SILENCE IS GOLD: ON THE DELAYED ORAL PRACTICE

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摘 要

Abstract

Based on the overwhelming evidence that adequate exposure and comprehension are imperative in any variety of language acquisition, this paper argues that at the initial stage of second language instruction, oral practice is best delayed for an extended period of time. Psycholinguistic, affective, and functional advantages of implementing a silent period with active listening activities will be discussed. A survey is then presented of active listening activities will be discussed. A survey is then presented of active listening techniques utilized in the silent period and previous studies and experiments on delayed oral practice. Next, I describe an experiment where oral practice is delayed in the experimental group with a combination of active listening strategies. The results show that, while the stronger form of the research hypothesis that the experimental group perform significantly better than the control group in speaking, listening comprehension, and word-recognition did not obtain, the experimental group did perform as well as the control group. Implications of the study and suggestions on further research are then discussed.

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0. INTRODUCTION

In the literature on listening comprehension in second language instruction, authors often start with the essential role of listening comprehension in communication and how its importance is not reflected in foreign language programs or teaching methodologies (e.g., Morley 1972, Herschenhorn 1979, Rashed 1990, Rivers and Temperley 1978, Asher 1972, Rivers 1980, Wang 1991). Indeed the skill of listening comprehension has never been a primary focus, in comparison to speaking, in the Audiolingual methodology, which requires explicitly listen-and-repeat rather than listen-and-comprehend (Celce-Murcia 1979:63).

During the last two decades, however, the once dominant Audiolingualism, much like the behaviorist model of language learning by stimulus-response conditioning which the Audiolingual approach was based on, has been discredited (e.g., Chomsky 1959, McNeill 1968, Brown 1980). Alternative methodologies of second or foreign language¹ teaching have been developed, largely associated with generative linguistics and cognitive psychology (e.g., Her 1995). However, none of these new methodologies, such as the Silent Way, Community Language Learning, Notional-Functional Syllabus, and Suggestopedia, has been able to fully replace Audiolingualism (e.g., Huang 1990), Richards and Rogers 1986, Birchbichler 1990). The procedures and materials used in many foreign language programs all over the world are still basically Audiolingual (Croft 1980:249, Westrup 1993) and listening comprehension still at best takes a secondary place.

Even in most of these newly developed methodologies, whose common goal is to develop the learner's communicative competence, listening has not been emphasized enough, again in comparison with speaking. Among these new methodologies, the so-called Comprehension-based approach has uniquely placed a primary focus on the importance of listening comprehension, although it in no way downplays or deemphasizes the importance of speaking. Contrary to the conventional procedure that requires speaking simultaneously with listening from the very beginning of foreign language instruction, the method of delayed oral practice² within the Comprehension-

¹ In this paper, 'foreign language' and 'second language' are two terms used rather loosely and interchangeably. According to the accepted usage, 'second language' is used specifically to refer to (1) the non-native language that the learner acquires within the culture of that language or (2) a lingua franca used for education or government within the culture of the learner's native language. 'Foreign language' refers to the non-native language that is learned within the learner's own culture where there are few opportunities to use the target language. Such a distinction is not crucial in our discussion here.

² The term 'active listening method' is used interchangeably with 'delayed oral practive'. Both are considered an implementation of the Comprehension-based Approach.

based Approach suggests that in the initial phase of second language learning the learner should not be required to speak at all and thus should be allowed a 'silent' period. During this 'silent' period, the learner should be involved constantly in listening actively to the instructions or questions and responding to them in meaningful contexts and in appropriate ways (e.g., Richards and Rogers 1986).

This paper explores this unconventional method, delayed oral practice, including its theoretical background and teaching techniques, and presents and original experiment. Rationale and arguments for implementing an initial silent period are given in section 1. Section 2 describes the several teaching techniques utilized in presenting active listening activities within this silent period. While section 3 surveys some of the previous experiments and studies concerned with delayed oral practice and their implications for foreign language teaching, section 4 gives the details of a six-week experiment on teaching English as a second language, its results, and its implications. Further issues concerning delayed oral practice are explored in section 5 and section 6 concludes the paper.

1. ARGUMENTS FOR A SILENT PERIOD

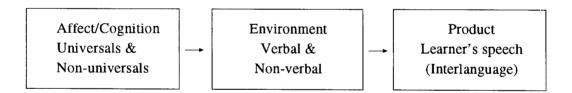
Speech perception and speech production are two different processes independently presented in behavior and require different motor skills. Furthermore, it is clear that the a foreign language learner can not say what he does not comprehend³ and that listening comprehension is as important as, if not more important than, speaking in communicative proficiency. Therefore, the acquisition of second language competence must involve both comprehension and production. An examination of children's language acquisition will provide valuable clues for effective teaching methods, since in general children are much more successful in this area than adults (e.g., Scovel 1969, 1977, Her 1993, Magiste 1987). Furthermore, there is little evidence that young children acquire a second language (L2) in significantly different manners from a first language (L1). This is a view shared by many, such as Chomsky, Brown, Slobin and Welsh, Krashen, Burt and Dulay, Piaget, and others, in their work in linguistics, first and second language acquisition, and developmental psychology. Although it is not universally accepted, many researchers do support the view that their are lots of similarities between first and second language learning and recommend that a second

³ The masculine third person form is used as the indefinite third-person pronoun throughout the paper, not the politically correct 'he/she's, 'his/her', and 'him'her' etc., which do seem to be rather cumbersome; nevertheless, no sexist stereotyping is intended.

language teaching program creates learning environments where advantageous factors of first language acquisition are present (e.g., Asher 1972, Gustafson 1989, Gray 1975, Dulay and Burt 1973, 1974, Her 1993). In this section, I will argue that a specific feature present in children's L1 and L2 acquisition, i.e., a silent period rich with comprehensible input, should be beneficial to language learners universally.

1.1 Clues from Child L1 and L2 Acquisition

It is well known that in naturalistic settings children undergo a silent period before speech occurs. According to Lenneberg (1967), children start to comprehend sentences in their first language at least six months before they start speaking. According to Wolff (1973:83), the child starts imitating adult speech sound after nine months, but comprehension occurs much earlier. I contend that the 'silence before speech' or 'comprehension before production' is a general strategy in naturalistic L1 or L2 acquisition, at any stage of maturity. Burt and Dulay (1975:23), for example, schematize the process of children's second language acquisition as following:



The emergence of speech occurs only after the learner has been adequately exposed to verbal and nonverbal environment. I have personally observed a five year old Korean girl adopted by an American family. After having been in the U.S. for three months, she showed very good understanding of sentences consisting of as many as eight words, while she could only produce single words, within a very limited vocabulary of some twenty words. A Chinese couple living in the U.S. told me that their U.S.-born six-year-old son understand almost everything they said to him in Mandarin Chinese, but he always used English to answer them. Once they had some relatives, including a five-year-old niece who did not speak any English, from Taiwan visiting them for a week. In only two days their son was speaking fluent Chinese with the little girl. It is obvious that the child does not start producing speech the moment he starts comprehending. Observations such as these, though anecdotal, are vastly common.

For the child, the listening and comprehending process is an active learning process. Precisely as Greis (1980:35) states: '...the child, while listening, forms and internalizes rules and generalizations as the basis for competence that is observed in later stages'. In certain extreme cases, the child learns the language without speaking it at all, as seen in Lenneberg's (1971) article 'Understanding Language without the Ability to Speak: A Case Report'. Wolff's (1973:111) report on the case of Christy Brown suggests the same. Christy Brown, a cerebral palsied man with his left foot being the only part of his body that he could properly control, learned to read and to write with his left foot and thus to express in language which he had acquired only through listening in the first place. (His story was later made into the film 'My Left Foot'.) His excellent use of languages in his autobiography proves that a child does not need to speak to internalize language rules for communication.

The fact that comprehension precedes production is also commonly observed in adults' naturalistic L2 acquisition. In a study of cultural pressure and L2 proficiency, Hill (1970:261) cites Sorenson's (1967:680) finding that some of the Columbian and Brazilian Indians living in the Vaupes River region, a relatively small area with almost two-dozen mutually unintelligible languages, would not speak a second language at all until they know it well; in other words, once they start speaking an L2, they do it with great fluency. Gary (1975:90) reasons that due to the high social pressure on the fluent use of languages, 'the Indians appear to be utilizing the most effective strategy they know for learning language – delaying oral production until reaching an appropriate state of readiness'. Wang (1991) observes that even in formal settings speech occurs when a large amount of listening input is provided, for children and adults alike. Like many other L2 educators, she also observes that listening promotes readiness for all other language skills.

Clearly then, the notion that 'comprehension should precede production', which has been underscored by various studies (e.g., Gingras 1978:95, Celce-Murcia 1979:63), should provide some inspiration to L2 teaching. While pronunciation may involve imitating to a certain degree, listening comprehension must be a learning process based on internalizing rules and principles which underlie the structure of speech for any language learner. The encoding ability, i.e., speaking and writing, requires development of 'retrieval' knowledge, while the language decoding ability, i.e., listening and reading, requires development of 'recognition' capability. The language learner surely cannot be expected to retrieve and encode the language knowledge which he has no ability to recognize. Therefore, 'comprehension before production' is also the logical sequence (e.g., Gustafson 1989).

