you.
   d. I have other work for you.

3. (W) I’ll be happy to call a cab for you.
   (N) a. Call a cab yourself.
   b. I’m never too busy to help out.
   c. I don’t have time to call a cab for you.
   * d. I’m not going to get stuck taking you again.

4. (W) He won’t be able to see you today.
   (N) a. He’d like to see you, but he’s busy.
   b. Maybe later, he has an appointment.
   * c. You’re the last person he wants to see.
   d. He’ll see you tomorrow.

5. (W) You’re early.
   (N) a. You’ll have to wait.
   * b. I can’t believe it!
   c. Please come back later.
   d. We aren’t ready for you yet!
6. (W) This is what I call a meeting!

(N)  
* a. We were in and out of there quickly.
 b. Meetings are a waste of time.
 c. We never had a chance to talk.
 d. We only had one break all day.

7. (W) When you get off the phone, come into my office.

(N)  
 a. Stop planning your social calendar.
 b. The phone bill will be outrageous.
 c. I missed our earlier appointment.
 * d. What I have to say is confidential.

8. (W) I'm doing my best.

(N)  
 a. I like working for you.
 b. No one is satisfied with my work.
 c. I haven't made mistakes.
 * d. Are you doing your best?

9. (W) You're never in your office.

(N)  
 a. You spend time in other offices.
 b. You spend more time in your office than I do.
 * c. I never seem to find you in.
 d. You always make yourself available.

10. (W) I've been at this job for 25 years!

(N)  
* a. I'm ready to retire.
 b. I like my job.
 c. I do quality work.
 d. I know this company inside and out.
PART FIVE

Instructions (N): During the next few minutes you will be watching and listening to three sets of instructions or directions. At the end of the instructions or directions, a narrator will ask one or more questions about what was said. The instructions or directions will be given only one time.

When you hear a question, listen to the four answers given and fill in the letter that represents the best choice.

(W) In the event that paper jams this copier, you should follow these simple procedures. Lift the top to see if the paper is visible. If the paper is visible, remove the paper and try again. If the paper is not visible, turn off the machine, close the lid, and open the front panel. Next, check the rollers and remove the paper. Then, after you've removed the paper, push the red reset button. Finally, after closing the front panel, turn the machine on, and you should be ready to begin. If all else fails, call the repair number on the right side of the machine.

1. (N) Immediately after removing paper from the rollers, you should:

   * a. Push the red reset button.
   b. Close the front panel.
   c. Turn off the machine.
   d. Open the front panel.

2. (N) If the paper is not visible, you should first:

   a. Close the lid.
   * b. Turn off the machine.
   c. Open the front panel.
   d. Check the rollers.

3. (N) When checking to see if the paper is visible, you should first:

   * a. Lift the top.
   b. Open the front panel.
   c. Turn off the machine.
   d. Check the rollers.
4. (N) If all the procedures fail, the repair number is located:

a. On the top right of the machine.
b. On the front of the machine.

* c. On the right side of the machine.
d. On the back of the machine.

(M) We pride ourselves in our company’s safety record. For this reason, we always give instructions on the proper use of grappling irons. In a few days you will use these irons to lift metal out of boiling oil. To insure that no one picks up a hot iron, we have a special system. After you use a grappling iron, place it to the right of the hot oil. After the irons have cooled, one of your co-workers will be responsible for moving it to the left of the oil. If you should fail to remember this system, you could injure yourself or one of your fellow employees permanently.

5. (N) Why does the company give instructions in the use of grappling irons?

a. To improve the safety record.
b. To protect against law suits.

* c. To insure continued safety.
d. To protect supervisors.

6. (N) When using grappling irons, workers should remember to:

a. Place hot irons to the left of the oil.
b. Wait for hot irons to cool.
c. Place cool irons to the left of the oil.

* d. Place hot irons to the right of the oil.

