CHAPTER II
CHAPTER – II

Listening skills, Computer and Review of Related Literature

This second chapter is divided into three major divisions, Section - A, Section – B and Section – C. Section – A gives additional vivid details on listening skills, its importance, its types, deterrents to the listening process, developing Active listening skills. It deals with definition, functions explained with suitable examples. Section – B gives elucidation of details of the term Computer, its usefulness as teaching – aid, its introduction to classrooms summary on Teaching – aid and its varieties and functions and the computers used in this research i.e. Computer and its functions. Section – C contains a review of related literature, and it gives a detailed account of similar researches conducted in the same field at International and National Levels.

SECTION – A

2.1 LISTENING SKILLS

Listening is a vital yet underestimated part of the communication process. Listening skills (or sometimes the lack of such skills) greatly influence many parts of our life such as the quality of our friendships, the cohesion of our family relationships, the effectiveness of our studying and later on, our working life( Halliday, M.A. and Hasan, R. 1996). Even at the level of simple information, many people do not listen well. Studies show that 75% of oral communication is ignored
or misunderstood. Even rarer is the ability to listen for the deepest meaning in what people say.

2.2 WHAT IS LISTENING?

We hear sounds around us, but often we hear them without really listening to them. So listening is different from hearing:

1. Hearing refers to the physical fact of receiving sounds; it is a passive act which happens even when we are asleep.

2. Listening on the other hand, is an active process which includes conscious effort. To listen we must not only hear, but also pay attention, understand and assimilate what we hear (Freedle and Kostin, 1989). Listening involves interaction. Have we sometimes felt that someone was hearing what we said without really listening?

Learning to listen is only achieved by a sustained and conscious effort. The more we try to listen, the more we will understand. The keys to listen are as follows,

1. Silence - to allow the other person to speak and be heard.

2. Concentration - to bring our entire mind to hear and understand what the other person is really saying. Our conscious effort to listen will bring positive results and a sense of achievement.
2.3 TYPES OF LISTENING

Listening can be classified into five types, depending on the message of the sender and the intent of the receiver. The five types (Lesikar, 2005) are as follows,

1. Informative Listening
2. Relationship Listening
3. Appreciate Listening
4. Critical Listening
5. Discriminative Listening.

2.3a. INFORMATIVE LISTENING

The listener is primarily concerned with understanding the message in this type of listening. In order to be more successful, listeners should hone their vocabulary, concentration and memorization skills.

2.3b RELATIONSHIP LISTENING

This type of listening refers to the improvement of relationship among people. It is the kind of listening where the listener allows the speaker to ‘ventilate mind ’, to talk out a problem or situation. In this type of listening, it is important to pay attention to the speaker, and to be supportive: to keep the message in confidence, and to not be judgmental. It is also important to glean whether the speaker wants the listeners to suggest a solution, or simply to listen. Sometimes the most important factor in listening is in order to develop or sustain a relationship(Bostrom,R.N.,1997). Relationship listening is also important in areas
such as negotiation and sales, where it is helpful if the other person likes us and trusts us.

2.3.c APPRECIATE LISTENING

This type of listening refers to the listening for enjoyment of it. Generally people spend more time on listening cassettes, CDs, presentations and concerts as well as much time listening to the media broadcast because we get information from this. We enjoy music. Many of us also enjoy a good comedy act. This message of the song or routine may not be important to us, but we like the musician, music, style or music style or comic. In this type, listening is a form of relaxation. In appreciative listening, we seek certain information which will appreciate, for example that which helps meet our needs and goals. We use appreciative listening when we are listening to good music, poetry or maybe even the stirring words of a great leader.

2.3.d CRITICAL LISTENING

In this type, one listens to form an opinion or make a decision. In forming an opinion or making a decision based on a message, we pay attention to three things: the speaker’s credibility, the logic of the argument, and the psychological appeal of the message (Bremer et al., 1996). If one of those areas is lacking, one may make the judgement based on that void.

When people listen critically, their goal, in addition to understanding and remembering, is to evaluate (assess, interpret) what they hear. Whereas, attentive
listening emphasizes nonverbal skills along with some verbal skills. Critical listening emphasizes critical thinking skills.

Like attentive listening, critical listening is related to asking questions. Listening attentively enables us to ask good questions of clarification; listening critically provides the basis for good probing questions. Listed here are four critical thinking skills and two critical listening skills. Remember that practice is the key to successfully incorporating these skills into our communication repertoire.

2.3.e. DISCRIMINATIVE LISTENING

In this type, one doesn’t mean excluding speakers based on any trait. It means that an ability to identify and filter verbal and non-verbal cues, to get to the bottom line of the message. As in the words of Dr.Kline, “This type of listening is the foundation to all other types of listening because one can use it to infer both the speaker’s message and their intentions. (Dr.Kline, 2007). Discriminative listening is the most basic type of listening, whereby the difference between difference sounds is identified. If listeners cannot hear differences, then they cannot make sense of the meaning that is expressed by such differences.

