Renzo Titone’s Holodynamic Model
for Language Behaviour and Language Learning:
Implications and Applications for the Second Language Teaching

by

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A thesis submitted in conformity with the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
Graduate Department of Italian Studies
University of Toronto

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0-612-45725-7
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Doctor of Philosophy, 1999

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Abstract

The field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) has attracted the attention of scholars for many centuries. These scholars have attempted to answer questions posed by the nature of foreign language learning and language teaching. Second language acquisition as we have now come to identify it only dates back 30-40 years, though debate on how to effectively teach a second language has been present for over twenty-five centuries.

Renzo Titone's Holodynamic Model of Language Behaviour and Language Learning (HDM) is an integrated whole person approach to language learning which attempts to explain the process of verbal communication as an aspect of personality. The Model is based on the view that "language learning consists of integrated components of a behavioural and cognitive nature which are controlled by the learner's personality structure" (Titone 1991: 7). Unique in this particular aspect of its presentation, his model places the personality of the individual at the centre of the learning process, visualizing a bond between mind, body and spirit. He views personality as the mediating
factor in the L2 acquisition process. The author offers insight into the communicative processes using the psychology of the individual learner to explain the various components of the act of verbal communication.

The Model has been identified by Titone, Danesi and others as humanistic in nature. The theory maintains that language behaviour is not a linear series of one-level operations but rather that is basically a stratified and hierarchical system of dynamic structures and lends itself to an integrated approach to language teaching. This tri-level interpretation of the learner/speaker’s personality is composed of the following basic constituent structures: 1) tactic, 2) strategic, 3) ego-dynamic levels. The three levels may be better understood as part of the personality if we consider them as: the act of communication; the desire to communicate; and the need to communicate. According to the HDM any form of acquisition, even linguistic acquisition, occurs at all three levels simultaneously.

To date little work has been done to consider the pedagogical implications and application of this Model. The present thesis explores the theoretical assumptions of this model. It considers teaching principles which may be derived from the HDM and offers applications of such a model to the field of second language learning.
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Introduction

The field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) has attracted the attention of scholars for many centuries, "[they] have been fascinated by the questions posed by the nature of foreign language learning and language teaching" (Gass & Selinker 1994: xiii). SLA as we have now come to identify it only dates back 30-40 years (Brown 1994), though, as Kelly (1969) argues the debate on how to effectively teach a second language (L2) has been present for over twenty-five centuries, while "theory development as a debate on teaching methods has evolved particularly over the last hundred years" (Stern 1983: 452).

Inevitably SLA has become entangled with pedagogy and at times the two have appeared synonymous. There has been an attempt in recent history to disentangle the two disciplines and to approach them independently, it has only been in the last 20 years that the field of SLA has developed into an independent and autonomous discipline. The growing presence of this autonomous field can be seen reflected in the number of scholarly journals devoted to the subject that one may find (Studies in Second Language Acquisition; Language learning; Second Language Research and others such as Applied Linguistics; Applied Psycholinguistics, to name only a few). The most noteworthy aspect of this field is its interdisciplinary character, involving areas of linguistics, psychology, neurology, sociology, and education. The research conducted

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1 By second language acquisition we mean the acquisition of a language after the native language has already been established in the individual (Ritchie & Bhatia 1996). The second language learner as a result differs from the first language learner in two significant ways: (a) the second language learner generally begins the acquisition process at a time after the L1 has been established, and (b) the learner has a language system in place.

in this discipline approaches the question of language teaching and learning taking into consideration, contributions from all these disciplines has permitted scholars to better understand the complexities of learning a L2. The data and insights that such research has generated has been used to develop “better” methods for teaching languages. Brown (1994: 290) argues that present trends in language teaching are the result of theories in practice, “[a]s research points the way toward more effective ways of teaching and learning, approaches and techniques are conceived and developed. The use of those approaches and techniques, in turn, continually provides essential data for the enlightening of further research, and the interdependent cycle goes on.” One such model for SLA which was proposed by Renzo Titone, in the late sixties, is the Holodynamic Model for Language Learning and Language Behaviour (HDM). This model which is presented as a tri-level interpretation of language acquisition has been identified by the author and others as humanistic in nature (Danesi 1988c, Freddi 1994, Porcelli 1994, Titone 1981b, 1982, 1986, Titone & Danesi 1985).

The most important aspects of the HDM is its position that, “language behaviour, like all behaviour, postulates an adequate concept of ‘personality’ as the ultimate root and source of incoming and outgoing processes. A comprehensive view of personality structure does not do away with but rather implies the ‘intra-action’ and ‘inter-action’ of cognitions and habits” (Titone 1973: 7). Therefore the HDM does not view language as a matter of habit formation or as acquisition of cognitive rules independent of the learner. The individual’s personality is the mediating factor in the L2 acquisition process. “Communicating and the ability to communicate verbally are surface aspects rooted upon profound layers of the individual’s personality” (Titone 1977: 311). Porcelli (1994) argues that from a psychological position the learner’s personality in its entirety must be considered, thus supporting Titone’s position and highlighting the need to consider personality not only for cognitive attributes such as intelligence, memory or linguistic
aptitude, but affective aspects, relative to the desire to communicate and motivation. Di Pietro (1976: 14-15) points out, "Insofar as we are social beings, we find it necessary to use language to articulate our existence. Whether we use sounds or sign language, our personalities are verbal expressions of ourselves. With time we develop distinct strategies of speech to assure that our personalities will emerge intact from any verbal encounter." There is no doubt that the "I" of the individual plays a vital role in learning a L2, as well as aspects of motivation, and attitude towards the L2 and the target culture (the latter we will discover are elements of affective nature of the individual = personality).

Titone in his HDM relates "mind" to "person." His model places the personality of the individual at the centre of the learning process, visualizing a bond between mind, body and spirit. Contrary to behaviouristic psychology and cognitive psychology, humanistic psychology looks to the individual and considers affective aspects of the person and how this affects the learning process as well as the relationship the individual has with the world. Titone's view of education tries to relate the personality of the learner to cognitive and behavioural aspects of the individual. Pinto and Danesi (1993: 16) argue that "Titone's 'humanistic' view of mental operations [...] have made it obvious that these components form an integrated system with the personality system and with the affective forces that operate within it. Indeed, his work has gone a long way toward establishing that the personality system strongly influences, if not completely controls, cognition and behavior."

The theory maintains that language behaviour is not a linear series of one level operations but rather it is a stratified and hierarchical system of dynamic structures (Titone 1982) and lends itself to an integrated approach to language teaching. "This integrated view of language behavior and learning includes the co-existence and co-operation of three distinct levels, namely: (a) personality structures and dynamics in a "contextual" perspective, (b) cognitive processes, and
(c) operant conditionings. These three variables are in essence mutually dependent and integrated on a dynamic basis (which means that integration is not a state but a continuous process, a dynamic equilibrium, never entirely achieved, as is typically evident in the case of individual bilingualism)” (Titone 1973: 7).

The tri-level theory is not a assimilation or contrast of three different theories, rather, all three are necessary for a comprehensive understanding of language behaviour and language learning.

The conclusion imposed by the ‘holodynamic model’ is, in general terms, that the strategic or cognitive level of behavior and learning operations cannot be separated from the other two levels. Thinking and acting, also, or rather most of all, in language processes are intrinsically determined and governed by the communicator’s ego (not to be taken in the Freudian sense but in the traditional definition of ‘conscious self’), capable through language to set relations with another communicator’s ego (his/her communication partner).

This is the basic meaning of what I like to name and integrated psycholinguistic theory of language behavior and language learning. Titone (1988:179)

The three levels may be identified as: tactic, strategic and ego-dynamic.

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<td>the will/motivation to communicate</td>
<td>the knowledge or ability to communicate</td>
<td>the act of communicating – ability to encode and decode messages</td>
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*Tactic Level:* Programming of the language act. Performance. Divided into decoding and encoding, neural cortical/peripheral coordination, and verbal feedback.

*Strategic Level:* Programming mechanism; it is the mind of the individual which gives meaningfulness to an utterance. This level is composed of rule-making processes, selective processes, programming processes, and conscious self-regulatory processes.
Ego-dynamic Level: The regulatory aspect of the utterance; the individual self responsible for controlling all activities at the strategic and tactic level. This level includes: existential experience of the speaker/hearer, world perception, attitudes, affective components, unconscious/subconscious source of verbal message, communicative intentions, volitions and decisions, linguistic self-awareness.

It has been argued that no one theory can possibly account for the whole of language-learning process (Titone & Danesi 1985, Brown 1994), given this, it is only natural to assume that no one teaching method can effectively impart L2 skills to a learner (Titone & Danesi 1985, Brown 1980). Titone (1973: 5-6) maintains that "[m]any of the present short-comings in the application of existing instructional models seem to derive from lack of an integrated and sufficiently flexible teaching-learning model of language behavior and language learning." With so many language teaching and language learning theories and methodologies which have been proposed and developed over the years language instructors have traditionally adopt one to the exclusion of another. In recent years a move from the use of single methodologies to a more eclectic approach to language teaching has occurred. In so doing many instructors have arrived at a flexible approach which responds to various learning situations, or an eclectic approach. Many scholars (Brown 1994, Freddi 1994, Procelli 1994, Titone & Danesi 1985) argue against a haphazard eclectic approach where interesting elements from various approaches are collected and brought together. The current approach to teaching certainly supports what Brown defines as "enlightened" eclecticism; that is to intelligently and knowledgeably select aspects of different approaches "built upon and guided by an integrated and broadly based theory of second language acquisition." It is my aim to argue that a personological "eclectic" (holistic) approach to language teaching is the most effective manner for teaching a L2; such an approach would be
interdisciplinary or integrated and that Titone’s HDM offers just this. Titone and Danesi (1985: 168) propose that:

An integrated point of view does not imply in any way that no theory can ever be formulated to account for language learning. It does suggest, however, that any theory which attempts to explain such a complex process will have to be an integrated one; i.e., the framework for a theory of language learning will have to be one which blends together the behavioural, cognitive, and personality components of language learning.

Both Freddi (1994) and Porcelli (1994) propose an integrated pedagogy which has as a point of reference Titone’s HDM and Danesi’s neurological insights on language learning. In discussing the HDM Di Pietro (1993: 45) points out that “the holodynamic model is readily applied to second language instruction both in the development of classroom activities and in creation of holistic, non-reductionistic pedagogical material.”

In his text *Glottodidattica. Fondamenti, metodi e tecniche* Freddi (1994) attempts to justify how one can and must plan an integrated method reflecting on the significant features of current models. The teaching model which he sees functioning most effectively is one which is flexible to respond to feedback from scientific experimentation and information provided by the various fields which study both man and language and the relationship which exists between the two. It is my contention that the HDM represents a valid integrated teaching method.

Since the early part of this century there has been a move away from the notion of what to teach to who is being taught. This position which was very typical of the Renaissance has had in this century its greatest proponents in the authors of humanistic teaching methods. As a result we have rediscovered that not only is it necessary to teach the structures of the language but as

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instructors we must know our learners on a psychological basis – we must consider affective, cognitive, social factors as well, we must be aware of the student’s learning style, motivations, other personality traits, and the context of his/her world. Further, one may argue that to know a L2, means to discover a cultural dimension different from the culture of the native language as well as to acknowledge that the world may be perceived, categorized, and reorganized in a manner different from our own (Freddi 1994, Danesi 1985, 1995, 1998, Larsen-Freeman 1986). As instructors we must be able to assist our learners in acquiring this vital aspect of language as we teach them the grammatical structures of the target language. It has been argued by many (Danesi 1995, 1998, Maiguascha 1993, Vizmuler-Zocco 1993) that the present day language class is plagued by learner’s discourse text (oral and written) which continues to be literal (not authentic) or textbook-like despite the efforts of teachers and theorist to create a more authentic sounding speaker. Danesi (1995: 4) attributes this short-coming of language instruction to “the fact that students have never had the opportunity to access the metaphorical structures inherent in the target language and culture directly.” It is apparent that the methodologies adopted in the language class must be reconsidered and re-structured in such a way as to expose the students not only to grammatical and communicative structures but also to “conceptual structures” of the target language (these include proverbs, metaphor, target language image schemas and cultural categorization of experience). The teaching principles developed from the ego-dynamic level of the HDM will be used to present how this may be accomplished. It is this particular level of the model which concerns itself with the individual, his/her perceptions and conceptual domains.

In this work I propose to present and analyze Titone’s Holodynamic Model of language learning and language behaviour, as well as the author’s development of his acquisition theory
into a teaching methodology. I will maintain that the HDM represents an integrated method of language teaching and to this end I will demonstrate how such an integrated method may be utilized in the teaching of Italian. It is perhaps the ability of this Method to account for so many aspects of the individual's personality, learning styles and its ability to incorporate various disciplines that makes it a valid alternative to present day L2 teaching methods. Titone and Danesi (1985: 61) maintain that "[a]n attempt to integrate behavioristic, cognitive and humanistic (affective) theories can, in fact, be found in the work of Titone." This aspect in addition to its student-centred focus may perhaps be the most humanistic element of the theory.

The old saying that to understand where one is going one must understand where one has been may certainly be applied to the field of L2 teaching. It the responsibility of present day language theorists to consider the past when addressing current issues of language teaching and learning. Musumeci (1997) concurs when she argues that a historical perspective of language teaching is fundamental to better understand the field of L2 teaching. A historical knowledge of L2 learning may also help the language instructor determine if perhaps the problems which face the modern language learner have already been addressed and if so, how past solutions to the problem may assist the modern class. As a result, before undertaking a discussion of the HDM, I think it prudent to first pursue a diachronic discussion of language acquisition/teaching theories or methodologies. It is beyond the scope of this work to consider all teaching methods, hence, I will restrict my attention to a brief historical overview of those teaching methods which have attracted the greatest interest. In the second part of this work I will focus my attention on the issue of humanistic education and how it pertains to L2 learning and teaching. Specifically, I will consider Stevick's (1980, 1982, 1990), Rivers' (1983), Procelli's (1994) and Freddi's (1993) position on what is entailed by "humanistic education." In addition, I will identify and discuss

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3 Note: I will use Krashen's distinction between acquisition and learning: "ACQUISITION is a subconscious process identical in all important ways to the process children utilize in acquiring their first language, while LEARNING is a conscious process that results in 'knowing about' language." (Krashen 1985: 1)

4 In their book Introduction to Applied Psycholinguistics Titone and Danesi (1985) in defining humanistic pedagogy offer the eclectic nature of some techniques as one of the elements necessary for a humanistic approach to teaching, pp 59-61.
those humanistic teaching methods which have received considerable attention in recent history. I deem it to be unwise to discuss Titone’s Holodynamic Model, and its applications to L2 teaching without first briefly considering the contributions of the Natural Approach, Community Language Learning, Total Physical Response, Suggestopedia and the Silent Way to the field of humanistic education. As we will discover, the distinguishing elements of these methods are their identification of the individual as central to the learning process and the emphasis placed on instilling L2 communicative skills in the learner, which include not only linguistic fluency but also conceptual fluency.

In chapters three and four I will focus my efforts on presenting the HDM, discussing the three levels of the model: tactic, strategic and ego-dynamic, followed by an analysis of what such a model may imply for teaching approaches. This will be accomplished by establishing teaching principles derived from the Model. Further, I will present Titone’s Modular Model to present an example of a teaching unit.

In the final chapter I will consider how the principles outlined in chapter 4 can be used to create a holodynamic teaching syllabus. It is my hope that conclusions derived from the earlier chapters will assist in determining what aspects of language and culture will need to be integrated. I do not discount the presence of a grammatical and communicative element in the creation of a syllabus. As many scholars have demonstrated a theme oriented approach generally serves this purpose best and should be adopted. The functions and notions will deal with communicative goals as well as enforce conceptual competence. The topics will be selected according to the communicative needs of the learner and the level of proficiency. They will be established in such a manner as to be easily transferable to all ages and levels of language instruction.

Based on the goals and objectives of the syllabus a prototype unit for the teaching of Italian in the L2 class will be developed focusing on issues of communicative, linguistic and conceptual competence. I will demonstrate that the HDM when applied to language teaching.
presents an eclectic "well rounded" approach to the problem of effectively teaching a L2 and reflects a valid alternative to current language teaching methodologies particularly if one hopes to encourage and develop conceptual and communicative competence in order to avoid the 'literalness' which is so typical of L2 learner's speech.
Chapter I

History of Second Language Teaching

The human need to communicate with speakers of other languages, to understand and to be understood, has been an ever present aspect of our existence. With the evolution of language and the presence of economical and political pressures the issue of second language acquisition (SLA) soon came to the forefront of investigation.\(^1\) It is interesting to discover that the issue of second language learning (SLL) is not as recent a phenomenon as some would care to think. In Kelly’s (1969: 363) view, “[t]he corpus of ideas accessible to language teachers has not changed basically in 2,000 years. What have been in constant change are the ways of building methods from them, and the part of the corpus that is accepted varies from generation to generation, as does the form in which the ideas present themselves.” Musumeci (1997) accuses applied linguists of ignoring the past. She rightly inquires whether the questions posed by present day teaching professionals,\(^2\) have not been asked before and whether it is possible that more than two thousand years of language learning and teaching have nothing to contribute to our present situation? In the last three decades the discussion has become much more complicated, but certainly it is not as if the issue of language learning is exclusively a twentieth century phenomenon. A quick historical overview of the trends in language teaching will demonstrate that as early as 3000 B.C.

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\(^1\) Our ancestors intuitively knew that it was of the utmost importance to know a second language and particularly the language of the people one was dealing with, whether it was on a political or economic basis. Oddly enough, it can be argued that in modern times, the political climate being what it is, we have forgotten the importance of knowing more than one language. In our growing Global Market our boundaries are closing and it has become necessary for individuals to know foreign languages, yet these are the precise items being eliminated from our education system.

\(^2\) Should grammar be taught? how should errors be corrected? what role does comprehension play in language acquisition? how much of second language acquisition is universal? how much of it depends on the individual? These are some of the questions which face the modern researcher and instructor, but are they the only ones that have posed these questions? (Musumeci 1997)
people were concerned with how to effectively teach/learn a foreign language, even more surprising is the fact that our new and what may be considered as “innovative” approaches to second language (L2) teaching are, after all, not so innovative or new.

In surveying the literature one immediately notes that there exists little or no historical perspective of language teaching (Musumeci 1997). The standard text on the evolution of L2 teaching remains Kelly’s 1969 book *25 Centuries of Language Teaching*, a thematic approach to language teaching and learning, it is an impressive compilation of information from various sources and centuries. Given the nature of the volume, it concerns itself with an analysis of various aspects of language learning and teaching over the centuries but does not attempt to provide a chronological in-depth analysis of the particular movements or held beliefs of language learning and teaching. In 1965 Mackey, taking a chronological approach to the history of language teaching, dedicates a few pages to the evolution of language teaching from antiquity to the present before moving on to the focus of his work. Similarly, Titone (1968), provides a broad historical overview of language teaching before centering his work on the debate between formalism and activism. While in H. H. Stern’s (1983) book *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching* a chapter is dedicated to arguing the importance, relevance and potential contribution of historical research. Most recently, Musumeci (1997) in her book *Breaking Tradition: An Exploration of the Historical Relationship between Theory and Practice in Second Language Teaching* advocates the need and importance of a historical perspective in L2 teaching, while looking at the contributions of three influential, practitioners and philosophers to the history of Western education. Musumeci (1997: 5) argues that, “the advantage of taking a historical look at beliefs about language learning and how they evolved is that such an approach allows for an appraisal of the profession from the vantage point of temporal distance. In doing so, it permits the discernment of both dramatic shifts and enduring trends. It provides a panoramic view of the
profession's evolutionary landscape: that is, of the forest not just the tree." Two other recent French publications also discuss the issue of L2 teaching across history, the first: Claude Germain’s (1993) *Évolution de l’enseignement des langues: 5000 ans d’histoire*, as the author states, functions to fill a void that exists in the documentation of language teaching in the French language. The second text, *Le point sur... L’histoire de l’enseignement des langues* (~3000-1950) written by Jean-Antoine Caravolas also deals with the topic of L2 teaching but differs from the others in that it considers the teaching of "live" vs. "dead" languages independently of one another as well as social cultural issues, the difference between the development of the languages in Antiquity Eastern and Western Europe and finally in later years the difference between Europe and North America.

In the pages that follow I wish to briefly present the situation of language teaching and specifically foreign language teaching during the various historical periods. It is my hope, in the later part of this work to link together the various techniques and methodologies considered to the status of L2 teaching during the modern era, in particular to consider how this knowledge may contribute to the establishment of a language teaching methodology based on Titone’s Holodynamic Model for language behaviour and language learning.

### 1.1 Antiquity

Early people such as the Sumerians, Romans, and Egyptians interestingly enough, concerned themselves with the teaching of foreign languages. It has been shown that as early as 3000 B.C. there were scribes devoted to school-teaching and learning, in fact archeological

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3 The historical periods are divided according to major cultural periods and not necessarily by centuries.
digs in the old city of Shuruppak discovered school text books dating as far back as c. 2500 B.C. Hundreds of clay tablets with the “homework” of students, which date to a later period were also unearthed. These clues have enabled scholars to piece together a fairly complete picture of the Sumerian school, and most importantly teaching methods.

The information gathered showed that the goals of these early schools were to teach prospective scribes “how to make use of the cuneiform character” (Titone 1968: 5) while great emphasis was paid to linguistics classification. Words and phrases were memorized and copied out by students on clay tablets.

In the Sumerian tablets we find that the study of grammar holds a distinctive place. Many tablets carry long lists of compound nouns and verbal forms which betray a surprisingly well developed analysis of grammar. But a more important fact is the development in second language teaching after the country of Sumer was conquered by the Akkadian Semites during the last quarter of the third millennium B.C. The Sumerian teachers had to teach their own language to their new lords, and they compiled the oldest known ‘dictionaries’. [...] While grammatical classifications were used by the Sumerians in perfecting their knowledge of their own tongue, the Akkadians made use of bilingual dictionaries to learn Sumerian. (Titone 1968: 5-6).

The Ancient Egyptians’ many military conquests made it necessary for them to learn the languages of the people they conquered. In the words of H. Brunner “‘that the Egyptians mastered foreign languages, at least during the empire of the eighteenth and twentieth 18th-20th Dynasties, cannot be doubted’ as is seen in the multilingual tablets contained in the Harmarna Archives.” In the correspondence of the period one can find innumerable citations of foreign words and phrases demonstrating without a doubt that the Egyptians were familiar with the languages of other countries. What remains a mystery is ‘how these languages were learnt’. Brunner in his work puts forth the theory that young Egyptian bureaucrats were sent

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to the various countries to do their training in loco. The countries chosen would be places where the bureaucrats would be later stationed. In so doing the Egyptians assured themselves that the individual would become acquainted not only with the language of the region but also with its customs. [Here we have the first instance of conscious awareness that knowing a language entailed more than just being able to speak it correctly from a grammatical perspective. These early people were aware of the need to have a full understanding of the language as well as the culture of the foreign tongue. This approach to foreign language learning may be viewed as our first historical evidence of a language immersion program.]

Romans taught Greek to their children, establishing one of the earliest cases of early childhood bilingual education. In the first years of life a child would be entrusted to a Greek slave or nurse. When the child was of the age to attend school he/she would begin learning the three R’s in the two languages at the same time; eventually he “would follow the parallel courses of the Greek grammaticós and the Latin ludi magister and then those given by the Greek rhetor and by the Latin orator” (Titone 1968: 6). The Hermeneumata Pseudodositheana, which is comparable to our modern day conversational handbooks, detailed the learning curriculum and were used by instructors as bilingual manuals. The teaching method adopted by the Romans was a very practical, systematic method which fixed in the learners’ mind certain grammatical structures.

As the Roman Empire expanded, people of the conquered territories began to learn Latin. The magnitude of the Roman Empire made Latin the international language of the Western World. Latin was the language of church and state for a long period of time, while

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5 We may note that the English language is experiencing the same type of success enjoyed by Latin, though not for the same reasons that determined the explosion of Latin within the Western world. Is there something that language instructors may learn from the past, a past which saw the Latin language move from a position of supremacy and dominance to a “dead” language. Musumeci (1997: 4), paralleling this inquiry writes, “wise voices of teachers and scholars who participated in one of the most wide-scale foreign language experiments ever. Through their eyes applied linguistics experienced the growth and decline of the first true world language, Latin, while barbarians were still babbling the gibberish that would become the second, English.”
in some European countries until modern times, it remained the only language of learning, the sole language used in teaching.

The Middle Ages, and Renaissance brought with them further discussion of the notion and importance of language teaching and learning.\textsuperscript{6} These two periods recorded the establishment of two very different approaches to language teaching: inductive and deductive; approaches which would re-emerge during modern times.

### 1.2 Middle Ages

During the Middle Ages, protected by the Church thus ensuring its survival, Latin was the only language used for teaching, and in addition was the sole language of international communication and culture throughout Europe. As a result Latin was taught intensively and was part of the common curriculum of education from elementary grades to university. The medieval educated man was a bilingual individual. It was not until the late Middle Ages that the vernacular began to increase in popularity within a growing and expanding world of trade and international politics.

A deductive method of language teaching was practiced during the Middle Ages. This method was usually presented through codified grammars, (the two most important ones which the \textit{Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language} identifies as facilitating the survival of Latin and which were used in the study of the language for some time were \textit{De partibus}

\textsuperscript{6} In the paragraphs that follow a brief outline of language teaching during the various historical periods may be found. For a further details see, Louis G. Kelly, \textit{25 Centuries of Language Teaching} (Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, 1969) and Giulio Lepschy, \textit{History of Linguistics}, vol 2 (London & New York: Longman, 1994).
orationis, _ars minor_ and _Ars grammatica_ or _Ars major_\(^7\) this technique was present during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries as well. Rote learning was the typical method of learning and students were drilled on Latin morphology and syntax and were required to memorize its structures. It was believed that the language could be used effectively and skillfully only when an intellectual knowledge of the language had been attained from a formal analyses of its structures. The goal of the L2 class was to enable clerics to speak, read and write in Latin.

Nearly all academic learning was done in Latin.

Latin was taught by a direct association between objects and words which gave rise to the establishment of the first bilingual glossaries. The primary preoccupation was correctness not fluency while rules were of primary importance.

### 1.3 Renaissance\(^8\)

It was not until the Renaissance, when Latin began to lose its status as a living language, that other foreign languages began to be taught with the same intensity and approach as was

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\(^7\) The _De partibus orationis, ars minor_ was produced by a fourth century Latin teacher in Rome by the name of Aelius Donatus (one time tutor of St. Jerome). The book was divided into two parts: the first was a practical introduction to the language, for beginners, containing questions and answers which the student was to memorize. The second part or book was the _Ars grammatica_ or _Ars major_. “Donatus was the model for classroom grammars of Latin and other languages for well over a thousand years and its survival was of considerable cultural significance. [...] Without his work the maintenance of Latin Rome as a unifying force of medieval Europe would have been very much more difficult.” (*The Cambridge Encyclopedia* p. 2021)

\(^8\) Mackey (1965) comments that it is during this period that the first complaints regarding the poor methods of teaching Latin were manifested. He contributes this judgement to the invention of the printing press and the increased distribution of the classics throughout Europe. The Latin spoken in academic circles of Europe, during that period had evolved in such a manner that it was different from the Latin found in the original Greek and Latin classical works in which the language was several centuries old. The Latin of the texts was considered the true correct Latin and was the template for the grammar texts upon which teaching methods would be based. The grammar text became even more complicated and the language was eventually studied as an end in itself – the teaching of Latin was no longer used as a preparatory exercise for reading the classics. Mackey (1965: 141) writes “[d]ecrees that this sort of Latin was to take the place of the form of the language spoken at the time were largely responsible for converting Latin into a dead language, and it gradually ceded its place to the national languages of Europe.”
Latin. Initially these languages were taught orally, and then through reading and composition. Therefore, the first concerns with language teaching methods in Europe had to do with the teaching of Latin (Mackey 1965).

Unlike the Middle Ages when technical knowledge of the language was the most important aspect, during the Renaissance skill was the predominant aspect of language learning. As in the Classical era, the Renaissance, and the early twentieth century, an intuitive command of the target languages was required; formal knowledge of the language structures was viewed as a mere reinforcement of the practical knowledge of the language.

During the late Renaissance inductive teaching methods predominated. It was during this period that attempts were made to improve the manner in which Latin and vernaculars were taught and to eliminate the teaching of grammar for grammars sake. There was a general opposition to the use of formal grammar teaching. St. Augustine was a firm believer of this new view of language teaching and made use of it in his classroom, “[h]e conceived learning as a process of passing by abstraction from particular to universal: skills were to be implanted by practice and use” (Kelly 1969: 34-35). It was felt that the learner must develop a command of linguistic skills rather than to simply memorize rules. “To meet this aim, St. Augustine popularized dialogued methods of teaching, making the pupil’s role in the dialogue part of the act of discovery” (Kelly 1969: 35). This basic principle was fused with more classical styles of rhetoric teaching during the Middle Ages and was forgotten, remaining so until just before the Renaissance. During this period an attempt was made to supplement the rote learning of the Middle Ages with mnemonic devices; for example the declination system of Greek and Latin were pictured as bunches of keys. Use of analogy in language teaching was also used and introduced during this period.

9It is during this period that the first dictionary is introduced. It is a multilingual dictionary. This period also sees the study of grammar separated from literature.
It is to Vittorino da Feltre (1373-1446) that the earliest attempts at an inductive approach to language teaching during the fifteenth century is attributed. He founded his school in 1424 in the house of Gianfrancesco Gonzaga of Venice where he had been hired to educate Gianfrancesco's two sons. His aim was "applied scholarship," due to the fact that the boys who had been entrusted to him were not being educated to become scholars but rather men of the world, in whom the knowledge of Latin and foreign languages was to be an added virtue. Feltre rejected the standards established during the Middle Ages: though he taught Latin and Greek it was not done through the use of formal methods but through reading, speaking, and imitation. Feltre's approach was carried on into the sixteenth century by Vivès.\textsuperscript{10}

In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries Wolfgang Ratke\textsuperscript{11} (1571-1635) is credited with the "invention" of the inductive principle, this pioneering work is shared with Lubinus and Ramus (1787-1832). Their belief was that to know the universal rules without knowing the particular usage of the language is not real knowledge (a sentiment which we find echoed

\textsuperscript{10} It would appear that during this period Feltre's principles were applied to other subjects, while being excluded from the language classroom (Kelly 1969).

