CHAPTER - I

INTRODUCTION
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

MEANING OF EDUCATION

Education is primarily concerned with individual growth and social development. The purpose of education is to make manifest the inherent potentialities of an individual and to provide a formative effect on his/her personality. Such a view of education will include all sorts of experiences - intellectual, emotional and sensori-motor. Being a product of experience, education is the process by which and through which the experiences of the race, comprising knowledge, skills and attitudes are transmitted to individuals who are members of the race. John Dewey speaks of education as that "reconstruction or reorganization of experience which adds to the meaning of experience and which increases ability to direct the course of subsequent experiences."

Education is as old as the human race, though in course of time its meaning, objectives and scope have inevitably undergone certain changes. Concepts change, attitudes and skills undergo alterations, appreciations, interests and values face revisions, and life itself involves a continuous modification of experience. In this context, education is the process of assisting the learner to adjust to this ever-changing world.

Educational adjustment is conditioned by the demands of the society in which the learner lives and to which he/she should be attuned. The most remarkable feature of modern society is its technological attainment. This advancement has its inevitable bearing on the social, cultural and fiscal aspects of life. In accordance with this rapid change, the Indian Education Commission (1964-66) observes that 'education must serve as a powerful instrument of social, economic and cultural transformation necessary for the realization of the national goals.'

Modernisation has affected very much the system of education. There has been a great explosion of knowledge recently and one of the most important tasks of education is to keep pace with this progress. Knowledge can no more be received passively but to be discovered actively. Along with the knowledge explosion, there is another factor namely population explosion which decides the pattern of life. India is one among the foremost countries of the world which are afflicted by this problem of population
explosion. Coupled with this problem is illiteracy. About half of the world’s population is totally illiterate and India is no exception to this pattern. In order to obliterately this problem, a logical solution would be an increase in the number of teachers. However, this quantitative change alone cannot be a complete solution in this context.

Technology can help us to solve the problems which obviously emanate from knowledge explosion, population explosion and illiteracy. The aims of educational technology are two-fold: to improve the quality of education which is already available and to make education more widely available. Besides being qualitative and quantitative in its outlook and approaches, educational technology tends to broaden the process of education. In the words of Sir John Adams, education is a bipolar process, the two poles being the teacher and the student. Technology of education goes beyond this and views the concept of education to be three-fold, the third aspect being the use of technological instruments. Thus, teaching is more than mere communication of knowledge and it is rather the process of guiding the development of students with the help of instruments. The modern teacher is no longer an active player but a facilitator transmitting knowledge and fostering skills and attitudes.

Educational philosophy and educational psychology are sciences and teaching is an art. As William James observed, “Sciences never generate arts directly out of themselves; an intermediary inventive mind must make the application by the use of its originality.” Therefore, the future of education depends on the quality of the intermediary inventive minds of teachers and their ability to invent and innovate. It is in this context the role of educational technology assumes great importance.

CONCEPT OF EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY

Eric Ashby (1967) identified four revolutions in education: the formation of schools as centres for educating young children and youth, the adoption of the written word as a tool of education, the invention of the printing press and the development in electronics. Educational technology implies an approach that makes use of pertinent scientific and technological methods and concepts developed in philosophy, psychology, sociology, linguistics, communications, management studies and related fields. Educational technology as a concept does not necessarily imply the use of machines and hardware as mandatory but it involves such media, equipment and resources whenever
needed for effectiveness and efficiency. In short, educational technology includes “the
development, application and evaluation of systems, techniques and aids in the field of
learning.”

Definitions of Educational Technology

The concept of educational technology encompasses a bipartite arrangement of
‘technology of education’ and ‘technology in education’. Technology of education is the
base sector which deals with the study of principles, theories, concepts and methods in
the instructional process, whereas technology in education refers to the study of use of
different media such as audio-visual aids, television and computer to make the
instructional process more efficient and effective. Focussing this bipartite arrangement,
several experts and institutions have come out with several definitions of the term
Educational Technology. The following are some of the widely accepted definitions.

UNESCO specialists (1969) define educational technology as “a science of
techniques and methods by which educational goals could be realized. It is not primarily
concerned with the task of prescribing the goal. It is concerned with the
development, application and evaluation of systems, techniques and aids to improve the
process of human learning. It is a communication process resulting from the adoption
of the scientific method to the behavioural science of teaching-learning. The process
may or may not require the use of extending media (i.e. broadcasting, television, film and
other audio-video media).”

The report of the National Centre for Programmed Learning, UK (1971) states
that “educational technology is the application of scientific knowledge about learning and
the conditions of learning to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of teaching and
training. In the absence of scientifically established principles, educational technology
implements techniques of empirically testing to improve learning situations.”

According to Gases (1971), “Educational technology has to be seen as a part of a
persistent and complex endeavour of bringing pupils, teachers and technical means
together in an effective way.”
Encyclopedia of Education (1971) defines educational technology as “a purposeful combination or separation of objects, techniques, devices, events and relationships to increase the effectiveness of the educational process.”

The Technology Committee of the Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT) (1972) explains thus: “Educational technology is a field involved in the facilitation of human learning through the systematic identification, development, organisation and utilisation of a full range of learning resources, and through the management of the process. It includes, but is not limited to, the development of these instructional systems, identification of the existing resources, the delivery of resources to the learners, and the management of these process and the people who perform them. Its functions are shared in varying degrees by all who are concerned with its purpose, the facilitation of human learning. However, a reasonably clear uniqueness of and a boundary for the field can be defined in terms of the dominant beliefs and special approaches of its practitioners.”

The definition given by the National Council for Educational Technology (1973) states: “Educational technology means the development, application and evaluation of three different things: (i) techniques, (ii) systems and (iii) aids to improve the process of human learning.”

John Leedham (1973) offered a definition of the term ‘educational technology’ by giving a special consideration to the adaptive role of the teacher. According to him, “educational technology concerns the systematic use of modern methods and technologies in teaching and learning. It involves teachers in a variety of roles, some of which are traditional, some still emerging.” He observed that during the development of programmed learning, closed circuit television and computer aided instruction, the role of the teachers, however varied, has been the critical one in determining the effectiveness of learning. One of the major purposes of studying educational technology is certainly to draw out the capabilities of individual teachers and it seems unrealistic to accept any definition which does not include the role of the teacher. It is almost agreed by all that the earlier attempts to use teaching machines effectively failed just because they were employed more as an alternative to the presence of a teacher than an extension of his/her capabilities.
Some more definitions of educational technology are as follows:

The report of the Technical Working Group for Educational Technology in Asia under APEID (1975) states thus: “Educational technology is seen both as a means as well as service to effect and facilitate better and productive learning systems. It is an integral part of both formal and non-formal education. One aspect of educational technology is related to the use of specific techniques such as educational television, radio, programmed learning and other audio-visual aids. In another aspect, educational technology is seen as the application of scientific and other organised knowledge to the practical problems of education. In the particular contexts of developing countries, the emphasis is on the application of techniques and knowledge with a view to mobilising and optimising the available human as well as technological resources.”

