



*Universitat  
Abat Oliba CEU*

**Learning in motion: a study about the effectiveness  
of Total Physical Response (TPR) in the acquisition  
of English vocabulary in Primary Education.**

*The human being is a unit so, why should we forget our  
body?*

END OF DEGREE PROJECT

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## **DECLARATION**

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Andrea DE CARLOS BUJÁN



*Every person is a walking university. From their experience, they know something unique that no one else on earth knows. Share with them what you are trying to do. Perhaps they can help.*

JAMES J. ASHER



## **Abstract**

*The project introduced in the following pages includes the fundamentals and key concepts of Total Physical Response (TPR), a second language teaching approach developed by James J. Asher throughout the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. One of the purposes of this research is the systematized presentation of a compilation and bibliographic review of Total Physical Response (TPR) approach to learn a foreign language through actions in order to know its basic characteristics and principles and its correct application. This paper also reviews the research conducted on the benefits of using the body and physical movement in learning. Moreover, it provides a theoretical framework of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). The main ideas of Asher's approach are that a second language can be best learnt by using language-body conversations and by creating similar conditions to first language acquisition. The author considers that TPR offers a high potential to develop linguistic skills in a stress-free atmosphere and in meaningful communicative contexts in which students have instant understanding of the input produced by the instructor and in which they can be physically active. The central aim of the paper is to carry out an empirical investigation to examine if TPR is more effective than a Translation-based approach in the acquisition of English words in Primary Education. Notwithstanding the limitations, the results indicate that TPR approach is more effective than a Translation-based approach in teaching new vocabulary to children.*

## **Resumen**

*El trabajo expuesto en las siguientes páginas recoge los fundamentos y conceptos clave de "Total Physical Response (TPR)", un enfoque de enseñanza de una segunda lengua desarrollado por James J. Asher durante la segunda mitad del siglo XX. Uno de los propósitos de esta investigación es la presentación sistematizada de una recopilación y revisión bibliográfica de la técnica "Total Physical Response (TPR)" para aprender una lengua extranjera a través de acciones, con el fin de conocer sus características y principios básicos y su correcta aplicación. Este documento también revisa la investigación realizada sobre los beneficios de usar el cuerpo y el movimiento físico en el aprendizaje. Además, proporciona un marco teórico sobre la adquisición de una segunda lengua (ASL). Las ideas principales de la propuesta de Asher son que una segunda lengua puede aprenderse mejor mediante el uso de conversaciones entre cuerpo y lengua y creando condiciones similares a la adquisición de la primera lengua. El autor considera que TPR ofrece un alto potencial para desarrollar habilidades lingüísticas en una atmósfera libre de*

*estrés y en contextos comunicativos significativos en los que los estudiantes tienen una comprensión instantánea de los mensajes verbales producidos por el instructor y en los que pueden ser físicamente activos. El objetivo central del trabajo es llevar a cabo una investigación empírica para examinar si TPR es más efectivo que un enfoque basado en la traducción en la adquisición de vocabulario en inglés en la Educación Primaria. A pesar de las limitaciones, los resultados indican que el enfoque de TPR es más efectivo que un enfoque basado en la traducción para enseñar nuevo vocabulario a niños.*

## **Resum**

*El treball exposat en les següents pàgines recull els fonaments i conceptes clau de "Total Physical Response (TPR)", una eina d'ensenyament d'una segona llengua desenvolupada per James J. Asher durant la segona meitat del segle XX. Un dels propòsits d'aquesta recerca és la presentació sistematitzada d'un recull i revisió bibliogràfica de la tècnica "Total Physical Response (TPR)" per aprendre una llengua estrangera a través d'accions, per tal de conèixer les seves característiques i principis bàsics i la seva correcta aplicació. Aquest document també revisa la investigació realitzada sobre els beneficis d'utilitzar el cos i el moviment físic en l'aprenentatge. A més, proporciona un marc teòric de l'adquisició d'una segona llengua (ASL). Les idees principals de la proposta d'Asher són que una segona llengua es pot aprendre millor mitjançant l'ús de converses entre cos i llengua i creant condicions similars a l'adquisició de la primera llengua. L'autor considera que el TPR ofereix un alt potencial per desenvolupar habilitats lingüístiques en una atmosfera lliure d'estrès i en contextos comunicatius significatius en els quals els estudiants tenen una comprensió instantània dels missatges verbals que emet l'instructor i en els quals poden ser físicament actius. L'objectiu central del treball és dur a terme una investigació empírica per examinar si el TPR és més efectiu que un enfocament basat en la traducció en l'adquisició de vocabulari en anglès en l'Educació Primària. Tot i les limitacions, els resultats indiquen que l'enfocament de TPR és més efectiu que un enfocament basat en la traducció per ensenyar nou vocabulari a nens.*

## **Keywords/ *Palabras claves***

Asher — Body — Empirical investigation — L2 — Movement — Second Language Acquisition (SLA) —TPR — Translation

Asher — Cuerpo — Investigación empírica — L2 — Movimiento — Adquisición de Segundas Lenguas (ASL) —TPR — Traducción

Asher — Cos — Investigació empírica — L2 — Moviment — Adquisició de Segones Llengües (ASL) —TPR — Traducció



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## Introduction

It is an incontestable truth that the English language is fast becoming a key instrument for life. In the more and more globalized world of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, English has turned into a central “must” and it is an essential requisite not only to be able to travel around the world and to communicate internationally, but also to find better job opportunities and to have access to science and knowledge. In the learning society, this “international vehicle”, which is being more frequently recognised as the worldwide *lingua franca*, is indispensable to break down barriers and to have access to cultural or economic advantages.

Therefore, along with this growing trend towards using English as a world language, there is increasing concern over the introduction of English language learning into the Primary Education curriculum. Questions about the most suitable age to start learning English have been raised and, in recent years, there has been a growing pressure to introduce the English language to young learners as soon as possible. However, there is relatively little quantitative analysis of which can be the best tool or methodology to employ to improve Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and to improve second language teaching practice.

A primary problem of English language learning in Spain is that the attainment results do not correspond with the hours dedicated to learn and practice the language. Even though Spain is one of the European countries in which English lessons start at a younger age, it is one of the countries in the queue in learning English. This indicates a need to investigate which could be the best way to introduce this foreign language to learners. In the pages that follow, the Total Physical Response (TPR) approach developed by James J. Asher will be thoroughly examined. Throughout this paper, the acronym TPR will refer to Total Physical Response. Furthermore, the following research will examine the benefits that the implementation of TPR in Primary Education classrooms could have in providing a rich learning experience and in leading to acquisition in comparison to a Translation-based approach.

Hence, the major aim of this study is to shed new light on Second Language Acquisition (SLA) by analyzing the possible effectiveness of Total Physical Response (TPR) in the teaching and learning process of English vocabulary.

Moreover, the research will give an account of the significance that movement has in human development and of its derived use in education. Nowadays, despite the fact

that some scientific investigations have demonstrated the benefits of motion in learning, movement is rarely used in classrooms. Students are required to be seated for hours and only their minds are used in the process of acquisition of knowledge. The human being is a unit so, why should we forget our body?

For reasons of expository order and clarity, the work will be divided into four large blocks. We believe it is opportune to start with an introduction about movement and its implications in life and learning. The second part will then go on to briefly present language development and Second Language Acquisition (SLA). The third section will examine TPR, its origins, basic fundamentals and mode of application, and its advantages and disadvantages. Once the basic characteristics of TPR will be reviewed, there will follow a study aimed to contribute to this growing area of research by analyzing the results of two groups of Primary Education students before and after the implementation of a didactic unit based on TPR and on translation, respectively. In that way, it will be discussed if students learnt best following TPR or through a more traditional approach without movement. Finally, the conclusions will provide a brief summary and critique of the findings to which the present study leads and will identify areas for further research.

Due to practical constraints, this paper cannot provide a comprehensive review of TPR and it is beyond its scope to include a complete discussion of the adequacy of TPR since the study will only be carried out with a limited group of students. The reader should bear in mind that the results are therefore based on a small sample size and the conclusions cannot be generalized.

The methodological approach employed in this study is a combination of primary and secondary data. On the one hand, the research requires the revision of Asher's original sources, specifically his book *"Learning Another Language Through Actions"*, and the analysis of books written by some other experts in the field such as Contee Seely and Elizabeth Romijn who wrote *"TPR Is More Than Commands- At All Levels"*. On the other hand, the investigation deals with primary data that will be collected from Primary Education students using both qualitative and quantitative methods.

## 1. The body and learning

- a. *"In a world that is changing and becoming more completely interconnected at an accelerating pace, concerns about learning are certainly justified (Etienne Wenger)" (Illeris, 2009, p.214).*

There is a large volume of published studies describing the meaning of learning. According to Illeris (2007), "learning can broadly be defined as any process that in living organisms leads to permanent capacity change and which is not solely due to biological maturation or ageing" (p.3).

Over the past decades, the concept of learning emphasized the acquisition of knowledge and skills. However, in recent years, there has been an increasing amount of literature that broadens the definition of the notion to cover a "much larger field that includes emotional, social and societal dimensions" (Illeris, 2009, p.1). Moreover, it has been shown that human learning takes place through two main types of psychological functions: the function of managing the learning content which "concerns what is learnt (...) knowledge and skills, but also many other things such as opinions, insight, meaning, attitudes, values, ways of behaviour, methods, strategies, etc." (Illeris, 2009, p.10) and the incentive function that "comprises such elements as feelings, emotions, motivation and volition" (Illeris, 2009, p.10). The aforesaid two functions work cooperatively and in an integrated way to lead to the processes of elaboration and acquisition (Illeris, 2009).

It has sometimes been assumed that knowledge should be divided into different sections or compartments, bounded by distinct fields or areas of interest. As Condró and Messiez (2016) state, "we specialize in specializing in something by turning our backs on everything else, which is the competence of other specialists" (p.13). This reasoning has usually led us to believe that "there are instances that only affect the body and others only the mind" (Condró and Messiez, 2016, p.15), and that the brain is an isolated external hard drive.

Asher (2012) points out that whereas in the 1950s and 1960s, the mind was normally considered in academic circles "as an instrument of beauty, power, and even spirituality" (p.1-26) that needed to be developed in the best possible way; the body was seen as something "to be tolerated, but not revered" (p.1-26) and, in some occasions, something to deny. "Only in recent years have we witnessed a

renaissance of interest in the body as a beautiful instrument of health, energy, and power” (Asher, 2012, p.1-26).

In line with current studies, Peter Jarvis defines human learning as the:

combination of processes throughout a lifetime whereby the whole person- body (genetic, physical and biological) and mind (knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, emotions, beliefs, and senses)- experiences social situations, the perceived content of which is then transformed cognitively, emotively or practically (or through any combination) and integrated into the individual person’s biography resulting in a continually changing (or more experienced) person (Illeris, 2009, p.25).

From this explanation, it can be derived that in learning it is crucially important the interaction between the learner and his/her “social, societal, cultural and material environment” (Illeris, 2009, p.12). In addition, Jarvis states the implication of the whole person, underlining that the person is both mind and body and that these are interrelated entities. According to this statement, “learning is not just psychological” (Illeris, 2009, p.31).

This view is supported by Philosophical Anthropology, which exposes the intimate relationship between the spirit and the body. In harmony with that field of knowledge and, as noted by Jarvis, “in the first instance experience is a matter of the body receiving sensations” (Illeris, 2009, p.25). It is true that rational knowledge requires a previous sensitive experience that the external senses provide. Our ability to experience the world and the capacity to learn spontaneously from the environment are possible through the information captured by the senses, due to the sensory and perceptive capacity of the body. Senses “then are the beginning of every learning experience, so that the bodily sensations are fundamental to the whole of the learning process” (Illeris, 2009, p.30). As a result, human existence cannot be separated from the body because we can only perceive the world from and through our corporeal frame (Cañabate and Soler, 2017).

Similarly, Piaget argued that “learning begins with the body and takes place through the brain, which is also part of the body, and only gradually is the mental side separated out as a specific but never independent area or function (Piaget, 1952)” (Illeris, 2009, p.11). The mental reality of the human being cannot exist independently of the body. In the same vein, Montserrat Antón and Lourdes Martínez-Mínguez stated the “importance of the body in the daily and relational life of people in their process of individual development” (Cañabate and Soler, 2017, p.33).

The already stated considerations lead, consequently, to the necessity of analyzing the functions that the body in its entirety and movement have in the harmonious development of human beings.

### **1.1. The role of movement in life and learning**

- a. *“Movement is absolutely linked to the instinct of life. The impulse of life generates movement and it is in the movement where life develops”* (Cañabate and Soler, 2017, p.9).

Central to the entire discipline of life is the concept of movement because it is present since conception. Within a body we can find cellular movement, movement of the organs, among other types of movement. Furthermore, the idea of life that can be achieved through simple empirical observation through the senses is ‘spontaneous self-movement’. One of the things that distinguishes a living organism from a death one is that the first is able to originate its own movement. The living being moves itself whereas the death organism can only receive transitive movement.

In addition, according to Cañabate and Soler (2017), “movement is not just a displacement to feed or survive. It is a clear demonstration of brain activity as a whole” (p.19). Joan San, neurosurgeon and dean of the Faculty of Medicine at Girona University, claims that movement is extremely interconnected with the nervous system. Actually, San manifests that the process that culminated with the standing of *homo sapiens* was carried out in parallel with the development of the nervous system (Cañabate and Soler, 2017). Related to movement and the acquisition of motor skills, there is a complex network of neuronal connectivity which includes the motor and premotor cerebral cortex, the parietal, occipital and temporal lobes, the emotional cortex, the hippocampus, the amygdalar complex and the visceral cortex (Cañabate and Soler, 2017). Hence, there is a close parallelism between the development of motor functions and that of psychic functions and, consequently, our minds evolve with action.

In the first years of life, the importance of movement is vital for the integral development of the person. Angeline Stoll Lillard (2017) points out that “learning to move is increasingly recognized as a key development” (p.39) and that “even spontaneous movements are important to development” (p.43). Likewise,

psychological developments take place when children are able to plan and accomplish movements. Learning to grasp objects not only allows the improvement of manual control, but it also “has an important effect on an infant’s interest in and knowledge about the physical world” (Lillard, 2017, p.40) and is related to advances in “cognition about both the physical and the social world” (Lillard, 2017, p.41).

Besides, concentration is likely to appear during the previously mentioned motor activities. Consequently, when a child is able to be involved in purposeful activities regulated by self-generated movement and locomotion, he/she is boosting mental processes. For this reason, movement is a major area of interest within the field of learning and, “to assist development, children should be encouraged to move their hands and their bodies from an early age” (Lillard, 2017, p.43).

b. *“The body in movement is a direct instrument of knowledge, learning and integral education”* (Cañabate and Soler, 2017, p.49).

Even though education is aimed at providing an integral formation for children, as discussed above, their bodies are usually overlooked<sup>1</sup>. In order to offer a complete education, movement and motor control should be taken into account. When a child is able to move, explore and experiment in his/her environment, “the communicative and learning capacity increases exponentially, significantly, vitally ... generating interest to continue learning in new and diverse situations” (Cañabate and Soler, 2017, p.34).

Movement increases attention and emotional regulation and enhances learning. “From this perspective we can say that people do not learn only from the intellect but also through the body” (Cañabate and Soler, 2017, p.50). As stated by Lillard (2017), “movement and cognition are closely entwined, and movement can enhance thinking and learning” (p.28) and “we learn best when we can move our bodies in ways that align with our cognition” (p.378).

Recent studies have shown that there is a close relationship between movement and development and learning and cognition; thus, “people learn best when they are actively engaged” (Lillard, 2017, p.13) and the most optimate learning is active and

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<sup>1</sup> “Students sit, look, and listen as the world is ‘constructed’ for them day by day. The only motion is perhaps to write something or occasionally raise their hand to ask a question” (Asher, 2012, p.3-107).

experiential. Moreover, Lillard (2017) reminds that “our brains evolved in a world in which we move and do, not a world in which we sit at desks and consider abstractions” (Lillard, 2017, p.28). That is why education “should involve movement to enhance learning” (Lillard, 2017, p.29) and learning should be accomplished through movement.

When students are doing things with their bodies, “their learning is situated in the context of actions and objects” (Lillard, 2017, p.31) and their actions are connected to the mental activity because “thought guides action” (Lillard, 2017, p.51). When body and thoughts are aligned, body-mind connections allow a more accurate representation of reality<sup>2</sup>. This is particularly significant in the representation of space, objects, and mathematics<sup>3</sup>. “Several studies show that representations of space and objects are improved when movement is involved” (Lillard, 2017, p.53). In addition, Lillard (2017) argues that investigations have demonstrated that people are more proficient in spatial representation when they have been able to move themselves through those spaces. In the same way, it has been revealed that children who walked across a territory to be mapped did much better in reading the map afterwards than those who only imagined the territory without moving (Griffin, 1995, cited in Lillard, 2017).

The interconnection between movement and judgement has also been raised<sup>4</sup>. Lillard (2017) holds the view that the cognitive processing of verbal material is improved when actions are aligned. Similarly, “movement that aligns with what one is thinking is faster than movement that contradicts what one is thinking” (Lillard, 2017, p.53).

As it has been discovered by numerous investigations, another association that Lillard (2017) mentions is that “memory improves when one’s movements align with what is to be remembered” (p.54). In a study which was set out to determine if memory improved when movement was connected with thinking, it was found that “even facial movements are associated with improved memory (...); when facial movement corresponds with the valence of what one is thinking about, one remembers it better, illustrating the close connection between the body and the mind” (Lillard, 2017, p.55). In line with this, “people remembered the faces better to the

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<sup>2</sup> “In the embodied cognition perspective, the purpose of the brain is to guide action, and we think as we do because of the bodies we have (Glenberg, Witt & Metcalfe, 2013)” (Lillard, 2017, p.51).

<sup>3</sup> “Children who are more expert at using the abacus are more proficient at solving math problems, even when they are not using the abacus” (Lillard, 2017, p.53).

<sup>4</sup> “When the central verb of sentences is consistent with their own action, people make quicker judgements as to whether sentences make sense” (Glenberg & Kaschak, 2002)” (Lillard, 2017, p.53).

degree that they mimicked those others' facial expressions while viewing them" (Lillard, 2017, p.55).

As a result, it has commonly been assumed that movements aligned with what people are thinking or learning result in a superior remembering of information. This is also true for action-describing sentences. As R.L. Cohen, 1989; Engelkamp, Zimmer, Mohr, & Sellen, 1994 state, "when students enact the content of action-describing sentences at encoding, they remember those sentences better than when they learn the sentences without enacting them" (Lillard, 2017, p.54).

Le Breton (1990) claims that the body embraces not solely a physical dimension but also a symbolic one. This is also true for language learning. Movement seems to be indispensable for humans to become linguistic beings. Research on gesture and symbolic understanding has shown that "gesture appears to aid symbolic understanding even in infancy" (Lillard, 2017, p.66) and that the first grammatical constructions are produced due to combinations of gesture with speech<sup>5</sup>. One possible explanation is that children can send and receive messages through gesture before using verbal communication<sup>6</sup>. As stated by Lillard (2017), "children reveal understandings in gesture that they cannot yet reveal in speech" (p.75) and their nascent knowledge "is thus sometimes expressed with the hands even before it is expressed with speech (Goldin-Meadow, 2002)" (p.76). Moreover,

children who were trained to gesture (asked to point at a picture in a book, while the experimenter labeled the picture) later used more spoken words than children who only watched the experimenter point at pictures while labeling them (LeBarton, Goldin-Meadow, & Raudenbush, 2015) (Lillard, 2017, p.66).

This means that "teaching methods that capitalize on this by engaging children's hands in the learning process would be expected to enable better learning" (Lillard, 2017, p.78).

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<sup>5</sup> "Another study showed that parents' frequent use of gestures in communication with their children even hastened their spoken language development (Goodwyn, Acredolo, & Brown, 2000)" (Lillard, 2017, p.67).

"The gestural modality may have allowed thoughts to be conveyed earlier than they could be conveyed in speech, and using such combinations in gesture may have even facilitated their use in spoken language" (Lillard, 2017, p.68).

"Another example of gesture possibly aiding symbolic cognition in young children is that children can interpret symbols designated by actions earlier than they understand symbols designated by models (Tomasello, Striano, & Rocha, 1999)" (Lillard, 2017, p.68).

<sup>6</sup> "Hand movements that convey meaning might be privileged for children relative to spoken word that convey meaning" (Lillard, 2017, p.68).



Other research has shown that this pattern is not limited to children. Adults also use gestures conveying how they are going to solve a problem, even when they do not express those strategies in speech (Goldin-Meadow, 2002). “Gesture seems to carry some of the cognitive load, and also appears to make learning last (Cook, Mitchell, & Goldin-Meadow, 2008)” (Lillard, 2017, p.76).

Additionally, Cañabate and Soler (2017) hold the view that movement and gesture unveil without transparencies the intimacy of human beings. “When speaking of the languages with which the human being expresses himself, the corporal is undoubtedly the first one that appears and the last one that vanishes” (Cañabate and Soler, 2017, p.33). One can try to hide or disguise through words but “at the time to move, for better or for worse, the exact revelation of what we are takes place (Durán, 1990, p.46)” (Cañabate and Soler, 2017, p.55). As Albaladejo (2007) claims, “we all emit non-verbal messages constantly” (p.7), even without being aware of it. Regularly, the aforementioned non-verbal messages are related with emotions whereas the verbal messages associate to what the individual wants to communicate rationally (Albaladejo, 2007). Consequently, although it has commonly been assumed that the function of speaking is something separated from our body, it is important to mention here that the human body has its own language, the non-verbal language. At the same time, understanding communication as a process to transmit information (being the message verbal or non-verbal), it seems impossible not to communicate uninterruptedly (Albaladejo, 2007). This also means that these two types of messages (verbal and non-verbal) can sometimes contradict themselves and when the indicated takes place, “the message that counts is non-verbal” (Albaladejo, 2007, p.25). Furthermore, non-verbal communication “transmits, at least, two thirds of the total number of messages transmitted in an interaction” (Albaladejo, 2007, p. 29). Albaladejo (2007) pinpoints that, besides what is communicated through words, silences or voice tone, our body speaks. “The position and movements of our body speak of us, who we are, of what we are in the world and our emotions” (Albaladejo, 2007, p.77).

Non-verbal communication even acquires more significance when focusing on children. Due to a scarce verbal knowledge, “the smaller a child is, the more he reacts to our nonverbal communication without taking into account what we say” (Albaladejo, 2007, p.26). Similarly, human beings are able to understand not only through what we hear but also by means of what we are able to see, touch, experience or interact with. That is the reason why it is extremely important to acknowledge the relevance of the body as an instrument to allow both physical and

mental participation that can result in a better and most profitable learning experience.

However, up to this point, although students have benefited from the recognition of the importance of emotions in the teaching-learning process, “conventional classrooms are not set up to capitalize on the relationship between movement and cognition” (Lillard, 2017, p.56). In conventional classrooms students usually spend much of the day seated at desks and listening to the teacher without being allowed to move around the class. This requirement can be especially difficult for some children for whom moving is a vital need. “Except for the symbolic translation involved in writing, their learning is rarely connected to their body movement” (Lillard, 2017, p.37). In that way, the body continues to be merely a house for the mind and is not moved as an active entity to be in the service of the mind.

Cañabate and Soler (2017) state that “an innovative and critical education must also promote movement as a primordial expressive language, applying active, dynamic and reflexive methodologies with the aim of empowering and developing skills, capacities and abilities for life” (p.9). This consideration could have major benefits since “both movement and motor control, language and emotions are manifestations of the uniqueness of the person” (Cañabate and Soler, 2017, p.7).

To sum up, “education cannot easily capitalize on the findings that movement and gesture both reveal and lead to cognition” (Lillard, 2017, p.79) because in conventional classrooms “there is less physical action and increased learning through reading and writing” (Asher, 2012, foreword first edition). However, two authors have taken into account the benefits of movement in the teaching-learning process: Maria Montessori and James J. Asher. The Italian pedagogue proposed a teaching system that allows students’ freedom of movement. Moreover, she came up with the so called “Command Cards”. These cards contain sentences that children have to read to later execute the action written on them. “Command Cards” were designed to allow children to identify the grammatical category of words (nouns<sup>7</sup>, verbs<sup>8</sup>, adverbs, conjunctions<sup>9</sup>, etc.). Furthermore, “acting out what one reads

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<sup>7</sup> “As they learn the vocabulary for new objects, children move cards from a storage box and place them by the objects they name. Dr. Montessori noted that through this process, children were inherently learning what a noun is, and she reasoned that other parts of speech could also be learned via such exercises” (Lillard, 2017, p.71).

<sup>8</sup> “Children read the commands and execute the action, so the overarching concept of ‘verb’ is conveyed” (Lillard, 2017, p.72).

“Older children carry out verbal commands written on cards, both to develop semantic precision and to experience what a verb is” (Lillard, 2017, p.37).

sharpens one's attention to words and their precise meaning, which is another goal of the Command Cards" (Lillard, 2017, p.72).

Asher, the originator of Total Physical Response (TPR), which will be discussed in the following pages, was another advocate of the inclusion of the kinesthetic system in learning. In order to correctly analyze his proposal to ameliorate the acquisition of a foreign language through movement, the succeeding section will examine some of the considerable amount of literature that has been published on Second Language Acquisition (SLA).

## **2. Second Language Acquisition (SLA)**

Cortés Moreno (2000) defines 'language' as "the fundamental system of communication between human beings of a linguistic community" (p.11). The same author notes that a language (either L1 or L2) is a sign system that enables people to exchange information and establish relationships of any kind. Cassany, Luna and Sanz (2001) manifest that a language is also an instrument by which we order our thinking and develop an identity.

### ***2.1. First language development in early childhood***

"We have all observed children acquiring their L1 with ease yet struggling to learn an L2<sup>10</sup> in the classroom and sometimes even failing" (Brewster et al., 2012, p.16). Since the research carried out to know how children develop their first language has influenced Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories, it is necessary to have some basic notions on how first languages are acquired.

- a. *"Language acquisition is one of the most impressive and fascinating aspects of human development"* (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 1).

The observation of how children progress through the acquisition of their first language in their first years of life has shown that there are predictable developmental sequences, patterns or stages for languages all over the world. Ellis suggests that there is a natural and almost unchanging sequence of development: moving from simple vocabulary to basic syntax, then on to the structure of simple

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<sup>9</sup> "They learn about the importance of conjunctions by carrying out commands in which conjunctions are present and missing" (Lillard, 2017, p.72).

