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A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR SMALL-GROUP INSTRUCTION IN FRENCH

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate School of The Ohio State University

By

Marianne Calcagni Ciotti, B.A., M.A.

The Ohio State University
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Approved by

Edward D. Allen
Adviser
College of Education
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VITA

July 19, 1930 . . . Born — Barre, Vermont

1952 . . . . . . . B.A., University of Vermont, Burlington, Vermont

1954 . . . . . . . M.A., Middlebury College, Middlebury, Vermont

1952-1953 . . . Teacher of Languages, Lamoille Central Academy, Hyde Park, Vermont


1963 (Summer) . . . Methods and Demonstration Teacher, NDEA French Institute, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Massachusetts

1964 and 1966 . . . Methods and Demonstration Teacher, The French School, Middlebury College, Middlebury, Vermont (Summers)

FIELDS OF STUDY

Major Field: Foreign Language Education

Studies in Curriculum and Instruction. Professor Paul R. Klohr

Studies in Teacher Education. Professor Leonard A. Andrews

Studies in Fr. 19th Literature of the 20th Century. Professor Pierre Astier
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A Statement of the Problem

As a result of the reassessment of curriculum and instruction in a second language which began in the late 1950's and the subsequent expenditure of federal, state, and local funds to improve education in this field, new materials and methods emphasizing the sequential development of the fundamental skills of listening-comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing were designed and are being used extensively in second-language programs in elementary and secondary schools throughout the country. One of the basic characteristics of the materials and methods is the attention given to the learning of the spoken language, the assumption being that, since the spoken language is acknowledged by linguists and psychologists as the primary means of communication, the development of the skills of listening-comprehension and speaking must be of first priority in the early stages of learning and that progression to the skills of reading and writing must take place after audiolingual (listening-comprehension and speaking) control on a given body of material is achieved by the learner. Intrinsic to the methodology for teaching the spoken language is the automatization of audiolingual habits through controlled frequency of repetition and reinforcement and through controlled memorization of situational
dialogues and language patterns. As a supportive device for the establishment of automatic mastery of the linguistic elements of the spoken language, the language laboratory serves for individual practice. For the most part, however, audiolingual learning is conducted within the average classroom situation which involves numbers of students most frequently above 20.2

Since 1964 some reservations based on theoretical premises have been expressed about the current orientation of curriculum and instruction in a second language, with respect to its emphasis upon habit-formation. One psychologist cautions that audiolingual methodology does not account for the learner's own cognitive formation and behavior and fails to draw upon available knowledge on verbal learning. For example, he suggests that audiolingual techniques ignore the psychological fact that learning and retention are facilitated by meaningfulness and that the personal characteristics which the learner brings to second-language learning influence acquisition of that language.3

Another researcher focuses her critique upon such features as over-reliance upon the use of controlled repetition and memorization. She acknowledges that the memorization of dialogues and pattern drills has its role to play in the early stages of second-language learning, but suggests that once a basic repertory of lexical, morphological, and syntactic elements is acquired, practice is needed in the "retrieval" of these elements and in their recombination so that the learner may develop the skill of expressing his own thought in a face-to-face conversational situation.4
Neither the average classroom nor the language laboratory settings appears to provide the conditions for experiences conducive to the use of language as a means of purposeful communication in daily living. The kinds of verbal activity possible in an average classroom setting are restricted by numbers of learners. Techniques for instruction are generally limited to the repetition of dialogues and patterns in choral, lockstep fashion under the direction and control of a leader, usually the teacher, and the listening to controlled presentations by the leader, some other classroom learner, or group of learners within the larger classroom group. Individualized attention is minimal at best and occurs principally when the learner is called upon to perform and becomes the focus of leader-directed activity. But the occasions for individual self-expression and listening for one's own purposes are infrequent under these conditions and especially when time is also a factor. Therefore, conversational exchange at the personal level is limited. Moreover, the kinds of verbal activity possible in the language laboratory setting are restricted because of the independent nature of the experience. The techniques are machine-oriented and are exclusively directed to listening-comprehension and speaking behavior controlled by the stimulation of recorded materials. Although this experience contributes to building the learner's repertory of linguistic elements, it does not permit him to use these elements in the real exchange of a life situation since there is no conversational partner.

In view of these limitations, it is proposed that the small-group instructional setting of five members be examined for its potential as a locus for the development of sequential experiences in speech
perception and speech production in French at the level of meaning, for the purpose of giving the learner practice in retrieving and recombining known lexical, morphological, and syntactic elements to express his personal thought in an intimate conversational situation. This study will be directed to the adolescent learner of French in high school at a period of time when achievement can be characterized by four acquisitions: 1. the phonological system, 2. the basic elements of morphology, 3. a number of productive syntactic structures, 4. a stock of generic lexical items.

A Review of the Literature

A search of the literature permits the following two observations about theory and methodology on the topic proposed:

Observation 1 - The Small-Group in Second-Language Learning

The references to the use of the small group for second-language learning purposes are few. For the most part, the content consists of warranted opinion. No research studies are available that examine the characteristics and functions of the small group and its curricular and instructional applications to second-language learning. It can be assumed, however, that classroom experimentation is in fact being conducted since the organizational concept of flexible scheduling with its patterns of large-group, small-group, and independent-study situations is being discussed, described, and applied in high schools. However, factual details concerning the field of second-language learning are rarely reported.
Some selected quotations from authoritative sources in second-language learning suggest the importance of the small-group experience in high school and college, reveal knowledgeable inferences about small-group potentiality, and predict the role it may play in education in the future:

- From a 1948 investigation of second-language learning:

  The contention will hardly be doubted . . . that smaller sections, which give each student a greater share in the class's total time, will produce greater speaking ability.6

- A 1961 theoretical proposal for high school and college:

  In a class of five students . . . assuming that the teacher does not perform more than any one student, each student could theoretically produce for a maximum of ten minutes out of a full hour class session. With the same conditions, in a class of thirty, the maximum production time for each student would be less than two minutes, hardly enough for anyone to gain significant speaking knowledge for a foreign language.7

- A 1962 report on university research in programmed instruction and small-group ("display session") activity:

  The Display Session (of 2-4 students) gives the student an opportunity to use in near-natural and congruent context the linguistic structures assimilated in the auto-tutorial sessions.8

- A 1964 prediction:

  . . . the student will use his ears and his voice during the small-group session devoted to oral give and take.9

- A 1966 report on flexible scheduling and foreign language instruction:

  . . . programmed instruction alternating with small-group conferences . . . may indeed be one of the most promising ways of breaking the lockstep. . . .10
It seems reasonable to assert that investigations of the small group, its characteristics and functions, are urgent needs in order that group processes might be better understood thereby permitting the development of methodologies that would lend themselves to the more effective use of this instructional setting particularly as it applies to the development of the communication skills.

**Observation 2 - Speech Perception and Speech Production at the Level of Meaning**

The references to a methodology for the purpose of extending the learner's second-language competence to the level of expressing personal meaning and engaging in purposeful listening indicate that these are aspects in need of further investigation. Pedagogical writings recognize unquestionably the necessity for learning to be meaningful and for the learner's experience to extend beyond the simple acquisition of lexical, morphological, and syntactic elements. However, the application of these theoretical notions to classroom activity has been largely unrealized because current audiolingual textbooks make only limited suggestions about how the transition can be effected from the stage of repetition, substitution, and transformation drills to the unselfconscious expression of one's thoughts.

Selected quotations from authoritative sources in second-language learning suggest the need for a controlled progression toward free expression and insightful comprehension, the importance of the three-factor input of listener-speaker-context for conversational practice, the ultimate aim of second-language learning as the ability to
express oneself accurately and appropriately while attending to thought rather than to the means or matter of expression, and the necessity of having culturally meaningful material as the focus of conversational exchange:

- A 1962 state teachers' guide:

  Students should participate in conversation controlled by the teacher but as the students become proficient, the teacher should become less and less a participant in this type of activity.11

- A 1964 methodological perspective:

  At the end of pattern practice the student is not ready to speak freely. He has the patterns ready as habits, but he must practice them with full attention on purposeful communication.12

- A 1964 methodological perspective on classroom procedure:

  ... sustained practice in the use of the language only in the molecular form of speaker-hearer-situation.13

- A 1964 critique of the inadequacy of reinforcement theory as a basis for establishing conversational competence for the unstructured situation:

  The common complaint about ... matched-dependent type of learning is that it does not develop ability to speak fluently in an unstructured situation where the learned stimulus does not appear exactly as it did in the structured situation. ...14

- A 1968 report on "liberated expression":

  In sequences of language instruction in the primary and secondary schools the principal purpose of instruction should be to lead students to acquire the ability to use correct language in appropriate circumstances.15

- A 1969 methodological perspective:

  The free-expression period should be identified in the student's mind as a time when he is trying to express his thoughts in the language rather than being preoccupied with the mechanics of language.16
A 1968 address to teachers of second-languages:

A language is a means, a vehicle of communication. The vehicle is empty unless it carries an idea, unless it has content...
material of human interest, ideas, opinions, insights...

Techniques for facilitating expression of thought have been developed in a minimal way in textbook series. They consist primarily of isolated techniques directed to structured procedures that control the sequence of thought as well as expression or those designed to stimulate conversation through the utterance of a single sentence or expression. There are no intermediate steps or phases and the techniques recommended follow no sequential pattern which gradually reduces control and permits the learner to enter into a more "liberated" situation with the additional skill of knowing how to listen perceptively and speak productively in natural conversation. Examples of some of these isolated techniques found in selected textbooks are described below:

- The "directed dialog" -- a controlled conversation between two students and stimulated by the teacher who directs one learner to ask a particular question and another learner to give a specified answer:

Mark, tell Christian to come, we're going to play cards.
Christian, answer that it is impossible, that you have to go to the library in a few minutes.
Mark, ask him if he can't go there right away.
Christian, answer that you still have 100 pages to read.

Marc, dites à Christian de venir, qu'on va jouer aux cartes.
Christian, répondez-lui que c'est impossible, qu'il faut que vous alliez à la bibliothèque tout à l'heure.
Marc, demandez-lui s'il ne peut pas y aller tout de suite.
Christian, répondez que vous avez encore cent pages à lire.
The "conversation stimulus"—the initial lines of the anticipated conversation are given by the teacher who suggests through it a familiar situation which is expected to stimulate extemporaneous conversation between two learners:

At noon you are very hungry but you have forgotten your money. You say to Jacqueline, "Say I have no money in my pocket!"

A midi vous avez très faim, mais vous avez oublié votre argent. Vous dites à Jacqueline: ---Tiens je n'ai pas d'argent dans ma poche.

The "rejoinder"—a reaction to a statement or question:

Statement: The teacher is furious!

Statement: Le professeur est furieux.

The "conversations"—factual questions, personal questions, and directed discourse based on recurring grammatical structures and vocabulary of sentences found in a dialogue.

The "topics for reports"—a "lead-off" sentence is suggested and a set of "cue" sentences or questions are stated to direct the sequence of thought:

My father is going to the office in the car . . . At what time must he leave in the morning? . . . Is it too far to go on foot? . . . Does he like to drive? . . . Do traffic jams upset him? . . . Is his car large or small?

The "narrative paraphrase"—a description in narrative form of a basic dialogue that has already been learned:

The Basic Dialogue
Raymond Listen! Do you hear music?
Isabel We can hear it better now . . .

The Narrative Paraphrase
Raymond tells Isabel to listen. He asks her if she hears the music. Isabel answers that they can hear it better now . . .

Guiding Questions
What does Raymond say to Isabel?
What does he want to know?
What does Isabel hear?
How does she hear it now? . . .

It appears that, although these techniques are valuable in themselves, they do not offer a sequential progression of experiences from controlled to non-controlled conversation. Furthermore, the content of these conversations comes directly from dialogues which often contain little cultural matter that can be used for sustained conversation and,
therefore, do not permit talking-at-length, an important aspect of normal communication. These restrictions of methodology and content are evidences that there is need for further investigation on the topic of the development of communication skills.

The Scope and Methodology of the Study

It is proposed that this study be directed in part to an investigation of the characteristics and functions of the small group as it has been researched by some experts in the field of sociology and education in order to develop a theoretical framework within which instruction in second-language learning may be designed to satisfy more effectively social-emotional and selected language learning needs of the learners. The published literature indicates that group processes have not been adequately examined by investigators of second-language education to determine the forces and conditions capable of influencing group interaction and thereby linguistic outcomes. It is, therefore, necessary to refer to sociological literature on the group and to general educational writings to select factors that appear theoretically significant to the development of a methodology for the small group in French instruction. Of necessity, since the literature on the group is so vast, the writer has selected those aspects which appear most fundamental to the linguistic purposes of the study.

It is further proposed that this study present an overview of selected aspects of language learning as it pertains to the first language and particularly to the second language and to second-language instruction. These aspects which reveal some of the developmental
processes and instructional procedures at the habit-formation, cognitive, and social levels will provide bases for the discussion of a small-group methodology which is directed to the development of speech perception and speech production skills in French serving personal thought.

Finally, a theoretical model for the development of the conversational skills in a small group will be constructed. This will be comprised of three stages in sequence, i.e., the controlled, the partially-controlled, and the non-controlled and will be designed for use in French instruction in high school.
CHAPTER II

THE GROUP

A Concept of the Group and the Small Group

The sociopsychological level. The group is the most fundamental social unit for it is through this medium that the individual accomplishes tasks as well as satisfies social-emotional needs. It can be defined as

... a number of persons who communicate with one another over a span of time, and who are few enough so that each person is able to communicate with all the others ... face-to-face.

Moreover, the primary social unit is the small group since it constitutes the basic environmental experience for each person. From early life through adulthood the individual is active in various types of small groups ranging from the family to the neighborhood gang, school and social cliques, teams, and finally to the professional or worker's group. Although member affiliation may be with the larger societal organization within which these small groups occur, day-to-day experiences are generally confined to interpersonal contact in a limited sector of the larger unit. Consequently, since the interactive behavior which develops becomes patterned to the environmental influences of these settings, it can be said that interpersonal functioning of an individual is probably anchored in his experiences at the small-group level.
A simple assembly of people does not comprise a group. Certain elements must be present, and foremost among them is the element of "interaction," that is, mutual stimulation and response. In addition, "motives" or "goals," "norms," "roles," and a "network of interpersonal attraction" are characteristics which have been identified in group research. These elements are described in this way:

1. The members share one or more motives or goals which determine the direction in which the group will move.

2. The members develop a set of norms which set the boundaries within which interpersonal relations may be established and activity carried on.

3. If interaction continues, a set of roles becomes stabilized and the new group becomes differentiated from other groups.

4. A network of interpersonal attraction develops on the basis of 'likes' and 'dislikes' of members for one another.

These elements evolve from the interplay of the personal characteristics of the members and influences from the environment and result in the development of the "life" of the group.

To define a specific point where the small group ends and the large group begins is an inconclusive task. There is no precise upper or lower limit, an observation supported by research, although it is suggested that the "small" group is considered to have from two to twenty members. However, an "... identifying feature of small groups is the absence ... of two or more stable, well-defined sub-groups ...," that is, groups which depart from the "collective
identity" to form separate, functioning units which act independently.\(^{32}\)

The essential factor of differentiation appears to be that of the *quality* of "face-to-face interaction" which is present:

A small group is defined as any number of persons engaged in interaction with each other in a single face-to-face meeting or a series of meetings, in which each member receives some impression or perception of each other member distinct enough so that he can, either at the time or in later questioning, give some reaction to each of the others as an individual person, even though it be only to recall that the other person was present.\(^{33}\)

The following facts appear to distinguish themselves as essential to an understanding of the concept of the group:

- The group is the fundamental social unit.
- Elements present in the emergence of a group are interaction, goals, norms, roles, and interpersonal attraction.
- Interaction which is the process basic to group life involves input from both the individuals' nature and the environment.

In addition to these facts there are those which characterize the small group:

- It is the most primary of all social units.
- Its distinctive feature is the *quality* of the face-to-face interaction: inter-member visibility is marked to the extent that distinct impressions by individual members upon other members are produced.
- Definitive and permanent subgroups are not present.
The educational level. The classroom group differs from other small social systems in that learning is the stated purpose for which the individual members are brought together, participation is required, the larger institution sets the general goals, the leadership is appointed by other than those within the group itself, and outside forces within the school and community influence the "life" of the group.\textsuperscript{34} Within this classroom group subgroups may be structured formally or may emerge informally for specific purposes in learning, but the broad characteristics of the group, as stated above, are still present. However, a modification may be introduced when the instructional leadership chooses to delegate or share its authority, power, and influence with the members. This provision for student leadership opens up potential development for students to learn to direct and guide fellow members toward purposeful goals decided upon by the group itself. Furthermore, it permits experiences in the give-and-take of efforts with peers in the presence of and under the influence of peer-leadership. This type of modification in group design makes possible the learning of leader-follower behaviors which may be applicable to other societal settings thereby increasing its relevancy to student life beyond the school environment.

The organizing of groups of students for instructional purposes has been a traditional and accepted function of the school administration. Although the criteria for the assignment of students to groups have not always been clearly defined and have often been unavoidably based upon economic rather than educational feasibility, by application of various experimental techniques such as "homogeneous" and
"heterogeneous" grouping and sectioning of classes into subgroups particularly in the elementary school results have been obtained which indicate that more account must be taken of individual differences in planning for student learning. Consequently variable groupings have been recommended in addition to independent study as arrangements for more effective intellectual, skill, and social development. 35

It is suggested that "group methods and nongroup methods of instruction, in a proper balance, are both required for the maximum development of all students."36 Although learning is acknowledged as being an individual process, it is also a "social affair."37 The learnings that appear to be facilitated by group processes are the more complex problems since the total effort of the group is channeled into finding the solution. 38 Members can consolidate ideas, engage in mutual stimulation, and contribute to a reduction of personal anxieties associated with social emotional needs. 39 In addition, broad social outcomes of group activity can be realized:

As individuals become members of healthy groups, help steer and improve a group, and receive acceptance and influence for personal improvement from a group, they have helped themselves to resolve the question of personal identity, as well as grown in ability to work more effectively with others.

Students need to develop the skills of oral communication and the most favorable environment for accomplishing this is the small group in which the students can gain skill in the roles of discussion leader and participator. 41

The group is not of significant value to the individual if the aim is primarily the acquisition of factual information since this kind of activity can be carried on effectively enough by the student working
alone. That which can be learned in a group is how to be a good group participant. In terms of modifying attitudes and opinions, "group discussion does appear to be more effective than other teaching methods," "students seem to enjoy group methods," "think they learn more," and "show more interest in learning," but aspects of these favorable conclusions may be due to reasons other than group methods.\textsuperscript{42}

The values of group activity in education are categorized into two areas: "developmental" and "diagnostic."\textsuperscript{43} Developmental values include the satisfaction of basic needs, social and emotional development, development of attitudes, interests, abilities and social norms, vocational values, growth in knowledge and skills in group interaction. The main difficulty is "the opening up of the appropriate opportunities to bring out the best in kids."\textsuperscript{44} Diagnostic values emerge from the opportunity for self-appraisal leading to self-discovery and self-realization.

The orientation of the group does make a difference as to how an individual member fulfills task expectations and social-emotional needs. If a group is focused upon the realization of the goals of its members, it tends to diagnose its behavior in terms of what the members are trying to accomplish. It seeks to understand basic principles which guide the members in reasonable and intelligent behavior. Conflict, therefore, is minimized and movement toward the goals is maximized since provisions are made for the flexible modification of roles and norms. But a group may be oriented toward the preservation of its structure which means that its organization has greater importance than the goals of its members. Force must be used to channel
behavior into pre-established patterns that will insure organizational stability, therefore, roles and norms are rigidly defined. Reliance is necessarily upon authority. Consequently freedom of the members is minimized and group behavior which is thwarted on the social-emotional level becomes unpredictable in terms of task accomplishment.  

The individual who has been exposed to the first type of orientation belongs to the "purpose-oriented" group and will be able to adjust to many other groups while the second type or "procedure-oriented" will produce interferences in the individual's adjustment to membership in other groups.

Successful group activity appears to be associated with a variable known as "teachability," a compatibility factor between students and teacher. Since teachers do differ in personal characteristics, instructional functioning, and expectations about student behavior, there is a need to match the student and teacher according to the student's particular learner-type and the ability of the teacher in order to create learning experiences which make use of methods to satisfy his learner-type. This research, directed to investigating the characteristics of students and teachers in order to distinguish the varied aspects of teachability, determined that students have "decidedly different preferences, motivations, standards, and abilities under... different methods" which could not be accounted for by teacher
personality and subject difficulty. By matching particular learner-types with compatible teacher-types in the research, it was found that this factor produces a distinctive group "life":

It is more work-oriented and permissive. The leader is more of a person, more psychically free, more influential, more enthusiastic. . . . The students have more self-control and more regard for each other and they see the teacher as more rewarding and more ready to exert himself on their behalf.

It can be concluded that effective grouping must be based upon consideration of the characteristics of both teacher and students for optimal social-emotional satisfactions to be experienced. Furthermore, teach-ability grouping facilitates the realization of educative goals and the use of a variety of teaching methods.

Some conclusions about the group in education. The following statements are a summary of what appear to be among the most significant concepts:

1. The classroom groups or subgroups have unique characteristics which are the direct result of the principal goal, learning.

2. Grouping which has been based upon both educational and non-educational premises has created an awareness of new aspects in the areas of task and social-emotional behavior.

3. Both group and nongroup environments, that is, both collective and individual arrangements for purposeful learning, complement one another in terms of the development of the individual.
4. Group settings provide the locus for members to learn effective skills for social interaction thereby increasing their ability to work with others.

5. The value of group activity is both developmental and diagnostic, that is, at both the social-emotional and technical-intellectual levels.

6. The "purpose-oriented" group seeks to provide experiences which center upon principles that permit members to develop behavior patterns that generalize across groups.

7. The "teachability" factor must be taken into account because it facilitates learning and teaching while improving the climate for meaningful interaction.

Group Characteristics

Interaction

The concept of interaction in selected sociopsychological research. The condition of interaction which constitutes the basis upon which the other elements of group development evolve represents the inter-member stimulation and response at the verbal and nonverbal levels. Through this process of stimulation and response, individual behavior which is brought to the collective situation is modified to serve the purposes of the group as it develops its particular structure and, consequently, its pattern of "life." The interaction styles of the members result from individual motivation, personality, affective stages, age and sex differences, and the actual learning that
takes place in the interaction process. Eventually a member develops his "characteristic set of social techniques." But the individual styles must coordinate within the group so that interactive behavior may be possible. This means that members modify their techniques until the stage of "synchronization" occurs, i.e., the state of "equilibrium" wherein individual styles are brought into compatible functioning so that the group can move toward its goals as a unit, attending to the maintenance of its "life" and coping with the factor of change.