\textsuperscript{11} Also referred to as Rativius. To some extent Ratke believed in the use of translation as a methodological starting point. He provided a good translation of Terence's plays as texts. He used this material to teach Latin and looked at it before he would consider the grammar. His thoughts on teaching can be found in his book, \textit{Memorial} (1612). Titone (1968: 11-12) summarizes Ratke's views as follows:

1. Teach each point in an orderly manner and following the natural course of things (seen in modern theory as in terms of Universal Grammar).
2. Do not teach everything at the same time, but teach things at the right time.
3. Repeat the points you have taught regularly.
4. Do not learn by heart.
5. Make things uniform: for example, unify the grammar of different languages on one same plan or pattern.
6. First the thing in itself should be known, then – and only then – according to its modalities (\textit{ne modus rei ante rem}).
7. Everything should be learned through experience and induction (this too, may be considered as a very modern thought).
in the writings of many modern applied linguists and pedagogical theorists) as well as the notion that everything should be learned through experience and induction. According to Kelly (1969), Ratke reclassified Latin grammar along principles similar to those of twentieth century structuralists. He strongly believed that his students needed to be aware of language as language and that knowledge of the rules was to come later.

Among the large number of other important contributors to the discussion of language teaching and learning during this period, two philosophers and educators whose ideas and perspectives should be briefly considered: 12 Guarino Guarini (1374-1460), and St. Ignatius of Loyola (1491-1556). 13

Guarino also known as Guarino Veronese was a teacher and scholar of Greek and Latin, he translated texts, lectured, was an advisor of teaching methods, conducted research, and in addition was a proponent of school reform. His theories on language teaching were documented by his son Battista Guarini after his death, but as Musumeci (1997) notes numerous discrepancies exist in the presentation of Guarini’s thoughts on education in Battista’s De ordine docendi e discendi (1459) and the father’s philosophies as they were expressed in his epistles to friends, colleagues and former students. The fundamental difference in the two educators is that “Battista fails to convey the humanist spirit that characterizes Guarino’s views on language learning and teaching” (Musumeci 1997: 18).

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In these letters of the most celebrated proponent of the *studia humanitatis*[^14] (*study of humanity*) we discover that Guarino identified the difficulty encountered in trying to attain fluency in Latin, a language which was no longer the mother tongue in Italy, yet he highlights the importance of the ability to speak fluently in Latin. He identified the individual as being central to the learning experience, he understood the learner's perspective and believed that learning should be pleasant and that the student should be approached in a caring and affectionate manner. This philosophy emerges in present day theories and methodologies of language teaching which are referred to as humanistic. (See chapter 2 for discussion of humanistic methods of language teaching.)

Guarino believed that Latin was to be acquired as a living, practical language, a language in which the learner was able to express and convey new ideas. He placed emphasis on meaning and not on form. He believed that language learning was gradual and developed in stages and as a result it was necessary to tolerate errors. He felt that errors would resolve themselves as the learner acquired more experience in the language and as competence improved errors would not become fossilized. This was due to his belief that students learn by example and that by leaning the speech habit of the teacher the student's own competence would improve. As a final point Guarino believed that "a focus on interesting subject matter, early and sustained interaction with authentic texts, the interpretation and expression of meaning, and tolerance for errors provides the ideal environment for successful language acquisition" (Musumeci 1997: 33).

[^14]: New curriculum proposed during the Renaissance as a result of the rediscovery of classical works, literature and reading the classics, played a dominant role in language teaching. The curriculum was based on the classical text because it not only exhibited facts but also thoughts and expressions of the culture. This type of curriculum was essential in the formative education of citizens. It helped them attain a manner of living. The belief was that knowledge of the Latin language would help individuals express themselves, and was necessary for moral, civic and personal development. It was believed that fluency in Latin was important to all endeavors, it helped unlock the knowledge and wisdom of the Ancients which could help the politician, the citizen, the scholar or the religious person in his work. This knowledge was of particular importance to people in power, whom Guarini believed should act as role models for the common folk.
St. Ignatius of Loyola, unlike Guarino and other humanists was not a scholar but spent his adolescence and young adulthood in military service and at court. It was due to a war injury which kept him bed-ridden for a year that Ignatius began to reflect on the life of Christ and eventually founded the Societas Jesu [the Jesuit Order]. At age 33, he began his formal education and according to him, he failed in his first attempts to learn Latin, though he never became totally fluent in the language, composing much of his work in his native language. It was his experience of the humanistic method of teaching, which used the classical text as a basis for interactive use of language, which had a profound influence on his thought about language teaching.

Ignatius is credited with the establishment of the first educational system, offering parents a choice of institution rather than a scholar-tutor as was the option available to parents of the previous generations. His school also prepared students for a political, religious, or mercantile life. To the existing elementary and university system Ignatius introduced the colegio (Ignatius’ Spanish for College) or today’s “secondary school.” Here he was interested in offering quality middle grade instruction. The class size was small mirroring his belief in the need to offer individualized attention and interactive classes. The curriculum was a “blue print for a wide scale implementation of Guarino’s innovation” (Musumeci 1997: 40). Because of his ambition to establish Jesuit colleges throughout Europe Ignatius felt it necessary to establish uniform instruction within each college, hence the need to establish a plan for instruction so that instructors and administrators knew what to do and what was expected of them and the class. This work can be found in the Constitutions and in his many letters.

He believed that the class was to be tailored to the students level of ability, creating an environment which was conducive to learning. During the day there would be a period for recreation and a weekly vacation period. Like Guarino he believed that functional language
competence would be acquired through exposure to texts followed by meaningful interaction. He argued that the classes should be conducted in Latin so as to develop interpretive skills in the students which would be acquired by comprehending the lectures. He felt that interpretive skills were not all that was required; as a result, he suggested that students meet in small groups after the lecture to discuss the content and express their ideas, developing their language ability. He maintained that L2 development occurs through meaningful interaction. Within this system Latin was a fully functional language in both written and oral form. He also felt it was important for the class to be of interest to the student, hence it was the instructors function to provide content that the students would find interesting and would motivate them to work in the L2. Many of the ideas presented by Guarino, Ignatius and other scholars of this period have become an integral part of the philosophy framing humanistic education as will be highlighted in the following chapter.

1.4 Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries

In the seventeenth century Lamy (1645-1715) presents the notion that languages should be learnt as one learns his/her first language (this is to become the foundation of the nineteenth century Natural Approach). This belief continued to be held for a period of time during the eighteenth century. Krashen and Terrell (1983) point out that during the 1600s the first texts designed for helping students with the new languages appeared. The main feature of these texts was that they made little or no use of the mother tongue. These texts proposed

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15 The Ratio Studiorum [Plan of Study] preliminary version published in 1586, is a document of the Jesuit education system. It contains details which were not included in Ignatius’ own plan. It is not the product of a single author, revised over a number of years it contains a discussion of pedagogical issues. The last revision was written in 1599 and would not be revised again until 1832.
that the learner acquire the second language in much the same manner as one would acquire his/her first language; this approach to language instruction would later be called the "Direct Method."

The Czech philosopher and educator Johannes Amos Comenius (1592-1670) during this period is credited with the creation of new methods of language teaching based on new principles, making use of imitation, repetition, and practice in both reading and speaking instead of rules. His belief was that a language was to be acquired indirectly by induction and practice and not through rules. His written contributions to the field of language teaching can be found in his great works: *Ianua linguarum reserata; Didactica magna; Linguarum methodus novissima*; and *Orbis pictus*. The last work is significant because it represents the first text designed to teach language using pictures. His work was forgotten soon after his death and remained so for more than two centuries.

In his treatise *Didactica Magna* Comenius discusses his notion on the universal way of successful teaching. He was interested in language teaching from the point of view of a philosopher as well as from the point of view of an educator, and is considered the pioneer of the 'direct method' (Titone 1968). He attempted to make language learning simpler and more effective by insisting on the notion and role of intuition. Titone (1968: 14) quotes Comenius' philosophy, "*nihil est in intellectu quin prius fuerit in sensu*" - "nothing can become a concept of the intellect unless it has been first a sensory precept." This philosophy, though stated nearly 300 years ago is echoed in the present day communicative language strategies as well as in the works of some humanistic educators who feel that it is only by experiencing a

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16 The name may also be found written as Jan Amos Komensky.
language (i.e., by working directly with the language and learning the language in relation to itself and not as a translation - being conceptually fluent) that one can integrate it into one's being.

In the years that followed Comenius' and Montaigne's (1533-92) deaths many of their ideas on language teaching were forgotten, some points from time to time re-emerged in the writings of scholars interested in language teaching. Some of their ideas were shared by the English philosopher John Locke (1632-1704), for whom "languages were not made by Rules of art, but by Accident, and the Common Use of the People. And he that will speak them well, has no other Rule but that; nor any thing to trust to, but his Memory, and the Habit of speaking after the Fashion learned from those, that are allowed to speak properly, which in other Words is only to speak by rote [...]." As we may notice the importance of knowing the language and culture of the target group is a notion which we first encountered in antiquity, is presented here and reappears in the teaching philosophies of our time. The more generally held view during the seventeenth century was that the study of Latin grammar which also affected the manner in which other languages were studied as well as the study of one's native tongue was to be done through translation. Translation between Latin and the vernacular became much more common and knowledge of grammar was "considered an essential tool in the task of translation" (Krashen & Terrell 1983). Krashen and Terrell (1983: 8) argue,

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17 Michel de Montaigne's personal experience of learning Latin as a child in an immersion setting and then the negative experience of learning the language in school as a dead language caused him to loose his ability to converse in the language. He insisted on the importance of learning the language through direct contact with native speakers. In addition to learning the manner of thinking, and customs of the people that speak the language he also felt it necessary to learn the about the culture of target language speakers.

[w]e cannot be sure why a more formal approach to language teaching became so popular. The publication of texts which purported to teach languages based on paradigms, declensions, conjugations and rules of sentence construction multiplied extensively in this period. Mallison speculates that it was due to the fact that Latin, perhaps the language most studied by the intelligentsia and upper classes, had ceased to be a normal vehicle for daily communication.

By the end of the eighteenth century translation had taken foot once again,\(^{19}\) as the method for teaching language, “inductive schemes involving linear translation were suggested by Locke and put into practice by Jacotot and Hamilton” (Kelly 1969: 39). A deductive approach to language teaching was once again the *modus operandi*, instructors were concerned with teaching analysis of the language so that the necessary skills would be developed, grammar once again became an end in itself. As a result the primary preoccupation of the language instructor was correctness not fluency, and rules were of primary importance. Rote learning of paradigms was unquestioned during this period. The method employed for retaining information was at first based on debating methods drawn from medieval philosophy. This approach remained strong until it was displaced by the Grammar-Translation Method, an approach developed in the eighteenth century.\(^{20}\) It was not until the end of the nineteenth century that it encountered resistance from Viëtor and his followers.\(^{21}\)

\(^{19}\) A grammar translation-like method existed during the Renaissance, thought it did not appear as a true method until the eighteenth century. During the Renaissance the *vulgaria*, which was a collection of translation exercises intended to impart not only knowledge of grammar but also a sense of writing style was used. This approach had appeared only briefly during the third century of the Christian era in Alexandria and Gaul. It was abandoned until the late Middle Ages. It is not until the end of the eighteenth century that translation became important once again for imparting knowledge of grammar.

\(^{20}\) The bilingual dictionary became part of the teacher's resources, these were now considered works of reference rather were viewed as the learning tools they represented two centuries earlier.

It was in the eighteenth century that the language of explanation changed from Latin to the vernacular, and the teaching of Latin grammar became an end in itself. By this time in history the Latin language had truly died – it was no longer a language that reflected a society and its role in instruction was no more than a formal intellectual exercise.

It was during this period that a few instructors of modern languages believed and proposed that instruction and explanation in the target language offered valuable insight into the language and the grammar. This sentiment carried into the twentieth century where some authors felt that the use of the target language should be used with advanced pupils. Vernacular explanation of grammar first appeared in the ninth century and reappeared in the sixteenth century when French was used to explain Latin grammar (Kelly 1969: 46-47). By the nineteenth century vernacular explanation was commonly accepted. Members of the Direct Method condemned those individuals who did not believe in the use of the vernacular and expressed its use as being contrary to common sense.  

1.5 Nineteenth Century

At the beginning of the nineteenth century a reaction to the teaching philosophies of the previous era caused the emphasis of language teaching to once again shift to inductive grammar. It was still quite common during this period to teach languages by contact with the living language, this would occur through the oral or written forms of the language. The approach used was the study of texts in the L2 to inductively arrive at the grammar. This task proved to be far more difficult for learners than most philosophers had anticipated and as a

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result in 1811, in an attempt to overcome this difficulty Seidenstücker wrote a text composed of simple sentence containing all the grammatical features the student was to learn. This innovation was further developed by other philosophers until Karl Plötz (1819-81) expounded Seidenstücker's notion of disconnected grammar-teaching sentences into a principle. He divided the method into two parts, the first was composed of rules and paradigms and the second was composed of sentences which could be translated into and out of the L2. Therefore, in essence it became a matter of using the first language to learn the second. This technique "included rote learning of grammar rules, learning to put grammatical labels on words, and learning to apply the rule by translating sentences" (Mackey 1965: 143). This technique dominated this era for some time.

Titone (1968: 27) reports that by the nineteenth century, those compiling textbooks, "were mainly determined to codify the foreign language into frozen rules of morphology and syntax to be explained and eventually memorized. Oral work was reduced to a minimum, while a handful of written exercises, constructed at random, came as a sort of appendix of the rules." The language was codified into rules of morphology and syntax which would be explained by the instructor and which the student was expected to eventually memorize. These disconnected sentences were created and selected to explain and highlight a specific grammar rule. The rules would then be applied to a number of exercises. The most noteworthy item of such a method was that the learner would fail to be able to converse in the language since oral work was reduced to a minimum nor was the student able to understand a native speaker of the target language. After many years of language classes it was possible to carry on only limited conversation. This method of language learning was the standard for the first half of the nineteenth century.

23 We may notice that this type of grammar text was the model for language textbooks during the nineteenth and first half of the twentieth centuries.
Grammar Translation Method did not enter classical language study until the first decade of the nineteenth century, and this according to Kelly (1969) may be accredited to the Prussian school system. Sears, an American classics teacher, published a method based on the Prussian system. It consisted of learning the rules and then drilling them by translating Cicero. There was no composition element nor reading element because it was felt that these did not encourage an in-depth knowledge of the rules.

In the latter half of the century this philosophy was challenged by a number of people the most significant opposer being Claude Marcel (1793-1896), who “advocated the abolition of translation and grammar rules and the teaching of language first through comprehension of texts, through abundant listening, then through the reading of simple and familiar material, followed later by speaking and writing” (Mackey 1965: 143). Marcel observed that no child learned his/her first language by grammar-translation. The generally held belief was that explanation was not an important or necessary part of teaching and that the student should draw his/her own conclusions about the grammar.

This was followed by a further reaction by Gottlieb Heness (d. 1867) who in 1866 established a private language school which utilized what was defined as a “Natural Method” of instruction. Fundamentally this method proposed that a L2 should be learned in the same manner as one would learn his/her first language. The most natural way for this to come about was to teach language through conversation. Lambert Sauveur (1826-1907) built on this notion of the use of conversation by including the importance of reading and the role it can played in learning the more difficult elements of the language.

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24 For the first time a comparison is drawn between L1 and L2 learning. A deeper analysis of language learning is occurring, thought is being given to how language learning may actually occur and an attempt to understand it is presented. In the twentieth century this notion will re-emerge and will be expanded. It is similar to Krashen’s ideology.
In 1880 the aspect of physical activity was added to the discussion of language teaching. The developer of this technique was a friend of Humboldt (1767-1835), Gouin (1831-1896). Gouin applied the principles of “modern psychology to the learning of languages, the principles of the association of ideas, visualization, learning through the senses, centres of interest, play and activity in familiar everyday situations” (Mackey 1965: 144). The learner constructed sentences and these chains of sentences which would be based on everyday activities and events were chosen based on the learner's interest and not the instructors’.

Wilhelm Viëtor (1850-1918) was one of the most staunch critics of the Grammar-Translation Method and of the Plötz school. He proposed a new approach to language teaching, in which he and his supporters maintained that instruction should begin with the spoken language. In his method words were used in sentences and not in isolation. He believed that sentence should not be used disconnected with no context; they were to be used within a given context on topics or subjects that were of interest to the learner. The material was to be taught using gestures, pictures and vocabulary the learner was already familiar with. This led to an inductive knowledge of the grammar; this knowledge was aided by the use of graded reading material which was generally chosen to give the learner knowledge of the foreign country.

The Direct Method was the result of amalgamating various other methods, specifically the Phonetic Method or Reform Method as well as Gouin’s principles. This movement was primarily a response to this “natural approach” to language teaching, whose impact had been only slightly felt. Its rejection of translation became its trade mark. Gouin’s and Viëtor’s principles were over simplified in practice, in addition they became confused

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25 This was the name give to the debate that arose in numerous countries on Viëtor’s methodology.
with principles of the "natural approach." By 1860 it was generally accepted that teaching languages through conversation was the most "natural" method. The founders of the Direct Method took their inspiration from the Natural Method, but added to it a sound theoretical basis and a systematic approach. The Method was not without its fair share of skeptics during the early part of the twentieth century. It attained official recognition in France and Germany despite misgivings expressed by certain professionals. It was widely used in England and in the United States the Method manifests itself in the "Cleveland Plan" of Emile de Sauzé. An interesting aspect of the Direct Method was that it regarded culture content as an important tool in inductive teaching. In essence it was believed that the student should learn the behaviour patterns of the language (Kelly 1969: 43). This notion became important in the twentieth century with the Audio-Visual Approach, which focused its attention on the recreation of situations in the language class.

Evidence of the Direct Method in recent years can be seen in its re-introduction as a valid approach to language teaching, though with some changes by American educators (for example Hester 1970; Diller 1978). They have re-interpreted the method as a "cognitive" or rationalist method in which the emphasis is on the L2 and not translation. Stern (1983) points out that this method does not avoid grammatical explanation and formal practice, but places its emphasis on realistic acts of communication and little emphasis is placed on language drills. Stern (1983: 460) argues that it has "extended the repertoire of language instruction in the early stages of teaching, but has added relatively little to the teaching of advanced learners [...] it can be looked upon as predecessor of present day immersion techniques."

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26 Cleveland Plan was instituted in 1919. It was a form of the Direct Method, its focus was on L2 and used the target language to teach in the language class. It was characterized by the absence of translation as a technique for teaching.
1.6 Twentieth Century

Psychology which traditionally was a philosophical discussion of the soul, had become restricted to the treatment of human behaviour in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. A further division is seen occurring in the field by the twentieth century, which finds the treatment of learning as a separate form of behaviour becoming its own subject. The divergence which was witnessed in the previous century between the science of education and grammar was further enhanced during this century, the issue of language teaching and learning took on a more scientific aspect with the establishment of linguistics and psychology as two separate and distinct sciences. Kelly (1969: 303) argues that,

Few theories of language learning are peculiar to the twentieth century, but modern psychological research has given them a point and clarity they had lacked, while clothing them in language that disguises their relationship to older ideas. Under the influence of the Natural and Direct Methods, emphasis slowly shifted from the knowledge of grammar rules to the habit and skill aspect of language. Such a shift had already occurred during the Renaissance, to be set aside by the proponents of general grammar. But during the twentieth century, psychologists developed a view of language that was complementary to the of the linguists and pedagogues. For them, language was an aspect of behavior, and learning a type of conditioning.

The emergence of linguistics and psychology as sciences had an impact on the discussion of language teaching methods and models. Our discussion of teaching methodologies in this century can no longer be a simple presentation of the theories and approaches used to teach L2s but must change to reflect the psychological and linguistic divisions of theories of language acquisition.

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27 See H. H. Stern, *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. (Oxford: Oxford UP, 1983) 97-112, for a list of all the major scholarly works, and reports by various language commissions with dates of publications of material which influenced the development of language teaching. In addition, one may find a list of key dates of introduction of teaching methodologies.
Many would argue that in the past century attempts to solve the problem of language teaching had been approached by focusing attention almost exclusively on teaching method. Although the question of how to teach languages has been debated for over twenty-five centuries, as Kelly (1969) reminds us. Stern (1983: 452) points out that “theory development as a debate on teaching methods has evolved particularly over the last hundred years.” Many more teaching theories appear to have been proposed in recent times, with advances in our understanding of SLA having directly contributed to this. Stern (1983) concurs with this observation when he argues that it is due to the fact that teaching is being conceptualized in terms of teaching methods. A look at the various teaching methods will help to highlight their contribution to our current understanding of language teaching.

During the 1940s and 1950s psychologists were predominantly concerned with a behaviouristic mode of thinking or even neobehaviouristic while the trend in recent decades has been that of cognitive psychology. Brown (1994: 9) writes, “[t]he respective revolutions in thinking are important for the second language teacher to understand, because they highlighted contrastive ways of thinking within disciplines yet parallel approaches across disciplines.”

The division created between linguistics and psychology has had a profound effect on the development of language teaching theories. The research being conducted in the two camps in the field of L2 learning has provided a great deal of insight into the problem of how to effectively learn and also teach a foreign language. In the section that follows we will outline the major contributions to language pedagogy of the twentieth century. The methods will be presented and classified according to the three psychological theories of language learning which have had a significant effect on the development of teaching methodologies:
a) behaviouristic, b) cognitive and c) humanistic. (Those methods which are derived from humanistic theories will be discussed independently in the next chapter, given their immediate relevance to the presentation of Titone's Holodynamic Model.)

**Behaviouristic Theories**

In recent history the area of language acquisition and teaching has been affected by many innovators and our understanding of the subject matter and its modalities has increased significantly. Perhaps the greatest and most diverse theories of language acquisition, learning and teaching came forth during the sixties. Some of these language teaching theories had a long and prosperous life while others were short lived. Individuals like Skinner, Chomsky and Bloomfield dominated the field of language acquisition during this period. Behaviouristic and neobehaviouristic approach to language were quite prevalent. Brown (1980) points out that in an attempt to make linguistics a science behaviourists viewed language as a series of stimuli which provoked specific responses in the individual. This manner of viewing language was nothing more than an extension of the rationalistic approach to language teaching which had dominated history (Brown 1994). Learning was always conducted in a rote fashion where the student was expected to know the rules and create grammatically correct utterances based on this knowledge. Traditionally very little weight was given to pronunciation and communication.

Behaviouristic theories of language acquisition led to an understanding of language learning as habit formation. John B. Watson proposed Pavlovian\(^{28}\) conditioning accounted for human learning. Watson believed that through a process of conditioning we built up a series

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\(^{28}\) Pavlov is best known for his experimentation of conditioned responses in dogs. He showed that specific stimuli elicited specific responses even when only a portion of the original stimulus was presented. Dogs who had been conditioned to salivate when they heard a bell due to the fact that food was presented at the same instance that the bell rang continued to salivate even when only the bell was rung and no food was presented.
of stimulus-response connection and high-order stimulus-response connections accounted for
the immediately perceptible aspects of linguistic behavior—the publicly observable
responses—and the relationships or associations between those responses and events in the
world surrounding them. A behaviorist might consider effective language behavior to be the
production of correct responses to stimuli. If a particular response is reinforced, it then
becomes habitual, or conditioned."

The behaviorist view concentrated its conclusions on observable responses; those
which could be measured, recorded and scrutinized. It became extremely important that a
"scientific method" was adhered to so as to give the work value and credibility. These models
were typically behaviouristic and entailed operand conditioning, rote verbal learning,
instrumental learning and discrimination learning. Similar to the experiments conducted by
Pavlov on his dogs, it was believed that the organism could be conditioned to respond in a
desired way through habit formation and scheduling of reinforcement. Observations of states
of consciousness, thinking, concept formation, or acquisition of knowledge were impossible
to study in a behaviouristic framework.

Skinner in his classic, *Verbal Behavior* attempted to construct a behavioristic model
of linguistic behaviour. "Skinner's thought, particularly in *Verbal Behavior* (1957), in which
he says that any notion of 'idea' or 'meaning' is explanatory fiction, and that the speaker is
merely the locus of verbal behavior, not the cause. Charles Osgood reinstated meaning in
verbal behavior, explaining it as 'representational mediation process', but still did not depart
from a generally nonmentalistic view of language" (Brown 1994: 9-10).

It is in this century that the Direct Method becomes much more structured in its
presentation as a teaching method. In addition, the textbooks used are also very structured.
Generally the textbook was designed to preceded from the spoken language and after some
time move to introduce and enforce reading and later writing skills. This method is characterized by the use of the target language as the primary means of instruction and communication. There is a notable absence of translation and use of first language in the Direct Method class.

The Direct Method comes about as a result of the need to make a radical change in language teaching from the grammar-translation technique that was being used. The reforms which were occurring from 1850-1900, particularly in Europe, were attempting to make language teaching more affective (Stern 1983). These reforms took on various names, for example ‘natural approach’, ‘psychological method’, ‘phonetic method’, with the most pervasive being the 'direct method'. The influences of this method on theory and practice were felt for many decades after its introduction even though the method itself was no longer present in the teaching environment.

At the beginning of the twentieth century the Direct Method was generally accepted and practiced in most European countries. From country to country one would be able to identify minor modification to the method as it was first outlined. The method was not introduced in the United States until a brief description of it appeared in the Report of the Committee of Twelve. This committee had been appointed in 1892 by the Modern Language Association of America to advise on curriculum and language teaching methods. The committee saw no primary importance in the learner's ability to converse but argued that it was far more important for the learner to have a reading knowledge of a foreign language so as to permit learners to translate on sight or read the language. Textbooks which were developed between 1900 and 1914 offered better grammar-translation work preparing students to read many authors in the original. The committee outlined what has come to be
identified as the Grammar-Translation Method. This Method was composed of teaching grammar, translating prose, and practice in hearing and pronouncing foreign words. Its aim did not include teaching the learner to converse in the foreign language.

Another significant contribution during this period was the work by Maximilian Berlitz (1852-1921), who offered conversation skills in the foreign language. This method too comes under the umbrella of 'direct method'. During this time the demand for spoken language was great, causing an incredible growth and expansion of the Berlitz school to include various countries.29 The Berlitz Method was similar to the Direct Method in that it used nothing other than the foreign language in the class. Instruction was in the target language from the very beginning, while the material that was presented was in the form of phrases and vocabulary of everyday use to individuals or groups of no more than 10 students. The material used was meaningful to the learner - abstract or artificial, irrelevant topics were not considered. The teachers were native speakers of the language. The main principles of the Berlitz Method are that there should be a direct association of the foreign language with the student's thoughts, i.e. the student should be thinking in the target language, not translating thoughts from his/her native tongue to target language and the target language was to be used at all times without ever using the student’s native language. Reading and writing were introduced once the learner had a clear grasp of the spoken language.

It was not until the Second World War that a new energy was channeled into the field of language teaching, in the United States. With the war there was the need to teach foreign languages, in a brief period of time, to soldiers who were going overseas. To train fluent speakers the American Army with the assistance of universities established its own schools under the Army Special Training Program, which was referred to as ASTP.

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29 The first Berlitz school opened in Providence, Rhode Island in 1878.
The program was intensive; divided into six basic steps: imitation, repetition, translation, rotation, discontinuous repetition and dialogue practice, whose aim was language fluency, using many different methods and techniques to achieve this. The course entailed maximum contact with the L2, little reading and writing and only the essentials when it came to grammatical structures. The small class which met frequently were drilled by a native speaker and given opportunity to imitate speech. The course was supplemented by pictures, charts, tapes, discs, and film strips.

The results from this method of teaching were very impressive, so much so that it was believed this was the answer to successful L2 teaching. The developers of the Method approached other fields of study to help in the task; both linguists and anthropologists who had learned exotic languages were consulted. Some of the scholars approached were Franz Boas whose contribution was his belief in accurate imitation of native speaker conversation. Sapir and Bloomfield who had "already pointed out that pseudo-grammatical doctrine and puzzle-solving translation had been largely responsible for the failure of the schools to give even a small percentage of the population a working knowledge of a second language." (Mackey 1965: 149-50). Given the positive results of these war-time classrooms the Method was continued even after the war, yet it was found to be less successful, because classes were much larger, motivation was not the same or as urgent, and the time and dedication required was far too much (too intense).

The Audiovisual Method, developed in the fifties in France at the Centre du Receherche et d'Etude pour la Diffusion du Français (CREDIF), makes use of visual aids for language teaching. The use of visual aids in language teaching dates back to Comenius and regained rigor at the end of the nineteenth century. It was not until the end of the Second World War that technological aids had an impact on language teaching. The introduction of slides, motion pictures, television replaced charts and printed illustration and the use of
phonographs and tape recordings to reinforce and reproduce native speaker pronunciation. These techniques were used to involve the student in meaningful utterances and contexts.

This Method encouraged teaching oral and aural skills before reading and writing skills due to the fact that it is based on the belief that language is learned through communication. Like many methods that came before it, it did not make use of the mother tongue in the language class and maintained that the use of translation can be avoided if the new language items are presented in context. In the classroom, drills were used to teach basic grammar and vocabulary and recorded items and filmstrips are used to present language items. Titone (1968: 108) does not regard this as a true method and argues that, “[w]hat ought to be stressed, however, from a methodological standpoint, is that audiovisual techniques cannot alone constitute a ‘method’ but only a subsidiary part of any method which aims at teaching the spoken language. There is also the danger that, by relying solely on the machine, the learner may take on a rather passive attitude (listening, watching, and nothing more) thus jeopardizing the integrity of the goal of language learning – the ability to communicate actively in the foreign language, not just receive messages passively.”

