CHAPTER II

RELATED LITERATURE

There are numerous studies by both Thai and foreign scholars who are interested in either the listening or the reading skill. However, most of these studies focus only on one skill. There has been no study to date concerned directly with the transfer between listening and reading comprehension in a language; there has only been partial study as in the following studies.

Studies on Aural Perception :

Mr. Chaleay Potibut[1] aimed to find out regional differences of aural perception of English Phonemes among the first year students at Bansomdej Teacher Training College. The measuring device was the SEAREP aural perception test in English which had one hundred items. This test was recorded on a tape recorder, and 324 students of this college were asked to fill out the answer sheets. All the answer sheets were classified into four regions; the Central, the North, the South, and the North - east. The results of this study were successful as the item - analysis showed the three phonemic contrasts which were missed most frequently by the C, the eight by the N and Ne, and the six by the S.

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[1] Chaleay Potibut, "Regional Differences in Aural Perception of English Phonemes Amongst First Year Students in Bansomdej School Training College Thonburi," Master Thesis Abstract, Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University, 1964 - 1970, p. 224.

In 1970, Miss Kanchana Sermsook[2] wanted to compare aural perception abilities of grade 10 students in Government schools with grade 10 students in Catholic schools in Bangkok. Her test consisted of one hundred and twenty problems on aural perception (multiple choice). One hundred and twenty subjects, both male and female, were selected from four Government schools and four Catholic schools. The findings were that no differences were found in aural perceptibility of Catholic and Government students in regard to English vowels and consonants as well as to English words, sentence stress and to intonation of sentences. It was also found that the girls were not superior to the boys.

Studies on Reading :

In 1972, Mr. Charan Prohmkamtan[3] investigated self - concepts and reading comprehension of adolescents from rural areas. The subjects were 150 boys and 150 girls, ages between 14 to 19, studying in Matayomsuksa 3, in Chiang Mai and Lamphoon. The results

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[2] Kanchana Sermsook, "English Listening Ability : A Comparison of Government and Catholic School Tenth Graders," Master Thesis Abstract, Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University, 1964 - 1970, p. 255.

[3] Charan Prohmkamtan, "Self - Concept and Reading Comprehension of Adolescents from Rural Areas," Master Thesis Abstract, Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University, 1971 - 1972, p. 232.

were as follows : adolescent boys and girls did not differ significantly in either self - concepts in general or others, or in reading comprehension. Lastly there was no correlation between self - concepts and reading comprehension of adolescents from rural areas.

In 1972, Miss Pitrawan Kowitwathi[4] studied the relationship between English vocabulary understanding and reading comprehension in general and compared the average ability in English vocabulary understanding and reading comprehension of Prathomsuksa 5 students of Chulalongkorn Demonstration School which groups students according to their ability. The findings were that ability in English vocabulary understanding and reading comprehension was high. The correlation coefficient between English vocabulary understanding and reading comprehension was a high positive relationship.

In the same year, Mrs. Priya Unaratana[5] attempted to determine the relationships between the understanding of the culture of the English speaking peoples and the reading achievement of First

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[4] Pitrawan Kowitwathi, "The Relationship between English Vocabulary Understanding and Reading Comprehension of Prathomsuksa 5 Students," Master Thesis Abstract, Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University, 1971 - 1972, p. 298.

[5] Priya Unaratana, "Relationships between the Understanding of the Culture of the English Speaking Peoples and the Reading Achievement," Master Thesis Abstract, Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University, 1971 - 1972, p. 305.

Year Kasetsart University students in the academic year 1971. Three sets of tests were used : on the understanding of the culture of English - speaking peoples consisting of fifty multiple choice questions, reading passages containing very few cultural elements, and consisting of twenty - five multiple - choice questions, and reading passages containing many cultural elements also consisting of twenty - five multiple choice questions. Two hundred subjects, both male and female were tested by using the stratified random sampling technique. The results were as follows : the understanding of the culture of English - speaking peoples and the reading ability of the reading passages were related. The majority of the students whose understanding of the culture of the English - speaking peoples fell in the range between average to good achieved the same range on the reading passages containing many cultural elements. Reading achievement on the passages containing many cultural elements was high.

In 1973, Miss Somchit Iaumsupanimit[6] investigated the level of English reading comprehension in paraphasing, interpretation and extrapolation in Matayomsuksa 4 science students. The results were that the level of reading comprehension ability was still unsatisfactory, especially in the paraphasing test, but the students ' ability to comprehend the three reading tests was moderately correlated. The students had many problems concerning vocabulary

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[6] Somchit Iaumsupanimit, "English Reading Comprehension of Matayomsuksa Four Science Students," *Master Thesis*, Department of Secondary Education, Chulalongkorn University, 1974.

in reading. Teacher's translation and explanation of the reading materials were therefore seen as needed.

In 1970, Lackman[7] aimed to compare the effects of four conditions of prequestions with good and poor readers upon comprehension and rate of reading of a prose selection and the effects of these conditions on the demonstrated ability to answer both relevant and identical questions covering the selection. Hypotheses tested were divided into three groups : the first group was concerned with the effects of treatment and type of reader upon the time taken to read the selection. The second group was concerned with the effects of treatment and type of reader upon the number of questions recalled prior to reading. The third group was concerned with the effects of treatment and type of reader upon measures of comprehension on a posttest for Relevant - Type I, Relevant - Type II, Incidental - Type I, and Incidental - Type II questions. Findings support these conclusions : what the reader does prior to reading (treatment) has a significant effect upon the time taken to read the selection. What the reader does prior to reading (treatment) has a significant effect upon the number of questions that he is able to recall before beginning to read. The number of questions recalled can be used as a measure of the degree to which the purposes for reading have been internalized. The degree to which

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[7] Thomas Warren Lackman, "Effects upon Comprehension and Reading Rate under Four Prequestion Conditions," Dissertation Abstracts International, 3 (March, 1971), p. 5271 - A.

readers internalize the purpose for which they are reading determines how effectively they will be able to read. Reading effectiveness is evidenced both by being able to deal with the material more rapidly and by obtaining higher scores on measures of comprehension.

Treadway, Jr.[8] attempted to ascertain the effect of redundancy on children's comprehension at the second and fifth grades. Three hypotheses were tested : (1) second grade students' ability to comprehend reading material that matches their spoken percent of redundancy is significantly greater than their ability to comprehend material which contains the percent of redundancy found in a basal reading series, (2) no significant difference exists between fifth grade students' ability to comprehend reading material that matches their spoken percent of redundancy and their ability to comprehend material which contains the percent of redundancy found in a basal reading series, and (3) the students at both grades will indicate a preference for material which matches their percent of spoken redundancy as opposed to the percent of redundancy found in basal readers. He prepared to test students' performance on the comprehension categories : (1) reading to find the central idea, (2) reading to select supporting details, (3) reading to find sequences, (4) reading to find relationships, (5) reading to make inferences, and (6) reading to draw conclusions. The first and second hypotheses were rejected. The third hypothesis which concerns students' preference toward oral language passages or basal passages, was accepted.

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[8] Gerald Hatch Treadway, Jr. "Effects of Redundancy on Reading Comprehension of Second and Fifth Grade Children," Dissertation Abstracts International, 2 (April, 1971), p. 6525 - A.

The findings stated that students at both grades preferred written material which had as its basis oral language structures. Students at the second grade are able to comprehend passages taken directly from oral language and basal passages equally well. Students at the fifth grade are able to comprehend passages taken directly from oral language significantly better than basal passages.

Glenn[9] tried to determine what differences occurred in literal comprehension and accuracy scores as measured by the Gilmore Oral Reading Test among second, third, and fourth grade students who read the selections orally at sight, students who read silently then orally, and students who only read silently before answering the comprehension questions, and then read orally. Secondly he wanted to determine the differences in oral reading errors among these three groups. The following conclusions were that (1) Individual children varied widely in their performance. Some Children answered more comprehension questions after reading orally, while others comprehended more after reading silently. (2) Oral reading performance (accuracy) was not significantly improved when silent reading preceded oral reading. (3) In many cases, oral reading aided comprehension. (4) Oral reading errors were committed more frequently and at a higher rate by younger readers than by older readers. Older students made proportionately fewer errors, even though the difficulty of the reading material increased. (5) The same types of reading errors were committed by all children. The total number of errors appeared more important than calculating the kinds of errors made. Analyzing the quality of errors seemed potentially more valuable than either counting or categorizing them. (6) Repetition and omission errors indicated a growing maturity in reading, since both increased with age and grade.

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[9] Hugh Wallace Glenn, "The Effect of Silent and Oral Reading on Literal Comprehension and Oral Reading Performance," Dissertation Abstracts International, 32 (December, 1971), p. 3152 - A.

Sankar[10] compared two teaching methods in order to determine which one would better result in increasing reading speed, accuracy, vocabulary, and comprehension among sixth - grade pupils living in a culturally disadvantaged neighborhood and in decreasing regressions and fixations. The two methods used are referred to as the machine method which includes the E.D.L. Tachistoscope and the E.D.L. Controlled Reader, and the basal reader method. The investi-

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[10] Milton Mellanauth Sarusudeen Sankar, "A Comparison of Two Methods of Increasing and Maintaining Reading Speed, Accuracy, Vocabulary and Comprehension among Sixth - Grade Pupils in a Culturally Disadvantaged Neighborhood," Dissertation Abstracts International, 7 (January, 1974), p. 4090 - A.

gator found that both methods produced some gains in speed, accuracy, vocabulary, comprehension and in decreasing the number of regressions and fixations in reading. The machine method group produced significantly better results.

In 1973, Borthwick[11] wanted to determine the effects of question strategy training upon the information gained by fifth - grade students from reading science - related prose selections. His specific purposes were as follows : (1) to determine whether specific training in the use of questioning strategies has an effect on the information gained, (b) to determine whether students' ability has an effect on question strategies, and (3) to determine whether the placement of questions has an effect upon the information gained. The findings were that training students in the use of reading question strategies has a greater effect upon the information gained from reading science - related prose selections than no training. No significant relationship exists between reading ability and the type of strategy used, either on training tests or on a standardized reading test.

In the same year, Williams[12] attempted to determine the

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[11] Paul Bertram Borthwick, "The Effects of Question Strategy Training upon the Information Gained from Reading Science - Related Prose Selections with Fifth - Grade Students," Dissertation Abstracts International, 9 (March, 1974), p. 5795 - A.