We learn to discriminate between sounds within our own language early, and later are unable to discriminate between the phonemes of other languages. This is one reason why a person from one country finds it difficult to speak another language perfectly, as they are unable distinguish the subtle sounds that are required in that language(Oller,J.W. 1979).
Likewise, a person who cannot hear the subtleties of emotional variation in another person's voice will be less likely to be able to discern the emotions the other person is experiencing (Cohen, A.D. 1997). Listening is a visual as well as auditory act, as we communicate much through body language. We thus also need to be able to discriminate between muscle and skeletal movements that signify different meanings.

2.4 WHY LISTENING SKILLS ARE IMPORTANT?

A person having good listening skills will be able to avoid misunderstandings. They will also be able to do things right the first time when they listen to the person effectively. Problems are solved quicker by being an ‘Active Listener’. Listening actively will show that we sincerely care. It is very high compliment when we listen to others, because it gives the speaker the sense of self worth and confidence. Listening helps people to develop knowledge. Nowadays, human community expose to the modern communicative gadgets like, Radio, Telephone, Television, Computer and Internet which connects us to the outer world.

We understand the immediate environment and the world in general. The more knowledge we gain in helps us to excel in our life style. Our marks, grades, ranks and subject interest are the results of our listening (Madhukar, 2001). Many jobs such as Telephone operators, nurses, doctors, auto mechanics, Teachers and Lawyers require good listening skills to get jobs and to lead successful career.
Though listening skills are very important for students and communicators, there are some deterrents in the process of listening which disturb a lot and cause confusion between speaker and listener and results in miscommunication (Henning, et al. 1987). It is important that everybody should know the possible deterrents so that they could be avoided during the communication process.

2.5 DETERRENTS IN LISTENING

When we hear, we only perceive sounds, but when we listen, this hearing is accompanied by a deliberate and purposeful act of the mind. To listen means to get meaning from what is heard. One may hear the words another person utters, without really understanding them. The possible listening deterrents are as follows:

2.5.a PHYSIOLOGICAL BARRIERS

Sometimes poor listening can be traced to hearing deficiencies. However, once these deficiencies are detected, they can usually be treated.

2.5.b SPEAKING-THINKING RATE

According to an estimate, we speak at an average of 125 to 150 words a minute. Our mind, however, can process nearly 500 words per minute. This gives listeners a good deal of spare time, which is often used for mental excursions ranging from daydreaming to thinking about the speaker’s hairstyle. Spending this time for analyzing the message would make for better listening.
2.6. ENVIRONMENTAL BARRIERS

Physical distractions

Anything that blocks or distorts the message that a speaker is trying to send across to the listener is a barrier to the communication process. These barriers can be sounds of traffic, machinery, a dance band, etc. Anything that turns the attention of the listener is a distraction(Weir, C. 1993). It may be environmental, a radio, or television playing or even the temperature of the room. Distracting sounds, poor acoustics, and uncomfortable seating arrangements can all hamper effective listening. But then it is not impossible to counter these distractions through concentration. When all our attention is focused on what is being said, the other noises take backseat in our consciousness. Of course, the noises are too powerful.

2.6.a MESSAGE OVERLOAD

When we are forced to listen to a quick succession of messages, then after a point our receptivity dulls. We find it gets impossible to listen attentively. Coping with a deluge of information is like juggling one can keep only a few things going at a time.

2.6.b ATTITUDINAL BARRIERS

Prejudices

Sometimes our prejudices and deep-seated beliefs make it impossible for us to be receptive to the speaker. For instance, when we have likes and dislikes we are not likely to give our views a fair hearing, because of our preconceived
attitudes (Ellis, R.C., 2002). To break down this barrier, we must achieve some control over our instinctive responses and learn to postpone judgment until we have listened to exactly what is being said. People who refuse to expose themselves to ideas that are different from their own are basically close-minded. An open-minded person does more listening than speaking. This person may hold an opinion, but will listen to another’s opinion. A good listener should be open-minded.

2.7. PREOCCUPATION & OVER EMPHASIZING

Sometimes we are preoccupied with other concerns. As students, all of us must have had days when we registered nothing of what was said in class, because our thoughts were on some other plans. Over emphasizing makes a listener influenced by their feelings about the speaker’s reputation and they don’t listen to what is said (Alderson, et.al, 1987). Some people listen only which is very easy for them to understand.

2.7.a. CASUAL ATTITUDE

Because hearing is relatively easy, we assume that we can do it without much concentration and effort. This attitude is often a major barrier to listening.