The Audio-lingual (aural-oral) Method was introduced in the 1960s and reflects the descriptive, structural and contrastive linguistics of the 1950s and 1960s. It can also be defined as behaviouristic in nature. Unlike the methods mentioned above which had been largely developed in Europe the Audio-lingual Method has its origins in the United States, though its influence was felt in Europe as well. Its distinctive characteristics can be identified as follows: 1. skills are separated – listening, speaking, reading and writing, with most of the emphasis placed on audio-lingual skills above graphic skills; 2. language is presented through the use of dialogues; 3. skills are practiced using mimicry, memorization, and pattern drills; 4. use of the language lab; 5. teaching method based on a linguistic and psychological theory. The method was short lived, from about 1959-66. Some observers (Stern 1983) stated that
the Audiolingual Method had its origins in the ‘Army Method’. One important aspect of this method was that it stated that it derived from linguistics and psychology, in so doing it asserted the placement of language teaching on a scientific foundation. The method "endeavored to show that the principles derived from the scientific disciplines could be applied in concrete and usable form in language teaching materials and day-to-day practice" (Stern 1983: 463). A prolonged and heated debate surrounding the validity of the Audiolingual Method was established from the outset.

The theory behind the Method is the Aural-oral Approach to language teaching which maintains that speaking and listening are the most basic language skills; that each language had its own unique structure and rule system; and that a language is learned through habit formation (ideas integrate notions proposed by both structural linguistics and behaviourism). The emphasis of this method was on listening and speaking skills and like the Direct Method tried to develop language skills without reference to native language. It made use of dialogues and drills and discouraged the use of mother tongue in the classroom. This approach placed the emphasis on vocabulary and structure of language; in so doing the method ignored the manner in which the language was structured and used by native speakers.

The Method had tremendous impact on the methodology of foreign language teaching and Stern (1983) outlines its contributions as follows:
1. first to recommend a language teaching theory on linguistic and psychological principles;
2. tries to make it accessible to large groups of ordinary learners - proposed that language class should be set up in a manner as to not demand abstract reasoning to learn a language;
3. emphasis on syntactic progression;
4. led to development of simple techniques without translation, of varied grade, and intensive practice of specific features of the language; and
5. separated language skills – developed specially designed techniques for auditory and oral practice where before it was simple textbook exercises read aloud.

In recent years it has been agreed that SLL is more than just rule memorization; it is learning to express communicative needs. "The details of this new conceptualization of what language learning is about has resulted in methodologies that emphasize communication. In other words, pedagogical decision making must reflect what is known about the process of learning, which is the domain of second language acquisition." (Gass & Selinker 1994: 3). In addition to learning the mechanisms of the language it is imperative, in order to avoid a breakdown in communication, that the learner also be familiar with the cultural aspects of the language as well as the conceptual domains and modes of expression of the target group (this topic will be explored fully in Chapter 3).

Cognitive Theories
In contrast to behaviourism, which maintained that behaviour can be observed and studied directly, cognitive psychology\(^3\) believed that there existed an aspect of human behaviour which could not be observed directly. This included skills or abilities such as thinking, organization of knowledge, memory, conceptualization, etc. Cognitivists viewed meaning, understanding and knowing as significant and unlike behaviourists did not perceive language learning as acquiring a set of habits through conditioning. It does not focus on mechanical stimulus response connections but rather attempted to discover psychological principles of functioning and organization. Titone and Danesi (1985: 57) write: "Cognition is a general term that designates the various modes of knowing: reasoning, remembering, forgetting, recognizing, perceiving, conceptualizing, imagining, etc. The study of cognition involves,

\(^3\) Jean Piaget, and Bruner cognitive psychologists, put forth very influential cognitive theories of learning.
therefore, such areas as information processing, perception, storage, and retrieval.” Thoughts, ideas, and images are viewed by cognitive theorists as the basic units of learning. David Ausubel (1965: 4) noted: “[f]rom the standpoint of cognitive theorists, the attempt to ignore conscious states or to reduce cognition to mediational processes reflective of implicit behavior not only removes from the field of psychology what is most worth studying but also dangerously oversimplifies highly complex psychological phenomena.” Brown points (1994: 11) that by using a rationalistic approach rather that empirical approach cognitive psychologists have tried to understand the underlying motivations and complex structures of human behaviour.

Cognitivists expounded the importance of meaningful and contextualized exercises which had to reflect a natural, true to life development and advocated the abandonment of translation as the main method of teaching. Titone and Danesi (1985: 58-59) write, “[m]eaningful learning is the process of relating new material to the relevant schemata or areas of cognitive structures. As new material enters the cognitive field, it interacts with existing schemata. Rote learning, on the other hand, involves the mental storage of items without connecting them to existing cognitive structures.” The generally held view was that rote learning techniques like repetition and imitation, play only a small role in language learning and teaching according to cognitive learning theory. It also believed that the use of grammatical explanation can be counterproductive to the learning process unless it is made meaningful. Danesi (1998: 30) argues, “[...] i cognitivisti confondevano spesso la descrizione della grammatica della L2 con il suo insegnamento. È questo il motivo per cui, nell’opinione di chi scrive, l’approccio cognitivo non ha mai goduto di grande popolarità tra gli insegnanti di lingua.”

The most familiar translation of this philosophy to a teaching practice is seen in the Cognitive-Code Approach which varies little from Grammar-Translation. Both approaches
share the common belief that knowledge of the rules should precede language use. Porcelli (1994: 53) points out that, "troviamo però una distinzione tra esercizi di tipo meccanicistico o drills, miranti alla fissazione delle strutture, e esercizes più aperti e creativi, che tendono a ricreare situazioni significative."

*Communicative Approaches* – Presented in the 1970s this approach has had a profound influence on the manner in which L2 teaching is now viewed and conducted. The goal of a communicative approach to language learning and teaching is to emphasize, develop and enforce communicative competence. It was developed, primarily, by British applied linguists as a movement away from grammar-based approaches such as the aural-oral. The teaching process attempts to provide the learner with the necessary skills needed to express and understand different types of functions, such as requesting, describing, expressing likes and dislikes, etc. Communicative Approaches are based on a notional syllabus or some other communicatively organized syllabus in which the emphasis is placed on the communication process. For example: using language appropriately in different types of situations; using language to perform different kinds of tasks, e.g. to solve puzzles, to get information, etc. using language for social interaction with other people.

### 1.7 Discussion

A quick glance at the development of language teaching methods demonstrates that the trends have from the beginning of time been subjected to a pendulum-like evolution, swing from one extreme of the methodological spectrum to the other, always reproposed under a different name. In Ancient and Medieval times we find an active oral use of Latin followed by rote or rule learning teaching techniques of the Renaissance. The teaching
methodology returned to oral activities with Comenius in the seventeenth century, followed by a move to grammar with Plötz, to the centrality of speech in the Direct Method.

In Antiquity, Greek functioned as both a classical and modern language and was taught for a wide variety of functions from communication, to transmission of literary and philosophical thought. It is during this period that a balance was attained between the need and use of the foreign language in the home and society, and the scholarly and administrative needs of bilingual Rome in the Greek communities.

The Classical period, the Renaissance and the Modern periods share the common aim of communication, while the Middle Ages and the Age of Reason focus on analysis above all else. During the Renaissance the dichotomy between ancient and modern languages begins to emerge. On a social level it was unthinkable that an educated man could not speak Latin while from a political and scholarly perspective the classical model remained the template for the reformation of Europe. Modern languages began to establish a literary history and were being primarily used for social purposes. Since, their literary value was not considered great, therefore they were not studied. As the modern languages began to gain more ground and importance in the world of finance, the necessity to communicate with individuals from various countries placed a greater demand on the need to develop speech skills in foreign languages. It is during the modern period that languages asserted themselves as social tools bringing about an increase in the need to learn foreign languages, and the development of our current understanding of L2 learning.

A parallelism may be drawn between the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and Middle Ages in terms of language teaching. The emphasis in the language class was on grammatical rules and translation, though one cannot state that the spoken aspect of the language was totally ignored. Written and analytical language skills predominated during these periods while communicative skills were not totally ignored.
During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the notion that a foreign language should be introduced and learned as one would his/her native language was developed. This particular position on language teaching re-emerges in modern times in the guise of the Direct Method, the Natural Approach, and in present day views of immersion programs. While the introduction by Comenius of new methods of language teaching based on imitation, repetition, and practice in both reading and speaking may still be felt in current L2 classrooms. This particular era also reintroduced the importance of experiencing a new language in all its many facets, and emphasized the need to develop communicative abilities in the language learner. The use of translation during the seventeenth century to teach foreign languages brought about, by the eighteenth century a return to a more deductive manner of teaching, a regression, if we may so define it, to a teaching methodology which dealt with language as a mechanical device devoid the life and vigour. As a result accuracy became once again important and fluency was not a goal.

The nineteenth century establishes itself as a reaction to the rule governed approach to teaching of the previous century. The twentieth century sees the birth of a great number of L2 learning philosophies and teaching methods. While the field of language acquisition and teaching was being molded by the likes of Bloomfield, Skinner and Chomsky (contribution of behaviouristic and cognitive psychology to language learning), scholars and non-scholars alike, people such as Terrell, Lozanov, Gattegno, and Curran, were at work re-establishing a discussion of L2 learning from a “whole person” perspective. These individuals are considered major contributors to what has been very often referred to as humanistic education (many of the thoughts and theories of this approach to teaching are reminiscent of the views held by such seventeenth century figures as Guarini and St. Ignatius). The fundamental belief of modern humanistic theorists, which will be developed in the following chapter, is that language learning cannot occur in isolation from the individual’s past
experiences, knowledge and more specifically emotive factors. All these factors affect and contribute to the learning process. One such humanistic theory is Renzo Titone’s Holodynamic Model for Language Learning and Language Behaviour (HDM), first proposed in the late 1960s. In the chapter which follows I will continue my discussion of modern day vision of humanistic education. This will be followed by a detailed discussion and analysis of Titone’s HDM and the contributions this proposal for language learning can make to L2 teaching. I will offer the HDM as a template for teaching methods and consider its implications and applications for the L2 classroom.
Chapter II
Discussion of Humanistic Education and Second Language Teaching Methods

2.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter I focussed on presenting a historical overview of second language (L2) teaching methods identifying the major contributions to our understanding of language teaching and arguing that the field of language teaching has been constantly moving from one extreme of the spectrum to the other with researchers and teachers not acknowledging earlier methods and at times discovering the wheel over and over again. It was demonstrated in the previous chapter that the tradition of humanistic education, which we will consider here, may be traced back to antiquity, experiencing a re-birth and solidification of its position during the Age of Reason.

In this chapter I will focus my attention on identifying and discussing humanistic education. I will attempt to outline its historical evolution as well as its psychological foundations and discuss how the latter translates into teaching theories by examining five teaching methods which are considered to be humanistic in nature. Finally I will argue that humanistic theories of language acquisition offer the most solid foundation upon which to build an integrated methodology of L2 teaching. This notion will be expanded further in Chapter 4 as part of a discussion of how the Holdynamic Model (HDM) for language behaviour and language learning may be translated into a teaching method.
2.0 Understanding Humanistic Education

The notion of "humanism" dates back to the early Greeks who presented the idea of the human being and set out principles for his behaviour as an individual and in a group. In their writings Ancient philosophers set out the norms for civilized living: moral, political and civil behaviour. As a result, when, during the Renaissance these writers were rediscovered humanism became an inevitable part of teaching Greek and Latin. During this period the intellectual revolt against medievalism due to the rediscovery of the classical text had a profound impact on the view and education of Renaissance man. Patterson (1973: 35) states that during the Renaissance, "Humanism was an attempt to reverse the professional and clerical emphasis of education in the middle ages – education of doctors, lawyers, merchants, philosophers and theologians – and to emphasize the education of citizens, or rulers, to make men virtuous and learned." Renaissance humanist educators like Guarino, in developing their pedagogical theories, used these ancient philosophies of humanism to elaborate their views. The student was seen as central to the learning experience and educators were concerned with making the learning experience pleasant. In so doing they believed this would enhance the learning process. In addition, it was of primary importance to educators to impart to the learner the skill necessary to express himself/herself in the target language effectively and eloquently and to assist in the development of a morally, civically, and politically responsible individual.

Figures such as Erasmus, Aquinas, Comenius, Locke and Rousseau were all influenced by Aristotle, whose educational goal was to develop man's highest capacities. The educational

1 The term "humanist" was coined towards the end of the fifteenth century to refer to a group of educators or teachers who were concerned with literature, the liberal arts, or the humanities, see C. H. Patterson, Humanistic Education (New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1973), 35.
theories set out by Locke, Rousseau and Pestalozzi established the foundation for humanistic education. Patterson (1973: 44) argues that, "the basic and essential principles of humanistic education were thus clearly enunciated some 200 years ago. They may be stated simply as 1. the purpose of education is to develop the potentials – all the potentials – of man as a whole; 2. the essential method for achieving this is the providing of good human relationship between the teacher and the student – or, as Pestalozzi put it, a 'love role'." From the historical overview of the previous chapter we note that humanism continued to dominate education until the nineteenth century, this particular notion of the function of language is picked up once again in the latter part of this century with modern humanistic and communicative approaches to language teaching.

The field of "humanistic education" has attracted growing attention among educators, academics, researchers, and general public.² In the last three decades some linguists have developed language teaching methodologies which by their nature have been defined as "humanistic." Lieberman (1979) in his article "Humanism in learning foreign languages" presents some very interesting reflections on the matter of humanistic education. According to him a humanistic approach to education is one which highlights the most profound human aspects of the individual. From this point of view education may be "humanistic" since it appeals to the rational and linguistic nature of man. Lieberman further argues that humanism in education is also reflected by the fact that it permits different cultures to be compared and contrasted.

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Moskowitz’s (1978) book *Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Class: A Sourcebook on Humanistic Techniques* discusses the affective dynamics of the person which are involved in the teaching and learning of a L2 and which according to her are the foundation of humanistic education. In her book she draws on 15 years of experience to present humanistic exercises, “[that] attempt to blend what the student feels, thinks and knows with what he is learning in the target language” (Moskowitz 1978: 2). She identifies that the primary contribution of such work is to bring out the best in the L2 student, to build self-actualization and self-esteem, in addition such humanistic communication activities are “to develop positive thinking, to increase self-understanding, to build greater closeness among students, and to discover the strengths and goodness in oneself and one’s classmates” (Moskowitz 1982: 20).³ She highlights the role these motivating and interesting exercises play in encouraging the student to express himself/herself in the target language in a meaningful way and argues that there is nothing more important or meaningful to the individual than to discuss oneself.⁴ The notions of the individual

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³ The author argues that it is through sharing memories, experiences, feelings, wishes, values, etc. and the positive feedback that is generated in such instances that demonstrates that “people of all cultures do have the same basic psychological needs: the need to have close relations with others, the need to be listened to attentively, the need to know and understand themselves better and the need to feel more positive in their outlook on life” (Moskowitz 1982: 20-21). This position according to the author holds true not only for students but also for the instructors, who can learn more about himself/herself by integrating humanistic activities into the language class.

⁴ Moskowitz discusses the importance of meaningful communication yet her notion of such communication is not at all similar to Krashen’s notion of meaningful communication. Moskowitz tends to emphasize tasks and exercises which focus on the individual learning more about himself/herself. This is accomplished through various tasks which require the student to express his/her feelings and opinions on various topics. Krashen’s notion of meaningful is far more all-encompassing. The exercises he suggests not only develop the student’s self-awareness but also incorporate items of personal interest and are culturally significant.
as expressed by Moskowitz (1978, 1982) can be traced back to the humanistic psychological theories of Rogers and can be seen in practice in Curran’s Community Language Learning Theory.⁵

Hence, we have two different interpretations of humanistic education. Lieberman’s interpretation is a much more traditional or historical view of the subject while Moskowitz’s position reflects a psychological view. Cantoni (1997) expands on this observation when he writes:

Se l’orizzonte culturale in cui si muove la proposta di Lieberman era dell’Umanesimo storico, e il suo referimento all’antichità classica, l’attenzione a una glottodidattica unamistica si è perlopiù mossa mutuando la qualificazione di “umanistica” piuttosto in riferimento agli sviluppi della psicologia nordamericana, e alla nascita di una psicologia “umanistica”, orientamento peraltro non casuale, se si pone mente alla cronologia delle opere di Ch. A. Curran, che proprio dalla psicologia umanistica di C. R. Rogers aveva presso le mosse per la definizione della sua proposta glottodidattica.

It is the latter view, the humanistic psychology of Carl Rogers, which has come to be the accepted foundation for the area of humanistic education.⁶

A further interpretation of humanism should be considered before preceding to an exposition of what attributes define humanistic education; that defined by Earl Stevick. Stevick

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⁵ Carl Rogers (1951, 1961) presented a client-centred psychology in which the personality of the individual must be considered. According to him the individual is motivated by a need for self-actualization. He argues that all people have a desire to realize their potential and that this occurs best in an atmosphere of comfort, warmth and acceptance by others and oneself. In his therapy he focuses on the individual and helps him/her to eliminate all obstacles which impede self-actualization and encourage him/her to express his/her feelings. Charles Curran adopts Rogers’ philosophies and integrates them into his Community Language Learning method of L2 learning and teaching.

⁶ Titone and Danesi (1985) argue that there exists a duel meaning for the term “humanistic” as it is used in the area of language teaching. The first meaning of the term is attributed to the interpersonal and student-centred approaches which were developed in the late 1970s. The second meaning of the term refers to the methodologies presented in the 1980s, which are of a integrated or ‘eclectic’ nature.
(1976, 1980, 1982, 1990, 1996) expresses his discomfort with the use of the term humanistic in much of his work, in fact, he proposes that one speak of realism instead of humanism, he writes:

I've never been comfortable with the term 'humanistic' as it has been used in our field of late, and that for two reasons. The first is a cognitive reason: I don’t know what it means. Secondly, ‘humanism’ is a word which carries with it a great deal of emotion, at least for some people. So I have seldom if ever used it without inverted commas - a way of trying to insulate myself from it, I suppose. (Stevick 1982: 7).

But if I reject this concept as wearying and unprofitable I have the obligation (or at least the option) of coming up with a successor to it. My nominee is ‘realism’. (Stevick 1982: 9)

He goes further still in his 1982 article to present the three tenets of what he defines as:

"Stevick’s New Realism":

**Tenet 1:** everything that the assorted ‘humanists’ have said is pretty much right, and worth paying attention to. (The same is true, needless to say, of the findings of those researchers who have not worn the ‘humanistic’ badge) It does make a difference if we build (or if we don’t build) our courses in relation to the purposes of our students. There are many workable (as well as many unworkable) configurations of power in the classroom, and our choice among them does make a difference. The brain does work in ways past our present knowledge, there are important differences among individuals with regard to learning styles, the emotional component of the language study experience is terribly important, and so on.

**Tenet 2:** all other factors mentioned in Tenet 1 [...] interact. [...]  

**Tenet 3:** our situation is therefore essentially hopeless.  

It is, at least, if we are looking for clear answers about which techniques and which material to use – and even if we are looking only for rules how to choose among alternative techniques and materials and power distribution. [...] All three of these tenets are essential to the New Realism. Without the first, we could be back in the Old Realism. Without the second, we ought all to get together and raise a methodological Tower of Babel. Without the third, we will be blinded by local successes and by local failures. (Stevick 1982: 9-10)
On the suggestion of Alan Maley and Christopher Brumfit, both critics of humanistic teaching techniques, Stevick (1990) uses the critical stance of the philosopher Karl Popper to evaluate humanistic approaches. In his 1990 book *Humanism in Language Teaching* Stevick appears to no longer build on the ideas presented in the 1982 article, in fact he appears to accept the term ‘humanism’ and the tenants of humanism in the following manner:

(H1) *Feelings,* including both personal emotions and aesthetic appreciation. This aspect of humanism tends to reject whatever makes people feel bad, or whatever destroys or forbids aesthetic enjoyment.

(H2) *Social relations.* This side of humanism encourages friendship and cooperation, and opposes whatever tends to reduce them.

(H3) *Responsibility.* This aspect accepts the need for public scrutiny, criticism, and correction, and disapproves of whoever or whatever denies their importance.

(H4) *Intellect,* including knowledge, reason, and understanding. This aspect fights against whatever interferes with the free exercise of the mind, and is suspicious of anything that cannot be tested intellectually.

(H5) *Self-actualization,* the quest for realization of one’s own deepest true qualities. This aspect believes that since conformity leads to enslavement, the pursuit of uniqueness brings about liberation. (Stevick 1990: 23-24).

Richards and Rodgers (1986: 114) maintain that "[i]n sum, humanistic techniques engage the whole person, including the emotions and feelings (the affective realm) as well as linguistic knowledge and behavioral skills." Such a general all encompassing definition leaves the field of humanistic education open to the inclusion of behaviouristic and cognitive techniques, (though as we will discover in our analysis of humanistic teaching methods few of them make

7 It is interesting to note that in this book Stevick includes a discussion on Community Language Learning and the Silent Way; all other humanistic methods which had been discussed in his earlier books (1976, 1980) are absent. The most significant absence is that of Suggestopedia. It seems he includes only those methods which present a clear philosophical foundation or link to humanistic psychology (there exists a link to the humanistic psychology of Rogers and Maslow in the work of Curran and Gattegno).
use of an integrated approach to teaching). Moskowitz (1978: 18) outlines some of the key premises underlying humanistic education as follows:

1. A principal purpose of education is to provide learning and an environment that facilitate the achievement of the full potential of the student.

2. Personal growth as well as cognitive growth is a responsibility of the school. Therefore education should deal with both dimensions of humans – the cognitive or intellectual and the affective or emotional.

3. For learning to be significant, feelings must be recognized and put to use.

4. Significant learning is discovered for oneself.

5. Human beings want to actualize their potential.

6. Having healthy relationships with other classmates is more conducive to learning.

7. Learning more about oneself is a motivating factor in learning.

8. Increasing one's self-esteem enhances learning.

Though the guidelines set out by the two authors are from different perspectives the emphasis on emotion, the individual intellectual discovery, and a healthy relationship with others remains a key element of humanistic considerations.

The interpersonal or student-centred aspect of humanistic education, which appeared in the 1970s, is perhaps the most commonly known form, based, to some extent, on the client-centred psychology of Carl Rogers (1951, 1961, 1983). Rogers, who is not typically considered a "learning" psychologist, has had a significant impact on our understanding of learning within an educational context, proposed that the personality of the individual plays an important role in the language learning and teaching process. His view of humanistic psychology has an
affective focus as opposed to a more cognitive view held by most psychologists. Brown (1994: 85) writes that “Rogers studied the ‘whole-person’ as a physical and cognitive, but primarily emotional, being.” His belief is that the individual strives for self-actualization and to enhance his/her existence, and given a non threatening environment an individual will grow and learn.

These thoughts on the individual expressed by Rogers have implications for the student as well as the instructor. Fundamentally the focus in such instances is away from teaching and towards learning, the student is empowered with his/her own learning while the teacher in such situations functions as a facilitator. The instructor, as we will discover in our discussion of humanistic methods, must create an atmosphere of trust and acceptance, establishing an interpersonal relationship with the learner, communicating openly and empathically, encouraging the student to do likewise. In addition, it is the function of the instructor to make the student feel as a worthy, valuable individual.

Titone shares many of Rogers’ beliefs concerning the individual and in particular constructs his HDM on Maslow (1986), Allport (1965) and Nuttin (1967) humanistic psychology that places the emphasis on the importance of the personality and not a view of the person as a type. As Pinto and Danesi (1993: 15) point out, “[u]nlike most of contemporary educational psychology, with its technical, complex, and abstract modes of inquiry, the approach of Titone

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8 The instructor’s role as facilitator must be closely considered because as Titone and Danesi (1985: 60) argue: “[c]learly, the creation of a personal and congenial learning environment is a desirable thing. But the lack of explicit, or formal, learning-teaching procedures could lead to a lack of direction and eventually frustration. Some educators have suggested that interpersonal techniques be integrated with cognitive ones, especially at the beginning of the learning process. [...] the interpersonal approach in language teaching, when put into a broader perspective, can be conducive to successful language learning.”
has never lost sight of the intrinsic worth of the individual, of how cognitive processes and behavioural mechanisms are ultimately tied to a spiritual reality that gives meaning and worth to human existence."

The focus of humanistic approaches is predominantly affective and does not consider either cognitive nor behaviouristic elements of language learning, though these two factors may be integrated into the actual language teaching. According to Rogers, all human activity is motivated by a need for self-actualization and not from instinct. Therefore, unlike behaviourists who believed that human behaviour is due to a response to stimuli or more specifically that language learning is a matter of habit formation, humanists view the learning process as a reflection of the individual's personality. Moskowitz develops her humanistic activities along the parameters of the personality/individual set out by Rogers. She too believes that an instructor must remove the obstacles for self actualization and focus on feelings, emotions and attitudes. According to Rogers one may facilitate the learning process by establishing an interpersonal relationship with the learner, in so doing as Curran demonstrates in his Community Language Learning the student is more apt to attempt to communicate in the target language. Variables like motivation, desire to please the instructor for whom the student has developed a respect and 'bond' all play a role in the student's attitude towards the language, the course and ultimately has a positive result on his/her success. The other item to consider is that in treating the student as a "worthy" individual and treating him or her as an equal diminishes the sense of inadequacy which most learners face when initially learning a new language. The learner, particularly adult learner, move from his/her world in which he/she is a responsible professional to an environment in which he/she is an "infants" – in the early stages of learning the student lacks the vocabulary
and the sophistication to express themselves in the target language in the same manner as they would their mother tongue. The role of motivation, for example, should not be underestimated. Rogers, Curran, Moskowitz and others are the predecessors to what Krashen (1982a, 1982b), in his theory of language acquisition, identified and elaborates into the affective filter.

During the 1980s another view of humanism developed from the integrated or eclectic methodologies which were introduced during this period (Titone & Danesi 1985). This tendencies according to Titone and Danesi had at least one beneficial effect which was to instill more flexibility in language teaching methodology, they note that, “[s]ome language learning tasks may require a behaviouristic approach (e.g. articulation); others, a more cognitive one (e.g. word order); still others may require an interpersonal approach (e.g. free speech exercises)” (Titone & Danesi 1985: 60).

With its background in the interpersonal theories of Carl Rogers, personality theories of Maslow and Allport and its attempt at integrating behaviouristic, cognitive and humanistic (affective) theories Titone's work, in the HDM, represents a truly humanistic approach to viewing language learning and teaching. It incorporates into its discussion both the psychological elaboration of humanistic education as it was presented during the 1970s (i.e. student-centred), as well as, a theory which comfortably integrates elements of behavioural and cognitive psychology (i.e. eclectic). The potential to integrate humanistic, behaviouristic and cognitive theories of language learning provide the HDM with a much more flexible view of language learning which ultimately translates into a much more complete teaching methodology. These elements make the HDM a valuable tool for an instructor to take into the language class. This idea will be discussed in greater depth in the chapters which follow.
The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of Language lists the following methods as being humanistic approaches to L2 teaching: Suggestopedia (Georgi Lozanov), The Silent Way (Caleb Gattegno), Community Language Learning (Charles A. Curran), Natural Approach (Tracy D. Terrell), Language from Within (Beverly Galyean), Delayed Oral Practice (Valerian A. Postovsky), and Total Physical Response (James J. Asher). A similar list to the one found in the Cambridge Encyclopaedia is provided by Gianfranco Porcelli (1994), who excludes Beverly Galyean and Valerian A. Postovsky, while including as a humanistic method Robert J. Di Pietro's Strategic Interaction.\(^9\) Freddi concurs with Porcelli in his list of humanistic methods though he does not include Di Pietro.\(^10\) Other authors (Rivers 1983; Roberts 1982a, 1982b; Stern 1983; and Stevick 1990) restrict their definition of humanistic approaches to include only: The Silent Way, Community Language Learning and Suggestopedia.

Titone and Danesi, in *Applied Psycholinguistics* (1985) present only four affective based methods, these are: the Total Physical Response, the Natural Approach, Community Language Learning and Suggestopedia. The Silent Way is not found in their discussion. While Balboni (1985: 57) expresses a specific interest in the Silent Way:

\[\text{Nella letteratura glottodidattica americana Gattegno è citato sempre assieme ad Asher, Curran e Lozanov nella sezione current trends. Ci pare tuttavia che tra il metodologo Gattegno e i tre psicologi approdati tardivamente alla didattica, ci siano più differenze che affinità. In Gattegno si rileva consuetudine con i temi della glottodidattica, anche se egli dichiara sprezzantemente di ignorare la}\]


In her book *Communicating Naturally in a Second Language* Rivers dedicates a chapter to three of the methods which have been identified as "humanistic" in their approach; though she does not label Community Language Learning, the Silent Way or Suggestopedia as humanistic, she does highlight the fundamental *student-centered* characteristic of these methodologies.\(^{11}\) Stern (1983) concurs with Rivers in her evaluation of the three methods and argues that though these methods represent an exception to the general trends of the 1970s and 1980s which reacted against the 'method concept', they seem to integrate well with the general philosophy of the time which was that of addressing the student as a person.\(^{12}\) In an article published in *Language*:

> The three approaches we are discussing [Counseling Learning/Community Language Learning, Silent Way, Suggestopedia] all fit into this new method of view language learning and teaching which emphasizes the individual and personal learning strategies. Each method "tries to give the student room and time to learn with as little intrusion of the teacher into the learning process as possible." (Rivers 1983: 82)

> The developments of the decade of 1970-1980 can be interpreted as various reactions against the 'method concept' as the central issue in L2 learning. The four trends we will consider below can be explained that way. In spite of the strong reaction against methods, however, and rather surprisingly, several new methods have aroused interest among teachers and the general public. The Silent Way, a language teaching method developed by Gattegno in the sixties, received more recognition in the seventies than before. Community Language Learning, a method also developed in the early sixties by Curran, found an equally receptive response in the seventies. Lastly, language learning by Suggestopedia, a system developed by a Bulgarian psychiatrist, Lozanov, was widely discussed. Various experimental programmes, for example, in the Canadian Public Service, gave the suggestopedia method a great deal of public attention and publicity in the newspapers and magazines under such sensational titles as 'superlearning'.