In the report of the OECD (1976), educational technology is explained as “not a bag of mechanical tricks but the organised design and implementation of learning systems, taking advantage of but not expecting miracles from modern communication methods, visual aids, classroom organisation and teaching methods.”

UNESCO/UNDP (1976) defines educational technology “as a separate field in the theory of education dealing with the development and application of the use of educational resources. In detail, it implies the following principles:

1. Clear educational objectives;
2. Logical order of the elements of the content;
3. Structure of the teaching-learning process;
4. Development of ‘models’ leading to the acquisition of knowledge;
5. Introduction of feedback with the teaching-learning process;
6. Media selection and criteria of media selection (also evaluation and optimisation);
7. Development of equipment that meets educational, economic, aesthetic and technical demands;
8. Study of the effectiveness of hardware and software in practical situations; and
9. Various approaches to effectiveness in educational systems.
The Fontana Dictionary of Modern Thoughts (1978) elaborates the term further: “The use of apparatus and machines, language laboratories, films, slides, tape-recorders, television, radio, video-tape and the still cameras extend the teacher’s range of effectiveness. In addition, computers have provided a powerful aid over a wide range. Critics of educational technology warn that while in skilled hands it may be valuable, casual workers may find the machines unexpectedly awkward to work and that teachers must not let the machines dominate their teaching responsibility. Its supporters argue that it is intended as an aid and not a substitute for teaching and that in any case children are going to grow up in a technological world and should learn how to use and evaluate technological techniques.

The International Encyclopedia of Educational Technology (1996) explains educational technology as “a problem-solving process, concerning most aspects of teaching and learning through media and technology, in the context of education and training. Problems may arise in sub-domains of education such as curriculum, instruction and learning, methods and media, organisation and management. In developing solutions, use will be made of many technologies in the narrower meaning of the word - educational aspects and applications of information and communication technology.”

To make the discussion more clear, it is better to know what answer Collier (1976) has given to the question: “What is educational technology?” He quotes a book on educational technology thus: “This book is not about audio-visual aids. My aim is not to promote television. Educational technology is not to be confused with electronic gadgetry. Educational technology is as wide as education itself; it is concerned with the design and evaluation of curriculum and learning experiences and with the problems of implementing and renovating them. Essentially, it is a rational problem-solving approach to education, a way of thinking skeptically and systematically about learning and teaching.”

Technology and Humanism

Some of the observers of the educational scene have argued that the widespread use of educational technology in the classroom must lead to treating students as if they too are machines rather than human beings - i.e. educational technology dehumanises the teaching-learning process. A study of the foregoing definitions point to a contrary view
that educational technology, if properly used, can individualise and humanise the teaching-learning process to a degree hitherto undreamt of. The danger of dehumanisation lies not in the use of educational technology but in the way in which teachers perceive their students.

Jackson (1968) states that “the greatest intellectual challenge of our time is not how to design machines that behave more and more like humans, but rather, how to protect humans from being treated more and more like machines.” He goes on to clarify what he means by human machinisation: “The process by which people are treated mechanically, that is without giving thought to what is going on inside them.”

The question is not so much what is used in the classroom as how are students treated. A corollary of this statement is that it is not so much what a teacher teaches but how a teacher teaches. To reiterate, educational technology does not preclude a humane teaching-learning environment. On the contrary, educational technology can help provide a learning atmosphere in which students actively participate, as individual human beings, in the learning process. When educational technology is used properly and creatively in the classroom, it is the machines that are turned on and off at will - not the students.

TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN INDIA

The developmental history of teaching of English in India may be divided into the following seven periods:

(i) The Earliest Period (1765 - 1813)
(ii) The Charter Period (1813 - 1834)
(iii) The Period of Macaulay’s Minutes (1834 - 1853)
(iv) The Period of Wood’s Despatch (1854 - 1881)
(v) The Period of Commissions (1882 - 1934)
(vi) The Period of Nationalism and Independence (1935 - 1965)
(vii) The Revival Period (1965 onwards)

The Earliest Period: The British came here as traders but in course of time became the rulers. They had lost a few colonies in America by imparting English education. So, they were reluctant to start institutions that would teach their language to the people of
this country. However, they opened institutions of classical learning, namely Calcutta Madarassa (1781) and Benaras Sanskrit College (1791).

**The Charter Period:** The Charter of the East India Company was renewed in 1813 with an education clause appended to it. Oriental education was opposed by a section of Indians themselves and leaders like R.M. Roy demanded English education.

**The Period of Macaulay's Minutes:** The famous Minutes recommended Western learning for Indians through English as the medium of instruction. Gradually, schools and colleges offering English education came into existence.

**The Period of Wood's Despatch:** The number of English medium schools and colleges increased by leaps and bounds and the Indian languages began to be neglected.

**The Period of Commissions:** The Education Commissions of 1882, 1902 and 1919 made attempts to adjust the claims of English and the Indian languages by assigning to them different spheres of activity in education.

**The Period of Nationalism and Independence:** The need for a national language and the suitability of the mother tongue as medium of instruction were felt and necessary changes as to suit these sentiments were made in this period of transition.

**The Period of Revival:** Though the vernacular is the medium of instruction in most of the Government-run and Government-aided schools in each state of the nation, English has begun to retain its lost grandeur. The children of almost the entire upper class families and a majority of the middle class families study in English medium schools. Parents crave for English medium instruction for their children and this tendency has led to a mushroom growth of English medium schools all over India.

Along with the change in the position of English language in India, the teaching of English also underwent certain changes. These changes were in the objectives, methods and materials of language teaching.

