CHAPTER-1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. GLIMPSES

English is the most widely used second language in the world and it is accepted as the international language due to its supremacy in the fields of economy, culture, politics and technology. It eliminates all communication borders worldwide. This has made each and every one to learn the English language. It is essential for the learner to have command on English, so that it helps the learner to express his/her thought through speech or writing in different contexts. Learning a new language often leads to frustration if the learner is not able to use it even after years of training in the target language. At times learners who know the word visually have problems in understanding the word in the spoken form or may not know the meaning of the word. This communication problem is because of not understanding the word in pace of time in which it is spoken. Obstacles in the input automatically gives an awful output. Another important observable fact among the foreign language learners is they do not know to express ‘what to say and how to say’ before and after a conversation or during a conversation in the target language. These learners can make grammatically correct sentences but they cannot utter them when necessary.

The above situations clearly show that mere competence of the language is not enough for a good communication. Successful communication requires both descriptive knowledge and procedural knowledge of a language. A second language learner who tries to learn a new language must be familiar with all the four skills of the target language.
1.1.1 Status of English in India – the present scenario

In India the English language has evidently enjoyed a higher status than our Indian languages. For higher knowledge and research in science and technology, a reasonably high proficiency in English is essential. English has also served as a catalytic agent and the vehicle of modernization in the country. Its use has acquired a status symbol in all parts of India. English is the official language of administration and it is used in courts too. It is the language of international trade and industry. As a social language English has been used for interpersonal communication and serves as a window to the modern world.

India is a multilingual country. Though Hindi is the prevalent national language, English continues to be the link language. English is the language that is spoken and understood all over the country. The communication between the union government and state government is carried out in English; the increasing awareness of importance of English compels us to learn it not only for special or specific purposes but also for expanding our intellectual horizon. At the international level, English language has shrunk the world into a global village. Saraswat (2012) Rushdie, the renowned novelist, points out that the English language ceased to be the sole possession of the English people sometime ago, because about 400 million use English as the first language (L1) and another 350 million as the second language (L2). No other language has spread around the world so extensively and that too in a very short span of time. English has become a necessary tool of mobility, social, and economic development in the present day world. As Holborow (1999, p.26) says, “The language of capitalism at the turn of the twenty first century is English”.

1.1.2 Teaching of English – past and present

The ‘market value’ of English has made English teaching and English education a mega- industry in India. Macaulay’s Minutes on education (1835)
laid the foundation for English education in India. It became the ‘blueprint’ for education in India, and the ‘goals’ were clearly stated.

We must at present do our best to form a class who may be interpreters between us and the millions whom we govern; a class of people, Indian in blood and colour, but English in taste, in opinions, in morals and intellect; to the class we may leave it to refine the vernacular dialects of the country, to enrich those dialects with terms of science borrowed from the Western nomenclature, and to render them by degrees and fit vehicles for conveying knowledge to the great mass of the population!.

In India English is the widely taught second language practically at all levels of education. All the Indian universities and colleges have separate departments for the teaching of English. But unfortunately in these departments majority of the students get little exposure to English as a living language.

Nearly after a century of English education only something like 3 percent of the population knows English, it seems obvious that English cannot be the language in which the millions of India will be educated. In 1900, the urban population of India received English as the language of the future, knowledge of which was essential for their advancement. Today, though English is still the only
her only door to the knowledge and culture of the larger world. (Mathai 1951; p. 101, cited in Mathialagan, 2010)

For almost two centuries now, English has been playing an important role in our educational system as well as in our national life. It is generally held that the British introduced English in our educational system, in order to produce that Macaulay called; ‘a class of people, Indian in opinions, in moral and in intellect!’

But those who can take a dispassionate view of the issue agree that in reality Macaulay might not have been the villain of the peace he is usually made out to be. It is quite likely that he strongly supported the Anglicists because he could see the benefits that would accrue from the learning of English. Even the ardent patriot like Raja Ram Mohan Roy was in the vanguard of the Anglicist movement for “dissemination of useful knowledge of science and literature through the medium of the English language.” And indeed, though the British system of education had the intended result of turning out vast armies of pen-pushers, as it is still doing, the learning of English which this system had emphasized, proved beneficial in more than one way.

In the first place, it helped the growth of nationalism which ultimately freed the country from the British yoke. Our national leaders drew their inspiration from the writings of the great thinkers like Ruskin, Carlyle, Abraham Lincoln, and others who wrote in English.

English also served as a great unifying force in our struggle for independence. It is through this language that the leaders from the four corners of our vast country could communicate among themselves and chalk out their common plan of action. Even now, English is playing this important role as the
national link language for the purpose of inter-state correspondence and as the language of trade and commerce between different parts of the country.

While recognizing the importance of learning English, it has to be admitted that it is not occupying the same place in the school curriculum as it did in the past, nor can the teaching of English be continued with the same objectives, under the changed conditions. For almost 200 years English dominated the school curriculum. It was the medium of instruction not only at the university level but also at the school level until the early thirties of the 20th century. Even when it ceased to be the medium of instruction, maximum numbers of periods were devoted to it and the students’ main preoccupation was the impossible task of acquiring a mastery of the kind of English written by the great English writers of the past. Needless to say, this was a highly frustrating situation and except in the case of a very few brilliant students, the standards of achievement of the majority of students, in English was extremely poor. This led to still worse consequences. The disproportionate emphasis on acquiring the ‘Silken terms and taffeta phrases’ of English resulted in the neglect of the other subjects which brought down the overall standard of education in the country.

It is now realized that this state of affairs cannot continue and that the teaching of English should be made more practical and language oriented in order to achieve the limited objectives of learning this important foreign language. The Official Language Commission appointed by the government of India clearly indicates the position of English in our educational system.

Since we need knowledge of English for different purposes, the content and character of that language as well as the method of imparting it have to undergo a change. English has to be taught hereafter, principally as ‘language of comprehension’ rather than as literary language so as to develop in the students’
learning it as faculty for comprehending writing in English language, more particularly those relating to the subject matter of this specialized field of studies. No doubt, to a limited extent, capacity for expression would also accrue and may also be usefully cultivated along with the faculty for comprehension; however, the change in the character and knowledge of English appropriate to our requirement hereafter, as distinguished from the past is clear enough. The requirements of knowledge for comprehending English are mainly a matter for understanding the basic grammar and structure of language and thereafter, principally, a question of widening the vocabulary in the desired direction.