2.7. b. EGOCENTRISM

Many people are poor listeners, because they are overly concerned with themselves. Three personal concerns dominate their listening behavior. These can be summed up in three sentences:
1. I must defend my position.
2. I already know what we have to say.
3. How am I coming through?

These concerns set up effective barriers that destroy the critical link between speaker and listener.

2.8. POOR LISTENING HABITS

Listening, like much of human behavior, tends to follow consistent patterns. Most of us develop certain bad listening habits that eventually create a pattern. Four of the most common bad habits are (Scott et al. 1996) follows,

8.a Faking Attention: Many of us do fake attention so as to appear discourteous
8.b. Listening only for facts: In looking only for the facts, we often forget to locate the main idea.
8.c. Avoiding difficult and uninteresting material: Sometimes we switch off our attention when what is being said is difficult, unfamiliar, or simply uninteresting. If we do this often, this turning off becomes a consistent pattern.
8.d. Focusing on delivery: Sometimes we are so concerned with how some one says something that we pay scant attention to what he or she is actually saying.

2.9. FALSE LISTENING

False listening occurs where a person is pretending to listen but is not hearing anything that is being said. They may nod, smile and grunt in all the right places, but do not actually take in anything that is said.
This is a skill that may be finely honed by people who do a lot of inconsequential listening, such as politicians and royalty. Their goal with their audience is to make a good impression in very short space of time before they move on, never to talk to that person again (Hymes, P. H. 2002). It is also something practiced by couples, particularly where one side does most of the talking. However, the need for relationship here can lead to this being spotted and consequent conflict.

2.9. a. INITIAL LISTENING

Sometimes when we listen we hear the first few words and then start to think about what we want to say in return. We then look for a point at which we can interrupt. We are also not listening then as we are spending more time rehearsing what we are going to say about their initial point.

2.9.b. SELECTIVE LISTENING

Selective listening involves listening for particular things and ignoring others. We thus hear what we want to hear and pay little attention to 'extraneous' detail.

2.9.c PARTIAL LISTENING

Partial listening is what most of us do most of the time. We listen to the other person with the best of intent and then become distracted, either by stray thoughts or by something that the other person has said. We consequently dip inside our own heads for a short while as we figure out what they really mean or
formulate a question for them, before coming back into the room and starting to listen again.

This can be problematic when the other person has moved on and we are unable to pick up the threads of what is being said. We thus easily can fall into false listening, at least for a short while. This can be embarrassing, of course, if they suddenly ask our opinion. A tip here: own up, admitting that we had lost the thread of the conversation and asking them to repeat what was said.

Listening takes time or, more accurately, we have to take time to listen. A life filled with back-to-back commitments offers little leeway for listening. Similarly, a mind constantly buzzing with plans, dreams, schemes and anxieties is difficult to clear. Good listening requires the temporary suspension of all unrelated thoughts - a blank canvas. In order to become an effective listener, we have to learn to manage what goes on in our own mind.

Technology, for all its glorious gifts, has erected new barriers to listening. Face-to-face meetings and telephone conversations (priceless listening opportunities) are being replaced by email and the sterile anonymity of electronic meeting rooms. Other barriers to listening include:

1. Worry, fear, anger, grief, and depression
2. Individual bias and prejudice
3. Semantics and language differences
4. Noise and verbal clutter

2.10. HOW TO DEVELOP LISTENING SKILLS?

As in the words of Stephen Covey, “Listening is the most important skill in life (15, 1989). Listening is a process involving the reception and interpretation of messages spoken by others. A common misconception about listening is that it is easy. In fact, the opposite is true. Studies have shown that good listeners show increase in their physical activity when they are listening activity. Since the effectiveness of communication depends so heavily on good listening, it is important to develop our listening skills.

The following are the Ten Commandments (Davis, 1972) to develop good listening skills.

1. Stop talking when somebody presenting their presentation and lecture.
2. Create a comfortable climate for the speaker. Create a permissive, supportive climate in which the speaker will feel free to express themselves.
3. Establish the desire and interest to listen.
4. Remove possible distractions around. External preoccupation is less likely if nothing external is present to preoccupy.
5. Be empathetic, try to experience to some degree the feelings the speaker is experiencing.
6. Be patient. Give the speaker time to finish; don’t interrupt.
7. Hold down temper. Don’t let your emotions obstruct your thoughts.

