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ABSTRACT

Intended for use by teachers, school administrators, curriculum designers, and others as they begin to organize and define oral communication instruction within their schools, this guide provides a framework from which to develop instructional programs that will produce effective speakers and listeners. The first section of the guide reviews the skills students must learn to communicate effectively and outlines the school's role in developing those skills. The second section focuses on how instruction can be organized both informally and formally, while the third section describes "promising practices" observed in a variety of elementary and secondary school classrooms in Massachusetts. The fourth section provides an annotated list of over 100 books and other materials to help educators develop their own curricula and activities for teaching basic speaking and listening skills. (FL)

RESOURCES FOR SCHOOLS

MASSACHUSETTS DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

19. TEACHING SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS IN THE ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL

MASSACHUSETTS DISSEMINATION PROJECT

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

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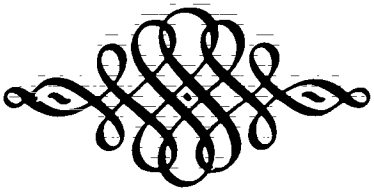

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Section III could not have been possible without the cooperation given by public school administrators and teachers across the state. (Only because we assured the schools anonymity in our report do we not identify the sites and persons here.) The pleasure was ours in observing so many instances of promising practices in communication education. We wish there had been time to visit more schools. Hopefully, this report will stimulate further collaboration between school systems and universities as we all try to improve the implementation of speaking and listening skills in our curricula.

INTRODUCTION

During the past several years considerable discussion and planning has occurred at the local, state, and national levels aimed at improving school curricula and instruction to enable students to master basic skills. At the national level, Title II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act defines basic skills as reading, mathematics, and effective written and oral communication.

According to studies conducted by the National Institute of Education in 1979-80, thirty-eight states, including Massachusetts, have established minimum competency programs. Massachusetts is also one of three states which has determined specific listening and speaking skill objectives for its students. The regulations for implementation of the Basic Skills Improvement Policy, adopted by the Massachusetts Board of Education, state that secondary level minimum standards shall include, but not necessarily be limited to, the following basic skills objectives:

Listening

Basic Listening Skills

1. Recognize words and phrases used by the speaker
2. Indicate why the speaker can or cannot be understood

Understanding What You Hear

1. Understand spoken words and ideas
2. Identify and understand main ideas
3. Associate important details with main ideas
4. Understand descriptions of events and experiences
5. Understand speaker's purpose

Using What You Hear

1. Understand and respond to survival words used in emergency situations
2. Summarize information and draw conclusions
3. Recognize when words and phrases are used to convince or persuade
4. Follow straightforward directions

Speaking

Basic Oral Communication Skills

1. Use words and phrases appropriate to the situation
2. Speak loudly enough to be heard by a listener or group of listeners

3. Speak at a rate listeners can understand

4. Say words distinctly

Planning, Developing, and Stating Spoken Messages

1. Use words in an order that clearly expresses a thought

2. Organize main ideas for presentation

3. State main ideas clearly

4. Support main ideas with important details

5. Demonstrate knowledge of standard English usage

Common Uses of Spoken Messages

1. Use survival words to cope with emergency situations

2. Speak so listener understands purpose

3. Ask for and give straightforward information

4. Describe objects, events, and experiences

5. Question others' viewpoints

Teaching Speaking and Listening Skills in the Elementary and Secondary School was developed as a resource for teachers, school administrators, curriculum designers, parents, and school committee members as they begin to organize and define oral communication instruction within their districts. The Massachusetts Dissemination Project, in cooperation with the Department of Education's Bureau of Research and Assessment and Division of Curriculum and Instruction, invited the authors to develop a publication which: (a) provides background information on the factors affecting the teaching of speaking and listening, (b) reviews curriculum patterns and approaches, (c) describes promising classroom practices already employed in a variety of Massachusetts schools, and (d) reviews bibliographic and other resources for developing curricula and modifying teaching practices.

For over eight months, the authors analyzed teaching materials and research, observed classroom activities, interviewed teachers and administrators, and organized data to produce this document. It is not intended to provide a "quick fix", a short cut to teaching speaking and listening skills, but rather as a beginning framework from which to develop instructional programs which will produce young people who are effective speakers and listeners.

Teaching Speaking and Listening Skills in the Elementary and Secondary School is divided into four sections. Section I reviews the skills children must learn to communicate effectively and the school's role in developing these skills. Section II focuses on how instruction can be organized both informally and formally. Section III describes "promising practices" observed by the authors during visits to schools throughout the Commonwealth. Section IV provides an annotated list of over one hundred books and materials to help readers go beyond this booklet to develop their own curricula and activities for teaching basic speaking and listening skills.

SECTION I

TEACHING SPEAKING AND LISTENING

The normally developing child who enters kindergarten seems already skilled in speaking and listening. After all, the child can talk. When asked a question, the child answers indicating that she or he can listen as well. What else is necessary?

Apparently, a lot more. We find many adults, including high school graduates, who lack some of the most basic skills in reading, writing, speaking, listening, computation and problem-solving. In fact, the Adult Performance Level Research Project (1977) found that just over one half of the American adult population is performing at or below a level associated with marginal success.

No teacher or school system intends to produce citizens who are only marginally successful in functional skills like listening and speaking. Teachers want their students to succeed in acquiring those skills, and they want to be able to gauge their students' progress. To do this in the area of oral communication, they must understand what it is the child must learn to become an effective adult speaker and listener--what forces infringe on normal communication development, why oral communication skills need to be taught, the effects of such teaching on communication development, and ways of preparing to teach speaking and listening.

What Must Children Learn to be Competent and Effective Speakers and Listeners?

One important goal of education is to increase children's power over language. Language is a system of sounds, sentences, and meanings that conform to rules. It is also a system of symbols that enables us to make sense of our environment, other people, and ourselves. Power over language, over spoken and written discourse, enables us to participate fully in human society through communication.

The most important aspects of human communication are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Since the first language children learn is spoken, the development of skill in oral communication precedes the development of skill in reading and writing.

To be more accurate, oral communication is not a single skill. To communicate competently and effectively, one must develop many different but interrelated skills. For example, an effective speaker must know how to:

- produce the sounds of language;
- combine sounds into words and words into sentences;
- choose words that express meaning clearly;
- speak with clear enunciation and articulation;
- use appropriate gestures, facial expressions, distance, bodily stance and eye contact;
- adjust volume, speed, pitch, tone, and inflection of voice appropriately to listeners;
- adapt to different audiences;
- react appropriately to different kinds of responses;
- organize messages clearly;
- exemplify, illustrate and generalize when necessary; and
- adapt style and level of formality to the situation.

Effective listening also requires interrelated skills. Lundsteen (1979) suggests that listening involves at least twenty-five skills which she presents in order of increasing difficulty.

The variety of skills needed for effective speaking and listening illustrates that oral communication involves more than knowledge of grammar, usage and vocabulary. As children grow, they need to develop several competencies that together comprise mature communication ability. These competencies can be categorized as verbal language, nonverbal behavior, and situational sensitivity.

Verbal language: In order to communicate, children must gain facility with verbal language. They must be able to produce and understand units of sound called phonemes. To do this they learn a system of contrasts. First, they learn major contrasts between vowels and consonants. Then they learn finer contrasts between various types of vowels and consonants, and rules for combining sounds. Most children have acquired this sound system by the time they enter kindergarten, but they sometimes have problems with more difficult sounds. These problems may include

omitting certain sounds in words, substituting one sound for another, or distorting a sound in some way. For example, children may say "thithter" for "sister," or "wabbit" for "rabbit." Such problems are not unusual for children in the pre-school, kindergarten and first grades, but they are not normal for older children.

In addition to learning sounds, children must acquire a knowledge of sentence structures or syntax. Syntax refers to the rules by which words are ordered to form sentences. A great deal of research shows that the various rules for forming sentences are learned in an orderly sequence. Children progress from using simple sentence-like words such as "Ball?" for "See the ball," through various stages of modifying, transforming, conjoining, embedding, and categorizing to complex structures. Most of the principles of syntax are acquired by age five, but some rules are not mastered until age ten or twelve. In fact, some people never learn all the rules of syntax.

A third part of gaining facility in verbal language is learning the meanings of words or semantics. Children learn to use words in relation to each other and to situations. They learn the meanings of words, the combining of word meanings into sentences, and the forming of propositions. We know less about semantic development than about syntactical development. Research suggests that meaning develops in stages, but more important, that its development never ends. Forming propositions and statements of meaning is a task that adolescents and adults continue to learn throughout their lives.

Nonverbal behavior: When listening to someone talk, our attention is drawn so much to the meaning conveyed through verbal language, that sometimes we are not aware of the importance of nonverbal behavior in projecting the force of a message. In fact, nonverbal behavior may do more than accompany a verbal message; it may reveal the speaker's real message. For example, we sometimes hear "it's not what she said, but how she said it." We often call a child's behavior "smart alec" when the tone and manner of delivery, more than the words, convey impudence or sassiness.

Nonverbal behavior that conveys a message or that complements a verbal message is itself a form of communication. Some aspects of nonverbal communication are:

Body language - facial expression, visual interaction, gesture, movement and positioning of the body;

Vocal features - pitch, loudness, tempo, pause, and quality of voice; and

Proximity - space and distance.

Because the study of nonverbal communication is in its infancy, we have an uneven picture of its developmental course. Wood (1976) suggests nonverbal communication development probably occurs in identifiable stages. Just as children learn sounds, words, sentences and meanings, they also learn patterns of bodily movements, vocal features, and proximity to communicate messages with others. To get his or her way, the very young child may rely predominantly on nonverbal behavior such as crying, yelling, hugging, or hitting, but gradually the child learns to integrate these nonverbal strategies with verbal language and to employ new forms of nonverbal expression intentionally and with more control. In all probability, learning nonverbal communication is, like learning semantics, a lifelong task.

Sensitivity to the situation: Whenever we communicate, we do so in a particular situation. We talk with the people present about something for a purpose at a given time and place. In order to determine how successful our communication is, we must take into account:

- to whom we are communicating (the people present);
- what we are talking about (the topics);
- why we are communicating (our purpose[s]); and
- when and where we are communicating (the time, place and occasion).

The context is inseparable from the communication. Instead of learning language per se, children should learn appropriate uses of verbal and nonverbal language. To communicate well is to show awareness of and sensitivity to the situation. This sensitivity is reflected in skill at role-taking, creating messages, responding to feedback, varying speaking style, and using language to accomplish one's purpose. Each of these skill areas consists of sub-skills.

Role-taking requires the ability to put oneself in the position of others, to see things from that perspective, and be able to understand how one's way of speaking sounds to the other person. Role-taking requires not only that an individual step outside of him or herself, but also that he or she be able to use the information so gained, not an easy task for the young child. Flavell and his colleagues (1975) have studied role-taking development intensively and find it occurs in five stages:

1. Understanding that there is such a concept as perspective, that different people's thoughts and feelings are not necessarily the same;

2. Realizing it is necessary to analyze the other person's perspective in order to achieve one's goal;

3. Planning how to analyze the perspective of the other person;

4. Remaining aware of the other person's views in the face of one's different views; and

5. Applying the results of analysis to achieving some end or action. This involves more than knowing another person needs certain information; it requires being able to inform the other person adequately.

Six-year-old children demonstrate some understanding that different perspectives exist (stage 1). They can also figure out what the differences are in cases of visual perception but not in cases of information or intention (stage 2). Moreover, they have limited awareness of the need to analyze another person's point of view unless they are reminded to do so by an adult. Between ages nine and twelve all of these abilities develop. However, it is not unusual to find adults who do not use these abilities, though they may have them. For example, you may hear some adults talking "down" to children, shouting, or sweetly asking, "And how are we today?"

Creating messages involves such skills as the ability to talk about topics of interest to others as well as to oneself; to keep to the point; to organize ideas in some order; to support ideas with examples, illustrations and other clarifying devices; and to relate what is said to preceding remarks. We cannot describe an orderly acquisition of these skills, but we know that young children's egocentricity as well as the communication situation affect their performance in creating messages. Two independent studies by Hahn (1947) and Higginbotham (1961) analyzed the contributions of young children during the familiar "share and tell" time in kindergarten, first, and second grade. In each situation, children could choose to talk about an object at hand, "show and tell", or about some event or experience, "share and tell". Among the relevant findings of these studies are:

- The younger children selected highly personal topics. There was little interest in giving information per se. However, older children talked about a proportionately greater number of different topics and showed more concern for giving information on less personal subjects.

- A number of children gave responses that were confused and difficult to follow or that contained short and meager ideas.

- Younger children tended to talk about more than one topic at a time more often than older children.

- Longer and more elaborated responses were associated with talking about an activity or experience. Showing and talking about an object yielded shorter, simpler sentences and a shorter total response. Apparently the presence of physical objects tended to displace speech.

Clearly, different communication situations place different demands on students for creating messages. When one is preparing to give a formal talk, a great deal of time may be spent in deciding what to talk about and how to limit the topic. However, these decisions assume less importance in casual conversation where talk is more spontaneous andfree-wheeling. In conversation, the control over creating messages shifts from one person to another. Skills like associating one's ideas with the ideas of another become more important.

There are, then, two kinds of demands placed on children when they create messages. First, they must recognize what skills are appropriate for the situation. Second, they must put those skills to use. Casual observation of some adults suggests that many do not recognize one or both of these demands. The person who monopolizes a conversation fails to see that brief exchanges are more appropriate than an extended monologue. The local resident who gives you jumbled directions to reach your unfamiliar destination has a lot to learn about organizing his or her thoughts. The person who describes last night's events with so many details that he forgets the point of the story fails to compel your attention. Skill in creating messages appropriate to the situation is a lifelong learning task.

Responding to feedback is a third component of sensivitity to the situation. A mature communicator is responsive to others. Speakers and listeners must anticipate other's responses and be willing to adapt to them. This adaptation calls for skills like retreating gracefully from an untenable position, discarding rigid and dogmatic statements when appropriate, recognizing when propositions require more support, acknowledging diverse opinions, and modifying ideas when necessary. Such skills are interwoven with one's role-taking ability and cognitive development. They are more likely to evolve in adolescence, but the foundation for them is laid earlier when children interact with adults who demonstrate these skills.

A fourth way of reflecting sensitivity to the communication situation is to adapt one's style of speaking to the situation. Joos (1967) has described five communication styles.

1. An intimate style is characteristic of persons who know each other quite well. It consists of economy of words and high incidence of nonverbal communication.

2. A casual style is reflected among individuals who share some, but not intimate, knowledge of each other. Sentences are frequently incomplete, and sometimes unconventional English usage such as slang is employed. There is also easy and free participation by both speaker and listener.

3. A consultative style occurs between persons who have a limited shared background. Again, there is free participation by speaker and listener, but sentences are complete and background information is supplied.

4. A formal style is characterized by complete sentences that reflect careful planning and logical development of thought. Background information is provided. Speech is more rehearsed or practiced than impromptu. With the formal style the speaker controls the situation more; the listener's active participation drops out.

5. A frozen style is more characteristic of writing than speech. It is used on the most formal of occasions. It reflects efforts of revision, logical development of thought, and careful planning. Attention to stylistic features, word appropriateness, and rules of usage come into full, conscious play. An example of the frozen style in speech is a person who reads his/her message from a written manuscript.

These distinctions are helpful in pointing out that ability to vary one's style requires that people who are communicating recognize their relationship to each other and to the topic, and know when and how to be explicit.

Ability to vary one's style is taxed whenever we talk with people we don't know well. Our language is likely to be more guarded. We may consider a stranger who greets us with "Hi, Toots!" as rude. But we may comfortably approach a close friend with a similar greeting.

Ability to vary style is also taxed when the topic of conversation is not physically present. As we pointed out previously, children's speech is more explicit during "share and tell" when they talk about a trip they took or about an outing they plan to take than when they describe an object. Explicitness in speech is required when describing the past, planning the future, talking over the telephone or giving directions. These acts require precise word selection and organization of syntax, as well as the ability to tailor a message to a particular topic, person and situation.

Learning to vary style is not easy for all children. Some children come from homes where extended talk is encouraged. Others grow up in environments that unintentionally limit their language resources and therefore their choice of style. An important task of schools is to give all children a wider range of speaking styles from which to choose.

Using language for a purpose is a fifth sub-set of skills. When we communicate, we do so for a purpose. We talk with others and listen with some end in mind. We communicate to agree or disagree, to prohibit, to apologize, to justify, to cajole, to praise. The ways we use language are numerous and investigators who have studied children's language have suggested organizing specific communication acts (e.g., offering, commanding, promising, prohibiting) into sets defined by purpose. Wells (1973) categorizes children's conversational sequences according to their dominant purpose. He suggests six categories, which are paraphrased below:

Control:	Controlling the present or future behavior of one or more of the participants;
Expressive:	Expressing feelings and attitudes;
Representational:	Exchanging information;
Social:	Maintaining social relationships;
Tutorial:	Teaching; and
Imaginative:	Creating stories, fantasies.

These purposes are not necessarily discrete. A single statement, "John broke the glass," could serve both to answer a question (informing) and to blame (express a feeling). Other conditions in the communication situation provide clues to the child's purpose in making such a statement.

Children learn to use language for many purposes before they enter school. They show some competence in all six of the above categories. But since both young children and mature adults perform these functions with varying degrees of effectiveness, the task of the schools is to determine which ones children can perform effectively and provide them with opportunities to practice these while learning new ones.

Before concluding this discussion of what children learn in becoming effective speakers and listeners, we want to call attention to the importance of the affective aspects in learning speaking and listening skills. Effective communication requires a willingness to talk when it is appropriate and be silent when others want to talk. It requires some confidence in approaching the communication situation. In every classroom there are children who talk too much. Teachers frequently see them as behavior problems or "troublemakers." There are also children who are quiet, who seldom volunteer to answer questions, lead a group activity, or participate in sharing time. Since they are not disruptive, quiet students are sometimes favored by teachers. But quiet

students have problems, too, and are often quiet because they are afraid to talk.

It is not within the scope of this publication to analyze all the forms of apprehension which inhibit communication, or to suggest ways teachers can deal with this complex problem. The resource section starting on p. 59 will help readers become more informed about how to help children with communication apprehension. Here, we only emphasize that effectiveness in communication is related to one's emotional reaction to the opportunity (or demand) to communicate. Whatever the differences among them, quiet children have one thing in common: they perceive they can gain more by remaining silent than by talking -- even when talk is called for.

Integrated skills: While we have enumerated resources and skills needed for effective communication under topical headlines, we stress that mastery of discrete skills does not necessarily lead to effective speaking and listening. Effective communication requires integration of critical skills in particular settings. Mature communicators possess more skills than they may demonstrate in any single encounter, but they know what skills to use and how to use them in an integrated way.

What Forces Affect Children's Development of Speaking and Listening Skills?

If the school is to assist children in developing speaking and listening skills, educators need to be aware of forces that affect communication development. Since this development begins in infancy, we will first review factors that influence children's early acquisition of skills. Then we will turn our attention to the classroom.

Scholars in language development have engaged in many studies to understnd how and why children learn to speak and listen as they do. Differences in speech and language development have been attributed to an array of forces: intelligence, birth order, sex, size of family, motor skill development, normalcy of the speech and hearing mechanisms, blindness, the number of languages spoken in the home, broadcasting media, amount of interaction with adults, social class, and family interaction styles. Although investigators disagree about the relative importance of these forces, there is agreement that both biological and environmental factors contribute to the development of language and its use in communication.

First, children learn language because they are biologically equipped to do so. According to one prevalent view, human beings have an innate capacity to acquire language. As one's brain matures, so does one's capacity for language development. Normal children learn to talk in similar ways along similar schedules. Lenneberg (1967) suggests that the development of language occurs in three stages:

- a period of maturational readiness, extending from birth to about age two;
- a period of language learning when brain maturation makes it neurologically easiest for the child to learn language, extending from age two through adolescence; and
- a period when language learning is neurologically more difficult, extending from the early adult years throughout life.

