Research Findings on Listening

Compiled by Laura Janusik, PhD, MBA Director (Academia) Global Listening Centre and Jansen Rouillard

**Please Note:** Complete references can be found in the reference section. This is meant as a starting point to help people find information, and we request that individuals refer to the source documents for further information and to judge the soundness of the facts.

### TIME SPENT LISTENING AND COMMUNICATING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Reading</th>
<th>Writing</th>
<th>Speaking</th>
<th>Listening</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rankin, 1930</td>
<td>Varied</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brieter, 1971</td>
<td>Homemakers</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weinrauch &amp; Swanda, 1975</td>
<td>Business Personnel</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Werner, 1975</td>
<td>High school &amp; college students, employees &amp; homemakers</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barker, et. al, 1980*</td>
<td>U.S. college students</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bohlken, 1999</td>
<td>U.S. college students</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Davis, 2001</td>
<td>Australian College Students</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>30.6%</td>
<td>34.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S. Department of Labor, 1991</td>
<td>Government Managers</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>8.4%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Janusik &amp; Wolvin, 2006</td>
<td>U.S. College Students</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = Total Listening Related Activities combines listening, TV, radio, CD’s, tapes, and telephone

**Average Daily Hours Dedicated to Communication Activities By Context**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Janusik and Wolvin, 2006</th>
<th>School</th>
<th>Friends</th>
<th>Work</th>
<th>Family</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N = 206 Students</td>
<td>Hours</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Hours</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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| Listening | 2.22 | 28 | 2.29 | 21 | 2.01 | 28 | 1.4 | 23 |
| TV | .51 | 6 | 1.20 | 11 | .09 | 1 | 1.2 | 16 |
| Radio | .22 | 3 | .44 | 4 | .03 | 5 | .02 | 3 |
| CDs/Tapes | .36 | 5 | .74 | 7 | .03 | 4 | .03 | 5 |
| Phone | .33 | 4 | 1.03 | 9 | .06 | 9 | .07 | 11 |
| Email | .41 | 5 | .71 | 6 | .03 | 4 | .03 | 4 |
| Internet | .78 | 10 | 1.67 | 15 | .04 | 6 | .04 | 5 |

**Total Daily Average Hours Dedicated to Communication Activities**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Janusik &amp; Wolvin, 2006</th>
<th>Total Hours</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N = 206 college students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CD’s/Tapes</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Listening Related Activities</strong></td>
<td>11.97</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Average Daily Communication Hours and Percentage of Time By Context**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Janusik and Wolvin, 2009</th>
<th>School</th>
<th>Friends</th>
<th>Work</th>
<th>Family</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hours</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Hours</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDs/Tapes</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Average Daily Hours and Percentage of Daily Time in Communication Activities – All Contexts**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Janusik &amp; Wolvin, 2009</th>
<th>Total Hours</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### LISTENING STYLES

#### Underlying Assumptions of Listening Styles

- Listening is a cognitive habit, which is different than a personality trait. Listening is situationally activated and goal-directed, and we can learn new ways of listening (Bodie, 2011; Gearhart, Denham, & Bodie, 2014; Imhof & Janusik, 2006).
- Listeners have dominant habits, or routine ways in which they select and process information. They are Connective, Reflective, Analytical, and Conceptual (Bodie, Winter, Dupuis, & Tompkins, 2019).
- Listening patterns are rather flexible and reflect the individual social learning experience (Imhof, 2004).
- People listen more as a function of habit and rely primarily on a single, predominant listening style (Watson, Barker, & Weaver, 1995).
- Those who demonstrate more than one listening style are typically ineffective communicators because their listening styles are confusing to others (Watson, Barker, & Weaver, 1995).

#### Gender and Sexuality and Listening Styles

- Perception of gender role is a significant factor in listening behavior (Johnston, Weaver, Watson, & Barker, 2000).
- One’s schema, agentic or communal, is a better predictor of listening style preference than one’s gender (Johnson, Weaver, Watson, & Barker, 2000).
- Sex differences account for only 1% in communication style difference (Sargent & Weaver, 2003).
- Type-A males are impatient listeners who showed limited concern for others (Sargent, Fitch-Hauser, & Weaver, 1997).
- Type-A females are responsive and empathetic listeners who prefer concise facts delivered in brief interactions (Sargent, Fitch-Hauser, & Weaver, 1997).
- Masculine personalities combine high content-orientation and action-orientation in listening (Sargent & Weaver, 2003; Villaume & Bodie, 2007; Weaver, Watson, & Barker, 1996).
- Females are rated significantly higher in people-orientation by their peers (Sargent & Weaver, 2003; Weaver, Watson, & Barker, 1996).
Culture and Listening Styles

- How one conceptualizes listening is driven in large part by culture (Imhof & Janusik, 2006; Janusik and Imhof, 2017).
- German students view listening as a relationship building activity significantly more than American students do (Imhof & Janusik, 2006).
- American students view listening as learning and integrating information and a critical reception of information significantly more than German students do (Imhof & Janusik, 2006).
- Students in the Japanese culture have a much more diverse view of listening than students in the American or European cultures (Janusik & Imhof, 2017).
- Germans listen with a very active direct style that focuses primarily on resolving interpersonal interactions (Kiewitz, Weaver, Brosius, & Weimann, 1997).
- Israelis listen to analyze information and focus their attention on evaluating their analysis (Kiewitz, Weaver, Brosius, & Weimann, 1997).

Miscellaneous Listening Styles

- Need for cognition is a precursor to preference for listening as an information-gathering process (Worthington, 2008).
- Intuitive listeners pay attention to the underlying issues of interpersonal communication (Worthington, 2003).
- Critical thinkers listen to the content of facts before forming judgement or opinions (Worthington, 2003).
- Judgmental listeners prefer unambiguous facts because they need to reach decisions quickly (Worthington, 2003).
- Introverts need time away from people to process information they listen to (Worthington, 2003).
- Extraverts perceive themselves as friendly, open, and supportive listeners (Weaver, Watson, & Barker, 1996).

LISTENING COMPETENCE AND LISTENING STRATEGY

- We perceive others to be listening to us based more on what they say in response to us as opposed to what they do, so the verbal behaviors of listening are more important than the nonverbal (Bodie, St Cyr, Pence, Rold, & Honeycutt, 2012; Bodie, Vickery, Cannava, & Jones, 2015).
- Listening is an interactive process involving individuals, social comparisons, cultural forces, and language (Purdy, 2000).
- Listening and listening-related abilities constitute the single dimension upon which people make judgments about communication competence (Weimann, 1977).
- Individual performance in an organization is directly related to listening ability or perceived listening effectiveness (Haas & Arnold, 1995).
Listening accounts for approximately 1/3 of the characteristics perceivers use to evaluate communication competence in co-workers (Haas & Arnold, 1995).

