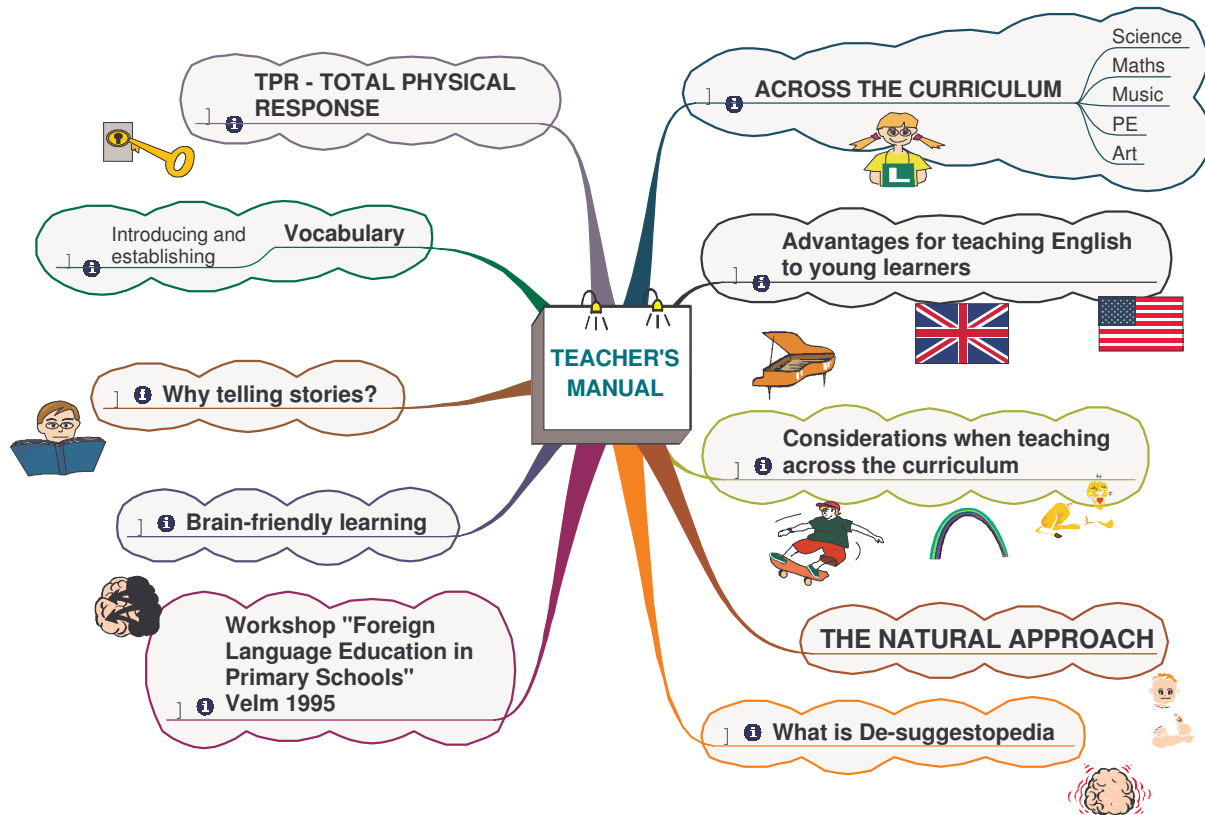


C) TEACHER'S MANUAL

1) Mind-map - overview

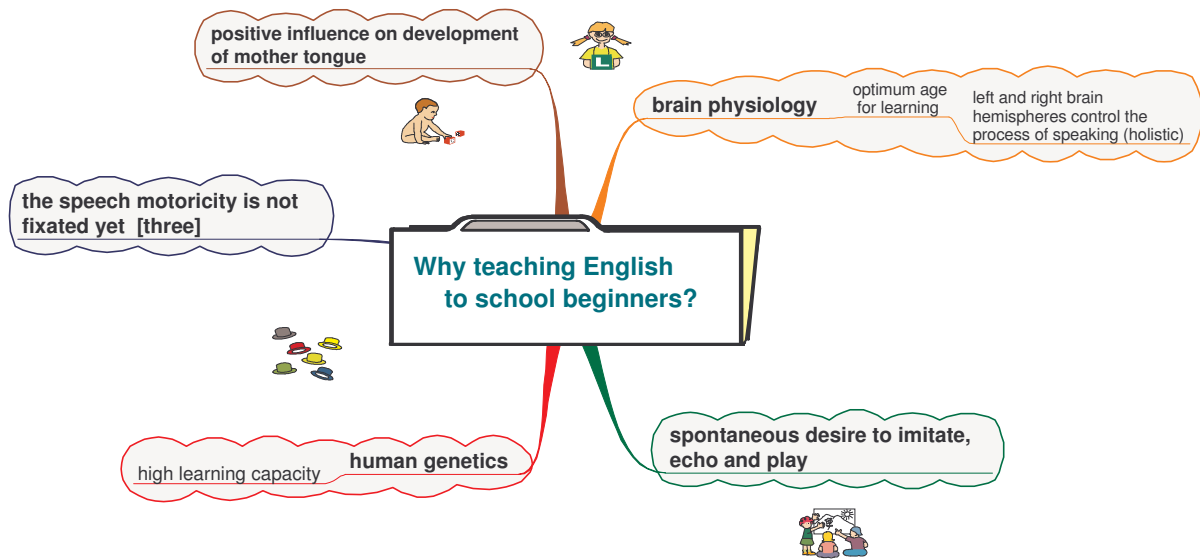


BALL – BRAIN-FRIENDLY ACCELERATED LANGUAGE LEARNING

In this chapter we want to pass on some useful information to our readers concerning background information on:

- 1) Reasons for teaching a foreign language to young learners
- 2) The Integrated Approach - Considerations when teaching across the curriculum (since the class-teacher and the English teacher is a personal union)
- 3) Some features on brain-friendly learning
- 4) The role of stories in the process of language acquisition
- 5) The ideas of De-suggestopedia (a holistic, brain-friendly method)
- 6) The Natural Approach
- 7) TPR – Total Physical Response (based on the Natural Approach) where the children get the chance to show understanding before they actually start speaking
- 8) Possibilities of how to introduce and establish words according to brain-friendly learning and the Natural Approach
- 9) Findings of an international workshop in Velm/ Austria on “Foreign Language Education in Primary Schools

2) Why should you start teaching a foreign language to first graders of Primary schools?



Some words of common sense from Susan Halliwell (1992:3) on working with Young Learners:

Young children do not come to the language classroom empty-handed. They bring with them an already well-established set of instincts, skills and characteristics which will help them to learn another language. We need to identify those and make the most of them.

For example, children:

- *are already very good at interpreting meaning without necessarily understanding the individual words;*
- *already have great skill in using limited language creatively;*
- *frequently learn indirectly rather than directly;*
- *take great pleasure in finding and creating fun in which they do;*
- *have a ready imagination;*
- *above all take great delight in talking!*

The decision to introduce foreign language learning into primary schools is, according to its supporters, one that has identifiable advantages.

Brewster, Ellis & Girard (1992) make the following points:

Advantage can be taken of certain aptitudes children have in order to start teaching a foreign language at primary school..

- Early learning of a non mother-tongue language must be integrated into other teaching in the primary school.
- Whatever else may be achieved, the main concern is to prepare the ground so that the most can be made of the teaching which will be received in secondary school. (1992:19)

Are there any other key objectives for teaching a foreign language to young learners apart from the age factor?

Later on, the same writers (1992:24) summarise the key objectives of early foreign language learning as: **linguistic, psychological** and **cultural**.

But there are other advantages, too: **cognitive** and **social**. Research carried out in India by Mohanti (1994) and reviewed by Tove Skutnabb-Kangas very positively in TESOL Quarterly (1998) has shown that bilingualism from an early age promotes cognitive development and has wide-ranging social advantages.

So here already we have five broad reasons other than the age factor to justify early second language learning.

Brumfit (1991a:vi-vii) outlines some of these reasons in more detail, but goes on to point out that there isn't much 'theoretical agreement over exactly what the advantages are'.

The European Commission claims another advantage:

The earlier children begin learning foreign languages, the better their progress tends to be. The chances of creating a Europe of multilingual citizens will be greatly improved if citizens have access to language learning at primary school or before.

There are mountains of evidence from recent research into the workings of the child's brain that early foreign language learning, if done properly, can contribute significantly to the cognitive development of the child. These findings come on top of observations of how young children are especially well able to learn a foreign language. As Susan Halliwell has pointed out, they bring along a whole set of specific aptitudes or skills.

THE ABILITY TO GRASP MEANING.

Before toddlers know the exact meaning of individual words, they are able to understand the sense of complete utterances. Intonation, mime, gesture, and the context between what was said and the environment of an utterance help them to decode what they have heard.

THE ABILITY TO MANAGE WITH LIMITED LINGUISTIC MEANS.

Children frequently "play" with language and try to increase their language abilities, which are often quite limited, by transferring what they have learnt into other contexts and by making up new words or expressions. Frequently, for example, words in the mother tongue are pronounced in "English" when a child can't think of the word in the target language. For the teacher, all these phenomena are evidence of the children's learning process.

THE ABILITY TO LEARN INDIRECTLY.

Very young learners do not learn vocabulary, structures or phrases as separate entities. They are intrigued by stories and try to understand them. They like the sounds of the new words that the teacher introduces and enjoy repeating them. They have fun with songs and chants and move enthusiastically when they sing along. They want to find the answers in a guessing game and eagerly use the structure that the teacher has introduced. They act out scenes from a sketch in class, and when they do, they imitate the voices of the animals or other characters they are playing so well that their pronunciation comes very close to the models that they had previously heard on the video. In all these cases, and in many others, children are unconsciously learning very important linguistic skills. Here, language is not an end in itself, but a natural means of reaching a communicative goal.

THE ABILITY TO LEARN THROUGH FANTASY AND IMAGINATION.

Children know a glove puppet is not alive. And yet, when the teacher uses such a puppet to communicate with the children, the line between make-believe and reality is blurred. Play becomes reality, and in such play situations children make the foreign language their own.

THE ABILITY TO INTERACT AND SPEAK.

Children have a natural need to communicate with other children and with us. This may not always be easy for us as teachers, especially when we want to get them to listen to us or to one another. But at the same time, it is an important skill, which forms the basis for their interaction in the target language.

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3) The Integrated Approach

3.1 What you should consider when teaching across the curriculum?

Early learning of a non mother-tongue language must be integrated into other teaching in the primary school. (Brewster, Ellis & Girard (1992))

Integrated Approach

Integrated foreign language learning means “embedding” the foreign language in other areas of the primary school curriculum. “Embedding” the foreign language can take a variety of forms: from the so-called “weak” version where the foreign language is merely used for everyday classroom language (registering, organising pair or group work, talking about daily activities, the weather and the date, etc.) to the “strong” version where the foreign language is integrated in subject areas such as mathematics, social studies or physical education whenever possible. The intensity and frequency of integrating the foreign language in the primary school curriculum is left to the teacher and strongly related to his/her language and methodological skills.

Obviously, for this approach the foreign language teacher needs to be the class teacher at the same time. Integrated language teaching is far more demanding for the teacher than teaching the foreign language in a more subject-like approach (traditional model): “embedding” the foreign language whenever appropriate implies not only a good command of the foreign language but also the application of new methodological techniques. The class teacher should be able to lead the children skilfully and naturally from their first language to the foreign language by using the foreign language in a flexible and spontaneous way.