One theoretical orientation to interaction states that "if the interactions between the members of a group are frequent in the external system, sentiments of liking will grow between them, and these sentiments will lead in turn to further interactions. . . ." Moreover, "the more frequently persons interact with one another, the more alike in some respects both their activities and sentiments tend to become. Thus develop liking and a similarity of attitudes and interests. These factors are particularly significant among adolescents who have an intense drive toward conformity to begin with. In addition, the interdependency of activity and interaction has been theorized: " . . . if the scheme of activities is changed, the scheme of interaction will, in general, change also, and vice versa."

The plan for activities and interaction in a group is both "scalar" and "lateral": the scalar meaning interaction between superiors and subordinates and the lateral meaning interaction between subordinates. Conventional group organization is frequently described on one dimension, that of scalar interaction, while the lateral is often
omitted as an input factor. The presence of a leader in the group is probably one factor that accounts for attention being directed uniquely to the concept of scalar interaction.

Research with adult subjects has revealed some features of interaction:

- The most active participants in discussion learn the most.\(^57\)
- Overt feedback is best.\(^58\)
- Much of member behavior can be explained by his efforts to seek "congruency" in the small-group operation.\(^59\)
- The reward system is an important determinant of member behavior.\(^60\)
- The greater the share in the group task, the greater the motivation of the individual member.\(^61\)

Selected aspects of interaction in the school group. The most important facet of the classroom experience is that it is social.\(^62\) It is within the framework of these interactions that learning takes place since immediate and direct feedback and the meeting of personal needs are possible:

The highest needs of students are to find their places in the group, to work through their anxieties about their competencies, to adjust to authority, to explore and define their growing social capacities. These needs determine much of the quality of classroom experience, and they color the meanings of the subject matter learned.\(^63\)

There is no one model for social interaction in the student group since the type depends upon the goals and task of the group itself. Once these are determined one can judge the appropriateness of the
interactive behavior. But there are bounds to what behavior this interaction will permit: the behavior must be genuinely directed to both the social-emotional and task problems. It may range from orderly activity to enthusiastic, spontaneous actions and responses which are acceptable only if they contribute to the "life" of the group.

Concluding assumptions for a small-group methodology in the school setting.

1. Adequate time and appropriate interactive experiences must be provided so that students will reach a "synchronization" stage before group expectations for task-accomplishment are activated.

2. The frequency of interaction is tied so intimately to liking and the development of common activities and interests that it must be arranged in such a manner as to maximize those positive outcomes which contribute to students' learning.

3. Since a change in the interactive behavior of group members is both a cause and effect of group activity, expectations for the group must be consonant with the products of these interlocking influences.

4. "Lateral" interaction must be integrated into the total interaction scheme since it is, with "scalar" interaction, one of the two dimensions which characterize group action and response.

5. There must be a maximizing of such factors as: active participation for all members, overt feedback, opportunity
to attain prompt "congruency," effective and operational reward system, and sharing of activity leading to task-accomplishment.

6. Satisfactions of individual needs at the social-emotional level must precede satisfaction of group needs at the task level because the direct influence of the social-emotional "life" upon task-accomplishment is unquestionable.

7. One model for social interaction is not adequate since different goals and tasks will result in different patterns as will the influence of other input features as the unique characteristics of the students themselves.

Goals

The concept of goals in selected sociopsychological research. The aims and purposes of group behavior which constitute the goals determine the working order and content of activity, the interaction of the members, and how the structure, roles, norms, and cohesiveness will emerge. These goals identify a "preferred state" and direct activity toward the fulfillment of that state. However, members may hold desired states for themselves, but this does not necessarily mean that these states form an integrated goal for the group. There must be some degree of accord among the members for it is this factor which determines finally what the group purpose will be. In addition, the goal must be clear and it must be effective in consolidating group resources, both human and material. There must be a facilitation of decision among the members as to the means of moving toward the goal and how movement
can be coordinated for working on the task. Support is derived from "effective communication, competent leadership, clear lines of authority, and member-participation in decisions." 65

At the psychological level, goals can be organized as cooperative or competitive: the cooperative orientation suggests that "... each individual can attain his goal only if other members of the group also attain their goals" and the competitive one suggests that "... each individual can attain his goal only if others do not attain their goals." 66 Cooperative goals tend to facilitate organization and performance and to encourage other positive outcomes whereas competitive goals tend to promote conflict and disunity. 67

Besides group goals there are task goals and individual goals. They may be somewhat "integrated," but awareness of goals varies with the types of members as does their acceptance of the goals. Involvement directed toward goal fulfillment may concern all or most of the members or may be restricted to high-status individuals in the group. 68

Selected aspects of goals in the school group. In school many goals are predetermined and prescribed; some emerge from group interaction and may be similar or different from those imposed upon the group. It may be assumed that group productivity and "life" are more effective where there is consonance between the goals which are predetermined by some outside authority and those which are developed by the group itself.

Educational goals may be characterized in several ways. They may be: 69

- Long-range: those which differ from immediate goals by time and length of path or number of operations required for their achievement.
• Intermediate: the more immediate steps which are sequentially routed toward the major goal
• "Cluster": interrelated subgoals directed toward problems at both the social-emotional and task levels
• Task and nontask: major or minor goals which are most often clearly stated in terms of task, but not so in terms of nontask or the social-emotional aspects.

Concluding assumptions for a small-group methodology in the school setting.

1. There must be some degree of accord among the students as to the acceptance of the long-range and intermediate task goals.

2. Students must be permitted to evaluate goals prescribed by outside authority in order to be able to exercise some modifications if the input characteristics of the particular group hold potential interference factors for realizing the goals.

3. The goals, task and if possible nontask, must be clear and capable of energizing group activity to achievable ends.

4. Decisions concerning movement toward the goals must be part of the group's goal-directed behavior.

5. Organization of the group's movement must be based upon a cooperative orientation in order to insure optimal group performance and satisfaction.
6. Effort must be continuously exerted by those vested with instructional responsibility to build group goals that are a composite of those individual goals valued by the members.

Roles

The concept of roles in selected sociopsychological research. The concept of role can be described as "... the set of expectations which group members share concerning the behavior of a person who occupies a position in a group." These expectations which fall into two categories, i.e., behavior that the individual directs toward others and behavior that the group directs toward him, range on a continuum from the required to the prohibited.

These roles are further understood as "enacted," the outward behavior itself; "perceived," the behavior actually observed by others and the individual acting; "prescribed," the expectations held by other members concerning behavior in a particular position and "predicted," behavior assumed by others to take place. These aspects of role behavior may or may not "correspond" perfectly since they are influenced by many variables, i.e., age interests, socioeconomic status, status in the larger group, ability, talents and skills, and other outward signs of position.

The concepts of position and role are interwoven: position is "the sum total of expectations that influence an individual's behavior" or the "slot" occupied by the individual in the membership hierarchy; role is "the behavior displayed by an individual in a particular
position," i.e., the product of the interaction of personality and position. In the early stages of group formation there is a struggle for position. Finally, an order of high and low status is established as the interaction system develops and becomes stabilized through rewards and punishments.

Roles may be of three types: "maintenance," "task," and "individual." "Maintenance" refers to those functions which contribute to the effective interaction of the group as it moves toward its goals; "task," those functions which permit the work of the group to be channeled appropriately so that the purposes of activity may be fulfilled; "individual," those actions which promote satisfactions for each member in terms of his social-emotional life. More specifically, these roles may involve:

1. Initiating ideas or actions
2. Regulation and control of actions
3. Giving information about ideas or attitudes
4. Supporting ideas or attitudes
5. Evaluating the ideas or attitudes that have been produced.

These roles are assigned values by group members. Those which are considered most valued assume a high-status position and are most often in the maintenance and task areas, e.g., leadership, conciliation, idea-stimulation. They are represented by members in central positions to which communication and interaction are directed. These central members are better satisfied than lower status members, have a greater freedom in expressing ideas, particularly divergent ones, initiate more interactions, and are able to influence and control others. From the ranks of central members the leader emerges.
Selected aspects of roles in the school group. Roles are often formalized and predetermined by outside authority, the differentiation of roles based primarily upon intellectual ability and the role-structure derived frequently from administrative considerations rather than learning. However, if members can be provided with opportunity for "upward locomotion" based upon their abilities, personality, and interests, not only will group cohesiveness and morale improve, but the role-potential for each member will be increased, thus maximizing member experiences and learnings.

Concluding assumptions for a small-group methodology in the school setting.

1. There must be an attempt to "fit" role and individual personality.

2. There must be flexibility in providing for members to assume a variety of roles consonant with their abilities, personality, and interest.

3. Students must be permitted to excel where role strengths lie, that is, in the group-maintenance or task area.

4. Differential grouping must be available in order to provide experiences for able members in high-status, central roles.

5. Formal group structure must be general and nonrestricting in order to allow the informal structure to emerge to the fullest.
Norms

The concept of norms in selected sociopsychological research.

Norms can be defined as "... rules of behavior, proper ways of acting, which have been accepted as legitimate by members of a group...". They are "expectations about behavior" in the form of assumptions or statements about what should be done and is expected as behavior under certain conditions. These assumptions emerge from interaction but find their roots in norms brought by individual members to the group. The group norms endure because they are accepted by a larger number of people, but even after being established, if they cannot be achieved, they are subject to change. These norms are changed, as they are formed, through interaction, and it is through group discussion that change can be effected to the greatest degree. When discussion groups are compared with each other in their success in bringing about change, the groups in which opportunities for discussion are maximized are found to be the most effective.

Norms govern styles of behavior, whether they are related to maintenance, task, or the individual. Members must conform and if they do, they are rewarded by approval and admiration; if not, they are rejected. However, some degree of deviation is considered "normal." The rejected one or deviate is attended to because the members seek constantly to preserve the structure and interaction processes of the group. Efforts are made to persuade him to change his behavior, especially if the matter in question is important to the group. But there is an exception: a high-status person gets "idiosyncrasy credit," i.e.,
an allowance to deviate since this might provide a new direction for
group activity. The members view the high-status deviation as con-
structive and it is this factor that makes the difference. 85 This
process of the manipulation of the behavior of others is called "social
control" which can be formal, that is, through rules and regulations or
informal, through social pressure. 86

Interaction with the deviant increases at the outset of group
attention but diminishes if the member begins to conform or if the
group members feel that he cannot be convinced to conform. 87 As for
the deviate himself, he has four choices: he may conform, he may seek
to change the norms, he may continue to deviate, or he may leave the
group or be removed. 88 Ultimately, he will select the alternative most
satisfying to his needs and least costly in terms of public opinion.

Conformity results from exposure to similar environmental
stimuli, to standardizing pressures, and to group opinion which can
become individual opinion also when uncertainty is present. 89 Members
are influenced to move toward this state if judgment is to be made
about something which is unclear, if private opinion must be exposed
to public view, if the opposing majority is large, or if the group is
especially cohesive. 90 Leadership power induces conformity through
rewards, expertness, identification, coercion, or prescription. 91

Selected aspects of norms in the school group. Special factors
emerge in the educational setting: 92

• Each member's input of attitudes and expectations is based
  upon those of the family group as well as the limited and
  broad peer group.
Member expectations will differ according to age and sex factors and the developed personality.

Identification and conformity are powerful forces among adolescents, thus reducing the problem of deviation or over-conformity to norms.

Member perceptions have common characteristics because of similar experiences and attitudes about group behavior.

The high-status member plays a critical role in learning outcomes.

Expectations for the group which are generally imposed by three main outside influences, namely, the school administration, the teacher, and the curriculum, may not be readily accepted by the members.

There is a continual emergence of new types of encounters calling for additional norms or the modification of old ones, thus the forming of new reference points.

The danger of teacher interference is present because it may impede the early formation of group norms.

The use of two types of environments, i.e., with and without the teacher, may produce social-emotional conflicts unless members are assisted in coping with the transition.

Group norms from preceding years and other classes are modified to build norms for the new group. Some old norms are strengthened while others are weakened or discarded.
• Norms which are broadly conceived permit the emergence of creative, personal expression thus the development of the uniqueness of the individual member.

• Deviation in the school group may be caused by various factors: poor communication, an unattractive group, differing but highly-valued individual norms, and rewards for deviation.

• Norms related to the social-emotional level of interaction must be established before task-level activity can be undertaken.

Concluding assumptions for a small-group methodology in the school setting.

1. The influence of pre-established norms of individual members must be taken into account as time is allotted for the group to build its new norms.

2. Administrative and teacher control must be minimized in order to allow for norm development by student members. This does not preclude the teacher's exercising his assigned responsibilities for group activity within broad limits which do not interfere with the group's emergence as a unique social unit.

3. Planning by the teacher must include provisions for norm development as part of a preliminary interaction-period which is not specifically directed to task-accomplishment but rather to social-emotional adjustment.
4. Since deviation can be thought of as constructive or destructive, it must be the responsibility of the members themselves rather than the teacher to cope with the deviation in the light of group goals and their legitimate realization. However, the minimizing of destructive factors in the environment which may lead to deviation that members do not have the power to resolve is the responsibility of the teacher.

5. General orientation about effective group processes with and without teacher-leadership must be undertaken at the outset by the teacher in order to provide broad guidelines within which the members may build their norms.

6. The desire for conformity among adolescents must be appreciated as a positive influence upon group interaction and the building of norms. The adopting of group norms as individual norms can be a decisive factor in giving members self-confidence as a support for greater involvement in group activity.

7. Cautious guidance must be exercised by the teacher in assisting student leaders to make use of the types of power that will contribute most to a particular group's social-emotional health and task-accomplishment.

8. The changing of norms must be understood as a normal evolution in group life. Guidance in building norms must include demonstration of how norms established within narrow limits are less satisfactory.
Cohesiveness

The concept of cohesiveness in selected sociopsychological research. Cohesiveness includes the attraction a group has for its members, the motivation it holds for each member to participate in activities, and the coordination it produces in the interaction of the members. These factors are related to group purposes, activity, organization, size, and position within a larger group and to the needs of the individual members and the group's potential for satisfying these needs. By inducing changes in the group's characteristics or its location in the larger environment, cohesiveness can be increased or decreased. It can be increased in these ways:

- Permitting a greater share in the group task
- Providing clarity of goal and path to that goal and an understanding of how one's own task-work fits into the scheme
- Fostering communication and interaction
- Providing cooperative rather than competing relationships
- Creating smaller groups because they are more likely to be cohesive
- Introducing into the group similarities in the characteristics of members
- Providing a group situation in which members satisfy important needs of one another
- Increasing value of the group by a positive "communality of fate" introduced from the outside and which produces more interaction
Increasing interaction, thus strengthening the sentiment of liking.

Creating a formal organizational pattern which encourages success through achievable standards of performance.

Selected aspects of cohesiveness in the school group. Educators have often emphasized the importance of inter-member compatibility and liking. However, it has been difficult to determine exactly what factors contribute to group-attraction and the sense of belongingness, although it is generally known what positive outcomes will result from the presence of cohesiveness:

There is no systematic knowledge available concerning cohesiveness in classroom groups, but an analysis of the general nature of cohesiveness and a study of the investigations involving cohesiveness in general provide a number of clues about the kinds of behavior that indicate that a class group may be characterized as having unity of cohesiveness.

Some of the basic elements that have been identified as emerging when cohesiveness is present are:

- Cooperation in planning and work
- Social-emotional need satisfactions
- Positive orientation and activity toward group goals
- Interest and enthusiasm in task activity
- Realistic and common goals
- Effective interaction
- Achievable norms
- Roles consonant with personality factors
- Secure environment for the members
- Flexibility in group activity and interaction
• Open-channelled and facilitated communication between the group and its larger environment and within the group itself
• The teacher acting in a supportive rather than in an authoritarian role
• Prevention of definitive clique formation or subgroup rivalry for power and status
• Provision for mobility to more attractive positions within the group
• The group as a unit is neither exclusively high-status or low-status
• The valuing of each member as a contributor to the life and achievements of the group
• Activities that satisfy member-needs
• Broadening of positive perceptions concerning group membership
• Elimination of "restrictive" practices which promote negative cohesiveness
• Teacher's methodology promotes creative, autonomous behavior on the part of the students.

One of the most crucial features of the school group is that the students cannot leave it. They are required to be there and it is this fact that gives teachers much power and influence and causes students to be at the mercy of those qualities when they are expressed negatively. To eliminate this condition is essential in order that the students' social-emotional and intellectual-skill development may be maximized.
Concluding assumptions for a small-group methodology in the school setting.

1. Since cohesiveness is a characteristic essential to group life, all appropriate measures must be taken by those who hold responsibility for grouping to assure that optimal conditions exist so that cohesiveness can emerge as a positive and dominant feature of the student group.

2. Increasing cohesiveness and maintaining it can be realized through a variety of factors: formal organization, frequent interaction and communication, individual motivation, experiencing of success, maximizing individual involvement, distinct and realistic goals, clear direction for goal-achievement, cooperative relationships, small-group size, similar member-characteristics, inter-member need satisfactions, achievable norms, "fit" between role and personality, secure group environment, provision for mobility, group valued in larger organization, and leadership that promotes autonomous behavior.
The Communication System

The communication system is the patterns, depth, and path of the interaction. It can operate alone but appears to be influenced by the nature of the task and leadership which means that these variables can be manipulated to control the form and content of interaction. This interaction may operate at both the verbal and nonverbal levels and reveals the perceptions and motivations of both sender and receiver. The sender shares his feelings and interpretations of what is, while the receiver observes and understands according to his unique state:

How a person communicates, his tone of voice, his facial expression, his choice of words, the amount and kind of his talk will all determine, in part, how the receiver perceives the communication.

Different networks of communication have been examined in research to determine their effects upon group performance:

![Circle](image1.png)  ![Chain](image2.png)  ![Y](image3.png)  ![Wheel](image4.png)

Circle  Chain  Y  Wheel

It has been demonstrated that the "circle" is slow and uneconomical in performance but is flexible and that there are more messages transmitted and more errors, but more corrections of these errors; the "wheel" promotes group achievement more quickly, but holds little satisfaction for the members because of the peripheral positions and errors are perpetuated. Further research indicates that the circle is
"active, leaderless, unorganized, erratic and yet enjoyed by the members" while the wheel is "less active, has a distinct leader, is well and stably organized, is less erratic, unsatisfying to most of its members."[111]

The "chain" sends information in from both terminal points to the central position and decisions are distributed in both directions while the "Y" gives the person in the most central position the most power and influence. The number of messages sent is greater for the circle although more errors are made in the circle than in any other network. However, a greater percentage of these errors are detected and corrected by the group. Members experience satisfaction with the group task in decreasing order from the circle to the wheel. It appears that circle members send more informational messages than do members of other networks and they also recognize more of their errors. The member in the central position of the Y, wheel, and chain are more satisfied than any member in a circle position. However, members in outer positions in these networks enjoy their task less than those in any circle position.[112] It appears, therefore, that communication networks influence group functioning at the task and social-emotional levels.

Even though individuals are free to communicate with one another in a group situation, they tend to systematically utilize certain channels because of the nature of the communication network. As a result every member does not communicate with equal frequency with every other
member, but lines of communication between similar pairs are established. Physical proximity, individual interests, and role relationships are also determinants of the type of communication pattern that a group eventually establishes.

Research provides the following observations:

- About half the total content of interaction is devoted to contributions to task-accomplishment while the other half consists of positive rejoinders, negative rejoinders, and questions. This would indicate that as much time is given to feedback as to problem-solving activity.

- Low participators do not talk to one another as much as high participators talk to one another, an observation which is evidence that member-personality affects how the network is established. Furthermore, high-status has a high positive correlation with the amount of participation of a member.

**Implications for the school group.** Group strength is prevented from building up if the teacher does most of the talking. This interferes with interaction since it prevents the kind of student involvement that creates liking and group attraction and satisfactions in contributing to the fulfillment of the group task:

As a group matures and learns to work as a learning team, and as it creates a climate of interdependence and reciprocal support, the members begin to communicate with one another easily and well.
The following research studies make available generalizations of significance for the instructional group:

- When the receiver can feed back information freely to the sender, the accuracy of the information transmitted and the total communication process improves notably.  
- Members communicate more when there is discrepancy in group opinion and the strongest communication effort is made toward those whose opinions and behaviors are most different.
- Group interest in the task is greater when there is feedback; there is also less distraction and the members "learn to learn."
- "Participatory" leadership performs certain functions that permit full and free communication, interesting and meaningful discussions, friendliness, and enjoyment.
- In larger groups there is less opportunity for participation and less satisfaction with group discussion.
- Persons in groups are more likely to interact with others if they can see and hear them.

Concluding assumptions for a small-group methodology in the school setting.

1. Both the verbal and nonverbal communication must be taken into account in a pedagogical description of the group's patterns of communication.
2. Group communication can only be understood in terms of the sender's perceptions and motivations as well as those of the receiver.

3. Since member contributions appear to be about equally divided between task and feedback content, the goals and path toward those goals must include provision for both factors.

4. Provisions in planning must be made so that member satisfactions are realized before expectations in task-accomplishment are given primary importance.

5. Since the goals of a group's activity determine in part what communication network is most appropriate, a change in this input factor must produce some measure of modification in the network.

6. The use of different networks can produce varied outcomes for meeting the needs of individual members, provided that opportunity is given to members to assume positions commensurate with their personality and abilities.

7. Since cohesiveness predisposes a group to greater depth and breadth of communication at both the cognitive and affective levels, the building and strengthening of this quality must be basic to group activity.

8. "Participatory" leadership must characterize the member in the most central position because this type of leadership permits fuller, freer communication, more meaningful
discussion, and more enjoyment for the members. (The alternative is "supervisory" leadership which is not involved in group discussion.)

9. It must be noted that even complete freedom to communicate with any group member cannot be realized because members tend to utilize repeatedly certain channels directed toward particular individuals, thus stabilizing the network. Various factors predetermine the object and direction of each individual channel.

10. High-status and low-status factors, that is, hierarchical positions, must be taken into account when the frequency of participation for each member is examined or evaluated.