During the early periods, the Grammar-Translation Method was more prevalent. Emphasis was on formal grammar teaching. Later, translation as a method was replaced by the Direct Method. Importance was now given to oral work. Formal grammar teaching began to be replaced by the inductive method of teaching grammar. The use of
the mother tongue in the English classroom was restricted. During the fifties, an important change took place in the form of the Structural Method to language teaching. Grading of structures, vocabulary control, oral and situational presentation and drilling were the salient features of this approach. In the later eighties and earlier nineties, the Communicative Approach replaced the Structural Approach. The personal function of revealing oneself, the direct utterance with the listener, the phatic communion, the referential utterance and the creative use of language are the functional features of the Communicative Approach.

PLACE OF ENGLISH IN SCHOOL CURRICULUM

In a multilingual nation like India, where there are over 1500 languages and dialects in use, bilinguality or trilinguality in education and governance seems inevitable. Fortunately or unfortunately English has stood the test of time as far as Indian political conditions are concerned. It is hoped that it would be the lingua franca for a long period to come. For this and other obvious reasons, our students ought to attain a satisfactory degree of proficiency in English.

For several hundred years, English has functioned as a common language for this country. But prior to independence, the rulers of the country had to make certain decisions about the uses of English and those of the Indian languages.

Lord Macaulay, in his famous Minutes (1835), suggested the use of English in education. For him, the basic objective seemed to be “the revival and improvement of literature” and “the promotion of the knowledge of the sciences.” However, he realised the impossibility of educating millions of Indians through English. He felt that there should be a small class of Indians who could refine the Indian languages and make them fit vehicles for the transmission of Western knowledge and scientific attitude among the Indian people. Yet, this small elite group was to receive Western knowledge through the Western language - English.

Though Macaulay’s Minutes decided the content and medium of education, the problem of the dissemination of education remained unsolved for two decades. Sir Charles Wood’s Despatch (1854) recommended that while English could be a suitable medium at the higher levels of education, the medium of instruction would have to be through the vernacular at the lower levels. In spite of this recommendation, the
secondary schools adopted English as the medium of instruction and entry to the tertiary level depended on a sound knowledge of English. This situation led to starting of a number of secondary schools and colleges in urban India and neglect of primary education in villages. So, the Hunter Education Commission (1882) recommended that priority should be given to primary education through the vernacular. Lord Curzon’s Resolution (1904) called for the extension of primary education to be the responsibility of the state. But the belief that the selected elite who had a knowledge of English would transform the Western knowledge into the vernacular and the growing demand for English education gave the study of English undue importance and it became the sole medium of instruction. Neglecting the study of the vernacular, English dominated the entire curriculum.

With the introduction of diarchy at the provincial level in 1921, education passed on to the hands of the elected representatives of the people. The major change that took place then was the adoption of the modern Indian languages as the media of instruction at the secondary school level. English was associated with the British government and with the rise of the freedom movement, there was a rise against the foreign governance, goods and language. At the wake of the independence, it was felt that India must have her own national language. In the Constitution it was provided that Hindi would replace English as the national language. With this, English was dethroned from its position as the sole language of the government and came to be considered as the associate official language and as the second language of instruction. A policy of universalisation of primary education was adopted and education at the primary and the secondary levels began to be offered through the regional languages. This resulted in the admission of very large number of students from all walks of life to educational institutions.

At this crucial juncture, it was recognised that English would be called upon to play a more restricted and more specialised role than it had been assigned. Though it would not be the dominant language, it would be irreplaceable in at least some of its functions. For, in India English is something more than a foreign language and something less than a second language. This is rather a unique position occupied by English and, according to Nehru (1963), “obviously, without going into the merits of various foreign languages, English is more convenient for us than French, German, Russian or Spanish........ Apart from the fact that English has a background in India.
which should be nourished and the fact that English is a very important and very great language spoken by a great many people all over the world, it is clear that if we want a foreign language, English in the circumstances, is the most convenient one for us.”

In this context, it is pertinent to recall the distinction made by Albert Marckwardt (1965) between ‘English as a foreign language’ and ‘English as a second language’. According to him, when English is “taught as a school subject or on an adult level solely for the purpose of giving the student a foreign-language competence which he may use in one of several ways,” then it is taught as a foreign language. But English becomes a second language when it is a language of instruction in schools and colleges and is used as “a *lingua franca* between speakers of widely diverse languages, as in India.”

Wilkins (1974) makes the same distinction when he says: “It is common to use the foreign language to refer to the status of a language which is not used for any normal day-to-day social interaction in the country where it is being learnt, and, by contrast, to use the second language, where, without being the native language of any social group in the country, it is nonetheless used for such purposes as the conduct of commerce, industry, law, administration, politics and education.”

Soon after the independence, many states reduced the number of years given to the teaching of English at the primary and the secondary levels, in the conviction that English would ultimately disappear from the country. Today, it has been felt in many cases that English is useful, or even necessary, for the development of the country. However, the number of years at the primary and the secondary levels and the number of hours in the time-table with regard to the teaching-learning of English have not been increased.

Though English is taught as a second language in all the secondary and higher secondary schools, the teaching of English language is taking place almost through the regional language. When a student comes to college from a vernacular school, his/her greatest difficulty is in adjusting himself/herself to the medium of instruction which is still English. Many college teachers are forced to use the mother tongue, even though they are supposed to teach through English. If some teachers refuse to use any language other than English, they cannot communicate with their students.
The large classes, inadequate time and the poor standards of students impose severe restrictions on the teacher. He/She cannot give his/her students sufficient practice in the use of English. The English teacher’s main concern seems to be to cover the syllabus within the time available. The students are concerned only with the passages to be memorised and reproduced in the examination. In such a situation, there is hardly any chance for the student to learn the language.

The situation has been causing some concern to the planners of education in general and to the administrators and teachers in particular in this country. As already suggested, the usefulness of English is no longer in question. The problem is one of finding the ways and means of disseminating the learning of English among the millions who are being drawn into our educational system, and thus opening up for them the doors to much of the knowledge available to modern man as well as most of the coveted occupations and vocations in a modern society.

According to Gokak (1961), “the problem had to be tackled in three directions. Educational authorities had to be made to realise the need of the hour through suitable publications so that they could set the machinery in motion for the required change. A course of training had to be evolved for the lecturers in teacher-training colleges and basic training schools, for lecturers in arts and science colleges and for secondary teachers as well, so that the proper perspective could be established for the teaching of English at all levels. A great deal of research had also to be carried out into the particular problems of teaching English to Indian students and of reshaping the courses current in high schools and colleges.”

