

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 060 738

FL 003 014

AUTHOR Wessels, Betsy Davis
TITLE The Development of Facility in Free Oral
Expression.
PUB DATE May 71
NOTE 67p.; Master's thesis, University of Texas at
Austin
EDRS PRICE MF-\$0.65 HC-\$3.29
DESCRIPTORS *Communication Skills; Conversational Language
Courses; *English (Second Language); Instructional
Materials; Instructional Program Divisions; *Language
Instruction; Oral Reading; Reading Skills; *Speech
Skills; *Teaching Methods; Teaching Skills; Teaching
Styles

ABSTRACT

This thesis develops a method of classroom language instruction for teachers of English as a second language which enables students to extend their linguistic skills from language manipulation to free oral expression. Detailed description of a model class is presented. Pedagogical guidelines for preparation of instructional materials and for classroom instruction emerge in chapters on oral reading, language manipulation, and free oral expression. Ratings of classroom activities by members of the model class are included among the concluding remarks. (RL)

ED 060738

THE DEVELOPMENT OF FACILITY IN FREE ORAL EXPRESSION

by

BETSY DAVIS WESSELS, B.A.

THESIS

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

The University of Texas at Austin

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

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ACKNOWLEDGMENT

May I express sincere appreciation to Dr. Joseph Michel and Dr. John Bordie for their patient guidance and encouragement throughout the preparation of this paper. Their thoughtful suggestions were an invaluable help and the sharing of their ideas a real pleasure.

My gratitude extends also to Mrs. Winona Alff, Mrs. Sue Vick and Mrs. Linda Watson for their friendly assistance in the Foreign Language Education Center library and office and to Mrs. Eunice Johnson for her indispensable help in typing.

Special thanks go to my dear Fred whose confidence in me was the greatest help of all.

B. D. W.

April 1, 1971

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The importance of language in society cannot be overemphasized. Linguists and anthropologists are agreed that it is the central feature of culture in any community.¹ An interest in it is not only natural but necessary if we are to be able to teach a second language to adults who have already mastered their native language.

Robert Lado's definition of language reveals its communicative function as well as its structural arrangement:

Language is primarily an instrument of communication among human beings in a community; it consists of oral-aural symbols, arbitrary in their association to particular meanings and units and arbitrary in their shape for a given language.²

John Carroll points out the same dual components of language in his definition:

Language is a structured system of arbitrary vocal sounds and sequences of sounds which is used, or can be used, in

¹Mary Finocchiaro, Teaching English as a Second Language, p. 91.

²Robert Lado, Language Testing, p. 2, 3.

interpersonal communication by an aggregation of human beings, and which rather exhaustively catalogs the things, events, and processes in the human environment.¹

Language can be divided into two components: syntax, the structure, and semantics, the meaning, with form underlying meaning.² It is clear that communication is the purpose of language and structural form or system is a means to that end. Foreign language educators are faced with the necessity of teaching it in such a way that neither facet is overemphasized to the neglect of the other.

Before defining the specific problem dealt with in this paper, let us look at the nature of language itself. We find that it is a system of pronunciation, structure and vocabulary all following a definite pattern of recurring forms and sequences of forms. These forms signal meaning to English speakers by means of word order, function words and intonation.³ The learning of these forms is largely a matter of habit formation, the habits becoming so well learned that they become almost automatic. As Nelson Brooks has said, "The single paramount fact about language learning is that it concerns, not problem

¹John Carroll, The Study of Language, p. 10.

²Owen P. Thomas, Transformational Grammar and the Teacher of English, p. 13, 14.

³Finocchiaro, Teaching English as a Second Language, p. 37.

solving, but the formation and performance of habits,"¹ the implication being that practice in the use of correct forms is more essential than analysis and understanding of why these forms are correct.

After studying language development in children and language use in communities, all over the world, linguistic scientists have found that spoken language is primary, and writing a secondary, often imperfect representation, of speech.² They have also learned that the meaningful sounds of a language can be discovered, analyzed and described through contrasts and that ingrained language habits of a native speaker may interfere or conflict with the learning of a second language.³

Language is learned behavior, the noises human beings make becoming meaningful only when reinforced by speakers of the language community.⁴ The infant spends a great deal of time passively listening to the language around him. The sounds he himself makes are random or experimental. Gradually he begins to associate certain sounds with a particular response or result. "Child language development is

¹Nelson Brooks, Language and Language Learning, p. 49.

²Finocchiaro, Teaching English as a Second Language, p. 91.

³Ibid.

⁴Ibid.

the development of different responses which serve to code the child's perceptions of his environment and to mediate his needs."¹

The infant progresses from listening to understanding to speaking and several years later learns to read and then to write. The sequence of teaching these four language skills, if it is to conform to natural language learning, will proceed in the same order: understanding, speaking, reading, writing.² Carroll cautions that,

It is somewhat doubtful whether the learning of a foreign language should proceed in all respects in a manner paralleling the acquisition of language in a child, but the desired end result is the same.³

We have long been aware of the need for better methods of teaching foreign languages, the necessity becoming most apparent during World War II when it became evident that traditional methods (commonly known as grammar-translation) were not successful in producing fluent speakers of other languages. In the early 1940's two new approaches to language teaching were initiated. The first was employed by the Army Specialized Training Program in its Intensive Language Program and was characterized by the use of

¹Carroll, The Study of Languages, p. 99.

²Finocchiaro, Teaching English as a Second Language, p. 97.

³Carroll, The Study of Language, p. 99.

native informants and of mimicry-memorization methodology.¹ The second, which was used by the English Language Institute of the University of Michigan, featured teaching materials based on contrastive analysis and introduced certain discovery procedures of structural linguistics as teaching devices.²

The audio-lingual method, which has been widely used in recent years, represents to a large extent, a combination of the two just mentioned. It takes cognizance of the fact that acquiring language skills takes time and must be a long and gradual process, the final goal being free expression.

Carroll urges that teachers use an eclectic approach and select the material and method best suited to a particular group at a particular time, rather than trying to adhere to any one method.³

Let us combine the practice of our most skilled teachers with the language theory of the linguists and the learning theory of the psychologists and evolve our own theory of language learning, is the recommendation of another language teacher.⁴

¹Angiolillo, Paul, Armed Forces' Foreign Language Teaching, p. 26-28.