1.2 Practical Advantages

Futhermore, from a practical point of view, perceptual readiness is a necessary aspect of effective real-life communication. Listening comprehension promotes this perceptual readiness. Also, it is necessary for a communicator to have a larger vocabulary and inventory of grammatical structures for recognition than for production. Thus, there is always a difference between receptive and productive competence. An average six year old American child may have a speaking vocabulary of around 2,500 words while his comprehension vocabulary may consist of 17,000 basic words and 7,000 derivations (Dawson and Newman 1966:3). Furthermore, several consonants, such as the italicized portions of the following words rice, null, thank, though, version, and why, may not be mastered until the age of eight, but a normal child demonstrates no difficulty at all in distinguishing them in real communication at a much earlier age (Ibid:8). It is also well recognized by now that listening is much more a part of communication than speaking. For example, according to a study, of the time adults spend in communication activities, 45% is on listening and only 30% on speaking; note that these data are from pre-television era (Rivers and Temperley 1978:62); given the amount of time people spend on watching TV nowadays, the ratio on listening should be much higher. An average adult can no doubt comprehend many more words, more registers, more dialectal variations, and more complex structures than he can actually produce.

The same disparity holds true for second language users as well. It is, therefore, quite unreasonable to expect a foreign language learner to be able to achieve the proficiency of communicating while he can comprehend at most as much as he can speak. The proficiency of speaking itself is very difficult to acquire; thus, when the skill of speaking is overemphasized in a foreign language program, the skill of listening comprehension is obviously less emphasized than it should. The goal of communicative competence is, therefore, difficult to achieve. Simon Belasco (1971:3) was not exaggerating when he wrote that after attending a one-year French program he was 'rudely jolted by the realization that it is possible to develop so-called "speaking" ability and yet be virtually incompetent in understanding the spoken language'. Most of us who have had some experience with L2 instruction would also agree to his observation that 'because a student can utter a lot of sentences in a foreign language is no guarantee that he will understand them in the mouth of a native speaker' (Belasco 1967:86). It also has been recognized that the greatest and the first difficulty for a foreign traveler is that he cannot understand what is said to him and around him; this often leads to considerable emotional stress (Rivers 1980:265).

Most of the college graduates in Taiwan find listening comprehension the most horrifying part of TOEFL. Many commercial English centers offer special training programs especially dealing with the listening comprehension part. However, if we compare the language material for the test of listening comprehension with that of other parts, for example structure and written expression and reading comprehension and vocabulary, we will find that the language for the listening comprehension part is so much simpler that even an average high school student in Taiwan would be able to answer all the questions correctly if the material is presented in a written form. The most practical skill for the student at the beginning of living in a foreign country is listening comprehension, without which the student would not be able to function in classroom lectures or everyday conversations (Greis 1980:31). Furthermore, for learners of English as a foreign language, such as English learners in Taiwan, the skill of listening comprehension is much more needed and practical in their home country, given the prevalent use of English in business and media, while the opportunities of speaking English are far less. These facts should be noted by language educators. Listening comprehension should be of the primary importance in our foreign language programs and it is for the learner's greatest benefit to develop listening comprehension first.

1.3 Affective Advantages

Krashen, a prominent researcher in L2 acquisition, poses the Affective Filter Hypothesis (Krashen 1980, 1985) to account for the crucial role affective factors play is L2 acquisition. The affective filter is essential for L2 acquisition in that it controls the ultimate level of success. A low affective filter, which sanctions input to become 'intake', acquired competence, not learned or 'monitored' knowledge, is necessary for an overall success in L2 acquisition. Children's higher degree of openness, lack of anxiety and self-identity, and lower level of self-consciousness allow them a very low affective filter in L2 learning and ultimately makes it possible for their L2 to be an overall success. Adults, being more self-conscious and reserved, are likely to maintain a high affective filter resulting in foreign accents and fossilized interlanguage.

From a psychological point of view then, it benefits the learner to develop an affective readiness for speaking the foreign language by first getting comfortable with and familiar with the sound of it. Gary (1975) and Asher (1969, 1981a), among many others, have observed that it is very stressful for most students to produce sentences they are not yet familiar with, especially in front of a class. Other researches have indicated that L2 students, adults and children alike, in general prefer not to speak a

language whose rules and meaning they are not yet familiar with, and thus for sure have not yet internalized (e.g., Ervin-Tripp 1974, Gary 1975, Shealy 1988). Most people who have had some formal instruction of a foreign language would share this sentiment.

An extended period of time is necessary for the second language learner to gradually build up his confidence. It takes time for the learner to achieve the stage

when the internalized knowledge and language rules acquired from listening comprehension emerge as speech (e.g., Gingras 1978, Postovsky 1974, Wang 1991). Or in Gauthier's (1963) terms, the learner needs a period of time to reach the state of 'speaking readiness'. Dulay and Burt (1975:31) suggest that during the silent period the child, exposed to natural communication situations, is actually using his ability of 'active construction', and that this notion should be applied to the second language classroom.

Much in line with Krashen's observation, Postovsky also points out that for the learner to produce what he has not yet internalized will result in L1 interference and overload of short-term memory (1974:231). When introducing the use of prolonged listening as an introduction to language study, Rivers and Temperley (1978:75) had the same concern: 'Students are often plunged into trying to produce utterances in a new language too soon. As a result, they approximate these to the phonological system of their own language without having any feeling for the distinctiveness of the new language'. Newark (1966) had precisely the same position more than one decade earlier. Irreversible foreign accent may be the result. It is also clearly indicated by Newark (ibid) as well as Krashen (ibid), Postovsky (ibid), and Polizter (1965:9-10) that the problem of interference is not limited to the phonological level but extends to all levels of the L2 grammar.

This position is strongly supported by Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982:119); they concluded that L2 learners fall back on their L1 when compelled to produce L2 before the L2 is adequately acquired and ready to be used. Compared with children, older learners, more often lack of adequate natural L2 exposure and input, are also universally more often under pressure to perform verbally in the L2. Such environmental conditions foster the interference of L1 phonology, or 'phonological translation' from L1, to use Flege's (1981) term. In other words, the environments for older learners force premature L2 speech based on conscious learning, or 'monitored' knowledge, through the substratum of L1 phonology and grammar, and the long term effect of such acquisition-impoverished environmental conditions result in the 'fossilization' of the imperfect L2 interlanguage. Selinker and Lamendella (1980) define 'fossilization' as a cessation of further systematic development in the learners' still deficient L2, or

interlanguage.

Schumann (1976) proposed that the adult L2 acquisition process has much in common with that of pidginization. Like pidginization, fossilization of deficient L2 is not at all unique of phonology. And it is precisely social and cultural factors to which Schumann (1976, 1978) attributes the occurrence of pidginization of a deficient L2. All these concerns suggest strongly that required oral practice is disadvantageous or even harmful to the second language learner in the initial stage. This correlates with Krashen's view that it may be a disadvantage for a learner to be required to speak before he actually acquired the language rules and the result may be overuse of the 'Monitor' and thus reduces acquisition (Krashen 1978:13, 1980, 1985, Her 1993). Based on these psycholiguistic, affective, and practical considerations, it is well-supported that at the initial stage of L2 instruction, for children and adults alike, the implementation of a silent period is well-motivated, where the learners are exposed to adequate active listening comprehension activities without being required to speak.

1.4 Some Clarifications

The arguments above for delayed oral practice and against required speech production are compelling; for the foreign language learner, child or adult, it is best to follow the naturalistic developmental stages and therefore in L2 instruction an initial silent period should be allowed for listening comprehension with speech production delayed until the second phase. However, it should be clarified that I have no intention to downplay the importance of speaking in language acquisition. The Indians reported in Hill (1970) are an extreme case, one that cannot be successfully duplicated without the appropriate socio-cultural context. In fact, limited pronunciation exercises can still be used in the beginning phase as well will see later in Postovsky's model where the learners respond by selecting the appropriate written form.

Note also that if listening to a new language is not associated with visual images, physical actions, or some intellectual exercise to help identify meaning, it will be very boring and will not be effective in inducing acquisition (Rivers and Temperley 1978:76). Therefore, most importantly, during the initial silent period the learner should be constantly exposed to 'active listening', meaning that the listening process is not passive exposure to random speech, but that the learner is actively participating in the listening process and has to demonstrate his comprehension by responding appropriately. The process of hypothesis testing an revision is crucial for internalizing language rules and meaning. Therefore, always, when a learner makes an error, immediate feedback, or the correct model, will be provided by the instructor or other

learners.

It has already been pointed out by some educators (e.g., Greis 1980:35) that it is quite misleading to label listening as 'passive' and speaking as 'active'. Through the process of listening, comprehending, responding, and receiving feedback, the student is actively learning the rules and meaning of the language which forms the basis for their later verbal competence. While it is the student who does the learning, the teacher's job, as Stevick advises (1976:121,160), is to keep the student constantly in close contact with the target language and in general to be in control of what is going on. Both the teacher and the student should keep in mind that the listening comprehension skill cannot be mastered once and for all and that increasingly difficult but comprehensible material should be used for regular practive (Rivers 1980:277, Krashen 1980, 1985).

1.6 Summary

The overwhelming advantages of the delayed oral practice and active listening method can be summarized within four domains, (1) the cognitive advantage – the concentration of internalizing the language rules and meaning by means of listening comprehension (undistracted by required speech) and responding properly promotes a perceptual or cognitive readiness, and afterwards when speech production occurs there is a high degree of transfer between the listening knowledge and speaking; (2) the affective advantage - the learner can develop a psychological readiness for speaking and acquire the target language knowledge in an unstressful, or at least less stressful, manner; (3) the efficiency advantage - the student can be exposed to much more of the target language in much less time since he is not required to verbally retrieve it; (4) the utility advantage – for the integratively motivated students, the most needed and often the most difficult skill is listening comprehension in overall communication.

2. ACTIVE LISTENING TECHNIQUES IN THE 'SILENT PERIOD'

There are basically three modes in which the learner is required to respond. They are: physical response, picture matching, and written-form matching. Admittedly however, among them the physical response mode has become the most popular through the years.