The Kothari Commission (1966) in its report asserted: “For a successful completion of the first degree course, a student should possess an adequate command of English, be able to express himself with reasonable ease and felicity, understand lectures in it, and avail himself of its literature. Therefore, adequate emphasis will have to be laid on its study as a language right from the school stage.”

The Official Languages Commission (1967) pointed out that “English is the key to the storehouse of knowledge not yet available in the Indian languages and as a window to the rapid progress of technology and scientific knowledge that is constantly taking place in the world.”
The Government of India constituted a Study Group to go into the problems of the teaching of English in the country. The report of this Study Group (1971) stated that "new commitments and new courses are necessary to halt the deterioration of standards on the one hand and to introduce much-needed improvements on the other. All these things require a strong complex of 'feeder' institutions. Basic even to minor improvements in a system are such requirements as pure and applied research, adequate teacher training, both short-term and long-term, good materials for teachers and learners, and classroom equipment."

Since 1985, three documents stating policies and plans in the field of education have been published. The Ministry of Education (Government of India), in their first document (1985) make it clear that in an information-rich and technologically-intensive society the focus should shift from teacher-centred programmes to learner-centred ones which should be organised to develop in the learners the ability 'to learn how to learn'. Much is not said about language teaching-learning in this document. The second document (1986) states that the earlier policy of development of languages will be implemented energetically and purposefully. The third document (1986) has a full chapter on language teaching and development. According to this document, the new National Policy of Education emphasizes, among other things, improvement in the linguistic competence of students at different levels of education and provision of facilities for study of English and other languages.

Through the realisation that English has certain inherent advantages and the compulsions of learning it were no longer merely political but scientific and technological, new materials for the teaching of English began to be produced for use at the primary and the secondary stages of education. The emphasis has shifted from English teaching to English language teaching. The production of course books and other text-books have been based on the recommendations of the New Education Policy (1986). This national policy recognises the needs of the student community and brings to the fore the necessity of preparing need-based courses rather than generalised courses to a motley crowd of learners of varying degrees of ability and aptitude. To sum up, it may be said that the present materials indicate areas which should receive emphasis in the course of teaching prose lessons, poems or communicative tasks. It is, however, unfortunate that the teachers of English have not been adequately trained to produce any
multiplier effect, nor technology has been sufficiently exploited to provide effective and efficient education process to the learners individually and in packed classrooms.

TEACHING OF ENGLISH AT THE HIGHER SECONDARY LEVEL

Until the Higher Secondary Course (HSC) was introduced as part of school education, the primary schools offered a five year curriculum followed by five or six years of instruction - the number varied from one state to another - in the secondary schools. In the seventies, the Government of India suggested a uniform 10 + 2 pattern to be implemented nationwide, in which pattern the erstwhile pre-university (one year) or pre-degree (two year) courses would have to be abolished and a two-year higher secondary course would be introduced by upgrading the existing secondary schools as higher secondary schools. In the state of Tamil Nadu, the higher secondary education was introduced in the year 1978.

As per the provisions of the HSC in Tamil Nadu, a student who passes the Secondary School Leaving Certificate (SSLC) examination or the Matriculation examination (both administered at the end of 10 years of schooling) is eligible to pursue the HSC. This course of study consists of three parts, of which the first two are languages and the third one is either a four subject combination group or a vocational group. Under Part I, he/she is study one of the languages from among the list of the vernacular Tamil, Malayalam, Telugu, Kannada or the national language Hindi or the classical Sanskrit or Urdu or the foreign language French. Under Part II, he/she is study English. From this scheme, it is obvious that English as a second language is mandatory for all the students who join the HSC in the state of Tamil Nadu. In this part of the country, the teaching of English starts from Standard III. Teachers who do not possess a degree in English language and literature, i.e. the non-specialists, teach English unto Standard X. But, at the higher secondary stage, trained post-graduates in English teach the language in Standard XI and XII.

At the higher secondary stage, Part II - English has an allocation of 4 periods per week in the 40-period time-table. Many studies have indicated the dissatisfaction of the language teachers of this stage with regard to this poor and insufficient time allocation.

The Government of Tamil Nadu brings out text-books to be followed uniformly from Standard I to Standard XII throughout the state and the neighbouring Pondicherry.
These text-books are written as per the guidelines suggested in the syllabus, an extract of which is given in the Appendix 1. Since the introduction of the HSC, the text-books, including the English text-books, have been introduced /changed thrice. There are separate English course books and supplementary readers for Standard XI and XII. The course books consist of a collection of six or seven prose pieces and an anthology of six or seven poems. The prose lessons are varied in nature - short essays, stories, letters and one-act plays. A few grammatical items and communicative tasks are presented at the end of each prose lesson. The poetry section comprises both traditional and modern poems. The supplementary readers are usually collections of six or seven short-stories in their original form or in an abridged version if it is a long narrative or a novel. The work-books which form part of the course book contain a lot of exercises so as to help the language teacher to exploit the materials. These exercises pertain to speech practice, grammar, communicative tasks and composition.

As far as the evaluation scheme is concerned, there are two papers at the end of each year for a maximum of 100 and 80 marks respectively. In addition to these two papers, a continuous assessment of aural-oral and communicative skills is done for a maximum of 20 marks. The first year written papers are administered at the district level whereas the second year papers, at the state level. The aural-oral skills testing is a recent feature introduced in the HSC Examination from the year 1996.

**OBJECTIVES OF TEACHING ENGLISH AT THE HIGHER SECONDARY LEVEL**

The HSC is designed to give the students such competence in English as to enable them to comprehend spoken and written English in various learning situations, to communicate in simple modern English accurately and effectively and to be aware of the basic requirements of competitive examinations in the language. The following are the objectives of teaching English at the higher secondary level:

(a) **Listening:**

The course will enable the students to

(i) listen with fair comprehension to English, spoken clearly about ordinary topics;
(ii) comprehend English, spoken clearly about a specialist topic of which the vocabulary is known;
(iii) develop an interest in listening to speeches in English and viewing programmes of educative value in English.

(a) Speaking:

The students will be able to

(i) make suitable responses, verbal and non-verbal, to utterances in simple, and familiar English and to make short and simple contributions to a discussion;
(ii) read aloud original passages (e.g. a fully-prepared report or a news-item);
(iii) speak coherently.

(a) Reading:

The course will enable the students to

(iii) understand the structure of information in a given text;
(iv) determine the role of the lexical structure in it (e.g. how synonyms contribute to the meaning of the text; why particular lexical choices make up the text; what nuances the key-words have in the text);
(v) develop rapid reading of easy texts;
(vi) acquire the habit of reading texts of general interest;
(vii) prepare themselves for the reading of texts important to specialist studies.

