This ERIC/RCS Special Collection contains 10 or more Digests (brief syntheses of the research on a specific topic in contemporary education) and FAST Bibs (Focused Access to Selected Topics--annotated bibliographies with selected entries from the ERIC database), providing up-to-date information in an accessible format. The collection focuses on interpersonal and intrapersonal communication, featuring selections on communication apprehension, debate, creative dramatics, storytelling, and listening skills. The material in the special collection is designed for use by teachers, students, administrators, researchers, policy makers, and parents. A profile of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills (ERIC/RCS); an order form; and information on a computerized search service, on searching ERIC in print, on submitting material to ERIC/RCS, and on books available from ERIC/RCS are attached. (RS)
PERSONAL COMMUNICATION
Personal Communication

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ERIC (an acronym for Educational Resources Information Center) is a national network of 16 clearinghouses, each of which is responsible for building the ERIC database by identifying and abstracting various educational resources, including research reports, curriculum guides, conference papers, journal articles, and government reports. The Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills (ERIC/RCS) collects educational information specifically related to reading, English, journalism, speech, and theater at all levels. ERIC/RCS also covers interdisciplinary areas, such as media studies, reading and writing technology, mass communication, language arts, critical thinking, literature, and many aspects of literacy.

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What Are ERIC/RCS Special Collections?

Each ERIC/RCS Special Collection contains ten or more Digests and FAST Bibs offering a variety of viewpoints on selected topics of interest and importance in contemporary education. ERIC Digests are brief syntheses of the research that has been done on a specific topic. FAST Bibs (Focused Access to Selected Topics) are annotated bibliographies with selected entries from the ERIC database. Both Digests and FAST Bibs provide up-to-date information in an accessible format.

Our Special Collections are intended as a resource that can be used quickly and effectively by teachers, students, administrators, researchers, policy makers, and parents. The Digests may be consulted for a summary of, or a particular viewpoint on, the research in an area, while the FAST Bibs may be used as the start of a more extensive look at what is available in the ERIC database on a subject of interest.

PERSONAL COMMUNICATION

The focus of this Special Collection is the field of personal communication—both interpersonal and intrapersonal communication—a topic that affects all of us. This subject is normally dealt with formally in speech communication courses at the high-school and college levels. Personal communication may also be studied in many educational psychology courses. A great deal of research has been carried out to illuminate various aspects of communication behavior.

Communication—Interpersonal and Intraperonal

Clearly, communication involves conveying words and/or feelings between individuals, or between an individual and a group. This communication may be either verbal or nonverbal; much has been written about both. Included in this collection is an annotated bibliography entitled Interpersonal Communication, by Michael Shermis (FAST Bib No. 34). There are sections on instructional strategies, gender issues, and communication research and theory.

What is "intrapersonal communication?" Leonard Shedletsky defines intrapersonal communication as the conversations going on inside ourselves but "more than just talking to yourself." (Meaning and Mind: An Intrapersonal Approach to Human Communication, a book which may be ordered from ERIC/RCS) The author has collected a variety of useful classroom exercises to help students explore this particular form of communication and thereby learn to carry on the human dialogue with oneself in a reflective, intelligent way.

Communication Skills across the Curriculum

Communication skills include reading, writing, speaking, and listening; all of these are used in sending messages to, and receiving messages from, other people. While at times special attention needs to be paid to developing each skill separately, in recent years there has been a push toward recognizing the interrelationships among the various communication skills. Recognition has also increased that these skills should be taught and reinforced in all areas of the curriculum, rather than just in classes devoted to reading or to English or to speech. Included in this collection is a bibliography entitled Communication Skills across the Curriculum (FAST Bib No. 56, by Jerry Johns, Sharon Weber, and Katy Howe).

Using creative arts in the classroom is one way to integrate the teaching of communication skills and enliven the learning milieu. Jerry Johns, Mary Ellen Sanders, and Sharon Weber have listed a number of resources in the ERIC database into a bibliography entitled Creative Arts in the Classroom: Readers' Theater, Drama, and Oral Interpretation. There is also a Digest entitled Creative Dramatics in the Language Arts Classroom, by Bruce Robbins, describing a variety of strategies to incorporate the informal use of drama into language-arts teaching. Robbins refers to Dorothy Heathcote, who emphasizes the way drama encourages enactment of many different social roles and engages many levels, styles, and uses of language.
is the central tool and concern for Heathcote, who notes the crucial nature of communication in society and places communication at the center of the educational system.” (Robbins, 1988)

**Listening Skills**

The business world is placing increasing emphasis on the importance of good communication skills, and listening instruction has been added to employee training in many corporations, as well as to the curriculum of schools and universities. Michael Shermis has compiled a bibliography on *Listening Skills in Business* (FAST Bib No. 19), with a section on “Teaching Techniques and Strategies” and one on “Recent Research.”

Despite the importance of listening in all of our lives, relatively little emphasis has been placed on the development of this skill in schools and colleges. Nancy Hyslop and Bruce Tone, in a Digest entitled *Listening: Are We Teaching It, and If So, How?*, argue that listening—as the first language mode that children acquire—provides a foundation for all aspects of language and cognitive development. They suggest that more emphasis should be given in the curriculum to developing listening skills—not as a separate course, but in conjunction with the other communication skills—reading, writing, and speaking. Even with an Integrated Language Arts approach, the skill of listening is often not given much emphasis.

“Active listening” goes beyond comprehending what is said to an empathetic understanding of what is being conveyed by body language and tone of voice as well as by the words that are uttered. This type of listening, when combined with appropriate feedback to the speaker regarding the feelings that have been communicated, is often referred to as “reflective listening.” Developing this sort of listening skill is not only important for counselors, teachers, and health professionals but also for parents and spouses.

**Storytelling**

Who cannot remember listening with rapt attention to a good story? Storytelling is a particular form of the communication skill of speaking, and the hearers are in an excellent position to practice their listening skills. Included in this collection is a Digest with the title *Storytelling: Its Wide-Ranging Impact in the Classroom*. The author, Nola Kortner Aiex, notes that one of the important benefits of storytelling in the classroom is its power to capture attention and to bridge real and imaginary worlds. Both story telling and reading aloud may be used with great effectiveness to develop the appreciation of literature. The Digest includes many suggestions for different ways to make storytelling effective in a classroom setting. Also part of this collection is a bibliography entitled *Storytelling: An Art for All*, by William Burriss. Burriss has collected a number of sources on storytelling from the ERIC database, including one section on “Students as Storytellers” and one on “Storytelling as a Teaching Technique.”

**Audience Awareness**

When do children become aware of having an audience? Clearly, even tiny babies are aware of the reactions they prompt as a result of smiling and gurgling and cooing. When does a sense of audience for written communication develop in children? Some interesting research has been done on this topic; some of it is described in an ERIC/RCS Digest, *Audience Awareness: When and How Does It Develop?* by Rebecca L. Strange. How can teachers help children to gain a sense of audience and use it to strengthen their writing skills? Strange discusses briefly a few of the strategies found in the ERIC database: writing letters and sending them to real readers, and many different ways to publish students’ writing. By using these techniques, students are aided to develop an important skill—communicating accurately one’s intended meaning to other human beings.

**Interviewing**

Interviewing uses a particular set of communication strategies and skills, on the part of both the interviewer and interviewee. *FAST Bib No. 23, Interviewing: Communication Strategies*, by Michael Shermis, is a collection of citations from the ERIC database on this topic. The bibliography includes sections on teaching techniques and strategies, tips for students, interviewing forms and tests, and research.

ERIC/RCS, in collaboration with the Speech Communication Association, has published a book for use in classrooms, entitled *Teaching Interviewing for Career Preparation*, by Charles J. Stewart. The author discusses many different kinds of interviewing and provides numerous sample exercises and checklists to assist students to learn about interviewing and to practice their skills in diverse situations, as both interviewer and interviewee.
Communication Apprehension

Some people experience more than the normal level of anxiety when asked to speak before a group. They experience "stage fright" to the point where they may go to great lengths to avoid situations in which they might be expected to speak in public. One of the annotated bibliographies in this collection is on this topic: Communication Apprehension, by Michael Shermis, FAST Bib No. 15. Various sections of the FAST Bib contain strategies for instructors and students to alleviate communication apprehension, information about some programs developed to cope with speech anxiety, and reports of recent research in the field.

Another book copublished by ERIC/RCS with the Speech Communication Association is entitled Quiet Children and the Classroom Teacher (2nd edition), by James C. McCroskey and Virginia P. Richmond. The authors suggest caring, thoughtful ways to help the children in every classroom who are experiencing a high level of communication apprehension. (Communication apprehension may be thought of as on a scale, from high to low, with most people somewhere in the middle.)

Debate as a Way to Develop Communication Skills

Debate may be used as a way to develop critical thinking and reasoning abilities, and all the other communication skills as well. Speaking and listening are very much a part of the debate itself; preparation for a debate involves reading and writing and clear thinking also. One of the Digests in this collection, by Nola Kortner Aiex, is entitled Debate and Communication Skills. Aiex describes an unusual debate program in Pennsylvania that grew out of a 4-H Project; it emphasized communication skills generalizable to many other situations.

Personal Narrative

Personal narrative, or autobiographical writing, has been used very successfully as a way to reach students of diverse cultural and language backgrounds, for it allows those students to learn to communicate their thoughts and feelings in writing and speaking about subjects that they know very well—themselves. A list of citations concerning this topic, and also ethnographic research, is part of this collection: Ethnography and Personal Narrative: Uses in Education, by Ruth Eppele.

Our intention in this Special Collection is to help you become more familiar with some of the issues and research in the field of personal communication. We hope you will find it useful.

More Information from the ERIC Database

In addition to the citations in the Digests and FAST Bibs included in this collection, other resources may be found by searching the ERIC database. A few of the terms that would be useful in a search are these: Interpersonal-Communication, Interpersonal-Relationship, Conflict-Resolution, Self-Expression, Extraversion-Introversion. If you need help with a search, please contact User Services at ERIC/RCS (812-855-5847).

Materials Available from the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills:

These materials may be of interest to you:

- Quiet Children and the Classroom Teacher (2nd edition), by James C. McCroskey and Virginia P. Richmond
- Teaching Interviewing for Career Preparation (2nd ed., revised and enlarged), by Charles J. Stewart
- Meaning and Mind: An Intrapersonal Approach to Human Communication, by Leonard Shedletsky
- Teaching the Introductory Public Relations Course: A Communication Perspective, by James S. Measell
Other *Special Collections*:

SC1—Testing and Assessment  
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SC3—Critical Thinking  
SC4—Family Involvement  
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SC7—Reading: Middle & Secondary  
SC8—Literature  
SC9—Special Students  
SC10—Mass Communications  
SC12—Student Literacy  
SC13—Whole Language and Integrated Language Arts

For Parents and Children:

*Parents and Children Together*—This monthly audio journal (magazine plus audio cassette) is for children, ages 4 to 10, and their parents. Each issue contains suggestions and information for parents, and read-along stories for parents and children to enjoy together.

To order any of these materials, please use the form at the end of this collection.

Ellie Macfarlane, ERIC/RCS Associate Director  
Series Editor, Special Collections
Debate and Communication Skills

by Nola Kortner Alex

Most parents are happy when their elementary school age children manifest an interest in little league baseball, after-school soccer, or beginning track-and-field. Parents feel that athletics can teach their youngsters how to compete with others and also how to function as part of a team. There is, however, another activity which can help young children learn to be part of a team but which places less emphasis on competition and which is, in addition, less gender specific than athletics. That activity is debate.

According to one educator (Lybbert, 1985), the debate discipline has three goals: (1) the enhancement of critical thinking and reasoning abilities; (2) academic advancement or development; and (3) the promotion of communication skills. For young children, the focus can be on the development of oral communication skills. And beginning a debate program with young children in elementary school can go a long way toward removing the somewhat elitist aura that surrounds debate in high school and college.

**KIDSPEAK**

Littlefield and Littlefield (1989) describe an innovative after-school program for grades three through six which was specifically designed to teach oral communication skills to children. The program is called KIDSPEAK and was initiated in 1987. Debate represents only one of the units contained in the program, along with such topics as oral reading, listening, creative expression, storytelling, communication etiquette, etc. Teachers who were interested in the debate activity were given a short training session and access to additional help if they felt they needed it.

Debate concepts are presented to the children in simplified form in lessons lasting 15 or 20 minutes. Each lesson emphasizes a certain skill and contains a writing exercise. For example:

"Lesson #6: Good Behavior for the Answerer. When you are answering questions, there are certain rules you should follow:

- Stand so you may see the questioner and the audience.
- If the questioner asks you to keep your answers brief, you are obliged to do what you are told.
- It is not proper to answer a question with another question.
- When asked a question, the speaker may not ask anyone else to answer.

"Working in pairs, practice giving answers in a courteous way. Remember the rules and try to answer each question in as complete a way as possible.

"Now—write down some questions here that you can use in practice."

Debate topics were chosen by the children but were subject to teacher approval. The topics ranged from the personal (often chosen by the younger children) to the political and environmental—the Panama Canal Treaty and smokers' rights, for example. Carre (1987) describes a similar classroom project in which seven-year-olds debated the controversial environmental issue of the building of a new road to their town.

The KIDSPEAK project culminated in a debate presented for the children’s parents who were pleased with the results and with their children’s mastery of debate concepts at such a young age.
The Florida Department of Education introduces debate into the curriculum as early as middle school or junior high school (Curriculum Frameworks grades 6-8, 1986). A program such as KIDSPEAK would be an excellent introduction for the more structured course in speech and debate for middle schools. The Florida program outlines its major concepts/content as follows: “The purpose of this course is to introduce the fundamentals of formal and informal communication. The content should include, but not be limited to, forms of oral communication, techniques of group discussion, fundamentals of parliamentary procedure, elements of debate and debate activities, basic techniques of public speaking, and techniques of evaluation.” Among the 11 aims for successfully completing the course are (1) use the minimum essentials of parliamentary procedure; (2) utilize fundamental concepts of debating in debate activities; and (3) identify careers related to successful debating skills.

Since the experts generally agree that communication apprehension increases as the child passes through adolescence, perhaps the earlier introduction of speech/debate courses in the curriculum would allow the student to acquire communication skills more easily.

A Cross-Generational Program

A cross-generational debate program that emphasizes communication skills was developed as a 4-H project in Pennsylvania. Atwater (1984) describes a successful project that included two classes of elementary school children from two different schools who debated the proposal “Resolved, that nuclear power should become our country’s primary source for developing electricity in the future.” Judges were senior students from the 4-H program, and an adult leader served as an overall moderator. The project generated a sheet entitled “Helpful Tips for the Debater,” and successive topics were selected from discussions at 4-H meetings.