11. Group size can be a more critical variable for low-participators than high-participators.

12. Certain variables which have been examined in research can affect the communication rate and must be considered in planning for group activity: receiver-sender freedom of feedback, discrepancy in group opinion, larger groups (above 7) as restrictive of participation and satisfactions, and spatial and visual features as determinants of frequency of interaction.
Leadership

Leadership is "the performance of those acts which help the group achieve its preferred outcomes." The "acts" include directing, guiding, influencing, controlling thinking or the behavior of others. Thus the attention is upon the functional aspects of leadership rather than upon a description of traits which is the customary approach to leadership analysis. However, the characteristics of the group itself are significant as well as the situation in which the group is acting or functions. The members' attitudes and needs influence the leadership behavior as do the goals, the structure of the group, and the expectations from the external or larger environment.

The correlation of traits and leadership though positive is not large. Leadership traits are often similar to those which other group members might possess except that "the leader is usually found to have a higher rating on each 'good' trait." Research evidence indicates particular traits as differentiating leaders from nonleaders: intelligence, scholarship, dependability, responsibility, activity and social participation, and socioeconomic status. However, it has been found that these traits are best evaluated in terms of the leader's role, the group situation, and the characteristics of the members. Since traits and functions are very closely related, leaders should be selected in terms of "necessary skills plus a willingness to satisfy the group's needs." Groupings of traits appear to comprise the total personality and among these two types have been found in leadership research: the "self-oriented" and the "group-oriented" wherein the focus of the leader...
is either upon himself or upon others in terms of need-satisfaction. Either type may be present in the group setting and may be characterized further as "emergent" or "elected." The emergent leader, because of the characteristic of dominance, may be less acceptable than the elected leader since it is through aggressive behavior that he assumes his position. Once established in a leaderless group, a leader cannot be easily unseated, even if another one is selected.

Group leadership commonly falls into one of two categories, i.e., that which is concerned with "task functions" and that which is concerned with "social-emotional functions." This conceptualization is also referred to as "goal achievement" and "group maintenance," separate functions for which two specialists usually emerge: one for the task and one for the social-emotional needs. If one individual provides leadership on both counts, it is often difficult for him to strike a balance in his behavior to satisfy the requirements for each aspect. Therefore, other central members often assume some of the responsibility in order to preserve cohesiveness and locomotion toward the goal. If their efforts are successful, then their activity can be described as being of leadership quality. In this way the general functions of leadership can be divided both formally and informally among several group members.

Leadership behavior may occur if some members are specialized at the task or social-emotional level and a conflict occurs which produces a need for their abilities or if the leader does not provide the expected leadership functions, or if the goal is especially important to a member, or if the goal is threatened in terms of its achievement.
Members in a central position feel that others are dependent upon them and develop a feeling of responsibility, thereby exercising leadership behavior. In addition, personal characteristics affect the amount of initiative that members demonstrate, e.g., confidence of personal views, high personal esteem, strong motivation for achievement, and strong need for power and recognition.

The leader must have the ability to create the conditions for the social-emotional satisfactions leading to optimal activity for task-accomplishment. He may not fulfill all these functions but he is, nevertheless, a "major determinant" in the group's progress in experiencing satisfaction in the various aspects of interaction. If the goal is free discussion, then the leader who facilitates this is the effective one. However, if the task requires frequent participation of "more skillful members" and a definite "hierarchy of power and influence," then the leader's efforts must be directed toward the use of these factors.

A "leader must have power to exert influence" if he is to perform leadership functions. He exerts influence by coordinating activities, by giving instructions or directions, by persuading, by motivating, and by creating good interpersonal relations. As a result, he must have certain rights, expert knowledge, and support by others in authority. But he must be accepted by his followers since he is dependent upon them in the exercise of his power.

Cohesiveness is an important factor in how members diagnose one another's leadership potential. If there is a high degree of cohesiveness, i.e., a state where the personal needs of the members and the
needs of the group are closely allied, then the members consider effective members as satisfying both personal and group needs. It is likely then that the effective member will be selected as the leader. This fact is true of "cooperative" groups but in "competitive" groups, an incapable leader is often chosen since the needs are too varied and numerous to be satisfied by a capable leader who is considered, furthermore, a rival. 137

In the classic experiments of Lippitt and White in which three group conditions were examined, it was found that there were major leadership differences among the "democratic," "authoritarian," and "laissez-faire" leaders. The democratic one makes more suggestions and stimulates self-guidance more than the laissez-faire leader, but the latter extends knowledge more. The authoritarian one gives orders more, disrupting commands more often, and uses praise and approval more. The group members are more passive in the authoritarian atmosphere, experience greater discontent in relations with the leader and demand more attention. In the democratic and laissez-faire atmospheres, there are more friendly and confiding feelings expressed. Cooperative suggestions are freer in the democratic situation while individualistic suggestions come from the laissez-faire group, a condition that is probably due to the lack of an interrelationship between the leader and group members. This latter group also asks for more information, too, because the members have the responsibility of securing everything on their own. Purposeful communication is initiated more often under the influence of the democratic leader and production is greater than under the influence
of the authoritarian leader. In summary, it can be said that the authoritarian group is highest in the "quantity" of interaction while the democratic group is better on "quality."\textsuperscript{138}

**Implications for the school group.** In the instructional setting leadership is formally vested in the teacher who can be thought of as the most central figure whose responsibility consists in trying to "strike a balance between permissiveness and authority" and to "maximize each individual's potential."\textsuperscript{139} The substance of his activity is described in this way:

The essence of good teaching is not to protect the student from exposure of inadequacies, learning, and change but to create supportive conditions enabling the individual to undergo the process of learning, to handle his anxieties and concerns, to experiment with new ways of thinking and behaving.\textsuperscript{140}

The aim of instructional leadership should be to develop the class group by providing guidance and creating appropriate conditions for learning as well as sharing with students in maintaining these conditions. The fulfillment of this aim results in individual growth for the members at the intellectual and emotional levels:\textsuperscript{141}

- Committed to the concept of class group
- Diagnostic sensitivity
- Assistance in developing good group structure for learning tasks
- Relinquishing of traditional control
- Understanding of group life
- Functioning as group maintainer and subject-matter teacher
- Open-mindedness about evaluation
- Non-interference of personal needs.
The teacher's leadership, though, is not just a function of intelligence, skill, and understanding, but also includes influences from his personality and roles:

Personality factors modify the individual's ability to recognize and to assume the appropriate role in a particular situation, and, as a consequence, the development of the needed skill may be accelerated or retarded.142

Roles require different perceptions and skills as is evidenced in such examples as that of motivator, adaptor, evaluator, and resource person.143

For the discussion-group situation the teacher must have specialized skill and understanding because this setting is not designed for lecturing, nor is it for learning the entire subject-matter, nor for reviewing all the information formerly transmitted to the students by the teacher nor for reporting on all matter learned in independent study. What needs to be emphasized is "good discussions and improved interpersonal relations."144

The differences between large lecture groups and small discussion groups are similar to "teacher-centeredness" and "learner-centeredness." In the large lecture group and teacher-centered class, the teacher talks most of the time and has almost exclusive control, thus a close relationship between the students is not possible. In the small discussion group all members can "share in the talking-time, control is distributed, and intimate talk is possible" and because of the "student-supportive atmosphere," member anxiety is reduced and increased interaction and positive feelings result.145
Concepts of authority, power, and influence of the teacher must be examined for the establishment of learner-centered grouping:

- Teacher "intentions" are not an adequate basis for determining methods. Rather, it must be the "meaning his behavior has for the students" which must govern activity in the instructional setting. Teachers, therefore, must be sensitive to student reactions to his intentions.¹⁴⁶

- Adolescents though strongly motivated by the factor of conformity do seek experiences to build personal autonomy. The teacher must be aware of this and allow students an authentic freedom of choice uncontaminated by his conscious or unconscious restrictive intentions, when free choices promise to produce a maximizing of the students' growth.¹⁴⁷

- The exercise of power must be judiciously directed toward group functioning and maintenance without producing conflict and impeding productivity. Its only reason for existence is as a means for creating of the group a "unit of learning."¹⁴⁸

Corollaries to these notions are found in several observations pertaining to methods:

- The idea that there is "one right way to teach" denies the existence of individual differences not only among students but also among teachers. Appropriate questions should be "how," "for whom," and "under what conditions."¹⁴⁹
Methods must differ according to task as well as the characteristics of the teacher and students. There are many "hazards" in assuming that one particular method is the ideal.\footnote{150}

The most critical decision is to select the most satisfactory method for a situation and then to use it wisely and effectively.\footnote{151}

Student leadership in the group is of critical significance because it is an important experiential activity for the development of abilities in directing and guiding group activity.\footnote{152} This type of relationship develops readily in a cohesive student-group which normally elects the most central or able member as its leader. Leadership is generally directed to establishing the group structure so that needs can be met adequately and to channeling behavior so that task work can be accomplished. All this is carried on by the leader in accordance with the standards and values of the members. However, "student skills of leadership are not necessarily those that are esteemed by adults," therefore, a teacher often hesitates to transfer his authority to a student.\footnote{153} This attitude must be reversed for student-leadership functioning to be realized in all its potential.

Concluding assumptions for a small-group methodology in the school setting.

1. In selecting leaders, functions to be performed as well as leadership "abilities" and personality characteristics must be used as determining criteria.
2. Since the "group-oriented" or "learner-centered" teacher can produce more satisfactions for group members and closer relationships, this characteristic must be included among those used for selection. This characteristic must be present also in the student leader.

3. Since the "elected" leader appears to be more acceptable to group members, choice of the leader must be a function of the group membership itself, when it concerns student leadership.

4. Central members must be allowed to assume task and social-emotional functions not only to provide assistance for the leadership and for satisfying group needs but for developing their own abilities in social interaction.

5. If the goal requires occasionally special patterns of contributions such as frequent participation of "skillful members" or central members, the plans for interaction must be flexible enough to permit some deviation to serve task and social-emotional purposes.

6. Since the "cooperative" climate encourages the growth of cohesiveness and other positive characteristics, the leadership must promote this type of climate instead of the "competitive" one which tends toward negative feelings and output.

7. Since quality of interaction would appear to be a more acceptable alternative to quantity of interaction, the leader must be prepared to exercise a "democratic" leadership style because it yields more member satisfactions and task-conversation than the authoritarian or laissez-faire styles.
8. Certain understandings and skills must be part of the teacher's repertory successful group guidance: sensitivity to the "meanings" of student behavior, ability to use feedback from students to improve group life, capability of subordinating personal needs to those of the group members, openness in using and modifying pedagogical techniques in order to produce optimal learning, ability to develop in students autonomous behavior and to direct conforming behavior so that it benefits both the individual and the group.

9. Opportunity for student-leadership must be increased for experiential learning and for satisfying social-emotional needs.

**Task-Accomplishment**

Six variables which are commonly thought of as determining in part the way that the task will be accomplished are:

1. The kind of task (goal)
2. The criteria for task completion
3. The rules (or roles) which must be followed
4. The method of imposing the rules
5. The amount of stress on the members
6. The consequences of failure or success.

These variables describe expected behavior at both the task and social-emotional levels and indicate the interrelationships of the basic group elements, referred to earlier, which emerge from group interaction. It can be assumed from the documentation provided thus far that unless social-emotional obstacles are resolved, locomotion
toward task-accomplishment is difficult to initiate. Furthermore, subsequent efforts to complete a similar task or even one of another description are dependent upon the success or failure of the group in coping with the challenge of the first task.

Group members normally seek to accomplish the task successfully. They are inclined to both compete and cooperate to realize their goals. If the members share equally in the rewards, they will cooperate; if the best behavior is rewarded, they will compete. Experimentation indicates that when there is cooperative motivation, there is more mutual assistance between members, more division of work, more liking and, as a result, the task requiring cooperative efforts results in superior work. This is evidenced in the effects of cooperation and competition in group activity and interaction. The cooperative group surpasses the competitive group in the following ways:

1. "Stronger individual motivation" for completing the task and for fulfilling one's obligation to the other members
2. Greater "division of labor" in the substance and amount of interaction and greater working together
3. More "effective inter-member communication" through a greater verbalization of ideas, greater attention to the ideas of others, more reception to the ideas of others and a willingness to be influenced by them
4. More "friendliness" expressed by the members and a greater desire to be respected by fellow members and more satisfaction with group activity and productivity.
5. More "group productivity" although no significant differences on individual productivity nor in the amount of individual learning.

The effects of some task factors are reported as follows:

1. The hierarchy of the grouping
   - Production differences on the task result from position in the hierarchy rather than from intelligence or dexterity. However, this conclusion is dependent upon the kind of activity and the degree of authority.  
   - The task influences the way in which the status hierarchy is established.

2. The interaction pattern
   - This will differ depending upon the problems involved in the task. There is an "equilibrium problem" as the group moves from task needs to social-emotional needs.

3. Compatibility and liking
   - Compatible groups are more productive because the social-emotional factors are taken care of first. This releases energy for the task.
   - The factors of friendship and successful task-accomplishment are dependent upon one another.

4. Stress
   - The most common form of stress is the time factor: either too little or too much of it.
   - Mild stress does produce optimal performance.
5. Feedback

- The less or slower the feedback, the lower the "degree of reality," thus the more internal states and tensions influence the response.  

- Role-playing is not as involving a task as actual discussion.

- Successful groups tend to raise their level of "aspiration" for the next problem while unsuccessful groups lowered theirs.

6. Productivity

- A by-product of group discussion is that the member tends to be more accurate in his own judgment after he has heard the judgment of others.

- High productivity is not always associated with satisfaction because in authoritarian and competitive groups high productivity is gained at the expense of social-emotional satisfaction.

- A group tends to be more productive if composed of members of the same sex, is cohesive and small, has a communication system with maximum feedback, and has a skilled leader.

Implications for the school group. Evidence from classroom observation indicates some weaknesses in task factors:

- Much group activity is primarily teacher-directed.

- Acceptance of the task by the group is sometimes not clear.

- Tasks are for the most part imposed by external sources.
Grading of individual students tends to encourage a "competitive" climate.

Extrinsic incentives appear to predominate.

High-status members are often allowed to dominate activity.

The "equilibrium" problem seems to be in the direction of over-emphasis of the task level.

Too little time is given to the establishment of group life.

Feedback is often delayed or inadequate.

Role-playing is emphasized rather than discussion.

High productivity is encouraged and social-emotional satisfactions not adequately attended to.

Concluding assumptions for a small-group methodology in the school setting.

1. The coping with public and private task and social-emotional problems for the group and the individual must be continuously assessed as a group progresses along a path toward its goal.

2. Since the effects of "cooperative" group activity tend to be positive in various aspects as motivation, role, communication, friendliness, and productivity, this type of climate must be considered more favorable than the "competitive."

3. Expectations on task-accomplishment for high-status individuals must be different from those for low-status individuals.
4. Input factors which have a particular bearing upon productivity must be taken into account in grouping students: compatible combination of personalities and skills, functional group structure, background experience for the task, maximum feedback, skilled leader, and small group size.

5. Since the "equilibrium" problem may interfere with productivity, the leader must be alert and able to direct group energy toward its solution.

6. The building of a compatible and friendly group "life" must be of primary concern since productivity is influenced positively by it.

7. The factor of time in accomplishing the task must be carefully planned to permit correcting extremes which cause destructive stress.

8. Mild stress can be favorable to productivity, therefore, its presence in goal-path activity must be considered.

9. Successful behaviors which are demonstrated as the group proceeds toward its goal must be recognized so that the "aspiration" of the group may be enhanced.

10. Since discussion produces more task-involvement and other positive outcomes than role-playing, it must figure predominantly in group activity.

11. High productivity must not be gained at the expense of satisfying social-emotional needs.
Group Size

General research. Group size is a critical input factor of the group process system, as are the characteristics of the members, their social response-behavior, the hierarchical structure, the group climate, the interaction pattern, and the leadership. Although little research has been carried on to determine the effects of group size in the educational setting, general research has produced data that might be used to construct basic assumptions for experimentation with students.

Studies of group size are numerous. Conclusions of some basic studies are described below:

- The optimal size appears to be five.\(^\text{169}\) Below this size members complain that the group is too small although the amount of talk-time increases. Above five, there is complaining that the group is too large, and this is thought of as being due to a restriction upon participation introduced by a greater number of members.

- Five-member groups are more satisfied with discussion than 12-member groups.\(^\text{170}\)

- Most people prefer five-six member groups. There is more talk and influence available yet the number is large enough so that there is a variety of personalities and talents present.\(^\text{171}\)

- A group of seven or smaller is less likely to have "verbal non-participants," but if the group is of eight or larger, it is likely to have one more "verbal non-participants."\(^\text{172}\)
The characteristics that appear to support the number of five are:

- With the odd number there is no deadlock possible.
- In the common split of three to two, no one is alone.
- A member can assume various roles easily or can adjust his position without personal risk because the structure is less formal.

The addition of members causes more demands on the leader, a decrease in communication time, more members feel threatened or inhibited and there is a larger gap between the top participator and the other members. The quality of interaction is reduced and is more mechanical. Furthermore, members are less inclined to explore different points of view. There are more attempts at consensus although all the members may not agree. 

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Educational research and warranted opinion.

... the individual differences among children is so great that it is difficult to detect the persistent effect of anything so gross in character as the size of a group or the particular arrangements for the provisions of experience. If a plan for grouping introduces distinctly different learning experiences, the effects can be demonstrated. 

Thus a word of caution is issued that the study of size itself may be less productive than the examination of the learning experiences themselves. This position appears to be confirmed by Fleming who, after a review of the literature, concludes that research findings are "meagre and inconclusive" on the optimum size. Evans observes that "the size of one class is important mainly because of its effects on choice of methods."
Examples of experimentation which has been published are few. Two are described below:

• The Class Size Study of 1957-1958 at Jefferson City, Colorado High School yielded these conclusions: there was no significance in the achievement in classes of 20, 30, 60, 70. The principal conclusion was that "it was apparent that no concept of class size was justifiable without the consideration of function, purposes, and procedure. Groups of all sizes are equally effective, but for entirely different learning situations." 178

• The Broomfield High School, Colorado study yielded these conclusions: there was greater opportunity for pupil-teacher interaction, pupil-pupil interaction, pupil activity, and for conducting analytical and exploratory discussions in the small group setting. Definite problems were apparent: not enough time to use grouping well; pupils do not know how to take an active role; some pupils monopolize discussion; and teachers admitted a lack of knowledge of group techniques. But "in spite of . . . problems, students and teachers both felt that the students learned better in small group sections than they would in the usual classroom situation." Low achievers, however, had more trouble than average or high ones and sophomores more than juniors and seniors. 179
Beggs defines the small group as between 7-15. He says that "individualized instruction is more of a reality in the small groups than it was in our traditional 30-student classes," and that there is more student interest in work and greater correspondence in work to the interests and abilities of students. Small groups are successful at the Decatur-Lakeview High School in Illinois in grades 7-12.\textsuperscript{180}

Selected research studies since 1950 reveal the following conclusions: \textsuperscript{181}

- The environment is better in small classes, but in achievement there is no difference between large and small classes in an elementary school study.
- There are no differences on skills such as arithmetic, reading, language between large and small groups in an elementary school study.
- Small classes give rise to more educational creativity and new teaching procedures can be adopted more readily.
- Teachers get to know pupils better and can individualize instruction more. There is more group work, more informality, more opportunity for interaction of all kinds.

In research with elementary school pupils it was found that attainment gains between small and large groups are similar, but the pupils in the small groups enjoy their work more and their attitudes toward the subject improve more. Pupils learn to cooperate better and there are fewer "isolates." The conclusion is that "the advantages of study in small group may be social and personal rather than academic." \textsuperscript{182}
It appears that "the size of the class should be determined by the purposes or objectives sought by the instructor." Experimenters advocate the small group for discussion and for internalizing of material presented in the large group. They note that the small group is an optimal setting for questioning and for verifying understandings. The thought process is best stimulated if the students come to the group having acquired the background facts and information. Electronic devices and "software" can provide opportunity for drill but "only the human teacher who knows individual students can teach the higher skills of critical thinking and he can do this only in groups small enough to permit the exchange of ideas." Experience indicates the need for "expert teaching" in small groups and the fact that the small-group is "the most difficult part of the instructional program."

The organizational pattern that generally includes the small group is "flexible scheduling." In this pattern the small group is one of four types of learning situations proposed in order to meet the various individual needs. Other units of learning are the large group, the laboratory, and independent study. Those who have done research in flexible scheduling caution that "class size, length of class meetings, number and spacing of classes ought to vary according to the nature of the subject, the type of instruction, and the level of ability and interest of the pupils."

Concluding assumptions about the small group.

1. An odd-numbered group size, preferably five or seven, can be considered as having many positive characteristics which promote optimal participation, member satisfaction,
and adequate variety of personality-talent input to provide the conditions for effective "social learning."

2. Methods which result in part from the factor of group size must be the focus of theoretical development and experimentation rather than the size of the group itself.

3. In view of the positive data which has been derived from small-group research in education, it must be concluded that, for satisfying social-emotional needs, for encouraging learning of "cooperative" procedures in task accomplishment, and for permitting interaction at higher thought-processes levels, the small group can have a decisive function.

4. Although research in small-group learning has indicated no greater achievement outcomes than in large groups, it must be concluded that, since the satisfaction of social-emotional needs which is prerequisite to task work seems to be produced to a marked degree in the small group, the small group be considered as a potent setting for realizing certain educational goals.

5. Significant positive results at the achievement level might be possible in the small group if we were to come closer to an "expert teaching" ideal in that situation. Lack of methodological know-how has been repeatedly referred to by knowledgeable critics as a source of weakness in determining the influence of group size.
CHAPTER III

LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

Language and Language Learning

Language and its Function

Language is a "system of vocal communication" used by "a group of individuals who are able to communicate with one another because they have learned to respond to one another's utterances in ways." These speakers are "partners to an agreement to see and think of the world in a particular way," therefore, their language is "experienced and conceived" in a way different from that of another human community. The characteristic structural patterns of language used by a particular community influence thought processes which lead to a unique form of cognitive development, thereby resulting in a distinctive "organization of the world." As the children of the community talk with adults cultural influences are absorbed, the language acquired acting as a mediating factor.

The "vocal:" or spoken form of language is considered primary by linguists since spoken language has consistently developed first in speech communities with the written language evolving later as a result of the need to preserve or record speech for special purposes in social interaction. Man could not have "mastered his environment" without giving some permanency to the stream of spoken words. He did this
by creating a written language, probably after learning to "read" the objects of his environment and devising subsequently, for the sake of efficient reference, graphic symbols to represent these objects and what he wished to communicate about them. These symbols which were initially pictures or "pictograms" gradually evolved into "ideograms" or "convenient short-hand scribbles meaning the same thing." But as this writing system developed, it became an independent system in itself, until symbols representing sounds were introduced. As various cultures progressed in developing alphabetized systems, the written language, as had the spoken language before, "mirrored the national character of its users" with its idiosyncratic qualities, but no alphabet has yet been successful in transcribing completely all the linguistic features of the spoken language. The written language fails in all languages to represent "fully and accurately" not only phonology, but aspects of morphology, syntax, vocabulary, and style.