> The sudden interest in these different methods was unexpected in that it ran counter to the break with the method concept manifested in the other developments of the decade. [...]  

### 3. Human relations and individualisation in the language class

Another reaction to the inconclusive teaching method debate of the sixties was to focus more on the learner as an individual and as a person. In the U.S.A. the concern about declining enrolments and the general unrest among student populations in many western countries between 1968 and 1972 prompted experiments with individualization of instruction as a way of language teaching. Others, reacting against the mechanical and 'cold' drill techniques of language training of the previous era, attempted to sensitize teachers to human values and human relations in the language class, and to create an awareness of the hidden curriculum of the social and affective climate created by the interaction among students and between students and the teachers. This interest in human relations explains why, during this period language learning systems, which more or less deliberately manipulate this teacher-learner relationship, aroused such widespread interest, particularly in North America: Gattegno's Silent Way, Curran's Community Language Learning, and Lozanov's Suggestopedia." (Stern 1983: 109-110).
Teaching, a bibliographical journal of the University of Cambridge, Roberts (1982a, 1982b) identifies the three methods as being the most representative of a ‘humanistic/psychological’ or ‘whole-self-engagement’ approach. The author writes:

Nevertheless, there is plainly much to be said in favour of any trend towards removing the debilitating effect of anxiety from learning, and if students are to communicate their own meanings in the TL [Target Language] rather than parrot what the teacher or the material’s writer prescribes for them, then it seems evident enough that they will do this best if they feel secure and accepted in the presence of the teacher and of other learners. It is to be hoped that these remarks do not appear to trivialize the issue greatly. There seems to be little future in any of the three methods described in mass-learning settings such as school, if only for economic reasons; yet this does not mean that some of the principles of Gattegno, Curran and Lozanov cannot be incorporated into ‘mainstream’ LT. (Roberts 1982a: 103)

Robert’s conclusion, which is similar to Rivers’ and not too different from Stern’s, suggests an affinity between the humanistic approach and a communicative one. He further argues that the difference between the two approaches is not due to different points of view on the same topic but due to different development, as the author outlines:

The latter two approaches are theoretically very much alive, the ‘communicative approach’ (in the British tradition) being based in linguistics but being essentially eclectic when it comes to methods, and the ‘humanistic/psychological approach’ being founded on psychological and, in a broad sense, educational [...] ideas. While these two approaches have developed in different circumstances, perhaps in response to somewhat different needs, and while, at present, it is very noticeable that bibliographies produced by those identifying with the one approach barely cite anything written by those representative of the other [...], only the most radical would see them as antagonistic and immutably uncombinable; the less radical would see them as different loci of immediate interests, which may yet merge. (Roberts 1982a: 104)

Porcelli (1994) too, notes an affinity between humanistic and communicative approaches; he argues that the two may be integrated, as opposed to humanistic methods being an alternative to the communicative approaches.
L’approccio comunicativo nelle sue diverse forme si presenta nei primi anni ‘90 come l’asse portante della didattica delle lingue moderne, soprattutto in Europa. In questo quadro, gli approcci affettivi o umanistici si configurano, a nostro avviso, come proposte parzialmente integrative, più che alternative rispetto all’approccio comunicativo. L’interesse che in Italia si sta sviluppando nei loro confronti trae origine dalla ricerca di un superamento non del comunicativismo ma di alcune difficoltà di apprendimento riscontrate nella glottodidattica. Si avverte il bisogno di minimizzare le resistenze di carattere psicoaffettivo che i discenti oppongono in modo palese o occulto. Tra i fattori che incidono negativamente ricordiamo:

1) la percezione negativa di sé in rapporto alle attitudini: «non ho ’orecchio’ per le lingue»; «non mi entrano in testa i vocaboli»...;
2) un rapporto competitivo (invece di un rapporto solidae e amichevole) con il gruppo-classe e il timore, particolarmente vivo negli adolescenti e negli adulti, di ‘perdere la faccia’ commettendo errori;
3) problemi nei rapporti con il docente: l’insegnante antipatico, temuto e/o non stimato (sul piano professionale ma anche a livello personale) è il peggiore diaframma tra l’allievo e l’acquisizione di una lingua; gli atteggiamenti di eccessiva severità conducono spesso a successi solo apparenti e non duraturi. (Porcelli 1994b: 129-30).

Rivers maintains that the emphasis on student-centeredness in humanistic methods reflects a general shift occurring in the research being conducted in the field of language teaching. She argues that during the Grammar-Translation period the emphasis was on “why teach a modern language?” Attempts were made during the period dominated by the audiolingual method to answer new questions which modern language teachers had begun to ask themselves “What is a language?” and “How do people learn languages?” The language teaching trend, she states, then passed through the Transformational-Grammar period and the Cognitive-Code Learning Approach. She concludes that it has only been recently that the emphasis has come to rest on the learner as individual.

13 See also Giovanni Porcelli, Principi di glottodidattica (Brescia: La Scuola, 1994), 99-100.
More recently has come emphasis on the individual as learner. *Who are our language learners? How do individuals learn? What are their personal learning strategies?* Second-language teachers became wary of presuming they could *teach* a language and began to seek ways in which students could be given opportunities, situations, and time to *learn* as their individual proclivities permitted.

The three approaches we are discussing [C-L/CLL, Silent Way, Suggestopedia] all fit into this new mood of emphasis on the individual and on personal learning strategies. Each one tries to *give the student room and time to learn with as little intrusion of the teacher into the learning process as possible.* (Rivers 1983: 82)

In addition to the student-centred nature of these three approaches Rivers identifies six other common characteristics of such methods: 1) they attempt to involve the whole person: affective, cognitive and physical; 2) the learning of a L2 is viewed as being significantly different from first language acquisition; 3) propose an inductive approach to language teaching (all three methods require that the student arrive at conclusions about the language on his/her own, before providing grammar rules or interpretations; 4) the instructor does not correct errors: the student is given time to reflect on his/her utterance and with time to arrive at the correct answer – if correcting does occur it is done in a supportive manner, as information and not as reproof; 5) communicative use of the language is encouraged from the very beginning; and 6) promotes cooperation amongst students and encourage group work. Rivers (1983: 84) further states that: "[t]hese are aspects of the language learning and teaching enterprise that have been urged on teachers for many years. Surely it is now time to *take action.*

In the sections that follow I will present those methods which most often are categorized as humanistic in nature: Total Physical Response, Natural Approach, Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia, and the Silent Way.
2.1 Total Physical Response

Total Physical Response first proposed by James Asher in 1964, a professor of psychology at San Jose State University, “draws on several traditions, including developmental psychology, learning theory, and humanistic pedagogy, as well as on language teaching procedures proposed by Harold and Dorothy Palmer” (Richards and Rodgers 1986). The method is based on two psychological principles: A) that receptive skills are present prior to productive skills; and B) that the establishment of a close relationship between instructor and learner will minimize, and remove, inhibitions and fears. This approach assumes that a L2 should be learned in a similar manner to the way a first language is acquired.\textsuperscript{14} Research in the field of SLA which has lead to this theory has demonstrated that many of the utterances directed to infants/young children are in the form of commands. It is believed that the first step to learning a language is to internalize its code.

In this approach to language teaching imperative drills are used to impart communicative knowledge in the L2. Along with the Total Physical Response, the Audio-Motor Approach and the Silent Way all use imperative drill as part of their teaching method. The use of imperative drills can be traced back to Harold E. and Dorothée Palmer who observed that responding physically to verbal stimuli is one of the simplest and most primitive forms of reaction to stimulus in all of speech activities. One of the many arguments presented by Asher in support of this approach is the fact that infants are generally bombarded with commands prior to generating speech, i.e. “give mommy your hand”, “sit down”, “eat your dinner”, etc. Thus by

\textsuperscript{14} An objection which can be raised to this line of thought is that the Total Physical Response compares adult L2 learning to child first language acquisition. One must consider that there is a whole language system already present in the adult learner, raising issues such as interference of L1, anxiety, as well as motivation.
extrapolation, Asher believed that when learning a new language the same pattern as in first language acquisition should be encouraged. In their classical book *English Through Action*, the Palmers suggest that executing orders is a prerequisite to achieving the power of expression in a L2. In addition they advocated that no approach to teaching foreign speech is likely to be economical or successful which does not include in the first stage an extensive period of time for classroom work involving students carrying out orders by the teacher.

Observations of young children learning the native language of the foreign countries they were living in, have shown that activity in the target language facilitates the acquisition process. These children learn the target language through daily interaction with native speaking children. The comparison is drawn here between children learning a language in play situations, i.e. a child who is active and playing in the target language versus the non-play situation or inactive condition of the adult (Asher 1969a).

In the Total Physical Response classroom the teacher gives instructions/commands in the target language and together with the learner, the instructor as model, performs the task indicated (Asher 1965).15 The commands are repeated several times, each time the teacher performs the action with the students, after which the student is asked to carry out the action without any hints from the instructor. The commands increase in complexity, while the instructor relies on observations of hesitation or lack of hesitation on the part of the students as clues that the information has been assimilated and understood. All the while, the instructor must keep in mind that the order of commands must be varied and novel combinations of commands should be included to maintain the learner’s interest in the task at hand.

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15 This represents an example of right hemisphere involvement in assimilation of information.
Training begins with brief one word utterances but within thirty minutes the morphological and syntactical complexity of the commands increase. By increasing the complexity of the commands Asher believes that a whole code of a language can be transmitted to the learner. As the course progresses, the student eventually becomes the one giving the orders. Unlike Suggestopedia (will be discussed below) where students are encouraged to learn large volumes of information, the Total Physical Response requires that smaller amounts of novel material be introduced at any given moment. The creator of the method suggests that an instructor be certain that students are responding confidently before introducing additional vocabulary. In general vocabulary is introduced in groups of three, Asher writes, “[t]oo many items at one time is confusing and merely slows down the learning process” (1982: 57). Though one would imagine from the description that the process would be quite slow, in actual fact the pace of the class is fast moving. It is believed that if an item is not learned rapidly than a student is not ready to learn that point.

The important aspect of this theory is that the student is initially placed in a position of comfort; i.e. it is not imperative for him/her to speak immediately, she/he may remain silent if she/he so chooses. Thus, initial work in this approach is intended to build listening comprehension skills in the student, delaying the moment in which the student is asked to use the language and relying on the his/her inner voice to determine when he/she feels comfortable enough with the target language to speak. Once the student is able to decode the incoming information the next step in the processes – speech – is quite simple to take. The comparison is drawn with infants who for months prior to speaking babble continuously (researchers believe during this stage the child is decoding the sounds it hears in its environment) and only when they
are comfortable with the sounds and have decoded the information they are receiving do they speak. It is generally believed that comprehension in children far exceeds speaking skills. Asher (1965: 299) maintains that, “listening comprehension of a foreign language can be accelerated if the student is asked to emit a response with his entire body.” Initial studies of students using this method to learn a language showed a stable long-term retention of the information by both adults and children, “suggest[ing] that the strategy of the Total Physical Response permits the learner to attain extremely high listening comprehension for novelty [...]” (Asher 1965: 299).

The element which this method shares with all other methods or approaches considered in this chapter is its consideration of student-teacher ratio, motivation, time, and aptitude for SLA. Asher considers the objective of instilling listening and speaking skills may be an unrealistic expectation and as a result one should perhaps concentrate on only one of the four language skills at a time. Asher (1969: 4) suggests that the skill “which has the maximum positive transfer to the other three skills” be considered central to the learning process, that skill is listening. Asher believed that when maximum listening fluency is achieved, than the student may be ready for the transition from listener/auditor to speaker. The listening skill sets the stage for perceptual readiness for utterance.
2.2 Natural Approach

In 1977, Tracy D. Terrell, a teacher of Spanish, proposed the Natural Approach which he developed from his experience as an instructor of Spanish and which maintains that acquisition should occur in the classroom while learning occurs elsewhere. His emphasis is on incorporating comprehensible communication in the language class, where traditionally it had been difficult to include this aspect of teaching into the classroom setting. There are, however those who question "whether any significant level of communicative competence may be attained in the very constraining environment of the classroom" (Vddman 1975: 424). Certainly one must admit that in many traditional adult language classes most of the class time is spent on exercises, drills, proper pronunciation and proper syntax. In the early years of L2 learning, in particular, very little time is dedicated to the development of communicative competence. Since the introduction of the communicative approach in the 1980s a definite, yet very slow, change has been experienced in the language class. The presence of rote learning and language drills has not

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16 Terrell explains his choice of "natural" for the name of his theory in the following manner, "I have used the adjective "natural," since most of the support for the suggestions I will make stems from observations and studies of second language acquisition in natural, i.e., nonacademic, context." (Terrell, 1982: 160) It would appear that the method is based on a modified version of the "direct" method.

This method is not similar to the Natural Method presented during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries which later came to be known as the Direct Method. Richards and Rodgers (1986:129) argue that "[t]he term natural, used in reference to the Direct Method, merely emphasized that the principles underlying the method were believed to conform to principles of naturalistic language learning in young children. Similarly, the Natural Approach, as defined by Krashen and Terrell, is believed to conform to the naturalistic principles found in successful second language acquisition." Additional differences lie in the fact that unlike the Direct Method the Natural Approach places less emphasis on grammatical presentations by instructors, direct repetition, questions and answers and most importantly there is less emphasis on accurate production of the target language. The goal is to get one's message across, not being grammatically correct. The student is permitted to wait until he/she is sufficiently comfortable with the language before any attempt at communication is made. In addition, this approach differs in that greater emphasis is placed on comprehensible input than on practice.

been totally eliminated but the trend appears to be moving in that direction or at least including meaningful pattern practice exercises.

Terrell collaborated with Stephen Krashen, an applied linguist at the University of Southern California, who elaborated a theoretical rationale for the Approach, which became the foundation for the Natural Approach. Their combined effort in presenting the Natural Approach can be found in their book *The Natural Approach* published in 1983, in which there are theoretical sections outlining their view on SLA written by Krashen (1981; 1982) and material implementation of the approach in the classroom as well as classroom procedures prepared by Terrell. The authors emphasize the theoretical and research based claims that form the foundation of the Natural Approach and state that it is this foundation which contributes to the uniqueness of the Approach. Krashen and Terrell (1983: 1) state that the Natural Approach is "based on an empirically grounded theory of second language acquisition, which has been supported by a large number of scientific studies in a wide variety of language acquisition and learning contexts." In later years the empirical evidence used by Krashen to draw many of his conclusions was called into question by many researchers.\(^\text{18}\)

*Krashen's Theory of Second Language Acquisition*

Theory of SLA as proposed by Krashen has been developed over the last two decades. The application of the theory to language teaching over the years has been highly controversial, both negative and positive reactions to his theory have appeared time and time again in journal

articles, books and conferences. The controversial nature of his theory has, over the years, contributed to the growing research, thinking and understanding of SLA and language teaching.\(^\text{19}\)

One of the major issues of contention is that Krashen claims that his theory accounts for all that is involved in SLA (Krashen, 1985: vii). Certainly this does not differ much from most theorists whose theories are often considered by them as the panacea to language teaching, though some scholars take issue with the scientific validity and rigor of Krashen’s work. Yet the language teacher knows better, this may be identified by the fact that often they do not limit themselves to one theory but present the topic through a very eclectic collection of theories and approaches.

Krashen’s theory of SLA does not limit itself to his Monitor Model, presented in the 1970s. He has developed five additional hypotheses to explain his theory of language acquisition. The comprehensive theories, according to Krashen, account for all SLA and have direct implications for L2 teaching and these hypothesis, as stated earlier, provide the basis for the Natural Approach (Krashen & Terrell 1983). The five hypotheses elaborated by Krashen, which will be briefly presented below are:

1. Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis;
2. The Monitor Hypothesis;
3. The Natural Order Hypothesis;
4. The Input Hypothesis; and
5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis.

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The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis claims that there exists a distinction between learning and acquiring a second or foreign language and that this leads to two distinct ways of developing language competence. Krashen maintains that SLA can be paralleled to first language acquisition; that a L2 learner does not need to be explicitly taught the language but that through exposure and a language-rich environment the learner should be able to learn the language in the same manner as a child learns its first language, Krashen (1985: 1) argues, “[t]here are two independent ways of developing ability in second languages. ‘Acquisition’ is a subconscious process identical in all important ways to the process children utilize in acquiring their first language, while ‘learning’ is a conscious process that results in ‘knowing about’ language.”

Acquisition refers to an unconscious process of language assimilation and proficiency in that it occurs through understanding language and in using language for meaningful communication. Learning on the other hand entails conscious development of language rules through formal teaching, while error correction occurs to help develop knowledge of explicitly introduced rules. Krashen further argues that the two systems of learning and acquiring are separate and that conscious learning can be only indirectly related to acquisition. He maintains that L2 learners are “taught” and that in so doing the student is left with knowledge about the language. From this one can draw the conclusion that for Krashen the formal learning environment must be language-rich and that grammar teaching or any other aspect of the language should not be the focus of instruction.

Krashen maintains that the Language Acquisition Device [LAD], (first proposed by Chomsky to explain how first languages are acquired), is not available only to children but it
continues to function throughout an individual's lifetime. Like any organ Krashen believes that the LAD can automatically be activated when an individual is learning a first language. The principle that language is innate underlies Krashen's distinction between language acquisition and language learning.

Monitor Model

This model was first presented in the 1970s to account for learner performance before it was incorporated into the overall model for SLA. Krashen postulated that the use of Monitor required three conditions; 1. extra time; 2. knowledge of the rules; and 3. focus on form. He explains the Monitor Model in the following manner:

This hypothesis states how acquisition and learning are used in production. Our ability to produce utterances in another language comes from our acquired competence, from our subconscious knowledge. Learning, conscious knowledge, serves only as an editor, or Monitor. We appeal to learning to make corrections, to change the output of the acquired system before we speak or write (or sometimes we speak or write, as in self-correction). I have hypothesized that two conditions need to be met in order to use the Monitor: the performer must be consciously concerned about correctness; and he or she must know the rule. Both these conditions are difficult to meet. (Krashen 1985: 1-2).

He argues that the Monitor operates only for learned languages and the conscious editor is based on learned knowledge.20 From this discussion a distinction can be deemed between "Monitoring" which comes about as a result of learned knowledge, according to Krashen, and "monitoring" which is not accounted for by Krashen and which is due to unconsciously acquired knowledge.

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20 Krashen cites Hulstijn and Hulstijn's (1995) study as evidence that the idea of Monitor was not as useful as he originally thought. In theory Hulstijn and Hulstijn's (1995) study demonstrated that focusing on form required extra time but that giving students extra time without requiring them to focus on form did not lead students to concern themselves with the correctness of their production.
The Natural Order Hypothesis

From an analysis of the research data on learner's production of morphemes and grammatical structures Krashen arrived at the conclusion that there exists an internal order in which certain structures are attained; some rules are acquired early while others are acquired later on.21 Krashen maintains that there exits a natural order to acquiring structures and that learning interferes with this order. Krashen (1985:1) writes: "[i]t states that we acquire the rules of language in a predictable order, some rules tending to come early and others late. The order does not appear to be determined solely by formal simplicity and there is evidence that it is independent of the order in which rules are taught in language classes."

The knowledge of what the order of acquisition is, according to Krashen, is not important for language teaching but what is important is that we realize that an order exists so as to better understand why students make the errors they do and to alter our expectations accordingly (Krashen 1982, 1985). In addition, Krashen argues that it is not clear that we need to know the determinants of the order.

Input hypothesis

With the Input Hypothesis Krashen attempts to explain the relationship that exists between the input a learner receives and the acquisition of the target language. The hypothesis has four main issues: 1. it has to do with acquiring a language and not learning; 2. it is believed that people acquire a language best when they understand the input, and the input tends to be slightly above

21 McLaughlin (1987) argues that the studies used by Krashen to draw his conclusions were not actually studies of acquisition see p. 12-19 in: Ronald M. Barasch & C. Vaughn James (eds.), Beyond the Monitor Model (Massachusetts: Heinle & Heinle Publishers, 1993).
the learners level of competence; 3. fluency in the L2 cannot be taught but must emerge naturally, once the learner has developed linguistic competence through understanding the input; and 4. comprehensible input \( i + 1 \) will be provided automatically.

The Input hypothesis claims that humans acquire language in only one way – by understanding messages, or by receiving ‘comprehensible input.’ We progress along the natural order (hypothesis 2) by understanding input that contains structures at our next ‘stage’ – structures that are a bit beyond our current level of competence. (We move from \( i \), our current level, to \( i + 1 \), the next level along the natural order, by understanding input containing \( i + 1 \).) We are able to understand language containing unacquired grammar with the help of context, which includes extra-linguistic information, our knowledge of the world, and previously acquired linguistic competence. (Krashen 1985: 2)

By 1985, Krashen’s focus had shifted to the role of input, he writes, “it has become clear to me over the last few years that the input hypothesis is the most important part of the theory” (vii).

The Affective Filter Hypothesis

The Affective Filter Hypothesis proposes that the learner’s emotional state and attitude plays a role in language acquisition. The learner’s state functions as a filter which permits the input necessary for acquisition to freely pass, or impedes or blocks it. Krashen argues that a low affective filter is desirable, since it impedes or blocks less of the input necessary for acquisition.

Comprehensible input is necessary for acquisition, but it is not sufficient. The acquirer needs to be ‘open’ to the input. The ‘affective filter’ is a mental block that prevents acquirers from fully utilizing the comprehensible input they receive for language acquisition. When it is ‘up’, the acquirer may understand what he hears and reads, but the input will not reach the LAD [Language Acquisition Device]. This occurs when the acquirer is unmotivated, lacking in self confidence, or anxious, [...] when he considers the language class to be a place where his weaknesses will be revealed. The filter is down when the acquirer is not concerned with the possibilities of failure in language acquisition. [...]. (Krashen 1985: 3)
Motivation, self-confidence and anxiety are the three elements which may have an effect on acquisition. It has been demonstrated that learners who are highly motivated generally do better as well as those individuals who are self-confident and have a good self-image. This is generally expressed by a low affective filter, these individuals generally seek and receive more input and are more receptive to the input they receive. While a state of high anxiety both personal or in the classroom has been found to have a negative effect on acquisition. Anxious acquirers have a high affective filter, which prevents acquisition from occurring. The affective filter is believed to account for the fact that children are apparently much better language acquirers than adults because it is believed that the affective filter rises in early adolescence. As a final consideration of Krashen's contribution let us consider his words:

We can summarize the five hypotheses with a single claim: people acquire second languages only if they obtain comprehensible input and if their affective filters are low enough to allow the input 'in'. When the filter is 'down' and appropriate comprehensible input is presented (and comprehended), acquisition is inevitable. (Krashen 1985: 4)

No single aspect of the Natural Approach is new, the novelty arises in the manner in which the method is organized and executed.22 The role of the instructor is to make the student understand what is being said in the target language while the student may answer in either his/her native language or the target language. Should the student choose to respond in the target

22 "The Natural Approach may incorporate techniques from any of a number of communication-based methods. In the early stages, for example, it may draw comprehensible input from Total Physical Response activities, and in the later stages from the kind of extensive reading that gave the Reading Method its name." (Stevick 1996: 227)
language errors are corrected only if they result in a communication break down, thus one notes that in this method emphasis is placed on the ability to communicate and be understood rather than on proper grammatical form.

Techniques recommended by Krashen and Terrell are often borrowed from other methods and adapted to meet the requirements of Natural Approach theory. These include command-based activities from Total Physical Response; Direct Method activities in which mime, gesture, and context are used to elicit questions and answers; and even situation-based practice of structures and patterns. Groupwork activities are often identical to those used in Communicative Language Teaching, where sharing information in order to complete a task is emphasized. There is nothing novel about the procedures and techniques advocated for use with the Natural Approach. [...] What characterizes the Natural Approach is the use of familiar techniques within the framework of a method that focuses on providing comprehensible input and a classroom environment that cues comprehension of input, minimizes learner anxiety, and maximizes learner self-confidence. (Richards & Rodgers 1986: 136)

Terrell feels strongly that the instructor should speak exclusively in the target language, in so doing he/she provides the student with comprehensible input. The notion of comprehensible input in Terrell's (1982: 161) view is an important aspect of the learning process because as he writes, "[m]ost of the problems in interpretation stem from the fact that the sentences uttered in the classroom by the teacher or student have no communicative context, since they are created for the practice of some morphological or syntactical item being studied."

Terrell (1982: 161) defines communicative competence in the following manner: "a student can understand the essential points of what a native speaker says to him in a real communicative situation and can respond in such a way that the native speaker interprets the response with little or no effort and without errors that are so distracting that they interfere drastically with communication." Often a native speaker will still be able to understand what a non-native speaker is trying to say even if there are errors made in surface morpho-syntax. It is
the language teacher generally who has expectations of correct grammatical use while typically native speakers of the L2 are quite happy dealing with foreigners making grammatical errors in their attempts to relay information and communicate (Terrell 1982).

Terrell does not exclude the teaching of grammar rules etc. but emphasizes that those should not be done during class time. Examination of grammar and syntax should be conducted by the student on his/her own. He feels that the rules become important in the monitoring of output.

2.3 Counseling-Learning/Community Language Learning

Counseling Learning or Community Language Learning (C-L/CLL) was developed by Charles A. Curran and his associates in the 1960s. Curran, like his contemporaries Caleb Gattegno and Georgi Lozanov, had no formal background in language learning and teaching. Blair (1982: 10) describes Curran as, "[...] not [being] a language expert, not read at all in language pedagogy, not trained in instructional psychology, not even a practiced language teacher, but simply a brilliant Roman Catholic priest who was a student and colleague of Carl Rogers in counseling psychology, Curran argued that both stimulus-response psychology and cognitive psychology are incapable of explaining learning or providing a worthy model for instruction."

As a student of Carl Ransom Rogers, Curran studied counseling and theory of humanistic psychology. Curran applies his counseling knowledge and skills to all aspects of both his personal and professional life. Counseling-Learning is based on Rogers’ humanistic view of education. This eminently humanistic approach to learning and teaching is what he referred to
as a "whole-person" approach, taking into consideration "dimensions of both psychological and social phenomena that characterize human behavior and social interaction in learning and instruction" (Blair, 1982: 10). The principle works in which he presents his applications of this philosophy to teaching and learning a foreign language can be found in the following works: *Counseling-Learning: A Whole Person Model for Education* (1976); *Counseling-Learning in Second Language* (1976); and "[a] linguistic model for learning and living in the new age of the person" (1982). The main objective of this method, "*est d'apprendre aux apprenants à utiliser L2 comme moyen d'interaction sociale, c'est-à-dire en arriver à communiquer comme des locuteurs natifs*" (Germain 1993: 221).

The counseling proposed by humanistic psychology and by Curran (1976: 452) is also considered *client-centred*:

*Client-centered* — Term designating that the focus of counseling is on the client’s or person’s self-unfolding and responsible integration.

Curran (1972: 11 n. 1) describes "counseling-learning" as follows:

will be used to designate a unified concept of the educational process. The terms "counseling” and “learning” are seen as parts of an interrelated process. Therefore, we do not speak of counseling as a process totally separated from learning. The end product of a unified “counseling-learning” process would be an observable operational integration and personal awareness that the learner has about himself as well as the intellectual awareness that he has about persons, things, and areas of knowledge beyond himself.

Curran (1972: 11) defines counseling as:

*Counseling* — A definite relationship where, through the counselor’s sensitive understanding and skillful responses, a person objectively surveys the past and the present factors which enter into his personal confusions and conflicts, and at the same time reorganizes his emotional reactions so that he not only chooses better ways to reach his reasonable goals, but also has sufficient confidence, courage, and moderation to act on these choices.
The teacher-student relationship established in the classroom according to Curran should be similar to that of counselor-client; therefore the learner is perceived as a client and the instructor or as Curran defines them "language expert" is not viewed as a teacher but rather as being "trained in counseling skills adapted to their roles as language counselors" (Curran 1982).

It is important for the counselor to create a trusting, warm environment in which the students feel fully accepted. This approach is based on the belief that the problems or issues a language learner faces when trying to learn a new language are similar to those faced by individuals in a personal counseling process. According to Curran one of the greatest obstacles in learning a language is the anxiety the learner experiences in the traditional language class. We are so conditioned by the traditional classroom atmosphere that often learners find it difficult if the environment is not so:

many adults seem actually unable to learn, or, at least, to feel comfortable when learning, unless it occurs in an atmosphere that is painful, boring, embarrassing, and generally negative. (Curran 1972: 19)

It is in the student-centred aspect of the theory where humanistic element may be best noted.

Learning, then, is persons. By this we mean that it is not merely from books or in response to tests or the threat of failing grades that a person really learns. Rather it is the warm, deep sense of belonging and sharing with another person – the one who knows – and with others engaged with him in the learning enterprise that truly facilitates learning and invests it with profound personal meaning [...] In the face of threat and anxiety about learning, the learner is supported and strengthened by others rather than incited into competing with them. All share the intense personal involvement that genuine learning entails. (Curran 1972: 23)

A C-L/CLL class is generally composed of 6-12 students who are seated in a circle. The teachers/counselors, (student-counselor ratio may vary from a one to one ratio in the initial phase of learning to a maximum of 1 to 10) remain outside of the circle. The students are asked to speak freely amongst themselves in one of the target languages being taught. In the initial stages
of language learning when a client wants to speak to the group he/she turns to the counselor and whispers what he would like to say. The counselor “in a warm, accepting, and sensitive tone” then suggests a translation of the client’s thought (Curran 1961: 171). Since the rest of the students are present for the exchange between counselor and client, when the client finally speaks to the group, there is no difficulty in understanding what was said. Curran (1976: 27) observes that this process,

resembled the way a swimmer turns his head to breath in the air, then turns back to the water to breathe out. It enabled the person, from the very beginning, to speak to the group in a foreign language, with the expert’s help. The language counselor expert – like a psychological counselor – was warm, secure, and reassuring. The language counselor’s tone and manner strived to convey the same deep understanding of the client’s anxious, insecure state as he might experience in a good counseling relationship.

It is inevitable, in the beginning, that clients are embarrassed to speak, the conversation is often centred around the weather or other common topics. After a while, though, one generally notices that more complex topics are considered among which are the student’s fears and difficulties in learning a foreign language.