[12] Carmelita Kimber Williams, "The Differential Effects of Structured Overviews, Level Guides, and Organizational Pattern Guides upon the Reading Comprehension of Twelfth Grade Students," Dissertation Abstracts International, 10 (April, 1974), p. 6528 - A.

differential effects among three instructional techniques upon true - false measures of three levels of reading comprehension : literal, interpretive, and applied. The treatment techniques were (1) Structured Overviews whereby diagrams were provided the students to aid them in seeing relationships involved among the vocabulary found in textbook materials; (2) Level Guides : simulated processes whereby students were provided reading materials which guided them towards selection of relevant detailed and generalizations that could be drawn from these details; and (3) Organizational Pattern Guides : whereby the students were provided structures generally identified as having the greatest importance and appearing with regularity in text materials as cause/effect, comparison/contrast, time order, and simple listing. This study suggests that the use of structured overviews, level guides, and organizational pattern guides appear to have an effect upon reading comprehension (literal, interpretive, and applied) after students have had practice in using such techniques. The use of level guides with the structured overview proved to be the most significant treatment rendered.

Tezza[13] found that the students who received listening training did not do better than those who read or practiced Audio - Lingual drills.

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[13] J. S. Tezza, "The Effects of Listening Training on Audio - Lingual Learning," Dissertation Abstracts International, 23 (February, 1962), p. 2035 - A.

Barnard[14] attempted to determine the relative effectiveness of presenting narrative material at different word rates on the improvement of listening comprehension and rate of reading comprehension. Five stories from the SRA Better Reading Book One were presented to ninety - two grade students with different abilities in rate of reading comprehension and listening comprehension at the word rates of 125,200, and 275 wpm. The ninety - two subjects were divided into 4 groups of twenty - five subjects per group. The conclusions were that the improvement of rate of reading comprehension is more dependent upon rate of presentation than upon intelligence level. The rate of 125 wpm. produced greater gains for all groups than the rates of 200 and 275 wpm. For all groups, the word rate of 275 wpm. is more efficient, in terms of comprehension level and time expended. The low listening, low rate of reading group was the least efficient group. There was no significant gain in vocabulary listening comprehension for any group at any rate of presentation. The relative performance for vocabulary listening Comprehension is influenced more by rate of presentation than by intelligence. Regardless of rate of reading comprehension, the low listening groups regressed less at the 125 wpm. rate and the high listening regressed less at the 275 wpm. rate of presen-

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[14] Douglas Paul Barnard, "A Study of the Effect of Differentiated Auditory Presentation on Listening Comprehension and Rate of Reading Comprehension at the Sixth Grade Level," Dissertation Abstracts International, 2 (February, 1971), p. 2241 - A.

tation. The improvement of paragraph listening comprehension appears to be influenced more by intelligence than by rate of presentation. There is a hierarchy effect in that the high intelligence group gained more than the average intelligence group, and the average intelligence group gained more than the low intelligence group.

Alexander[15] carried out experiments to find the proper time arragnement for audio - tape based materials that was most effective for learning. An experimental tape of 5 minutes and a 48 - item instrument designed to test content gained from the listening experience were developed prior to the experiment. There were four listening arrangements one fifty - minute module, two twenty - five minutes modules, three eighteen - minute modules and four twelve - and - one - half - minute modules. Each student took the same instrument, but listened to the tape in varying arrangements. This study suggests the use of shorter listening sessions.

In order to determine the effect upon the comprehension of oral reading, silent reading and listening when using the material with a readability level equal to the grade level of the students in grades 2, 3 and 4, Swalm[16] administered a cloze test, deleted only lexical words with a 10 percent random deletion pattern, to 324 students. It was found that, (1) in the second grade, oral reading was significantly better than reading and listening, (2) in the third and the fourth grades, no significant differences were found among the three skills, (3) above average students exhibited a strong tendency to comprehend better when reading than listening in the second and the fourth grades, and (4) for the below - average students, listening becomes the most effective method for comprehension.

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[15] Larry Jack Alexander, "Listening Time as It Related to Learning Information Presented by Audio Tape on a Dial Access System," Dissertation Abstracts International, 3 (March, 1971), p. 5921 - A.

In 1971, Kennedy[17] investigated the effect of visual and auditory training on listening comprehension and reading comprehension. He divided the subjects into 3 groups. Group I received visual traing with cloze procedure; Group II received visual training, and Group III received no training at all. After the subjects took the Durrel Listening - Reading Series, Intermediate Level, it was found that only visual training with cloze precedure benefitted reading comprehension, and both auditory and visual training with the cloze procedure benefitted listening comprehension more than no training at all.

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[16] J. F. Swalm, "Comparison of Oral Reading, Silent Reading, and Listening Comprehension Assessed by Cloze," Dissertation Abstracts International, 31 (March, 1971), p. 4635 - A.

[17] D. K. Kennedy, "Trainging with the Cloze Procedure Visually and Auditorially to Improve the Reading and Listening Comprehension of Third Grade," Dissertation Abstracts International, 3 (May, 1972), p. 6204 - A.

In 1974, Bain[18] tried to analyze the effects on college students' reading achievement of (1) an audio - visual approach in which subjects listened to tape recordings of selections which they simultaneously read and (2) a visual approach in which subjects read selections without tapes. The subjects were divided into experimental and control groups by group matching on the following selected variables : minority status, reading achievement, year in college, age, and sex. The sixty experimental subjects listened to taped presentations (average 200 words per minute) of SRA Reading Laboratory IV a. The sixty - three control subjects read the story without tapes. The results came out that there was no significant difference between the two methods.

Coleman[19] designed instruments to examine the interaction

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[18] June Wilson Bain, "A Study of the Effects on College Students' Reading Achievement of Two Instructional Approaches: Audio - Visual and Visual," Dissertation Abstracts International, 2 (February, 1975), p. 2114 - A.

[19] Betsy E. Coleman, "The Relationship between Auditory and Visual Perceptual Skills and First Grade Reading Achievement under an Initial Phonemics - Reading Approach and under an Initial Structural Linguistics Reading Approach," Dissertation Abstracts International, 2 (February, 1975), p. 2118 - A.

between auditory and visual perceptual skills and two different instructional methods in beginning reading with reading achievement as the criterion measure. A visual analysis test was administered at the beginning of the school year to 331 first grade children. An auditory placement test was administered at the same time to 84 children chosen at random from the total group who took the visual test. Half of the children were in classes using a structural linguistics basal and half were in classes using a phonemics basal reader. The California Achievement Test was administered to all children at the end of the year. She found that there were no interactions between either visual or auditory perceptual skills and the reading methods at the end of the year.

Some scholars have wondered if instruction in Listening could improve Reading. Devine,[20] Duker,[21] Durrell and Murphy[22] proved that there was some evidence that instruction in listening may bring improvement in the reading skill or vice versa.

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[20] T. G. Devine, "Reading and Listening : New Research Finding," Elementary English, 45 (March, 1968), pp. 334 - 48.

[21] S. Duker, Listening : Readings, (Metuchen ; N. J. : Scarecrow Press, 1971), pp. 19 - 20.

[22] D. D. Durrell and Helen A. Murphy, "The Auditory Discrimination Factor in Reading Readiness and Reading Disability," Education, 73 (1953), pp. 556 - 60.

One study[23] of the relative importance of reading and listening in college classes by college freshmen indicated that they considered listening more important than reading in 41% of their courses. In 43% of their courses, they considered listening and reading equally important, and in only 16% did they rate reading as more important than listening.

Durrell and Murphy[24] suggested from their findings that intensive introduction in auditory perception removed most if not all of the advantages that girls appeared to have over boys in first grade reading success. Auditory discrimination and ability to listen to discourse are areas that constitute reading success.

There are many links between reading and listening. There is some similarity because both entail receiving a message. In both cases the person (listener - reader) receives spoken material to decode for meaning.[25]

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[23] Alton C. Morris, and others, College English the First Year, (New York : Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc, 1964), p. 700.

[24] Durrell and Murphy, loc. cit.

[25] Thomas D. Horn, Research Bases for Oral Language Instruction, (The National Council of Teachers of English, III Kenyon Road, Urbana, Illinois, 1972), p. 79.

The process is similar as can be seen from this table.

Reception

Decoding

Listening	Reading
↓	↓
Semantics	Semantics
Syntax	Syntax
Morphology หน่วยคำ	Morphology
Lexicon [illegible]	Lexicon
Phonemes	Graphemes

Initially the process of learning to read may include super - imposing the symbol read upon the auditory one. It appears that no one ever reads totally by vision.[26] It's likely that most people regress and sound out words when they are difficult or unfamiliar, if the words are important. Also with respect to reading and listening, children need to translate the printed, left - to - right special relation into the first - to - last temporal relation of spoken sounds.

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[26] A. W. Edfeldt, Silent Speech and Silent Reading, (Chicago : University of Chicago Press, 1960), p. 83.

In addition, from a developmental standpoint, since the information pattern of sentences found in the native language appears to emerge before lexicalization, the word - used - as - a sentence probably appears before the word. In early reading possibly instruction would be more in line with development if emphasis were placed on the word - sentence rather than on the word. Once the child has adequate reading skill, the two receptive processes (reading and listening) should be mutually supportive, development in one enhancing development in the other. There is some evidence that training operates that way.

In the high - level skills of understaning (e. g. comprehending, interpreting, and evaluating) there is another type of relationship between reading and listening skills. Each process makes use of many of the same feelings, background experiences, understandings, and concepts. The mental assimilation processes in going beyond the physical acts of seeing and hearing may be somewhat similar. But the way sounds are received and translated into meaning through listening is different from the reception of print in reading. The efficiency of intake can be a critical part for instruction designed to improve listening. Horowitz[27] suggested listening is freer from the stimulus than reading and more prone to distort the material conveyed, a looser and less inhibited process. It can also be more in tune with thought as it occurs than reading. The part of the training might include practice in concentration and attention, dealing with noises that mask (refers to the ability of one sound to abscure another) or cover up the message, dealing with auditory fatigue, and calling up more consciously past background to aid in anticipating the message.