The pre-school and school years are the time when youngsters learn language most readily. Because of brain maturation, the younger the child the easier it is for him or her to learn language. Adults find such learning more difficult. This helps explain why children learn second languages more easily than adults.

The teacher may wonder: if learning language is innate, why worry about teaching communication skills? The answer is that language learning is an innate capacity, and like other capacities, needs to be stimulated and nurtured. The infant's caretakers provide this stimulation; parents,

teachers, and others help language unfold; and environmental factors come into full play. These factors help to account for the individual variation among speakers of the same language.

Of different possible environmental factors, the family is probably the most influential in the child's language development. Some children grow up in a rich environment for communication. They hear a variety of adult models of speech and they have opportunities to interact with these models. Their parents react to what they say more than to the mistakes they make in saying it. Their parents or elder brothers or sisters read to them and talk with them about what they read. Their questions are answered, and new tasks and concepts are explained.

All normal children learn to speak and listen before coming to school, but not all children acquire communication skills under the same conditions. Studies of family influences on communication development indicate that the family system influences the child's style and form of speech, the child's emotional responses to the speech situation, and the child's susceptibility to persuasion by others.

According to Bernstein (1970), the style of language children acquire is influenced by the structure of the family. A person-oriented family gives each of its members, including children, some discretion in performing his or her role and more opportunities to communicate his or her personal preferences. Children from such homes are encouraged to articulate judgments and reasons as a basis of their talk. A position-oriented family assigns prescribed roles to each of its members. Because of their age and status, children are expected to speak in a particular way and have limited chances to raise questions or experiment with language styles. Consequently, they have difficulty learning to deal with uncertainty and abstraction.

Bernstein indicates that children from person-oriented families, where communication is more open, find it easier to acquire an elaborated style of language. On the other hand, children from position-oriented families may rely more on a restricted style of language. An example of the distinction between these styles can be seen in the following stories told by two five-year-old children about a series of pictures they had before them:

(A) Three boys are playing football and one boy kicks the ball -- and it goes through the window -- the ball breaks the window -- and the boys are looking for it -- and a man comes out and shouts at them -- because they've broken the window -- so they ran away -- and then that lady looks out of her window -- and she tells the boys off.

(B) They're playing football -- and he kicks it and it goes through there -- it breaks the window and they're looking at it -- and he comes out and shouts at them -- because they've broken it -- so they run away -- and then she looks out and she tells them off. (Hawkins, 1969)

The first story is an example of the elaborated code. This style is characterized by more explicit word selection and syntactic organization; adaptation of the message to the topic, person, and situation; and a higher level of causality. Such a style recognizes and accounts for the "gap" between a speaker and listener. To understand the first story, one does not need to see the four pictures that initiated it. The meaning is made explicit through the language of the speaker.

The second story illustrates the restricted code. This style lacks precise selection of words and syntactic organization. Pronouns are frequently substituted for nouns. There are more concrete, fewer abstract, meanings. This style assumes a shared background between the speaker and listener. To make sense of the story one needs to see the initial pictures. The speaker's meaning is implicit. The restricted style is adequate for speaking in a limited range of situations, but children proficient in the elaborated style can communicate successfully in more situations.

Child rearing practices in the family can also influence the child's confidence and willingness to talk. Parents are the primary reinforcers and evaluators when children first develop skill in oral communication. When the child's efforts to talk are reinforced by parents through praise

and other positive forms of recognition, the child is likely to grow in verbal ability. Parents who are verbally active themselves and who encourage their child's verbal development are likely to build the child's confidence when she or he approaches new communication situations. But some families do not place a premium on their child's verbal behavior, and the view that children should be seen and not heard prevails. In still other families, the parents themselves are reticent. Such families may produce quiet children who consistently choose silence over speech even when it might be to their advantage to speak up.

Teachers with experience relating to children who have great facility with language at an early age will realize that this facility has its drawbacks, too, and can lead to elaborate evasions. Our point is not that speech is preferable to silence, or more speech preferable to less, but that speaking and listening skills are strongly influenced by the home environment, and that the teacher should be aware of these influences. The teacher's job is not to teach the child to talk. This was learned at home. The teacher's job is to help each student, regardless of his or her stage of language development, communicate more effectively, honestly, and appropriately, in ways that benefit both the student and others.

Why Do Speaking and Listening Skills Need to be Taught?

At least three answers to this question will by now be clear. Speaking and listening skills need to be taught, first, because oral communication is the prevalent mode of communication in human society; second, because the development of the skills used in oral communication continues throughout the school years; and third, because these skills constitute the foundation for learning to read and write. We will examine each of these reasons in more detail below.

Prevalence: Oral communication is our most prevalent form of communication. One study (Rankin, 1929) revealed that adults in different occupations spend about seventy percent of their waking hours in one or more forms of verbal communication. Of these various forms, adults devoted forty-two percent of their time to listening, thirty-two percent to speaking, fifteen percent to reading and nine percent to writing. Other investigations (Bird, 1953, 1954; Breiter, 1957) support Rankin's earlier findings.

Like adults, children and adolescents spend great proportions of their time in some form of oral communication. Listening dominates. A recent report of the National Science Foundation (Adler, et al., 1978) indicates that younger children (2-5 year olds) watch television an average of twenty-six hours and thirty-one minutes per week, or three and three quarter hours per day. Older children (6-11 year olds) watch television an average of twenty-five hours and forty-nine minutes each week, or three and one half hours per day. While these averages do not reflect individual variations in viewing patterns, they do support earlier descriptions (Schramm, Lyle and Parker, 1961; Witty, 1965) of the pervasive role of television in children's lives. One writer, (Lundsteen, 1979) recently expressed concern that with children from ages 3 to 18 spending twenty-two thousand hours in front of the television screen, more than the time they spend in school, important time is stolen from them in relating to playmates, brothers and sisters, and adults.

Listening is also a dominant activity in the child's school day. Wilt (1950) found that children spend about fifty-seven percent of their school day in listening, more time than their teachers realize. Most of this time was spent listening to the teacher talk. Of course this percentage varies among classrooms and with the type of subject matter being taught, but for children, listening is a prevalent, if not the most frequent, communication activity.

Developmental needs: Our earlier description of communication development and the forces that affect that development shows that the school years are a critical time for learning and refining speaking and listening skills. As children progress through the grades, they need to master complexities and irregularities of syntax; to expand and acquire new meanings for words and sentences; to integrate verbal and nonverbal behavior; to give and understand meaning that derives from pitch, stress and juncture; to grow in ability to adapt to other peoples' perspectives; to plan messages that are clear, coherent and explicit; to provide and respond to feedback; to vary language choices to suit the situation; and to achieve one's purpose.

Children's development of these skills is likely to be uneven, and not every child needs instruction in each of these skills. Some children may profit most from help in organizing content or in elaborating their responses. Others may require assistance with vocal delivery or nonverbal communication. Some students may be insensitive to their own talkativeness and dominance, while others may need to be drawn out of their reticence. Some children may be taught the value of tentative thinking, while others may need help in subordinating their ideas or using figurative language. Expansion of vocabulary and sentence meanings will need to continue throughout formal schooling.

These needs extend beyond correcting grammatical errors, providing pattern drills in word usage, or analyzing parts of speech and sentence structure. Children's needs also extend beyond training in enunciation and articulation. When teaching speaking and listening skills, the child's primary need is for opportunities to practice different critical skills in a variety of life-like situations. Out of such opportunities the child will develop a larger reservoir of communication skills. The child with more skills to draw upon is likely to be more effective in communicating.

Relation to reading and writing: The sequence of development of the communication skills is normally listening and speaking, and later, reading and writing. Sticht et al., (1974) trace the interrelations of this developmental sequence in four stages.

First, infants come into the world with basic capacities which permit them to adapt to their environment. These capacities are hearing, for the reception of sound; seeing, for the reception of light; motor movement, for orienting to and manipulating the environment; and cognitive processes, for storing, retrieving and using information.

Second, as the infant interacts with the environment, he or she attains more advanced capabilities -- namely listening and looking. These are refinements of hearing and seeing in that they are used intentionally to seek out and abstract information from the environment. These receptive capacities are complemented by development of the child's productive capacities, uttering and marking.

In the third stage, listening and uttering are defined into auding and speaking. Sticht defines auding as a special case of listening; that is, listening to speech, understanding verbal language. Similarly, speaking involves producing utterances that resemble the speech of others. Thus, through auding and speaking the child acquires the ability to communicate ideas through verbal language.

In stage four, the processes of auding and speaking continue to develop, and a special kind of looking defined as reading emerges. Reading consists of looking at script in order to make sense of language. During this time, the child also learns a special kind of marking called writing.

Thus, the processes of reading and writing develop after considerable language competency has been developed in the processes of listening and speaking. Moreover, reading and writing use the same language signs (words) and the same rules to order these signs (syntax) as are used in oral communication.

That speaking and listening skills are "building blocks" for reading and writing skills can be seen clearly in the early stages of reading instruction. Auditory comprehension, auditory vocabulary, articulation, and auditory discrimination are among the strong indicators of readiness for reading. Many reading readiness programs emphasize the following speaking and listening abilities:

- speech that is free of sound substitutions,
- speech that is reasonably fluent,
- speech that contains reasonably mature sentence structure,
- the ability to attend to and recall a story read aloud,
- the ability to answer simple questions,
- the ability to follow simple directions,
- the ability to follow the sequence of a story,
- the ability to discriminate between sounds of varying pitch and loudness,
- the ability to detect similarities in words, and
- sufficient auditory vocabulary for common concepts.

Many forms of written communication are enhanced when children have an opportunity to discuss what they plan to write later. Less verbal children especially need oral communication experiences before they write. Loban's (1963) study showed that children who are more proficient with oral language are also more successful in writing.

Developmentally, reading and writing also contribute to growth in oral communication. As children develop in their ability to read and write, they gain access to new information which forms the substance of speaking and listening. Thus, skill in reading and writing expands the child's knowledge, the topics he or she can talk about, and the "richness" of the content of oral communication.

This last point emphasizes the reciprocal relationships among the forms of language and illustrates another interrelationship, a functional one. Language is a means of learning. Through spoken language the child symbolically structures and shapes experience: he or she talks to learn. Britton (1969) provides some insight into this process in his description of a secondary school science classroom where the students and teacher were engaged in a laboratory experiment. Britton suggests that there are several phases of talking to learn. First, there is talk in small groups concerned with description and explanation. In this phase, students observe, describe and attempt to explain an experiment introduced by the teacher; they do so by responding to open-ended questions the teacher asks. Britton states: "The movement in words from what might describe a particular event to a generalization that might explain that event is a journey that each must be capable of taking for himself--and that it is by means of taking it in speech that we learn to take it in thought." (1969, p. 114.) Second, the students and teacher attempt to consider alternative explanations through talk, and they devise means for verifying these explanations. Third, the students verify explanations by conducting their own experiments, but even here the student talks through each step. Even in the laboratory, speech serves experimental operation. Britton summarizes his observations of the classroom as follows:

> "The task is not that of learning language; rather it is that acquiring by the agency of the language, the ability to perform these mental operations I have been talking about. A child's language is the means: in process of meeting new demands -- and being helped to meet them -- his language takes on new forms that correspond to the new powers as he achieves them." (1969, p. 115)

As children develop the ability to read and write, they acquire new means of learning. The social studies research report, the written account of a scientific experiment, and the analytic English essay are means of synthesizing and applying knowledge. But these new tools complement rather than replace listening and speaking as means of learning. When rooted in experience, all the skills of communication furnish a background for acquiring new concepts and performing high-level intellectual skills.

In addition to commonalities among the forms of language, there are also significant differences between situations that produce spoken language on the one hand and written language on the other. Speakers and listeners employ skills that stem from three major distinctive features of the oral communication situation: time, medium, and relationship.

Time: The oral communication situation is characterized by a sense of immediacy. Time becomes a source of pressure. The speaker is pressed to express ideas in language while directly confronting the audience. Time to look for the right words or phrases is limited. Consequently, we may hear more grammatical errors in oral communication. Restating, repeating and summarizing information are more necessary. The rate of communication is controlled more by the speaker than the listener. Unless audio and video recording devices are employed, the speech record is impermanent. Oral communication requires adeptness in "give-and-take."

Medium: While the writer employs graphic symbols, the speaker relies on sound and nonverbal symbols. Hence, quite different neurophysical mechanisms are involved in producing messages. The writer must demonstrate skills in capitalizing, punctuating, spelling and writing legibly to convey a message that is intelligible. The writer uses other contrasts such as color, intensity, letter size, and underlining. On the other hand the speaker employs voice quality, volume, pitch,

rate, intonation, stress, juncture, and bodily actions to communicate messages to the listener. The different mediums require different skills.

Relationship: The speaker-listener encounter is frequently a direct face-to-face meeting. When addressing listeners the speaker's style of language is more concrete and personal and reflects more awareness of time, place and occasion. Vocabulary tends to be simpler and the density of ideas greater. The speaker uses more self-reference terms (first person pronouns,) more pseudo-quantifying terms (if, however, except,) and more terms that indicate consciousness of projection (apparently, seem, appears.) The language employed by the speaker differs from the writer's language in the amount of abstraction, difficulty of comprehension, and certain psychogrammatical features.

These distinctive features of oral communication show that teaching speaking and listening will, at times, require explicit instruction. The commonalities among the four communication skills do not argue for integrated instruction when essentially different skills are to be stressed.

What Effect Does Instruction Have on Communication Development?

Teachers who recognize the importance of oral communication and its relationship to reading and writing often ask: Can speaking and listening skills really be taught? Many teachers assume so. They believe it is important to help students become aware of goals appropriate to the students' stage of development. They plan methods and materials for helping students achieve these goals, and periodically evaluate their achievement of these goals. Instruction of this kind is designed to improve children's speaking and listening skills and prevent students from forming habits and skills which impede effective communication.

Other teachers believe that such explicit attention to improvement makes students more self-conscious and interferes with the spontaneity and naturalness of speech. These teachers would provide ample and varied opportunities for children to talk about topics of mutual interest. But they would not attempt to focus the child's attention on how he or she speaks or listens.

These different views raise the question: What effect does instruction have on communication development? Brown (1976) reviewed seventeen studies of the effects of unstructured, moderately structured, and highly structured teaching on learning communication behaviors. In studies of unstructured teaching, teachers gave students opportunities to talk with their peers without restricting them to a particular purpose or calling for some expected, sequential achievement of specific skills. In the studies of structured teaching, teachers were more didactic and explicit about what children were to learn. These teachers controlled opportunities for learning speaking and listening skills by planning lessons, calling students' attention to the goals of the lessons, providing instructions, sequencing materials and activities, and assessing student outcomes in relation to predetermined objectives. In studies of moderately structured teaching, teachers engaged students in specific tasks (e.g., describing an object) that were intended to promote attainment of some objective, but how and what the children learned was more a result of practice and interaction with peers than of instructions or feedback provided by the teacher.

Specific results for each of the seventeen studies varied with the type of skill stressed and with the age and type of student, but the results showed that children and youth can be taught communication skills through unstructured, moderately structured and highly structured kinds of teaching. The results also showed that what children learn is relatively specific and the result of clear instructional purposes. Children did have a general problem of transferring what they learned in one situation to new and unfamiliar situations, but they also continued to improve their skills after instruction ended.

In view of these findings, the most reasonable path to take is to combine different teaching strategies. The teacher can devise a variety of activities which give students an opportunity to talk with their peers and adults. Informal conversation, creative drama, storytelling, problem-solving in small groups, and individual presentations can enrich lessons in social studies, mathematics, science, the arts, and English.

The teacher can also arrange for students to accomplish specific tasks and determine their success from feedback provided by classmates. Working with partners in small groups, students can take turns in giving and following directions, in asking and answering questions, in explaining and paraphrasing how something works, and in giving and receiving messages. By practicing these tasks with different peers, by interacting with some good models, and by adapting to the feedback received, students develop skills through their own observations and assessment.

What Are Essentials in Preparing for Instruction?

Whether instruction is incidental, explicit, or some combination of both, we believe it is important for teachers and curriculum coordinators to consider the following points when planning instruction in oral communication.

1. Effective teaching will provide (a) ample opportunity for peer interaction--informal conversation, extended discussions in small groups, individual presentations, role-playing and dramatics; (b) supportive response from the teacher--public recognition of successful efforts and individual guidance in complex tasks; (c) topics and tasks that engross both speaker and listener for sustained periods--much speaking and listening that grows naturally and spontaneously out of the academic curriculum and the student's experiences; (d) focus on a range of purposes such as informing, persuading, learning, describing, evaluating, imagining, and facilitating social interaction; (e) exposure to different audiences--teachers, classmates, employers, adults in different occupations, community leaders; and (f) practice with a range of speaking styles from intimate to formal.

2. An important purpose of instruction is to increase the student's communication strategies. Students need to speak and listen in situations that are partly defined by them, interesting to them, and of immediate concern. They are likely to benefit more from instruction that emphasizes the practical uses of speaking and listening (such as giving directions, explaining propositions, arguing, or persuading) than from oral drills or identifying parts of speech.

Teachers sometimes disagree as to whether instruction should focus on communication performance or on knowledge of communication principles. The latter may be more appropriate for older students and for those who choose to become specialists in speech; but for the child and adolescent who are concerned with speaking and listening in everyday life, emphasis on communication skills seems most appropriate. To expand those skills students must perform as speakers and listeners in engaging tasks.

3. Once particular communication skills have been identified, they can be organized for more economical and realistic teaching. One could use the list of speaking and listening skills on p.1-2 as a starting point for instruction. But rather than preparing to teach twenty-four different skills, the teacher should look for common focal points among the skills. For example, the skills on p. 1-2 can be clustered around organization, content, language, delivery and function. Organization refers to how a message is arranged or structured; it is concerned with sequence and relationships among the ideas in a message. Content is the topic or subject matter of talk; it includes the amount and relevance of information and adaptation of information to the situation. Language is concerned with grammar and choice of words. Delivery focuses on skills of volume, rate, and distinctiveness of speech. Function refers to the purpose of communication, it includes persuading, experiencing, describing, and giving directions.

Given these five key domains, one could rearrange the skills on p.1-2 as follows:

SPEAKING	DOMAIN	LISTENING
Use words in an order that clearly expresses the thought Organize main ideas for presentation State main ideas clearly	ORGANIZATION	Identify and understand main ideas
Use words and phrases appropriate to the situation State main ideas clearly Support main ideas with important details Speak so listener understands purpose	CONTENT	Understand spoken words and ideas Associate important details with main ideas Understand speaker's purpose Summarize information and draw conclusions
Demonstrate knowledge of standard English usage	LANGUAGE	Recognize words and phrases used by speaker
Speak loudly enough to be heard by a listener or group of listeners Speak at a rate the listener can understand Say words distinctly	DELIVERY	Indicate why the speaker can or cannot be understood
Use survival words to cope with emergency situations Ask for and give straightforward information Describe objects, events, experiences Question others' viewpoints	FUNCTION	Understand and respond to survival words used in emergency situations Follow straightforward directions Understand descriptions of events and experiences Recognize when words and phrases are used to convince or persuade

One apparent advantage to this grouping is that it interrelates sets of skills more than might be apparent at first. Speaking and listening become "flip sides" of the same coin. Thus, teaching could stress the interactive nature of oral communication.

We do not mean to be prescriptive about the key domains of communication instruction. Our discussion of resources that comprise mature communication ability (pp. 5-10) could provide a different framework for organizing instruction. In the next section, our discussion of basic approaches to instruction will provide still another teaching framework. The point is this: teachers need to search for ways they can provide instruction that are manageable, realistic, and interactive.