1.1.3 Present state of affairs in teaching English

English teaching in India is the world’s largest democratic enterprise in the world. The pressure of population, pluralism, and varieties in all areas of life, the colonial legacy, political compulsions, illiteracy, lack of infrastructure, vested interests, and the problem of training teachers – a combination of all these make English teaching in contemporary India a highly complex activity.

The ever increasing population and the craze for English have resulted, to an extent in commercialization of English Education in India. Not only in terms of languages, but in culture, religion and ethnicity, India is highly pluralistic; it is multi-lingual, multi-cultural, multi-religious and multi-ethnic with large rural areas. This makes language planning a highly complex and emotional problem. The colonial legacy is continued in the field of education. The English language has become a means for power and exploitation.

1.2 LANGUAGE SKILLS

A proficient language user must have the ability to use all the skills in a language. Language is a complex skill with four major skills. The linguists had
divided the language skill into two broad divisions i.e. the receptive skill and the productive skill. The receptive skill comprises of two sub skills namely listening skill and speaking skill. Listening comprehension is the oral mode of receptive skill. Language acquisition takes place primarily with listening. Listening is understanding, what one hears. It is the ability to identify and understand spoken language. For understanding one must have the background knowledge of the context. There are two listening situations - interactive and non interactive. Reading is a receptive skill in written mode. Reading can be developed independently but it often accompanies speaking and writing.

Speaking and writing are brought under the productive skill. The language users after receiving the information they process it and produce the output and deliver it in the spoken form or written form. Speaking is a productive skill in oral mode. There are three kinds of speaking situations like interactive, partially interactive and non interactive modes. Writing is a productive skill in written mode. Writing is a graphical representation of spoken words arranged in a structured way. One cannot learn a skill individually. There are some people who know to listen and speak the language and also there are some second language learners who know to read and write the language but lack in listening and speaking.

1.3 LISTENING – A VITAL RECEPTIVE SKILL

Listening is the fundamental language skill that plays an indispensable role in language learning. As declared by Harmer (1991), speaking and writing are referred as a productive skill, which produces the language. Listening and reading are receptive skill as it receives the messages. Language skills can also be divided into acoustic and script ones. The acoustic ones deal with the listening and speaking ability while the script skills focus on reading and writing. Listening is one of the primary language skills. It is a means through which
children, young people and adults obtain their education, information, understanding of the utterance, and of human interaction, principles, sense of ethics, and appreciation. Wilt (1950), in his study found that people listen 45% of the time they spend in communicating while 30% of communication time was spent speaking, 16% reading, and 9% writing. That result supported what Rankin (1928) revealed, that people spent 70% of their waking time communicating and those three-fourths of this time was spent listening and speaking. The listening skill is defined as the process by which the language users make out aural input, i.e., speech. Flowerdew and Miller (2005) explained about four types of knowledge which are important to comprehend a spoken message: phonological knowledge - the sound system (knowledge about phonemes, stress, tone groups, assimilation and elision); syntactic knowledge – how words are put together; semantic knowledge- word and propositional knowledge; and pragmatic knowledge – the meaning of utterance in particular situations. In other disciplines the listening skill is frequently called ‘listening comprehension’. Listening comprehension is a complex process that transforms an acoustic stimulus to a mental reconstruction on the part of the listener of the speaker’s intention. In this thesis the terms ‘listening (skill)’ and ‘listening comprehension’ are used indiscriminately.

Listening is perceptive of what others are telling. Listening is more than merely hearing words. Hearing is just the act of receiving sound by the ear. But listening is an active progression by which we receive, build meaning from, and reply to spoken or non verbal messages. Morley (1972) identified listening a concerning basic auditory discrimination and aural grammar as well as reauditorizing, preferring necessary information, recalling it, and connecting it to everything that involves processing or reconcile between sound and composition of meaning. Likewise, Postovsky (1975) elucidates “Listening ranges in meaning from sound discrimination to aural comprehension (i.e., actual understanding of
the spoken language)” (p. 19). Further, Bowen, et al (1985) affirms that “Listening is attending to and interpreting oral language. The student should be able to hear oral speech in English, segment the stream of sounds, group them into lexical and syntactic units (words, phrases, sentences), and understand the message they convey” (p. 73). Listening is an unnoticeable mental process, making it hard to explain. However, Rost (2002) also defines listening in its broadest sense as a process of receiving what the speaker actually says (receptive orientation); constructing and representing meaning (constructive orientation); negotiating meaning with the speaker and responding (collaborative orientation); and creating meaning through involvement, imagination and empathy (transformative orientation). The definitions by various researchers clearly imply that listening involves processing.

Comprehension is defined as information processing in cognitive psychology. There are three ways of information processing. First, in bottom-up processing the listener builds understanding by starting with sounds or phonemes which are the smallest units of the acoustic message. Sounds are then united into words, which, in turn collectively make up sentences. Finally, individual sentences join to generate ideas and concepts and associations between them. Thus, in the bottom-up processing, the listener constructs meaning using “his knowledge of words, syntax, and grammar to work on form” (Rubin, 1994, p. 210). This process is directly connected with the listener’s linguistic knowledge. Proficient comprehension that links the textual material with listener’s brain does not only depend on one’s linguistic knowledge. The second way is the top-down processing where the listeners rely upon the use of previous knowledge to process the information. Barlett (1932:201), whose original work was the basis for most recent development of this process, call schema “an active organization of past experiences.” Carrell and Eisterhold (1983, p. 557) spot out that the listener makes general predictions based on “a higher level, general schemata,
and then searches the input for information to fit into these practically satisfied, higher order schemata”. Depending only on top-down processing may end in the breakdown of comprehension. The third type of listening process is the interactive process, which synthesizes both the processes. Koichi(2002) stresses that “if listeners cannot use top-down processing effectively and successfully, speakers’ utterances or messages cannot be understood. The reverse is also true. Without bottom-up ability, listeners cannot make good use of top-down processing. In short, for fluent listening, both top-down and bottom-up processing are needed”. It is also called as parallel processing, where phonological, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic information interrelate together to comprehend.

1.3.1 Listening To Speaking

As Buck (2001) says in order to capture what is meant in detail in listening comprehension, one has to be conscious of the naturally spoken language which is directly associated with the phonological modification and the prosodic feature of the language, the real time nature of spoken language which is different from the written language in the same linguistic organization. Schmidt and Frota (1986) found that there was a close association between perceiving features of the input, and their later on appearance in speech.

