

Week 7-8: Natural Approach & Total Physical Response

Introduction

In this lesson, students will learn about the Natural Approach (NA) and Total Physical Response (TPR). The Natural Approach and TPR emphasize the importance of comprehension in Second Language Acquisition. NA combines insights from Tracy Terrell, a language teacher, with Stephen Krashen's theory of Second Language Acquisition. Total Physical Response, or TPR, was developed by James Asher, a professor of psychology at San Jose State University in California. It is based on coordinating speech and action. It teaches language through physical (motor) activity.

Learning Objectives

- Participants will learn about the Natural Approach and its techniques and principles.
- Participants will learn about Total Physical Response and its techniques and principles.

Learning Outcomes

- **Principles:** Participants will be able to describe key principles of the Natural Approach and Total Physical Response, such as its goal, affective filter, comprehensible input, and comprehension-based instruction.
- **Techniques:** Participants will be able to describe and express their thoughts about the predominant techniques used in the Natural Approach and Total Physical Response lesson.
- **Application:** Participants will be able to support students so the language is comprehensible and create an Action Sequence to teach and check new target language

Key Vocabulary

- Comprehension Approach (p. 103)
- James Asher (p. 103)
- Comprehensible input, $i+1$ (p. 103)
- Affective filter (p. 104)
- Command (p. 105)
- Fun and humor (p. 108, p. 109)
- Spoken language (p. 108)
- Modeling (p. 109)
- Nonverbal (p. 109)
- Zany commands and humorous skits (p. 110)
- Oral modality (p. 110)
- Imperatives (p. 110)
- Role reversal (p. 112)
- Action sequence (p. 112)

Understanding Natural Approach and Total Physical Response

- 1) What are the goals of the Natural Approach and Total Physical Response?
- 2) Evaluate the statements below. Do you agree or disagree? Why?
 - a) Comprehension abilities precede productive skills in learning a language.
 - b) The teaching of speaking should be delayed until comprehension skills are established.
 - c) Listening skills transfer to other skills.
 - d) Teaching should emphasize meaning rather than grammatical form.
 - e) Teaching should minimize learner stress.

Experience

- 3) Consider the Total Physical Response video, the sample lesson in the textbook (pp. 104- 107), and the observations and principles of Total Physical Response (pp. 107-111).
 - a) Which aspects of language (i.e., grammar, vocabulary) does the teacher teach?
 - b) What is the role of the teacher?
 - c) What is the role of the students?
 - d) How does the teacher know the students have comprehended her commands?
 - e) Why does the teacher demonstrate the commands first with individuals and then move to the whole group?
 - f) Why did the teacher write the language on the board at the end of the lesson instead of at the beginning?

g) What is the role of humor in a TPR classroom?

What do you think?

4) The textbook on page 113 asks several questions for reflection. Discuss these questions with your classmates.

- a) Does it make any sense to delay the teaching of speaking the target language?
- b) Do you believe that students should not be encouraged to speak until they're ready to do so?
- c) Should a teacher overlook certain student errors in the beginning?
- d) Which, if any, of the other principles do you agree with?
- e) Would you use the imperative to present the grammatical structures and vocabulary of the target language?
- f) Do you believe it is possible to teach all grammatical features through the imperative?
- g) Do you think that accompanying language with action aids recall?
- h) Would you teach reading and writing using Total Physical Response?
- i) Would you want to adapt any of the techniques of TPR to your teaching situation?
- j) Can you think of any others you would create that would be consistent with the principles presented here?

In-Class Activity

5) In this question, you will apply what you have understood about Total Physical Response. You have been asked to teach an elementary school beginner language class. Your target language is prepositions (in / on / under / behind / in front of). Design a TPR sequence with modeling, comprehension checking, action sequence, and role reversal.

15 The Natural Approach

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, although it has also been used in elementary- to advanced-level classes and with several other languages. At the same time, he 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 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 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 a particular theory of grammar. Krashen and Terrell noted 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 (see Chapter 1) has led some people 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 1900 had become known as the Direct Method (see Chapter 1). It is described in a report on the state of the art in language teaching commissioned by the Modern Language Association in 1901 (the report of the “Committee of 12”):

In its extreme form the method consisted of a series of monologues by the teacher interspersed with exchanges of question and answer between the instructor and the pupil – all in the foreign language. . . . A great deal of pantomime accompanied the talk. With the aid of this gesticulation, by attentive listening and by dint of much repetition the learner came to associate certain acts and objects with certain combinations of the sounds and finally reached the point of reproducing the foreign words or phrases. . . . Not until a considerable familiarity with the spoken word was attained was the scholar allowed to see the foreign language in print. The study of grammar was reserved for a still later period. (Cole 1931: 58)

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 (see Chapter 5).