4. A final point is that "minimal competency" ought not be the ultimate goal to strive for. Effective teachers have never been satisfied with teaching students to reach "minimal" levels of skill development. They prefer to help youngsters reach their maximum potential. We hope that these teachers will continue to establish objectives that go beyond the minimum. The skills listed in the introduction say very little about the imaginative uses of language, adapting styles of discourse to the situation, experiencing literature through its oral performance, creating drama, responding to mass media, or developing effectiveness in interpersonal communication. The goals of many school programs do include these objectives. Objectives such as these should continue to occupy an important place in the classroom.*

*Readers who wish to develop programs that stress additional speaking and listening skills should consult SCA Minimal Competencies in Speaking and Listening for High School Graduates, a brochure published by the Speech Communication Association (SCA). The source is listed in section IV under "And Even More."

SECTION II

CURRICULUM PATTERNS AND APPROACHES TO TEACHING SPEAKING AND LISTENING

"Communication skills should be taught as early as possible."

"Basic speech can't be taught any earlier than the tenth grade."

"Teaching communication education at the seventh grade level works well since students respond better to experiential activities than to formal content."

"Junior high school students can't handle discussion; if you say something funny it takes forever to get back on track."

"Piaget states that the formal operational thought stage of development begins around twelve years old. Students are cognitively prepared to improve their communication competencies at the seventh grade. That is the primary reason why we're moving our basic communication course from high school to junior high."

"Research doesn't tell us much about when or how communication skills should be implemented in the schools, and I don't think many teachers have even thought about it."

These comments from teachers and administrators reveal contradictions. These views can be explained in part by professional philosophies, departmental structures, course designs and personal biases. The differences can also be explained by the dual nature of oral communication in the schools.

Oral communication is both process and content based. As process, oral communication is a means of learning; interacting about subject matter and transforming knowledge and skills gained from books, teachers, and classroom activities into one's own behavior. As content, oral communication is a point of conscious attention studied systematically; it can be a lesson, unit or course aimed at helping students understand how people communicate and at improving students' communication skills.

This section will first consider how instruction may be organized in relation to the broader school curriculum and second, how teachers may approach teaching basic skills in speaking and listening. Finally, curriculum patterns and approaches applied in schools will be reviewed.

How Can Instruction Be Organized in Relation to the Broader School Curriculum?

In relation to the broader curriculum, oral communication instruction can be integrated, interdependent, or independent. Consider the following schools:

School A has a fourth grade class that has been studying a science unit on health for several weeks. The teacher organized the students into small groups that studied a particular health problem. In their committees they researched the problem and organized their findings for an oral report to the class. One day the elected chair of one committee, a nine year old boy, gave the committee's report on "Diseases of the Blood." He was apprehensive during his initial description of how the circulatory system works; then with apparent delight, he launched into a vivid explanation of blue baby, heart attacks, hemophilia, varicose veins (his mother had them!) and arteriosclerosis. The teacher immediately responded to the report with enthusiastic approval and asked further questions. The boy answered each question ably. When he took his seat he beamed with pride.

School B has a small enrollment and a four-teacher English department that covers grades seven through twelve. The curriculum is coordinated across all six grades, and some students have worked with the same teacher for three years. Classes are small; the learning atmosphere is trusting and open. Teachers integrate speaking and listening skills with standard literature units, and peer teaching activities are frequently employed. Oral reports, class and small group discussion, and oral reading of literature are the most common oral communication activities emphasized. Integration of speech activities is a matter of teacher style and experience, however, and two teachers favor oral activities, while the otner two favor reading and writing assignments. One teacher indicates the curriculum emphasizes the study of literature and does not allow enough time for emphasizing oral communication skills. Another teacher laments her lack of background in oral communication and would like to have someone on the staff who could develop in-school training. The general feeling among the staff is that the curriculum emphasizes reading and writing.

School C has an English department of approximately fourteen teachers who are responsible for the curriculum in both the junior high school (grades 7-9) and the senior high school (grades 10-12.) In the junior high school, separate six week units in speech are taught in the English class by the regular English teacher. In the sophomore year students are required to take a year of literature, a semester of composition and a semester of oral communication. Within the oral communication requirement students may take drama, group communication, argumentation and debate, or persuasion. These courses are taught by two speech teachers and one drama teacher who are on the English staff. These teachers also teach speech and drama electives to juniors and seniors. While courses in speech are offered, reading and writing skills are taught along with speaking and listening skills in these oral communication classes. Moreover, English teachers at all grade levels incorporate speaking and listening assignments in their literature and writing classes.

School D is a senior high school with an independent three-member speech department that receives assistance from one English teacher. The department teaches a required basic speech course to the sophomore class. The course is designed to teach public speaking and performance, pantomimes, travelogues, storytelling, panel discussions, newscasts, and interviews. The department also offers electives in theatre and television production to juniors and seniors. English classes in this school emphasize reading and writing activities and leave instruction in speaking and listening to the speech staff. The two departments -- speech and English -- work independently, yet complement one another.

Schools A and B exemplify integrated instruction of speaking and listening skills. In School A, oral communication is taught in a unit on health. Research skills, skills of working and solving problems through discussion in small groups, and oral reporting skills are taught in the context of a larger unit or theme. In this school, speaking and listening skills are taught explicitly when needed. For example, the teacher in School A taught how to investigate a topic and organize ideas for oral presentation. She also reviewed how to present oral reports. Following the reports she reviewed the results for both the content and presentation. But instruction in School A does not emphasize speaking and listening skills exclusive of the larger context or thematic unit. Speaking and listening skills are taught whenever children need to communicate information under study.

School B illustrates integrated teaching in another way. Here oral communication skills are a focus of teaching, but they are taught less systematically than in Schools C and D. Speaking and listening are integrated with reading and writing in several ways:

- students write dramatic scenes, act out what they have written, and revise the script;
- students prepare oral readings of short stories they have read outside class; emphasis is on expressing ideas and feelings in the stories; and
- students in small groups take turns giving oral instructions about making a simple piece of equipment; they then write their instructions in complete sentences with no diagrams.

In each of these activities the teacher combines instruction in speaking and listening skills with the study of literature and written compositions. Improved reading and writing skills are the primary thrust of the program; speaking and listening are means to this end.

School C typifies the interdependent teaching of oral communication. While there is an identifiable curriculum that concentrates on speaking and listening, several oral communication courses are also available to students. Courses are organized around different forms of communication such as interpersonal communication, small group communication, debate, and drama; rather than just one course entitled "Basic Speech" or "Fundamentals of Communication." The number of courses offered is not as important as the fact that oral communication is taught systematically and is coordinated with other parts of the curriculum. In School C speaking and listening skills are taught directly, and reinforced with reading and writing skills. Other teachers cover reading and writing skills directly and also reinforce the development of speaking and listening skills. Thus, oral communication instruction is interdependent with the entire English Language Arts curriculum.

School D exemplifies independent instruction. Here oral communication is taught by "specialists" in a relatively self-contained curriculum. Independence is reflected both administratively and in the classroom. But independent instruction does not occur only in schools that have separate departments. It occurs when oral communication is taught systematically and apart from other courses in the curriculum such as creative or expository writing or dramatic literature.

Overall, the success of the integrated, interdependent, or independent curriculum arrangement depends upon the teacher's training, interests and commitment to teaching speaking and listening, and upon the support given by the local school system.

How Many Teachers Approach Teaching Basic Skills in Speaking and Listening?

If one were to observe classroom instruction in oral communication in different schools, one would see a variety of lessons and student activities and assignments. In one class the teacher might explain uses of evidence and reasoning in argumentative and persuasive speaking. In another, students might discuss social issues in small groups. Another teacher might lead the class in improvisations while in another classroom students might complete a structured, written assignment to help them organize ideas and materials in outline form. While activities vary from class to class, within any one class instruction is organized to achieve predetermined speaking and listening goals according to some basic framework. No matter what curriculum pattern prevails -- integrated, interdependent, or independent -- at least three basic approaches to teaching speaking and listening skills are available for the teacher to use. These are the "component skills" approach, the "activities" approach, and the "functional" communication approach.

Component Skills Approach

In the component skills approach the teacher directs the students' attention to the mastery of clusters of speaking and listening skills such as organizing ideas, adapting information to the situation, using appropriate language, and speaking audibly and clearly. Moreover, the teacher may focus attention on more specific skills within any one of these clusters. In the case of organizing ideas, more specific skills might include stating main ideas and supporting them with important details.

Component skills are considered so important that mastering them is the end or purpose of instruction. Thus, teachers using this approach prepare lessons, units or courses of study around these component skills. Students practice or drill on a particular skill to improve or master it. A student speaking inaudibly is given assistance with adjusting volume to the size of the audience. A student who has difficulty grasping key thoughts is assigned listening exercises that concentrate on detecting and comprehending main ideas. Since speaking and listening are integrated acts, skills are applied to practical oral communication situations, but, for the sake of systematic development, each cluster of skills is covered separately. Using the Massachusetts list of speaking and listening skills, common component skills are organization, content, language and delivery.

Here are some sample assignments for organizing ideas that illustrate the component skills approach:

Speaking Skills Organize main ideas for presentation State main ideas clearly	Listening Skills Identify and understand main ideas
1. Have students organize scattered points on a given subject in outline form.	1. Have students write titles for short selections read by the teacher.
2. Give students a scrambled outline of a speech. Have them rearrange the key points in proper order.	2. Have students listen to a short informative speech. Require them to take notes. At the conclusion of the speech, ask students to summarize the main points.
3. After studying different ways of organizing a talk--chronological order, topical order, cause-effect order--have students outline the talk and identify the selected order.	3. After listening to a recording of a discussion among several people, have students summarize the major position taken by each person.

One might order skill development more hierarchically by following Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of educational objectives in the cognitive domain. The following example describes a unit on message organization.*

KNOWLEDGE:	Have the student list five patterns of message organization without referring to his/her notes or textbook readings.
COMPREHENSION:	Have the student define in his/her own words terms which identify different organizational strategies.
APPLICATION:	Have the student identify and justify two organizational plans which can be used with a given subject and thesis statement.
ANALYSIS:	Have the student identify organizational patterns in a speech manuscript.
SYNTHESIS:	Have the student outline a speech involving one pattern of organization for the main ideas and two different patterns of organization for supporting points.
EVALUATION:	Have the student construct an organizational model for a type of speech she/he has not seen before and have him/her apply the model to the speech in question.

This example demonstrates that when a component skills approach is used, teachers may emphasize cognitive learning. Before asking students to demonstrate these skills, assignments will help students understand principles of organization. Thus, students must first know and recognize the terms for different organizational patterns in speeches, and then apply them in their own oral presentations.

A semester or year-long course in component skills might include the following units of study:

- Diagnosis of Speaking and Listening Needs
- Content - Selecting and Adapting Information to the Situation
- Organization of Major Materials and Ideas
- Development of Supporting Materials and Ideas
- Language
- Nonverbal Communication - The Body
- Nonverbal Communication - The Voice
- Articulation, Enunciation, Pronunciation
- Adjustment to the Situation

These units stress the component skills under study. This approach favors individual attention to students' speaking and listening problems, and assures the systematic development of skills. However, this approach must be used in conjunction with integrating skills in the whole oral communication act. Moreover, the skills should be applied in a variety of oral communication forms, not just public speaking.

*This sequence is based on one suggested by R.R. Allyn and S.C. Willmington. Speech Communication in the Secondary School. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1972.

Activities Approach

With this approach the teacher selects oral communication activities as the focal point of instruction. Lessons, units and courses of study are organized around activities such as informal conversation, group discussion, public speaking, oral reading of literature, storytelling, creative dramatics, and speaking on radio and television.

Successful performance in these activities requires proficiency in basic speaking and listening skills, but these skills are only a means to an end. Success in the activity is the aim of instruction. Techniques of performance are emphasized. For example, in a unit on oral reading, the student studies the techniques of analyzing and projecting emotional and intellectual content to an audience. In a unit on group discussion, students study and practice problem-solving techniques, leadership styles, and presentation techniques in public forums.

Activities selected are common communication situations. Often, however, the activities are not familiar to students. Consider the following activities:

Informal conversation	Storytelling
Discussion	Creative dramatics
Public speaking	Choral dramatics
Debate	Oral performance of literature
Parliamentary procedure	Radio and television speaking

This sequence combines practical experiences such as discussion, with more artistic situations such as choral speaking. Although a student may engage in this type of activity, the exercise is, nonetheless, an enjoyable way of integrating speaking and listening skills.

Teachers who use the activities approach believe the purpose of instruction is helping students experience a wide variety of communication activities. These teachers also assume that speaking and listening skills are learned best in the context of discrete activities.

Other teachers focus on a more limited range of activities. They separate artistic performance from practical, popular discourse, and they organize instruction on a continuum from informal and intimate situations to public and regulated ones. These teachers arrange units or courses around a sequence of activities such as the following:

Interpersonal communication
Small group communication
Public communication
Mass communication

This sequence treats communication as bound to situations that are differentiated by the number of communicators present and by the participants. Teachers who follow this pattern assume that students will acquire basic communication skills by examining the most typical contexts in which interaction takes place.

The advantages of both versions of the activities approach are that instruction; (a) is appealing to students; (b) integrates and enriches other areas of the curriculum; and (c) is applicable to everyday speech experiences.

A common problem with this approach is that focusing on the activity may deflect attention from improvement of basic skills. One way to avoid this pitfall is to combine the component skills and activities approaches. The teacher can diagnose students' strengths and weaknesses in speaking and listening, provide needed practice on specific skills, and then integrate and apply the skills through activities. When such a combination is employed, the units in a curricular sequence might be as follows:

Diagnosis

Basic Skills
- Content
- Organization
- Language
- Delivery

Informal Speaking
- Conversation
- Interviewing

Group Discussion

Public Speaking

Listening to Mediated Messages

Functional Communication Approach

The functional communication approach assumes that competent and effective communication is the result of an adequate repertoire of communication strategies that are used appropriately to achieve one's purpose in all kinds of communication situations. This perspective sees children and youth "as message strategists who draw upon a repertoire of experiences in selecting, implementing and evaluating strategic choices designed to accomplish a number of communication functions" (Allen and Brown, 1976, p. 252.) Within the context of teaching basic skills, the teachers' tasks are to help the student to (a) develop an adequate repertoire of communication skills, (b) select skills from that repertoire which seem appropriate to the situation, (c) implement the skills through practice, and (d) evaluate the effectiveness and appropriateness of those skills.

These tasks are accomplished by designing problem situations that require students to use verbal and nonverbal language for critical communication functions. The five functions recommended are based on the system proposed by Wells (1973.) These are:

CONTROLLING:	We attempt to control one another's behavior when we command, offer, suggest, permit, threaten, warn, prohibit, contact, refuse, bargain, reject, acknowledge, justify, persuade and argue.
FEELING:	We express and respond to feelings through language when we exclaim, tell tales, commiserate, blame, reject, disagree, and express an emotional state.
INFORMING:	We use language to seek or impart information when we question, answer, justify, name, point out an object, demonstrate, explain, instruct and acknowledge.
RITUALIZING:	Through language we maintain social relationships when we greet others, take leave, play verbal games, and take turns in conversation.
IMAGINING:	We use language to fantasize, speculate, role-play, tell stories, hypothesize, dramatize.

When focusing instruction on these critical functions, it is possible to strengthen many component skills simultaneously by designing problems that require these skills for their solution. For example, after presenting the history of heraldry, one junior high school teacher asked each student to design an individual coat of arms comprised of three symbols, one each representing the student's past, present and future. The teacher then asked each student to present his/her coat of arms and to discuss each symbol. The primary objective was sharing information, but component skills of organization, delivery, and language usage were also stressed.

The communication functions stressed in this approach cut across activities such as discussion, oral performance of literature, public speaking and informal conversation. Rather than emphasize any single activity, the teacher sets problems which reflect a wide range of communication situations. Some problems will require the students to role-play; other problems will let students be themselves. Some situations will be formal, others informal. However, all problem situations should meet these five standards:

1. They should identify the persons communicating; the topic or subject of interaction; and the time, place, and occasion.

2. They should focus on a primary critical function, but may incorporate secondary functions as well.

3. They should motivate students. This can be accomplished by allowing students to help set problem situations that are real to them. Interviewing for summer jobs, getting along with peers, investigative reporting, planning a major social event are real-life situations students may suggest.

4. They should stress the interactive nature of communication by allowing students to alter roles as speakers and listeners. In many cases students may serve in both roles simultaneously.

5. They should permit students to talk about their communication experiences.

This last standard suggests that each problem situation provides an opportunity to assess the outcomes of the communication experience. Teachers and students should seek to enlarge the students' repertoire of communication skills; select criteria for choosing from the repertoire; implement the skills chosen; and evaluate the effectiveness of communication. "Repertoire" (R) questions assess how the student responded in the situation and perceived others to respond. "Selection" (S) questions assess the appropriateness of communication behavior in relation to other participants, the time and place, the topic, and the task. "Implementation" (I) questions prompt students to practice communication choices in a number of different situations. "Evaluation" (E) questions help the student assess his/her effectiveness.

Here are two examples of the functional communication approach, one at the elementary level and one at the secondary level.

GRADES FOUR THROUGH SIX*

FLEA MARKET

Primary function: Controlling

Objective: Convincing fellow students to exchange objects; assuming control in a peer-related activity.

Materials: At least seven concept cards for each group of four children. Cards might be labeled as follows: "things made of plastic," "things that repair," "things to eat," "items found in the kitchen," "things for the desk," and so on.

Procedures: The students bring to school a bag containing ten or twelve items. The class is divided into groups of four children.

* From Wood, B.S. (Ed.) Development of Functional Communication Competencies: Pre-K-Grade 6. Falls Church, VA: Speech Communication Association, 1977.

The students spread their items in front of the others; then they select a concept card from a pile, being careful not to reveal what their cards say. The barter session begins with the members of the group attempting to persuade others to trade until their pile represents the concept they had picked. As the exchange process proceeds, children are urged to observe the barter techniques carefully--which ones are possible, which ones work well, and which ones don't seem to be effective. The exchanging procedure should be systematic. The members take turns exchanging one item with another member of the group. The bartering continues until someone achieves the goal of the game. In the bargaining procedure, certain constraints may be imposed. You may decide that a four-minute time limit is necessary for individual bargaining rounds.

Follow-up questions:

1. What methods did you use to get the items you wanted? (R)
2. Which methods were most frequently used? (S)
3. Which methods worked best? (E)
4. If you could play again, what would you do differently? (I)

GRADES NINE THROUGH TWELVE*

THE INVESTIGATORS

Primary function: Informing

Objective: Identifying, evaluating, and engaging in information skills, such as questioning, investigating, answering, and reporting.

Materials: A list of information sources and specific task assignments.

Sample task assignments: (1) a minister--to find out what kind of training was necessary for that position; (2) a florist--to find out the seasonal trends in flower sales; (3) a mechanic--to find out how the person started his or her career; (4) the bank--to find out the advantages and disadvantages of different savings plans; (5) the guidance counselor--to find out what SAT scores are down; (6) the principal--to find out why he or she went into administration. Other sources include field trips to a radio/television station and a newspaper office, and a discussion with a professional reporter about his or her perception of the job.

Procedures: The class is divided into groups of five or six students. Each group is given an information source and a specific task assignment and must talk with and secure the proper information

* From Wood, B.S. (Ed.) Development of Functional Communication Competencies: Grades 7-12. Falls Church, VA: Speech Communication Association, 1977.

from the source. After the information is collected, the group will select the most interesting pieces of information and design an information presentation. The presentation may come in any form--television program, radio program, film, pictures, slides, issue of a magazine, newspaper article, theatre presentation, or a combination.

Follow-up questions:

1. What different methods were used to get information from your source (for example, direct questions, soliciting brochures, on-the-job observation, and so on)? (R) Which of these yielded the most information? (S,E)

2. How did you select which information you would present? (S,E)

3. If you were to do the assignment again, what would you do differently? (I) Why would you do it differently? (E)

Hopper and Wrather (1978) and Book (1978) provide additional examples of teaching functional communication.