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[27] M. W. Horowitz, "Organizational Processes Underlying Differences between Listening and Reading as a Function of Complexity of Material," Journal of Communication, 18 (1968), pp. 37 - 46.

Hearing difficulties also bring trouble for reading. It has been proved by Russell and Fea[28] as well as by Harris[29] that children with auditory deficiencies, even minor ones, may have difficulty in hearing certain sounds represented by letters even when standing close to the speaker. This deficiency may give the child trouble in the phonics or recoding the sound - letter correspondences while reading.

Some leaders in the field of reading such as Chall, Durrell, and Durkin present evidence that suggests that ability to discriminate sounds or parts of words is perhaps even more associated with first - grade reading success than are I. Q. Scores.

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[28] D. H. Russell and H. R. Fea, "Research on Teaching Reading," Handbook of Research on Teaching, (N. L. Gage, Chicago : Rand McNally, 1963), p. 125.

[29] T. L. Harris, "Reading," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, (R. L. Ebel, New York : Macmillan, 1969), p. 1083.

Research of Rebeck and Wilson[30] appears to imply a positive relationship between auditory discrimination of patterns and eary reading achievement. Older children with severe reading disabilities usually lack the skill to discriminate some of the patterns of phonemes. They added that children with experience in hearing many voices and speech variations, including distinct pronunciation and articulation, have an advantage in the recoding - decoding process of reading. The discriminating, synthesizing, and structuring of auditory stimuli into transferable auditory patterns is the beginning of generalization about the sound parts in words - a crucial component of reading readiness.

Development an an accurate listener and reproducer of language is closely linked with beginning success in reading. Expecting a child to attend to specific sounds of words and parts of words during reading without calling on his listening background can be ineffective. Variations in background with sounds that children have are largely responsible for the differences in readiness for reading instruction.

Russell and Fea[31] characterized the role of auditory perception in reading this way :

1. Learner hears sounds made by others.
2. Learner hears sound made by himself.

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[30] M. C. Robeck and J. A. R. Wilson, Psychology of Reading : Foundation for Instruction, (New York : Wiley, 1974), p. 205.

[31] Russell and Fea, loc. cit.

3. Learner hears blends of sounds made by himself.
4. Reader vocalizes in order to use visual and auditory cues.
5. Reader subvocalizes (reduction of auditory cue).

They believed that sounds heard are not the significant part of language but meanings are. Mechanics of word recognition and pronunciation are not the significant part of reading, but getting meaning is.

The relationships between listening and reading are that the development of both calls for the teacher to give attention to readiness which may include experience with English language speaking and listening, vocabulary enrichment sufficient to the task, interest in language activity, and ability to follow and remember a short sequence of sounds and ideas.

Neither listening nor reading a sound or even a word is is the unit of comprehension, but sounds and words do effect comprehension of the phrase, the sentence, the paragraph and larger units of discourse. The unit of comprehension is likely to be the phrase, the sentence, the paragraph, and the whole unit of discourse in context and in varied relationships.

Both listening and reading may take place in either individual or in social situations. The analytical and critical thinking part of the process may flourish better in the individual situation, e.g., reading in a quiet room. So listening was found operating as a receptive pair with reading.

An analysis of the primary features of the Listening and Reading skills shows the following basic distinctions:

Classification	Listening	Reading
Language		
Minimum features	Phonemes	Letters
Symbol context	Pause	Comma, periods, semicolon, dash
	Stress	Italics
	Intonation	Capitalization
	Pitch	Paragraphing
	Pronunciation	Spelling
	Timbre	Handwriting
	Amplitude	Type size
Time pressure	Strong, sequential holding impermanent or requiring equipment for recorded speech	Weak, reader can review, see several elements at once; holding limited to the permanence of material used
Physical science		
Maximum capacity	8000 bits of information per second	40 X 10^6 bits of information per second (Duker)[32]
Vibration	Of air	Of light
Field of variation	Time	Space

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[32] S. Duker, Listening Bibliography, (Metuchen, N. J. : Scarecrow Press, 1968), .p. 316.

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Classification	Listening	Reading
Spectrum effects	Pitch, timbre	Color
Amplitude	Loud - soft	Bright - dim
Measurement units	Decibels	Lumens
Science	Acoustics	Optics
Human being		
Person context	Simple to complex	Usually absent
Mascular act	None necessary	Eye - movement chiefly
Malfunction	Deafness	Blindness
Causes of fatigue	e.g. masking	e.g. illigibility remote
Feedback	Immediate in conversation, review rare	Rereading and review possible, usually no immediate opportunity to question author
Emotion	Sometimes strong, in interaction with other people	Usually weak, individual reacts to himself most frequently

Listening

What are the elements in the listening process?

1. Previous knowledge (antecedent conditions). The location of listening in the scheme of language learning and in education seems to put it chronologically or temporally first. Previous knowledge of vacabulary and vocabulary acquisition may have some different elements with respect to listening and to reading. Listening as meaningful communication does not get very far or used as aural counterparts of words read. For reading, words may be learned as visual counterparts of words listened to, or words may be encountered in print. The size of an auditory vocabulary may provide evidence of potential reading improvement while the size of visual vocabulary may represent a certain measure of reading achievement.

2. Materials may have linguistic structure: letter - sound (grapho - phonological structure), sentence (syntactic structure), meaning (semantic structure). The message may be classified as:

expository (reference oriented or informative)
personal (self - expressive, emotive)
persuasive (incitive)
literary (e.g. poetic)

It's necessary to control speed of presentation to have little variation in intonation, give opportunity for review. Two pieces of research by Anderson[33] suggested that teachers use questions before

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[33] R.C. Anderson, "Control of Student Mediating Processes during Verbal Learning and Instrustion," Review of Educational Research, 40 (June, 1970), pp. 349 - 69.

and after materials which get the individual to respond to certain aspects of a text.

3. Listenability means the inherent difficulty of spoken material (e.g. public speeches, radio broadcasts, lectures) because of such factors as vocabulary load, lexical complexity, grammar complexity and treatment of subject matter. Variables would have to be controlled in these studies, such as, rate of speech, clarity of pronunciation, skilful use of intonation, stress, pauses, and ideological complexity that includes signals, ideas, etc.

Goldstein[34] cautioned that test passages which are equivalent for reading may not be equivalent for listening. He compared reading and listening as a function of rate of presentation. He used seven rates of presentation the highest of which was 322 words per minute. This was one of the first studies to suggest that generally people could well listen at a faster rate than they do and not lose much in the way of comprehension.

Brown[35] found that material that measures tenth grade in readability is about twelfth grade in listenability (audability). Because of difficulties in word recognition at low grade levels,

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[34] H. Goldstein, "Reading and Listening Comprehension at Various Controlled Rates," Contributions to Education, (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960), p. 80.

[35] J. I. Brown, "The Construction of a Diagnostic Test of Listening Comprehension," Journal of Experimental Education, 18 (December, 1969), pp. 139 - 46.

reading materials may be at about 2 grade levels below listening levels.

4. Physiological Activity. If the listener can't hear, he has no hope of getting the meaning from the message. The parts included might be called:

a. Auditory acuity. Human range of conscious reception is at about 15,000 to 20,000 vibrations or cycles per second.

b. Auditory perception, discrimination, and analysis refers to distinction of sounds that are caused by points of articulation, degree of nasality, amount of lip closure including voicing and unvoicing. It has also been proved that poor discrimination, poor pronunciation, and poor reading tend to go together.

c. Auditory memory. The listener has to depend upon his auditory memory span.

d. Auditory sequencing refers to the recall of sounds in proper time sequence. The sequence into which words fall may determine the meaning of a sentence, e.g.

He went to bed and had 3 martinis.

He had three martinis and went to bed.

5. Attention and Concentration (tuning in). Children can't listen well in bad conditions. Normal speech may progress at the rate of 125 - 175 words per minute. Depending upon the material, speech speeded up to 350 words per minute shows negligible comprehension loss.

6. Highly conscious intellectual activity at the time of

listening and beyond listening. Auditory comprehension means the ability to understand and remember the meanings back of the word signals. The listener can comprehend the purpose of objects he has seen physically when he looks at them using his mind. Comprehension might be examined from the standpoint of 3 dimensions as Guildford[36] has reported

1. content (semantic)
2. operations (evaluation)
3. product (implications)

Possible steps of proficient listeners as they move from verbal sounds, to meaning, to intellectual activity leading hopefully and ultimately to creative problem - solving. There are 3 main parts to the model:

- responding and organizing
- getting meaning and
- thinking beyond listening

The 10 suggested steps consist of the abilities to

1. hear
2. hold in memory
3. attend
4. form images
5. search store
6. compare
7. test cues
8. recode
9. get meaning
10. intellectualize