(W) Many memos are written unnecessarily. Write a memo only when you have a definite purpose. When you do write a memo be sure to include the following: the date; names of primary readers; names of people getting copies; your name; and the subject of the memo. Formats may vary, but for all purposes use the following guidelines. All memos should be typed on the company letterhead. Be sure to include the date in the middle of the top of the stationery heading. Skip at least four spaces and type To: (that is, names of primary readers and their title). Next, type From: (your name and title). Then, type Re: (subject of the memo), and finally, when appropriate, type Copies: (that is a list of names of people receiving the memo). After you or your
secretary types the memo, be sure to initial beside your name and the heading.

7. (N) The following guidelines are important for memos:

a. Type the date on the top right hand corner.
b. Skip at least four lines between headings.
c. Type memos on inter-office letterhead.
* d. Write memos only with a definite purpose.

8. (N) After typing the name(s) of your primary readers, you should type:

   a. Enclosures.
* b. Your name.
c. The subject of the memo.
d. Copies.

9. (N) We suggest ordering the items in the following way:

   a. (date), copies:, To:, From:, Re:
b. copies:, To:, From:, (date), Re:
c. To:, From:, copies:, Re:, (date)
* d. (date), To:, From:, Re:, copies:

10. (N) The final step in writing a memo is to:

    a. List the names of the primary readers.
* b. Initial your name.
c. Make and send copies.
d. Have the memo typed.

* Denotes the correct answer.
SYLLABUS

Department: Communication/Theatre         Date Submitted: October 1985

Course Title and Number: COMM 1553         Dates Revised: September 1988
                                           February 1990

Course Description: Listening

Pre-requisites: None

A. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

The student should be able to: (1) Discuss the process of and the role of
listening in oral communication. (2) Critically evaluate research and
materials developed in listening. (3) Listen more effectively at the various
purposes of listening.

B. COURSE CONTENT

Pre- and Post-listening test lectures and exercises on: (1) the oral-aural
process; (2) ten misconceptions about listening; (3) kinds of listening; (4)
processes to enhance listening; (5) listening roles; (6) responsibilities of the
listener.

C. MAJOR INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Publishers.

Exercises from the text will be used and supplemented by the teacher's
personal file.

D. EVALUATION SYSTEM AND GRADING STANDARDS

Each student will be required to keep a portfolio of: (1) Tests on the
material covered by the textbook; (2) A special project that will focus on a
specific aspect of listening; (3) Journal of listening experience; (4) Special
presentations to be made in class as assigned.

Each project will be graded and weighed according to its importance.
APPENDIX C

RESEARCH PAPER
RESEARCH PAPER

Approximate time: 15 minutes to clarify the assignment
20-25 minutes for the abstract exercise

Objective: To enable students to acquire and share additional knowledge about the focus of attention and concentration to listen.

Procedure:

1. Assign a research paper (3-5 pages) to be developed on the topic, "The Crucial Impact of Attention Focus and Concentration on Listening Comprehension in the Classroom Environment."

2. Either dictate notes or distribute a handout explaining the requirements for the paper, e.g., due date, number of sources, organization of title page and paper, writing mechanics, etc. A 75-word abstract is to be included after the title page of the paper.

3. Encourage students to use the bibliography listed after Chapter 5 in the text. If possible, make available the appropriate Supplemental Resources listed in Chapter 5 of the Instructor's Supplement.

4. One week later when the papers are due, ask a student to read his or her abstract (#1) to the class. Another student will summarize the previously presented abstract before reading an abstract (#2) of his or her paper. Continue this process until all students have presented their abstracts.

5. Instruct the class to take notes in the Listening Logs on each of the numbered abstracts. Arrange that certain students use different kinds of notetaking systems. After every third presentation, assign different notetaking systems to be used by the listeners to record the data.

6. After the Abstract Exercise, collect the research papers for evaluation; students will keep the abstracts to use for the subsequent exercise.
LISTENING TEST ON DATA FROM STUDENT ABSTRACTS
(Continuation of Research Paper)

**Approximate time:**
- 15 minutes for dyadic discussion
- 15 minutes for administering the test
- 15 minutes for class discussion

**Objective:**
To enable students to synthesize new knowledge relating to attention and concentration.

**Procedure:**

1. Ask the students to form into dyads for 15 minutes for a task-oriented discussion. The task: to briefly review their respective abstracts and assist each other to develop two multiple choice questions (with four choices) from each abstract. Underscore the correct answers to the questions.