Since the foreign language teacher and the classroom teacher is the same person you should keep the following psychological thoughts in mind:

1) Change of seating arrangement

2) Give the kids English names - Identity change

Give the kids English names for the period of the English sequence.

Reason: The new identity prevents from generalizing negative learning experiences in other subjects when acquiring the foreign language

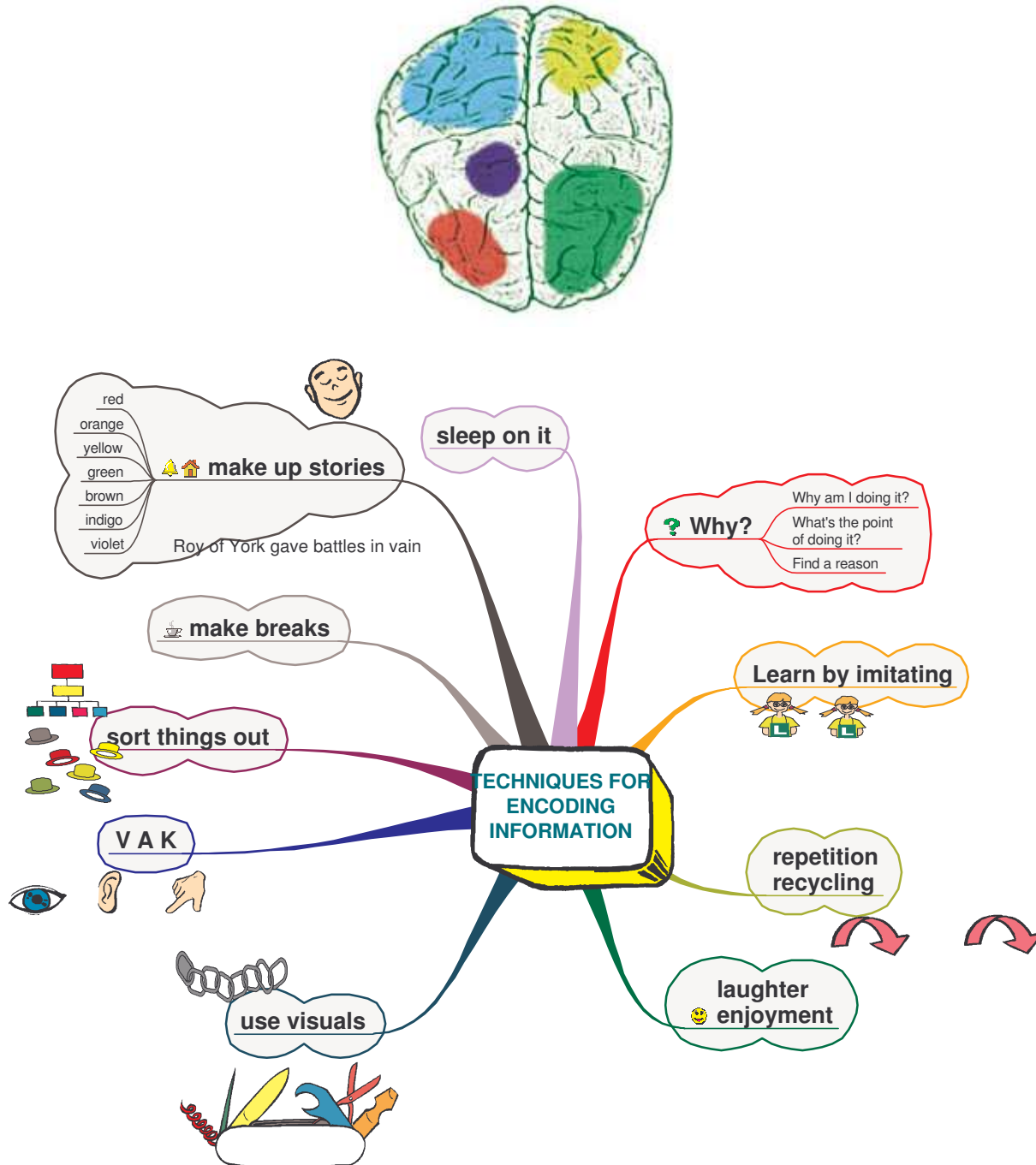
Make a list of common English first names. Write the names onto pieces of card. Attach a length of string to each card, so that the children can wear them round their necks.

3) Delimit the English sequences clearly from all the other subjects

Reason: Not all children at that age have completed their acquisition of their mother tongue. You can prevent any interferences with the mother tongue.

We recommend an English corner.

4) BRAIN-FRIENDLY LEARNING



The underlying foundation (greatly simplified) of this learning/teaching theory is that there are many factors which need to be integrated into the learning process

BRAIN MODELS

1) The right brain and the left brain (Sperry)

- The left hemisphere is concerned with logical and analytical skills
- The right hemisphere is the centre of visual, rhythm, "artistic" abilities

Looked at from above, the surface of the brain, the cortex is seen as two distinct, very wrinkled hemispheres joined down the middle. The constant interaction of the two hemispheres of the cerebral cortex mean that, for most of the time they are effectively one. Nevertheless brain imaging confirms that they do have specific strengths. The left favours logical processing, and the right seems to be more intuitive and holistic. Language is

typically a left hemisphere activity whereas art and music are typically right hemisphere. Bringing the two specialities together, as with most networking co-operation, seems to be beneficial, - that is the use of pictures and music will increase the overall amount of brain activity and assist language learning by creating more connections. These neural connections form what we call 'Memory'. The greater the number, and the greater variety of the connections, the better the chance of retention and recall.

2) The evolution is in our mind (McLean)

2.1 The reflex brain

Stimulated by activity, the "reflex brain" makes sure the brain has the oxygen it needs to function well.

We have all experienced classroom situations where concentration is poor and there is a lack of energy. The brain stem which is formed from the nerve cells running from the body via the spinal column, is the most ancient part of the brain in evolutionary terms and is sometimes called the 'Reflex' or 'Reptilian' brain. It regulates heart beat and blood pressure and so gets oxygen to where it's needed in the brain. Without movement it 'closes down', resulting in lethargy and loss of concentration. In a later article I will be writing about 'disguised stretch breaks' and 'brain gym' as easy ways of introducing movement into the classroom.

2.2 The limbic system

Links memory with emotion and is stimulated by "self investment" i.e. personal involvement

The limbic system is a number of closely connected brain elements nestling below the cortex. Because of its importance in processing emotion it is the key to all learning, and to all relationships. How we feel about something, or someone, at any given moment has a profound influence on our attitude. As a teacher you are constantly trying to make sense of the 'vibes' amongst the group and to create a positive learning environment. It is a fine skill. We influence the class by our own energy level and expectations as well as by our ways of correcting mistakes, classroom management, attitude to individuals. And of course, we are influenced emotionally by what we are receiving from the class. If the limbic system is bathed in one set of chemicals it is 'open', - that is it is making connections around the brain - and learning is taking place. If it is bathed in a different set of chemicals, because of fear, anxiety, anger, it is 'closed' - in 'fight or flee' mode and, as a result, we see aggressive or 'opting out' behaviour in class.

2.3 The new brain

The new brain is the area of the brain that creates new material

Neuro-scientists agree that the pre-frontal cortex, or 'new brain' is involved in the most sophisticated and integrated brain functions such as thinking and planning and conceptualising. In a language class this brain area is assessing the value of and making sense of new information in genuinely communicative ways. As teachers we will be thinking about what class challenges we provide which will engage and 'stretch' this capacity.

3. Different learning styles

The idea that language is best learned when presented and worked on through a combination of the ear (auditory), the eye (visual), and by movement (kinetic). In this style of learning/teaching, any given exercise stimulates many of the above areas in order to involve as much of the brain as possible in the learning experience, thereby producing more effective results.

It is not a part of the brain but a key element in whether or not the brain of an individual learner is receiving information - or not! The commonly identified learning styles are Visual - the need to see something either written or in picture form, or as a picture in the mind. Auditory - to be able to hear a satisfyingly clear signal - usually voice. Kinesthetic - the need to physically move in response to a task, which might mean acting, demonstrating, doing something with the learning material, or might just mean doodling, or wriggling, or walking around. It is very uncommon to come across a student (or teacher) who is solely a visual or auditory or kinaesthetic learner. Most of us are a mix of these (and the other senses). However a mismatch between a learning style and the way information is presented will create a barrier (see limbic system)



5. The role of stories in the process of language acquisition

In *Teaching English in the Primary Classroom*, Susan Halliwell says that we should exploit the children's natural abilities for learning rather than try to impose our own adult approach to learning. She identifies them as:

1. Children's ability to grasp meaning
2. Children's creative use of limited language resources
3. Children's capacity for indirect learning
4. Children's instinct for fun and play
5. The role of imagination

'Indirect learning' is the unconscious learning we achieve by playing, exploring and making discoveries. It is particularly associated with pre-school learning in children. It is contrasted with 'direct learning' which is the result of teaching.

All these five elements are combined in the use of stories.

Andrew Wright talks about children's 'hunger' for stories.

"We all need stories for our minds as we need food for our bodies.... Stories are particularly important in the lives of our children: stories help children to understand their world and share it with others. Children's hunger for stories is constant. Every time they enter the classroom they enter with a need for stories."

In *The Storytelling Handbook for Primary Teachers* the authors list the main reasons for exploiting stories:

We all need stories for our minds as much as we need food for our bodies: we watch television, go to the cinema and theatre, read books, and exchange stories with our friends.

Stories are particularly important in the lives of our children: stories help children to understand their world and to share it with others. The hunger for stories is constant. Every time the children enter your classroom they enter with the need for stories.

WHY STORIES?

Stories, which rely so much on words, offer a major and constant source of language experience for the language learner.

Stories are motivating, rich in language experience and inexpensive! Surely, stories should be a central part of the work of all primary teachers whether they are teaching the students' mother tongue or a foreign language.

Here is a list of the most important reasons why stories should play a central role in teaching a foreign language to children.

Motivation

Because children have a constant need for stories they will always be willing to listen (or to read when the time comes).

Meaning

The children want to find meaning in the story so they listen with a purpose. If they find meaning they are rewarded through their ability to understand the foreign language. If they do not understand they are motivated to try to improve their ability to understand. So often the content of activities in foreign language learning has little or no intrinsic interest or value for the child.

Listening and reading fluency

In conversations with native speakers the most important ability is to be able to understand a sustained flow of the foreign language in which there are words new to the listener. The ability to do this can only be built up by practice.

The learner must develop a positive attitude to not understanding everything and must build up the skills of searching for meaning, predicting, and 'guessing'. (They are expert at doing this in their first language!)

Language awareness

Stories help the students become aware of the general 'feel' and sound of the foreign language. Stories also introduce the learners to language items and sentence constructions without their necessarily having to use them productively. They can build up a reservoir of language in this way. When the time comes to move the language items into their productive control it is no great problem because the language is not new to them.

An obvious example of a language point introduced and made familiar through story telling before the students are expected to use it fluently themselves is the simple past tense form.

Stimulus for speaking and writing

The experience of the story encourages responses through speaking and writing. It is natural to express our likes and dislikes, to exchange ideas and associations related to stories we hear or read. In this way stories can be part of a set of related activities.

Communication

Listening and reading stories and responding to them through speaking, writing, drama, and art develops a sense of audience and of sharing and collaborating. Learning a language is useless if we are not skilful communicators. Story sharing builds up this crucial sense of awareness of others.