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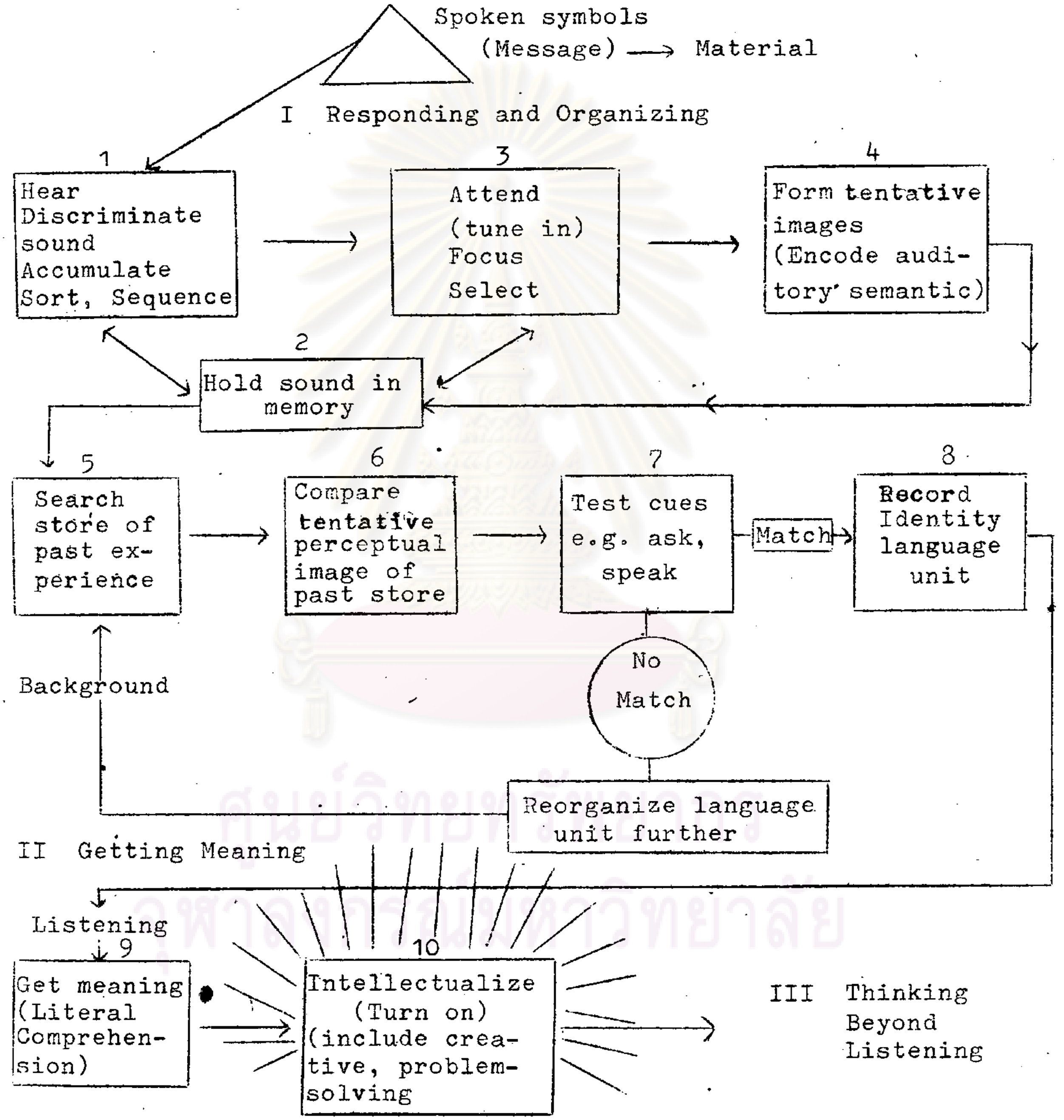
[36] J. P. Guildford, The Nature of Human Intelligence, (New York: McGrawhill, 1967), p. 255.

Flowchart of Listening (How it works)

Steps a Proficient Listener May Take


Spoken symbols
(Message) → Material
I Responding and Organizing
1
Hear
Discriminate
sound
Accumulate
Sort, Sequence
3
Attend
(tune in)
Focus
Select
4
Form tentative
images
(Encode audi-
tory semantic)
2
Hold sound in
memory
5
Search
store of
past ex-
perience
6
Compare
tentative
perceptual
image of
past store
7
Test cues
e.g. ask,
speak
Match
8
Record
Identity
language
unit
No
Match
Background
Reorganize language
unit further
II Getting Meaning
Listening
9
Get meaning
(Literal
Comprehen-
sion)
10
Intellectualize
(Turn on)
(include crea-
tive, problem-
solving
III Thinking
Beyond
Listening

Listening is like reading mainly because both refer to processes of receiving language and both operate from the same base of language.

The teacher should have specific objectives in teaching. The following goals are for listening comprehension:

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1. To remember significant details accurately;
2. To remember simple sequences of words and ideas;
3. To follow oral directions;
4. To understand denotative meanings of words;
5. To understand meanings of words from spoken context;
6. To listen, to answer, and to formulate simple questions;
7. To paraphrase a spoken message;
8. To understand connotative meanings of words;
9. To identify main ideas and to summarize (the who, what, when, where, why);
10. To listen for implications of significant details;
11. To listen for implications of main ideas;
12. To understand interrelationships among ideas expressed or implied and the organizational pattern of spoken materials well enough to predict what will probably come next;
13. To follow a sequence in
    (a) plot development
    (b) character development
    (c) speaker's argument;
14. To improve structure on a spoken presentation, sometimes including note - taking by
    (a) realizing the purpose of the speaker
    (b) remaining aware of personal motives in listening
    (c) connecting and relating what is said later in the

presentation with earlier portions;

(d) detecting translational words or phrases which refer the listener back or carry him along;

(e) detecting the skeleton of main and supporting points and other interrelationships;

15. To connect the spoken material with previous experience;

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

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

Some prerequisite points for consideration of the listening skill are as follows:

1. Memory span
   1.1 Auditory memory span for meaningful sound sequences and syllables
   1.2 Auditory memory span for nonsense syllables
   1.3 Auditory memory span for words, sentences, paragraphs and other linguistic features in organized and disorganized discourse
2. Further elements of a working vocabulary for listening
   2.1 Hearing
   2.2 Listening (understanding the difference between these terms including levels of listening, showing increase in consciousness and complexity of comprehension and processing skill)
   2.3 Two - way responsibility for communication
   2.4 Having a flexible purpose for listening

2.5 Optimal use of left - over thinking space (or thinking time) while listening

2.6 Similarities and differences between listening and reading (e.g. contexts, time pressure, material or hardware - medium - the medium may be the message)

2.7 Emphatic listening

2.8 Report versus emotive spoken discourse

2.9 Interrelation of other language skills with listening skill

2.10 Nonfacilitating barriers or "bad" habits in listening

a. Labeling the subject as dull (negative attitude set)

b. Over - reacting - failure to recognize the non - rational, the subliminal device, letting emotion - laden words get in the way of the message, over self - assertion of emotional aspects of the communication atmosphere, personal antagonism.

c. Inflexible purpose - e.g. listening only for details, detailed outlining of all input.

d. Faking attention instead of directing and maintaining it ("tuning out")

e. Ease of distractability

f. Missing large blocks of message

g. Listening only to easy material (avoiding challenging listening)

h. Wasting the difference between speech and thought speed.

i. Daydreaming

j. Private planning, private parallel argument

k. Creating distractions

l. Inability to anticipate next point (inability to plan for and anticipate the message)

m. Inability to identify supporting material

n. Inability to summarize in own words

o. Inability to relate thinking to main theme of spoken material

2.11 Using the difference between speech and thought speed (tuning - in; turning - on)

a. Using related mental imagery, applying criteria, relating past personal experience to the message, entertaining many alternatives, adjusting the differing situations and individuals

b. Identifying focus words or organizational clues

c. Having a question set (i.e. gentle, exploratory probling)

2.12 Discrimination of:

a. Sound - stress, juncture (pause), pitch (supra - segmental contrasts), rhythm, emphasis, phrasing, rate, volume

b. Sequence

c. Sound contrasts, e.g. vowel, consonant

d. Grammatical contrasts (e.g. The business fails; The businesses fail)

e. Reduced forms (e.g. You can't jog; You can jog)

2.13 Using context

a. Short message without memory (mnemonic) devices, Component focus, Contextual focus.

b. Long message with mnemonic devices:

Preparation for listening
Prior discussion of context/or vocabulary
Giving the number of major points coming
Giving a partial outline
Question outline
Selective listening
Note-taking
Listening for time signals,tenses,articles,etc.
Ungraded reconstruction- summary.

2.14 Finding the organizational skeleton in the spoken discourse

2.15 Avoiding the illusion that expression is communication

2.16 Knowing group discussion rules,strategies,and courtesies

2.17 Demanding meaning (conscious effort to increase vocabulary)

2.18 Encouraging upward communication (for a person in authority)

2.19 Using redundancy to reduce line loss

2.20 Avoiding overset for redundancy (Teacher always repeats directions many times so why bother to listen the first time?)

2.21 Improving the climate for communication

2.22 Making a listening inventory

2.23 Keeping a listening log

2.24 Constructing standards for effecting listening

2.25 Appreciating unexpressed meanings (Rarely do we say exactly what we mean or mean exactly what we say)

2.26 Understanding the concept of noise pollution

2.27 Listening appreciatively: sensing emotions, moods, manner of delivery (the inquisitive wheeze of an opening drawer, the gossipy whisper of a broom)

2.28 Listening with patience

2.29 Getting a transfer from the listening skill to the reading skill and the reverse

2.30 Listening critically, e. g.

- a. Evaluating hearsay evidence
- b. Evaluating hidden assumptions in oral speech
- c. Evaluating point of view
- d. Spotting and evaluating speaker's purpose, intent.

The next step is to choose for instructional emphasis those points of cultural importance and of particular relevence to the target group's age level, attention span, and diagnosed weaknesses.

Subskill: General Listening Objectives

1. Distinguishing hearing from listening
2. Demonstrating Two - Way, Listener - Speaker Responsibility
3. Selecting facts and details

4. Sequential ordering - the child recalls and identifies sequential order: responds to such questions as: "Which came first in the story?"

5. Selecting Main Idea

6. Summarizing covertly as "Give one sentence telling what the story is about "----"

7. Relating one idea to another

8. Inference making as "The story leads us to believe that ----"

Background of Thai students in the study of English before entering a university[37]

1. Aims of teaching.

In Thailand, English is a compulsory subject from the upper primary school level up to the upper secondary level. This means that students have to take English for eight years before they enter a university. One of the purposes of English teaching as stated in the syllabus for the Secondary Education issued by the Ministry of Education, is to enable the students to use the English language in everyday life according to their grade level. In order to fulfill this purpose, the skills of listening, speaking, reading for comprehension and oral reading, and writing in English must be taught

2. Problems. However, the actual teaching of English in the secondary schools all over Thailand has not fulfilled the per-

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[37] Homnuan Chuenchitra, presented to the SEAMEO Regional E.L.C. at Singapore, 1973.

pose of the teaching. The failure to develop listening and reading skills seems to be quite evident. This is due to the following reasons:

a. The lack of good models

b. The lack of motivation in both teaching and learning of oral English

In listening, the essential functions listed here are important[38]

1. The clarity of sound reproduction.
2. Retracing.
3. Self - pacing - the ability of the student to work at his own speed.
4. Material selection. Active practice is supplemented by listening practice or passive hearing of dialogue, narrations, speeches, poems, newscasts, discussions, or dramatic presentations.