Proprio la pertinenza profonda della lingua alla persona spiega un’attenzione così forte verso le dinamiche psicologiche che si realizzano nell’insegnamento/apprendimento linguistico. Ciò giustifica, agli occhi di Curran, il non presentare un sillabo definito su base grammaticale, ma stabilito invece dalla libera iniziativa degli studenti nel gruppo. (Cantoni 1997)

The moment this type of “bonding” (sharing of mutual concerns and fears – sense of solidarity) occurs the participants begin to feel a sense of security and belonging. Curran notes that, perhaps, this is the greatest help the learner receives from the group. The student-student relationship is
often perceived as a possible threat while the relationship with the counselor is felt as a non
conflict relation due to the counsellor’s experience of the. In Curran’s (1961: 174-75) words:

So while the client was anxious about speaking an unfamiliar foreign language
to a group, he had the counselor’s [sic] warm acceptance and language ability to
reflect immediately and accurately in simple phrases, what the client wished to say. As a result, clients were soon able to speak to the group with rapidly growing confidence and security.

Here in four languages, the individual grew in his relationship with the group
and his independent use of his language skills, as he realized each member of the

group had the same feelings, personal struggles, and anxieties around the same
language threat as he. He could then begin to express his own ideas to the group,
even at a personal and intimate level, through the medium of one or more foreign
languages.

Often what may occur is defined by Curran as a handicapped regression; in which the student
becomes dependent on the counselors assistance.

In the early stages of learning the counselor must be able to unite to his/her counseling
skills the ability to provide short and simple sentence as close to the original sentences uttered
by the client. During this period the counselor must try to avoid idiomatic expressions which
pose to be a point of contention for the client (learner). The conversations are recorded and
played back for all to hear. It is at this stage that the counsellor transcribes the dialogue onto
cards and the group looks at some grammatical points. At times the dialogue is transcribed onto
overheads and projected for all to read as they listen to the recording of their utterances in the

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23 This theory differs from the discussion I will undertake in which I propose the importance of the presence
of idiomatic expressions and knowledge of concepts in the learning a L2. See also Frank Nuessel, “Proverbs and
metaphoric language in second language acquisition,” in Studies in Applied Semiotics, eds. T. Slama-Cazacu, R.
Titone & M. Danesi, Monograph series of the Toronto Semiotic Circle, vol. 16 (Toronto: Toronto Semiotic Circle,
1995); Frank Nuessel and Caterina Cicogna, “The integration of proverbial language into the Italian language
Rassegna italiana di linguistica applicata 18.3 (1986): 1-10; “Whither contrastive analysis,” The Canadian Modern
Language Review / La revue canadienne des langues vivantes 50 (1993): 37-46; “Recent research on metaphor and
the teaching of Italian,” Italica 71 (1994): 453-64; Raffaella Maiguasha, “Il linguaggio figurato nella didattica
foreign language. The most important aspect of this principle as Curran points out is the conversation amongst the clients. This initial phase is referred to by Curran as Stage One.

Curran (1961: 172-73) divides the method into five stages and identifies them as follows:

Stage One
The client is completely dependent on the language counselor.
1. First, he expresses only to the counselor and in English, what he wishes to say to the group. Each group member overhears this English exchange, but is not involved in it.
2. The counselor then reflects these ideas back to the client in the foreign language in a warm, accepting tone, in simple language especially of cognates, in phrases of five or six words.
3. The client turns to the group and presents his ideas in the foreign language. He has the counselor’s aid if he mispronounces or hesitates on a word or phrase.
This is the client’s maximum security stage.

Stage Two
1. Same as in step one of Stage One.
2. The client turns and begins to speak the foreign language directly to the group.
3. The counselor aids only as the client hesitates or turns for help. These small independent steps are signs of positive confidence and hope.

Stage Three
1. The client speaks directly to the group in the foreign language. This presumes that the group has now acquired the ability to understand his simple phrases.
2. Same as in step three in Stage Two.
This presumes the client’s greater confidence, independence and proportionate insight into the relationship of phrases, grammar and ideas.
Translation [is] given only when a group member desires it.

Stage Four
1. The client is now speaking freely and complexly in the foreign language. Presumes group’s understanding.
2. The counselor directly intervenes in grammatical error, mispronunciation or where aid in complex expression is needed.
The client is sufficiently secure to take correction.

Stage Five
1. Same as in step one of Stage Four.
2. Counselor intervenes not only to offer correction but to add idioms and more elegant constructions.
3. At this stage client can become counselor to group in Stages One, Two, and Three.24

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24 A similar chart may be found in Curran 1976 pp. 28 & 30 and 1972 pp. 136-37.
The five stages are seen as a progressive liberation of the client from his dependency on the counsellor. The counselors must be able to relinquish, “their ‘will to power’ over their clients, and see them grow to be increasingly independent of them. One is reminded here of how the expert had to accept the ancient proposition: ‘He must increase, I must decrease,’ in regard to his client. One might suggest, too, that this resembles some of the issues between adolescents and parents, as the adolescent struggles to find his own unique and independent meaning as an adult. (Curran 1976: 32-33)

2.4 Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia, was introduced and developed, in Eastern Europe, in the late 1960's by the Bulgarian physician and psychotherapist Dr. Georgi Lozanov, who was interested in the phenomenon of hypermnesia: memorizing large amounts of information in a short period of time. Dr. Lozanov strongly believed that suggestion can play a major role in education in general and language learning specifically; all that was required was to develop a method that would make use of this idea. Roberts and Rodgers (1986: 142) write, “the method has a somewhat mystic air about it, partially because it has few direct links with established learning or educational theory in the West, and partially because of its arcane terminology and neologisms, which one critic has unkindly called a ‘package of pseudo-scientific gobbledygook.’”

Used extensively in Bulgaria, the former Soviet Union, former East Germany and Hungary, this method emphasizes the importance of creating an interpersonal learning environment and maintains that a subject learns without realizing it. It was not until the late
1970s that the Suggestopedia was brought to the attention of the Western world as a result of a book written by Shelia Ostrander and Lynn Schroeder, *Psychic Discoveries behind the Iron Curtain*. (Bancroft 1978).\footnote{This method was adopted and used for a period of time in the United States and Canada. Only certain aspects of the method were considered and implemented in Canada and the United States given difficulty of integrating the class set-up necessary to adopt the method in its totality. Elements which have been adopted in the United States are 3: 1) an attractive classroom and pleasant environment; 2) teacher with a dynamic personality able to act out material and motivate students to learn; 3) a state of relaxed alertness in the students. The Bulgarian set-up could not be followed exactly therefore the U.S. adopted the elements of the mind-calming exercises.} At the time of its introduction this method was considered by many in North America a very "radical" approach to language teaching.

Lozanov (1978: vi) describes suggestology as:

SUGGESTOLOGY is the science of the art of liberating and stimulating the personality both under guidance and alone;

from which is derived Suggestopedy, which is defined as follows:

SUGGESTOPEDY is suggestology applied in the process of instruction.

It is in an article by Vignozzi (1996: 14) wherein the components of the word ‘suggestopedia’ are considered that one perhaps obtains a clearer understanding of the key elements of the method,

*Il termine "suggestopedia" deriva dall'unione di "suggestione" e "pedagogia", indicando così un metodo in cui si evidenzia la grande efficacia della suggestione nel processo di insegnamento-apprendimento.*

The method integrates a collection of pedagogical techniques and a theory of SLA into a global teaching system, one of which being threshold learning techniques. From Lozanov’s writings, though, it is unclear what theory of SLA its inventor used as a source, this position is supported by Loch (1985: 142) who points out that:

*In general, the acquisition model implicit in these activities is similar to the natural stages of speech production described in Terrell’s paper (1984), ‘Comprehension-Based Teaching: The Natural Approach,’ presented at this conference. One major difference between Suggestopedia and the Natural Approach, however, concerns*
the time taken to progress through the stages of production. In Suggestopedia, all three stages are achieved in every lesson as opposed to the three weeks required by the Natural Approach. This difference in timetable is probably the result of the difference in attitudes toward the potential of the students inherent in the two methods. Keep in mind Suggestopedia’s constant concern for tapping the student’s hidden reserve capacity for learning.

Lozanov maintains that new material should be first introduced at the paraconscious level and subsequently the conscious mind is involved in the learning process, he believes that most learning occurs in a relaxed but focused state. It is from studies that have demonstrated that only 4% of the brain is actually utilized that Lozanov has derived his notion of “reserves of the mind.” Reserves are those areas of cerebral matter that are not engaged in activity which Lozanov believes can be “tapped” into. Loch (1984: 127) writes, “Dr. Lozanov’s method has potential for tapping students’ hidden reserve capacity for learning a second language” (1984: 127). He proposes that music and the deep relaxation techniques of yoga can help an individual access these “reserves.” Lozanov writes that through the use of yoga relaxation and concentration students develop “super-memories” and are able to learn without conscious effort or physical fatigue large amounts of language material in a short time. In his work Lozanov demonstrated that this method significantly increases the number of lexical items a subject will recall (Lozanov 1978). The following is a report of results of studies conducted by Lozanov (1978: 321-22) on subjects learning a foreign language:

If we take the 24 days’ foreign language course with four lessons a day as the basic patterns, the following results can be expected: (1) The students assimilate, on average, more than 90 percent of the vocabulary which comprises 2000 lexical units per course; (2) More than 60 percent of the new vocabulary is used actively and fluently in everyday conversation and the rest of the vocabulary is known at translation level; (3) The students speak within the framework of the whole essential grammar; (4) Any text can be read; (5) The students can write, although making some mistakes; (6) The students make some mistakes in speaking, but this
does not hinder the communication; (7) Pronunciation is satisfactory; (8) The students are not afraid of talking to foreigners who speak the same language; (9) The students are eager to continue studying the same foreign language and, if possible, in the same way.

In the United States where this method was tested in the classroom setting during the 1970s it was found that a normal language course was completed in less time. Research conducted in the United States and by Lozanov in Bulgaria offer positive result for using this method in language learning. (Bancroft 1978, Lozanov 1978, 1990). Lozanov’s studies (1978) reported and independent research demonstrated that the use of this method significantly increased the number of lexical items a subject will recall and that what was learned was long-lasting and not easily forgotten even if not practised. Lozanov also cited increase in memory outside the classroom, a positive influence on intellectual capacities and most importantly this method caused no mental fatigue. The method is equally suitable for any foreign language and what was learned was long-lasting and not easily forgotten if the language was not used. This method was believed to stimulate memory, having a positive affect on the whole personality, influence intellectual capacities while causing no mental fatigue due to the fact that the strain which is normally associated with the learning of unknown material is abolished.

In dealing with the whole personality this method considers the individual’s interests, perceptions, creativity, and moral development. It is believed that through this “psychotherapy-through-learning” condition aspects of the personalities “creative reserve capacities” are released and new “law-governed” psychophysiological process are activated. One of the most important tasks of suggestopedia is that of freeing, or desuggestion so that students many feel confident in the task of learning a L2 and communicating in that language. It encourages the use of locked-up human resources.

It must be underlined, however, that suggestopedy stimulates not only memory, but the whole personality – its interests, perceptions, creativity, moral development,
etc. [...] The suggestive pedagogical system is considerably more humane and puts no burden upon the student. (Lozanov 1978: 252)

Like Caleb Gattegno, who in 1972 proposes the Silent Way, Lozanov too believes learning can occur at much faster rate than normal if psychological barriers which exist when learning a language are removed. The more typical fears which Lozanov considers in his work are for example the fear of being unable to perform, of being unable to learn, the fear of failing. The author proposes that one of the key results of such fear is that we don’t use our full mental powers. According to Lozanov and others, in fact, we may only be using 5-10% of our mental powers for any given activity. It was the intention of the creator of Suggestopedia to develop a method which would help students eliminate the feeling that they cannot be successful learners and hence help them overcome the psychological barriers which exist to learning. Great emphasis is paid to create a stress and strain free learning environment so that this may be possible.

Suggestopedia makes two fundamental claims; (1) that of providing a better and richer learning experience and (2) that it provides the possibility of accelerating the learning process by giving access to unused “reserves of the mind” (Mignault 1978). Stevick (1980: 230) writes about the Method:

I see Suggestopedia as being based on three assumptions: (1) That learning involves the unconscious functions of the learner, as well as the conscious functions; and (2) that people can learn much faster than they usually do, but (3) that learning is held back by (a) the norms and limitations which society has taught us, and by (b) lack of an harmonious, relaxed working together of all parts of the learner, and by (c) consequent failure to make use of powers which lie idle in most people most of the time.
Principles of suggestopedia

1. Learning is facilitated in a relaxed environment. The student is able to learn from what is present in the environment (e.g., grammar posters). A relationship of trust and respect for the teacher's authority is established so that the student will accept and retain information better. The teacher should attempt to de-suggest psychological barriers. Stimulating the learners' creativity will aid learning. By increasing the student's confidence they are more likely to learn. Integral part of the method is the use of new identities, which are used to enhance students' feeling of security enabling them to be more open. Dialogues used in class contain information that the student can use. When the attention is off the form of the language and shifted to the process of communication, it is believed that students learn better. Grammar is presented and explained in class but the instructor does not dwell on it. The use of translation is employed to help make things clearer when confusion or difficulty in language comprehension is encountered.

"Communication takes place on 'two planes': on one the linguistic message is encoded; and on the other are factors which influence the linguistic message. On the conscious plane, the learner attends to the language; on the subconscious plane, the music suggests that learning is easy and pleasant. When there is a unity between conscious and subconscious, learning is enhanced" (Larsen-Freeman 1986: 79). Dramatization is a particularly valuable way of playfully activating the material while the use of fantasy reduces barriers to learning. Class use of material should be varied as to avoid repetition as much as possible (dialogue, question-and-answer, repetition); novelty aids acquisition. It is important to achieve a childlike attitude in order that students will be more open to learning. In an atmosphere of play, the conscious attention of the learner does not focus on linguistic forms, but rather on language use. Lozanov maintains that errors should
be tolerated, that the emphasis should be on content and not form. The incorrect form should be used in its correct form a little later so that students may hear the correct form.

A brief outline of the language class, perhaps will give a better understanding of the method. The language class, which is aesthetically quite unique, is often multisensorial; it is believed that all the student's sense should be stimulated in a positive manner. The atmosphere is pleasant and cheerful, lighting is soft, and the class contains specially constructed chairs arranged in a circle with the teacher's chair at the front of the class; lending itself to the meditation and relaxation exercises which are used in conjunction with music in teaching the language. Classes are four hours in duration and meet six days a week. The class is composed of no more than 12 students, (ideally 6 females and 6 males). The courses are divided into two levels; those with no knowledge of the target language and those who have a little knowledge of the language being learned.

The instructors, who are specially trained in drama and psychology, must believe in the Method whole-heartedly and must be able to display their confidence in the technique. They must be able to suggest the meaning of new words through gesture and intonation and their tone must be enthusiastic at all times. They must avoid anything which may upset the pleasant atmosphere created in the class (this also includes manner of dressing or behaviour). The

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26 In its inception the method was not specifically designed for the teaching of languages but rather for teaching in general. See also Charles Loch, "The suggestopedic approach," in Current Approaches to Second Language Acquisition: Proceedings of the 1984 University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee Linguistic Symposium (Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Linguistic Club) 1985; and Diane Larsen-Freeman, Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching (Oxford: Oxford UP, 1986), for a detailed discussion of class set-up and presentation of material used in class.
instructor should have methodical organization and must make efficient and proper use of the “rituals” of the teaching method. They must be thorough in their presentation of new material which is analyzed at a later date.

At the beginning of each course the students together with the instructor decide on a new identity to be used in class; new name, new profession, essentially a new personal history is created. Each “biography” contains repetition of one or more phonemes which are difficult to pronounce. As the course progresses the students create an imaginary biography for their new identity. An interesting aspect of this Method is that the instructor like the student is given a whole new biography – different name, job, place of origin. Lozanov argues that the purpose for this is twofold; the first by using names that containing difficult phonologically difficult combinations of sounds the student makes use of these sounds each day in conversation. The second reason for the creation of new identities is that of reducing the stress of learning. It is argued that by inventing a new identity the student feels protected from the psychological distress of communicating in the target language. In role playing it is believed that the student no longer feels the stress of possibly making a mistake in the target language and overcomes his/her inhibitions, while by creating a fictitious world it helps the students be part of the new world of the target language. Oddly enough, when speaking to L2 learners they often express the feeling of pretending in the L2, that they are acting out a part. Fictitious identities ensure that memory activity transcends the conscious level. Material is practiced through dramatic situations and role playing to overcome certain socio-cultural inhibitions which may create psychological barriers to learning. The use of fictitious identities may also help to reach the creative resources of the individual and may make the learner less susceptible to suggestion (Mignault 1978). Role-
playing, which is an integral part of the learning experience. When learning a L2 one is dealing with more than just linguistic elements which the student is trying to learn, the learners' words are linked to emotions, gestures, tone of voice, humour etc. Here too, we find a similarity with the objectives of the communicative approach.

At the beginning of each class the instructor greets each student in the target language and asks questions about his/her new identity, occupation, history, etc. Action and pantomime are important elements in the early stages of learning to help with comprehension. This is followed by a short dialogue in the target language which the students learn. One may note that the distributed dialogues and vocabulary in the target language are always accompanied by a translation of the same material. Unlike other methodologies where the use of translation is looked down upon Suggestopedia encourages its use particularly in the early stages. There is a progressive and slow movement away from the use of reading and translation in the presentation of new material and an increase in the creative use of the language in the form of competitive games, role-play and skits. Lozanov (1978: 199) argues that:

the process of suggestopedic foreign language instruction has been oriented to learning vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, the more complicated relations in language structure, as well as enabling the students to switch over quickly, creatively and with ease to the respective language dynamic when new situations arise. It has become clear that suggestopedy not only improves memory processes (in the presence of the respective suggestive setup), but it is able to activate the whole creative personality in the process of teaching and learning (also in the presence of the respective suggestive setup).

The four hour class consist of three periods, referred to as the 'suggestopedic cycle'. Lozanov (1978) identifies the parts as follows: (1) Pre-session, (2) Session, and (3) Post-session. The following is a brief discussion of what each session entails.
Pre-session

During this period (generally 2 hours in length) the previous day’s material is reviewed through the use of conversations, skits, games. Exercises may also be used.

Session

As much of the class is conducted in the foreign language as possible. New material is presented in the traditional way with necessary grammar and translation. “È consigliabile evitare esaurienti spiegazioni grammaticali che produrrebbero un effetto ‘antisuggestopedico’: per introdurre regole di grammatica vengono utilizzati a rotazione varie forme ludiche e sussidi visivi.” (Vignozzi 1996:14). This new material consists largely of dialogues and situations based on real life. The material chosen is emotionally relevant and interesting to the student. The purpose for this is that the student will be encouraged to remember it and motivated to use it in conversation.

At all levels emphasis is place on vocabulary and content, it is believed that these are better remembered when introduced in the context of a given dialogue which reflect real-life situations.

Post-session (Séance)

This third part of the method is perhaps the most original aspect of Suggestopedia. It is called the séance (or session) it provides reinforcement or memorization of the new material at an unconscious level. Based on the theories of yoga it too is divided into the active and passive séance (also referred to as active and passive ‘concert’). There is outward concentration on the material preceding the rest and relaxation of passive meditation on the text. It was found that
inner repetition was especially helpful in memorization. Lozanov (1978: 265) writes that "[...] the role of the concert session in language courses for adults showed, [...], that it is in this stage that the largest percentage of the new material is assimilated in the long term memory.” During the s\ekt_ance the teacher reads new dialogues while the students follow along using a text which contains the material in the target language as well as in the language spoken by the students. It is claimed that the s\ekt_ance stimulates the unconscious mind, reaching the reserves and thus increasing learning.

2.5 The Silent Way

Caleb Gattegno, considered a thinker and practitioner, is best known for his contribution to the teaching of languages and education in general, and has also contributed to the teaching of mathematics. The Silent Way, proposed in 1972, is outlined in Gattegno’s books for language teachers, Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools: The Silent Way (1972), The Common Sense of Teaching Foreign Languages (1976), and The Science of Education (1987). This manner of approaching education is based on Gattegno’s thought on the ‘Science of Education’ (intended to be used throughout all of learning, and living in general).  

\[27\] As a result of further development of Suggestopedia by the author, in later works, one will notice that Lozanov (1978: 256) decided to remove the passive concert as it proved that the active concert was “sufficient for attaining concentrative psycho-relaxation.” His studies demonstrated that same satisfactory results were attained without the passive concert as with it present.

\[28\] From the literature one discovers that Gattegno did not consider nor want his approach to language teaching to be viewed as a method, as such, the term method is never used to describe the Silent Way (Larsen-Freeman 1986: 68; Stevick 1980, 1990). “We have avoided referring to the Silent Way as a method since Caleb Gattegno says it is not one. Proponents of the Silent Way claim its principles are far-reaching, affecting not only education, but the way one perceives the living of life itself.” (Larsen-Freeman 1986:68).
Gattegno’s position as follows: “learning is the result of internal work – or it is that internal work – done and doable only by the learner, and that teaching should therefore be subordinated to learning.”

The three aspects which the Silent Way focuses on are: autonomy or initiative (can be attained by exploring the language and making choices); responsibility (students must learn to take responsibility for their own learning); independent (learn to rely on themselves for correction and learning).

The Silent Way holds the belief that language is not learned by repeating patterns or models and that students need to develop their own “inner criteria” for correctness. They need to be responsible for their own learning and production in the target language and that “Learning involves transferring what one knows to new contexts” (Larsen-Freeman 1986: 59). The goal of the course is to enable students to express thoughts, feeling and perceptions in the target language given meaningful practice without repetition for its own sake. There is no memorization or translation present in the course.

The course generally begins with learning and mastering the basic phonology of the target language. Charts, referred to as *fidel*, containing symbols which stand for the syllables of the spoken language are introduced into the class. Students are instructed to read the appropriate sounds first in chorus and then individually (note: the teacher does not use language to explain to the students what is expected of them – he/she stands at the front of the class and points to the sounds the students are required to produce, the students interpret the teachers actions). When

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the student performs the necessary activity correctly the teacher moves on to the next item – indication that the student has been successful. The symbols used are colour coded and similar sounds share the same colour, in such a manner the students can initially ignore the shapes and concentrate on the sounds. The belief is that in such a manner the students are “unencumbered by anxieties about the shapes, and left free to concentrate on the new sounds” (Stevick 1980: 43-44). Only if the students encounter a sound that is absent from the familiar language, the instructor may give a single clear audible example of the sound, at all other times the instructor remains silent. In this first phase the teacher shapes the pronunciation of the students, (the goal is that no native would misunderstand them).

In the second phase of the course charts with miscellaneous words comprising of the most commonly used words in the target language, including numerals, are presented. These words together with the numerals are used to produce long numbers, up to a billion and beyond.

In the third phase coloured wooden or plastic rods (1cm² in cross section and 1 - 10 cm in length – each length has its own colour) are used to talk about various configurations. These rods are very versatile they can be used as rods or more abstractly they can be used to represent different realities, allowing the student the opportunity to be creative and imaginative and allowing for action to accompany the language. At this stage the teacher may use a few spoken words but most of the communication remains through gestures. The configurations begin quite simple but eventually move on to include all grammatical structure the teacher believes the student might need. As we may note, in the Silent Way, there is a general shift is away from
discourse. There is no homework assigned and like Suggestopedia there is the belief that learning takes place as we sleep at a subconscious level. It is at this stage in the day when the student will naturally work on the day's lesson (Larsen-Freeman 1986:61; Stevick 1980, 1990).

Students know that they are to work on only one element at a time using whatever resources are available to them. The Silent Way requires that the learner focus on his or her internal resources and processes, and that the learner accomplish this with minimum assistance from the instructor. “From this point of view, the more the teacher talks and explains, the less internal work the learner is likely to do” (Stevick 1996: 221), unlike other methods where teacher direction and confirmation is prevalent. Stevick (1996: 221) makes an interesting comment about the method, he states, “[...] the Silent Way pushes learners to operate in the relatively demanding Adult ego state rather than in the more familiar Dependent Child state.”

Once the learner feels he/she has accomplished the goal they move on. The instructor is “matter-of-fact” about the students’ accomplishments, he/she demonstrates by his or her gestures that they accept the student as a person and there is no positive feed-back present when errors are made. It is believed that if the teacher praises or criticizes, the student may become less self reliant and as such it is believed that the teachers actions can interfere with the students development of inner criteria. Errors simply demonstrate where more work needs to be done, and unlike studies in error analysis, in this case it is not believed that they reflect natural order of acquiring languages. If a student needs to do further work on an element the teacher may call the error to the learner’s attention or show the individual exactly where the extra work needs to occur. Sometimes if points are not fully mastered they are left with the students to consider overnight and clarify on their own.
It is important to note is that the teacher is almost always silent and it is left to him/her to decide at any given moment which syllables or words the students will work on. The instructor (as set out by the method) has no problem with student experiencing frustration or negative emotion with learning. Given that the experience one is trying to achieve is of education (in Gattegno’s sense) and not merely language acquisition, “then negative emotion is acceptable in the short run, and in the long run usually evaporates” (Stevick 1996: 221). The teacher’s concern is not so much how and what to teach as it is how to help the student learn. The teacher maintains tight control of the class and moment to moment learning by the students. Stevick (1996: 222) explains Gattegno’s notion of the teaching being subordinate to learning as follows: “means only that the teacher should be controlled by what he or she sees the learner doing, and not that the teacher should follow the learner’s uninformed whims about what to do next.”

2.6 Discussion

Though some of the above mentioned methodologies were proposed in the 1960s many of them aroused the interest of the teaching community as well as the general public in the 1970s. The common denominator of these theories is the fact that they all attempt to find pedagogical avenues capable of minimizing psycho-affective resistance to L2 learning and acquisition. This was accomplished by concentrating on the needs, affective aspect and personality of the individual learner. In addition we may note that all methods encourage a learner-centred teaching environment, self-actualization of the learner and the establishment of a social environment.
where cooperation and peer learning may occur; all the while working on reducing the stress which is generally associated with learning a foreign language. Also interesting to note is the fact that all methods place emphasis on comprehension, the student is permitted to wait and feel comfortable with the target language before they are required to use the language in conversation. All the methods empower the student, he/she is responsible for his/her learning while the emphasis is on oral communication and understanding.

Within the methods outlined in this chapter a further subdivision could be created: those methods which deal with conditions for language acquisition – CL/CLL and the Silent Way and those methods which are focused on the process and the conditions for language acquisition: Total Physical Response, Natural Approach and Suggestopedia.³⁰

In discussing C-L/CLL and the Silent Way, Stevick outlines what the two methods share in common:³¹

Those two approaches are alike in that: (1) each emphasizes some uniquely human attributes of the learner, (2) each affirms and promotes human freedom, and (3) each contributes in some way to the human dignity of the learner. As we saw […], however, the various 'humanistic' approaches differ, sharply and instructively, in just how they do these three things. (1990: 131)

In particular one may note that the C-L/CLL highlights the affective elements and the aspect of collaboration (H1 and H2) while the Silent Way promotes aspects self-actualization and intellect

³⁰ Krashen argues that the Natural Approach falls in line with Asher’s Total Physical Response and Lozanov’s Suggestopedia.

³¹ Stevick (1980) excludes Suggestopedia and the Total Physical Response from his discussion of humanistic approaches, though he does not justify his choice.
(H3 and H4), according to Stevicks tenets of humanism. A major criticism which can be made of C-L/CLL is that it leaves the choice of topics to discuss up to the individual learner.

The Total Physical response lends itself well to a large class, unlike many of the other methods discussed which may be used only in very small groups or on an individual basis. The integration of language and action makes the learning process meaningful for the students and assists in the retention of the information presented. If there is a draw back to this method it is perhaps the excessive use of the imperative, which may lead to some boredom and loss of attention as well as restricting the topics of conversation to far more concrete issues not permitting the students to learn to express their feelings and desires in the target language, aspect which has already been identified as being central to the learning process (Danesi 1998, Freddi 1994, Porcelli 1994).

There is no doubt as to the importance of the individual in the processes of learning, of motivations, and subconscious factors affecting the learning process which many be identified as learning variables such as: age, cognition, native language, instructional input, affective

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32 In comparing the Total Physical Response to C-L/CLL Jack C. Richards, Theodore S. Rodgers, Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. A Description and Analysis (Cambridge: Cambridge UP, 1986) 154-55, have the following to say: "Superficially, Total Physical Response and Community Language Learning seem antithetical. Comparing elements at the level of design, we find that TPR typically has a written syllabus with paced introduction of structures and vocabulary. CLL has no syllabus and operates out of what learners feel they need to know. In TPR, the teacher's role is one of drill master, director, and motivator. In CLL, the teacher/knewor is counselor, supporter, and facilitator. TPR learners are physically active and mobile. CLL learners are sedentary and in a fixed configuration. TPR assumes no particular relationship among learners and emphasises the importance of individuals acting alone. CLL is rooted, as its title suggests, in a communal relationship between learners and teachers acting supportively and in concert. At the level of procedure, we find that TPR language practice is largely mechanical, with much emphasis on listening. CLL language practice is innovative, with emphasis on production.

There are elements of commonality, however, which can be easily overlooked. In approach, both TPR and CLL see stress, defensiveness, and embarrassment as the major blocks to successful language learning. They both see the learners' commitment, attention, and group participation as central to overcoming these barriers. They both view the stages of adult language learning as recapitulations of the stages of childhood learning, and both CLL and TPR consider mediation, memory, and recall of linguistic elements to be central issues. TPR holds with CLL that learning is multimodal that 'more involvement must be provided the student than simply sitting in his seat and passively listening. He must be somatically or physiologically, as well as intellectually, engaged' (Curran 1976: 79). At the level of design, neither TPR nor CLL assumes method-specific materials, but both assume that materials can be locally produced as needed."
factors, educational background (Titone & Danesi 1985). It is because of the focus on the individual that humanistic teaching methods and the psychological principles upon which these are based present the most solid foundation upon which to build an integrated method for L2 teaching. I reinforce the notion of an integrated method because as history and experience have proven, no one method can address or account for all the issues and variables present in considering effective language learning and teaching. It is for this reason that a more eclectic or integrated approach to L2 language teaching may offer the most viable manner to address the problem. Such an approach attempts to bring together the most salient aspects of teaching methods presented to date in an attempt to arrive at an efficient and effective teaching methodology.

