

COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING: A PILOT STUDY

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In the face of scepticism regarding the value of modern psychology for language teaching, attempts have been made by some psychologists to adopt a group approach to language learning which takes into account personality, motivational, and emotional factors. Both a theory of language learning and a practical methodology for language teaching can be gathered from the research of Curran (1961, 1966). "Community Language Learning" (CLL) emerged as an application of the group counseling process to language teaching and learning. Five demonstrations of CLL at the University of Michigan suggested the emergence of a theory of human learning. Practical results were: (i) quick apprehension of the phonology of an inflected, but not of a tone language; (ii) difficulties and insights experienced by both client and counselor; and (iii) positive motivational factors.

Scepticism has been expressed about the practical use of the insights gained from modern psychology for the teaching of foreign languages. Noam Chomsky (1966) has identified with this viewpoint:

Still, it is difficult to believe that either linguistics or psychology has achieved a level of theoretical understanding that might enable it to support a "technology" of language teaching. (p. 43)

Chomsky admits that both psychology and linguistics have made significant progress in recent decades. However, since both psychological and linguistic theory are in a state of flux and agitation, confidence in these fundamental disciplines has declined. Long accepted principles of association and reinforcement, the view of linguistic behavior as a matter of habit formation, many of these and other tenets of behavioristic learning from psychology are being challenged in theoretical as well as experimental work.

In spite of the scepticism expressed by Chomsky and others, many language programs tend to operate according to behavioristic principles of learning. This has the effect of creating an artificial situation in the language classroom. The attempt to bridge the gap between the artificiality of the classroom and the real life of the

country is not a new one. A.S. Hornby (1950) describes the problem as follows:

Young learners like to use the new language for something more exciting than the kinds of action chain that can be performed in the classroom. They want to learn about life in the country whose language they are learning, they want adventure stories and tales from history. Above all, they want to use the new language in talking about the affairs of daily life. (1950:150)

Hornby, as the result of long experience in the teaching of English as a foreign language, described what he called the situational approach in language teaching. He attempted to relate his teaching to situations and episodes of daily living. He made up dialogues, some of which were interesting and very humorous, and presented these over and over again to his students. I remember Hornby very well from a lecture which he gave to an English teachers association in Nagoya, Japan. Hornby was a very active and energetic person. He would almost bounce around the podium repeating his dialogues which helped the Japanese teachers of English because they were so true to life. However, Hornby's dialogues were completely un-systematic and as fabricated dialogues to be memorized, they were artificial and, therefore, removed from the context of the social situation. The intention of Hornby was praiseworthy, but the dialogues had the opposite effect upon the student who was still forced to practice and memorize instead of using the foreign language creatively.

More recently, Newmark and Reibel (1968) also criticized both the theory and practice of behavioristically oriented oral teaching. They contended that it is unnecessary to await the development of a new theory of language acquisition based on a theory of the structure of language. They believe that the necessary and sufficient conditions for a human being to learn a language are already known:

A language will be learned by a normal human being if and only if particular, whole instances of language use are modeled for him and if his own particular acts using the language are selectively reinforced." (1968:149)

To exemplify this position, first language acquisition is proposed as a model. The child learns language by being exposed to an extensive variety and range of utterances selected for their situational appropriateness at the moment. From these situations, the child proceeds to induce a grammar far more complex than any yet formulated by any linguist.

Newmark and Reibel suggest that structural grading and structural ordering of exercise material be abandoned in favor of situational ordering. The student would learn situational variants rather than structural alternants independent of a contextual base. The principal motivation for providing contextual and psychological reality for dialogues in a believable manner is not to provide the learner with something to say in a limited situation, but rather to present instances of meaningful use of language which the learner himself stores, segments, and eventually recombines in synthesizing new utterances appropriate for use in new situations.

The position of Newmark and Reibel is similar to the situational approach of Hornby. As such, it suffers from the same deficiencies. One type of artificial dialogue is replaced with another which must be memorized in the classroom situation. Lip service is paid to the creative ability of the language learner by the hope that he will creatively transfer what he has learned from the classroom dialogues to real life social situations. This hope is shared not only by behavioristically oriented language teachers, but by all educators alike.