There are a number of advantages to using the functional communication approach. Over a period of time students gain experience with critical communication functions that require integration of many component skills. Moreover, the approach encourages students to assume more responsibility for planning and evaluating their performance. The problem situations utilized relate to students' everyday activities, and because the topics arise from other curriculum areas, oral communication instruction can be readily integrated with instruction in other subjects.

Teachers who prefer more structured approaches to skill development may find the functional communication approach difficult to follow. The emphasis on holistic development of skills might appear to subvert more systematic instruction, however, this need not be the case. For example, two teachers recently combined the functional communication and component skills approaches in a public speaking course (Staton-Spicer and Bassett, 1980). Skills can be developed hierarchically within the functional communication approach.

Teachers who are accustomed to being the dispensers of information and evaluators of students may find functional communication difficult since it requires a different role. Here, the teacher manages instruction by planning problem settings, selecting materials, and developing procedures; and guides students through a self-evaluation process to assess the effectiveness of communication. The teacher's role is to help students explore different communication options rather than to prescribe one way of speaking and listening.

The full benefits of the functional communication approach take time to achieve. Intended to be developmental, the approach may not produce "instant" behavioral changes; but if instruction is continuous and articulated from the elementary through secondary level, students are likely to become mature and effective communicators. That is, with varied communication experiences, older children will be able to give more examples of handling the communication situation (repertoire); to use more appropriate criteria in selecting communication skills (selection); to employ communication skills more effectively in different situations (implementation); and to make sounder judgments about the effectiveness of their skills (evaluation).

Materials in Section IV provide additional theory and practice about these approaches. Whatever perspective frames teaching practices, one should not lose sight of the central purpose of oral communication instruction. In grades K-12 the teacher's primary goal is to help students develop their skills, knowledge, and attitudes as effective communicators.

SECTION III

PROMISING PRACTICES IN TEACHING SPEAKING AND LISTENING

This section describes promising practices currently taking place in Massachusetts classrooms. In selecting the fifty classes for on-site visits, the authors considered size, urban/suburban settings, reports of innovative communication programs, and accessibility. Organized according to elementary (K-6), junior high (7-9), and senior high (10-12) grade levels; the descriptions appear under two headings.

Those listed under PRACTICES offer brief examples of activities that occur in small units of time, such as a single class period. THROUGHOUT THE DAY practices, described at greater length, appear in the broader context of the school curriculum. These narratives report the problems and issues surrounding oral communication instruction from the teacher's perspective; indicate the potential for additional promising practices; detail some experiences that complement formal teaching; and suggest sample curricula.

Some general conclusions can be drawn from these practices. School systems often endorse similar communication activities. Variations of secondary school activities appear in elementary schools, and vice versa. In some instances, teachers were promoting speaking and listening skills without being aware of it. Typically, this happened during informal and undirected activities. What seemed like informal talk to the teacher, was also a communication experience for students.

The examples that follow offer practical suggestions for incorporating listening and speaking activities into daily classroom work. They may also help teachers identify their own activities and promote student awareness of using these skills.

Elementary School

Practices

Although these practices occur in elementary settings, we encourage junior and senior high school teachers to consider adapting these exercises to their particular class situations.

AURAL MATHEMATICS

The students in this class are grouped according to mathematic abilities. While some complete written workbook problems, others use tape recorders and earphones to respond to aural problems. While tape-recorded problems allow the teacher to develop material that complements the textbook tasks and accommodates different learning levels, the exercise indirectly promotes students' listening skills.

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DICTATION DERBY

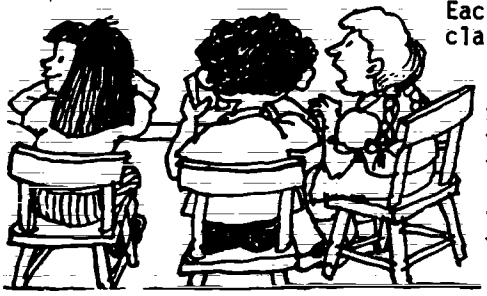
The teacher gives a four sentence dictation drill at the beginning of each class. She/he corrects errors in spelling and comprehension, plots class progress, and compares it to other class sections.

FRACT-O

Fract-O, a variation of Bingo, integrates arithmetic and listening skills. Instead of numbered cards, students have pictures of foods arranged in rows. Each picture represents a fraction of the particular food commodity. One student calls the game, and the rest of the class tries to complete a card row. The complexity of the prompts ("a quarter piece of orange",) promotes a great deal of confirmation activity.

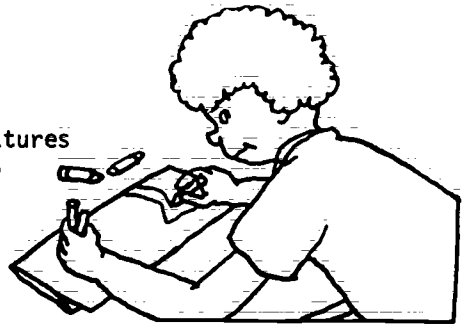
GROUP REPORTS

An integrated social studies and mathematics class is studying a unit on Massachusetts. Discussion topics include: history, tourism, industry, geography, recreation, and agriculture. Students are divided into groups of five with each group assigned a report topic. Students discuss their report content, organize the material, and draw pictures as visual aids for their report. Each group tape-records its presentation and plays it for the class while showing pictures on an overhead projector. At the conclusion of the report, the teacher discusses the importance of maintaining audience interest, and asks how the next presentation might be improved. Students comment that the presenters must speak louder, slower, and more clearly; they can't talk or laugh when other children are recording. In addition, students learn that everything they need to improve in their presentations, they also need to improve in their daily interaction with family and friends.



INTERVIEWING

Each student chooses a person she/he would like to interview such as the principal, a local politician, family member, policeman, custodian, or merchant. After a class discussion on questioning skills, students develop five relevant questions to ask their subjects. They then conduct their interview. Subsequent class reports and discussions elaborate on subjects' answers and interviewers' questions.



LISTENING THROUGH PICTURES

The teacher reads a short story with approximately six main features including characters, objects, actions, and settings. Students draw a picture, then compare it with the story to see how much they heard and remembered. In a similar exercise, the teacher reads a short poem describing the emotional and facial features of a person. Students are then asked to draw a face representing the poetic description.

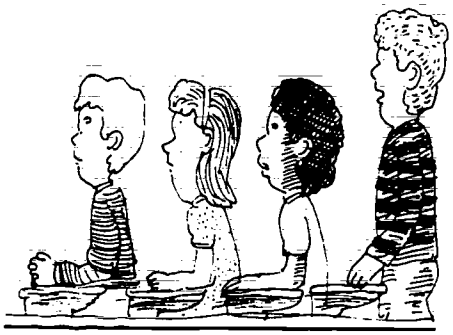
PEER COMPOSITION CRITIQUES

When students finish writing an assigned composition, they read their work to student partners. Partners orally critique the compositions, and the authors revise and rewrite them in response to these evaluations. Pupils then exchange roles. This activity motivates students to assist each other in written and oral modes of communication.

PEER TEACHING

Students who have learned grammatical rules which other pupils are still trying to master serve as peer teachers. The teacher gives instructions and a checklist of basic grammatical rules to these peer teachers. Peer teaching gives slower learners more individual attention and encourages a cooperative approach to education. The tutor/learner interaction also provides an opportunity for students to practice and improve speaking and listening skills.

PERSON OF THE DAY



This exercise familiarizes students with each other's background and interests while developing their capacity for questioning. Every student's name is written on a card and placed in a box. Each day, the teacher draws a name-card to select the "Person of the Day." Following selection, the student responds to ten minutes of questioning from the class. The student is not required to answer all questions, and is encouraged not to answer questions already asked. If a student repeats a question asked earlier, the "Person of the Day" responds, "That's already been asked." The teacher asks if anyone remembers the previous answer, and some students provide the correct response. Through this process, the class learns to listen critically and remember answers.

REPORT OF THE DAY

Students in this science class report the local weather on a regular rotating schedule. They use maps and other audio-visual aids in conjunction with their reports. Another regular exercise is a "how to do it" report. Students write short reports describing the operation of a machine, the use of an object, or the performance of a skill. The reporter responds to questions from students about the process described.

In another school, a teacher approaches the REPORT OF THE DAY in this way:

On a rotating basis, each student reports a daily news event to the class. The teacher comments on the speaker's content and delivery, and encourages listener courtesy. The exercise concludes with questions and additional comments about the event from other students.

SELF-EVALUATION

Students in small reading groups take turns presenting oral interpretations of assigned passages. Their performances are tape-recorded, with each student preparing a written and oral evaluation of his or her performance.

SHARE AND TELL

For approximately fifteen minutes at the beginning of each school day, students have an opportunity to show one of their possessions or relate a personal event. Pupils try to find interesting things to explain to their friends. The teacher also uses this activity to instill the concepts of courtesy and attention.

SHORT STORIES AND ORAL INTERPRETATION

Each student writes a short story that incorporates dialogue. The student reads the story aloud, concentrating on pace, projection, clarity, and characterization. The class critiques each story and performance immediately after presentation. The teacher controls, clarifies, and evaluates class feedback. These presentations are tape-recorded and played back to students when they reach junior high school, giving them a sense of their development.

SOUND LISTENING

The teacher instructs the class to be quiet and listen for environmental sounds in and around the classroom. The teacher solicits feedback and makes a list of the sounds heard. The class concludes with a discussion of ways to improve listening skills.

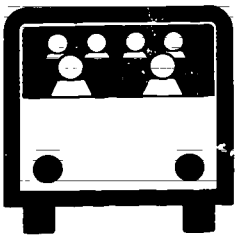
STORIES, PICTURES, QUESTIONS

Students draw pictures based on a story read by the teacher. When they finish, they describe their pictures to the class and answer questions from their peers.

STORYTELLING

Students tape-record their original compositions and play them back to the entire class. The teacher discusses the elements of successful storytelling and compelling oral presentation.

STUDENT-DIRECTED FIELD TRIPS



In conjunction with a field trip, the class divides into subgroups of ten students, each having a teacher or parent advisor. Each group decides a tour itinerary, such as historic Boston. Students guide themselves by map, note their experiences, and report them to the class at a later date. The adult advisor allows only one question from the group. The task results in an exploration of the process of decision-making, direction-finding, authority delegation, small group communication, and patterns of dependence and independence.

TELEPHONE

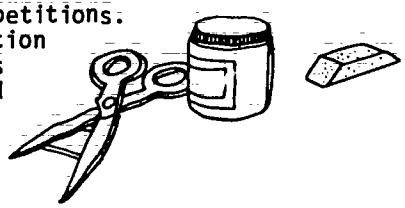
The teacher gives an oral message to one student who passes it along to another, etc. The original message is compared to that reported by the last student.

TOPIC FOCUS

Students choose a topic for a three minute oral presentation. The teacher and class evaluate the focus of each topic, especially in terms of the limited time constraint. Using class suggestions, students revise their subjects, and then present their reports to the class.

UNKNOWN PROJECTS

Using paper, scissors, and paste, students follow directions and construct an unidentified object. The teacher gives each direction twice with no additional repetitions. Students may seek confirmation from each other if they miss a direction or fail to understand one. When construction is completed, students compare their work to the teacher's model to see where they followed directions correctly or incorrectly. The class concludes with descriptions of the constructed object and a discussion of what it might be. On this observation, the objects were "moon flowers".



FINDING THE TIME TO ENCOURAGE INTERACTION

The following are excerpts from a conversation with an elementary teacher concerning the implementation of speaking and listening activities in the classroom.

"The biggest challenges I find are in promoting as much speaking as possible, using speech as a learning technique, and getting kids to repeat stories and listen for detail," the teacher said. "A basic thing now is getting the kids to follow directions, complete a task, give information, and listen when someone else is giving it. We have the children give an assignment, direct a game, (or) give an art lesson. I try to take each lesson and have the children be the director(s) of that lesson. Listening and speech become a method of doing things."

"Earlier this year, we had kids make puppets of themselves, and then tell about themselves, and something about someone in the group. We've done some role playing of feelings with the puppets and with Science Reading Associates' stories. We tried to give kids different words to express their feelings. We have also done a telephone company unit on how to give information in emergency situations."

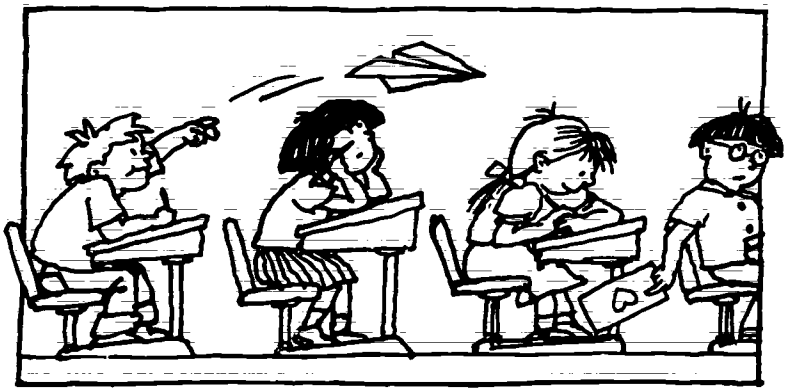
The biggest problem this teacher faces is a lack of time. She likes to stop the lesson when an interesting topic comes up, "but," she said, "you have a certain content that you have to push through. I was listening to a lecture the other day about how alcoholics need acceptance and encouragement, and thinking that those are the same needs everyone has, not just the alcoholic. And I'd like to talk about that. The kids know about that."

"Time is so critical, because it takes more time to teach this way. It's easier to follow a book, but taking a concept and turning it around so that the kids are speaking and listening is harder. You really have to analyze how to get these skills into the curriculum, to have the kids do it. You begin to learn that if you take time to develop these skills in turn-taking and listening, then you save a lot of frustration later. I think I must say a hundred million times a day, "Any questions? Any questions?"

"Peer-tutoring can sometimes get a concept across to students better than we can. I have no hangups about one child doing an assignment with another. One year, whenever there was a problem on the playground, a bunch of kids would come back and talk it out, discussing alternatives and how they could act differently. We have talked about handling different situations. Those kids could run themselves. They were fantastic."

"We have discussed roles people take in a group and what is positive and what is negative leadership. We have talked about what is participation and what is not. This (technique) was especially useful for a very bossy, critical little girl. Without naming her, the other kids could talk about this kind of behavior, and this kid could find out how the others felt. We would ask how they felt about these kinds of leaders, and they would say 'They don't listen,' or 'They didn't like my ideas.' "

"We will have a discussion about being good listeners and I'll ask, 'What good things did you see? What good styles of listening are going on?' We will talk about nonverbal body language and I'll say, 'Your body's telling me you're not listening,' and they know. They will say, 'She didn't make good eye contact.' They love that idea."



READING GROUPS AND RAINY DAY RECESSES

Two teachers and one student teacher supervise this class. At the beginning of the class, one teacher explains a grammar lesson that students are to complete on their own. She encourages the children to listen by not repeating her directions. Instead, she lets the children ask each other when they do not understand or remember a direction. She asks students to stand and speak up when called upon, reminds them to take turns and not blurt out their answers.

The teacher makes a special effort to draw out shy students. She calls upon the quiet children and asks the more talkative pupils to give the shy ones a chance. During the course of the morning, the teacher finds ways to recognize each child at least once. For example, she uses some of the children to illustrate her lesson. "Cheryl likes to eat pizza," she wrote on the board. "What else do you like to eat, Cheryl?" she continued. This skillful questioning encourages a timid child to add, "Hamburgers and Twinkies."

After a ten minute break, the teacher divides part of the students into three reading groups. The remaining children work on their mathematics, reading, and grammar assignments at their desks.

The "Easy Rider" reading group works on a lesson identifying nouns, verbs, and direct objects with the student teacher. Analyzing sentences from the children's own experiences, rather than examples from the text, might also prove a promising practice.

The supervising teacher discusses the story of Pinocchio with the "Dallas Cowboys." They begin at the dramatic moment when the puppet comes to life and impudently snatches the wig from Gioppetto's head. Two children read with great enthusiasm and dramatic feeling, but others hang on their words. The next day's lesson includes making puppets and acting out several scenes with the students. An alternative idea would be to have the children act out parts themselves.

Since it is raining, half the class spends recess in the gymnasium. The teacher conducts an indoor activity for the remaining youngsters. She draws a map of the school on the chalk board, labels various rooms and hallways, and discusses ways to give directions. The group divides into six smaller groups of four, and receives directions to a place in the building where half of a red paper card, cut in a jigsaw pattern, is hidden.

The children listen carefully to the directions, ask clarifying questions, then repeat the directions. In great excitement, and with animated support from the others, the first group sets off. The second group follows in turn. By the time the teacher directs the third group, the first returns, triumphantly holding a card, and bursting to know if it matches the other half. The

fifth group, however, runs into a problem. Their card has been removed. They return flushed and frustrated, demanding to know which of the other students had taken it. The teacher asks them to retrace their route, and accepts their story when she is satisfied they followed the directions.

This activity has several variations. Teachers could have one group of students give directions to another group. An older class could plan a treasure hunt and give directions to a younger class. Children could be directed to different check points where they would receive directions leading them to the next check point. In this instance, children could work in teams to make up clues for the others.

These rainy day activities enable a teacher to offer enjoyment along with opportunities for students to practice listening skills.

As the day ends, the teacher invites students who have finished their work to join her to listen to a story. One by one, the pupils draw up chairs or sit on the rug. They listen attentively as she reads.

Junior High School

Practices

Although these practices occur in junior high school settings, we encourage elementary and senior high school teachers to consider adapting these exercises to their particular class situations.

AURAL ENVIRONMENTS

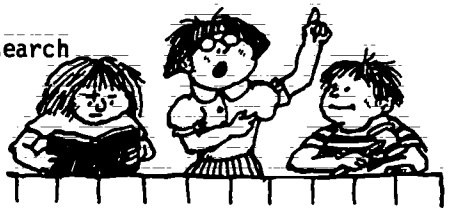
Using a recording entitled *Dawn at New Hope, Pennsylvania,* students listen to the environmental sounds of this community and try to translate the sounds into a written description of the setting. Similarly, an exercise entitled *Tintinabulation* uses a recording of synthetic bell tones played at different speeds. The pitch, rhythm, and repetition of the bells serve as creative stimuli to students who translate their impressions into prose or poetic descriptions of mood or situations. These and other sound exercises show students how sensitive listening can help improve their writing skills.

CONFLICT IMPROVISATIONS

Students outline conflict situations, drawing in large part upon their own experiences. The class listens to a description of each situation, then each pupil assumes a role in each conflict. Students improvise dialogue and action until the conflict reaches a resolution or an impasse. The exercise increases each student's range of emotional expression.

DEBATE UNIT

Students negotiate a range of topics that they would like to research and debate. Current issues include such topics as nuclear power, smoking bans, and gas rationing. From a narrowed list, students choose the topic and side they wish to debate. Debates follow a standard format, and the class votes on the winning debaters.



DRAMATIC REVIEWS

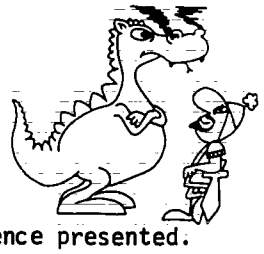
Students write and perform their one act plays. Each performance is recorded and played back to the students. The "actors" then write a critical review of their dramatic deliveries, evaluating characterization, emotion, inflection, projection, enunciation, pace, and vocal quality. A class discussion and evaluation follows the completion of these written reviews.

DRAMATIZING REPORTS

In a social studies class, students research and present short, oral reports on America's presidents. The teacher encourages the use of audio-visual aids. One student presents a report on President McKinley, dressed in a period coat and top hat. Unbeknownst to the teacher or class, he also arranges for his own assassination, complete with anarchist, squirt gun, and ketchup. His report concludes dramatically.

GROUP STUDY SESSIONS

This activity helps students focus in detail on subject matter while perfecting their discussion abilities. The class divides into small groups. Each group is responsible for a subsection of a textbook or literature unit. As a group, students develop a content outline of their subject matter, a study guide, and comprehension questions to be given to the class at the end of the unit.