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 (Chapter 14), however, Krashen and Terrell give little attention to a theory of language. Indeed, a critic of Krashen suggested that 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. Terrell quotes Dwight Bolinger to support this view:

The quantity of information in the lexicon far outweighs that in any other part of the language, and if there is anything to the notion of redundancy it should be easier to reconstruct a message containing just words than one containing just the syntactic relations. The significant fact is the subordinate role of grammar. The most important thing is to get the words in. (Bolinger, in Terrell 1977: 333)

Language is viewed as a vehicle for communicating meanings and messages. Hence Krashen and Terrell stated 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). We assume that Krashen means by *structures* something at least in the tradition of what such linguists as Leonard Bloomfield and Charles Fries meant by *structures*. The Natural Approach thus assumes a linguistic hierarchy of structural complexity that one masters through encounters with "input" containing structures at the " $I + 1$ " level.

We are left, then, with a view of language that consists of lexical items, structures, and messages. Obviously, there is no particular novelty in this view as such, except that messages are considered of primary importance in the Natural Approach. The lexicon for both perception and production is considered critical in the construction and interpretation of messages. Lexical items in messages are necessarily grammatically structured, and more complex messages involve more complex grammatical structure. Although they acknowledge such grammatical structuring, Krashen and Terrell feel that grammatical structure does not require explicit analysis or attention by the language teacher, by the language learner, or in language teaching materials.

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). The theory and research are grounded on Krashen's views of language acquisition, which we will collectively refer to as *Krashen's language acquisition theory*. Krashen's views have been presented and discussed extensively elsewhere (e.g., Krashen 1982), so we will not try to present or critique Krashen's arguments here. (For a detailed critical review, see Gregg 1984 and McLaughlin 1978.) It is necessary, however, 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.

Current communicative approaches

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 native language 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, extralinguistic 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 *Wh*-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)

However, since the Natural Approach is offered as a general set of principles applicable to a wide variety of situations, as in Communicative Language Teaching, specific objectives depend on learner needs and the skill (reading, writing, listening, or speaking) and level being taught.

Krashen and Terrell believe that it is important to communicate to learners what they can expect of a course as well as what they should not expect. They offer as an example a possible goal and nongoal statement for a beginning Natural Approach Spanish class:

After 100–150 hours of Natural Approach Spanish, you *will* be able to: “get around” in Spanish; you will be able to communicate with a monolingual native speaker of Spanish without difficulty; read most ordinary texts in Spanish with some use of a dictionary; know enough Spanish to continue to improve on your own.

After 100–150 hours of Natural Approach Spanish you will *not* be able to: pass for a native speaker, use Spanish as easily as you use English, understand native speakers when they talk to each other (you will probably not be able to eavesdrop successfully); use Spanish on the telephone with great comfort; participate easily in a conversation with several other native speakers on unfamiliar topics. (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 74)

The syllabus

Krashen and Terrell (1983) approach course organization from two points of view. First, they list some typical goals for language courses and suggest which of these goals are the ones at which the Natural Approach aims. They list such goals under four areas:

1. Basic personal communication skills: oral (e.g., listening to announcements in public places)
2. Basic personal communication skills: written (e.g., reading and writing personal letters)

3. Academic learning skills: oral (e.g., listening to a lecture)
4. Academic learning skills: written (e.g., taking notes in class)

Of these, they note that the Natural Approach is primarily “designed to develop basic communication skills – both oral and written” (1983: 67). They then observe that communication goals “may be expressed in terms of situations, functions and topics” and proceed to order four pages of topics and situations “which are likely to be most useful to beginning students” (1983: 67). The functions are not specified or suggested but are felt to derive naturally from the topics and situations. This approach to syllabus design would appear to derive to some extent from threshold level specifications (see Chapter 14).