²Robert Politzer, "Linguistics and Motivation," Dimension: Languages 68, Proceedings of the Fourth Southern Conference on Language Teaching, New Orleans, February 1968, p. 20.

³Carroll, The Study of Language, p. 186.

⁴William G. Moulton, "Applied Linguistics in the Classroom," in Teaching English as a Second Language, by Harold B. Allen, p. 83.

Probably the greatest contribution that linguists have made to language teaching in the last two decades has been their insistence on the systematic nature of language so that we have come to think of it not as words, but as pattern.¹ Our basic courses in English are now made up of a sequence of structural patterns and in the classroom we drill our students in the use of these patterns until they have been learned so well that they can be used with unconscious mastery.

The kinds of drills most used have been repetition in imitation of a model and other manipulative exercises involving substitutions, expansions, transformations and the like. We have tried to see that students spend their time learning to use correct forms and that they are allowed to make as few errors as possible. Results have been good in beginning classes, but

. . . the adequacy of manipulative techniques lessens as the student advances. We have been so enchanted with manipulation that we have largely forgotten another element of language, one of importance equal to its systematic nature: its communicative function.²

Clifford Prator goes on to say that the most significant current trend in methods of teaching English as a second language may well prove to be the attempt to assign to communication its proper role in the classroom. It is to this facet of teaching that this thesis is devoted.

¹Prator, "English as a Second Language: Teaching," in Teaching English as a Second Language, by Harold B. Allen, p. 90.

²Ibid., p. 91.

CHAPTER II

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM AND PROCEDURAL DESCRIPTION

Many of the foreign students in our colleges and graduate schools have studied English as a foreign language but find themselves unable to express their thoughts adequately in oral conversation. They have reached a stage of language production where they can encode meanings by consciously putting together various elements and units that constitute an utterance, but they speak haltingly with long pauses while they search for suitable lexical and structural items.

With the needs of such young people in mind, a class was organized for five university students from Venezuela and Ecuador. The overall aim was to provide an opportunity for them to improve their skill in free oral expression of English, oral expression being defined as "the ability to use in essential normal conversation situations the signaling system of pronunciation, stress, intonation, structure and vocabulary at a normal rate of delivery."¹ It was

¹Lado, Language Teaching, p. 241.

anticipated that certain pedagogical guidelines or criteria for the development of free oral communication would emerge from the experience. My objective in writing this thesis is to describe and evaluate the procedures used in an effort to discover which are effective teaching tools.

The group met fifty minutes three times a week for three months. It was voluntary on the part of the students and non-credit since the course was experimental in nature. The class number was limited to five because the primary activity was to be experience in using spoken English. The more nearly the classroom situation approximates a normal, real life situation, the more carry-over could be expected in the use of oral language. Five to nine students is the number established as a maximum class size suitable for language training by the Intensive Language Training Program of the American Council of Learned Societies and the Army Specialized Training Program.¹

Limitation of class size is justified by the fact that available recitation time becomes too short in a class of more than ten. Also, in ratio to the correct model of the teacher, the student is exposed to more errors by his peers. In a class where conversational abilities

¹Kibley M. Horne, "Optimum Class Size for Intensive Language Instruction," Modern Language Journal, vol. LIV, March 1970 #3, p. 189-195.

are to be developed, instruction must be conducted in an atmosphere of controlled social interaction which is not possible in a group smaller than four and is difficult with more than nine or ten. With a class of five to nine, students are more apt to shed their inhibitions and fear of making mistakes. Important too, is the consideration of each person's unobstructed view of the instructor's face; learners are better able to reproduce sounds when the model is within a few feet of them.

Audio-lingual methods have been quite successful in teaching speakers of other languages the basic skills necessary for handling the language system of English, but have fallen short of preparing learners to freely communicate their ideas and thoughts.¹ Methods used in this class are intended to provide a gradual progression from pure language manipulation to the use of language in real communication and each lesson is planned to advance this progression.

In order to provide material of relevance, the lesson is introduced with a passage read aloud by the instructor. The reading is chosen (or constructed) according to the fields of interest and areas of concern evinced by the pupils. The selection is read a second time by the teacher, after which students are given practice in drills and exercises based upon the reading and designed to make speech habits

¹Prator, "English as a Second Language," in Teaching English as a Second Language, ed. by Harold Allen, p. 91.

automatic. Strict control is placed on what they repeat and say; gradually, as habits become more automatic, controls are relaxed. The students progress through directed or controlled communication to free oral expression and are given wide opportunity to use English independently.

The proportion of time devoted to listening and comprehension of the reading is about ten minutes. The practice of words and word sequences occupies another ten minutes. The following ten or fifteen minutes is used for directed or controlled communication and the remaining twenty minutes is spent using oral language in as natural a way as possible. Frequently, discussions or conversations begun in one class will carry over to the next meeting. This is a most desirable "set" since high interest and motivation tend to lessen inhibitions and encourage active participation in the verbal exchange of ideas.

In the following sections of this thesis I shall examine in detail each part of the lesson, explaining the intent as well as the underlying rationale.

GENERAL FORMAT OF THE LESSON

SKILLS		TIME
<u>Listening</u> and <u>Understanding</u>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A selection read aloud twice by the teacher 2. Clarification of meaning and check for aural comprehension 	10 min.
<u>Speaking:</u> <u>Manipulation</u> <u>Reading</u>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Oral presentation and practice of new or difficult forms 4. Visual presentation of same forms 	10 min.
<u>Speaking:</u> <u>Controlled</u> <u>communication</u>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Oral practice in use of forms 	10 min.
<u>Speaking:</u> <u>Free</u> <u>communication</u>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6. General conversation, questions, comments, reactions, criticisms, arguments based on the reading 	20 min.
<u>Reading and</u> <u>Writing</u>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 7. Dictation of the selection 8. Student participation in compiling a list of related topics for further study or for conversation groups 	To be used in follow-up lessons

CHAPTER III

THE ORAL READING

Since listening is the basis of language learning, students need extensive practice in it before trying to carry on sustained conversation.¹ Conversation is interaction between persons and comprehension plays an important role. When we initiate the lesson with an oral reading by the teacher, we provide an opportunity for students to listen to the language before being required to use it, thus following the natural sequence of language learning. Eugene Nida spent many years observing the manner in which Africans learned two or more tribal tongues and became convinced that "learning to speak a language is very largely a task of learning to hear it."² Intonation and rhythm are learned and reinforced in this way.