2.1 Physical Response

The well-known method 'Total Physical Response' (TPR) has been intensively studied and popularized by Asher and his associates. Like all the advocates of the delayed oral practices, Asher believes that the student should undergo the similar developmental stages that a child experiences in acquiring a first or second language. Moreover, he particularly agrees with Piaget's suggestion that children internalize a map for understanding speech by constructing reality. Accordingly, Asher believes that the student should learn the second language in a dynamic, playful, and, therefore, physically active manner and should be placed in an 'acquisition-enriched environment' to be exposed to the maximum understanding of spoken language (Asher 1969, 1974, 1981a, 1981b). Thus, he claims that when the beginning learner is not required to speak or repeat, but just listen to the instructor's commands and respond to them physically, a reality is created to parallel a child's when acquiring L1 Imperative and commands no doubt play a very important role in this model of active listening.

McEldowney (1975:138) also recommends the early use of imperatives in L2 instruction and claims that imperatives have immediate educational relevance because they serve as the basis for the 'language of instruction'. Naturally, at the beginning the commands are very simple and consist of only one or two words such as 'jump!', 'run!', 'sit down!', and 'stand up!'. A model will be given by the instructor to convey the meaning of a new command. A variant of this is to have the student listen and watch as a model performs. Previously taught commands can be combined into new ones to encourage students to be flexible in listening to the new language, and novelty can also motivate students to be interested and attentive. Within 20 hours of this training, the student will get more familiar with the new language and be ready to use the previously learned commands or make new ones to manipulate the instructor or other students. Gradually, the sentence will get longer and the structure will get more complex, and Asher has found that the majority of L2 grammatical features can be nested in imperatives (1981a:55).

Note however, while TPR advocate *total* physical response in the silent period when oral practice is delayed, there are other possible modes of response available. A combination of different response modes is certainly a viable option.

2.2 Picture Matching

Another type of active listening activity is picture matching, also known as aural discrimination method. This model has the students listen to an expression or expressions and then from a group of three to five pictures select the one that most appropriately represents what he has heard, or the one that best answers the question

asked.

Lexical items must be learned and introduced first. The students will be shown pictures separately with the instructor naming each article or action presented in them. Afterwards, the students may, for example, hear the word 'chair' and be required to select the correct picture from several pictures. Often the student has to go through a problem-solving process, which is an important strategy in the Silent Way, to have a clear concept of the meaning of a word or a phrase. For example, the student is shown four pictures of man, a woman, a baby, and a dog and then told the word 'she' and asked to select one picture. After practicing with several groups of pictures the student will understand the meaning. The pictures for the student to select from are generally presented on worksheets. Models can also be given through other audiovisual aids, such as slides, transparencies, photos, etc. Words will be combined into meaningful sentences or phrase as soon as possible. For example, the students may hear 'Mary is buying a ticket' and be required to select the appropriate picture. After the students get the right answer, this exercise can be extended by asking some information questions. For example, the instructor may ask - 'Who is buying a ticket?' or 'What is Mary buying", and the students are to give a correct answer by selecting the picture of Mary and the ticket respectively.

When the students are more advanced, dialogues can be used, presented by pictures and the teacher, audio-tapes, films, or video-tapes. Because of the use of pictures and other convenient audio-visual aids, this model does not have the environmental limitations that the total physical response has. Therefore, there have been some speculations of combining these two models (e.g., Asher, Kusudo, de la Torre 1974:32, Madsen 1979:28).

This model has been developed by Winitz and Reeds. In their 1973 aritcle 'Rapid Acquisition of a Foreign Language by Avoidance of Speaking,' they also argue for the advantage of this active listening model, which stresses on listening comprehension and delays speaking until the learner demonstrates certain degree of familiarity with the basic structures and vocabulary of the L2. Moreover, they believe in particular that the utterances for listening comprehension activities should not consist of more than eight words for that is the maximum length the student is expected to be able to remember. Although the short-term memory must impose a limit on the length of the expressions for listening comprehension, the grammatical complexity and other factors must also play a role. Thus, while it is wise to start from shorter expressions to build up the learner's confidence, it seems rather arbitrary and impractical to impose a fixed length on the sentences to which the learners are exposed to.

2.3 Written-form Matching

The learner's 'silent' response may also be given by written-form matching, which means the learner gives the appropriate response by writing or selecting the correct answer presented in the written form in the L2. This model has been developed by Postovsky (1974). At the very beginning of instruction, the student will be given some pronunciation practive of the alphabet. Postovsky claims that the 'subvocalization' that happens during the student's written responses may play a significant part in assismilation of linguistic structures. Therefore, dictation is also a very important activity used by him. The feature that the student may respond in a more productive mode, writing, has made this model significantly different from the previous two.

However, as in the other models, lexical items will be introduced first and then will be combined into longer sentences soon after. Pictures which represent the action or the content of the utterance listened to are often use also to provide visual reinforcement. For example, the student may hear the sentence – 'John is watching TV in the living room', and will be shown a picture illustrating the action and place described in this sentence. Then, for instance, the instructor may ask questions like:

- 1) Who is watching T.V.?
- 2) Is John listening to the radio?
- 3) What is John doing?
- 4) Is he in the bedroom?
- 5) Where is John?

The student is supposed to either write out the answer, if so instructed, or pick out the correct answer from several written forms, which they have learned. For example, for the first question these four choices can be given:

- a) a girl
- b) yes
- c) John
- d) in the living room

The instructor can tell what kind of mistake the student has made according to his inappropriate answer and supply immediate feedback. Postovsky's model of response, which involves the written form of the L2 and visual reinforcement, gives the delayed oral practice an additional dimension and a better prospect. For many scholars (e.g., Diller 1978:145, Madsen 1979:28) who consider the written words a

tremendous help for second language learning and are bothered by the lack of reading in Winitz and Reeds' model of listening activity, Postovsky's model may provide good alternative or supplementary activities.

2.4 Summary and Suggestions

We have now looked at three techniques for active listening during the silent period: physical response, picture matching, and written-form matching. All of them involve the student in actively responding to the listening material in a meaningful context, and therefore comport with the guidelines of 'good' listening suggested by Joah Moreley (1972:viii): 1) do not talk; 2) concentrate your attention; 3) repeat the words to yourself (this can be achieved by requiring the student to respond immediately after hearing an utterance). Teachers should note that one or more of these techniques can be utilized at the same time in teaching and assessing listening comprehension. Moreover, teachers should not constrain themselves with these three basic techniques. A lot of listening activities used commonly in second language classrooms can be adapted for active listening purpose of used in combination with these three techniques, and teachers may find that this is even more true once oral practive commences. For example, as mentioned above, the various audio-visual aids can be used to their full advantage. The bottom line is while the beginning learner is allowed to be 'silent', he must be engaged in acquisition-inducing listening activities.

3. PREVIOUS EXPERIMENTS

In this section, a number of studies and experiments are surveyed to provide empirical support for the implementation of a silent period of active listening in the initial stage of L2 instruction. Some of these experiments are very carefully controlled, while others are classroom studies and observations. Some were concerned with adults, others with children. In some cases, subjects had intensive practice in a short period of time; in others, the experiments distributed over a longer period but the practice was not intensive. Also, different modes of response, i.e., total physical response, picture matching, written-form matching, were used in different studies. These variables should be taken into consideration no doubt, when we evaluate the implications of the findings of different studies.

3.1 Studies Concerned with L2 Child

In a well-controlled five-month study of children learning Spanish, Gary (1975) compared a delayed oral practice method with an audiolingual method in which subjects were required to utter speech from the very beginning. The nonverbal response required from the subjects in the experimental group was in the mode of physical response such as nodding, pointing to objects, and moving objects. The total number of subjects consisted of 50 lower elementary school children randomly distributed between experimental and control groups. The main purpose of this study is to compare the effects on listening as well as speaking of delayed oral practice utilizing physical response with that of the audiolingual method in teaching Spanish in an elementary school setting. Both groups were taught 25 minutes a day with the same language materials. However, oral practice was delayed for the first 14 weeks in the experimental group and during the later phase, preceded by a one-week transition period, experimental subjects were required to speak only in the second half of each daily session. Moreover, it is important to note that the number of teacher's utterances to model each sentence was controlled to be approximately the same in both groups; that is, both groups had similar amounts of listening exposure throughout the experiment. Therefore, the only independent variable between the two groups was the absence or presence of oral practive. Listening comprehension and speaking were measured by daily lesson tests and tests given at the end of the 14th and 22nd week. Also, at the end of the 22nd week, students were asked about their attitude toward their programs.

Results of this study show that in listening comprehension fo both second phase and throughout the experiment, there is a statistically significant difference favoring the experiment group. Results in command response also favored the experimental group, although the difference is not significant. The results in general favored the experimental group significantly. However, this is not the case in speaking. Nevertheless, the results of the final test on speaking were found to favor the experimental group, but the differences were not significant. Another point worth mentioning is that when comparing the results of the 14th and 22nd week tests, Gary found that while the final test scores of the control group had decreased, that of the experimental group had increased. Gary thus contends that the experimental group's rate of learning was superior to the control group's and that given additional titale the oral performance could very likely be significantly better. With respect to the subjects' attitude toward their programs, most of the students revealed favorable attitude toward their respective programs. However, not having to speak right away was specifically mentioned by some experimental children as the main reason they liked their program.

Asher, a psychologist and the foremost proponent of the total physical response technique, with his colleagues have done several experimental studies with delaying oral practice in both children's and adults' L2 learning. In Asher's view, physical responses mode is the only natural, thus most effective, mode of active listening. Therefore, to Asher, the total physical response is inseparable from delayed oral practive. In his studies, Asher generally has found that listening comprehension or retention of children, adolescents, and adults taught through delayed oral practice with total physical response technique was significantly better than students taught through other methods. He also found that there appeared to be positive transfer from this accelerated listening skill to reading and writing skills. We will look at his studies concerned with children first.