Classroom follow - up of laboratory work may consist of such things as the following:

1. Verification of answers to quizzes which were made a part of tape drill. Students note answers in the course of the laboratory session, and check them in class.
2. Dictation based on structures in the taped work.
3. Questions based upon narration or dialogue.
4. Class performance of the actual drill practice of the

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[38] Edward M. Stack, The Language Laboratory and Modern Language Teaching, (London: Oxford University Press, 1971), p. 4.

laboratory.

Fox[39] suggested controlled listening exercises to sharpen and improve the student's ability to listen effectively. These exercises should encourage him to listen for meaning rather than sound, to make use of contexual cues, and to get at the essentials of the material he hears.

There are various ways of helping the student listen selectively. One exercise is to give him certain performance objedtives - to give him certain general informational questions that he should be able to answer after he listens to material the first time. These questions should require only the isolation of facts clearly revealed in the material. Questions that require application or inference from the information contained in the listening exercise are best used at later stages or with more advanced students.

More controls are necessary at less advanced levels. Sheets containing sequentially - organized and significant questions as context and content - questions that call for one - word answers - serve as useful guides for the student. Such questions help him filter out and listen for significant information. The questions themselves suggest the content and provide the student with an organizational frame for selective listening. What sort of text should the teachers use for listening - comprehension exercises? The teachers tend to read passages, to record news broadcasts, or to prepare lectures. All these

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[39] James W. Fox, "Teaching Listening Skills," English Teaching Forum, Vol. XIII, 4 (October - December, 1974), pp. 42 - 45.

have value as listening - comprehension activities. But they are extremely difficult sources for early practice in selective listening. For one thing, they present the listener with spoken writing. That is, they communicate in the highly organized and complex mode of written language - not in the mode of natural discourse. Specifically, this type of listening exercise does not present the colloquialisms, the redundancies, the hesitations, the gestures and facial expressions that are an inseparable part of spoken language. They emphasize informational content and fail to provide the signals used to communicate information and meaning.

Since most of the actual listening the student will be exposed to outside of class is likely to be real-life conversation, it seems wisest to use materials cast in real-life situations for listening - comprehension exercises - at least at the beginning level. So listening exercises should be as natural as the situations from which they grow. Built into the "script" should be the redundancies, hesitations, brief responses, disjointed sentences, and the like, that abound in real conversations. In other words, an exercise in listening comprehension must be as close as possible to a "slice of life" - neither a contrived situation nor an artificially delivered discourse.

Radio or Television scripts (with the exception of advertising, which depends heavily on immediate impact through repetition) are especially difficult. No one can "interpret" much from the dispassionate voice and facial expressions of a newscaster.

The teachers can use as the basis for listening exercises such current and local material as advertisements, news broadcasts, and weather reports from radio and television. The teachers would support these with guiding context/content questions. A question sheet for the students to complete about a weather report might look like this:

1. Temperature for tomorrow High________ Low________
2. Wind direction ____________________
3. Temperature now ____________________
4. Highest (or lowest) temperature ever recorded on this date ____________________

But the teachers should use extreme care in using materials such as these. They do not have the advantages of natural discourse, whose content can often be anticipated from context by the use of cues.

The ease or difficulty for the listener is directly related to the listener's background of knowledge. If when he listens to the material he already has some familiarity with the news item, then he will probably be able to understand more than one who has no familiarity with the subject matter. But their heavy informational content and their lack of redundancy make news items especially difficult for students to understand. The teachers should take this into account when preparing and using listening exercises in this field for the students.

One useful way to reinforce a listening exercise with "spoken writing" is to give it as dictation. This is particularly useful for the visually oriented adult. Dictation not only helps the student in understanding but also helps both teacher and student in diagnosing the student's listening problems - particularly those problems related to faulty phonological discriminations.

Halley[40] suggests several types of basic models in teaching listening.

Type I. It is important to be capable of attending to one particular event in a multi - event environment. Therefore, ask students to obtain information from one source while other potential sources are also present.

A. Read a story with irrelevant music in the background and test students over story content. Be sure to explain what the teacher is doing and why, and make it pleasant.

B. Have someone read a story in another part of the room to one group while the teacher reads to another. The students should be told that they will have the other story at another time, and the task must be approached as enjoyable. Ask for information about the story.

C. Play a musical record for the class that has several different types of instruments with identifiable melodies. First ask the students to identify the instruments. Then ask them to listen to one instrument, and test them by asking them to hum the melody of that instrument.

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[40] Richard D. Halley, "Some Suggestions for the Teaching of Listening," The Speech Teacher, Vol. XXIV, 4 (November, 1975), pp. 387 - 9.

Type II. It is often desirable to be distracted by each new type of event in a series. The problem is that the event one is currently observing continues to go on while one needs also to attend to the next event. Air traffic controllers, traffic policemen, and parents are examples of individuals who face this situation. As an exercise, ask students to obtain information from several sources at the same time. The task can be simplified at first by having the information from each source come at a different time and by announcing the sequence in which the sources will operate. The tasks are then made more complex by increasing the amount of information from each source, increasing the speed at which the information travels, and failing to announce the sequence of source activation.

A. Record a series of familiar sounds on four tapes. Place a recorder in each corner of the room, and run them all at once. Ask the students to tell you what they hear as each sound occurs. The task can be made more difficult by asking them to wait through a tape (perhaps 60 seconds at first) and then report what they heard, or by increasing the number of sounds on the tapes during the minute and having some of the sounds begin to overlap.

B. Have two stories read at the same time, either by two readers or by using one or two tape recorders. Instruct students to try to get as much of both stories as possible. The test can be as simple as noting (so that the individual knows you are doing so) that he or she remembers parts of the story when you are reading together later. This exercise can be simplified by slowing the reading rates or even by playing one paragraph of one story and then a paragraph of the other story in alternating fashion.

C. Ask a student to sit and observe as much of what all the other students are doing as possible. Then ask the individual to report what he or she has observed. To simplify this exercise, ask the student to provide an ongoing report about several classmates. The students' responses may be recorded on tape for later teacher referral once you are certain the students understand the task clearly.

Type III. It is often desirable to respond to stimuli globally, particularly when the information is about emotions or moods. This third activity is important for teaching students to distinguish between emotional portions and content portions of messages. It is difficult to teach students to make the vital distinction, but all listening is easier if it can be made. It is useful to ask students to obtain information about emotions or moods when listening to various sources.

A. When someone is reading, ask for information about the feelings of the reader.

B. Have students listen to music and ask about the feelings portrayed in the music.

C. If you can have live music, ask also about the musician's feelings while he is playing. Remember that these feelings may be in conflict with the intent of the composer.

D. Much can be done with movies and videotape. A desirable procedure is to videotape your class and then have the students talk about the information they gain about the feelings of their

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classmates.

The suggestions outlined above are designed to stimulate the teacher's imagination. The important things to remember are:

1. since all your actions effect the models the student is building, it is best to know what those influences are in order to control them;

2. a variety of types of listening demands and rewards should be provided so that each student more effectively participates in a variety of tasks;

3. it takes a great deal of time to build a model that is effective;

4. the more insight you gain concerning the elements involved in the various tasks and the rewards for the student in each, the better you will be able to structure tasks which help students build effective models for responding to their world.

The general principles applying are:

1. Teach only one new thing at a time.

2. Keep the utterances short.

3. Establish and hold a pattern for at least eight utterances.

Length of Drills - Tape units should be short enough to allow at least two plays during one laboratory period. If the laboratory class allows 50 minutes, the time table should be scheduled like this:

- 5 minutes to get settled and turn on equipment at the beginning of the period, and 5 minutes at the end to turn off equip-

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ment, clear the booths, push the chairs and so on.

- this leaves 40 minutes. A tape unit could then be a maximum of 20 minutes in length, (the same length as in reading. It should not usually take up more than 15 - 20 minutes), and still allow 2 hearings.

It has been estimated that 75% of the average adult audience can give adequate attention during the last 15 minutes of a talk, but only 50% maintain a high level of attention during the next 15 minutes. Only 25% continue to give optimum attention throughout a forty - five minute talk, and any remarks beyond forty - five minutes are so much wasted energy on the part of the speaker.

- 2 tapes of different natures may be used during the period to provide a change of pace. In this case, each tape should not be over 10 minutes in length; this will permit two hearings of each during the period. **Drills** of approximately 10 minutes, duration are considered to be suitable. Students are allowed to remove their headsets to rest their ears every ten minutes or so in most laboratories, anyway, and this is best done at the end of a tape.

Types of Drills

1. Dialogues and Dialogue - Exploitation. Authentic dialogues are presented on tape, using native speakers, everyday situations, sound effects and sometimes music. Dialogues are best presented twice on tape:

(a) at normal speed

(b) phrase by phrase, with pauses for imitation by the students.

2. Narration. The telling of stories, recounting the incidents, provides listening practice. The teachers may also use any of the devices associated with dialogues to exploit the vocabulary and structures such stories contain. Meaning may be tested with true - false questions, or questions requiring full answers (at a more advanced level)

3. Dictation is one technique to approach the written form of the utterances taught first in oral form, saving class time and enabling students to stop and reply to parts, as often as necessary. They make their own corrections by comparing their dictation with the printed text. Writing dictation in the laboratory should be based upon materials in the text so that the page and sentence number may be stated on the tape.

The Teaching of Aural Comprehension[41]

Aural Comprehension of English by foreign learners often seems surprisingly defective even when they appear to have fairly good productive control of the language. It may be easier to compose sentences and produce them after a little conscious thought than to follow the speech of another person, possibly quite new and unexpected in form and content, and no sooner uttered than gone past recall. However, it is possible to improve learners' aural comprehension, and this not only seems a worthwhile aim, but one which can be realized even where the class is large and conditions generally unfavorable to the acquisition of some other language skills.

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[41] John Montagu Butler, "The Teaching of Aural Comprehension," Language Learning, 3 (August, 1968), pp. 6 - 10.

The problems of aural comprehension are only in part linguistic. They involve, amongst others, the ability to give relaxed - but good - attention to what is said without worrying too much about what was missed or not understood, the ability to memorise and 'play back' stretches of speech, and the ability to guess intelligibly and sometimes boldly. Good guesswork is greatly aided if the listener to some extent knows what to expect. This provides him with a certain helpful and necessary redundance.