General curriculum

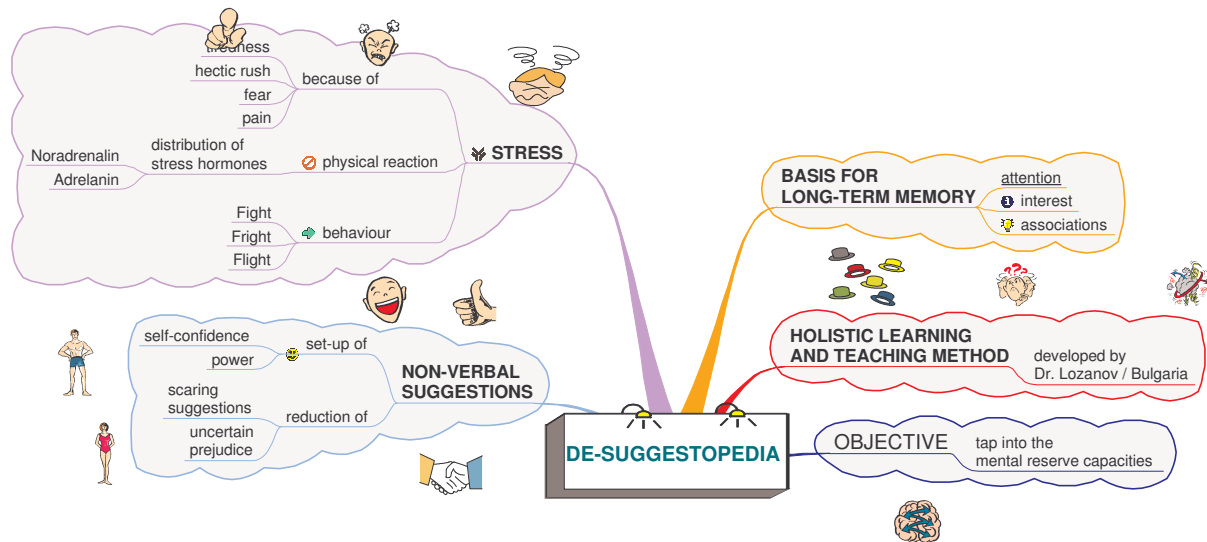
Most stories can be used to develop the students' powers of awareness, analysis, and of expression as well as relating to other aspects of the curriculum content like cultural and social studies, geography, history, mathematics, and science.

DANGER! STORY HEALTH WARNING!

Although stories can be used by language teachers to introduce and practise specific language features, there is a danger in this that the learners will be 'turned off' by stories and begin to see them as just a teacher's trick to teach the foreign language. For the learner, stories are mainly about enjoyment and interest. If the teacher uses stories merely as a teaching vehicle the learners will withdraw their willingness to offer the enormous potential of their need for stories.

6. DE-SUGGESTOPEDIA

*The growth of the human mind is still high adventure.
In many ways, the highest on earth.*
-Norman Cousins



6.1 The Method

- Suggestopedia, an educational system in which the materials and the teaching process are organized in harmony with the laws that govern brain function, including, especially, the role peripheral perceptions play in learning. This educational system is the result of the work of Dr. Georgi Lozanov. In this teaching approach we see that:
- The student is exposed to large volumes of information, yet does not feel fatigued or overwhelmed.
- The assimilation of this new material is easier, more creative, and less stressful. It is at a deeper level and of longer duration, when compared to conventional approaches.
- The student can start using the new material immediately.
- The student experiences creative memorization (as opposed to rote memorization), and the forgetting process is slower.
- There is a widening of interests on the part of the student, e.g. in art and music.
- The method is also characterized by:
 - A high level of participation.
 - A high degree of enjoyment and general emotional tone.
 - A marked increase in the student's confidence in his ability to learn anything.
 - Good levels of concentration.
 - A positive effect on self esteem because the student is able to successfully apply the learned material in creative and spontaneous

ways.

- A softening of aggressive tendencies, normally arising from stress; this helps the student in the process of social integration.
- Happy teachers; they get better results in their classrooms, so they are more fulfilled in their roles as teachers.

6.2 WHAT IS DE-SUGGESTOPEDIA?

It is an approach to education whose primary objective is to tap the extraordinary reserve capacities we all possess but rarely if ever use. This method utilises techniques from many sources of research into how best we can learn. The Bulgarian scientist, Dr. Georgi Lozanov, for example, has demonstrated that through a carefully “orchestrated” learning environment including most importantly a specially-trained teacher, the learning process can be accelerated by a factor of three to ten times enjoyably. Such results are possible through the proper use of suggestion. The **suggestive-desuggestive process** allows students to go beyond previously held beliefs and self-limiting concepts concerning the learning process and learn great quantities of material with ease and enjoyment.

Tapping
reserve
capacities

Suggestion

6.2.1 Sources, History, Initial Results

The artful use of suggestion as a means of facilitating the learning and communication process is, of course, and has always been, a part of nearly all effective teaching and persuasive communication. Not until the past twenty years, however, has the phenomenon of suggestion begun to be methodically researched and tested as to how it can and does affect learning. At the centre of these developments is the work of Lozanov. For more than 20 years he has been experimenting with accelerative approaches to learning, has founded the Institute of Suggestology in Sofia, Bulgaria and has authored the book: *Suggestology and the Outlines or Suggestopedia* (Gordon and Breach, New York, 1997).

Dr. Georgi
Lozanov

In his early research Lozanov investigated individual cases of extraordinary learning capacities etc., and theorised that such capacities were learnable and teachable. He experimented with a wide range of techniques drawn from both traditional and esoteric sources, including hypnosis and yoga, and was able to accelerate the learning process quite dramatically.

Lozanov’s
research

Well aware that methods directly involving yoga and hypnosis were not generally applicable or acceptable, he continued seeking universally acceptable means to tap the vast mental reserve capacities of the human mind we all have but which are rarely used. Suggestion proved to be the key.

Suggestion -
the key

Applications in the public schools have been impressive: eighteen schools in Bulgaria offered all subjects under Lozano’s supervision, and the results have been that children have learned the same amount of material as in control groups in less than half the time and with more enjoyment and less stress.

Dr. Georgi Lozanov of the Institute of Suggestology in Sofia, Bulgaria is, together with his colleagues, the originator of these techniques.

SUGGESTOLOGY is the study of the power of suggestion which can be verbal, non-verbal, conscious or unconscious.

SUGGESTOPEDIA is the study of these suggestive factors in a learning situation.

We are constantly, surrounded by suggestive influences. If we study them and become aware of them, then we are in a better position to “choose” which ones we want to influence us. Lozanov maintains that a suggestopedic teacher spends most of the time de-suggesting the students, i.e., freeing them from any nonfacilitating influences from their past. From birth on we are influenced by parents, friends, teachers, society, the media, the weather, the food we eat and the political environment in which we live.

Mental reserve capacities

6.2.2 Psychological “Set-Up”

Our response to every stimuli is very complex, involving many unconscious processes which have become automatic responses. These are largely patterned responses - in many ways peculiar to us as individuals. The responses tend to be automatic and typical for them - the result of an inner, unconscious disposition or set-up, which is the product of automatized, conditioned responses. Our inner set-up operates when we encounter any situation - entering a school, being confronted with an opportunity - consulting a physician- as examples. Our inner, unconscious set-up is extremely basic and important to our behaviour and to our survival - and it can be extremely limiting, for it can imprison us in unconscious, consistently patterned responses which prevent us from experiencing and exploring other alternatives - which might be far more desirable and beneficial to us. Prevailing social norms, instilled in us by all our social institutions, including family and schools, are the main carriers and enforcers of the beliefs and responses which contribute to the formation of our inner set-up. Genetic and other factors contribute as well. The power of the influence of our unconscious set-up is very great, and any significant lasting change or overcoming of previous limits will necessarily involve a change in our unconscious patterns of response. This is why logical argumentation at the conscious level is often so useless - even when there is conscious agreement. This is why so much of the classroom experience remains an intellectual exercise: words, rhetorical mastery, even brilliance are of little lasting effect if they only engage the conscious levels of the student’s mind. **Only when a teacher is able to penetrate the set-up, engage it in a way which allows it to be accepting and open to extensions and transformation does the real potential of a student/patient begin to open up.**

Limiting force of set-up

suggestive transformation

Positive transformation

6.2.3 Suggestion

Suggestion is the key which Lozanov found to penetrate through the “set-up” and stimulate the mental reserve capacities. Even more, through suggestion we can facilitate the creation of new, richer patterns of conscious/unconscious responses or new (set-ups): **“Suggestion is the direct road to the set-up. It**

creates and utilises such types of set-ups which would free and activate the reserve capacities of the human being.” (Lozanov: The Key Principles of Suggestopedia”, Journal of SALT, 1976, p.15)

There are two basic kinds of suggestion: direct and indirect. Direct suggestions are directed to conscious processes, i.e., what one says that can and will occur in the learning experience, suggestions which can be made in printed announcements, orally by the teacher, and/or by text materials. Direct suggestion is used sparingly, for it is most vulnerable to resistance from the set-up.

Direct
suggestion

Indirect suggestion is largely unconsciously perceived and is much greater in scope than direct suggestion. It is always present in any communication and involves many levels and degrees of subtlety. Lozanov speaks of it as the second plane of communication and considers it to encompass all those communication factors outside our conscious awareness, such as voice tone, facial expression, body posture and movement, speech tempo, rhythms, accent, etc. Other important indirect suggestive effects result from room arrangement, decor, lighting, noise level, institutional setting - for all these factors are communicative stimuli which result in what Lozanov terms non-specific mental reactivity on the paraconscious level (at the level of the set-up). And they, like the teacher and materials can reinforce the set-up, preserve the status quo, or can serve in the desuggestive-suggestive process. In other words, everything in the communication/learning environment is a stimulus at some level, being processed at some level of mental activity. The more we can do to orchestrate purposefully the unconscious as well as the conscious factors in this environment, the greater the chance to break through or “de-suggest” the conditioned, automatic patterns of our inner set-up and open the access to the great potential of our mental reserves.

Indirect
suggestion

Second plane
of communi-
cation

levels of
mental
activity

purposeful
orchestration
of suggestive
factors

6.2.4. Anti-Suggestive Barriers

The artful use of suggestion to stimulate the mental reserve capacities and accelerate the learning process necessitates the skilful handling of the antisuggestive barriers we all necessarily have.

“The first task of suggestology and suggestopedia is to remove people’s prior conditioning to de-suggest, to find the way to escape the social norm and open the way to development of the personality. This is perhaps the greatest problem suggestology is confronted with, since the person must be ‘convinced’ that his potential capacity is far above what he thinks it is. The individual protects himself with psychological barriers, according to Dr. Lozanov, just as the organism protects itself from physiological barriers:

emotional –
affective
barrier

* an **anti-suggestive emotional barrier** which rejects anything likely to produce a feeling of lack of confidence or insecurity: “This anti-suggestive barrier proceeds from the set-up in every man.”

logical-critical
barrier

* an **anti-suggestive barrier of man’s rational faculty** which through reasoning rejects suggestions it judges unacceptable: ‘This barrier is the conscious critical thinking’. But, very often this barrier is the camouflage of the emotional barrier.

ethical barrier

* an **ethical barrier**, which rejects everything not in harmony with the ethical sense of the personality.