Individuals agree less on the ratings of good listeners, but agree more on the ratings of poor listeners (Cooper & Buchanan, 2003).

Listening is a skill that is amenable to training, regardless of intellectual ability (Nichols, Brown, & Keller, 2006).

Age, individual maturity, and personal experiences influence an individual’s listening competence (Cooper & Buchanan, 2010).

The majority of listening assessments are limited in their capability to measure one’s true listening ability (Ockey, 2012).

A number of models have been proposed in the literature to explain how this knowledge is applied to incoming speech. Yet, when compared to other language skills, very limited theoretical models that explain listening have been proposed (Vandergrift, 2010).

Increasing a listener’s sense of control can increase listening self-efficacy and performance (Graham, 2011).

People who have a strong ability to think are the best listeners (Gilbert, 2005).

Mental activity prior to listening increases readiness to listen (Bowman, Punyanunt-Carter, Cheah, Watson, & Rubin, 2007).

Listeners who intentionally engage in development are more strategic and confident in listening situations (Renukadevi, 2014).

Listeners who are confident in their ability to listen achieve more as listeners (Wolfgramm, Suter, & Göksel, 2016).

Confident individuals listen to message content better than individuals who lack confidence (Clark, 1989).

People with less confidence in themselves tend to be better listeners for the emotional meaning of the spoken message (Clark, 1989).

Effective listening is strongly related to situation-specific social interactions more than general traits or dispositions (Bommelje, Houston, & Smither, 2003).

Listeners who are interested in a topic, ask pre-questions, and use elaboration strategies consistently report improved attention and better retention (Imhof, 2001).

Competent listeners show attention, communicate support, and understand verbal and nonverbal cues (Cooper & Buchanan, 2010).

Supporters who are effective listeners provide more direct eye contact, are receptive to disclosures, and ask more follow-up questions (Miller, Berg, & Archer, 1983).

Reading and listening skills should receive direct and separate attention (Nichols, Brown, & Keller, 2006).

Listeners retain more information when it is presented in narrative style (Glonek & King, 2014).

Listeners are more attentive when speakers share meaningful stories (Itzchakov, Castro, & Kluger, 2016).

Though paraphrasing is important in listening, it’s not the most important verbal listening skill to use (Weger, Castle, & Emmett, 2010; Weger Castle Bell, Minei, & Robinson, 2014).
LISTENING AND HEARING LANGUAGE

- Both linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge are involved in operating the language comprehension system (Buck, 2001). The former mainly includes phonology, syntax, semantics, and discourse structure. The latter, on the other hand, is concerned with “knowledge about the topic, about the context, and general knowledge about the world and how it works” (Buck, 2001, p. 2).
- Seventeen percent of adults in the US, approximately 36 million, report some degree of hearing loss (Johnson-Curiskis, 2012).
- 41.3 Americans experience issues hearing when listening (National Center for Health Statistics, 2017).
- Between two to three of every 1000 children are hard of hearing or deaf (Johnson-Curiskis, 2012).
- Listening abilities diminish as speech rate increases, especially in the presence of background noise (Adams & Moore, 2009).
- Eye movements are shorter and more disperse when listening to past progressive tense (Huette, Winter, Matlock, Ardell, & Spivey, 2014).
- When listening, explicitly mentioning an object increases the probability of looking at it (Boland, 2004).
- The mirror neuron system influences the interpretation of the meaning of verbal statements (Spunt, 2013).
- The average person talks at a rate of about 125 – 175 words per minute, while we can listen at a rate of up to 450 words per minute (Carver, Johnson, & Friedman, 1971).
- Competent listeners need to know approximately 6,000-7,000 words when listening to spoken texts (I.S.P. Nation, 2006).
- Competent listeners need to know approximately 8,000-9,000 words when “listening” to written texts (I.S.P. Nation, 2006).
- To hear best, listeners should situate themselves three to six feet away from the speaker (American Speech-Language Hearing, 2015).
- Listeners should ask speakers to use average or slightly slower rates of speech (Adams & Moore, 2009).
- Listeners with hearing loss should ask the speaker to alert them when they change topics (American Speech-Language Hearing, 2015).
- Listeners with hearing loss should ask the speaker to simplify, rephrase, or repeat the part of statements they did not hear (American Speech-Language Hearing, 2015).
- Initial motivation to obtain hearing aids is a key determinant of whether patients continue to use them (Dillon, 2012).
- Effective listening devices should measure the listener’s use of sound (World Health Organization, 2019).
- Effective listening devices should include options for limiting volume (World Health Organization, 2019).
• Effective listening devices should provide the user with information on how to listen more safely (World Health Organization, 2019).
• Safe exposure level is less than 40 hours of 80 decibel music per week (World Health Organization, 2015).

LISTENING AND MEMORY
• Reading texts while listening helps listeners to acquire more vocabulary (Brown, Waring, & Donkaewbua, 2008).
• On average, viewers who just watched and listened to the evening news could only recall 17.2% of the content when not cued, and the cued group never exceeded 25% (Stauffer, Frost, & Rybolt, 1983).
• In a linear one-way listening task, when presented with a list of words, people can remember, on average, 7 items (Miller, 1956).
• When presented with a series of unrelated sentences and asked to remember the last word of each sentence, people can remember, on average, 2.805 items (Janusik, 2004).
• In a dynamic, conversational listening task, where people must remember a series of related questions and respond to them, people can remember and respond to 2.946 items (Janusik, 2004).

LISTENING BIAS/BARRIERS
• Most people don’t acknowledge how difficult it is to listen (Peterson, 2012).
• Listening should be viewed as a verb rather than a noun (Janusik, 2002).
• In communication, one does not designate themselves as an effective listener; the other does (Janusik, 2002).
• The most frequently reported listening barriers among students are listening primarily for details or facts; becoming distracted by noise; daydreaming or becoming preoccupied with something else while listening; thinking of another topic or detouring because of what the speaker has said; and lack of interest in the speaker’s subject (Golen, 1990).
• Listening is an antecedent of overall life satisfaction (Umphrey & Sherblom, 2018).
• Listeners integrate various communicative elements into a unitary impression that is used to judge the speaker (Imhof, 2010).
• Vocal characteristics have an impact on how listeners perceive speakers as communicators (Imhof, 2010).
• Listening is broken into three parts: context before listening, the actual listening process, and the outcomes of listening (Edwards, 2011).
• The ability to concentrate on spoken words is more important in the listening process than being able to concentrate in reading comprehension of written texts (Wolfgramm, Suter, & Göksel, 2016).
• Slower rates of speech yield better listening comprehension (McBride, 2011). However, normal listeners prefer speech at about 30% time compression (Zemlin, Daniloff, &
Shriner, 1968). More recently, recognition scores for speech compression begin to drop at almost 3 times faster than the normal rate (Janse, 2003).