There is no reason why a learner should be asked to face all the difficulties of aural comprehension at once. Such difficulties may include the following:

1. the hearing and identification of sounds foreign to the listener's language system;

2. mental adjustments and decisions on which differences are distinctive, and which can be disregarded;

3. the recognition of significant sound-combinations even where these are not separated by any pause or audibly marked in any way;

4. the identification of meaningful stretches of speech, and the matching of them up with already known stretches or pattern-types or rules specifying these;

5. the relation of these surface patterns to deeper generalised meaning:e.g. the different meanings of 'put up' in ' He put up the shutters' and ' He put up at a hotel';

6. the relation of these meanings to a particular context

or subject-matter with all the attitudinal factors involved. All this has to be done at great speed.

Our final aim may be to prepare pupils to understand anything and everything they hear with no clues other than the language, but in the early stages it is unrealistic and harmful to insist insist on this. In listening to our mother tongue, we rarely have to do this; there is nearly always some redundancy in the speech-situation to aid comprehension, and we should see that foreign learners of English are given some help, though not always of the same kind.

It is a great help to understand if the listener is already familiar with the subject-matter. This is one reason why recent news broadcasts provide such excellent material for aural comprehension. To give questions on the passage to be listened to before listening (pre-questions) does help to indicate the subject-matter, and sharpens the learner's attention by directing it to what is important.

Repetition is another aid to comprehension. If the learner does not understand the first time, let him listen again, as often as necessary, and always at the same speed. A tape-recorder is obviously useful for the purpose.

Grammatical expectation or prediction helps to understand comprehension. If students do not understand a sentence after one or two hearings, it has proved helpful to lay out a simple grammatical analysis or stretch of it on the blackboard. Such a matrix helps them to listen for what goes where and with what. Perhaps a better way of doing this would be to precede the hearings by drilling the more important patterns orally, using a variety of words likely to occur. Nevertheless, it is useful to list the words likely to give trouble either because their sound and shape is unfamiliar or their meaning in this context is unknown, and to introduce them orally and in writing before learners listen to the comprehension passage. The meaning may be presented by means of translation if this is the quickest way. It is essential that the words should be repeated several times so as to accustom the listener to their sound as used in the passage. Structural words should should not be introduced in isolation but as part of the phrase in which they occur.

Really good comprehension requires that the listener should learn to take in fairly large "mouthfuls" extending over phrases, clauses, short sentences, and even longer stretches of speech. The size and structure of the mouthful will vary according to the experience and competence of the listener, and also the grammar, meaning and style of the passage concerned. Mouthfuls will not necessarily correspond to phonological units such as feet or tone-groups- in fact they may cut across such units - but they will to some extent be characterised by features such as stress, intonation and possible pause, which "punctuate" the passage. In conversation some of the necessary punctuation is provided by attention-signals, sounds made by the listener to show that he is listening and understood.

Among other functions - some of which are more specifically grammatical-intonation has that of calling attention to the key

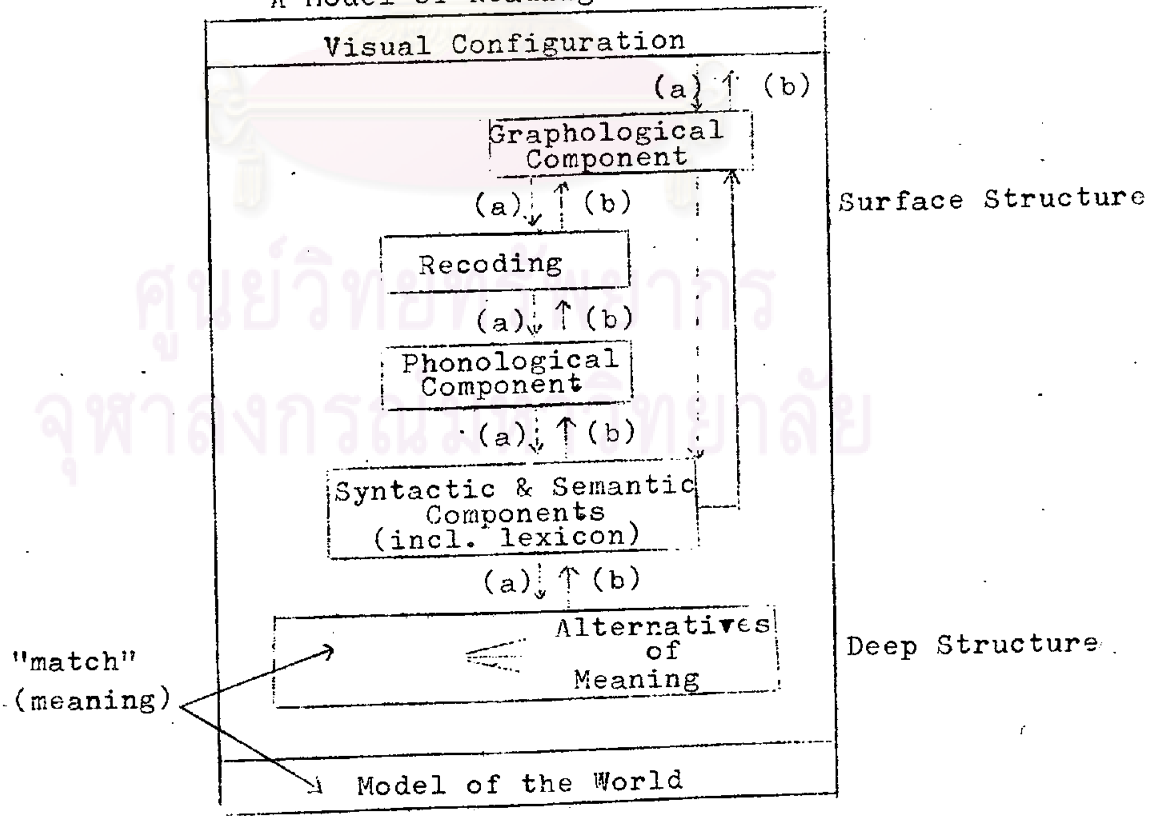
key-word in a stretch of speech which may be more or less than a sentence, and that of indicating the speaker's intentions, his attitude to what he is saying, and his attitude to the listener. Such attitude-markers are often difficult for the foreign listener to interpret.

The condition of study, the opportunities for application and practice, and the psychological approach to comprehension are often more important than the purely linguistic factors involved. Practice and exposure to normal speech, memory, and intelligent guesswork are all essential, and so also is the cultivation of mood of relaxed receptivity, free from distracting strain and worry. Perhaps the greatest obstacle to understanding is fear.

Reading

Reading is seen as an active process rather than the mere passive reception of visual stimuli and involves the active postulation of meaning and the functioning of a number of component "processes" which include the model of the world, the postulated alternatives of meaning at the deep structure level, the syntactic and semantic components, and the graphological component. Reading involves recognition of many symbols which have no meaning in themselves and which may be combined in innumerable combinations in order to convey meanings to others. The visible eye movements and fixations are only a small part of the invisible mental process of reading.

A Model of Reading Process


Visual Configuration
(a)
(b)
Graphological Component
(a)
(b)
Surface Structure
Recoding
(a)
(b)
Phonological Component
(a)
(b)
Syntactic & Semantic Components (incl. lexicon)
(a)
(b)
"match" (meaning)
Alternatives of Meaning
Deep Structure
Model of the World

Path (a) tends to be followed by less skilled readers.

Path (b) is characteristically followed by fluent readers.

Component processes of reading

1. Model of the world -

Of fundamental importance to the reading process and crucial to both reading and cognitive development in a cross - cultural learning situation is the model of the world. A major factor in the individual's interaction with his environment is the perceived stability of the objects and events that surround him. In any situation, past learning enables the perceiver to extrapolate certain attributes and to impose a certain structure. The perceiver plays an active part selecting, classifying and organizing the stimuli that impinge on him. Each incoming stimulus is thus interpreted in the light of preceding experience, the existing cognitive structure imposing on its own organization or interpretation in the course of assimilation.

The language reflects the culture and is the means for its transmission from generation to generation and as the language is acquired so it draws the attention of the learner to aspects of his environment. The ability of a learner of a foreign language to use the "normal" patterns of the language plays a major part in determining his comprehension ability.

2. Deep Structure, Alternatives of Meaning, Syntactic and Semantic Components -

Reading has already been seen to involve the reduction of alternatives, the alternatives of meaning being postulated from the lowest level of the model to generate tentative deep structures and changed and reduced as the visual configuration is scanned, by interaction between the various levels of models. Deep structure is considered as a cluster of interrelated semantic features or the set of concepts and their relationships which compose the meaning of an utterance. The alternatives of meaning postulated at this level are the result of the reader's predicting on the basis of his model of the world what concepts will be selected by the text and what relationships will be specified between them.

3. Phonological Component, Recoding and Graphological Component -

The phonological component is an essential element in oral production and comprehension and its counterpart in the written language enabling the recognition of letters, words, etc, despite varied scripts is the graphological component. It permits the existence of a relationship between the visual configuration and the reader's lexicon analogous to that he has established between sound and the lexicon. Thereafter meaning may be assigned (as happens with readers who follow Path (b)) or the graphemic representation is recoded into sound (as happens with readers who follow Path (a)). Thus, the Recoding Component provides the oral counterpart of the visual configuration after the initial recognition of the shapes has been carried out by the Graphological Component. The sound, the product of Recoding, is then interpreted and further decoded by the Phonological Component much as in aural comprehension.

These component processes should be considered as acting monolithically and in interaction though the decoding process commences with the reader's expectation of abstracting meaning and the postulated alternatives of meaning which, if the reading is successful, are reduced to that one assumed to be intended by the writer. The actual set of postulated alternatives is determined by at least 3 factors : (a) the nature of the reader's model of-the world (this being culturally influenced). (b) the operation of the retrieval system, and (c) the nature of the stimulus to which the set of alternatives constitutes a response (and which may include as well as the text such things as pictures, films, or the context). The set is first established prior to the commencement of decoding of any particular sentence by, for example, expectations raised by pictures or preceding context and is progressively modified. Levin and Kaphan say this :

> "--- the reader, or listener continually assigns tentative interpretations to a text or message and checks these interpretations. As the material is grammatically or semantically constrained he is able to formulate correct hypotheses about what will come next."