2. Prepare the class for a paper test. Each student will ask two questions relating to the abstract. After the test is completed and students have given the correct answers to their specific questions, the test papers should be scored by percentile or point value.

3. Conduct a general class discussion: What significant concepts have been exposed from the research on attention and concentration to listen? Which notetaking systems facilitated the taking of notes during "stop and go" listening noted in Chapter 4? Specifically, how can we use the knowledge gained from this exercise about attention and concentration to modify listening behavior?
APPENDIX D

ADDITIONAL EXERCISES NOT RELATED DIRECTLY TO LECTURE LISTENING
Chapter 2

EXERCISE 5
DUOLOGUES vs. DIALOGUES

Time: 25 to 30 minutes

Objective: To recognize that duologues exist and are an example of nonlistening behavior.

Procedure: Arrange the class into dyads. Have each student draw a subject from a collection which you have prepared for this exercise. ("My Car," "My Favorite Trip," "My Dream Vacation," etc.)

1. Each student will talk about the subject chosen. While listening, the other student will follow these rules:
   a. Attempt to look interested;
   b. Give evidence of listening by nodding, saying "uh huh," "how interesting," etc.;
   c. When one person stops talking, immediately launch into talking about the subject you have chosen;
   d. Neither will make any reference to the other speaker's message except as a tool to begin the next monologue.

2. Ask entire group to comment on this exercise and respond to the following questions:
   a. How did you feel when you were cut off?
   b. How did it feel to know your partner was not listening?
   c. What did you dislike most about this exercise?
   d. How often do you yourself engage in duologues?

3. In your Log, analyze this exercise and determine:
   a. What is the most damaging effect of duologues?
   b. How can I avoid duologues in the future?
Chapter 3

EXERCISE 4
APPRECIATIVE LISTENING

Approximate time: 35 minutes for small group session
20 minutes for class discussion

Objective: To allow students to determine why we choose the kinds of listening we do for appreciation and the therapeutic effect of such listening.

Procedure: Instruct students to bring to class a written summary in which they identify ten kinds of leisure-time listening they do, and three specific reasons why they like each.

1. During the class period ask the students to form into small groups of 5 to 7 members.

2. In each group, allow each individual to take 2 to 3 minutes to identify leisure-time listening and reasons for having chosen it.

3. Each group will compile a list of reasons why members do appreciative listening, a list of kinds of leisure-time listening, and a list of positive results they have experienced from this kind of listening.

4. After allowing approximately 35 minutes for the small group work, spend the next 15 to 20 minutes for class discussion of the group's results. Use the data to stimulate class discussion:
   a. Why do you plan for certain kinds of leisure-time listening and avoid others?
   b. Why do you set aside time for this kind of appreciative listening?
   c. What appreciative listening experiences that you have never tried did you learn of today?
   d. What were the most important therapeutic effects of the appreciative listening experiences you discussed today?
5. Direct each student to choose and try one new kind of appreciative listening experience from those suggested today.
Chapter 3

EXERCISE 5
EMPATHIC LISTENING

Approximate time: 20 minutes for dyad session
25 minutes for large group session

Objective: To enable students to fully appreciate the feeling of
having another listen empathically.

Procedure: Ask each student to draw a subject from a list you have
prepared. (e.g. "I was most proud when . . .," "I am most
worried about . . .," etc.)

1. Ask participants to form into dyads.

2. Give participants the following instructions:
   a. During the next 8-10 minutes, one of you will be the speaker and may
talk on the subject drawn or any other subject you prefer to substitute.
   b. During that time, the listener will:
      (1) Avoid any judgmental verbal or nonverbal feedback;
      (2) Give the speaker time to reveal all facets of and feelings
toward the subject;
      (3) Ask questions about the speaker or the subject which will
encourage the speaker to continue; and
      (4) Focus on the speaker by use of eye contact. Do not create a
reversal of speaker-listener roles by beginning to talk about
your topic regardless of how tempted you are to do so.
   c. After about ten minutes you will switch roles; speakers will become
listeners and vice versa.