The tips sheet includes tips for before the debate (such as, “when introduced, smile and look at the audience”); during the debate (“try to use words that create clear pictures”); and after the debate (“try to evaluate your own presentation”). Additionally, 10 tips on delivery were enumerated—tips which could serve for anyone intent on improving his or her communication skills:

- Always practice, but never memorize. Use of notecards should be kept to a minimum.
- Stress the important issues by pausing and/or increasing your volume.
- Gesture naturally, or not at all. Never force gestures.
- Use vocal variety. Do not speak in a monotone.
- Speak clearly, slowly, distinctly.
- Make sure that you have adequate volume.
- Remember to look at the audience, your opponent, and the judge—establish eye contact.
- Avoid nervous mannerisms, like playing with your hair, or tapping your pencil on the desk.
- Remember to relax.

Expert Opinions

Sodikow (1985) believes that debate helps students develop the emotional maturity to win and lose graciously; acquire the social skills necessary to work with a colleague and compete against other students; and use spoken English in an increasingly sophisticated way. Huston (1985) stresses that the student should be encouraged to become adaptable to many different styles of communication. McClain (1989) argues that debate should be seen as a cooperative rather than a competitive endeavor.

Some educators feel that debate should become more audience centered and focused on community issues rather than on tournaments (Stepp, 1989). Many college students who are involved in debate feel that the emphasis on tournament debating makes them too argumentative in everyday life. For younger children, a focus on developing communication skills rather than on competition in debate fosters attitudes of open-mindedness, fairness, and tolerance for the viewpoints of others. (Atwater, 1984)

References


Storytelling is a creative art form that has entertained and informed across centuries and cultures (Fisher, 1985), and its instructional potential continues to serve teachers. Storytelling, or oral literature, has many of its roots in the attempt to explain life or the mysteries of the world and the universe—to try to make sense out of things (Tway, 1985). In doing so, the characters and themes in the stories have become cultural and often cross-cultural archetypes of historic and continuing importance (Lasser, 1979). Even in today’s technological world, we have not changed to such a degree that the archetypes presented in traditional oral literature are no longer applicable (Livo and Rietz, 1986).

Rosen (1986) enumerates several factors about the universality of narrative that merit consideration: 1) human beings dream and speak to themselves in narrative (inner narrative speech); 2) a basic form of narrative is not only telling but also retelling; and 3) narrative is oral in the sense that an individual can engage with it fully without encountering it in written form. Storytelling, probably the oldest form of narrative in the world, is not the same as reading aloud, because in storytelling, the interaction between teller and listener is immediate, personal, active, and direct. Preece (1987) discusses 14 narrative forms which children use routinely and regularly.

Storytelling in the Classroom

In 1984, the commission on Literature of the National Council of Teachers of English applauded an emerging trend in schools and communities which emphasizes storytelling as literature (Suhor, 1984). Numerous articles entered in the ERIC database between 1985 and 1988 discuss the benefits of storytelling in developing language abilities, appreciation of literature, critical thinking and comprehension, and understanding of community and self.

In discussing how storytelling involves the control of language for narrative, for example, Wyatt, et al. (1986) describe the application of storytelling in teaching children to write as though they were doing so for media. Alparaque (1988) notes another important benefit related to the development of the appreciation of literature—the power of storytelling to bind attention and to bridge real and imaginary worlds.

George and Schaer (1986) investigated the effects of three mediums for presenting literature to children and discovered that storytelling and dramatization were significantly more effective in facilitating recall of prose content than was television. These findings indicated that storytelling is a viable method for stimulating children’s imaginations, ultimately leading to a higher cognitive level in student responses. Reinehr (1987) discusses ways to use mythic literature to teach children about themselves and to help them write their own stories and legends. For very young children, the sequencing of events or the shaping of stories may be difficult, as children tend to ramble. However, sharing stories can give youngsters more of a “sense of story”—an awareness that can help them in both reading and writing. In reading, for example, a sense of story can help children to predict and know what to expect, and to read with more awareness of cause and effect, sequence and other story factors related to comprehension (Kemper, 1986; Trabasso and Van Den Broek, 1985). In writing, children learn to apply
such structures while telling their own stories and giving shape to their experiences (Tway, 1985).

Perhaps storytelling's greatest value for a teacher is its effectiveness in fostering a relaxed and intimate atmosphere in the classroom. Scott (1985), an experienced Australian teacher/storyteller, explains how this practical and general objective can relate to the other benefits from using storytelling: It can 1) introduce children to a range of story experiences; 2) provide young students with models of story patterns, themes, characters, and incidents to help them in their own writing, oral language, and thinking; 3) nurture and encourage a sense of humor in children; 4) help put children's own words in perspective; 5) increase knowledge and understanding of other places, races, and beliefs; 6) introduce new ideas and be used to question established concepts; and 7) lead to discussions that are far ranging and often more satisfying than those arising from formal lessons; and 8) serve as the most painless way of teaching children to listen, to concentrate, and to follow the thread and logic of an argument.

**Some Aids for Effective Storytelling**

To build children's storytelling skills, Plourde (1985) recommends activities that focus on role playing, generating character, helping students find an appropriate voice, and developing the ability to make logical conclusions. Plourde elaborates on a dozen techniques appropriate for children in kindergarten through grade 6. One, for example, has the teacher or one child relate the beginning of a familiar fairy tale and another child make up an entirely new ending.

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (1984) offers several suggestions for making low-cost crafts materials that facilitate storytelling. Among them is the construction of a simple mini-cinema illustrating sequential events of a story. These stages of the story may then be presented with a flexible strip of drawings operated by pulling a string.

Gross and Batchelder (1986) present exercises for older elementary and middle school students designed to improve group dynamics and create a learning environment for storytelling. One technique involves using a circle to practice games inspired by modern dance education and native American rituals. These exercises help older students who are apt to be self-conscious to become more confident, willing to participate, and supportive of the storytelling process.

Music—classical or popular, recorded or live—can also be used to set the scene for storytelling, as can puppets and other simple props. But effective storytelling is a versatile strategy that stirs the imagination and enables children to visualize with few or no visual aids at all.

**The Classroom Teacher as Storyteller**

For a classroom teacher who wishes to use storytelling, it is best to begin by choosing a simple story with only a few characters and an uncomplicated plot. The story should have action, the plot should be understandable to the listeners, and the events of the story should have a definite climax that leads to a conclusion the students will find satisfactory.

Folk and fairy tales are the easiest kinds of stories for beginning storytellers to communicate (Ramey, 1986; Taub, 1984). In selecting these or any story, it is important to keep in mind the age of the children in the audience. Scott (1985) advises the storyteller to be flexible, to expect unexpected reactions, and to remember that enjoyment should be the first and chief consideration.

Scott and other researchers emphasize that a storyteller need not be a "performer," but rather a person who has good memory and listening skills, who sincerely likes the story chosen for telling, and who knows the story so well that it can be recreated for an audience without any uncertainty or panic. Storytellers who are too "actorish" usually fascinate the audience, but at the expense of the story.

The second consideration in effective storytelling should be to encourage exploration and experimentation with language (Schwartz, 1987). Constructing meaning through use of language is an implicit goal in storytelling. A language development focus can recommend retelling. Stories that are told and retold develop a patina with each new telling. Children's participation in storytelling provides not only novelty to stimulate the child's curiosity, but also enough familiarity to allow a child to perceive relationships and to experience success at using language (Wason-Ellam, 1986).

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Creative Dramatics in the Language Arts Classroom

by Bruce Robbins

It is ironic that although most English teachers consider drama to be within their curricular domain, drama is used more often as a teaching method in other disciplines. Dramatic techniques such as role playing and simulations are well documented in social studies and history, business and vocational, foreign language, counseling, and even science classes; but according to recent reports (Applebee, 1984; Goodlad, 1984) dramatic techniques are rarely used to teach language arts classes in the U.S., especially at the secondary level. English teachers tend to relegate drama to theater courses, isolating drama techniques from most English classrooms. Yet, the literature on classroom drama suggests that there is considerable untapped potential for using drama as a teaching method.

Experts emphasize that using dramatic techniques as a teaching method is not the same thing as teaching theater. Theater is an art form which focuses on a product, a play production for an audience. Drama in the classroom—often referred to as creative dramatics to distinguish it from theater arts—is informal and focuses on the process of dramatic enactment for the sake of the learner, not an audience. Classroom drama is not learning about drama, but learning through drama. Charles Combs (1988) explains:

While drama is informed by many of the ideas and practices of theater art, it is principally valued as a learning medium rather than as an art form, and is governed and validated through criteria other than aesthetics. Informal drama's goals are based in pedagogical, developmental and learning theory as much or more than they are arts based: its objectives are manifold, but they are all directed toward the growth and development of the participant rather than the entertainment or stimulation of the observer. (p.9)

Drama Is a Highly Valued Teaching Technique

In dramatic activities, students use and examine their present knowledge in order to induce new knowledge. Bolton (1985) points out that while much school learning is an accruing of facts, drama can help students reframe their knowledge into new perspectives. Dramatic activity is a way of exploring subject matter and its relationships to self and society, a way of "making personal meaning and sense of universal, abstract, social, moral, and ethical concepts through the concrete experience of the drama." (Norman, 1981, p. 50, as quoted by Bolton, 1985, p.155)

According to Dorothy Heathcote (1983), an important value of using drama in the classroom is that "in drama the complexity of living is removed temporarily into this protected bower so that children not only can learn it and explore it, but also enjoy it." (p.701)

Heathcote also emphasizes the way drama encourages enactment of many different social roles and engages many levels, styles, and uses of language. Language is the central tool and concern for Heathcote, who notes the crucial nature of communication in society and places communication at the center of the educational system.

Other researchers and theorists also attribute many benefits to using drama in the classroom. In Dramatics and the Teaching of Literature, James Hoetker (1969) contends that drama increases creativity, originality, sensitivity, fluency, flexibility, emotional stability, cooperation, and examination.
of moral attitudes, while developing communication skills and appreciation of literature. Hoetker describes drama as a method of better accommodating students whose learning styles are visual or kinesthetic, of teaching critical skills, and of producing aesthetic experiences with literature.

Most of the research on drama in the classroom has been done at the primary level, where drama has been found to improve reading comprehension, persuasive writing, self concepts, and attitudes toward others (Pellegrini and Calda, 1982; Gourgey, 1984; and Wagner, 1987). In her research with high school students, Renée Clift (1983) found that students using dramatic enactment performed as well as students in traditional lecture, discussion, or seatwork modes. Moreover, they experienced more instances of higher order thinking, more topic-specific emotions, decreased comprehension, and less topic-irrelevant thought than students in the non-dramatic mode.

Benefits Can be Gained with Varied Applications

Drama has many applications in the classroom. The teacher may work in role, as Dorothy Heathcote (1985) demonstrates, assuming for herself and her students the “mantle of the expert.” With this role-playing technique, teacher and students might assume the attitudes and language of present-day scientists planning a Bronze-Age community; or they could become monks who find an ancient manuscript and must decide what should be done with it.

Whether students become the town council in “The Pied Piper” (Tarlington, 1985), government officials in Farley Mowat’s Never Cry Wolf (Barker, 1988), or representatives of the publishing industry (Martin, 1982), teacher and students collaboratively construct their imaginary world. The gradual construction and exploration of this world results in a better and more personal understanding of the central issues being studied.

Improvisation takes many useful forms besides role playing. Theater guides like Viola Spolin’s classic Improvisation for the Theatre (1963) provide a wealth of activities, but the most successful improvisations are those derived from the work at hand. For example, a class might dramatize what it is like to be an outsider while reading Faulkner’s “A Rose for Emily” (Bailey, 1982) or might simulate being survivors on a deserted island before beginning Golding’s Lord of the Flies (Sheehy, 1982). Catherine Hrybyk’s (1983) class improvised a trial of Nora Helmer from Ibsen’s The Doll House, and Helen Sheehy’s (1982) students worked in interpretive groups to enact the ways Nora might make her final exit, reflecting all they knew about Nora’s character and situation.

Other techniques useful in the classroom are readers’ theater and choral readings and writing and producing radio programs, television screenplays, or documentaries. Students develop both an understanding of and appreciation for literary genres and for particular works of fiction by writing scripts from fiction or writing fiction descriptions from play scenes.

Dramatic activity is a useful way to begin a piece of literature or to generate ideas for writing. Drama can encourage students to explore, clarify, and elaborate feelings, attitudes, and ideas. Because drama requires students to organize, synthesize, and articulate their ideas, it provides an excellent opportunity for reflection and evaluation at the conclusion of a unit of study.

The Teacher Plays the Role of Facilitator

In using drama in the classroom, the teacher becomes a facilitator rather than an authority or the source of knowledge. Hoetker (1969) warns that “the teacher who too often imposes his authority, or who conceives of drama as a kind of inductive method for arriving at preordained correct answers, will certainly vitiate the developmental values of drama and possibly its educational values as well.” (p.28)

Classroom drama is most useful in exploring topics when there are no single, correct answers or interpretations, and when divergence is more interesting than conformity and truth is interpretable. As Douglas Barnes (1968) puts it, “Education should strive not for the acceptance of one voice, but for an active exploration of many voices.” (p.3)

As collaborator and guide, the teacher sets the topic and starts things in motion, but the students’ choices determine the course the lesson will take. The teacher encourages students to take the major responsibility for giving meaning to the curricular concepts and to communicate them through action, gesture, and dialogue. Heathcote (1983) says that the teacher and students make a journey into new territory together. Cecily O’Neill (1985) writes, “The dramatic world of educational drama is most valuable both educationally and aesthetically when its construction is shared and its meanings negotiated.” (p.160)

Constructing shared, negotiated meanings requires that teachers feel secure enough to give students center stage in the classroom. Practitioners advise interested teachers to begin by devising brief
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activities, to use familiar subject matter, and to resist making hasty judgments. Hoetker (1969) cautions that "development through drama is a gradual, cumulative process, and it is very uncertain what may be the developmental timetable, especially if drama is only an occasional activity." (p.29) However, with practice, teachers of English will discover that the use of drama techniques in the classroom can become a vital part of their teaching repertoire.