4. Meaning

The individual copes with the infinite diversity and complexity of his environment by categorizing incoming stimuli and imposing his own structure upon experience. Each incoming stimulus only has "meaning" when it can be so classified and meaning can be defined as the internalized representation of an object or event consequent upon its assimilation or accommodation into extant psychological structures, i.e., into the individual's model of the world. For effective communication to occur, the parties to the communication process must not only share the same words and grammar but there must be a degree of commonality between their individual models of the world.

Our reading is a series of visual impressions carried to our brain in a rapid sequence. We stop for each glance and then move on for another glance at another word or phrase. Reading rate, then, is a combination of the amount we see at each glance, the length of time we hesitate for each eye fixation, and the speed with which the eye can move and focus on another unit of material.

The first of these factors we refer to as "eye span" - the quantity of reading material we can see at one glance. For some people this may be a single word : for others, one complete phrase; and for others, still larger units of thought. For the very rapid reader, this may be several lines or a paragraph.

The second factor is closely related to the thinking process. It is sometimes referred to as a rate or apperception, or a rate of perception. How long does it take to register the impression of what we see and to transmit it to the brain, and how long does it take the brain to interpret what was seen? Unless one has had an accident resulting in damage of brain issue, he probably is capable of a great deal of acceleration in this thinking process.

The third factor of rate is that of the eye movement in shifting from one point of focus to another. This is primarily a physical factor requiring the acceleration of rhythmic habits of eye movement.

The average individual is not aware of his complex pattern of reading habits and therefore makes little effort to coordinate the factors effecting his reading efficiency. Recognition of various types of reading and adjustment of his reading habits to the type and purpose of specific reading assignments is essential. Most individuals have a rather limited range of reading efficiency, however, and therefore have little leeway in adjusting to different types. The normal adult who may be reading at a rate of about 250 words per minute actually is capable of reading 500 words per minute if he is properly stimulated. Some reading centers have reported individuals who have achieved rates as high as 50,000 words per minute on certain types of material. The potential maximum reading speed of any individual is unknown, but most reading authorities are convinced that the possibilities for any normal adult are limited only by his own interest and his determination to improve.

The degree of relationship between rate and comprehension varies with the age of the readers, the kinds of material used, and the methods used in measuring the two factors. Yoakam has distinguished four major rates of reading, and has indicated some of the kinds of reading situations in which they are appropriate :

Reading Rates Appropriate for Different Purposes[42]

1. Skimming rate

Work - type reading : to find a reference; to locate new material; to answer a specific question; to get the general idea of a selection.

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[42] Gerald A. Yoakam, Basal Reading Instruction, (New York : McGraw Hill Book Co., 1955), p. 219.

Recreational reading : to go through a book or magazine to get a general idea of the contents; to review a familiar story.

2. Rapid reading

Work - type : to review familiar material; to get the main idea or central thought; to get information for temporary use.

Recreational : to read narrative material primarily for the plot; to read informational material for pleasure or relaxation; to reread familiar material.

3. Normal rate

Work - type : to find answers to specific questions: to note details; to solve a problem; to grasp relation of details to main ideas; to read material of average difficulty.

Recreational : to appreciate beauty of literary style: to keep up with current events; to read with the intention of later retelling the story.

4. Careful rate

Work - type : to master content including details; to evaluate material; to get details in sequence, as in following directions; to outline, to summarize, or paraphrase; to analyze author's presentation, to solve a problem.

Recreational : to read material with unusual vocabulary or style; to read poetry; to read with the intent of memorizing; to judge literary values.

The choice of an inappropriate rate of reading is sometimes an important factor in comprehension difficulties. When a pupil is poor in both speed and comprehension, the major efforts of the remedial teacher should be expended on the improvement of comprehension. Speed should not be emphasized at all until there is an adequate basis for reading with understanding.

Pupils who read at a rapid rate but whose understanding is poor likewise need training which emphasizes comprehension. When comprehension is satisfactory but rate is below normal, the remedial teacher can concentrate his energies directly on the problem of increasing speed.

One may take the rate of 250 words per minute as a rough estimate of the normal rate of reading of high school students and adults. To some extent, rate of reading is related to rate of thinking. It does no good to try to read faster than one can assimilate ideas.

West[43] suggests that by providing a few questions before a passage is read, increases in speed will be greater. These "before questions" give rise to "a searching attitude" which is the main feature of efficient reading.

What is it that the reader brings to the reading act?[44]

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[43] M. West, Learning to Read a Foreign Language, (London : Longman, 1941) p. 85.

[44] Ted Plaister, "Teaching Reading Comprehension to the Advanced ESL Student Using the Cloze Procedure," RELC Journal, Vol. IV, 2 (December , 1973), p. 31.

1. There is the reader's knowledge of the language he is reading (his competence).
2. There is his knowledge of the culture about which he is reading.
3. There is his theory of reading (by this is meant those reading strategies which he employs when he reads).
4. There is his previous success with reading.
5. There is his intelligence.
6. There is his motivation to want to read whatever it is he is reading.
7. There is his proficiency as a reader of his native language.
8. There is a whole host of minor variables such as age.

We will find that the knowledge of the culture may or may not be an important consideration in reading success for the non native reader. If the reader restricts his reading to text book materials in subjects such as mathematics, geography, or the natural sciences · the cultural factor is not of sufficient magnitude to cause concern.

We will find that really fast readers are going quite beyond the normal speed of speech which is approximately 150 words per minute, so in a very real sense there is no pronouncing going on. However Plaister recently did a speeded pronunciation exercise with himself while reading a fairly simple selection from Time and found that he could read while pronouncing sub - vocally much faster than if he were to actually move his articulators. Increased speed can come as a result of reading beyond the sub - vocalization stage. In other words, printed language can be processed directly from the eye to the brain without a detour via the month.

The non - native reader is often a linguistically insecure reader. He is afraid of missing something as he reads, and as a consequence of this fear, feels that he has to devour each and every little squiggle on the page in order to get the author's meaning. The same is true in the case of listening comprehension. The non - native listener does not know what to ignore in listening situations, and often has a sense of panic when he has to listen to something of vital concern to him, such as a lecture. If the usual lecturer speaks at a rate of approximately 150 words per minute and he lectures for 50 minutes, the listener has something like 7,500 words on which to make decisions.

Goodman[45] has called reading a psycholinguistic guessing game. He said that "Reading is a selective process. It involves partial use of available minimal language cues from perceptual input on the basis of the reader's expectation. As this partial information is processed, tentative decisions are made, to be confirmed, rejected, or refined as reading progresses."

The poor reader either reads so slowly that he has no time to read much, or reads so inaccurately that he is little better off when he has finished than when he started. He must depend to a large extent on what he can learn by listening. In consequence he tends to fall behind in subjects that require reading. Arithmetic, spelling, writing, composition, and all of the content subjects that require the use of books are related to reading ability so reading is an extension of oral communication and builds upon listening and speaking skills.

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[45] Kenneth S. Goodman, "Reading : A psycholinguistic guessing game," Journal of the Reading Specialist, 4 (May, 1967), pp. 126 - 35.

For most persons, reading easy material is done somewhere in the 250 - 500 WPM (words per minute) range. Speed is not the sole criterion of excellence in reading; neither is comprehension. What Deboer, et al[46] have called "speed of comprehension" comes closer to describing what is needed. That is the poor reader comprehends slowly if at all; the good reader comprehends quickly.

Reading materials should be appropriate. Intrinsic worth, interest, and degree of difficulty should all be considered. Quality must not be sacrificed. "Where a need for intensive remedial work exists, it is of unusual importance to secure the highest possible levels of quality in form and content of the materials."[47] This does not mean that the practice materials should be "literature" but they should be worthwhile.

In a study of the interests of students in grades seven through twelve, Dr. Ruth Strang discovered that adventure, love and mystery are among the subjects most appealing to high school students, and that humor, historical novels, information about careers, and material pertaining to the social problems of teenagers also rank high. Juniors and seniors, she found, are interested in adult fiction. Most high school students prefer a simple style, brevity and straight forwardness; they dislike difficulty, wordiness, slow movement, monotony, sentimentality and lack of worthwhileness.

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[46] John J. Deboer, et al., Teaching Secondary English, (New York : McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1951), p. 178.

[47] Arthur I. Gates, The Improvement of Reading, (New York : The Macmillan Co., 1957), p. 122.

A study was made about the learner's preferences with regard to material for reading in Indonesia.[48] A questionnaire asked the learners to rank eight topics for reading passages in order of preference. The results from most preferred to least preferred were : jokes, biography, science, war, history, modern literature, love, geography and travel.

Other questions revealed that most learners preferred a mixture of topics to all of one type. They wanted material related to their subject of study rather than other types of material, and they were evenly divided between topics about Indonesia and topics about other countries. They required easy material, information about the pronunciation of words, material to take home, and conversation classes.

An experienced teacher can estimate fairly well the difficulty of a selection. He knows that students find a selection difficult if the vocabulary is beyond them, if the word order is

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[48] I. S. P. Nation, "Making a Reading Course," RELC Journal Vol. V, 1 (June, 1974), pp. 77 - 82.

unusual, if sentences are long and complex, if statements are highly compressed, if the language is strongly metaphorical, and if abstractions are numerous. The teacher should count the number of words in a sample passage, and the number of sentences, prepositional phrases, and "hard words" in that passage.

Five Areas of Skill

Advanced ability in reading English as a foreign language requires improvement in reading speed, vocabulary recognition, and the comprehension of sentences, paragraphs and complete reading selections. These are not the exclusive needs of the foreign learner of English; they are also the skills that native speakers must develop in order to become efficient readers. We might delineate these five areas of skill as follows:

1. Speed of recognition and comprehension.
    a) Word - recognition speed : improving eye movement, visual discrimination.
    b) Word - comprehension speed : symbol - sound - meaning association.
    c) Sentence - structure recognition : eye sweep, reading by structures.
2. Vocabulary recognition and comprehension.
    a) Word formation : derivation and compounding.

b) Lexical range : choices and restrictions.

c) Vocabulary in context : using context clues to meaning.

3. Sentence structure and sentence comprehension.

a) Sentence structures : understanding advanced level conjunction, nominalization, embedding, etc., and grasping the main idea.

b) Sentence comprehension : understanding the full meaning.

4. Paragraph structure and paragraph comprehension.

a) Paragraph organization : the "central idea" paragraph development.

b) Scanning for specific information.

c) Full understanding : paragraph analysis.