<sup>10</sup> Language 2 is any language that is acquired afterwards the L1.

sentences, finally moving to more complex sentences” (Brewster et al., 2012, p.23). For Lightbown and Spada (2006), “to some extent, these stages in language acquisition are related to children’s cognitive development” (p.2). According to this, it seems reasonable that children who have not yet acquired an understanding of time are not able to use temporal adverbs. In addition, it is important to notice that although children can master different features at different ages, the acquisition of language follows the same order. Moreover, “the acquisition of other language features also shows how children’s language develops systematically, and how they go beyond what they have heard to create new forms and structures” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 4).

After birth, babies start learning a language by hearing and producing noises, sounds and cries. Before six months of life, babies are able to perceive all the phonemes in all the languages of the world. Later, this ability is lost to focus on their own language.

The first stage through which children pass in the process of acquiring their first language is babbling. From birth to around eight months, babies have little control over the sounds and own vocalizations but they “are able to hear very subtle differences between the sounds of human languages” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 2).

At about eleven or twelve months, most children produce a recognizable word. They begin to put names to the objects and people that they see. “Through constant exposure to words and, by imitating examples heard, the infant learns to associate certain objects with certain sounds” (Brewster et al., 2012, p.14). A year later, by the age of two, they start to be aware of the word order of the language they are hearing and they begin to combine words in a meaningful relationship to form simple sentences. These propositions are often called ‘telegraphic’ “because they leave out such things as articles, prepositions, and auxiliary verbs” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 2).

By the age of three to four, the majority of children start to master the basic structures of their mother language/s and can ask questions, make negations, give commands, create stories, etc. “using correct word order and grammatical markers most of the time” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 7). They continue acquiring lots of new vocabulary and also more complex phonological, syntactic and lexical linguistic structures. “By the age of five many children will draw on a vocabulary of several thousand words” (Brewster et al., 2012, p.14).

In late pre-school years, children start to use the language “in a greater variety of situations (and they) interact more often with unfamiliar adults” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 8). Consequently, they begin manipulating the language and realizing how and why it varies. Moreover, they initiate to develop some metalinguistic awareness<sup>11</sup>.

During the school years, children extend and augment “the ability to understand language and to use it to express themselves” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 8), the amount of vocabulary<sup>12</sup> and their metalinguistic awareness (that also includes ambiguity)<sup>13</sup>. With the introduction of reading, they also learn “that language has form as well as meaning” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 8). In this stage of development, children also continue to acquire different language registers and conversational skills.

### **2.1.1. Different views on L1 acquisition**

The issue of first language acquisition has received considerable critical attention and there are three main theoretical approaches that try to explain it: behaviorism, innatism and interactionism.

Between the 1940s and 1950s, B.F. Skinner and other behaviorists considered that imitation and practice encouraged by the environment and ‘positive reinforcement’ were the required primary processes to form habits of correct language use (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). Accordingly, “this theory gives great importance to the environment as the source of everything the child needs to learn” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 10). However, even though behaviorism offers an explanation to the overgeneralization of regular and routine aspects of language and imitation and practice play an important role in language learning, it is not “a satisfactory explanation for the acquisition of the more complex grammar that children acquire” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 15).

In line with the innatist perspective developed during the 1950s and 1960s, Noam Chomsky argued that children are biologically programmed to learn a language and that they only need people available to speak to them. However, innatists realized

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<sup>11</sup> “The ability to treat language as an object separate from the meaning it conveys” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 8).

<sup>12</sup> “Vocabulary grows at a rate between several hundred and more than a thousand words a year, depending mainly on how much and how widely children read (Nagy, Herman, and Anderson 1985)” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 9).

<sup>13</sup> “Knowing that words and sentences can have multiple meaning gives children access to jokes, trick questions, and riddles, which they love to share with their friends and family” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 9).

that children “come to know more about the structure of their language than they could reasonably be expected to learn on the basis of the samples of language they hear” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 15). That is why Chomsky concluded that children have an innate ability or endowment called the Universal Grammar (UG) that allows them to find out for themselves the underlying rules of the language and to produce their own meaningful utterances (in spite of limitations in the input received). Consequently, “what they have to learn is the ways in which the language they are acquiring makes use of these principles” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 15). Moreover, innatism is linked to the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) of more cognitive-developmental views that suggests that children need to be exposed to language in their early years and that, if they are deprived from it for too long, they will never acquire it. Nevertheless, the innatists’ views are criticized because more personal and social aspects of language remain without consideration.

The emphasis on social factors led developmental psychologists to ‘social-interactionist’ views. Interactionists like Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky hypothesized during the last years of the 20<sup>th</sup> century that children acquire the language by being exposed to it, “as they hear it used thousands of hours of interactions with the people and objects around them” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 19). Although as Lightbown and Spada (2006) claim, interactionist or developmental perspectives “recognize a powerful learning mechanism in the human brain” (p.19), they “attribute considerably more importance to the environment than the innatists do” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 19). Interactionists also emphasize a “close relationship between children’s cognitive development and their acquisition of language” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 19). Moreover, this view takes into account the importance of interaction “between a language-learning child and an interlocutor who responds” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 22). However, in accordance with Vygotsky’s sociocultural perspective, learning occurs when “an individual interacts with an interlocutor within his or her zone of proximal development (ZPD)” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 47); a phrase used to describe the things children can do with the help of a more knowledgeable or skilled person but are unable to do alone. Bruner also used the term ‘scaffolding’ to refer to the structure or framework that the interlocutor provides to the child. For this reason, the interactionists manifest that, when adults speak with children, it is essential for them to modify the language to provide a child-directed speech adjusted to the infants’ level of comprehension and “characterized by a slower rate of delivery, higher pitch, more varied intonation, shorter and simpler sentence patterns, stress on key words, frequent repetition, and paraphrase” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 21). In the same vein, the Interaction

Hypothesis formulated by Michael Long states that modified interaction (that does not always involve linguistic simplification) which makes input comprehensible is necessary for language acquisition (Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

Although L1 and L2 learners differ in many aspects, they are similar in their ability and in the process followed to acquire language. As stated by Brewster et al. (2012), "we can say that some L1 and L2 acquisition *processes* are very similar, although many of the learning *conditions* are very different" (p.20). Some of the conditions and characteristics of second language acquisition are exposed as follows.

## **2.2. Learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL)**

This section analyses the learning of English as a foreign language in the Primary Education school context. The presence of English in Primary Education has partly been due to the growing interest in the teaching of English to young learners. Parents demand for English to be taught at even younger ages to provide their children with a competitive education (Phillips, 1993). However, as it will be discussed later, an early start is not, in itself, a guarantee for better learning.

### **2.2.1. The young Second Language learners' characteristics**

As Lightbown and Spada (2006) maintain, "a second language learner is different from a very young child acquiring a first language" (p.29). First of all, there have been changes in the learner's characteristics and in the environments of acquisition. Moreover, all second language learners have already acquired at least one language. On the one hand, this can be an advantage because they already have an idea of how languages work; on the other hand, it can lead learners to make errors by inappropriately transferring the knowledge of their L1 to their L2.

The term 'young learners' refers to children from the first year of formal schooling (five or six years old) to eleven or twelve years of age. Brewster et al., (2012) claim that young children differ from older learners because they:

have a lot of physical energy and often need to be physically active<sup>14</sup>, have a wide range of emotional needs and are emotionally excitable, are developing conceptually and are at an early stage of their schooling, are still developing literacy in their first language, learn more

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<sup>14</sup> "They are also more physically restless than older children and require activities which are short, varied and which occasionally allow them to burn off energy" (Brewster et al., 2012, p.28).

"The younger the learners, the more physical activity they tend to need and the more they need to make use of all their senses" (Brewster et al., 2012, p.35).

"The understanding of children aged five to seven years old comes through the hands, eyes and ears, so the physical world is dominant at all times" (Brewster et al., 2012, p.34).

slowly and forget things quickly, tend to be self-oriented and preoccupied with their own world, get bored easily, are excellent mimics, can concentrate for a surprisingly long time if they are interested and can be easily distracted but also very enthusiastic (pp.27-28).

Since the 1990s, there has been an increasing interest to discover the most suitable age to acquire a language and it has sometimes been assumed that younger learners obtain better results. Nevertheless, Brewster et al. (2012) point out that "an early start is not, in itself, automatically an advantage; an early start is influenced by many learner factors, which play a great part in the success of the L2 learning" (p.21).

According to Phillips (1993), one of the advantages of young children is that they are more holistic learners and, besides being great mimics, they are often unselfconscious and easily motivated because they have an innate curiosity and enthusiasm for learning. Brewster et al. (2012) claim that "young children seem to have a greater ability for understanding and imitating what they hear than secondary school pupils" (pp.3-4). Moreover, apart from not being cognitively mature, they have a limited attention span and have little metalinguistic awareness; they are usually more willing to try to use the language because they are more spontaneous and uninhibited.

James J. Asher (2012) tried to explain children's superiority in language learning and reached the following conclusion: "with children, most utterances are rich in body movements that are intimately synchronized with languages; but adults have an impoverished context of learning because body movements only rarely cue the meaning of utterances" (p.1-32). According to him, adults normally acquire the target language in a non-play context and with higher anxiety, whereas children benefit from frequent language-body conversations. As a consequence, Asher (2012) asked himself: "If adults are given the same opportunity as children to acquire the target language, will the 'superiority of children' disappear?" (p.1-32).

The results of a first study showed that if adults acquire language through body movements, they outperform children<sup>15</sup>. One possible explanation is that mature students have developed more metalinguistic knowledge, memory strategies, and problem-solving skills. However, the outcomes of this first investigation revealed that adults performed better when understanding spoken Russian, leaving other skills such

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<sup>15</sup> "When adults had the opportunity to acquire language through body movements, they did not equal children, but actually surpassed children of all ages that we observed" (Asher, 2012, p.1-32).



as pronunciation without consideration. In a follow-up study, Ramiro Garcia, “then a graduate student in Linguistics at San Jose State University” (Asher, 2012, p.1-33), explored if children “had an advantage over adults in pronunciation” (Asher, 2012, p.1-33). Garcia’s outcomes, which have been confirmed by other researchers such as Krashen<sup>16</sup>, were that adults perform better in understanding, but people who begin learning a foreign language before puberty have the highest probability to achieve a near-native pronunciation. “After puberty, only rarely will the person have a near-native pronunciation of the target language, no matter how many years the person lives in the foreign country” (Asher, 2012, p.1-33).

Once some of the favouring circumstances that can be taken from children’s characteristics have been proven, it needs to be noted that at Primary Education level, learners’ individual differences are especially noteworthy. Students come from different backgrounds, have lived diverse experiences and have their own personal history. In addition, they belong to a specific social and cultural environment inside and outside the classroom and have distinct opportunities for interaction with native speakers. Furthermore, learners’ variables interact in complex ways. Therefore, “how well children learn an L2 is not simply a matter of what kind of environment they are in, which method or textbook is used, or the type of teacher they have” (Brewster et al., 2012, p.23).

Although every language learner will follow the same developmental sequence, each has his/her own pace to improve the interlanguage<sup>17</sup>. Some students progress rapidly, others make a very slow progress. Besides, “they possess different kinds of minds, with different strengths, interests, and modes of processing information (Howard Gardner)” (Illeris, 2009, p.106), different personalities<sup>18</sup> and beliefs and they take information in line with their particular learning style<sup>19</sup>. Lightbown and Spada (2006) suggest that “characteristics often believed to predict success in language learning are intelligence, aptitude<sup>20</sup>, motivation<sup>21</sup>, and the age at which learning begins” (p. 53). For these

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<sup>16</sup> “Adults proceed through the early stages of second language development faster than children do” (Krashen, 1987, p.43).

<sup>17</sup> “A learner’s developing second language knowledge” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 201).

<sup>18</sup> “It has been suggested that inhibition discourages risk-taking, which is necessary for progress in language learning” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 61).

“It has also been argued that not all anxiety is bad and that a certain amount of tension can have a positive effect and even facilitate learning” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 61).

<sup>19</sup> “The term ‘learning style’ has been used to describe an individual’s natural, habitual, and preferred way of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills (Reid 1995)” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 59).

<sup>20</sup> “Specific abilities thought to predict success in language learning” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 57).

reasons, as stated by Gardner, “if the teacher is able to use different pedagogical approaches, there exists the possibility of reaching more students in more effective ways” (Illeris, 2009, p.10). That is why we now proceed to look at the Second Language teacher.

### **2.2.2. The Second Language teacher**

Nowadays, teachers can have access to a wide range of methodologies, tools and teaching materials. However, the means cannot take the place of the purpose of education and cannot substitute or take the role of a good teacher. According to Phillips (1993), “teachers of young learners need special skills, many of which have little to do with the language, which becomes a by-product of learning activities rather than a centerpiece” (p.3) and Primary Education language teachers “have a much wider responsibility than the mere teaching of a language system” (p.6). The teaching of foreign languages also contributes to the integral development of children and must take into account their cognitive, physical, emotional, social, and cultural characteristics.

Several attempts have been made to describe the role of a second language teacher. One of the most important functions of foreign language teachers “is the creation of as many ways as possible of giving their pupils an appetite to learn” (Brewster et al., 2012, p.5). Moreover, they have to create a supportive and real-based linguistic environment in low anxiety situations<sup>22</sup>.

Another objective is the provision of comprehensible<sup>23</sup>, interesting, varied and sufficient input that can lead students to second language competence in understanding native language conversations. Although this is a challenging aim, Krashen (1987) claims that “if the student can make the transition to the real world, if the student can begin to use the outside for comprehensible input, both quantity and variety will be provided” (p.162).

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<sup>21</sup> “It has been defined in terms of two factors: on the one hand, learners’ communicative needs, and, on the other, their attitudes towards the second language community” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 63).

<sup>22</sup> “The need to provide a classroom atmosphere which promotes pupils’ confidence and self-esteem so that they can learn more effectively and enjoyably” (Brewster et al., 2012, pp.218-219).

<sup>23</sup> “Perhaps the main function of the second language teacher is to help make input comprehensible” (Krashen, 1987, p.64).

“Another main task of the teacher is to provide non-linguistic means of encouraging comprehension” (Krashen, 1987, p.66).

The child-directed speech of first language acquisition is related to the foreigner or teacher talk of second language acquisition. According to Lightbown and Spada (2006), "some people who interact regularly with language learners seem to have an intuitive sense of what adjustments they need to make to help learners understand" (pp. 32-33). The foreign language should be the main vehicle of communication and, in the first years "activities should be largely orally based" (Phillips, 1993, p.7). Teachers of a foreign language also need to stimulate and engage students in activities by creating a realistic context related with their interests<sup>24</sup> "for the presentation of a grammatical rule or vocabulary item" (Krashen, 1987, p.69). In addition, the development of the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) should be done in an integrated way and focusing "on the development of communicative competence and positive attitudes to language learning and the target culture" (Brewster et al., 2012, p.23).

Other aspect to which teachers need to pay attention is scaffolding. "Teachers need to create a balance in their classrooms between providing support and providing a challenge" (Brewster et al., 2012, p.40). If tasks and activities are too simple, students are not challenged and they do not learn, and if they are too difficult, they can be frustrated or demotivated.

One more thing that second language teachers need to take into account is that their "gestures, tone of voice and visual aids will help children feel confident about what is important to concentrate on" (Brewster et al., 2012, p.99)<sup>25</sup>. Likewise, they must ensure the provision of repetition through varied activities that cover much of their pupils' learning potential<sup>26</sup> by providing a balance between teaching-centered and learning-centered activities.

However, there is not a definite description of what a second language teacher needs to do. As Brewster et al. (2012) highlight, "the more experience you gain, the more you will refine your understanding of pupils' learning which may lead you to modify your behaviour" (p.37). Teachers can try a vast range of foreign language

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<sup>24</sup> "One begins by considering which entry points might succeed in attracting the interest and attention of diverse students (Howard Gardner)" (Illeris, 2009, p.113).

<sup>25</sup> "Teachers can help learners draw on this skill in the L2 by ensuring language use is contextualized and has visual support wherever possible" (Brewster et al., 2012, p.40).

<sup>26</sup> "They need a wide variety of activities, different patterns of interaction and opportunities to maximize talk in the classroom in order to sustain speaking. The teacher needs to develop a repertoire of activities providing a balance between control and creativity, repetition and real use and provide varied models of spoken English" (Brewster et al., 2012, p.106).

approaches to learning to check which works best for their students. Some of the most known are explained next.

### **2.2.3. Approaches to Second Language Acquisition (SLA)**

A growing body of applied research on Second Language Acquisition (SLA) has not been able until now to come up with the best language teaching practice. The complexity of language acquisition causes a lack of agreement in the field. Nevertheless, in the following lines, some Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories and approaches are presented: Grammar-translation, Audio-lingual, Direct Method and Natural Approach.

Grammar-translation is an approach based on the explanation of a grammar rule, usually with examples, and the presentation of vocabulary in the form of a bilingual list. What is more, “the reading selection is the primary source” (Krashen, 1987) and then both grammar and vocabulary are practised through exercises deliberately designed to underline the conscious control of a structure and to translate it in both directions from the L1 to the L2 or vice versa. This reveals that it is a method that considers conscious control of rules a requirement to learn and later be able to acquire. Krashen (1987) suggests that it is an approach in which “learning is vastly overemphasized” (p.129), “the implicit assumption being that all students will be able to use all the rules at all times” (p.129). This approach is therefore form - focused and grammatically sequenced. The main disadvantage is that most of the times, grammar-translation does not provide comprehensible input and increases anxiety levels because students are required to produce immediately and in an accurate way (Krashen, 1987).

The audio-lingual method has a powerful influence of behaviourism approach and regularly follows a sequence in which students listen to a dialogue that contains the main structures and vocabulary points to be worked, and then mimic, practice and memorize that dialogue. Succeeding, students complete a pattern drill on the structures previously practised. “The aim of the drill is to ‘strengthen habits’, to make the pattern ‘automatic’” (Krashen, 1987, p.130). For this reason, “the goal is the memorization of the dialogue, not the comprehension of a message” (Krashen, 1987, p.131). Krashen (1987) manifests that “inductive learning is implicitly encouraged (...), but no attempt is made to limit which rules are to be learned or when they are to be applied” (p.132). Each lesson is arranged according to linguistic simplicity and

dominated by the specific structures to apply, repeat and memorize. Similarly to grammar-translation, audio-lingualism expects production to be instantaneous and error-free (Krashen, 1987). One problem of this approach is that the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) that suggests an easy transfer of habits from the L1 to the L2 when the structures of the two languages are similar and difficulties when they are not, is not an adequate explanation for Second Language Acquisition (SLA). As Lightbown and Spada (2006) suggest, instead of a simple transfer of habits, the influence of the learner's first language is "a more subtle and complex of identifying points of similarity, weighing the evidence in support of some particular feature, and even reflecting (though not necessarily consciously) about whether a certain feature seems to 'belong' in the target language" (p.35).

The Direct Method used by Sauzé's, Pucciani's and Hamel's instruction of French and Barcia's teaching of Spanish is an approach that employs the target language for all classroom language. It is also an inductive teaching approach and "the goal of the instruction is for the students to guess, or work out, the rules of the language" (Krashen, 1987, p.135), guided by the teacher's questions. This assumption leads to conclude that the principal goal of the approach is grammar teaching. Once enough examples have been given, "the rule is discussed and explained in the target language" (Krashen, 1987, p.135). This method "is strictly sequenced, which distorts efforts at real communication" (Krashen, 1987, p.136) and it focuses on accuracy and error correction. Although the direct method provides more comprehensible input than the approaches discussed above, the focus on grammar damages "its ability to provide truly interesting messages" (Krashen, 1987, p.137).

The Natural Approach described by Tracy Terrell and Stephen Krashen makes a difference between acquiring and learning a language. As reported by Terrell and Krashen (1983), a language is acquired when it is used "in natural, communicative situations" (p.18) while learning a language involves a "conscious knowledge about grammar" (p.18). Accordingly, the approach has as its main goal the supply of comprehensible input for acquisition through natural communicative situations in which the teacher speaks only the target language. This approach considers that these situations will automatically develop the communicative competence. To achieve that objective from the first day, the teacher uses "realia, pictures, and the student's previous knowledge" (Krashen, 1987, p.138). The classroom discussions focus on personal information and hopes and plans for the future to talk about "topics of personal interest to the students" (Krashen, 1987, p.138). Since the focus of the

approach is not on grammar, “there is no deliberate sequencing” (Krashen, 1987, p.138). The Natural Approach states that students learn more effectively when they maintain a low level of anxiety. For this reason, error correction is not done in the classroom but is only used for upgrading homework<sup>27</sup>. Moreover, “students do not have to produce in the second language until they feel they are ready” (Krashen, 1987, p.139).

As it has been depicted along this section, the first theoretical approaches to explain Second Language Acquisition (SLA) focused on a deductive explanation of grammar rules and on early production through imitation, practice and repetition. However, the learning of the grammar rules of a language does not guarantee its mastery because there is a distinction between language knowledge and language use. As a matter of fact, “few natives are able to explain the grammatical rules of their native language, although they apply them to perfection” (Cortés Moreno, 2000, p.16). Consequently, more recent trends have led to approaches that are more focused on meaning and real communication in which students understand and are not constrained to produce early; thus, lowering their anxiety. These up-to-date perspectives are based on a communicative approach in which the learning of language is contextualized, and in which instructors provide comprehensible inputs that allows students’ understanding. In line with this, nowadays,

the main language aim for primary ELT is to be able to communicate, or to develop ‘communicative competence’. In Spain, for example, they state that the aim is not to teach a foreign language but to teach how to use it in communication (Coyle, et al. 1997) (Brewster et al., 2012, p.8).

A combination of characteristics derived from the Natural Approach<sup>28</sup>, from Stephen Krashen’s ‘Monitor Model’ for Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and from approaches based on comprehension and communication, lead to Total Physical Response (TPR). TPR seems to be one possible solution to the unsuccessful attempts to acquire a second language. In the beginning, Asher (2012) had problems to fit TPR into the traditional language acquisition theories because “academicians operated with a classic dichotomy between mind and body” (p.1-27) and the approaches were mostly mind-orientated, focused on early production and did not involve the body in the learning process. However, Total Physical Response (TPR)

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<sup>27</sup> “SLA theory predicts that younger children would not profit from grammar homework, while older children and adolescents might be able to handle limited amounts” (Krashen, 1987, p.139).

<sup>28</sup> “I am delighted that the Terrill/Krashen Natural Approach synchronizes with my Total Physical Response” (Asher, 2012, p.3-65).

has been favorably applied to learn European, Indian, Asian, and Semitic languages. In consequence, its traits are discussed in the following point of the study.

### **3. Total Physical Response (TPR)**

The two previous sections provided basic information about the benefits of movement in learning and about some theories of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) to be able to appropriately discuss in the following lines the possible effectiveness of Total Physical Response (TPR) in teaching a foreign language.

#### ***3.1. Dr. James J. Asher and the origins of TPR***

Dr. James J. Asher is the originator of the Total Physical Response, known worldwide as TPR. He was named outstanding professor at San Jose State University and is widely recognized for his works.

Asher studied a degree in Psychology at the University of New Mexico and a master's degree in television journalism at the University of Houston. Although Dr. Richard Uray, who has Asher's mentor at the University of Houston, offered him a job as a photojournalist for a local TV station in Houston, Asher had a preference to "continue working for a doctorate in the psychology department" (Asher, 2012, p.1-1). While working on his doctorate, Asher was a part-time instructor of the faculty and a research assistant to his mentor "on a range of interesting projects from the design of an escape route for metropolitan Houston in the event of an atomic attack to measuring consumer preferences for programming on the novel toy called television" (Asher, 2012, p.1-2).

In 1957, Asher graduated with a PhD in Psychology from the University of Houston. After his doctorate, the author was hired at San Jose State College, "the oldest public institution of higher learning in California" (Asher, 2012, p.1-2) which was founded in 1857 and had "one of the largest psychology departments in America" (Asher, 2012, p.1-2). There, he began teaching courses in business and industrial psychology as an assistant professor in the psychology department. During his lessons, Asher applied "theories of psychology to solve complex problems" (Asher, 2012, p.1-1) and "was especially fascinated with problems of training, particularly skill learning" (Asher, 2012, p.1-1).

Among all the possible complex research topics that could be applied to learning and real life, Asher had a personal interest in foreign languages because he had tried courses in Latin, Spanish, French and German but his competence was almost zero. And he was not the only one because “few students- less than 5% who started in a second language- continue to proficiency” (Asher, 2012, p.2-1). Moreover, the author realized that most students, after spending lots of instructional hours, are not fluent enough and end up thinking they are not good enough to learn a foreign language<sup>29</sup>. He believed that there should be a secret to be discovered regarding foreign language acquisition (Asher, 2012). In addition, this field of research also aroused his interest for two main reasons:

a) it was a complex problem in skill learning, and (b) most psychologists had abandoned this area as barren of productive research because the complexity of behavior made ‘clean’, well-controlled experiments difficult; hence, the competition for research was minimal (Asher, 2012, p.1-2).

In 1960-61, the U.S. Office of Education awarded Asher a research grant which allowed his first research project in foreign languages: “*Sensory Interrelationships in the Automated Teaching of Foreign Languages*” (Asher, 2012). In this investigation, he studied the role of audition and vision in learning languages, and the results showed that “the sensory channel of vision produced more efficient learning retention when contrasted with the sensory channel of audition” (Asher, 2012, p.1-3). Besides, Asher discovered something else. The learners participating in the experiment, after either seeing or listening to a word in the foreign language, had to guess between two options seen or listened in their mother tongue which was the meaning of the precise unfamiliar word. Usually, there was only one phoneme difference between the two alternatives. The study revealed that “the more accurately one guessed the meaning of a word, the more rapidly one learned vocabulary items, the more one retained, and the more flexible the person was in learning other tasks (i.e., understanding sentences)” (Asher, 2012, p.1-6). Asher’s explanation (2012) to this strong relationship is what he calls the “*first trial learning hypothesis*” (p.1-7), which means that “the less practice each person required before (the words) were learned, the higher the retention” (p.1-7). In other words, “the *fewer* times an item must be exposed to a learner before internalization, the *higher* the retention” (p.1-10)<sup>30</sup>. This meant that “the optimal conditions would produce learning in one exposure” (Asher,

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<sup>29</sup> “Think of the millions of instructional hours wasted worldwide because most students not only do not achieve fluency, they end up with the damaging conclusion, ‘I guess I am no good at learning foreign languages’” (Asher, 2012, foreword first edition).