Though these humanistic teaching methods or affective based methodologies have been documented and demonstrated to be successful in teaching foreign languages, similar to the teaching methods defined as inductive or deductive and the methods that are part of a functional approach which came before them, they fail to completely address issues of language learning. This may be contributed to the fact that the psycholinguistic principles upon which these teaching methodologies are built may be considered limited in their scope. For example, as we pointed out in the previous chapter, teaching methods (ex. Direct Method) which are built upon notions taken from behaviouristic theories of language learning are comprised of rote learning and pattern drilling, leaving no room for the student to express him/herself or to come away from such a course with more that just an ability to read, translate, or utter preconstructed responses in the target language.\(^{33}\) The cognitive approaches which developed as a reaction to

\[^{33}\text{In Omaggio, Teaching Language in Context (1986: 69) the author argues that the Total Physical Response and the Natural Approach are a modern day expression of the earlier Direct Method and that in fact these methods are not "revolutionary" in nature but rather "evolutionary". As Danesi (1998: 81) points out "hanno semplicemente ristrutturato il metodo diretto secondo un'interpretazione che è più strettamente neurofunzionale."}^{
behaviouristic methods viewed language learning as a matter of mastering internal rules rather than habit formation also left little room for the individual and all the complexities that he/she brings to the issue of language learning. Humanistic methods, I believe in considering the individual as a whole, lend themselves to a potential blending of behaviouristic, and cognitive factors and approaches, yet, regrettable not many of the methods here presented take full advantage of this possibility. In the chapters that follow I will discuss how Titone's HDM sets the stage for an integrated teaching method for L2 learning and language behaviour.
Chapter III

Holodynamic Model for Language Behaviour and Language Learning

3.0 Introduction

In the previous chapters we considered the various theories generated over the years to explain how a second language (L2) is learned, and the translation of these theories into teaching methodologies. It is noteworthy that although a great deal of time has elapsed the approach to L2 teaching has not changed a great deal. The pedagogical pendulum continues to swing from one extreme to another, while the methodologies which are presented as new and innovative are often a recycling of older methods with minor philosophical slants. Consider, for example the Total Physical Response/Natural Approach which is a re-adaptation of the audiolingual method proposed years earlier or for example notions of immersion which were encouraged in antiquity, then reproposed in the fifteenth century and then again in the 1980s. Of the learning philosophies and teaching methodologies proposed, the most significant to our discussion are the humanistic methods discussed in the previous chapter. These share a commonality with humanistic thought of the Renaissance\(^1\) when the image of the individual was gaining importance as opposed to the medieval view of man. The centrality of the individual to the learning and acquisition process which these theories offer is the fundamental basis upon which Titone's Holodynamic Model (HDM) for language behaviour and language learning is

\(^1\) See Chapter 1 section 1.3 of this work for a discussion of humanistic thought during the Renaissance.
constructed. The implications for language teaching of such a philosophy are numerous and range from ensuring that the material considered for instruction be relevant to the learner, to offering a forum in which to successfully combine various previously proposed teaching methods in an integrated and effective manner. Before undertaking a discussion of the benefits, applications and implications of an integrated teaching methodology let us briefly consider the psycholinguistic principles which Titone’s HDM for language behaviour and learning draws upon.

In this chapter we will examine in detail Titone’s HDM in relation to generally accepted notions of second language acquisition (SLA). We will demonstrate that even though this model shares certain philosophical beliefs with humanistic language learning and teaching theories it is unique in the manner in which its "inventor" integrates issues of personality with language learning. The primary position of this model is that personality is the central component of language behaviour, it maintains that language learning consists of aspects of a behavioural and cognitive nature which are controlled by the learner’s personality and that it is the learner’s personality and his/her perception of the world and involvement in the world which governs the learning process. The author explains, that his Model is " [...] based on the view that language learning consists of integrated components of a behavioural and cognitive nature which are controlled by the learner’s personality structure. Consequently, it can be said that the L2 learning processes is marked by both operant conditioning (à la Skinner) and meaningful cognitive learning according to the particular type of skill that is being assimilated. In other words, the HDM combines behaviouristic and cognitive theories, and amalgamates them with the personality theories of so-called «humanistic» psychology" (Titone 1991: 6-7).
3.1 The Model

First proposed in the late 1960s Titone’s *Holodynamic Model for Language Behaviour and Language Learning*\(^2\) (HDM) is an integrated whole person approach which attempts to explain the process of verbal communication as an aspect of personality. The Model is based on the view that "language learning consists of integrating components of a behavioural and cognitive nature which are controlled by the learner’s personality structure" (Titone 1991: 7). Unique in this particular aspect of its presentation, this Model draws the methodologists attention directly to the learner. Titone outlines his model by stating:

> The HDM of language behavior is but a logical application and development of a humanistic assumption about man and his relation to the world through language. This implies furthermore that first language acquisition and second language learning each represent a particular mode of existence, a definite way of self-assertion in front of the world, a symbolic act of recognition of the Existent. This principle denies radically the possibility of language learning as mere rote (robot) learning; it involves, on the contrary, conscious and motivated action through the whole process of acquisition. (Titone 1982: 228)

As we shall see in the following chapters this model supports an approach to learning which begins with the learner and his/her environment and leads the individual to the fundamentals of the target language as well as developing communicative, conceptual, and linguistic competencies. This type of philosophy shares a great deal with other humanistic

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\(^2\) In his early work the Holodynamic Model was referred to as the glossodynamic model. This term first appeared in the writings of Roback in "Glossodynamics and the present status of psycholinguistics," in *Present-Day Psychology*, ed. A. A. Roback (New York: Philosophical Library, 1955) 897-911. In the article, Roback utilized this term to designate motivational variables in language learning. Titone uses the term to indicate a stratified and dynamic process of language learning.

Roback (1955: 904) writes, "[i]f psycholinguistics is designated as the territory which joins psychology and linguistics, then I should propose the term ‘glossodynamics’ to represent a special strip or, better, a stratum in that area, given over to the ascertainment of motives in the production of linguistic phenomena.”
models but in addition offers the foundation upon which to build an integrated approach to teaching. Consequently, one may interpret this information to mean that the L2 learning process is composed of conditioned responses (or operant conditioning in terms of Skinner's neobehaviouristic theory of language learning) and meaningful cognitive learning. Therefore, we may say that the HDM attempts to combine behaviouristic and cognitive theories of language learning by integrating these theories with humanistic psychological theories of personality. Further this model may be used to explain both first and SLA. The Model includes the co-existence and cooperation of three distinct levels, namely: (a) personality structure and dynamics in a "contextual" perspective, (b) cognitive processes, and (c) operant conditioning (Titone 1973a, 1973b, 1975, 1977, 1982a). At first glance these three aspects of the theory may appear as the qualities of psychological theories of language learning; i.e. (a) is similar to humanistic psychology, (b) cognitive psychology, and (c) behaviouristic psychology. The important thing to note is that it does not represent three distinct theories of language behaviour but rather a unified theory of language behaviour and learning based on the personality of the individual learner (Titone 1980). These three elements are reciprocally independent and integrated on a dynamic basis.

In its early stages, this Model was referred to as the "Glossodynamic Model." The term was later changed to the "Holodynamic Model." According to Titone the term "Glossodynamic" was first used by A. A. Roback in 1955 to refer to a general dynamic psychology of language
which took into account internal, especially motivational variables. In Titone's original use of the term he was concerned with a more restricted sense of the term signifying a multilevel operational model of language behaviour. Titone (1973:1) explains:

Il punto di partenza del «modello glottodinamico» dell'apprendimento linguistico è il riconoscimento del fatto che il comportamento linguistico è costituito da una struttura stratificazionale e gerarchica.

The model acquires its new name - Holodynamic Model - when the author realizes that he wishes to define the dynamics of human activity in all areas of learning and acquisition from a human personality perspective. The etymology of the term is explained by Titone (1994: 20) as follows:

The adjective means that all (holos) the essential components of personal activity (dynamis) are present in human behaviour and human learning. More so in the case of language and communication as human activities.

The Holodynamic Model which falls within the scope of psycholinguistics is an attempt by the author to offer insight into the communicative processes using the psychology of the individual person to explain the various components of the act of verbal communication. Titone (1982: 227) explains that his model is "grafted upon a humanistic approach to psycholinguistics" in which the individual is at the heart of the learning process. It is he/she who determines how learning will occur and, more specifically, will be responsible for communicative choices. He further points out that he considers personality the cornerstone of communication and credits Allport and Nuttin as the sources for his personological view. From Allport (1965: 23, 21) Titone borrows the following definition of personality: "[...] the dynamic organization within the individual of those psycho-physical systems that determine his characteristic behavior and thought." "[T]he individuality of man, the future-pointed thrust of his living, and the systematic interlacing of his key qualities, are the central features of his
personality." Titone does not believe that personality can be reduced simply to individuality and it is in the work of the Belgian psychologist Nuttin, that he finds the emphasis on the rational nature of human personality as well as the structure of personality. The rational theory of personality, according to Titone, presupposes that an individual is not only internally structured but that there exists an external structure which may be identified as the relationship to and dependence on the world (physical, social, cultural). Personality according to Nuttin "is a mode of functioning involving essentially two poles: the 'Ego' and the 'World'" (Titone 1982: 227). He views language as communication and expression; language and the manner in which one expresses himself/herself is what makes individual unique and it is at the very heart and soul of personality.4

As we have already pointed out, Titone's view of the individual stems from humanistic psychology, which shares certain similarities with those humanistic notions presented in the previous chapter (centrality of individual; importance of affective factors to the learning process; the individual does not operate in isolation, there exists a relationship between him/her and members of the society). It deviates from other humanistic theories, in that, Titone views utterances by the individual as a reflection of internal structuring of the individual's mind and

3 Titone explains this notion as follows: "The Ego is the sum of the individual's functions and psychological potentialities; the World is the intrinsic object of the Ego. Indeed psychological functioning – i.e. perception and behavior in general including motivation – implies necessarily an object as the intrinsic reference point of the process itself. This functioning, therefore, cannot but locate itself within a structure implying an intrinsic and active reference of the Ego to a World of objects. This world of people and objects is not only situated in front of the Ego but constitutes the very content of the personalized psychological life. This amounts to saying that, from a functional point of view, a personality cannot exist except within the framework of a structure transcending the physical(psychological organism, in other terms, within an "Ego–World Structure." Personality is then conceived as an 'open system' in Bertalanffy's sense. And in this perspective the process of communication takes on a new meaning and significance; verbal behavior is first of all the fundamental expression of the individual and social personality of each human being" (Titone 1982: 227-28).

4 Titone (1977: 309) "I believe that language behavior is a very important specification of personality dynamics viewed in concrete contextual organization and as such it cannot be reduced to a mere system of verbal habits or even to a system of cognitive processes. Personality is the root source of incoming and outgoing processes."
of the relationship the person maintains with the surrounding world. This notion becomes an important factor if one supports the belief that language is a reflection of culture and world knowledge. According to Porcelli (1994: 108) the goal of humanistic techniques has traditionally been that of reducing the psycho-affective resistance to language learning or acquisition: issues such as the individual’s negative feelings towards their ability to learn a language, fear of making a fool of oneself in front of one’s peers and even a negative relationship with the instructor. The belief presented by Porcelli is that learning a L2 is much more effective the more it is linked to the motivations of the individual – to the feelings of the learner and his/her interests. Such a strategy will help to free up the psychological "block" which many students experience when learning a L2. As Freddi (1994:189) points out that, "[i] contributi rivolti alla riscoperta della personalità del soggetto ('umanistico'), allo sfruttamento del potenziale della sua 'affettività', in breve quali tentativi di fare del soggetto il protagonista pieno, sereno, motivato e responsabile dei suoi apprendimenti."

The link between language and the personality of the individual supports the fact that language cannot be just a matter of habit formation, conditioning or cognitive rules. It is a far more complex rapport. It is the individual’s personality which makes sense of incoming and outgoing signs and symbols. Personality controls language behaviour. The HDM concentrates on the centrality of the individual but the individual is not isolated from the world that surrounds him/her, and verbal communication is a reflection of how the world is categorized within a society and how that society as well as the individual perceives itself. This is further supported by recent work on metaphors by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) demonstrating that language reflects the collective consciousness of a society. Thus, the objective of language

[5] Consider also the earlier work by Edward Sapir and Benjamin Worf, linguistic relativism – their belief that language reflects internal mental schemas or conceptual system of the speaker.
learning is to acquire the ability to symbolize, express oneself, and to communicate experiences using verbal symbols (Titone 1980, Di Pietro 1993).\footnote{The idea of expressing one’s experiences is an important one to language learning on a number of levels; strictly from a learning perspective, we know that old methods in which passive learning was occurring were not very effective. The student often did not retain information for long periods. Active learning on the other hand has been demonstrated to improve retention. Humanistic learning is considered active learning. It includes meaningful input and the ability to discuss one’s experience which also contributes to meaningful input.}

An important aspect of the HDM for language behaviour and language learning is that it maintains that language behaviour is not a linear series of one-level operations but rather that language behaviour is basically a stratified and hierarchical system of dynamic structures (Titone 1982). Titone’s stratified Model is presented as a tri-level interpretation of the learner/speaker’s personality: 1) tactic, 2) strategic, and 3) ego-dynamic. The three levels may be better understood as part of the personality if we consider them as: the act of communication, the desire to communicate, and the need to communicate. The model is essentially a psychopedagogical model of language learning and acquisition. The three variables are mutually dependent and integrated on a dynamic basis (Titone 1986b). According to this model any form of acquisition, even linguistic acquisition, occurs at all three levels simultaneously. In a study conducted on aphasic, Tanzarella (1981) used the HDM to explain the linguistic deficiencies which were recorded in aphasic patients. This study demonstrated that in aphasics one of the three levels of the HDM is usually absent. Research of this nature is perhaps the best support for the fact that all three levels of the HDM must be present for the encoding and decoding of language to be occurring and working correctly. This type of hierarchy of operational levels of human behaviour is important in helping to account for all types of signs and linguistics events. According to the HDM a learner may proceed "from the construction of tactic skills through strategic control to ego-dynamic awareness, or from ego-dynamic impulses through strategic planning to tactic performance" (Titone 1989: 76).
The actual use of verbal symbols for communication

DEEP STRUCTURE

The act of communicating

TA C T I C S
Formation of motor ability and perceptual schemata by means of self-regulatory mechanisms

The ability to communicate

S T R A T E G Y
Rule-making, selection, programming, conscious self-regulation

The will to communicate

E G O - D Y N A M I C
Control over the ability to talk about experience, to adjust speech patterns according to life situations, to express attitudes, to retrieve information about oneself, to use language for self-awareness

Figure 1: Holodynamic Model for language behaviour and language learning
(Titone and Danesi 1985: 171)

The model is divided into surface and deep structures. The surface structure is composed of the ability to communicate and the act of communicating which are rooted in the individual's personality.

Non soltanto in seguito a queste ricerche empiriche, ma anche e soprattutto come effetto di approfondite rielaborazioni teoretiche dei modelli di analisi sia psicolinguistici che psicopedagogici attuali o possibili rispetto al processo di apprendimento di una seconda lingua, è apparso sempre più evidente che né le teorie S-R né le teorie strettamente cognitivisthe ci permettono di capire a fondo il processo di sviluppo della competenza comunicativa nella prima come nella seconda lingua. L'accento, costantemente posto, sul concetto-chiave di «comunicazione», induce a vedere lo sviluppo del linguaggio come strettamente connesso con la dinamica e la struttura della personalità del parlante. L'esito di queste speculazioni è dato dalla formulazione del «Modello Olodinamico» [...].
(Titone: 1981a: 60-61).
Titone explains that the tactic level is the closest to the surface structures, and "[t]he performance of communication as a surface process stems immediately from the tactical level; it is in fact the actualization or prolongation of the total of tactical operations" (Titone 1982: 231). Therefore the surface structure is what the person says and writes, these stem from the deep structure, which in the case of the HDM are the strategic level and lower still, the ego-dynamic level.

Let us take a closer look at the hierarchical levels of the HDM.

### 3.1.1 Tactic Level

The tactic level may be considered similar to language programming. It coordinates the ordering of each single speech act with respect to what proceeds and follows it. It is the actual result of verbal performance, the context of the uttered statement and not the linguistic environment or the communicative situation it is found in. This corresponds to the four skills: reading, writing, speaking, listening. In other words the tactic level is the *act* of communicating. It implies understanding the signs and symbols of the target language as well as the learner’s ability to generate the appropriate signs and symbols given a specific context. This includes all language skills.

The tactic operations may be considered as follows:

1. **Decoding/encoding**: It presupposes the acquisition of specific verbal habits (a) listening/speaking (habits of an auditory/visual nature) and (b) reading/writing (habits of an articulatory/graphic nature).
2. **Neural/cortical/peripheral co-ordination and integration**: This accounts for the mechanism of communicating. It takes into consideration the proper functioning of all neural endings and cerebral centres responsible for both perception and articulation. The function of cerebral coordination and neuroscientific processing will be discussed in further detail in section 3.2.2.

3. **Verbal feedback**: Titone considers the importance of this operation stemming from the fact that language behaviour is a self regulatory system and as such is endowed with self-control devices and mechanisms. These devices are responsible for connecting input and output flows uninterruptedly. The presence of a feed-back mechanism is the very basis of tactic coordination. Thus, Titone maintains that uptake of information occurs constantly at the ego-dynamic level. The learner must be able to control and manage both perceptual and motor habits. In addition to self-regulating ability the learner is able to make appropriate changes or correction to his/her utterances based on the verbal and non verbal feedback that he/she receives from the environment or the interlocutor. Other aspects of feedback, i.e. cognitive (rules etc.) and social (proper delivery of message, correct context, register, etc.) are also present.

It is not enough that a person is able to auto-correct himself/herself in terms of appropriate choice of words and grammatical structure. The need to correct the register may be judged from the context and feedback one receives. As Freddi (1994: 51) points out that, "[n]el comunicare c'è quindi un continuo adattarsi di colui che parla a colui che ascolta e viceversa." In Freddi's (1994) presentation of verbal feedback the author suggests that one must consider both input and output feedback. Verbal feedback allows one to know whether or not the message has been successful received. If it has not been received, or only partially received, this process ensures that necessary corrections are made. Freddi (1994) also argues for the centrality of the learner in the language learning process. He considers the psychological mechanisms involved in language learning both in reception/input and production/output and
argues the importance of feedback which may have a positive or negative effect on the social content of the learner’s output. Such a mechanism enables the learner to bring to his/her messages the necessary modifications or corrections and adjust it according to the demands of the communicative situation. (Feedback may also occur and affect the other two levels – strategic level [cognitive feedback], ego-dynamic level [linguistic feedback]).

Generally speaking one may determine whether or not a language has been acquired or learned through the student’s demonstration of certain fundamental skills. These skills may be divided into receptive skills such as comprehension and reading ability, and productive ability such as speaking and writing. These skills are encoded and decoded by the learner upon initial exposure to them and thus determine the acquisition or formation of specific verbal habits. We may judge whether or not a learner has in fact achieved this ability, which we will refer to as linguistic competence, through the use and choices of language employed by the learner. Certainly all that is proposed must be measured against the fact that we do not possess a precise comprehension of what occurs in the learner’s mind – the actual linguistic and cognitive functions remain in a "black box." We are aware of the presence of such activities but do not know their nature. Certainly, the occurrence of the "mechanical" aspect of language presupposes that the information the learner has been exposed to has been encoded (habits of an articulatory/graphic nature such as speaking and writing) and decoded (habits of a auditory/visual nature such as listening and reading) appropriately and stored in an appropriate manner. Additionally, it presupposes that the transition of structures and categories from short to long term memory has also taken place, thus indicating that acquisition as occurred. This, demonstrates the correct and satisfactory functioning of neural endings, cerebral centres (centres responsible for memory, language, concept formation, storage, etc.), and centres of perception. The proper functioning of such centres are necessary for articulation and automation of
language operations. This translates to a teaching strategy which focuses on habit formation. Examples include exercises structured in a manner similar to the teaching techniques of audiolingual courses. Therefore we notice that the tactic level involves encoding (motor) habits, and decoding (perceptual) habits, which clearly involve neural, cortical and peripheral coordination and integration in order for these elements to become automatic. In the following chapter I will argue that such issues lend themselves to the integration, in the teaching method, of habit formation exercises which I believe permit the inclusion of behaviouristic-like teaching strategies to enter into the language class.

3.1.2 Strategic Level

The Strategic level entails the unobservable "mental" operations involved in the sequencing of single language performances: the ordering or programming mechanisms. It is at this level that rule-making, selection and programming occurs. One may also consider this level as the ability to communicate. It is during this stage that the individual decides (or rather selects) his/her choice of words and word order within and outside the parameters of the grammar of the language. It is here that grammaticality is considered and applied to an utterance and choices are made for appropriateness given the communicative situation, and the pragmatic framework. Additionally, as a result of the various linguistic choices that are made prior to the act of communicating, the individual’s personality can be revealed. Titone (19—229) writes:

*L’aspetto pragmatico del linguaggio concerne le caratteristiche della sua utilizzazione (motivazioni psicologiche dei parlanti, reazioni degli interlocutori, tipi sociali di discorso, oggetto del discorso, ecc.) in opposizione all’aspetto sintattico (priorità formali delle costruzioni linguistiche) e sematico (relazione fra le entità linguistiche e il mondo esterno).*
These operations are strictly cognitive operations: comprehending, analysing, synthesizing, inducing, deducing, abstracting, generalizing, programming, speech acts, constructing rules of grammar, lexicon and verbal interaction (Titone 1988: 174). Cognition functions as the determining mediator between the self and activity. The tactic operations therefore presuppose strategy.

The following are considered strategic operations and reflect a cognitive competence:

1. **Rule-making processes**: In this operation the individual learner inductively generalizes the rules of the language and categorizes the information. The information received is analysed and reassembled on the basis of mental schemata and categories.

2. **Selective processes**: During this process sememes + morphemes + phrases + sentences, components of discourse (better yet they can be considered the building blocks of speech), are assembled in the final aim of communication. This process also takes into account the selection involved in reacting to discourse. It is at this stage of sentence construction and articulation that the individual’s personality is most expressed. This is evident through the choice of words and manner of expression and individual uses.

3. **Programming processes**: Is the act of discourse construction; the ordering of all the elements of speech. For this to properly occur programming mechanisms must be capable of assembling larger units of speech. "Thus discourse construction, the choice of stylistic variants, and more particularly adjustments of each speech act to specific types of situation (contextualization) are typical programming operations, designed to give order, unity, and purpose (significance) to verbal encoding and decoding in actual instances of communication between humans" (Titone 1973b: 10).
4. **Conscious self-regulatory mechanisms:** (cognitive feedback): It is at this level that the individual is aware of the flow of speech, and its function and is therefore capable of self-correction and self-criticism. The control mechanisms of speech are considered which are reflected in the human communicator at a conscious level; self-correction and self-criticism are part of the communicator’s strategies. This view of cognitive feedback is comparable to elements found in Krashen’s Monitor Model: the use of extra time, knowledge of the rules, and focus on form which enables the learner to ensure that his/her utterance is accurate and comprehensible. It presupposes the presence of an internal mechanism established by consciously learned language which functions as an internal monitor of verbal production. Unlike Krashen’s Monitor Model the author includes in his understanding of cognitive feedback also those elements of the language which are not consciously learnt but acquired.

The operations involved in the tactic and strategic levels of the model lead to a discussion of cerebral/neurological functioning. Though, in its complexity, brain functions continue to elude scholars, studies have revealed relevant information pertaining to cerebral structure and the centres involved in language acquisition, storage and retrieval. One of the more significant discoveries in this century has been the existence of two cerebral hemispheres and the relationship between them; the right and left hemisphere. Work in brain mapping by individuals such as Paul Broca (1824-1880), Roger Sperry (1913-1994), Carl Wernicke (1848-

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7 The cerebral area mapped by Broca in 1861, which carries his name, is located in the posterior region of the frontal lobe. Damage to this area results in an inability to speak, though language comprehension remains unaltered. Patients with this type of damage can utter isolated words and sing a melody but they cannot articulate grammatically correct full sentences nor can they express ideas in writing.

8 Roger Sperry and his collaborators, best known for their work on split brain patients, demonstrated that the two hemispheres functioned in a complementary manner.
Wilder Penfield (1891-1976) have also been invaluable to our understanding of the sites responsible for specific language functions and the relationships amongst them. Titone’s proposition may be further explained, clarified and expanded by considering one of the most significant contributions to our understanding of the neuroscientific features of language as presented in the 1980s by Danesi (1988a, 1988b, 1991, 1998) in his notion of *bimodality*. This model characterizes the acquisition process as a neurofunctional action involving the right and left hemisphere, working in tandem. The argument that both the left and right hemisphere play a fundamental role in language learning (specifically L2 learning) and acquisition, overturns all earlier beliefs that language was an exclusive trait of the left hemisphere. While the left hemisphere is crucial for comprehending and elaborating literal, phonetic and syntactic aspects of language, the right hemisphere is involved in aspects of the

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9 Wernicke demonstrated that a lesion to a different part of the left hemisphere left the patient with difficulties comprehending verbal messages. This particular cerebral site was to later carry his name.

10 For a historical overview of brain research as it pertains to language see Marcel Danesi, *Il cervello in aula!* (Perugia: Guerra Edizioni, 1998), 53-64.

11 Kandel et al. (1991: 5) draw our attention to the fact that it has been noted that the cerebral cortex is the part of the brain that has expanded the most in recent primate evolution and that it is concerned with higher aspects of human behaviour.

12 "Brain functions which are related to language are located primarily in the cerebral cortex, which overlies the cerebral hemispheres. The frontal lobe is responsible for the planning of future actions and control of movement; the parietal lobe is responsible for somatic sensation and body image; the occipital lobe is concerned with vision; and the temporal lobe is responsible for hearing as well as aspects of learning, memory and emotion" (Kandel et al 1991:7). Each hemisphere is responsible for sensory and motor processes on the contralateral side of the body. See also, Pietro Schenone, *Emisfero destro ed elaborazione linguistica. Conferme e sollecitazioni per il modello didattico bimodale, L'analisi linguistica e letteraria* 2 (1994): 467-98.
semantics of the message, sentences and the emotional content. In addition it plays a vital role in processing novel information.\textsuperscript{13} Hence acquisition is believed to be an L-mode function while learning is considered an R-mode function.\textsuperscript{14}

This notion proposes that the natural process of language learning of the brain integrates and applies analytic thought (left hemisphere) and synthetic thought (right hemisphere) depending on the need. Danesi points out that learning will occur better if the learner is exposed


Consider the function of the two hemispheres:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Left Hemisphere (L-mode)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>controls motor functions of speech (ex. phonological process)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>processes morphology and syntax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>planning and understanding the formal relations between parts of a sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>logical reasoning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verbal memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>analytic thought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abstract thought</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Right Hemisphere (R-mode)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>controls prosodic elements of discourse (rhythm, intonation, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>processes nonverbal elements of language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>determines the nature of the sentence; declarative, imperative, interrogative or conditional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metaphoric comprehension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>visual perception</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spacial memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intuition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>concrete thought</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The claim that the left hemisphere processes verbal information and the right hemisphere processes visio-spatial information is supported by three types of evidence: 1) studies on unilateral brain damaged patients; 2) studies using dichoptic and dichotic tasks with neurologically intact subjects; 3) studies in split brain patients. The right hemisphere has a greater ability to perform intermodal integration and to process novel stimuli while the left hemisphere is more capable of unimodal and motor processing as well as storage of compact codes. In the process of acquiring a new descriptive system, the right hemisphere plays a role in the initial stages of acquisition, whereas the left hemisphere is superior at utilizing well routinized codes (Goldberg et al. 1989).

Hemispheres are differentially specialized for language related activities. The cortical speech area in the temporal lobe is larger in the left hemisphere than the right hemisphere. Experimenters have demonstrated that left anterior hemispheric damage showed evidence of impaired verbal and intact imagery codes and patients with right anterior hemispheric damage exhibited impaired image and intact verbal codes (Whitehouse 1981).

It is thought that phonological aspects of the language and semantic aspects of language follow separate pathways. Broca’s area is common output for spoken and written words that have meaning though language involves a larger number of areas and a more complex set of interconnections than just serial interconnections of Wernicke’s area and Broca’s area.

In 1867 Hughlings Jackson suggested that the right hemisphere processed images.

\textsuperscript{14} The acronyms L-mode and R-mode were first proposed by Edwards (1979) in attempt to explain and differentiate the thought processes associated with the hemispheres.
to stimuli which engage in a cerebral pattern that "goes from the right hemisphere to the left hemisphere." He further observes that the creation of learning environments, in which the individual is experiencing and working with the target language in a meaningful and affective manner, enhances the processes of language acquisition and learning. Therefore, by initially exposing the learner to contextualized and sensory input which will activate the right hemisphere followed by a analytic and categorical input which will activate the functions of the left hemisphere, acquisition is encouraged. This translates, during the initial phases of learning, to the instructor presenting the material to be learned "in modo contestualizzato e sensoriale, e ricco di connotazioni personologiche" (Danesi 1998: 77). The instructor must then provide the opportunity for the learner to formalize the material learned analytically by using more formal approaches to teaching. In so doing one can be assured that both hemispheres are involved in a complementary manner in the act of language learning and acquisition. In the following chapter we will consider this proposal in more detail.

It is a commonly accepted fact that learning a L2 brings about a reorganization of neural synaptic structure of the brain and restructuring of perception. This reorganization may be considered from the point of view of category formation and as having a direct bearing on the individual's world perception as well as conceptual fluency. It was André Martinet (1964)

15 See Marcel Danesi, *Il cervello in aula!* (Perugia: Guerra Edizioni, 1998) for a detailed discussion of the neurological implication of the bimodal model. In addition implication for language teaching are discussed.