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Audience Awareness: When and How Does It Develop?

by Rebecca L. Strange

Many theorists contend that the purpose of writing is to communicate with an audience, which can be defined as actual readers or as the writer himself. Scholars also seem to agree on another point: "no matter who/what the audience is (from real people to fictional construct), writers adjust their discourse to their audiences. In other words, writers do things to bring their readers into their texts, to establish a community that includes themselves and their reader." (Wildeman, 1988)

A strong case can be made for teachers to use audience-oriented teaching strategies that encourage children to write for a wide range of readers. Examples of such assignments would be to have the student write letters or something that would be read by parents, friends, local community leaders, or sports heroes.

Yet questions remain about how writers, especially student writers, actually learn to consider an audience of readers. These questions involve complex issues that are current topics of investigation.

Young Children's Sense of Audience

Can teachers expect students as young as those in elementary school to write with an audience in mind? Research suggests that a developmental trend exists in which children gradually develop a sense of audience in their writing.

Young children apparently understand that they can use writing to communicate with a reader, and they intend to write in a manner that demonstrates this understanding. Kroll (1984) found that nine-year-old children wrote letters in which clear problem statements and explicit requests for help indicated audience awareness. "Few of the letters manifested either gross egocentrism or a blatant disregard for the reader's needs." (p.425) Yet the nine year olds frequently did not provide essential information about themselves or instructions so the reader could respond to the letter.

The high school writers in a study by Fontaine (1984) were more apt than elementary students to adjust writing to meet audience needs. Eighteen-year-old students and nine year olds were asked to write letters to a good friend (a familiar peer audience) and to a great aunt from France (an unfamiliar adult audience).

Fontaine found that eighteen-year-old writers reflected on audience while they were writing and during stimulated recall and interview discussions after their letters were written. In contrast, the nine year olds reflected on audience during stimulated recall and interview discussions but seldom as they were writing. Fontaine suggests that while "young writers have a developing awareness of audience—one which allows them to describe rationally the audience/writer relationship...the nine-year-olds seemed to be trapped, having neither a real nor a representational image of the audience, but only an ill-defined sense of the 'other.'" (p.19-20)

A study of sixth-grade writers (Strange, 1986) provides additional evidence that children understand that audiences differ. Students wrote movie reviews for two audiences—one consisting of the writer himself or a friend and the other of a teacher or a university professor. Students significantly altered two of the four variables studied according to the audience. They decreased the percentage of slang expressions and increased the number of words when they wrote for the teacher or university professor. In contrast, the students increased the percentage of slang expressions and decreased the number of words when they wrote for a friend or self. Students also appeared to write in a more
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deferential fashion for a teacher or a professor, including apologies for opinions and hedging on their opinions more.

These studies suggest that teachers can expect young students to understand that writing should be adapted to readers' needs. Moreover, teachers can expect elementary students to make limited adjustments in their writing according to audience. More specifically, research suggests that elementary students can write clear problem statements specifically, research suggests that...elementary students...can make limited adjustments in their writing according to audience needs... during the writing process than are elementary students.

**The Classroom Environment**

How does a teacher affect students' sense of audience? Studies suggest that teachers can develop effective audience-oriented writing strategies only if they think carefully about their own role as an audience for their students' writing. Not only does the teacher control the classroom environment and devise writing assignments and strategies, but the teacher usually reads and evaluates the writing. Especially confusing to students is knowing that the teacher is also the audience of writing assignments that prescribe other audiences.

It is not surprising that Britton (1975) found that the audience that students most frequently addressed in a school environment was the teacher. After accumulating almost 2,000 writing samples from British students comparable to fifth graders and above in American schools, Britton categorized the writing samples as addressing oneself, the teacher, a wider audience, or an unknown audience. A large majority of the scripts, 85 percent, were written for the teacher or the teacher as the examiner.

Yet outside the classroom, people write for a variety of audiences. In Marion, Ohio, adult writers were observed as they wrote in settings including a school office, restaurants, a travel agency, and a health club (Sanders, 1985). Analysis of self-report forms, interviews, and writing samples showed that the participants wrote with purposes and for audiences ranging from the private ("I wrote for myself in order to capture the feelings I was having") to the public, as in writing notices for church bulletins.

Trained observers in a study by Marshall (1983) discussed with high school students their school writing tasks. The students felt they had few available options when they wrote for school. They shaped their writing according to a narrow range of purposes and audiences. When writing for teacher as audience, the students appeared to distance themselves from the writing task, focusing on surface details, such as "nice sounding" words and sentences they thought would meet teacher expectations. One student said about his composition, "...it had a lot of information, which is what...[the teacher] wanted." Marshall states, "One can hypothesize that the effect of a judgmental audience for student writing would be to displace student interest in the task itself with an interest in the teacher's response to the finished product." (p. 17)

It is unlikely that teachers can or should abandon the practice of evaluating class writing assignments. Teachers, however, who rely extensively on assignments and strategies that focus on teacher as audience are likely to train students to write safe compositions that they think teachers will accept. Such compositions may be formally correct but do not interest or engage the student completely in the writing process; nor do they reflect the realities of writing tasks outside the classroom.

**Classroom Strategies**

The ERIC database contains numerous ideas for assignments and strategies that encourage students to write for a range of audiences and that provide opportunities to receive responses from these audiences (e.g., see themed issues of The Leaflet, 1985 and the Connecticut English Journal, 1983).

Students of all ages can write letters to real readers. Students can participate in "letter exchanges" in which they write and exchange letters with other students (Melerski, 1983). Teachers can also exchange letters and notes with students. In another variation, students write letters with the same information to different readers and adjust the text of each letter according to audience.

Another good way to help students write for different audiences is to publish children's writing. Hubbard (1985) found that publishing had beneficial results for second graders' perceptions of audience. In her study, students who published their writing viewed the readers' reactions as important and helpful. "When people read my book it's like they help me. When they read it, I get more ideas for another story." (p. 660)

Publishing takes many forms, some more appropriate for older students than for younger students. Young students frequently appreciate seeing their writing displayed on a bulletin board in the classroom or bound into a book and placed in the library. Younger students in middle school and high school are more likely to appreciate compositions and stories printed in school newsletters and literary journals or even in commercial magazines. As long as their writing is read by a wide audience, students
will consider their work published; and they will be more apt to consider audience as they write.

When teachers develop assignments and strategies that sharpen students' sense of audience, the students learn the value of writing as a process of communication. Students will better understand the goal of the writer: "to find words that he hopes will communicate his intended meaning to a reader. Even the author who declares that he writes without concern for any potential reader writes 'for himself alone' as a reader." (Rosenblatt, 1978, p. 76)

References


Listening: Are We Teaching It, and If So, How?

by Nancy B. Hyslop and Bruce Tone

Listening is the first language mode that children acquire. It provides a foundation for all aspects of language and cognitive development, and it plays a life-long role in the processes of learning and communication essential to productive participation in life. A study by Wilt (1950), which found that people listen 45 percent of the time they spend communicating, is still widely cited (e.g., Martin, 1987; Strother, 1987). Wilt found that 30 percent of communication time was spent speaking, 16 percent reading, and 9 percent writing. That finding confirmed what Rankin had found in 1928, that people spent 70 percent of their waking time communicating and that three-fourths of this time was spent listening and speaking.

One might assume, then, that the development of listening skills gets considerable attention in our schools; but that does not appear to be the case. Burley-Allen (1982) found the classroom emphasis on language modes to be inversely related to the time people use them: students get 12 years of formal training in writing, 6-8 years in reading, 1-2 years in speaking, and from 0-1/2 year in listening. Swanson (1984b) calls this the "inverted curriculum." Curriculum guides usually call for more extensive instruction in listening than children get; for as Swanson (1984a) found, there is a tendency for teachers not to emphasize the listening objectives.

Many studies in the ERIC database suggest that educators have assumed that listening develops naturally (e.g., Abelleira, 1987).

Another reason that listening is not emphasized may be that not having experienced much instruction on effective listening themselves, teachers are not certain how best to teach it. A study by Swanson (1986) suggests that teachers are not apt to get much training on teaching listening. His survey of 15 textbooks used in teacher education programs revealed that out of a total of 3,704 pages of text, only 82 pages mentioned listening.

How Can Listening Be Defined?

No widely accepted model for listening has developed in the past 10-15 years as one has in reading. The emerging processing model for reading has been intriguing and has led to close scrutiny of existing reading instructional materials and assessment instruments and to innovative attempts to develop new ones. For listening, no such conclusive model has yet emerged to direct extensive development of instructional materials.

The processing models for reading, however, contribute to our understanding of listening; and more than any other approaches to defining listening, appear to influence instruction. Pearson and Fielding (1983), among others, link listening skills to reading skills. They feel that reading and listening make use of similar language comprehension processes. As does reading, they maintain, listening involves the simultaneous orchestration of skills in phonology, syntax, semantics, and knowledge of text structure—all of which seem to be controlled by the same set of cognitive processes.

One aspect of listening which relates to high levels of comprehension may be more relevant to listening than to reading. Thomlison's (1984) definition of listening includes "active listening," which goes beyond comprehending literally to an empathetic understanding of the speaker. Gordon (1985) sees empathy as essential to listening and contends that it is more than a polite attempt to identify a speaker's perspectives—that it expands to "non-egocentric prosocial behavior" that altruistically accepts concern for the speaker's welfare and interests. Gordon admits, however, that a problem with research on empathy has been a lack of conceptual clarity.
Coakley (1985) tends to define listening skills as the opposites of negative attitudes. She discusses one common negative listening attitude as self-centeredness—as opposed to being “other-oriented,” with a genuine interest in others that leads to acknowledging another person’s comments by asking open-ended questions. Disrespect, another negative listening attitude, is shown by sending “superiority” signals and/or by interrupting.

In a careful attempt to compile a definition of listening as a synthesis of many other definitions, Hirsch (1986) treats aspects that span neurological responses and interpretation of sound to understanding and assigning meaning by reacting, selecting meaning, remembering, attending, analyzing, and incorporating previous experience. He groups definitions as 1) attempts to define the process; 2) explanations of sequential phases in listening—how sound is received, comprehended, and acted upon; and 3) generalist definitions that examine aspects of listening without sequencing them or relating each to the others as part of a process. Hirsch’s own definition presents numerous components that do not suggest any sequential model but leave one free to focus on particular aspects of listening without attempting to oversimplify the complexity of how they may relate to each other.

**What Teaching Methods Should Work?**

A sampling of methodologies for teaching listening described in the ERIC database illustrates how the developing discussion of listening—particularly as it relates to reading—is contributing to directions in the classroom.

After reviewing relationships between listening and reading, Choate and Rakes (1987) offer a structured listening activity not unlike one that would promote reading comprehension. Four major steps that lead to comprehension of a selection read aloud by the teacher include 1) developing the concepts in the text by promoting discussion that ties the concepts to the students’ backgrounds, 2) establishing a purpose for listening, 3) using visual aids while reading aloud to help the students focus attention and to reinforce concepts, and 4) asking questions that promote both literal and interpretive or critical responses.

Shoop (1986) proposes a technique that she says is equally successful in building listening, reading, or a combination of listening and reading comprehension. A narrative text is selected to be read aloud, silently, or both. The teacher interrupts at several places to call a spontaneous news conference in which the students play investigative reporters at the scene of one of the story events. Their questioning promotes interpretive and critical responses.

Abelleira argues that listening should be taught as a separate mode. The first three of five components in her approach to introducing listening to first graders are included to make sure that the pupils understand how the auditory system functions, have some grasp of the science of sound, and know some rules that relate to successful group discussion. The last two components are a list of objectives for the instruction: the students should learn to decode; follow verbal instructions; infer word meanings; listen for details, sequence, and main idea; distinguish fact from opinion; and identify mood. These objectives matched closely the instrument that Abelleira used to demonstrate that the method is effective. Interestingly, they are also very compatible with those on many standardized reading tests.

Lundsteen (1985) points out that the quality and appeal of what one is asked to listen to is instrumental in determining how well a listener attends, and she suggests that the same textual qualities that promote attentive reading comprehension should promote more skillful listening. In an extensive discussion of how listening should and can be framed in integrated language instruction, Lundsteen (1979) covers pertinent research as well as available instructional materials.

Ronald and Roskelly (1985) define listening as an active process requiring the same skills of prediction, hypothesizing, checking, revising, and generalizing that writing and reading demand; and they present specific exercises to make students active listeners to the same “inner voice” one hears when writing.

The tendency of many teaching methodologies and techniques on listening to draw on theory, objectives, and skills more established in the other language modes seems reasonable. The interest in empathy may ultimately distinguish a listening model from those of the other language modes; on the other hand, it is not yet clear why empathy would not also be relevant to reading. The neglect of listening may, in fact, be most efficiently remedied by transferring what is practiced in developing reading, writing, and speaking proficiencies and skills.

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Introduction to FAST Bibs

Two types of citations are included in this bibliography—citations to ERIC documents and citations to journal articles. The distinction between the two is important only if you are interested in obtaining the full text of any of these items. To obtain the full text of ERIC documents, you will need the ED number given in square brackets following the citation. For approximately 98% of the ERIC documents, the full text can be found in the ERIC microfiche collection. This collection is available in over 800 libraries across the country. Alternatively, you may prefer to order your own copy of the document from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). You can contact EDRS by writing to 7420 Fullerton Road, Suite 110, Springfield, VA 22153-2852, or by telephoning them at (800) 443-ERIC (3742) or (703) 440-1400. For those few ERIC documents which are not available by these means, information regarding their availability is provided in the square brackets.

Full text copies of journal articles are not available in the ERIC microfiche collection or through EDRS. Articles can be acquired most economically from library collections or through interlibrary loan. Articles from some journals are also available through University Microfilms International at (800) 732-0616 or through the Original Article Tearsheet Service of the Institute for Scientific Information at (800) 523-1850.
Creative Arts in the Classroom: Readers' Theater, Drama, and Oral Interpretation

by Jerry Johns, Mary Ellen Sanders, and Sharon Weber

This bibliography focuses on the integration of the creative arts into the classroom. It is organized into three sections: Overview, Readers' Theater, and Dramatic Production and Interpretation. The entries in these sections should help teachers discover how the use of the creative arts can become a vital part of their curriculum. Because there was not consistency with the term "readers' theater" (singular or plural and spelling of theater), the annotations reflect the authors' usage.

Overview

Cowen, John E., Ed. Teaching Reading through the Arts, Newark, Del.: International Reading Association, 1983. 116p. [ED 226 339]

Explores ways of using the arts in humanizing reading instruction and developing lifetime readers. Offers many creative articles to help reading and classroom teachers provide their students with educational experiences that will not only help them master basic skills but also affect their capacity for aesthetic appreciation, growth, and sensitivity.