Languages would never have developed without some specific purpose. It serves two functions: "inter-individual communication" and "intra-individual communication." Language is the means by which man influences not only the behavior of other men within his linguistic community, but succeeds in forming the characteristics of his own thought and behavior. In other words, language serves "outwardly" and "inwardly." Experiments have attempted to determine how the internalization of language takes place in children. It appears from the results that younger subjects of ages three to eight are unable to convert instructions into a form which would permit them to proceed with tasks requiring verbal response. Older children can perform the
function. The internal linguistic system for coping with finer discriminations and perception has not, in young children, reached a state for permitting more complex verbal behavior. These experiments suggest the intimate relationship "between being able to do or think something on the one hand and being able to say it to oneself on the other."

The child's world comes into being as the result of "habitual actions" which he uses to meet the challenges of life. Later he moves to the level of "imagery" where he reconstructs mental pictures, though incomplete, of that which he perceives, and begins to categorize:

As the child uses these conceptual categories and the language that goes with it, he relies more and more upon language as the preferential mode of grouping ... He uses imagery less and less. ...

The cycle enters finally the symbolic stage where the language system takes on importance since, through language, experiences are referred to in words and language becomes "the instrument of thinking."

The quality of early opportunities for mental development cannot be ignored in view of the recent evidence that deprived environments can create irreversible deficits in humans. Primarily linguistic, these deficits include "... the lack of opportunity to share in dialogue, to have occasion for paraphrase, to internalize speech as a vehicle for thought" and, although these factors are not completely understood, there is every indication that, unless "certain basic skills are mastered, later more elaborate ones become increasingly out of reach" thereby restricting intellectual development.
Interrelationship of Thought and Speech

Vigotsky and Piaget. Vigotsky says that language and thought are not discrete elements but interrelated being both cause and effect. However, this link does not occur as a primary bond, but rather comes into being, is modified, and develops as thinking and speech grow. His thesis is that the unity of thought and word is produced through the meaning of words and that ultimately "it is not possible to say whether it is a phenomenon of speech or a phenomenon of thinking." Therefore, the meaning of a word is concurrently both verbal and intellectual: "It is a phenomenon of verbal thought or meaningful speech." 201

He, as Piaget, rejects the position that the connection between words and meaning is a simple associative link, that is, one which results from the repeated occurrence of the word and the referent, because this explanation does not permit the meaning of the word to be modified and broadened or changed. An association is a fixed condition which does not lend itself to the establishment of higher levels of meanings for the expression of abstract ideas:

The discovery of the fact that meanings of words develop is a most important and fundamental discovery . . . The meanings of words are not constant. They change as the child develops; they change also in accordance with the different ways in which thought functions. 202

The relationship between thought and word is a process which is bi-directional, i.e., proceeding "from thought to word and from word to thought." Thought comes into being through words and operates at two levels, i.e., the inner, meaningful aspect of speech and the external phonic aspect which are unified, though each is governed by its own principles of development. 203 This is evidenced in the child whose
external speech progresses from part to whole, i.e., from one-word, to
two and three words, to simple sentences, to complex sentences, and
finally to a succession of sentences. On the other hand, the inner
quality of this speech is quite different since the first word which
a child says is a whole thought, a one-word sentence or holophrase.
Therefore, at the semantic level, the child begins conversely with the
whole, progressing to the mastering of separate meaningful units,
finally selecting out from the whole or undifferentiated thought separ­
rate meanings. So the movement of these levels, although interdepen­
dent, is obviously in opposition to the other.

Another dimension of Vigotsky's thesis is his concept of "inner
speech." He distinguishes between external and internal speech:

External speech is the turning of thoughts
into words . . . With inner speech, it is the
reverse process — speech turns into thought.

Piaget considers a child's "egocentric speech" an overt manifestation
of speech-for-oneself and does not see it as being connected to inner
speech. He concludes that it is a direct expression of thought repre­
senting a child's compromise between engaging in verbal fantasy and
dealing linguistically with social reality, a condition which gradually
diminishes as the child moves toward socialization. When this is
affected, egocentric speech disappears. On the other hand, Vigotsky
understands egocentric speech to have a genetic connection to inner
speech, i.e., as the egocentric speech diminishes inner speech rises:

With the progressive isolation of the speech 'for
oneself', its vocalization becomes unnecessary and mean­
ingless and because of its growing peculiarities also
impossible. Speech 'for oneself' cannot find expression
in external speech . . . In the end this speech 'for oneself' separates speech and thus creates an illusion of having disappeared completely.207

This decrease in vocalization signals the development of the child's ability to think and to imagine the words, functions which come to fruition as a result of the direction provided by egocentric speech, the transitional state from public to private speech.

Vigotsky makes clear that inner speech is not just "speech minus sound," but a special type of speech characterized by incomplete syntax. It tends toward a type of abbreviation which preserves the predicate and omits the subject and its related words. Although not a general characteristic, this tendency is sometimes apparent in external speech. For example, in a dialogue, abbreviations are often used since the speaker assumes certain prior knowledge in the mind of the listener, therefore, he can make use of incomplete sentences accompanied by facial expressions and intonation to project his full meaning.208 A purer state is found in inner speech where the speaker is both speaker and listener which permits the use of many abbreviated forms.

Perception and meaning. Some psychologists observe that "sentences are absorbed as wholes" in listening and that understanding of them is not concurrent with the emission of sound. Rather, the interpretation lags behind, moving forward and again backward, to elements which contribute to the meaning. The interpretation may be delayed as much as a sentence behind as supplementing takes place through visual, auditory, motor, and verbal means. However, focus is usually upon the idea which is the sum total of the words and their meanings.209
Experiments suggest that the learning of the telegraphic language is a process that not only parallels the acquisition of the skill of reading but appears to have a bearing upon language perception and production. The operator progresses in this fashion from initial exposure to proficiency:

- He looks for single letters, learning to recognize the parts of whole elements.
- He observes the words.
- He observes sentences as wholes.

It is interesting to note that the production skill progresses more rapidly than the receiving skill, but that with practice the receiving skill develops beyond the production skill and continues to move at that level. Therefore, one may infer that production, for a time, advances more rapidly than perception and that a production skill like speaking will advance more markedly in the early stages than a perception skill like listening. In addition,

When the operator becomes able to grasp words as opposed to letters, his receiving curve makes a big jump, and another marked increase in speed is made when he can pass from word to phrase.

Each of these "ascents" is based upon the "habit of associating wider wholes with ideas, or of attaching meaning to larger and larger units." As in any language, the meanings transcend the words and phrases and make understanding possible through their union. All experiences provide the impetus for building associations which link meanings, leading to higher levels of symbolic expression and thought. In the case of the child, he does not know a word's multiple meaning since he
has had only limited experiences with it. His primary goal is acquisition of the word within the limited context dictated by his immediate needs.213

Even the establishment of habit is rooted in conscious response. Thought and meaning are dominant at the outset, but, with increasing familiarity, the conscious response is replaced by automatic behavior or habit and simple exposure to the stimulus is adequate to elicit response. Initially the associations are "definite and clear," but these meaningful associations gradually become indistinct as they are established with repeated use and their function eventually disappears.214 Therefore, it can be inferred that automatic habit-behavior, rather than evolving exclusively from "thoughtless" stimulus-response conditioning, does emerge from an initial state of meaningful thought.

Language Acquisition in Children

Stages of development. The stages are not easily determined because descriptions are based upon adult conceptions.215 The following categories and descriptions have served to describe the acquisition:216

- The first few months--vocalization and "nondescript sounds" which characterize "exercising" and the beginning of the infant's awareness of "the instrumental and communicative character of vocal sounds."
- The "babbling" stage--"random vocalization" which contains vowels and consonants and may include preliminary imitative behavior under conditions of reinforcement.
• **The beginning of language comprehension**--at ages eight to ten months, "first evidence of understanding and recognition of certain symbolic gestures, intonations, words, and phrase-structure."

• **The beginnings of symbolic communication**--at the end of the first year, a "voluntary" use of adult language. Gradual process at the beginning but a rapid growth insues as parts of units become distinguished and pronunciation improves. Period of the holophrase.

• **The beginnings of differentiated speech communication**--at the end of the second year, vocabulary growth is marked and experiments with variations of sentence structure appear.

• **Later stages**--rapid development in all aspects. By six years, the child has mastered "phonemic distinctions" and "common grammatical forms and constructions" to which he has been exposed. Knowledge of grammar has reached a high point but vocabulary continues to develop.

From this scheme of development certain points might be inferred about first-language learning:

• **Early vocalization creates environmental responses that develop an awareness of the use of sounds.**

• **"Babbling" is the exploration of sounds and attending to those which are attractive or which draw attention from humans in the environment.**
• Recognition and understanding are reflected in broader linguistic comprehension, both verbal and nonverbal.

• Production results from ability to distinguish the function of parts which implies a grasp of specific meaning.

• Refinement in production develops from increased structural experimentation supported by rapid vocabulary growth.

• Basic, productive structural elements are finite; vocabulary is infinite.

Examples of research on general characteristics of first-language acquisition. The following research permit the examination of special variables:

• The child does not have any innate drive to imitate behavior. He does so, however, because he is rewarded. Rather than being a process for learning new behavior, it is a method of experimentation after the responses have been learned. 217

• The first responses of the child are "gross and global," then they become "differentiated and structured" as a result of "unconscious trial and error" which leads to distinguishing of the function of the parts. Along with imitation, the child tries out responses, combines old ones, and concurrently tries to generalize. In speaking
of errors, it is concluded that they result from a fail­ure to recognize a critical distinction in sound, form, or meaning, or a false analogy, but we do not know much about the distinctions that the child makes.  

- At the end of the second year, vocabulary growth increases rapidly and awareness of the similarities and differences in units of the sentence. This is referred to as "the development of articulated sentence structure."  

- Sentence length seems to be one of the best indices of linguistic maturity. "Speech profiles" are used as normative data for similar purposes.  

Thus, some generalizations can be made about language acquisition:  

- Imitation is not a basic impulse of the child but is rather a "secondary result" of attending or being attended to on a linguistic level.  

- Verbal responses deal with wholes initially but are gradually differentiated as linguistic sensitivity increases.  

- "Errors" are failures in recognizing critical features or applying regular rules where unperceived or unknown irregularities occur.  

- Indices for evaluation of linguistic maturation can be found in the use of sentence length and "speech profiles".
Some research on individual differences in language acquisition.

There has been much written in recent years on the influence of environment upon intellectual development. An aspect concurrently examined has been linguistic competence since this factor is so intrinsically tied to intellectual maturation. Through language the child learns to symbolize and communicate his thoughts. Cultural deprivation in language development which interferes with the phases of cognitive development will also thwart the evolution of language competence. In lower-class homes, important cognitive uses of language are lacking such as explaining, describing, instructing, inquiring, hypothesizing, analyzing, comparing, deducing and testing because there is so little communication between adults and children. At the preschool level, several language problems can be distinguished among these deprived children:

- Their speech consists of "giant words," whole phrases or sentences which cannot be taken apart or recombined. Thus the child is restricted to "an inflexible entity."
- Since sentences are not understood as made up of meaningful parts, these sentences cannot be reproduced. What appears as faulty pronunciation is in actuality the fusion of words which appears like a phonemic problem.
- The children are unable to talk to themselves and cannot integrate acting and thinking. Thus, they cannot control their behavior through an "internal dialogue" which is an important step in developing reasoning power.
These findings on the nature of linguistic deprivation appear to confirm some earlier research conclusions:

- There is faster language development in upper socio-economic classes.  
- Children who deal with adults develop language faster than when they deal with siblings.  
- Orphaned or institutionalized children develop more slowly but can be trained.

Deprived environments present special problems for the growing child. Whether or not the school can solve some of them is a question of concern to one psychologist who notes that it is not simply "a matter of teaching new habits and skills" but of making dramatic changes in a well-established but inadequate language system.

Examples of syntactic and morphological studies. The current thesis being examined by contemporary linguists and psychologists is that "speakers of a language share knowledge of rules" and that these rules which are internalized in childhood permit the generation of language. This "grammar" appears to be under the control of a "mechanism" which permits the production of grammatical sentences while suppressing the ungrammatical.

Some research describes the simple system that children from four to seven develop to cope with language. The investigation was based upon an invented set of materials containing a complete inventory of the English inflectional system. Results show that children "produce consistent and orderly answers," though not always consonant with
the correct English model, which would appear to indicate that "they operate with clearly delimited morphological rules." Furthermore, children do not treat new words according to "idiosyncratic patterns or infrequent models" but apply their system of regular rules. Consequently they perform best where regular forms are required.

Subsequent research at the syntactic level produces evidence that children, preschool through eight years, acquire rules that govern their sentence production. Their investigation which was based upon an invented game indicates that children demonstrate an ability, increasing with age, to construct grammatically correct sentences using new words. It appears that earlier studies which revealed that children's quality of production and use of complex sentences increases with age is confirmed in these recent findings.

These investigations lead to the proposal that children's grammar is not an exclusive invention but simply a reduced version of adult grammar. Sentences of this modified grammar can be classified as "grammatical" since they follow the pattern of adult speech but with consistent morphemes omitted. The researchers refer to this reduced version as "abbreviated or telegraphic" and note that it is wholly predictable from "the mean length of the sentence" and that the model word-order of English syntax is preserved without modification. The phenomenon of reduction of adult sentences is based upon this influence:

... an upper limit of some kind of memory span for the situation in which the child is imitating and a similar limit of programming span for the situation in which the child is constructing the sentence.
As the memory span increases, the child is able to retain more features and consequently to move toward the adult model. But this notion does not explain the child's selective tendency to drop some kinds of morphemes and preserve others:

As a child becomes capable (through maturation and the consolidation of frequently occurring sequences) of registering more of the detail from adult speech, his original rules will have to be revised and supplemented. As the generative grammar grows more complicated and more like adult grammar, the child's speech will become capable of expressing a greater variety of meanings. It also seems that the child categorizes grammar in terms of use and meaning which results in the establishment of a complex grammatical system. Imitation alone does not explain the child's language competence. The child learns the "generative" rules of grammar and his internal "monitoring device" permits gradually more definitive selections at all linguistic levels. At the same time, the child does use "gross approximations" as he progresses toward a conceptualization of the obligatory rule. The use of these approximations which declines with maturity is more evidence that grammar acquisition and development cannot be adequately explained away by the notion of imitation.

The child follows a special sequence in acquiring adult basic structure:

- The first stage involves the imperative, negation, and the question which are of "functional value" and are used "early and with great frequency."
- The next stage involves separation and inversion but the child does have "alternate synonymous forms."
The last stage involves embedded and conjunctive sentences.\(^\text{240}\) Simplest rules are used first and these result in the simple structures which occur early. Those rules which produce more complex operations come later and these are evidenced in the production of sentences of separation, inversion, embedding, and conjunction.\(^\text{241}\)

Investigations of children with deviant speech and children with normal speech, ages two to five and one-half, produces the conclusions that children with deviant speech persist in formulating sentences using general rules and more approximate rules throughout the age-range whereas the children with normal speech used more and more differentiated rules or "subsets of rules" which permit the generation of more complex sentences.\(^\text{242}\) The characteristics of the children with deviant speech appear to suggest possible environmental deprivation as described above.

In conclusion, it would appear that the following thought might serve as a guideline for gathering data about language behavior:

It is possible that for the earliest linguistic accomplishments one sort of learning theory will serve—a theory developed largely from the study of animal behavior—while for later accomplishments a completely different theory will be necessary—a theory permitting the inductive formation of syntactic classes that generalize far beyond obtained information.\(^\text{243}\)

Assumptions

1. Language is first and foremost a "system of vocal communication," serving conversation with oneself and with others.
2. Certain basic linguistic skills must be mastered before more complex ones can develop. Among these is taking part in dialogue, learning to paraphrase, and using speech as a vehicle for thought.

3. The unity of thought and speech is produced through the meaning of words, and meanings change with speech and thought development.

4. Thought comes into being through words and operates at two levels: inner speech and external speech, each governed by its own principles of development.

5. Inner speech is characterized by a special abbreviated syntax with thought connected to the sense of the whole rather than to individual words.

6. Perception in listening is not concurrent with the emission of sound, but operates in forward and backward movements for the purpose of acquiring meaning while also depending upon supplementary cues.

7. A production skill like speaking develops more rapidly than a perception skill like listening for some time during skill development.

8. Perception moves in the direction from parts to wholes, and proficiency in this skill increases markedly when transition from parts to wholes is effected. Meaning plays an important role in advancing this transition.
9. The establishment of habit is rooted in thought and meaning. Automatic movement is demonstrated only after the stimulus-response connection which is definite, clear, and consciously familiar no longer requires deliberate thought to produce its elicitation.

10. Stages of language acquisition can be generalized so that common characteristics are discernible. These stages must be examined for clues to processes that may need to be experienced in second-language learning, although the establishment of the first language interferes with repeating these processes in their pure form.

11. Examples of research support these observations about first-language acquisition: imitation is experimental behavior after the response has been learned; responses move from the undifferentiated and unstructured to the differentiated and structured; the process of "generalization" is characteristic from the early stages; sentence length is a reliable measure of linguistic maturity; "errors" are failures at recognizing critical features or making false analogies.

12. Examples of research support these observations about individual differences in first-language acquisition: the linguistically-deprived child possesses an inflexible and restricted command of language and cannot integrate acting and thinking, but these deficiencies can be corrected if attended to before the irreversible stage.
13. Examples of syntactic and morphological studies support these conclusions about first-language acquisition: speakers of a language internalize rules which permit the generation of speech, the production of which is controlled by a mechanism that prevents occurrence of the ungrammatical; children apply regular rules to new words, with the quality of production at both the syntactic and morphological levels increasing with age as memory span grows and more details are registered; children's grammar is a reduced or abbreviated grammar which evolves from categorizing in terms of meaning and use, eventually arriving at the obligatory conceptualization; the child's control of basic structure follows a standardized sequence following rules that become more and more differentiated and permitting finally the generation of complex sentences.

Second-Language Learning

Differences Between First- and Second-Language Learning

The acquisition of the first language is most often neither planned nor controlled externally, while second-language learning is "what we make it." The child develops his language competence by moving through a sequence which begins with vocalizing and progresses to rudimentary articulation and then imitation. It is obvious that there is neither the time nor the appropriate psychological and
environmental conditions to allow the second-language learner to follow the same procedure, but certain principles can prove useful as the basis for designing some initial experiences: "reinforcement," "discrimination," and "differentiation."\(^{245}\) These factors permit environmental control for the purpose of inducing the desired behavior, a conditioning process that reinforces, and the altering of responses by "selective application of reinforcement."\(^{246}\) Through these procedures, it is possible not only to correct some of the environmental inefficiencies of first-language learning, but to create a repertory of responses that will serve the learner who must select the appropriate expression quickly for a particular set of circumstances. This is not to imply that cognitive processes are ignored. Reinforcement theory provides a rationale that accounts for only lower levels of verbal behavior, those which contribute to accurate storage and automatic retrieval and accounts for only "the simplest 1\% of the psycholinguistic problems."\(^{247}\)

It may be that the older child or adult who has the advantage of knowing the first language can acquire another language readily because of the competence he has in the syntax and morphology of the first. Moreover, he controls a large vocabulary which has permitted the establishment of conceptual thinking and he uses grammatical generalizations which have developed from the application and modification of rules.\(^{248}\) His understanding extends to sound/letter correspondences as well as to thought/word relationships.\(^{249}\) In other words, within genetic and environmental limitations, he has developed a linguistic system which has the potential of mediating the acquisition of another, particularly at the point where meaning and thought are critical to
forging the link between expression and understanding. If this proves to be so, then cognitive theory complemented by reinforcement theory would appear to contain the substance for the development of a second language-learning theory.

As for the second-language learning of younger children whose dominant language is the first, it cannot be denied that the thought and speech patterns acquired in the first influence acquisition of the second. This may not occur as frequently at the conscious level as with adults, however, since grammatical generalizations have not been consciously externalized, but they are present and operating internally, if we accept what cognitive psychologists and generative linguists theorize. Some differences between children and adults may emerge at the psychological level: children tolerate more easily than adults imitative experimentation, are less rigid in experiencing the learning process, are less inhibited in performance, and are motivated by the discovery element. These factors provide more favorable conditions for the operation of the reinforcement theory than in adults, but they do not negate the concurrent existence nor operation of cognitive processes which were developed during the stages of first-language learning. Therefore, it can be hypothesized that, even in the case of younger children, the combined cognitive-reinforcement theory functions but with fewer negative effects in the domain of reinforcement because of a psychological flexibility and tolerance for the consequences of stimulus-response-reinforcement activity.
A Theoretical Exposition of Second-Language Learning

As a result of the awareness that a theory for second-language learning was needed in order to provide a new basis for giving attention to the spoken as well as written aspects of language learning and to draw together comprehensively recent and pertinent knowledge from psychology and linguistics, scholars constructed theories designed to explicate second-language learning in general and to provide a new framework for classroom instruction. It must be understood that the evolution of these theories, which are quite similar, took place during the late 1950's, a period strongly influenced by Skinnerian principles of reinforcement theory. That cognitive theories are treated with lesser emphasis is due, it seems reasonable to believe, to this influence and also to the fact that investigations into cognition, concept formation, and language have been the special focus of American psychological investigations only since the early part of the 1960's. What is needed now is a revised theory which combines reinforcement and cognitive aspects as they pertain to language acquisition.

The description below details one perspective on second-language learning which has influenced dramatically both the understanding of and performance in language learning and its teaching.

The Brooks theory. This theory acknowledges the fact that since the first language is already established the conditions for learning are very different not only because of physical and mental factors, but because of the "specialized and artificial environment of the
The guiding principle, therefore, must be that second-language learning is "... not problem solving, but the formation and performance of habits."

Analytical explanation is considered a hindrance to learning, if experiences of this kind predominate. Rather, it is proposed that the learner must "forget" how his own language works "before he can make any progress (in habit formation)."