The creative use of the language is not really furthered by such suggestions and gimics as Saitz (1961) describes. He suggests that the teacher fight for classes of twenty pupils. Failing this, the teacher should divide the large class into sections and rows. One half of the basic pattern drills would be given orally to half the class while the rest of the class is instructed to write them down. The second half of the class is forced to pay attention to the patterns which the first half is repeating. The process can be reversed. This can be made into a competitive game with halves of the class competing against each other in transcription and pronunciation for a reward. Such suggestions, practical as they may seem, do not relieve the boredom concomitant with memorization and oral practice of dialogues or sentence drill patterns. They do not suggest a methodology by which the students can use their new-found foreign language in a creative way.

In spite of the scepticism concerning psychological theory expressed by Chomsky and the practical difficulty of enabling students to use their target language in a creative way in the classroom, attempts are being made in modern psychology to approach both the theory and practice of the classroom in a fresh way. One such theoretical attempt is a suggestion by Bradford, the originator of the T Group. Bradford (1964) describes his sixteen year effort to try out new methods for reeducating human behavior and social relationships at the National Training Laboratories at Bethel, Maine. Initially, it can be said that his purposes were much broader in

scope than a specific application to the language learning situation of the classroom. However, as we shall see, the psychologist's view of social and personality change is seen as basically an educative process. Therefore, it has meaning and application to education in general and to foreign language learning in particular.

Bradford suggests that we approach the classroom as a group situation.

Group forces, latent or active in every classroom situation and potentially highly supportive of individual learning have neither been released generally nor, when active, gone the teacher's way. As a result, needless struggle takes place between teacher and students as to who shall learn and what; desirable concomitant learning goals are not realized; and students build barriers to present and future learning and frequently end up with lasting anxieties and undesirable attitudes toward education. (1960:443)

Bradford (1960) says that class group acceptance of the common task of encouraging learning for all members produces a far different learning situation and widely different learning results from those obtained when individual learning is the responsibility of each student with appropriate encouragement from the teacher. Obviously, in the group learning situation, each individual has to decide how far he can enter into the learning situation. Since group decision depends upon the commitment of all the individuals in the group, the leader or teacher has to endure the risk that the group might not accept the common task of learning. As we shall see, the rewards of group learning to the teacher far outweigh the risks involved.

In the class which has not been asked to accept the common task of group learning, the teacher dominates and controls the class activities. Each student tends to be in a competitive situation - winner or loser in the learning game. Some students suffer anxiety in the competition and, fearing failure and rejection, become apathetic and are inclined to withdraw. Some students develop a fairly high commitment to learning, but others seek to escape from as much learning as possible. Basically, parts of the class are at war with other parts, and teacher energy and class time are spent in keeping the dissonant parts in some degree of harmony. These forces may serve to protect the less committed students and to punish the "eager beavers". Little help in learning is given from student to student. The assumption seems to be that learning is an individual affair somewhat accidentally taking place in a group situation.

On the other hand, people do not learn totally alone any more

than they live alone. Learning is a social affair and optimal learning can come only from social interaction. Because individuals vary in degree of anxiety about the difficulty and consequences of engaging in learning, in traditional classes these differential anxieties and resistances can easily add up to a group climate of partial resistance to the teacher. The class is pitted against the teacher rather than joining in a common venture. Group forces, inevitably present, do not go the teacher's way.

In the class group which has come to accept the common task of enhancing individual learning, different factors operate. Difficulties in learning for any individual become the concern of others. Emotional support is supplied by the group to the student, thereby giving acceptance and membership to the student receiving help. Feedback about performance and corrective information can be given by student to student as well as by teacher to student, when the class group climate is less competitive, less individually rejective, less punishing, and when, consequently, individual defensiveness is reduced. Impacts for learning can also come from the class group itself. Individual students are freer to discover and release feelings of concern about other students. As these feelings are properly channeled into responsible giving of help, students develop group cooperation as well as gain in the subject matter knowledge of the class. Forces of group loyalty and pride can give motivational and supportive encouragement to learning.

Bradford's viewpoint about psychological and emotional factors which influence learning are not entirely foreign to linguists. Nida (1958) also discussed psychological factors which might hinder language learning. He cites several cases of intelligent and otherwise very promising young missionaries, who for psychological reasons could not master native languages. Nida recognized in the background of these individuals psychological factors which gradually produced emotional resistance against the learning of any foreign language.