Suggests that there is considerable untapped potential for using drama as a teaching method in the English classroom, including improvisation; role-playing; readers' theater; choral readings; and writing and producing radio programs, television screenplays, or documentaries. Stresses that the use of drama in the classroom helps the teacher to become a facilitator rather than an authority or the source of knowledge. Notes that drama techniques in the classroom can become a vital part of a teacher's repertoire.


Includes annotations of library resource materials in the following areas: (1) "Identifying Titles for Reading Aloud"; (2) "Learning to Express Yourself: Puppetry, Reader's Theater, Storytelling"; and (3) "Just for Fun: Literature Activities."

Readers' Theater


Suggests that reader's theater has much to offer at all levels of student development. Defines principles of learning from educational psychology that need to be emphasized, including: meaningful experiences for students; provision for individual differences among students; and appropriate sequence in learning. Focuses on information which should be included in inservice education.


Suggests that oral interpretation facilitates the learning processes of adolescents by making the presentation of subject matter more interesting and meaningful to them, helping them feel involved, and providing them with an opportunity to perceive literature in action. Presents prose, poetry, and drama in a storytelling, choral reading, or readers' theatre format as an exciting way to explore literature and to stimulate productive student endeavors.


Provides an annotated bibliography of sources that will help teachers select materials and structure activities in oral interpretation,
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Clarifies the principles behind preparing a piece of literature for a Readers’ Theatre production. Uses Sylvia Plath’s autobiographical novel, The Bell Jar, as an example.


Suggests that while the availability of both oral and written historical narratives provides the Readers’ Theater adapter with a rich opportunity to experiment with mixing oral and written narrative styles in documentary form, those who plan to use such mixing must consider the differences between oral and written narratives.


Advocates the use of readers’ theater in the college reading classroom. Discusses the definition of readers’ theater; its advantages and disadvantages; choices of materials and suggested materials; cutting and adaptation; classroom use; personal considerations; physical arrangement and movement; rehearsal; onstage and offstage focus; and group self-evaluation.


Provides an overview and several examples of the “readers’ theatre” approach to teaching literature, which dramatizes literature to provide both a visual and an oral stimulus for those unaccustomed to using imagination to experience literary works.


Asserts that students’ reading comprehension is enhanced by sharing personal text interpretations through social interaction in the reading classroom. Presents three lessons which encourage sharing and extending text comprehension by exploring text meaning through art; by developing a Readers’ Theatre script; and by shifting question-asking responsibility to students.

Swanson, Charlene C. “Reading and Writing Readers’ Theatre Scripts.” Reading Around Series No. 1. Australian Reading Association, 1988. 5p. [ED 296 293]

Describes the processes involved in executing a readers’ theatre. Outlines the procedures for implementing readers’ theater in the classroom: (1) finding or writing scripts; (2) introducing and assigning parts; (3) rehearsing; (4) reassigning parts; (5) planning a performance; and (6) finally performing. Concludes that the major benefits of readers’ theater are increased oral reading, a deeper and more meaningful understanding of the elements of story such as character and plot development, and exposure to new books.


Explains how from the beginning, readers theater performances generally have been held in academic or theatrical settings and have relied heavily on literary scripts; whereas now, readers theatre performers are finding a wider range of audiences and materials for their use. Discusses how special audiences such as elementary and secondary schools, schools for the physically handicapped, prisons, retirement homes, churches, and recreational camps have prompted performers and teachers to look for new sources of materials and to develop their own without relying on traditional literature.

Dramatic Production and Interpretation


Provides a lesson plan based on W. W. Jacob’s dramatic play, The Monkey’s Paw, which is intended for middle school teachers interested in helping students learn how to read and see a play by themselves. Discusses the general instructional objectives that students should attain after having read, discussed, and interpreted a well-made and worthwhile play. Considers various strategies for teaching the play, including how much time to spend on background, reading the play as a script, and basic terms for dealing with the structure (plot). Concludes with
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a list of eight different ways to evaluate the students' success in learning about the play and with a brief coda that reiterates the purpose of the lesson plan and its usefulness for future studies of dramatic texts.


Encourages the use of storytelling in the classroom as a method for developing verbal, written, and reading skills, as well as nonverbal communication skills. Offers guidelines and specific activities for involving students in storytelling.


Demonstrates a variety of ways in which listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities can be built around the study of the drama in the ninth-grade classroom. Begins with an introduction to teaching drama. Discusses teaching drama as both literature and theater, and developing skills in play reading. Includes worksheets containing techniques for playreading and a checklist of questions for readers of plays; material on approaches to teaching drama and on using drama to teach reading skills; and a description of a resource unit on teaching the play, A Raisin in the Sun, by Lorraine Hansberry. Includes fourteen sample lessons centered around A Raisin in the Sun.


Discovers the lack of attention given to plays for young adults in most published booklists, and includes a list of recent works for junior and senior high readers.


Presents a lesson plan intended to foster playreading skills in high school students. Teaches essential ingredients of a play in a single class period which can be used verbatim or adapted as desired. Includes a phase for motivating student interest in reading plays, a discussion of the skills needed for reading a script, and a description of the nine parts of a stage.

Theater Arts; A Thematic Approach to Integrating the Communication Arts. High School PREP. New York City Board of Education, 1985. 130p. [ED 281 266]

Uses a theater arts thematic approach to demonstrate ways listening, speaking, and writing activities can be built around the study of works of literature. Presents activities and sample lessons to help students develop an awareness of the interrelationships between performance and the language arts. Consists mainly of sample lesson plans for the following: (1) preparatory activities, (2) unit based on a play, (3) mythology unit, (4) short story unit, and (5) unit based on a novel. Concludes with two appendixes, one providing definitions of readers’ theater and the other an annotated bibliography of sources on oral interpretation and readers’ theater.


Suggests that small high schools on a limited budget do not have to sacrifice a theater program. Explains how teacher/directors can use basic materials to develop an outstanding program based on units within the language arts curriculum, mini-courses, staged readings, or productions of original plays.
Communication Skills across the Curriculum

By Jerry Johns, Sharon Weber, and Katy Howe

This FAST Bib focuses on the integration of the essential communication skills of speaking, reading, writing, listening, and viewing into all areas of the curriculum. Based on entries to the ERIC database, the bibliography contains selected references from 1987 to 1990, and is organized into three sections: (1) Overview, (2) Language Arts Applications, and (3) Special Curriculum Applications.

Overview

Begins with a brief introduction which summarizes the characteristics of whole language theory. Includes a 28-item annotated bibliography of books and journal articles, many of which are 1988 and 1989.


Advocates that language learning be incorporated throughout the curriculum. Contains the following chapters: (1) "Language Arts and the Beginning of Language"; (2) "A Literature Foundation"; (3) "Composing and Comprehending via Literature"; (4) "Connections: Speaking and Reading"; (5) "Listening: A Comprehending Process"; (6) "Reading: A Comprehending Process"; (7) "Speaking: A Composing Process"; (8) "Writing: A Composing Process"; (9) "Connections: Comprehending and Composing"; and (11) "Managing an Integrated Language Arts Program."


Recognizes that students come to the classroom knowing something about language use, and that their prior knowledge must be built up and used to help them comprehend and use language experiences. Notes that the integration of language arts skills can empower students and build their confidence, and thus improve students and society as a whole.


Covers a variety of topics in the field of language arts instruction, such as creative writing instruction, reading assessment from a Whole Language perspective, journal writing, and strategies for modifying commercial reading materials.


Recommends teaching suggestions which focus on three broad areas: (1) strategies for teaching textbook organization; (2) strategies for using graphics to organize the information covered in the text; and (3) the use of an integrated approach to content area teaching.


Outlines general criteria for an effective integrated curriculum in English language arts, suggests the instructional objectives that need to be addressed, and provides direction for the evaluation of student progress and program effectiveness.

Farris, Pamela J. "From Basal Reader to Whole Language: Transition Tactics," Reading Horizons, v30 n1 p23-29 Fall 1989.

Offers suggestions in the areas of classroom management, instructional strategies, and evaluation to assist in making a smooth transition from the basal to the whole language program.


Discusses whole language learning in terms of its rationale, practical applications, implica-
tions for how communication skills are taught, and classroom implementation.


Recommends a method for integrating communication across the curriculum in Saskatchewan (Canada) schools, from kindergarten to grade 12. Defines communication skills as essential learning in education that consists of speaking, reading, writing, listening, viewing, and other forms of nonverbal communication.


Explores many possible relationships among language, thought processes, and education. Presents designs to synthesize modern views of language and linguistics, literature and semiotics, and thinking and knowing that are pertinent to education.

Language Arts Applications


Presents ideas for learning activities that use books and stories to teach language arts, art, cooking, movement, health, and math to kindergarten and primary school students. Includes materials designed to be duplicated and handed out to students.


Notes that reading and writing should be interactive in the same way that listening and learning to speak are interactive. Describes several teaching methods designed to integrate the teaching of reading and writing on elementary and secondary levels.


Describes a program in a first-grade classroom in a rural school district which integrates holistic and direct instructional ideas by using the basal reader as one part of an otherwise holistic literacy program.


Presents a philosophical and practical framework for a literature-based English language arts curriculum that will encourage students to read widely and in depth, write often in many formats, study important writings from many disciplines, and relate these studies meaningfully to their own lives.


Sets guidelines for the elementary and middle school English language arts curriculum. Suggests a learning sequence—core, integrated, and across the curriculum—and delineates concepts, skills and activities appropriate for learners in kindergarten through grade eight.

Hewitt, Amelia M.; Roos, Marie C. "Thematic-Based Literature throughout the Curriculum." 1990. 14p. [ED 314 718]

Includes a review of the current literature about literature-based programs and a thematic unit on dinosaurs developed across the curriculum at the kindergarten level. Includes thematic units on letter recognition, language arts, math, social living, arts, physical education, story time, music, and computer. Presents activities in math, science/health, social studies, language arts, and arts for use with four trade books.


Offers teachers ideas for using children's literature and related activities as an alternative to basal readers to make learning language skills enjoyable for students.

Leavitt, Tamara Day. "Integrating Reading and Writing Instruction at the Primary Level." 1987. 12p. [ED 286 158]

Suggests that integrating reading and writing at the primary level is important because writing and then reading back what has been written gives purpose to both. Points out that this integration starts by encouraging beginning students to create a purpose for paying attention to features of written language such as letter-sound correspondences, the ordering of letters in words, and the left-to-right nature of English print, all of which is knowledge used in reading. Emphasizes the interdependence of reading and
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writing rather than creating the illusion of division between the two.

Scott, Diana; Piazza, Carolyn L. "Integrating Reading and Writing Lessons," Reading Horizons, v28 n1 p57-64 Fall 1987.

Describes a cooperative endeavor between university and public school professionals in integrating reading and writing lessons.


Recommends changes for secondary school reading programs and suggests that reading instruction be taught throughout all years of schooling if students are to become successfully functioning citizens.


Proposes seven instructional principles based upon research on the reading-writing relationship and suggests specific techniques for each principle.

Special Curriculum Applications


Presents examples of activities and strategies that integrate different areas of the curriculum with social studies.


Suggests a method for teaching research and other media center skills by integrating them in the reading and language arts curriculum with the media specialist and classroom teacher team-planning relevant activities.


Encourages the use of integrated prereading, prewriting, and critical thinking activities in music classes to help students appreciate and understand the process of musical composition. Discusses using freewriting, journal writing, directed reading, and extended activities in music appreciation, performance, and composition classes.


Provides materials for a competency-based course in building trades at the secondary level. Suggests using the curriculum-infused model for teaching of basic skills as part of vocational education and demonstrates the relationship of vocationally-related skills to communication, mathematics, and science knowledge.


Provides a rationale for content area writing, and suggests ways it can be used for social studies instruction.


Encourages preservice teachers to view the teaching of reading, movement education, and music as a holistic process which encompasses aspects of the school day and emphasizes the development of content understanding, teaching skills, and positive attitudes toward each subject.


Provides seven fully-developed library media activities to be used in connection with specific curriculum units in music, physical education, reading/language arts, science, and social studies.

"Reinforcing Basic Skills through Vocational Education." 1987. 94p.[ED 287 976]

Presents a statewide strategy to ensure that all South Carolina vocational educators are properly prepared to provide relevant basic skills reinforcement instructions as part of all vocational courses.


Describes collaborative efforts between an elementary school and Lehman College. Focuses on the integration of writing, reading, and study skills, emphasizing the development of research skills.


Describes a model that can be used to integrate computers into the language arts curriculum.
Interpersonal Communication

by Michael Shermis

This bibliography reflects the explosion of research and writing on and about interpersonal communication that has been added to the ERIC database from 1987 through 1989. The first section of the FAST Bib presents a few citations for instructional strategies in the area of interpersonal communication. The second section consists of resources on gender issues, for example complaint interactions, idiomatic communication, nonsexist communication, conflict strategies, and marital conversations. Articles and papers in the last section represent a wide variety of different kinds of research and theory, on topics such as employment screening, organizational innovation, encoding patterns, interpersonal versus mass media communication, problem solving, and the intercultural entry process.

Instructional Strategies


Instructional applications of Q methodology (a set of procedures that can be used in studying the subjective nature of things) provide a means for teaching communication skills, analyzing thinking patterns, making comparative analyses, and structuring intrapersonal processes.


Contains that the development of empathy, sympathy, and consideration for others ranks as an important ingredient of social education in schools. Presents techniques designed to be applicable to an evaluation of the effect of different interventions aimed at promoting empathetic attitudes.


Offers five tips that teachers can use to improve their skills in communicating with parents. Discusses each tip and provides a scripted example emphasizing how each tip could be used in a parent-teacher conference.


Explores one-to-one communication in teacher-student conferences in a college-level technical writing course. Examines whether the need to access their different knowledge bases would foster substantive conversational exchanges between instructor and student.

Gender Issues


Offers an overview of couples' complaint behavior by describing complaint types, response types, complaint-response sequencing, and the environment in which such complaining occurs. Examines differences in reported complaint behavior between males and females and between satisfied and dissatisfied couples.

Bell, Robert A.; and others. "‘Did You Bring the Yar-mulke for the Cabbage Patch Kid?’ The Idiomatic Communication of Young Lovers," Human Communication Research, v14 n1 p47-62 Fall 1987.

Examines relationships of idiomatic communication (including words, phrases, and nonverbal signs) to the interpersonal sentiments of 100 romantically involved heterosexual couples. Finds that loving, commitment, and closeness correlated with the number of idioms expressing affection and referring to sexual matters. Notes that males invented idioms more than females.