In his 1966 study, 32 sixth-grade children, none of whom had prior exposure to the Russian language, were tested. Total physical response technique was used for the experimental group; the controls listened to the Russian and observed the adult model perform. During the tests, while the experimental children acted out commands, the controls wrote down English translation of what they heard. The results showed significant difference in retention favoring the experimental group. For a master's thesis, Price, reported by Asher (1966:82-83), did a very similar experiment. The only differences are: (1) from each of the 2nd, 4th, and 8th grades, sixteen pairs of students were matched, and (2) during the tests, the controls were also required to act out their responses. The results showed that the total performance of the experimental groups from each grade level was significantly better than that of the controls.

It is worth mentioning here that another study reported in Asher (1966) found after both groups were taught in the same way listening and observing, the test results showed no significant difference whether the subjects were required to write or speak the English translation. All three experiments do not directly address the issue to delayed oral practiced; they suggest the effectiveness of the total physical response technique. One important finding in these pilot studies was that as the length and complexity of utterances increased the significance of the superiority of the experimental group's performance tend to also increase. Also not that some of the experimental children were tested again one year later and demonstrated very good retention of what they had learned, but it is not clear whether the experimental groups still retained an advantage over the control groups after one year.

Asher reported another classroom study concerned with elementary school children who learned Spanish in two different ways (Asher 1981a). The control group was taught in the audiolingual method, where children were required to repeat. Pictures and English translations were used to communicate the meaning of new words or phrases. They also received formal instruction in reading and writing with emphasis on grammar. Students in the experimental group received TPR instruction, and were

not asked to speak until the 12th hour. Moreover, the student's speech was never interrupted as long as it was intelligible and there was a wide tolerance for students' errors in speech and writing. The test results showed that the experimental students' accomplishments were better than the controls' in listening, reading, and writing. Therefore, it appeared to be that there was a high level of transfer to reading and writing from listening comprehension. The experimental children also scored higher in combining previously learned sentences or phrases into new ones in writing.

McMullin (1988) demonstrated the effectiveness of a silent period with TRP method in retention of French commands. In his study, 45 seventh-graders learning French as an L2 were in the experimental group and 50 in the comparison group exposed to a non-TPR method. The initial silent period for the experimental group lasted for four weeks and during the fifth week, the experimental subjects started speaking, while the comparison group was taught the same 80 commands by a non-TRP method which required systematic practice of all four language skills. Retention tests were administered 2, 6, and 10 weeks after the termination of instruction. Results show that the experimental group produced significantly higher rate of retention of French commands and that retnetion is also sustained over time. Furthermore, the silent period produced positive results with students of varying degrees of language aptitude. A study with children of similar age is reported in Rashed (1990). It is also an experiment on delayed oral practice using physical response mode. One hundred first year students in a preparatory school in Egypt were taught English in two groups. Results of this tudy also showed that in terms of the rate of attainment in listening comprehension, the TPR strategy was significantly more productive than the audiolingual method used in the control group.

3.2 Experiments Concerned with Adults

In his 1966 review, Asher also reported two pilot studies concerned with adults' retention. In the first study, 88 college students, divided randomly into an experimental and three control groups, received a sample of Japanese instruction. The experimental subjects, listened to commands and acted with the model. The first control group listened and observed the model. The second control group listened to the Japanese commands and then the English translations. The last group listened and read the English translations. The retention tests were given right after training, one day later, and then two weeks later. The results showed that the experimental group had significantly better retention than other control groups. Since oral practice was not required in all groups, this study is not directly relevant to the silent period; however,

this study does indicate that the listening practice that involves meaningful and active responses from the learner is better than passive listening practice.

A second similar study showed that the experimental group had greater retention in learning Russian. In another study Asher (1969) reported two brief lab experiments. The results of the first study showed that adults learning Russian through his commandaction technique had performed significantly better in listening comprehension than adults who had been required to repeat orally the Russian commands and act them out simultaneously. This indicates that in the initial stage students' concentration and the internalizing of language could indeed be distracted by speaking. The second experiment showed that adults who acted or observed actions during learning samples of Russian or Japanese and acted out commands had significantly better retention than those who had the same training but were required to translate the foreign commands into English.

In a less controlled 32-hour classroom study (Asher 1972), 11 adults were taught German with a silent period by a TPR method. Oral practice was delayed until the 17th hour of instruction. Students then started to use German commands to manipulate the instructor. However, the major portion of class time after speaking started was still listening comprehension. After 32 hours of German instruction, tests on listening comprehension and reading were given to the experimental students and two other groups of college students, who, respectively, were finishing the first year and the second year of a conventional college German language program. The experimental group performed extraordinarily better in listening comprehension than the other two groups, who had respectively 40 and 80 hours of instruction in German. However, we have to note that the college German courses' emphasis was on reading and writing. What is more significant is that the experimental subjects demonstrated no significant differences even in reading when compared with the college students who were finishing their first year German. Again, this study also demonstrated the transferability of listening comprehension to other areas of language skills.

Another important study was reported in 1974 by Asher, Kusudo, and de la Torre. In this study, the initial silent period was 10 hours of class time and 27 college students were taught Spanish through the physical response technique. Students listened and observed a model act. Then, the students acted as a group, then individually. After 10 hours of listening and acting, the students were invited to give commands to the instructor. After 45 hours of interaction in which class time was 70% listening, 20% speaking, and 10% reading and writing, the experimental group and three control groups were tested in listening comprehension and reading. The first control group was 14 high school students with 200 hours of Spanish training; the second control

group was 44 college students with 75 hours of training; the third control group was 28 college students with 150 hours of instruction. Again, the experimental subjects significantly outperformed all three control groups in listening comprehension. Also, the experimental group outperformed the second control group significantly in reading and showed no significant differences with the third control group. It is rather unfortunate, however, that speaking and writing were not tested. However, it is striking that to reach the same level of listening and reading proficiency the experimental subjects took only one-third of the time that other students had spent in regular Spanish courses.

Postovsky (1974) presented a very substantial and comprehensive study on the effects of active listening and delay in oral practice at the beginning stage of L2 learning. The total size of sample was 122 mature adults. The control group was taught through a conventional audiolingual method with great emphasis on habitforming drills and oral practice. Exposed to the same teaching materials, the experimental group was delayed in oral practice for 4 weeks, or 120 hours of instruction; the nonverbal response mode for listening was writing. Postovsky argues that wriing is a more efficient active listening mode than Asher's physical response because the 'subvocalization' that happens when the learner responds by writing helps the learner internalize the target language. Probably because Russian orthography corresponds fairly regularly with Russian phonology, no significant problem of graphic interference was reported by the students. The experimental subjects made a two-week transition, or 60 hours, to speaking upon completion of the pre-vocable phase, and then they were merged with the controls in the regular Russian courses at the Defense Language Institute, Monterey, California. Evaluation was carried out for all four language skills - listening, speaking, reading, and writing, at the end of the 6th, as well as the 12th week. Test scores from both tests favored the experimental group over the control group in all four skills. Moreover, at the end of the 6th week the differences favoring the experimental group were significant in listening, but even more significant in speaking, reading, and writing. Also, at the end of the 12th week significant differences were found favoring the experimental group in listening comprehension, but not significant in the other three areas.

Lee (1991), in a study on the correlation between L2 students' degree of acculturation and preferences associated with teaching methods, reported that adult ESL students who were at the initial stage of acculturation preferred the natural method and the TPR method, both of which, unlike grammar translation or audiolingual method, do not advocate required speech production. Lee concluded that the learner's socio-psychological needs played an important in the successful implementation of

teaching method and that the students' preferred method presented a meaningful direction for L2 teachers to find effective teaching methods.

Anderson's (1987) study is very interesting in that it not only investigated how delayed oral practice at the beginning of foreign language instruction may affect achievement and oral proficiency but also whether the length of the silent period is significant. 34 ninth graders in two experimental groups received German instructions using active listening strategies. The length of the initial silent period was 4 and 8 weeks respective for the two experimental groups. The control group, consisting of 18 students, received a modified audiolingual approach, which developed all four language skills from the beginning, with no delay in speaking. The achievement test scores, as measured by textbook tests, indicated no significant difference between the experimental groups and the control group. The difference in length of delay in speaking between the two experimental groups also produced no significant differences.

4. AN EXPERIMENT CONCERNED WITH ESL ADULTS

From the studies surveyed above, it is clear that there is strong empirical evidence supporting the positive effect of delay in speaking and exposure to active listening in accelerating the foreign language learner's skill of listening comprehension; some of the studies also demonstrate the transfer of language knowledge from listening to other skills. Within the last two decades, this method, like other new methodologies developed since the 1970's, has had some impact on the teaching English as a second language in the United States. The most successful is likely to be the total physical response technique, which has been used by many language teachers and ESL programs, though often as a supplementary activity rather than exclusively. Delayed oral practive, as a form of the comprehension-based approach, is to a much less extent adopted by L2 programs, and still remains a somewhat novel practice to many teachers.

A closer examination of the settings of the previous studies reveals that most of tham utilize a single mode of response during the 'silent' period of delayed speech production, most commonly the physical response mode. Moreover, most of these experiments were conducted in the United States using native English-speaking Americans as subjects. Asher's experimental studies were concerned with learning Japanese, Russian, German, and Spanish. Languages taught in Postovsky's experiment was Russian and it was Spanish in Gary's study. Winitz and Reeds developed their comprehension method of pictorial-audio matching though teaching German as a foreign language. Rashed (1990) is an exception, where Egyptian children studying

English were studied. Therefore, few existing experiments provide direct evidence for the effects of delayed oral practice on adults learning English as an L2. As difference groups of language learners may have different motivations, needs, attitudes, social pressure, chances of exposure to the target language, and degrees of acculturation, and, along with possible differences in teaching materials, technikques, and strategies (e.g., Brown 1980:35, 101, Gingras 1978:vii-ix, 88-97), the experiment described here attempts to provide more directly relevant evidence for the effect of delayed oral practice, with a combined response mode, in teaching English as a second language to low-proficiency adults of an Asian background.