Pike (1960), writing on the initial problems of language learning, attempted to illuminate these problems by analogy with the formation and growth of crystals. Pike described "nucleation" as a process by which atoms or molecules cluster into a small structural pattern which is subsequently reduplicated to form a crystal. It is difficult to get these first molecules to clump together, but once nucleation has begun, the growth proceeds rapidly. However, a perfect crystal does not easily serve as a nucleus for further growth; growth proceeds at a greater rate when a crystal is distorted. The dislocation caused by the distorted crystal serves as a growing edge to which new crystals may attach themselves.

By analogy, Pike compares language learning to the process of nucleation. The beginner has a very difficult time in learning his first vocabulary lists. Other persons have memorized long lists of vocabulary items, and even extensive rules of grammar, without being able to speak the language. Their language may be in a supersaturated condition without nucleation. Though they may have many elements necessary for a conversation, they can not handle one. Specifically, they lack the structure — the “crystalization” — which gives a characteristic patterning to sentences and conversations. In lacking a basic structural “seed” — the basic initial conversational ability—it follows by analogy that we would expect them to find it difficult to learn new materials. Once the basic nucleation has begun, further materials can be learned more easily.

Some persons who do not know grammar extensively, nor have extensive vocabulary, nevertheless are able to use the language in speaking more readily than persons more “learned” — they have, in fact, achieved a nucleation even though it be around an “impurity”. From this situation, it seems evident that one can get a deeper understanding of the reason why current teaching practices (Rivers 1968: 32-55; Dacanay 1963) are useful, as well as the implication for certain emphases in practical pedagogy: the custom of having early words memorized in a social context—in a social crystal—becomes clear. According to Pike, “Language nucleation occurs within a social context.” (1960:292) Pike’s dictum offers a rallying point around which both group psychologists and linguists can gather. The test tube social group of the psychologist (such as Bradford) would seem the best context in which to study the language learning process. Such an experimental situation would serve to dispel the scepticism of those who hold that the two disciplines of psychology and linguistics have little to offer each other.

In fact, the literature of language teaching shows some evidence of the group approach to language learning. Polak (1964) enthusiastically describes an experiment which she conducted during the course of an entire summer semester with a class which was treated as a group, rather than as a class. In preparation for the small group work, the whole class took part in the writing of several compositions. A story from the textbook was read and summarized sentence by sentence until the class was satisfied with the wording. Polak saw her role as teacher somewhat modified. She merely acted as a guide. The pupils suggested and modified the sentences. The class learned the art of cooperation in creative work, constructive criticism, and friendly give and take. (These are some of the concomitant goals of learning as stated by Bradford above.) The pupils had to learn how to select the main points

and reject unnecessary detail, to introduce the summary in an interesting way, to proceed logically step by step, and to find a suitable conclusion. The writing of these summaries by the class as a whole laid the foundation for successful composition writing.

Writing a summary of a story in the textbook was merely the first step. The next group composition took the form of a dialogue. The class was divided into a number of small groups. Each group chose a scene, such as the family at home, in a shop, or at a restaurant. A part for each member of the group was decided upon by the members. Scenes were written by the group members, corrected by the teacher, practiced in class and tape-recorded. The tape recordings were played for the whole class to hear. Each time a small group project was successfully completed, morale rose and the class became more fully integrated. The tape recordings assured a high degree of motivation on the part of the class. Polak had very good success with this method. It made the pupils responsible for the success of the experiment. Besides bringing about a marked improvement in the general level of writing, the experiment generated a feeling of solidarity within the class.

Forrester (1965) also described a composition project which was carried on with more advanced students by means of a small group method. For example, a story known to the class from their study of their own language formed the basis of a cooperative story writing effort. The story was broken up into sections and each group was made responsible for writing up one section of the story. The story writing needed some planning beforehand, but the fact that the material was already familiar, made possible the dramatization of the story. The writing of these dramas for composition work was much easier than compositions which involved the collecting of ideas.