Lays out guidelines for nonsexist communication. Offers additional recommendations for
nonsexist communication in the classroom and elsewhere in the university community.


Investigates how conflict strategies and communicator gender affect two properties of communicative competence, appropriateness and effectiveness, and how these properties are associated with interpersonal attraction.


Examines communicative responses to the highly argumentative person. Finds that the adversary's use of verbal aggression provokes male subjects to be more verbally aggressive, but stimulates female subjects to be more argumentative.


Examines gender differences in the uses of uncertainty reduction strategies (self-disclosure, interrogative strategies, nonverbal immediacy, and other's self-disclosure) and their interrelationships with attributional confidence (uncertainty reduction). Results revealed significant gender differences in the uses of uncertainty reduction strategies. While both males and females used another person's self-disclosure to reduce uncertainty, the other person's disclosures were more important for reducing women's relational uncertainty. Also, men felt that their own self-disclosures helped them reduce relational uncertainty, but women relied more on interrogation strategies and nonverbal immediacy to reduce uncertainty. Furthermore, gender differences were also noted in how these strategies were used to increase attributional confidence. While both men and women primarily used their own self-disclosure to elicit others' self-disclosure, women also incorporated use of interrogative strategies and greater use of nonverbal immediacy (smiling, eye contact, touching). Men tended to rely more on interrogation strategies.


Suggests that prominent themes in the conversations of spouses are metacommunication about relationships. Compares content themes of different marital types (traditional, separate, and independent) and more or less satisfied spouses. Finds marital satisfaction tends to be positively associated with communal and impersonal themes and negatively associated with individual themes.

Communication Research and Theory


Examines the impact of communication apprehension (CA) and interaction structure on participants' perceptions and behavior during initial interactions. Finds that high and low CA males perceived their female interaction partners differently, while females reported less satisfying interactions in the structured versus unstructured condition.


Studies the process whereby four jazz musicians coordinate an inventive performance, without rehearsal or the use of sheet music. Identifies a basic strategy of shared information, communication, and attention for inventing and coordinating increasingly complex musical ideas. Draws implications for the study and management of organizational innovation.


Outlines four factors that account for the relative lack of integration between mass communication and interpersonal communication researchers. Cites several forces that support segregation of the two research areas, yet notes that the recent turn to cognitive explanations of communication in both fields may create the climate for meaningful collaboration.


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Interpersonal Communication

Examines specific nonverbal behaviors that express conversational involvement (the degree to which participants in a communicative exchange are cognitively and behaviorally engaged in the topic, relationship, and/or situation) along five dimensions: immediacy, expressiveness, interaction management, altercentrism, and social anxiety. Finds specific behaviors that strongly discriminate high from low involvement.


Argues that an individual’s activities prior to and during an interpersonal influence attempt may be explained by his or her goals. Examines primary and secondary goals, their relationships to one another, and how they shape the interpersonal influence process in terms of planning, effort, directness, positivity, and logic.


Reports the results of a study that used several statistical tests of reciprocity of self-disclosure. Finds little evidence for reciprocity of self-disclosure, and concludes that either reciprocity is an illusion, or that different or more sophisticated methods are needed to detect it.


Examines the differences in perspective and training of nurse practitioners and physician assistants, and effects of these on their interactive strategies with patients. Shows how the macro issue of differences in occupational perspective can be incorporated into micro studies of the form and content of talk in social interactions.


Focuses on correlations between messages enacted during employment interviews and participants’ subsequent perceptions about the interview’s success. Indicates cybernetic tension in the interviewer-interviewee relationship. Shows a relationship between the ways this tension was balanced during the interview and its perceived success.


Examines the separate and combined impact of hedges, hesitations, and intensifiers on perceptions of authoritativeness, sociability, character, and similarity, and the extent to which messages containing one or more of these language variables differ from a “prototypically” powerless message in evaluative consequences.


Investigates interpersonal communication in a high tech organization to test the association between high tech organizations and Western styles of symbolic interaction. Takes a diagnostic, rather than prescriptive, approach to organizational change.


The communication discipline has advanced the belief that arguing (high argumentativeness) is a constructive communication activity. Recent research efforts have attempted the integration of principles from argumentation, interpersonal communication, and conflict management. Several benefits of high motivation to argue and skill in informal arguing have been identified.


Explores the consequences of differences in message design logic and goal structures for success in regulative communication situations. Finds that the level of message design logic was associated with every type of assessed effectiveness. Notes that differences in message goal structures had more selective effects on message evaluations.


Examines managing floor time and topical focus as manifestations of interpersonal dominance in conversations. Finds that the longer a
conversational partner talks, and the less related are his or her remarks, the more that partner is perceived to be in control.


Examines social and parasocial interaction from interpersonal attribution perspectives. Finds subjects' relationships with soap opera characters, like social relationships with real people, are based on reduction of uncertainty and ability to predict the character's feelings and attitudes. Discusses implications for uncertainty reduction theory and personal construct theory.


Challenges the intellectual separation of interpersonal and mass media communication, arguing that this division rests primarily on grounds of historical convenience and university politics. Discusses the consequences of this dichotomy and suggests ways of encouraging intellectual exchange between the two subdisciplines.


Examines American college and university students' successful reentry after a period abroad, hypothesized to be influenced by their locus of control for affiliation, interpersonal uses for communication, and relational satisfaction. Finds that reentry was not associated with either internal or external locus of control in this study and that reentry shock can lead to improved interpersonal skills, improved relationships with family members, and even increased intrapersonal knowledge.


Examines the relationship between four types of communication (i.e., integrative, distributive, indirect, and avoidance) and fourteen perceptions of problem situations. Finds that a relatively specific relationship exists between each type of communication and the set of perceptions for both personally experienced and undefined problem situations.
Interviewing: Communication Strategies

by Michael Shermis

Because a knowledge of job interviewing techniques can improve a student's chance of getting a job, practical experience in the hiring situation should be provided through the use of role-playing, other simulations, and field experience. Both teachers who are preparing students for the interviewing process and students who foresee an interview in the near future will find valuable resources in the ERIC database concerning communication skills. Job applicants can also find information about resume preparation, employment tests, and factors influencing job success, promotion, and advancement.

The citations in the first section present teaching techniques and strategies for the business teacher, such as modules of instruction, writing assignments, and training methods. The second section contains two references for rating and evaluation forms to be used in interviewing. The third section cites resources for students in preparation for the interview process. Two references to papers on performance appraisal interviews make up the fourth section. The last section includes a study on what employers want and an article on how to keep bias out of job interviews.

Teaching Techniques and Strategies


Contains 12 modules of instruction designed to aid business teachers by providing the common core, minimum skill-level competencies identified as basic to all business careers. Divides the modules into five categories of basic skills: business math/machines (addition, division, multiplication, and subtraction), communication arts (following directions, handwriting, and spelling), human relations (personal skills, job keeping skills, and job interviewing), applying for a job (job application and job interviewing), and telephone techniques.


Describes ways to use the job interview as a topic in college technical writing assignments, including role-playing either the interviewer or interviewee, observing a professional interviewer at work, and generating business correspondence as a result of an interview.


Provides suggestions for conduct during the business interview process.


Describes a business or consumer education course during a four-week unit in which interviewing skills are taught. Divides sections on the job-hunt unit into value clarification, self-evaluation, aptitude tests, classified ads, resumes, letters of application, role playing, and mock interviews.


Outlines a unit that prepares students for the job application situation.


Points out that having students conduct interviews with business executives shows the students that business communication theory applies to actual business situations.


Outlines a teaching technique that places students in two fictional identities, job applicant and employer/evaluator, to give them practical experiences in the hiring situation.

Describes a communication assignment that requires business communication students to interview business executives.


Describes an assignment that provides a field experience related to the career interests of students and also strengthens business-academic relationships.


Discusses a course teaching the skills used by business lawyers which uses role-playing and discussion to give students exposure to essential functions including interviewing, report-writing, procedures, planning, and coping with the individuals involved.


Presents a unit of instruction, appropriate for secondary school students, on applying for a job.


Reports on a field study that examined communication behaviors in job interviews. Recommends a training method for developing the communication skills that job applicants will need.


Offers an instructor's guide, primarily for business and office education, divided into nine units: (1) Why Work?; (2) Career Opportunities; (3) Occupational Information; (4) Self-Evaluation; (5) Letter of Application and Application Blank; (6) Job Interview, Tests and Forms; (7) Money Management; (8) Job Success Factors; and (9) Job Promotion and Advancement.


Examines two major procedures in job-hunting: resume preparation and interviewing. Concludes that (1) students and recruiters agree that written and oral communication are the most important job-related skills and (2) traditional resume formats are favored over attempts to be more visually creative.


Presents a unit of instruction for secondary schools, on grooming for job interviews.


Examines what the most widely used business communication textbooks are advocating for the interviewing process, the opinions and preferences of campus recruiters, and the perceptions and practices of college senior applicants.
**Student Tips**


Suggests that a student’s chances of getting a job can be enhanced by carefully studying job interview techniques. Proposes that a productive approach to this study, which can be integrated into a variety of business courses, consists of three essential parts: pre-interview preparation, the interview, and the follow-up after the interview. Discusses these parts and provides an interview checklist.


Explores the elements of the interviewing process: preliminary research on the company (what to look for and where to find it); importance of first impressions (being on time, being prepared, dressing correctly, shaking hands, eye contact); open-ended questions; discussing salary; post-interview evaluation; and writing a note to the interviewer.


Presents guidelines and suggestions for obtaining a professional position in the corporate community. Discusses basic philosophies and realities of the corporate community with an emphasis on competition and profitability. Offers suggestions for locating a job opening, getting an interview, doing the proper things during the interview, and following up the interview.

**Performance-Appraisal Interviews**


Contends that offering instruction in performance appraisal (PA) skills as well as in selection interviewing contributes to business communication students’ potential for finding the most appropriate job and keeping it.


Presents the results of an examination of research literature on performance-appraisal interviewing and its implications. Suggests that the appraisal interview functions to (1) provide feedback on performance, (2) counsel and provide help, (3) discover what the employee is thinking, (4) teach the employee to solve problems, (5) help the employee discover ways to improve, (6) set performance goals, and/or (7) discuss compensation.

**Research**


Cites a study that shows employers consider the following skills as important for both blue- and white-collar entry-level workers: (1) employee application and interview skills; (2) work-related social skills and habits, especially communication and interpersonal skills; (3) basic academic skills, particularly in reading, mathematics, writing, and problem solving/reasoning; and (4) vocational skills, especially manual/perceptual skills.


Points out recent developments surrounding employment inquiries and requirements and suggests guidelines for keeping job interview questions within the law.
With increasing numbers of non-native speakers of English in American classrooms, more attention is being given to alternative methods for successfully reaching these students. The use of personal narrative and its incorporation in the reading and writing classroom, as well as the use of ethnographic research as a part of the social studies and writing curriculum, have proven to be effective means of reaching children from multilingual and/or multicultural backgrounds. However, not all educators believe that there is enough evidence to depart from more traditional teaching methods.

This bibliography represents the diversity of articles added to the ERIC database from 1983 through 1988 on the uses of ethnography in education. Included are conflicting opinions concerning the appropriateness of using this form of qualitative research to describe accurately problems within the classroom and prescribe curriculum changes to meet those problems. Most of the articles in the database describe ethnographic research and its effect on curriculum design and support its application in the classroom. Many of the authors include sample assignments and suggestions for selecting reading materials.

An Overview


Ethnographic research observes human behavior in its natural setting over a substantial period of time; claims that classes of events are better understood through intensive examination of carefully selected particular cases; and incorporates as many of the complexities and variables into a setting as possible. Ethnographic research is usually comprised of six main steps: 1) selecting an appropriate project; 2) obtaining access to the appropriate location and establishing rapport with the proper individuals; 3) developing research questions while observing subjects; 4) collecting data through reactive and nonreactive methods; 5) analyzing data inductively, both during and after investigation; 6) writing the research report descriptively, letting generic patterns emerge from the sum of particular pieces of data.


Warns that attempts to connect curricula to everyday life can impede students’ understanding of disciplinary concepts, restrict their range of vision, and may cost a substantial sum to make curricula continuous with students’ everyday lives. Argues that ethnographic studies have value in helping future teachers to reflect on how their actions are culturally influenced and how individual differences do not imply deficiencies.

Research


Describes an expansionist/reductionist model, in which the naturalistic inquirer uses qualitative methods for evaluating social studies and proposes suggestions for improvement. Gives examples of ethnographic research in education and some recent controversies in such research.


Describes the research tradition of ethnography and discusses advantages of improved communication for mathematics education.

Uses an ethnographic approach to show that high schools emphasizing strong principal leadership, discipline and safety measures, student and teacher attendance, interactive teaching, good facilities maintenance, and cooperation between faculty and administration were successful at retaining students.


Examines data collection, methods and issues concerning the theoretical framework, reliability, validity, and generalizability of ethnographic research, with a focus on music education research.


Argues that ethnographic research holds promise for studying gifted education as it focuses on the students’ and teachers’ points of view and considers their social and cultural interaction.


Describes an ethnographic project to develop a model for an ethnic studies program based on community education, community involvement, and a study of community history. Argues that the incorporation of ethnography into the curriculum is an approach wherein students learn the skill of learning from others.


Explores reasons that anthropology has been applied only infrequently to the solution of education-related problems. Presents three case examples in which ethnographic research in the Hispanic community of Hartford, Connecticut, has been utilized to bring about changes in education-related services to Hispanics.


Asserts that naturalistic inquiry (based on the ethnographic research paradigm) has the potential to supplement, or possibly to replace, quantitative experimental research in education. Argues that now is the time to broaden the horizons of reading research to include variations in reading behavior, to examine culture-free tests, and to review carefully techniques and strategies needed in the teaching of cross-cultural groups.


Includes 13 papers which are grouped into 2 sections: "General Theoretical and Methodological Issues," and "Microethnographic Studies of Minority Culture Children in the Classroom."


Argues that it is in the discontinuity between home and school uses of literacy that most ethnographers who study literacy locate the failure of children from lower socioeconomic communities.

Instructional Materials Selection


Lists more than 80 anthropology source materials concentrating on cultural and social anthropology, and ethnographic theory and methods.

Merc, Edmond. "Le recit de vie, ou la culture vivante (The Life Story, or Living Culture)," Francais dans le Monde, n181 p72-83 Nov-Dec 1983.