Phonological awareness is desirable in listening comprehension to be able to divide the message into constituent sounds. In natural spoken language, some sounds are modified by the sounds next to them, some are simply dropped (elision) and others are combined in a complex way (assimilation). Many words that are quite clearly intelligible within a text are difficult to be recognized in isolation. (Pickett and Pollack, 1963; Pollack and Pickett, 1963, cited in Buck, 2001).
Further, the pronunciations of the functional words in English have a strong form and a weak form. Especially during fast and informal speech these types of modifications take place and affect all words. The other most important prosodic feature is stress and intonation. The speakers use stress wherever they consider it important. Similarly, the structure and the meaning of the text decide the intonation pattern of the spoken form. Thus, phonological modifications and prosodic features of the language play a vital role in listening comprehension.

The second important component in listening comprehension construct is real time listening. The listeners could hear the speech only once in real time situations and the listener should depend on the speed of the speech to understand the meaning which is often too fast. The listener cannot refer back to the speech unless the speaker repeats. So the listener refers spoken text which remains in the memory.

Thirdly, the variation in spoken and written language in same linguistic construction is most notable. People usually do not speak in sentences in informal situations rather they utter in idea units which are loosely packed. Vocabulary and grammar are far colloquial in nature. The major difference between spoken language and written language summarized by Buck (2001, p. 10-11) is given below:

- In spoken language idea units tend to be shorter, with simpler syntax, whereas written idea units tend to be denser, often using more complex syntax, such as dependent and subordinate clauses, to convey more information.

- In spoken language idea units tend to be strung together by coordinating conjunctions (and, or, but, etc.), whereas written idea units tend to be joined in more complex ways.
Spoken language usually has hesitations: pauses, fillers, and repetitions that give the speaker more thinking time, as well as repairs, such as false starts, corrections in grammar or vocabulary, and afterthoughts.

Spoken language tends to have more non-standard features such as dialect, slang, and colloquialism, whereas written language tends to be more formal, conservative, and ‘correct’.

Spoken language tends to be far more personal, with more emotional involvement and much less precision. Speakers tend to indicate their feelings more, with expressions such as ‘I think’ or ‘I mean’, or by making direct references to the listener. They also tend to be content with gross approximations, or use overstatements and exaggerations.

Listening ability plays a major role in the growth of other language skills, in the language classroom. When students first learn a language, they must listen to the words quite a lot of times before they are able to pronounce those words. Listening also can help students build vocabulary, develop language proficiency, and improve language usage (Barker, 1971).

Dunkel (1986) asserts that developing proficiency in listening comprehension is the key to achieving proficiency in speaking. Also, Zhang (2009) in his study found that listening and speaking are closely related and listening does have positive effect on improving college students oral English. Also, the above studies clearly show that listening has direct contact not alone with speaking but also in whole language development. Moreover, a learner cannot be estimated to create “i+1” output without learning first about the “+1” constituent, that is to say, without taking in some kind of “i+1” input.
1.4 COMPARAING LANGUAGE ACQUISITION OF A CHILD AND AN ADULT

Second Language acquisition in Applied Linguistics has been a most important topic of research for several decades. One of the central questions in this field is why child language acquisition is consistently flourishing, whereas adult second language acquisition is inconsistent and generally unsuccessful (Bley - Vroman, 1990; 2009). Language acquisition during childhood takes place through a prolonged exposure to a language in a natural way. If a child is exposed in consistent basis to a social setting, it can acquire fluency in any language. Under these circumstances, a child can acquire native fluency naturally in more than one language. As Krashen, Scarcella, & Long (1982) say that less cognitively sophisticated children outperform the adults. Singleton, (2005) and Herschensohn (2007) declare that this is because of biologically based fundamental difference between children and adults i.e, a critical period of language learning. This critical period shows a difference in language learning of children and adults. Adults thought to use different learning mechanism, after the critical period, than children (DeKeyser, 2000; 2003; Paradis, 2004; 2009). The difference in language acquisition in children and adults is often framed as implicit and explicit language learning respectively. DeKeyser and Larson - Hall’s (2005:89) explains children as implicit learners and adults as explicit learners in version of the critical period hypothesis:

...we use the term critical period hypothesis (CPH) in this chapter to designate the idea that language acquisition from mere exposure (i.e., implicit learning), the only mechanism available to the young child, is severely limited in older adolescents and adults.
However, Sobin (1993) who was struck by the success of the adult learners more than by their failure says that the adult learners have so many counts against them:

- Whatever may be the advantages of youth (critical period, plasticity, rote learning capacity, etc.), these learners have begun with some degree of ‘biological handicap’.
- Their communicative needs are vastly more complex and vital than are those of preschool – age of children and their communicative tools are inadequate to those tasks.
- They cannot count on the world to provide them with food and shelter while they are learning how to communicate.
- They cannot help but process the TL through filters that have developed for another purpose – to perceive and produce SL sound patterns and map them onto SL conceptual schemes.
- They have learned to use language within a sociocultural matrix of norms and expectations different from those of the host society.

First-language learners, by contrast, have obvious advantages:

- They are young.
- Their communication is not vital to their survival.
- Their communicative intentions do not seriously outstrip their communicative capacities.
- The only ‘preconceptions’ they may have about the form and content of language do not interfere with the acquisition of the particular language that the world presents to them.
- They are learning the social functions of language along with the language itself.
The other considerable variable among child and adult second language acquisition is transfer errors. Transfer errors used to be considered a hallmark of adult language learning, but research with L2 child learners (Schwartz, 2004) shows that any learner with a developed L1 system will make transfer errors. Thus there are differences and similarities in second language acquisition in children and adults.

1.5 DISCREPANCIES IN THE LISTENING ABILITY OF FIRST (L1) AND SECOND LANGUAGE (L2)

As Rost (2011) says there is a flawless connection between learning to listen and acquiring our first language. The listening ability is acquired in gradual and apparently effortless way in our first language. Development of listening abilities in the first year is given below in Table 1.1. The two significant features of the early development of learning to listen: categorical perception - the capacity to discriminate speech sound contrasts in their native language in a number of different phonetic dimensions, and perceptual constancy - infants develop the ability to tolerate the kind of acoustic variability that accompanies changes in rates of speech or differences in speaker’s voices.