The second point of view holds that “the purpose of a language course will vary according to the needs of the students and their particular interests” (Krashen and Terrell (1983: 65):

The goals of a Natural Approach class are based on an assessment of student needs. We determine the situations in which they will use the target language and the sorts of topics they will have to communicate information about. In setting communication goals, we do not expect the students at the end of a particular course to have acquired a certain group of structures or forms. Instead we expect them to deal with a particular set of topics in a given situation. We do not organize the activities of the class about a grammatical syllabus. (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 71)

From this point of view, it is difficult to specify communicative goals that necessarily fit the needs of all students. Thus, any list of topics and situations must be understood as syllabus suggestions rather than as specifications.

As well as fitting the needs and interests of students, content selection should aim to create a low affective filter by being interesting and fostering a friendly, relaxed atmosphere, should provide a wide exposure to vocabulary that may be useful to basic personal communication, and should resist any focus on grammatical structures, since if input is provided “over a wider variety of topics while pursuing communicative goals, the necessary grammatical structures are automatically provided in the input” (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.

Current communicative approaches

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,” and the teacher is the primary generator of that input. 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

Current communicative approaches

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 nonorthodox 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 extralinguistic 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 students 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 discussed in this book. 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.

Current communicative approaches

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: 75-77)

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 nonformal settings. Such methods reject the formal (grammatical) organization of language as a prerequisite to teaching. They hold with Newmark and Reibel that "an adult can effectively be taught by grammatically unordered materials" and that such an approach is, indeed, "the *only* learning process which we know for certain will produce mastery of the language at a native level" (1968: 153). 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 comprehensible and meaningful practice activities, rather than production of grammatically perfect utterances and sentences.

Bibliography and further reading

- Baltra, A. 1992. On breaking with tradition: The significance of Terrell's Natural Approach. *Canadian Modern Language Review* 49(3): 565-593.
- Berne, J. 1990. A comparison of teaching for proficiency with the natural approach: Procedure, design and approach. *Hispania* 73(4): 147-153.

- Brown, J. M., and A. Palmer. 1988. *Listening Approach: Methods and Materials for Applying Krashen's Input Hypothesis*. Harlow, UK: Longman.
- Cole, R. 1931. *Modern Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- Ellis, R. 1997. *Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Gregg, K. 1984. Krashen's monitor and Occam's razor. *Applied Linguistics* 5(2): 79-100.
- Hashemipor, P., R. Maldonado, and M. van Naerssen (eds.). 1995. *Studies in Language Learning and Spanish Linguistics: Festschrift in Honor of Tracy D. Terrell*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Krashen, S. 1981. *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S. 1982. *Principles and Practices in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S. 1985. *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications*. London: Longman.
- Krashen, S. 1989. We acquire vocabulary and spelling by reading: Additional evidence for the input hypothesis. *Modern Language Journal*. 73(4): 440-464.
- Krashen, S. 1992. *Fundamentals of Language Education*. Beverley Hills, Calif.: Laredo.
- Krashen, S. 1993. The case for free voluntary reading. *Canadian Modern Language Review* 50(1): 72-82.
- Krashen, S. 1996. The case for narrow listening. *System* 24(1): 97-100.
- Krashen, S. 1997. The comprehension hypothesis: Recent evidence. *English Teachers' Journal* (Israel). 51: 17-29.
- Krashen, S. 1996. Principles of English as a foreign language. *English Teachers' Journal* (Israel) 49: 11-19.
- Krashen, S., and T. Terrell. 1983. *The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- McLaughlin, B. 1978. The Monitor Model: Some methodological considerations. *Language Learning* 28(2): 309-332.
- Newmark, L., and D. A. Reibel. 1968. Necessity and sufficiency in language learning. *International Review of Applied Linguistics* 6(2): 145-164.
- Rivers, W. 1981. *Teaching Foreign-Language Skills*. 2nd ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Skehan, P. 1998. *A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Stevick, E. W. 1976. *Memory, Meaning and Method: Some Psychological Perspectives on Language Learning*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
- Terrell, T. D. 1977. A natural approach to second language acquisition and learning. *Modern Language Journal* 61: 325-336.
- Terrell, T. D. 1981. The natural approach in bilingual education. MS. California Office of Bilingual Education.
- Terrell, T. D. 1982. The natural approach to language teaching: An update. *Modern Language Journal* 66: 121-132.