An equally valid reason for introducing the lesson with a reading is the matter of relevance or interest or motivation. As deduced from successful experience with adults and children,

¹Eugene Nida, Learning a Foreign Language, p. 27.

²Ibid, p. 38.

E. V. Gatenby states that necessity comes first among governing factors of achievement in language learning.¹ In general, foreign students learning English in this country are highly motivated to learn because they constantly find themselves in situations where they must be able to comprehend and to respond. This motivation carries over into the classroom when the lesson is geared to their needs and interests. Most of the selections read to this class were written specifically for them in response to their requests for information on a particular subject or in an effort to extend their socio-cultural orientation to American people and their way of life. Topics ranged from environmental problems to an analysis of the "hippie" culture.

In a class designed for the improvement of free oral expression, the reading provides a common topic for discussion and serves as a base for wide ranging conversational exchange, at the same time affording an opportunity to expand socio-cultural concepts. Two courses of action are open to the instructor, the first being to take advantage of the vast supply of printed material available including classic works of American literature; the second, to construct

¹E. V. Gatenby, "Conditions for Success in Language Learning," in Teaching English as a Second Language, by Harold Allen, p. 14.

materials designed especially for the students we are teaching. Both systems have merit and both were used in the experimental class referred to in this paper.

Let us first consider the use of literature as a source of socio-cultural orientation. We must realize that intermediate students of a second language are seldom prepared to appreciate or to fully comprehend the writing of many of our best authors. We have to effect a compromise between the literary selection as a cultural artifact modeled in language and the need to promote our goal of cultural orientation."¹ In order to allow for the

. . . linguistic unpreparedness of our students. . . it becomes imperative to adapt the selection in such a way that the students can utilize with ease the linguistic patterns which they have already learned. The adaptation must be in the direction of grammatical simplification primarily, and then of vocabulary control. . .²

Thus we make it possible for the learner to focus his attention and interest on the content of the passage. Adaptations of selections from Clarence Day's Life With Father and Mark Twain's Tom Sawyer were used with this group, as well as more contemporary selections from John Steinbeck's Travels with Charley and J. D. Salinger's Franny and Zooey.

¹Charles T. Scott, "Literature and the ESL Program" in Teaching English as Second Language, edited by Allen, p. 295.

²Ibid., p. 296.

The other possibility, that of composing material to be used with a particular class, has the advantage of being tailored to fit their needs and interests more exactly than other materials. In this case, these students wanted information on current trends in politics and social problems both on a local level (concerning the university and student affairs) and on a national level. They needed to know about student housing in Austin and what outdoor recreational facilities were available to them. They were curious about the Board of Regents and its function. They were interested in the struggle for recognition by Mexican American groups in the southwest and in problems of racial integration in schools throughout the country. Some examples of "stories" used with this experimental group are included in the last chapter of the thesis. They were composed in an effort to provide relevant material that would serve as a source for extended discussion, conversation and an exchange of ideas on related topics.

Justification for reading the passage twice is found in the fact that it gives pupils a second chance to listen attentively to words and structures that may not have been understood the first time. It gives them an opportunity to hear correct pronunciation and intonation. At the same time, it ensures a greater degree of aural comprehension than one reading.

It may be necessary to clarify the use of multi-referential words such as get or kind:

a kind person	get breakfast
what kind ?	get out
kind of queer	get a radio station
	get acquainted
	get him to do it
	get away with it
	get to New York

At this time, the teacher may want to use techniques of selective listening which require one to listen for particular details involving vocabulary, structure, pronunciation or comprehension.

For instance:

Vocabulary:	Listen for several words used especially with reference to automobile pollution (fumes, exhaust, smog, filth, internal combustion)
Structure:	Listen for verbs used in the infinitive form. (to realize, to continue, to form, to focus)
Pronunciation:	Listen for words you find hard to pronounce.
Comprehension:	What is a "clean car race?" Why was it organized?

The above exercise is based on a reading entitled "Environmental Crisis" which is found in the last chapter.

Since further conversation and discussion will be based upon the subject matter covered in the reading, the instructor makes sure it has been assimilated before moving on to the practice of new or

unfamiliar lexical and structural items. By explanation and by rewording or rephrasing, she clarifies any area of doubt. She gives ample opportunity for questions and she herself asks questions and elicits comments to ascertain the degree of comprehension of each member.

CHAPTER IV

MANIPULATION

In order to make new lexical and structural items a useful part of one's language knowledge, they have to be practiced until their use becomes almost unconscious. "Habit carries most of the operation of the complex mechanism of language, leaving our attention free to dwell on the message and the attitudes of speaker and listener."¹ With this aim in view, the instructor has the students listen to and repeat the phrases chosen from the reading for practice. In the experimental group of just five, each person has an unobstructed view of the instructor's mouth and each can be given opportunity to repeat individually as well as with the class. Frequent repetition, after a model, of conversational utterances of some complexity is useful in developing the mechanics of fluent speech.²

Following this practice, the teacher writes the words and phrases on the board, reading them aloud and having students repeat.

¹Lado, Language Testing, p. 4.

²Wilga Rivers, Teaching Foreign Language Skills, p. 199-200.

Since native language habits are apt to interfere with pronunciation, it is essential that the oral form be presented and practiced before the written. There are diverse opinions among foreign language educators as to when the visual image should be taught and how much emphasis given it, but with college students at the intermediate level of language learning, there are several points in favor of using the written form. The written script is of incalculable help to students who find it difficult to learn by the audio-lingual method alone.¹ Particularly for those whose aural perception is poor, the visual image is a stimulus to memory; it is not an end in itself. Also important is the fact that English is not a consistently phonemic language and is not always written the way it sounds, so one cannot infer the correct spelling from the spoken form.² Third, after seeing the written form, pupils comprehend words they meet in reading which they have previously heard. At the same time, they reinforce correct rather than incorrect sounds in their own silent reading.