After the first year of linguistic development, contextualized input plays a vital role in the development of first language listening ability. Eating, getting dressed, playing with toys, taking a bath, and going to bed are certain contextualized language routines that help the child to understand the meaning of the language used.

Child-directed speech is a technique used by caretaker to help the child to understand linguistic or social concepts more easily.
Cognitive restructuring is the other important aspect in first language listening ability of a child. Cognitive development takes place simultaneously when the child learns a first language. Cognitive structure is central to understanding how cognitive and first language developments coincide in the child. Patterns of physical or mental actions that underlie specific acts of intelligence are cognitive structures.

**Table 1.1 Development of listening abilities in the first year**
(Based on Owens, 1992 quoted in Rost 2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Months</th>
<th>Listening ability</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Responds to the sound of human voices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Distinguishes between different sounds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Turns head in response to direct voices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Imitates heard tones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Discriminates between ‘negative’ and ‘positive’ attitudes in human voices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Imitates volume, pitch and speech-rate of heard voices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Attends to vocalization of adults around her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Recognizes some frequently repeated words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Begins to imitate complex sounds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Imitate syllables (combined phonemes) of adult speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Imitates inflexions and rhythms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Recognizes familiar words, such as own name</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These cognitive structures invariably change as the child grows older, but this change can be optimized through experience and education. Another critical aspect of child’s cognitive and linguistic development is social (Rost, 2011). Thus, the child in the first language acquisition of listening ability, while
continuously restructure cognitive connections, works on restructuring internal ‘grammar’ also.

This restructuring of language gets adult standard through listening to ‘positive examples’ of appropriate and contextual speech. Listening plays a crucial role in second language acquisition. To learn a second language three major conditions are required: 1. a learner who realizes the need and is motivated to learn the second language; 2. speakers of the target language to support and access the spoken language; and 3. a social setting to sustain enough contact with target language speakers. These factors decide the difficulty or failure in second language acquisition both in adult and in child (Wong-Fillmore, 1991).

Listening opportunities are often characterized as ‘Linguistic environment’ in second language acquisition and it acts as a stage for second language acquisition (Rost, 2011). The speakers of the target language and their speech to the L2 learners, provides linguistic input in the form of listening and interaction opportunities embedded in social and pedagogical situations. The learner must understand the input and pay attention to the forms in the input. As in L1 acquisition, L2 speaker’s language and the strategies the learners employ to create meaning from the limited linguistic resources act as developmental opportunities. Researchers generally assume that listeners use metacognitive strategies when listening to their non-native language; Vandergrift (2006) offered this explanation when he found that native language listening ability accounted for 14% of the variance in L2 listening ability, with L2 proficiency accounting for 25% of the variance.

There are two overlapping processes in L2 listening development: learning to listen in the L2 and learning the L2 through listening. The optimal goal of L2 listening development is to allow the L2 to be acquired through
listening. Either the purpose is message comprehension or language acquisition the listener must gain access to spoken code.

Brown (1994) defines the characteristics of spoken language (i.e., listening text) which makes the listening process difficult.

1. Clustering: due to memory limitations and predisposition for chunking or clustering, listeners break down speech into smaller groups of words. L2 listeners have to pick out manageable clusters of words.

2. Redundancy: in real life situations, speakers do often use sufficient redundancy which could help L2 listeners to process meaning easier.

3. Reduced forms: spoken language also has many reduced forms. These can be phonological, morphological, syntactic, or pragmatic.

4. Performance variables: the distracting performance variables such as hesitations, false starts, pauses and corrections of L2 may cause difficulties. Listeners should train themselves to listen for meaning in the middle of all these distracting performance variables.

5. Colloquial language: listeners may find it difficult to deal with colloquial language such as idioms, slang, reduced forms, and shared cultural knowledge. The extent to which speakers use these language forms impact comprehension.

6. Rate of delivery: most L2 listeners perceive that native speakers speak too fast for them and this makes it difficult for L2 to follow (Brown & Yule, 1983).
7. Stress, rhythm, and intonation: the prosodic features of L2 may cause difficulties. If L2 listeners feel familiar with these prosodic features, they may have less difficulty in L2 listening.

8. Interaction: interaction plays a major role in listening comprehension. If L2 listeners cannot communicate with speakers, they cannot elicit more information from them. L2 learners must be aware of the problems in processing the input and train themselves in these areas.

9. ‘Modified input’ or ‘accentuate input’ to access to L2 facilitates L2 learners’ acquisition of the language. As Krashen et al (1982) maintained that ‘comprehensible input’ was an essential situation for language learning.

The other important factor that extends helping hand in developing L2 acquisition is ‘compensatory strategies’. Strategy training shows progress in listening ability in L2 learners (cf. Rost and Ross, 1991; Vandegrift, 1996; Fujiwara, 1989; Mendlsohn, 1998). Among the varying reasons in successful L2 acquisition are external and internal factors. The external factors are the opportunities to hear and use the L2 and internal factors are motivation and attitude toward speakers of L2. (Dornyei, 2001).

1.6 IMPARTING LISTENING

Listening has received an increasing attention in language classrooms after the emergence of the communicative competence in language learning and teaching. Morley (1999) describes the change of the status of listening in language learning and teaching as:

At one time, listening was assumed to be a passive activity, meriting little classroom attention. Now listening is recognized as an active process, critical to
L2 acquisition and deserving of systematic development as a skill in its own right.

As the role of listening changed, the approach of teaching listening has changed from audio-lingual approach to communicative approach. Also, listening instructions accentuate the process of listening instead of product of listening. Instructions largely lay emphasis on the ability to identify words, sentence boundaries, sound discrimination and sound combination, that is, bottom-up process in 1970s. Then, the instruction shifted its focus to top-down process, as the view of second language listening shifted from language based to schema based. This approach activates the background knowledge such as discourse clues, topic familiarity and pragmatic conventions. Later, listening pedagogies gave emphasize on strategies integrated instruction to enhance the learning. But, none of the approaches proved its success. In recent years, affective factors were given more attention in instructional design. In second language acquisition, Krashen (1985) points out that success in language learning should be associated with student’s emotional condition.