- Blind listeners tolerate time-compressed speech that is more 3-4 times more difficult to understand (Zemlin, Daniloff, & Shriner, 1968).
- Spoken language is usually delivered one clause at a time, while written discourse is delivered in sentence units (Richards, 2008).
- Listening effort increases with age (Degeest, Keppler, & Corthais, 2015).
- Listening effort increases in conditions in which speech understanding is more difficult (Degeest, Keppler, & Corthais, 2015).
- Listening effort is influenced by working memory, processing speed, and selective attention, which decline with age (Degeest, Keppler, & Corthais, 2015).
- Active listening behaviors include asking questions, making eye contact, and not interrupting the speaker (Fedesco, 2015).
- Paraphrasing a speaker’s message increases the listener’s likeability (Weger, Castle, and Emmett, 2010).
- Paraphrasing indicates a listener’s ability to mimic the speaker, and people like interactional partners who mimic them more than those who do not (Weger, Castle, and Emmett, 2010).
- When a speaker perceives that a listener is paying attention, speakers tend to feel more supported (Fedesco, 2015).
- Speakers perceive attentive listeners as being more communicatively competent (Fedesco, 2015).

LISTENING AND CONTEXT

- To understand listening, one should acknowledge the interaction between physiological and cognitive processes at various levels, along with the role contextual factors play (Vandergrift, 2010).
- Practitioners in beauty salons listen technically to perform their service and emotionally to support their client’s emotional needs (Hanson, 2019).
- Satisfied married couples demonstrate nonverbal involvement to their partners when listening (Doohan, 2007).
- Married couples trained in active listening are more satisfied with their partner’s listening habits (Weger, Castle, & Emmett, 2010).
- In the US, speaking is considered masculine and listening is considered feminine (Ratcliffe, 2005).
- In the US, listening is not as necessary for white people as it is for non-white people (Ratcliffe, 2005).
- Listening to marginalized communities helps to balance power (Dutta, 2014).
- Listening to victims of traumatic experiences requires listening beyond words (Brazleton, 2019).
- Listening to victims of traumatic experiences redefines silence as active listening that spans space and time (Brazleton, 2019).

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Listening to traumatic experiences requires acknowledgement of the story and acknowledgement of the person telling the story (Brazleton, 2019).

In Western traditions, eavesdropping without consent is seen as rude (Adelmann, 2012).

Blogs, reality programs, and publishing of private conversations have changed the border between the public and private sphere (Adelmann, 2012).

Human beings are hardwired with the spatial ability to sense space by listening (Blesser & Salter, 2007).

Aural architecture influences our mood as a sensory stimulus (Blesser & Salter, 2007).

Aural architects engineer spaces with the listener in mind (Blesser & Salter, 2007).

Listening to mobile music devices, like the iPod, gives users control over their experience of time and space (Bull, 2005).

Listening to mobile music devices allows users to manage their mood through active choice of listening environment (Bull, 2005).

Headphones allow listeners to transcend place by listening to other sound places (Uetz, 2019).

Listening in a specific space is a different experience than listening to recordings of the same space (Uetz, 2019).

There is conflicting evidence of what "effective support" entails. Dunkel-Schetter and Wortman (1982) report that potential support providers believe that “patients should avoid thinking or talking about negative aspects of their situation and try to be as cheerful and optimistic as possible” (p. 82). Dakof and Taylor (1990) found, in general, victims of major life stressors having been exposed to (a) inappropriate responses (e.g., minimization, criticizing), (b) individuals who fail to express concern, empathy or affection, and (c) avoidance from one or more network members including medical professionals. Similarly, Perrine (1993) reports a study that suggests potential support providers have a greater tendency to want to solve problems than to engage in supportive listening behaviors. In other words, informal help providers may avoid listening to the distressed other that may lead the distressed other to feel worse rather than better.

Use of active listening during conflicts increases likelihood of settling to agreement between two parties (Weger, Castle, and Emmett, 2010).

SECOND LANGUAGE (L²) LISTENING

About 21% of the U.S. population speaks a language other than English at home (Bobb, Mello Turco, Lemes. Fernandez, & Rothermmich, 2019).

Proficiency in Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean requires 1320 hours of listening and speaking instruction (Elkhafaïfi, 2005).

Proficiency in French, Spanish, and Italian requires 480 hours of listening and speaking instruction (Elkhafaïfi, 2005).

Second language listeners have difficulty concentrating, keeping up with rate of speech, and employing effective strategies when listening (Seigel, 2013).

Second language listeners work under the constraints of an overloaded working memory (Goh, 2002).
• Second language listeners are proficient when they recognize a word, but experience issues when processing new words (Goh, 2002).
• Second-language learners experience real-time cognitive processing issues during listening comprehension (Goh, 2000).
• High and low ability listeners experience the same issues, but low ability listeners have more low-level perception issues (Goh, 2000).
• Asking second-language learners to reflect on the problems they experience during specific listening events can positively impact comprehension (Goh, 2000).
• Second language listeners are motivated to become successful listeners in English but lack confidence in their listening ability (Seigel, 2013).
• Listeners want to understand what speakers say and give the impression that they do (Kimura, 2017).
• Second language listeners judge their performance according to norms of their primary language (Kimura, 2017).
• Second-language listening instruction often focuses on test preparation (Seigel, 2013).
• Students are more insecure about listening ability than any other major language skill (Seigel, 2013).
• Second language listeners experience anxiety because listening requires interaction with the speaker (Kimura, 2017).
• Anxiety about second language listening comprehension can hinder effective performance (Kimura, 2017).
• Second language listening anxiety combines task-related apprehension and self-presentation social concerns (Kimura, 2017).
• Socially anxious individuals are more prone to second language listening anxiety (Kimura, 2017).
• Second language listening anxiety can affect classroom performance and selection of professional careers (Elkhafaifi, 2005).
• Listeners with high levels of second language listening anxiety also have high levels of general listening anxiety (Elkhafaifi, 2005).
• To alleviate anxiety, instructors should emphasize the listener’s ability to make mistakes (Elkhafaifi, 2005).
• Instructors should encourage listeners to acknowledge their listening anxiety and discuss it with other listeners (Elkhafaifi, 2005).
• Language development is accelerated by listener attention and strategy use in language tasks (Goh, 2002).
• Studying abroad helps to the listener to learn languages better (Sanz, 2014).
• Listeners with greater aptitude for language do better in unstructured, study-abroad-like environments (Sanz, 2014).
• Classroom listening triggers self-confidence and effort, but study abroad reduces anxiety and motivates learners (Sanz, 2014).
• Foreigner-directed speech is characterized by general vowel hyper-articulation and decrease in speech rate (Bobb, Mello Turco, Lemes, Fernandez, & Rothermmich, 2019).
Foreigner-directed speech is similar to infant-directed speech (Bobb, Mello Turco, Lemes, Fernandez, & Rothermmich, 2019).