Total Physical Response

Introduction

Let us first consider a general approach to foreign language instruction which has been named the **Comprehension Approach**. It is called this because of the importance it gives to listening comprehension. Most of the other methods we have looked at have students speaking the target language from the first day. In the 1960s, James Asher's research gave rise to the hypothesis that language learning starts first with understanding and ends with production. After the learner internalizes an extensive map of how the target language works, speaking will appear spontaneously. Of course, the students' speech will not be perfect, but gradually speech will become more target-like. Notice that this is exactly how an infant acquires its native language. A baby spends many months listening to the people around it long before it ever says a word. The child has the time to try to make sense out of the sounds it hears. No one tells the baby that it must speak. The child chooses to speak when it is ready to do so.

There are several methods being practiced today that have in common an attempt to apply these observations to language instruction. One such method is Krashen and Terrell's Natural Approach. The Natural Approach shares certain features with the Direct Method, which we examined in Chapter 3. Emphasis is placed on students' developing basic communication skills through receiving meaningful exposure to the target language (**comprehensible input**). Meaning is given priority over form and thus vocabulary acquisition is stressed. The students listen to the teacher using the target language communicatively from the first day of instruction. They do not speak at first. The teacher helps her students to understand her by using pictures and occasional words in the students' native language and by being as expressive as possible. It is thought that if the teacher uses language that is just in advance of students' current level of proficiency ($i+1$), while making sure that her input is comprehensible, acquisition will proceed 'naturally.' Unconscious

acquisition, then, is favored over more conscious learning. Creating a low **affective filter** is also a condition for acquisition that is met when the classroom atmosphere is one in which anxiety is reduced and students' self-confidence is boosted. The filter is kept low as well by the fact that students are not put on the spot to speak; they speak when they are ready to do so.

Another method that fits within the Comprehension Approach is Winitz and Reed's self-instructional program and Winitz' *The Learnables*. In this method, students listen to tape-recorded words, phrases, and sentences while they look at accompanying pictures. The meaning of the utterance is clear from the context the picture provides. The students are asked to respond in some way, such as pointing to each picture as it is described, to show that they understand the language to which they are listening; however, they do not speak. Stories illustrated by pictures are also used as a device to convey abstract meaning.

A third method that fits here is the Lexical Approach. Although its originator, Michael Lewis, claims that the Lexical Approach is an approach, not a method, it really belongs under the category of the Comprehension Approach, we feel. This is because the Lexical Approach is less concerned with student production and more concerned that students receive and comprehend abundant input. Particularly at lower levels, teachers talk extensively to their students in the target language, while requiring little or no verbal response from them. Students are also given exercises and activities that raise their awareness about multi-word lexical items, such as 'I see what you mean,' and 'Take your time.' Like Krashen and Terrell, Lewis emphasizes acquisition over learning, assuming that 'It is exposure to enough suitable input, not formal teaching, which is key to increasing the learner's lexicon (Lewis 1997: 197).

A fourth method, James Asher's Total Physical Response (TPR), is the one we will examine in detail here in order to see how the principles of the Comprehension Approach are put into practice. Based on his research cited above, Asher reasoned that the fastest, least stressful way to achieve understanding of any target language is to follow directions uttered by the instructor (without native language translation). We will learn about Total Physical Response through our usual way of observing a class in which it is being used. The class is located in Sweden. It is a beginning class for 30 Grade 5 students. They study English for one class period three times a week.

Experience¹

We follow the teacher as she enters the room, and we take a seat in the back of the room. It is the first class of the year, so after the teacher takes attendance,

¹ This lesson is based upon the one in Asher (1982).

she introduces the method they will use to study English. She explains in Swedish, 'You will be studying English in a way that is similar to the way you learned Swedish. You will not speak at first. Rather, you will just listen to me and do as I do. I will give you a command to do something in English, and you will do the actions along with me. I will need four volunteers to help me with the lesson.'

Hands go up, and the teacher calls on four students to come to the front of the room and sit with her on chairs that are lined up facing the other students. She tells the other students to listen and to watch.