<sup>30</sup> “The more trials to internalize anything, the lower the probability that one can retrieve the information later” (Asher, 2012, p.3-87).



2012, p.1-14) and that “trials to learning is inversely related to long-term retention” (Asher, 2012, p.3-87).

In order to get an explanation for those findings, the author focused his work on how to achieve first trial learning, and this objective led him to brain lateralization. Asher (2012) studied the differences between the left and the right hemisphere and got to know their features. On the one hand, he learnt that the left brain is involved in verbal tasks, requires multiple exposures and processes new information slowly because it “resists’ the novel” (Asher, 2012, p.1-13). That is why it requires a lot of repetition and inputs to achieve storage. However, although the left brain resists the introduction of novel concepts, it is the one that, once they are incorporated, prevents them from being removed<sup>31</sup>. On the other hand, Asher (2012) was aware of the fact that the right brain follows a “*pattern* which is understood usually in a flash-in one-trial or one exposure” (p.1-13)<sup>32</sup>, so it should be in charge of the quick validation of new data. Nevertheless, the author knew information flows across the corpus callosum from one hemisphere of the brain to the other. Having this in mind, Asher (2012) assumed that the best learning should involve both brains, starting from the right brain and finishing in the left one.

Following this line of inquiry, Asher (2012) wanted to demonstrate a cause-effect relationship between the mechanisms of the right brain for evaluating incoming data, the sensory input converted into information on the first exposure and kept in the long-term storage, and verbal learning. Because of this, he asked for the help of Shirou Kunihiro, a graduate student from Japan, and Alice Dickie, who was his secretary. After Kunihiro uttered a direction in his mother tongue, Alice and Asher should repeat the command and act it out. “The idea was that the command form was the ideal cause-effect relationship because language produced (or caused) an action in the learner” (Asher, 2012, p.1-18).

At that moment, production was considered to be the most important skill and the first one to be learned<sup>33</sup>, that is why they should repeat the command before carrying out

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<sup>31</sup> “Once a concept has been internalized (that is, learned), there is what I have called ‘concept constancy’ (CC). The concept has its own life and it resists any threat to its existence” (Asher, 2012, p.1-14).

<sup>32</sup> “Remember that the left brain is verbal and critical while the right brain is a mute, uncritical pattern-seeker” (Asher, 2012, p.3-89).

“I believe the right brain has a preference for cause-effect patterns, perhaps because this pattern has survival value in the evolution of our species” (Asher, 2012, p.3-102).

<sup>33</sup> “Every living linguistic authority from Nelson Brooks to John B. Carroll believed that production was the logical starting place for language training since ‘language was talk’ and ‘talk was language’” (Asher, 2012, p.1-35).

the action. However, the experiment did not produce the expected results. "Each new command seemed to erase the memory of the previous command. Nothing was retained" (Asher, 2012, p.1-19). Anyways, Asher (2012) came up with a new idea and eliminated the production step. He requested Kunihiro to say something in Japanese and perform the action, and Alice Dickie and him would silently follow him. The author desired to keep it simple and asked Kunihiro to state, if possible, a one-word direction that Alice and he should perform physically and without repeating the input in Japanese after Kunihiro had directed them. Asher's main objective was to internalize Japanese, so he considered a good idea the suggestion of Kunihiro, who offered to use the imperative that was heard in the military, although this register was not considered adequate for an ordinary conversation. Asher (2012) manifests that after some trials, he asked Shirou to remain seated uttering the directions while Alice and he would try to perform the physical actions on their own. And it worked. Later, Kunihiro graded the commands from simple to complex and Asher realized that "the more complex the direction in Japanese, the easier it was to understand" (Asher, 2012, p.1-20). Moreover, Asher (2012) perceived that they "were internalizing the target language in *chunks*<sup>34</sup> rather than word-by-word, and (...) that the retention was *long-term*" (p.1-20).

These surprising results surpassed Asher's original goal which was one-trial learning because as he states, "this was *zero trial learning* since we could respond perfectly to novel utterances- ones we had never heard before" (Asher, 2012, p.1-20). In addition, the author (2012) found out that "the student's body is our best ally for transmitting and receiving messages on the first exposure" (p.3-4). Furthermore, he claims that they enjoyed so much the lesson that their "sense of time disappeared" (Asher, 2012, p.1-20). Hence, Asher continued what he called a "strange language-body experiment in which the learner was silent, listened to the 'noise' coming from Shirou's mouth, then performed the action he observed Shirou doing" (Asher, 2012, p.1-21). The outcomes confirmed that this "strategy worked with people of all ages" (Asher, 2012, p.1-22). Afterwards, the same experiments were carried out in other languages and the results did not change<sup>35</sup>. Additionally, when a subject received the same instruction in several languages, there was no confusion between them<sup>36</sup>. On top of that, "TPR produced a highly significant acceleration in comprehension no

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<sup>34</sup> A chunk is "a unit of language that is often perceived or used as a single unit" (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p.196)

<sup>35</sup> "It was also clear that the approach worked with any language" (Asher, 2012, p.1-22).

<sup>36</sup> "The result was astonishing because every person who experienced body movements in many tongues, perceived and responded as if the person was hearing only one language. There was no confusion. There was no hesitation. There were no mistakes" (Asher, 2012, p.1-22).

matter how complicated or novel the foreign utterance and no matter how long the time interval after training, from 24 hours to two weeks” (Asher, 2012, p.1-34).

With TPR, Asher also found a plausible answer to his main concern: the enormous dropout rate of second language learners. According to the author, the production-oriented lessons that prevailed at that time caused an intense stress<sup>37</sup> experience for students. With TPR, that stress was reduced.

Therefore, Asher (2012) was convinced that “the Rosetta Stone of language acquisition was in a choreography of language and body movements” (p.1-22) and he was delighted that nature had revealed “one of the great secrets of learning” (p.1-22). Nevertheless, he was denied a research grant to continue the investigation. This denial, however, made him put the focus on his master’s degree knowledge in radio and television and he began working on a 16-millimeter black-and-white film to communicate the language-body principle. The earliest fifteen-minute motion picture was named “*Demonstration of a New Strategy in Language Learning*” and introduced, for the first time, the name for this new strategy: “The Total Physical Response (TPR)”. The main objective was to communicate that TPR allowed a “rapid comprehension of a target language, long-term retention, and fluency as demonstrated when learners understand novel utterances- ones they have never heard before” (Asher, 2012, pp.1-24 – 1-25). This film of only a few minutes of duration was the perfect demonstration of the power of TPR<sup>38</sup>, a better way to acquire a foreign language “that does not waste the precious time of the instructor and the students” (Asher, 2012, foreword first edition). Next, we explain some of the essentials of TPR.

### **3.2. The fundamentals of TPR and their relationship with Krashen’s ‘Monitor Model’**

Total Physical Response (TPR) is, essentially, a stress-free approach, tool<sup>39</sup>, technique or instructional strategy to teach a foreign language through actions. The

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<sup>37</sup> “The task is to invent or discover instructional strategies that reduce the intense stress that students experience” (Asher, 2012, p.2-2).

<sup>38</sup> “Without a motion picture to demonstrate in a few minutes the power of the total physical response, I am sure that my research would never be applied today on a large scale with thousands of students in many different countries” (Asher, 2012, p.1-37).

“Based on my experience, I would definitely encourage every researcher to make a film (or video tape) in conjunction with a research project” (Asher, 2012, p.1-37).

<sup>39</sup> “Please remember, TPR is a tool, not a method” (Asher, 2012, foreword first edition).

basis of TPR are language-body conversations<sup>40</sup> because it is "a speech act which is related to a movement" (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.1). By applying TPR, students listen to verbal input, given by the instructor, that involves a physical action (in the form of an instruction or command) and react to it by using physical movement. Therefore, with TPR, foreign languages are taught by coordinating speech and action. As stated by Garcia (2003), "you hold a conversation with the student when you utter a direction and the student responds with an action" (p.1-17).

Asher (2012) specifically asked not to call TPR a method "because there are no methods in teaching. Method implies a formula and formula implies a science. Teaching is an art, not a science and teaching is the highest art form" (foreword first edition)<sup>41</sup>.

Although Asher (2012) considers that TPR is "the most powerful tool in your linguistic box of tools" (foreword first edition), he advises that it is not the only one and that it should be used along other useful resources. According to the author (2012), "the language-body conversation is a powerful facilitator of learning, but it should be used in combination with many other techniques" (p.3-33)<sup>42</sup>.

Total Physical Response is a comprehension and communication-based approach that evolved within the framework of developmental psychology, the theories of brain lateralization explained by Lenneberg in 1967, and humanistic methods. Furthermore, TPR resembles elements of Stephen Krashen's 'Monitor Model' for Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (a model described in terms of five hypotheses that was influenced by Chomsky's innatist theory of first language acquisition). This resemblance and TPR's traits are analyzed in the subsequent paragraphs.

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<sup>40</sup> "Language-body communication is a fascinating and powerful principle of learning" (Asher, 2012, p.2-20).

"The intimate interaction between language and body movements is the secret of TPR" (Asher, 2012, p.7-12).

<sup>41</sup> "A formula works in science, but not in teaching because teaching is an art, not a science" (Asher, 2012, foreword first edition).

"Celebrities depend upon the support of lighting and sound technicians, set designers, costume designers, makeup artists, carpenters, directors, producers, musicians, writers, and other actors. Therefore, I conclude that teaching is not only an art form, but one of the highest art forms" (Asher, 2012, p.3-12).

<sup>42</sup> "To use one tool for all tasks in language acquisition is like using a hammer to cut, drill and weld" (Asher, 2012, p.3-77).

- a. *“Understanding is always ahead of speaking”* (Asher, 2012, p.3-2).

Total Physical Response (TPR) is based on the model of how children acquire their mother tongue because Asher (2012) considers that “once the child achieves fluency in the native language, the ‘biological’ pattern for acquiring language does not disappear” (p.2-18) and that people “are biologically wired to acquire a language in a particular sequence” (p.3-2). Asher (2012) maintains that this sequence is “listening before speaking and the mode is to synchronize language with the individual’s body” (p.2-4). In a similar manner, for Krashen (1987), language acquisition which differs from language learning, is “a process similar, if not identical, to the way children develop ability in their first language” (p.10).

In 1929, Gesell and Thompson, two child psychologists, realized that infants are able to understand what people are saying long before they are able to speak. “Production lags far behind the child’s understanding of spoken language” (Asher, 2012, p.2-18). Young children are able to understand much more than they can produce in intelligible speech<sup>43</sup>. As Phillips (1993) states, “it is almost always true that language learners understand more than they can say, and when children learn their first language, they respond to language long before they learn to speak” (p.17). Furthermore, Asher knew that “understanding is probably a necessary condition for speech to appear” (Asher, 2012, p.3-2). That is why children spend a lot of time just listening without producing. Hence, in order to help students acquire a foreign language without stress, Asher (2012) claims that “the sequence should be, first, acquire comprehension of the target language, and as comprehension becomes more and more sophisticated, there will be a point at which the individual spontaneously is ready to produce the language” (p.2-18). These statements are in line with Krashen’s (1987) thought, who maintains that “speaking skills emerge significantly later than listening skills, even when conditions are perfect” (p.7).

Asher (2012) also examined the techniques parents and caretakers instinctively use with children and he realized that by uttering sentences such as “Don’t touch” or “Hold my hand”, they make meaning clear from context or from demonstrations and they direct infants’ physical behavior<sup>44</sup>. “Caretakers create a choreography in which language directs body movements” (Asher, 2012, p.2-19). Asher’s most interesting

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<sup>43</sup> “Listening skill is far in advance of speaking” (Asher, 2012, p.2-3).

<sup>44</sup> “Caretakers communicate with the infant when spoken language is uttered to direct physical behavior” (Asher, 2012, p.2-19).

“As an infant, you probably deciphered and internalized the code of your first language in a chain of situations in which people manipulated and directed your behavior through commands” (Asher, 2012, p.4-2).

finding was that individuals need to internalize the meaning of words and sentences by responding physically to commands before being ready to speak (Asher, 2012). “During the silent period of infancy, there are thousands of language-body dialogues in intimate caretaking situations” (Garcia, 2013, p.1-17).

Asher’s (2012) observations of first language acquisition allowed him to determine a sequence for second language learning. “TPR replicates in the classroom the process by which all infants in all places on earth acquire their native language so gracefully” (Asher, 2012, p.7-6). For that reason, by using TPR, children listen to instructions and perform the correspondent actions without saying anything until they are ready. It is important to mention here that to remain silent is not to remain passive because in this pre-production stage, students send messages with their bodies and respond with a physical action (Cortés Moreno, 2000)<sup>45</sup>.

Overall, based on the belief that responding physically to directions enables speech to develop naturally, one of the aims of TPR is to enrich listening comprehension through a series of commands before speaking. Asher (2012) points out that once enough language code has been internalized through commands, speech will appear spontaneously and will be perfected over the years. “After about ten to twenty hours of understanding the target language through physical movements, students spontaneously begin to speak in the new language” (Cabello, 2005). At that moment, “pupils will be encouraged to give instructions to other pupils for them to carry out” (Brewster et al., 2012, p.26). Moreover, the author holds the view that “any attempt to force its appearance before the child is ready, is futile” (Asher, 2012, p.3-2). Asher (2012) reached this conclusion after a series of laboratory experiments in which it was demonstrated that the people who obtained best results were those who focused only on comprehension using a language-body strategy without trying to pronounce the utterances. In consequence of that fact, TPR respects the silent period of students acquiring a language and they are not asked to produce before they have acquired enough competence in the second language by listening and understanding the language or until they feel ready. Hence, Asher’s (2012) hypothesis is that “production is primarily a developmental phenomenon” (p.3-42).

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<sup>45</sup> “The child responds exclusively with a physical action initially and later in development with simple one-word utterances such as ‘yes’ or ‘no’” (Asher, 2012, p.2-18).

- b. *“As you work with classic TPR, you will discover that your students have instant understanding of everything you are saying in the target language”* (Cabello, 2005).

Krashen’s (1987) Input Hypothesis defines comprehensible input as a basic element to achieve real acquisition by putting the focus on message rather than on form. According to Krashen (1987), the instructor must provide understandable input by using an appropriate context or the suitable extralinguistic information. This fully relates to TPR because the verbal and corporeal input produced by the instructor is aimed at allowing understanding in the first exposure. “When the instructor skillfully uses the target language to direct the student’s behavior, understanding of the utterance is transparent, often in only one exposure” (Asher, 2012, p.2-19). In that way, there is an instant communication of comprehensible messages that results in an effortless understanding and a deep internalization of the language code for students. Consequently, another similarity between Asher and Krashen is that they both put the focus on helping acquisition through comprehensible input rather than by learning rules. As stated by Krashen (1987), “the child understands first, and this helps him acquire language” (p.23). “Comprehension of meaningful language is the foundation of language acquisition” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 150).

However, Krashen (1987) states that comprehensible input does not need any structural grading while in TPR each new lesson is built on the previous ones and “the vocabulary and structures learners are exposed to are carefully graded and organized” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 146). Furthermore, “The Total Physical Response works because it is *comprehensible input with high believability* since we create intimate, personal experiences for the students” (Asher, 2012, p.3-70). Asher’s concept of comprehension focuses on believability because he considers that “if the input is understood but not believable the result is only short-term retention” (Garcia, 2013, p.1-17). And to achieve that feature of believability, the best way is to focus on body movements and on language-body dialogues built upon commands.

- c. *“With TPR, commands are the dominant feature”* (Asher, 2012, p.3-63).

As stated by Garcia (2013), “in the TPR approach, commands are the main vehicle by which the basic knowledge of a second language is introduced” (p.1-2). The instructor manipulates student’s physical behavior by using commands that can

range from simple instructions as “Touch your head” or “Jump!” to more complex ones such as “Walk slowly to the girl who is wearing a pink skirt, but who is not wearing glasses”. Students execute the action involved in the command while the teacher delivers the audio input. These commands are presented by using the imperative which elicits physical actions in response and is thought to accelerate understanding and internalization. According to the psychologist, “most, if not all, grammatical features in a language can be nested in the imperative” (Asher, 2012, p.3-43)<sup>46</sup>. Moreover, “a small number of commands will yield hundreds or even thousands of recombinations” (Garcia, 2013, p.1-14). The process of recombining beforehand presented utterances into unfamiliar sentences helps students to acquire fluency<sup>47</sup>, that Asher (2012) defines as the ability to “*understand and generate novel sentences*” (foreword first edition). Further on, commands have embedded “intricate grammatical features that the students become familiar with in an incidental and non-stressful way” (Garcia, 2013, p.1-3). In that way, grammar is learnt inductively while focusing on meaning. However, TPR is not limited to commands.

d. *“TPR is more than commands” (Seely and Romijn, 2006)*

Even though classical TPR is based on single and unrelated commands or other sentences involving action and descriptions such as: “Open the door”, there are three more basic types of TPR exercises, which include various subtypes. As Garcia (2013) claims, “besides commands there are other activities involved in teaching with the TPR approach” (p.1-3) but necessarily, “there has to be some physical involvement included” (p.1-3).

1. Action Series or Sequences

They are a combination of commands that create sequences of action. Action series can be used as the foundation of vocabulary lessons to work on any grammar point. “Once students have mastered the vocabulary of an action series, there are numerous possible ways to put it to use to build more skills and acquire more language” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.19).

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<sup>46</sup> “With creativity from the instructor, almost any aspect of the linguistic code for the target language could be communicated using commands” (Asher, 2012, p.2-11).

<sup>47</sup> “This process of recombination maximizes output and moves the student in the direction of genuine fluency” (Asher, 2012, p.2-11).



## 2. Natural Action Dialogues (role-playing dialogues and skits)

“These are dialogs in which action is performed with or without commands” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.28) once the students have mastered the action series in which the dialog is based. The dialogues are developed “in a natural give and take between the teacher and the students” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.28). Therefore, Natural Action Dialogues help students to practice their language skills with actions in a ‘real context’. According to Seely and Romijn (2006), “clear context is essential so that the students can use what they already know to understand and then acquire and learn their new language” (p.29). This type of exercise is very useful because it is not only important to practice the form, the content or how to formulate the structure, students also need to experience the circumstances in which the specific language is used. “That is the reason it is crucial to use natural action dialogs and to repeat them, varying the content while repeating the circumstances which require the use of the structure” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.29). Using these dialogues, students not only learn in what way sentences are precisely said but acquire confidence to speak because they experience the situations in which it is pertinent to say those propositions.

## 3. Action Role-Playing (without a prepared script)

Once students have internalized the relevant vocabulary through simple commands and action series, and natural action dialogs, action role plays “are likely to be more lively and more effective” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.13). The possibility to experience actions with TPR, enables students to perform role-playing with more emotion and “to converse freely either with a ready-made dialog or one created by the students” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.33). However, to communicate rightly in their roles, students “must have had sufficient practice with the vocabulary and structures” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, pp.32-33).

## 4. TPR Storytelling (TPRS)

Phillips (1993) claims that “stories are a feature of all cultures and have a universal appeal” (p.18)<sup>48</sup>. Stories have a great effect in language classrooms<sup>49</sup>, and they can

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<sup>48</sup> “The educational value of using storybooks and storytelling has always been undisputed throughout the world” (Brewster et al., 2012, p.186).

be applied with TPR through TPR Storytelling (TPRS). TPRS was developed around 1987 by Blaine Ray (a high school Spanish teacher working in Ontario, Oregon). Ray was trying a number of different solutions to achieve acceptable speaking from his students when he came up with TPR Storytelling. TPRS combines the best of TPR with the best of stories, that “can also provide the starting point for a wide variety of related language and learning activities” (Brewster et al., 2012, p.186)<sup>50</sup>.

TPRS can be used before or along with the other types of TPR exercises. “Ray uses ‘classical TPR’ for the first five weeks, or about the first 150 words. Up through this time there is virtually no production on the part of students. Then, he starts in on TPR Storytelling” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.83). Asher (2012) and Garcia (2013) recommend to first stabilize a set of vocabulary and an enough chunk of the new language with TPR that students can internalize, and then use the vocabulary words to tell a short story with gestures. Nevertheless, “when mini-stories are used to practice something grammatical, such as a tense, there may be no new vocabulary included in them” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.52), so that children can concentrate on grammatical structures.

While the teacher tells the mini-story (making exaggerations in both gesture and voice inflection to instill life into the story), some students act it out<sup>51</sup>. Seely and Romijn (2006) manifest that “the whole class enjoys such performances and remembers them well. They also help students to remember the words” (p.42). The teacher usually repeats the story one or more times and different actors perform it. Moreover, the instructor can also make questions to students about some events of the story (yes/no questions, why questions) in order to elicit short oral responses. Next, “the teacher writes a list of guide words on the board or the overhead” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.56). Guide words are usually “items that students would be likely to have trouble producing accurately or have had trouble producing well” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.57). These guide words have appeared previously in the story and

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<sup>49</sup> “Stories are motivating, challenging and fun and can help develop positive attitudes. They can create a desire to continue learning” (Brewster et al., 2012, p.186).

“Listening to stories allows the teacher to introduce or revise vocabulary and structures, exposing the children to language which will enrich their thinking and gradually enter their own speech” (Brewster et al., 2012, p.187).

“Listening to stories helps children become aware of the rhythm, intonation and pronunciation of language” (Brewster et al., 2012, p.187).

“Learning English through stories can lay the foundations for secondary school in terms of learning basic language functions and structures, vocabulary and language-learning skills” (Brewster et al., 2012, p.187).

<sup>50</sup> “The breadth of what can be dealt with in stories is literally limitless-in topics, form, vocabulary, length, brevity, grammatical structures...” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.82).

<sup>51</sup> “The telling is accompanied by a performance by some students who act it out” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.54).

students can use them when they have to retell it. Besides, they help students to concentrate on specific vocabulary items or grammatical points.

Finally, students retell the mini-story from memory<sup>52</sup>. Firstly, “the whole class tells the story together as they follow the picture cues on the board a poster or the overhead screen” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.60). Later, volunteers narrate it by using guide words as necessary and others can act it out. “When the teacher thinks the students can tell the story well without seeing any words at all, s/he erases or removes all the guide words” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.60).

In the last step, every student can tell the story to his/her partner or in small groups. Students should not be reading nor using the guide words but, to aid them narrate the story, they “can use the drawings from the book or from the board, the overhead screen or a poster to remember the sequence of events” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, pp.60-61). Another option is to create a sequential telling of the story in which each student of the class narrates a part or to make students retell the story from a different point of view, using a diverse person or tense. Following that sequence, Seely and Romijn (2006) consider that students build confidence in speaking and develop fluency while using their imagination and creativity.

Seely and Romijn (2006) also suggest reading aloud the text or completing some written exercises (true or false, fill-in-the-blank, short-answer and sequencing) as follow-up activities. In addition, mini-stories can also be included in a single full-length story. Through this process students are exposed to new items more times. As Seely and Romijn (2006) state, “initially the items are taught in isolation, but very soon they are put into a variety of meaningful contexts. This is a major key to success of TPRS” (p.85). Besides, “storytelling is effective because it is another input to the right brain” (Asher, 2012, p.3-77).

e. *“TPR is a powerful right brain approach”* (Asher, 2012, p.3-35).

At the California Institute of Technology, Dr. Roger Sperry (a Nobel Prize winner), and his collaborators carried out a number of investigations with humans and other mammals on brain lateralization. They found out that “the left and right hemispheres into which the brain is divided are, practically speaking, two independent neurological entities” (Garcia, 2013, p.l-1) that have different functions and responsibilities.

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<sup>52</sup> “The teacher starts telling ‘mini-stories’, and the students start retelling them” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.42)

Whereas the left brain is considered as critical and reluctant to cooperate, the right brain is viewed as tolerant and willing to cooperate; whereas the left brain is characterized as verbal, the right brain is labeled as not verbally expressive (Garcia, 2013).

Asher (2012) defines the left brain as the ever-vigilant gatekeeper that is related with studying and memorization and needs multiple exposure to retain new information. Memory is achieved through repetition. According to the psychologist, left brain instruction is verbal and follows a serial order whereas “right brain instruction is non-verbal and processed in patterns” (Asher, 2012, p.3-6). However, Asher (2012) states that the right brain can also process verbal information “if it is presented in patterns such a story, a drama, or an experience” (p.3-6) and that gestures help access vocabulary from the right brain. “The right brain is mute, but can communicate through physical behavior such as pointing, touching, drawing, singing, gesturing, and pantomime” (Asher, 2012, p.3-20). In addition, the right hemisphere can express itself by performing an appropriate action while the left one can express itself by talking (Asher, 2012). Consequently, “the TPR approach is a right brain method of learning a second language because the language is taught mainly through actions” (Garcia, 2013, p.1-2) and input is directed to right brain learning<sup>53</sup>. Garcia (2013) states that internalization, that is a long-term memory, results from right-brain activities and that “audio-lingual was a memory-oriented system while TPR is an internalizing system” (p.1-18)<sup>54</sup>.

Asher (2012) considers that directing activities to the right brain through body movement, play, draws, metaphors and dramatic acting, allows an intake of information in the first exposure, long-term retention and reduction of stress. He also maintains that when language causes changes in the students’ behavior through entering the right hemisphere, they can have a quick access to the language code. On the other hand, “a left hemisphere entrance is slow-motion learning” (Asher, 2012, p.2-25).

However, one of the aims of TPR is to create a link between the two brains. “Like the professional film-maker, the instructor’s task is a smooth change in activity that moves the student imperceptibly from one side of the brain to the other and back

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<sup>53</sup> “The territory of language and the body plays to the right hemisphere of the brain- the creative side” (Asher, 2012, p.1-44).

<sup>54</sup> “When we internalize information, we are able to retrieve and then to use the information appropriately. The Total Physical Response produces an internalization of information” (Asher, 2012, p.3-32).

again” (Asher, 2012, p.3-60). New constituents of the foreign language are internalized through TPR to direct the input to the right brain and later, the left brain is involved in verbal exercises<sup>55</sup>. Asher (2012) remembers that “as a rule of thumb, continually brain switch from the right to the left and back again” (p.3-33).

Nevertheless, Asher (2012) warns that although most school experiences are a mix of inputs to the right and left brain, the “output is almost always measured from the left brain exclusively” (p.2-10). He considers that to allow students retrieve the input with maximum retention, each person must be evaluated by acting alone in response to commands.

- f. *“If students feel safe, that is, anything they say is not only O.K. but appreciated by the instructor, then all channels of communication open up”* (Asher, 2012, p.3-76).