(a) Writing:

The students will be able to

(i) write simple pieces of English of general usefulness (e.g. letters of different kinds, telegraphic messages, reports, etc.);
(ii) write English for purposes of study (e.g. note-making, summarising, describing a process, etc.);
(iii) express an idea in a single paragraph of reasonable length;
(iv) compose an essay of about 200 words on a given topic of social / personal / scientific interest, etc.
Reference:
The students will be able to use their reference skills by
(i) looking up the meaning and various aspects of words in a dictionary;
(ii) finding out required information from an encyclopedia;
(iii) making notes on a given topic / theme with the help of library books.

Appreciation:
The course will enable the students to
(i) develop their appreciation skill through a few poems within their ranges of language and experience;
(ii) comment on the ideas expressed in the selected poems given in the textbook.

Interpretation:
The students will be able to
(i) comprehend a few common modes of graphic presentation of data and information (e.g. maps, pie-graphs, bar-charts, histograms, line-graphs) and interpret them;
(ii) understand and explain the message in a display / classified advertisement;
(iii) interpret the data presented in a tabular form.

The importance of the development of listening comprehension skills in the overall language-learning process is now generally recognized. Wherever English is learned as a second language, the curriculum planners and the evaluation experts have, in recent years, introduced an element of listening into their programmes. Teachers themselves have come to appreciate the value of developing their students’ listening comprehension skills not merely so that they can pass examinations but also for more general application when they wish to use their English in the outside world.
TAXONOMY OF LISTENING SKILLS

Taxonomies of micro-skills involved in different types of listening are developed from a variety of sources, including needs analysis, discourse analysis and research studies. In his classic article on listening comprehension, Richards (1983) has suggested that the following are required for conversational listening:

1. ability to retain chunks of language of different lengths for short periods;
2. ability to discriminate among the distinctive sounds of the target language;
3. ability to recognize the stress patterns of words;
4. ability to recognize the rhythmic structure of English;
5. ability to recognize the functions of stress and intonation to signal the information structure of utterances;
6. ability to identify words in stressed and unstressed positions;
7. ability to recognize reduced forms of words;
8. ability to distinguish word boundaries;
9. ability to recognize typical word order patterns in the target language;
10. ability to recognize vocabulary used in core conversational topics;
11. ability to detect key words (i.e. those which identify topics and propositions);
12. ability to guess the meanings of words from the contexts in which they occur;
13. ability to recognize grammatical word classes (parts of speech);
14. ability to recognize major syntactic patterns and devices;
15. ability to recognize cohesive devices in spoken discourse;
16. ability to recognize elliptical forms of grammatical units and sentences;
17. ability to detect sentence constituents;
18. ability to distinguish between major and minor constituents;
19. ability to detect meanings expressed in different grammatical forms/sentence types (i.e. that a particular meaning may be expressed in different ways);
20. ability to recognize the communicative functions of utterances according to situations, participants, goals;
21. ability to reconstruct or infer situations, goals, participants, procedures;
22. ability to use real world knowledge and experience to work out purposes, goals, settings, procedures;
23. ability to predict outcomes from events described;
24. ability to infer links and connections between events;
25. ability to deduce causes and effects from events;
26. ability to distinguish between literal and implied meanings;
27. ability to identify and reconstruct topics and coherent structure from ongoing discourse involving two or more speakers;
28. ability to recognize markers of coherence in discourse, and to detect such relations as main idea, supporting idea, given information, new information, generalization, exemplification;
29. ability to process speech at different rates;
30. ability to process speech containing pauses, errors, corrections;
31. ability to make use of facial, paralinguistic, and other clues to work out meanings;
32. ability to adjust listening strategies to different kinds of listener purposes or goals; and
33. ability to signal comprehension or lack of comprehension, verbally and non-verbally.

Richards has also noted that diagnostic testing or detailed analysis of results of proficiency tests allows particular micro-skills to be further operationalized. According to him, the following are important micro-skills which are relevant to academic listening:

1. ability to identify purpose and scope of lecture;
2. ability to identify topic of lecture and follow topic development;
3. ability to identify relationships among units within discourse (e.g., major ideas, generalizations, hypotheses, supporting ideas, examples);
4. ability to identify role of discourse markers in signaling structure of a lecture (e.g., conjunctions, adverbs, gambits, routines);
5. ability to infer relationships (e.g., cause, effect, conclusion);
6. ability to recognize key lexical items related to subject/topic;
7. ability to deduce meanings of words from context;
8. ability to recognize markers of cohesion;
9. ability to recognize function of intonation to signal information structure (e.g., pitch, volume, pace, key);
10. ability to detect attitude of speaker toward subject matter;
11. ability to follow different moods of lecturing: spoken, audio, audio-visual;
12. ability to follow lecture despite differences in accent and speed;
13. familiarity with different styles of lecturing: formal, conversational and unplanned;
14. familiarity with different registers: written versus colloquial;
15. ability to recognize irrelevant matter: jokes, digressions, meanderings;
16. ability to recognize function of non-verbal cues as markers of emphasis and attitude;
17. knowledge of classroom conventions (e.g., turn taking, clarification, requests); and
18. ability to recognize instructional/learner tasks (e.g., warnings, suggestions, recommendations, advice, instructions).

From Richards' Taxonomy of Listening Skills, the following micro-skills have been picked and chosen for the purpose of this study and categorized under two heads viz. local listening comprehension and global listening comprehension. Those individual listening abilities which are considered to require only the comprehension of specific items are classified under local listening comprehension and those abilities which enable the listener to understand the overall meaning are classified under global listening comprehension. It should be noted here that one set of micro-skills are not independent of the other. The micro-skills which have been classified as the abilities to develop local listening comprehension lead, with cumulative effect, to global listening comprehension.

MEDIA IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

The psychologist Jerome Bruner, in developing a ‘theory of instruction’ proposes that the instruction provided to a learner should proceed from direct experience, through iconic representations of experience (as in pictures, films, etc.), through symbolic, or digital, representation (as in words). He further states that “the sequence in which a learner encounters materials has a direct effect on achievement of mastery of the task.” When a learning task is presented to learners who have no relevant experiences on which to draw, learning is facilitated for them when instruction follows a sequence from actual
experience through iconic, to symbolic representations. Concrete experiences facilitate learning and the acquisition, retention and usability of abstract symbols. Media not only provide the necessary concrete experiences but also help students integrate their past experiences.