4.1 Description of the Experiment

The basic notion, central to this research paper, is that for all L2 learners listening comprehension should be developed to a certain level before oral practice is introduced. However, few existing experiments were designed to test this overall notion; most of their purposes were limited to testing the effectiveness of delayed oral practice with a specific response mode, e.g., writing or physical response. In a way, this experiment does not aim at the general notion either; rather, it is designed to test the effects of delay in oral practice of teaching English to Asian adults who have had some very limited exposure of English. Also, since the delay in oral practice in the experimental group was achieved by requiring students to respond to what they heard from the instructor by means of performing physical actions, selecting correct pictures or English written forms, as well as answering 'yes', 'OK', or 'no', the other objective of this experiment is to study the effectiveness of utilizing a combination of these nonverbal response modes and yes-no answers versus methods using oral practice along with nonverbal responses.

For this purpose, a controlled experimental investigation was conducted to study the experimental condition, a three-week (25 hours of instruction) delay in oral practice with various non-verbal response modes, in comparison with a control condition, with no delay in oral practice and conventional teaching methods. Evaluation was carried out for three language skills: listening, speaking, and word-recognition. General reading skill was not tested, for in teaching both groups written forms of words, phrases, and short sentences have been used only to reinforce the effect of listening and/or speaking practice. Reading was not taught as a skill in its own right. Writing was barely covered. Students in both groups were only taught to write dates, numbers, and important personal information. Therefore, it is not meaningful to test writing as an independent skill either.

4.1. Research hypotheses

Research Hypothesis:

- I. Strong form
 - a. Experimental subjects perform significantly better than the control subjects in final evaluation of listening comprehension.
 - b. Experimental subjects perform significantly better than the control subjects in final evaluation of speaking.
 - c. Experimental subjects perform significantly better than the control subjects in final evaluation of word recognition.

II. Weak form

- a. Experimental subjects do not perform significantly differently from the control subjects in final evaluation of listening comprehension.
- b. Experimental subjects do not perform significantly differently from the control subjects in final evaluation of speaking.
- c. Experimental subjects do not perform significantly differently from the control subjects in final evaluation of word recognition.

Null Hypothesis:

- a. Experimental subjects perform significantly worse than the control subjects in final evaluation of litensing comprehension.
- b. Experimental subjects perform significantly worse than the control subjects in final evaluation of speaking.
- c. Experimental subjects perform signficantly worse than the control subjects in final evaluation of word recognition.

There are two forms of the research hypothesis, each consisting of three individual hypotheses. The first set is the stronger form. It is still meaningful to test the second set, the weaker form of the research hypothesis, for if either the strong or weak form of the research hypothesis is supported, then L2 teachers would not have to compel themselves to spend so much time on oral practice at the initial stage.

4.1.2 Subjects

The subjects used in this experiment, all of whom were mature adults of Mien or Vietnamese ethnicity, were classified as level two proficiency by the ESI. program of Portland Community College at Ross Island (PCC), Portland, Oregon. According to

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the program's description, a student of level two has the competence in English described below:

- 1. The student understands basic classroom procedure.
- 2. The student can express lack of understanding.
- 3. The student understands the concept of same and different, left-to-right progression, and top-to-bottom sequencing.
- 4. The student can identify and print letters.
- 5. The student can identify numbers and write them as numerals.
- 6. The student can identify U.S. money: both coins and bills.
- 7. The student can do basic addition and subtraction with money.
- 8. The student can read and write amounts of money.
- 9. The student can read clock time and digital time.
- 10. The student can read calendar dates or numerical dates.
- 11. The student understands and can respond to such common question forms as: 'how much,' 'what time,' 'where,' and 'what.'
- 12. The student understands family and personal identification.
- 13. The student can write his/her first and last names.

As for the competence of using English grammatical structures, students are supposed to be able to use the following:

- I. Verb 'be': Present tense singular
 - 1. Affirmative abatements (contractions)
 - 2. Negative statements (contractions)
 - 3. Questions
 - 4 Short answers (Yes, I am; No, he's not, etc.)

II. Prepositions

1 Prepositions of place (at, in, on, etc.)

However, among the forty students who had taken the pretests on listening and speaking, quite a variety of levels existed. All the very beginners and the very low proficiency students were kept, but those who had had level two courses before or those who showed adequate level two proficiency in listening and speaking were not included in the study. Twenty-eight students were chosen to participate in the study; 14 of them were then randomly selected to form the experimental group by using a

table of random numbers, while the remaining 14 formed the control group. During the experimental period one student in the control group and three in the experimental group dropped out; thus, eleven subjects in the experimental group and thirteen subjects in the control group were assessed at the end of the sixth week. Among the twenty-four subjects, seventeen were Mien and seven were Vietnamese. Some of them were very beginners who had been in the U.S. no more than three months and had no English training before. Others had been in this country one to two years and had a level one course (about 75 hours). Nevertheless, the subjects were statistically randomly divided into two groups, and the results of pre-tests confirmed that two groups were starting form the same level of English proficiency.

4.1.3 Experimental Procedure

Students met three times each week and received three hours of English instruction each time in a six-week period. The first two days were for pre-test and the last two days were for final evaluation of students' achievements. The total amount of instruction was fifty-four hours. The experimental design is summarized in Figure 1.

Note that the experimental period was six weeks, but experimental subjects' oral production was not required in the first three weeks, and the students were exposed solely to active listening activities during the first phase of instruction. Upon the experimental group's completion of the 3-week silent period, both groups were

	TREATMENT			
Week	EXPERIMENTAL	CONTROL		
	Pre	etests		
1 2 3	Active listening no oral practice except 'yes' 'no'	Emphasis on speaking		
4 5 6	Emphasis on listening and speaking	and listening		
	Final Evaluation			

Figure 1. Experimental Design

instructed in the same manner with emphasis on listening and speaking. Both groups had the same contact hours per meeting and met on the same nights of each week. Therefore, two instructors were used; both were receiving ESL teachers' training at Portland State University and both had one year's experience teaching Asian students. Moreover, as we will see in later discussion, the variable of instructor was further controlled by the fact that during each meeting both groups were exposed to the same subject and grammatical features with same audio-visual aids. Pre-tests and final achievement tests were administered by both teachers.

4.1.4 The pre-tests

The pre-tests consisted of a listening comprehension test and a speaking test. The test items were basically based on PCC's description of the subject's supposed competence. In the listening comprehension test that required no verbal response, students were asked to respond non-verbally by performing the command or pointing to the correct pictures. Each student was given twenty instructions by the same tester, who scored the students' responses in a consistent way on the spot. For example, for the instruction 'Stand up, please.' the student gets 2 points for performing the act correctly and 0 point for incorrect or null response; for and instruction like 'Pick up the cigarettes!' the student gets 2 points for correct response, 1 point for demonstration partial understanding such as picking up something else or simply pointing to the cigarettes, and 0 point for demonstrating no understanding. For test items and scoring methods, see Appendix I.

In the speaking test, twenty questions were given to each student by the same tester and students' oral responses were tape-recorded. Each oral answer was also evaluated with a 2-point scale. Complete sentences were not required. 0 point for incorrect or no answer or and unacceptable answer, 1 point for an acceptable answer with improper intonation or difficult fluency, 2 points for correct answer with acceptable pronunciation, intonation, and fluency. Therefore, the highest score on both speaking and comprehension tests was 40 points. Two scorers were used to score the speaking and comprehension of the question demonstrated by the student in his oral answer. Among more than 1,500 decisions the two scorers have showed agreement on more than 85% of them. Thus, the inter-reliability of the test has been enhanced.

The originally selected twenty-eight students were divided randomly into the control group (CG) and experimental group (EG). The *t*-test shows that the respective pre-test scores of the experimental group and the control group in speaking and listening are not significantly different. Four students dropped out before the termination

of instruction, so to be careful, the pretest results of the remaining 11 subjects in the EG and 13 subjects in the CG were statistically compared again using the t-test. Still, no significant differences were found. The comparison is shown in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1. Pretest Results

	Х		s		t	P
	EG	CG	EG	CG		
Listening w/ nonverbal response Listening w/	18.64	20.31	12.40	10.83	0.33	> 0.35
verbal response	19.27	18.50	15.13	11.51	0.14	> 0.45
Speaking	12.41	12.23	10.23	8.09	0.04	> 0.45

The mean scores show that the CG was a little better in listening and the EG was slightly better in speaking. The numbers of standard deviation suggest that the CG was a more homogeneous group when compared with the EG. Nevertheless, the t of such small numbers strongly indicate the similar level of these two groups.

4.1.5 Methodologies

The delay in oral practice in the experimental group was achieved by requiring subjects to respond by physically performing the act, selecting the right pictures, or selecting the right pictures together with the written forms. Also, yes-no questions were frequently used and students were not forbidden to answer orally. Since all of the subjects had been in this country for at least two months, unquestionably they all knew 'yes', 'OK, and 'no'. This assumption has been confirmed by the subjects' performance in the pre-tests. It seems silly for the students to respon non-verbally to simple yes-no questions, which were used to facilitate introduction of new words or phrases and also to check students' understanding.