8. Make arguments in easy way to ensure compatibility between self and speaker.

9. Ask questions to clear doubts, not to check knowledge the speaker.

10. Give constructive feedback which will keep some important points in our mind.

SECTION – B  COMPUTER AND ITS APPROACHES

2. LEARNING STYLES

Our senses are the gateways to acquire knowledge. The natural way of learning by children is principally through the employment of senses. As in the words of Sampath “Experience and research have shown that the following figures are generally valid”(Sampath, 1990). Students learn

1% through Taste
1.5% through Touch
3.5% through Smell
11% through Hearing
83% through Sight

Students remember

20% of what we Hear
30% of what we See
50% of what we See and Hear
80% of what we Say
90% of what we Say and Do
Learning by direct, concrete sensory experience would be the most ideal method to help the learner acquire complete knowledge. The learning stimuli that impinge upon our perception are mainly audio-visual. As the Chinese saying goes “A thousand hearing are not so effective as one seeing” (D.A Henry,)

Attention is greater if the stimuli sensations are clear, vivid and strong. The more vivid the perception, the more often the experience is repeated and the more deep seated is the modification more permanent and more efficient in retention, recall and remembering. Recently many innovations aiming at evolving more effective teaching have emerged. Since this study is related to the use of computer assisted teaching listening skills. It is more appropriate to explain the fundamentals of computer and Educational technology.

2.12. EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY

This term ‘Educational Technology’ means to a group of gadgets equipments such as using films, slides, television, Computer and using other materials. The other group believes that it is a programmed learning or some variation based on the behaviourists conditional model. The National Council of Educational Technology which was established in 1967 in the UK at its second meeting in October 1967, came out with a working definition of educational technology as “the development, application and evaluation of systems, techniques and aids to improve the process of human learning”(1973). When the emphasis is on the technology in education, it reflects the totality of the gadgets and mechanical aids or devices used in education. Thus, the term educational technology got limited to
the use of hardware, but this should not be identified with technology of education which is a science of improving the teaching as well as learning process. At that same time, how does these computer helps teacher in the classroom as a teaching aid is another important aspect because in a classroom “there are auditory learners, Visual learners and kinaesthetic learners” (Monippally, 2001).

There are many multimedia teaching-aids to teach a foreign language. They can be classified as follows,

1. Auditory Medium
2. Visual Medium
3. Audio- Visual Medium

**Auditory Medium**

These are the aids that can be heard. They include the radio, gramophone records and the tape recorder.

**Visual Medium**

These are the aids that can be seen. They include black board; pictures; charts; maps; flannel boards; film stripes; slide; epidiascope and objects.

**Audio – Visual Medium**

These are the aids that can be both heard and seen. They include Television, Motion Pictures and Computer.
SECTION – C  REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter, the investigator deals with the ‘Review of Related Literature’ which means reviewing the earlier researches as it is related to the present study. The purpose of this chapter is to record briefly a few research studies carried out in India as well as in other countries and present some concepts on the studies on listening skills and use of computer in developing listening skills.

2.13 RESEARCHES CONDUCTED IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

An attempt in this section is made to review the studies available to the investigator, made by foreign authors. The investigator had surveyed a few research studies conducted in foreign countries at post graduation as well as doctoral levels. The investigator had utilised the web-surfing facility for this purpose, there is a website called –http/ www/research abstract/English/links through which one can have an idea about the researches done in foreign countries.

Mamah Deku; Prosper; Vincent; 2011; ‘University Teachers’ Perception of Inclusion of LSRM skills in Ghanaian Universities’ This study was undertaken to examine the university teachers' perception of including students the public universities of Ghana. The sample consisted of 110 teachers from the University of Cape Coast (UCC); the University of Education; Winneba; (UEW); and the University of Ghana (UG). Data were collected through questionnaire developed by the researchers (Chronbach's coefficient Alpha of .76). One research question and two hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. The data were
analyzed employing descriptive statistics; t-tests and ANOVA. The results showed that teachers perception toward inclusion of students.

Gale; Elaine; Trief ; 2010; ‘The Use of Video Analysis in a Personnel Preparation Program for Students’ Video analysis affords the observer the opportunity to capture and analyze videos of teaching practices; so that the observer can review; analyze; and synthesize specific examples of teaching in authentic classroom settings. The student teaching experience is the prime opportunity during the personnel preparation program in which student teachers have the opportunity to practice the skills they acquired from all the course work and field observations they completed during the program. The use of video analysis as a tool for documenting and evaluating the performance of student teachers during their student teaching placements is one powerful tool for providing feedback and allowing student teachers to reflect on their performance with children in the classroom. This tool can be used to isolate individual moments of teaching excellence; which then can be shared with other student teachers to promote best practices.