Media can serve many roles in teaching-learning situations. The teaching may be dependent upon the presence of a teacher, referred to as ‘teacher-based instruction’. Even in this situation, media may be heavily used by the teacher. On the other hand, the situation may not require the presence of a teacher when the student is learning, referred to as ‘teacher-independent instruction’. This kind of learning is known as ‘self-learning’ even though it is guided by whoever designed the media.

Teacher-based Instruction

The most popular use of media in this kind of situation is for supplemental support of the teacher. There is no doubt that properly designed instructional media can enhance and promote learning and support teacher-based instruction. But the effectiveness of media depends on the teacher. In the study conducted by Walter Wittich and Fowlkes (1946), it was known that when teachers introduced films, relating them to learning objectives, the amount of information students gained from films increased. The findings similar to this early study were confirmed and expanded by later research. Ausubel (1968), for example, developed the concept of ‘advance organizers’ as aids to effective teaching. These can be effective instruments for ensuring that media play their proper role as supplemental supporters of teaching. Many commercially produced materials today have built-in advance organizers, which may be used by the teacher for specific educational purposes.

Teacher-independent Instruction

Media can be effectively used where a teacher is not available or is working with other students. The use of self-instructional materials allows teachers to spend more of their time diagnosing and correcting student problems. Though educational technology cannot or should not replace the teacher, it can help teachers become creative managers of learning experience rather than mere dispensers of information.
Audio-visual Media in Education

Audio-visual media can have an active role in the transfer of knowledge and provide different types of motivation to students. According to Susie Rodwell (1978), "seen in their proper context, audio-visual aids are selected not purely to stimulate interest and motivate learning but as a structural and integral approach to instruction." The close identification of the media with the curriculum appears to be a crucial factor in their successful use in education. Tucker (1986) states: "If teachers can see media as a sine qua non, in the same way that they have for generations regarded the text-book, then there will be a greater chance of offering the learners those means and methods which are most suitable for their needs at any time."

Kemp (1986) examined the main benefits to be derived from audio-visual aids, concentrating on their contribution to meeting teaching goals and reported:

1. Audio-visual aids increase the rate of learning and at the same time free the teacher to use more time on gainful activities.
2. They individualise education, provide alternative paths and a variety of sources, thus enabling learning to take place at the learner pace.
3. Learning becomes real and immediate; the two worlds within and outside the classroom are bridged.
4. The aids make access to education more equal for all learners.
5. They give instructions a more scientific base through providing a framework for systematic instructional planning.

Use of Audio-visual Aids in Language Teaching

Effective teaching is possible only with appropriate aids. This is perhaps more true of teaching a second language than of teaching one's own mother-tongue. These aids are visual, audio or audio-visual. The blackboard, flash cards and different kinds of charts are conventional aids and they have their own importance and indispensability in the teaching of a second language. Slide projectors, film projectors, opaque projectors or epidiascopes and overhead projectors are some other visual aids. They are useful for making a language lesson vivid and clear. Radio-sets, tape-recorders, television and computer are high technological aids which have rapid and efficient ways of teaching a second language.
For the teaching of English as a second language, radio-sets and television can be of great help. Through these media, the services of a good teacher can be made available to a large number of students at the same time. National and regional broadcasts of English lessons can be attended by the students throughout the country. A good practice in listening comprehension can be easily gained. These media bring realism to the classroom which cannot otherwise be attained easily. Moreover, the radio and television lessons serve as supplementary material to the teaching of the language in so far as the students get not only an opportunity to listen to English being spoken in varying contexts and situations but also a taste of the culture of the native speakers.

The tape-recorder has a very important use in that it enables the students to listen to their own voices. Besides, it can be used for oral work leading to the elimination of personal faults in pronunciation, intonation and rhythm. The same recorded material can be used several times to illustrate different points. The tape-recorder can be used from the elementary stage for dictation to the higher stages for comprehension tests. With the help of a recorder, poetry and drama can be taught with ease and delight.

The increasing use of audio-visual aids in teaching a second language is based on the modern audio-lingual theory which stresses a listening-speaking-reading-writing sequence. The theory insists that learning to speak a new language becomes easier if enough listening comprehension is provided. Gerald Newmark and Edward Diller emphasize planned listening experiences on the following grounds:

1. Ear-training facilitates speaking. Articulation depends on hearing the sounds accurately.

2. Concentration on one skill at a time facilitates learning by reducing the load on the student.

3. When a student is required to speak from the outset, the likelihood of errors is increased. Where listening comprehension precedes speaking, his initial experience includes more correct responses and more frequent positive reinforcement, less apprehension and more rapid development of confidence in his language learning ability.

4. A high incidence of poor teachers only increases the waste of student time and so good teachers, good materials and audio-visual aids are an indispensable condition for a successful programme in second language teaching.
AUDIO-VIDEO PRESENTATION

Over recent years recorded material of some kind has generally formed the basis of most listening comprehension activities. Audio recordings on cassettes, radio and television programmes - live as well as recorded 'off air' - on cassettes/tapes, video recordings on tapes etc. are materials used in English Classes. The uses of audio and video media are limited only by the imagination of teachers and students. They can be used in all phases of instruction: from introduction of a concept to evaluation of student learning.

The advantages of audio-video presentation are manifold. A much wider variety of listening experiences can be brought to the students. They might listen to a speech, a news-item, a conversation between two or three people and an announcement. They can hear different speakers, with different accents, speaking at different speeds. The students get opportunities to hear native speakers of the language and, sometimes, fluent non-native speakers. For practice purposes, the recordings behave like an infinitely patient speaker who will repeat and repeat without varying the words, intonation or tone. The teachers can plan and prepare the whole listening activity before arriving at the class. With the audio-video recordings, students may be able to work alone and in their own time. The most rapidly growing general use of audio and video media today is in the area of self-paced instruction and in 'mastery learning.' The slow student can go back and repeat segments of instruction as often as necessary and the accelerated student can skip ahead or increase the pace of his learning.