In English the teacher says, 'Stand up.' As she says it, she stands up and she signals for the four volunteers to rise with her. They all stand up. 'Sit down,' she says, and they all sit. The teacher and the students stand up and sit down together several times according to the teacher's command; the students say nothing. The next time that they stand up together, the teacher issues a new command, 'Turn around.' The students follow the teacher's example and turn so that they are facing their chairs. 'Turn around,' the teacher says again and this time they turn to face the other students as before. 'Sit down. Stand up. Turn around. Sit down.' She says, 'Walk,' and they all begin walking towards the front row of the students' seats. 'Stop. Jump. Stop. Turn around. Walk. Stop. Jump. Stop. Turn around. Sit down.' The teacher gives the commands and they all perform the actions together. The teacher gives these commands again, changing their order and saying them quite quickly. 'Stand up. Jump. Sit down. Stand up. Turn around. Jump. Stop. Turn around. Walk. Stop. Turn around. Walk. Jump. Turn around. Sit down.'

Once again the teacher gives the commands; this time, however, she remains seated. The four volunteers respond to her commands. 'Stand up. Sit down. Walk. Stop. Jump. Turn around. Turn around. Walk. Turn around. Sit down.' The students respond perfectly. Next, the teacher signals that she would like one of the volunteers to follow her commands alone. One student raises his hand and performs the actions the teacher commands.

Finally, the teacher approaches the other students who have been sitting observing her and their four classmates. 'Stand up,' she says and the class responds. 'Sit down. Stand up. Jump. Stop. Sit down. Stand up. Turn around. Turn around. Jump. Sit down.' Even though they have not done the actions before, the students are able to perform according to the teacher's commands.

The teacher is satisfied that the class has mastered these six commands. She begins to introduce some new ones. 'Point to the door,' she orders. She extends her right arm and right index finger in the direction of the door at the side of the classroom. The volunteers point with her. 'Point to the desk.' She points to her own big teacher's desk at the front of the room. 'Point to the chair.' She points to the chair behind her desk and the students follow.

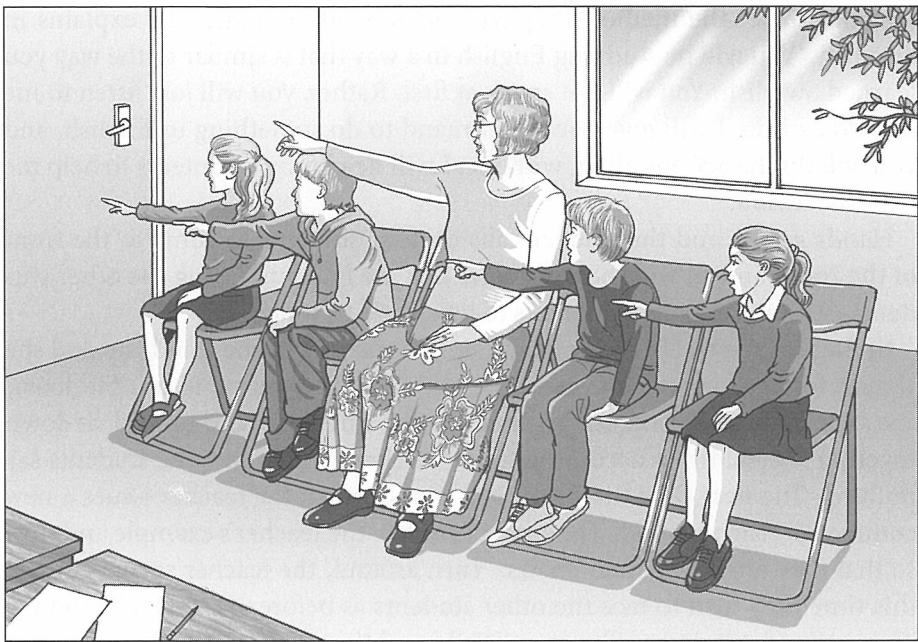


Figure 8.1 Students and teacher acting out the teacher’s command

‘Stand up.’ The students stand up. ‘Point to the door.’ The students point. ‘Walk to the door.’ They walk together. ‘Touch the door.’ The students touch it with her. The teacher continues to command the students as follows: ‘Point to the desk. Walk to the desk. Touch the desk. Point to the door. Walk to the door. Touch the door. Point to the chair. Walk to the chair. Touch the chair.’ She continues to perform the actions with the students, but changes the order of the commands. After practicing these new commands with the students several times, the teacher remains seated, and the four volunteers carry out the commands by themselves. Only once do the students seem confused, at which point the teacher repeats the command which has caused difficulty and performs the action with them.