1.6.1 Krashen’s theory of affective filter

Humans acquire second languages only if they obtain comprehensible input and if their affective filters are low enough to allow the input in (Krashen, 1985). According to Krashen (in Towell & Hawkins, 1994), the learner.s subconscious screens L2 language input based on affective factors such as individual needs, motives, attitude and emotional state. Depending on how strong or weak the filter, the learner will either convert input into knowledge or screen it out. This would account for the different outcomes in learners of the same age, in the same situation. Low achievers would be said to have a higher filter than those who acquire a higher level of competency. (p. 27). Krashen’s Input Hypothesis and Theory of Affective Filter are presented below.
The Input Hypothesis is the chief part of an overall theory of second-language acquisition (Krashen, 1985). Learner acquiring the language by understanding messages or by receiving comprehensible input is The Input Hypothesis. Krashen in his ‘Input Hypothesis’, explains his theory that development from learner’s current stage of interlanguage development can be achieved only by the leaner’s ‘comprehending’ language that contains linguistic items (lexis, syntax, and morphology) at a level slightly above the learner’s current knowledge (i + 1). The Affective Filter Hypothesis: 'a mental block, caused by affective factors ... that prevents input from reaching the language acquisition device' (Krashen, 1985).

Figure 1.1 The Input Hypothesis Model Of L2 Learning and Production

Comprehensible input is very important for language acquisition, but it is not adequate. The affective filter is up when learners are uninterested, lacking in self-confidence, or restless, or on the defensive; because they believe their weaknesses are exposed in the second language class. While learners are not disturbed with the possibility of failure in second language acquisition and consider themselves to be prospective members of the group speaking the target language, the affective filter is down (Krashen, 1985).
In summary, to help second language listeners to learn effectively and efficiently, language teachers should provide learners with comprehensible input and lower affective filter.

1.6.2 Affective Factors

Listening materials for the instruction should offer the learners lots of target language to listen to in a digestible, palatable, yet challenging form (Taylor, 1981). In addition, student’s listening comprehension is also influenced by affective factors. The affective factors of the low achievers include anxiety, inhibition, self-esteem, self-confidence, risk taking and motivation.

1.6.2.1 Anxiety

When students have no idea of the kind of context while listening they show the feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension or worry (Scovel, 1978). Anxiety directly hampers orientation and exercises a negative influence on listening comprehension reveals a research on foreign language acquisition (Gardner, Lalonde, Moorcroft, & Evers, 1987; cited by Wu, 2004). As a facilitator, the language teacher, is responsible for anxiety reduction and encourage learners to complete a task in second language using facilitative anxiety (Oxford, 1999, and Brown, 2000). Hence teachers should promote low anxiety treatment in listening activities to enhance listening comprehension of the learners.

1.6.2.2 Inhibition

Inhibition which is related to self-efficacy and self-confidence has a great impact in the process of learning language. It relates to a self-defense to protect ego in second language acquisition (Brown, 2000), predominantly in
listening comprehension. Inhibition personality people do not take risks and often worried about the risks that endanger their ego.

But in listening, the contexts are the most important factors where the listeners fail to break through because of their inhibition. It is the duty of the teacher to remove inhibition and promote listening comprehension.

1.6.2.3 Self-esteem

Self-esteem, the third type of the affective factors, deal with the positive thinking of people in valuing their own selves. In language class, self-esteem is a personal judgment of worthiness that individuals hold towards themselves in the attitude. Praise, support, acceptance of low-achievers’ inaccuracy, and learning style are critical elements which need to be incorporated in instruction. It is in the hands of teachers to bring a balance between the self-esteem of low achievers with frustration. It is clear that a successful teacher should give the best possible consideration to both the teaching goals and individual difference in teaching.

1.6.2.4 Self-confidence

The fourth affective factor, self-confidence plays a significant part in the low achievers process of language learning. In a language class the learners should have self-confidence in completing a task. To establish a sense of attainment the teachers must start the classroom activities with a simpler concept and move to difficult ones.

1.6.2.5 Risk-taking

The fifth affective factor is risk-taking. Risk-taking is being brave in facing all results or risks came out from a learning process. Learning listening involve some trial and error process. Learners must have the mental braveness
to face the outcome of their learning process. Teachers are supposed to create an atmosphere for the learners to take risk without feeling embarrassed.

1.6.2.6 Motivation

The last affective factor is motivation and it plays a crucial part in improving the learning process. Motivation cherishes learners to complete any type of a difficult task. So learners must cultivate from extrinsic motivation to intrinsic motivation in the process of second language acquisition.

Extrinsic motivation such as positive feedback, appropriate encouragement, etc., motivates the learners in the beginning of the language. Intrinsic motivation constructs a learner with feelings of competence and self-determination to overcome the challenging situation. Intrinsic motivation drives learners’ self-awareness to learn listening for their own sake. It is the responsibility of the language teachers to provide a motivating situation in language learning. This study takes Krashen’s Theory of Affective filter as a platform to test the effect of teaching listening for low level second language listeners in engineering colleges.

1.7 ASSESSING LISTENING

Brown, (2004) explained the process of listening in four stages that represent a potential assessment objective. They are as follows:

- Comprehending of surface structure elements such as phonemes, words, intonation, or a grammatical category
- Understanding the pragmatic context
- Determining meaning of auditory input
- Developing the gist, a global or comprehensive understanding
From these stages he has derived four commonly recognized types of listening performance like intensive listening, selective listening, responsive listening and extensive listening.

1.7.1 Intensive Listening

Listening for perception of the parts of the language like sounds, words, intonation, discourse markers, etc. of a large extend of language. Tasks like recognition of phonological and morphological elements, and paraphrase recognition are used to assess the level of listening.

1.7.2 Selective Listening

Selective listening encourages the learners to adopt a strategy to listen for particular information. Here the test taker scans the spoken text for specific information. To assess selective listening task items like listening cloze, information transfer and sentence repetition are used.

1.7.3 Responsive Listening

The third type of listening performance is responsive listening. The test taker listens to a short stretch of language like a greeting, a question, command, etc. and responds to it.

1.7.4 Extensive Listening

Listening to develop top down and global understanding of the text or speech is called extensive listening. Extensive listening can be tested by using tasks like listening to a passage and answering for global understanding of the text.
1.8 NECESSITY OF FINE TUNING THE LISTENING SKILL

In Indian context, demonstrating communication skills shows success path in the on-campus recruitment for engineering students. As most students lack communication skill they are not ‘industry ready’ (Infosys, 2008).

It is mandatory for undergraduate students studying in engineering and technology to learn the global language. It helps them in their placement and for higher studies. Corporate and foreign universities expect the recruits and students, who pursue higher studies, to have proficiency in the international language.