From all that has been discussed thus far, the feasibility of common ground between linguistics and modern group psychology has been shown. Both a theory of language learning and a practical methodology pertinent to the teaching of foreign languages can be gleaned from modern group psychology. The facts scattered in the research literature have been gathered and integrated in the research of Curran (1961, 1966). Linguists like Pike and Nida recognize psychological and social factors which are meaningful to the language learning process. Psychologists like Bradford and Curran offer a theoretical view of the learning process and the necessary practical methodology for language learning. Polak and Forrester are already reporting positive results with group methods in the classroom. The linguist still has something to learn from the new and little explored area of modern group psychology, in hope of

solving the problem of the gap between the classroom learning situation and that of daily life. Brown (1971) has proposed a cognitive model for fruitful work in educational psychology. Curran (1966) attacked models of this kind and showed that they are inadequate to explain the emotional conflicts which occur in the language learning process of beginners.

Besides meaningful cognitive learning, as claimed by Brown (1971), the engagement of the whole human person in the foreign language learning process included emotional factors as well. The cognitive model tentatively held by Brown (1971) was inadequate to explain these factors. Curran (1961) held that the language learning process was not merely a cognitive process, but involved the whole human person. The emotional reactions of those struggling with foreign language acquisition were similar to the emotional conflicts of a client in a counseling process. Consequently, the educative process of the counseling relationship was seen to possess useful insights for the educative process of the language learner in a classroom group. Curran wrote as follows:

The threat of being called on to speak a foreign tongue is not only psychological; the whole psychosomatic system is directly involved. This is particularly true if one must speak that language in the presence of others who know it well. (1961:79-80)

According to Curran (1966), consideration of the place of counseling in the educative process has to start with the relation of conflict, hostility, and anxiety to learning. To illustrate the anxiety-hostility-conflict involvement in learning, Curran related an experience which he conducted a number of times in different languages throughout his lengthy research. To begin with, four people were chosen with an elementary knowledge of French. They were asked to sit in a room and speak as much French as possible. They could use English words for the words they did not know in French. No one of the four people knew how much French the other three knew.

The first reaction of the four was far from being simply a cognitive-intellectual one. The four people confronting each other anxiously wondering how much the others knew, experienced needs for both reassurance and group equilibrium. Each hoped that the others knew no more French than he and so would be on his same level. In primitive and probably regressive defense of himself, each person was already prepared to resist anyone having learned more than he. It was therefore necessary for him to begin to explore the situation causing his anxiety with something like: "Je. . .uh. . .uh. . .never really had much francais." He was admitting his ig-

norance, defending his ego, and to some degree pleading with the others not to be any better in French than he. Another student, obviously relieved to find that there was at least one other person identified with him, would say something like: "Oh, I'm glad there is somebody here who doesn't know any French, either." Two of the people were already pleased with their ignorance and, finding a degree of comfort in it, were now fearful of the other two lest they knew more. Soon the third person came forward and joined the group of the ignorant. Finally, when it became evident that the last person also knew no more than the others, the group settled to a security equilibrium, no one's knowledge threatening anyone else.

To add to the experience, a French girl who had been in the U.S. only six months, was asked to sit unobserved and listen to these four people painfully struggling with the French language. It is not hard to imagine her feelings as she sat there. During her six-month stay in America, she had already been daily humiliated and submissive while people corrected her English. Her position in English was, in other words, much like that of a child. Now by contrast, her adult self was strongly involved. She intensely identified with the four students and their obvious need of French. She wanted very much to help these Americans in return for the help she had received in English. She also wanted to be related in her French self with Americans. It would make her feel like the adult she really was, instead of the child she had been feeling. She wanted to help these people who, as she logically saw, needed her. She had, in other words, many of the qualifications of an expert teacher.

She was then asked to go into the room and sit at a slight distance from the group. The four people in the room had by this time become comfortable and at ease in their shared ignorance and were having rather a good time exchanging whatever words they knew and using English for what they did not know. They knew this girl by sight, knew that she was French. In a few minutes they became silent. Like a sudden draft of cold air, her entrance had frozen them. The French student was completely frustrated in the greatest potential fulfillment she had had so far in America. She, in turn, found herself both disturbed, hostile, and embarrassed. In place of needing her, she realized that the people were not accepting her. Soon after they stopped talking, she felt they were throwing angry glances in her direction. Perhaps in reality, the glances were more anxious than angry. Anxious glances were more often interpreted as angry ones by the person to whom they were directed. Sometimes they were anxious and aggressive at the same time.