“These anti-suggestive barriers are a filter between the environmental stimuli and the unconscious mental activity. They are inter-related and mutually reinforcing, and a positive suggestive effect can only be accomplished if these barriers are kept in mind. The overcoming of barriers means compliance with them. Otherwise suggestion would be doomed to failure. ”It is clear that the **suggestive process is always a combination of suggestion and de-suggestion** and is always at an unconscious or slightly conscious level.”

Three barriers to Suggestion

1) Logical-critical

"That's not possible"

"Others may be able to do that, but not me."

2) Affective-emotional

"I won't do it. It just makes me feel uneasy. I can't explain it really.

I'd rather not, thank you."

3) Ethical

"I really think that's slightly dishonest."

"I don't think it's fair."

6.2.5 Means of Suggestion

Suggestive authority

A positively suggestive authority is one of the most effective means which we as teachers / doctors can use, if we use it sensitively, wisely and purposefully. The authority we are speaking of here has nothing to do with authoritarianism, traditional “strictness” or “toughness”. Lozanov defines it as “the non-directive prestige which by indirect ways creates an atmosphere of confidence and intuitive desire to follow the set example”. Authority, in its positive, suggestive sense, is communicated through our “global” presence, through all our non-verbal as well as verbal signals. Students can sense when we embody the values and attitudes we “talk about”. And when there is congruency in the many levels of our communication, we become believable, compelling, worthy of respect.

Lozanov notes the parallel between the decisive suggestive power of the first session between physician or therapist and patient, and the first class session. Both patient and student come to their respective experiences with conditioned attitudes and beliefs - and with hopes and expectations. In that first encounter expectation and suggestibility are at their greatest. In the first session the climate is most favourable for suggesting that something new, something secretly or openly hoped for, something extraordinary is possible and probable. When we communicate in a simultaneous, congruent manner that we are confident with the material we are teaching, that we love what we are doing, that we respect the students who have come to learn, that we know they can learn it, and that we take delight in teaching - when we can communicate these things with our voices, facial expressions, posture, movement and words, we

authority:
non-directive
prestige

first meeting is
most important

Believe in your
students /
clients

will achieve an invaluable rapport with our students, will arouse expectancy and motivation, and will establish a suggestive atmosphere within which the student's mental reserve capacities can be tapped. (Self-fulfilling prophecy)

Infantilisation

In suggestopedia we do not talk about Infantilisation in the clinical sense of the word, nor of infantility. Infantilisation in the process of education is a normal phenomenon connected with authority (prestige). Infantilisation in suggestopedia must be understood roughly as memories of the pure and naive state of a child to whom someone is reading, or who is reading on his own. He is absorbing the wonderful world of the fairytales. This world brings him a vast amount of information and the child absorbs it easily and permanently.

pure and naïve
state of mind
of children

Intonation

Intonation is strongly connected with the rest of the suggestive elements. The intonation in music and speech is one of the basic expressive means, with formidable form-creating influence and potential in many psycho-physiological directions. "Learning is state of mind dependent". When varying your voice you "reach" different "states of mind".

Use your
voice
like an
instrument

Concert pseudo-passivity (concentrative psychorelaxation)"

An important moment in suggestopedia. The artistic organisation of the suggestopedic educational process creates conditions for concert pseudopassivity in the student. In this state the reserve capabilities of the personality are shown most fully. The concert pseudopassivity (concentrative psychorelaxation) overcomes the antisuggestive barriers, creating a condition of trust and infantilization in the student, who in a naturally calm state accompanied by a state of meditation without special autogenic training can absorb and work over a huge quantity of information. In this state both brain hemispheres are activated". (Creating Wholeness through Art; by Evelina Gateva p.28)

concert
reading

Successful classroom atmosphere

For a successful classroom atmosphere, Lozanov maintains these three elements should be present:

elements for
an ideal
atmosphere:

PSYCHOLOGICAL

A nurturing, supportive atmosphere in which the student feels free to try out the new information, be inventive with it, make mistakes without being put down, and, in general, enjoy the learning experience.

supportive

EDUCATIONAL

The material should be presented in a structured fashion, combining the Big Picture, Analysis and Synthesis. Every moment should be a didactic experience even when the learning process is not that apparent.

global and
structured
input

ARTISTIC

The classroom should not be cluttered with too many posters and unnecessary objects, otherwise we don't see them. We go into overwhelm. Good quality pictures should be displayed and changed every few days. Music can be played

poster,
music,
plants

as the students enter the room, and during the breaks. Plants and flowers add to a pleasant atmosphere. If the chairs are arranged in a U-shape, there is a better communication possible between the teacher and students and among the students themselves.

Music

Music as a suggestive, relaxing medium. Lozanov researched a wide variety of means for presenting material to be learned which would facilitate the mentally relaxed, receptive state of mind he had found to be optimal for learning.

Yoga exercises, breathing techniques, special speech intonations were all tried with varying degrees of success. None of them, however, was found acceptable by nearly all cultural norms and belief systems.

Music proved to be the ideal medium, both for the purpose of creating a mentally relaxed state and for providing a vehicle for carrying the material to be learned into the open, receptive mind.

Music can become a powerful facilitator of holistic full-brain learning. After conducting numerous controlled experiments using a wide variety of music, Lozanov concluded that music of the Classical and Early Romantic periods was most effective for the first presentation of material to be learned. The music of Hayden, Mozart and Beethoven is dramatic, emotionally engaging, and ordered, harmoniously structured. It stimulates, invites alertness, and its harmony and order evoke ease and relaxation. For the second concert presentation of material Lozanov found that Baroque music was especially suited. The music of Bach, Händel, Vivaldi, Telemann, Corelli (among others) has a less personal, more rigorously structured quality, providing a background of order and regularity which supports very well the more straight-forward presentation of material during the second concert.

Music:

medium for relaxed state of mind

medium for receptive mind

Means of Suggestion

1. A carefully orchestrated physical environment: an uncrowded room, aesthetically pleasing, well lighted, plants, fresh air, ...
2. The teacher / doctor thoroughly trained in the art of suggestive communication -
 - a) with a well-developed sense of authority. (more details below)
 - b) the ability to evoke a receptive, playful-, child-like state in the students / patients
 - c) a mastery or double-plane behaviour, especially the ability to use appropriately and purposefully suggestive language, voice intonation, facial and body expression
3. Music:
4. Carefully integrated suggestive written materials.
5. Visual stimuli: posters, pictures, charts, illustrations.
The arts offer us the greatest examples of unified suggestive expression, and we should make every effort to integrate them into the learning environment.

The most crucial suggestive means:

room

authority

Infantilisation

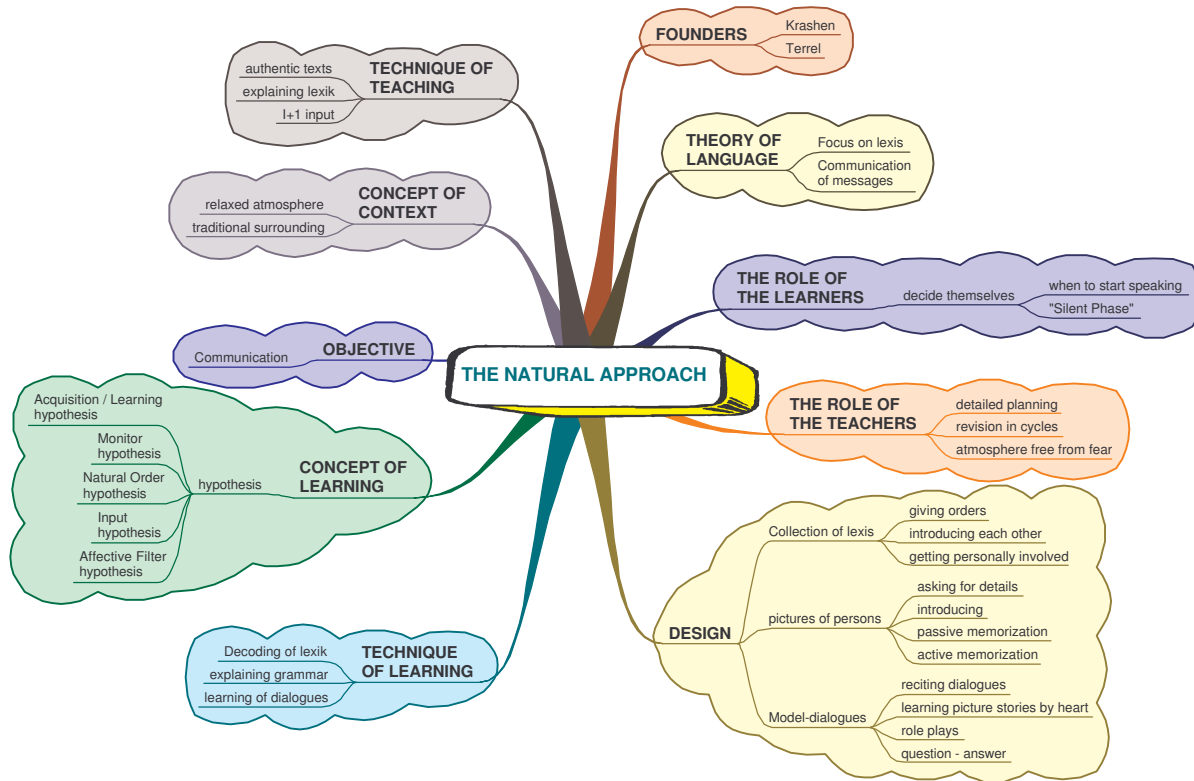
body-language and voice

music

handouts

illustrations

7. THE NATURAL APPROACH



7.1 Background

In 1977, Tracy Terrell, a teacher of Spanish in California, outlined "a proposal for a 'new' philosophy of language teaching which [he] called the Natural Approach" (Terrell 1977; 1982: 121). This was an attempt to develop a language teaching proposal that incorporated the "naturalistic" principles researchers had identified in studies of second language acquisition. The Natural Approach grew out of Terrell's experiences teaching Spanish classes. Since that time Terrell and others have experimented with implementing the Natural Approach in elementary- to advance d-level classes and with several other languages. At the same time he has joined forces with Stephen Krashen, an applied linguist at the University of Southern California, in elaborating a theoretical rationale for the Natural Approach, drawing on Krashen's influential theory of second language acquisition. Krashen and Terrell's combined statement of the principles and practices of the Natural Approach appeared in their book, *The Natural Approach*, published in 1983. The Natural Approach has attracted a wider interest than some of the other innovative language teaching proposals discussed in this book, largely because of its support by Krashen. Krashen and Terrell's book contains theoretical sections prepared by Krashen that outline his views on second language acquisition (Krashen 1981; 1982), and sections on implementation and classroom procedures, prepared largely by Terrell. Krashen and Terrell have identified the Natural Approach with what they call "traditional" approaches to language teaching. Traditional approaches are defined as "based on the use of language in communicative situations without recourse to the native language" - and, perhaps, needless to say, without reference to grammatical analysis, grammatical drilling, or to a particular theory of grammar. Krashen and Terrell note that such "approaches have been called natural, psychological, phonetic, new, reform, direct, analytic, imitative and so forth" (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 9). The fact that the authors of the Natural Approach relate their

approach to the Natural Method has led some to assume that *Natural Approach* and *Natural Method* are synonymous terms. Although the tradition is a common one, there are important differences between the Natural Approach and the older Natural Method, which it will be useful to consider at the outset.