HEROIC CHARACTERS

Following a unit on the hero in literature, each student chooses the character she/he considers the most heroic. The student prepares and delivers a nominating speech for his or her character, justifying the selection with references to class readings. At the conclusion of the nominating speeches, the class votes for the most heroic character, based on the strength of evidence presented.

HISTORICAL SIMULATION

These students receive "role cards" specifying the biographical and demographic backgrounds of different character types. Using parliamentary procedure, the students play their roles and simulate the Constitutional Convention.

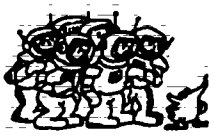
LIFE EXPERIENCES

As an introductory exercise to a biography unit, students interview an adult about "what it was like when you were a kid." The teacher lists and describes historical events such as The Depression, World War II, and Sputnik, that would likely elicit responses from parents or grandparents. The class discusses productive interviewing techniques, and each student brainstorms questions and issues to pursue with his or her subject. Key questions are chosen with the teacher's help, and the student writes down expected answers. Students then interview their subjects, taking notes or using a tape recorder. Students orally report their interview results to the class, highlighting the differences between their predicted and actual responses.

LISTENING LISTS

Students find the quietest spot in their houses and catalogue all the sounds they hear during a fifteen minute time span. Based on this limited aural stimulus, students relate the experience to the concept of different levels of perceptual awareness. They answer questions such as, "How often are you aware of all the sounds you listed?" "What restricts your awareness?" Students also discuss the sounds they heard in different locations and at different times of the day, and ways of improving their listening abilities.

MIXED MEDIA



Each student writes a book report on a science fiction novel she/he has read. They then find or create appropriate visual or aural material to enhance the oral presentation of their reports. Overhead projections, slides, drawings, collages, records, and tapes complement the mood and content of the text as it is delivered in class.

MUSIC AS MESSAGE

Music is used to stimulate creative writing. Students listen to *The Grand Canyon Suite* or the *Scottish Fantasia* and take notes on the images and events the music evokes in their imaginations. After a second listening, they write story lines to follow the music. The stories are then presented orally with the music played as a background to the text.

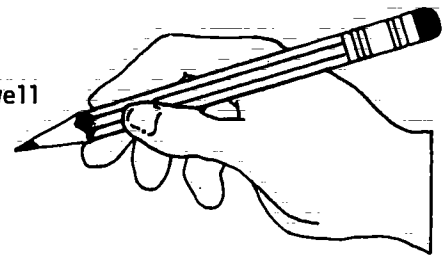
PEER ATTENTION

In this activity, students discuss topics with a minimum of teacher guidance. The teacher sits outside the discussion circle to encourage pupils to talk to each other, instead of addressing her as an authority figure. To ensure sensitive listening and orderly interaction, students must summarize the statement made by the previous speaker, before making their own. Once the previous speaker confirms or corrects the accuracy of the summary, the next student may state his or her point of view. Students also clarify ideas and determine lines of conflict and agreement in the discussion.

POETIC INTERPRETATION

The teacher designs an activity sheet for each poem studied in class. The sheet helps students identify the mood, speaker, and figurative devices of the poem. After completing this activity sheet, each student reads the poem aloud attempting to capture the correct emotion and expression.

RERUNS

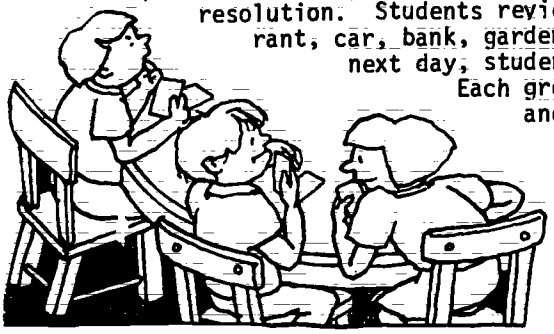


Students keep a television viewing log, noting lines that were well delivered by actors. In class, students describe the context of each line, and attempt to reproduce the actor's inflection, gesture, and characterization. The teacher capitalizes on a common activity (television viewing) to improve the listening and presentation abilities of the class.

SENIOR CITIZEN INTERVIEWS

In conjunction with a unit on local history, a social studies class visits senior citizens in a local community center. Every student asks at least one question and tries to remember as many responses as possible. Conversation turns to descriptions of the town in earlier days and the advantages and disadvantages of growing up in another era. When students return to class, they review the highlights of their interviews and try to describe the way town life used to be years ago.

SKIT WRITING AND PLOT SYNTHESIS



A lecture presents the key elements of drama: setting, protagonist, antagonist, conflict, and resolution. Students review a list of settings (the principal's office, a restaurant, car, bank, garden, canoe) and pick one to use in a dramatic skit. The next day, students choosing the same setting break into small groups. Each group synthesizes its plots into one, creates characters, and assigns roles. Students rehearse the improvised skits several times, embellishing, editing, switching roles, developing and finalizing dialogue, and blocking out action. The teacher circulates among groups, clarifying conflict and plot structure, helping students elaborate dialogue, and encouraging slow motion as an antedote to hyperactivity. On the third day, groups perform their skits. The class audience evaluates them.

SOUND MYSTERIES

Using commercial records of integrated sounds without dialogue, students identify the sounds and write a story line to go along with them. Another exercise uses recordings of ambiguous dialogue that can only be clarified by careful attention to aural context clues. Exercises like these, as one teacher put it, help the "talkers who need listening skills."

SPEAKING AND LISTENING EVALUATIONS

The teacher explains the elements of successful oral presentations: personal involvement, topic interest, preparation, knowledge, and delivery. She emphasizes the interactive communication process between a speaker and listeners, including the aspects of critical listening and courtesy. As oral reports are presented, students in the audience complete evaluation check sheets. The teacher, however, uses a dual evaluation procedure. She grades the speaker and grades each audience check sheet according to how detailed and sensitive each listener has been in evaluating the speaker. Feedback is expected to be specific and deals with both the content and presentation of the oral report. Students must demonstrate that they are both effective speakers and active listeners.

SPEECH CONTESTS

Each student selects and edits (if necessary) a five-minute selection of prose, poetry, or drama to present in class. The students and teacher critique the performance. The exercise prepares junior high school students for participation in an annual speech contest held in conjunction with the senior high school.

STRUCTURED BOOK REPORTS

As part of a literary unit on Mark Twain, each student reads a novel, biography, or history concerning the writer and period. Students prepare five-minute oral summaries of their books, creating audio visual aids when appropriate. One student serves as a chairperson who introduces each speaker. At the end of each report, the presenter responds to questions. The content, organization, and delivery serve as the basis for evaluation.

TEXT ANALYSIS

After reading The Yearling, students explore figurative language by discussing the uses of personification. There is almost total participation in the discussion as students cite examples from the text. The students and teacher interact by asking speakers to clarify their points or project their voices. One student asks a key question, "How does an author come up with a metaphor?" The students respond in open discussion, drawing primarily on their experiences as young writers.

UNDIRECTED SPEECH ACTIVITIES--COMPLEMENTARY EXPERIENCES

Some teachers apologize for the fact that there is little evidence of listening activities occurring during their classes. However, undirected activities often allow for rich communication experiences. The following narratives document some examples observed by the authors.

One teacher schedules open class sessions twice a month. She "borrows" a student for a twenty-minute private conference about his or her work while the remaining students read, visit the library, or meet in small groups ostensibly to discuss course topics and themes. Most of the students form groups of four or five, and discussions begin loudly with references to hairdos and clothing styles. The teacher interrupts, asking for a justification of the discussions she overhears. One student replies, "We're practicing our vocabulary skills." "Are you practicing academic skills or social skills?" the teacher retorts. "Both," replied another student. "Then keep the volume down," the teacher concludes.

The students continue their discussions. The observer notes a sizeable range of topics, a large amount of participation, and a variety of language styles. When the teacher learns this, she is pleased. She does not pursue the same kinds of topics and discussion in directed class activities because she is not sure students would talk about them in a more formal communication setting. But in this informal atmosphere, students discuss topics of interest to them, participate freely, and employ different language styles.

While these students participate in informal group discussions, the teacher converses with a reticent student who is not doing well in school. She tells him that she likes his writing and thinks he has insight about people. He replies, "I want to become a psychologist. But I didn't know I could write until you told me."

Private discussions between teachers and students can prove very valuable.

An example of using free discussions as a student reward is evidenced in comparing two English classes. The directed portion of both classes ends five minutes before the bell. In one class, the teacher attempts to fill this time with questions about the material just covered. The students do not respond. Instead, they pack up their books and prepare for an early exit. In the other class, the teacher concludes the activity with, "Thank you for your attention." This signals the students that the remaining time is their own. They immediately start talking among themselves and are late leaving the room after the bell rings.

A third example occurs in a school where a number of lower ability students congregate in one teacher's room for a period each day. The instructor teaches retail merchandising, insurance and personal finance but does not see himself using speaking or listening experiences at all. In fact, he comments, "There's very little interaction in my classes."

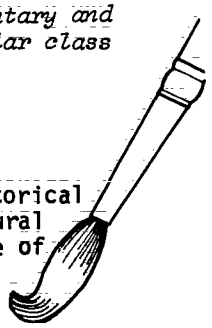
Yet, this teacher has a talent for involving students in discussion. During his free period, he stays in his classroom and allows students to join him for informal talk sessions. When asked about this practice, he explains, "Kids are curious about adults. They need contact; they want to talk and share their experiences. This is especially true of underachievers. Everybody listens to "A" students, but nobody listens to"D" students. I like to talk also. That's why it would be a disaster for me to supervise a study hall. The kids who join me wouldn't be using their assigned study hall profitably anyway. The principal gives tacit approval to our sessions. I never thought of those sessions as teaching before. They really aren't classes, you know. But in these sessions, students learn the rules of communication and the necessity of respect. The informality and lack of restriction in this setting promotes communciation. If I institutionalized or advertised my free period as a course in group discussion, my kids probably wouldn't show up. I had never realized how important our sessions were until you mentioned them."

These experiences are largely undirected, unstructured, and student initiated. Evidently, in the minds of these teachers, the informality of classroom interaction did not qualify as a "legitimate" speaking and listening activity. However, the activities described here indicate that undirected opportunities to communicate orally can and do complement more structured curricula and activities.

Senior High School

Practices

Although these practices occur in senior high school settings, we encourage elementary and junior high school teachers to consider adapting these exercises to their particular class situations.



ART AS HISTORY

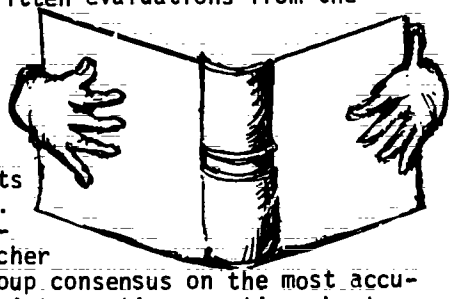
Students discuss what can be learned about particular subcultures in specific historical periods from paintings, photographs, music and song lyrics. They increase their aural and visual sensitivity, and learn to look for historical evidence in a wider range of contexts.

CHARADES

To encourage confident use of physical expression, this class plays charades. The students divide into two teams. Each team creates a series of phrases based on the titles of plays, films, television shows, songs, or books. Teams exchange phrases, and each student chooses one. Students pantomime the phrase for their team, which must guess the answer within three minutes. After adding accumulated guessing times, the fastest team wins.

COMMERCIAL ANALYSIS

Students prepare a five-minute oral critique of a magazine advertisement. In particular, they analyze form, denotation and connotation of the advertisement, and its personal appeal or lack of it. Students describe the "be plus" and "be negative" beliefs and values in the commercials. They refer to symbols, magic claims, visual emphasis, composition, and the psychology of color. Products analyzed include: ice cream, cars, deodorant, cameras, and mineral water. At the conclusion of each presentation, the class asks questions or adds interpretive comments about the advertisements. In the following class, each speaker receives written evaluations from the teacher and four students.



CRITICAL READING

This teacher uses a five step approach to clarify a homework reading assignment and stimulate class discussion. First, students complete a vocabulary worksheet in conjunction with their reading. The teacher follows this with a discussion of the etymology of selected words and the application of varying definitions. The teacher then asks key questions about the plot line and works toward a group consensus on the most accurate responses. Students prepare a written response to a central interpretive question about the author's intent in characterization. The class debates the question in open discussion. Finally, the teacher selects descriptive phrases and lines of dialogue and asks students how the author or characters would deliver the lines orally. After describing possible approaches to delivery, students perform dramatic readings of the selected passages while the teacher critiques them and offers suggestions for interpretation and presentation.

DESCRIPTIONS

Students increase their ability to verbally describe objects, processes, and locations through the following exercises:

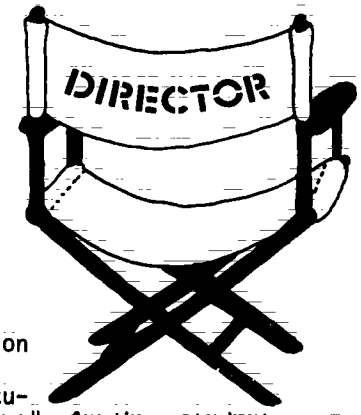
In "Form Descriptions," each student describes an irregular object or design to an unseen partner. Without asking questions, the partner draws the form as it is described. When completed, they compare the drawing to the original, discussing inaccurate representations in terms of problems in describing or receiving messages.

"Airport" places a "traffic controller" in the situation of trying to orally direct his/her blindfolded pilot partner through an obstacle course without causing a crash.

Students give directions to a "Mystery Place" until the class correctly identifies it.

"Definitions" entails describing a common procedure, such as putting on a shirt, or tying a shoe. Students give only verbal descriptions and definitions; no object labels may be identified.

DRAMATIC INTERPRETATION AND APPLICATION



The teacher selects student volunteers to perform oral interpretations of *The Subject Was Roses*. Sections of the play are assigned as homework each day. At the beginning of the following class, the teacher asks for a brief summary of the action and motivation of each character. The actors then read the scene. If an actor lacks credibility in performance, the teacher stops the scene, asks the student how she/he feels as the character, and requests a content analysis of the lines from the rest of the class. The actors then repeat the scene.

At the conclusion of the reading, students relate the dialogue and action of the scene to the class theme under study, "The Meaning of Truth." Students conduct an open discussion, taking turns on their own. One student summarizes the dramatic conflict, "The characters were living a lie." Another student concludes, "Truth is not lying to yourself." The class adds this maxim to a list of student-generated statements about the meaning of truth.

FILM ANALYSIS

After viewing *All Quiet on the Western Front*, students determine the central message of the film and document their conclusions with five examples. The class compares individual conclusions and evidence in an open discussion.

GRADUATE REPORTS

College students return to their high school to lecture on the academic expectations and topic focuses of college level courses. They answer questions from high school students and encourage their academic achievement.

HISTORICAL SIMULATION

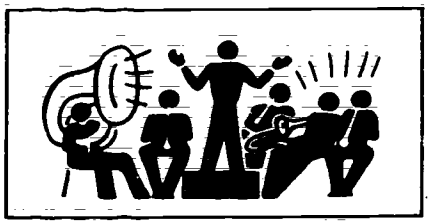
The class divides into five groups. Two groups represent political parties trying to convince three special interest groups to vote for their presidential candidate. The roles and situations lead the groups to simulate the United States election of 1932.

HISTORY OF A HOUSE

Having chosen a house or building constructed before 1900, students interview present and past owners, local personages, and others who might assist in constructing the history of the house. Deed searches, drawings, photographs, and architectural evidence help verify the house's construction date. The student composes research and interview results and presents an oral summary to the class. While the subject matter changes, the inquiry process remains the same. This type of activity demands a high degree of social confidence and interactive ability in speaking and listening.

HISTORY OF JAZZ

The teacher briefly summarizes the evolution of bebop in the history of jazz. Students are asked to describe the distinctive elements of bebop on their readings and auditions of selected recordings. The class compiles a structural analysis of the genre. The teacher then describes the nature of the audience to which bebop appealed, and the social and economic conditions that influenced the musicians. Several representative pieces are played in class. Students move or drum along with the music; some mime playing solo instruments. To encourage sensitive listening, the teacher gives a running commentary and analysis while the music plays. In general, the course enables students to analyze the structure of popular music (grammar), and appreciate its historical impact (the rhetoric of music.) The course parallels in many ways some content areas in English and social studies.



INTRODUCTIONS

As an introductory exercise, students pair up with someone they do not know and use a standard interview format to discover information about each other's family, interests, and ambitions. Students then introduce their partners to the class, using a humorous context if desired (i.e. Miss America, our next President.)

ISSUES SEMINAR

Each student researches a social issue such as capital punishment, the Equal Rights Amendment, and DNA, and invites a speaker to address the class on their chosen issue. The host student interviews the speaker, writes an introduction, and chairs the class session. The student also interviews a person with an opposing viewpoint. This exercise prepares students to debate both sides of their issue in a future class discussion.

JOURNALS

At least once a week, students make a journal entry in response to a teacher's "prompt" question about interpersonal communication. Examples include: "Describe three of your interpersonal relations," "Write about a time you wish you had listened, but you didn't," and "Write about a time you communicated nonverbally with a good friend and it was better than if you had said something." Advanced students complete their journal entries as homework. Basic level students complete their writing in class with teacher assistance. Students receive grades based upon their writing skills, not the content of their journals. However, the teacher poses "prompt" questions which are provocative enough to stimulate active class discussion when the written responses have been completed.

MEDIA PROGRAMS AND GROUP DISCUSSION

Following a slide tape presentation entitled *Man's Search for Identity* which deals with central issues concerning coming of age, students engage in an open discussion about the differences, advantages and disadvantages of childhood and adult life. Comments focus on the oppressive conditions of childhood and the unwanted responsibilities of adulthood. The teacher concludes the discussion by asking, "Would you prefer to return to childhood?" "No," replies one student. "They treat you like a little jerk."

MUSIC AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

This introductory course demonstrates how music, English, and social studies frequently have a mutual emphasis on speaking (performing) and listening skills. The course covers fundamental music theory and history. Students explore polyrhythms, coordinate group performance in percussion ensembles, and develop cross-cultural appreciation by listening to musical selections from throughout the world. They also sensitize their listening skills through exercises in melodic dictation. Improvisation exercises encourage self-expression. The course is ungrouped and designed for students with or without a musical background.

NEGOTIATED AGENDA

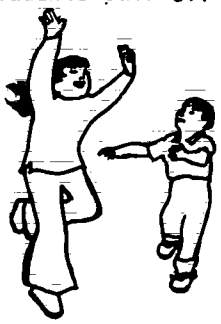
This history teacher begins the period by asking, "Do you have anything of note to say?" Several students respond, "Yes, let's talk about the rescue mission to Iran." The teacher replies, "You may have the last fifteen minutes of class to discuss that subject if you pay attention and contribute to my lecture." The contract agreed to, one student reviews the previous day's lecture. Several others summarize the reading assignment. Then the teacher presents the lecture, concluding with a preview of upcoming issues of future classes.

To encourage active listening, the teacher records substantive and humorous student comments in a class "Book of Wisdom." One student acts as secretary, noting quotations as directed by the teacher. For example, one student ends a lengthy and competent summary of the text assignment with the disclaimer, "I don't really know what I'm talking about." "Take that down!" exclaims the teacher in the midst of laughter. In response to a teacher's question, an unprepared student replies, "What do you want me to tell you?" This ruse also enters the "Book of Wisdom." Another student responds to a categorical statement, "How never is 'never'?" That question is recorded for posterity.

The lecture concludes and the students begin a free discussion of the wisdom of military intervention in Iran.

NONVERBAL EPISODE

Students pair off and create a brief dramatic episode that does not incorporate dialogue. They use corners of the classroom and the hall to conduct their fifteen minute rehearsals. Having determined setting, situation, character, and dramatic structure, students present their work in front of the class. Episodes include: exam-cheating, note-passing, safecracking, communicating through soundproof windows, and sign language across a busy intersection. The teacher leads brief critiques.