Ying Ying Huang; 2010; ‘Design and Evaluation of 3D Multimodal Virtual Environments to develop Listening skills for Visually Impaired People’ Spatial information presented visually is not easily accessible to visually impaired users. Current technologies, such as screen readers, cannot intuitively convey spatial layout or structure. This lack of overview is an obstacle for a visually impaired user, both when using the computer individually for skills development and when collaborating with other users.
Richard Baltander; 2009; ‘Education, Labour Market and skills development for the Deaf/Hearing Impaired and the Blind/Visually Impaired’ Return to Education for the Deaf/Hearing Impaired and the Blind/Visually Impaired, 1991-2000 Mincer-equations are estimated for the deaf/hearing impaired and the blind/visually impaired. The results show that the estimates of the coefficient for the education variable are lower than for a comparison group, and that for several years it is not statistically significant that education for the blind/visually impaired has a positive effect on labour income.

Georgios D.; Katsoulis; Philippos; 2008; ‘Sharing Best Practices for Teachers of the Visually Impaired/Exceptional Child Education’ Presented is a collection of teacher developed materials and techniques for instruction of LSRW for school level. Included are ideas for general instruction; specific suggestions for teaching ways to fasten things; a visual acuity testing method; and educational planning aides.

Alexander; 2007; Chalmers University of Technology; ‘Adaptation of skills for Hyperactive children Interaction in a virtual reality environment often implies situations of illusory self-motion, like, for example, in flight or driving scenarios. Striving for pictorial realism, currently available motion simulators often exhibit relatively poor sound design.

Ajuwon; Paul M.; Craig; Christopher J; 2007; ‘Distance Education in the Preparation of Teachers to train LSRW Skills : Profile of a New Training
Paradigm’ The authors discuss the establishment of a program at a state university that prepared teachers of the school and orientation and mobility (O&M) specialists using distance education and intensive; face-to-face instruction. The authors evaluated the self-assessed competencies of 8 participants who completed prescribed TVI and O&M courses and noted that the participants reported significant gains in applying several competencies. The authors make recommendations for further investigations of the competencies in which participants expressed limited knowledge and skills.

Lewis; Sandra; Corn; Anne L.. 2003; ‘Strategies Used by teachers to hone listening skills for Visually Impaired Teachers of Students’ Fourteen teachers of students with visual impairments who were visually impaired themselves were either interviewed in a focus group or observed in their itinerant or resource room settings. Issues of transportation; access to information; assessment; and instructional responsibilities were addressed. Participants reported that while barriers to assessment could be overcome; transportation and planning presented the greatest challenges.

Abner; Gerald H.; Lahm; Elizabeth A.; 2002; ‘Implementation of Assistive Technology in teaching LSRW for slow learners’. It is a survey to identify assistive technologies currently used by their students and to identify teachers' training needs. Although teachers had access to and used computer-based technologies; they lacked training and support for teaching specific technologies to their students; so only half the students used these technologies. The central purpose of this study is to contribute to our knowledge of designing in a way that can be supported by the knowledge of the situation, and by the
experience and expectations of those who are affected by design. In this case it means to enable us to find methods that can support the development of design actions to improve the accessibility of public open urban places for visually impaired persons, enhancing their perception and understanding of space, increasing their possibilities of orientating and taking independent decisions, and enabling them participate in the city life.

Kirchner; Corinne; Diament; Sara; 1999; ‘Estimates of the Number of Visually Impaired Students; Their Teachers; and Orientation and Alternate Communicative skills’ Discusses lack of data on children with visual impairments and development of the National Plan for Training Personnel to Serve Children with Blindness and Low Vision (NPTP) to address personnel shortages and to conduct a needs assessment. The NPTP estimate of 93,000 students with visual impairments is analyzed.

Allman; C. B; 1998; ‘Braille Communication Skills: What Teachers Teach and Visually Impaired Adults Use’ This study compared which braille-related communication skills 233 teachers of students with visual impairments taught and which 531 adults with visual impairments actually used. Teachers taught use of Braille writers; computers; audiocassette recorders; and typewriters; but rarely taught use of slates and styli and sighted readers' services; which were often used by visually impaired adults.

J Subba Rao; T. A.; Reddy; O. R; 1998; ‘Efficacy of Short Term Training in Education of Slow learning Children’ A one-week inservice
program on slow learning theories was provided to 24 teachers of students with slow skills in India. Emphasis was on community based rehabilitation and the teaching of children with mental retardation who also have visual impairment. Testing revealed participants had gained knowledge and their evaluations indicated they found the program useful. (DB)

Seitz; J. A; Aug 1994; ‘Developing Communication skills: A Study of First-Year Teachers at college level’. This article presents results of a study of the first-year teaching experience of 103 teachers of students in Illinois. The study identified needs of beginning teachers and offered recommendations for universities and school districts to curb these teachers' high rate of attrition.

Hass; Julia; 1994; ‘Role Determinants of English Language Teachers of the upper primary students’ A survey of 40 resource room or itinerant teachers of students at upper primary students in British Columbia state (Canada) gathered information concerning teacher training/experience; caseload characteristics; nature of service to students with multiple disabilities; contact with parents and other professionals; and teaching activities.