The Natural Method is another term for what by the turn of the century had become known as the Direct Method

The term *natural*, used in reference to the Direct Method, merely emphasized that the principles underlying the method were believed to conform to the principles of naturalistic language learning in young children. Similarly, the Natural Approach, as defined by Krashen and Terrell, is believed to conform to the naturalistic principles found in successful second language acquisition. Unlike the Direct Method, however, it places less emphasis on teacher monologues, direct repetition, and formal questions and answers, and less focus on accurate production of target language sentences. In the Natural Approach there is an emphasis on exposure, or *input*, rather than practice; optimizing emotional preparedness for learning; a prolonged period of attention to what the language learners hear before they try to produce language; and a willingness to use written and other materials as a source of comprehensible input. The emphasis on the central role of comprehension in the Natural Approach links it to other comprehension-based approaches in language teaching.

7.2 Approach

Theory of language

Krashen and Terrell see communication as the primary function of language, and since their approach focuses on teaching communicative abilities, they refer to the Natural Approach as an example of a communicative approach. The Natural Approach "is similar to other communicative approaches being developed today" (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 17). They reject earlier methods of language teaching, such as the Audiolingual Method, which viewed grammar as the central component of language. According to Krashen and Terrell, the major problem with these methods was that they were built not around "actual theories of language acquisition, but theories of something else; for example, the structure of language" (1983: 1). Unlike proponents of Communicative Language Teaching, however, Krashen and Terrell give little attention to a theory of language. Indeed, a recent critic of Krashen suggests he has no theory of language at all (Gregg 1984). What Krashen and Terrell do describe about the nature of language emphasizes the primacy of meaning. The importance of the vocabulary is stressed, for example, suggesting the view that a language is essentially its lexicon and only inconsequently the grammar that determines how the lexicon is exploited to produce messages.

Language is viewed as a vehicle for communicating meanings and messages. Hence Krashen and Terrell state that "**acquisition can take place only when people understand messages in the target language** (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 19). Yet despite their avowed communicative approach to language, they view language learning, as do audiolingualists, as mastery of structures by stages. "The input hypothesis states that in order for acquirers to progress to the next stage in the acquisition of the target language, they need to understand input language that includes a structure that is part of the next stage" (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 32). Krashen refers to this with the formula "I + 1" (i.e., input that contains structures slightly above the learner's present level).

Theory of learning

Krashen and Terrell make continuing reference to the theoretical and research base claimed to underlie the Natural Approach and to the fact that the method is unique in having such a base. "It is based on an empirically grounded theory of second language acquisition, which has been supported by a large number of scientific studies in a wide variety of language acquisition and learning contexts" (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 1).

It is necessary to present in outline form the principal tenets of the theory, since it is on these that the design and procedures in the Natural Approach are based.

THE ACQUISITION/LEARNING HYPOTHESIS

The Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis claims that there are two distinctive ways of developing competence in a second or foreign language. *Acquisition* is the "natural" way, paralleling first language development in children. Acquisition refers to an unconscious process that involves the naturalistic development of language proficiency through understanding language and through using language for meaningful communication. *Learning*, by contrast, refers to a process in which conscious rules about a language are developed. It results in explicit knowledge about the forms of a language and the ability to verbalize this knowledge. Formal teaching is necessary for "learning" to occur, and correction of errors helps with the development of learned rules. Learning, according to the theory, cannot lead to acquisition.

THE MONITOR HYPOTHESIS

The acquired linguistic system is said to initiate utterances when we communicate in a second or foreign language. Conscious learning can function only as a monitor or editor that checks and repairs the output of the acquired system. The Monitor Hypothesis claims that we may call upon learned knowledge to correct ourselves when we communicate, but that conscious learning (i.e., the *learned* system) has *only* this function. Three conditions limit the successful use of the monitor:

1. *Time*. There must be sufficient time for a learner to choose and apply a learned rule.
2. *Focus on form*. The language user must be focused on correctness or on the form of the output.
3. *Knowledge of rules*. The performer must know the rules. The monitor does best with rules that are simple in two ways. They must be simple to describe and they must not require complex movements and rearrangements.

THE NATURAL ORDER HYPOTHESIS

According to the Natural Order Hypothesis, the acquisition of grammatical structures proceeds in a predictable order. Research is said to have shown that certain grammatical structures or morphemes are acquired before others in first language acquisition of English, and a similar natural order is found in second language acquisition. Errors are signs of naturalistic developmental processes, and during acquisition (but not during learning), similar developmental errors occur in learners no matter what their mother tongue is.

THE INPUT HYPOTHESIS

The Input Hypothesis claims to explain the relationship between what the learner is exposed to of a language (the input) and language acquisition. It involves four main issues.

First, the hypothesis relates to acquisition, and not to learning.

Second, people acquire language best by understanding input that is slightly beyond their current level of competence:

An acquirer can "move" from a stage I (where I is the acquirer's level of competence) to a stage I + 1 (where I + 1 is the stage immediately following I along some natural order) by understanding language containing I + 1. (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 32)

Clues based on the situation and the context, extra linguistic information, and knowledge of the world make comprehension possible.

Third, the ability to speak fluently cannot be taught directly; rather, it "emerges" independently in time, after the acquirer has built up linguistic competence by understanding input.

Fourth, if there is a sufficient quantity of comprehensible input, I + 1 will usually be provided automatically. Comprehensible input refers to utterances that the learner understands based on the context in which they are used as well as the language in which they are phrased. When a speaker uses language so that the acquirer understands the message, the speaker "casts a net" of structure around the acquirer's current level of competence, and this will include many instances of I + 1. Thus, input need not be finely tuned to a learner's current level of linguistic competence, and in fact cannot be so finely tuned in a language class, where learners will be at many different levels of competence.

Just as child acquirers of a first language are provided with samples of "caretaker speech," rough-tuned to their present level of understanding, so adult acquirers of a second language are provided with simple codes that facilitate second language comprehension. One such code is "foreigner talk," which refers to the speech native speakers use to simplify communication with foreigners. Foreigner talk is characterized by a slower rate of speech, repetition, restating, use of Yes/No instead of Who- questions, and other changes that make messages more comprehensible to persons of limited language proficiency.

THE AFFECTIVE FILTER HYPOTHESIS

Krashen sees the learner's emotional state or attitudes as an adjustable filter that freely passes, impedes, or blocks input necessary to acquisition. A low affective filter is desirable, since it impedes or blocks less of this necessary input. The hypothesis is built on research in second language acquisition, which has identified three kinds of affective or attitudinal variables related to second language acquisition.

1. *Motivation*. Learners with high motivation generally do better.

2. *Self-confidence*. Learners with self-confidence and a good self-image tend to be more successful.

3. *Anxiety*. Low personal anxiety and low classroom anxiety are more conducive to second language acquisition.

The Affective Filter Hypothesis states that acquirers with a low affective filter seek and receive more input, interact with confidence, and are more receptive to the input they receive. Anxious acquirers have a high affective filter, which prevents acquisition from taking place. It

is believed that the affective filter (e.g., fear or embarrassment) rises in early adolescence, and this may account for children's apparent superiority to older acquirers of a second language.

These five hypotheses have obvious **implications for language teaching**.

In sum, these are:

1. As much comprehensible input as possible must be presented.
2. Whatever helps comprehension is important. Visual aids are useful, as is exposure to a wide range of vocabulary rather than study of syntactic structure.
3. The focus in the classroom should be on listening and reading; speaking should be allowed to "emerge."
4. In order to lower the affective filter, student work should center on meaningful communication rather than on form; input should be interesting and so contribute to a relaxed classroom atmosphere.

Design

Objectives

The Natural Approach "is for beginners and is designed to help them become intermediates." It has the expectation that students will be able to function adequately in the target situation. They will understand the speaker of the target language (perhaps with requests for clarification), and will be able to convey (in a non-insulting manner) their requests and ideas. They need not know every word in a particular semantic domain, nor is it necessary that the syntax and vocabulary be flawless—but their production does need to be understood. They should be able to make the meaning clear but not necessarily be accurate in all details of grammar. (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 71)

Types of learning and teaching activities

From the beginning of a class taught according to the Natural Approach, emphasis is on presenting comprehensible input in the target language. Teacher talk focuses on objects in the classroom and on the content of pictures, as with the Direct Method. To minimize stress, learners are not required to say anything until they feel ready, but they are expected to respond to teacher commands and questions in other ways.

When learners are ready to begin talking in the new language, the teacher provides comprehensible language and simple response opportunities. The teacher talks slowly and distinctly, asking questions and eliciting one-word answers. There is a gradual progression from Yes/ No questions, through either-or questions, to questions that students can answer using words they have heard used by the teacher. Students are not expected to use a word actively until they have heard it many times. Charts, pictures, advertisements, and other realia serve as the focal point for questions, and when the students' competence permits, talk moves to class members. "Acquisition activities" - those that focus on meaningful communication rather than language form - are emphasized. Pair or group work may be employed, followed by whole-class discussion led by the teacher.

Techniques recommended by Krashen and Terrell are often borrowed from other methods and adapted to meet the requirements of Natural Approach theory. These include command-based activities from Total Physical Response; Direct Method activities in which mime, gesture, and context are used to elicit questions and answers; and even situation-based practice of structures and patterns. Group-work activities are often identical to those used in Communicative Language Teaching, where sharing information in order to complete a task is emphasized. There is nothing novel about the procedures and techniques advocated for use with the Natural Approach. A casual observer might not be aware of the philosophy underlying the classroom techniques he or she observes. What characterizes the Natural Approach is the use of familiar techniques within the framework of a method that focuses on

providing comprehensible input and a classroom environment that cues comprehension of input, minimizes learner anxiety, and maximizes learner self-confidence.

Learner roles

There is a basic assumption in the Natural Approach that learners should not try to learn a language in the usual sense. The extent to which they can lose themselves in activities involving meaningful communication will determine the amount and kind of acquisition they will experience and the fluency they will ultimately demonstrate. The language acquirer is seen as a processor of comprehensible input. The acquirer is challenged by input that is slightly beyond his or her current level of competence and is able to assign meaning to this input through active use of context and extralinguistic information.

Learners' roles are seen to change according to their stage of linguistic development. Central to these changing roles are learner decisions on when to speak, what to speak about, and what linguistic expressions to use in speaking.

In the *pre-production stage* students "participate in the language activity without having to respond in the target language" (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 76). For example, students can act out physical commands, identify student colleagues from teacher description, point to pictures, and so forth.

In the *early-production stage*, students respond to either-or questions, use single words and short phrases, fill in charts, and use fixed conversational patterns (e.g., How are you? What's your name?).

In the *speech-emergent phase*, students involve themselves in role play and games, contribute personal information and opinions, and participate in group problem solving.

Learners have four kinds of responsibilities in the Natural Approach classroom:

1. Provide information about their specific goals so that acquisition activities can focus on the topics and situations most relevant to their needs.
2. Take an active role in ensuring comprehensible input. They should learn and use conversational management techniques to regulate input.
3. Decide when to start producing speech and when to upgrade it.
4. Where learning exercises (i.e., grammar study) are to be a part of the program, decide with the teacher the relative amount of time to be devoted to them and perhaps even complete and correct them independently.

Learners are expected to participate in communication activities with other learners. Although communication activities are seen to provide naturalistic practice and to create a sense of camaraderie, which lowers the affective filter, they may fail to provide learners with well-formed and comprehensible input at the I + 1 level. Krashen and Terrell warn of these shortcomings but do not suggest means for their amelioration.

Teacher roles

The Natural Approach teacher has three central roles.