As for goals, this theory states that there are two choices: the establishment of a "compound" or "coordinate" system in the learner. These concepts are borrowed from Weinreich's research:

. . . bilinguals who have learned their two languages within one context will develop a 'compound' bilingual system wherein the symbols of both languages function as interchangeable alternatives with essentially the same meanings. A 'coordinate' system would be developed when the language acquisition contexts were culturally, temporally, or functionally segregated. This form of learning would promote bilinguals whose two sets of symbols would correspondingly be functionally more distinct and independent.

For the establishment of the coordinate system which is the goal of this theory, the learner is exposed first to the spoken language and then to the written. He starts as a hearer and then proceeds to the role of speaker, in a "speaker-hearer-situation relationship." His activity begins with recognition, moves to discrimination, and then imitation, repetition, and memorization. Phonology, morphology, and syntax are attended to before the extension of vocabulary, and accuracy
is emphasized before fluency. As for the control of language structure, the theory suggests a cognitive perspective:

In learning the control of structure, what he (the learner) may at first do as a matter of conscious choice he will eventually do habitually and unconsciously. 256

Furthermore, the learner learns to comprehend more than he can produce which means that he comes to understand much variation in what he hears, but limits himself to a single standard "mode" of expression as his personal style.

The use of English and the knowledge of grammar are not ignored but they function in limited ways, i.e., English for explanation to the learner in the "hearer" capacity and grammar as learned by analogy and generalization after competence is established at the speaking and listening-comprehension levels. The graphic skills of reading and writing are introduced after the phonology and a stock of patterns at the spoken level have been acquired. 257

The nature of the establishment of this coordinate system varies with the age of the learner for muscular and neurological reasons. The preschool child whose brain is still in the process of development possesses an "uncommitted cortex" which can be relegated to second-language imprint while the school child, and more so the adolescent and adult, whose brain has been patterned solely to the first language, finds it much more difficult to acquire an independent functioning of the two languages. 258 The condition of "balanced bilingual," i.e., with equal competence in two languages, is less frequently established if competence is acquired after the age of the preschool child. Balanced bilingualism is the aim of the language learning theory and involves
not only appropriate practice and training but a wide range of experiences similar to those of the native speaker. But we do not know if all can learn a second language. This theory holds, however, that "... it is patently possible for him to become bilingual within the area of his experience with the second language." Nevertheless, a word of caution is in order about the concept of coordinate bilingualism. In a review of a study conducted and reported by Lambert and Preston it states that Penfield's theory of the presence of a "switching mechanism" which effectively shuts out one language system while the other is operating may not be valid. The results of the color-word tasks of the experiment suggest that an individual "cannot automatically inhibit one language system while functioning in the other" and that "the interference occurs via a translation process." Although this research does not nullify the aim of coordinate bilingualism, it does suggest that the dominant or first language must be taken into account in second-language acquisition.

A Critique of the Brooks Theory

The major assumptions of this theory have not been tested empirically so that valid conclusions could be used not only to generalize across learning situations, but to determine precisely what happens in second-language learning. Theoretical statements or assumptions have been based, for the most part, upon scholarly examination of the learning process as it is described by psychologists representing various schools of thought, and as it refers to a more global and comprehensive
view of the "total performance" of the individual in learning, i.e.,
the "cognitive, attitudinal, and evaluative processes." Until there
is research and experimentation to evaluate present theory, these
scholarly and intuitive judgments must serve to stimulate questioning
about validity and to point the way for definitive investigation.

Brooks' thesis gives primary importance to habit formation as
an explanation of second-language learning and less acknowledgment to
the cognitive processes and the role that they might perform in lan-
guage development. It is as though his theory had not gone far enough
in seeking to determine the relationship of language and thought. There
is empirical evidence that "meaningful stimulus elicits a faster learn-
ing rate"; that "an understanding of the underlying structure of the
sentence" is essential to verbal learning; that "much as we might
like to exclude ...all influence of native-language learning, this is
impossible"; that empirical support for training in listening-
comprehension before speaking is largely negative; that the use of
words and structure in wider contexts is inhibited because the pattern
drill is not meaningful.

From these observations it can be inferred that there are many
aspects in modern second-language learning theory that are in need of
further examination and research.
Learner characteristics. The following research permits us to determine some of the learner factors that must be taken into account in second-language learning:

- There does exist a "talent" for second-language learning. This is a "factor beyond intelligence and industriousness which accounts for how well an individual succeeds in a language course." The special talent or factor is called "auditory ability" by the investigator who defines it as "the ability to receive and process information through the ear." The learners in this study who expressed a preference for learning through listening rather than through reading had better listening-comprehension in the second language.268

- There does exist a significant interaction between the order of sense modalities (auditory and visual) and that of ability. The visual-aural order is easier for the better learners while the aural-visual is easier for the poorer learners, until the 14th and 15th days of experimentation when "the order of presentation ceases to make a difference." Thus it is concluded that

... good students quickly learn to recognize both the aural and visual forms of foreign words, whether they are presented in visual-aural order or in aural-visual order, though the latter may be slightly harder at first. Poor students find learning easier at first when the aural-visual order is used, though this effect may disappear as they adjust to the learning situation.269
The advantages in the aural-visual is that interference from the first language in the learning of pronunciation is reduced and this factor, it is suggested, gives a preferential aspect to the aural-visual order.

- No aspect of second-language learning is more critical than memory. It can be statistically illustrated that when memory begins to fade, a request to provide the response at regular intervals, gradually extended in time, will strengthen retention, thereby eliminating the need for repetition as it is understood in reinforcement theory.  

The spoken language. The following research permits some insight into the nature of second-language learning as it applies to the speech perception and speech production skills:

- Speech perception should precede speech production.  

- Speech production helps speech perception. It is a mediating factor and adds "distinctiveness" to the stimuli.

- Learners level off at less than the model when they engage in "self-shaping echoic behavior," but if asked to identify the phoneme, pronunciation improves.

- There is no effect of prior discrimination training on speaking; there is only a slight increase in the effect on speaking of "echoic training procedures" from primary school through the seventh grade; speaking training provides a student with a vocal response which increases
"distinctiveness" of the utterance heard and allows "greater progress during subsequent listening training."

It is noted that the relationship between speech production and speech perception is not clear.

Assumptions

1. The time factor, psychological and environmental conditions of second-language learning do not permit the learner the same advantages as those found in first language learning.

2. Certain principles can provide the basis for environmental control that allows for the inducing of the desired behavior, conditioning, and altering responses, as initial steps in the acquisition of the second language.

3. It is probable that first-language acquisition has potential elements capable of mediating acquisition of the second language.

4. A combined reinforcement-cognitive theory could account for low and high level processes which together result in total linguistic development.

5. A theory of second-language learning must take into account an established competency in the first language, the command of which may hold special advantages for the habit-formation features of second-language learning and special advantages for cognitive functions, depending upon the age, environmental influences, and personal attributes of the language learner.
6. Whether or not a pure coordinate language system can be established after the preschool age is subject to further investigation. Recent research indicates that the first language functions in directions that could be interpreted as dominant.

7. Examples of research on speech perception and production in the second language support these conclusions: the ability to receive and process information through the ear is the factor beyond intelligence and industriousness that accounts for talent in learning; the order of presentation involving the aural and visual sense modalities is only significant as it pertains to the learning of pronunciation which give preference to the aural before the visual; retention which can be strengthened by a graduated schedule of response-elicitation obviates the need for repetition practice as it is understood in reinforcement theory; speech production is a mediating factor in speech perception; cognitive understanding of phonemic features can facilitate acquisition of pronunciation; and discrimination training of echoic-type has little or no effect upon speech production.
A Description of Current Methodology

The term "audiolingual" (AL) was invented in the early 1960's to describe the primary emphasis of the modern methodology and to provide an expression more linguistically manageable than the older term "aural-oral." It embodies certain principles based upon the science of linguistics and upon stimulus-response learning theory. The limitations of the term have become evident as practitioners have interpreted the meaning as denying the inclusion of the graphic skills of reading and writing in instruction. To solve this dilemma, the expression "fundamental skills" (FS) approach was introduced as a service to the profession. However, the use of this latter term has not been widespread because of the established tendency to use the original expression, but discussion of FS has enlarged the connotations intended by the originator of AL. Since aspects of teaching and learning the spoken language are the object of this investigation, and since a term is needed to describe methodology as it pertains to these aspects, the term AL will be used here in the narrower sense, i.e., concerned with the perception skill (listening-comprehension) and the production skill (speaking) only.

Current AL methodology is based upon the following principles:

- Since the spoken language is primary, habits are established first in the skills of listening-comprehension
and speaking on a specified amount of material. The reading and writing skills are introduced after the AL habits are under control.

- The habits of listening-comprehension and speaking are automatized to a point of instant and unconscious recall.
- The habits are automatized through repetition of situational dialogues and "pattern practice," connected utterances with meaning.
- Grammatical explanations or "generalizations" are presented after the AL habits have been established on a specified amount of material. It is assumed that the logic of the grammar will be understood to some degree through analogy rather than analysis, prior to these explanations.

Although these principles bear directly upon selected concepts from linguistic science and reinforcement theory of the 1950's and 1960's, it is interesting to note that as early as 1948 this statement about habit-formation was made by investigators of "experimental courses" at the high school level:

> The cardinal principal was that the acquisition of oral and aural ability . . . is primarily a mechanical rather than intellectual process. . . .

It is suggested, as conclusions in this study, that practice was the element of greatest importance and that mimicry-memorization and over-learning were essential experiences. These factors which appear to have been given support by research in linguistics and psychology
in later years do not explain the total process of language learning, however. These same investigators were careful to point out complementary features which were somehow overlooked when their findings were taken into account by others for the development of a more efficient methodology in the early part of this decade. Some of these features are as follows:

- Practice in hearing and imitating must allow for immediate association with meaning.
- Simple mimicry-memorization may be adequate for the "formative period of sound-producing habits," but this must be replaced by various kinds of manipulative activities and followed by use of these learned patterns in "real or simulated conversation."
- Each learner must have the opportunity for "individual practice" since choral practice is valuable only for "straight listening and mimicking."
- Although the first requirement is mechanical practice, the "second essential" is analysis.
- The "situational approach" to conversation does not take into account the "substance of living" which characterizes the conversation of native speakers.

This early study predicts by twenty years some of the problems confronted in AL methodology — problems that can be attributed to an incomplete interpretation of what second-language learning is.

This observation is not intended to deny that a theoretical framework of the stages of language learning has not been produced for
current methodology. It has, but the central difficulty seems to be that the latter or more complex stages have not been fully exploited.

These stages are:

1. recognition
2. imitation
3. repetition
4. variation
5. selection.

It is at the fifth stage that current methodology has been unclear. The question still remains: how to select from one's repertory of words, phrases, and sentences those elements appropriate to any conversational situation? This stage is the most difficult since it opens wide to the learner the temptation to rely on first language habits and thoughts and to go beyond the limits of his language acquisitions. If the selection stage is delayed, the learner's capacity to go beyond variation may become inflexible with the result that the final stage is either imperfectly attained or not at all. In other words, selection practice is essential as soon as some stock of words, phrases, and sentences are learned, not only because they should be put to immediate use for the building of communication skills and self-confidence, but because the language experience on a given amount of material is not complete until that material has been experienced at all five levels.

Strengths and Weaknesses

The central problem is identified by a psychologist who suggests that, since the development of theory in the behavioral sciences is at such an incomplete stage, it is still impossible to derive from it an
adequate theory of language learning or to determine what the theoretical factors are in second-language instruction. The AL approach can be considered deficient because of this broader problem, but also because it has emphasized primarily those principles and generalizations which characterize the mechanistic and behavioristic concept of human behavior. The AL tenets do not appear to be directed to the learner himself in terms of cognition, understanding, and the self and exponents seem to have ignored much knowledge already available in the area of verbal learning. Language instruction, therefore, must take into account not only those factors which contribute to automaticity in behavior, but must go beyond to the levels of meaningfulness and conscious awareness and understanding of important linguistic features and relationships. This implies the inclusion of cognitive learning theories within the framework of second-language learning theory.

There are two forms of language material found in AL textbooks: the dialogue and pattern drills. Designed in the first instance to create a situational environment for conversation and in the second instance to provide for the manipulation and variation of specified structures of language, the limitation of these forms for language acquisition are evident. Opinions resulting from experiential insight and scholarly probing can be summed up by these comments:

Since knowledge of a language is no more a series of memorized dialogues than it is intellectually comprehended declensions and paradigms, the students must eventually go beyond dialogues and the sooner they do, the more quickly they are going to learn the language.

Memorized conversations are not carried into real life situations but are retained only in the context of the dialogue.
If the problem involved is concept of meaning, pattern practice does not contribute to its solution.283

(Pattern drills) are utterances in a special classroom 'metalanguage' and are not natural language.284

The underlying point is that the manipulation of dialogues and patterns is not communication and, although these activities serve the purpose of minimizing the interference that comes from the mother tongue, allow for the repetition of difficult constructions under controlled conditions, mechanize the response to a point of automatic control, reduce the chance of error, provide for second-language stimulus cues, and permits choral practice, dialogue drill and notably the pattern drill solve only the problems of "purely mechanical linguistic solution."285

Since these drills do not approximate real-life situations, provision must be made for the "generating" of patterns on one's own to meet the demands of the normal conversational situation. This situation does not call for the recitation of dialogue lines or the transforming or substituting of sentences previously uttered, but "building patterns into real situations."286 If the instructional experience does not provide for practice in retrieving known patterns under conversational conditions, the learner will probably never learn to express himself and his own thought adequately in the second language. The danger is, therefore, in misinterpreting the function of the pattern drill. It is for the presentation of "one difficulty at a time," the stimulus requiring automatic response, and it serves to connect the "sounds of the words."287 It is a means to an end, a foundation for the opportunity for genuine expression which in itself must be provided if meaning is to become a "psychological reality" for the learner.
It can be noted, therefore, that rigid control as evidenced in repetitive practice of dialogues and manipulative drills with patterns are only the initial experiences. There is a whole array of learning beyond these experiences. This higher level learning is that which will account for the eventual use of language in a purposeful way. If these higher levels of expression are not provided for, instruction will be not further ahead than it was in 1948 when investigators made this observation about the aural-oral courses which they examined:

While many students could participate in memorized conversations speedily and effortlessly, hardly any could produce at length fluent variations from the basic material, and none could talk on unrehearsed topics without constant and painful hesitation.  

Two other factors, though not linguistic, do have a bearing upon the manner in which learning is acquired and were recognized as being obstacles to stressing the spoken language in instruction, i.e., lack of time and size of classes.  Two elements from the ASTP (Army Specialized Training Program), after which high school second-language learning classes were modeled, could not be introduced into the school situation: adequate time for creating the desired behavioral changes in the learners and small classes (6-12 persons). Thus the results were disappointing because the specialized ASTP conditions could not be duplicated. In addition, there were problems of teacher-staffing. It may be true today as then that both time and small-group classes also compound the methodological difficulties stated above.

In conclusion, it must be stated that, irrespective of methodological and organizational impediments to fulfilling the broad goals of second-language instruction, current materials and techniques have
provided for the classroom authentic language experiences, a renewed emphasis on the spoken language, practice in language itself instead of rule recitation, and anthropologically-oriented content. These are the features that have revitalized to a significant degree second-language instruction in recent years.

**Theoretical Solutions**

Although there is no comprehensive theory for second-language learning, it is conceivable that concepts from both reinforcement and cognitive learning theories coupled with knowledge about verbal learning may provide the sources for a theory in the future. It has been suggested that the profession must attend to cognitive aspects and data available in verbal learning. While time is necessary to experiment, and move toward such a theory, some isolate theoretical notions have been advanced as scholarly insights into perspectives on this matter:

- **The Marty "monostructural" theory**—Objectives and evaluative processes must be expressed in "clear and measurable terms." There are twelve objectives for the beginning French course based upon materials which stress the learning of only essential structure or patterns. The order recommended is the affirmative imperative to the negative imperative to the simple declarative sentence and then questions. The movement is from one basic structure to another adding only "one small difficulty at a time."
  The dialogues are short and memorized and used to teach only the clichés of conversation, not the structure or
patterns. Pattern drills are of the type in which "none of the elements of the response is given away in the stimulus." English-French translation is used as a technique "to dispell semantic and structural interference" and pave the way for free expression.

- The Belasco "nucleation" theory--This is based upon the premise that creative language is a characteristic of language behavior. This concept of "creative" means that the learner can "recognize and produce new sentences, theoretically infinite in number" which is a process called "analogyzing" which makes possible the recognition and rejection of non-sentences. An internal "monitor" performs these functions. Before "creative" language is possible, a learner must become "nucleated," i.e., a state in which the language acquired forms a structural framework upon which further acquisitions can be rapidly and easily made. Three kinds of patterns must be stored first: 1. one representing the sound structure, 2. a portion of syntactic patterns, 3. patterns of sandhi variations or "the dropping of one or more sounds when two forms co-occur in the same construction." This condition must be realized in both the listening-comprehension and speaking skills since the acquisition of "nucleation" in one does not guarantee "nucleation" in the other. Listening-comprehension requires more attention than is given in current methodology and materials. In the post-nucleation stage, "a high degree of achievement in
listening and reading will bring (the learner) closer to the 'art of conversation' and a real "mastery of the language than a comparable degree of speaking." \(^{291}\)

- **The Rivers "expression-of-meaning" theory**—The acquisition of vocabulary and structures must be based upon an understanding of the function and meaning of these language units through analysis in order that they may be transferable to the appropriate circumstance in the face-to-face communication situation for the purpose of serving one's personal meaning. Since research in learning indicates that there is a limit to how much one can learn through simple reinforcement and since the overuse of this technique can fixate responses thus preventing their variation and selection, other experiences must be included to permit the development of flexible use of structures and vocabulary at the free selection stage. This would include simulated real-life situations with characteristic cues permitting the learner to respond to speakers, to listen to speakers, and to initiate talk. The content of communication must be valuable from an informative and cultural point of view. The expectancies for the learner must resemble those found in the normal conversational situation. The atmosphere must be conducive to optimal behavior in listening-comprehension and self-expression. It must be understood that "trial-and-error" behavior is an inevitable experience in refining competence at the selection stage and must be tolerated as a feature of the process of progressing from manipulation to expression of personal thoughts. \(^{292}\)
• **The Gaarder "controlled-conversation" theory**—If the learner is to go "beyond drills," his attention must be directed constantly upon "the meaning and the reality of his life experience."

There are two principles of control: 1. the language controls the speaker, then 2. the speaker controls the language. Imitation characterizes the first principle while in the second the learner recombines language patterns while he imitates. The aim of instruction is to proceed as efficiently and as rapidly as possible from the conditions of the first principle to that of the second. The content of the experiences must be authentic and valuable enough to be learned. The experiences themselves must emphasize "life experience" and conversation of personal involvement and meaning. However, these experiences must be "controlled" so that only those expressions are generated that can be said at a given point. This is done through a system of "audiolingual contrastive analysis" which promotes in the learner through questions, commands, directed dialogue techniques an understanding of all possible relationships and meanings and becomes, in fact, a "concept-formation" process. The sequence of analysis consists of:

- Re-telling the dialogue-narrative
- Focusing on isolated details of the dialogue-narrative
- Focusing on the when, where, who, and how of the dialogue-narrative
- Asking why and how do you know?
- Paraphrase and recapitulation
- Selection and recombination
- Focusing on implications and assumptions
- Conjecture.
These then are some of the major theoretical contributions that have been conceived to broaden the experiences in second-language learning and to eliminate some of the obstacles to learning a second-language as a means of communication.

Selected Theoretical Concepts and Methodological Innovation

The following points reflect selected theoretical concepts applied to methodology in order to eliminate some of the deficiencies present in the AL approach:

- **Listening-comprehension**—This skill appears to play a more complex role in the communication process than originally thought. It is not merely the discrimination of sounds, stress, and pitch, but involves "the nature of the message, the qualities of transmission, and the state of the listener" as well as a "frame of expectation," that is, acoustic, visual, and situational clues that narrow the possible alternatives. These factors serve to reduce the amount of "information" so that it can be managed receptively. Moreover, since communication has a built-in redundancy, this factor develops comprehension because it "... helps us to piece together the information we hear." These characteristics are not present in early second-language learning, therefore, there are few clues to aid the comprehension of the listener, e.g., elements which he can recognize and use for the purpose of selecting from the "stream of speech" that information which gives meaning to him.
Instruction must be well-planned to provide a sequential experience and to insure that meaning is conveyed. There must be practice in selecting out crucial elements of longer segments in real-life conversational situations and opportunity for practice with "uncontrolled" material for which the learner must infer meaning from the context.\textsuperscript{296}

Listening-comprehension experiences must emphasize cognitive aspects:

Repeated listening to recorded bits of real human interaction . . . should on different occasions permit different relevant parts of the whole . . . to come to the attention of the listener according to his momentary perceptual set, and in relation to the strength of the habits he himself has already established.\textsuperscript{297}

- **Speaking**—Just a few sentences which we say are memorized, . . . most of them are constructed quickly as the need arises.\textsuperscript{298} Therefore, practice is necessary in the process of "construction" to meet the requirements of the situation. Ability to speak must be developed as a separate skill.\textsuperscript{299}

The selection level of this skill implies a "relaxation of control" and a use of language "for the purpose of self-expression" which contribute to the learner's motivation and his ability to transfer expressions and patterns "from the contexts in which he has learned them to contexts in which they may be of use to him."\textsuperscript{300}

Speaking experiences, after basic dialogues and pattern drills, should include directed conversation as the first step
in decreasing control and then non-directed conversation based on familiar situations and then based upon reading selections for the development of "talking at length." Teacher-function in the directed phase is "skillful elicitation of authentic conversation without straying from the confines of known patterns or succumbing to the temptation to explicate or drill . . . " and the leading of the learner to "display" his knowledge and skill, thus engaging in the transmission of "attitudes and insights" about language at the "personal, human, and social" levels.

Language nucleation occurs within a "social context" since it is "part of life's total behavioral action and structure, intimately linked to social interaction," therefore, the learner must have the opportunity to experience language in social situations even though he cannot do so "with complete correctness." The acquisition of a "feeling of 'naturalness' of language use" or the ability to use a limited set of expressions in many contexts produces a "psychological nucleation," i.e., a psychological framework and flexibility for coping with social interaction.