This reconstructed experience, while very simple, serves to

show some of the negative dynamics created against an expert by people, who, having become secure in their comfort state, seem defensively to band together against the "enemy" who knows too much. They are resentful toward the person who tilts their security equilibrium. This is an example of the psychological conflict that is often involved between a person who is informed, who can and is eager to give his knowledge, and the people who are blocked from accepting that help by the hostility arising from their anxiety and ignorance. This is a counseling situation as well as a learning one. This kind of conflict seems intrinsic to at least the first stages of learning. What often goes on in a classroom is the end effect of the attempts of both the teacher and the group to be taught, to resolve this kind of complicated psychological involvement with one another. They seldom resolve it in a counseling way, but rather almost by chance, depending upon the immediate circumstances. For some students, this may have serious aftereffects as noted also by Bradford (1960).

By way of contrast, a different group of four were chosen, all of whom had a good deal of French. When the group first came together, no group member knew how much the others knew. Again, anxiety was evident, in the beginning. The first speaker usually said something like: "Well, I have had some French, but...." Each one tended to play down his ability until it became clear that they all spoke French fluently. If the native French person was introduced into the room after the students had assured themselves of their security, the threat was minimal. They were usually able to make use of the French expert's help when needed, with anxiety but without serious conflict. An inverse ratio seemed to appear: the greater the need, the greater the resistance to expert help; the less the need, the more willingness to accept such help.

In order to resolve the initial hostility-anxiety conflict of the language learning process, Curran removed the expert from the group of beginners. This reduced the threat of the expert and gave the group the responsibility for the initial learning experience in the foreign language. The expert served as a counselor or consultant to the group. Curran also distinguished between the native language and the target language. The native language was the mother tongue in which the clients or language learners were brought up. The target language was the one the clients were attempting to learn. The target language was, of course, the native language of expert, counselor, or group consultant. Curran viewed the native language not as an obstacle, but as a vehicle for the mastery of the target language.

The clients were seated in a circle. When a client wished to

say something to the group, he would speak first in his native language, so that everyone in the group could understand. Then the counselor would say the same thing in the target language. The client would then repeat the same thing in the target language. The clients were free to say anything they desired. Since the responsibility for the conversation and the language learning remained with the clients, the counselor did not initiate or take part in the conversation. The role of the counselor was supportive and helpful, but only on conditions dictated by the clients, that is, only when such help and support were asked for. The presupposition is that people belonging to such a group are motivated to acquire a second language.

In his seminars on language learning, Curran would often, but not always tape-record his language-learning sessions. Curran (1961) distinguished five levels of language proficiency from complete dependence upon the counselor, to complete language proficiency. As the clients became more proficient, the threat to their ignorance was reduced. Consequently, the initial barrier between the clients and the counselor tended to crumble. As the clients grew in the target language, the counselor was accepted as part of the group.

Because the emphasis of the language learning situation was on group experience, Curran called his language learning approach "Community Language Learning" (CLL). CLL represents an attempt to put the insights gained by modern group psychology to work in education, specifically in the teaching and learning of foreign languages. It is called "community", as opposed to "individual" learning. In the traditional language teaching and learning situation, the teacher gives the instruction during the class period. After class, the individual retires to his textbook. What learning takes place, is by the individual either inside or outside the classroom. CLL on the contrary, takes place in the social setting of a group.

The conversation of the clients in the target language, with the help of the counselor, is limited to a part of the total class period. The purpose of the part of CLL is to give the clients a living or direct experience of the target language. An essential part of CLL is the period of reflection which always follows. The group is allowed to vent its feelings about the session or its progress in learning the foreign language. The tape-recording (if any) is played back to the group. Sentences in the foreign language are taken from the tape and written out by the native expert for the class. Usually, as a result of the direct living experience with the foreign language, students are positively motivated to freely inquire about the language. The emphasis in both the direct and reflex sessions is on

class, community, or group projects in language learning.

As has been implied, CLL originated with Father Charles Curran of Loyola University in Chicago, with whom I have participated in research seminars. Using Curran's methodology, I conducted five demonstrations of CLL at the University of Michigan over the past six months. On the basis of limited experience, CLL appears to have value for the typical classroom language learning situation. CLL also appears to be unique in the way in which it puts the theoretical insights gained from modern psychology and group dynamics to work in service of education and language learning. Some of the scepticism regarding the value of the insights of modern psychology and linguistics for language learning can be dispelled as a result of the CLL approach to second language acquisition.