Media-based Non-interactive Group Instruction

Due to financial constraints and other reasons as want of time, self-paced instruction through audio and video media remains an impossibility at the school level in the developing countries. As an alternative, audio and video materials are used for group listening and group viewing. For instance, the educational broadcasts of the All India Radio and the UGC programmes, the IGNOU programmes and the regional educational programmes telecast by the Doordarshan fulfill the needs of the Indian students in the form of media-based non-interactive group instruction.
Whilst there are advantages in the use of audio and video media, there are also good reasons for the teacher fulfilling the role of speaker on many occasions, and even for students to take a turn at being the speaker. The speaker can be seen, and so the listeners have all the non-verbal clues available to help them decipher the message. However, this advantage is available in video media where the facial expressions, the gestures and the movement of the head and body are seen at the time of listening. Yet, experienced teachers are particularly skilled at adjusting the level of difficulty as they go along if they see that their listeners are having problems. They can increase the length of pauses, they can add explanations, they can use simpler words, and so on.

Despite some of the advantages of teacher-based presentation of listening contexts, this method may not be adequate in second language learning situations. English being a foreign language and almost all the teachers of English in our country are non-native speakers of the language, the teacher-oriented instructional strategy cannot meet the challenges of teaching the phonological and cultural aspects of English. A mixture of audio-video materials and teacher-based instruction will provide the best mix of listening for students, and will bring them the range of listening experiences which is so important in developing their skills. Keeping all these points in view, the investigator designs this instructional strategy wherein the teacher's classroom instruction is supported and supplemented by an inevitable intervention of audio-video materials.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

The revised syllabus for standards XI and XII of the State Board Schools has underscored the needs and importance of developing aural-oral skills of the students at this stage. The syllabus which has come into force with effect from July, 1995 has stated, in clear-cut terms, that the Higher Secondary Course should enable the students to listen with fair comprehension to English spoken clearly about ordinary topics, comprehend English spoken clearly about a specialist topic of which the vocabulary is known, develop an interest in listening to speeches in English and viewing programmes of educative value, make suitable responses - verbal and non-verbal - to utterances in simple and familiar English and to make short and simple
contributions to a discussion, read aloud such original passages as a fully-prepared report and a news-item and speak coherently. Based on these objectives, text-books have been prepared and introduced in July 1995 for Standard XI and in June 1996 for Standard XII. The text-books contain, among other things, teaching-learning packages in the area of listening comprehension.

The syllabus has also suggested an introduction of audio-video instruction with such technological materials as pre-recorded cassettes and live as well as recorded educational programmes and news-bulletins on AIR, DD and BBC.

Besides these innovative changes, the Directorate of Government Examinations has envisaged a scheme of evaluation in which the students would be assessed for 20 marks (out of 200 in Part II - English) in listening, speaking and communication skills.

All these changes and the widespread opinion that the students passing out of the Higher Secondary Stage lack in fluency in spoken English have added to the worries of the English teacher. The diffidence of the students, especially the average and slow learners, results from difficulties in understanding the phonemic, phonological and supra-segmental-phonetic features of English. Recent studies in L2 learning have called for the need to develop the listening capabilities of students in order to facilitate fluency in speech. Here comes the audio-video instructional strategy which would be a handy tool of the language teacher in realizing the instructional objectives set forth in the syllabus, particularly in the areas of listening, speaking and communication. Thanks to Educational Technology in general and Audio-Video Instructional Technology in particular, the English teacher is much assisted in this direction.

A few studies indicate that motivation to learn a target language can be increased by making use of technological hardware and software. Under these circumstances, the present study assumes importance in exploring the unexplored potentialities of the audio-video packages as a tool in solving the problems faced by teachers, particularly English teachers at Higher Secondary stage.
STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

An assessment of the effects of audio-video materials in listening comprehension is arduous and complex, since there is a lack of reference points for evaluation. There is considerable debate around about the generalized effects of television and tape-recorders on pupils' social, psychological and linguistic behaviour. It is indeed unfortunate that there is no conceptual framework available in order to evaluate the relevance of results obtained in a technologically saturated environment compared to those obtained in a technologically scarce one. It is imperative to ascertain whether audio-video intervention is effective in different cultural contexts, for different social groups, for males and females and in different subjects at different educational levels in different socio-cultural settings. Information pertaining to the long term consequences of audio-video materials in developing listening comprehension should also be obtained. A study with clearly specified theoretical objectives and their practical implications could take such ideas into consideration. In consonance with these sentiments, the present study in “Effectiveness of Audio-Video Intervention in Developing Listening Comprehension in English at Higher Secondary Stage” was taken up.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of the study are as follows:-

1. To establish the relative effectiveness among the different instructional strategies viz. Conventional Teaching Method (CTM), Media-based Non-interactive Group Instruction (MNGI) and AV Presentation as a Support System (SS) in developing Listening Comprehension in English at Higher Secondary stage.

2. To find out whether there is significant difference among the different instructional strategies viz. Conventional Teaching Method (CTM), Media-based Non-interactive Group Instruction (MNGI) and AV Presentation as a Support System (SS) in terms of their effectiveness in modifying the micro-skills which are required for local listening comprehension among the Higher Secondary students.

3. To find out whether there is significant difference among the different instructional strategies viz Conventional Teaching Method (CTM), Media-based Non-interactive
Group Instruction (MNGI) and AV Presentation as a Support System (SS) in terms of their effectiveness in modifying the micro-skills which are required for global listening comprehension among the Higher Secondary students.

4. To develop syllabus based audio-video materials in developing Listening Comprehension in English among the students at the Higher Secondary stage.

5. To develop audio-video materials for testing and assessing the performance of the Higher Secondary students in Listening Comprehension in English before and after experimentation.

6. To evaluate the developed audio-video materials from technical and pedagogical points of view by experts, educationists and practising teachers of English.

7. To find out whether there is any significant difference among different instructional strategies viz. Conventional Teaching Method, Media-based Non-interactive Group Instruction and AV presentation as Support System in their effectiveness in terms of their retention of micro-skills required for local listening comprehension in English as revealed by the learners' performance in the retention test.

8. To find out whether there is any significant difference among different instructional strategies viz. Conventional Teaching Method, Media-based Non-interactive Group Instruction and AV presentation as Support System in their effectiveness in terms of their retention of micro-skills required for global listening comprehension in English as revealed by the learners' performance in the retention test.

9. To find out whether there is significant difference with regard to students' academic achievement in English before and after experimentation owing to the intervention of AV presentation in developing Listening Comprehension skills of the Higher Secondary students.
**HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY**

The hypotheses of the study are as follows:

1. There is significant difference between the means of pre- and post-test scores of the groups of different instructional strategies viz. Conventional Teaching Method, Media-based Non-interactive Group Instruction and AV Presentation as Support System on the skill of Listening Comprehension in English at the Higher Secondary stage.