By miming the process through which infants acquire naturally their first language, TPR reduces the stress and inhibitions of students. Moreover, a key characteristic to achieve the creation of favorable conditions for learning is Asher’s view regarding feedback and corrections. The author maintains that teachers should give the kind of feedback that parents provide to their children. “If we are as tolerant of student errors as we are of infants acquiring their first language, gradually speech will shape itself in the direction of the native speaker” (Cabello, 2005). In harmony with the biological program, “parents tend to respond to their children’s language in terms of its meaning rather than in terms of its grammatical accuracy” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 32) and they “begin with an extremely wide tolerance for distortions (...) As the child develops, a parent gradually narrows his or her tolerance for production or grammatical errors” (Asher, 2012, p.3-40). If a student does not feel an enough degree of tolerance towards committing mistakes, it is likely that he/she will prefer to remain silent. Therefore, in the first years of learning in a TPR context, the teacher has to tolerate mistakes and avoid accuracy corrections because that interrupts the students’ spontaneous speech and can inhibit their fluency and production<sup>56</sup>. Asher

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<sup>55</sup> “One remedy is to permit the left to participate with the use of short dialogues which the students create based on constituents acquired through the imperative” (Asher, 2012, p.3-6).

<sup>56</sup> “This is a developmental stage in which they are expected to start to develop fluency by saying what they can, not parroting or repeating word for word and not reading” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.43).

“It is important not to correct them at all. This is likely to inhibit their fluency and is unlikely to have any beneficial effect” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.62).

“Any early demand for perfection in speech will tend to inhibit production” (Asher, 2012, p.4-20).

(2012) specially states that “feedback should not interrupt a student in the middle of an attempt to express a thought” (p.3-40).

These statements match with Krashen’s (1987) views regarding the “affective filter”. Krashen (1987) considers that maintaining a low affective filter and low anxiety levels are key for students to be open to receive the input. This same author (1987) states that “error correction has the immediate effect of putting the student on the defensive” (p.75) and that to avoid mistakes, students try to use simpler vocabulary and structures because they are focused more on form than on meaning<sup>57</sup>. Allowing students a silent period also makes an important contribution to lower their anxiety. Moreover, Krashen (1987) maintains that “error correction has little or no effect on subconscious acquisition” (p.11) and that “improvement comes from supplying communicative and comprehensible input, and not from forcing and correcting production” (Krashen, 1987, p.7)<sup>58</sup>. In the same vein, “Ray and Asher believe that beginning students don’t have what Asher calls enough ‘attention units’ available to process corrections” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.63)<sup>59</sup>. Nevertheless, once students are capable of appreciating feedback, the instructor should “gradually and casually correct with utmost kindness and tact” (Garcia, 2013, p.IV-3). As the course develops and the class progresses, it is necessary to follow the natural transition in the development of any skill, that is why “there is a shift from gross to fine detail” (Asher, 2012, p.3-7), commands become more complex and the tolerance for speech errors is progressively narrowed. Asher sustains that grammar and pronunciation are gradually acquired “as a learner progresses in vocabulary, in scope of aural comprehension, in fluent spoken expression, in reading comprehension, in fluent written expression” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.63). That is why there is no point in correcting what a student is not ready to acquire<sup>60</sup>.

### **3.3. How to apply TPR**

In order to successfully use TPR, there are a number of steps to follow and several points to take into account.

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<sup>57</sup> “In general, both in TPR Storytelling and in the other activities with which Ray and his colleagues complement it, the focus is on meaning rather than form. And yet, students get more and more accurate as their fluency develops” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.75).

<sup>58</sup> “Acquisition comes from comprehensible input, not from error correction” (Krashen, 1987, p.92).

<sup>59</sup> “The span of attention (for error-correction) increases as one advances in the internalization of the target language” (Asher, 2012, p.3-40).

<sup>60</sup> “Generally, there is no use correcting grammar and pronunciation-until a student has reached a point when s/he is ready for a specific correction” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.63).

To begin with, if the teacher is required to adhere to a coursebook, “the strategy is to comb the book to find all vocabulary items and grammar that can be played out through TPR” (Garcia, 2013, p.IV-11). Apart from this, TPR’s syllabus has to be organized following graded grammatical and lexical structures that progressively increase in complexity. Consequently, simple commands will precede complex ones. “At the beginning, all that you need is a few commands with a few lexical items” (Garcia, 2013, p.III-1). Through commands, the instructor is required to teach new language including nouns, adjectives and adverbs. He/She can also use compound commands that require two or more actions. Moreover, the instructor should vary the order of commands to avoid the memorization of a fixed sequence (Asher, 2012) and ought to introduce unknown utterances to promote flexibility in understanding. “The intent is never to trick the student or embarrass the person, but to lead each person, step-by-step so that every response is successful” (Garcia, 2013, p.II-11).

In a characteristic TPR class, the first 45 hours “would consist of 70% listening comprehension (obeying commands), 20% speaking, and 10% reading and writing” (Krashen, 1987, p.140).

Other important aspect to bear in mind is that the language is not presented word by word but in sentences or chunks and using the imperative. Once the students have internalized some language through the imperative, there is a transition to other verb tenses and declaratives<sup>61</sup>. Asher (2012) mentions: “With TPR we make a translation from an imperative, or some other form of request, to tenses and persons” (p.91). As a result of this, learners can focus in the change of tense because they continue with the same actions. TPR can be effective to teach any kind of grammatical or lexical structure, from comparatives and superlatives, to countable and non-countable nouns. It can also be applied to any verb tense. For example, to introduce Present Progressive, Seely and Romijn (2006) advice to “explain that you’re no longer giving instructions, as you were doing before (imperative form), but are now talking about an action that is happening right now, at the same time they’re talking” (p.93). Therefore, students acquire the form of each tense along with the usage in a natural and realistic context and several tenses can be combined at the same time. What is more, “the teacher in the TPR approach should foster an atmosphere of jubilation and general euphoria” (Garcia, 2013, p.I-4). Since the first lesson, the teacher should promote that all students in the class, even the most inhibited “feel comfortable to perform in front of classmates without any great stress” (Garcia, 2013, p.I-4).

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<sup>61</sup> “We delay declaratives until the students have internalized a corner of the language through the imperative” (Garcia, 2013, p.V-48).

Ramiro Garcia (2013) suggests an arrangement that divides the class in two different groups facing each other so that in the middle there is enough space to move for the student who is performing. In the back of the classroom, Garcia (2013) recommends placing the home base chairs, which are the chairs from which students start to perform the appropriate commands. Besides, to keep with the atmosphere of the target language, he suggests the idea to assign a new name for each student in that language.

Furthermore, the instructor needs to follow, coining an Asher term, a “no room for error” principle and has to adapt to the pace of his/her students. If the teacher introduces new items too fast or under-models an action, internalization will not occur. On the other hand, if he/she brings in concepts too slowly or in a predictable way, or if he/she over-models an action<sup>62</sup>, boredom and lack of attention will appear. The teacher has to avoid predictability because “there is a fine line between the teacher’s efforts to provide the easy step and the performer’s tendency to anticipate the obvious move” (Garcia, 2013, p.I-14). Garcia (2013) claims that “the pace must be fast-moving and the input constantly changing but not shifting so rapidly that they experience bewilderment” (p.II-19). The instructor can also introduce humorous commands. “we encourage novel commands that are playful, silly, crazy, bizarre and zany” (Asher, 2012, p.4-12).

Although Garcia (2013) specifically reminds that there are not sharp boundaries between the different phases because “there is a blending and overlapping of skills” (p.V-52), TPR’s instruction requires an amount of stages to follow. Above all, the sequence that is followed goes from listening to commands and responding physically to them, then speaking, reading and finally writing<sup>63</sup>. Hence, “TPR flows gracefully from comprehension into speaking; from comprehension into reading and writing” (Garcia, 2013, p.IV-3).

#### 1. Teacher’s Preparation

The instructor should preselect the vocabulary or language items that he/she is going to teach. Each lesson should have a grammatical focus; therefore, commands should

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<sup>62</sup> “Over-modeling is continuing to perform with students beyond the point at which they can perform alone without you” (Asher, 2012, p.3-58).

<sup>63</sup> “Once your students have internalized an item through motor behavior with TPR, they are ready for other applications such as speaking, reading and writing” (Asher, 2012, foreword first edition).



“contextualize various points of grammar” (Krashen, 1987, p.141)<sup>64</sup>. Asher (2012) suggests writing down the exact utterances that the instructor is going use because the action is fast-moving and there is little time to create new ones spontaneously. Besides, it is the teacher’s job to assure that new concepts and utterances are a level slightly above the current competency of students. The establishment of meaningful goals for students is a key aspect because that allows to “focus their attention, direct their energy, and persist with a task to completion” (Asher, 2012, p.3-8). Moreover, the instructor needs to remember that “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, 2012, p.3-44). Asher (2012) advises to introduce three new items at a time and he recommends not no introduce new utterances until students are absorbing well the material by showing no hesitation performing the commands alone. “Do not proceed with new items until your students are responding with confidence to the previous set of three” (Cabello, 2005).

In addition to this, the instructor has to choose the signs and actions that will be used to represent the new concepts and to allow meaning and internalization<sup>65</sup>. Although there are not any preset signs for each concept, they should be somehow related. As stated by Seely and Romijn (2006), “any sign can be chosen to represent any concept. Preferably there is some sort of logical and obvious connection between the sign and the concept” (p.44)<sup>66</sup>. If there is a correct clarification of meaning through actions, the input will be comprehensible, and translation would not be necessary. However, abstractions should be delayed until a sufficient amount of code has been internalized and they can be introduced by showing flashcards, presenting them in context or explaining their meaning in simple terms using the target language.

Moreover, the instructor has to remember that to ensure internalization, “the input must come into the student many times in different contexts before the sound-shadows become visible and reproducible by the student” (Garcia, 2013, p.1-20)<sup>67</sup>. Garcia (2013) suggests to “patiently introduce each element step-by-step and work with the element in many different combinations until it is internalized by the

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<sup>64</sup> “There is nothing inherent in the TPR approach that demands a grammatical focus, however” (Krashen, 1987, p.141).

<sup>65</sup> “The signs are a means to the end of internalizing that vocabulary” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.44).

<sup>66</sup> “Signs from American Sign Language can be used” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.47).

“One advantage of using ASL is that the teacher doesn’t have to make up a sign for each word. Another is that the students not only learn words in the target language but also ALS words, or signs” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.48).

<sup>67</sup> “Recycling means to bring back basic material so that students hear it again in a slightly different context” (Garcia, 2013, p.V-53).

students” (p.II-7). The new components have to be recombined into novel sentences “so that students hear sentences they have never heard before” (Asher, 2012, p.3-113). Thanks to an appropriate selection and recombination, “their output is greater than your input” (Garcia, 2013, p.V-52). However, as it has been stated before, it has to be noted that “novelty is *not* meant to *trick* the student. We expect a successful response to each novel utterance” (Asher, 2012, p.4-5)<sup>68</sup>.

## 2. Comprehension Stage: Teacher modeling and demonstration / Student modeling and student participation

To introduce new concepts, the teacher plays first the active and direct role and says and models what to do. “The teacher gives a command and performs the corresponding action to demonstrate the meaning of it” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.40). Meanwhile, learners listen and watch the gestures or body movements that the teacher does. Before moving on to a new command, the teacher must ensure that all students have got the meaning<sup>69</sup>. To speed up the process of meaning, “Blaine Ray suggests painting the picture in words or telling a little story about the gesture used” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.47). With more advanced students, the teacher can introduce some questions “that can be answered with a single word” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.41). Later on, learners are listeners and performers. “The teacher gives the command to the students and the students move in response to it” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.40). First, only some volunteers mimic the teacher; then all students mimic the same gestures or body movements while the teacher says the commands (either individually or in groups) “to show that the utterances were understood” (Asher, 2012, p.2-10)<sup>70</sup>. As items are internalized, the instructor gradually discontinues the modeling<sup>71</sup>. “These modeling and demonstration stages may be analogous to comprehension and performance, learning and retention, or input and output” (Asher, 2012, p.2-10).

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<sup>68</sup> “If the directions from the instructor are logical and flow in a systematic step-by-step pattern, students will perform the appropriate action almost perfectly” (Asher, 2012, p.3-26).

<sup>69</sup> “If there is the slightest doubt that any student is not getting the meaning of a new vocabulary item without translation, then a quick translation is given orally” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.41).

<sup>70</sup> “The idea is to synchronize the motor behavior of the students with the listening of the command” (Garcia, 2013, p.I-2).

<sup>71</sup> “The ideal is to repeat until the student is confident, secure, and can successfully perform alone” (Asher, 2012, p.3-20).

### 3. Speaking Stage: Role reversal

With role reversal, usually after about 10 hours of presentation, students start speaking and addressing commands to the teacher or to other students (in pairs or in groups). “You know that many students are ready for role reversal when you hear them spontaneously repeating the commands that the teacher directs to students” (Garcia, 2013, p.IV-1). However, Garcia (2013) warns that “the important idea is not that they are now in the speaking mode, but rather that they have a chance to ‘cause’ changes in the behavior of others” (Garcia, 2013, p.IV-1).

Additionally, questions that require a simple one-word answer are also introduced (yes/no, true/false) and “gradually, students with great pleasure, will expand the complexity of their answers” (Garcia, 2013, p.IV-5) at the same time the teacher increases the complexity of questions.

After 60 hours of TPR, there is a transition from commands to dialogues. Later on, learners are ready to create their own dialogues (including questions and replies) and “short skits which are acted out” (Garcia, 2013, p.IV-4). For advanced students, the instructor can introduce scenarios in which they have to give directions or hold conversations.

### 4. Reading and Writing Stage

To achieve a positive transfer-of-learning, reading and writing derive from listening and comprehension. Students start to be exposed to written utterances after having worked them first orally through commands and actions. Brewster et al. (2012) point out that students “must be able to produce their ideas in spoken English before they are asked to write sentences” (p.123).

“The first step in ‘reading’ is using commands on paper that have been thoroughly internalized by students” (Garcia, 2013, p.IV-4). After 30 or 40 hours reading not long commands, short stories of no more than a paragraph long are introduced. In the mentioned stories, students can find the vocabulary that they have previously acquired. Next at this point, students start copying or combining other sentences and using substitution tables.

## 5. TPR student kits

TPR student kits are simple cartoons that represent different spaces and situations and that include stick figures that students can move through those represented rooms according to the commands received. TPR student kits can be used by students being at their seats and allow multiple options and combinations. Likewise, they are “a powerful right brain technique for making a graceful, effortless transition from comprehension to reading, writing, and speaking” (Garcia, 2013, p.IV-8).

(See Appendix II: *TPR Teaching Materials*)

### **3.4. Advantages and disadvantages of TPR**

Seely and Romijn (2006) manifest that TPR it is a powerful language acquisition technique that “-whatever else may be done along with it, whatever the teacher who is using it believes or does- it is extremely effective” (p.1). Similarly, according to Krashen (1987), “Second Language Acquisition theory predicts that TPR should result in substantial language acquisition” (p.142) and “do far better than methods such as audio-lingual and grammar-translation” (p.142)<sup>72</sup>. However, although TPR may be “a powerful tool, (...) it is not a panacea” (Asher, 2012, p.3-60). The TPR approach offers a number of benefits and some drawbacks.

One of the most relevant advantages is that TPR is not limited to commands and it is open to multiple combinations, variations and adaptations while maintaining language-body conversations<sup>73</sup> that allow a rapid and stress-free linguistic assimilation “while channeling high levels of energy in a positive way” (Brewster et al., 2012, p.163). By using TPR, students have an active participation in the classroom and are exposed to comprehensible inputs through body movements that speed the acquisition of grammar and vocabulary. Asher (2012) recommends “to use TPR to help students internalize any new grammatical feature or vocabulary item” (p.6-3). The teacher’s movement to model the actions serves as background knowledge that allows an instant understanding of the target language without the

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<sup>72</sup> “Newer approaches, such as Total Physical Response, produce significantly better results than older approaches” (Krashen, 1987, p.147).

<sup>73</sup> “Some have used this technique only in the form of a command followed by a physical response. Others have included other combinations of speech act and movement. Some use it only very early in language training. Others use it even in advanced stages” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.1).

need to use any translation<sup>74</sup>. Furthermore, “student self-confidence is enhanced because they are aware that they instantly understood an unfamiliar utterance- one they had never heard before in training” (Asher, 2012, p.4-5).

Another of its strengths is that it “develops listening comprehension efficiently and pleasantly” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.4). According to Seely and Romijn (2006), the involvement of muscles and senses that TPR defends allows students to fully experience the situation, thus creating a bond between learning and real life that boosts the acquisition of meaning and creates a more comfortable and enjoyable atmosphere for them. “Activities which usually engage and stir pupils are those where the learners are physically or mentally active and thus more involved in their learning” (Brewster et al., 2012, p.224). Additionally, TPR permits game-like activities that increase the motivation of students as they are physically active and having fun while learning in a controlled environment. Moreover, TPR can involve both left and right-brained activities to foster learning.

TPR mimics the natural developmental sequence that children follow to acquire their first language and it allows students to acquire vocabulary and structures easily and without stress because it does not start with production, memorization or explicit grammar instruction. Besides, “by TPR-ing the vocabulary that students will later see in the textbook, you have created a comfort zone for students” (Asher, 2012, p.3-18).

Moreover, studies have shown that the acquisition and retention of vocabulary is improved by using TPR.

Many, if not most, teachers who have used it for vocabulary development find that it is superior to other ways of developing vocabulary, at least when used for concrete vocabulary, such as action verbs, names of objects, prepositions of place and many adjectives and adverbs-any vocabulary which can be easily demonstrated by physical means. For the internalization of less obvious vocabulary items, it can also be extremely effective (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.4).

Even though TPR is thought to be more effective with beginners<sup>75</sup> or younger learners, it can also be applied to advanced or adult students. “As has been

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<sup>74</sup> “When the target language is followed by a physical action, one understands what was said” (Asher, 2012, p.3-31).

“We do not depend upon translation into the student’s native language in teaching a second language” (Garcia, 2013, p.1-14).

“Since there is no translation, children think in the target language” (Asher, 2012, p.3-27).

<sup>75</sup> “This approach has been found to be very successful with beginners” (Brewster et al., 2012, p.26).

demonstrated in study after study, TPR works with both children and adults” (Asher, 2012, p.6-1)<sup>76</sup> and it is not only useful at the beginning of language acquisition. “I believe that beyond Level 1, TPR is valuable for internalizing any new vocabulary item or new grammatical structure” (Asher, 2012, pp.3-3 – 3-4). Furthermore, it can be a great advantage for students with special needs and bodily-kinesthetic learners. Besides, TPR can be adapted to different learning paces and it “is effective for everyone in the normal curve of ability, not just those with high academic ability” (Asher, 2012, p.6-1).

Another advantage that TPR offers is that students are able to internalize “the target language rapidly in chunks rather than word-by-word” (Cabello, 2005)<sup>77</sup>. Therefore, their speech will be more natural and spontaneous.

TPR also allows repetition and practice using different and suitable contexts, situations or grammatical or lexical structures that can be combined. “Where most materials have a separate unit for each tense, this approach suggests practicing several tenses every day. Furthermore, each tense, once introduced, is practiced regularly throughout the course” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.95). In that way, TPR lessons are not simply a memory exercise and foster fluency and connected discourses.

One more strong point is that TPR allows students to make an easy and smooth transition from listening to speaking, reading<sup>78</sup> and writing. “The magic of TPR is that when the target language is internalized through body movements, students not only comprehend what you are saying but they comprehend what they see in print” (Cabello, 2005). Consequently, there is a continuous flow of activity that prevents the left brain from objections or attempts “to send sabotaging messages to the learner” (Garcia, 2013, p.IV-5).

Finally, another benefit is that the teacher is able to evaluate constantly the level of his/her students because, as Asher (2012) declares, “since each student is

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<sup>76</sup> “Whether students are beginning or advanced, TPR enables learners to feel comfortable interacting with others in a second language and builds confidence for using the language outside the classroom” (Seely and Romijn, 2006, pp.33-34).

“Language-body conversations in the TPR procedure are powerful in helping children and adults internalize huge chunks of the target language often on the first exposure” (Asher, 2012, p.3-55).

<sup>77</sup> “With an instructional strategy based on TPR, English could be internalized and integrated in chunks rather than word by word” (Asher, 2012, p.3-32).

<sup>78</sup> “Even when there is not a good fit between the sound and printed symbolization of the language, as is the case in English, the transfer is remarkable, given the assumption that the students are already literate in their native language” (Asher, 2012, p.3-43).

continually emitting action responses, the instructor has an accurate 'reading' of individual student progress at all times" (p.3-10)<sup>79</sup> and he/she is able to know whether or not utterances are understood.

On the other hand, TPR has also a number of limitations. One major disadvantage of this approach is that, although it may be superior for the development of the listening skill, "among the 'four skills', the productive skills of speaking and writing are the weaker" (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.4).

Another problem with this approach is that it is easy to overuse and can become repetitive for students.

Resistance may occur after a while when some students get tired of moving in response to commands, or just get tired of moving, or just get tired of doing the same thing. They cease to find it fun and interesting. Asher applies the term adaptation, from biology, to this phenomenon (Seely and Romijn, 2006, p.161).

As Asher (2012) himself states, "using it as your *only tool* will result in adaptation" (p.3-91). In consequence, TPR needs constant variations or combinations with other tools to avoid redundancy.

Perhaps the most serious disadvantage is that it can be an insurmountable obstacle for very shy students who can feel embarrassed or inhibited. "The necessity of producing overt physical responses right away may provoke anxiety in some students" (Krashen, 1987, p.142). Moreover, on the contrary, some students may use TPR as an opportunity to do nonsense.

Another problem is that the instructor may find it difficult to use TPR with certain target languages and with specific vocabulary or grammar elements. Likewise, although TPR can be used either with beginners or advanced students, it is easier to use with beginners and instructors may need a lot of time to prepare a TPR lesson for advanced students.

Another thing to take into account is that TPR would be more suitable for small groups in order to have enough space to perform the actions and to reduce the possible noise. However, Garcia (2013) considers that "even if the spectators are a bit noisy, learning is being imprinted" (p.1-15).

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<sup>79</sup> "You are constantly monitoring their progress. You are able to 'read' where each student is at all times" (Asher, 2012, p.4-5).

Finally, problems may arise if some students' mistakes are not corrected and they do not notice the gap because this can lead to a fossilization of such errors.

In order to empirically analyse which can be the advantages and disadvantages of TPR and if it can be useful in the classroom, the following section explains an investigation carried out with third grade Primary Education students.

#### **4. An Investigation: The influence of Total Physical Response (TPR) in the acquisition of vocabulary in Primary Education.**

With the aim to improve and optimize teaching and learning processes in Second Language Acquisition (SLA), the pages that follow expose a study conducted in English language classrooms in Primary Education to explore the potential benefits of TPR.

##### ***4.1. Background research***

In most recent studies, different authors have tested the efficacy of TPR approach in a variety of ways, including classroom and laboratory studies with children and with adults and with different languages. Actually, Asher (2012) states that "there are more experimental and field studies to support the principle than any other single concept in second language learning" (p.3-3). The originator of TPR himself has carried out most of the empirical investigations with the support of research grants from the Office of Education, the Office of Naval Research, the Department of Defense, and the State of California. As Asher (2012) states: "I have explored this phenomenon in scores of studies with children and adults who were acquiring Spanish, German, Japanese and Russian" (p.3-114). Other investigators include Dr. Janet King Swaffer, Dr. Margaret S. Woodruff, Dr. David E. Wolfe and Gwendolyn Jones.

Previous investigations have based their observation criteria on the benefits of using the Imperative Mood to speed up the process of second language learning on the premise that is through that mood how people acquire their first language. "Asher (1972b) designed a pilot study, carried out by Silvia de Langen, to determine how fast understanding of spoken German can be assimilated by American children when



the learning is based on the imperative” (Asher, 2012, p.2-5). The children received two days a week after-school German classes and the group of adults used for comparison trained six hours a day for five days a week. The results showed that children acquired the same content of German that “is assimilated through memorization of dialogues by adults during the initial two months of training at the Defense Language Institute (DLI)” (Asher, 2012, p.2-5).

To follow up the previous pilot demonstration, the learning of Spanish of children in the first, second, fifth, sixth, and seventh grades was analyzed. The evidence suggested that

all groups of children made rapid progress, in understanding Spanish when compared with groups. Secondly, there was substantial transfer-of-learning from understanding spoken Spanish to reading, writing, and speaking. (...) And thirdly, the children showed their most dramatic gain in the comprehension of novelty (Asher, 2012, p.2-6).

Asher also “compared 30 ESL students using TPR to controls using audio-lingual instruction, and reported that TPR students outperformed controls who had had the same amount of training (120 hours) but who had started at a higher level class” (Krashen, 1987, p.156). Similarly, Richard Pugh also reported excellent results in using the imperative to improve the production of Spanish correct grammatical forms of 6<sup>th</sup> graders (Asher, 2012).

A number of researchers have conducted TPR experiments to study different aspects for their honor’s or master’s thesis. Amongst them, Mary Hamilton studied with 6th grade children the implications for acquisition that acting in response to commands had in comparison with only observing a model act without moving. She reported that “the retention of children who acted in response to Russian commands was far superior (...) compared with the children who sat and merely observed a model act” (Asher, 2012, p.2-6). Likewise, “Shirou Kunihiro conducted an experiment to teach a sample of Japanese to college students (Kunihiro & Asher, 1965)” (Asher, 2012, p.2-7). His study showed that the group that acted in training and individually “in the retention tests had significantly better recall ( $p < .001$ ) than each control group” (Asher, 2012, p.2-9). Asher (2012) repeated the study using Russian instead of Japanese and the results did not change significantly. Similarly, in further studies conducted with college students learning samples of Russian, Asher (2012) described that “students who acted alone to demonstrate understanding of the target

language outperformed students who were not required to act individually to show their comprehension” (p.2-10)<sup>80</sup>.

Several studies have also examined if TPR was more efficient than the classical audio-lingual approach. Dr. Margaret Woodruff reported in a paper presented at the American Association of Teachers of German that after only one semester since the conversion of the first year German language course at the University of Texas at Austin to TPR instructional strategy based on commands, “the average listening and reading skill in German was about the same as students completing the second semester of German in a traditional audio-lingual program” (Asher, 2012, p.2-13). Moreover, the proportion of students who continued in the course from the first to the second semester was significantly raised from an average of 50% to an average of 75% (Asher, 2012).

In this same line, Asher (2012) manifests that night school students with only 32 hours of training could understand more spoken German than “college students who had completed either 75 hours or 150 hours of formal college instruction in German” (p.2-12).