Shaw; R.; Nye; J; 1993; ‘An Off-Campus College Program to teach communicative skills for Visually Impaired Students’ An off-campus training program for rehabilitation teachers of the visually impaired in rural areas was cosponsored by Dominican College and the New York State Commission for the Blind and Visually Handicapped. A unique feature of the program was the use of on-site rehabilitation teachers as adjunct faculty.
Trent; S. D; 1992; ‘Teachers’ training for teaching LSRW for Rural Tennessee students’ A Tennessee program awards stipends to teachers to attend summer classes and a practicum and earn 18 hours of credit in education of children. The program requires that teachers have assurance from their superintendents that they will teach rural students in their school systems after endorsement.

M. Harley; R. K.; May 1991; ‘A Rural Program to Train Teachers of Visually Impaired Children’ A program developed by George Peabody College (Tennessee) to increase the supply and quality of teachers of visually impaired children in rural areas involves recruiting regular and special education teachers currently residing in rural areas; restructuring class schedules to allow teachers to remain fully employed; and rural practicum experiences that highlight competencies specific to rural areas.

Sanspree; M. J.; May 1991; ‘The LSRW Skills Outreach Project: A Pilot Project to Train Teachers in Alabama’. This article describes the Vision Outreach Project--a pilot project of the University of Alabama at Birmingham for training teachers. The project produced video modules to provide distance education in rural and urban areas. The modules can be used to complete degree requirements or in-service training and continuing education.

Harley; Randall K.;1990; ‘Future Directions in Training Teachers of for College Level Students’ Discusses future directions for training teachers of students. based on relevant literature and the history of teacher preparation at
George Peabody College (Tennessee). Two issues are examined: how to train enough teachers and how to provide the necessary competencies for teaching children with various abilities.

McLinden; D. J; 1990; ‘Effective communicative Teaching for Teachers at college level.’ Through qualitative and quantitative research; beliefs of 16 exemplary teachers of visually impaired children were organized into higher order constructs and analyzed. The study found that successful teaching requires the educator to balance the demands of the internal classroom environment and the external environment made up of faculty; administrators; and parents. (Author/JDD) Descriptors: Beliefs; Classroom Environment; Influences; Instructional Effectiveness; Performance Factors; Special Education Teachers; Success; Teacher Attitudes; Teacher Effectiveness; Teaching Styles.

Swallow; Rose-Marie; 1990; ‘The Future of Training Programs for English language Teachers for skill development’. This article delineates several problems confronting preparation programs for teachers explores possible remedial actions. The basic premise is that personnel preparation needs in traditional; inflexible training programs. Six recommendations for changes and five goals for personnel preparation reform are offered. (Author/PB) Descriptors: Educational Change; Educational Improvement; Higher Education; Inservice Teacher Education; Lifelong Learning; Preservice Teacher Education; Program Effectiveness; Teacher Education Curriculum.
Tweto-Johnson; Linda; Oct 1986; ‘Certification for Teachers of Preuniversity students: A Rural Teacher Training Project’. Describes the goal of a 2-year vision teacher training project is to provide the coursework instruction and student teaching opportunities necessary for Oregon certification as teacher. The program was designed in response to several conditions affecting services for visually impaired students living in seven eastern Oregon counties: (1) nationwide shortage of teachers for the visually impaired; (2) population sparsity--50 visually impaired students scattered within 28,000 square miles; (3) geographic and climatic barriers affecting teacher recruitment and retention; (4) lack of certified vision teacher applicants from Oregon universities or out-of-state programs; and (5) absence of locally accessible certification and training programs.

Hornby; Garry; 1985; ‘Training Teachers for LSRW Skills Development: The New Zealand Situation’ The program for preparation of teachers in Auckland Teachers' College is based on a training model which focuses on multidisciplinary collaboration; parent-school cooperation; and the use of technological advances. Similarities between New Zealand and British Columbia are noted; and implications of the Auckland program are discussed.

Crawford; Frances; 1983; ‘Training Guide for Teachers of Special Adult Learners’ This guide presents; in syllabus form; an outline training program for rehabilitation teachers; supervisors; and related staff to provide educational information and experience-oriented training in innovative techniques of teaching legally blind adults. It begins with a checklist of points to remember in
teaching blind and visually impaired adults and a list of criteria to be considered for assessment of individual needs. Outlines are provided for seven topics in three main training areas: communications (braille reading readiness; braille reading; and writing); home management (nutrition and meal preparation; home care; and furnishings); and personal management (personal care and grooming; clothing and wardrobe planning; money management). This information is presented for each topic: objectives; identification of the problem; outline of instruction; equipment needed; techniques; and performance criteria. An appendix contains a list of materials in the training kit provided to each workshop participant; a listing of types of local resources that may be used for further information and assistance in areas of home and personal management; a list of Pennsylvania and national resource agencies; and a list of additional resources and references. (YLB)

Skrtic; Thomas M; Feb 1982; ‘Modification of Attitudes of Regular Education Preservice Teachers. The study compared the effectiveness of two intervention strategies on the attitudes of 53 regular education preservice teachers toward special students. The importance of personal contact with special students in attitude interventions for preservice teachers is stressed.