ON THE ROAD REPORTS

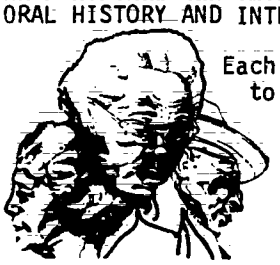
This activity is recommended for small groups. Prior to a field trip to Boston's Chinatown, each student in a social studies seminar researches a cultural or historical aspect of China. Students report on their topic while riding into and returning from Boston. Traffic noise requires speaker projection, and audience interaction is frequent in the intimate setting of the school van. Students evaluate each report for content and presentation. Interest is high, content immediately applicable to the field trip, and travel time passes easily and quickly.

OPINION SPEECH

The teacher asks a reticent student to participate in an opinion sharing exercise. The student replies that he is not prepared. The teacher explains that an opinion needs no preparation and asks what "bugs" him. The student replies that school bugs him: classes are too long, homework difficult, and teachers boring. The teacher asks for a definition of boring. The student responds, "Boring is boring." The teacher replies that different people have different definitions of shared terms. What is boring to a student may not be boring to a teacher, and vice versa. The student refuses to define his criteria for boredom. The teacher pursues with questions. The student admits that he can be bored outside school, even at a party. He describes how he feels. He feels asleep in school. He wakes up when he goes home. He wants the freedom to do what he wants.

The teacher thanks the student for his effort and opens the discussion to the entire class. Regardless of his remarks and initial reticence, the student fulfills the assignment by participating in the discussion.

ORAL HISTORY AND INTERVIEWS



Each student interviews someone over fifty years old and reports their discussion to the class. Advanced students tape-record interviews with World War II veterans. Interviews are condensed and edited for an oral presentation.

Another assignment requires students to interview local politicians and town administrators, and attend town meetings. Through class discussions based on these interviews, students learn about the operation of town government.

PANTOMIME

Students choose a pantomime activity from a hat. They may make another selection if they have never performed the activity described. Since the purpose of the activity is to overcome stage-fright, rather than perfect performance, pantomimes are presented on stage. A follow-up activity requires students to contextualize and pantomime or develop a nonverbal story line that will make it more interesting.

PHILOSOPHICAL DEBATE

In an advanced philosophy class, the teacher reads an article about a controversial decision made by a public figure. In this case, the resignation of Secretary of State Cyrus Vance is considered. The question for debate, which corresponds with an assigned textbook unit, asks whether Vance exercised "free will" at the moment of his resignation. The entire period is spent in discussion which includes tangent considerations of responsibility, principles, cause and effect, and punishment. Students negotiate turn-taking and seek clarification with minimal teacher involvement. Some raise their hands and the teacher recognizes them, but many enter the discussion on their own. Sample student comments indicate the extent to which students are sensitive to the communication process:

"Excuse me, I'm not finished yet."

"I have a question for Tom."

"John's been waiting to talk."

While listening is active and courteous, the teacher also tolerates whispered discussion between students not holding the floor.

PLATFORM SPEECHES

Students participate in exercises dealing with biographical presentations, media reviews, demonstrations, and personal opinions. They then research a topic of their choice, develop an outline, and present an extemporaneous platform speech to entertain, inform, or persuade. Topics include extrasensory perception, Navahos, lasers, ghosts, Eskimos, capital punishment, death, music and sports among others. At the end of the presentation, the class polls its response to the speech. Speakers are evaluated on their outlines and presentation skills.

POLITICAL PARTICIPATION

As an extra credit exercise, students work on a political campaign. They learn verbal and listening skills as they poll, interview, and solicit voter support over the telephone. They report their experiences to the class and answer questions posed by the teacher and class.

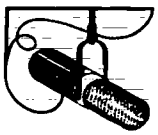
PRODUCT PROMOTION

Each student chooses a product to promote in a five-minute demonstration lecture to the class. Products include popcorn, riding boots, sunglasses, cars and punk rock records. The promotions follow this structure: a teaser or interest-arouser, product description, product virtues, comparison to inferior products, and personal endorsement. Pictures, packages, props, and tape recordings complement the promotions. Each student critiques at least one speaker, using an evaluation form that includes the following headings: inventive introduction, use of symbols or "magic claims", image/personality of product and speaker, product comparison, conclusion, and vocal and physical delivery. No class time is spent in oral evaluation. The speaker receives the written student evaluations, along with a more detailed teacher evaluation.

QUARTER PROJECTS

Each student researches and organizes an oral presentation at the end of each quarter. Following their presentation, each student must also stimulate and manage a group discussion. In consultation with the teacher, the student develops five discussion questions. This exercise allows students to pursue social studies topics of particular interest to them. But more importantly, the oral presentation kindles the interest of the entire class.

RADIO ADVERTISEMENT



Students in a business skills course write and produce their own radio commercials without teacher assistance. They receive independent production time during several class periods to tape record their advertisements. These recorded commercials are played for class evaluation. Criteria for evaluation include pronunciation, intonation, enunciation, grammar, projection, timing, and persuasive appeal.

SELF-EVALUATION

In a psychology class, each student orally describes his or her work (a paper, test, or laboratory experiment,) then assigns and justifies a grade for their work in the presence of the teacher. The teacher responds, confirming or disagreeing with the student's self-evaluation.

SMALL GROUP/LARGE GROUP DISCUSSIONS

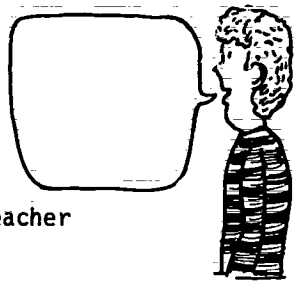
A social studies class divides into five groups. Each group establishes a chairperson on a rotating week-by-week basis. This results in each student taking a leadership role several times throughout the year. After researching and reading about the aborted rescue mission in Iran, these groups meet to discuss the ramifications of this action. For a half-hour, students freely exchange information and opinions, with the "chairs" noting ideas as they arise. During the last five minutes, groups synthesize their ideas and summarize their main points. A discussion of the small groups' conclusions, differences and similarities, takes place once the class reconvenes as a large group.

SMALL GROUP TEST DESIGN

Working from notes and textbooks, small groups of students discuss and design appropriate essay questions for their own final examination. They share their questions, which serve as study guides, with the class. From this pool of questions, the teacher selects a representative few and composes the final essay examination. The exercise provides subject review and practice in group communication.

STUDENT TEACHING

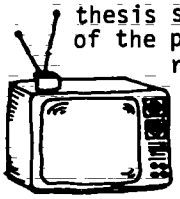
Each student prepares a twenty-minute extemporaneous lecture on several American authors included in a unit on "The Rise of National Literature." The lecturer draws attention to major points while the class takes notes. Students interrupt to ask questions; banter and punning are frequent. For example, the speaker states, "William Cullen Bryant was admitted to the bar in 1815." A member of the audience remarks, "W.C.B. was an alcoholic." The speaker maintains eye contact and adapts the pace of delivery to the class's note-taking speed. The speaker summarizes the impact upon American literature and importance of each author. At the conclusion of the lecture, the class takes five minutes to review notes and ask final questions. The student teacher then administers a ten question open book identification quiz, collects the answers, and reviews the correct answers for the class. The student corrects the quizzes and reports the grades to the teacher. The teacher evaluates the student lecturer on content, organization, and presentational skills. Students who perform poorly on their quiz work with the teacher to improve listening and note-taking skills.



SYLLABUS NEGOTIATION

In an alternative energies science class, the available reading material for the class is wide and eclectic. The teacher approaches the textbooks and articles as a potpourri from which the students as a group choose the topics. The teacher asks the students to break into small groups, consult their texts, and decide on the next subject they want to cover. After a brief period of time, the teacher calls the group back together. After hearing student choices and rationales, the teacher negotiates a consensus on the subject of nuclear energy. Students read positions both pro and con and prepare themselves to defend either position in future class discussions.

TELEVISION ADDICTION

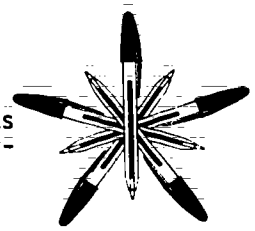


Based on personal experience and a short article read in class, students support or refute a thesis statement made by the teacher. One thesis is, "People watch television not because of the programs, but because they are addicted to television." Students clarify their reading of the article using a ten question worksheet. They write their responses with reluctance, but welcome the oral debate that follows. At the basic and standard levels of achievement, writing is typically seen as a chore. Teachers frequently use concluding discussions to reward writing attempts.

WHAT'S NEW?

In an early morning retail management class, the teacher starts the hour by asking "What's new?" Students volunteer items dealing with business and local news. However, the teacher also selects an article or item from the *Wall Street Journal* as a backup in case students have little to volunteer. The teacher plays the role of naive questioner in these ten minute exercises which serve to wake up and involve the students. After this introduction, the teacher begins the lesson, applying "what's new" to the course content whenever possible.

WRITING CONFERENCES



Each student describes a proposed paper. The teacher makes notes on content as the student speaks, and collaboratively they determine the appropriate organization of the paper. The student uses the notes and discussion as the foundation for the final written version.

Throughout the Day

The following observations demonstrate how integrating curriculum into extra-curricular activities can motivate high school students to learn listening and speaking skills.

COLLABORATIVE EFFORTS IN COMMUNICATION

About two-thirds of the student population of City High School is Black or Puerto Rican. Not all of the five hundred students meet in the main building at the same time. Some attend classes in a small theatre in a nearby church; some have part-time jobs.

City High School makes a special effort to teach communication skills. Its speech, media, and theatre courses come under the jurisdiction of the English department. Through a collaborative partnership with the speech/theatre department of a nearby liberal arts college, City High School teachers restructure their language arts program to include more theory, professional expertise, and support materials.

Each year, the high school faculty chooses consultants from the college's faculty based on the classes they plan to offer. "We need to communicate our needs and plan jointly from the beginning," says one teacher on the planning committee. "It's very easy to get into the situation where the high school dictates a very narrow program and limits itself to what it can offer, or where the college dictates a program to fit its needs. So we have to keep up the communication beyond the initial planning.

Speech therapists from the college test the high school students during the first semester to identify gross speech defects. They test the entire freshman class for communication apprehension. The apprehensive students enroll in a behavior modification program that teaches them how to relax in stressful situations. After this program, students are ready to enter the second semester of the high school's "Personal Communication" course.

During their freshman year, City High School students take a required writing workshop. In their sophomore year, students enroll in another writing course along with "Introduction to Literature" which incorporates some oral interpretation activities. However, in their junior and senior years, City High School students elect from a variety of courses which include topics such as: creative speech, public speaking, persuasion, theatre, journalism, media, and propaganda. Interpersonal communication is also offered on a two-year cycle within a business skills course that includes oral communication and interpersonal skills in business. A humanities course incorporates oral projects with ethnic studies, and a "Youth and the Law" course includes role-playing.

Collaboration with the college has enabled City High School to offer an audition workshop which teaches students how to assemble a portfolio and prepare an audition piece. Each student's work

is critiqued by a college professor. These exercises help students prepare resumes and anticipate job interviews. The college also participates in a series of career days where students discuss careers with people working in various professions.

City High School also draws parents into its expanded program by inviting them to hear a visiting professor present readings designed to stimulate an understanding of oral interpretation. Teachers encourage parents to talk and read more to their children. "Many of our kids don't come from a verbal background," says the interpersonal communication teacher. "It's much easier for them to write about something than to stand up and speak. We need to try to get them to act out too. They have very little oral reading background. They have up to grade three, but then they lose the skill. They're not used to it at all in high school. We need to teach them to listen for detail and main points, how to follow verbal directions, and how to empathize. There is a whole concept that students are not active listeners or speakers. They just let things wash over them. They're very passive. We need to teach them to be critical consumers of the media."

"I'd like to see more role-playing and interviews with elderly people who belong to different ethnic groups." The ethnic studies teacher also states, "We are working now with a professor on a unit in Oriental theatre." In the future, City High School teachers would like to organize a month-long "Ethnic Fair," a time to focus on poetry, plays, and oral interpretations of ethnic literature. An international dinner with ethnic music and dancing would be included.

A teacher of interpersonal communication comments, "I wish I could get students out of class and into the city council chambers. I'd like to take them to the state house to watch debates, or to court rooms, community agencies, city hall, the NAACP, and feminist organizations. I have taken the debate team to a forum on advertising and media manipulation, a panel on children and violence on television, and to a discussion on feminist issues. I'd like to do more."

One of the program planners summarizes a central goal of the collaborative efforts of the high school and college teachers: "The biggest problem we have is just trying to get the kids comfortable by building up their self-confidence. A lot of them find it hard to speak up and to listen."

PEER LEADERSHIP TRAINING

A locally developed and federally funded program, Peer Leadership Training, provides experience in human relations skills through extracurricular activity. Interested high school students applying for peer leader positions are interviewed and selected by a committee of teachers and staff members. Successful applicants receive training from a program coordinator, who is a parent volunteer.

The leadership group's primary task is to develop and present educational and entertaining programs on health education. While their target audience is composed of sixth and seventh graders, some programs are also presented for parent-teacher organizations and community groups.

The peer leader group uses lectures, dialogues, demonstrations, skits, and question and answer

periods to explore such topics as cigarette smoking or alcohol abuse. Student audiences respond with a high degree of interest, and peer leaders contribute a large amount of commitment.

One administrator supports redesigning Peer Leadership Training and offering it as a full-credit curricular activity associated with the science, health education, or social studies department. Since peer pressure often leads to substance abuse, peer education serves as a strong counteractant. The course format also provides more opportunities for peer leaders to use their shared experiences to gain greater self-awareness and communication expertise.

This sample of curricular, cocurricular, and extracurricular activities demonstrates that many of the problems in facilitating the development of human relations skills can be overcome by changing some aspects of traditional educational structures. The two programs described above deal with the demands of time, attention, trust, tolerance, and testing. Small groups (from six to sixteen students) learn to interact and solve problems together. They receive individual attention from teachers and aides, and work with subject matter which is closely connected to their personalities and communication abilities. Double class periods, after school time blocks, or entire weekends provide extended opportunities for interpersonal learning. Trust and community-building exercises facilitate peer support, while interaction with older and younger people clarifies differences in values and emphasizes the necessity for developing skills to resolve conflict. In addition, course grading, deemphasized by a pass/fail system, depends largely upon self-evaluation.

Across all activities, the most significant stimulus toward the development of communication competence is the amount of responsibility given to each student. Teachers interested in helping their students develop human relations skills might consider ways to increase student responsibility and incorporate activities designed to promote intrapersonal awareness, interpersonal sensitivity, relational maintenance, and conflict resolution.

A high school science department sponsors a Survival Living course. The course provides students with the necessary skills and self-confidence to cope in a situation where they must live with minimal food and shelter. General course goals include: helping students become aware of the psychological factors important in a survival situation; providing students with the self-confidence and skills necessary to participate in a solo three-day survival practicum; avoiding creation of a false sense of security among students finding themselves in a survival situation; and helping students discover the kinds of behavior which are helpful in group decision-making situations. Specific course topics include ecology, astronomy, orienteering, physical conditioning, shelter-building, edibles, food preparation, fire-building, survival kits, and first aid.

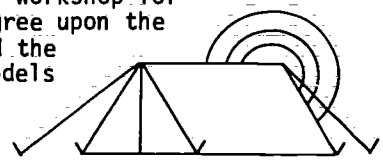
The course balances skill development, high stress activities, and community-building exercises. Major activities include group mastery of a challenging ropes course, a winter all-night mountain hike, a two-night group campout, and a three-day solo survival experience. Exercises before these activities and lesser events build confidence, cooperation, and trust among students. Group discussion and structured sharing experiences concentrate on what each student looks forward to and what each student worries about. A sense of community builds as students realize that they share many of the same expectations and fears.

Students keep personal journals, but write their learning experiences in class on large sheets of newsprint. These create a public bulletin board which serves as the basis for comparative group discussions. "Fishbowl" exercises with participants and observers, help analyze the content and process of group communication, and multiple small groups increase the opportunity for

participation and feedback among students. Class activities and campouts also help break down barriers between older and younger participants. Students often do not have the opportunity to really get to know one another in traditional settings, and many learn they have much to offer one another.

The Survival Living teacher receives assistance from four student aides who have previously completed the course. These students obtain credit for their involvement from the physical education department or the school's alternative learning program. Aides teach specific course units and supervise group activities. The teacher feels the aides gain a great deal of respect from class participants and establish a rapport that an adult cannot totally duplicate.

Graduates of Survival Living frequently join the school's Outing Club, which is largely student organized. The Survival Living teacher runs a three-day leadership workshop for a dozen core club members. As a group, they try to discover and agree upon the qualities of an ideal leader, the process of shared leadership, and the facilitation of member inclusion. They work on task maintenance models and conflict resolution strategies. The skills and self-knowledge derived from this workshop and other club activities are applied to major organizational tasks, including a seventy person canoe trip.



SECTION IV

ONE HUNDRED PLUS: TEACHING RESOURCES

One comment repeatedly heard from teachers and administrators is: "Help us! There's a dearth of materials on the teaching of speaking and listening." Not so. There are plenty of materials. The problem is knowing where to look. Materials can be found under a multitude of topical labels such as: speech, speech communication, listening, speaking and listening skills, oracy, talk, drama, oral language, language arts, English, communication, oral communication, and language development and learning.

The pages that follow list and annotate over one hundred sources for teaching speaking and listening skills in elementary and secondary schools. These resources are grouped under three headings: Elementary School Materials (grades K-6), Secondary School Materials (grades 7-12), and Elementary Through Secondary School Materials (K-12.) Elementary educators should consult the first and third categories; secondary educators, the second and third categories. Junior high teachers should review all three categories because some materials in the elementary category extend through grade 8 or 9.

Most of the sources are intended for teachers and curriculum directors but a few books, particularly at the secondary level, are student texts. The annotations indicate when the source is for students.

This bibliography is not exhaustive. However, the selections combine theory and practice with emphasis on concrete applications, and provide curriculum options for integrated, interdependent and independent teaching. Each source does not necessarily meet both criteria. Some are more theoretical; others are completely devoid of theory. But each category of sources contains both kinds of materials.

A number of the sources are Theory and Research Into Practice (TRIP) booklets. These are inexpensive and sharply focused materials based on concrete educational needs. The TRIP booklets cited here are published by the Educational Resources Information Center Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills (ERIC/RCS) in cooperation with the Speech Communication Association (SCA) and/or with the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE.) These booklets blend academic theory with tested classroom practices.

The last part of this section, AND EVEN MORE, refers readers to additional resources that provide continuing assistance to educators. These include additional annotated bibliographies, journals, and ongoing projects.

Elementary School Materials

Auer, J.J., and Jenkinson, E.B. On Teaching Speech in Elementary and Junior High Schools. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press, 1971.

This source contains eight essays which address a specific topic and present practical teaching advice. They focus on topics such as oral language, speech improvement, drama, oral reading, and formal discourse.

Brooks, W., Higginbotham, D., and Brooks, G. Children's Communication. Dubuque, IA: Gorsuch Scarisbrick, 1980.

This book is a contemporary, well written treatment of communication development and teaching. It moves sequentially through language organization and development, communication development, communication bases for reading, listening, creative drama, communication confidence, and contemporary influences on children's communication. It is both practical and theoretical.

Carlson, R.K. Literature for Children: Enrichment Ideas. Dubuque, IA: W.C. Brown, Company, 1970.

Although this book focuses on enhancing the literature program of the elementary school, many of the activities suggested emphasize oral communication. Practical examples demonstrate how oral communication enriches other areas of the curriculum.

Cazden, C.D. Child Language and Education. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1972.