Recommends autobiography or personal narrative as a medium of instruction in foreign languages because it uses colloquial language and is therefore simpler than literary language; has a rich and substantial cultural content; and captures the relationship between language and civilization.

Writing Instruction

Lamb, Hilary. "A Glimpse into the Thinking of Young New Zealanders." Paper presented at the Sympo-
Ethnography and Personal Narrative: Uses in Education

Discusses the personal narrative as a means for students to organize and interpret their experiences, to write about themselves and their relationships, and to record their present and anticipate their future.


Asserts that fiction writing techniques such as plot, characterization, and dialogue can be used to help remedial writers express their personal narrative.

Murphy, Richard. Teaching Expository Writing. Curriculum Publication No. 16. Univ. of California, Berkeley, School of Education. Publications Department, Bay Area Writing Project, University of California, 1981. 27 p. [ED 250 719]

Offers suggestions for teaching students to write expository essays that are serious and truthful. Suggests ways to teach students to organize their ideas. Discusses both the value of teaching students to integrate personal experience with exposition and the appropriate use of personal narrative.


Describes ethnographic classroom research. Documents a process approach to the teaching of writing.

Reaching the Special Needs Student


Describes the Punjabi Education Project, which was a collaborative research effort involving a Sikh community in California, a school district, a community organization, and an educational anthropologist.


Examines teachers’ attitudes toward black female students, black females’ orientations toward teachers, and black females’ peer expectations in a study using ethnographic observations and teacher interviews in desegregated first grade classrooms.


Uses a multilevel ethnographic approach to report on a ten-year-old maintenance Chinese bilingual education program in a public school located in the heart of a Chinatown community in California. Provides an illustrative model of how a multilevel ethnography may be designed, carried out, and reported.


Describes how anthropological knowledge has been applied in the Kamehameha Elementary Education Program (KEEP), a multidisciplinary educational research and development effort to create a successful language arts program for underachieving native Hawaiian children. Discusses the process of translating anthropological knowledge into effective educational practice.


Examines which pedagogical techniques reduced students’ risk of failure in an ethnographic study of 22 bilingual Mexican-American fifth-grade students in rural Texas.


Introduces articles which try to analyze what happens in the education of the deaf, what is experienced by the different parties involved, and the impact of these experiences on deaf children.


Argues that ethnographic research has brought deliberate attention to the articulation of home and school culture, emphasizing both curriculum design suited to student development.
and abilities, and the mix of language of instruction with subject matter.


Outlines a combined ethnographic and sociolinguistic study of an exemplary bilingual education program in the Navajo community of Rock Point.


Argues that teachers of nonstandard dialect-speaking students need to become ethnographers of local communication in order for minority education and bidialectal programs to work.
Listening Skills in Business

by Michael Shermis

The importance of listening skills to the business world has greatly increased as corporations place more emphasis on good communication skills. This increased emphasis has occurred because of changes in corporate structure and philosophy, the high proportion of work time spent communicating, and the costs of ineffective communication in business. Listening instruction has been added to formal training programs being offered by several corporations, to the curriculum in elementary and secondary education, and to courses at the university level. The ERIC database provides a number of sources which may be used for listening instruction in Business English and Business Communication.

Teaching Techniques and Strategies


Reviews the relative importance of listening, speaking, reading,and writing, and argues that the average adult does not listen efficiently. Presents the AIM (Attention, Interest, Motivation) Technique for improving listening skills.


Summarizes several representative listening texts and current approaches to listening. Suggests a definition of listening that provides educators with a comprehensive framework for organizing listening instruction.

Burgenbauch, Susan; Cooney, Joe. Regional Occupational Program (ROP) Office Occupations Entry Standards Assessment. San Mateo County Office of Education, Redwood City, CA, 1979. 15 p. [ED 237 817]

Provides a skills assessment instrument to determine if a student has the basic mathematics, reading, writing, and listening skills that are prerequisites for training for office occupations.


Consists of materials for use in teaching a course in business English for high school students. Addresses the following topics in individual units: the fundamentals of communication, listening skills, oral communications, telephone communications, information resources, reading and vocabulary, the mechanics of writing, grammar and usage, business reports, business letters and memos, and employment procedures.

Communication. Listen, Speak, Write, Use. School of Business, University of Northern Iowa, Cedar Falls, IA. 1986. 204 p. [ED 278 870]

An instructional unit intended to help secondary and post-secondary business students develop their communications skills.

Communications Skills I. Reading Skills, Writing Skills, Using a Newspaper. Ohio State Dept. of Education, Div. of Vocational Education,Columbus, OH, 1984. 79 p. [ED 274 873]

This student workbook contains instructional units dealing with developing reading, writing, and listening skills and using a newspaper. The unit on listening skills deals with learning to listen and evaluating listening skills.

Consists of materials for use in helping students enrolled in postsecondary vocational or technical education programs to master technical communications skills. Listening skills (communication obstacles and oral presentations) are addressed in one of the 13 individual units of the guide. Each unit contains some or all of the following components: a unit objective, specific performance objectives, suggested activities for the instructor, a list of references, information sheets, transparency masters, assignment sheets, a test evaluation instrument, and test answers.


Points out that listening can be taught. Discusses activities and techniques to use, including commercially-produced or teacher-prepared rating instruments, listening teams, student logs, brief encounters, and films.


Contends that authentic listening materials are appropriate and desirable for instruction in English as a second language (ESL) for business purposes for several reasons: they have high interest, leading to enhanced motivation and increased opportunity for learning; they contain many natural redundancies and repetitions that facilitate comprehension; and they are rich in the target culture. Suggests that despite a lack of commercially available materials for business ESL, other sources can be tapped for authentic listening materials, such as tapes of business-related radio and television programs and commercials, teacher-made tapes of interviews or sales talks with local business people, taped university lectures, guest speakers in class, and field trips.


Indicates that skills in listening to and motivating people need to be emphasized more in undergraduate business communication courses. Presents three theories of motivation—Maslow's hierarchy of needs, McClelland's achievement motive, and Hersberg's motivation-hygiene theory—that can introduce students to the systems perspective, an approach suggesting that workers' motivations can only be understood in relationship to their work setting. Suggests that (1) to develop skill in listening, students must develop active feedback techniques (encouraging, restating, reflecting, and summarizing); and (2) by responding to hypothetical examples, students can gain skill in listening and thus in changing people's need for sympathy, fame, power, and prestige into positive motivational factors—desire for empathy, recognition, cooperation, and respect.


Defines interpersonal communication and suggests classroom activities for students in business communication courses to help them (1) assess their own interpersonal skills; (2) observe and interpret nonverbal cues; (3) listen and speak effectively; and (4) provide and interpret feedback.


Advocates the use of a group sales project, an activity which integrates the oral and written communication skills important in the workplace, to culminate the business communication course.


Contains two learning modules focusing on basic communication and on speaking and listening skills. Examines the growing emphasis on communication skills in business, emphasizing changes in corporate structure and philosophy, the amount of work time spent communicating, and the costs of ineffective communication in business. Discusses the role of the sender, receiver, message, and environment in the commu-
Listening Skills in Business

Communication process; corporate concerns about this process; and the influences of personal life orientations, perceptions, and expectations, and of position, stereotyping, and individual labels on effective communication. Examines one- and two-way communication, as well as the speaker's responsibility for creating a climate conducive to effective communication, for being direct, for using specific but simple words and phrases, for requesting feedback, and for listening carefully. It also considers ways of communicating more effectively by adjusting one's attitude, using open-ended questions, and listening; and ways to improve listening habits.


Describes an assignment for students in content-based classes for English as a second language in which they read, listen, discuss, and write about a current topic in the business world.

Recent Research


Presents a study in which entry-level employees who recently graduated with business degrees were surveyed to discover what forms of communication they used most, which they felt were most important, and what types of communication problems interfered with their work.


Analyses the current state of comprehension training in business courses. Presents the theoretical perspectives by which the basis of noncomprehension can be understood, such as message reception constrained by ambiguity, by egocentrism, and by relational considerations. Determines that the best theoretical underpinning to comprehension of problematic messages is the information-processing approach to human interaction, which makes use of schemata.


Conducts a survey to assess the importance of listening and the deficiency in that skill and to identify existing listening training programs for future study. Finds that (1) sending messages was perceived as more important than receiving them (however, listening, a receptive skill, was considered more important than reading and speaking); (2) receptive skills were more important in the oral medium, while expressive skills were more important in the written mode; and (3) overall, the oral medium was more important. Suggests that improving listening skills deserves special attention from both trainers and communication educators.


Presents a study conducted to determine which barriers to effective communication are perceived as most serious by business communication students and to test for differences in the seriousness of the communication barriers based on various student characteristics.


Compares strategies used to improve listening skills in business communication settings. Finds that (1) both class discussion and high incentive increased scores on a listening test; (2) students exposed to a lecture plus a videotape asked more questions than the other students; and (3) the quality of the student summaries was higher and notes were taken more frequently by students exposed to a lecture than by students not exposed to it.


Presents an experiment on student scores on listening tests which increased as a result of a 45-minute class discussion on listening skills and a high-incentive condition: telling students that if
they did not score well on the test, a written report on listening would be required.


Finds that (1) students exposed to any three of the instructional strategies (lecture, video role model, and lecture plus a role model) produced better summaries and took more notes than the control group; and (2) those exposed to the video role model asked the most questions.


States that listening skills are the most used and least taught of the communication skills. Discusses (1) the addition of listening and speaking to much of the curriculum after the Elementary and Secondary Education Act was passed; (2) how the number of universities offering separate listening courses has increased in response to demands from the business and professional community; and (3) how several corporations, realizing the importance of effective listening, have provided formal training programs in listening. Cites purposes of effective listening and factors critical to one's listening ability.
Communication Apprehension
by Michael Shermis

It would be rare to find a classroom where someone was not experiencing communication apprehension (CA) or some form of speech anxiety. As a matter of fact, fear and avoidance of public speaking is quite common. Knowing this leads to several questions: What is CA? What causes CA? What are the consequences of CA? How can CA be prevented or reduced? Documents in the ERIC database cite several sources that treat these and related questions on this topic.

The first section of this bibliography provides strategies for instructors and students to alleviate CA, speech anxiety, stage fright, and other problems people have with public speaking. The second section presents several programs that have utilized these and other strategies to help with fear and avoidance of communication. Articles and papers in the last section deal with recent research on CA.

Strategies


Applies an emotion-based theory of human response to resolve conceptual and measurement problems associated with anxiety. Supports the conceptualization of CA as a personality trait predisposing certain individuals to higher levels of anxiety in oral communication.


Examines the achievement levels of college students taking a bioethics course who demonstrated high and low degrees of speech anxiety. Finds that students with high speech anxiety interacted less with instructors and did not achieve as well as other students. Suggests strategies instructors can use to help students.


Describes the use of the Communication Anxiety Graph (CAG) to help students trace the pattern of their anxiety when making a speech. Provides advice for student speakers based on when their anxiety peak occurs.


Describes a noncredit course called “Overcoming Speech Anxiety” that used four different approaches: (1) creating a support group atmosphere; (2) employing relaxation exercises and systematic desensitization techniques; (3) improving confidence through cognitive restructuring; and (4) completing an abbreviated public speaking assignment.


Defines CA as fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person, and discusses its causes, consequences, and prevention.


Describes a program to help secondary school students develop speech skills by exploring social issues through role-playing. Notes that this method motivates discouraged students, reduces communication anxiety, improves research skills, fosters appropriate verbal and nonverbal skills, and stimulates affective learning.


Defines the problem of CA, i.e., fear of oral communication, and its effects on teaching English as a second language (ESL). Focuses on the
specific problems of Japanese ESL students. Suggests and explains classroom techniques designed to alleviate anxiety and to promote and practice communication.


Describes a nonthreatening method for introducing videotaping to a speech class by allowing students to construct videotaped projects, such as news programs or interviews in groups.


Suggests several strategies to reduce speech anxiety or CA.


Offers a variety of activities to help children develop skill in public speaking. Asserts that confidence is built when children practice presenting themselves both visually and orally.


Explains how the confidence model attempts to provide instruction in anxiety reduction and skill development, combining the features of both the behavior therapy and the rhetoritherapy theories of CA. Contends that both for alleviating speech anxiety and developing oral communication skills, the confidence model appears to be an excellent alternative to college basic speech courses.


Discusses how developmental college students may experience the inhibiting fear of CA. Suggests that the alleviation of CA, whether related to conditioned anxiety, negative cognitive appraisal, or skills deficit, may be approached through one or a combination of the following approaches: (1) systematic desensitization—a six-step procedure, including relaxation techniques, development of hierarchies, combining relaxation and imagery, and a written assignment; (2) cognitive modification—a seven-step procedure in which students learn to understand unreasonable beliefs about communication and how to change those beliefs; and (3) goal setting—a five-step procedure in which students turn abstract goals into specific plans for behavior.


Describes a Rational Emotive Therapy (RET) approach as a classroom method for reducing students’ CA. Compares RET with two other classroom methods (desensitization and communication skills training) and concludes that all three methods work equally well.

Special Programs


Describes a special section of the public speaking curriculum, a “speech anxiety” program, taught by faculty and graduate students from the speech and theater department, educational psychology department, and staff from the counseling services center at the University of Tennessee (Knoxville).


Describes a program that created stage fright sections within the basic speech course at the University of Illinois. Finds that students in these sections were able to define stage fright and recognize its common symptoms, describe personal symptoms and their physical and psychological causes, state and use methods for controlling stage fright, and exhibit normal levels of physical manifestations of stage fright during class presentations.


Describes and evaluates a conversational skills program designed to teach apprehensive communicators how to develop comfortable
and effective social behavior in a variety of interpersonal contexts.


Describes a reticence program instituted at Pennsylvania State University intended to provide special instruction for students who report fear and avoidance of communication.


Describes a speaking laboratory at the University of Iowa that parallels existing reading and writing labs and that is based on three approaches to the fear of communication: systematic desensitization, cognitive modification, and skills training.


Describes a course in social psychology developed to help students explore CA, reticence, and shyness.

Recent Research


Examines the relationship between CA and general people orientations.


Investigates the relationship between beginning public speakers' self-reported performance anxiety and audience perception of that anxiety. Indicates that audiences perceive speaker anxiety levels to be lower during performance than the speakers themselves report.

Daly, John A. "Communication Apprehension in the College Classroom," New Directions for Teaching and Learning, n26 p21-31 Jun 1986.

Presents research and theory about CA that offer ways of understanding and dealing with this barrier to learning.