Kapperman; Gaylen; Sticken; 2003 (Summary of Investigation relating to Grammar Language and Composition, 1976, University of Cairo) analyzed the types of errors committed in listening found by investigators who had conducted studies among university students in Kansas City, Bonham, Texas, Columbia, Missouri, Detroit, Hibbing, Minnesota, New Jersey and Pittsburg. He shows that 0 to 1 % of the errors are due to confusion of prepositions and conjunctions.
Marta Dischinger, 2001; (Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching, 1993, Oklahoma State University) analysed a total of 1112 themes written by 147 pupils of grade IX and found that of the grammatical errors committed by the pupils 15.4% involved listening skills.

Berger E. John (A Critical Study of the Listening Errors of Junior High Schools Pupils, 1962, University of Berkeley) asked 29000 pupils of Junior High Schools in Los Angeles to listen to an audio text played in a digital tape recorder and conducted a comprehension test. On an analysis of 750 of these papers, she found three types of common errors with regard to listening skills,

1. Confusion on homophones
2. Lacking comprehension skills.
3. Poor understanding of parts of speech.

Jonas; 1984 (Thai Difficulties in learning English sounds, 1984, University of Thai) conducted a diagnostic test with three parts were administered to 159 students: 40 Thai; 48 Japanese; 28 Spanish and 43 others. The skill tested was listening competency. The analysis showed that there was significant difference in the group of total scores; all four groups had difficulty with listening and reproducing the English sounds. There were no items that were specifically ‘Thai’ problems, rather their problems with listening were shared by all groups. A contrastive analysis via a translation task provided information on how English and Thai prepositions differ. The results showed that while English and Thai phonetic systems contrast in many ways and predictions can be based on these
contrasts, error analysis was just as effective in showing problems for Thai students have with English prepositions.

**Mitte S’carethe** investigated the adjective errors in listening component of Chinese college students (A Study of Adjective errors in the listening of Chinese College Students in Xenbug, 2003, University of Zenithser.) . The investigation focused on the errors in adjectives committed by the Chinese college students of Taiwan. A sample of 100 English sentences with 157 listening comprehension test papers written by the English major students at Tamkang University in Taiwan was analyzed. In the 100 sentences all occurrences of the adjectives were identified and classified. Then the 157 papers were scanned. Both absolute and relative frequencies of the error were calculated and compared. In comparing some aspects of adjective functions between Chinese and English, it was found that since Chinese students learn not Chinese grammar but English grammar in high school, the adjectives errors made by the Chinese college students were due largely to the ‘under teaching’ rather than mother tongue interference.

K. M.; Strumwasser; K. Paige; 1987 attempted an interlanguage analysis of listening (An Analysis of errors in listening English, 1986, Pennsylvania University, USA). This study explored the types of errors committed by the adult ESL learners made in an acquisition poor environment and the causes. The study was conducted with 353 subjects selected from the sample of 800 high schools and university students in Japan. They took four kinds of elicitation tests: three
judgmental and one productive. The data revealed that the Japanese adult learners committed errors in co-occurrence, word-order, under extension, over extension and substitution. The overall results demonstrated that semantic constraints were more influential than syntactic constraints in the interlanguage development on those tested. These findings showed that attention could be given to the concept of listening and the functional knowledge of active listening habit.

2.14 RESEARCHES CONDUCTED IN INDIA

The researcher has surveyed a few researches conducted at Ph.D and M.Phil level in the University of Madras, Bharathiar University, Bharathidasan University, Annamalai University and Madurai Kamaraj University in Tamilnadu. The researcher has also utilized ‘Web-Surfing’ facility to get the information about the researches done at the national level.

Aravind S; 2008; ‘The Impact of the Perspectives of Teachers and Parents on the Literacy Media Selections for Independent Study of Students’

This study explored the choices of literacy media for independent study of students. The predictors that were taken into account were teachers’ use of technology; experience in teaching; and mastery and the knowledge of LSRW of students; parents; and close friends.

Mishra; 2002 ‘The Role of Orientation and Mobility Instructors and Rehabilitation Teachers in Enhancing Employment Opportunities for Students’ This article discusses the unique contribution of orientation and mobility instructors and rehabilitation teachers in enhancing employment opportunities for individuals. The ability of these professionals to complement
the counselor's role by identifying consumer's interests in employment is explained and case examples are provided.