Native speakers modify their speech clarity and rate to accommodate less proficient listeners (Bobb, Mello Turco, Lemes, Fernandez, & Rothermmich, 2019).

Second language listeners perceive foreigner-directed speech accommodation positively (Bobb, Mello Turco, Lemes, Fernandez, & Rothermmich, 2019).

Native English speakers tend to judge foreigner-directed speech negatively (Bobb, Mello Turco, Lemes, Fernandez, & Rothermmich, 2019).

Advances in cognitive psychology have played a significant role in gaining a better understanding of the processes which are involved in listening comprehension (Lynch, 2006). Anderson’s three-stage model and the interactive model have been particularly influential on research on listening processes (Graham & Macaro, 2008).

Learners attribute their listening difficulties to low ability and difficult listening tasks (Graham, 2006).

Listening practice should focus on ensuring listener ability to understand information as it is presented (Roussel, Gruson, & Galan, 2019).

Across cultures, students admit to using only six (6) strategies to listen (Janusik & Keaton, 2015).

To date, the most widely used instrument for metacognitive listening strategies is the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, & Tafaghodtari, 2006).

When listening to a second language, less skilled listeners use the strategy of translating back and forth between languages, while more skilled listeners use the strategy of asking more questions for clarification (Vandergrift, 2003).

Listening strategy instruction significantly increases comprehension (Bozorgian, 2014; Mahdavi & Miri, 2019; Rahimiran & Shams, 2014), even when strategies are embedded (Chou, 2017).

Listening is the first language skill to be acquired (Wolvin & Coakley, 2000).

Infants are biased to listen to speech when acquiring language (Vouloumanos & Werker, 2007).

Children emphasize overt listening behavior that indicates the listener is focused (Imhof, 2001).

Children need to receive direct and visible signs that the listener is ready to focus on them (Imhof, 2001).

The time period between ages 7 and 10 is critical for developing listening competency (Imhof, 2001).

Children have a wide range of attention spans when listening to music (Sims, Cecconi-Roberts, & Keast, 2011).
- Children spend comparable amounts of time listening to music to time spent in competing activities (Sims, Cecconi-Roberts, & Keast, 2011).
- Children find value and meaning in individual music listening (Sims, Cecconi-Roberts, & Keast, 2011).
- Elementary students reported themselves as having better attention spans than all other ages and groups (Halone, Wolvin, & Coakley, 1997).
- High school students rate themselves as better able to listen than elementary students, young adults, colleges students, adults, and the elderly (Halone, Wolvin, & Coakley, 1997).
- 30% of the elderly admit to having poor or very poor hearing; however, only 45% reported having the opportunity to listen to thoughtful communication (Halone, Wolvin, & Coakley, 1997).
- The listening effectiveness of elderly populations is diminished by their ability to adequately hear information (Froemming & Penington, 2011).
- The listening effectiveness of elderly populations is diminished by their decline in working memory (Froemming & Penington, 2011).
- Elderly populations are more sensitive to triggers like obscene language when listening (Froemming & Penington, 2011).
- Elderly populations are especially sensitive when they are ignored or interrupted while attempting to listen (Froemming & Penington, 2011).
- Older listeners experience more difficulty in understanding time-compressed messages (Gordon-Salant & Fitzgibbons, 2004).
- Slowing down portions of speech is beneficial to older listeners (Gordon-Salant & Fitzgibbons, 2004).
- Older listeners experience more difficult adjusting to fluctuations in speech rate (Gordon-Salant & Fitzgibbons, 2004).
- When listening to a dying person, the dying person should be the center of the listener’s attention (Vora & Vora, 2008).
- A good listener needs to listen to the dying person’s needs, even if they differ from the listen’s needs (Vora & Vora, 2008).
- Experience to listening to the dying in American culture is extremely limited (Vora & Vora, 2008).
- The listener’s understanding of death may impact how they listen to the dying (Vora & Vora, 2008).
- To listen effectively to the dying, the listener must come to terms with death as a normal cycle of life (Vora & Vora, 2008).
- Taking the dying person’s perspective when listening requires that the listener appreciates their feelings while remaining rational and caring (Vora & Vora, 2008).
- The two most “helpful” listening behaviors when interacting with the bereaved include 1) provide the opportunity to ventilate, and (2) presence (“being there”) (Lehman, Ellard, and Wortman, 1986).
Six hundred and seven (607) experiments on feedback effectiveness were analyzed, and it was found that feedback, both positive and negative, caused performance to decline in 38% of cases (Itzchakov & Kluger, 2018).

A team’s ability to listening can have a significant effect on the bottom line (Kirtley, Johnston & Reed, 2017).

“Managers who use a combination of face-to-face, phone and electronic communication are the most successful in engaging employees” (Harter and Adkins, 2015).

It is impossible to describe a good business relationship without listening (Brunner, 2008).

Listening has been identified as one of the top skills employers seek in entry-level employees as well as those being promoted (AICPA, 1999; Goby & Lewis, 2000; Hynes, & Bhatia, 1996; James, 1992; Maes, Weldy, & Icenogle, 1997; Waner, 1995; Willmington, 1992; Winsor, Curtis, & Stephens, 1997).

Listening continues to be one of the most required competencies for junior, mid-level, and senior-level personnel in the workplace (Dailey, 2014).

Both business practitioners and academics listed listening as one of the most important skills for an effective professional, yet only 1.5% of articles in business journals dealt with listening effectiveness (Smeltzer, 1993).

Listening continues to be viewed as a soft skill despite its continued emphasis in business settings (Flynn, Valikoski, & Grau, 2008).

As of the late 1990’s, 64% of organizations provided some sort of listening training for their employees because they find that employees’ listening skills are ineffective for today’s work environment (What Employers Teach, 1997).