First, the teacher is the primary **source of comprehensible input** in the target language. "Class time is devoted primarily to providing input for acquisition". In this role the teacher is required to generate a constant flow of language input while providing a multiplicity of nonlinguistic clues to assist students in interpreting the input. The Natural Approach demands a much more center-stage role for the teacher than do many contemporary communicative methods.

Second, the Natural Approach teacher **creates a classroom atmosphere that is interesting, friendly, and in which there is a low affective filter for learning**. This is achieved in part through such Natural Approach techniques as not demanding speech from the students before

they are ready for it, not correcting student errors, and providing subject matter of high interest to students.

Finally, the teacher **must choose and orchestrate a rich mix of classroom activities**, involving a variety of group sizes, content, and contexts. The teacher is seen as responsible for collecting materials and designing their use. These materials, according to Krashen and Terrell, are based not just on teacher perceptions but on elicited student needs and interests. As with other non-orthodox teaching systems, the Natural Approach teacher has a particular responsibility to communicate clearly and compellingly to students the assumptions, organization, and expectations of the method, since in many cases these will violate student views of what language learning and teaching are supposed to be.

The role of instructional materials

The primary goal of materials in the Natural Approach is to make classroom activities as meaningful as possible by supplying "the extra-linguistic context that helps the acquirer to understand and thereby to acquire" (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 55), by relating classroom activities to the real world, and by fostering real communication among the learners. Materials come from the world of realia rather than from textbooks. The primary aim of materials is to promote comprehension and communication. Pictures and other visual aids are essential, because they supply the content for communication. They facilitate the acquisition of a large vocabulary within the classroom. Other recommended materials include schedules, brochures, advertisements, maps, and books at levels appropriate to the students, if a reading component is included in the course. Games, in general, are seen as useful classroom materials, since "games by their very nature, focus the student on what it is they are doing and use the language as a tool for reaching the goal rather than as a goal in itself" (Terrell 1982: 121). The selection, reproduction, and collection of materials places a considerable burden on the Natural Approach teacher. Since Krashen and Terrell suggest a syllabus of topics and situations, it is likely that at some point collections of materials to supplement teacher presentations will be published, built around the "syllabus" of topics and situations recommended by the Natural Approach.

Procedure

We have seen that the Natural Approach adopts techniques and activities freely from various method sources and can be regarded as innovative only with respect to the purposes for which they are recommended and the ways they are used. Krashen and Terrell (1983) provide suggestions for the use of a wide range of activities, all of which are familiar components of Situational Language Teaching, Communicative Language Teaching, and other methods.. To illustrate procedural aspects of the Natural Approach, we will cite examples of how such activities are to be used in the Natural Approach classroom to provide comprehensible input, without requiring production of responses or minimal responses in the target language.

1. Start with TPR [Total Physical Response] commands. At first the commands are quite simple: "Stand up. Turn around. Raise your right hand."
2. Use TPR to teach names of body parts and to introduce numbers and sequence. "Lay your right hand on your head, put both hands on your shoulder, first touch your nose, then stand up and turn to the right three times" and so forth.
3. Introduce classroom terms and props into commands. "Pick up a pencil and put it under the book, touch a wall, go to the door and knock three times." Any item which can be brought to the class can be incorporated. "Pick up the record and place it in the tray. Take the green blanket to Larry. Pick up the soap and take it to the woman wearing the green blouse."
4. Use names of physical characteristics and clothing to identify members of the class by name. The instructor uses context and the items themselves to make the meanings of the key words clear: hair, long, short, etc. Then a student is described. "What is your name?"

(selecting a student). "Class. Look at Barbara. She has long brown hair. Her hair is long and brown. Her hair is not short. It is long." (Using mime, pointing and context to ensure comprehension). "What's the name of the student with long brown hair?" (Barbara). Questions such as "What is the name of the woman with the short blond hair?" or "What is the name of the student sitting next to the man with short brown hair and glasses?" are very simple to understand by attending to key words, gestures and context. And they require the students only to remember and produce the name of a fellow student. The same can be done with articles of clothing and colors. "Who is wearing a yellow shirt? Who is wearing a brown dress?"

5. Use visuals, typically magazine pictures, to introduce new vocabulary and to continue with activities requiring only student names as response. The instructor introduces the pictures to the entire class one at a time focusing usually on one single item or activity in the picture. He may introduce one to five new words while talking about the picture. He then passes the picture to a particular student in the class. The students' task is to remember the name of the student with a particular picture. For example, "Tom has the picture of the sailboat. Joan has the picture of the family watching television" and so forth. The instructor will ask questions like "Who has the picture with the sailboat? Does Susan or Tom have the picture of the people on the beach?" Again the students need only produce a name in response.

6. Combine use of pictures with TPR. "Jim, find the picture of the little girl with her dog and give it to the woman with the pink blouse."

7. Combine observations about the pictures with commands and conditionals. "If there is a woman in your picture, stand up. If there is something blue in your picture, touch your right shoulder."

8. Using several pictures, ask students to point to the picture being described. Picture 1. "There are several people in this picture. One appears to be a father, the other a daughter. What are they doing? Cooking. They are cooking a hamburger." Picture 2. "There are two men in this picture. They are young. They are boxing." Picture 3 ...

(Krashen and Terrell 1983: 75-7)

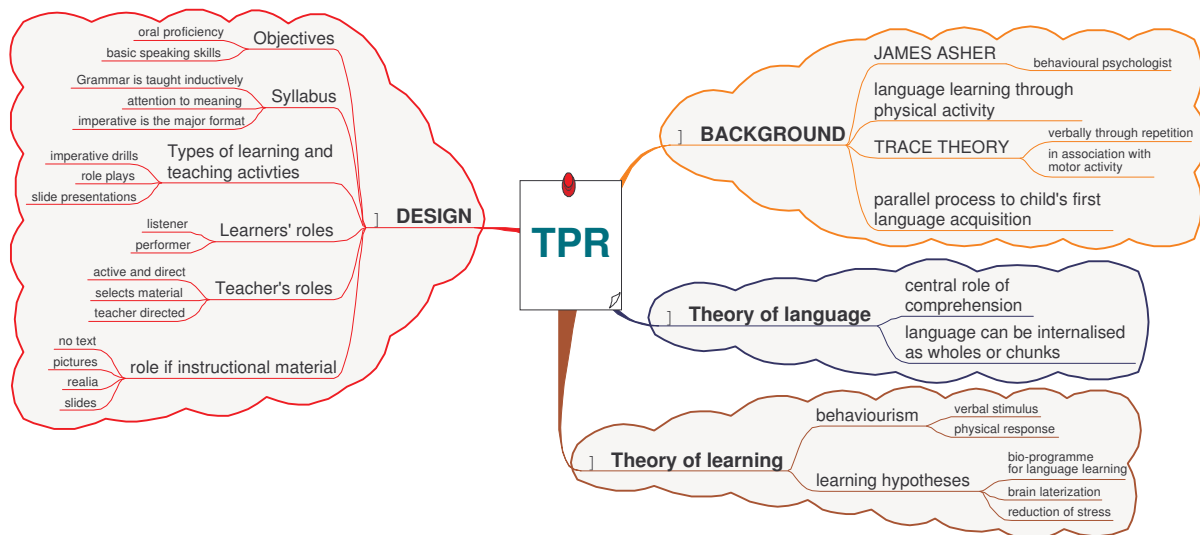
In all these activities, the instructor maintains a constant flow of "comprehensible input," using key vocabulary items, appropriate gestures, context, repetition, and paraphrase to ensure the comprehensibility of the input.

Conclusion

The Natural Approach belongs to a tradition of language teaching methods based on observation and interpretation of how learners acquire both first and second languages in non-formal settings. Such methods reject the formal (grammatical) organization of language as a prerequisite to teaching. In the Natural Approach, a focus on comprehension and meaningful communication as well as the provision of the right kinds of comprehensible input provide the necessary and sufficient conditions for successful classroom second and foreign language acquisition. This has led to a new rationale for the integration and adaptation of techniques drawn from a wide variety of existing sources. Like Communicative Language Teaching, the Natural Approach is hence evolutionary rather than revolutionary in its procedures. Its greatest claim to originality lies not in the techniques it employs but in their use in a method that emphasizes and meaningful practice activities, rather than production of grammatically perfect utterances and sentences.

8. TPR – Total Physical Response

*Give the children the chance to show understanding before they actually speak
The movement of the body seems to be a powerful mediator for
the understanding, organization and storage of macro-details of linguistic input.*



8.1 Background

Total Physical Response (TPR) is a language teaching method built around the coordination of speech and action; it attempts to teach language through physical (motor) activity. Developed by James Asher, a professor of psychology at San Jose State University, California, it draws on several traditions, including developmental psychology and humanistic pedagogy, as well as on language teaching procedures proposed by Harold and Dorothy Palmer in 1925. Let us briefly consider these precedents to Total Physical Response. Total Physical Response is linked to the "**trace theory**" of memory in psychology (e.g., Katona 1940), which holds that the more often or the more intensively a memory connection is traced, the stronger the memory association will be and the more likely it will be recalled. Retracing can be done verbally (e.g., by rote repetition) and/or in association with motor activity. Combined *tracing* activities, such as verbal rehearsal accompanied by motor activity, hence increase the probability of successful recall.

In a developmental sense, **Asher sees successful second language learning as a parallel process to child first language acquisition.** He claims that speech directed to young children consists primarily of commands, which children respond to physically before they begin to produce verbal responses. Asher feels adults should recapitulate the processes by which children acquire their mother tongue.

Asher shares with the school of humanistic psychology a concern for the role of affective (emotional) factors in language learning. A method that is undemanding in terms of linguistic production and that involves game-like movements reduces learner stress, he believes, and creates a positive mood in the learner, which facilitates learning.

Asher's emphasis on developing comprehension skills before the learner is taught to speak links him to a movement in foreign language teaching sometimes referred to as the Comprehension Approach (Winitz 1981). This refers to several different comprehension-based language teaching proposals, which share the belief that (a) comprehension abilities precede productive skills in learning a language; (b) the teaching of speaking should be

delayed until comprehension skills are established; (c) skills acquired through listening transfer to other skills; (d) teaching should emphasize meaning rather than form; and (e) teaching should minimize learner stress.

The emphasis on comprehension and the use of physical actions to teach a foreign language at an introductory level has a long tradition in language teaching.

8.2 Approach

Theory of language

Asher does not directly discuss the nature of language or how languages are organized. However, the labeling and ordering of TPR classroom drills seem to be built on assumptions that owe much to structuralist or grammar-based views of language. Asher states that "most of the grammatical structure of the target language and hundreds of vocabulary items can be learned from the skillful use of the imperative by the instructor" (1977: 4). He views the verb, and particularly the verb in the imperative, as the central linguistic motif around which language use and learning are organized.

Asher sees language as being composed of abstractions and non-abstractions, with non-abstractions being most specifically represented by concrete nouns and imperative verbs. He believes that learners can acquire a "detailed cognitive map" as well as "the grammatical structure of a language" without recourse to abstractions.

Abstractions should be delayed until students have internalized a detailed cognitive map of the target language. Abstractions are not necessary for people to decode the grammatical structure of a language. Once students have internalized the code, abstractions can be introduced and explained in the target language. (Asher 1977: 11—12)

This is an interesting claim about language but one that is insufficiently detailed to test. For example, are tense, aspect, articles, and so forth, abstractions, and if so, what sort of "detailed cognitive map" could be constructed without them?