In an experiment where listening fluency was studied, it was found that when adults learn a language under exactly the same

¹H. Dunkel and R. Pillet, French in the Elementary School: Five Years' Experience, p. 45-48.

²Words containing "i": it, piece, tie, machine, isle.
Words containing "ough": dough, bough, through, enough.

conditions as children, the adults are superior in performance.¹ But since many adults have spent much of their lives learning through the medium of the printed word rather than by rote memory and imitation as a child does, they have become dependent upon the visual image as a means of learning.² By supplying the written form in class at this time we are providing a second means of instruction.

With the words and phrases noted on the chalk board, the teacher proceeds to lead pattern practice drills and to explain unfamiliar syntax or morphology.

There is no way in which an adult can acquire a new set of language habits except by initial intellectual understanding backed by drills which transform understanding into automatic response. Intellectual understanding is of great value to the adult, but without drill it is useless. Use of the direct method alone assumes that the adult learner is exactly like the native child. More sensible is the initial explanation followed by drill aimed at acquisition of patterns.³

In teaching young children languages, it is not necessary to make grammatical explanations as they have the ability to learn by analogy and to grasp the systematic arrangement of the language.

¹James Ascher and Ben Price, "The Learning Strategy of the Total Physical Response: Some Age Differences," Child Development, vol. XXXVIII, #4, December 1967, p. 1219-1229.

²Nida, Learning a Foreign Language, p. 21.

³Archibald Hill, "Language Analysis and Language Teaching," in Foreign Language Teaching, edited by Joseph Michel, p. 110.

The function of drill is to induce the subconscious assimilation of the rule: whether the student can or cannot set forth the descriptive statement is of purely academic interest, provided he can reproduce the pattern accurately.¹

Adult learning is different and is facilitated by intellectual learning; when a pattern practice or drill is employed, the adult profits from being made aware of the crucial element of the drill.² Theories of transfer of learning suggest that mechanical practice (drill) makes a skill readily available when an identical situation demands its use, but that transfer of learning is not automatic.³ If learning is to carry over to wider contexts, the student must be made conscious of the relationship within the structure being practiced and of the parts of the pattern that may be manipulated for specific purposes. If the student is to acquire facility in adapting learned and drilled patterns to his own purposes in spontaneous expression, he must understand the crucial element in the drill; he will be better able to recognize how and where an element can be used. When a student wants to know "what he is doing" in a drill or "why he is doing it," grammatical analysis can be very helpful.

¹A. Valdman, "From Structural Analysis to Pattern Drill," French Review, XXXIV, No. 2 (December 1969), p. 170.

²Rivers, Teaching Foreign Language Skills, p. 195.

³Ibid, p. 195.

Politzer believes it cannot be dispensed with. He says rules ought to be summaries of behavior and should only be made explicit after experience with the item in drill and an opportunity to formulate a generalization by analogy.¹ The amount of time devoted to this kind of analysis was minimal in our group as these students were already familiar with the syntax underlying many basic structures and patterns. When the need arose, we spent a few minutes in explanation of a grammatical point or in making a morphological generalization.

¹Robert Politzer, Teaching French: An Introduction to Applied Linguistics, p. 5, 6.

CHAPTER V

CONTROLLED COMMUNICATION

We assist the student in progressing from language manipulation to free communication by providing practice in controlled communication. We gradually relax the controls over what he is to say and allow him more and more freedom. We can define manipulative language activities as those in which the sounds, words, and structures to be used are supplied to the student by the teacher, tape recording or text book; communicative activities are those in which the student himself supplies the words, sounds and structures needed to express his thoughts.¹ Free conversation is a completely communicative activity, while an example of pure manipulation is a drill in which the teacher utters a sentence and the student repeats it after him. Manipulation and communication can be regarded as two extremes and most teaching techniques involve both, to a greater or lesser extent.²

¹Clifford Prator, "English as a Second Language: Teaching," in The Teaching of English as a Second Language, ed. Allen, p. 90.

²Ibid., p. 90.

Genuine freedom in language use will develop only as the student gains control of the system as a whole, beyond the mastery of patterns in isolation. The teacher provides more and more activities in which the proportion of communication increases.

To assist the pupil in this progression, we must provide practice in using the forms and patterns learned. Questions on the material covered in the oral reading serve this purpose, with answers phrased in either the shortest possible form or in complete sentences. The next step is to use in original sentences lexical and structural items selected from the reading. Further experience in using this vocabulary is gained by paraphrasing sequences of words and by suggesting synonyms and antonyms.

In making the transition from controlled to free communication, speaking from an outline is a useful activity as it limits the speaker to familiar topics and vocabulary while at the same time permitting him independence in choosing forms of expression. A brief outline of the main points covered in the reading is constructed cooperatively and noted on the chalkboard. With these points to serve as memory stimulus and to limit the subject, individuals are able to make a summary in their own words. The learner uses the language forms recently practiced but he selects the lexical content.

These communicative activities are made to relate directly to the students by encouraging comments on their reactions and

feelings and giving opportunity for them to share information and experiences. They are helped to encode their own thoughts using familiar basic patterns, and to simplify what they are saying when at a loss as to how to express themselves.

In all these situations of controlled communication, the psychological, emotional, and motivational factors are important influences on learning. A relaxed rather than a tense situation is required, an atmosphere of acceptance rather than of criticism.

Verbal behavior is dependent on reinforcement from another source.¹ In oral communication, many learned structures and phrases prove to be suitable and responses using these structures are strengthened and their use made more automatic. As students try out new combinations, their acceptable attempts will be rewarded with approval while their unrewarded attempts will gradually be eliminated. That which is agreeable we are more likely to repeat and therefore to learn while that which is disagreeable we avoid. The teacher must alleviate feelings of inadequacy by restraint in making corrections and in contributing too much to the conversation herself. Students should not be put in the position of having to express concepts for which they do not have suitable vocabulary.

¹B. F. Skinner, Verbal Behavior, p. 2.