Jackson (1979) and her colleagues at the Whisman School District in Mountain View, California, conducted a three-year research project in which a group of elementary school children with deficiencies in English language skills (vocabulary, language comprehension and expressive skills). After three years, the experimental group had, on average, a 1,5-year advantage in vocabulary, 80% more comprehension and 130% increase in expressive skills (Asher, 2012).

The effectiveness of TPR Storytelling has also been discussed by some authors. Todd McKay completed the first pilot study to show the benefits of TPRS for students

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<sup>80</sup> “The second hypothesis was that retention (either short or long) was accelerated when each student *acted alone* to demonstrate understanding of the foreign utterance. The hypothesis was confirmed when students (N=37) who acted or observed in training but *acted in retention* tests were contrasted with a group (N=37) who also acted or observed in training but *wrote English translations in the retention tests*” (Asher, 2012, p.2-9).

“The results seem to indicate that it is *not* important that the individual student models along with the instructor so long as the *individual* student later demonstrates comprehension through action” (Asher, 2012, p.2-10).

“During training, it did not matter whether learners acted or observed a model act, but it was critical that each person later demonstrate comprehension by physically acting in response to directions in the foreign language” (Asher, 2012, p.1-34).

“This was verified when those who acted in the demonstrations of retention outperformed those who wrote English translations to show their retention” (Asher, 2012, p.1-34).

in middle school (Asher, 2012). Likewise, “Todd McKay and Blaine Ray have demonstrated in their everyday classroom experiences that linking one thought to another in storytelling is a powerful agent for helping students *internalize the skill of speaking, reading, and writing the target language*” (Asher, 2012, p.3-68).

Asher (2012) concludes that “all the experimental results published in academic journals and in *Psychology Today* showed large mean differences that are statistically significant on every measure of learning and retention” (p.3-114), thus proving the effectiveness of TPR approach. According to Krashen (1987), “the TPR results are clear and consistent, and the magnitude of superiority of TPR is quite striking” (p.156).

#### **4.2. The study**

The succeeding study attempts to show the differences in the acquisition of English vocabulary between two distinct groups of Primary Education students to determine whether TPR is more effective than a Translation-based approach or not. The study has focused primarily on two aspects: the evidence of gains in the understanding of specific English vocabulary and the level of motivation of the participants of the two contexts under exploration.

##### **4.2.1. Theoretical framework and research questions**

In learning English, vocabulary plays an important role. Wilkins (1972) even states that “while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (pp. 111-112)<sup>81</sup>. However, the learning of foreign language vocabulary can sometimes be a complex matter for children because they “are still building up their L1 vocabulary and are still in the process of acquiring and organizing concepts” (Brewster et al., 2012, p.81).

One purpose of this study is to assess the extent to which English vocabulary is acquired better by TPR students. In particular, this research seeks to answer the following questions:

- Does the TPR approach lead to better language learning results in the acquisition of English action verbs in Primary Education students?

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<sup>81</sup> “As it has often been remarked, we can communicate by using words that are not placed in the proper order, pronounced perfectly, or marked with the proper grammatical morphemes, but communication often breaks down if we do not use the correct word” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 96).

- Is there evidence of gains in vocabulary in comparison to the other approach?
- Are students more motivated when TPR is applied?
- Is TPR a useful classroom management tool?

From previous information in this paper, it could conceivably be hypothesised that the use of TPR to teach English action verbs results in better learning and retention and in more engagement and motivation.

#### **4.2.2. Participants**

The compilation of the data was done in a school with students from third grade of Primary Education.

**The School:** The study was carried out at “Col.legi Montserrat”, a differentiated and innovative concerted school which is located in Barcelona (Spain).

“Col.legi Montserrat” has 1,046 students from Early Childhood Education (0-6 years), Primary Education (6-12 years old), Compulsory Secondary Education (13-16 years old) to Baccalaureate LOE / International (17-18 years old).

The Educational Project of the school is aimed at the personalization of each student's learning, the facilitation of the development of all the intelligences and the offering of an integral formation so that students are able to guide their knowledge to do good actions. Additionally, “Col.legi Montserrat” highly values the importance of languages. For this reason, students are introduced to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) as early as P2 and the hours of English continue throughout all the grades. The instruction of English through Primary is done using AMCO methodology and books (an approach that also takes into account Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences). Moreover, since the first year of Primary Education, some subjects are taught in English. Likewise, when students start Primary Education, they begin to learn French and German and there is the opportunity to study Chinese at lunch time.

In general terms, the school families belong to economically middle-upper class and have a high socio-cultural level. Besides, the majority of students have at least one sibling.

**The class:** The group of learners participating in the research are studying the 3<sup>rd</sup> year of Primary Education, so they are between 8-9 years of age. Of the initial cohort of 58 students, 10 individuals were excluded from the study because they had missed either the pre-test or the post-test. Finally, 48 students participated in the study, 23 were girls and 25 were boys.

**Justification:** In the school, a series of structural changes were made in order to create larger classrooms in which all the students of the same level were together. This creation of classrooms of around 60 students is linked to the proposed application of “Team Teaching”, a methodology that advocates for shared instruction between various teachers. Accordingly, in each classroom of “Col.legi Montserrat”, there are three teachers. As a result, walls were removed and the old separation in two groups per grade was eliminated. Similarly, individual tables were removed, and classrooms were organized in large tables in which six or seven students sit looking at each other.

Third graders were chosen for the study mainly for two reasons. Firstly, they are the only level that is still divided in two classrooms due to structural constraints, so there was no need to take out students from the classroom to carry out the study since they were already separated. Secondly, they are in the middle of Primary Education, so they have some previously acquired knowledge of English action verbs, but they still lack most of them.

#### ***4.2.3. Method and design of the study***

The participants were randomly assigned to two groups on the basis of how they are usually distributed during the English lessons. It is important to mention here that the school divided the students into two groups randomly, without taking into account their English competence in the previous years of schooling. However, after carrying out the pre-test, it was seen that one group had better results.

Group 1- TPR: The first group consisted of 24 students, 11 girls and 13 boys.

Group 2- Translation: The second group consisted of 24 students, 12 girls and 12 boys.

The independent variables were TPR and Translation-based approaches.

The dependent variables were: (1) vocabulary retention at the end of the lessons, (2) motivation levels and classroom management during the lessons.

Both groups received instruction from the same person and on the same vocabulary items. The only difference was the approach employed. A Translation-based approach was used in comparison to TPR because it seemed to be the furthest and most diverse language teaching strategy to Asher's proposal. Asher (2012) specifically warns about the drawbacks of using translation in the lessons by stating that, although it may be comprehensible input, it does not allow intake and "is slow-motion, word-by-word learning without the benefit of long-term retention" (p.3-101). Moreover, he claims that "any recommendation that students should translate is a giant step backwards, especially for beginning and intermediate students" (Asher, 2012, p.3-70). Furthermore, TPR approach is directed to the right brain whereas a Translation-based approach is directed to the left one.

It was decided that the best method to adopt for this investigation was a combination of a qualitative and a quantitative analysis based on an experimental study. Thereby, emphasis was given not only to outcomes but also to processes. On the one hand, in order to gain insights into the initial level of motivation of students and their 'relationship' with the English language (if they liked the language or not, if they used it outside school, when they started learning it, etc.), a qualitative approach based on questions was used (See Appendix III: *Learners' questionnaire*). In the same way, the teacher took into account motivation levels and students' behavior during and after the lessons in terms of active participation, good conduct and expressed interest.

On the other hand, a quantitative approach was employed to measure vocabulary gains. In order to identify the students' level of competence prior to undertaking the training, they were asked to fill-in a pilot test. The analysis of the first students' test allowed to assure that both groups had already acquired a number of action verbs and were at a similar level of competence. This test also allowed to modify the previous prototype of the didactic unit in order to create a new one more suitable to implement in both groups in two different ways.

The pre-test was designed with more difficult action verbs and in the after 'training' phase of the study, participants were asked to complete a post-test to analyse the

variations in progress made by the two groups. The final test was the same that students had done initially, before the application of the didactic unit to compare students' vocabulary achievement before and after the intervention.

The data gained from the pre-tests and post-tests of both groups was processed using the mean score, the standard deviation and the percentages of improvement to compare the results depending on the approach used.

The researcher was also in charge of implementing the didactic unit to both groups, thus there were no divergences based on different teachers' profile. Additionally, in this way, the teacher-researcher was allowed to experience the two diverse approaches in her own teaching practice.

The research was conducted for four weeks and five sessions. The first idea was to teach some action verbs fifteen minutes daily during a week in both groups, but the distribution of English lessons that third graders had (5 hours distributed in three days) forced to compact the interventions in three days (Monday, Thursday and Friday). In the intervention week, both groups received a total of two hours of English action verbs.

The pilot study was conducted the first week, the pre-test was done the second week, the intervention was carried out the third week and students were asked to complete the post-test the fourth week. The initial idea was to do a delayed post-test two weeks later, but it was not possible due to time constraints.

#### ***4.2.3.1. Design of the Pilot test, the Pre-test and the Post-test***

##### *Pilot study*

The pilot test included six different types of exercises that evaluated diverse skills using both left and right brain hemispheres.

- Listening Skill: exercises one and seven were designed to know the level of oral comprehension that students had. Exercise one using words and exercise seven using pictures.

- Reading Skill: exercises two, three, four, five and six evaluated written comprehension using various strategies: words to translate from English to Spanish, images and words to match according to meaning, multiple choice words to complete sentences, sentences to translate from English to Spanish, words to draw...

This test was designed to attribute one point for each correct answer and the maximum points available were 39 (See Appendix IV: *Pilot test*).

*Pre-test and post-test.*

The pre-test was shorter in order not to lose so much time and to avoid a decrease of motivation in students towards the following lessons. Examples of the tests can be seen in Appendix V: *Pre-test and post-test*.

It consisted of four exercises and the maximum points were 23. The test was designed using the same logic as the previous test, so it combined exercises to evaluate the listening and reading skills and it offered left and right brain hemisphere inputs. Hence, in the post-test some exercises would be easier for one group and others for the other group. Both groups were given the necessary time to complete the pre-test and post-test.

- Exercise 1: Students saw eight pictures and, for each one, they had to choose between three words, that is, the one that described the action verb conveyed in it. The teacher-researcher read the three possible words for each picture, so students received written and oral input.
- Exercise 2: Students listened to eight verbs that the teacher said and had to write the Spanish translation on the test.
- Exercise 3: Students translated four simple sentences from English to Spanish. In this exercise, the teacher-researcher also read the sentences to help students.
- Exercise 4: Students had to draw the meaning conveyed by three action verbs.



After being exposed to the same set of vocabulary for two hours, the two groups re-did the test three days later.

#### **4.2.3.2. Design of the Didactic Unit**

The activities of the didactic unit have been designed with the objective of being enjoyable and motivating to absorb, process and retain new information in a fun and productive way. In addition, it has been taking into account the necessity of proposing activities that students can find interesting and useful for their daily lives.

As learning styles relate to the physical sense by which each student prefers to learn, the activities offer inputs related with movement, sense of hearing and eyesight.

In Appendix VI: *Materials used to apply the Didactic Unit*, the materials used for the implementation of the didactic unit can be found.

**TOPIC/TITLE:** ACTION VERBS.

**GRADE/YEAR:** 3rd Primary.

**NUMBER OF LESSONS:** 3

**LENGTH OF EACH LESSON:** One lesson of fifteen minutes and two lessons of one hour.

#### **MAIN TEACHING OBJECTIVES:**

1. To know the vocabulary about action verbs.
2. To understand specific oral language related with action verbs.
3. To recognize and distinguish different adverbs.
4. To encourage participation in the classroom (either translating or acting).

**- Target language (Grammar structures and vocabulary):**

#### ***Vocabulary Revision:***

Action Verbs: stand up, sit down, walk, stop, turn around, turn on, turn off, drive, jump, point to, touch, hands up, hands down, close, clap, play, swim, drink, eat.

Nouns: head, eyes, hand, stomach, window, car, light, floor, guitar, door, juice, sandwich.

Adverbs: quickly, slowly.

Prepositions: on, off, down, up.

***New Vocabulary:***

Action Verbs: embrace, squat, yawn, sneeze, snore, iron, wave, sweep, climb, smell, clean, wink, laugh, dig, cough, hang, caress, comb, dive, bounce, pour, knit, scratch, prune.

**Grammar Structures:** The Imperative.

**SKILLS WORKED:** Receptive skills; Listening and Reading.

**EVALUATION:** An initial evaluation will be obtained through the pre-test and a final evaluation by the post-test (three days later).  
The test has been designed to analyze oral and written comprehension of utterances.

**SEQUENCING OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROCESS:**

(See Appendix VII: *Sequencing of the Didactic Unit*).

**LESSON 1:** Introduction with action verbs they already know (15 minutes).

This lesson is used to familiarize students with the approach that is going to be implemented in the two following lessons. For this reason, already acquired action verbs are used.

The teacher introduces the title of the unit and what students are supposed to learn at the end of it.

The procedure is the same for both groups but group one has to perform the corresponding actions and group two has to translate them. The teacher asks for two volunteers and tells them to sit next to him/her. He/She has to be seated in the middle and the three must be looking at the rest of the students. Then, in the TPR group the teacher says: *“Let’s do a review. When I say something in English, listen carefully and do what I do. Just listen and act rapidly without trying to pronounce the words yourself”*. On the other hand, with the Translation group he/she says: *“Let’s do a review. I am going to say some action verbs in English, and you will have to translate them into Spanish. The verbs are in the imperative, which means that they are formulated as commands. For example, if I say ‘run’, you will have to say ‘corre’, if I say “read”, you will have to say ‘lee”*.

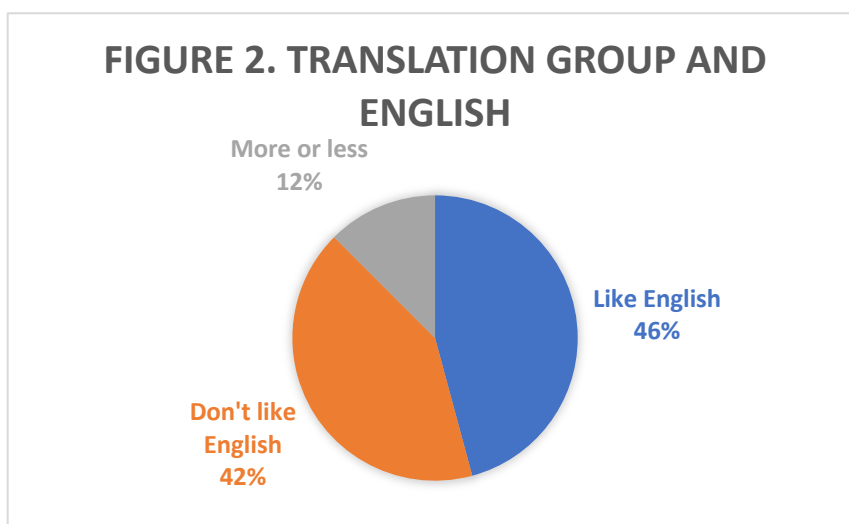
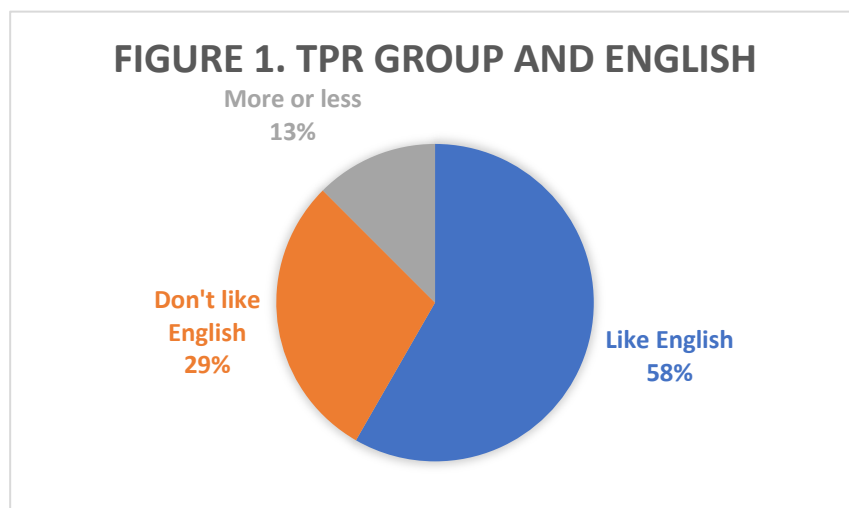
**LESSON 2:** Thirteen new action verbs are first introduced using a Keynote (with pictures for the TPR group and translated written words for the Translation group) and are then revised using cards. In order to motivate students, Class Dojo is used to randomly select them to participate once the first introduction has been done and a bag containing cards with the action verbs is employed to add mystery to the game. Each student has to pick up a card from the bag without looking and points are attributed for correct physical responses or translations.

**LESSON 3:** Eleven new action verbs are introduced in the same way. First using a Keynote and then using cards. In order to motivate students, Class Dojo is used to randomly select them to participate once the first introduction has been done and a bag containing cards with the action verbs is employed to add mystery to the game. Each student has to pick up a card from the bag without looking and points are attributed for correct physical responses or translations.

#### **4.2.4. Results and data analysis**

This section seeks to provide the findings obtained after carrying out the study. Personal details about students have been anonymized by using the initials of their name and surname. The tables of results that are explained here can be seen in Appendix VIII: *Tables of results*.

First, we focus on the qualitative analysis obtained from the learners' questionnaire. The initial questionnaire revealed some background information about the students' profile. Students were asked to indicate whether they like English or not. Fourteen students of the first group (TPR) do like English (58.3%) and seven students dislike it (29.2%). Of the second group (Translation), eleven students like English (45.8%) whilst ten do not (41.7%). One important finding of the questionnaire is that some students of both groups, the 12.5% (three students in each group) specifically indicated that they more or less liked English or that they liked the language but not the type of instruction or the methodology employed in the lessons. The questionnaire did not include an explicit question making a distinction between the language itself and the mode of instruction, but those students specifically wanted to indicate it, showing that although they like the English language, they really do not enjoy how it is taught. As the graphs below represent (Figure 1 and Figure 2), well over half of the students in the TPR Group like English whereas in the Translation group around the 46% of students do.



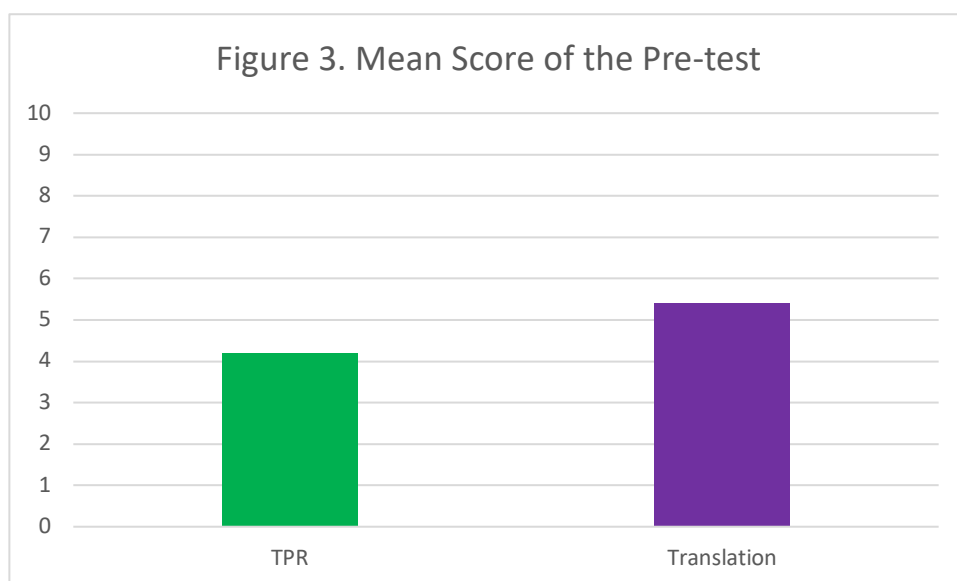
What is more, it could be known from the questionnaire that the majority of students of the two groups had started learning English as soon as they were three years old. Similarly, an alike number of students of both groups (16 students of the TPR group and 15 of the Translation group) speak English outside school, representing the 64.6% of all the participants. Besides, an analogous number of them study it after school (9 students of the TPR group and 11 students of the Translation group) which represents the 41.7% of all the children participating in the research. From these results, it could be guaranteed that the two groups were comparable in age and verified that the majority of students had received a similar number of instructional hours. However, the students of the TPR group had slightly better feelings for it.

We know move on to present a quantitative account of the findings followed by a descriptive analysis. Findings from each approach are presented at the same time to

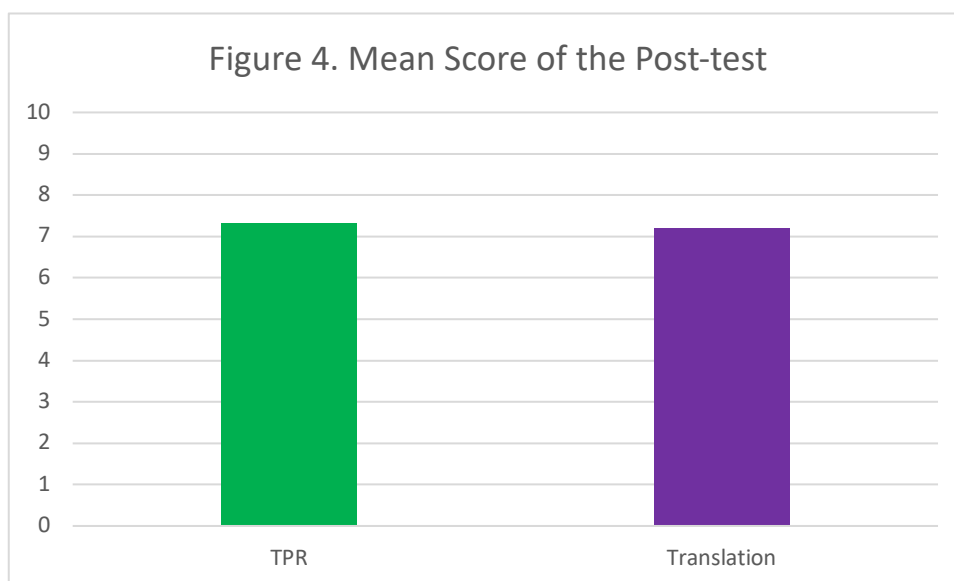
make a comparison between them. It has to be mentioned here that the standard deviation of all the tests (except the pilot study) is between 1.3 and 1.8, indicating that there are some differences between the students' marks (some students have a high score whereas others have a low one).

In the pilot study, almost all the students in both groups obtained a high mark, with the mean score out of ten being 9.0 for group one (TPR) and 9.5 for group two (Translation). Students of the second group did scarcely better so it could be checked that all the participants had a similar level of competence. Nevertheless, in order to better prove the possible productiveness of TPR, group one was chosen to apply this approach. Moreover, according to the teachers, group one included students with more movement needs than group two.

In the pre-test, the results were more dissimilar between the two groups, revealing a higher inequality between them. The mean score out of ten for the TPR group was a 4.2 whilst for the Translation group it was a 5.4. Additionally, if we consider that 5 points out of ten are needed to pass the exam, only 25% of TPR students succeed whereas in the Translation group the 62.5% of students did. In the same way, in the TPR group the best score was a 6.5 out of ten and in the Translation group it was a 8.3 whilst the worst score in the first group was a 1.3 and in the second one a 2.6. Figure 3 graphically represents the mean score of the pre-test results in each group. At first glance, it is immediately apparent that the students of the TPR group had an initial lower level of proficiency, with 1.2 points less.



If we now move on to look at the post-test results, it is quite clear from the data that both groups have improved their score. Almost the 90% of the students of each group passed the test (87.5% in each case). The TPR group obtained a mean score of 7.3 out of ten and the one of the Translation group was a 7.2. Therefore, although the TPR group started the implementation of the didactic unit with a lower level of knowledge of the specific English action verbs, the students reached the same score at the end. Actually, the students of the TPR group had 0.1 points more. Figure 4 graphically represents the mean score of the post-test results in each group.



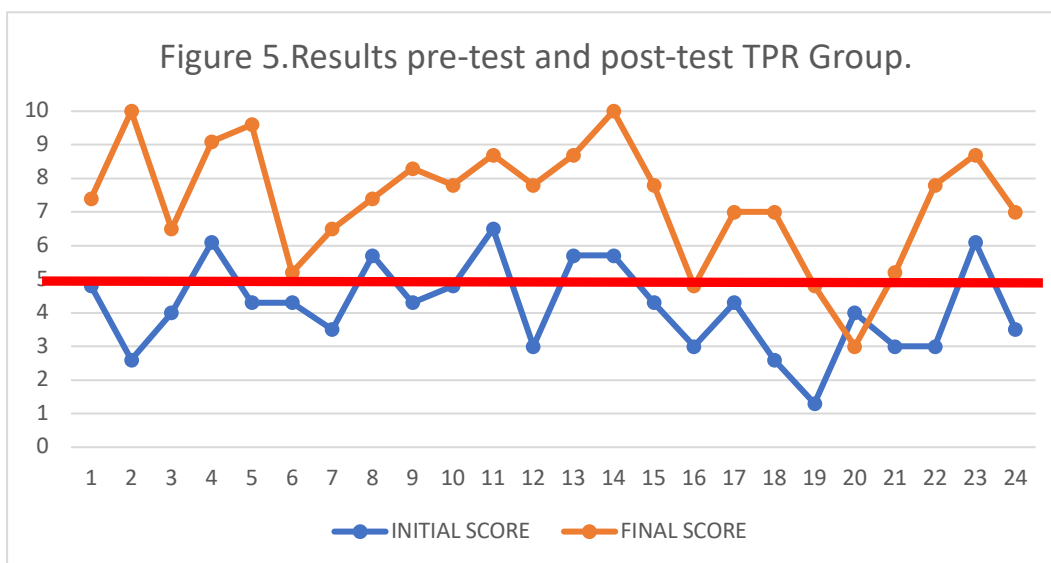
Out of a total of 24 students in the TPR group, 21 students passed the post-test (87.5%) but only six students (25%) had passed it in the pre-test, thus increasing the number of students who had passed the test by the 62.5%. Although out of the 24 participants of the Translation group, 21 students passed (87.5%) the post-test, 15 of them had also passed the pre-test (62.5%), increasing the percentage of students who had passed by 25%.