The top three reported listening barriers for business students were identified as 1) Personal disinterest in the topic, 2) Personal and internal distractions, such as hunger, headache, or preoccupation with something else, and 3) Inattentiveness such as daydreaming. (Watson & Smeltzer, 1984)

The top three reported listening barriers for business practitioners were identified as 1) Environmental distractions such as phones ringing and other people talking, 2) Personal and internal distractions, such as hunger, headache, or preoccupation with something else, and 3) Rebuttal tendency – developing a counter argument while the speaker is still speaking (Watson & Smeltzer, 1984).

Active listening is essential for successful business relationships to be built and maintained (Brunner, 2008).

Effective workplace listening includes listening to the organizational environment as it shapes the workplace (Flynn, Valikoski, & Grau, 2008).

Good listeners in business settings are note-takers who prepare themselves to listen and capture information only if it is necessary (Nawaz, 2017).

Good listeners in business settings listen in the moment and then try to organize their thoughts (Schilling, 2012).

Good listeners in business settings listen to build rapport by mirroring the speakers (Zenger & Folkman, 2016).
• Good listeners in business settings limit their distractions by controlling their settings (Hedges, 2015).
• Business leaders emphasize reflection and honesty in listening (Weinberg & McDermott, 2002).
• Listening is an important component in how people judge communicative competence in the workplace (Haas & Arnold, 1995).
• Successful American companies listen to their customer and their employees (Flynn, Valikoski, & Grau, 2008).
• The CEO of a company should establish communication loops that ensure all employees are aware of the importance of listening in the organization (Flynn, Valikoski, & Grau, 2008).
• Top executives spend twice as much time listening as other employees (Flynn, Valikoski, & Grau, 2008).
• Managers should focus on listening to each other to create effective work environments for their employees (Johnston & Reed, 2017).
• Managers must listen nonjudgmentally to understand others’ viewpoints while making judgements that are required of their positions (Flynn, Valikoski, & Grau, 2008).
• A supervisor’s ability to empathize increases their ability to listen effectively (Flynn, Valikoski, & Grau, 2008).
• General managers engage in listening and view listening as important more than middle managers (Flynn, Valikoski, & Grau, 2008).
• Female managers engage in more therapeutic listening than male managers (Welch & Mickelson, 2013).
• Managers engage in more critical listening than staff workers (Welch & Mickelson, 2013).
• Employees who feel listened to are more committed to their organization (Johnston & Reed, 2017).
• Listening to employees creates better product innovations (Johnston & Reed, 2017).
• Effective listening increases sales performances of employees (Flynn, Valikoski, & Grau, 2008).
• Listening is the most important skill a salesman can possess (Shipley, 2010).
• When a customer perceives an employee to be an effective listener, they are likely to continue as a future customer (Flynn, Valikoski, & Grau, 2008).
• Careful listening is critical to ensure tax issues are properly defined (Golen & Lynch, 2008).
• The tax practitioner spends more time listening to clients than writing or speaking to them (Golen & Lynch, 2008).
• Every workplace is an intercultural setting, which necessitates listening to other cultures (Purdy & Manning, 2015).
• Culture in the workplace defines how we listen and what we listen for (Purdy & Manning, 2015).
• Active listening is viewed by managers as a positive management tool, as it demonstrates respect and focused attention (Jonsdottir & Fridriksdottir, 2019).
LISTENING AND HEALTHCARE

- People have a general tendency to prefer the help of informal caregivers to formal helpers (Barker & Pistrang, 2002).
- Patients are dissatisfied with the way that physicians communicate, citing them as lacking concerns and empathy (Korsch et. al, 1968; Lane, 1983; Schulman, 1978; Zimmerman & Arnold, 1990).
- Patients view doctors who are looking away from them or at medical records as not wanting to listen to their concerns (Davis, Thompson, Foley, Bond, & DeWitt, 2008).
- Effective listening is a significant predictor for patient satisfaction (Wanzer, Booth-Butterfield & Gruber, 2004).
- Patient satisfaction is tied to effective listening of physicians and healthcare practitioners (Davis, Foley, Crigger, & Brannigan, 2008).
- Listening to patients increases compliance to medical regimens, improves patient satisfaction, and decreases malpractice lawsuits (Davis, Foley, Crigger, & Brannigan, 2008).
- Health care practitioners who use more patient-centered communication, including listening, have patients who are more satisfied with their practitioners and their overall medical care (Wanzer, Booth-Butterfield & Gruber, 2004).
- In health care settings, the largest indicators of patient satisfaction with physician’s communication skills are immediacy behaviors, empathy, and listening (Wanzer, Booth-Butterfield, & Gruber, 2004)
- Patients are more satisfied with oncologists who use shared decision-making strategies, including active listening, when deciding treatment (Brown, et. al, 2002).
- Active listening on the part of both the physician and the patient increased compliance and the perception of a supportive atmosphere (Hausman, 2001).

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Physicians who use a biopsychosocial approach with patients, including expressing empathy, involving patients in decision-making, asking open-ended questions, and listening attentively, take no more time per average office visit and produce increased patient satisfaction, which leads to better and more responsible decisions, and increases the patient’s willingness to carry out the prescribed treatment (du Pre, 2001).

Listening to a patient’s account of their illness is the best source of information to use to make an accurate diagnosis (Holmes, 2007).

The optimal relationship between a healthcare provider and patient is one of trust (Davis, Foley, Crigger, & Brannigan, 2008).

Naturopathic patients rated their physician significantly higher in empathy than patients of conventional physicians (Arnold & Shirreffs, 1998).

Reflection, summarization, and feedback are necessary for patients to feel they have been listened to (Shipley, 2010).

Patients who feel listened to are more likely to adhere to medical recommendations (Shafran-Tikva & Kluger, 2018).

Listening to information is an obligation of both the patient and the healthcare provider (Davis, Foley, Crigger, & Brannigan, 2008).

When listening, it is important for the patient and medical professional to attach the same meaning to words (Holmes, 2007).

Female physicians exhibit more partnership-oriented behaviors and respond more to patients’ emotions than do male physicians (Davis, Thompson, Foley, Bond, & DeWitt, 2008).

Absence of attentive listening in healthcare generates ethical conflicts (Davis, Foley, Crigger, & Brannigan, 2008).

Physicians interrupt 69% of patient interviews within 18 seconds of the patient beginning to speak. As a result, in 77% of the interviews, the patient’s true reason for visiting was never elicited (Beckman and Richard, 1984). For more current information, see Lussier and Richard, 2006).