If improvement in oral English is to take place, mistakes must be corrected, but with care. An authoritarian manner will do more to eliminate voluntary participation and spontaneous expression than to eliminate errors. When a speaker is trying to express an idea, he cannot be constantly interrupted without losing his train of thought and being made to feel frustrated and insecure. A better way is to correct those mistakes that recur consistently and those that would impede communication or be unacceptable to a native speaker. Other inaccuracies should be noted and brought to the attention of the individual, or sometimes the group, at the end of the class or at a time reserved for this purpose. Sometimes on the spot corrections are necessary, but they should be made quietly and drill should come at some other time.

Errors in structural patterns, in pronunciation and intonation and in vocabulary are frequently due to interference of native language habits. Interference is defined as those instances of deviation from the norms of a language which occur in the speech of an individual as a result of his familiarity with another language, in this case, his native tongue.¹ He transfers the habit system of his native language to the foreign tongue; he makes errors as a result of using forms based on syntax and morphology to which he is accustomed.

¹Uriel Weinreich, Languages in Contact, p. 1.

When native language involves units or patterns similar to those of the target language, there will be either facilitation or interference in learning depending on the degree of functional similarity. If the expression, content, and association are functionally the same in the native and the new language, there is maximum facilitation; if the unit or pattern is not the same there will be interference with the new language.¹

The good teacher wastes little time where similarities between the two languages are concerned but directs her attention to the differences. In addition to problems of structural form and vocabulary, she is constantly alert for inaccuracies of pronunciation and intonation. She models the correct delivery and helps students approximate her performance until they attain acceptable speaking skill. She does not insist on perfect production as this is sometimes impossible, but she strives for speech that is easily understood by native speakers of English.

¹Lado, Language Learning, p. 40.

CHAPTER VI

FREE ORAL EXPRESSION

The Conversation Group

Today's students in our secondary schools and colleges find a great disparity between their daily life activities and much that goes on in the classroom. A functional program gives the learner a working knowledge of the language so that he finds pleasure and satisfaction in using it for communication. Spontaneous verbal expression is not solely the product of knowledge of and skill in using a language code; it also implies the student's desire to communicate. In the experimental class we endeavored to set the stage for interpersonal communication by laying a foundation of skills in handling the vocabulary and structures pertaining to a selected field of interest chosen because of its relevancy to the group. If the preparatory class work was successful, the students are able to converse on the subject chosen, and if it was a suitable choice, they have ideas and opinions to contribute.

Since conversation requires the use of numerous structures and lexical items which have been learned over a period of years, the

student must develop skill in rapid selection of the most suitable expression. By encouraging the learner to converse on subjects with which he is familiar and in which he is interested, we allow him to put most of his attention on the process of selecting appropriate forms. Smoothness of delivery at normal speed of native speakers is the aim of these students and they are more likely to approximate this goal when speaking on subjects of their own choice. In the case of these students, their urge to communicate and to fit into American life keeps motivation at a high level which in turn increases learning. Since motivation should be based primarily on the interests as well as the needs of the learner, every effort is made to discover the broad areas of interest of the students. The following list includes some of them:

- Current news events (local and national)
- Social problems here and in South America
- Politics in their countries and the U. S.
- Sports
- Attitudes and values of American people
- Environmental issues
- Hobbies
- Customs
- Recreation

Secondary education

Careers and professions

Manners and etiquette

Some more specific topics of interest to this group are:

Traveling in the U. S. and Europe

City life and urban problems

Physical fitness for adults

Student government at U. T.

The board of regents

Sidewalk vendors

Outdoor recreation in the Austin area

Dress and grooming codes for students

The Austin city council

Changing attitudes in our society

Military service and the draft

Student demonstrations

Pollution

Population control

Oral readings were presented on many of these topics and conversation was a natural outgrowth. When interest was high, the subject under discussion was carried over to the next lesson to capitalize on motivation already generated and of language forms already familiar.

Subjects for discussion were always announced in advance and everyone expected to come prepared to contribute ideas within the broad area assigned. Somewhat controversial topics proved especially fruitful for stimulating ideas and impelling students to express themselves. Sometimes the teacher designated a pupil to take the affirmative stand and another to take the negative. Pupils were seldom asked to prepare a report or speech because such an arrangement eliminates spontaneity and allows for less participation on the part of each individual.

The setting of the conversation class is informal and relaxed. All discourse is carried on in English and students are free to interrupt or to question, to disagree or to make additional comments. It is the teacher's responsibility to see that all participate and to keep her own contributions to the conversation to a minimum. When conversation lags, the instructor stimulates participation by asking a leading question or adding a comment designed to elicit a response.

Individual differences are kept in mind, and allowances are made for them. By demanding of the student completely accurate grammatical forms and sentence structure and thoroughly appropriate wording, the instructor is sometimes insisting on a higher level of expression than that of which the student is capable. The degree of fluency attained by one in his native language is dependent upon his

innate capabilities as well as upon circumstances of environment, with the result that some people become more articulate than others. The same can be expected in one's learning of a foreign language. Individual differences in learning are also caused by factors of personality such as a tendency toward extrovert or introvert behavior.

From time to time, the usual lesson format of an oral reading by the teacher followed by practice and developing into general conversation was varied to include assigned talks or resumes of reading, most often when a student was especially well informed in a certain area. For example, Edgar described his current research in the field of petroleum engineering. Joe explained his preference for soccer over football, complete with diagrams on the board. Aura gave instructions on how to prepare a Venezuelan chicken pie. In each case, the sense of satisfaction and achievement of the speaker was evident.

Levels of Diction

The problem of levels of diction is likely to arise as foreign students are not always accurate in their appraisal of the suitability of expressions they read and hear. They sometimes use slang expressions in polite or formal situations, not realizing that it is inappropriate. At the opposite extreme, they often use rather formal literary phrases they have come across in reading when informal vocabulary would be more suitable. They should be made aware of the formal, informal and non-standard levels and the communicative environments in which each is to be used.¹

In the experimental group, it was found that the needs of foreign students to express themselves in conventional English fell into three categories:

1. Making informal class reports
2. Contributing to casual conversation
3. Composing formal papers for their courses

They needed to recognize the significance of purpose, vocabulary and syntax at each level in order to know which expressions to select.²

¹Jewel A. Friend, "It Ain't Watcha Say," TESOL Quarterly, vol. 3, December 1969, no. 4, p. 310-311.