16 Goldberg and Costa (1981) suggest that there is an anatomical foundation for such a process.

17 Conceptual fluency is describes by Danesi (1995: 5) as the ability to use figurative language effectively and defines it as: [knowing], in large part, how that language "reflects" or encodes concepts on the basis of metaphoric reasoning.

Figurative competence or conceptual fluency is the knowledge of how a culture organizes its world conceptually; how this conceptualization is reflected and encoded in the language on the basis of metaphoric reasoning and the ability of the speaker to encode and decode figurative language appropriate to the various situations (Danesi 1995). This ability is vital to language learning and is part of communicative competence.
who stated that to learn a new language does not mean to place new labels on objects one already knows but rather it is a matter of learning and analysing them differently. The personality of the learner has a significant role in the learning process since it is the basis for affective variables which will affect learning in addition to the root of motivation. Danesi (1998: 140) rightly points out that “[p]artendo da questo presupposto, anche l’apprendimento di una L2, in quando elaborazione ed assimilazione di nuove strutture linguistiche sia a livello percettivo che cognitivo, contribuisce alla ristrutturazione della personalità.”

It is believed that communication is based on the same conceptual system that we use to think and act and by studying language we can arrive at an understanding of how one organizes and perceives the world. This is possible due to the commonly accepted notion that knowledge is transmitted and stored in language. This notion of conceptual appropriateness is what is often considered the ability to think in the target language. It is, in fact this skill that instructors try to impart to L2 students, since programming discourse in a metaphorical way is basic property of native speaker competence. In Reddy’s (1993: 167) analysis of the concept of communication he demonstrates how metaphors in language are "coherent with the assumption that human communication achieves the transfer of thoughts and feelings. If there were only a few such expressions involved, or if they were random, incoherent figures of speech arising from different paradigms – or if they were abstract, not particularly graphic images – then one might just succeed in dismissing than as harmless analogies." Hence when our student’s are learning a L2 we are asking them to be conceptually fluent, that is to say, to convert common experiences into conceptually and linguistically appropriate models. Since it is well known that communication requires the cooperation of a speaker and a hearer to encode and decode elements of speech successfully, for this to occur the participants must not only share a common linguistic code but more importantly a common conceptual code. It is agreed
that conceptualization is an intrinsic feature of discourse, that native language discourse is programmed figuratively and that it is a basic property of a speaker’s competence. Then as a competence it can be thought of and treated pedagogically in ways similar to other language competencies (linguistic and communicative) (Danesi 1993a, 1993b, 1995).

Therefore as our students acquire the ability to conceptualize in the target language, we may conclude that a restructuring of the individual’s concept categories and eventually personality occurs. I argue that this restructuring may occur at two levels: the first is at the level of image schema and concept domains (for example acquiring the knowledge that the English wood may corresponds to the Italian bosco, legna, legno, and legname; the individual needs to coordinate and redefine his/her existing image schema to account for this variance – this will be discussed in further detail below), the second level where a restructuring of established concepts occurs is at a metaphoric level (for example in English one would say that "they must defend their doctoral dissertation" whereas in Italian "it is discussed" [discussa]; this reflects a difference in world perception and is expressed through the language). Different cultures have different image schemas and modes of expressing common experience which is reflected in the language. The general approach to language teaching has been to ignore this fundamental aspect of language and concentrate on imparting knowledge about its structure and new vocabulary. Danesi (1998: 125) points out that, "acquistre un 'altra lingua nella sua totalità equivale ad avere nello stesso sistema nervoso due sistemi concettuali paralleli ma interattivi, e controllati da due sistemi linguistici separati ma, anch'essi interattivi."

In their discussion of conceptual and lexical development in SLA Altarriba and Mathis (1994) present a theory of mental imaging in bilingual individuals and those in the process of learning a L2, and report on a study conducted by Potter et al. (1984) "the data from the novice group favored a word association model of processing in that picture naming in the L2 took
longer to perform than translation from L1 to L2. Overall, these results suggest that beginning and advanced bilinguals may access their two languages via different sets of mental links and that a developmental shift in language processing can be observed as a function of language fluency" (Altarriba & Mathis 1994: 551). From this it would appear that language access is influenced by the level of language proficiency. As a result of further study Kroll and her associates propose the following model to explain lexical and conceptual representation in bilingual memory:

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18 Researchers have been dealing with the topic of representation and storage of word and concept of L1 and subsequent learned languages for some time. The two proposals that have been put forth are: 1. that words are stored in separate lexicons for each language and that their corresponding concepts are connected at a semantic level and 2. that words are stored in a common supralinguistic memory structure. There is evidence that supports the existence of separate structures for storing surface forms of translation, while there also exists evidence of the existence of a common conceptual store for both languages. In order to account for these views researchers have proposed that there exists a lexical level and conceptual level in the memory of individuals with the knowledge of more than one language or learning a L2.

To explain the relationship between these two levels in the individual two theories were proposed: Word Association Model and Concept Mediation Model. The first model assumes that there is a direct link between an individual's L1 and L2 and that the L1 is connected directly to the underlying conceptual store. In such instance, it is felt that, the individual might access the meaning of a L2 word by first translating to L1 and then retrieving its meaning from the conceptual level. In the case of the latter model, the assumption is that there are no direct links between languages at the lexical level but that both share a common conceptual store. In such cases comprehension (word meaning) would be arrived at through a direct access of the semantic meaning from the L2 word.

Consider the following figures:

The Word Association Model and Concept Mediation Model of bilingual memory (Kroll & Stewart, 1994).
This model is built on a few assumptions; the first being that there may exist an asymmetrical connection between L1, L2, and conceptual representation. Kroll et al. (1994: 2) explain this occurrence as follows: "Because the second language is initially attached to the first language for the propose of gaining access to the meaning, there are hypothesized to be residual lexical associations that are stronger from L2 to L1 than from L1 to L2." They further assume that the L2 lexicon is smaller than L1 (typically a L2 learner knows more words in L1 than L2). The final assumption is that as the individual’s proficiency in the L2 increases as direct conceptual links are acquired.

The results of a study conducted by Altarriba and Mathis contends that semantic information is coded early in the process of acquisition. They maintain that research conducted by Dagenbach, Carr, and Barnhardt (1990) supported their findings demonstrating that semantics is a necessary component of learning new words and of making associations between words and across languages. This further indicates the importance of learning a language in context and the importance of making the language relevant to the learner as well as placing
emphasis on semantic information.\textsuperscript{19} When learning a L2 one must be aware that the semantic fields of words in the target language and the L2 are not always the same. Consider the following (Freddi 1994: 18):\textsuperscript{20}

\begin{table}[h]
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline
L1 & L2 \\
\hline
\textit{casa} & \textit{home} \\
\textit{house} & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{table}

\begin{table}[h]
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline
L1 & L2 \\
\hline
\textit{short} & \textit{corto} & \textit{basso} \\
\textit{piccolo} & \textit{breve} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{table}

The semantic field of the word \textit{casa} in Italian renders two English words. This demonstrates that each language reflects a different manner of viewing the world and classifying reality (Freddi 1994, Danesi 1995, 1998, Lakoff & Johnson 1980, Maiguascha 1993, 1996). In explanation Freddi (1994: 18) writes "[c]iò significa anche la lingua è una sorta di griglia la quale si frappone tra l'occhio del parlante e la realtà." Students should be permitted to explore

\textsuperscript{19} The idea that words would have to depend on verbal and situational context for their meaning was originally proposed by Saussure in his seminal work \textit{Cours de linguistique générale}, this approach was far from new since a similar position was presented by St. Augustine (uses a form of the direct method in his class) in his opinions and practices. Placing a word in a meaningful context was considered the most natural way for clarification. This method was also practiced by the Romans in their \textit{orthographiae}, a type of textbook which continued to be present during the Middle Ages. In the twentieth century the language teacher saw the sentence as a unit and used it to help students form a base from which to derive the meaning of a new word – also present in the Audio-lingual Method.

If I hear a word I do not know it is a word until I know what it means. Once we establish links with things, we come to know what they mean. St. Augustine's and the medieval scholars' method of teaching, mainly for literary purposes, resulted in the words becoming linked to other words but not to reality.

\textsuperscript{20} Cf. Maiguascha (1993: 115), “Since the time of Aristotle, categories, or concepts, were believed to be abstract entities, types of mental containers.” Rosch (1978) argues that these are not abstract entities but psychological realities which are present in people's minds. Categories are not universal or fixed with clear cut boundaries but rather there exist items in our common daily experience which are more salient or more typical of a category. For example if we think of fruit the images which come to mind are of: apples, pears, oranges not prickly-pear, fig, or guava. Further, boundaries are not always so clear cut: for example a \textit{tomato} is a fruit but most people see it as a vegetable. As a result we may conclude that category boundaries are not well delineated. Consider the confusion that such an issue may pose for the L2 learner.
the L2 semantic categories to become aware that they don’t always coincide with the L1. It is known that categories are culture specific and different cultures divide reality differently (Lakoff & Johnson 1980, Maiguascha 1993). Further, one must be aware that "[...] the lexicon of a language is not an ‘inventory,’ an infinite list of items, as it may appear at first, but rather a ‘system,’ that is, an organized set of interrelated and interdependent elements. In other words, it is highly structured and governed by rules, just as grammar is" (Maiguascha 1993: 112). A linguistic sign does not link an object and a name but a concept and a sound; a sound is linked to an image. Words are semantically related to each other and psycholinguistics point out that lexicon and their meanings are not stored in isolation but in set, clusters or groups.21

It is the speaker/hearer who is responsible for encoding and decoding information and for giving the information its "meaningfulness." A mental strategy is necessary to give meaningfulness and grammaticality to each speech act. "Thus, the teaching of strategic operations must include not only rule-learning activities, as in cognitive code techniques, but also contextualization ones, as in notional-functional approaches. As in the case of tactics, true

21 See R. Maiguascha, "A Robin is more of a bird than a penguin: prototype theory and the teaching of vocabulary," in L2 and Beyond: Teaching and Learning Modern Languages, eds. V. Adamantova, L.G. Sbrocchi, R. Williamson (Ottawa: Legas, 1993), 112-27 (the appendix of this article offers exercises which may be brought into the language classroom); in this work she considers semantic fields and looks at a new way of studying and teaching these. She identifies the following semantic fields (micro-systems within the macro-system of the whole language) and discusses the relevance of taxonomies to L2 teaching:

1. SYNONYMS: affinity of meaning. E.g. happy, blissful, content, satisfied, ...
2. ANTONYMS: opposition of meaning. E.g. open/closed; married/unmarried; ...
3. SCALES: varying degrees of intensity. E.g. warm-hot-boiling-scorching ...
4. MERONOMIES: part-whole relation. E.g. roof, wall, door, window... (HOUSE)
5. TAXONOMIES: class membership. E.g. red, yellow, green, blue ... (COLOR)


It is important for the L2 class that the students be aware of these semantic categories because they may not always correspond to the L1, due to the fact that different cultures may segment or divide reality differently. Cfr. E. Rosch (1978) and E. Rosch & C. B. Mervis (1975) who propose the notion of prototype theory. They consider categories as psychological realities in the individuals’ mind and not as abstract objects in relation to the properties they posses or share with others. See also, George Lakoff, "Cognitive models and prototype theory, in Concepts and Conceptual Development: Ecological and Intellectual Factors in Categorization, ed. Ulric Neisser (Cambridge: Cambridge UP, 1987).
learning has occurred when and only when the learner is able to control and self-regulate the strategic operations in the flow of speech" (Titone 1991: 8). Given what the individual inductively generalizes about the language, at the moment that he/she decides to speak all the elements that he/she knows about the language are assembled to create an utterance that aims at communication – sharing information, views, expressing feelings, beliefs, etc.

3.1.3 Ego-dynamic Level


The ego-dynamic level encompasses the individual’s desire/will or motivation to learn to communicate. All activities, both at the psychological level and at the linguistic level, are initiated by and return to the communicating person. This level consists of personality variables which relate the individual to the outside world and coordinate the tactic and strategic levels with the individual (Titone 1982, 1991). It is therefore important to acknowledge the vital role played by the individual as a conscious, directing and unifying agent. This "self" operates on a higher level and controls all subordinate activities (i.e. the tactic and the strategic).

The ego-dynamics feed on the speaker/hear's existential experiences, his/her world-perception, his/her attitudes and affective components, his/her unconscious/subconscious life, and his/her communicative intentions, volitions and decisions. All of the above is summed up into a form of linguistic self-awareness. The human personality, may be considered as an "open system", ready for and capable of vital exchanges, giving and taking, communicative and
interactive. These are characteristic that define 'social'. The "communicating ego" (Titone 1982) is not an isolated being but is rather a responsive being that interacts with his environment. There exists a constant search for an equilibrium between ego and the world, the two are in constant interaction. This interaction and the manner in which it affects the learner will be considered in greater depth in section 3.3.

The ego-dynamic level includes the following components:

1. **Existential experience of the speaker/hearer**: An individual’s experience is important for expression, whether verbal, iconic or other. In many cases it is a commonly held belief that one learns a language by experiencing it and the manner in which the language is experienced has a direct correlation with the individual’s use of the language. This is the fundamental belief behind many of the humanistic methods discussed in the preceding chapter; for example the Total Physical Response wherein its proposer suggests that learning a language by being involved in specific activities.

2. **World perception**: An individual’s style of expression can be explained by his/her outlook on reality, view of life and the world. This also entails a cultural etiquette of speaking; when, how, etc. which are all part of a behaviour policy that are dependent on the way of life of the individual.

3. **Attitudes**: An individual’s personal, social-cultural and linguistic attitudes. As Krashen and other humanistic scholars bring to our attention a person’s attitude towards a language or specific culture will have a direct result on how quickly and effectively the individual will learn a language.
4. Affective components: Affective components, such as motivation, desire to know a language well enough to pass as a native speaker, should also be considered. Feelings and emotions are often seen as absent from the verbal expression. Language sounds can carry a symbolic value or emotional appeal. One must look to the role the affective aspect of the individual plays in learning. In the past it was mainly seen as a cognitive process based on grammar analysis and memorization of vocabulary words.

The proponents of humanistic methods believe that for learning to be maximally effective it should be aimed at the deeper level of understanding and personal meaningfulness (Asher 1982, Losanov 1978). As we have already discussed such methods emphasize the need to reduce anxiety in the learner and reduce tensions which might inhibit performance and create a resistance to language learning and acquisition. Stevick (1980) highlights the close relationship which exists between poor performance in the target language and anxiety and tension in the learning environment. This idea is central to Krashen’s (1982) filter hypothesis (presented in chapter 2). Krashen stipulates that the affective filter functions as a mental block; if the filter is high learning or acquisition is difficult. “With acquirers who do not have self-confidence, where the situation is tense, where they are on the defensive the filter goes up.” (Krashen 1982: 25). In an introductory chapter of a collection of papers examining anxiety in language learning it is noted that one can identify anxiety related to writing apprehension and receiver apprehension which may contribute to a foreign language learners’ learning, though the most significant feature remains oral stress due to the task of communicating which also contributes to language anxiety. In addition, part of the anxiety which is typically experienced in a language class is also contributed by test anxiety, fear of a negative evaluation. Brown
(1994) hypothesizes that although too much anxiety may have harmful effects on the learning process, too little anxiety may also cause failure; his belief is that a low affective filter may contribute to low motivation. Krashen’s affective filter theory reinforces this particular belief. It is generally accepted among humanistic theories and approaches to language learning that an individual’s emotions, especially the sentiments of fear and inadequateness, will have a negative impact on the learning processes. As a result, it is strongly felt that a comforting and encouraging class environment should be established. Humanistic theories emphasize this fact in their presentation.

5. **Unconscious/conscious sources of verbal messages**: Speech can often act as a mirror of the human soul. It is through an individual’s choice of words that often one can gleam insight into a person’s state of being as opposed to the person’s action. For example, a person who is in a good mood will tend to use much more positively structured language (images associated with the language will also be positive in nature) and manners of expression than an individual who is experiencing a personal crisis.

6. **Communicative intention, volitions, decisions**: Communication will occur only when there is an intention to speak and this only if followed by a decision to speak. Titone considers this the "final step as internal antecedent of the speech act, before the incarnation of thought into words" (1982: 230).

7. **Linguistics awareness**: "The human speaker/hearer is conscious of his ‘self as communicating agent’. Linguistic competence of the highest degree is equal to the ability of total self-perception and self-control of the verbal actor. This is the summit of ‘ego-dynamic’.

But it should be clearly pointed out in this respect that linguistic self-awareness is not to be
identified with self-centred narcissistic 'monologism' (Titone 1977, 1982). Since communicating implies interpersonal contact, linguistic self-awareness is essentially 'dyadic consciousness', that is the perception of one's verbal interactions affecting people and the world." (Titone 1982:230-31).

All language activities ultimately stem from the individual as the centre of accountability in human behaviour. What many theories of language acquisition and behaviour have lacked in the past has been precisely an analysis of this element. They have approached language as strictly a notion of stimulus-response or a matter of learning a few rules. This translates to a view of the learning process in which the individual is absent - the individual who is the centre that acts as a conscious, directing and unifying force is not at all accounted for or considered. In his HDM Titone, in fact, proposes a theory of language learning and behaviour which envisions the speaker's self operating on a higher level, and this self is responsible for controlling all subordinate activities.

Some of the items identified by Titone as being aspects of the ego-dynamic level may be associated with some of the humanistic theories considered in the previous chapter, for example the importance of motivation and attitude in the L2 learning processes. Titone (1991: 9) argues the force of that motivation and attitude "tend[s] to influence most decisively the assimilation, in a profound way personological and behavioral sense, of both language patterns and cultural modalities." Motivation is a powerful factor in language learning and it has a direct bearing on the success or failure of mastering the L2. 22

The existential experiences of the speaker/hearer is important on two levels. The first, as commented above, all humanistic philosophies of language learning share the belief that a positive experience in the target language or with member of the target language culture has a positive result in terms of how well an individual will learn the target language. In addition if the learning of a language occurs at an experiential level, that is, if the learning is meaningful and interesting to the individual, positive results can be expected. Affective variables play an important role in language learning. Elements such as attitudes and states of mind may either enhance or present obstacles to the task of language learning. Communication will occur only when the speaker is comfortable enough to express him/herself in the target language or when dire need demands this. As we noticed in the previous chapter, this is the reason why humanistic theories such as the Natural Approach, Total Physical Response or even the Silent Way enforce the belief that a language learner should, at the beginning of a course, be permitted to remain silent until he/she feels confident enough to speak. This also contributes to the idea of creating a safe learning environment. There are no doubts about the role that the “I” of the individual plays in learning. It affects both motivation and unconscious feelings about the language being learned. Particularly in the early stages of learning motivation, is very important.

The second level at which the existential experiences of the speaker/hearer may be considered is at a metaphorical or conceptual level. It is interesting that the commonly held belief that one learns a language through experience can be elaborated to include the manner in which we experience the language and its effects on the establishment of mental images. We

*linguistica applicata* 3 (1991): 5-17, for a review of the literature dealing with the role of motivation and attitude in L2 learning as well as a discussion of the nature of motivation and attitude.
can also include the ways that our linguistic structures reflect our experience of the world. Lakoff and Johnson (1980: 3), in their seminal work *Metaphors We Live By*, argue that

> The concepts that govern our thought are not just matters of intellect. They also govern our everyday functioning, down to the most mundane details. Our concepts structure what we perceive, how we get around in the world, and how we relate to other people. Our conceptual system thus plays a central role in defining our everyday realities.\(^3\)

It is believed that communication is based on the same conceptual system that we use in thinking and acting. Thus, by studying language we can arrive at an understanding of how one organizes and perceives the world. Therefore not only does our experience mould the manner in which we perceive the target language but at a much lower level it also determines the manner in which we express ourselves in the target language and about the language.\(^4\) This

\(^3\) In their book *Metaphors we live by*, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) give a detailed explanation of how our world experience is reflected in our language. The theoretical model elaborated by the authors presented a cognitive and experiential view of metaphor, fundamental to language and thought, which has been widely accepted. They demonstrated that metaphors and other forms of figurative language are structured systematically and by deconstructing the concepts linguistically one can reveal and access their underlying metaphorical structure. They argue that metaphor is omnipresent in our day to day lives, not only in language but also in thought and in actions. Further, our conceptual system, that which permits us to think and act, is deeply metaphorical. This view is also supported by Gibbs (1990: 5) who writes, “recent advances in cognitive linguistics, philosophy, anthropology, and psychology show that not only is much of our language metaphorically structured, but so is our cognition. People conceptualize experiences in figurative terms via metaphor, metonymy, irony, oxymoron, and so on, and these principles underlie the way we think, reason and imagine.”

\(^4\) It is believed that communication is based on the same conceptual system that we use in thinking and acting and by studying language we can arrive at an understanding of how one organizes and perceives the world. By deconstructing and analysing phrases and taking concepts apart linguistically to reveal their underlying metaphorical structure Lakoff and Johnson (1980) demonstrated that metaphors and metonymy are structured systematically. The result of this work led to a division of metaphors into four main categories: orientational, ontological, structural and conventional and new. Consider the following examples.

**Oriental metaphors:** are set on the notion of space. According to the authors our interaction with the world is most easily associated to the space occupied by our physical bodies: up-down; in-out; in front-back; on-off; deep-shallow. These have as their basis our physical and cultural experience. They are most often employed to reduce/understand complex and abstract experiences. These metaphors organize a whole system of concepts with respect to another and move from known to unknown, from concrete to the abstract.
theory also includes the idea of world perception and explains how the expressions we use reflect both our internal reality as well as our external reality.

When students learn a language they are in fact being asked to be conceptually fluent, that is to say, to convert experiences into conceptually and linguistically appropriate models. As most instructors point out, present day L2 language students lack the ability to use the target language metaphorically.\(^{25}\) Scholars (Danesi 1995, Lakoff & Johnson 1980, Maiguascha 1992,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HAPPY IS UP; SAD IS DOWN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I'm feeling up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I'm in high spirits.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My spirit was boosted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I'm feeling down.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I'm depressed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I fell into a depression.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ontological metaphors: are employed to understand our experiences in terms of objects and substances allowing us to pick out parts of our experiences and treat them as discrete entities or substances of a uniform kind. The authors write, "Once we can identify our experiences as entities or substances, we can refer to them, categorize them, group them and quantify them... and by this means reason about them."

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THE MIND IS A BRITTLE OBJECT</th>
<th>IDEAS ARE OBJECTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The experience shattered him.</td>
<td>I didn't grasp what he said.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>His mind snapped.</td>
<td>I gave him a whole bunch of ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She is easily crushed.</td>
<td>He stole his idea.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Structural metaphors: one concept is metaphorically structured in terms of another. They allow for great flexibility and creativity in establishing relations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ARGUMENT IS WAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Your claims are indefensible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He attacked every weak point in my argument.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>His criticism was right on target.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other examples include: TIME IS A RESOURCE, LABOUR IS A RESOURCE

Conventional and new: They divide metaphors into literal and nonliteral or ‘imaginative.’ Here distinctions are made between those experiences which are more physical and those which are more cultural in nature.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LOVE IS A PHYSICAL FORCE</th>
<th>UNDERSTANDING IS SEEING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>His love carried me away.</td>
<td>I finally saw his point of view.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For examples of nonliteral consider:

- He prefers massive Gothic theories covered in gargoyles.
- Complex theories usually have problems with plumbing.

\(^{25}\) Most grammar tests, including those which encourage communicative competence through notional functional or other syllabi provide specific tools for conversation under specific circumstances and for special pragmatic concerns but do not offer or provide the necessary information for developing conceptual fluency. [see Jana Vizmuller-Zocco, "Metaphoric competence of the advanced foreign language Learner: Vico in the foreign language classroom," in L2 and Beyond: Teaching and Learning Modern Languages, eds. V. Adamantova, L. G. Sbrocchi and R. Williamson (Ottawa: Legas Publishing, 1993)] Also noteworthy is the significant absence of metaphors and other forms of figurative language in typical grammar books. In a survey conducted of North
1993) have argued that figurative language (or metaphors) is a omnipresent in our day to day lives, not only in language but also in the thought and actions of our conceptual system, which permits us to think and act in a deeply metaphorical manner. This view is further supported by Gibbs (1994:5) who writes:

Recent advances in cognitive linguistics, philosophy, anthropology, and psychology show that not only is much of our language metaphorically structured, but so is our cognition. People conceptualize their experiences in figurative terms via metaphor, metonymy, irony, oxymoron, and so on, and these principles underlie the way we think, reason, and imagine.

Therefore it is this inability to use figurative language which produces a textbook-like discourse in our students that we must work on eliminating. The ability missing in the student lies beyond the grammatical and communicative proficiency of the language learner. This is partially due to the fact that though the learner speaks using the grammatical and communicative information of the target language they are thinking in terms of their native language conceptual system. If the two systems coincide the student’s text coincides with the culturally appropriate discourse text (Danesi 1995). The critical problem in written or oral communication arises when of the American Italian, Spanish and French grammar texts it was noted that, in all the texts taken together, less than 10% of the contained material was metaphor in nature (Dan esi 1992). Interestingly enough, it was also noted that when lexical structures or verbs were introduced in a given text the metaphoric use of the item was never considered. Generally, if metaphor is at all present in the curriculum it appears fragmented, disassociated from the language or as a list of idiomatic expressions which the student is expected to memorize. The L2 learner is not asked to reflect on nor discuss the semantic elements of the expressions or phrases to glean insight into the target culture or arrive at an understanding of the conceptual structure of the language.
two the concept domain of the target language is not similar to the image schema of the learner's native tongue. In order to use figurative language in the L2 the learner must acquire the image schemas of the target language and in so doing, brings about a restructuring of the existing native language conceptual system.

A further item included in our understanding of the existential experience of the speaker/hearer has to do with the social/cultural aspects of the language in terms of: what can and cannot be expressed; the acceptable manner of behaving and speaking within the target culture; and proper semantics of target language. Further, one may argue that to know a L2 means to discover a cultural dimension different from the culture of one's native language as well as to acknowledge that the world may be perceived, categorized, and reorganized in a manner different from our own (Freddi 1979, 1994, Danesi 1995, 1998). A further consideration is the presence of metaphoric language in terms of the inclusion into the language class of proverbs and modes of speaking.

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26 A study conducted in 1977 by Howard Pollio and his associates revealed that the average native speaker of English invents approximately 3,000 metaphors per week and utters approximately 7,000 idiomatic expressions or frozen metaphors. Others have demonstrated that metaphorical comprehension in native speakers does not take longer than comprehension of literal utterances (Gerrig & Healey 1983). A study undertaken by Glucksberg, Gildea & Bookin (1982) demonstrated that people were, in fact biased toward the figurative meaning of sentences, while research on anomalous strings ("Colourless green ideas sleep furiously") disclosed that the metaphorizing capacity in the individual leads people to extract meaning from well-formed combinations of words (eg. Pollio & Burns 1977, Pollio & Smith 1979). An interesting work by Blasko & Connine (1993) demonstrated that rapid processing of metaphor is facilitated by the subject's previous experience with the material. These studies all suggest that metaphorical thinking is dominant in native speakers, that it is an "ever-present option in discourse, and that literal thinking might actually constitute a special, limited case of communicative behaviour (Danesi 1994). This also lends credence to Lakoff and Johnson's (1980: 3) claim that "[o]ur ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature." Winner (1982: 253) comments that if "people were limited to strictly literal language, communication would be severely curtailed, if not terminated."

3.3 Discussion

History and research have demonstrated that no one theory can account for all of the language learning process, hence it is necessary to utilize a variety of disciplines to be able to accurately describe this process. SLA is an interdisciplinary field. In the past, behaviouristic theories of language learning, which saw language formation as the establishment of linguistic habits, were believed to account for all of language learning. This theory saw human learning as a result of conditioning and habit formation.\(^{28}\) Further, the belief that first language acquisition is similar to SLA was influenced by the behaviouristic models of language acquisition (Spolsky 1990). The behaviouristic position was soon replaced by a cognitive view of language learning where it was demonstrated that there are aspects of human behaviour which can not be so easily observed, i.e. thinking and the organization of knowledge and the idea that language is a system of internalized rules. Cognitive theorists have proposed that learning is a matter of thoughts, ideas, and images and not a series of stimuli and responses. They have maintained that many differences exist between first language acquisition and SLA and this has been manifested in teaching methodologies which have subsequently developed.

\[^{28}\] Much of this train of thought stems from the work of Pavlov who conducted a series of conditioning experiments on dogs. He demonstrated that once conditioned, a response to stimulus can be attained even if the stimulus is not present directly. John B. Watson claimed that the Pavlovian belief that the learning process consisted in forming this type of association was true also for human learning. Skinner is responsible for the establishment of neobehaviourism. In essence he proposed that sort of conditioning proposed by Pavlov was typical of animal learning and not indicative of human conditioning, thus proposing a theory of operant conditioning which maintains that an individual retains only a response which has been confirmed or reinforced.
In the 1970s humanistic psychologists presented humanistic or affective based theories to account for language learning. As was demonstrated in the previous chapter, a humanistic view of language learning focuses on the learner and the variables each individual brings to the learning task. The most important aspects of the learner's personality are thus motivation, and attitude. The humanistic view of language learning is more open and offers greater flexibility.

In short, it is less rigid in its view of language and language learning. They do not separate language from the individual and treat it as an independent phenomenon which can be explained and studied. In other words it is not conceived of as independent from the vessel which contains it. Instead these theories see language as a part of the individual, an outer expression of an inner whole. It is in fact this characteristic that the HDM shares with other humanistic methods and builds on. The HDM does not disassociate the individual from the language, offering either only a habit formation explanation or a strictly cognitive or rule formation explanation of the nature of language learning and language behaviour. The HDM presents a strong argument for the centrality of the individual with all his/her weaknesses and strengths and the role the individual's personality plays in governing verbal behaviour (verbal fluency, conceptual fluency, and communicative fluency).