2. There is significant difference between the means of pre- and post-test scores of the groups of different instructional strategies viz. Conventional Teaching Method, Media-based Non-interactive Group Instruction and AV Presentation as Support system on different micro-skills of listening comprehension in English.

3. There is significant difference between the means of pre- and post-test scores of the groups of different instructional strategies viz. CTM, MNGI and AVPSS on the skills of Local Listening Comprehension and Global Listening Comprehension in English at the higher secondary stage.

4. There is significant difference among different instructional strategies viz. Conventional Teaching Method, Media-based Group Instructional Strategy and AV Presentation as Support System in their effectiveness in modifying the skill of listening comprehension in English among higher secondary students.

5. There is significant difference among different instructional strategies viz. CTM, MNGI and AVPSS in their effectiveness in modifying the skills of local listening comprehension and global listening comprehension in English among higher secondary students.

6. There is significant difference among different instructional strategies viz. Conventional Teaching Method, Media-based Non-interactive Group Instruction and AV Presentation as Support System with regard to their effectiveness in modifying the micro-skills which are required for local listening comprehension in English among higher secondary students.

7. There is significant difference among different instructional strategies viz. Conventional Teaching Method, Media-based Non-interactive Group Instruction and AV
8. There is significant difference among different instructional strategies viz. Conventional Teaching Method, Media-based Non-interactive Group Instruction and AV Presentation as Support System in their effectiveness in modifying the micro-skills required for global listening comprehension in English among higher secondary students.

9. There is significant difference among different instructional strategies viz. Conventional Teaching Method, Media-based Non-interactive Group Instruction and AV Presentation as Support System in their effectiveness in terms of retention of the skill of Listening Comprehension in English as revealed by the learners' performance in the retention test.

10. There is significant difference among different instructional strategies viz. Conventional Teaching Method, Media-based Non-interactive Group Instruction and AV Presentation as Support System in their effectiveness in terms of retention of the skill of local listening comprehension in English as revealed by the learner's performance in the retention test.

11. There is significant difference among different instructional strategies viz. Conventional Teaching Method, Media-based Non-interactive Group Instruction and AV Presentation as Support System in their effectiveness in terms of retention of micro-skills required for local listening comprehension in English as revealed by the learners' performance in the retention test.

12. There is significant difference among different instructional strategies viz. Conventional Teaching Method, Media-based Non-interactive Group Instruction and AV Presentation as Support System in their effectiveness in terms of retention of the skill of global listening comprehension in English as revealed by the learners' performance in the retention test.

13. There is significant difference among different instructional strategies viz. Conventional Teaching Method, Media-based Non-interactive Group Instruction and AV Presentation as Support System in enhancing the retention of the micro-skills of the global listening comprehension in English as revealed by the learners' performance in the retention test.
TOOLS USED IN THE STUDY

The tools used in this study are as follows:

1. Syllabus-based audio cassettes in listening and speech practice areas viz. vowels, diphthongs, consonants, initial consonant clusters, final consonant clusters, stress and stress patterns, falling intonation, rising intonation, falling-rising intonation and stress shift developed by the investigator.

2. Syllabus-based as well as syllabus free audio cassettes in the area of listening comprehension viz. news-items, short talks, conversation, interviews and story telling developed by the investigator.

3. Syllabus-based as well as syllabus-free audio/video cassettes in the area of listening comprehension viz. news telecasts, talks and conversation developed by the investigator.

4. Audio cassettes developed by the investigator covering all the micro-skills of listening for administering the pre- and post-tests to the subjects of the experimental groups.

5. Three objective based paper-pencil tests, covering the selected micro-skills of listening, developed by the investigator.

All the above said tools have been evaluated by practising teachers and experts in English Language Teaching. The AIR, DD and BBC newscasts were considered to be on par with standardised tools.

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

In order to test the hypotheses spelt out, 'Pre-test - Post-test Non-equated Groups Design' was found to be the most relevant and appropriate method in this study. Three identical groups, each of 35 eleventh standard students, were formed on the basis of their scores in different micro-skills in listening comprehension in English as measured by the pre-test. One of the groups was identified as control group and the other two groups were treated as experimental groups. Conventional Teaching Method (CTM) was adopted for the control group, while Media-based Non-interactive Instruction (MNGI) and AV Presentation as Support System (AVP as SS) were introduced as experimental factors to the other two groups respectively.
Audio and video cassettes, syllabus-based as well as syllabus-free, with regard to Listening Comprehension in English, had already been developed and evaluated. The same content was taught to all the three groups through respective instructional strategy. Pre- and post-tests in the same content areas were administered to all the groups. The experimental groups were given the tests making use of the specially developed audio materials. Retention tests in the same content areas were also administered to all the three groups a month after the completion of the experiment.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The responses made by the subjects of the control and the experimental groups in the pre-, post- and retention tests were stored and tabulated. The mean and SD of the scores of the students in the pre-, post- and retention tests were computed for all the three groups. The spelt-out hypotheses were tested using appropriate statistical techniques.

DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The delimitations of the study are as follows:

1. The homogeneity among the control and experimental groups was established only with regard to the scores of the higher secondary students (sample) on the pre-test pertaining to listening comprehension in English. The intervening variables such as anxiety, fatigue, motivation and intelligence were not taken into consideration while establishing the homogeneity among the control and experimental groups.

2. Even though a series of objectives related to the four basic language skills viz. listening, speaking, reading and writing are important to be developed among the higher secondary students, it was decided to assess the effectiveness of the AV media alone for want of time.

3. The study was limited to a sample size of 105 higher secondary students since presenting media-based instruction to a larger sample required a lot of resources and facilities in various schools, which were not simply available.
A Brief Resume of the Succeeding Chapters

A conceptual framework with regard to the role of media in language acquisition and language learning is developed and presented in the second chapter.

In the third chapter, an account of some of the previous studies related to the present investigation in India and abroad are abstracted and a conclusion arrived at.

The fourth chapter deals with the methodology adopted in the study explaining the development of the instructional package used, its validation, the procedure adopted for conducting the study, the tools used and the establishment of reliability and validity of all the tools used for data collection.

An analysis and interpretation of the data and the hypothesis testing are presented in the fifth chapter.

The last chapter includes the conclusions of the study and a few suggestions for further research in the area of audio-video media vis-a-vis second language learning at the higher secondary level.