²Ibid.

Experience in distinguishing the three levels can be provided in several ways. A hypothetical situation may be set up and pupils supply the dialogue. In so doing, they discover that purpose and environmental factors are governing principles for choice of words and patterns. Further practice is made possible by asking students to identify statements as to formal, informal or non-standard and to formulate equivalent statements in the other two categories.

Socio-cultural Concepts

Language and culture are inextricably interwoven as is shown by the fact that language is the main vehicle of culture.¹ Howard Lee Nostrand makes clear that the chief concern of foreign language teachers is not with culture in the liberal arts sense, but rather in the anthropological sense.² It is the attitudes, reactions, assumptions and values of American people that are essential for the foreign student's comprehension of our ways. He is daily experiencing the behavior patterns of our society, but he needs knowledge about our culture as well as experience of it if he is to attain real understanding. Informed understanding of the difference between two cultures fosters a tolerant view of new modes of behavior, or ways of thinking.

As language teachers, we must be interested in culture (in the social scientist's sense of the word) not because we necessarily want to teach culture of the country but because we have to teach it. If we teach language without teaching at the same time the culture in which it operates, we are teaching meaningless symbols or symbols to which the student attaches the wrong meaning: for unless he is warned, unless he receives cultural instruction, he will associate his own concepts with the foreign symbols.³

¹Theodore Huebener, How to Teach Foreign Languages Effectively, p. 178.

²Howard Lee Nostrand, "A Second Culture: New Imperative for American Education," in Foreign Language Teaching, ed. Joseph Schickel, p. 112-142.

³Robert Politzer, "Georgetown University Report of the 1955 Annual Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and Language Teaching," Nelson Brooks, Language and Learning, p. 49.

In addition to its main purpose of developing facility in oral expression, the conversation group lends itself to a study of socio-cultural concepts and orientation of foreign students to the American way of life. With students at the intermediate level of mastery, the teacher can use the language to teach cultural matters. Knowledge of behavior and understanding of attitudes of American people was fostered in this class by thoughtful selection of readings and topics for discussion. Many were chosen from the interest list compiled by the students and additional subjects were taken from Nelson Brooks' inclusive list of items to be covered in the study of cultural concepts.¹

Charles Fries and Robert Lado have recommended the practicality of contrastive cultural analysis where the significant points of similarity and difference between two cultures are pointed out.² This approach was used in our group when students were asked to describe comparable situations in their countries and ours and to compare socio-cultural concepts. In studying the basic differences in two cultures, students often achieve greater understanding of their own patterns of behavior and attitudes or values.

¹Brooks, Language and Learning, p. 90-96.

²Charles T. Scott, "Literature and the ESL Program," in Teaching English as a Second Language, ed. Harold Scott, p. 299.

Use of Cartoons

One aspect of the culture of a society is its humor which varies from country to country. Situations or remarks that Americans find hilariously amusing are not necessarily funny to those of another background. The cartoon is one medium for expressing humor which can be analyzed since it is in permanent form. For this reason it becomes a useful tool for acquainting the foreign student with an American's sense of the humorous. "Understanding the humor of a people goes far toward understanding the culture itself; in analyzing humor, one gains a knowledge of the creator."¹

In general, we find humor in the unexpected, something which normally would not be anticipated. In cartoons, this incongruity is depicted in the dialogue, the drawing or both. Often there is a certain cultural anxiety behind our humor and this is especially true of cartoons. They frequently portray a particular uneasiness that is widespread among Americans. In enjoying a cartoon, the viewer's anxiety is calmed since laughter tends to relieve tension. Some of the problems most often depicted are social unrest, loneliness, sexual behavior, mental health, technology and the dilemma between altruism and competitiveness.²

¹Jib Fowles, "Ho, Ho, Ho, Cartoons in the Language Class," *TESOL Quarterly*, vol. 4, June 1970, No. 2, p. 155-156.

²Ibid.

In the experimental class, cartoons were used from time to time as a stimulus for conversation as well as for the cultural value. In studying a cartoon, three questions were considered:¹

What is the factual situation?

What is the incongruity?

What is the cultural anxiety behind the cartoon?

It is not always easy to name the problem dealt with and not every cartoon is intended to reveal a cultural anxiety. Even though the student does not find anything humorous in the dialogue or the picture, he learns to understand why an American thinks it is funny. It is one way of becoming better acquainted with concepts, values and attitudes of another culture, while at the same time getting practice in free oral expression of English.

¹Ibid.

Dictation

There are many divergent views regarding the worth of dictation as a classroom procedure, but agreement is general that when used as a learning exercise it has merit.¹ One of the important functions it serves is providing drill in understanding connected speech. It ensures attentive listening and trains pupils to distinguish sounds. It enables the learner to hear more acutely and accurately: some students do not realize that there are sounds and even words that they do not consciously hear. A common example is the definite or indefinite article in unstressed position. Dictation makes the learner aware of his error and trains him in more precise recognition of sounds. It is an effective technique for reinforcing lexical and structural patterns covered in the oral presentation of the language.

Dictation correlates the stream of speech with its written manifestation, a transition which presents many problems in English because of the numerous inconsistencies and irregularities in the graphic representation of sound. Nelson Brooks says,

The worth of dictation as a learning exercise lies principally in the fact that once the ear has been trained to perceive and the tongue to reproduce the audio-lingual features of a language, the transition to an accurate control of the graphic

¹Jesse Sawyer and Shirley Silver, "Dictation in Language Learning," in Teaching English as a Second Language, ed. Harold Allen, p. 325.

representation of these sounds must be made. The difficulty of this learning is directly related to the fidelity and consistency with which writing depicts sound.¹

As an adjunct to oral practice, paragraph dictation has value in that it permits the student to write meaningfully in a manner approximating native speech. At the same time it eliminates the necessity for him to make decisions regarding patterns, vocabulary and style. In our class, material for dictation was taken from the oral reading and consisted of about ten lines. Dictation was given only after the students were familiar with the selection, having had practice hearing and using the forms orally and reading them from the board so no further explanation of difficulties was necessary. The following procedure was used:

1. Instructor reads the passage through at normal speed while the students listen but do not write.
2. Instructor reads the passage again in thought groups while the students write. One pupil is asked to write at a back or side board.
3. Teacher rereads the selection at normal speed while students fill in omissions and make corrections.
4. Pupils contribute to correcting the board work as the teacher reads it aloud; the student who wrote it reads the corrected work aloud.
5. Pupils correct their own work using the board as a model.