There are several advantages of utilizing such a combination of modes of response in listen comprehension practice. First, it is rather boring or monotonous to have only one kind of activity during an extended period of time. Although physical responses can be used in an active and playful manner, but we have to strongly caution that it may also be culturally inappropriate for Asian adults, especially with men and women together, to be playful or performing lots of seemingly child-like physical actions in

the classroom situation. Secondly, using a combination of these several modes of responses can reduce the limitations of teaching content and increase the flexibility in presenting different language materials. Furthermore, I believe that listening, visual representation, and written forms can have an interactive effect of reinforcing one another. After the 28th hour of instruction, the experimental subjects were then exposed to the same teaching style that the controls were receiving.

All the nonverbal response modes were also used in the CG, that is, the CG also enjoyed the advantages described above, the only difference was that they were invited to repeat after the teacher and speak from the very beginning. Listening comprehension was emphasized as much as speaking. The general procedure of introducing new material was listening comprehension with mimicry, and afterwards the students would be put in a situation that required the use the language without the teacher's model. For every class session, both groups were taught same language materials with exactly the same work-sheets, manipulatives, visual aids, and other learning aids. For example, during the first 27 hours, in teaching the classroom objects in combination with the imperative structure with verbs like 'point', 'show', 'walk', 'find', 'put', and 'give', the activities used in the EG included physical response (e.g., the teacher gives the command: 'Point to the window!' and the student is to perform the action), yes-no question (e.g., the teacher asks questions like 'Is it a door?', 'This is a picture, right?'), bingo game, word matching (the teacher says a word or phrase and the student is to select the correct word on a worksheet), word matching combined with picture matching (the teacher says a word and the student is to select the real object or the correct picture, with the word on it). All these activities were also used in the CG with the difference that the students were required to mimic and later actually use the language. For instance, when introducing the objects, the students were asked to repeat what the teacher said. Students were asked to physically respond to commands too, but they were also required to give commands to other students in such activities like a chain drill. When playing the bingo game, the teacher would ask students to draw words or pictures out of a box and pronounce the word or name the object to the class.

Although the language content and structures and usages of the instructor's utterances in each class session were controlled, the number of each instructor's utterance models was not for one of the advantages of the delayed oral practice and active listening strategy is that the students can have a more substantial language exposure during the same length of time compared with students in a conventional method. Therefore, it is not necessary to control the number of the instructors' utterances as Gary (1975) did in his experimental study. Furthermore, since all the

subjects were living in an English-speaking environment, they would definitely be exposed to English language and find themselves required to speak English outside of class. Therefore, the subjects' exposure to English outside of class was another uncontrollable variable.

Since the students were all low-proficiency adults, the teaching materials were considerably survival-oriented. Topics covered during the six-week period included: classroom procedure and objects, colors, other common objects, numbers (cardinal and ordinal), time, date, directions, body parts, family members, personal information, important occupations, common transports, daily activities, food, important places, and asking permission. Interwoven with these subject matters, English structures and grammatical features were also taught, including: commands, simple present tense, present progressive tense, simple past tense, simple future tense, singular and plural nouns, subject-verb agreement, helping verbs (be, do, have, can, will, and may), negative statement, yes-no questions with feeling verbs, wh-questions (who, where, what, when, how, whose, and which), prepositions (in, on, under, by, beside, with, from, and to), and adjective comparatives.

4.2 Final evaluation

The final tests were to evaluate the subjects' achievements in listening comprehension, speaking, and word recognition. The tests were designed according to the subject matters and grammatical structures and features covered. For listening comprehension responded through non-verbal responses twenty instructions were given. 2 points were given for full understanding, 1 for partial understanding, and 0 point for no understanding. (For test items and scoring method of each instruction, see Appendix II, where test items for speaking and listening comprehension are also listed.) Therefore, 40 points is the highest score. For the skill of speaking and listening comprehension responded by verbal answers, twenty-five questions were asked. Oral responses were recorded on tape. Students were made aware that complete sentences were required. Two scorers were used to enhance the reliability of the test results. Five features of each answer were evaluated by the two scorers.

The five features and scoring guidelines are:

Grammar: 0 – No answer, or an unintelligible answer, or a short answer with a grammatical error (e.g., '*box in', instead of the correct 'in the box').

1 – Short answer (e.g., 'in the box'). or attempting a complete sentence with a grammatical error (e.g., 'I go shopping', instead of the correct

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'I went shopping').

2 – A complete and grammatical sentence.

Pronunciation:

- 0 No answer, or an unintelligible answer.
- 1 An intelligible answer with heavy accent and improper intonation.
- 2 An answer with proper intonation and acceptable pronunciation.

Vocabulary:

- 0 No answer, or an unintelligible answer.
- 1 An answer with adequate and understandable, if incorrect, vocabulary.
- 2 An answer with adequate and correct use of vocabulary.

Fluency:

- 0 No answer, or an answer with too many pauses, or a response taking too much time.
- 1 A somewhat halting answer within normal time allowance.
- 2 An answer with normal speed, or an answer expanding upon the question.

Comprehension:

- 0 No answer, or a random guess.
- 1 An answer demonstration partial understanding.
- 2 An appropriate answer.

Hence, the total score of an oral answer is the mean of the scores of the five features. The score on comprehension of questions was also considered individually. Again, among the 3,000 decisions, the two scores showed a high degree of reliability, more than 82% of their decisions were the same.

A rather simple test consisting of three parts was also designed to test the students' ability in recognizing English written words. In the first part, the tester would say a word and the student was to select the English word from four choices. In the second part the student was given five written words and required to say them. In the third part, the student was given five sentences and required to read them orally. The possible highest score was also 40 points.

4.3 Analysis and Results

The scores of the students' performance in the final evaluation were statistically treated. The results are shown in Table 2. Test items and scoring method of the word recognition test are listed in Appendix II.

TABLE 2. Final Test Results

	X		s		t	Р
Time	EG	CG	EG	CG		
Listening w/ nonverbal response Listening w/	25.82	21.00	10.69	6.58	1.29	0.15 (NS)
verbal response	31.82	29.08	14.40	9.69	0.22	0.40 (NS)
Speaking	26.04	23.01	12.47	7.47	0.70	0.25 (NS)
Word recognition	13.27	9.77	10.99	7.50	0.79	0.25 (NS)

(NS = statistically not significant)

The speaking test was evaluated along five dimensions: grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension. The final results of the five components are shown below in Table 3.

TABLE 3. Final Test Results

	X		s		t	P
Listening w/	EG	CG	EG	CG		
nonverbal response Listening w/	17.91	15.92	9.22	6.16	0.60	0.30 (NS)
verbal response	24.73	20.16	11.86	7.33	1.10	0.15 (NS)
Speaking	27.82	25.65	12.72	9.76	0.45	0.35 (NS)
Word recognition	27.91	24.15	14.80	10.42	0.70	0.25 (NS)
Comprehension	31.28	29.08	14.40	9.69	0.22	0.40 (NS)

It is clear that the EG outperformed the CG in every test; however, none of the differences favoring the EG was statistically significant. Therefore, all three individual hypotheses of the weak form of the research hypothesis are supported. The mean scores of listening, speaking, and word recognition show that generally the EG achieved more than the CG, but the EG's larger numbers of standard deviation may indicate that the delaying of oral practice was not working for some individual students and at the same time working very well for other students. However, note that the EG started in the beginning as a less homogeneous group when compared with the CG. At any

rate, the rather small numbers of t-distribution clearly indicate that the two groups' English proficiency was not significantly different at the end of the 54 hours of instruction.

4.4 Discussion

The final tests for listening comprehension, speaking, and word recognition have yielded scores favoring the EG in each instance. Although none of the differences was statistically significant, the results clearly suggest that the experimental subjects improved their English proficiency more than the controls did. Although only the weak form of the research hypothesis is supported, the results are still meaningful in that the active listening practice and delay oral practice for beginning and lowproficiency students are at least valid alternatives to required speech from the very beginning. The advantages may be: 1) the cognitive advantage-by means of listening comprehension and responding properly, the concentration of internalizing the language rules will not be distracted by oral practice and the listening knowledge may transfer to other skills; 2) the efficiency advantage-since the learner is not required to verbally retrieve the target language, he can be exposed to more of the target language; 3) the affective advantage-not to require the learner to speak at the beginning may alleviate some of the affective factors inhibiting second language acquisition. According to Brown (1980: 101-105), adults, who have stronger defensive inhibitions to protect their ego, self-esteem, feelings, values, and beliefs, are more likely than children to be embarrassed about making mistakes and, therefore, may be distressed by being unable to express their personalities in the L2. Loss of interest or failure to learn the L2 may be the consequence. The delayed oral practice and active listening strategy provide a learning environment where the learner can learn the L2 in a less stressful manner. However, due to the grossness of measures and the rather small size of sample, the results obtained from the final revaluation can only be interpreted in more specific terms. And therefore, one should be somewhat conservative in discussing its implications.

Since all the activities used in the EG were also used in the CG, this study can be generally described as a comparison of two learning situations, in one the students listened actively and were not required to speak during the first phase, and in the other oral practice was required from the beginning. It is, therefore, not surprising for us to find that the EG has performed better in listening comprehension both in responding non-verbally and in answering questions.

On the other hand, one might wonder why the differences in listening

comprehension were not statistically significant as found in several other similar studies. Two possible factors may have played a role. First, the silent period for active listening was rather short. Second, since all the students lived in an English-speaking environment, the exposure to English outside of the classroom may have been enough to neutralize the differences created by formal instruction.

What is more interesting is that the difference in speaking also favored the Eg. Also, when the score of speaking was broken into its five components, the differences favored the EG in every instance. Note that the most salient differences were in pronunciation and fluency. The experimental subjects also demonstrated better control of English grammatical structures and better use of lexical items. This finding gives strong support to the claim that the absence of oral practice does not mean the absence of oral proficiency. Competence is achieved by listening and actively responding, and there is positive transfer of language knowledge from listening skill to speaking. This knowledge transfer was also found in the final evaluation of word recognition. However, since the student's ability in recognizing English written forms was not tested in the beginning of the experiment, this finding should not be considered as a final conclusion. Upon closer examination of the pretest results and scores on final evaluation, the EG also made greater progress in the same period of time than the CG in listening as well as speaking.