For this they expect them to have good scores in IELTS, TOEFL, TOEIC, etc. These international exams give equal importance in testing all the four skills. Since listening skill is the base for language learning, it has an important place in these tests. This study diagnoses the problems faced by low level second language listeners in listening. Based on the diagnosed problems activities were designed in the ground of Krashen’s theory of affective filter to close the gaps. As it is an experimental study a pre-test and a post test were conducted to find the differences in the intervention. Hypotheses were formed to test the difference.

1.9 AIM AND OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The present study aims at diagnosing the problems faced by low level second language listeners in engineering colleges and testing a mixed method of teaching listening to enhance the learning. A diagnostic test is administered to find out the problems faced by the low level second language listeners in engineering colleges. With the help of the elicited data, tasks were designed to teach in a mixed method to close the gap of the defects. The main aim of this
study is to find whether there is any development in listening comprehension skill after the intervention with the mixed method of teaching listening.

The main objectives of the study are enunciated subsequently.

- To diagnose the problems faced by low level second language listeners in listening comprehension
- To find out which kind of listening task students are interested in
- To elicit empirical evidence to check how far the mixed method of teaching listening enhanced students listening.
- To find out the factors those motivate them in learning listening through the mixed method.

1.10 HYPOTHESES FORMULATED

The central research question posed was whether students would improve in listening comprehension if they were trained through Krashen’s theory of Affective filter i.e, the mixed method of teaching where the tasks were designed on the ground of the theory of Affective filter.

Subsequent questions were,

1. Would there be a significant difference in the pre-test and post-test scores, suggesting the intervention programme benefitted the students?
2. Would such method benefit students in improving intensive, selective responsive and extensive listening?
3. Would there be a significant difference in the pre-test and post-test results of the experimental and control group, suggesting that the improvement is due to intervention programme and not solely to natural maturation?
4. Would such method gain positive attitude of the learners, suggesting that they have more willingness to attend classes when being taught through the mixed method?

5. What kind of listening activities were the learners interested in the mixed method of imparting listening?

Following hypotheses were framed to answer the above questions. For the first and the second questions, “Would there be a significant difference in the pre-test and post-test scores, suggesting the intervention programme benefitted the students?” and “Would such method benefit students in improving responsive listening, selective listening, and extensive listening?” following hypotheses were framed.

General hypotheses formulated were:

H₁ - The mean score of the post test is statistically significant from the mean score of the pretest in Experimental group

H₂ – There is a significant difference among the pretest listening skills of Experimental group.

H₃ - There is a significant difference among the post test listening skills of Experimental group.

H₄ - The students perform better in the post test of Intensive, Selective, Responsive and Extensive listening in Experimental Group.

To find an answer for the third question, “Would there be a significant difference in the pre-test and post-test results of the experimental and control
group, suggesting that the improvement is due to the intervention programme and not solely to natural maturation?” the following hypothesis was set.

H₅ - The post test score of the control group is significant to its pre test.

H₆ - The post test score of the experimental group is significant to the post test score of the control group.

To find an answer for the fourth question, ‘Would such method gain a positive attitude of the learners, suggesting that they have more willingness to attend classes when being taught through the mixed method?’ following hypothesis was formed.

H₇ - The mixed method gains a positive attitude of the learners.

Further, the mean score of the rating points of the informants towards the mixed method activities and multiple regression analysis was made to find an answer for the fifth question, ‘What kind of listening activities were the learners interested in the mixed method of imparting listening?’

1.11 LITERATURE REVIEW

It is appropriate to point out the researches taken up in the related area to view the dimensions and perspectives of this research. There have been a variety of studies focusing on the complexities in listening.

1.11.1 Problems in listening comprehension

In early times, considerations and assessments of listening as a distinct component of language learning focused chiefly on categorizing and grading listening tasks in terms of complexity (Fish, 1981; Nunan, 1989; Richards, 1983; Ur, 1984).
Boyle (1984) after performing an interview with 30 teachers and 60 students from two Hong Kong universities suggested the need of practice as the most key factor. He also pointed out such issues as linguistic understanding, general background knowledge, while motivation and attitude may affect listening indirectly but more strongly. “Memory” and “Attention/Concentration” were the two other factors that were mentioned by the students in Boyle’s interview. The factors identified by can be divided into four categories, i.e., listener, speaker, stimulus, and context factors.

The study of Patwardhan (1998) intended at discovering out the existing level of 'listening' and listening comprehension' competencies in children studying in Standard one having English as a medium of instruction. To assess an individual child's performance level concerning listening skill, the researcher used a criterion referenced test (CRT). The investigator had clear research questions in her mind which were related to the factors like sex, home-environment of the children, parent's education, socio-economic status of the family, pre-primary schooling, support in studies and teachers' awareness about listening competencies. 325 children of the 50% English medium schools of Pune city was the sample for the study. The main findings of the study were given below

(i) In the sample of 325 children, 80% children achieve mastery in the CRT.

(ii) Pre-primary schooling has an encouraging significant achievement of listening skill.

(iii) Parents' education and child's achievement have an optimistic correlation between them.

(iv) In the schools there was no conscious attempt to teach listening by the teachers.
After undergoing the training programme there was a positive gain in the average achievement of Standard one children in 'listening' and 'listening comprehension'.

Yen (1988) examined why Taiwanese students have listening comprehension difficulties and identified that English learners require listening skills and linguistic knowledge. Yan selected students from Taiwan National Normal University as subjects.

The outcome revealed that they lack the ability to make a distinction between stress and intonation, and do not have rich phrase and genre-specific vocabularies. It was also exposed that linguistic knowledge of syntax, semantics, and pragmatics was compulsory for English listening needs. Taiwanese college students should make stronger the above abilities to enhance their listening comprehension.

In her study, Teng (1993) further divided these factors into a comprehensive list. Listener factors such as language facility including phonological, lexical, syntactic, semantic, pragmatic knowledge, Knowledge of the world, Intelligence, Physical condition, Metacognitive strategies, and Motivation are included in the first set of listeners. She divided speakers’ factors into language ability of native speaker vs. nonnative speaker, Accent/dialect, Speed of delivery, Degree of pauses and redundancies, Prestige and personality. She further divided stimulus factors in to Discussion topic, Abstractness of material, Vagueness of words, Presentation mode, audio only vs. audio and visual and Acoustic environment. Finally, she divided the Context factors into Type of interactional event, Distraction during listening, and Interval between listening and testing and Note-taking.