Method

Since at this point, I am still probing the value of CLL for general use in the classroom, the research was more descriptive than experimental in nature. There were very few controls and no statistical evaluation of the results.

The subjects were graduate and undergraduate students and professionals who were attending various classes and seminars at the University of Michigan. Some of these classes dealt specifically with methodology in language teaching; others were more generally oriented toward education. None of the subjects had any knowledge of the foreign languages spoken during the CLL sessions.

Each demonstration was preceded by general explanation of what was meant by CLL. Groups of five volunteers were seated in a circle around a microphone in the center of the room. Other members of the class or seminar observed silently. Native experts for all five of the demonstrations were also seated outside the circle. The target language for the first two demonstrations was Indonesian, Japanese for the next two, and Chinese for the last.

When one member of the group wished to say something, he spoke first in English. The native expert said the same thing in the target language. The group member then repeated the sentence in the foreign language. A free conversation developed. This type of conversation was limited to fifteen minutes. All five demonstrations were tape-recorded. In the ordinary classroom, the tape-recording would be replayed and analyzed. Since a demonstration and not a language learning situation was envisaged, a discussion of CLL was held instead.

Results and Discussion

On the theoretical level, a unique view of human learning could be gleaned from the demonstrations, both individual and group learning. During the CLL sessions, individuals commented that they reflected upon what they had said during the periods of silence which occurred from time to time. These periods of silence were far from being idle moments. They were moments of intense activity on the part of the clients. During the last demonstration, eighteen of these silent periods occurred during the course of the fifteen-minute session. It was evident from the tape that the clients were verbalizing to themselves the sentences which they had heard another group member say. Since this was so, it was possible to determine from the tape recording some of the moments during the session when learning took place, namely during the periods when all the group members were reflecting individually on the group experience. They were interpreting for themselves what had occurred in the group in terms of their own individual gain or loss as a result of the community experience. Since these periods of reflection were important to the group, their importance in terms of the human learning process can not be underestimated. Perhaps just the reason why so little learning takes place in the conventional classroom is because so little time for reflection is given.

As regards the human learning process, therefore, we can distinguish a double experience during which learning takes place in the context of community learning: a direct experience and a reflex experience. The direct experience consists of an involvement such as the fifteen minute session during which the clients interact among themselves and with the counselors in a foreign language. This direct or living experience takes place on an individual and community basis. The reflex experience takes place in the same way. During the direct community experience, individuals begin the reflection process which occurs as a period of silence during the group interaction session. The reflex experience becomes communal after the direct session is ended. The group then reflects upon its experiences as a group. Most of the individuals who took part in the CLL demonstrations remarked that they felt united and supported by a deeply human psychological bond which aids learning. Just as the individual goes through a number of experiences and reflects upon these, so the whole group, very deeply united almost as a single organism, goes through a communal experience and in a communal way, reflects upon the experience. This direct and reflex communal experience greatly supports learning in general, and language learning in particular, as was evident

in all five demonstrations.

When asked after the session was over, exactly how much they could remember, the clients were able to produce bits and pieces of the foreign languages. After the Chinese demonstration, they were able to produce negatives, pronouns, and individual words. What Pike (1960) called nucleation or learning in the social context, was in evidence. The clients were beginning to apprehend the nuclei of grammar, even though at this point impurities were in evidence. The beginnings of grammatical rule construction were also in evidence. CLL might afford opportunities to study the acquisition of second language more in detail in future research.

The validity of the learning experience was not accepted without question. It seemed so simple in its structure. Perhaps a group of students asked to stay in a room and struggle with the language would accomplish as much. The use of English and the help of the native expert, which amounted to rote translation, seemed a regression to outmoded translation methods. What would happen to CLL sessions over a period of time? Perhaps the novel effects of the group method would wear off after only a few sessions leaving no lasting language learning results. I must confess that I could not reply adequately to these questions. It seemed to me that further experimentation would shed light on these questions provided that an adverse value judgment was not implied. Often a novel method will raise more theoretical questions than it solves.