Based on the above discussion, the following generalizations can be suggested, although, more conservatively they apply directly only to learning English as an L2 by low proficiency Asian adults.

- 1. At the initial stage of 1.2 instruction, as extended silent period with active listening activities promotes the student's proficiency in listening, speaking, and word recognition.⁴
- 2. There is a positive transfer of language knowledge from listening to speaking and word recognition.
- 3. A combination of various response modes and answering 'yes', 'OK', 'no' can be effectively implemented as active listening activities.
 - 4. Required speech may not be necessary at all in the initial stage of L2 instruction.

4.5 Suggestions for improvement

Due to various factors, I did not enjoy all the controls of a laboratory experiment.

⁴ An extended period of time of delayed oral practice, be it 12 hours or 3 months, is meant to contrast with other ways of delaying oral practice, for example, oral production s not required is the first half of every class session. See 5.1 for more discussion.

Improvement in several areas can be made to make an experiment of this nature more controlled and, therefore, more valuable. First of all, since both CG and EG had to have classes at the same time, different instructors must be used. Although the two instructors were fairly equivalent in teaching experiences and training and the teaching content was carefully controlled, the factors of different personality and different understanding of the students' culture may certainly have an impact on the students' learning. Secondly, although the students were divided into EG and CG randomly and the results of the self-designed pre-tests confirmed that, it would have been more reliable had a standardized test been used to study the degrees of correlations of the students' performance between the tests. The standardized test can also be given at the end along with the final evaluation. Furthermore, the students' exposure to English outside the classroom was not possible to be controlled; a more controlled experiment should include the study of this variable.

5. OUESTIONS TO BE FURTHER EXPLORED

The notion of delayed oral practice and active listening has been applied in foreign language teaching and found effective; yet, many questions remain unanswered. The experiment I have conducted no doubt has answered some of them; nevertheless, it has also brought up some new ones. I hereby give some suggestions for future research. Most of them are concerned with the optimal effectiveness of this method.

5.1 Optimal Length of Delay in Oral Practice

What is the optimal length of delay in speaking, before the learner is required to speak? Should the teacher decide on this according to certain criteria or should the decision be left to the learner himself? When handling a class, how should the teacher respond to individual learner's reactions and needs in this respect? Researchers have varied greatly regarding this issue. For example, speaking was delayed for the first 240 hours of instruction in Postovsky's study. Gary's experimental subjects were exposed to active listening for the first seven weeks. The experimental subjects were required to speak from the 28th hour of instruction in my study. The length of delay in oral practice of these experiments seems to be based on the convenience of time calculation, for example, half or one-third of the whole experiment period, more than anything else. In Asher's 1972 study, he claimed that after 16 hours of instruction the students themselves asked to be allowed to speak. Generally, Asher's experimental

subjects were required or 'invited' to speak after 12 to 16 class hours. If Postovsky's claim is correct that when oral practice is delayed for a much more extended period of time, a higher level of transfer of language knowledge from listening to speaking, reading and writing, then it will be advantageous to delay oral practice for a longer period if circumstances permit. Nonetheless, there are studies claiming that the length of delay makes little significant difference. For example, Anderson (1987) found no significant differences between the two experimental groups, with 4 and 8 weeks of delay in speaking respectively.

Note, however, the rationale behind the delayed oral practive, as stated in section 1, dictates an *extended* silent period at the initial stage. The question is what is the minimum length of this silent period and what is the most effective length. Individual variations due to age, gender, aptitude, etc. are likely to be great in this respect. Wang (1991), for instance, studied three groups (19 pre-kindergarten children, 20 middle school students, and 7 adults) with the same length of delay in speaking and same listening activities and concluded that the optimal age varies for different skills. During my experiment, some students in the experimental group would voluntarily repeat the instructor's commands or questions first and then respond non-verbally, while some other students were always reluctant to speak. In the control group there were also students that seldom repeated when the whole group was asked to repeat after the instructor.

Aside from the appropriate length of delay in oral practice, one might also seriously speculate on the most appropriate *style* of delay in oral practical. In all the experiments we have seen so far, the delay in oral practice is always an extended period of time before speaking occurs. One might consider delaying oral practice and involving students in active listening only in the first half or two-thirds of all class sessions, required speech only happens in the second part of each class. Since no experiment of this sort has been done before, such an experiment comparing different styles of 'comprehension prior to production' will be valuable.

In my experiment, I used low-proficiency subjects who had been exposed to English for some time either in classroom situations or in naturalistic situations. The results show that the delay in oral practice is still a viable option. Carroll (1973) has also suggested that for L2 learners who have reached a plateau it may be beneficial to have a extended silent period with substantial active listening. Again, all previous experiments we have seen so far dealt with L2 learning at the initial stage. More research needs to be done to test the effectiveness of implementing a silent period for non-beginner learners. Especially for 'fossilized' learners, or those who have reached a plateau, active listening with avoidance of speech as a strategy is another fertile

ground for exploration.

5.2 Optimal Mode(s) of Non-verbal Response

Section 2 above has described several possible modes of nonverbal response. They are physical response, picture matching, and written-form matching (by writing or selecting written forms). Another possible mode is responding verbally in one's native language. This last technique was developed by Gautheir (1963) in teaching French to English-speaking children in Canada. He and his colleagues called it 'Tan-Gar' method. Research needs to be done to find out which mode or which combination of modes are more effective and promotes greater transfer of language knowledge to other language skills. Also, in deciding which mode or modes should be used in a certain classroom, should we consider the variables of the students' socio-cultural background, educational background, and age? Moreover, when approaching the individual learner, what factors of the learner's personality should we consider in deciding which mode or nodes to use to be most helpful?

5.3 Optimal Input

According to Krashen's notion of 'monitor' (Krashen 1980), the proficiency in L2 is very much based on the learner's internalized knowledge and rules that have been 'acquired' implicitly and often subconsciously. The explicitly and consciously 'learned' knowledge and rules can be referred to by the learner as a 'monitor' to modify the language output. Acquisition is the central process whereby real L2 competence is attained and manifested. It is therefore extremely important for teachers to speculate on how to enrich the learner's opportunities to acquire the target language. This is probably more important for the foreign language learner since outside the classroom he has few opportunities to be in contact with the foreign language. Specifically then, research should be done on the question that while providing active listening activities to the learner during the silent period, in what manner should teachers adopt the materials so that they can function as language 'intake' for the learner rather than just random 'input'. While 'input' means simply any language material that the learner is exposed to, 'intake' is the kind of input that the learner can actually utilize for language acquisition. Krashen also describes several characteristics that language intake should have:

1. It should be understood by the learner.

- 2. It should be at or slightly in advance of the learner's current stage of grammatical competence.
 - 3. It should be sequenced and get progressively more complex.
 - 4. It should be natural communication.

These ideas on comprehensible input were developed into the Input Hypothesis by Krashen (1985), which suggests that 'acquisition' is the result of comprehensible input and not of production. In the literature some researches indicate that the difference in the kind of L2 input may be another source of the child-adult difference in L2 performance. Children seem to receive much more simplified and concrete 'here-and-now' input, which is believed to better facilitate language acquisition than the more 'topic-centered' material adult learners are typically exposed to (Dulay, Burt, and Krashen 1982:93-95). Although simplified input does not always constitute comprehensible input and vice versa, a 'here-and-now' input is more easily made comprehensible by its immediacy and by its context than 'topic-centered' language. Thus, children are more likely than adults to be exposed to the type of comprehensible L2 input that facilitates acquisition.

Advocates of the delayed oral practice insist on using meaningful contexts for listening activities. Asher has a strong claim about his strategy of using imperatives as the best leanguage material for intake language. Postovsky has revealed a similar idea to Krashen's by saying that the linguistic properties of input language is crucial since the processing of auditory input is central to the nature of the language acquisition process. However, hardly anyone of them has addressed this issue directly. Therefore, the crucial question remains: how teachers should adjust their utterances and sequence their teaching materials to be optimally effective for the learner to acquire the target language from the active listening process. For example, is it advisable that teachers should manipulate their listening materials for the learner in the way that caretakers do? Krashen (1985) describes the several salient characteristics of caretaker language: 1) deictic and iconic speech, 2) short, simple sentences that become more complex as the child matures, 3) repetitions, 4) slow rate by breaking sentence into chunks and inserting longer pauses, 5) focusing on the message, not the form. And again, in speculating on this question, how should we account for the individual learners of different age or cultural background?

Furthermore, in providing listening materials, should the teachers consider including a diverse set of voices and different registers, dialects, or sociolects existing in the target language? If it is advisable to do so, should the teachers do it from the beginning of instruction or at a later stage? Since in real communication or realistic

situations the learner, especially the *second* language learner, is going to run into a variety of these variables of the L2, it seems necessary to include them in the active listening activities. Croft suggests that '...students should be accustomed to hearing most, it not all, of the major dialects, but obviously when it comes to speaking, they will have to concentrate on one' (19080:251). Postovsky has argued (1974:231) that one of the advantages of delayed oral practice is that during the extended listening period the learner will be solely exposed to good, authentic language models rather than the classroom dialect filled with all the distortions which are peculiar to the beginning student's speech output. If we include the various voices and styles of the target language in accordance with his argument, will there be negative effect on the learner's later competence in speech production?