This "foundation" source describes the acquisition and development of language in children. In addition to treating the acquisition of sound, syntax, and meaning, the author discusses environmental factors that affect language development, bilingualism and dialect differences, communication styles, and the role of language in cognition. The final chapter, "On Language Education," contains important implications for designing curricula and teaching language in the classroom.

Cazden, C.D., ed., Language Learning in Early Childhood Education. Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1972.

While this text focuses on the pre-school level of education, it treats issues that are relevant to primary grade teachers and administrators in language arts programs. Jean Gleason's article on improving children's communicative ability, Carol Chomsky's "Write Now, Read Later," and the evaluation section are particularly recommended.

Chambers, D.W. Storytelling and Creative Drama. Dubuque, IA: W.C. Brown, Company, 1970.

The ways in which one acquires competence in storytelling and in guiding children's development through creative drama are emphasized in this source. Many specific classroom teaching suggestions are given.

David, F. and Parker, K. Teaching for Literacy: Reflections on the Bullock Report. New York, NY: Agathon Press, 1978.

Major findings of the Bullock Report on the teaching of English in England are summarized here. Essays by British and American authors discuss language and cognitive development, language across the curriculum, teacher training and research implications. The authors advocate that all four of the language arts should be given equal importance. Furthermore, they state that the functions of language should be emphasized rather than the study of language as an entity.

Dickson, W.P., and Moskoff, M. A Meta-analysis of Referential Communication Studies: A Computer Readable Literature Review. Madison, WI: Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Individualized Schooling, University of Wisconsin, 1980.

While this report is theoretical, it provides a broad-based review of literature on the development of communication skills, particularly the informing function.

Dickson, W.P., and Patterson, J.H. Criteria for Evaluating Curriculum Materials Which Use Referential Communication Activities to Teach Speaking and Listening Skills. Working Paper No. 273. Madison, WI: Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Individualized Schooling, University of Wisconsin, 1979.

This reference focuses on communication games and activities for teaching speaking and listening skills, particularly informing skills. The authors propose eight criteria for evaluating speaking and listening curriculum materials.

Duke, C.R. Creative Dramatics and English Teaching. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1974.

The relationship of creative dramatics to the development of the child and the applications of drama in education are explored in this work. One chapter suggests a sequence of activities for guiding children in creative dramatics. A handbook of resources proposes activities for introducing drama, sensory perception, pantomime, dialogue, improvisation, role-playing, and scripted drama.

Duker, S., ed., Listening: Readings. Metuchen, NJ: The Scarecrow Press, Inc., 1971.

This book covers a variety of issues related to listening such as: the nature of listening; the relationship of listening to reading and psychometric factors; the teaching and testing of listening skills; and research on listening.

Duker, S., ed., Teaching Listening in the Elementary School: Readings. Metuchen, NJ: The Scarecrow Press, Inc., 1971

This series of readings is organized around eleven themes and contains many teaching ideas. Themes include: general concepts about listening; teaching different kinds of listening; teaching listening in the primary and intermediate grades; materials for teaching listening; and testing listening skills.

Ehrlich, H.W. Creative Dramatics Handbook. Philadelphia, PA: The School District of Philadelphia, 1974. (Available through the National Council of Teachers of English.)

Based on the thesis that creative dramatics can help children develop language skills, this source provides hundreds of specific suggestions for implementing a creative dramatics program.

Glaus, M. From Thoughts to Words. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965.

This collection provides forty-one enrichment activities for the development of listening, speaking and writing skills. Lessons are organized around "self-expression," "word fun," and "meet the authors."

Gerbrandt, G.L. An Idea Book for Acting Out and Writing Language K-8. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1974.

Emphasizing small group techniques, this book offers ideas for acting out language (pantomime, guessing games, charades, improvisation); writing out language (fables and unfinished sentences); and writing down language (scrambled sentences, dictated sentences.) In addition, it relates oral and written expression.

Hansen-Krening, N. Competency and Creativity in Language Arts: A Multiethnic Focus. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1979.

A helpful resource for those who teach children from diverse cultural and ethnic backgrounds, this book contains model lessons that utilize art, movement, sensory awareness, music, drama, and literature in the language arts. The author supports the use of standard English in the classroom to help children expand their knowledge of the language presented in many educational materials.

Henry, M.W., ed., Creative Experiences in Oral Language. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1967.

Techniques for handling oral communication activities such as storytelling, creative dramatics, oral interpretation, choric interpretation and children's theatre are covered in this work.

Hoover, K.H., and Hollingsworth, P.M. A Handbook for Elementary School Teachers. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, 1973.

This general "how-to-do-it" handbook provides a basic framework for instructional procedures such as classroom management, questioning, brainstorming, discussion, dramatic play, simulation games, teacher - pupil planning, inquiry - discovery, oral reporting, and film analysis. In the preface, the authors state their interest in practical simplicity, rather than a theoretical basis for the methods included.

Hopper, R., and Naremore, R.C. Children's Speech. New York, NY: Harper and Row, 1979.

The subtitle, "A Practical Introduction to Communication Development," aptly describes this book. Writing in a direct and unpretentious style, the authors describe the development of the sound system, syntax, semantics and uses of language as well as implications for classroom teaching. A good "foundation" source.

Huckleberry, A.W., and Strother, E.S. Speech Education for the Elementary Teacher. 2nd ed. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, 1972.

This practical text presents a rationale for teaching oral communication in the elementary school. It also provides techniques and procedures for teaching expressive arts--choral reading, solo oral reading, storytelling, puppetry, creative dramatics, theatre for children, speaking and listening, and discussion. The final section focuses on the role of the classroom teacher in handling children with "speech correction" problems.

Klein, M.L. Talk in the Language Arts Classroom. Urbana, IL: ERIC/RCS, National Council of Teachers of English, 1977.

After defining talk as a unique form of language, the author describes functions of talk, factors that impinge upon talk, and a talk model for the language arts classroom. Practical suggestions are provided for conducting formal talk, dialogue, small group discussion, and dramatic talk.

Loban, W. The Language of Elementary School Children. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963.

This is one of the few longitudinal studies of children's language use, control and effectiveness. It is a research piece that probes the relationships among speaking, listening, reading and writing.

Lundsteen, S.W. Listening, Its Impact on Reading and the Other Language Arts. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1979.

One of the few recent materials that synthesizes research and practice in listening. The author relates listening to each of the other language arts, presents a listening model and hierarchy of listening skills, and indicates how listening can be assessed. Many teaching materials are included.

McCaffrey, A. Testing a Model of Communicative Competence in the Classroom. Final Report; National Institute of Education Project #G-76-0042. Boston, MA: Judge Baker Guidance Center, 1980.

This report makes a case for studying the acquisition of language usage skills and portrays this as separate from but complementary to the acquisition of linguistic knowledge per se. A battery of tests are provided for evaluating elementary school children's speaking and listening skills.

McGregor, L., Tate, M., and Robinson, K. Learning Through Drama. Exeter, NH: Heinemann Educational Books, 1977.

The authors analyze drama as a four-part process: social interaction; use of voice, language, and body; content; and forms of expression. The chapter on assessing drama is particularly helpful.

Neuenschwander, J. Oral History as a Teaching Approach. Washington, DC: National Education Association, 1976.

Teachers of grades 4 through 8 will find these suggestions about combining social studies and communication processes very helpful. This work offers guidelines for teaching students interviewing skills and shows how listening and interviewing can be combined with oral history.

Nilsen, D.L.F., and Nilsen, A.P. Language Play: An Introduction to Linguistics. Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1978.

This text focuses on what speakers do with language and how they manipulate it for different effects. It provides samples of the creativity of language users rather than a theory of the nature of language. The authors advocate planning activities that allow children to play with language, and suggest activities for creating [illegible]

O'Neill, C., Lambert, A., Linnell, R., and Warr-Wood, J. Drama Guidelines. Exeter, NH: Heinemann Educational Books, 1977.

Teachers inexperienced in drama will discover many ideas for starting drama, movement, improvisation, role playing, storytelling, and playmaking in this book. It is organized in three sections: drama in practice, lessons, and aspects of drama.

Pierini, M.P.F. Creative Dramatics: A Guide for Educators. New York, NY: Herder and Herder, 1971.

This practical handbook is full of teaching ideas. After a discussion of the basic concepts of creative drama, activities are depicted which center around action, art and storytelling--all within the context of creative dramatics.

Possein, W.M. They All Need To Talk. New York, NY: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969.

Written by a classroom teacher who is convinced that a fundamental cause of difficulties with language usage is lack of provision for development of oral language skills, this paperback provides specific teaching situations, techniques, and procedures in areas such as creative dramatics, discussion, reporting, choral reading, and word games. It is a very practical source.

Rubin, D. The Intermediate Grade Teacher's Language Arts Handbook. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1980.

Written to complement the Primary Grade Teacher's Language Arts Handbook by the same author (see below), this book includes sections on listening, oral communication, vocabulary, writing, spelling and word usage.

Rubin, D. The Primary Grade Teacher's Language Arts Handbook. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1980.

This handbook follows a sequential ordering of language arts skills: listening, speaking, vocabulary, writing, spelling and word usage. It contains many ideas for language arts activities plus diagnostic checklists and lesson plans.

Schor, A., and Verrall, C. 100+ Ideas for Drama. Exeter, NH: Heinemann Educational Books, 1977.

Readers are introduced to many practical and rich suggestions for using drama in the classroom. Definitely a how-to-do-it resource.

Sealey, L.G.W., and Gibbons, V. Communication and Learning in the Primary School. New York, NY: Schocken Books, 1972.

The thesis of the British authors is that communication is the thread "that shapes and unifies primary school activity." All the communication arts are interwoven as a means of learning. This viewpoint is amply translated into actual classroom practices based on the experiences of many teachers.

Shuman, R.B. Educational Drama for Today's Schools. Metuchen, NJ: The Scarecrow Press, 1978.

A series of essays which clarify how drama contributes to all areas of the curriculum. Covering theory and technique, the articles show how drama nurtures creativity, upgrades the basics, and develops language.

Sticht T., Beck, L.J., Hauke, R.N., Kleiman, G.M., and James, J.H. Auding and Reading: A Developmental Model. Alexandria, VA: Human Resources Research Organization, 1974.

This source is theoretical and research based. It presents a view of interrelationships among listening, speaking, reading, and writing that have implications for curriculum design.

Tiedt, S.W., and Tiedt, I.M. Language Arts Activities for the Classroom. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, 1978.

Well over one hundred activities for teaching speaking, listening, grammar, spelling, vocabulary and writing are contained in this book. The final chapter lists many resources, both print and non-print, for the teacher.

Wagner, J.A. Children's Literature Through Storytelling. Dubuque, IA: W.C. Brown, 1970.

This material helps teachers tell stories to children more effectively. It also contains chapters on dramatic play, listening, and teaching children to become storytellers.

Walden, J., ed., Oral Language and Reading. Champaign, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1969.

These eight articles focus on various approaches to teaching reading as it is supported by oral language. The article by Walter Loban contains practical suggestions for linking spoken language with writing, reading, usage, and listening.

Way, B. Development Through Drama. London: Longmans, Green and Co., 1967.

Written by a well known source on the theory and teaching of drama, this book emphasizes how children develop through spontaneous drama and offers many practical ideas.

Wiemann, M.O., and Wiemann, J.M. Nonverbal Communication in the Elementary Classroom. Annandale, VA: ERIC/RCS, Speech Communication Association, 1975.

The authors describe the four elements of nonverbal communication--environment and personal space, body movement and orientation, the face and eyes, and vocal behavior--and discuss their overall significance. This TRIP booklet offers twenty-five activities through which children can improve their ability to communicate by nonverbal means.

Wilkinson, A. The Foundations of Language: Talking and Reading in Young Children. London: Oxford University Press, 1971.

A readable source that discusses the elements of language, language acquisition, and the interrelation between speech and reading. This is not a how-to-do-it book, but is excellent "foundation" material.

Williams, F., Hopper, R., and Natalicio, D.S. The Sounds of Children. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1977.

A readable book that discusses issues such as language and child development, language differences among children, and teacher attitudes toward language variation. One chapter stresses the sounds of Black English and another the language of the native Spanish-speaking child. The book includes recordings that demonstrate children's speech, enabling the reader to hear the child's speech rather than simply read a transcription.

Wood, B.S. Children and Communication: Verbal and Nonverbal Language Development. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1975.

A recent and thorough text that reviews children's language and communication development. It synthesizes and interprets a great deal of research in a meaningful way. The author has included an excellent section on nonverbal language development and many charts that show stage-by-stage development of language. More of a "foundation" than a "how to teach" source, readers can develop richer sequential programs with this kind of reading as background material.

Wood, B.S., ed., Development of Functional Communication Competencies: Pre-K-Grade 6. Annandale, VA: ERIC/RCS, Speech Communication Association, 1977.

This TRIP booklet describes the competent child as a communicator, and reviews the functional communication approach. It also contains thirty activities for teaching functional communication on the pre-primary, primary and elementary levels.

Secondary School Materials

Allen, R.R., Parish, S. and Mortensen, D. Communication: Interacting Through Speech. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1974.

A student text that highlights interpersonal, public, and mass communication.

Allen, R.R., Willmington, S.C., and Sprague, J. Speech Communication in the Secondary School. 2nd ed., Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1976.

A thorough methods text that covers the teaching of public speaking, interpersonal communication, theatre, radio, television, and film. Classroom management and co-curricular speech activities are also discussed in detail.

Auer, J.J., and Jenkinson, E.B., eds., Essays on Teaching Speech in the High School. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press, 1971.

This collection of eleven essays contains specific activities for teaching informative and persuasive speaking, parliamentary procedure, discussion, argumentative speaking, and speech criticism.

Bacon, Wallace A. Oral Interpretation and the Teaching of Literature in Secondary Schools. Annandale, VA: Speech Communication Association, 1974.

This source focuses on the oral experience of literature. It is appropriate for secondary school educators seeking new ways to involve students both in meaningful exploration of literature and the development of effective communication skills. Student and teacher comments and suggestions for reading a poem, a play, and a story make this source practical and useful.

Barbour, A. and Goldberg, A.A. Interpersonal Communication: Teaching Strategies and Resources. Annandale, VA: ERIC/RCS, Speech Communication Association, 1974.

This practical booklet is full of activities and materials for teaching interpersonal communication. The text covers models, principles and evaluation of interpersonal communication. A good introductory source for the person unfamiliar with interpersonal communication.

Beyer, R., Lee, C., and Wilkinson, C. Speaking of . . . Communication/Interpretation/Theatre. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1975.

This student text covers interpersonal communication, small group communication, public speaking and debate. Four chapters focus on oral interpretation, and eight chapters stress theatre.

Blankenship, J. and Stelzner, S.L. Speech Communication Activities in the Writing Classroom. Annandale, VA: ERIC/RCS, Speech Communication Association, 1979.

After presenting a brief rationale for teaching speech activities in the writing classroom,

the source presents a two-semester sequence for teaching speaking and writing skills. Six units focus on communication, definition, reasoning analysis, argument, and persuasion. Each unit contains specific objectives, activities, and evaluation criteria.

Book, C., and Galvin, K. Instruction In and About Small Group Discussion. Annandale, VA: ERIC/RCS, Speech Communication Association, 1975.

Another TRIP booklet which is full of practical ideas for teaching discussion skills. Major topics include norms, cohesiveness, conformity, problem-solving, decision-making, networks, roles and leadership.

Book, C.L., Heaven, S.V., Kreger, M., and Sprague, J. Contract Grading in Speech Communication Courses. Annandale, VA: ERIC/RCS, Speech Communication Association, 1978.

This TRIP booklet explains how to use contract grading to teach communication principles and skills. It also provides sample contracts, tips and cautions.

Braden, W., ed. Speech Methods and Resources. 2nd ed. New York, NY: Harper and Row Publishers, 1972.

A text full of methods for teaching public speaking; discussion; debate; the basic communication course; interpretation; drama; broadcast media; and speech content, voice, diction and delivery. Course planning, textbook selection, and evaluation are also reviewed.

Brooks, W.D., and Friedrich, G.W. Teaching Speech Communication in the Secondary School. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin, 1973.

This "methods" text covers a broad spectrum of speech instruction in the secondary school including developing objectives; planning lessons; evaluating, testing, and grading students; and using resource materials. The authors suggest many specific activities and assignments in interpersonal communication, public speaking, oral interpretation and drama, radio, television, and film.

Buys, W.E. Speaking By Doing. Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1974.

A workbook for students, this source provides a set of sequentially graded experiences. Both speaking and listening are stressed for different purposes: to inform and learn, for fun and recreation, to persuade, and to solve problems.

Carlile, C.S. 38 Basic Speech Experiences. 5th ed., Pocatello, ID: Clark Publishing Co., 1972.

This student work-text includes tear-out pages covering orientation speeches, courtesy speeches, special kinds of speeches, oral reading, discussion, debate, and radio and television speaking.

Covert, A., and Thomas, G.L. Communication Games and Simulations. Annandale, VA: ERIC/RCS, Speech Communication Association, 1978.

How to use games to teach communication concepts such as trust, feedback, and persuasion are specifically explained in this TRIP booklet. Each of the eleven activities includes objectives, directions, and debriefing suggestions.

Crowley, S., ed., Speech and Drama in the English Class. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1978.

Published as the April, 1978, issue of *Arizona English Bulletin*, this source provides activity suggestions for role-playing, oral interpretation, small group work, and mounting *Macbeth* as a radio play.

Elson, E.F., and Peck, A. The Art of Speaking. 3rd ed., Lexington, MA: Ginn and Co., 1974.

A variety of speech activities are covered in this student text. While public speaking is emphasized, other speech forms such as reading aloud, debating, group discussion, business talk, conversation, radio and television, and listening are also treated.

Fernandez, T.L. Oral Interpretation and the Teaching of English. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1969.

This collection of ten articles focuses on the teaching of oral interpretation in the secondary school. Topics include oral interpretation as an approach to understanding literature, teaching delivery techniques of oral interpretation, readers' theatre, and uses of oral interpretation in directing and motivating outside reading.

Fessenden, S.A., Johnson, K., Larson, P.M., and Good, K.M. Speech for the Creative Teacher. Dubuque, IA: W.C. Brown, 1973.

This work seeks to improve the teacher's communication skills and help the instructor use communication activities to enhance teaching and learning.

Fletcher, J.E., and Surlin, S.H. Mass Communication Instruction in the Secondary School. Annandale, VA: Speech Communication Association, 1978.

The status of mass communication instruction, many curricular objectives and activities and cocurricular practices are reported here. The authors provide alternatives for independent and interdependent instruction, and ample course outlines.

Galvin, K., and Book, C. Person-to-Person: An Introduction to Speech Communication. Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1973.

A graphically attractive student text that balances communication theory with practical application. The material covers intrapersonal, interpersonal, small group, and one-to-group communication. A teacher's guide that contains a number of classroom exercises is included.

Galvin, L. and Book, C. Speech Communication: An Interpersonal Approach for Teachers. Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1972.

This book contains objectives, exercises, and resources in the following areas: introduction to communication, encoding and decoding messages, intrapersonal communication, one-to-one communication, group communication, one-to-group communication, and nonverbal communication.

Hanks, L.D., and Anderson, M. From Thought to Speech. Lexington, MA: D.C. Heath and Company, 1969.

A student text consisting of twenty-eight chapters on a range of topics such as: listening, public speaking, critical thinking, interviewing, discussion, debate, and oral interpretation.

Hawkins, T. Group Inquiry Techniques for Teaching Writing. Urbana, IL: ERIC/RCS, National Council of Teachers of English, 1976.

This source stresses the use of small group techniques for teaching composition. It offers practical advice on organizing groups, handling typical difficulties, and facilitating group interaction.

Hedde, W.G., Brigance, W.N., Powell, V.M. Patterns in Communication: A Guide to Speech and Critical Listening. New York, NY: J.B. Lippincott Co., 1973.

The focus of this student text is on the fundamentals of communication: the body, the voice, pronunciation, listening; public speaking; discussion; oral interpretation; and drama.