Investigates the relationship between students' CA levels and their attitudes toward the use of video recording in a basic speech course. Finds that speech teachers should use videotaping cautiously in beginning courses. Suggests that student skills are more likely to be enhanced by videotaping in advanced elective courses where the levels of CA are generally lower.


Points out that a review of the literature suggests that the use of video playback of classroom assignments for students who are CA, shy, or unassertive is potentially harmful.


Indicates that the "Sharing Feelings Speech" assignment failed to support the hypothesis that self-disclosure reduces stage fright in public speaking situations more than other forms of public speaking.


Concludes that the videotape recorder can be used effectively as an instructional feedback tool without fear of serious negative effects on speaker performance or on the emotional condition of students.


Examines the communication reticence of high school students enrolled in required speech and writing courses. Finds that over 40% of the students were apprehensive about public speaking and over 30% did not enjoy writing.

Newburger, Craig Alan; Daniel, Arlie V. "Self-Concept, Communication Apprehension and Self-Confrontation: A Relational Study." Paper presented at

Examines the relationship between the personality constructs of self-concept and CA and the use of self-confrontation (self-viewing of videotaped speeches) as a potential self-concept enhancement strategy.


Uses the extensive research on CA as the basis for a description and comparison of three conventional approaches toward the treatment of excessive communication apprehension: systematic desensitization, social skills development, and cognitive modification/rational emotive therapy.


Shows that a basic course in speech communication (1) produced significant reduction in students' CA scores; (2) yielded more positive-ness about self-disclosure; and (3) reduced discrepancies between self-concepts and ideal self-concepts.


Reiterates that the use of an individualized approach to the alleviation of CA has been shown to increase students' class interaction and to improve their verbal skills. Suggests that since students develop CA in various ways, individualized methods should be used to assess and remedy different types of CA.
No matter what the subject, good stories remain compelling to teller and listener alike. While literature emerges from the intimate and complex impulses generating them, much of our enduring culture resides in oral traditions. And more and more research is exploring the roles stories play in communication at all levels. This bibliography has been assembled to provide some general background on this ancient human phenomena and a quick survey of ways in which educators are constructively incorporating the wonder of story to engage and retain student interest.

Education began with storytelling and effective classes often still do. Yet what constitutes a story is a matter of considerable debate and the diversity of approaches spawned by this issue is suggested in the first section of this bibliography. This question may appear to be of primarily academic interest, but to anyone who has taught or may be about to teach writing, the advantages of having a variety of explanations for selection and arrangement of details are well appreciated. A familiarity with different traditions from which stories arise and how these affect the sense of story as suggested in these articles may also be useful, as could their various insights concerning the types and differing occasions for stories.

The benefits of introducing stories and bringing storytellers into the classroom are increasingly appreciated as providing the opportunity for a wide range of learning experiences. Articles concentrating on ways of using stories to promote a more immediate and fulfilling encounter with literature for students are included in the next category. In the third section, various examples, models and possible areas to be highlighted while encouraging students to share their stories are featured. Recent research emphasizes again and again how much there is for students at all levels to discover in creating and communicating their own stories. The fourth category concerns perhaps the most intriguing and potentially exciting area of development in the possible uses of stories with subject materials not traditionally associated with them. Many and diverse cultures have felt the essence of wisdom gathered in their stories, and while this may no longer be possible, in our technological society, introducing students to a wide variety of fields including math and the sciences while providing them with basic concepts and values in memorable forms through stories appears to be extremely productive.

Of course, such a bibliography can give only a glimpse of potential sources and approaches among the work in the field, and there remains much to be done. Among the people ensuring that such work does get done are those associated with the National Association for the Preservation and Perpetuation of Storytelling (NAPPS). They may be contacted at P.O. Box 309, Jonesborough, TN 37659, and their membership includes many of the most active scholars and finest current storytellers, along with thousands of people who wish to continue sharing the pleasures and insights of a story well told.

Some Perspectives That Help Define Storytelling


A concentrated survey of recent research into the possibilities of making fuller use of stories in teaching.


Explores the role of stories in human discourse through a definition and brief history of the “narrative paradigm.”


Reviews the process of rewriting the Uncle Remus stories. Discusses the difference between writing stories and storytelling, and suggests an approach to identifying cultural assumptions.

Examines the dominance of the narrative form in President Reagan's rhetoric and analyzes how his use of stories affects political opinion in distinguishing between the perspectives of his supporters and opponents. Also considers the power, occasion, and limitations of narrative form.


Defines the role of folklore, especially in the multicultural classroom, as a way of encouraging children to participate in the history of universal human emotions and experiences.


Discusses the nature of narratology and its relation to language arts instruction.


Decries British education's near elimination of the animation and essence of narrative. Explores features giving narrative broader and deeper importance than literary values have customarily given it and proposes a rationale to retain storytelling curricula to enhance student writing.


Argues that stories have frequently been used by adults for indoctrinating children, as opposed to encouraging self-discovery and expression. Goes on to suggest non-traditional goals and techniques.


A comparative analysis of two studies of the characteristics contributing to the memorability of story elements. Also proposes a theory to identify significant variables and account for their influence on the comprehensibility of stories.


Discusses the use of story frames as a strategy for teaching reading comprehension to first grade students, and includes examples of student responses.


Analyzes student versions of studied stories and speculates as to how listeners and readers predict meaning, form concepts essential for comprehension, and relate stories to their cultural background. Discusses implications for classroom instruction.


Argues that a productive way to investigate the relation of text and story-taker (reader or listener) is to compare how the writer has made the story to how the story-taker recreates it.


Explores ways to use mythic literature to teach children about themselves and to help them write their own stories and legends.


Advocates storytelling in the elementary classroom to build self-esteem among students and suggests criteria with which to find appropriate stories.

Campbell, Janet. Story Pictures (Draw Me a Story): Using Children's Drawings to Develop Writing Skills of Blackfoot Indian Children, 1986. 51 pp [ED 278 031]

Provides lessons and rationale for a course intended to integrate general cognitive, perceptual, psychomotor, and affective skills.

Explores the development of children's understanding of causality as reflected in their narrative organization. Also relates the contribution of these skills to the development of intentional, goal-directed behavior.


Relates talking, telling, and storymaking stages as children prepare a narrative. Encourages children to create stories in response to stories they are told and suggests several approaches to this end.


Examines the narrative competence of three five year olds and concludes that children routinely and regularly produce striking variations of 14 basic narrative forms. Original fantasy was rare as seventy percent of the narratives took an anecdotal form.


Reports on a study of children in a nursery setting asked to tell a story following one of three treatments: no stimulus, a static presentation, or a computer graphics presentation. Children working with computer graphics created longer and more structured stories.


Argues that literacy and literature become interrelated in classrooms where there are many opportunities to engage in the narrative mode of thought. Discusses how the potential of literacy/literature experience is enriched when children draw from the narrative reservoirs of community and school.

Storytelling as a Teaching Technique


Suggests that the activity of retelling a story in a second language reveals a student's knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and sense of story. Describes a story-telling activity with students in Spanish, levels three-five, and notes a strong relationship between language proficiency and years of study.


Reports on classroom strategies and activities incorporating movement, storytelling, and music with instruction on multiplication facts and concepts for elementary special education students.


Integrates storytelling with an outdoor education program to teach history, culture, concepts and values; stimulate imagination; introduce new words; set a mood; encourage listener participation; and foster caring attitudes about the environment.


Suggests alternative techniques to encourage teachers to formulate lesson plans as well-presented stories rather than as a set of objectives to be achieved.


Examines the failure of traditional teaching methods to motivate students and proposes creative exercises whereby poetry, meditation, fantasy/Utopian thinking, and storytelling can be utilized in high-school political education.


Presents ways in which teachers can use the Foxfire format, focusing on reasons for using interviews for language development, possible people and topics to be explored by students through the interview process, and four stages in using interviews in the classroom.


Observes that most science textbooks are static, linear, and non-participatory, offering
young students no connections between forms and forces or observer and observed. Argues that presenting scientific materials in narrative format makes them more interesting and easily remembered.


Describes the practice of professional storytellers and suggests storytelling can be a powerful means of presentation in social studies and history.


Explores four hypotheses of language use and acquisition to support the premise that storytelling techniques may be helpful in making ESL materials meaningful, recallable, and comprehensible. Eleven specific principles are discussed and illustrated.
ERIC/RCS
Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills

THE ERIC NETWORK
ERIC, the Educational Resources Information Center sponsored by the Office of Educational Research and Improvement of the U.S. Department of Education, is a national educational information system designed to do the following:

MAKE AVAILABLE hard-to-find educational materials, such as research reports, literature reviews, curriculum guides, conference papers, projects or program reviews, and government reports.

ANNOUNCE these materials in Resources in Education (RIE), a monthly journal containing abstracts of each item.

PUBLISH annotations of journal articles in Current Index to Journals in Education (CUE), a monthly guide to current educational periodicals.

PREPARE magnetic tapes (available by subscription) of the ERIC database (RIE and CUE) for computer retrieval.

CREATE products that analyze and synthesize educational information.

PROVIDE a question-answering service.

Most of the educational material announced in RIE may be seen on microfiche in one of the more than 700 educational institutions (college and university libraries; local, state, and federal agencies; and not-for-profit organizations) that have complete ERIC collections. It can also be purchased from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS) on microfiche, a 4" x 6" microfilm card containing up to 96 pages of text; or paper copy, a photographically reproduced copy.

Journal articles announced in CUE are not available through ERIC, but can be obtained from a local library collection, from the publisher, or from University Microfilms International.

ERIC/RCS
Where would you go to find the following kinds of information?

- Suggested activities and instructional materials to teach elementary school students listening skills.
- Instruction in writing that focuses on the writing process.
- A list of suggestions for parent involvement in reading instruction.

Your answer should include the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills (ERIC/RCS). Each year ERIC/RCS helps thousands of people find useful information related to education in reading, English, journalism, theater, speech and mass communications. While we cannot meet every educational information need, anyone with a strong interest in or involvement with teaching communication skills should look to ERIC/RCS as a valuable resource.

The ERIC/RCS Clearinghouse is now located at Indiana University, in Bloomington, Indiana.

Write or call ERIC/RCS for the following information:
- How to submit material for inclusion in the ERIC database.
- How to conduct manual or computer searches of the ERIC database.
- Where to get an ERIC computer search.
- Which organizations and institutions near you have ERIC microfiche collections.
- To obtain a list of ERIC/RCS publications.

ERIC/RCS PUBLICATIONS
These publications represent a low-cost way to build your own personal educational library and are an excellent addition to a school professional library. They are the results of the clearinghouse's efforts to analyze and synthesize the literature of education into research reviews, state-of-the-art studies, interpretive reports on topics of current interest, and booklets presenting research and theory plus related practical activities for the classroom teacher.

ERIC/RCS FAST BIBS (Focused Access to Selected Topics): abstracts or annotations from 20-30 sources in the ERIC database.

ERIC/RCS NEWSLETTERS concerning clearinghouse activities and publications, featuring noteworthy articles for communication skills educators.
ERIC DIGESTS with information and references on topics of current interest.

ERIC/RCS SERVICES
As part of its effort to provide the latest information on education research and practice, ERIC/RCS offers the following services:

- Question-answering, a major clearinghouse priority along with processing documents and producing publications.
- ERIC orientation workshops at local, regional, and national levels, at cost.
- Multiple copies of ERIC/RCS no-cost publications for workshop distribution.
- Clearinghouse-sponsored sessions at professional meetings on timely topics in reading and communication skills.
- Customized computer searches of the ERIC database. (The charge for this service is $30 for the first 50 citations.)

ERIC COMPONENTS

ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education
Ohio State University
Center on Education and Training for Employment
1900 Kenny Road
Columbus, OH 43210-1090
(614) 292-4353
(800) 848-4815

ERIC Clearinghouse on Counseling and Personnel Services
University of Michigan
School of Education, Room 2108
610 East University Street
Ann Arbor, MI 48109-1259
(313) 764-9492

ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management
University of Oregon
1787 Agate Street
Eugene, OR 97403-5207
(503) 346-5043

ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education
University of Illinois
College of Education
605 West Pennsylvania Avenue
Urbana, IL 61801-4897
(217) 333-1386

ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children
Council for Exceptional Children
1920 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091-1589
(703) 620-3660

ERIC Clearinghouse on Higher Education
George Washington University
One Dupont Circle, N.W.
Suite 630
Washington, DC 20036-1183
(202) 994-2597

ERIC Clearinghouse on Information Resources
Syracuse University
Huntington Hall, Room 030
150 Marshall Street
Syracuse, NY 13244-2340
(315) 443-3640

ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges
University of California at Los Angeles
Math-Sciences Building, Room 8118
405 Hilgard Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90024-1564
(213) 825-3031

ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics
Center for Applied Linguistics
1118 22nd Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20037-0037
(202) 429-9551

ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills
Indiana University, Smith Research Center
2805 East 10th Street, Suite 150
Bloomington, IN 47408-2698
(800) 624-9120 (Outside WV)
(800) 344-6646 (In WV)

ERIC Clearinghouse for Science, Mathematics, and Environmental Education
Ohio State University
1200 Chambers Road, Room 310
Columbus, OH 43212-1792
(614) 292-6717

ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education
Indiana University
Social Studies Development Center
2805 East 10th Street, Suite 120
Bloomington, IN 47408-2698
(812) 855-3838

ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education
American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education
One Dupont Circle, N. W., Suite 610
Washington, DC 20036-2412
(202) 293-2450

ERIC Clearinghouse on Tests, Measurement, and Evaluation
American Institutes for Research (AIR)
Washington Research Center
3333 K Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20007-3541
(202) 342-5060

ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education
Teachers College, Columbia University
Institute for Urban and Minority Education
Hain Hall, Room 300, Box 40
525 W. 120th Street
New York, NY 10027-9998
(212) 678-3433

ERIC Processing and Reference Facility
ARC Professional Services Group
Information Systems Division
2440 Research Boulevard, Suite 400
Rockville, MD 20850-3238
(301) 258-5500

ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS)
Cincinnati Bell Information Systems (CBIS) Federal
7420 Fullerton Road, Suite 110
Springfield, VA 22153-2852
(800) 443-ERIC (3742)

ACCESS ERIC
Aspen Systems Corporation
1600 Research Boulevard
Rockville, MD 20850
WOULD YOU LIKE EASY ACCESS TO EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION?
If you are involved in graduate studies, developing and evaluating programs or curricula, designing a new course or revamping an old one, writing a report, or any of countless other projects in the areas of reading, English, journalism, speech, or drama, then you already know how important it is to locate and use the most relevant and current resources. And if you have not been using ERIC, you have been missing a lot, simply because many resources in the ERIC database are not available anywhere else.