As the following table (Table 1) and figure (Figure 5) show, the results of students who had received TPR instruction rose sharply from lower marks, being 4.2 the mean score in the pre-test to higher marks, being 7.3 the mean score in the post-test. Therefore, their mean percentage of improvement jumped to just over the 75% (75.40%).

Table 1: General outcomes of the TPR Group.

STUDENTS	INITIAL SCORE (Pre-test)	FINAL SCORE (Post-test)	PERCENTAGE OF IMPROVEMENT (%)
C. R.	4.8	7.4	54.17%
T. N.	2.6	10	284.62%
S. R.	4	6.5	62.50%
M. G.	6.1	9.1	49.18%
S. T.	4.3	9.6	123.26%
A. S.	4.3	5.2	20.93%
M. P.	3.5	6.5	85.71%
A. C.	5.7	7.4	29.82%
J. G.	4.3	8.3	93.02%
Y. Y.	4.8	7.8	62.50%
N. B.	6.5	8.7	33.85%
C. B.	3	7.8	160.00%
E. A.	5.7	8.7	52.63%
J. J.	5.7	10	75.44%
M. A.	4.3	7.8	81.40%
P. R.	3	4.8	60.00%
N. M.	4.3	7	62.79%
J. P.	2.6	7	169.23%
J. A.	1.3	4.8	269.23%
T. A.	4	3.0	25.00%
V. C.	3	5.2	73.33%
I. T.	3	7.8	160.00%
P. C.	6.1	8.7	42.62%
C. L.	3.5	7	100.00%
CLASS MEAN	4.2	7.3	75.40%
STANDARD DEVIATION	1.3	1.8	

Figure 5. Results pre-test and post-test TPR Group.



In contrast, the table (Table 2) and figure (Figure 6) below, provide an overview of the results obtained from students who followed a Translation-based methodology. The mean score of the pre-test was a 5.4 and this mark only rose to a 7.2 in the post-test. Hence, their mean percentage of improvement remained around 35% (35.12%).

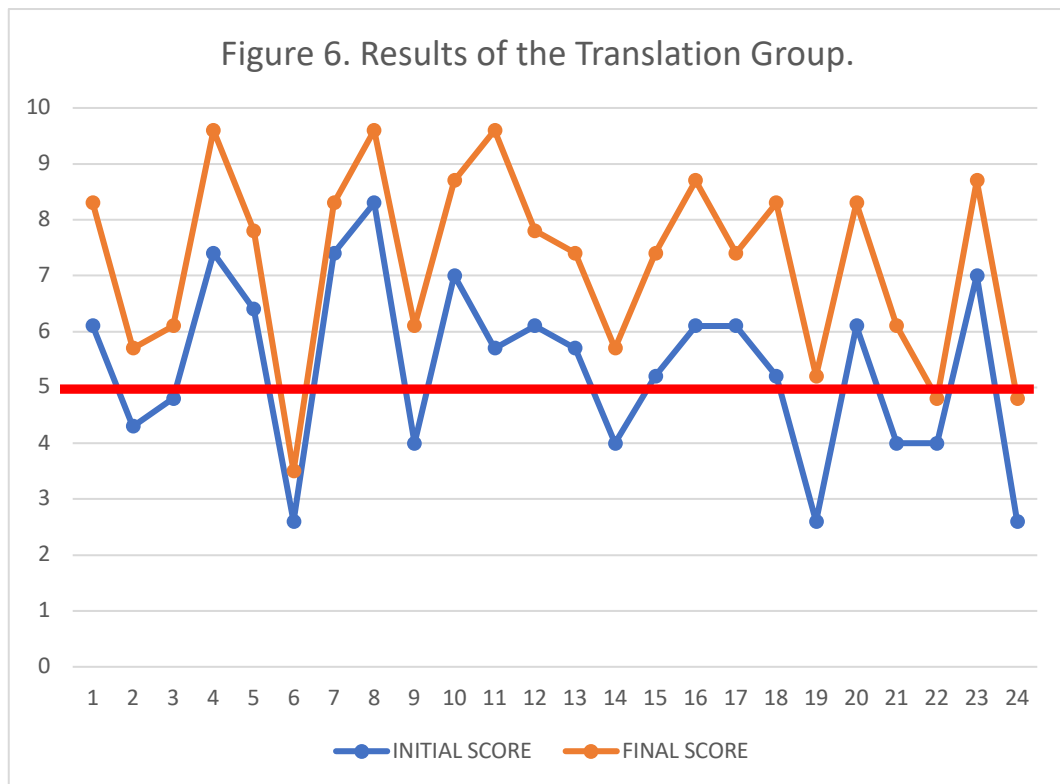
Table 2: General outcomes of the Translation Group.

STUDENTS	INITIAL SCORE (Pre-test)	FINAL SCORE (Post-test)	PERCENTAGE OF IMPROVEMENT (%)
V. C.	6.1	8.3	36.07%
Q. V.	4.3	5.7	32.56%
V. V.	4.8	6.1	27.08%
J. D.	7.4	9.6	29.73%
U. Z.	6.4	7.8	21.88%
E. L.	2.6	3.5	34.62%
C. A.	7.4	8.3	12.16%
C. O.	8.3	9.6	15.66%
C. G.	4	6.1	52.50%
Y. D.	7	8.7	24.29%
C. B.	5.7	9.6	68.42%
P. G.	6.1	7.8	27.87%
I. S.	5.7	7.4	29.82%



N. A.	4	5.7	42.50%
G. P.	5.2	7.4	42.31%
M. R.	6.1	8.7	42.62%
L. G.	6.1	7.4	21.31%
M. O.	5.2	8.3	59.62%
G. F.	2.6	5.2	100.00%
M. G.	6.1	8.3	36.07%
A. M.	4	6.1	52.50%
A. V.	4	4.8	20.00%
M. A.	7	8.7	24.29%
I. P.	2.6	4.8	84.62%
CLASS MEAN	5.4	7.2	35.12%
STANDARD DEVIATION	1.6	1.7	

Figure 6. Results pre-test and post-test Translation Group.



To sum it up, although both groups started at a different level, it can be seen that the results of the TPR group increased significantly whereas the outcomes of Translation group results were less considerable since they had started at a higher level. Figure 7 compares the general outcomes of the two groups.

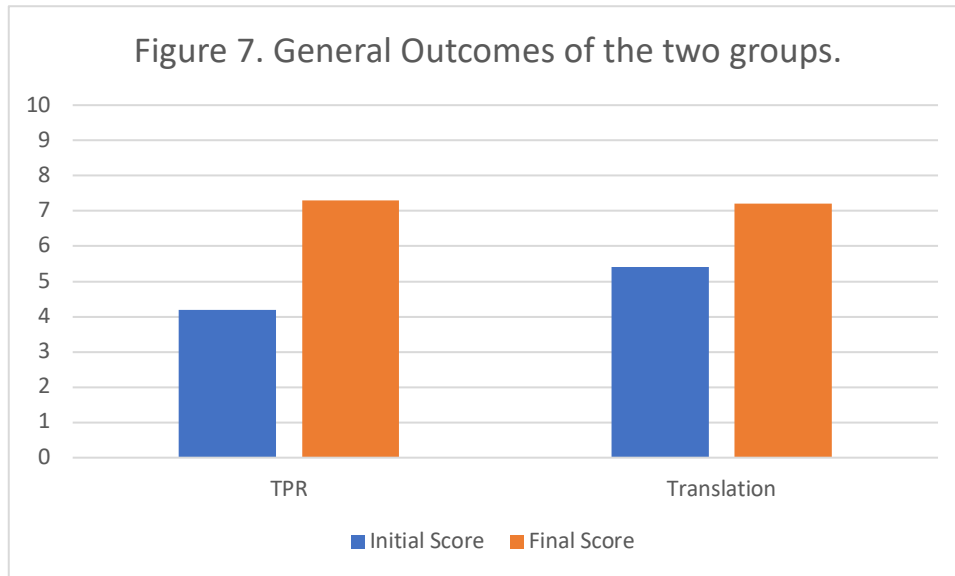
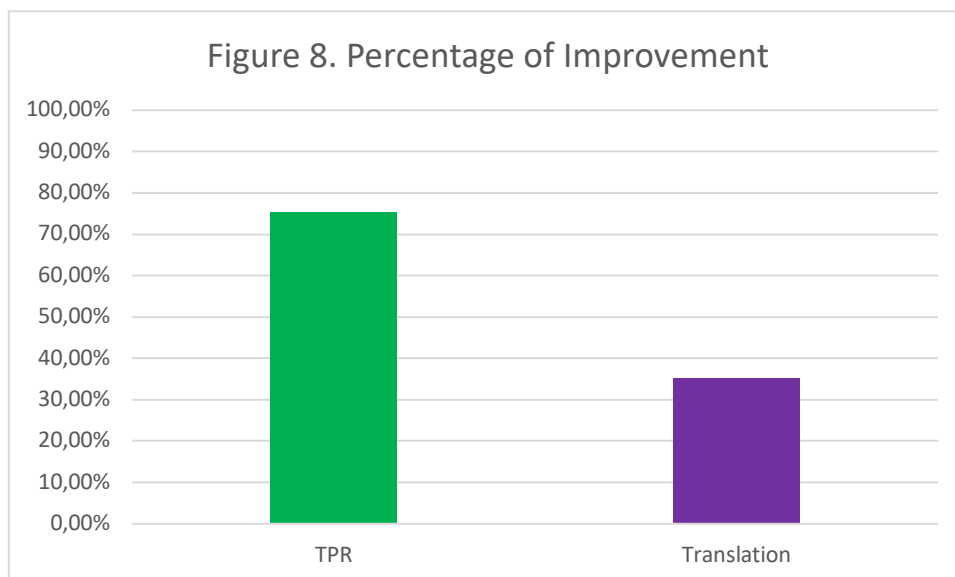


Figure 8 compares the mean percentage of improvement of each group. As the graph reveals, the general trend indicates major vocabulary gains in the TPR approach.



Finally, another aspect to consider is motivation and classroom management. The following is a qualitative analysis of the teaching-learning process. This analysis of the process has also shed some additional light on the conditions under which students learn with TPR. From the teacher-researcher's point of view, the process of implementation of the didactic unit was analyzed addressing the following questions:

- Are students more motivated when TPR is applied?
- Is TPR a useful classroom management tool?

According to Brewster et al. (2012), "motivation is one of the most important factors in successful language learning" (p.22). Motivation is a key factor to determine attention, which is the starting point to acquire new information and, thus, a basic requirement to learn.

During the first introductory lesson, the students of the TPR group showed higher levels of motivation in terms of active participation, attention and expressed satisfaction with the instruction (both physically smiling and verbally with a range of spontaneous positive comments). From the beginning, they were very excited and predisposed towards the lesson. Moreover, after this first introduction to TPR approach, students responded very positively to the next material (which was the pre-test), expecting something equally amusing. Therefore, although they had to do a test, they were excited to do it. On the following days, some students were asking the teacher-researcher when they would continue with the TPR lessons and others even gave commands to each other and performed the correspondent physical action.

On the contrary, the Translation group did not show any specific interest towards the lesson and, from the teacher's perceptions, motivation levels remained unchanged. Furthermore, students seemed to be bored and translated the verbs that the teacher-researcher said without wishing to do so. It was also harder for them to pay attention. However, it has to be remembered that, in general, the students of this group did not like English as much as the students of the other group. Surprisingly, some students made unconscious movements related with the meaning of the verb when translating and the teacher-researcher had to specifically ask them not to move. It was also more difficult for the instructor to maintain the classroom control and had students focused on the activity. When they had to do the pre-test, they were more afraid of making mistakes and much less excited than the other group to complete the exercises. Nevertheless, students of both groups really liked the first exercise of the

pre-test, an activity in which they had to guess the action verb that corresponded with a picture.

In the next lesson, the first 13 action verbs of the didactic unit were introduced. The process of implementation was completely different to the previous session. Some students of the TPR group, especially those suffering Attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), began to misbehave. They did the required actions but in an exaggerated manner and it was very difficult for them to stop and be silent to be ready for the next verb. Therefore, a lot of time had to be wasted in order to wait for some students to stop doing the physical movement, to allow students to pay attention and to achieve a classroom atmosphere without noise. From the teacher-researcher's point of view, students were very engaged, they participated enthusiastically, and they had fun while learning but they were very noisy, and it was difficult to maintain a good classroom management. Moreover, the space available in the classroom was too small for the students to move and to be able to see the verbs on the screen appropriately.

On the other hand, the students of the Translation group behave correctly and participated equally during the activity. However, it has to be noted that they were not so engaged. Moreover, their motivation levels were more the result of the use of Class Dojo and the mysterious bag and had little to do with translating verbs whereas in the TPR group, students were also motivated by the fact of using their bodies to learn.

During the last lesson, the final eleven verbs were taught. The students of the Translation group remained with the same attitudes and the students of the TPR group slightly improved their behavior. This suggests two possible explanations: the students of the TPR group would have misbehaved no matter the approach used, or the students need to get use to TPR before employing it effectively.

Overall, it must be highlighted that, in the TPR context, the majority of students were more motivated to learn but some of them had problems to control themselves and over-performed the actions without paying attention to which the verb they were acting out was. Therefore, it can be concluded that, in some TPR lessons, it is necessary to apply effective classroom management strategies. However, the study has only been implemented for a few days and maybe this is only needed at the beginning, until students get used to it. In addition, the teacher-researcher was not their real teacher, thus they could have behaved differently with their own teacher.

On average, no significant differences were found between the two groups regarding students' final vocabulary learning outcomes. However, the students from the TPR Group were shown to have a higher level of improvement because they had started with a lower mean score. Interestingly, these results suggest that TPR allowed students who were at a lower level to reach in few hours the same level of students who were at a higher starting point. Therefore, based on the analysis of the results, it can be seen that there is a considerable improvement of students' vocabulary mastery through the TPR approach. To conclude, from the findings gained in this piece of research, it can be inferred that TPR can be an effective tool to teach English vocabulary to young learners but for those teachers who accept higher levels of noise and disorganization in a classroom. Nonetheless, these data must be interpreted with caution because it is only based on two particular groups formed by quite disparate students.

#### **4.2.5. Discussion and Conclusions**

The analysis conducted in the previous pages has shown a number of items to be discussed in this section. In the following lines, the results obtained in each teaching approach will be used to draw some conclusions.

Before carrying out the study, it was hypothesized that TPR Group would have better results in the learning of English action verbs and that students would be more engaged and motivated. Returning to the hypothesis and questions posed at the beginning of this study, it is now possible to state that the findings gained from this research have confirmed the expectations and suggest that TPR is more useful to teach English action verbs than a Translation-based approach. Likewise, the results are consistent with those of other studies and further support Asher's approach of Second Language Acquisition (SLA).

The most interesting finding was that students who have received TPR instruction equaled the students of the Translation group although they started with less initial knowledge and seemed to be less concentrated during the lessons. There are several possible explanations for this result. It can be explained by the fact that, although they sometimes misbehaved, they were paying attention and performing the required actions actively. Another possible explanation for this is that, as Asher (2012) himself stated, "since a language-body approach such as the *Total Physical Response* is stress-free and fast-moving, there is a keen level of motivation" (p.3-27).

There are, however, other possible explanations which relate to brain lateralization theories. The TPR group received a right brain hemisphere input offered by pictures and physical movement whereas the Translation group experienced a left brain hemisphere input in the form of translated words.

Nevertheless, there are several limitations to this study. Firstly, this data must be interpreted with caution because it is based on a small sample size and on a single school. Moreover, the two groups that received instruction in two different ways were dissimilar in their English level of competence and in their behavior. Moreover, the study has not been completed with follow-up t-tests for correlated groups to verify whether the results were real or due to chance. Although both groups received instruction from the same teacher-researcher, there are more confounding variables that do not allow to conclude that each particular approach was fully responsible for the results obtained. For this reason, the results cannot be generalized. It is necessary to conduct further research with a larger number of participants in order to better divide students according to their aptitudes and attitudes. Secondly, this study has just focused on the TPR approach in comparison to a Translation-based approach. Several other approaches have not been taken into account and some of them could be equally or more effective than the TPR approach. Another constraint is that the investigation is limited on analyzing gains in English action verbs vocabulary and it does not consider other linguistic aspects. Besides, it is only focused on receptive skills (listening and reading), remaining under consideration other important language skills. Furthermore, the results have been obtained after only two hours of instruction and only take into account short-term retention. Similarly, the teacher-researcher had not received specific TPR training and was applying it for the first time.

In a similar fashion, TPR was designed to preferably teach language in chunks not using simple words and, in this study, only single action verbs were used in order to make the evaluation process easier and more reliable. Another major source of uncertainty is in the evaluation process. James J. Asher (2012) recommends evaluating the level of acquisition of TPR students by using novel utterances and right brain inputs given to individual students. "The results seem to indicate that it is *not* important that the individual student models along with the instructor so long as the *individual* student later demonstrates comprehension through action" (Asher, 2012, p.2-10). These suggestions could not be applied to the study due to time constraints but they can be addressed in future research.

In conclusion, although this study is based on valuable data obtained through classroom research, the results are not definitive. In addition, several questions remain unanswered at present and more research into TPR approach is strongly recommended. Further experiments into TPR and other second language approaches need to be undertaken with the aim of finding the best way to teach a foreign language.

## Conclusions

The present study has shown that, although in many classrooms children are not allowed to move their bodies, many studies have concluded that a stimulation of both body and mind can have several benefits for learning. Hence, it is essential to notice that students' bodies should not be forgotten during class time but must be highly considered to achieve better learning outcomes and enhance cognition and memory.

This paper has also argued that one second language learning approach that takes advantage from body movements is Total Physical Response (TPR), a suitable tool for all kinds of languages, levels and students. The underlying conviction of TPR is that by understanding the target language through the instructor's body movements and by responding physically to what he/she says, students' second language achievement can improve. Besides, by reinforcing meaning through gestures, visual support, facial expressions or body movements, TPR allows students an instant understanding of verbal input without the need of explanations or translations. Moreover, TPR seems to accelerate internalization by using right brain inputs and activities.

Along with the need to focus on believable comprehensible input, the TPR approach advocates for allowing the development of listening comprehension before speaking; thus, miming in the acquisition of a second language the process followed by children in acquiring their first language. According to Asher (2012), listening comprehension naturally precedes the other skills: speaking, reading and writing. This sequence that differs from previous theoretical approaches of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) reduces students' stress because they are not required to start producing utterances until they feel ready to do so.

In a similar fashion, TPR fits in the current trends of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) approaches because it takes into account the importance of focusing on the message (and not only on form) and the need to create favorable communicative situations to allow the development of the communicative competence in students.



One of the main goals of the current study was to determine if TPR could be beneficial to teach English vocabulary. Results have shown that there is not a significant difference between the two groups, the TPR Group and the Translation Group, in the final scores of the post-test. However, it has to be noted that TPR was an effective tool for teaching vocabulary in English because the students of that group had begun the instruction with more than a point below the students from the Translation Group and, after conducting the intervention, they ended up having the same level. The TPR approach resulted in major percentage of improvement. Therefore, although the study is based on a small sample of participants, the findings suggest an evidence of gains when TPR approach is used to introduce English action verbs to third graders. In addition, even though from the data obtained by means of the teacher-researcher's instruction experience, the approach requires the implementation of more classroom management strategies, at least, in the first stages, the students showed a highly positive level of acceptance towards TPR learning approach.

It can be concluded from this review and study that, even though there is not only one way to teach and the best approach to use depends on each classroom context, some approaches, in general, are more effective than others and TPR may be one of those. Teachers need to know as many tools and methodologies as possible in order to create their own combination or cluster of strategies to foster better learning outcomes from their students. However, as Lightbown and Spada (2006) suggest, "the most important influence on teachers' decisions is their own experience with previous successes or disappointments, as well as their understanding of the needs and abilities of their students" (p. xv).

Finally, a number of important limitations need to be considered. In this investigation, there are a number of uncontrolled variables and a small sample size has been used, so the findings might not be transferable to other cases. Large randomized controlled trials could provide more definite evidence. What is more, further data collection is required to determine exactly how TPR approach and body movements affect Second Language Acquisition (SLA). This is definitely an important issue for future research. Meanwhile, we should not forget the learning opportunities that our body offers to us and we should make the most of the power of learning another language through actions.

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Albaladejo, M. (2007). *La comunicació més enllà de les paraules. Què comuniquem quan creiem que no comuniquem*. Barcelona: Editorial Graó, “El missatge que compta és el no verbal”. Own translation.

- “Transmits, at least, two thirds of the total number of messages transmitted in an interaction” (Albaladejo, 2007, p. 29).

Albaladejo, M. (2007). *La comunicació més enllà de les paraules. Què comuniquem quan creiem que no comuniquem*. Barcelona: Editorial Graó, “Transmet, com a mínim, dos terços del total de missatges transmesos en una interacció”. Own translation.

- “The position and movements of our body speak of us, who we are, of what we are in the world and our emotions” (Albaladejo, 2007, p.77).

Albaladejo, M. (2007). *La comunicació més enllà de les paraules. Què comuniquem quan creiem que no comuniquem*. Barcelona: Editorial Graó, “La postura i els moviments del nostre cos parlen de nosaltres, de qui som, del que som en el món i de les nostres emocions” Own translation.

- “The smaller a child is, the more he reacts to our nonverbal communication without taking into account what we say” (Albaladejo, 2007, p.26).

Albaladejo, M. (2007). *La comunicació més enllà de les paraules. Què comuniquem quan creiem que no comuniquem*. Barcelona: Editorial Graó, “Com més petit és un nen, més reacciona a la nostra comunicació no verbal sense tenir en compte el que diem”. Own translation.

- "The fundamental system of communication between human beings of a linguistic community" (Cortés Moreno, 2000, p.11).

Cortés Moreno, M. (2000). *Guía para el profesor de idiomas. Didáctica del español y segundas lenguas*. Barcelona: Ediciones Octaedro, "El sistema fundamental de comunicación entre los seres humanos de una comunidad lingüística". Own translation.

- "Few natives are able to explain the grammatical rules of their native language, although they apply them to perfection" (Cortés Moreno, 2000, p.16).

Cortés Moreno, M. (2000). *Guía para el profesor de idiomas. Didáctica del español y segundas lenguas*. Barcelona: Ediciones Octaedro, "Son pocos los nativos capaces de explicar las reglas gramaticales de su lengua nativa, aunque las apliquen a la perfección". Own translation.



## Appendix I: Recommended books

- Asher, J. (2000). *The Super School: Teaching on the right side of the brain*. Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions, Inc.
- Asher, J. (2002). *Brainswitching: Learning on the right side of the brain*. Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions, Inc.
- Cabello, F. (2004). *TPR in First Year English*. (Also available in Spanish and French). Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions, Inc.
- McKay, Todd. (2004). *TPRS Storytelling: Especially for students in elementary and middle school*. (Available in English, Spanish or French). Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions, Inc.
- Ramijin, E. and S. Contee. (1979). *Live Action English for Foreign Students*. Berkeley, CA: Command Performance Language Institute.
- Ray, B. (2004). *Look, I Can Talk series* (Available in English, Spanish, French or German). Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions, Inc.
- Ray, B. (2014). *Look, I Can Talk!. A Step-By-Step Approach To Communication Through TPR Stories*. Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions.
- Schessler, Eric. (1999). *English Grammar through Actions: How to TPR 50 Grammatical Features in English*. (Also available in Spanish or French). Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions, Inc.
- Silvers, S. M. (2016). *Listen & Perform. The TPR Student Book. For Beginning and Intermediate ESL Students*. Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions.
- Silvers, S. M. (2017). *The Command Book: How to TPR 2,000 vocabulary and grammatical items in beginning and intermediate language textbooks*. Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions.

## Appendix II: TPR Teaching Materials

### 1. Drive the car

1. Stand up.
2. Walk to the car.
3. Take out your keys.
4. Unlock the car.
5. Open the door.
6. Get in.
7. Put the key in the ignition.
8. Put your foot on the accelerator.
9. Start the car.
10. Release the brake.
11. Drive the car.
12. Stop!
13. Go ahead.
14. Red light. Slow down.
15. Stop.
16. Wait for the light to change.
17. Drive the car again.
18. Put on the turn signal for a left turn.
19. Turn left.
20. Put on the turn signal for a right turn.
21. Turn right.
22. Pull over.
23. Stop.
24. Turn off the motor.
25. Take out the keys.
26. Open the door.
27. Get out.
28. Close the door.

Exhibit 18, (Asher, 2012, p.4-73).

### 2. Go to the Kitchen and Have a Coke

1. Stand up.
2. Go to the kitchen.
3. Open the refrigerator.
4. Take out a bottle of Coca Cola.
5. Close the refrigerator.
6. Walk to the cabinet.
7. Open the cabinet.
8. Take out a glass.
9. Close the cabinet.
10. Walk to the drawer.
11. Put down the glass.
12. Open the drawer.
13. Take out the bottle-opener.
14. Open the bottle.
15. Pour the coke into the glass.
16. Put the bottle-opener back.
17. Close the drawer.
18. Put down the bottle.
19. Pick up the glass.
20. Walk to the table.
21. Sit down at the table.
22. Drink the Coke.

23. Relax.

Exhibit 19, (Asher, 2012, p.4-74).

### **3. Go to the Bank**

1. Go to the bank.
2. Open the door and go in.
3. Walk to the window.
4. Wait in line.
5. Move up.
6. Move up again.
7. Go to the window.
8. Give a check to the teller.
9. Say "Please cash this check for me."
10. Pick up your money.
11. Walk to the door.
12. Open the door and walk to your car.

Exhibit 20, (Asher, 2012, p.4-75).

### **4. Just Looking**

1. Go to the store.
2. Open the door and go in.
3. The salesman says to you, "May I help you?"
4. *Answer*, "No thanks, I'm just looking"
5. Walk around and look around.
6. Stop in front of the pants.
7. Pick up a pair of pants.
8. Look at them.
9. Go to the door.
10. Open it and go out.

Exhibit 21, (Asher, 2012, p.4-75).

### **5. Take the Bus**

1. Stand up.
2. Go to the door.
3. Open the door.
4. Go out.
5. Close the door.
6. Walk to the bus stop.
7. Wait for the bus.
8. Get on.
9. Put the money in the box.
10. Ask the driver for a transfer.
11. The driver gives you a transfer.
12. Look for a seat.
13. Find a seat.
14. Walk to the seat.
15. Sit down.
16. Look out the window.
17. What do you see?
18. Pull the cord.
19. Stand up.
20. Walk to the door.
21. Hold on.
22. Get off.
23. Wait for the other bus.

24. Get on.
25. Give the transfer to the driver.
26. Look for a seat.
27. Find a seat.
28. Walk to the seat.
29. Sit down.