Medical practitioners who are effective listeners are less vulnerable to lawsuits (Davis, Foley, Crigger, & Brannigan, 2008).

Poor listening is specifically cited in many medical malpractice lawsuits. 80% of medical malpractice lawsuits deal with breakdowns in communication (Meldrum 2011; Chapin, Froats, Jr., & Hudspeth, 2013).

2/3 of all malpractice cases were tied to breakdowns in communication. Conversely, medical practitioners with better communication skills were less likely to be involved in malpractice cases (Hickson, et. al, 1992).

Physicians who spend slightly more time than average are likely to avoid lawsuits (Chapin, Froats, Jr., & Hudspeth, 2013).

The most important communication skill in the doctor-nurse relationship, as well as the nurse-patient relationship, is listening (Worobey & Cummings, 1984). Further, nurses identify listening as highly important when dealing with doctors, patients, and hospital administrators (Worobey & Cummings, 1984).
Nurses view listening to patients as the most important role in their caring functions (Davis, Thompson, Foley, Bond, & DeWitt, 2008).

Nursing shortages reduce the nurse’s ability to listen and assess the patient beyond instructions and answering questions (Davis, Thompson, Foley, Bond, & DeWitt, 2008).

People-oriented nurses are confident in their ability to listen to and assist victims of domestic abuse (Chapin, Froats, Jr., & Hudspeth, 2013).

Healthcare administrators are crucial in creating environments of effective dialogue between physicians, nurses, and support staff (Davis, Thompson, Foley, Bond, & DeWitt, 2008).

Healthcare administrators conceptualize listening as a way to organize information (Davis, Thompson, Foley, Bond, & DeWitt, 2008).

Training in active listening skills increases therapists’ overall listening skills (Weger, Castle, & Emmett, 2010).

Listening is essential to facilitate positive outcomes in therapeutic relationships, and within interprofessional teams (Shepherd, King, Servais, Bolack, & Willoughby, 2014).

Listening to a distressed person talk about trauma can be very traumatizing to the listener (Lewis & Manusov, 2009).

Reluctant confidants who did not seek traumatizing information may experience more strain when listening (Lewis & Manusov, 2009).

Providing listening support can have negative health consequence and cause high amounts of stress (Lewis & Manusov, 2009).

Giving advice is less stressful than validating the other person when listening to trauma (Lewis & Manusov, 2009).

Sexual assault survivors who felt listened to are 2.9 times more likely to report progress in healing (Chapin, Froats, Jr., & Hudspeth, 2013).

Listening to different professionals within diverse clinical groups broadens perspectives on best medical practices (Shepherd, King, Servais, Bolack, & Willoughby, 2014).

Professionals within diverse clinical groups are able to listen and share ideas within a safe, communal environment (Shepherd, King, Servais, Bolack, & Willoughby, 2014).

Diverse clinical groups allow professionals to learn about different perspectives of good healthcare and better their professional listening skills (Shepherd, King, Servais, Bolack, & Willoughby, 2014).

When listening to someone with serious illness, the ill person and their listener work together in dialogue to create a shared understanding of the suffering that is experienced (Rehling, 2008).

Listening to someone who is seriously ill must be grounded in compassion (Rehling, 2008).

It is important to practice listening to medical history to become competent in efficient diagnoses (Holmes, 2007).

Effective listeners within the medical field can be silent when necessary (Shipley, 2010).

Effective listeners within the medical field recognize patients are unique in beliefs, lifestyles, and cultures (Shipley, 2010).
In the medical field, it is important to realize how complex hybrid identities can impact the type of medical care that is given (Parks, 2019).

People with intellectual disabilities can and frequently do communicate (Dennis, 2002).

Residents of a nursing care facility were more satisfied with nursing assistants that had specific listening training as opposed to those who weren’t trained (Trahan & Rockwell, 1999).

Chaplains in hospitals are intentional about being at eye level with the speaker, making effective eye contact, and being still when listening (Mundle & Smith, 2013).

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LISTENING AND EDUCATION

Standards for teaching listening skills are included in all 50 states (Hopper, 2007); however, there are very few standards that are explicit.

One of the best ways to teach listening in the early years is through Whole Body Listening in Read-Alouds (Fogelsong, 2016).

Most teacher education programs currently do not provide listening instructional practices (Fogelsong, 2016).

for pre-service teachers.

Web-based literature concerning teaching listening skills extends beyond the scope of K-12 education (Hopper, 2007).

Even though most of us spend the majority of our day listening, it is the communication activity that receives the least instruction in school (Wolvin & Coakley, 1996).

Effective listening is associated with school success, but not with any major personality dimensions (Bommelje, Houston, & Smither, 2003).

Intentional attention to effective listening improves listening achievement (Barr, Dittmar, Roberts, & Sheraden, 2002).

Communication training in listening positively impacts college students social networking and integration into campus culture (Wolvin, 2012).

College students trained in formal listening courses perceive themselves to be more competent listeners (Wolvin & Coakley, 2000).

Education students perceived themselves to be better listeners after training in active listening (Weger, Castle, and Emmett, 2010).

An entire freshman class of over 400 students was given a listening test at the beginning of their first semester. After their first year of studies, 49% of students scoring low on the listening test were on academic probation, while only 4.42% of those scoring high on the listening test were on academic probation. Conversely, 68.5% of those scoring high on the listening test were considered Honors Students after the first year, while only 4.17% of those scoring low attained the same success (Conaway, 1982).
• Students also self-report less listening competencies after listening training than before. This could be because students realize how much more there is to listening after training (Ford, Wolvin, & Chung, 2000), which can be explained through the Dunning-Kruger effect (Schlösser, Dunning, Johnson, & Kruger, 2013).
• Listening and nonverbal communication training significantly influences multicultural sensitivity (Timm & Schroeder, 2000).
• Building service learning into listening courses connects theory and experience in practice (Johnson-Curiskis & Wolter, 2004).
• Building service learning into listening courses creates a sense of responsibility for others (Johnson-Curiskis & Wolter, 2004).
• Building service learning into listening courses promotes active listening and critical thinking in collaboration with others listeners (Johnson-Curiskis & Wolter, 2004).
• Only 20% of schools in the US have a speaking and listening center (Helsel & Hogg, 2006).
• Teachers are role models and should model good listening habits (Shipley, 2010).
• Teachers can improve student listening through enthusiasm, lesson pace, and duration of lessons (Barr, Dittmar, Roberts, & Sheraden, 2002).
• Good teachers know the importance of teaching listening skills to their students (Sangster & Anderson, 2009).
• Students should be assessed on their knowledge as well as their ability to apply knowledge (Janusik, 2002).
• Listening is neglected in language classrooms because teachers think students can learn this naturally through classroom activities (Bekleyen, 2009).
• Listening training is not required at most universities (Wacker & Hawkins, 1995).
• In college settings, listening often is taught as part of course that focuses on public speaking (Wolvin, 2012).
• Fewer than 6% of colleges and universities offer a stand-alone course in listening (Wolvin, 2012).
• Students who are required to take a basic communication course spend less than 7% of class and text time on learning to listen effectively (Janusik, 2002; Janusik & Wolvin, 2002).
• Students can improve their listening by understanding lesson purpose, activating prior knowledge, and being physically and mentally prepared to learn (Barr, Dittmar, Roberts, & Sheraden, 2002).
• Students tailor their listening to the demands of the task at hand (Sangster & Anderson, 2009).
• Students perceive listening as general social obligation (Sangster & Anderson, 2009).
• Students who thought they were good listeners were attentive to the needs of their peers (Sangster & Anderson, 2009).
• Students acknowledge that it is their responsibility to listen in classroom settings (Sangster & Anderson, 2009).
• Students expect their teachers to listen to them and be attentive to their needs (Sangster & Anderson, 2009).