3. After each person has had 8-10 minutes of talking time, the dyads will re-
form into several large discussion groups.

4. As a group discuss these questions:
a. How did it feel to be the focus of attention while you were the speaker?

b. What did you like best about being the speaker in this exercise?

c. What did you learn about the importance of listening?

d. What difficulties did you encounter as a listener?

e. What did you learn about the importance of having a willing listener?

f. What changes will you make in your empathic listening behavior?

5. Write a summary of what you learned from this exercise. Be specific and include answers to the above questions.
Chapter 5

EXERCISE 3
CONCENTRATING ON NONVERBAL MESSAGES
WHILE LISTENING

Approximate time: 15 minutes for instruction
24-hour period outside of class
20 minutes for discussion

Objective: To enable students to recognize and interpret nonverbal messages while listening.

Procedure:

1. Have students prepare a worksheet for this exercise in the Listening Log as follows:
   a. On the top line write the title of the exercise.
   b. Divide the paper into four vertical columns with the headings: Listening Episode, Nonverbal Message, Bodily Involvement, and Message Correlation.
   c. On the extreme left margin, number from one to eight, skipping four spaces between numbers.

2. Ask the participants to observe and record the nonverbal messages in listening episodes they will experience during the next twenty-four hours.

3. The listening episode may be listed as "Family Dinner," "An Important Date," or the name of a movie. Assess and record a fifteen-minute segment for each event.

4. Under "Nonverbal Message," use major words to record the meaning reflected: Did the nonverbal message reveal an emotion (hate, love, anger, jealousy, fear, etc.)? Did the message reinforce an instruction or explanation?

5. In the "Bodily Involvement" column indicate exactly how the body was involved in conveying the message (raised eyebrows, leaning forward, running and stumbling, etc.).
6. In the last column, "Verbal Message Correlation," write "yes" or "no" to clarify that the verbal message was reinforced, confused, or negated by the nonverbal message; in major words briefly explain your assessment.

7. On the day the exercises are due, arrange a class or small group discussion of the students' charts.
Chapter 5

EXERCISE 4
ANALYSIS OF NONVERBAL MESSAGES
(Continuation of Exercise 3)

Approximate time: 30 minutes outside of class

Objective: To enable students to realize how verbal messages can be clarified or distorted by nonverbal cues.

Procedure:

1. Ask the class to respond to the following questions in the Log using at least one-half page to answer each question.
   a. Do nonverbal cues heighten or lessen emotional meanings? On your chart, which emotions were expressed most frequently? Least frequently? Not at all?
   b. As you concentrated on nonverbal messages, which types of verbal messages correlated with the meaning of nonverbal messages? Which showed little or no correlation?
   c. After reviewing your chart, what directives would you suggest for the competent listener to follow in regard to concentrating on nonverbal messages?
Chapter 5

EXERCISE 5
CONCENTRATING TO IDENTIFY SOUND

Approximate time: 10 minutes for the listening test
10 minutes for class discussion

Objective: To enable students to concentrate to listen and identify voice and other sounds.

Procedure:

1. Ask for two volunteers each to tape record ten miscellaneous sounds with their respective recorders. Recordings might include sounds of an air conditioner, a bursting paper bag, a dripping faucet, etc.

2. When the recorders are brought to class record one-half of the students’ voices on one recorder and the remainder on the other. During the recording students are not to state their names—only one simple sentence, e.g., "Today is Friday."

3. After the recordings, conduct a listening test. The class will write the identification of the students’ voices and other recorded sounds.

4. After the test papers are corrected, examine the scores. Is the range of scores extended or centralized? Which category of sound was identified more correctly—students’ voices or the other recorded sounds? Which of the characteristics of sound, discussed in Chapter 1, facilitated the listeners’ identification of sounds in this exercise? What unique distinctions of the students’ voices were helpful for identification?

5. As a result of the class discussion, write on the board several guidelines to improve the listener’s ability to be attentive, to concentrate, and to identify sounds.
Chapter 6

EXERCISE 1
CALCULATING THE EFFECTS OF EMOTION ON LISTENING

Approximate time: 20 minutes for preparation
1 week outside of class

Objective: To enable students to realize the pervasive effect of emotional filtering in important areas of people’s lives.