Exhibit 22, (Asher, 2012, p.4-76).

## 6.

Simon Says: Students mime what the teacher says only if he/she has previously said "Simon Says".

Mime Stories or Musical Mimes.

## 7. TPR Songs:

- Sing a Rainbow
- Wind the Bobbin Up
- Two Little Dickie Birds Sitting on a Wall
- That's What Makes The World Go Round
- Never Smile at a Crocodile
- Incey Wincey Spider
- Old MacDonald Had a Farm
- Hey Diddle Diddle
- Head and Shoulders Knees and Toes
- I Saw a Mouse
- The Wheels on the Bus
- This is the Way We Brush Our Hair
- Row Row Row Your Boat
- One Finger one Thumb Keep Moving Nobody Likes me Everybody Hates me
- How Much is That Doggie in the Window The Sun has got his Hat on
- I'm a Little Teapot
- Twinkle Twinkle Little Star
- Hickory Dickory Dock
- Five Little Ducks Went Out One Day
- The Hokey Cokey
- If You're Happy and You Know it Clap Your Hands
- The Green leaves Grow Around
- Five Currant Buns in The Baker's Shop
- Ten green bottles
- One Man Went to Mow
- One Potato, Two Potato

(Blair, A; Cadwallader, J.)

8. The Frog Family. The teacher tells the story and students act out the parts of the characters. For students between 6 and 10 years.

STORY	ACTIONS
This is a story about Daddy frog, Mummy frog, Sister frog, Brother frog, and Baby frog.	Point to the pictures as you name the frogs.
It was hot- very, very, hot,	Wipe your forehead and make 'hot' gestures.
and Daddy frog	Point to the picture of Daddy frog and squat down besides the pond.
went jump, jump, jump, and sat on a leaf in the pond.	Jump three times and sit on the leaf in the pond.
Mummy frog was hot -very, very, hot.	Point to Mummy frog, squat by the pond, and make 'hot' gestures.
So Daddy frog said 'Come here!'	Point to Daddy frog, return to the leaf, and beckon to Mummy frog.
Mummy frog went jump, jump, jump, and sat on the leaf in the pond.	Point to Mummy frog, squat by the pond, and jump three times to sit on the leaf by Daddy frog.
Sister frog was hot- very, very hot.	Point to Sister frog, squat by the pond, and make 'hot' gestures.
So Mummy frog said 'Come here!'	Point to Mummy frog, return to the leaf, and beckon to Sister frog.
Sister frog went jump, jump, jump, and sat on the leaf in the pond.	Point to Sister frog, squat by the pond, and jump three times to sit on the leaf y Mummy frog.
Brother frog was hot-very, very, hot.	Point to Brother frog, squat by the pond, and make 'hot' gestures.
So Sister frog said 'Come here!'	Point to Sister frog, return to the leaf, and beckon to Brother frog.
Brother frog went jump, jump, jump, and	Point to Brother frog, squat by the pond, and jump three times to sit on the leaf by Sister frog.
Baby frog was hot- very, very hot.	Point to Baby frog, squat by the pond, and make 'hot' gestures.
So Brother frog said 'Come here!'	Point to Brother frog, return to the leaf, and beckon to Baby frog.
Bay frog went jump, jump, jump, and sat on the leaf in the pond.	Point to Baby frog, squat by the pond, and jump three times to sit on the leaf by Brother frog.
And then -SPLASH- they all fell into the water!	Start to move backwards and forwards as if you were losing your balance and fall into the pond.

(Phillips, 1993, p.22-23).

### Appendix III: Learners' questionnaire

Name: .....

Surname: .....

Age: .....

Date: .....

---

**Tell me about yourself...**

\* Name of your English teacher: .....

\*Do you like English?  
.....

\*When did you start studying English?  
.....

\*Do you study English outside school?  
.....

\*Do you speak English with someone outside school?  
.....

Surname: Garcia

Age: 9

Date: 30-4-2019

Tell me about yourself...

\* Name of your English teacher: Anna

\* Do you like English?  
Yes

\* When did you start studying English?  
p-1

\* Do you study English outside school?  
No

\* Do you speak English with someone outside school?  
Yes with my baby sister



Surname: Cañas

Age: 9

Date: 30-4-2019

Tell me about yourself...

\* Name of your English teacher: Alba

\* Do you like English?  
No

\* When did you start studying English?  
with 12 years old

\* Do you study English outside school?  
No

\* Do you speak English with someone outside school?  
yes



Surname: Prigde Menezer

Age: 8

Date: 30-4-2019

Tell me about yourself...

\* Name of your English teacher: hoelia

\* Do you like English?  
ho is si

\* When did you start studying English?  
con Ineracion

\* Do you study English outside school?  
si

\* Do you speak English with someone outside school?  
si

Surname: González

Age: 9 years old

Date: 30-4-2019

Tell me about yourself...

\* Name of your English teacher: Alba

\* Do you like English?  
I like the language but the classes  
NO

\* When did you start studying English?  
nº1

\* Do you study English outside school?  
Yes

\* Do you speak English with someone outside school?  
Yes

## Appendix IV: Pilot Test

1. Listening: You are going to hear some verbs, choose what do they mean in Spanish.

- |    |            |              |             |
|----|------------|--------------|-------------|
| 1. | a) Mirar;  | b) Comer;    | c) Dormir   |
| 2. | a) Nadar;  | b) Reir;     | c) Llorar   |
| 3. | a) Saltar; | b) Abrir;    | c) Cerrar   |
| 4. | a) Volar;  | b) Conducir; | c) Cantar   |
| 5. | a) Bailar; | b) Limpiar;  | c) Estudiar |

2. Translate the following verbs into Spanish.

DRINK: ..... READ: .....

HUG: ..... WRITE: .....

JUMP: ..... LISTEN: .....

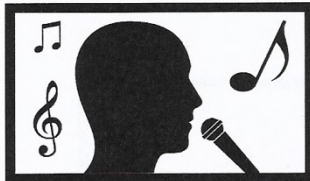
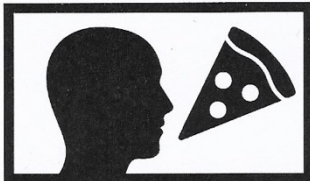
RUN: ..... TALK: .....

SLEEP: ..... DRAW: .....

CLIMB: ..... SWIM: .....



3. Match each image with its correspondent verb.



SWEEP

EAT

THROW

SING

DANCE

4. Draw simply what the verb means.

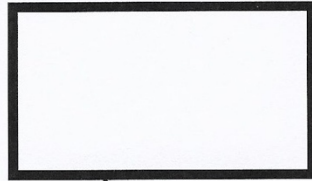
For example: Walk



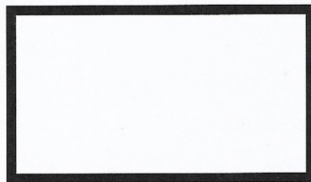
CRY



BREAK



FLY



FALL



5. Complete the sentences with the appropriate verb.

**Turn off - Close - Brush**

1. Before going to sleep, ..... your teeth!
2. .... the door, please!
3. .... the radio! It is very noisy!

6. Translate the sentences into Spanish.

- Open the door.

.....

- Laugh loudly.

.....

- Touch the book.

.....

- Pick up the paper and the pencil.

.....

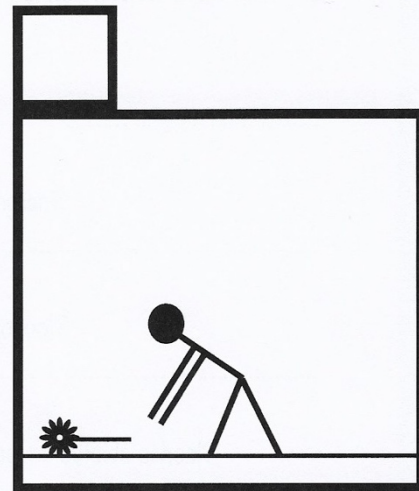
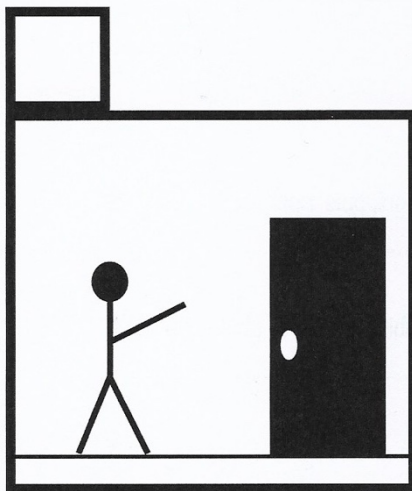
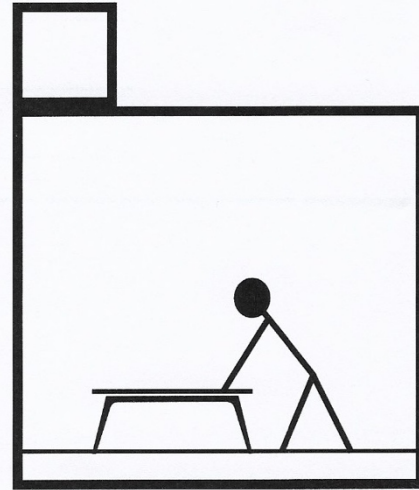
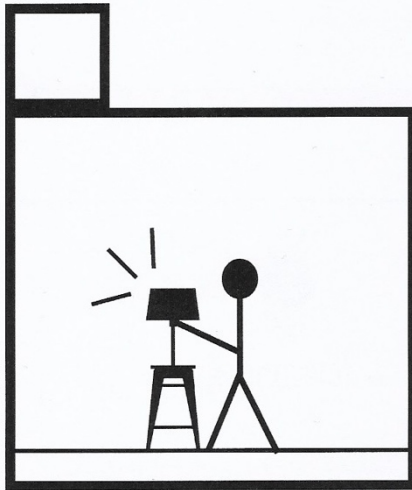
- Throw the book to me.

.....

- Draw a circle around your name.

.....

7. Listen and put in order these pictures:





Example Pilot Test completed by a student:

$\frac{39}{39} = 10$

1. Listening: You are going to hear some verbs, choose what do they mean in Spanish.

1. ✓ a) Mirar;	b) Comer;	c) Dormir
2. ✓ a) Nadar;	b) Reir;	c) Llorar
3. ✓ a) Saltar;	b) Abrir;	c) Cerrar
4. ✓ a) Volar;	b) Conducir;	c) Cantar
5. ✓ a) Bailar;	b) Limpiar;	c) Estudiar

$\frac{5}{5}$

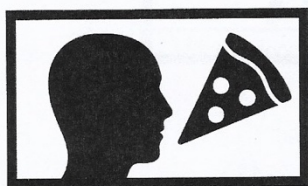
2. Translate the following verbs into Spanish.

DRINK: beber ✓	READ: leer ✓
HUG: abrazar ✓	WRITE: escribir ✓
JUMP: saltar ✓	LISTEN: escuchar ✓
RUN: correr ✓	TALK: hablar ✓
SLEEP: dormir ✓	DRAW: dibujar ✓
CLIMB: escalar ✓	SWIM: nadar ✓

$\frac{12}{12}$



3. Match each image with its correspondent verb.



SWEEP ✓

EAT ✓

THROW ✓

SING ✓

DANCE ✓

5/5

4. Draw simply what the verb means.

For example: Walk



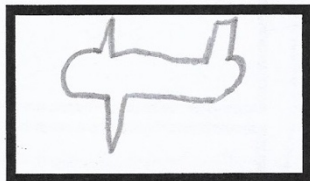
CRY



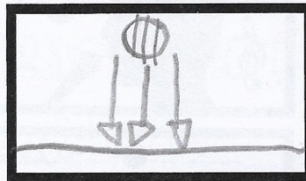
BREAK



FLY



FALL



5/5

5. Complete the sentences with the appropriate verb.

Turn off - Close - Brush

1. Before going to sleep, Brush your teeth! ✓
2. close the door, please! ✓  $\frac{3}{3}$
3. Turn off the radio! It is very noisy! ✓

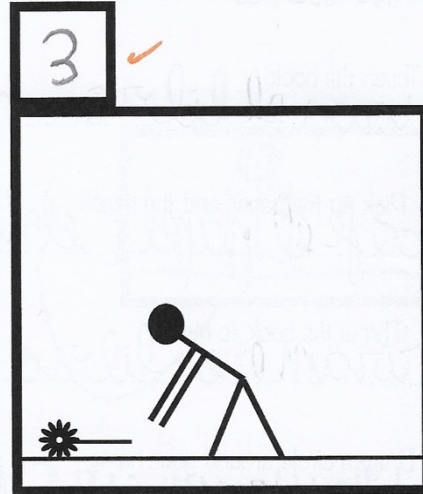
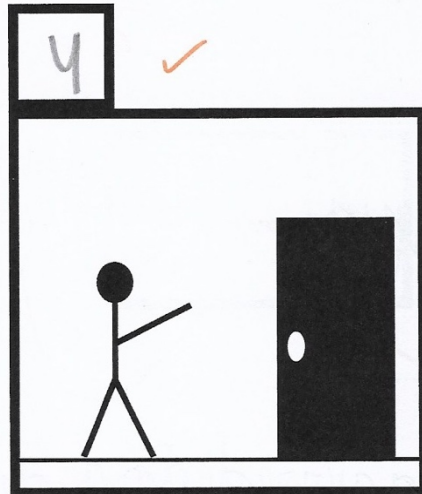
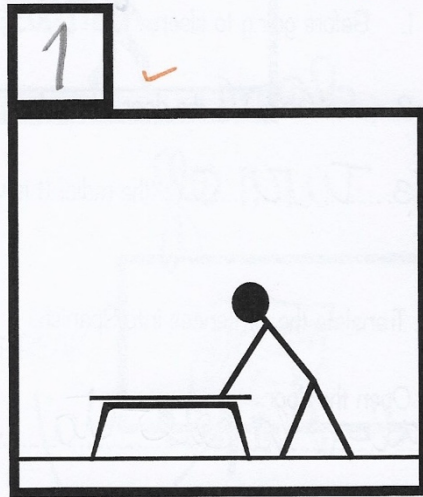
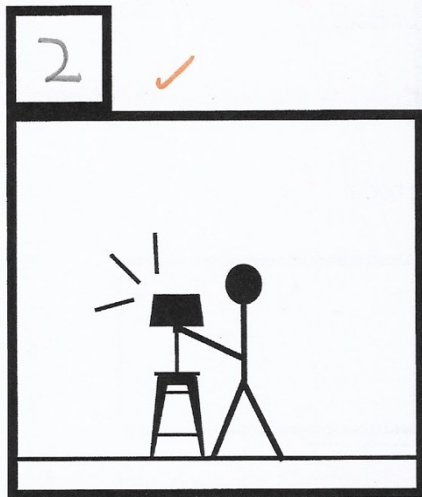
6. Translate the sentences into Spanish.

- Open the door.  
abre la puerta ✓
- Laugh loudly.  
risa alta ✓  $\frac{6}{6}$
- Touch the book.  
toca el libro ✓
- Pick up the paper and the pencil.  
coge el papel i el lapiz ✓
- Throw the book to me.  
tirame el libro ✓
- Draw a circle around your name.  
dibuja un circulo alrededor de tu nombre ✓



7. Listen and put in order these pictures:

5/5



## Appendix V: Pre-test and post-test

Name and Surname: .....

Date: .....

---

1. You are going to see some pictures. Write the appropriate verbs.

1: ..... 5: .....

2: ..... 6: .....

3: ..... 7: .....

4: ..... 8: .....

2. Listening: You are going to hear some verbs, write what do they mean in Spanish.

1: ..... 5: .....

2: ..... 6: .....

3: ..... 7: .....

4: ..... 8: .....

3. Translate the sentences into Spanish.

- Bounce the ball.

.....

- Iron the clothes.

.....

- Knit a scarf.

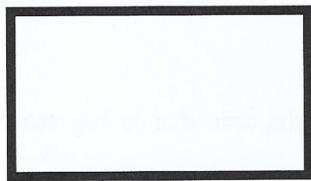
.....

- Comb your hair.

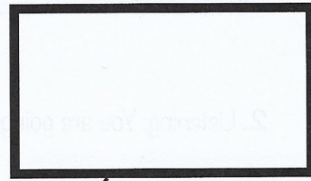
.....

4. Draw simply what the verb means.

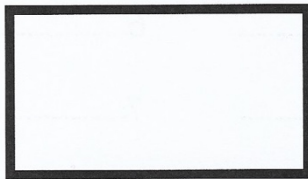
LAUGH



DIVE



POUR



Pictures used in the first exercise:

## ACTION VERBS

1.



•Cough

•Prune

•Dig

2.



•Scratch

•Wink

•Hang

3.



•Smell

•Dive

•Comb

4.

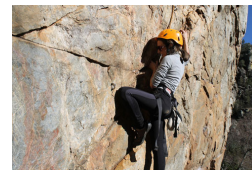


•Knit

•Bounce

•Dig

5.



•Pour

•Yawn

•Climb

6.



•Wave

•Pour

•Squat

7.



•Snore

•Sweep

•Iron

8.



•Embrace

•Sneeze

•Climb

Verbs that students had to translate in the second exercise:

1. Prune

5. Hang

2. Scratch

6. Clean

3. Squat

7. Sweep

4. Caress

8. Embrace



Example Pre-Test TPR Group

Date: 6-8-2019

1. You are going to see some pictures. Write the appropriate verbs.  $\frac{8}{23} = 3/5$

- |           |   |           |   |
|-----------|---|-----------|---|
| 1: Dig    | x | 5: climb  | ✓ |
| 2: Wing   | ✓ | 6: Wave   | ✓ |
| 3: Smell  | ✓ | 7: iron   | x |
| 4: Bounce | x | 8: Sneeze | ✓ |

2. Listening: You are going to hear some verbs, write what do they mean in Spanish.

- |             |   |            |   |
|-------------|---|------------|---|
| 1: Volver   | x | 5: _____   | x |
| 2: transfer | ✓ | 6: escolar | x |
| 3: _____    | x | 7: Volver  | x |
| 4: _____    | x | 8: _____   | x |

3. Translate the sentences into Spanish.

- Bounce the ball.

*bater la pelota* ✓

- Iron the clothes.

*secar la ropa* ✗

- Knit a scarf.

..... ✗

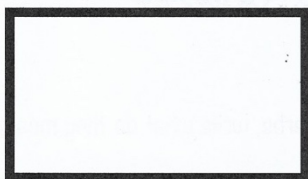
$\frac{2}{5}$

- Comb your hair.

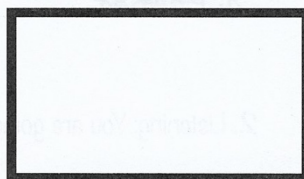
*peinar tu pelo* ✓

4. Draw simply what the verb means.

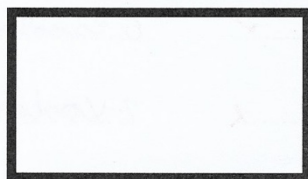
LAUGH



DIVE



POUR



$\frac{3}{10}$

Example Pre-Test Translation Group

Date: 6-5-2019

---

1. You are going to see some pictures. Write the appropriate verbs.

1: Climb ✓      5: climb ✓

2: swing ✓      6: Wave ✓

3: SMELL ✓      7: sweep ✗

4: Bounce ✗      8: sneeze ✓

$\frac{10}{23} = 43$   
 $\frac{6}{8}$

2. Listening: You are going to hear some verbs, write what do they mean in Spanish.

1: ..... ✗      5: calgar ✓

2: zavrar ✓      6: gimpiar ✓

3: chat ✗      7: ..... ✗

4: ..... ✗      8: ..... ✗

$\frac{3}{8}$

3. Translate the sentences into Spanish.

- Bounce the ball.

..... the la bola X

- Iron the clothes.

..... la ropa X

- Knit a scarf.

..... una bufanda X

- Comb your hair.

..... X

0/5

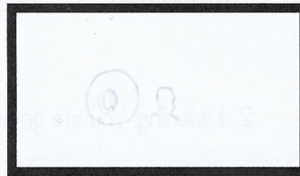
4. Draw simply what the verb means.

LAUGH



✓

DIVE



X

POUR



X

2/3



Example Post-Test TPR Group

Date: 21/5/2019

$$\frac{16}{23} = 7$$

1. You are going to see some pictures. Write the appropriate verbs.

- |             |             |
|-------------|-------------|
| 1: laugh ✓  | 5: climb ✓  |
| 2: Wing ✓   | 6: Wave ✓   |
| 3: Smell ✓  | 7: iron x   |
| 4: Branch x | 8: Sneeze ✓ |

$$\frac{6}{8}$$

2. Listening: You are going to hear some verbs, write what do they mean in Spanish.

- |                  |              |
|------------------|--------------|
| 1: hatar x       | 5: colgar ✓  |
| 2: rasgar ✓      | 6: limpiar ✓ |
| 3: sentadillas ✓ | 7: nadar x   |
| 4: acariciar ✓   | 8: abrazar ✓ |

$$\frac{6}{8}$$

3. Translate the sentences into Spanish.

- Bounce the ball.

bataar la pelota ✓

- Iron the clothes.

castrar la tierra ✗

- Knit a scarf.

castrar una bufanda ✓  $\frac{20}{5}$

- Comb your hair.

peinar el pelo ✓

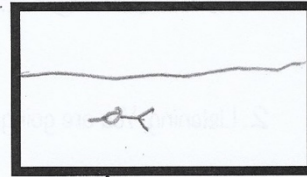
4. Draw simply what the verb means.

LAUGH



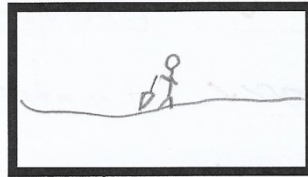
✗

DIVE



✓

POUR



✗

$\frac{1}{3}$

Example Post-Test Translation Group

Date: ..... 20, 5, 2019 .....

---

13  
23 = 5.7

1. You are going to see some pictures. Write the appropriate verbs.

1: ..... cough ..... ✓	5: ..... CLIMB ..... ✓
2: ..... wink ..... ✓	6: ..... WAIVE ..... ✓
3: ..... SMOKE ..... ✓	7: ..... SNORE ..... ✓
4: ..... <del>DIG</del> ..... ✓	8: ..... SNEEZE ..... ✓

8/8

2. Listening: You are going to hear some verbs, write what do they mean in Spanish.

1: ..... x	5: ..... COGAR ..... ✓
2: ..... PASAR ..... ✓	6: ..... Limpiar ..... ✓
3: ..... x	7: ..... limpiar ..... x
4: ..... x	8: ..... ABRACAR ..... ✓

5/8



3. Translate the sentences into Spanish.

- Bounce the ball.

~~Tira la bola~~ x

- Iron the clothes.

~~Te limpia los armarios~~ x

- Knit a scarf.

bate una bufanda x

- Comb your hair.

pente en los ~~...~~ ✓  $\frac{1}{2}$

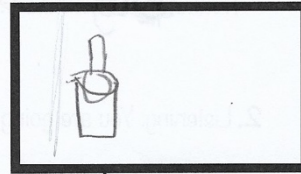
4. Draw simply what the verb means.