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Among students who fail, deficiency in listening skills is a stronger factor than reading skills or academic aptitude (Wolvin & Coakley, 2000).

Common challenges in learning listening include lack of effort, failure to build upon existing skills, diminished listening stamina, and distracting environments (Renukadevi, 2014).

In a typical class period, students listen to other students for about 40% of the time and listen during the class period about 50% of the time (Beall, Gill-Rosier, Tate, & Matten, 2008; Imhof, 2008). Secondary students listen to the teacher for about 75% of a typical class period (Imhof, 2008).

Students do not have a clear concept of listening as an active process that they can control. Students find it easier to criticize the speaker as opposed to the speaker’s message (Imhof, 1998).

Students report greater listening comprehension when they use the metacognitive strategies of asking pre-questions, interest management, and elaboration strategies (Imhof, 2001).

LISTENING AND TECHNOLOGY

Changes in technology impact how we listen and what we listen to (Wolvin & Coakley, 2000).

When students take the time to “listen” to online peers’ posts, the quality of the posts they contribute increases (Wise, Hausknecht, & Zhao, 2014).

Listeners are not constrained by time when listening online (Wise, Hausknecht, & Zhao, 2014).

When listening online, users can revisit posts and discussions and “listen” multiple times (Wise, Speer, Marbouti, & Hsiao, 2013).

Listening in online discussions requires more than making or reading posts (Wise, Speer, Marbouti, & Hsiao, 2013).

75% of time spent on online boards is spent listening (Wise, Speer, Marbouti, & Hsiao, 2013).

Listening to social media is paradoxical because it is both personal and private as well as networked and public (Lacey, 2014).

Online users listen more on social networking sites than email (Crawford, 2009).

Social media profiles can be indicative of what kind of listening style a user has (Crawford, 2009).

When learning through media, students learn better when they see and listen to information being presented (Moreno & Mayer, 2002).

Smartphones allow users to listen with both their eyes and ears (Storch & Ortiz Juarez Paz, 2018).

On average, Americans listen to their smartphones 46 times a day (Storch & Ortiz Juarez Paz, 2018).

Listening through a mobile device increases the connectivity of family members (Storch & Ortiz Juarez Paz, 2018).
Listening to Twitter is similar to listening to the radio (Crawford, 2009).

Politicians and businesses can use online media to listen to trends in voters and customers (Crawford, 2009).

86% of Fortune 500 companies have a corporate Twitter account (Maben & Gearhart, 2018).

84% of Fortune 500 companies have a corporate Facebook account (Maben & Gearhart, 2018).

30% of top companies have a dedicated Twitter account for listening to customer complaints (Maben & Gearhart, 2018).

LISTENING AND MUSIC

Americans spend more than 32 hours per week listening to music (McIntyre, 2017).

Americans listen to a day and a half of music per week (McIntyre, 2017).

75% of people indicate that listening to music is important to them (Krause, North, & Hewitt, 2013).

Participants who experience music more often rate music as more important to them (Krause, North, & Hewitt, 2013).

People who control their music choices listen more actively (Krause, North, & Hewitt, 2013).

People seek validation in their music choices based on whether they listen to live or recorded music, and whether they listen in public or private (Krause, North, & Hewitt, 2013).

Duration of music listening does not impact emotional regulation (Thoma, Scholz, Elhert, & Nater, 2012).

Music choice is linked to the expected effects of listening to music (Van den Tol & Edwards, 2015).

The shift in mood after listening to music is based on one’s projection of previous experience onto the music (Krause, North, & Hewitt, 2013).

Individuals choosing to listen to music achieve mood enhancement through distraction (Van den Tol & Edwards, 2015).

Listeners concentrate more on aesthetically pleasing music (Van den Tol & Edwards, 2015).

People listen to sad music when they are in a negative mood, but listen to uplifting music shortly after to repair their mood (Van den Tol & Edwards, 2015).

Listening to music decreases depression and confusion in people who suffer from a stroke (Thoma, Scholz, Elhert, & Nater, 2012).

Listening to music betters the quality of sleep in elderly people (Thoma, Scholz, Elhert, & Nater, 2012).

Listening to music reduces depression and fatigue in healthy adults (Thoma, Scholz, Elhert, & Nater, 2012).
The effects of music listening to regulate emotions is influenced by susceptibility to stress (Thoma, Scholz, Elhert, & Nater, 2012).
Listening to classical music by Mozart can increase listening ability (Bowman, Punyanunt-Carter, Cheah, Watson, & Rubin, 2007).
Students who listen to slower classical music are better listeners than those who listen to faster classical music (Bowman, Punyanunt-Carter, Cheah, Watson, & Rubin, 2007).
Technology improvements have increased the opportunity to listen to music (Krause, North, & Hewitt, 2013).
1/3 of the music listened to is delivered through mass media (radio, TV, etc.) (Krause, North, & Hewitt, 2013).
Most people listen to music on a mobile device in the morning and on the TV or radio in the afternoon (Krause, North, & Hewitt, 2013).
Listening to music in the workplace improves creative output (Lesiuk, 2005).
Listening to music in the workplace increases the quality of created work (Lesiuk, 2005).
Listening to music increases energy and tempo when working, pacing people’s work on task and pace of work day (Lesiuk, 2005).
Many doctors are amateur musicians and enjoy listening to music (Costello, 2018).
Listening to music during computer programming tasks decreases anxiety (Lesiuk, 2005).
Conductors must listen to musical orchestras in order to effectively lead them (Vaillancourt, 2007).
Similar to conductors, music therapists must listen to co-construct a vision of the client’s issue (Vaillancourt, 2007).