Despite Asher's belief in the central role of comprehension in language learning, he does not elaborate on the relation between comprehension, production, and communication (he has no theory of speech acts or their equivalents, for example), although in advanced TPR lessons imperatives are used to initiate different speech acts, such as requests ("John, ask Mary to walk to the door"), and apologies ("Ned, tell Jack you're sorry").

Asher also refers in passing to the fact that language can be internalized as wholes or chunks, rather than as single lexical items, and, as such, links are possible to more theoretical proposals of this kind, as well as to work on the role of prefabricated patterns in language learning and language use. Asher does not elaborate on his view of chunking, however, nor on other aspects of the theory of language underlying Total Physical Response. We have only clues to what a more fully developed language theory might resemble when spelled out by Asher and his supporters.

Theory of learning

Asher's language learning theories are reminiscent of the views of other behavioral psychologists.

Asher still sees a stimulus-response view as providing the learning theory underlying language teaching pedagogy. In addition, Asher has elaborated an account of what he feels facilitates or inhibits foreign language learning. For this dimension of his learning theory he draws on three rather influential **learning hypotheses**:

1. *There exists a specific innate bio-program for language learning, which defines an optimal path for first and second language development.*

2. *Brain lateralization defines different learning functions in the left- and right-brain hemispheres.*
3. *Stress (an affective filter) intervenes between the act of learning and what is to be learned; the lower the stress, the greater the learning.*

Let us consider how Asher views each of these in turn.

1. THE BIO-PROGRAM

Asher's Total Physical Response is a "Natural Method" inasmuch as Asher sees first and second language learning as parallel processes. Second language teaching and learning should reflect the naturalistic processes of first language learning. Asher sees three processes as central,

- (a) Children develop listening competence before they develop the ability to speak. At the early stages of first language acquisition they can understand complex utterances that they cannot spontaneously produce or imitate. Asher speculates that during this period of listening, the learner may be making a mental "blueprint" of the language that will make it possible to produce spoken language later,
- (b) Children's ability in listening comprehension is acquired because children are required to respond physically to spoken language in the form of parental commands,
- (c) Once a foundation in listening comprehension has been established, speech evolves naturally and effortlessly out of it. As we noted earlier, these principles are held by proponents of a number of other method proposals and are referred to collectively as a Comprehension Approach.

Parallel to the processes of first language learning, the foreign language learner should first internalize a "cognitive map" of the target language through listening exercises. Listening should be accompanied by physical movement. Speech and other productive skills should come later. The speech-production mechanisms will begin to function spontaneously when the basic foundations of language are established through listening training. Asher bases these assumptions on his belief in the existence in the human brain of a bio-program for language, which defines an optimal order for first and second language learning.

A reasonable hypothesis is that the brain and nervous system are biologically programmed to acquire language ... in a particular sequence and in a particular mode. The sequence is listening before speaking and the mode is to synchronize language with the individual's body. (Asher 1977: 4)

2. BRAIN LATERALIZATION

Asher sees Total Physical Response as directed to right-brain learning, whereas most second language teaching methods are directed to left-brain learning. Asher refers to neurological studies of the brains of cats and studies of an epileptic boy whose corpus callosum was surgically divided. Asher interprets these as demonstrating that the brain is divided into hemispheres according to function, with language activities centralized in the right hemisphere. Drawing on work by Jean Piaget, Asher holds that the child language learner acquires language through motor movement - a right-hemisphere activity. Right-hemisphere activities must occur before the left hemisphere can process language for production. Similarly, the adult should proceed to language mastery through right-hemisphere motor activities, while the left hemisphere watches and learns. When a sufficient amount of right-hemisphere learning has taken place, the left hemisphere will be triggered to produce language and to initiate other, more abstract language processes.

3. REDUCTION OF STRESS

An important condition for successful language learning is the absence of stress. First language acquisition takes place in a stress-free environment, according to Asher, whereas the adult language learning environment often causes considerable stress and anxiety. The key to stress-free learning is to tap into the natural bio-program for language development and thus to recapture the relaxed and pleasurable experiences that accompany first language learning. By focusing on meaning interpreted through movement, rather than on language forms studied in the abstract, the learner is said to be liberated from self-conscious and stressful situations and is able to devote full energy to learning.

Design

Objectives

The general objectives of Total Physical Response are to teach oral proficiency at a beginning level. Comprehension is a means to an end, and the ultimate aim is to teach basic speaking skills. A TPR course aims to produce learners who are capable of an uninhibited communication that is intelligible to a native speaker. Specific instructional objectives are not elaborated, for these will depend on the particular needs of the learners. Whatever goals are set, however, must be attainable through the use of action-based drills in the imperative form.

The syllabus

The type of syllabus Asher uses can be inferred from an analysis of the exercise types employed in TPR classes. This analysis reveals the use of a sentence-based syllabus, with grammatical and lexical criteria being primary in selecting teaching items. Unlike methods that operate from a grammar-based or structural view of the core elements of language, Total Physical Response requires initial attention to meaning rather than to the form of items. Grammar is thus taught inductively. Grammatical features and vocabulary items are selected not according to their frequency of need or use in target language situations, but according to the situations in which they can be used in the classroom and the ease with which they can be learned.

The criterion for including a vocabulary item or grammatical feature at a particular point in training is ease of assimilation by students. If an item is not learned rapidly, this means that the students are not ready for that item. Withdraw it and try again at a future time in the training program. (Asher 1977: 42)

Asher also suggests that a fixed number of items be introduced at a time, to facilitate ease of differentiation and assimilation. "In an hour, it is possible for students to assimilate 12 to 36 new lexical items depending upon the size of the group and the stage of training" (Asher 1977: 42). Asher sees a need for attention to both the global meaning of language as well as to the finer details of its organization.

The movement of the body seems to be a powerful mediator for the understanding, organization and storage of macro-details of linguistic input. Language can be internalised in chunks, but alternative strategies must be developed for fine-tuning to macro-details.

A course designed around Total Physical Response principles, however, would not be expected to follow a TPR syllabus exclusively.

We are not advocating only one strategy of learning. Even if the imperative is the major or minor format of training, variety is critical for maintaining continued student interest. The imperative is a powerful facilitator of learning, but it should be used in combination with many other techniques. The optimal combination will vary from instructor to instructor and class to class. (Asher 1977: 28)

Types of learning and teaching activities

Imperative drills are the major classroom activity in Total Physical Response. They are typically used to elicit physical actions and activity on the part of the learners. Conversational dialogues are delayed until after about 120 hours of instruction. Asher's rationale for this is that "everyday conversations are highly abstract and disconnected; therefore to understand them requires a rather advanced internalization of the target language" (1977: 95). Other class activities include role plays and slide presentations. Role plays center on everyday situations, such as at the restaurant, supermarket, or gas station. The slide presentations are used to provide a visual center for teacher narration, which is followed by commands, and for questions to students, such as "Which person in the picture is the salesperson?". Reading and writing activities may also be employed to further consolidate structures and vocabulary, and as follow-ups to oral imperative drills.

Learner roles

Learners in Total Physical Response have the primary roles of listener and performer. They listen attentively and respond physically to commands given by the teacher. Learners are required to respond both individually and collectively. Learners have little influence over the content of learning, since content is determined by the teacher, who must follow the imperative-based format for lessons. Learners are also expected to recognize and respond to novel combinations of previously taught items:

Novel utterances are re-combinations of constituents you have used directly in training. For instance, you directed students with 'Walk to the table!' and 'Sit on the chair!'. These are familiar to students since they have practiced responding to them. Now, will a student understand if you surprise the individual with an unfamiliar utterance that you created by recombining familiar elements (e.g. 'Sit on the table!'). (Asher 1977: 31)

Learners are also required to produce novel combinations of their own. Learners monitor and evaluate their own progress. They are encouraged to speak when they feel ready to speak - that is, when a sufficient basis in the language has been internalized.

Teacher roles

The teacher plays an active and direct role in Total Physical Response. "The instructor is the director of a stage play in which the students are the actors" (Asher 1977: 43). It is the teacher who decides what to teach, who models and presents the new materials, and who selects supporting materials for classroom use. The teacher is encouraged to be well prepared and well organized so that the lesson flows smoothly and predictably. Asher recommends detailed lesson plans: "It is wise to write out the exact utterances you will be using and especially the novel commands because the action is so fast-moving there is usually not time for you to create spontaneously" (1977: 47). Classroom interaction and turn taking is teacher rather than learner directed. Even when learners interact with other learners it is usually the teacher who initiates the interaction:

Teacher: Maria, pick up the box of rice and hand it to Miguel and ask Miguel to read the price.

Asher stresses, however, that the teacher's role is not so much to teach as to provide opportunities for learning. The teacher has the responsibility of providing the best kind of exposure to language so that the learner can internalise the basic rules of the target language. Thus the teacher controls the language input the learners receive, providing the raw material for the "cognitive map" that the learners will construct in their own minds. The teacher should also allow speaking abilities to develop in learners at the learners' own natural pace.

In giving feedback to learners, the teacher should follow the example of parents giving feedback to their children. At first, parents correct very little, but as the child grows older, parents are said to tolerate fewer mistakes in speech. Similarly teachers should refrain from too much correction in the early stages and should not interrupt to correct errors, since this will inhibit learners. As time goes on, however, more teacher intervention is expected, as the learners' speech becomes "fine tuned."

Asher cautions teachers about preconceptions that he feels could hinder the successful implementation of TPR principles. First, he cautions against the "illusion of simplicity," where the teacher underestimates the difficulties involved in learning a foreign language. This results in progressing at too fast a pace and failing to provide a gradual transition from one teaching stage to another. The teacher should also avoid having too narrow a tolerance for errors in speaking.

You begin with a wide tolerance for student speech errors, but as training progresses, the tolerance narrows.... Remember that as students progress in their training, more and more attention units are freed to process feedback from the instructor. In the beginning, almost no attention units are available to hear the instructor's attempts to correct distortions in speech. All attention is directed to producing utterances. Therefore the student cannot attend efficiently to the instructor's corrections. (Asher 1977: 27)

The role of instructional materials

There is generally no basic text in a Total Physical Response course. Materials and realia play an increasing role, however, in later learning stages. For absolute beginners, lessons may not require the use of materials, since the teacher's voice, actions, and gestures may be a sufficient basis for classroom activities. Later the teacher may use common classroom objects, such as books, pens, cups, furniture. As the course develops, the teacher will need to make or collect supporting materials to support teaching points. These may include pictures, realia, slides, and word charts. Asher has developed TPR student kits that focus on specific situations, such as the home, the supermarket, the beach. Students may use the kits to construct scenes (e.g., "Put the stove in the kitchen").

Conclusion

Total Physical Response is in a sense a revival and extension of Palmer and Palmer's *English Through Actions*, updated with references to more recent psychological theories. It has enjoyed some popularity because of its support by those who emphasize the role of comprehension in second language acquisition. Krashen (1981), for example, regards provision of comprehensible input and reduction of stress as keys to successful language acquisition, and he sees performing physical actions in the target language as a means of making input comprehensible and minimizing stress (see Chapter 9). The experimental support for the effectiveness of Total Physical Response is sketchy (as it is for most methods) and typically deals with only the very beginning stages of learning. Proponents of Communicative Language Teaching would question the relevance to real-world learner needs of the TPR syllabus and the utterances and sentences used within it. Asher himself, however, has stressed that Total Physical Response should be used in association with other methods

and techniques. Indeed, practitioners of TPR typically follow this recommendation, suggesting that for many teachers TPR represents a useful set of techniques and is compatible with other approaches to teaching. TPR practices therefore may be effective for reasons other than those proposed by Asher and do not necessarily demand commitment to the learning theories used to justify them.