Another basic difference between real-world communication and manipulative drills is that of "cues" to speak: those of the real situation come only from the "partner in the exchange" but from "things one sees around one, and, most important from one's own words as one produces one sentence after another."
Conclusions and Assumptions

Although there has been progress in opening up new avenues for the development of the language skills in the spoken language, the advances have been principally at the manipulative or habit-formation level. Theory as briefly referred to above must attend to ignored levels of language acquisition which take into account the factors of individual differences, meaning, communication as exchange between listener and speaker, basic content and increments leading to the liberation of perception and production. Instruction appears to be still faced with seeking means to the realization of the fundamental assertions made in 1942. They are still relevant today:

1. Language, as a vehicle for the communication of feelings, wants, and ideas, is always a means and never the end, and should be taught from the point of view of facilitating the expression and comprehension of thought content in audience situations.

2. Primary emphasis on form and mechanics to the neglect of meaning leads to self-consciousness in language rather than to language consciousness.

3. To reduce the possible number of errors, the content and exercises should be carefully graded and as 'error proof' as possible.

4. The content and activities in and through which the language abilities are to be developed should be chosen from the start with an eye to their effectiveness in creating worthy attitudes, interests, and appreciations.

5. The best way in which to learn a language is to learn something of significance in and through the language—something beyond vocabulary and grammatical technology.
Assumptions about instruction in second-language learning:

- Since habit-formation theory does not take into account higher levels of cognitive processes which are considered to have a function in language learning, those features of cognitive learning theories that bear upon verbal learning must be incorporated into the basic instructional theory of second-language learning.

- Such factors as the association of expression with meaning, the use of learned patterns in real or contrived conversational situations, opportunity for individualized practice, and the use of analysis must be included in the stages of second-language learning in addition to those AL experiences that have already proved to be effective.

- The following theoretical positions are noteworthy and should be considered as potentially relevant to a comprehensive second-language learning theory:
  
  - The Marty "monostructural" theory--definitive and measurable objectives based upon a psychologically and linguistically sound order of structural presentation and learning.
  
  - The Belasco "nucleation" theory--creative use of language which presupposes the acquisition of basic material of three types.
• The Rivers "expression-of-meaning" theory--understanding of the function and meaning of vocabulary and patterns and the use of these language elements in face-to-face communication for the expression of personal meaning.

• The Gaarder "controlled-conversation" theory--directed conversational activity which emphasizes the experiences of life and an error-proof sequence of verbal expression and analysis.

• Some selected theoretical notion are noted as being of critical importance in solving learning problems:
  
  • Listening-comprehension (speech perception) experiences provide skill in developing a system of expectations which contributes to information-processing and understanding in depth.

  • Speaking (speech production) experiences proceed from highly-controlled, through partially-controlled, and finally the non-controlled and thus provide a gradual liberation to personal expression for the social situation.
CHAPTER IV

AN INSTRUCTIONAL MODEL FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNICATION SKILLS IN THE SMALL GROUP

The assumptions developed at the conclusion of the preceding chapter on the small group and the nature of language learning now serve as the foundation for establishing the specific assumptions for the methodology to be proposed. They will be described in terms applicable to the setting, functions, and outcomes theorized in this study, and then translated into details that will illustrate the application of this theory in instruction in French.

Assumptions About the Small Group

The instructional group to which this methodology is directed is considered to be based upon the following general characteristics:

- **Size**
  - Five-member group

- **Interaction**
  - Initial sessions, the first week or two, given over to effecting "synchronization" and maximizing satisfactions at the social-emotional level
  - Use of both "lateral" and "scalar" interactive experiences
• Priority given to the development of an operational model for the particular group emphasizing the active participation of each member, overt feedback, an effective reward system, and experiences conducive to cooperative styles of behavior

• Flexibility to permit the development and emergence of an individual member's various role-potentials

• Goals
  • The cooperative development of long-range and intermediate goals within the framework of the broad instructional ones as set by the school
  • Clear, acceptable, and capable of energizing purposeful activity
  • Cooperative decision-making between students and teacher regarding movement toward the goals
  • Evidence of valued individual goals within the context of the group's goals

• Roles
  • Consonance between role and individual personality
  • Flexibility for members to assume various roles as abilities, personality, and interests permit
  • Inclusion in the group's activity, functions at three levels: social-emotional, task, and group-maintenance
Norms
- Effected in development from member interaction with teacher
guidance in areas of his instructional responsibility
- Pre-established norms accommodated
- Of two types: social-emotional and task
- Coping with destructive deviation cooperatively by students
  and teacher
- The desire for conformity as a positive influence among
  adolescents
- Provision for normative modifications as part of the evolution
  of group life

Cohesiveness
- Optimal conditions for its development
- Emphasis upon those positive factors contributing to its
  maintenance and strengthening

The instructional group to which this methodology is directed
is considered to be based upon the following general functions:

Communication System
- Inclusion of both verbal and nonverbal factors
- Understood in terms of the perceptions and motivations
  of both the sender and the receiver
- Provision for both task and feedback content
- Use of different networks to meet individual and group
  needs
• "Participatory" leadership for more productive communication
• High-status and low-status factors taken into account in evaluation of member behavior
• Critical variables as feedback, discrepancy in group opinion, spatial and visual features taken into account

• Leadership
  • Selection based upon functions, abilities, and personality characteristics
  • Focus upon "learner-centered" orientation
  • The "elected" leader as a factor in the group's approach to leadership
  • Other central members as functioning to contribute to group life
  • Flexible patterns for participation of central persons
  • As a contributing factor to the "cooperative climate"
  • Characterized by a "democratic" leadership style
  • Possessing certain understandings and skills
  • Fostering of student-leadership as part of experiential learning and need-satisfaction
  • Teachability "fit" as maximized

• Task-accomplishment
  • Continual assessment of task problems
  • Marked by cooperative activity
• Expectations for high-status and low-status individuals commensurate with their positions
• Critical features of input factors taken into consideration
• Leadership effective for this function and for the building of a compatible and friendly group life
• Successful behaviors rewarded
• Discussion as a predominant technique
• Satisfaction of social-emotional needs as primary.

Assumptions About Language Learning

The following characteristics of first-language learning are taken into account for determining positive or negative influences upon the process of learning the second language and for seeking ways in which competence in the first language might maximize learning of the second:

• Language as a system of vocal communication
• Intellectual and linguistic development as interrelated
• Gradual progression to higher levels of reflective functioning
• Linguistic skills as developing from the simple to the complex
• Thought and speech unified through meaning
• Thought operating as inner speech and external speech
• Inner speech as a modification of external speech
• Speech perception as having a characteristic movement
• Development of the perception skill as lagging behind the production skill
• Perception as progressing from parts to wholes with meaning functioning as an agent in the transition
• Habit as rooted in thought and meaning
• Stages in first-language acquisition as offering clues to linguistic development
• Imitation as experimental behavior
• Responses as moving from the undifferentiated and unstructured to the differentiated and structured
• Process of "generalization" as present from the outset of language learning
• Sentence length as a measure of linguistic maturity
• Linguistic errors as failures at recognizing critical features or making false analogies
• Linguistic deprivation as rooted in an inflexible and restricted command of language
• Internalized rules and a regulating inner control as functioning in the production of the grammatical
• Tendency in children to apply regular rules to new words
• Quality of production increasing with growth of memory and perceptual span
• Children's grammar as a reduced adult grammar which becomes more and more differentiated.
The following characteristics of second-language learning are taken into account for the development of a more comprehensive understanding of the nature of this learning:

- The time factor and the psychological and environmental conditions as different from those of first-language learning
- Reinforcement theory as providing the basis for some aspects of the initial stages of second-language learning
- A combined reinforcement-cognitive theory as capable of accounting for total linguistic development
- Ability to receive and process information through the ear as the critical variable beyond intelligence and industriousness
- Presentation involving the aural and visual sense modalities as significant only in terms of pronunciation
- Retention as facilitated by a graduated-schedule of response-elicitation rather than mere repetition
- Cognitive understanding as supportive of learning at the phonemic, morphological, syntactic, and lexical levels.

The following notions concerning instruction in second-language learning are taken into account as providing the basis for further investigation in the development of a comprehensive theory for second-language learning:

- The incorporation of aspects of cognitive theories
• Special cognitive factors concerning meaning, conversational exchange, individualized learning, and analysis as foundational to the instructional process

• Examples of theoretical positions noted for introduction into a comprehensive theory: the monostructural theory, the nucleation theory, the expression-of-meaning theory, and the controlled-conversation theory

• Selected theoretical perspectives as input features for a revised methodology: small-group setting for face-to-face communication, speech perception experiences for developing a system of expectations, speech production experiences for developing the expression of one's own thought, and analysis as a function for understanding and meaning.

The Methodology

Input Factors of Students and Their Competence in French

The students are boys and girls of fourteen and fifteen years of age from a middle-class socioeconomic environment. They are a representative sampling of basic individual natures, personalities, and role varieties, with a cross-section of motives for pursuing the study of a second language. They have advanced in language achievement to a stage where they have command of a stock of lexical items and structures to permit some breadth of expression of thought. Although the nature of the vocabulary would be determined by the content of the
foundational course being used, it is assumed that the items acquired are based upon a broad "semantic range" as well as frequency of occurrence in day-to-day life. Acquisition of patterns would include three types: the sound system, a portion of syntactic structure, and sandhi variations. In terms of control of the spoken language, the following competencies would have been established:

1. **Vocabulary**—an understanding of a certain number of vocabulary items and an understanding that represents "a high degree of accuracy."

2. **Structure and morphology**—an understanding of "the meaning of a given number of structures and forms."

3. **Pronunciation**—an ability "to recognize the phonemic and melodic contrasts" and to make these contrasts "with enough accuracy so that (the speaker) will be understood."

4. **Audio comprehension**—an understanding of all utterances that can be constructed with the known material and an understanding that is "accurate" and "instantaneous."

5. **Accurate oral expression**—an ability "to generate utterances which are structurally accurate. . . ."

6. **Fluency in oral expression**—an ability "to achieve a certain rate of oral expression as measured in syllables per minute in totally controlled and partially free situations."

7. **Reaction speed**—an ability "to respond orally within a given time interval measured in tenths of a second."
Use of the spoken language beyond repetition exercises or graduated re-entry sequence of material has been confined to controlled and partially-free experiences in the normal class situation of 20-30 learners. There is cognitive understanding of linguistic features: phonemic, syntactic, morphological, and meaning as generated by the acquired lexical items and structural patterns. Both reinforcement habit-formation theory and cognitive concept-formation theory undergird the language acquisition process. Learning experiences proceed from the aural to the visual sense-modality for the purpose of developing and maintaining near-native or native pronunciation. Learning emphasizes speech perception experiences for maximal development of the ability to receive and process information through the ear.

**Input Factors of the Small-Group Instructional Setting**

The students are arranged informally in a group setting of five students or four students when the teacher is present as the leader. Environmental conditions which support the informality of the grouping are a circle as might be found in a typical conversational situation for speakers, i.e., unconstrained by the conventional features of the traditional classroom situation and an atmosphere of informality created by those factors which adolescents find attractive in group-gatherings, i.e., lounge chairs, background music of the culture being studied, etc. The purpose is to establish an environment for face-to-face conversational practice that will familiarize the students with the "feel" of behaving as listener and speaker in a situation which
approximates that of informal conversation in daily living. Effort is made to introduce authentic characteristics of the foreign environment in order to promote the group atmosphere that is found in the country of the second language, e.g., creating the foreign ambiance of a cafe, living room, etc., as one would create a set for a play, but within a room designated for conversational purposes. The objective is to provide a locus for conversation which approximates one found in the foreign culture. As a regular cultural element in the situation, one of the participants in the conversation group should be a young native-speaker who can act as discussion leader when conversations are controlled or partially-controlled, or as an equal participant in cases when the conversation is liberated for non-controlled expression of one's own thought. Thus both visual and auditory cultural stimuli are present to provide greater immediacy of the foreign culture.

The presence of the teacher as leader is justified for the controlled and partially-controlled phases as the initial experiences which serve to guide the students in error-free behavior and to establish one model of procedure for the student-leader and for the native-speaker when they assume leadership roles. The teacher also serves as a non-participating diagnostic observer when the students are engaged in conversation under student leadership or in general discussion without an appointed or elected leader. The assessments serve to reveal the phonemic, syntactic, and morphological problems in the perception and production of the group members which require independent learning to correct and/or elucidation by the teacher. Leaders focus upon the maximization of student participation and make use of the various
communication networks to determine, in controlled conversation, that pattern which appears to enhance productive expression of all group members. These networks evolve naturally in group interaction, even without the presence of an appointed or elected leader, since central members generally emerge to take a high-status position and influence the patterning of interaction. Thus the group will select its own interactive procedure, consciously or unconsciously, to satisfy its needs and goals in the leaderless non-controlled conversational situation.

Leadership responsibility varies from the appointed type, i.e., the teacher, the native-speaker, the member selected by the teacher, to the elected type, i.e., the individual member chosen by the group itself. The appointed leader's personality, abilities, understandings, skills, and functions are compatible with the characteristics of the group. As the group gains skill in verbal exchange and expression under the guidance of both teacher and student leadership, it assumes control over its own interaction in order to gain experience in participating in the real, leaderless setting of the everyday world. However, it continues to be influenced by the productive networks of previous controlled interaction. These provide a basis for self-confident participation. Central persons do emerge and behave in ways characteristic of leaders, but they are not defined as leaders. These central members are permitted to behave in flexible patterns as long as their behavior contributes to a cooperative climate and their power
and influence are legitimately and democratically exercised for the maintenance of the life of the group and the accomplishment of the task goals and activity agreed upon.

The communication system includes both verbal and nonverbal behavior. The nonverbal aspects are characterized by those features of kinesics in the behavior of native speakers that have an integral and vital function in communicating thought and that are consonant with the basic personality of the individual members, thus expressible without awkward overtones. The verbal aspects are based upon meaningful content in narrative form which contributes to a stimulating exchange of ideas, to an anthropologically-oriented understanding of the people of the foreign culture, and to fulfilling both social-emotional and task needs of the members within the social setting and those perceptions and motivations brought to the encounter by the individual members, as they assume the roles of receiver and sender.

Networks can be either imposed or allowed to emerge depending upon the task goals and the presence of leadership. In controlled or partially-controlled situations in which a participating leader is present to direct conversation, the wheel or Y network is used. Although these networks are less active and less satisfying than leaderless networks, they promote group achievement quickly since performance is routed along paths directed toward production of the acceptable utterance in conveying meaning, provides for immediate task and feedback content, and encourages participation of equal frequency for each member. In order to strengthen social-emotional satisfaction, however,
controlled and partially-controlled leadership settings, for conversation directed toward a specific content, are followed by non-controlled, leaderless settings to permit experience in the natural exchange of expression. The networks evolve into that of the circle and the chain which are flexible, increase transmission of messages, and provide opportunities for self-correction since the members participate more and produce more information for the detection and correction of errors. It is noted that in the non-controlled conversational setting, a particular network does become stabilized for particular pairs because of physical proximity, individual interests, and role relationships which emerge during the interaction. Thus it may be concluded that freedom to communicate probably cannot be maximized for all members in the non-controlled setting. If the group is small enough, low participators are favorably affected in the direction of greater participation.

Movement toward task-accomplishment is marked by the continuing group assessment of task and social-emotional problems relative to the expression of one's thought and by the spirit of cooperative discussion. The task itself determines the selection of the three types of conversational settings: the controlled, the partially-controlled, and the non-controlled. The first step involves the control of thought and expression; the second, the control of expression alone; the third, the liberation of both thought and expression. Taken in sequence these models permit the gradual release of limitations upon expression of thought in order to reduce instances of error thereby increasing self-confidence and meeting social-emotional and task needs. Furthermore, the group life is anchored in interactive processes that establish
common understandings and skill in both leader and leaderless situations, thus promoting skill in discussion and knowledge of how one contributes as a good group member. Since mild stress favors productivity, its presence in the organization of materials and techniques is evidenced by the introduction of varying levels of difficulty in the perceptive and productive tasks designed to challenge the group members. Successful behaviors in the interactive process are recognized and rewarded extrinsically, although effort is made to build attitudes that are receptive to the intrinsic rewards present in the give-and-take of the conversational situation.

Initial interaction, during the group sessions which last for thirty minutes four times a week, consists of leaderless conversation on topics already discussed in the controlled-partially-controlled-non-controlled sequence. This activity which lasts for five minutes permits the effecting of synchronization and satisfactions at the social-emotional level as well as review of language material. The subsequent interaction involves one of the three conversational stages, presumably determined by what was accomplished in the previous group session. Thus if the preceding session has been devoted to controlled perception and production, the activity turns to the partially-controlled as its principal emphasis unless further practice is necessary on the controlled stage. Although each session is aimed at one stage of the sequence, interaction may move forward to the non-controlled or back to the controlled as required by the task and the social-emotional needs of the members. Movement from scalar interactive experiences to the lateral is maximized in order to avoid the establishing of
dependency upon the authority figure thus developing a self-reliant type of participation. Linguistic difficulties may arise as students proceed to the stimulating and generating of expression in the lateral situation, but the unobtrusive "supervisory" leadership in the background can take account of special problems through note-taking and taping which can be submitted, later in the session, to controlled experiences for solution. It is assumed that, as the young child must experiment with language patterns and vocabulary in order to develop a framework for speech perception and production and as a result does make errors, so too must the second-language learner experiment as he develops cognitive relationships in the new language. To presume that errors will not occur is to imply that the human being can be programmed like a machine.

Interaction within each group emphasizes the active participation of each member so far as possible. When effective leadership is present, this can reach its optimal or even maximal level since the leader is cognizant of the importance of equal conversational practice for each member. It is less likely to occur when no leadership is involved because central members emerge and frequently dominate the situation. Not an entirely negative aspect, this interaction of high-status pairs can produce dynamic conversational exchange serving the perceptive process of the members that are not so active and exposing them to a higher level of interaction to which they may aspire. Cooperative styles of behavior are encouraged as the accepted pattern for both leader and leaderless situations.
Long-range and intermediate goals are set by the teacher, but are broad enough to permit the day-to-day goals set cooperatively by the students and teacher and often by the students alone to be developed freely and with variety. They are clear goals, acceptable by the group and capable of energizing activity of a purposeful nature. Although the teacher does act in a guiding capacity to insure that students do not construct goals that may be unproductive, he allows the students the freedom of experimentation to determine for themselves if their goals are effective and if individual goals are being met within the context of the group goals.

The broad general goal is the development of the speech perception and speech production skills in French for meaningful understanding and expression; intermediate goals, skills acquired as the result of progression through three stages: the controlled, the partially-controlled, and the non-controlled. Student planning is possible in the latter two stages since the need for a carefully-regulated sequence of expression under knowledgeable supervision, i.e., of the teacher, is only partially necessary in the second stage and not required in the third. In this way the students have the opportunity to plan discussion activities based upon the content, language patterns, and vocabulary of the controlled stages. Examples of student-planned discussion in these stages:

- Rotation of student-leadership to permit the individual member's development of his role potential during discussion of the content.
• Listening to the taped version of the narrative content which is played with projection of visuals that illustrate that content and the reconstruction of the spoken narrative by the students at the second viewing.

• Student-leadership designed to elicit from the members a summary of the salient features of the content.

• Student-moderating of a debate concerning a controversial issue presented in the content.

It is important to allow students the opportunity to maximize performance in whatever group role is most consonant with their abilities and personality in functioning under certain group conditions and for some stated purpose:

• The leader gives attention to the group's total functioning, asks questions, praises, recognizes individuals, is principally concerned with moving the group toward its goals.

• The idea-presenter assists the leader in moving the discussion forward, in bringing up points that have been overlooked, or synthesizing to give the group a better perspective on the subject being discussed.

• The encourager promotes the feeling of satisfaction among the members while emphasizing positive rejoinders, statements of praise, support for a worthwhile but unforcefully stated contribution.
• The **negative-performer** helps to solidify group movement toward its goals since his behavior rallies contributions from the other members to preserve the group's integrity and progress and to attempt to bring him back to the norms established by the group.

• The **minimal-contributors** indirectly contribute to the emergence of central members whose efforts maintain the life of the group and provide an "audience-type" focus for the more verbal.

The desire for conformity among adolescents is a positive influence and is a force which provides for the rapid development of group norms. Under the influence of central members, students accommodate personal norms to those of dominant attraction and are willing to modify norms as the group's life evolves. Norm development grows from interaction, therefore, the more frequent it is and the more positive in satisfying task and social-emotional needs, the more rapidly norm stabilization is realized permitting the directing of efforts upon the conversational tasks. Distraction in the form of increased verbalization to cope with deviation is not entirely a negative function since it promotes interaction as forces are brought to bear to restore the deviant to normative functioning. This verbalization may necessitate clichés and phrases which can be taught as these instances occur.

The factor which permits the creation of and maintenance of group life is cohesiveness. By maximizing it, goals, roles, interaction and norms are directed to effective task-accomplishment and
fulfillment of needs. Since the heart of the process for developing the skills of speech perception and speech production is communication, the frequency of its occurrence develops liking and fosters purposeful activity, thereby contributing to the realization of the linguistic goals of the methodology. Cohesiveness, as a critical variable, is introduced and maintained in several ways:

- The formal networks for interaction aim at increasing opportunities for listening-comprehension and speaking between members. This means that transfer from teacher-leadership to student-leadership and leaderless settings is accomplished as soon as it is linguistically and psychologically feasible.

- Content is selected that is appealing to adolescents, yet culturally meaningful and contributive to understandings at the anthropological level. This means that the content appeals to the interests of the young people.

- Goals are distinct and realistic in terms of the group's collective potential, and the procedures for achieving them are clear to each individual. This means that the general aims of the three stages are understood by the students as are the procedures which are flexible to provide the possibility for modification, if they are not in harmony with the group's talents and personalities.
• Relationships are marked by a cooperative spirit that places primary emphasis upon the group's achievement. Grading, if it is necessary, is based upon a composite of group and an individual's performance to reduce the competitive drive.

• The grouping of students within the small group is based upon similar member-characteristics, if possible, compatible inter-member satisfactions, the role and teachability "fit" between the leader and the members, and the meshing of roles and personalities within a secure environment. Assessment of these factors is accomplished through appropriate testing prior to group placement and observation of behavior during group interaction. Members are transferred from one group to another if needs of the students can be better met in another environment.