Jandt, F.E., and Hare, M. Instruction in Conflict Resolution. Annandale, ...: ERIC/RCS, Speech Communication Association, 1976.

Teachers learn how to respond effectively to conflict in the classroom and apply conflict resolution to the adolescent. Activities covering role playing, gaming, games and exercises, simulations, and films are included.

Kemp, R.L., and Gillespie, P. Speech: An Important Skill. Westchester, IL: Benefic Press, 1974.

This is a text for students that covers listening, the voice, body speech, oral interpretation, theatre, the mass media, discussion, persuasive speaking, debate, and parliamentary procedure.

Language of Man Series. Evanston, IL: McDougall-Littel and Co., 1971.

(See particularly Dialects and Levels of Language, Coping with the Mass Media, Using Figurative Language. Communicate!, and How Words Change Our Lives.)

This series consists of brief paperback student texts that deal with issues in semantics, mass communication, dialects, and uses of language.

Leubitz, L. Nonverbal Communication. Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1973

This resource packet contains a teacher's guide, picture materials, and activity cards for teaching nonverbal communication. It presents an overview of nonverbal communication and numerous related activities.

Maynard, R.A., ed., Messages and Meaning. New York, NY: Scholastic Book Services, 1979.

This student text focuses on mass communication: the press, television, and media persuasion. The last section deals with the growth, techniques and processes of media persuasion and techniques for coping with media persuasion.

Minteer, C. Understanding in a World of Words. San Francisco, CA: International Society for General Semantics, 1970.

This text, suitable for the junior high school student, emphasizes principles of semantics.

Nadeau, R.E. Speech-Communication: A Modern Approach. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1973.

A student text that discusses the responsibilities of the listener in all communication situations. Chapters cover describing, explaining, and clarifying; planning; reasoning; using language intelligently; and working together in discussion.

Nelson, O., and LaRusso, D. Oral Communication in the Secondary School Classroom. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1970.

This book follows the theme, "better teaching and learning through better speaking and listening." It explores ways in which teachers may use speech as an effective medium of learning regardless of subject matter. Key speech forms such as discussion, dramatization, the short talk, and oral interpretation of literature are applied in English, social studies, mathematics and science, and the fine and applied arts.

Newcombe, P.J., and Robinson, K.F. Teaching Speech Communication. New York, NY: David McKay Co., 1975.

A comprehensive methods text, this book covers curricular and co-curricular aspects of teaching speech communication. It suggests many materials on curriculum design and teaching listening, interpersonal communication skills, public speaking, oral interpretation, mass communication and theatre.

Newmark, E., and Asante, M.K. Intercultural Communication. Annandale, VA: ERIC/RCS, Speech Communication Association, 1976.

The purpose of this TRIP booklet is to provide basic concepts of intercultural communication. Many activities to increase intercultural awareness and sensitivity are presented under six themes: observation and self-discovery, literary analysis, value clarification, evaluative skills, role playing and simulation games.

Prentice, D., Pollard, T., and McComas, P., eds., Speech, Drama, and Mass Media: Practical Activities for Classroom Teachers. Lawrence, KS: University of Kansas, 1979.

Suggested for junior and senior high school students, this curriculum guide covers the fundamentals of public speaking, group discussion, mass media, oral interpretation, and drama. Each section lists objectives, skills to be taught, activities and evaluation procedures.

Ratliffe, S., and Herman, D. Adventures in the Looking-Glass. Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1974.

This text for junior or senior high school students, emphasizes exploring self, information systems, perception, symbols, beliefs, decision-making, messages, and emotional climates.

Reeves, R. Ideas for Teaching English: Grades 7-8-9. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966.

Practices for teaching reading, composition, speech, mass media, vocabulary building, literature, spelling and dictionary study are described here.

Reid, L. Teaching Speech. 4th ed. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971.

A broad based "methods" text, this book explains how to teach basic speech skills, speech activities, and co-curricular activities.

Stanford, G., and Stanford, B.D. Learning Discussion Skills Through Games. New York, NY: Citation Press, 1969.

A sequence of skill-building games and activities are suggested to give students practice in discussion techniques. This practical handbook also presents remedial devices for solving group problems such as everyone talking at once, hostility, and straying from the topic.

Stewart, C.J. Teaching Interviewing for Career Preparation. Annandale, VA: ERIC/RCS, Speech Communication Association, 1976.

The twenty-six activities in this TRIP booklet are organized around four themes: introduction to interviewing, fundamentals of interviewing, informational interviewing, and employment interviewing.

Wakefield, B. Perception and Communication. Annandale, VA: ERIC/RCS, Speech Communication Association, 1976.

This TRIP booklet presents the thesis that an understanding of perception improves communication. Twenty-two high school level activities are suggested.

Wolvin, A.D., and Coakley, C.G. Listening Instruction. Annandale, VA: ERIC/RCS, Speech Communication Association, 1979.

After defining listening, identifying different purposes for listening and suggesting how listening skills can be improved, this TRIP booklet provides thirty-eight listening activities.

Wood, B.S., ed., Development of Functional Communication Competencies: Grades 7-12. Annandale, VA: ERIC/RCS, Speech Communication Association, 1977.

This TRIP booklet is a companion piece to this author's book on the Pre-K-Grade 6 level. It describes the competent adolescent as a communicator and includes nineteen functional communication activities for grades 7-8 and 9-12.

Work, J., Work, W., Ewing, R.G, Strine, J., Peluso, J., and Vosburg, D. Houghton Mifflin Communication Workshop. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1975.

Each of these five, short, paperback texts for students deals with a specific topic: expressing, relating, investigating, public speaking, and acting and directing.

Elementary Through Secondary School Materials

Alameda County School Department. The Reticent Child in the Classroom: Oral Communication Concepts and Activities. Hayward, CA: Alameda County School Department, 1969.

This manual for K-12 teachers provides a brief rationale for teaching oral communication in the classroom. It presents practical activities organized around twelve basic concepts, such as "one person should speak at a time," "opportunities should be provided for everyone to participate orally," and "when in doubt, when curious, when interested, ask questions."

Allen, R.R., and Brown, K.L., eds., Developing Communication Competence in Children. Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1976.

A basic reference that emphasizes the functional communication approach to instruction, this source provides a research supported review of children's development as communicators. It contains a chart of communication development, pre-K through grade 12; graded teaching objectives; research reviews and reports; and a basic teaching framework.

Cazden, C.B., John, V.P. and Hymes, D., eds., Functions of Language in the Classroom. New York, NY: Teachers College Press, Columbia, 1972.

These essays and research reports sensitize teachers to the functions of verbal and nonverbal language and to the differences between the language of the classroom and the language of the child's own home and culture. While this source does not emphasize teaching activities, it helps teachers understand the implications of teaching communication in a culturally diverse society.

Clapp, O., and National Council of Teachers of English Committee on Classroom Practices. Classroom Practices in Teaching English, 1977-78: Teaching the Basics - Really! Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1977.

A collection of thirty articles on teaching a variety of language art skills, this book includes a section that focuses on listening, thinking and discussion skills and another that emphasizes literary and cinematic criticism.

Cooper, P. Classroom Communication. Dubuque, IA: Gorsuch Scarisbrick Publishers, 1980.

Classroom management, rather than teaching communication skills, is the focus of this resource. It integrates theory with practice and makes liberal use of classroom activities. Chapters address nonverbal communication, information dispensing, leading classroom discussions, and small group communication in the classroom all from the aspect of management.

Davis, R. Introduction to Film Making. Annandale, VA: ERIC/RCS, Speech Communication Association, 1975.

Film types, mechanics and the filmmaking process are explained in this TRIP booklet. Twenty-eight filmmaking activities, using minimal equipment, can be adapted to different educational levels.

Dieterich, D., ed., Teaching About Doublespeak. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1976.

After presenting a theoretical basis for studying public language, this source provides teachers with suggestions for helping students deal with persuasion. The elementary school section suggests a unit on consumer education and ways to develop students' evaluative listening. The secondary school section describes approaches to helping students in their study of the language of politics, and advertising, with an awareness of sex stereotyping.

Dixon, J. Growth Through English. Reading, England: National Association for the Teaching of English, 1976. Available through National Council of Teachers of English.

This is the third edition of a book that grew out of the 1966 Dartmouth Conference on the Teaching of English in the United Kingdom and the United States. Two new chapters give a perspective on the 70's. The report treats language and personal growth, processes in language learning, class activities, and continuity in programs.

Ecroyd, D.R. Speech in the Classroom. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969.

A brief, well written text that shows teachers how to develop basic skills in oral presentations in the classroom.

Feezel, J.D., Brown, K.R., and Valentine, C.A. Selected Print and Nonprint Resources in Speech Communication: Grades K-12. Annandale, VA: ERIC/RCS, Speech Communication Association, 1976.

An annotated bibliography listing 201 materials for students and teachers related to teaching speech communication. All materials are coded for appropriate grade level and content. The content covers thirteen different speech topics such as language development and semantics, interpersonal communication, group discussion, public speaking, and drama.

Friedrich, G., ed., Teaching Speech Communication. Washington, DC: National Education Association (NEA), forthcoming.

This NEA "Education for the Eighties" monograph, covers speech communication from the elementary school through the college level. Topics covered in this collection of essays include basic communication skills; intercultural, interpersonal, and mass communication; oral interpretation; organizational communication; pragmatic communication; and public address.

Friedrich, G.W., Galvin, K., and Book, C.L. Growing Together: Classroom Communication. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1976.

The authors discuss the classroom as a communication system, teacher and student roles, developing a communication climate, and how communication contributes to learning.

Gallo, D.R. A Gaggle of Gimmicks. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, (NCTE), 1978.

This source is really the spring 1978 issue of the *Connecticut English Journal*, but is available through NCTE. It contains practical ideas for rainy days, shortened periods, and the last five minutes of class.

Hance, K.G. The Michigan Speech Association Curriculum Guides. Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1972.

The guides include eight specific courses of study: Speech Activities in the Elementary School; Speech and Drama in the Intermediate School; Speech Communication in the High School; Dramatic Arts in the Secondary School; Debate in the Secondary School; Discussion in the Secondary School; Oral Interpretation in the Secondary School; and Radio, Television, and Film in the Secondary School.

Hennings, D.G. Mastering Classroom Communication: What Interaction Analysis Tells the Teacher. Pacific Palisades, CA: Goodyear Publishing Co., 1975. The teacher comes to understand communication in the classroom and learns to analyze verbal and nonverbal interaction.

Hoetker, J. Theatre Games: One Way into Drama. Urbana, IL: ERIC/RCS, National Council of Teachers of English, 1975.

Drawing on Viola Spolin's Improvisation for the Theatre, this source contains a structured set of dramatic activities that introduce students to drama and prepare them to act on the stage.

Hunkins, F.P. Involving Students in Questioning. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, 1976.

The author describes strategies for involving students in questioning along with many examples and activities. These include questions in the cognitive and affective domains; involving students in planning; using and assessing questions; and relating questions to teaching models.

Hurt, T., Scott, M.D., and McCroskey, J.C. Communication in the Classroom. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1978.

This text shows how principles of communication can be applied to classroom settings to facilitate student learning. Classroom management is emphasized more than direct teaching of communication skills.

Institute for Development of Educational Activities. Learning in the Small Group. Melbourne, FL: Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 1971.

This thirty-one page manual succinctly treats the small-group process, teaching skills, and structuring the small group. Twelve variations of small groups are discussed: the tutorial group, the research group, the investigative group, the group-talk model, the brainstorming group, and the value-clarifying group. Each variation is explained in terms of objectives, group size, purpose, teacher role, student role, and technique.

Lane-Palagyi, A. Successful School Assembly Programs. West Nyack, NY: Parker Publishing Co., 1971.

Fourteen chapters cover every aspect of assembly planning, production, and evaluation. They include tips on managing the student audience, the role of the administration, producing the assembly, and possible programs. This practical text shows principals and teachers how to make assemblies a viable part of the curriculum.

Larson, C., Backlund, P., Redmond, M., and Barbour, A. Assessing Functional Communication. Annandale, VA: ERIC/RCS, Speech Communication Association, 1978.

This source discusses conceptual issues related to communication competence and functional communication, and reviews ninety instruments that assess various communication skills. The instruments test language development; communication appropriateness; listening; apprehension/anxiety; interaction; and disclosure, style, and attitude. The instruments are grouped by age level: infancy-elementary, junior-senior high, and college-adult.

Loban, W. Language Development: Kindergarten Through Grade 12. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1976.

This longitudinal research report follows the language development of 211 children through the elementary and secondary school years. The author points out differences between children who use language effectively and those who do not.

Lynn, E. Improving Classroom Communication: Speech Communication Instruction for Teachers. Annandale, VA: ERIC/RCS, Speech Communication Association, 1976.

This document reports on a study of the nature and growth of courses in the theory and skills of classroom communication for practicing teachers. It contains an extensive, annotated list of resources on teacher-student interaction in the classroom such as questioning, listening, lecturing and reading aloud, using group processes, and language. This material is also useful for identifying the kind of teacher training needed for teaching communication skills.

McCroskey, J.C. Quiet Children and the Classroom Teacher. Annandale, VA: ERIC/RCS, Speech Communication Association, 1978.

A TRIP booklet that offers both research and practical teaching tips focusing on quiet children. The author presents five different kinds of quiet children: those with skill deficiencies; those who are socially introverted, those who are socially alienated, those from a variety of cultural and ethnic backgrounds, and those who experience communication apprehension.

Moffett, J. A Student-Centered Language Arts Curriculum, Grades K-13: A Handbook for Teachers. Boston, MA: Houghton-Mifflin, 1968.

A practical text full of concrete ideas for teaching the language arts. The handbook contains suggestions for talk and drama activities, and integrates oral communication and writing.

Moffett, J. Teaching the Universe of Discourse. Boston, MA: Houghton-Mifflin, Co., 1968.

This book is an exciting and readable presentation of the theory of teaching English in elementary and secondary schools. The author analyzes kinds and orders of discourse; and integrates drama, talk, and writing. These ideas form the basis for Moffet's companion text A Student-Centered Language Arts Curriculum, K-13.

Phillips, G.M., Butt, D., Metzger, N.J. Communication in Education. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1974.

Oral communication instruction receives a broad and concrete treatment in this work. Chapters discuss communication development, the "clinical" responsibility of the classroom teacher, and objectives and contents for an instructional program in oral communication.

Phillips, G.M., Dunham, R.E., Brubaker, R., and Butt, D. The Development of Oral Communication in the Classroom. New York, NY: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1970.

Various strategies for oral communication instruction are treated by these authors. A sampling includes: a teaching-learning model, communication development, curriculum design and objectives, establishment of a classroom verbal community, interrelationships among language arts, and communication problems such as speech and hearing disorders, and quiet and noisy children.

Robinson, K.F., and Becker, A.B. Effective Speech for the Teacher. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill, 1970.

This text concentrates on the need for improved oral communication in the teaching process; and the need for improvement of the teacher's speech. It covers the basic skills of thinking, listening, oral language, voice, body, and preparation for speaking; and the uses of speech in discussion, business meetings, personal conference and classroom speaking.

Shane, H.G., and Walden, J. Classroom-Relevant Research in the Language Arts. Washington, DC: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1978. (Also available through the National Council of Teachers of English.)

The most recent classroom-related language arts research is reported including listening and composition as well as other areas of language arts.

Southwest Educational Development Laboratory. Improving Basic Skills Instruction: A Superintendent's Perspective. Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, 1979.

While this source does not focus on speaking and listening skills per se, it does review current research about basic skills programming and research that is useful to school administrators. Four topics are covered: program objectives and planning strategies; and program, instructional, and classroom management.

Stanford, G., and National Council of Teachers of English Committee on Classroom Practices. Classroom Practices in Teaching English, 1978-79: Activating the Passive Student. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1978.

These twenty-seven articles focus on involving students in using English, not just absorbing it. While the articles are grouped around reading, composing, poetry, and research, they stress small group work, role-playing, and dramatics.

Wood, D.M., and Wylie, D.G. Educational Communications. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1977.

This source is a mini-encyclopedia and a wealth of information about public television and instructional communication. Classroom teachers will appreciate the sections on media in the curriculum and visual literacy. It covers basic topics such as viewing conditions, and simple types of classroom equipment.

And Even More

In addition to the materials previously cited, readers can obtain assistance from sources such as:

The Cultural Education Collaborative
164 Newbury Street
Boston, MA 02116
Tel. (617) 267-6254

The Cultural Education Collaborative has published two documents with a career education focus:

Index of Sample Activities provides numerous concrete activities that integrate speaking and listening skills in the arts, language arts, mathematics, social studies and sciences. The unique feature of this publication is that it focuses on the contributions of cultural organizations in Massachusetts to education.

Schools and Museums, Zoos, Arts Centers, Aquariums, Dance Companies, Science Centers, and Theatre Companies describes "programs which are available to schools for planning educational activities using the resources of Boston area cultural institutions for the 1980-81 school year." A number of the programs listed incorporate basic skills activities.

Education Development Center
School and Society Programs
55 Chapel Street
Newton, MA 02160
Tel. (617) 969-7100

Exploring Childhood is a parenting/child development program prepared for junior and senior high schools in which students learn about child development and themselves while working closely and regularly with young children. Exploring Childhood: Program Overview and Catalog of Parenting/Child Development Materials (1980-82) describes the program; learning objectives; student, teacher and parent materials; and field services. Most of the modules involve a range of communication and self-awareness activities.

Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)
Resources in Education
Superintendent of Documents
United States Government Printing Office
Washington, DC 20402

Resources in Education is a publication which lists and abstracts published and unpublished materials including curriculum guides. Many materials are available on microfiche cards for less than $1.00. One can also retrieve abstracts that focus on a specific level of education for a fee. By using topical labels such as those mentioned in the first parts of this section, and by indicating grade level, e.g. speaking and listening/elementary school, a wealth of resources not listed here become readily available.

National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE)
1111 Kenyon Road
Urbana, IL 61801
Tel. (217) 328-3870

In addition to publishing the resources mentioned earlier, NCTE publishes *Language Arts*, a journal for elementary classroom teachers. The publication is released monthly, September through November and January through May. The council also publishes *The English Journal* for middle, junior, and senior high school teachers. This journal appears on the same schedule as *Language Arts*. Both journals include regular columns, such as resource reviews, and feature articles which sometimes focus on oral communication.

Project Signals
37 West Main Street
Norton, MA 02766
Tel. (617) 285-9724
Contact: David M. Blocker, Director

Funded through Title IV-C, this project develops instructional materials and evaluation instruments in speaking and listening for elementary school districts. Signals has already published two booklets for parents: Parents and Children, Listening and Speaking, and Child Talk: A Parents' Resource Booklet of Speaking and Listening Activities: Grades K-2. They are also preparing a booklet of ideas for classroom teachers and piloting a longer manual of activities.

Resource and Referral Service
National Center for Research in Vocational Education
1960 Kenny Road
Columbus, OH 43210
Tel. (800) 848-4815

Resources for Ba[illegible]kills lists organizations providing resources for basic skills in oral/written communic[illegible]eading, and mathematics.

Speech Communication Association
5105 Backlick Road
Annandale, VA 22003
Tel. (703) 750-0533

The Speech Communication Association (SCA) also publishes these pertinent materials.

Communication Education is a quarterly journal that focuses on the teaching of all aspects of speech communication. The journal includes: major research articles; reports of successful teaching practices; and reviews of print and non-print resources, and ERIC materials. Since the journal covers all levels of education, not all its materials are applicable to elementary and secondary education. However, of particular interest are the September, 1977, issue which deals with developmental drama and speech communication in the elementary and secondary school, and the November, 1978, issue with its focus on basic speaking and listening skills.

SCA has also published Guidelines for Minimal Competencies in Speaking and Listening for High School Graduates, a list of nineteen basic skills. Each skill is applied in occupational, citizenship, and home-life contexts. Another publication, Standards for Effective Oral Communication Programs, describes the necessary characteristics of effective communication programs, the kinds of support needed, and assessment standards.

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