¹Brooks, Language and Language Learning, p. 207.

It is important that the passage be read through initially at normal speed so that the listeners get an accurate aural image. Speech at an unnaturally slow speed is likely to be distorted.¹ The second reading, performed in thought groups, does not distort speech or impair understanding but does give pupils an opportunity to write. The problem of how to correct the written work quickly so the student can profit from the experience is solved by having one person write on the chalk board. The teacher reads the board work in order to provide a correct model for pronunciation and no student is allowed to hear or read the passage before it is in correct form.

The consensus of opinion among these students was that dictation served to deepen the impression of words and patterns practiced orally. Although their chief purpose in attending the class was to improve their facility in oral expression, they welcomed an opportunity to develop skill in the graphic representation of language. An added benefit of the dictation was that it provided a permanent record of at least some of the readings used in the class.

¹Hill, "Language Analysis and Language Teaching," in Foreign Language Teaching, ed. Joseph Michel, p. 107.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS

Student Rating of Classroom Activities

The following scale was used by members of the experimental group to rate the procedures employed in the class:

Very Good - 1 Good - 2 Fair - 3 Poor - 4

Which of these activities have you found helpful in improving oral communication? (Ratings were averaged to produce these results)

Listen to a Reading, then tell about it	1
Listen to a Reading, then answer questions about it	1
Group conversation and discussion based on a Reading	1
Listen and repeat words and phrases	2
Oral practice with forms written on the board	2
Speak from an outline	2
Answer questions orally	2
Dictation	2
Pronunciation drills and practice	3
Use of words and phrases in original sentences	3
Oral report on an assigned topic	3
Conversation based on magazine pictures.	3
Discussion of cartoons, humor	3
Oral grammar drills and pattern practice	4

Which of these gave you a better understanding of American people and their way of life?

Class conversations and discussions	1
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	43
Informative readings by the teacher	2
Discussion of newspaper articles	2
Adaptations and excerpts from literary sources	3
Magazine pictures and articles	3
Reports by members of the group	4

FINDINGS

Since the students in this class were simultaneously exposed to many situations involving the use of spoken English, evidence of increased facility in oral expression does not necessarily indicate that the improvement was due to the class experience. It is possible, however, in spite of not being able to control all the factors, to draw some conclusions from the students' evaluation of procedures used and from the teacher's overall impression of the effectiveness of various techniques and materials.

It is apparent in the students' evaluation of procedures used in the experimental class that they felt the oral reading and activities arising from it contributed more to their goal of increased facility in oral expression than did other techniques. Their positive reaction is based on the two-fold realization that materials used in this class were relevant to their interests and, the language experiences engaged in were relevant to their needs.

The rationale underlying the choice of readings was that they should provide topics of interest and information upon which classroom experiences in the use of oral language would be based. The importance of interest as a factor in subject matter selection becomes apparent. The interested student is stimulated to participate and participation is vital to success in developing speaking skill. With conversation based

Upon timely problems of general interest, students are motivated to contribute to the discussion. Conversation in a language class does not "just happen," but is the result of careful preparation. It needs a starter or a catalyst in the form of an original idea, a controversial point, an innovative suggestion, or a problem of current concern. The reading serves as a focus to give the conversation direction and to provide some community of ideas.

Another factor in the choice of a reading is its contribution to socio-cultural orientation of the foreign student. This aspect too, is closely allied to interest and motivation since these students are vitally interested in becoming informed as to how and why American people behave as they do. The foreign student wants to adapt to the American way of life and this necessitates understanding the culture. It is interesting to note that at the lowest position on the rating scale students placed the use of oral reports by class members, their reason being that they much preferred to hear an American point of view, rather than that of another foreign student.

Justification for the oral language activities that were an outgrowth of the readings (mainly conversation and discussions) is found in the psychological principle that we learn that which we practice. Abundant experience in interpersonal verbal exchange is basic to the mastery of spoken language. In the early stages of language

learning phonological, morphological and syntactical habits have to be practiced to the point of overlearning so they become automatic. Language learning is cumulative and everything learned has to be retained. "Active use of the language comes only from practice to the point of mastery of each element learned."¹ At the more advanced level, the speaker focuses more on what he wants to say and not on the mechanical aspects of how to say it acceptably. Much experience in listening, answering, reacting to the stimulus of another person's comments, generating new sentences to express one's own intention and meaning is essential for mastery of oral language. The speaker needs to try out new combinations of elements to create novel utterances and to express his meaning by all kinds of recombinations of the language elements known to him. His mistakes will gradually be eliminated when they are rejected as unacceptable while his successful attempts are met with commendation and approval. "Such trial and error behavior is very valuable when the pupil is learning to use the language and experimenting to find new ways of making it express his intentions."²

The presentation of oral reports by class members was given a very low rating. Students felt that with only one person contributing

¹Rivers, Teaching Foreign Language Skills, p. 201.

²Ibid.

to the conversation, interpersonal exchanges are minimal and those who are listening tend to take a passive attitude.

Between the high and the low ratings are a number of activities that were evaluated as Good. Among these are exercises in which the graphic form of language is employed as in dictation and in use of the chalk board. This seems to substantiate the view that use of the visual representation of sound has some place in language teaching even in the area of oral expression.¹ This belief is founded upon an understanding of the basic process of native language acquisition. The child learns his first language largely by rote memory and imitation, but many adults lack skill in aural discrimination and therefore find learning by the audio-lingual method alone difficult. After years of acquiring knowledge from the printed word, they have become somewhat dependent upon a graphic representation of sound. For them, the visual symbol facilitates learning and acts as a stimulus to memory.