Next the teacher turns to the rest of the class and gives the following commands to the students sitting in the back row: ‘Stand up. Sit down. Stand up. Point to the desk. Point to the door. Walk to the door. Walk to the chair. Touch the chair. Walk. Stop. Jump. Walk. Turn around. Sit down.’ Although she varies the sequence of commands, the students do not seem to have any trouble following the order.

Next, the teacher turns to the four volunteers and says, ‘Stand up. Jump to the desk.’ The students have never heard this command before. They hesitate a second and then jump to the desk just as they have been told. Everyone laughs at this sight. ‘Touch the desk. Sit on the desk.’ Again, the teacher uses

a novel command, one they have not practiced before. The teacher then issues two commands in the form of a compound sentence, ‘Point to the door, and walk to the door.’ Again, the group performs as it has been commanded.

As the last step of the lesson, the teacher writes the new commands on the board. Each time she writes a command, she acts it out. The students copy the sentences into their notebooks.

The class is over. No one except the teacher has spoken a word. However, a few weeks later when we walk by the room we hear a different voice. We stop to listen for moment. One of the students is speaking. We hear her say, ‘Raise your hands. Show me your hands. Close your eyes. Put your hands behind you. Open your eyes. Shake hand with your neighbor. Raise your left foot.’ We look in and see that the student is directing the other students and the teacher with these commands. They are not saying anything; they are just following the student’s orders.

Thinking about the Experience

Now that we have observed the Total Physical Response Method being used in a class, let us examine what we have seen. We will list our observations and then try to understand the principles upon which the teacher’s behavior is based.

Observations	Principles
1 The teacher gives a command in the target language and performs the action with the students.	Meaning in the target language can often be conveyed through actions. Memory is activated through learner response. Beginning language instruction should address the right hemisphere of the brain, the part which controls nonverbal behavior. The target language should be presented in chunks, not just word by word.
2 The students say nothing.	The students’ understanding of the target language should be developed before speaking.
3 The teacher gives the commands quite quickly.	Students can initially learn one part of the language rapidly by moving their bodies.

4	The teacher sits down and issues commands to the volunteers.	The imperative is a powerful linguistic device through which the teacher can direct student behavior.
5	The teacher directs students other than the volunteers.	Students can learn through observing actions as well as by performing the actions themselves.
6	The teacher introduces new commands after she is satisfied that the first six have been mastered.	It is very important that students feel successful. Feelings of success and low anxiety facilitate learning.
7	The teacher changes the order of the commands.	Students should not be made to memorize fixed routines.
8	When the students make an error, the teacher repeats the command while acting it out.	Correction should be carried out in an unobtrusive manner.
9	The teacher gives the students commands they have not heard before.	Students must develop flexibility in understanding novel combinations of target language chunks. They need to understand more than the exact sentences used in training. Novelty is also motivating.
10	The teacher says, 'Jump to the desk.' Everyone laughs.	Language learning is more effective when it is fun.
11	The teacher writes the new commands on the board.	Spoken language should be emphasized over written language.
12	A few weeks later, a student who has not spoken before gives commands.	Students will begin to speak when they are ready.
13	A student says, 'Shake *hand with your neighbor.'	Students are expected to make errors when they first begin speaking. Teachers should be tolerant of them. Work on the fine details of the language should be postponed until students have become somewhat proficient.

Reviewing the Principles

We will next turn to our 10 questions in order to increase our understanding of Total Physical Response.

1 What are the goals of teachers who use TPR?

Teachers who use TPR believe in the importance of having their students enjoy their experience of learning to communicate in another language. In fact, TPR was developed in order to reduce the stress people feel when they are studying other languages and thereby encourage students to persist in their study beyond a beginning level of proficiency.

The way to do this, Asher believes, is to base foreign language learning upon the way children learn their native language.

2 What is the role of the teacher? What is the role of the students?

Initially, the teacher is the director of all student behavior. The students are imitators of her nonverbal model. At some point (usually after 10–20 hours of instruction), some students will be ‘ready to speak.’ At that point, there will be a role reversal with individual students directing the teacher and the other students.

3 What are some characteristics of the teaching/learning process?

The first phase of a lesson is one of modeling. The teacher issues commands to a few students, then performs the actions with them. In the second phase, these same students demonstrate that they can understand the commands by performing them alone. The observers also have an opportunity to demonstrate their understanding.