Narayanan, Rajasekaran Nair, and Iyyappan, (2008) in their study with 408 (138 female and 270 male) first year engineering and technology
students of various mother tongues such as Malayalam, Tamil, Telugu, Hindi, and Bengali from five engineering colleges in and around Chennai explained about the factors affecting English learning among engineering and technology students. Three questionnaires (motivation questionnaire, attitude questionnaire, and language anxiety questionnaire) had been administered.

The study found that motivation to learn English language for male is less than female. Male students have more negative attitude than female. Also they found that male students have high anxiety than female students.

Khamkaew (2009) in his study explored needs and problems in English listening and speaking skills of 30 Metropolitan Police Officers (MPOs) working at Chana Songkram Police Station. The questionnaire and the interview questions were used as instruments in this study. The findings discovered that: 1. The MPOs needed to improve their English listening and speaking skills in main functions like greeting and offering help, asking personal details and problems and wants, giving information about accommodation, tourist information, transportation, and emergency calls, giving directions, and giving advice and instruction in safety, travel, and shopping. 2. Regarding listening and speaking problems of MPOs, the main listening problems were a variety of English accents, being unable to catch the main idea, and listening basic expressions. The chief speaking problems were saying basic expressions, speaking in complete sentences, and pronouncing English vowel sounds.

Mathialagan (2010) in his study “Intergrating the teaching of listening and reading skill to the students of the tertiary level- A study” explains the importance of integrating the listening and reading skills for teaching tertiary students to improve the productive skills speaking and writing. In his study the researcher introduced various methods of teaching receptive skills in the
classroom. Further, he analyzed the importance of listening skill and reading skill in second language learning.

Bright (2010) in her study attempted to find out the level of Listening, Reading Comprehension and Speaking Skill of the students studying in Teacher Training Institute with regard to background variables – gender, birth order, locality of institutions, medium of study at higher secondary level and year of study. A sample of 751 teacher trainees was selected and administered Listening Comprehension Scale and reading Comprehension Scale for data collection. It was observed that there was no significant difference in the listening comprehension and speaking skill of the students with regard to locality of institution, gender, year of the study, medium of the study, reading English news/magazines/story books/articles, writing letters, listening to English news, T.V. programmes and speaking in English. There is a significant correlation between listening comprehension of the students studying in teacher training institute and speaking skill. Also, there is a significant correlation between reading comprehension and speaking skill.

1.1.1.2 Linguistics skill in listening

Brown and Hilferty (1986) practised reduced forms for their students (that they collected from their own speech samples) accompanied by dictation activities for four weeks. At the end of the four-week period, they found that their students' comprehension of reduced form sentences improved from 35% in the pre-test to 61% in the post-test. Morley (1991) accentuated that listening tasks based on speech-pronunciation would promote comprehension of listening by improving learners' discrimination skills.

Rixon (1986) lists the problem areas that shoot from pronunciation in listening comprehension as (1) the difference between English sounds and
spelling, (2) The sound changes in connected speech, (3) Rhythm of English, and (4) different pronunciation patterns of same sounds. She suggests that training in these problem areas can support development of listening comprehension.

Gilbert (1995) emphasizes that, learners criticize that native speakers speak too fast, but this problem arises because learners fail to grasp grammatical and discourse signals because they do not receive training regarding the reduction or intonation patterns of English language speech. Nunan and Miller (1995) also believe that listening can be developed by pronunciation. In their book showing new ways of imparting listening, they suggest several pronunciation activities in order to improve listening skills.

Norris (1995) in his study investigated whether teaching reduced forms would have a positive impact on listening comprehension of Japanese students. The researcher presented the 20 common forms in Weinstain’s “Waddaya Say?” Main activities employed were dictation and cloze exercises. In addition to these, Norris assigned his students to listen to natural English to enable them to get as much exposure as possible. At the end of this two-year longitudinal study, he observed that students’ listening comprehension had improved a lot.

Rosa (2002) in her research on teachers’ attitudes on reduced forms, found that, most of the teachers believed that it would be helpful to teach reduced forms in improving students’ listening comprehension; however, most of them usually spend only 10% or less of their classes on teaching reduced forms.

Field (2003) also presents a similar list in which learners: a) may not recognize a phonetic variation of a known word, b) may know the word in reading but not in spoken vocabulary, and c) may not segment the word out of
connected speech. He suggests that in order to resolve these problems, responsiveness raising activities and attentive practice should be engaged.

1.11.3 Affective Factors and Instructional Strategies

Mueller (1980) investigated the effects of contextual visuals for different levels of aptitude of beginning college German students. He found that the students who had the contextual visuals before hearing the passage scored significantly higher on the recall measure than those in visual-after and the no-visual groups. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that a similar effect may be found when learners are given specific preparation for a listening task before they undertake it.

Samimy & Tabuse (1992) in their study on American college students learning Japanese found a decline in attitude in their study. For both the fall and spring semesters, a survey on attitudes, motivation and classroom personality were given. It was found that attitudes in spring were markedly more negative. The researchers were uncertain if the result was from the increase in difficulty of the material or of more general discontent with all academics as the year progressed. However, they found that affective variables influence learners’ performances as measured by final grades, test scores and homework.

Progosh (1996) investigation about students’ reactions to two video listening quizzes that presented two people discussing their likes and dislikes of a popular film and found that nearly 92% of the students preferred video quizzes over audio only.

Illangovan (1998) studied the effectiveness of audio – video intervention in developing Listening Comprehension in English at Higher Secondary stage. The objective of the study was to establish the relative effectiveness among the
different instructional strategies, viz., conventional teaching method, media –
based Non interactive group instruction and Audio Video presentation as a
support system in developing listening comprehension in English at Higher
Secondary stage. The study concluded that audio-video intervention was the most
effective in developing listening comprehension in English at Higher Secondary
stage.

Belz (2002) in her study discussed the impact of being seen as less than
competent on the learners’ identity. Instead of regarding learners as incompetent
speakers of a second language, she regarded them as multi competent, since they
are able to use parts of a second language in addition to their complete command
of first language. This process encouraged them to develop a multilingual
identity as they take pride in their new abilities, expanding their self concepts.
Belz encouraged students to use language play in multilingual interviews,
discourse and journals, and she found that it resulted in reflective modes of
expression. The learners in her study did not see themselves as deficient in the
second language but exhibited a growing sense of linguistic competence,
creativity and power.