Carlton; 2001; ‘Preparation of Teachers of Students via Distance Education: Perceptions of Teachers’ This study examined perceptions of 12 students of a distance education training program in teaching students. Participants discussed their experiences with courses delivered via interactive video; over the Internet; and by live instructors. Participants had a strong preference for interaction with the instructor and other students.

Shikha Chandra; 2001; ‘Activity Based Learning for College Level Students’ aims to attract more children into schools, to provide then an effective and joyful experience and to help them achieve acceptable level of learning. ABL approach is the core classroom innovation in order to introduce more child centered participatory and group oriented methods. This approach helps the children to learn easily and at the same time develop the weaker student.

Mani; 1997; ‘Development of low cost functional assessment kit and studying the relationship between Listening activity and Writing activity’. In this study 321 students were randomly selected in the state of Tamilnadu. The areas which are considered as vital in the assessment of the reading preference of a child are a) Slow learning b) poor acquisition skills.

Venkat Rao; 1994; ‘Cognitive and Metacognitive Interventions: Important Trends for Teachers of Students at college level’ This article
addresses teaching students in metacognitive learning strategies to improve their academic performance. Topics discussed include intrinsic motivation and self-concept; structuring and activating schemata; using cognitive modeling and verbal self-instructional procedures; teaching self-regulatory procedures; and promoting strategy acquisition; proficiency; maintenance; and generalization.

Hal.A; 1992 ‘A Study of students acceptance, worthiness, anxiety and participation in Developing language Skills’ reported differences in students on acceptance, worthiness, anxiety and participation. Despite these limitations the students do point to special needs, for example, counseling of students and families in improving adjustments in required.

Chandradoss Samson; 1992; ‘Development and tryout of programmed Learning Instructional Material in learning communicative skills. Finding of this study programmed learning instructional material in English is more effective to the children in integrated Education Programme in schools and compared to the conventional method of teaching.

Narayan C; Dec 1990; ‘Microcomputers and Access Technology in Programs for students’ This article presents a framework for incorporating microcomputer technology into programs preparing teachers of school level students. The article outlines objectives and approaches to achieving the objectives; lists equipment needed; and stresses the importance of teacher educators' positive attitudes toward technology.
Ebaneswar; 1988; ‘A Study on the difficulties encountered by children in the integrated education programs and in the schools’, recommends in the training programs, a specific attention must be given for training the teachers on different teaching methodologies. All the regular teachers must be oriented to the social problems involved in language learning.

Bannerjee. N; 1988; ‘A Study of Adjustment Related to Second Language Acquisition’ investigated the adjustment of students in secondary school. More students were found to be maladjusted. Nearly one in few students have a moderate level of maladjustment with home environment, school environment. The percentage of children maladjustments to home environment was one and a half times more than the school environment.

Armjeth Singh; 1987; ‘A Study on Achievement of students in second language acquisition’ expressed the need to reform teacher preparation programs. Implications of this report for preparation of teachers are discussed; focusing on a five-year training program; three levels of educational licenses; professional entry examinations; strengthened ties between universities and schools; and positive work environments for teachers.

Kaur.D; 1987; ‘Supervisors Perception of Time Allocation by Teachers of school level ’ Comparison of perceptions of 41 supervisors and 39 teachers of students concerning time spent on six different teacher job components (travel; administration; direct instruction; pre assessment consultation; post assessment consultation; in-service training) found no significant differences between the two groups.
Alex; 1986; ‘Recruitment of Teachers of Specially Talented Children: A Quest for Excellence’. The projected severe shortage of teachers of visually-impaired learners necessitates the mobilization of educational leaders and parents to recruit undergraduate majors; examine the current selection standards; strengthen support of undergraduate training programs; garner financial support for undergraduate students; and market the profession to gifted and talented youth.

Albert M. Bernadette; 1974; ‘LISTENING: A Curriculum Guide for Teachers of College level Students’ Presented for teachers of students is a curriculum guide focusing on listening skills. The guide provides hierarchically arranged long range goals and short term objectives for skills in auditory reception; auditory discrimination; auditory memory; auditory sequential memory; auditory closure; auditory association; and auditory comprehension. Each objective is accompanied by information on procedures for identifying level of placement and developmental activities and materials.

Even in pioneered institutions, focus on listening skills is a hot potato because of plan, implementation and evaluation. In this research, the investigator throws lights on various possibilities to test listening skills at various levels so that specific coaching is possible to hone the listening skills. In this research, the investigator created audio files which can be played in computer enabled audio system. Evaluation takes place after students expose to the audio information. Each lesson takes a different evaluation sheet such as fill in the blanks, comprehension questions, objective type and analytical questions. The responses from this test will be taken for analysis.