• Each small group is valued within the broader organization of the large group. This means that there is no inter-group comparisons or evaluation which would encourage competitive behavior or place a higher or lower value on one group's performance. There may be subtle, covert comparisons made by the students between groups, but this is not recognized by those in authority. Occasionally the small groups are brought together into one large group for the purpose of discussion on a wider scale, but, in these cases, the small groups are no longer defined. Rather the large group takes on the collective identity of its individual members irrespective of the small sub-group affiliation.
An Operational Model of Three Stages for Developing Communication Skills

The Basic Material

A cultural narrative is chosen as the basic content for conversation in the three models for these reasons:

- It provides content of anthropological significance that is worth reading and discussing.
- The factual and substantive information is stimulating to conversational exchange.
- The opportunity for talking about things and ideas in the third person as well as the first and second persons is present.
- It connects the written language with the spoken language by providing a written stimulus for the exchange of thought at the conversational level thereby contributing to purposeful reading, a skill of intellectual value.
- It goes beyond conversational clichés and patterns and permits the extraction of patterns of semantic range that can be recombined for the expression of personal meaning.
- It permits expression sustained at length which is more similar to normal conversational behavior than the artificially-contrived one-sentence stimulus, one-sentence response configuration which is characteristic of early dialogue practice.
The narrative in English follows (see Appendix for the French):

The Basque Country

Situated at the point where the Pyrenees meet the Atlantic Ocean, the Basque Country is a mountainous region, but it is also a maritime region which explains the mildness of its climate. It is never very cold in winter; it is never too hot in summer. The mountains are covered with forests, but the valleys are cultivated as far as the coast.

In reality there are two Basque countries, the Spanish Basque country and the French Basque country. But the Basque country is neither French nor Spanish: it is just Basque. The French Basques resemble the Spanish Basques very much. They have the same traditions and the same language which is very different from French and Spanish. The French Basques know how to speak French, but they also speak Basque which the other French people do not understand.

The origin of the Basque people is very mysterious. There is no Basque literature which gives information on the history of the people. We don't know when they arrived in the region nor from where they came. Some specialists say from Caucasia, others say from Finland. They have also found some resemblances between certain of their dances and the ritual dances of the Japanese. But these are only theories and no one is sure of their true origin.

The Basque people are very attached to their language and to their traditions. But since they generally have many children, and since the land which they cultivate is not very rich, many are obliged to look for work far from their home. There are those who emigrate as far as America to make their "fortune." They are asked to come to Montana or Nevada because they have the reputation of being excellent shepherds and are contented to put up with difficult conditions of life. There are few people who accept like they do to remain several months in the mountains with their sheep without going back down to town.
The Controlled Stage

Purpose: To give students an opportunity to practice patterns in context, expressing meaning as specifically directed by the stimulus produced by the leader, whether teacher or student.

Procedure: • The students have studied the selection thoroughly, i.e., have read it, know the meanings of all words and sentences, and have heard the taped version in the language laboratory as part of independent study.
• A brief summary of the narrative is given orally by the leader. This presentation is of not more than six sentences produced at a normal speaking tempo. This may be prepared in advance on tape and replayed as visuals of the Basque country are projected for viewing by the students.
• The question-answer-rejoinder procedure of this stage is explained in English to the students and a sample demonstration is given.
• The wheel communication network is used: four students plus the leader, teacher or student:

The Wheel Network

Student 1 → Student 3

[Diagram showing the wheel network with arrows indicating direction of communication]

Leader

Student 2 → Student 4
All exchange is directed from and to the leader, i.e., both the linguistic problems of the task and the social-emotional problems of norm development, as they are expressed verbally. It is assumed that the students bring to the setting the ability to express in French praise, encouragement, agreement, disagreement, rejection, request for clarification, request to add information, evaluation, etc., i.e., verbalizations that reveal both task and group maintenance functions.

- The linguistic stimuli for task-accomplishment, i.e., conversational exchange produced by the leader, are directed to the group as a whole for the most part and with the support of visuals, preferably remote-controlled filmstrips or slides so that the leader may regulate their presentation while still remaining within the confines of the group. Responses are elicited by a simple nod to one of the group members who appears eager to respond or by a question directed specifically to a member whose participation is of less frequency than that of others, e.g., "Mary, I have forgotten. Is the Basque country flat or mountainous?" (in French). This technique stimulates a response under circumstances that might appear in a real situation while restricting the lexical and syntactic bounds of the response. Every effort is made to control the linguistic content while freeing the interaction so that it may approximate to some degree the give-and-take of the natural situation.
• The linguistic-stimuli for satisfying social-emotional needs produced by the leader are directed in French to the group collectively and to particular individuals. To the group might be said: "Good participation today, students!" To an individual might be said: "A Frenchman would delight in that response, Peter!". Nothing negative is stated publicly except for corrections by the leader. This would consist of simply saying: "... not (incorrect expression), but (correct expression)" and this is followed by a restated response in the correct form by the student. However, any drilling as such is not engaged in. The drilling of corrections is avoided because it is felt that the process of building a communications atmosphere will be undermined by this activity. Furthermore, it is questionable if any permanency of correct response is effected by public drilling when student attention is unstable because of the presence of others, fear of revealing inadequacies, and the desire to remove quickly the obstacle to continuing conversation. However, a recorder, an observer outside the group or an activated tape recorder, notes the exchange and this information is the substance of student review later as part of independent laboratory work.

• The notion of "controlled" signifies "restricted" in terms of a limited choice of responses within the known material: a particular sentence or partial utterance under control of the student. The likely response is suggested by the
stimulus (S), but this does not preclude correct alternatives that are slight modifications permitted by the stimulus. It is not believed that the exact answer can always be predicted since the linguistic "set" may be slightly different from one person to another. Students, however, must be helped to understand that the intent of the activity is to draw from known material. Expressions of evaluation in French are omitted by the teacher, i.e., "good answer," etc., that would create a school-like atmosphere, but praise-like comments on the content of the response (R) would be permitted since they are found in conversational situations, i.e., "That's an interesting bit of information," etc. In addition, S is permitted latitude in expression to set the conversational tone and to enrich the listening dimension. R is not permitted latitude in expression, but must rely on what is known from study of the narrative and previous language experience. When S represents the student-leader, he may read his part until competence to do without cues is acquired.

The Basque Country

A Controlled Session: (see Appendix for the French)

S = Leader who is seeking information
R = Group member who is giving information

S Where is the Basque Country located?
R It is located at the point where the Pyrenees meet the Atlantic Ocean.
Then it is a mountainous region?

Yes, it is a mountainous region.

I imagine that it is very cold there in winter. Is it?

No, it isn't very cold there in winter.

How interesting! How do you explain that? I thought that it was a mountainous region.

But it is also a maritime region!

Then that is what explains the mildness of its climate! And the summers?

It is never very hot in summer.

How enjoyable! I would like to live in such region. Would you?

Yes, I would.

I wonder what the mountains look like.

They are covered with forests.

And the valleys?

Cultivated to the coast.

It must be a beautiful sight. Is it true that there are two Basque countries?

Yes, the Spanish Basque country and the French Basque country.

How's that? Does that mean that one is Spanish and the other is French?

No, the Basque country is neither Spanish nor French, just Basque.

How curious! You mean that the French Basques resemble the Spanish Basques?

Yes, very much.

How, I wonder.

They have the same traditions and the same language.

Then the language resembles French and Spanish?
R No, it is very different from French and Spanish.

S Do the Basques know French besides their own language?

R Yes.

S So then the French people know the Basque language?

R No, they don't understand the Basque language.

S I have heard that the language is very complex. How much do people know about the Basques?

R The origin of the Basques is very mysterious.

S They say that Basque literature does not give any information on the history of the people.

R We don't know when they arrived in the region nor from where they came.

S Specialists have written about the Basques. Some experts say that they came from Caucasia, others say from Finland.

R They found also resemblances between certain of their dances and the ritual dances of the Japanese.

S But these are only theories and no one is sure of their true origin. It is true. Their origin is mysterious. But what kind of people are the Basques?

R The Basques are very attached to their language and their traditions.

S I understand that the Basque families have many children.

R Yes, and since the land which they cultivate isn't very rich, many are obliged to look for work far from home.

S I heard that there are some who emigrate as far as America to make their "fortune."

R Yes, they are asked to come into Montana or into Nevada because they have the reputation of being good shepherds and are contented to put up with difficult conditions of life.

S Their life is hard, isn't it?

R Few people would accept as they do to remain several months in the mountains with their sheep without going back down to town.
S The Basque people represent an interesting culture. Shall we continue the discussion tomorrow?

The Partially-Controlled Stage

Purpose:

• To give students opportunity for two types of partially-controlled activity: Phase 1. Expanding stimulus participation to student members while following the S-R sequence of the controlled model; Phase 2. Extending the content of R to include two or more sentences of information and allowing two members to share in responding to S.

Procedure:

• A brief review of the contents of the narrative is given by the leader, as for the controlled stage. Students have not only participated in a session of the controlled stage, but have done the following independent work in the language laboratory during the intervening time:
  a. They have listened to the same controlled material on tape.
  b. Using a pause button, they have stopped the playback machine after all S productions and have inserted R productions of their own, recording this response, for verification at the end of the exercise.
  c. Those interested in group leadership responsibility repeat the procedure as described in b., supplying the S productions and verifying in the same manner.
The following communication networks are used:

The Chain Network

The Y Network

Exchange is directed in the chain along two paths: From the leader to \( R^1 \) and from \( R^1 \) to \( R^2 \) and back along the same path. \( R^1 \) represents the most central members and \( R^2 \), the less central. In the Y, exchange is directed from the leader to \( R^1 \) and from \( R^1 \) to \( R^2 \) and, in addition, from the leader to \( R^1 \) and \( R^2 \) and back along the same paths. These likely paths will be the most common, but the leader may choose to move directly to \( R^2 \) in some cases. This increases the possible paths for communication and thus the interaction.

In Phase 1, which is given over to the extension of \( S \) utterances to central \( R^1 \) members, is concerned primarily with social-emotional aspects. Although the leader assumes responsibility for the direction of the conversation, he shares stimuli production with \( R^1 \) members who have prepared themselves for the task in the language.
laboratory. The leader cues their S productions by one or two central words to refresh their memories, if necessary, as in this example which is given in French:

Cue: one Spanish, one French

S. Does that mean that one is Spanish and the other is French?

R. No, the Basque country is neither Spanish nor French, just Basque

Cue: the origin of the Basques

S. The origin of the Basques is very mysterious.

R. There is no Basque literature that gives information on the history of this people.

If the cues are unnecessary, the members will signal this fact by means of a green-colored card which indicates his wish to speak. He is recognized by the leader who simply nods and smiles as a signal for the member to initiate his response. If assistance is needed, a red-colored card is held up by the member who wishes to speak and he receives the relevant cues from the leader after which he proceeds with his response.

- **Phase 2** is given over to an extension of the R content thereby emphasizing activity at the task level. It permits R to include more than one sentence or phrase, thus extending the information given. Since this dislocates the original S-R sequence, a new series of S-R items is necessary which still controls to some extent what is answered
but permits the member to express several thoughts as is
frequently done in normal conversation. It also permits
multiple R's to one S.

A Partially-Controlled Session: (see Appendix for the French)

S = Leader or central member
R₁ = A central member
R₂ = A moderately active member

S The Basque country? I have heard of it, but I do not know where
it is located or what the climate is like. Is it mountainous?

R₁ The Basque is located at the point where the Pyrenees meet the
Atlantic Ocean. It is a mountainous region, but it is also a
maritime region which explains the mildness of climate. It is
never very cold there in winter; it is never too hot in summer.

R₂ The mountains are covered with forests but the valleys are culti-
vated up to the coast.

S I have heard that there are really two Basque countries. How is
that?

R₁ Yes, the Spanish Basque country and the French Basque country.
But the Basque country is neither French nor Spanish. It is just
Basque.

R₂ The French Basques resemble the Spanish Basques very much. They
have the same traditions and the same language which is very
different from French and Spanish. The French Basques know how
to speak French, but they speak Basque also which other French
people do not understand.

S Do they know much about the origin of the Basques?

R₁ The origin of the Basques is very mysterious. There isn't any
Basque literature which gives information on the history of
this people.

R₂ We don't know when they arrived in the area nor from where they
came. Some experts say from Caucasia, others, from Finland.
They have also found resemblances between certain of their dances
and the ritual dances of the Japanese. But these are only theo-
rries and no one is sure of their true origin.
S What kind of people are they?

R^1 The Basque people are very attached to their language and to their traditions. But since they have many children generally and since the land that they cultivate is not very rich, many are obliged to look for work far from home.

R^2 There are those who emigrate as far as America to make their "fortune." They are asked to come into Montana or into Nevada because they have the reputation of being excellent shepherds and are happy to put up with difficult conditions of life. There are few people who accept as they do to remain several months in the mountains with their sheep without going back down to town.

S I find this very interesting, don't you? Would you like to continue the discussion tomorrow?

The Non-Controlled Stage

Purpose: To permit freedom of expression on the given topic, based upon the exchange patterns experienced in the controlled and partially-controlled models. The conversation moves in two patterns:

- Following the sequence of informational points presented in the narrative
- Moving in a non-sequential fashion allowing informational points to be presented as they are thought of by the group members, but, at the same time, following a logical development of story-construction.

There are two phases and four steps in this model.
Procedure:

- The circle or multi-channel communication network is used:

\[ \text{C}^1 = \text{a central member} \\
\text{C}^2 = \text{a central member} \\
\text{A}^1 = \text{a moderately active member} \\
\text{A}^2 = \text{a moderately active member} \\
\text{M} = \text{a minimally participating member} \]

A leader, elected or appointed, is not designated, although one or more central members may emerge and make more frequent contributions than others. The building of the group life proceeds without outside interference, unless some deviant member proves to be so influential that interaction is not possible.

- Members have reviewed again in the language laboratory taped versions of both the controlled and partially-controlled conversations. This is to insure that memory is strengthened at the lexical, morphological and syntactic level, thereby giving the members self-confidence linguistically and satisfying their need for adequacy in the group situation.

- The summary which was presented before the controlled and partially-controlled conversations is omitted in order that
the setting may assume a closer approximation to that of the normal one. The conversation is simply initiated by anyone who wishes to open the discussion while members respect one another's right to speak at this point and during the entire session. Although the frequency of contributions by each member will not develop equally for each member since leadership is not present, it is possible that central members may recognize the right of members to speak and even attempt to draw contributions from hesitant members. In general, however, it is expected that, as in normal conversation, some members will contribute more than others.

- The following illustrates the two phases and four steps. It is noted that there is more tolerance at the non-controlled stage for short, phrase-like utterances which are commonly found in daily conversations and that these phases and steps are only arbitrarily described since the actual movement and content of the conversation is dependent upon the characteristics of the particular group.

Phase 1

A Non-Controlled Session: (see Appendix for the French)

Phase 1--Step 1: The informational sequence follows that which is found in the narrative. In this non-controlled setting, a hierarchy is established as norms are developed. The one proposed is simply an example of the type that might emerge in the circle network.
I found some interesting new information in the reading on the Basque country. For example, it is a maritime region.

Yes, that explains its mild climate, but it is a mountainous region, too.

Covered with forests...

And there are valleys cultivated to the coast.

It is never very cold there in winter; never too warm in summer.

The name of the mountains there... I forgot it.

The Pyrenees... the Basque country is located at the point where the Pyrenees meet the Atlantic Ocean.

Oh yes, I remember now.

Really, there are two Basque countries, the French Basque country and the Spanish Basque country.

But the Basque country is neither French nor Spanish.

... just Basque.

The French Basques resemble very much the Spanish Basques.

They have the same traditions and the same language which is very different from the French and the Spanish.

The French Basques know how to speak French...

But they speak Basque also.

The other French people don't understand it. Curious, isn't it?

The origin of the Basques is very mysterious.

There is no Basque literature which gives information on the history of this people. We don't know when they arrived in the region nor from where they came. From where do they come, according to the experts, M?

From Caucasia, ...from Finland.

They found resemblances between certain of their dances and the ritual dances of the Japanese.

But these are only theories...
No one is certain of their true origin.

The Basques are very attached to their language and their traditions.

They generally have many children. Many are obliged to look for work far from home...

And the land they cultivate is not very rich.

There are those that emigrate as far as America.

... to make their "fortune"...

They are asked to come to Montana and Nevada. Why? Do you remember, M?

They have the reputation of being excellent shepherds.

Also, they have the reputation of being contented to put up with difficult conditions of life.

There are few people who accept as they do to remain several months in the mountains with their sheep...

And without going down again to town. Shall we continue our discussion tomorrow?

Phase 1--Step 2: (see Appendix for the French) The sequence of delivery does not follow the sequence of the narrative, but there is a tendency for the members to direct their contributions to topics of information included in the narrative, e.g., the origin of the Basques, the uniqueness of the Basque culture, the traditions of the Basques, the geography of the Basque country. Thus there is a natural segmentation of the content on a topical basis.

The origin of the Basques is very mysterious. There is no Basque literature which gives information on the history of this people.

We don't know when they arrived in the region nor from where they came.
Some experts say that they came from Caucasia; some other say from Finland.

They have found resemblances between certain of their dances and the ritual dances of the Japanese.

But these are only theories and no one is sure of their true origin.

In reality there are two Basque countries, the Spanish Basque country and the French Basque country.

The Basque country is neither French nor Spanish... just Basque.

But the French Basques resemble very much the Spanish Basques.

They have the same traditions and the same language which is very different from French and Spanish.

The French Basques know how to speak French, but they speak Basque, too. Other French people do not understand it.

The Basques are very attached to their language and to their traditions.

They have many children generally.

The land which they cultivate isn't very rich.

Many are obliged to look for work far from their home. There are those that emigrate as far as America to make their "fortune" there.

They come to Montana and Nevada.

They are asked to come because they have the reputation of being excellent shepherds and are happy to endure difficult conditions of life.

There are few people who would accept like they do to remain several months in the mountains with their sheep without going back down to town.

The Basque country is a mountainous region situated at the point where the Pyrenees meet the Atlantic Ocean.

But it is also a maritime region which explains its mildness of climate.

It is never very cold there in winter; never too warm in summer.
C² The mountains are covered with forests...

C¹ But the valleys are cultivated to the coast.

A¹ It must be a beautiful region!

Phase 2

Phase 2, Step 1: This phase emphasizes sustained delivery at length with several points of information produced by each speaker.

The four content sub-topics appear again. There are fewer exchanges but they are longer ones which follow the informational sequence of the narrative.

C¹ The origin of the Basques is very mysterious. There is no Basque literature which gives information on the history of the people. We don't know when they arrived or from where they came. Some specialists say from Caucasia, other say from Finland. They have found resemblances between certain of their dances and the ritual dances of the Japanese. But these are just theories.

C² It is interesting to observe that the Basques are very attached to their language and to their traditions. But since they have many children generally and since the land which they cultivate is not very rich, many are obliged to look for work far from home. There are those who emigrate as far as America to make their "fortune" there. They are asked to come to Montana and Nevada because they have the reputation of being excellent shepherds and are happy to put up with difficult conditions of life.

A¹ Do you know that in reality there are two Basque countries? The Spanish Basque country and the French Basque country. But the Basque country is neither French nor Spanish; it is just Basque. The French Basques resemble the Spanish Basques. They have the same traditions and the same language which is very different from French and Spanish. The French Basques know how to speak French, but they speak Basque also which the other French people do not understand.

A² Their country is beautiful. It is situated at the point where the Pyrenees meet the Atlantic Ocean. It is a mountainous region, but it is also a maritime region which explains its mildness of climate.
M Yes, it is never very cold there in winter; never too hot in summer. The mountains are covered with forests but the valleys are cultivated as far as the coast. How beautiful it must be!

C I must find out more about this interesting region.

**Phase 2, Step 2:** (see Appendix for the French) This step is directed to sustained delivery at length with some recombinations in constructions, re-entry of elements acquired in previous lessons, but the sequence follows the content presentation of the narrative. The sub-topics are less strictly organized, the exchange is freer, and there is more alternation between long and short exchanges as found in natural conversation.

C I read that the Basque country is situated in the Pyrenees at the point where these mountains meet the Atlantic Ocean. It is a mountainous region covered with forests. The valleys are cultivated to the coast. It must be a beautiful region.

A The weather is ideal because the region in maritime which explains the mildness of climate, never very cold in winter, never too hot in summer.

A But it is also true that the land which is cultivated is not too rich. Therefore, theBasques are obliged to look for work far from home... as far as in America to earn a living.

C They are asked to come into Montana and Nevada because they have the reputation of being excellent shepherds. They can endure difficult conditions of life for a long time and can stay in the mountains with their sheep for several months without going back down. They are very attached to their traditions...

M And to their language. The Basque country is neither French nor Spanish. It is Basque and their language is Basque, too.

C I understand that in reality there are two Basque countries: the Spanish Basque country and the French Basque country. The Spanish Basques resemble very much the French Basques. They have the same language and the same traditions.

A They say that the French Basques know how to speak French but the French people cannot understand the Basque language. I wonder how they get along?
Moreover, the origin of the Basques is very mysterious. There is no information on the history of the people. We do not know when they arrived in the region or from where they came. Some specialists have theories, but no one is sure of their true origin.

They say that the Basques came from Caucasia or from Finland or even from Japan. They found resemblances between certain of their dances and the ritual dances of the Japanese. It would be interesting to look for other theories.

Let us look for some other theories for tomorrow!

Summary of the Features of the Methodology

- Cultural narrative material is the basic substance for the conversational model proposed because of its potentiality for listener-speaker exchange.

- The general procedure is marked by a progression through three stages taken in sequence: the controlled, the partially-controlled and the non-controlled.

- The controlled stage is characterized by leader-directed expression to permit the establishment of a conversational format at a simple stage, to provide for the initial phases of the development of the group's life, and to restrict expression to known linguistic elements and familiar cultural information to strengthen not only the accuracy of the conversational exchange, but also to build self-confidence as one means of satisfying social-emotional needs.

- The partially-controlled stage is characterized by two phases:
  - The leader's sharing of stimulus-activity with other members of the group in order to move conversational behavior toward a freer type of listener-speaker exchange; and
An extension of the information-content of responses not only for the experiencing of expression-at-length, but to increase the capacity for speech perception on the part of the listeners.

The non-controlled stage is characterized by two phases each having two steps, permitting greater freedom of expression. This conversational grouping is marked by the absence of elected or appointed leadership.

Phase 1, Step 1:
- Permits exchanges of limited information-content following the sequence of points presented in the narrative

Phase 1, Step 2:
- Permits exchanges of limited information-content following a non-sequential progression, i.e., the expression of clusters of related thought in the narrative, but not necessarily in the order of informational topics presented in the narrative.

Phase 2, Step 1:
- Permits sustained delivery-at-length with several pieces of related information-content produced by each speaker
Phase 2, Step 2:

- Permits sustained delivery-at-length with freedom to recombine and regenerate structures, to re-enter elements acquired in previous lessons while adhering to the context of the narrative.