Besides the theoretical view of human learning in the social context, practical results emerged. Intonation and sound patterns of the foreign languages seemed to be learned very quickly. This was especially true of the inflected languages such as Japanese and Indonesian. Whether the counselor attempted to speak slowly, as happened during the Indonesian session, or at normal speed, as happened during the Japanese session, made little difference. This was not true, however, of a tone language like Chinese. This was probably due to the double problem of both tone and sound which is characteristic of the Chinese language. The tape-recording showed evidence of struggle on the part of the clients to apprehend both. One client said she was able to distinguish two tones, but was suspicious that more existed.

Practical difficulties were in evidence on the part of the clients. Some learners were so used to textbook learning that the unstructured situation was difficult for them to accept. This result supports Carl Rogers (1969), who proposed the same type of nonstructured learning situation. Rogers found that some types of people simply needed the directed situation of the ordinary classroom. Linguistically sophisticated types of persons also brought their lin-

guistic tools of analysis with them to the CLL situation. Consequently, they were hindered from engaging in a real conversation during the language learning session. It was wryly suggested that perhaps their language learning techniques were a hindrance to learning the language. Linguistically unsophisticated persons, who were more interested in entering into the group, seemed to profit more from the supportive nature of the learning situation. They seemed to be more free in their expression and able to converse on topics such as a trip to Tokyo, the ordinary greetings in the foreign language, or even the merits of the miniskirt.

There were questions of practical nature concerning the counselor. What type of person would he have to be? I replied that he would at least have to be an understanding person. It was noted that he would have to have a great deal of professional skill also. He would have to have a perfect command of the foreign language if he were not a native speaker. Besides this, he would have to be professionally competent in both psychology - for the interpersonal problems which could arise, and linguistics - to deal with the phonological and grammatical problems of the foreign language in a scientific way. It was noted that a doctorate in both psychology and linguistics, plus a perfect command of one foreign language could hardly be expected of many individuals. At any rate, the degree of sophistication of the counselor was seen as a hindrance to wide dissemination of CLL.

Perhaps the most important single variable which emerged from these fifteen minute CLL sessions was motivation. Motivation or positive regard for the language was in evidence during the group interactions and on the tape-recordings. The discussions often ended up with the native expert speaking on the nature of the foreign language used. Even the silent observers were tempted to take part in the CLL sessions.

The group involvement seemed to rouse the curiosity of each individual member. Opportunity was afforded those who desired to participate, to participate in their own way and in their own time. Consequently, the freedom to progress at their own pace was seen as the most deeply rewarding factor of the language learning situation. For those less motivated, group pressures both overt and covert were noted. Often, this took the form of an invitation to express one's self. The invitation was perceived as a sign of positive regard and concern on the part of the group members. This sign was often sufficient to help certain members to express themselves to the group.

The tape recordings of the final demonstration showed that the group was intensely active in the language learning situation. One

hundred Chinese expressions could be identified, plus a grammatical paradigm. These were produced in the short space of fifteen minutes. Besides this, the group members repeated some of these expressions verbally to themselves. The clients were drilling themselves! Eighteen separate instances of this individual drilling could be identified on the tape. The repetition of eighteen out of one hundred sentences in the short space of fifteen minutes certainly points to intense activity and, therefore, of positive motivation on the part of the clients. If a tape recording and a type script were not in evidence, this result would seem unbelievable. By no other method do beginners in any language engage in their language activities either in terms of amount of material (number of sentences produced) or in intensity of activity (the number of individual drills in evidence on the tape).

Our findings in regard to motivation coincide with those of Gardner and Lambert (1959), who claimed that besides cognitive factors, motivation and interest play an important role in second language acquisition. Motivation of a peculiar type, characterized by a willingness to be like valued members of a language community, furthers acquisition of a second language. The tape-recording showed evidence of the group striving to identify with the Chinese people. One of the clients stated clearly: "I am a Chinese woman." Perhaps she was only wondering how the expression was said in Chinese, but she did identify herself with the Chinese language.

Far from saying the last word in language teaching and learning, this study only introduces CLL to possible use in the classroom. A need for more extensive and controlled research was noted in all five demonstrations. Problems with CLL and questions raised have to be dealt with in future research. The purpose of this paper was only to share the insights of these five preliminary demonstrations carried on over a period of six months at the University of Michigan. What follows must stand the test of time and experimentation.

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