5. Comprehension of the complete selection.

a) Surveying for the main ideas.

b) Scanning for specific information.

c) Reading for full understanding.

Types of comprehension questions.[49] There are 5 types:

Type I : Information from the reading sufficient for the answer is contained in the question itself.

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[49] Fe Dacanay, Techniques and Procedures in Second Language Teaching, (Quezon City: Phoenix Publishing House, 1963), p. 155.

a) Answerable simply Yes/No or True/False.

b) Multiple choice of answers is given with the question.

Type II : Answerable with information quoted directly from the reading selection. (Wh - Questions - who, when, where, what - usually not "why" or "how" questions).

Type III : Answerable with information acquired from the reading selection, but not by direct quotation from a single sentence. (Usually "why" and "how" questions).

Type IV : Answerable from inference or implication from the reading : the information is not stated explicity in the selection.

Type V : The answer requires evaluation or judgement relating the reading selection to additional information or experience of the reader.

Procedures for Conducting the Lesson

Most reading lessons are developed around a reading selection varying in length from a short paragraph to several pages of text. The three stages traditionally used in teaching the lesson are:

(1) pre - reading preparation.

(2) reading the selection, and

(3) follow - up activities based on the selection.

Stage 1 focuses the student's attention on the main objectives of the assignment. It may also provide information designed to minimize incidental problems that might be an obstacle to the main objectives. Stage 3 provides the drill necessary to achieve the objectives of the lesson.

Stage 1 : Pre - reading preparation.

In choosing items for pre - reading preparation the teacher must consider the purpose of the lesson, e.g. if the teacher wants to train the students to use context clues, the teacher should not give definitions of the words the students will encounter in the lesson at stage 1. He might start out the lesson with a warm - up practice in the use of context clues.

Preparing for vocabulary, syntax, and other difficulties.

(1) List new or difficult vocabulary items or idioms, with or without definitions, and give sentences from the reading plus additional sentences that show the meaning in context.

(2) Present new or difficult grammatical structures. Give examples from the selection, supplemented by other examples if necessary, illustrating the meaning of the construction.

(3) Explain items which may be difficult because the cultural or technical meaning is unfamiliar.

Motivating the Reading

(1) Give purpose to the reading. Tell the students that they are to read, for example, in order to summarize the main ideas, or find specific information, or do a vocabulary exercise.

(2) Outline or paraphrase the selection for the students.

(3) Relate the selection to the students' own experience, interests, or needs by means of questioning and discussion.

Stage 2 : Reading the selection

Two suggested procedures for conducting this stage are outlined below, the second more "intensive" than the first. They are merely examples of how classroom reading of a selection might be carried on at a relatively early level of the course. At the later, more advanced, levels of the course most classroom reading will be done silently.

Suggested Procedure A. The teacher reads each sentence or phrase ("thought group") - the class repeats orally in chorus, books open - individuals repeat the same sentence. The teacher checks for pronunciation, rhythm, and intonation. After the entire selection has been read aloud, the class reads it silently for comprehension. The silent reading may be timed.

Suggested Procedure B. The teacher reads each sentence aloud - the class or individuals repeat. Each sentence is immediately followed by one or more comprehensive questions of types 1, 2, 3, etc, depending on the students' language ability. Each paragraph may also be followed by comprehension questions. Next, the teacher, class, or individuals read the whole selection through again orally. Silent reading may follow.

Stage 3 : Follow - up activities

In the Classroom. The teacher selects, according to the aims of the lesson, exercises. He may conduct the session orally or in writing, or may use a combination of oral and written procedure: the teacher asks questions orally - the class responds in writing - individuals are called on to read answers orally.

As Homework. The teacher may assign written exercises developed out of the day's classroom work. For example: Write out full answers to comprehension questions done orally in class. Or write a paraphrase, summary, or outline of the reading selection. Or use the new vocabulary in additional sentences.

Homework assignments also carry the student into the preparation stage of the next lesson. He may be instructed to study new vocabulary in context, or to survey the selection for main ideas, or to scan it for specific information. At the earlier levels of instruction, reading for full understanding will be done only in the classroom under the teacher's supervision. At the most advanced levels, much of the reading might be done outside the class, with the class period devoted to follow - up exercises and preparation for the next selection.

Testing Comprehension of rapid silent reading is usually tested by timed questionnaires about the contents, including specific facts, inferences, imagery, and other literary qualities. While the reading selection is on paper, the comprehension test itself may be either oral or written. Timing is done by distributing the sheets face down. A signal permits students to turn the paper over and read the passage; another signal marks the end of the time, and papers must be turned face down again.

Multiple - choice questions are more quickly given and scored, and will be reliable indications of comprehension if well constructed.

If the lab is used for a reading comprehension test, questions are recorded beforehand on a master tape. When the students have completed the timed reading, they don headsets and the test is broadcast to them. Answers may be written (multiple - choice, true - false, one word answers, short answers, or complete sentences) .

Lecturettes.[50] A spectially designed activity was prepared to provide practice in listening and reading comprehension, copying and dictation, writing and spelling, and in particular the exercise of integrative language skills, especially as applied to interpretation from context.

Lecturettes are short comprehension exercises prepared and recorded in various modes of student listening. They are brief presentations, written or adapted for the particular interests of a particular student group in two forms: *full* and *simplified*. Full means normal narrative English prose in a technical or semi - technical register. Simplified versions are a paraphrase, and to

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[50] J. Donald Bowen, " Lecturettes for Mature Learners," *English Teaching Forum*, Vol. XII , 1 (January - March , 1974), pp. 8 - 16.

some extent a condensation, written to a limited vocabulary (the first 2,000 words of a standard frequency count plus rationalized exceptions, such as recognizable cognates) with an effort to avoid long, involved, complex sentences.

Each version is recorded on tape in two forms : *regular* and *deliberate*. Regular is the normal speed of delivery for a public lecture : around 130 - 140 words per minute. Deliberate is a slower form, recorded at about three - fourths of regular, or 90 - 110 words per minute. In recording in deliberate style, every effort is made to avoid the distortions of inserting pauses or breaks in unnatural places, and of separating at word boundaries sounds that affect each other. In other words, even though the tempo of recording was slowed down, the effect of natural pronunciation was preserved as much as possible. This is mainly done by making slightly longer pauses at natural phrase breaks.

There are, then, four " modules ", numbered below to reflect the presumed scale of increasing difficulty of comprehension:

Mode 1. Simplified deliberate
Mode 2. Simplified regular
Mode 3. Full deliberate
Mode 4. Full regular.

The idea is to take the student through material in context that is graded in terms of lexical/grammatical complexity and rate of delivery, from a most easily interpreted to a form that represents the demands and challenge of normal English lecture style. But if the student's only task is to listen and understand, he may not be able to maintain full attention on what he is hearing, especially since the content of presentation is either repeated verbatim or in a somewhat modified (more complex) form. So we arrange for the active participation of the student by giving him a modified dictation task. The texts of the lecturettes are prepared in a cloze - format exerise, with every tenth word deleted.[51] Two written forms of each of the two modes (simplified and full) are prepared - one each for use at deliberate and regular recording speeds, but deleting different sets of words. This is done by deleting words 10, 20, 30, etc. of Form A of the simplified text, and words 5, 15, 25, etc. of Form B. Forms A and B of the full text are similarly prepared.

As he listens to the tape, the student restores the deleted words by writing them in the blanks. The sequence for each text (simplified and full) is deliberate before regular. This sequence allows the student to become familiar with the content and gives him practice on the cloze - dictation task as he does the slower version be-

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[51] Eugene Jongsma, The Cloze Procedure as a Teaching Technique, (Newark, Delaware: The International Reading Association, 1971), p. 42.

fore the faster. It gives some variety by calling for the restoration of a different set of words the second time he hears the text. The simplified and full paraphrases offer another kind of varied practice, with similar though not identical content and different vocabulary and syntax. It is hoped that the balance of novelty (different forms and different sets of deletion within a form) and familiarity (a common context selected to represent student interests) will encourage growth in student facility in interpretation and comprehension, keeping levels of "repetition" within tolerate limits while providing valuable practice.

Specifically, the task of the student is to follow the spoken word with understanding, recognize the word that fits in the blank, write it hurriedly, then jump ahead to catch up, finding his place to further interpret the spoken word and match it with the appropriate written symbol. He repeats this process throughout the recorded passage.

The rationale that underlies this presentation is :

1. It maintains the variety essential to focus student attention.

2. It supplies a context that maximizes natural expression and student interest.

3. It develops a pattern of integrative skills as the student concentrates on a combination of oral comprehension, reading comprehension, recognition of forms in context, dictation skills (at normal speed of delivery, not broken up to wait for a student writing as fast as he can to catch up), cloze completions, and spelling.

4. It develops a "listener's grammar" through which the student builds up oral comprehension by his active participation as he analyzes what he hears and makes largely fulfilled predictions about what he will hear next - which explains how a competent listener can usually fill in the missing parts of a garbled message if the subject of discourse is one that covers familiar grounds.

The use of lecturettes. The teacher can use the set of activities comprising a lecturette in different ways, depending on the level and pacing of the class. The class can do two (or more) listening - completion exercises the same day or at succeeding classes. If the teacher anticipates that a mode will be too easy, the class can do the cloze exercise as a cloze test, filling the blanks without listening to the tape. Then they can hear the tape and correct their own (or a classmate's) paper to see how accurately they interpreted the content of the distorted text. Another variation could be first listening to the tape and then completing the cloze exercise from a combination of memory and interpretive analysis.

After doing Modes 1 and 2, it would be appropriate to have a comprehension quiz. This will impress on the students the importance of understanding the meaning of the entire exercise and not just the appropriate completion of each blank as it comes along. The comprehension quiz that was prepared to accompany the exercise done for the AUC project was in two parts : a set of five true - false statements and a set of five multiple - choice completions. Both parts are simple, with no misleading statements and no stressing of nonimportant details. The intent is to tell the student and the teacher, whether the listening blank - filling was accompanied by understanding.

After doing Mode 3 and 4, it would be appropriate - and hopefully productive - to have a set of questions for class discussion. These questions would not test literal comprehension but would probe for background understanding, collateral information, relevance and applications, and so on.