- In leaderless grouping it is not possible to predict with absolute certainty that the exchanges will follow precisely the wording suggested, but the patterns and lexical items used can be predicted, unless the student attempts to use unknown patterns or those that cannot be accurately generated because the linguistic acquisitions are not complete enough to permit new structural combinations. Where full statements are expressed, a student may choose to produce a partial utterance and vice versa. This, however, does not constitute a departure from the expected, but rather indicates flexibility of expression within the limits of known material.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

This study is addressed to the sociopsychological aspects of small-group "life" as it pertains to the development of speech perception and speech production in a second language. A review of the literature suggests that the small-group setting in education has had limited analysis for determining its characteristics and functions as they are related to second-language learning. Although scholarly opinion contends that the grouping of students in small numbers is advantageous to second-language learning, no theoretical basis for this acknowledgement is made explicit. Moreover, on the linguistic level, there is increasing evidence that speech-perception and speech-production experiences must be enlarged to include those directed to purposeful communication. Some isolated techniques developed for this activity are proposed in current methodology, but there exists no instructional model which can serve as a guide for leading students, in a sequential fashion, from controlled to non-controlled speech perception and production, in small-group interaction. Therefore, in order to explore this problem, selected aspects of five types of data are investigated to determine the potential of the small group as a factor in the development of verbal communication skills and to design an instructional model which permits a gradual progression through
three conversational stages, intermediary experiences between habit-formation activity and free exchange, typical of that found in the foreign culture.

The types of data reviewed are in the sociopsychological, psycholinguistic, and educational areas and include research on the characteristics and functions of the small group, on verbal learning, second-language learning, and second-language instruction. Selected aspects on the group describe the factors of size, interaction, goals, roles, norms, cohesiveness, the communication system, leadership, and task-accomplishment; aspects on verbal learning review the function of language, the interrelationship of thought and speech, and language acquisition in children; aspects on second-language learning point to some of the differences between first- and second-language learning, a theoretical exposition and critique, learner characteristics, speech production, and speech perception; aspects on instruction in second-language learning at the spoken level emphasize current methodology and its strengths and weaknesses, theoretical solutions to instructional problems, and methodological innovation. These data provide the input features upon which the model is constructed.

The theoretical model which is proposed for a group of five members is composed of three stages in sequence, i.e., controlled, partially-controlled, and non-controlled. These stages which make use of communication networks with teacher and student leadership and ultimately without appointed leadership gradually release the students to participate with more freedom of expression and listening for their own purposes. Phases within a stage permit a variety of linguistic
and social-emotional satisfactions and outcomes for the members. The content upon which these conversational experiences are based is a cultural narrative from a textbook for French instruction currently used in high school.

Conclusions and Implications

As a result of this study the following observations are made:

- The characteristics and functions of the small group must provide the basis upon which a plan for learning is developed in order to permit the realization of linguistic goals at the communication level.

- Knowledge about the acquisition of the first language can provide insights into verbal learning leading to an understanding of intellectual and linguistic development and the role that the first language may be able to play in mediating acquisition of the second.

- Concepts from both reinforcement and cognitive learning theories hold resources for the designing of a comprehensive instructional theory for second-language learning which would take into account linguistic development at all stages.
Theoretical proposals for the improvement of second-language instruction must be submitted to long-term research and experimentation in order to advance knowledge in that field. The instructional model presented in this study must be now treated experimentally in order to provide the data necessary for further analysis and generalization.
LE PAYS BASQUE

Situé au point où les Pyrénées rencontrent l'Océan Atlantique, le Pays Basque est une région de montagnes, mais c'est aussi une région maritime, ce qui explique la douceur de son climat. Il n'y fait jamais très froid en hiver; il n'y fait jamais trop chaud en été. Les montagnes sont couvertes de forêts, mais les vallées sont cultivées jusqu'au bord de la mer.

En réalité il y a deux pays basques, le Pays Basque espagnol et le Pays Basque français. Mais le Pays Basque n'est ni français ni espagnol: il est surtout basque. Les Basques français ressemblent beaucoup aux Basques espagnols. Ils ont les mêmes traditions et la même langue, qui est très différente du français et de l'espagnol. Les Basques français savent parler français, mais ils parlent aussi le basque, que les autres Français ne comprennent pas.

L'origine des Basques est très mystérieuse. Il n'y a pas de littérature basque qui donne des renseignements sur l'histoire de ce peuple. On ne sait pas quand ils sont arrivés dans la région, ni d'où ils sont venus. Quelques spécialistes disent du Caucase, d'autres de Finlande. On a aussi trouvé des ressemblances entre certaines de leurs danses et les danses rituelles japonaises. Mais ce ne sont que des théories et personne n'est sûr de leur origine véritable.

Les Basques sont très attachés à leur langue et à leurs traditions. Mais comme ils ont généralement beaucoup d'enfants, et comme la terre qu'ils cultivent n'est pas très riche, beaucoup sont obligés de chercher du travail loin de chez eux. Il y en a qui émigrent jusqu'en Amérique pour y faire fortune. On leur demande de venir dans le Montana ou dans le Nevada parce qu'ils ont la réputation d'être d'excellents bergers et de se contenter de conditions de vie difficiles. Il y a peu de gens qui acceptent comme eux de rester plusieurs mois dans les montagnes avec leurs moutons sans redescendre à la ville.
S Où est situé le Pays Basque?
R Il est situé au point où les Pyrénées rencontrent l'Océan Atlantique.
S Alors, c'est une région de montagnes.
R Oui, c'est une région de montagnes.
S J'imagine qu'il y fait très froid en hiver, n'est-ce pas?
R Non, il n'y fait pas très froid en hiver.
S Que c'est intéressant! Comment expliquez-vous cela? Je pensais que c'était une région de montagnes.
R Mais c'est aussi une région maritime!
S Alors, c'est ce qui explique la douceur de son climat! Et les étés?
R Il ne fait jamais très chaud en été.
S Que c'est agréable! Je voudrais demeurer dans une telle région. Et vous?
R Bien sûr.
S Je me demande à quoi ressemblent les montagnes?
R Elles sont couvertes de forêts.
S Et les vallées?
R Cultivées jusqu'au bord de la mer.
S Cela doit donner un beau panorama. Y a-t-il vraiment deux pays basques?
R Qui, le Pays Basque espagnol et le Pays Basque français.
S Comment cela se fait-il? Cela veut-il dire qu'il y en a un qui est espagnol et l'autre, français?
R Non, le Pays Basque n'est ni espagnol ni français: il est surtout basque.
S Que c'est curieux! Vous voulez dire que les Basques français ressemblent aux Basques espagnols.

R Oui, beaucoup.

S Comment, je me demande.

R Ils ont les mêmes traditions et la même langue.

S Alors, la langue ressemble au français et à l'espagnol.

R Non, elle est très différente du français et de l'espagnol.

S Les Basques savent-ils parler français aussi bien que leur langue?

R Oui.

S Alors, les Français savent parler le basque.

R Non, ils ne comprennent pas le basque.

S J'ai entendu dire que la langue est très compliquée. Que sait-on des Basques?

R L'origine des Basques est très mystérieuse.

S On dit que la littérature basque ne donne pas de renseignements sur l'histoire de ce peuple.

R On ne sait pas quand ils sont arrivés dans la région ni d'où ils sont venus.

S Quelques spécialistes ont donné des renseignements sur les Basques. Ils disent qu'ils sont venus du Caucase, d'autres de Finlande.

R On a aussi trouvé des ressemblances entre certaines de leurs danses et les danses rituelles japonaises.

S Mais ce ne sont que des théories et personne n'est sûr de leur origine véritable. C'est vrai. Leur origine est mystérieuse. Mais quelle sorte de gens sont les Basques?

R Les Basques sont très attachés à leur langue et à leurs traditions.

S Je crois savoir que les familles basques ont beaucoup d'enfants.

R Oui, et comme la terre qu'ils cultivent n'est pas très riche beaucoup sont obligés de chercher du travail loin de chez eux.

S J'ai entendu dire qu'ils y en a qui émigrent jusqu'en Amérique pour y "faire fortune."
Oui, on leur demande de venir dans le Montana ou dans le Nevada parce qu'ils ont la réputation d'être d'excellents bergers et de se contenter de conditions de vie difficiles.

Leur vie est difficile, n'est-ce pas?

Il y a peu de gens qui acceptent comme eux de rester plusieurs mois dans les montagnes avec leurs moutons sans redescendre à la ville.

Le peuple basque représente une culture intéressante. Continuons la discussion demain.

The Partially-Controlled Stage

Phase 2

Le Pays Basque? J'en ai entendu parler mais je ne sais ni où il est situé ni comment est le climat. Est-ce une région de montagnes?

Le Pays Basque est situé au point où les Pyrénées rencontrent l'océan Atlantique. C'est une région de montagnes, mais c'est aussi une région maritime, ce qui explique la douceur de son climat. Il n'y fait jamais très froid en hiver; il n'y fait jamais trop chaud en été.

Les montagnes sont couvertes de forêts, mais les vallées sont cultivées jusqu'au bord de la mer.

J'ai entendu dire qu'en réalité il y a deux pays basques en réalité. Comment cela se fait-il?

Oui, le Pays Basque espagnol et le Pays Basque français. Mais le Pays Basque n'est ni français ni espagnol; il est surtout basque.

Les Basques français ressemblent beaucoup aux Basques espagnols. Ils ont les mêmes traditions et la même langue, qui est très différente du français et de l'espagnol. Les Basques français savent parler français, mais ils parlent aussi le basque, que les autres Français ne comprennent pas.

Sait-on beaucoup de choses sur l'origine des Basques?

L'origine des Basques est très mystérieuse. Il n'y a pas de littérature basque qui donne des renseignements sur l'histoire de ce peuple.
On ne sait pas quand ils sont arrivés dans la région, ni d'où ils sont venus. Quelques spécialistes disent du Caucase, d'autres de Finlande. On a aussi trouvé des ressemblances entre certaines de leurs danses et les danses rituelles japonaises. Mais ce ne sont que des théories et personne n'est sûr de leur origine véritable.

Quelle sorte de peuple est-ce?

Les Basques sont très attachés à leur langue et à leurs traditions. Mais comme ils ont généralement beaucoup d'enfants, et comme la terre qu'ils cultivent n'est pas très riche, beaucoup sont obligés de chercher du travail loin de chez eux.

Il y en a qui emigrent jusqu'en Amérique pour y "faire fortune". On leur demande de venir dans le Montana ou dans le Nevada parce qu'ils ont la réputation d'être d'excellents bergers et de se contenter de conditions de vie difficiles. Il y a peu de gens qui acceptent comme eux de rester plusieurs mois dans les montagnes avec leurs moutons sans redescendre à la ville.

Je trouve ceci très intéressant n'est-ce pas? Voudriez-vous continuer la discussion demain?

The Non-Controlled Stage

Phase 1 Step 1

J'ai trouvé de nouveaux renseignements intéressants dans la lecture sur le Pays Basque. Par exemple, c'est une région maritime.

Oui, cela explique la douceur de son climat, mais c'est aussi une région de montagnes.

Couverte de forêts...

Et il y a des vallées cultivées jusqu'au bord de la mer.

Il n'y fait jamais très froid en hiver; il n'y fait jamais trop chaud en été.

Comment s'appellent les montagnes... j'ai oublié.

Les Pyrénées... le Pays Basque est situé au point où les Pyrénées rencontrent l'Océan Atlantique.

Mais oui, je m'en souviens maintenant.
En réalité il y a deux pays basques, le Pays Basque français et le Pays Basque espagnol.

Mais le Pays Basque n'est ni français ni espagnol.

... surtout basque.

Les Basques français ressemblent beaucoup aux Basques espagnols.

Ils ont les mêmes traditions et la même langue, qui est très différente du français et de l'espagnol.

Les Basques français savent parler français...

Mais ils parlent basque aussi.

Les autres Français ne le comprennent pas. C'est curieux, n'est-ce pas?

L'origine des Basques est très mystérieuse.

Il n'y a pas de littérature basque qui donne des renseignements sur l'histoire de ce peuple. On ne sait pas quand ils sont arrivés dans la région, ni d'où ils sont venus. D'où viennent-ils, selon les spécialistes, M?

Du Caucase... de Finlande.

On a trouvé des ressemblances entre certaines de leurs danses et les danses rituelles japonaises.

Mais ce ne sont que des théories...

Personne n'est sûr de leur origine.

Les Basques sont très attachés à leur langue et à leurs traditions.

Ils ont généralement beaucoup d'enfants. Beaucoup sont obligés de chercher du travail loin de chez eux...

Car la terre qu'ils cultivent n'est pas très riche.

Il y en a qui émigrent jusqu'en Amérique.

... pour y "faire fortune".

On leur demande de venir dans le Montana et dans le Nevada. Pourquoi? Vous en souvenez-vous, M?

Ils ont la réputation d'être d'excellents bergers.
Ils ont aussi la réputation de se contenter de conditions de vie difficiles.

Il y a peu de gens qui acceptent comme eux de rester plusieurs mois dans les montagnes avec leurs moutons...

Et sans redescendre à la ville. Continuons notre discussion demain.

Phase 1  Step 2

L'origine des Basques est très mystérieuse. Il n'y a pas de littérature basque qui donne des renseignements sur l'histoire de ce peuple.

On ne sait pas quand ils sont arrivés dans la région, ni d'où ils sont venus.

Quelques spécialistes disent qu'ils sont venus du Caucase; d'autres de Finlande.

On a trouvé des ressemblances entre leurs danses et les danses rituelles japonaises.

Mais ce ne sont que des théories et personne n'est sûr de leur origine véritable.

En réalité il y a deux pays basques, le Pays Basque espagnol et le Pays Basque français.

Le Pays Basque n'est ni français ni espagnol... il est surtout basque.

Mais les Basques français ressemblent beaucoup aux Basques espagnols.

Ils ont les mêmes traditions et la même langue, qui est très différente du français et de l'espagnol.

Les Basques français savent parler français, mais ils parlent aussi basque. Les autres Français ne le comprennent pas.

Les Basques sont très attachés à leur langue et à leurs traditions.

Ils ont généralement beaucoup d'enfants.

La terre qu'ils cultivent n'est pas très riche.
Beaucoup sont obligés de chercher du travail loin de chez eux. Il y en a qui émigrent jusqu’en Amérique pour y "faire fortune".

Ils viennent dans le Montana et dans le Nevada.

On leur demande de venir parce qu’ils ont la réputation d’être d’excellents bergers et ils se contentent de conditions de vie difficiles.

Il y a peu de gens qui acceptent comme eux de rester plusieurs mois dans les montagnes avec leurs moutons sans redescendre à la ville.

Le Pays Basque est une région de montagnes, située au point où les Pyrénées rencontrent l’Océan Atlantique.

Mais c’est aussi une région maritime, ce qui explique la douceur de son climat.

Il n’y fait jamais très froid en hiver; il n’y fait jamais trop chaud en été.

Les montagnes sont couvertes de forêts...

Mais les vallées sont cultivées jusqu’au bord de la mer.

Cela doit être une belle région!

L’origine des Basques est très mystérieuse. Il n’y a pas de littérature qui donne des renseignements sur l’histoire de ce peuple. On ne sait pas quand ils sont arrivés dans la région, ni d’où ils sont venus. Quelques spécialistes disent du Caucase, d’autres de Finlande. On a trouvé des ressemblances entre certaines de leurs danses et les danses rituelles japonaises. Mais ce ne sont que des théories.

Il est intéressant d’observer que les Basques sont très attachés à leur langue et à leurs traditions. Mais comme ils ont généralement beaucoup d’enfants, et comme la terre qu’ils cultivent n’est pas très riche, beaucoup sont obligés de chercher du travail loin de chez eux. Il y en a qui émigrent jusqu’en Amérique pour y "faire fortune". On leur demande de venir dans le Montana et dans le Nevada parce qu’ils ont la réputation d’être d’excellents bergers et de se contenter de conditions de vie difficiles.
Savez-vous qu'en réalité il y a deux pays basques, le Pays Basque espagnol et le Pays Basque français? Mais le Pays Basque n'est ni français ni espagnol; il est surtout basque. Les Basques français ressemblent aux Basques espagnols. Ils ont les mêmes traditions et la même langue, qui est très différente du français et de l'espagnol. Les Basques français savent parler français, mais ils parlent aussi le basque, que les autres Français ne comprennent pas.

Leur pays est beau. Il est situé au point où les Pyrénées rencontrent l'Océan Atlantique. C'est une région de montagnes, mais c'est aussi une région maritime, ce qui explique la douceur du climat.

Oui, il n'y fait jamais très froid en hiver; il n'y fait jamais trop chaud en été. Les montagnes sont couvertes de forêts, mais les vallées sont cultivées jusqu'au bord de la mer. Que le panorama doit être beau!

Il faut nous renseigner davantage sur cette région intéressante.

J'ai lu que le Pays Basque est situé dans les Pyrénées au point où les montagnes rencontrent l'Océan Atlantique. C'est une région de montagnes, couverte de forêts. Les vallées sont cultivées jusqu'au bord de la mer. Cela doit être une belle région.

Le temps est idéal parce que la région est maritime, ce qui explique la douceur du climat, jamais très froid en hiver, jamais trop chaud en été.

Mais c'est vrai aussi que la terre qui est cultivée n'est pas trop riche. Les Basques sont donc obligés de chercher du travail loin de chez eux... jusqu'en Amérique pour gagner leur vie.

On leur demande de venir dans le Montana et dans le Nevada parce qu'ils ont la réputation d'être d'excellents bergers. Ils peuvent supporter longtemps des conditions de vie difficiles et rester plusieurs mois dans les montagnes avec leurs moutons sans redescendre. Ils sont très attachés à leurs traditions...

Et à leur langue. Le Pays Basque n'est ni français ni espagnol. Il est basque et leur langue aussi est basque.

Je crois savoir qu'en réalité il y a deux pays basques: le Pays Basque espagnol et le Pays Basque français. Les Basques
espagnols ressemblent beaucoup aux Basques français. Ils ont la même langue et les mêmes traditions.

On dit que les Basques français savent parler français mais les Français ne savent pas la langue basque. Je me demande comment ils s'entendent?

D'ailleurs, l'origine des Basques est très mystérieuse. Il n'y a pas de renseignements sur l'histoire de ce peuple. On ne sait pas quand ils sont arrivés dans la région ni d'où ils sont venus. Quelques spécialistes ont des théories, mais personne n'est sûr de leur origine véritable.

On dit que les Basques viennent du Caucase ou de Finlande, ou même du Japon. On a trouvé des ressemblances entre certaines de leurs danses et les danses rituelles japonaises. Il serait très intéressant de chercher d'autres théories.

Cherchons d'autres théories pour demain!
FOOTNOTING


8. Albert Valdman, "How Do We Break the Lockstep?" Audiovisual Instruction, VII (November 1962), 630-634.


14. Rivers, p. 64.


25. Ibid.


28. Ibid.


31. Ibid., 9-10.


40. Kemp, p. 73.
41. Trump, p. 92.
44. Ibid., 14.
48. Ibid., 124.
49. Ibid., 195.
51. Ibid., 51-52.
52. Homans, p. 112.
53. Ibid., 120.
54. Argyle, pp. 62-64.
55. Homans, p. 102.


63. Ibid., 44.


65. Ibid., 346.


69. Bany and Johnson, pp. 165-172.

70. Hare, p. 122.

71. Ibid.

72. McDavid and Harari, pp. 268-270.

73. Ibid., 268.

74. Argyle, p. 70.

76. Gibb, p. 131.


78. Bany and Johnson, pp. 85-93.


80. Hare, p. 24.

81. Homans, *Human Group*, p. 82.

82. Ibid., 125-127.

83. Hare, p. 46.


86. Hare, p. 25.


88. Hare, p. 24.

89. Cartwright and Zander, p. 67.

90. Hare, p. 30.


92. Bany and Johnson, pp. 116-145.

93. Cartwright and Zander, p. 70.

94. Shaw, pp. 203-208.
95. Bertram H. Raven and Jan Rietsema, "The Effects of Varied Clarity of Group Goal and Group Path Upon the Individual and his Relation to his Group", Human Relations, X (February 1957), pp. 29-44.


97. Deutsch, pp. 443-446.


102. Homans, Human Group, p. 133.

103. Ibid., 146-147; 387.

104. Bany and Johnson, p. 52.

105. Ibid., 54.

106. Ibid., 51-73.

107. Hare, p. 273.


111. Leavitt, p. 46.

112. Ibid.

113. McDavid and Harari, p. 286.

115. Hare, p. 276.

116. Gibb, p. 126


123. Cartwright and Zander, p. 492.


128. Hare, Handbook, p. 293.

130. Cartwright and Zander, p. 496.
140. Kemp, Group Process, p. 70.
141. Leland P. Bradford, "Developing Potentialities through Class Groups", Teachers' College Record, LXI (May 1960), 139.
143. Ibid., 41.
144. Trump, p. 92.


147. Ibid., 165-166.

148. Ibid., 167.

149. Thelen, Teachability, p. 36 and p. 192.


151. Evans, "Group Methods", p. 49.

152. Jenkins, p. 177.

153. Ibid., 179.


155. Hare, Handbook, p. 263.


167. Ibid., 391.

168. Ibid.


173. Hare, Handbook, p. 243-244.

174. Ibid., 244.

175. Olson, p. 275.


177. Evans, p. 44.


182. Evans, p. 48.


189. Ibid.


192. Ibid., 21.

193. Ibid., 28.


197. Ibid., 107-109.
202. Ibid., 512-514.
203. Ibid., 514.
204. Ibid.
205. Ibid., 518-519.
206. Ibid., 520.
207. Ibid., 521.
208. Ibid., 527.
210. Ibid., 148.
211. Ibid.
212. Ibid., 166-168.
214. Pillsbury and Meader, pp. 170-172.
216. Ibid., 337-338.


224. Ibid., 33-40.


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242. Ibid., 108-110.


244. Harlan Lane, "Some Differences Between First and Second Language Learning", Language Learning, XII (1962), 2.

245. Ibid., 3.

246. Ibid., 4.


252. Ibid., 22.

253. Ibid., 49.

254. Ibid.


256. Brooks, p. 50.

257. Ibid., p. 51.


259. Brooks, p. 43.

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265. Ibid., 126.


277. Ibid., 281-282; 30-31.


280. Ibid., 100.


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296. Ibid., 203.


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