Elkhafaifi’s (2005) study inspects the consequence of general foreign
language learning anxiety on students’ achievement in an Arabic course and of
listening anxiety on students’ listening comprehension. The outcome points out
that foreign language learning anxiety and listening anxiety are separate but
associated phenomena that both correlated negatively with achievement.

The study recommended that reducing student anxiety and providing a
reduced amount of stressful classroom atmosphere might help students to
develop both their listening comprehension proficiency as well as their overall
course performance. Thus, the listening process is easily interrupted by anxiety
and separately, listening tasks themselves may be basis for listening anxiety.
Noro (2006) shed light on the nature of listening anxiety by the qualitative examination of the data of Japanese college students, acquired both by a questionnaire and oral interviews. He unearthed the main sources of listening difficulties as rate of speech, vocabulary and pronunciation. Coping strategies in response to listening difficulties include asking for help, grasping the outline, guessing and changing attitudes to pay attention to the next word or phrase or not to worry too much. Irritation, lack of concentration, aversion, sense of resignation, and loss of self-confidence are affective reactions in the face of the listening difficulties. Thus, L2 learners must obviously grasp the listening anxiety which comes from the listening difficulty in speech recognition and the need to use surviving strategies.

Ramirez and Alonso (2007) in their study examined the effects that digital stories may have on the understanding of spoken English by a group of 6-year-old Spanish learners. Findings indicate that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the final test administered. These outcomes raise motivating issues related to the use of technology in the context of foreign language learning.

Another important affective issue is motivation. Kemp’s (2010) study about motivating autonomous learning showed how maintaining a listening log motivated learners to connect with and reflect on their familiarity as potential learning situations. Listening to what learners desire to listen to and wish for to try to comprehend might motivate them to listen with additional metacognitive strategies and to maintain on learning.

He pointed out keeping a listening log facilitates learners to observe their language maturity improved by developing schemata, motivation, metacognitive awareness and involvement in understanding.
The above evidence clearly shows that, efforts have been made by a number of researchers to identify the difficulties faced by ESL listeners. Also, some studies identified that the affective filter plays an important role in listening comprehension. However, training listeners with the affective filter for developing listening comprehension is not explored by any other researcher so far. Further, there is a need to explore the difficulties faced by ESL learners in Engineering colleges.

The present study is an attempt to identify the problems experienced by the second language learners in listening comprehension skill to find whether the mixed method of teaching listening with a base of the affective filter hypothesis theory improves the listening skill of the learners. It is hoped that findings would provide insights for the teaching and learning of listening comprehension skill.

Therefore, the affective filter of a foreign language deserves consideration. With respect to this assumption, this study attempts to find if listening training with affective filter has any effect on developing listening comprehension.

1.12 SELECTION OF INFORMANTS

The informants of this research were 110 first year circuit and non-circuit branch engineering students from a private engineering college which is affiliated to Anna University, Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India. The purposive sampling method was used to select the samples.

Purposive sampling was done by categorizing 198 students into two groups: 88 high level listening ability and 110 low level listening ability students based on the score of listening components of IELTS conducted in the class. 110 low listening ability students were selected for the study. All the selected informants had their school education in 10+2 stream. The informants are from
both the gender – male and female with varied cultural background. The participants had studied English for about twelve years in their school education.

1.13 QUALITATIVE / QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS PURSUED FOR THIS STUDY

Quantitative approach is used to measure the general tendency of a group; a qualitative and descriptive approach will disclose specific factors necessary for successful comprehension. Therefore this study has both qualitative and quantitative approaches to find the problems that exist among ESL learners in listening comprehension and to solve them.

The researcher used qualitative analyses to describe the survey of the students’ problems in listening comprehension using a questionnaire and a listening test for the diagnostic study. And for the main study the researcher used quantitative analyses to compare the pre-test and post-test scores of the listening test for both the control and experimental groups.

1.14 CHAPTER-WISE ELUCIDATION

1.14.1 Chapter I : Introduction

Chapter one presents the need for the study highlighting the importance of listening in English Language Teaching with regard to engineering education. It explains the importance of second language listening in language learning. Also it enumerates the relevance of ELT in India. The status of listening in language curriculum in engineering education is discussed. Previous studies on listening and other related fields are reviewed to support the present study. The objectives of the study, hypothesis proposed, methodology used,
various tests administered, selection of samples, and data collection are explained in this chapter.

1.14.2 Chapter II: Listening Comprehension Problems of ESL learners

Chapter two explains the method of constructing diagnostic tool for diagnosing the problems faced by second language learners in listening comprehension. This chapter further provides the data of the students and the areas of the problems faced by them in listening comprehension. This helps the researcher to design tasks based on the need of the students with the frame of the theory of the affective filter which is called the mixed method of imparting listening. This chapter gives a base for further step in the study.

1.14.3 Chapter III: Mixed Method of Teaching Listening

Chapter three elucidates the theory that servers as platform for designing the tasks. It explains the course module and the way the tasks were designed. This chapter explains the types of tasks used. It also sketches in detail the teaching method. It provides the information of how the video supported listening tasks help in teaching. Further, this goes on to explain how songs enhance the teaching of listening comprehension. The last part of this chapter explains how the tools were administered to elicit the data to evaluate the new method of imparting listening.

1.14.4 Chapter IV: Effects of strategy based instruction in developing listening comprehension skill.

Chapter four discusses the data elicited from the students. This chapter gives the results of the comparative analysis of the kinds of tasks and students’ performance. It provides the result of the overall performance of the students in listening comprehension. Also it compares the level of students before the
intervention and after the intervention. Further, this shows how far students have impact on the mixed method of imparting listening.

1.14.5 Chapter V: Conclusion

Chapter five forms the conclusion of the study. It proposes the implications for the teaching and learning of listening skill which enhances listening comprehension. This chapter further suggests new directions with a new dimension for further study.

1.15. CONCLUSION

The present chapter highlights the status of English in India. The concept of listening in English, imparting listening and Krashen’s Theory of affective filter in imparting English have been dealt with in detail. Further it specifies the need, aim and objectives, and the hypothesis formulated. The chapter also discusses the review and the related studies in the areas of teaching problems in listening, linguistics in listening and the affective factor.