These resources cover all areas of education, including research reports, case studies, bibliographies, surveys, government reports, curriculum guides, teaching guides, program descriptions and evaluations, instructional materials, course descriptions, speeches, and conference reports.

Currently about 700,000 document abstracts and journal article annotations make up the ERIC database, which grows at the rate of approximately 30,000 entries per year. In order to make these resources more accessible to you, the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills offers a computerized database search service.

WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN A COMPUTER SEARCH AND A MANUAL SEARCH?
The computer is much faster and far more efficient. Some highly complex searches that a computer can do in minutes would be virtually impossible for a person to do using the ERIC indexes Resources in Education and Current Index to Journals in Education. The computer offers the opportunity to search under several index terms at the same time.

HOW DOES A COMPUTER SEARCH WORK?
ERIC uses a coordinate indexing system, with each document indexed under as many as 12 index terms, or “descriptors.” These descriptors identify the educational level and content areas of a document. A computer search involves combining the descriptors for the specific search question into a search statement, which is then entered into the computer. Those documents that meet the requirements of the search statement are retrieved.

WHAT DO I GET?
You receive a printout of ERIC references that include complete bibliographic citations, annotations of journal articles, and 150- to 250-word abstracts of documents on your topic.

WHAT DOES IT COST?
The minimum charge for a customized computer search is $30 for up to 50 journal citations and/or document abstracts, plus $.10 for each additional reference. This fee includes handling and mailing. You will be billed for the cost upon completion of the search.

HOW LONG DOES IT TAKE?
Generally, the time from our receipt of your request to your receipt of the printout is two weeks.

WHAT DO I HAVE TO DO?
No prior knowledge of computers or computer searching is necessary. A member of our staff can help you define your search question. Our knowledge of the ERIC database, especially in the areas of reading and the other English language arts, can be an important aid in developing a successful search.

If you would like our clearinghouse to run a computer search on a topic of your choice, fill out and return the attached order form. If your question needs further clarification, a member of our staff will call you before conducting the search.
COMPUTER SEARCH SERVICE ORDER FORM

Name ____________________________________________
Position ____________________________________________
Organization ____________________________________________
Street ____________________________________________
City ____________________________________________ State ____________
Zip ____________________________________________ Phone ____________

Purpose of search:

Education level ____________________________________________

Format (circle one):

Research reports
Practical applications
Both

Journal citations only
Document abstracts only
Both

Known authority in field (if any) ____________________________________________

Possible key words or phrases:

Restrictions: Year(s) ____________________________________________
Monetary ____________________________________________

Statement of search question:

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Searching ERIC in Print

ERIC (the Educational Resources Information Center) is an information resource designed to make educational literature easily accessible through two monthly bibliographic publications: Resources in Education (RIE) and Current Index to Journals in Education (CUE). By following the steps below, individuals can quickly locate literature for their specific educational information needs.

1. **Phrase Your Question as Precisely as Possible.** Then list the key concepts of that question in as few words or phrases as possible.

2. **See If Your Indexing Terms Are Listed in the Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors.** If they are listed, look for other descriptors that come close to matching your terms. To help you in this procedure most descriptors are listed with a display of cross-references to other descriptors, including narrower terms (NT); broader terms (BT); and related terms (RT) within the same area of classification.

3. **Go to the Subject Index Sections of the Monthly, Seminannual, or Annual Issues of RIE.** Read the titles listed under the descriptors you have chosen and note the six-digit ED (ERIC Document) numbers for those documents that seem appropriate for your information needs.

4. **Locate and Read the Abstracts of These Documents in the Main Entry Sections of the Monthly RIEs.** Main entries are listed consecutively by ED number.

5. **To Find the Complete Text of the Document, First Examine the Abstract to See If It Has an EDRS Price.** If it does, the document is available both in ERIC microfiche collections (which are owned by over 700 libraries nationwide) and through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS) in Virginia. EDRS ordering information is given in the back of every RIE. If the document is not available through EDRS, it is due to copyright restrictions placed on the document by its author or publisher. In these cases, ordering information will be given in the document abstract in a note labeled "available from."

6. **If You Have Trouble With Your Search (e.g., the documents are not exactly what you want or you find no documents), return to steps one and two, checking your search terms. You also may want to ask your librarian for assistance in identifying descriptors.**

If you want to expand your search to include journal articles, use CUE in addition to RIE. Remember, however, that copies of journal articles are not available from EDRS. If you want to read the complete article, you must obtain the journal from a local library, the publisher, or University Microfilms International.

A. A kindergarten teacher has been asked by some of his neighbors who have preschoolers if there is anything they can do at home to help their children get ready for writing in school. The teacher decides that the key concept involved is *Writing Readiness*.

B. The teacher checks that term in the ERIC Thesaurus at a nearby university library and finds it listed.

C. Selecting one of the library's volumes of RIE, in this case the January-June 1988 semiannual index, the teacher finds the following documents in the subject index:

### Writing Readiness

- **Children's Names: Landmarks for Literacy**
  - ED 290 171
- **Integrating Reading and Writing Instruction at the Primary level.**
  - ED 286 158
- **Sister and Brother Writing Interplay.**
  - ED 285 176
- **Writing Begins at Home: Preparing Children for Writing before They Go to School.**
  - ED 285 207

D. **ED 285 207** Looks like an appropriate resource, so the teacher finds that ED number in a monthly issue of RIE "January 1988" in the document resume section:

- **ED 285 207**: CS 210 790

Clay, Marie

*Writing Begins at Home: Preparing Children for Writing before They Go to School.*


Pub Date: 87

Note: 64p.

Available from Heinemann Educational Books Inc., 70 Court St., Portsmouth, NH 03801 ($12.50)

Pub type: Books (010) - Guides - Non-Classroom (055)
Intended for parents of preschoolers, this book offers samples of children's writing (defined as the funny signs and symbols that pencils make) and attempts to show how parents can support and expand children's discovery of printed language before children begin school. Each of the eight chapters contains numerous examples of young children's drawing and printing, as well as helpful comments and practical considerations to orient parents. The chapters are entitled: (1) Getting in Touch; (2) Exploration and Discoveries; (3) I Want to Record a Message; (4) We Follow Sally Ann's Progress; (5) Individual Differences at School Entry; (6) How Can a Parent Help?; (7) The Child at School; and (8) Let Your Child Read. (References and a list of complementary publications are attached.) (NKA)

E. The teacher notes the price and ordering information for his neighbors. The teacher can then select other R1E documents to review from other volumes of the R1E index, or check CUE for journal articles on writing readiness.

KEYS TO USING ERIC

Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors

The ERIC Thesaurus is the key to a search of the ERIC database, with approximately 10,000 terms and cross-references in the fields of education. Scope notes serve as definitions for most descriptors. Each document in the ERIC system is assigned several descriptors from the Thesaurus that indicate the essential content of the document. Once you have familiarized yourself with ERIC's descriptors and the Thesaurus, you have put thousands of pages of educational materials at your fingertips.

Resources in Education (RIE)

This publication prints the abstracts of documents processed and indexed for the ERIC system. About 1000 abstracts from ERIC Clearinghouses appear each month, arranged by ED number in the main entry section of RIE. In addition to the main entry section, each volume of RIE contains three indexes. Document titles are listed by subject (descriptor term), author, and institution. Unless otherwise noted, copies of documents abstracted in RIE are available from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service.

Current Index to Journals in Education (CIJE)

This ERIC publication directs you to educational articles from over 800 educational journals. Annotations describing over 1400 articles each month are arranged in the main entry section of CIJE according to EJ (ERIC Journal) number and are listed in subject, author, and journal indexes. Copies of journal articles annotated in CIJE are not available from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service but may be obtained from local library collections, from the publisher, or (in most cases) from University Microfilms International.

Semiannual and annual issues of RIE and CIJE consolidate the monthly subject, author, and institution indexes.

COMPUTER SEARCHES

Over 900 organizations across the nation, including the individual ERIC Clearinghouses, provide computerized searches of the ERIC database. The search strategy—selecting the key descriptors and scanning the documents under those subject headings—is the same as for manual searching. The differences are in time and cost. When you search by computer, you can combine several terms instantaneously for any or all issues of R1E/CUE; in effect, you thumb through more than 200 issues of R1E at once. Costs for these services vary; while some institutions offer computer searches at no cost to in-state educators, others may charge from $5 to $300, depending upon the complexity and depth of the search or the kind of feedback requested. Our Clearinghouse can assist you in developing computer search strategy, and can provide information about computer search facilities near you. No prior knowledge of computers or computer searching is necessary.

CUSTOMIZED SEARCHES AVAILABLE

Customized computer searches of the ERIC database will be performed for you by the ERIC/RCS Clearinghouse, if you wish. The charge for this service is $30 for the first 50 citations. If your search problem does not fall within the scope of ERIC/RCS, we will refer your question to one of the other Clearinghouses in the ERIC System, or help you contact the appropriate Clearinghouse directly.
WHY NOT SEND YOUR MATERIAL TO ERIC/RCS?
The ERIC system is always looking for high-quality educational documents to announce in Resources in Education (RIE), ERIC's monthly index of document abstracts. ERIC, Educational Resources Information Center, sponsored by the Office of Educational Research and Improvement of the U.S. Department of Education, is a national educational information system designed to make available hard-to-find educational materials (such as research reports, literature reviews, conference papers, curriculum guides, and other resource information). Through a network of clearinghouses, each of which focuses on a specific field in education, materials are acquired, evaluated, cataloged, indexed, abstracted, and announced in RIE.

The Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills is responsible for educational materials and information related to research, instruction, and personnel preparation in such areas as English language arts, reading, composition, literature, journalism, speech communication, theater and drama, and the mass media.

ERIC relieves you of the need to maintain copies of your materials for distribution to people or organizations requesting them, since documents can be ordered individually in both microfiche and paper copy formats from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS) in Springfield, Virginia.

Dissemination through ERIC provides a wide audience for your materials since there are more than 700 ERIC microfiche collections throughout the world. In addition, your material can be retrieved at the more than 450 locations that provide computer searches of the ERIC database.

Because your documents are permanently indexed in RIE and on computer tape, ERIC serves an archival function as well as keeping users informed of current theories and practices.

We depend on our network of volunteer contributors to accomplish our goal of making information readily available to the educational community and to the general public.

HOW TO SUBMIT YOUR MATERIAL
Please follow the guidelines listed below for preparation of documents. Send two clean, dark-print copies, at least six pages in length, either in original or photocopied form to Coordinator of Documents, ERIC/RCS, 2805 East Tenth Street, Smith Research Center, Suite 150, Bloomington, Indiana 47408-2698.

Document Preparation. The following guidelines are designed to ensure that documents will be legible on microfiche and that readable copies will be available to ERIC users:
- Standard 8 1/2 x 11" white or light-tinted paper is preferred.
- Double-spaced pages printed on a laser printer or typed on a standard typewriter (pica or elite) photograph best. Dark-print dot-matrix computer printouts are acceptable.
- Letters and line drawings must be unbroken and as black as possible. Very small or finely drawn letters, as well as photographs and edited copy, will not reproduce well.
- Purple ditto's and most colored pages will not photograph clearly.

WHAT HAPPENS NEXT...
To ensure its usefulness to the educational community, each document submitted is evaluated for quality and significance by one of approximately 200 specialists from various universities and the following professional organizations:

International Reading Association; Western College Reading Association; College Reading Association; National Reading Conference; North Central Reading Association; National Council of Teachers of English; Conference on College Composition and
Communication; Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication; Journalism Education Association; and Speech Communication Association.

If your document is approved by the reviewers, it will be indexed and an abstract of it will appear in RIE in approximately three to four months. At the time of issue you will be sent a complimentary microfiche of your material.

If you would like to know the disposition of your document please include a stamped, self-addressed envelope.

The inclusion of your document in the ERIC database in no way affects your copyright or your right to submit it for publication elsewhere. Your document will not be edited but will appear in its entirety.
Books From ERIC/RCS on Personal Communication

Personal communication means many different things to many people. We are all talking to ourselves within ourselves all the time; occasionally we interview, and are interviewed, by others; and some people prefer not to talk at all. We offer you three excellent studies, one on each of these aspects of personal communication.


By using the harvest of all the best mind-games and learning devices that Shedletsky has garnered from the literature, you can help your classroom full of self-exploring intrapersonal communicators carry on the human dialogue with oneself in a reflective, intelligent way. From "Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf" to the uses of silence, from biofeedback to memory reconstruction and concept formation, from analysis of verbal codes to individual and social cognition, each exercise is more fascinating than the one before.

In Part II, Shedletsky redefines the new field of "intrapersonal communication as more than just talking to yourself. He sets forth a receiver-based definition of the concept and discusses the mind as information processor. This book is as useful in the Psychology Department as in the Speech Communication Department, and it is especially useful in high schools where the main event these days seems to be the kids trying to get their minds clear about themselves.

(Copublished by ERIC/RCS and the Speech Communication Association; $12.95)

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Teaching Interviewing for Career Preparation (second, revised, enlarged edition), by Charles J. Stewart, is a textbook full of checklists on what interviewing is, how it works, and how to be good at interviewing, whether for information purposes or to get a job.

Professor and Department Chair in Communication at Purdue, Stewart as an author is an effective teacher: His lists of items to check teach themselves to students getting ready to interview and be interviewed. Three fully worked-out sets of practice interviews give students rehearsal experiences so that when the real thing comes along, they will know what to expect and how to succeed. Guided class discussion following each experimental situation leads everyone into group critical-reflection on the interviewing process.

(Copublished by ERIC/RCS and the Speech Communication Association, 1991; $8.95)

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Quiet Children and the Classroom Teacher (second edition), by James C. McCroskey and Virginia P. Richmond, is an unusual book about communication because it is about people who prefer not to communicate with spoken words.

Some children—and adults, too—are quieter than others. The abnormally quiet ones are not ill or slow, and there are understandable reasons for their quietness. The classroom teacher needs to know how to communicate with quiet students and how to draw them out without causing them to dive deeper into their "communication apprehension." Being neither social workers nor psychiatrists, classroom teachers can, nevertheless, become aware of their own level of communication apprehension, or lack thereof, and then moderate their methods and their expectations to accommodate the needs of quiet students in their classrooms.

McCroskey and Richmond teach in the Department of Communications Studies at West Virginia University. In this remarkably sensitive, research-based little book, they clarify misconceptions about communication apprehensive people, and they detail ways of communicating at school with apprehensive students.

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