Procedure:

1. Instruct each student to interview two persons whose professional dealings occur when people’s emotions are highly involved.

2. Ask students to suggest types of people they might interview. Write a list on the chalkboard to include: doctors, clergy, lawyers, social workers, counselors, dentists, pharmacists, judges, and others.

3. Give students specific instructions for carrying out the interviews within the coming week:

a. Arrange a specific time for the two interviews.

b. Prepare an initial statement and a list of questions to be used as a general guide for conducting the interviews. Ask the students to suggest a list of questions to be written on the board. Include the following:

1. Do you often deal with people who are under emotional strain?
2. How can you recognize this emotional strain?
3. What do you estimate are the greatest causes of this strain?
4. What steps do you take to deal with this?
5. Does emotional involvement affect a client’s ability to listen?
c. After the interviews, write in your Listening Log a summary in which you answer the above questions and note specific information you gathered about emotions and their effect on listening.

4. Indicate to the class the date when this information must be returned to be used for Exercise 2.
EXERCISE 2
EVALUATING THE EFFECTS OF EMOTIONS IN COMMUNICATION

Approximate time: 30 minutes small group discussion  
15 minutes for class discussion

Objective: To enable students to evaluate the cost of emotional involvement and subjectivity at all levels of communication.

Procedure: Form students into small groups of 3 to 5 members for a discussion of data gathered in Exercise 1. Give the following instructions:

1. Using the notes, answers to questions, and summaries from your interviews (Exercise 1), share the information you gathered.

2. During the discussion, answer these questions:
   a. What kinds of people were interviewed?
   b. What specific problems with listening did they encounter?
   c. What did you learn about the effect of emotions on listening in people’s lives?

3. After a 30-minute discussion period, ask one student in each group to record and summarize the information gathered and briefly report to the class.
Chapter 6

EXERCISE 3
EFFECT OF LANGUAGE ON EMOTIONS AND LISTENING

Approximate time: 30 minutes for triad discussion
10 minutes for summary

Objective: To enable students to recognize their immediate conditioned response to speakers' words and phrases.

Procedure:

1. Ask students to form into triads. Prepare a list of "red flag" words or expressions—those words or phrases that trigger an immediate hostile reaction much as the traditional red flag is used to incite a bull to charge. (Give examples such as "chick," "jock," "ERA," etc.).

2. While in the triad make a list of words as each person mentions them. After the list has been compiled, go back to each person for answers to these questions:
   a. What is the original hurt that inspired this reaction?
   b. Is your present response familiar? That is, do you usually respond in this way?
   c. Why do you do so?
   d. Do you think the person using this expression knows it offends you?
   e. If yes, is this important? If no, are you overreacting?

3. Direct students to do the following:
   a. Summarize in writing what you discovered about your red flag words.
   b. Then ask yourself how these reactions have interfered with listening and your need to communicate.
   c. Set up a plan for dealing with these reactions.
4. Indicate to students when this written summary is due for evaluation.
Chapter 6

EXERCISE 4
DISCOVERING THE EFFECT OF SEVERE TRAUMA ON LISTENING

Approximate time: 2 class periods

Objective: To enable students to understand the profound and lasting emotional effect of several traumatic events in life and the relation of this trauma to the ability to listen.

Procedure:

1. Invite a speaker to address the class on the topic of emotional trauma. The speaker might be a police officer, doctor, advocate, paramedic or others who work with battered children or women, or who counsel in problem areas (rape, alcoholism, etc.).

2. Devote one class period to the talk and encourage students to question the speaker afterwards.

3. Tell students to write out their observations in their Listening Logs. These will be used as a basis for group discussion in the next class period.

4. On the second class day, ask the students to form into small groups of 5 to 7 members. They are to relate to the speaker’s message in answering the following questions:

   a. What are some other traumatic events that could create similar emotional stress?

   b. What effect does severe emotional trauma have on listening?

   c. What is a healing interval? Why is this interval of time necessary in order to handle trauma?

   d. How would you deal with a traumatized person as a listener?
e. Has severe trauma ever hampered communicating with someone you know? How did you respond? (This is an optional question. Assure students that they may deal with this question only if they choose to do so.)
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