The teacher next recombines elements of the commands to have students develop flexibility in understanding unfamiliar utterances. These commands, which students perform, are often humorous.

After learning to respond to some oral commands, the students learn to read and write them. When students are ready to speak, they become the ones who issue the commands. After students begin speaking, activities expand to include skits and games.

4 What is the nature of student–teacher interaction? What is the nature of student–student interaction?

The teacher interacts with the whole group of students and with individual students. Initially, the interaction is characterized by the teacher speaking and the students responding nonverbally. Later on, the students become more verbal and the teacher responds nonverbally.

Students perform the actions together. Students can learn by watching each other. At some point, however, Asher believes observers must demonstrate their understanding of the commands in order to retain them.

As students begin to speak, they issue commands to one another as well as to the teacher.

5 How are the feelings of the students dealt with?

One of the main reasons TPR was developed was to reduce the stress people feel when studying other languages. One of the primary ways this is accomplished is to allow learners to speak when they are ready. Forcing them to speak before then will only create anxiety. Also, when students do begin to speak, perfection should not be expected.

Another way to relieve anxiety is to make language learning as enjoyable as possible. The use of zany commands and humorous skits are two ways of showing that language learning can be fun.

Finally, it is important that there not be too much modeling, but that students not be too rushed either. Feelings of success and low anxiety facilitate learning.

6 How is the language viewed? How is culture viewed?

Just as with the acquisition of the native language, the oral modality is primary. Culture is the lifestyle of people who speak the language natively.

7 What areas of language are emphasized? What language skills are emphasized?

Vocabulary and grammatical structures are emphasized over other language areas. These are embedded within imperatives. The imperatives are single words and multi-word chunks. One reason for the use of imperatives is their frequency of occurrence in the speech directed at young children learning their native language.

Understanding the spoken word should precede its production. The spoken language is emphasized over written language. Students often do not learn to read the commands they have already learned to perform until after 10 hours of instruction.

8 What is the role of the students' native language?

TPR is usually introduced in the student's native language. After the introduction, rarely would the native language be used. Meaning is made clear through body movements.

9 How is evaluation accomplished?

Teachers will know immediately whether or not students understand by observing their students' actions. Formal evaluations can be conducted simply by commanding individual students to perform a series of actions. As students become more advanced, their performance of skits they have created can become the basis for evaluation.

10 How does the teacher respond to student errors?

It is expected that students will make errors when they first begin speaking. Teachers should be tolerant of them and only correct major errors. Even these should be corrected unobtrusively. As students get more advanced, teachers can 'fine tune'—correct more minor errors.

Reviewing the Techniques

The major technique, as we saw in the lesson we observed, is the use of commands to direct behavior. Asher acknowledges that, although this technique is powerful, a variety of activities is preferred for maintaining student interest. A detailed description of using commands is provided below. If you find some of the principles of Total Physical Response to be of interest, you may wish to devise your own techniques to supplement this one.

- **Using Commands to Direct Behavior**

It should be clear from the class we observed that the use of commands is the major teaching technique of TPR. The commands are given to get students to perform an action; the action makes the meaning of the command clear. Since Asher suggests keeping the pace lively, it is necessary for a teacher to plan in advance just which commands she will introduce in a lesson. If the teacher tries to think them up as the lesson progresses, the pace will be too slow.

At first, to clarify meaning, the teacher performs the actions with the students. Later the teacher directs the students alone. The students' actions tell the teacher whether or not the students understand.

As we saw in the lesson we observed, Asher advises teachers to vary the sequence of the commands so that students do not simply memorize the action sequence without ever connecting the actions with the language.

Asher believes it is very important that the students feel successful. Therefore, the teacher should not introduce new commands too fast. It is recommended that a teacher present three commands at a time. After students feel successful with these, three more can be taught.

Although we were only able to observe one beginning class, people always ask just how much of a language can be taught through the use of imperatives. Asher claims that all grammar features can be communicated through imperatives. To give an example of a more advanced lesson, one might teach the past tense as follows:

TEACHER: Ingrid, walk to the blackboard.

(Ingrid gets up and walks to the blackboard.)

TEACHER: Class, if Ingrid walked to the blackboard, stand up.