While a child is acquiring his first language, he is exposed to the adapted caretaker language as well as a variety of language speech spoken by people around him. We have argued that the natural sequence of child first language acquisition may be followed as a model for second language learning, should we follow the model in this respect as well? We might consider this question in coordination with the previous one. Carroll suggests that while the second language learner can be helped by guidance and build new learning on prior learning, it is impossible in selecting and sequencing instructional materials to capture the full richness and variety of normal speech; therefore, he proposes a two-stream instruction-language instruction should consist of two parallel streams, one accounting for the carefully selected and sequenced instructional content, and the other accounting for exposing the learner to language materials containing less controlled variety of linguistic elements (Carroll 1974: 140-141). He believes that in this way the learner may benefit from the interactive effects of the two streams. Is this proposal sound enough that the teacher should follow it when presenting listening activities?

5.5 Computer-assisted Active Listening

Finally, with the advancement of computer-assisted language teaching and learning, a viable research direction is to explore ways delayed oral practice can benefit from the use of computers. Given that voice and speech recognition is still one of the most difficult tasks for natural language processing technology, computational applications of delayed oral practice and active listening activities are much easier and more suitable than that of other methods ince there will be no verbal input to be recognized. Sutherland (1991), for example, developed a new method of teaching vocabulary by using total physical response techniques on the computer. Given the

availability of multimedia presentation on personal computers, voices, images, videos, and texts can all be integrated into interactive instructive materials for language learning. The infinite possibilities of electronic aid in L2 learning are no doubt one of the most exciting new areas for research.

6. CONCLUSION

Language teachers, as well as students, should understand that there are no easy solutions for the infinite difficulties of learning a second language and there is no single method that can tackle all the learners and all of their needs. Therefore, the delayed oral practive and active listening method may not be applicable or effective to every L2 beginner. However, this method has already been effectively applied to adults and children in learning an L2 and has shown promising possibilities to be developed to be even more effective. Yet, this unconventional method has been considerably overlooked by many L2 teachers, educators, and administrators as a sound, if not better, option. Davidson already pointed out that the notion of delayed oral practice certainly merits more attention more than ten years ago (1980:337), and earlier Gingras (1978) showed the same enthusiasm by stating that among research concerns, the effect of active listening deserves to be ranked high on a list of priorities. It is hoped this paper has demonstrated that delayed oral practice is an effective and viable alternative to the conventional practice where speaking is required from the very beginning of L2 learning.

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APPENDIX I. THE PRE-TESTS

A. Listening comprehension in responding nonverbally.

- 1. (Showing coins and dollar bills) Give me a quarter.
- 2. (Showing coins and dollar bills) Now, give me a dime.
- 3. (Showing coins and dollar bills) O.K., give me one dollar and seventy-five cents.
- 4. (Using a clock) Show me 10:15.
- 5. (Display: book, pencil, telephone, cigarette, watch, paper) Pick up the telephone.
- 6. Point to the book.
- 7. (Showing a picture) Is this a stroe?
- 8. (Showing three pictures) In which picture is the boy sleeping?
- 9. (Showing three pictures) In which one are the girls reading?
- 10. (Showing the English alphabets) Circle the letter P.
- 11. (Writing two letters) Would you copy these two letters, please.
- 12. Write down the number 83.
- 13. (Showing ten color pens) Which one is yellow?
- 14. Give me the brown pen and the blue pen.
- 15. Put the cigarettes under the table.
- 16. Take the apple out of the bag.
- 17. Put you hand on the table.
- 18. Pick up the pencil and give it to me.
- 19. Stand up, please.
- 20. Open the book.

Scoring method:

- 1) 1 pt. for 'give', 1 pt. for 'quarter'.
- 2) 0 or 2 pts.

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- 3) 0 or 2 pts.
- 4) 0 or 2 pts.
- 5) 1 pt. for 'pick up', 1 pt. for 'telephone'.
- 6) 1 pt. for 'point', 1 pt. for 'book'.
- 7) 0 or 2 pts.
- 8) 0 or 2 pts.
- 9) 0 or 2 pts.
- 10) 1 pt. for 'circle', 1 pt. for the letter.
- 11) 1 pt. for 'copy', 1 pt. for the two letters.
- 12) 1 pt. for 'write', 1 pt. for '83'.
- 13) 0 or 2 pts.
- 14) 1 pt. for 'blue', 1 pt. for 'brown'.
- 15) 1 pt. for 'the cigarettes', 1 pt. for 'under the table'.
- 16) 1 pt. for 'apple', 1 pt. for 'out of the bag'.
- 17) 1 pt. for 'nand', 1 pt. for 'on the table'.
- 18) 1 pt. for 'pick up the pencil', 1 pt. for 'give it to me'.
- 19) 0 or 2 pts.
- 20) 0 or 2 pts.

Take question 5 (pick up the book.) for example, it the student picks up something other than the telephone, he gets a point; if the points to the telephone, he also gets a point; and it he points to something other than the telephone, he gets no point.

B. Speaking and listening comprehension in answering questions. Hello, how are you?

- 1. What's you name?
- 2. How do you spell it?
- 3. Where do you live?
- 4. What's your telephone number?
- 5. How old are you?
- 6. Are you married?
- 7. When did you arrive in the United States?
- 8. (Showing a clock) O.K. Please tell me what time it is.
- 9. (Showing some money) How much money is this?
- 10. Today is Monday (or Tuesday), what date was yesterday?
- 11. Today is Jan. 9, what is the date tomorrow?
- 12. (Showing a picture) How many people are there in this picture?

- 13. How many men (or women) are there?
- 14. (Showing two pictures) What is he doing and what is she doing?
- 15. What did you do today?
- 16. Do you take the bus to school?
- 17. Do you go downtown sometimes? What do you there?
- 18. (Putting a pencil or cigarettes in the purse or picket) Where did I put the pencil (or cigarettes)?
- 19. (Putting the pencil under a book) Where is the pencil now?
- 20. (Showing a number) What's this number?

APPENDIX II. FINAL EVALUATIONS

A. Listening comprehension in responding nonverbally.

- 1. Point to the ceiling.
- 2. (Giving the student a clock) Show me a quarter after eleven.
- 3. Put the blue pen in the bag.
- 4. Put the purple candle under the box.
- 5. Give me the book behind you.
- 6. (Displaying some money) Show me \$1.55.
- 7. Here are six pictures. In which one is there a janitor?
- 8. And who is the policeman?
- 9. (Showing three pictures) In which picture is the girl leading?
- 10. Find an empty cup and give it to me.
- 11. Circle the number 12 and underline the letter M.
- 12. Is this a watch?
- 13. Point to his hand and his head.
- 14. Which pencil is longer?
- 15. Which woman is older?
- 16. In which picture is the season winter?
- 17. There are four people in this picture. Who is the daughter?
- 18. Which woman is taking care of children?
- 19. Which picture has many people getting on the bus?
- 20. (Giving the student a calendar) Show me February 27.

Scoring method:

1) 0 or 2 pts.

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- 2) 0 or 2 pts.
- 3) 1 pt. for 'blue pen', 1 pt. for 'in the bag'.
- 4) 1 pt. for 'purple candle', 1 pt. for 'under the box'.
- 5) 1 pt. for 'give the book', 1 pt, for 'the book behind you'.
- 6) 0 or 2 pts.
- 7) 0 or 2 pts.
- 8) 0 or 2 pts.
- 9) 0 or 2 pts.
- 10) 1 pt. for 'find an empty cup', 1 pt. for 'give it to me'.
- 11) 1 pt. for 'circle the number 12', 1 pt. for 'underline the letter M'.
- 12) 0 or 2 pts.
- 13) 1 pt. for 'point to may hand', 1 pt. for 'point to his head'.
- 14) 0 or 2 pts.
- 15) 0 or 2 pts.
- 16) 0 or 2 pts.
- 17) 0 or 2 pts.
- 18) 0 or 2 pts.
- 19) 0 or 2 pts.
- 20) 1 pt. for 'February', 1 pt. for '27'.

B. Speaking and listening comprehension in answering questions.

Hello, how are you? What's your name?

- 1. How old are you?
- 2. How many children do you have?
- 3. Do you have a job?
- 4. (Showing time) What time is it?
- 5. What day was yesterday?
- 6. What did you do yesterday?
- 7. Did you stay at home yesterday?
- 8. What is the date tomorrow?
- 9. What will you do tomorrow?
- 10. Will you go shopping?
- 11. What time did you get up this morning?
- 12. How many days are there in February?
- 13. Do you like winter or summer? Why?
- 14. What color is this?
- 15. What do you call this?

- 16. What's this?
- 17. How much money is this?
- 18. What are these?
- 19. Whose pencil is this?
- 20. Where did I put this candle?
- 21. Where is the candle now?
- 22. (Showing picture) What's his job?
- 23. (Showing picture) What are they doing?
- 24. (Showing picture) What is he doint and what is she doing?
- 25. When will you go home tonight?

C. Word Recognition

- I. Tester says the word and the student is to select from four written words. An example was demonstrated to the student first.
 - 1. blue a. brown b. blue c. red d. bank
 - 2. phone a. address b. married c. phone d. pen
 - 3. married a. married b. single c. divorced d. windowed
 - 4. birthplace a. address b. birthrate c. place d. birthplace
 - 5. doctor a. door b. janitor c. doctor d. nurse
- II. The student iks shown these words and is requested to pronounce them.
 - 1. date 2. address 3. policeman 4. bus 5. March
- III. The student is shown these sentences and is asked to read them.
 - 1. This is a book.
 - 2. What is your name?
 - 3. The pencil si red.
 - 4. I am drinking and he is eating.
 - 5. They are getting on the bus.

Scoring method: For I and II, each right answer gets 2 points; there are only correct and incorrect answers. For III, each sentence is worth 4 points; misreading any one word is minus 1 point. The lowest score on each question is 0 point.