At the very bottom of the scale students placed the use of oral grammar drills and pattern practice. They were rejected as not being relevant to the goal of smooth delivery of conversational English at normal speed of native speakers. While need is not

¹H. Dunkel and R. Pillet, French in the Elementary School: Five Years' Experience, p. 45-48.

necessarily a significant factor in learning, it is very significant in motivation. Although these students still made morphological and syntactic errors, they felt that isolated practice of language forms out of context was not as effective as on-the-spot corrections and individual or group practice following a conversation class. Relevance to the student's aim of attaining greater speaking skill seemed to be a vital factor.

CONCLUSIONS

One overall conclusion becomes apparent from this study; namely, that relevance to the interests and needs of the students stands out as a most essential factor in the selection of both materials and methods. In their progression from the stage of language manipulation to the stage of free oral communication, the most decisive factor in determining success or failure was relevance.

Two secondary conclusions are evident: (1) that the selection of materials for use with foreign students is inextricably bound up with the development of socio-cultural concepts, (2) that no one method of teaching speaking skills can be expected to meet all the needs of a group, but that the procedure of structuring the lesson on a well chosen oral reading by the teacher provides a satisfactory focus for oral language experiences.

At the last class meeting of this group, several members wanted to know how they might become more closely acquainted with American students. They feel a "gap" between themselves and local students and would like to bridge it both for social reasons and for linguistic advancement. It is not easy to set up artificial situations where students might meet each other and become intimate friends, but it might be possible to involve some of our American students

in a class like the experimental group and have them act as resource people in matters of cultural orientation. They would be able to share ideas and stimulate conversation, and they might even become good friends.

CHAPTER VIII

ORIGINAL READINGS

The Hippie Culture

Does the word hippie mean a person who dresses in a certain way or does it mean a person who has certain attitudes and ideas? We think of a hippie as one who does not conform to society and who dresses in an individual and unusual manner. He does not care to be well-groomed or neat. He may have long hair or a beard or both. He may wear a head band and have beads or chains around his neck. His feet are probably bare or in sandals. He believes it is the right of each person to decide what kind of appearance he will make. It is one way of expressing his own individuality and independence.

Sociologists have found that in places where the standard of living is low, there are not as many hippies; they are a product of the more affluent society and are found largely in the upper middle-class. Perhaps this can be interpreted as showing that the hippies do not value material wealth. Since they have always been provided with the necessities of life as well as some of the luxuries, they take these things for granted. They believe a person should not have to

devote his life to making a living, at least not to the extent that he becomes a slave to his job.

Unfamiliar Words and Phrases

hippie culture

material wealth

well groomed

affluent society

head band

standard of living

beads and chains

necessities of life

conform to society

a slave to his job

individuality and independence

Questions on Reading

1. How does a hippie show his individuality in what he wears?
2. How is a hippie's appearance different from yours?
3. Why does a hippie think it unnecessary to conform to society?
4. In general, what is the standard of living where hippies are found?
5. Why don't they value material wealth?
6. Are hippies found in your country? Comment.
7. Do you agree with some of their attitudes and ideas? Which?
8. People who grew up during an economic depression often have little sympathy with hippies. Why?
9. Is it important to conform to society in your country?
10. Do you think the hippie culture will continue to be a part of American life?

Topics for Further Discussion

Material wealth

Conforming to society

Dress codes in high school

The affluent society

Economic depression

Standards of living

The four-day work week

Do we "work to live" or "live to work?"

The Eurailpass

Many young people in this country want to travel in Europe but since they are on a tight budget they can't afford expensive transportation. For them, the Eurailpass is a bargain as it offers unlimited first-class travel at a low cost in all of Europe except the British Isles. The pass must be purchased in the U.S. and the rates are:

\$ 99 for 21 days
 \$130 for 1 month
 \$175 for 2 months
 \$205 for 3 months

Also included in the pass are river trips, steamer cruises, ferry boats and hydrofoil rides. Students often take along a knapsack and sleeping bag. They plan to get a good night's rest as they travel by trains that are comfortable and punctual.

Unfamiliar Words and Phrases

Eurailpass	a tight budget
knapsack and sleeping bag	steamer cruises
comfortable and punctual	ferry boats
bargain rates	hydrofoils
unlimited first-class travel	British Isles
	a good night's sleep

Questions on Reading

1. What is a Eurailpass?
2. Where does the word Eurailpass come from?
3. Why do young people like using a Eurailpass?
4. What is a tight budget?
5. What class travel does the pass permit you to use?
6. Where must you purchase the pass?
7. In addition to train travel, what else is included?
8. What is the difference between a ferry boat and a cruise ship?
9. What is a hydrofoil?
10. How do Eurailpass riders get a good night's sleep?
11. Are there any disadvantages to using the pass?
12. Is there any similar arrangement in the U.S. for foreign travelers?

Environmental Crisis

We live as if we had an unlimited amount of air, water and other natural resources on earth. Actually, people are beginning to realize that conservation of our resources is essential if we are to continue living on this planet.

One of the major causes of air pollution in the U.S. is the internal combustion engine used in automobiles. Our cars produce exhaust fumes that make the air we breathe filthy and unhealthy. In some cities smoke and fog combine to form "smog," a thick layer of dirty air that hurts your eyes and nose.

In Detroit, Michigan research engineers in the automobile industry are studying ways of developing a car that will be powered by some other kind of engine. In order to focus attention on the problem of air pollution, a "clean car" race was organized. The cars raced from Massachusetts to California and the winner was the one that made the best time and caused the least pollution.

Unfamiliar Words and Phrases

environmental crisis	exhaust fumes
conservation of resources	Detroit, Michigan
a major cause	focus attention
smog and pollution	a "clean car" race
filthy air	Massachusetts to California
internal combustion engine	thick layer of dirty air
	powered by some other engine

Questions on Reading

1. Why is conservation of our natural resources necessary?
2. What is one of the major causes of air pollution in the U.S.?
3. What kind of engine do most cars have?
4. How do cars pollute the air?
5. Why is Detroit a well known city?
6. What is "smog?"
7. What are automotive engineers hoping to develop?
8. Why was a "clean car" race organized?
9. Where did the cars race?
10. Which car was the winner?

Topics for Further Discussion

1. Recent popularity of the bicycle.
2. Public transportation in Austin.
3. Sharing your car.
4. Alternatives to the internal combustion engine.
5. Legislation on air pollution.

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This thesis was typed by Allied Secretarial Services.