LAUGH



x

DIVE



x

POUR



x

$\frac{w}{o}$

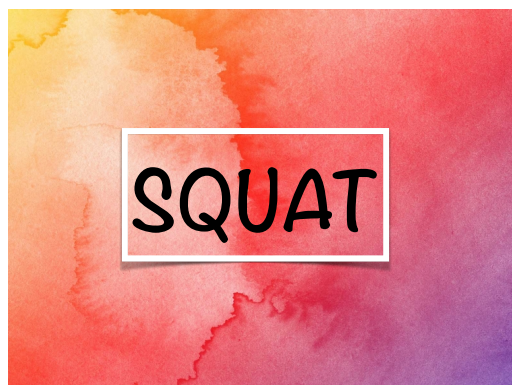


## Appendix VI: Materials used to apply the Didactic Unit

Keynote used with the TPR Group:



EMBRACE



SQUAT



YAWN

YAWN



SNEEZE

SNEEZE



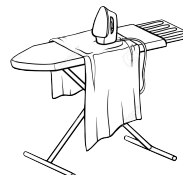
SNORE

SNORE



IRON

IRON





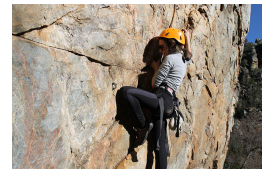
WAVE



SWEEP



CLIMB



SMELL







CLEAN



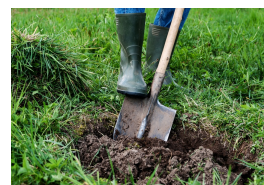
WINK



LAUGH



DIG





COUGH



HANG

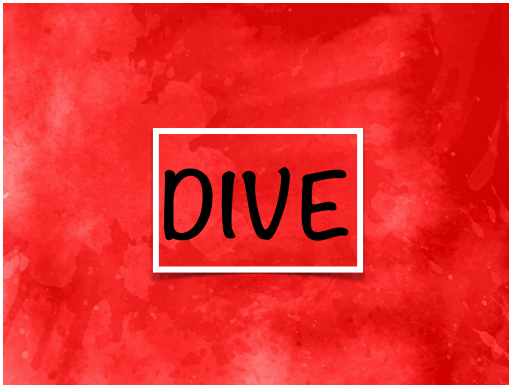


CARESS



COMB

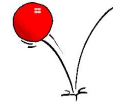




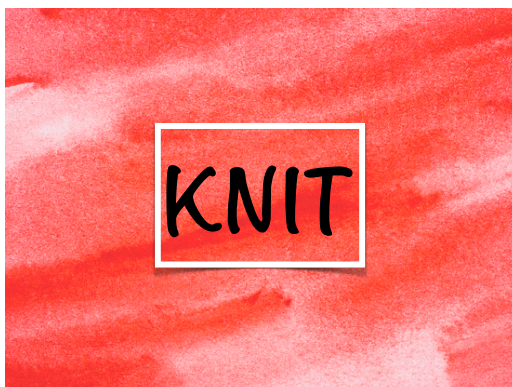
DIVE



BOUNCE



POUR



KNIT



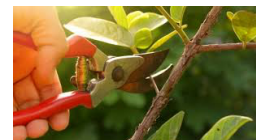




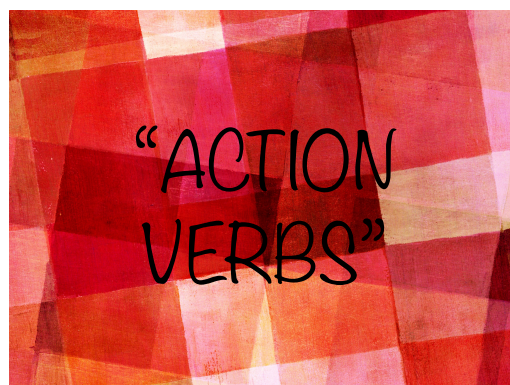
SCRATCH



PRUNE

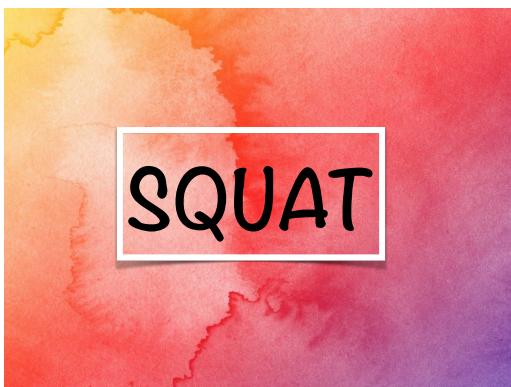


Keynote used with the Translation Group:





EMBRACE



SQUAT



YAWN



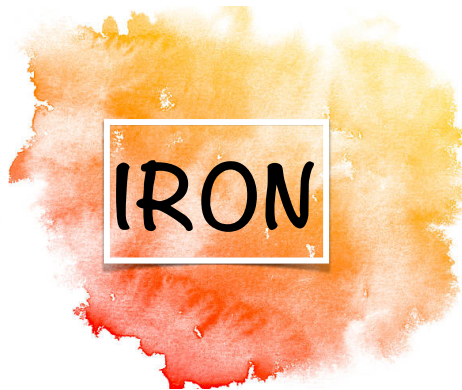
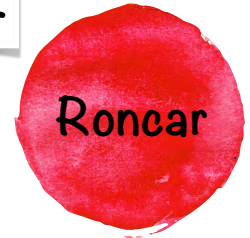
SNEEZE







SNORE



IRON



WAVE



SWEEP

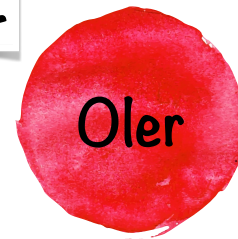




CLIMB



SMELL



CLEAN



WINK





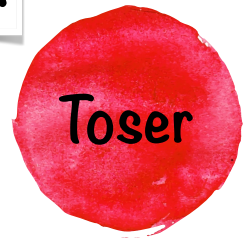
LAUGH



DIG



COUGH



HANG







CARESS

CARESS



Acariciar



COMB

COMB



Peinar



DIVE

DIVE



Bucear



BOUNCE

BOUNCE

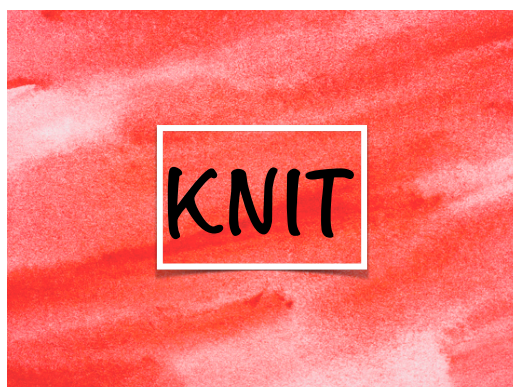


Botar



POUR

Servir/  
Verter



KNIT

Tejer



SCRATCH

Rascar



PRUNE

Podar

Cards used during the lessons (pink ones only with the Translation Group):

EMBRACE

ABRAZAR

SQUAT

AGACHARSE

YAWN

BOSTEZAR

SNEEZE

ESTORNUDAR

SNORE

RONCAR

IRON

PLANCHAR

WAVE

SALUDAR

SWEEP

BARRER

CLIMB

ESCALAR

SMELL

OLER

CLEAN

LIMPIAR

WINK

GUIÑAR



LAUGH

REÍR

DIG

CAVAR

COUGH

TOSER

HANG

COLGAR

CARESS

ACARICIAR

COMB

PEINAR

DIVE

BUCEAR

BOUNCE

BOTAR

POUR

VERTER

KNIT

TEJER

SCRATCH

RASCAR

PRUNE

PODAR

## Appendix VII: Sequencing of the Didactic Unit

### LESSON 1:

Stage of the lesson and Activities	Contents	Language Skills	Procedure		Materials
			What the teacher does	What the students do	
1.1. Teacher modeling.	Stand up, Sit down, Walk to the window, Stop, Turn around.	Listening	Group 1: The teacher performs the actions.  Group 2: The teacher translates the verbs.	Group 1: Two volunteers mimic the teacher's actions.  Group 2: Two volunteers translate the previously taught verbs.	Paper with the commands in order to teach exactly the same and in the same order in both groups.
1.2. Student participation in turns. Two persons perform or translate some action verbs in front of the class.	Stand up quickly, Sit down slowly, Walk to the window slowly, Turn around quickly, Turn off the light, Turn on the light, Drive your car to...	Listening	The teacher says each command.	Group 1: The students listen to the teacher giving instructions and obey him/her by responding physically.  Group 2: The students listen to the teacher giving instructions and translate the verbs.	Paper with the commands in order to teach exactly the same and in the same order in both groups.
1.3. Student participation. The whole class at the same time.	Stand up, Hands up, Hands down, Jump, Touch the floor, Close your eyes and sleep, Turn			Group 1: The students listen to the teacher giving instructions and	Paper with the commands in order to teach exactly the same and in the same order

	around twice, Clap your hands, Touch your stomach, Play the guitar, Point to the door, Swim around the class, Touch your head, Drink orange juice, Point to the window, Eat a sandwich.	Listening	The teacher says each command.	obey him/her by responding physically.  Group 2: The students listen to the teacher giving instructions and translate the verbs.	in both groups.
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## LESSON 2:

Stage of the lesson and Activities	Contents	Language Skills	Procedure		Materials
			What the teacher does	What the students do	
2.1. Introduction and teaching of the action verbs.	Embrace, Squat, Yawn, Sneeze, Snore, Iron, Wave, Sweep, Climb, Smell, Clean, Wink, Laugh.	Listening Reading	The teacher says and shows the written word of each action verb and conveys its meaning by performing the action or by translating it.  To make meaning clear, the TPR Group also sees a picture that conveys the meaning and the Translation Group has the written word also in Spanish.	The students pay attention.	Keynote Presentation. Computer.

<p>2.2. Student's participation.</p>	<p>Embrace, Squat, Yawn, Sneeze, Snore, Iron, Wave, Sweep, Climb, Smell, Clean, Wink, Laugh.</p>	<p>Listening Reading</p>	<p>The teacher checks comprehension by using Class Dojo and asking students to either perform an action verb or translate its meaning into Spanish. The teacher puts inside a bag cards with the previously taught action verbs, each student picks up one of the cards without looking.</p> <p>For Group two that has to translate, a memory game can be applied. Students have to relate the English word with a correspondent card that has the translation in Spanish.</p>	<p>The students perform the action or translate the English verb individually.</p>	<p>Cards. Bag. Computer.</p>
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**LESSON 3:**

Stage of the lesson and Activities	Contents	Language Skills	Procedure		Materials
			What the teacher does	What the students do	
3.1. Introduction and teaching of the action verbs.	Dig, Cough, Hang, Caress, Comb, Dive, Bounce, Pour, Knit, Scratch, Prune.	Listening Reading	<p>The teacher says and shows the written word of each action verb and conveys its meaning by performing the action or by translating it.</p> <p>To make meaning clear, the TPR Group also sees a picture that conveys the meaning and the Translation Group has the written word also in Spanish.</p>	The students pay attention.	Keynote Presentation. Computer.
			<p>The teacher checks comprehension by using Class Dojo and asking students to either perform an action verb or translate its meaning into Spanish. The teacher</p>		

<p>3.2. Student's participation.</p>	<p>Dig, Cough, Hang, Caress, Comb, Dive, Bounce, Pour, Knit, Scratch, Prune.</p>	<p>Listening Reading</p>	<p>puts inside a bag cards with the previously taught action verbs, each student picks up one of the cards without looking.  For Group two that has to translate, a memory game can be applied. Students have to relate the English word with a correspon dent card that has the translation in Spanish.</p>	<p>The students perform the action or translate the English verb individuall y.</p>	<p>Cards. Bag. Computer.</p>
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## Appendix VIII: Tables of results

Results of the learners' questionnaire:

- TPR Group

STUDENTS	Age	Sex	Do you like English?	When did you start studying English?	Do you study English outside school?	Do you speak English with someone outside school?
C. R.	8	Girl	Yes	-	Yes	Yes
T. N.	8	Boy	No	3	No	Yes
S. R.	9	Girl	No	3	No	No
M. G.	9	Girl	Yes	1	No	Yes
J. C.	8	Girl	Yes	3	Yes	Yes
P. S.	8	Girl	Yes	1	Yes	No
S. T.	9	Boy	Yes	3	No	No
A. S.	8	Boy	Yes	4	No	Yes
M. P.	8	Girl	No	3	No	No
A. C.	8	Girl	Yes	2	Yes	Yes
J. G.	8	Boy	No	3	No	Yes
Y. Y.	8	Boy	Yes	3	No	Yes
N. B.	9	Girl	Yes	2	Yes	Yes
C. B.	8	Girl	No	3	Yes	Yes
E. A.	8	Girl	Yes	-	No	Yes
J. J.	9	Girl	Yes	1	No	No
M. A.	8	Girl	More or less	3	No	Yes
T. F.	9	Girl	Yes	3	Yes	No
M. G.	8	Boy	No	-	Yes	No
P. R.	9	Boy	Yes	3	No	No
N. M.	9	Boy	Yes	3	No	Yes
J. P.	8	Boy	More or less	3	Yes	Yes
J. A.	8	Boy	Yes	-	No	No
T. A.	9	Boy	No	3	Yes	No
F. B.	8	Boy	No	3	Yes	No
V. C.	8	Boy	Langu	3	No	No

			age: Yes Lessons: No			
I. T.	9	Girl	No	-	Yes	Yes
P. C.	8	Boy	Yes	3	Yes	Yes
C. L.	8	Boy	Yes	3	Yes	Yes

- Translation Group

STUDENTS	Age	Sex	Do you like English?	When did you start studying English?	Do you study English outside school?	Do you speak English with someone outside school?
A. C.	9	Girl	No	2	No	Yes
V. C.	9	Boy	No	2	No	Yes
Q. V.	9	Boy	Yes	3	Yes	Yes
M. A.	8	Boy	No	3	No	No
V. V.	8	Girl	Yes	3	No	No
J. D.	8	Boy	No	2	No	No
U. Z.	9	Boy	Yes	3	No	No
E. L.	8	Boy	No	4	No	Yes
C. A.	9	Girl	Yes	3	No	Yes
C. O.	9	Girl	Yes	1	Yes	Yes
C. G.	9	Girl	Language: Yes Lessons: No	1	Yes	Yes
Y. D.	8	Girl	Yes	3	No	Yes
C. B.	9	Girl	No	1	Yes	Yes
M. C.	9	Boy	Yes	1	No	Yes
P. G.	9	Girl	Yes	3	Yes	Yes
I. S.	8	Girl	Yes	3	Yes	Yes
N. G.	9	Boy	No	3	Yes	Yes
N. A.	8	Boy	More or less	3	Yes	Yes
G. P.	8	Girl	Yes	3	No	Yes
M. R.	9	Girl	Yes	1	No	No
L. G.	8	Boy	Yes	1	Yes	Yes
C. G.	9	Girl	Yes	2	No	No

M. O.	9	Girl	Language: Yes Lessons: No	3	No	No
G. F.	9	Girl	No	3	No	No
M. G.	9	Boy	No	3	Yes	Yes
A. M.	8	Boy	No	3	No	No
A. V.	8	Boy	No	3	Yes	Yes
M. A.	8	Boy	No	3	Yes	No
I. P.	8	Boy	No	3	No	No

Results of the Pilot Test:

- TPR Group

STUDENTS	Listening		Translation		Matchin g image and word	Drawing what the word means	Fill- in the gaps	Total Poin ts	Out of 10
	Words	Images	Words	Sentences					
C. R.	5/5	4/4	12/12	5/6	5/5	3/4	3/3	37/3 9	9.5
T. N.	5/5	4/4	10/12	5/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	36/3 9	9.2
S. R.	5/5	4/4	10/12	3/6	5/5	3/4	3/3	33/3 9	8.5
M. G.	5/5	4/4	12/12	6/6	5/5	4/4	2/3	38/3 9	9.7
J. C.	5/5	4/4	9/12	2/6	5/5	2/4	1/3	28/3 9	7.2
P. S.	5/5	4/4	9/12	5/6	5/5	3/4	3/3	34/3 9	8.7
S. T.	5/5	4/4	12/12	5/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	38/3 9	9.7
A. S.	5/5	4/4	9/12	5/6	5/5	3/4	3/3	34/3 9	8.7
M. P.	5/5	4/4	12/12	3/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	36/3 9	9.2
A. C.	5/5	4/4	12/12	4/6	5/5	3/4	2/3	35/3 9	9

J. G.	5/5	4/4	10/12	5/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	36/3 9	9.2
Y. Y.	5/5	4/4	10/12	3/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	34/3 9	8.7
N. B.	5/5	4/4	12/12	6/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	39/3 9	10
C. B.	5/5	4/4	12/12	5/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	38/3 9	9.7
E. A.	5/5	4/4	12/12	5/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	38/3 9	9.7
J. J.	5/5	4/4	12/12	6/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	39/3 9	10
M. A.	5/5	4/4	11/12	3/6	5/5	4/4	2/3	34/3 9	8.7
T. F.	5/5	4/4	12/12	4/6	5/5	4/4	1/3	35/3 9	9
M. G.	5/5	4/4	8/12	5/6	5/5	4/4	2/3	33/3 9	8.5
P. R.	4/5	4/4	11/12	4/6	5/5	3/4	0/3	31/3 9	8
N. M.	5/5	4/4	7/12	3/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	31/3 9	8
J. P.	5/5	4/4	0/12	4/6	3/5	4/4	0/3	20/3 9	5.4
J. A.	2/5	4/4	3/12	2/6	5/5	2/4	1/3	19/3 9	4.9
T. A.	5/5	4/4	7/12	1/6	5/5	3/4	3/3	28/3 9	7.2
F. B.	5/5	4/4	6/12	5/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	32/3 9	8.2
V. C.	2/5	4/4	0/12	4/6	5/5	1/4	1/3	17/3 9	4.4
I. T.	5/5	4/4	10/12	4/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	35/3 9	9
P. C.	5/5	4/4	12/12	6/6	5/5	3/4	3/3	38/3 9	9.7
C. L.	3/5	4/4	9/12	4/6	4/5	3/4	3/3	30/3 9	7.7
CLASS MEAN									9

- Translation Group

STUDENTS	Listening		Translation		Matching image and word	Drawing what the word means	Fill-in the gaps	Total Points	Out of 10
	Words	Images	Words	Sentences					
A. C.	5/5	4/4	11/12	5/6	5/5	3/4	3/3	36/39	9.2
V. C.	5/5	4/4	12/12	4/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	37/39	9.5
Q. V.	5/5	4/4	12/12	5/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	38/39	9.7
M. A.	5/5	4/4	12/12	4/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	37/39	9.5
V. V.	5/5	4/4	11/12	5/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	37/39	9.5
J. D.	5/5	4/4	12/12	6/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	39/39	10
U. Z.	5/5	4/4	12/12	6/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	39/39	10
E. L.	4/5	4/4	12/12	6/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	38/39	9.7
C. A.	5/5	4/4	12/12	6/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	39/39	10
C. O.	5/5	4/4	12/12	6/6	5/5	4/4	2/3	38/39	9.7
C. G.	5/5	4/4	12/12	6/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	39/39	10
Y. D.	5/5	4/4	12/12	5/6	5/5	2/4	3/3	36/39	9.2
C. B.	5/5	4/4	12/12	5/6	5/5	3/4	3/3	37/39	9.5
M. C.	5/5	4/4	12/12	3/6	5/5	4/4	1/3	34/39	8.7
P. G.	5/5	4/4	11/12	5/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	37/39	9.5
I. S.	5/5	4/4	12/12	5/6	5/5	4/4	1/3	36/39	9.2

N. G.	5/5	4/4	10/12	5/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	36/39	9.2
N. A.	5/5	4/4	11/12	4/6	5/5	3/4	3/3	35/39	9
G. P.	5/5	4/4	11/12	5/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	37/39	9.5
M. R.	5/5	4/4	12/12	5/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	38/39	9.7
L. G.	5/5	4/4	12/12	5/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	38/39	9.7
C. G.	5/5	4/4	10/12	5/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	36/39	9.2
M. O.	5/5	4/4	12/12	6/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	39/39	10
G. F.	4/5	4/4	8/12	3/6	5/5	4/4	1/3	29/39	7.4
M. G.	5/5	4/4	10/12	4/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	35/39	9
A. M.	5/5	4/4	9/12	4/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	34/39	8.7
A. V.	5/5	4/4	8/12	4/6	5/5	2/4	3/3	31/39	8
M. A.	5/5	4/4	9/12	4/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	34/39	8.7
I. P.	5/5	4/4	10/12	3/6	5/5	4/4	3/3	34/39	8.7
CLASS MEAN									9.5

Results Pre-test:

- TPR Group

STUDENTS	EXERCISE 1	EXERCISE 2	EXERCISE 3	EXERCISE 4	TOTAL SCORE	OUT OF 10
C. R.	6/8	1/8	3/4	1/3	11/23	4.8
T. N.	5/8	0/8	1/4	0/3	6/23	2.6
S. R.	5/8	1/8	1/4	2/3	9/23	4
M. G.	8/8	2/8	2/4	2/3	14/23	6.1
J. C.						
P. S.	7/8	1/8	1/4	1/3	10/23	4.3

S. T.	7/8	1/8	1/4	1/3	10/23	4.3
A. S.	7/8	1/8	1/4	1/3	10/23	4.3
M. P.	6/8	1/8	0/4	1/3	8/23	3.5
A. C.	8/8	2/8	2/4	1/3	13/23	5.7
J. G.	6/8	2/8	1/4	1/3	10/23	4.3
Y. Y.	7/8	1/8	1/4	2/3	11/23	4.8
N. B.	8/8	3/8	2/4	2/3	15/23	6.5
C. B.	3/8	2/8	0/4	2/3	7/23	3
E. A.	7/8	2/8	2/4	2/3	13/23	5.7
J. J.	8/8	2/8	1/4	2/3	13/23	5.7
M. A.	5/8	2/8	3/4	0/3	10/23	4.3
T. F.	5/8	0/8	0/4	0/3	5/23	2.2
M. G.	4/8	0/8	0/4	1/3	5/23	2.2
P. R.	4/8	1/8	1/4	1/3	7/23	3
N. M.	6/8	1/8	2/4	1/3	10/23	4.3
J. P.	3/8	2/8	1/4	0/3	6/23	2.6
J. A.	2/8	0/8	0/4	1/3	3/23	1.3
T. A.	6/8	0/8	2/4	1/3	9/23	4
F. B.	5/8	1/8	1/4	1/3	8/23	3.5
V. C.	5/8	1/8	1/4	0/3	7/23	3
I. T.	4/8	2/8	0/4	1/3	7/23	3
P. C.	8/8	2/8	2/4	2/3	14/23	6.1
C. L.	5/8	1/8	2/4	0/3	8/23	3.5

- Translation Group

STUDENTS	EXERCISE 1	EXERCISE 2	EXERCISE 3	EXERCISE 4	TOTAL SCORE	OUT OF 10
A. C.	8/8	4/8	4/4	0/3	16/23	7
V. C.	7/8	4/8	1/4	1/3	19/23	6.1
Q. V.	6/8	3/8	0/4	1/3	10/23	4.3
M. A.	6/8	2/8	0/4	1/3	9/23	4
V. V.	8/8	1/8	0/4	2/3	11/23	4.8
J. D.	8/8	4/8	3/4	2/3	17/23	7.4
U. Z.	8/8	1/8	3/4	2/3	14/23	6.4
E. L.	6/8	0/8	0/4	0/3	6/23	2.6
C. A.	8/8	4/8	4/4	1/3	17/23	7.4
C. O.	8/8	4/8	4/4	3/3	19/23	8.3
C. G.	6/8	2/8	0/4	1/3	9/23	4
Y. D.	8/8	3/8	3/4	2/3	16/23	7
C. B.	8/8	2/8	2/4	1/3	13/23	5.7

M. C.						
P. G.	8/8	3/8	2/4	1/3	14/23	6.1
I. S.	7/8	4/8	1/4	1/3	13/23	5.7
N. G.						
N. A.	6/8	2/8	0/4	1/3	9/23	4
G. P.	8/8	1/8	2/4	1/3	12/23	5.2
M. R.	8/8	2/8	2/4	2/3	14/23	6.1
L. G.	7/8	4/8	2/4	1/3	14/23	6.1
C. G.						
M. O.	7/8	2/8	2/4	1/3	12/23	5.2
G. F.	5/8	0/8	1/4	0/3	6/23	2.6
M. G.	8/8	3/8	3/4	0/3	14/23	6.1
A. M.	6/8	1/8	1/4	1/3	9/23	4
A. V.	7/8	1/8	0/4	1/3	9/23	4
M. A.	8/8	3/8	3/4	2/3	16/23	7
I. P.	6/8	0/8	0/4	0/3	6/23	2.6

Results Post-test:

- TPR Group

STUDENTS	EXERCISE 1	EXERCISE 2	EXERCISE 3	EXERCISE 4	TOTAL SCORE	OUT OF 10
C. R.	7/8	5/8	4/4	1/3	17/23	7.4
T. N.	8/8	8/8	4/4	3/3	23/23	10
S. R.	7/8	4/8	3/4	1/3	15/23	6.5
M. G.	8/8	6/8	4/4	3/3	21/23	9.1
J. C.	8/8	2/8	4/4	2/3	16/23	7
P. S.						
S. T.	8/8	8/8	4/4	2/3	22/23	9.6
A. S.	7/8	2/8	2/4	1/3	12/23	5.2
M. P.	7/8	3/8	3/4	2/3	15/23	6.5
A. C.	8/8	4/8	4/4	1/3	17/23	7.4
J. G.	8/8	6/8	3/4	2/3	19/23	8.3
Y. Y.	7/8	5/8	4/4	2/3	18/23	7.8
N. B.	8/8	6/8	3/4	3/3	20/23	8.7
C. B.	7/8	4/8	4/4	3/3	18/23	7.8
E. A.	7/8	6/8	4/4	3/3	20/23	8.7
J. J.	8/8	8/8	4/4	3/3	23/23	10
M. A.	7/8	4/8	4/4	3/3	18/23	7.8
T. F.						
M. G.						
P. R.	6/8	2/8	2/4	1/3	11/23	4.8
N. M.	8/8	3/8	4/4	1/3	16/23	7



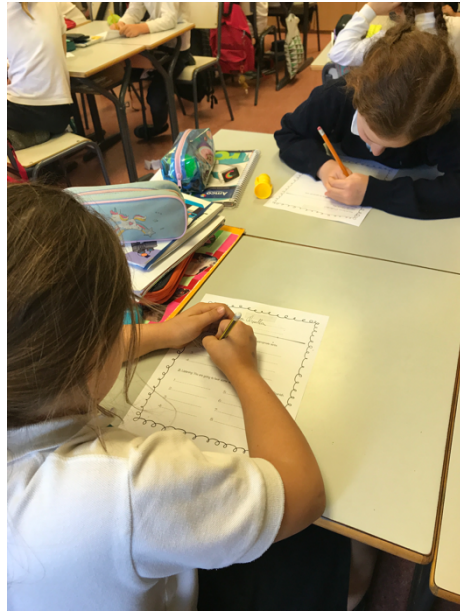
J. P.	8/8	4/8	3/4	1/3	16/23	7
J. A.	8/8	1/8	1/4	1/3	11/23	4.8
T. A.	6/8	0/8	1/4	0/3	7/23	3.0
F. B.						
V. C.	7/8	2/8	2/4	1/3	12/23	5.2
I. T.	8/8	4/8	3/4	3/3	18/23	7.8
P. C.	8/8	5/8	4/4	3/3	20/23	8.7
C. L.	6/8	6/8	3/4	1/3	16/23	7

- Translation Group

STUDENTS	EXERCISE 1	EXERCISE 2	EXERCISE 3	EXERCISE 4	TOTAL SCORE	OUT OF 10
A. C.						
V. C.	8/8	7/8	3/4	1/3	19/23	8.3
Q. V.	8/8	4/8	1/4	0/3	13/23	5.7
M. A.						
V. V.	8/8	3/8	1/4	2/3	14/23	6.1
J. D.	8/8	7/8	4/4	3/3	22/23	9.6
U. Z.	8/8	4/8	4/4	2/3	18/23	7.8
E. L.	8/8	0/8	0/4	0/3	8/23	3.5
C. A.	8/8	5/8	4/4	2/3	19/23	8.3
C. O.	8/8	7/8	4/4	3/3	22/23	9.6
C. G.	7/8	3/8	3/4	1/3	14/23	6.1
Y. D.	8/8	6/8	4/4	2/3	20/23	8.7
C. B.	8/8	8/8	4/4	2/3	22/23	9.6
M. C.	8/8	5/8	3/4	1/3	17/23	7.4
P. G.	8/8	4/8	3/4	3/3	18/23	7.8
I. S.	8/8	5/8	2/4	2/3	17/23	7.4
N. G.	8/8	3/8	2/4	2/3	15/23	6.5
N. A.	8/8	2/8	2/4	1/3	13/23	5.7
G. P.	8/8	3/8	4/4	2/3	17/23	7.4
M. R.	8/8	6/8	4/4	2/3	20/23	8.7
L. G.	7/8	6/8	3/4	1/3	17/23	7.4
C. G.	8/8	6/8	4/4	2/3	20/23	8.7
M. O.	8/8	5/8	4/4	2/3	19/23	8.3
G. F.	7/8	3/8	1/4	1/3	12/23	5.2
M. G.	8/8	5/8	4/4	2/3	19/23	8.3
A. M.	8/8	3/8	2/4	1/3	14/23	6.1
A. V.	7/8	2/8	1/4	1/3	11/23	4.8
M. A.	8/8	5/8	4/4	3/3	20/23	8.7
I. P.	6/8	2/8	1/4	2/3	11/23	4.8

## Appendix IX: Photographs

- Test



- TPR Lessons







- Translation Lessons