LISTENING AND SPIRITUALITY

Religious and spiritual listening use two different listening styles and should be considered two different subjects (Schnapp, 2008).
Spiritual listening requires intrapersonal listening and reflection (Schnapp, 2008).
Listening within religion requires more formal organizational listening, while listening spiritually is individual and intrapersonal (Reave, 2005).
Transformational spiritual listening requires listening actively and responsively (Reave, 2005).

*Spiritual direction* is a ministry of care and support for another that focuses on the primacy of relationship with God” (Barry &Connolly, 1982). Originating in the first century predominately in the domain of priests, it evolved to its present form in the 15th Century as an ascetic discipline practiced by men and women in the Roman Catholic church…..Spiritual direction is now identified as a valid ministry for laity as well as religious leaders and is a popular practice with Protestants. The practice has also spread to the Jewish and Muslim faiths” (Tisdale, 2003). A key component of the ministry is listening.
Knowledge of religious content impact listening comprehension of listeners professing close ties to a particular religion (Markham & Latham, 1987).
• Listening within church settings requires an average of 6000 to 7000 word vocabularies (Malmström, 2015).

• Non-native speakers are challenged by church listening (Malmström, 2015).

• A chaplain might choose to distance themselves from their respective religion to listen more effectively (Mundle & Smith, 2013).

• The metaphor of the word of the Lord also expresses what discernment essentially is. “The word of the Lord came to me, saying...” is a favored image among many of the biblical prophets. The word of God is creative, energetic, enlightening, fruitful, lifegiving (Is 55:10–11). The prophet’s gift and task is to have a disciple’s ear (Is 50:4–5) to receive the word of the Lord in whatever context God chooses to speak; to distinguish between the genuine word of God and what cleverly but deceitfully masquerades as God’s word; to read the circumstances of everyday life through the lens of God’s word; to act upon the word and to recall the people to fidelity to it.

• Christian tradition emphasizes listening over transmitting. The first calling of disciples of Jesus Christ is to be good listeners, not speakers. ….Practically speaking, Christian educators should be quick to listen because without practicing listening well, they cannot love God or others - including students, parents, colleagues, constituencies, and communities” (Shultze, 2004).

• “The effective group leader or counselor will be a person who learns how to listen to other people. By studying and employing these listening skills, church leaders will be able to engage others more compassionately, allowing them to feel that their needs are being met” (Savage, 1996).

• “After almost a decade of facilitating dialogue groups, I realized that the art of listening was the main skill that was missing for most participants. From that very real need, I developed The Listening Center in California five years ago, at a time in my life when the connection between listening and the circle of life became clear to me in all its sacredness” (Lindahl & Schnapper, 2002).

LISTENING AND SPORT

• Mere participation in sport does not create better listening practices (Gould & Voelker, 2010).

• Effectively listening to athletes requires attention to contextual factors, differences in gender, social dynamic, social support, common stressors, and athlete health (Weissensteiner, 2015).

• Sports messages should be concise, clear, frequent, and honest to maximize listening success (Weinberg & McDermott, 2002).

• Sports leaders emphasize interactions with others and positive reinforcement when listening (Weinberg & McDermott, 2002).
• Athletes prefer coaches who they feel will listen to their concerns and input about the team (Weinberg & McDermott, 2002; Rieke, Hammermeister, & Chase, 2008).
• Athletes who feel they are listened to feel they receive better training and instruction (Rieke, Hammermeister, & Chase, 2008).
• Athletes prefer non-judgmental listeners who do not give advice (Rosenfeld & Richman, 1997).
• Having experience with a sport allows an athlete to better listen to action-based language (Beilock, Lyons, Mattarella-Micke, Nusbaum, & Small, 2008).
• The keys to promoting mental toughness in athletes lie in the coach’s ability to produce an effective listening environment (Rieke, Hammermeister, & Chase, 2008).
• The physical environment of athletes should be developed with listening in mind (Rosenfeld & Richman, 1997).
• Team members who listen supportively increase their physical and emotional well-being (Rosenfeld & Richman, 1997).
• Teams who enhance listening strategies have a better understanding of team success (Rosenfeld & Richman, 1997).
• Good team listening skills should also be developed outside of sports context (Rosenfeld & Richman, 1997).
• Teams who listen win more than teams who do not listen (Rieke, Hammermeister, & Chase, 2008).

LISTENING IN POLITICS AND LEADERSHIP

• Good listeners in group settings have desirable leadership skills (Kluger & Zaidel, 2013).
• Listening is crucial to produce desirable outcomes in organizations where employee motivation impacts performance (Kluger & Zaidel, 2013).
• Blogs are fast becoming sophisticated listening posts of modern democracy (Coleman, 2005).
• Individuals perceived as good listeners emerge as the leaders of groups (Johnson & Bechler, 1998).
• Leaders with good listening skills are able to assess the needs and wants of groups (Johnson & Bechler, 1998).
• Effective engage their employees in a way that resembles a conversation rather than a series of top-down commands (Groysberg & Slind, 2009).
• Effective leaders listen to establish emotional and mental proximity (Groysberg & Slind, 2009).
• Good leaders know when to stop talking and start listening (Groysberg & Slind, 2009).
• Good leadership is fueled by listening with curiosity and empathy (Wolvin, 2005).
• Good leaders have good timing and know when to speak and when to listen (Wolvin, 2005).
• Most efforts at public leadership focus on communicating the message (Wolvin, 2005).
• Virtual leadership is more common because advancing technologies can support new systems of communication (Kerfoot, 2010).
• Successful virtual leaders learn how to cross time, space, and culture barriers to make improvements (Kerfoot, 2010).
• Virtual leaders experience issues because direct supervision and interaction are impossible (Kerfoot, 2010).
• Listening is tied to effective leadership (Bechler & Johnson, 1995; Johnson & Bechler, 1998).
• Leaders give good attention to the speaker by looking the speaker in the eye (Orick, 2002).
• Leaders paraphrase the speaker to ensure understanding of the speaker’s message (Orick, 2002).
• Leaders are able to relate accurate messages to a third party, which shows that they listening to and remembered what the original speaker had said (Orick, 2002).
• Leaders listen with an open mind by not becoming emotional or defensive (Orick, 2002).
• Leaders can listen to a speaker and be respectful by not betraying the confidence of the speaker when asked to do so (Orick, 2002).