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8. Introducing and establishing new words

Young children do not come to the language classroom empty-handed. They bring with them an already well-established set of instincts, skills and characteristics which will help them to learn another language. We need to identify those and make the most of them. (Susan Halliwell 1992)

Children will understand you speaking a foreign language because they can read your body-language (mime, gesture, facial expression) and they can “read” pictures and objects

8.1 Introducing a new word

8.1.1 Pictures

Many objects, qualities, and action verbs can be illustrated by pictures. The picture must obviously be big enough and clear enough to be seen and recognised from the back of the class. The pictures can be:

- sketches by you or the children , on the board or on prepared picture flashcards
- illustrations in books
- magazine pictures
- pictures from computer programmes (e.g. CorelDraw Clip arts,...)



8.1.2 Objects

Objects (sometimes called „realia“) are an ideal way of showing the meaning of English words for concrete things.

- Show the children real objects
- Let the children touch, hold, and perhaps use them. (This will appeal to those children who like tactile learning).



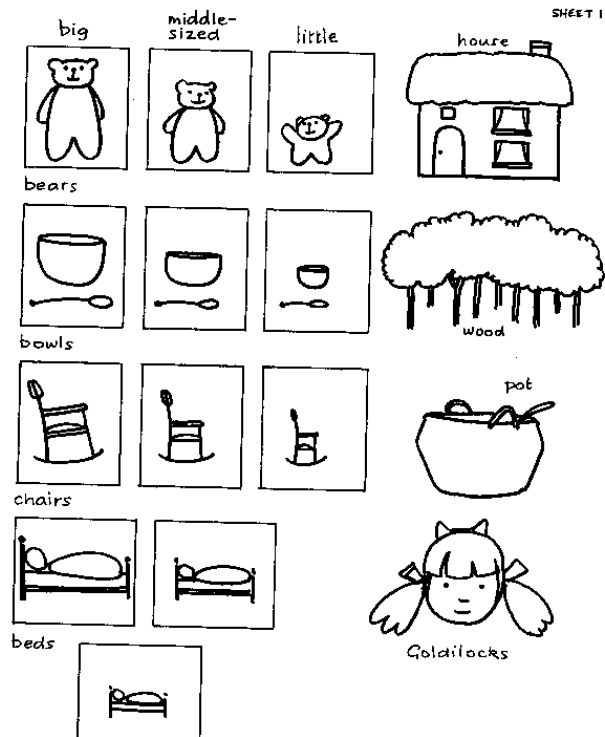
8.1.3 Mime

Many items of vocabulary, including actions, feelings of emotion, adjectives, and adverbs, can be communicated by mime.

An elephant walks like this and that	<i>standing, sway from side to side, heavily</i>
He's terribly big	<i>hands above head</i>
He's terribly fat	<i>hands out wide</i>
He has no fingers	<i>wiggle fingers, shake head for no</i>
And he has no toes	<i>touch toes, shake head for no</i>
But goodness gracious, what a nose!	<i>curl arm in front of face for trunk</i>

8.1.4 Context

Some words are best understood in context, for example, a comparative form needs a comparison. Sometimes you can create contexts in the classroom in order to introduce a new word.



8.1.5 Translation

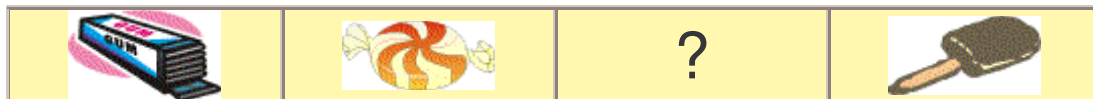
- Sometimes translation is the fastest and most efficient way to say what a word means.
- Once the children understand the meaning, concentrate on getting them use the English word a lot and they will forget how they acquired it!

8.2 Establishing a new word

Remember that understanding the meaning of a new word is not the same as learning it. It takes time and purposeful use to make a word one's own. Here are a few activities which might help the children to use the new word and slowly make it their own.





8.2.1. Memory game

- Show the children four to eight pictures or objects.
- Then hide them and challenge the children to remember what they are and what they look like (in English)
- You might also remove one of the pictures and ask which one has been removed. (., *What's missing*")







8.2.2. Picture - word matching

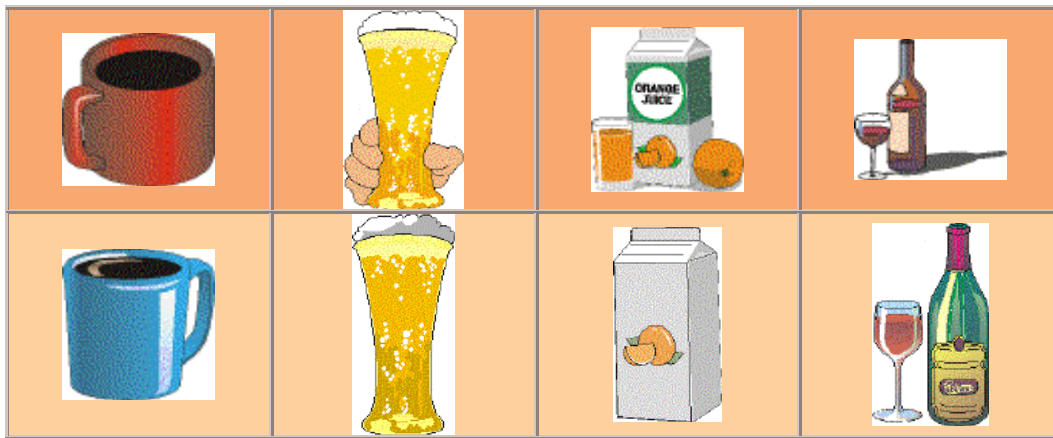
- Prepare pairs of cards with pictures and the written form, of the words you want the children to learn. The children try to match the word card to the correct picture card. They should say the word out loud to practise the correct pronunciation.
-

			
bear	camel	elephant	fawn

8.2.3. Pelmanism

- Prepare several pairs of cards: one with a picture and one with the English word on.
- Variant: Both show the same picture.
- Spread them out, face down.
- In pairs or groups, the children take it in turns to try to remember what the cards are and which two go together.
- A child points to the back of two cards saying, for example, „Father Christmas" and „Father Christmas"
- Then he or she turns the cards over. If one is the picture of the word „Father Christmas" and the other one is the word „Father Christmas" (or the picture again), then the child picks them up and keeps them.
- If he or she is wrong then both cards must be turned upside down again but their position must remain the same. The winner is the child with most pairs of cards.

			
butter	cheese	milk	ice-cream

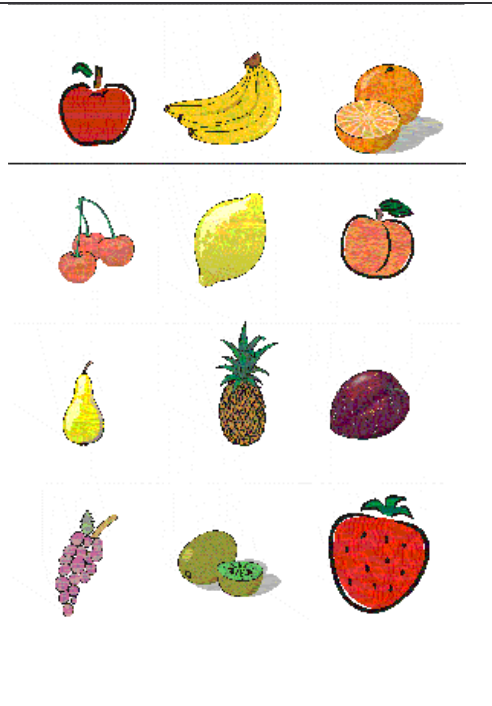


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8.2.4. Bingo




There are many versions of this game but the easiest one is when you have introduced and practised about ten or twenty words. Find or draw pictures of the words.

- Show ten or twenty pictures on the board.
- Each child chooses any five words and draws them. Make sure they do not all have the same words.
- You can call one word after another and hold up a picture of it. Any child who has the word you call out can cross it off. When a child has crossed off all five words he or she shouts „BINGO!“
- In order to concentrate the children's minds on meaning, you can call out a definition of the word rather than the word itself, or mime the word.



8.2.5. Repeat it if it's true

- Show an object or a picture. Make a statement about it.
- If the statements are true, the children should repeat it, and if it is not true they should remain silent.

	A fawn is a baby deer.	A fawn is a baby deer.
	A bear likes honey.	A bear likes honey.
	An elephant is pink.	

8.2.6. Drawing

- Divide the children into teams of about eight.
- Children from each team take it in turns to come to the board. As they come forward, give them a word. They try to illustrate the word so that their team can identify it.
- If their team recognises the word within one minute, they get a point.
-



8.2.7. Guess the objects

Wrap up objects

- Get the children to guess what it might be.
-



9. Workshop 8B "*Foreign Language Education in Primary Schools*

(age 5/6 - 10/11)", Velm, Austria

May 1995.: Final Recommendations

The six working groups arrived at more than 40 recommendations which were discussed and summarised by the Directors of Studies and the Director of the Modern Languages Project, Dr. John Trim. At the plenary meeting they were read out, briefly discussed and altered. These recommendations are particularly important.

In the light of the experience of the workshop participants reported to us from more than 30 countries and the findings of Workshop 4A, 4B and 8A we consider that it is now feasible and desirable for one or more modern languages to be introduced into the primary school curriculum for all children from the age of 8. Policies should be developed leading to the availability of a certain variety of languages. We also recommend that steps be taken to create the conditions under which the starting age can be progressively lowered so that an element of modern language experience of an appropriate kind can be present throughout a child's school career. In order to create these conditions appropriate curriculum guidelines should be drawn up covering objectives, materials and methods.

While we do not advocate any single one methodological model, the linguistic and pragmatic content of modern language learning must be decided in accordance with the needs, characteristics and motivation of the young learners concerned in the light of the stage of development they have reached. We regard it as essential that classroom methods should enable them to enjoy a successful experience of modern language learning and to begin to develop intercultural awareness based on an experience of language variety. Cooperation and teamwork should be emphasized, using for example creative activities, multi-sensory techniques as well as stories, rhymes and songs involving rhythm and movement.

The development of appropriate materials for modern language teaching in primary schools should appeal to the whole child and both match and develop the child's learning strategies. Full use should be made of modern technologies in a multi-media approach. The evaluation, selection, supplementation and creation of materials should figure in teacher training programmes thus facilitating local production.

We consider it necessary for the pupils' development in modern languages to enjoy a systematic continuity of learning experiences building cumulatively on their achievements. To achieve this co-operation a sense of partnership is required among teachers and support services involved in the successive stages of the process, so as to ensure an efficient and stress-free transition especially where a change of system is involved.

An effective, integrated programme of initial and in-service teacher training is essential to the proper development of modern language teaching in primary schools. Specialised training in primary methodology should be combined with steps to ensure that teachers have the specialised language competence necessary to teach effectively using the foreign language according to the methods being used in these schools. Continuing staff development should also be provided including the promotion of teacher co-operation and networking across disciplinary and sector boundaries.

We strongly recommend that the Council of Europe should continue to give priority to the promotion of international co-operation in support of the achievement of the objectives set out in these recommendations concerning modern languages in primary education in all member states.