(The class stands up.)

TEACHER: Ingrid, write your name on the blackboard.

(Ingrid writes her name on the blackboard.)

TEACHER: Class, if Ingrid wrote her name on the blackboard,
sit down.

(The class sits down.)

- **Role Reversal**

Students command their teacher and classmates to perform some actions. Asher says that students will want to speak after 10–20 hours of instruction, although some students may take longer. Students should not be encouraged to speak until they are ready.

- **Action Sequence**

At one point we saw the teacher give three connected commands. For example, the teacher told the students to point to the door, walk to the door, and touch the door. As the students learn more and more of the target language, a longer series of connected commands can be given, which together comprise a whole procedure. While we did not see a long action sequence in this very first class, a little later on students might receive the following instructions, which they act out:

Take out a pen.

Take out a piece of paper.

Write a letter. (imaginary)

Fold the letter.

Put it in an envelope.

Seal the envelope.

Write the address on the envelope.

Put a stamp on the envelope.

Mail the letter.

This series of commands is called an action sequence, or an ‘operation.’ Many everyday activities, like writing a letter, can be broken down into an action sequence that students can be asked to perform.

Conclusion

Now that we have had a chance to experience a Total Physical Response class and to examine its principles and techniques, you should try to think about how any of this will be of use to you in your own teaching. The teacher we observed was using TPR with Grade 5 children; however, this same method has been used with adult learners and younger children as well.

Ask yourself: Does it make any sense to delay the teaching of speaking the target language? Do you believe that students should not be encouraged to speak until they are ready to do so? Should a teacher overlook certain student errors in the beginning? Which, if any, of the other principles do you agree with?

Would you use the imperative to present the grammatical structures and vocabulary of the target language? Do you believe it is possible to teach all grammatical features through the imperative? Do you think that accompanying language with action aids recall? Would you teach reading and writing in the manner described in this lesson? Would you want to adapt any of the techniques of TPR to your teaching situation? Can you think of any others you would create that would be consistent with the principles presented here?

Activities

A Check your understanding of Total Physical Response.

- 1 Asher believes that additional language instruction can and should be modeled on native language acquisition. What are some characteristics of his method that are similar to the way children acquire their native language?
- 2 One of the principles of TPR is that when student anxiety is low, language learning is enhanced. How does this method lower student anxiety?

B Apply what you have understood about Total Physical Response.

- 1 Although the teacher uses imperatives, she does so in a gentle, pleasant way, the way a parent would (usually) do with a child. Her voice, facial expression, and manner are kind. Practice giving the commands in this chapter in this way.
- 2 A lot of target language structures and vocabulary can be taught through the imperative. Plan part of a TPR lesson in which the present continuous tense, or another structure in the target language, is introduced.

- 3 In the action sequence (operation) that we looked at, the teacher had the students pretend to write and mail a letter. Think of three other common activities which could be used as action sequences in the classroom. Make a list of commands for each one.

References/Additional Resources

- Asher, J. 2009. *Learning Another Language Through Actions: The Complete Teacher's Guidebook* (7th edn.). Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions.
- Garcia, R. 1996. *Instructor's Notebook: How to Apply TPR for Best Results* (4th edn.). Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions.
- Krashen, S. and T. Terrell. 1983. *The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom*. Hayward, CA: The Alemany Press.
- . 1987. *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Lewis, M. 1993. *The Lexical Approach*. Boston: Heinle/Cengage.
- . 1997. *Implementing the Lexical Approach*. Boston: Heinle/Cengage.
- Nelson, G., T. Winters, and R. Clark. 2004. *Do as I Say: Operations, Procedures and Rituals for Language Acquisition* (3rd edn.). Brattleboro, VT: Pro Lingua Associates, Publishers.
- Richards, J. and T. Rodgers. 1986. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Romijn, E. and C. Seely. 2000. *Live Action English*. Berkley, CA: Command Performance Language Institute. (Also available in Spanish, French, German, Italian, and Japanese.)
- Seeley, C. and E. Romijn. 2006. *TPR is More than Commands at All Levels* (3rd edn.). Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions.
- Winitz, H. 1978. *The Learnables*. Kansas City, MO: International Linguistics. (Cassette program series.)
- (ed.). 1981. *The Comprehension Approach to Foreign Language Instruction*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.