A comprehensive theory for explaining SLA should account for a number of key factors which have been demonstrated, by research in the field, to be issues that must be justified. Some critics maintain that a theory designed to explain L2 learning cannot possibly also account for first language acquisition whereas others argue that a theory of language acquisition which is not flexible enough to account for both first or L2 learning/acquisition is incomplete (Carroll 1981, Spolsky 1990). It is an accepted fact that there are key differences between L1 and L2
learning, but I must agree with Spolsky (1990: 2) when he argues that “any theory of second language learning that leads to a single method is obviously wrong. If you look at the complexity of the circumstances under which second languages are learned, or failed to be learned, you immediately see that a theory must not only be equally complex but must also be able to account for the success and failure of the many different methods that have been and are used throughout the language teaching world.[...] Ideally, rather than seeking separate theories of first and second language learning, I should perhaps be pursuing a unified theory of language learning, which would, within itself distinguish between first and second language learning, [...]” One does not want to create a theory of SLA which is to broad to be effective and in so doing blurring the details (McLaughlin 1987:157).

Second language learning is a complex process. A single theory should itself be complex enough to account for all aspects of what it is to “know” a language. As Spolsky (1990: 12) points out “a general theory of second language learning must allow for all the complexity of what it means to know and use a second language. In doing this, it is particularly necessary to account both for the macrolevel of various kinds of functional proficiency and the microlevel of specific items and structures.” Therefore a theory should consider the involvement of the environmental input of the classroom, imitation and rote memorization, as well as cognitive learning strategies. Thus we might say that it should be able to integrate behaviouristic, cognitive and affective theories of language learning. Spolsky (1990) also supports an integrative view of language acquisition. Theory will have implications for teaching but not direct applications (see also Spolsky 1990; Titone and Danesi 1985; Widdowson 1984: 28-36). Titone’s HDM not only can be used to explain both L1 and L2 learning but quite nicely lends
itself to all learning. It identifies the various levels at which learning occurs (that is to say the outer demonstration of having effectively processed and assembled a skill, the inner structuring of such knowledge, and the underlying motivations for choices made and expressions used) and provides an integrated explanation in terms of personality. Titone's Model best portrays the complexity of the problems faced in learning a L2 and the existence of various levels of analysis (Titone 1973, Porcelli 1994). In the chapters which follow we will look at how Titone's HDM translates into a methodology for L2 teaching and its implications and applications for the L2 classroom.
Chapter IV

Considerations for a
Holodynamic View of Second Language Teaching

4.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter we layed the theoretical foundations for the pedagogical discussion which follows. In addition we considered the philosophical premisses upon which Titone bases his theory for a second language (L2) teaching methodology. As we have seen the Holodymanic Model (HDM) for language behaviour and language learning as set out by its inventor is unlike previous models since it is constructed around the person and not on cognition, social factors or on behaviouristic issues. Since the individual is considered from a humanistic perspective the instructor must consider motivation, attitude, personal experience and mode of perception and expression when planning a lesson or even considering syllabus design. The act of communicating is the manifestation of personological attributes which add to the ability to symbolize, verbalize, conceptualize and express oneself in the target language. The personality of the learner is at the very foundation of the affective and motivational variables associated with humanistic methodologies.

The HDM is most closely related to the humanistic theories of language learning discussed in chapter two. These theories have a number of features in common with the HDM, the most important being the centrality of the individual learner. The following is a brief summary of the other ‘elements’ the two have in common:
It involves the whole person (body, mind and soul) in the act of learning: affective, cognitive and physical.

L2 learning manifests some superficial similarity to first language learning but fundamentally the two are different.

It proposes an inductive approach to teaching, that is to say, the student should be given the tools with which to arrive at his/her own conclusions about the manner in which the target language is structured before it is introduced formally.

The student should be empowered with his/her own learning.

Correction of errors should be kept to a minimum and then only if there is fear that the errors interfere with the act of communicating.

The target language should be used for communication from the outset.

Cooperation among students and group work is an important part of the learning process and the creation of an autonomous, strong learner.

The area of greatest divergence between other humanistic theories and HDM is that the latter offers greater flexibility for structured activities and learning. If we compare it, for example, to Curran’s Community Language Learning (C-L/CLL) in which the structure of the course and the topics and issues discussed during the lesson are left to the discretion of the individual student, we notice that although HDM requires topics and ideas to be established ahead of time, it nevertheless provides sufficient flexibility in adapting the course to learner needs and motivations. As in humanistic models, I concede that it is important that an atmosphere of
support, comfort and relaxation be established in the language class. The importance and role of the learner is paramount. The objective in such an event is to involve the student in communication. In so doing one must consider the student’s need for the language and any future use and context. We must elicit the student’s interest as well as educate the individual about the language and the culture, as well as aspects of life. Thus as instructors our wish is to have the student experience the language. Tremblay and associates (1990) argue that it is through interest that one may achieve the goal of total personal involvement characteristic of experiential learning. Other scholars have identified this interest as motivation and it has been demonstrated that motivated learners tend to do better in second language acquisition (SLA). The syllabus, thus, must consider the needs of the student and factors of motivation and emotion. In addition, its presentation permits and encourages the interaction and integration of behaviouristic, cognitive, communicative and affective elements in order to arrive at a more effective and eclectic atmosphere for language learning while providing a source of humanistic teaching.

The HDM provides the theoretical foundation necessary to permit the instructor to incorporate into the L2 classroom aspects of habit formation, emphasising cognitive rules and proper communicative structures in a sound and effective manner as opposed to a hap-hazardly constructed lesson. The difference between this particular view of habit formation and the type proposed by behaviourists and structuralists is that Titone does not view language as a theoretical construct separate from or isolated from the individual nor as mere stimulus-response type habits but rather as structured, organized and implemented by the personality of the individual learner as he/she interacts with the world. In addition, the choice of exercises utilized to reinforce structures that are acquired inductively (linguistic communicative or conceptual) or deductively
(depending of the difficulty of the structure) are not only relevant but must be based on the topic of the unit and not presented as isolated sentences with no cohesion or unity. In concentrating on the individual and his/her needs, elements of the L2 culture and language acquired are utilized as sources for the pedagogical material. Such an approach permits teaching flexibility and creativity. It demands that the instructor be creative and innovative, often placing great pressure on him/her. It also permits the language class to be meaningful, incorporating comprehensive input, establishing language-rich learning environments, centred on affective issues such as motivation, attitude, and fear in order to reduce the psychological barriers which may exist in the learner as a result of language learning.

We will begin with a description of the pedagogical techniques the HDM suggests for the language class and consider the pedagogical model that this theory presumes given specific teaching techniques. Such a model will consider the role of the learner. We will also discuss the type of environment which must be established in the L2 class to stimulate the learning process and the assimilation of language units into the individual’s verbal behaviour and personality.

### 4.1 Holodynamic View of Language Teaching

Numerous views of integrated approaches to language teaching have been presented, but when considering the literature, one immediately notices that the interpretation of the term “integrated” is two-fold. Some writers perceive an integrated method as one that takes into consideration speaking, listening, reading and writing skills and a program that will assimilate all these skills
within its instruction.\footnote{For a similar view of integration see Linda M. Crawford Lange & Dale L. Lange, “Integrating language and culture: How to do it,” Theory in Practice 26.4 (1987): 258-66; I. A. Zimnjaja, R. P. Nemanova, L. V. Petropavlova, and Flavio DiSilvestre, “Integrated teaching of aspects of the verbal activity,” Rassegna italiana di linguistica applicata 20.2 (1988): 183-98.} Others suggest that an integrated teaching method (the one which we will consider here) essentially entails the assimilation of behaviouristic, cognitive and humanistic approaches into language teaching. These methods are also referred to as eclectic or holistic, though some authors argue that the term eclectic is inappropriate because it gives the impression of thoughts and techniques hap-hazardly pulled together from various sources (Brown 1994, Danesi 1981, Freddi 1994, Porcelli 1994, Titone & Danesi 1985). In considering the HDM, one immediately notices that it lends itself to the integration of these precise elements when proposing a view of language learning. The tactic level supports the presence of pattern practice and rote learning as an aspect of the learning process. The strategic level lends itself to a discussion of the importance of communicative tasks and cognitive abilities, while the presence of the ego-dynamic level supports the importance of including an experiential, student centre learning environment and promoting affective values.

As we established in chapter one, if one categorizes teaching methods according to psycholinguistic theories and their pedagogical implications, these may be divided into those methods which are behaviouristic by nature and those which are cognitive (this excludes those humanistic methods discussed in chapter 2). Studies on language acquisition since the 1960s have demonstrated that though teaching methods based exclusively on pattern drills and rote learning seemed effective in teaching language units this method of teaching and learning created situations where, after many years of language classes, students still failed to communicate in
the target language. It was the generally held belief that if one learned the patterns and rules of a language then it would not be very difficult to develop more creative uses for the information during spontaneous conversations. Time and experience has proven this belief to be ill-founded.

In the 1970s cognitive approaches were introduced as a reaction to the behaviouristic methods which were being used in the 1960s, based on the belief that the structure of a language should be taught as opposed to the memorization of patterns. After some time it was demonstrated that this too was not the answer to the problem of effectively teaching and learning a L2. As we saw in chapter two, the humanistic approaches, though closer to the goals here proposed, also had many short comings. Hence, as many scholars maintain and most instructors have discovered through experience, it is necessary to approach the issue of language teaching and learning from a variety of angles to amalgamate all the knowledge in a rational and coherent manner. It has been rightly argued that no one theory can possibly account for all of the language-learning process (Brown 1994, Titone & Danesi 1985). Carroll (1981: 463-64) argues "[...] that the learning of second languages requires both the acquisition of knowledge about rules and the formation of the habits described by the rules. [...] situational meaning must be incorporated into language rules, and that the corresponding language habits must be made contingent upon these situational meanings."

Let us consider the contributions of the tri-level model:

1. **Tactic level:** This level encourages the use of pattern practice and rote learning similar to what was encountered in our discussion of behaviouristic methods of language teaching. It enforces the idea that certain aspects of language entail habit formation or conditioning and other purely mechanical activities such as memorization. Conditioning techniques such as imitation,
repetition, pattern practice, etc. are necessary when teaching tactical operations of the target language. These include perceptual and motor operations. It is the outer manifestation that all the inner categories and rules have been established correctly and efficiently.

2. **Strategic level**: Learning grammar rules and proper use of target language in communicative situations, that is strategic operations, requires functional and deductive teaching techniques (Titone & Danesi 1985). This level encourages cognitive approach techniques. It should also incorporate in the unit such items as a discussion of semantic fields, idiomatic expressions, and concept boundaries. The use of teaching strategies which activate the right hemisphere such as rhymes, songs, role-play or other activities which stimulate visual-spatial abilities are suggested.

3. **Ego-dynamic level**: It is important for the teacher to be aware of students' learning styles, personality variables and affective issues, and to remember to create and maintain a supportive and stress-free learning environment, while minimizing or eliminating inhibitions and fears. Given that it is the ego-dynamic level which controls the strategic and tactic levels, an environment in which it will function freely is desired. "In other words, the ego-dynamic level relates the form of language to its use in actual communication settings. The implications for language teaching are obvious. The learner's personality must always be taken into account in the selection of an appropriate teaching strategy or in the establishment of a student-teacher relationship." (Titone 1991: 8). This particular aspect was emphasized in Curran’s C-L/CLL.

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2 Studies conducted demonstrated that the consumption of small amounts of alcohol improved pronunciation in the L2. It was demonstrated that lowering inhibitions induced a state of greater permeability of ego boundaries.
4.1.1. Holodynamic Teaching Principles

The aim then, is to translate notions of the HDM into principles for a coherent teaching practice. As an instructor one’s aim is to impart to the students the ability to manipulate and use the target language in a communicatively sound manner since it is required to articulate our existence. Di Pietro (1976: 14-15) points out that,

Insofar as we are social beings, we find it necessary to use language to articulate our existence. Whether we use sounds or sign language, our personalities are verbal expressions of ourselves. With time we develop distinct strategies of speech to assure that our personalities will emerge intact from any verbal encounter.

From the information of the HDM for language learning and language behaviour, as presented in chapter three, several pedagogical principles may be formulated which will facilitate the teaching process. These will draw on the model itself for theoretical support, and will also borrow from bimodal teaching principles in an effort to help explain and expose holodynamic pedagogical principles. The five teaching principles set forth by Danesi (1988, 1998) based on his bimodal model are the following: modal directionality, modal focussing, contextualization, creativity and personalization.3 A truly Holodynamic approach to language instruction must

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3 These five principles can be briefly described in the following manner:

Modal directionality: The term expresses the desired direction “flow” of learning with respect to the neuro-scientific principles as outlined by Danesi in Cervello in aula! (1998). The underlying principle of the bimodal model states that R-mode is superior to L-mode in the case of initial orientation type tasks and as a result the “flow” or direction of learning initially is from the right hemisphere to the left hemisphere. As a result instruction should begin by stimulating the right hemisphere and then proceed to involve the left hemisphere. Therefore the move is from contextualized capacities to analytic or text-based – from context to text.

Modal focussing: simply impresses the fact that at times it is necessary to focus on the organizational capacities of the left hemisphere – this is responsible for structuring of verbal production.

Contextualization: presence dialogue and other text that support the teaching of linguistic structures and forms.

Creativity: those language practices which permit the use of figurative and metaphoric language.

Personalization: the presence of the ego of the learner, thus entails the affective domain of the right hemisphere in language tasks. See Marcel Danesi, Neurolinguistica e glottotidatica ((Padova: Liviana, 1988) and Il cervello in aula! (Perugia: Edizioni Guerra, 1998), 150-53, for a detailed description of these pedagogical principles.
involve the application of 3 pedagogical principles: 1) *Ego-dynamic principles* which are divided into *personalization* and *world view* (contextualization); *modal directionality* (borrowed from the bimodal model); and *strategic principles*.

### 4.1.1.1 *Ego-dynamic Principles*

Ego-dynamic principles are derived from the ego-dynamic level of the HDM. These are arrived at by considering the various aspects of the individual’s personality and variables. As we may recall from our discussion of the ego-dynamic level, the contributions to language acquisition may be viewed as external to the individual as well as internal. The internal variables lend themselves to a discussion of *personalization*, that is to say aspects of the learner’s self which affect the learning process and should be addressed when teaching. The second category which develops from this discussion are those variables which for lack of a better qualifier I will refer to as external variables (certain similarities to Danesi’s notion of conceptualization exist), and defined as *world view principles*. These include the conceptual or world view aspects of the individual’s personality, which when learning a L2, through the acquisition of new linguistic structures both at the level of perception and cognition, when they come into contact with the individual’s personality interact with it. This affects a restructuring which offers a new insight into the world. Di Pietro (1993: 44) draws our attention to the fact that “[h]aving another language with which to discuss familiar problems gives the students new ways to find insights that might have been clouded over by the language they customarily use to verbalize their thinking process.” Further, one may argue that to know a L2, means to discover a different cultural dimension that takes the form of an acknowledgement that the world may be perceived,
categorized, and reorganized in a manner different from our own (Freddi 1979, 1994, Danesi 1995, 1998).

**Personalization Principle**

The individual, as has been stated many times, is the central premise of the HDM. It is the presence of the “self” or ego of the learner and all the variables it involves that must be contended with by the L2 instructor. The *personological principle* maintains the necessity of including in the teaching process those techniques presented by humanistic methodologies in creating a learner-centred classroom that focuses on establishing a positive, comfortable, safe learning environment in which the individual feels confident to express his/her opinion, discuss personal experiences, and express his/her feelings. This is the key to any good teaching method. It will be of particularly importance to keep this fact in mind during those phases of the course where the use of relevant, meaningful exercises intended for pattern practice and reinforcement are used. The instructor must help the student become self-aware, uninhibited and unafraid to make errors while using the language. As Arries (1994: 528) states: “[t]he identification and valuing of self are aspects of the individual personality to which the instructor must attend if he/she wishes to help focus the learners’ ‘will’ to communicate.” By making the learning process personal it helps to provide real-life experiences that motivate the desire to communicate.

It is vital to note that ego-dynamic operations govern the learning process and mediate it. Unlike the generally held belief of earlier language learning theories, learning is not just brought about by acquiring cognitive rules or establishing behaviouristic habits. As a result the choice of topics for each unit must be such that they permit the learner to feel personally
involved in the interaction as well as considerate of and based on the learner's linguistic and communicative needs. There should be enough flexibility to accommodate the student's personal world perceptions and manner of self expression, without infringing on these. At the same time the learner should be introduced to the world perceptions of the target culture both by analysing the language, and the image schemas and conceptual boundaries contained within the structures. Di Pietro (1993) argues that the learner's ego may be preserved by allowing him/her to decide how much of the target culture he/she wants to assimilate, while thinking independently in the target language. This may be accomplished only through the use of authentic language or true-to-life scenarios.

All this translates into the fact that emphasis should be placed on how the student approaches communicative as well as problem solving tasks and not on the language necessary to accomplish these goals. Focus, therefore, should not be on form but on content. In discussing the holodynamic principles of his Strategic Interaction Di Pietro (1993: 40) points out that "[a]s soon as the learner's attention is turned to how things are being said and away from what is being said, the scenario becomes a failure." Therefore one must ensure that the student experiences the language. This argument is similar to that posed by the followers of the Total Physical Response who presented a teaching methodology based exclusively on physically interaction with and within the target language or Community Language Learning in which the message is the final goal. Formal discussion of the language in such circumstances takes place after the presentation of the scene in order that the emphasis remains on simulating life. It is important to avoid mere "drills" devoid of meaning or learning power. It is during the analysis portion of a teaching unit that formal grammatical knowledge is presented.
This personological view of the student sees them as individuals and not as computers who assimilate input elaborate it and spew it out (Titone 1977, 1982, 1993, Porcelli 1994, Freddi 1994, Danesi 1998). Such a view results in the establishment of a teaching scenario which must be meaningful, and must link the life experiences of the learner with the object-language. The target language cannot be taught in isolation. The words and structures cannot be separated from their meaning or cultural use. The elements of the language being taught are not ingredients in a recipe which is to be followed but rather must serve as the code which the individual will use to express him/herself, his/her interests likes and dislikes, feelings, opinions and arrive at self directed decisions. A practical example of an application of such a position may be expressed in the following manner:
• TEMA = i ristoranti
  Descrivi il tuo ristorante preferito. Cos'è che ti piace in questo posto? Quante volte alla settimana vai ad un ristorante? Che genere di cucina è? Perché ti piace?

• TEMA = moda
  Discussione in classe.

The other aspect of a personological view takes into consideration the fact that each student has a different learning strategy and manner in which a language is best learnt. The instructor must be aware of this fact and try to incorporate various teaching strategies in an effort to accommodate different learning styles. These variances in learning styles if considered in

4 Other similar examples as outlined by Danesi 1992/1997

• TEMA CONCETTUALE = l'oroscopo
  Discussione in classes.
  Quali sono le tue caratteristiche personali secondo il tuo oroscopo? Sei d'accordo? Perché sì/no? Credi negli oroscopi? Perché sì/no?

• TEMA CONCETTUALE = viaggiare
  Decrivi le tue impressioni quando sei in un aeroporto tipico o nella cabina di un aereo.
  Provi fastidio?
  Ti piace stare in coda?
  Che cosa fai se riconosci qualcuno?
  Quali sono le tue impressioni prima del decollo? Durante il viaggio? Durante l'atterraggio?
  Ecc.
terms of Danesi’s bimodel model represent the difference between particular hemispheric preference: L-mode or R-mode. An L-mode learner would experience a great deal of difficulty learning using a technique which is meant to stimulate R-mode learning. In such instances it is important that the instructor balance the teaching activities among the two modalities. Personalization requires the direct involvement of the student and as a result calls into play the affective domain of the right hemisphere in the language learning task.

**World View Principle (conceptualization)**

This principle attempts to step outside of the learner to consider how the L2 being learned may influence the individual, the internal restructuring which is brought about by the acquisition of a L2, and the compromises which must be reached in order for a language to be acquired and come to be integrated into the individual’s personality. If language itself may be seen as human – a container for the life experiences of a whole culture or people then one cannot approach language teaching or even communication as a mathematical equation where $1+1=2$. Each word in the target language is represented by a sound; each sound is linked to a meaning and image/concept which may or may not coincide with the learner’s L1. In addition, Danesi argues that grammatical and lexical categories are correlated to concept categories and experience also. The student learning a L2 must, therefore, also learn about the life of the language through

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5 See note 13 in Chapter 3 for a discussion of cerebral modality.

his/her understanding of concept boundaries, metaphorical usage, proverbs, and conceptual domains. Freddi (1994: 4-5) states, "[q]anto alla lingua, è essa stessa un fatto culturale che si colloca al centro degli altri fatti culturali, in quanto funge da specchio e da veicolo di tutta la vita del gruppo. Detto in altre parole, a certe condizioni la lingua diventa lo strumento per penetrare nella, e decifrare la, visione del mondo, la Weltanschauung del popolo che la parla."

Included in this domain of language are also all the nonverbal language of a target culture such as gestures, tone, social interactions and register.

The material for the unit should not be selected according to grammatical structure nor presented according to the order of difficulty of these structures but rather the units should be selected based on conceptual domains, communicative functions and in response to the learner’s communicative needs. The unit should be based on the type of language that the learner will most likely be in contact with during authentic conversation with native speakers. Canale and Swain (1980) argue that a functionally based communicative approach, in which the functions are organized in terms of communicative functions, is more likely to have a positive effect on learner motivation than a grammar-based communicative approach. I would further supplement this by adding that inclusion of conceptually significant material in a unit will further enhance the learning process. The following is a list of some suggested topics for such units.
agreeing and disagreeing - this would include a look at concept domains such as argument is war, and the various ways of expressing disagreements
* social aspect – must consider aspects such as register, pragmatic aspects of language
* telling time - figurative time expressions; time is money, etc.
* greetings - look at forms of greeting and taking leave; the polite vs. the familiar forms of addressing individuals, cultural aspects of greetings (kissing each cheek, etc.)

In order to supplement such exercises and make them more interesting consideration of semantic fields, false cognates, slangs, and etymologies of words may be included.
For example: etymology of CIAO / SALVE

Therefore one's choice of grammatical structures and lexical items, as well as communicative categories to include in a teaching unit will, be based on similar functions or concepts. As presented in chapter three the student's perception of the world as expressed through language is a key factor for this consideration. By structuring the teaching unit in such a way that one introduces the learner to the manner in which the target culture organizes its world, ensures the development of “knowledgeable aliens” (Di Pietro 1993). One must work with the language in relation to itself and not as a transformation. For the class environment to be conducive to learning one must establish the use of a living, practical language with which the learner is able to express and convey ideas provided with the necessary structures to do so. “[i]l principio della concettualizzazione permette di organizzare il materiale da apprendere in un modo ricco di ramificazioni culturali e cognitive” (Danesi 1998: 161).
The importance of conceptual domains was touched on in the previous chapter in our discussion of the work on metaphor conducted by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) in which they demonstrated that within the structure of the metaphor are hidden insights into how we conceptualize of the world, how we experience the world and its affects on our use of language. It is this skill that as an instructor one wishes to impart to his/her learner in the hopes of eliminating the textbook-like quality of student speech that individuals have been accused of acquiring in the language class. This ability to speak of abstract concepts such as war, time, love, knowledge, etc. in terms of food, plants, math reflects the mental categories of a culture, of which the members of the target culture are no longer consciously aware. Armed with this knowledge it is the hope of all instructors that their students will be able to utilize language in a creative and autonomous manner, representing and speaking of their world in the target language.

The metaphorical nature of a language is not only limited to conceptual domains but it has been demonstrated that grammatical structures also share this attribute. Consider for example the use of the Italian prepositions in and a to indicate travelling to cities, regions, countries, or large islands.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vado in Italia</th>
<th>vs.</th>
<th>I am going to Italy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Andiamo in Sicilia</td>
<td>vs.</td>
<td>We are going to Sicily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Va a Roma</td>
<td>vs.</td>
<td>He/she went to Rome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vado a Capri</td>
<td>vs.</td>
<td>I am going to Capri</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Let us briefly look at Danesi (1993a: 43): consider the use of the prepositions since and for in sentences such as the following:

1. I have been living here since 1980.
2. I have known Lucy since November.
3. I have not been able to sleep since Monday.
4. I have been living here for fifteen years.
An analysis of these examples quickly reveals that all places that follow the preposition *in* are viewed as *containers*; i.e. a movement to a large container which not only holds cities, towns, regions or provinces but also the people within these geographical areas. Whereas, all the locations which follow *a*, small islands, cities or towns are compartments within the container country. Therefore in Italian when you are going to a city, you are moving to a specific compartment within the container. The Italian *in/a* can be contrasted to the English *to*, which not only does not share a similar dichotomy of containment, but conceptualize travelling to a location as a mere matter of movement and directionality.

Consider, a further example of this type of grammatical metaphor, presented by Danesi (1998: 159) in which he looks at how the difference between *piacere* and *essere simpatico* can be integrated into a teaching unit in a conceptual manner.

(5) I have known Lucy for nine months.
(6) I have not been able to sleep for five days.

An analysis of the complements that follow *since* or *for* reveals that those which follow the former are “points in time,” i.e. (they are complements that reflect a conception of time as a “point” on a “timeline” which shows specific years, months, etc. [...] Compliments that follow *for* reflect a conception of time as a “quantity” [...] These two conceptual domains “time is a point” and “time is a quantity” are the *image-schemata* that Lakoff (1987) and Johnson (1987) so ably talk about. They reflect our propensity to imagine a phenomenon such as “time” in terms of something concrete. [...] can then be seen to have a specific re-presentation at the level of language in terms of a grammatical dichotomy [...] This use of *since* and *for* can be contrasted to the Italian *da* which does not reflect the same type of grammatical dichotomy which is found in the English.”
L’opinione di usare *piacere* o *essere simpatico* si potrebbe spiegare come una differenza concettuale:

*Piacere* si usa in generale in riferimento alle cose: *Mi piace la pizza. / Non mi piace la pizza.* L’espressione *essere simpatico* è preferibile in riferimento alle persone: *Lui mi è simpatico. / Lui non mi è simpatico.*

Poi come attività pratica, si può impartire questa dicotomia concettuale in modo seguente:

La classe sarà divisa in gruppi di quattro o cinque studenti ciascuno. Ciascun gruppo selezionerà una delle seguenti categorie e proporrà cinque nomi in proposito. Ogni membro del gruppo, poi, dovrà selezionare una delle persone/posti/cose proposti e chiedere ad un altro studente in classe se gli *piace* o se gli è *simpatico*.

**MODELLI:**

(attore) Tom Cruise  
STUDENTE 1: Ti è simpatico Tom Cruise?  
STUDENTE 2: Sì, mi è simpatico. / No, non mi è simpatico.

/locale* McDonald’s  
STUDENTE 1: Ti piace mangiare presso McDonald’s?  
STUDENTE 2: Sì, mi piace. / No, non mi piace.

**attori/attrici**  
**locali**  
**tipi di bevande analcoliche**  
**complessi musicali**  
**atleti**  
**scrittori/scrittrici**

Hence we see that one cannot escape the importance of conceptualization and metaphors, nor can they be isolated from the language and treated independently. Our spoken language is saturated with such images.
A further item which we must consider is identified by Maiguascha (1992, 1993) as semantic domains. Students must be informed of concept boundaries in the L2. The knowledge of these “boundaries” are of particular importance to L2 learning, specially when the two languages (the target language and the student’s native language) do not share the same semantic fields. Consider the example presented earlier:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>short</td>
<td>piccolo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>basso</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>corto</td>
<td>breve</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As we see in this example a single word in English *short* has four different corresponding Italian words. These cannot be used interchangeably. A given situations require one word to the exception of others. For example if one wanted to give the notion that something was short in duration the Italian *breve* would be used, *corto/basso* if one meant not tall, etc. Such knowledge goes to the appropriate and accurate expression and articulation in the target language and will significantly reduce communication breakdown among speakers.

Danesi (1998) subdivides the broader notion of *conceptual competence* into *metaphoric competence* and *cultural competence.* The latter is identified as social and cultural knowledge this may be explained as “[...] un incontro tra amici ad un bar in Italia evoca delle connotazioni ben precise: per esempio, può essere un momento per il consolidamento dell’amicizia, per le

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8 Danesi (1998) identifies cultural competence as an aspect of conceptual fluency – it is the ability to behave appropriately in the target culture and the understanding of the significance of specific cultural events.
chiacchiere. per il relax, ecc. Quindi, competenza culturale implica anche la conoscenza delle connotazioni socio-culturali che i concetti e le parole evocano in determinati contesti” (Danesi 1998: 158). This is fundamentally social and cultural knowledge. Context not only gives valuable information about the structure of the language but also about the manner in which it appears and is used in the target culture.

4.1.1.2 Modal Directionality and Focussing

In the previous chapter we argued for the inclusion of Danesi’s Bimodal Model into our holodynamic understanding of language learning and language behaviour and as such this model lends itself to a very important element of our teaching principles – modal directionality and focussing. This represents one of the teaching principles of the bimodal model which we will adopt and incorporate into the HDM as well. In chapter three I discussed how cerebral organization plays a crucial function in language learning and accounts for how a person’s brain and mind is organized and ultimately affects his/her personological behaviour when it comes to language learning. The notion of modal directionality as presented by Danesi (1998) proposes that a teaching unit must be set out in such a manner that the “flow” of acquisition occurs in a specific neurological direction, that is to say, from the right hemisphere to the left hemisphere (reflects movement from context to text). The conclusion that may be drawn here is that teaching should proceed by activating the right hemisphere and end by activating the left hemisphere. By establishing the teaching unit in this manner set neuro-scientific principles are followed. In doing so Danesi (1988a, 1988b, 1991, 1994a, 1998) posits that this permits the brain to store/file/categorize the new input on the basis of its content and then configure it according to
its form, that is, according to appropriate phonological, syntactic, lexical categories, etc. As a learner is exposed to more of the language, and proficiency increases, the time necessary to comprehend and perform tasks decreases.

Initially students should be involved in inductive tasks requiring them to decipher codes and draw conclusions about unknown or unfamiliar language, these would include conceptual, grammatical or communicative notions in the L2 for which the learner does not possess the categories. A learner may not posses specific categories due to the fact that the particular item or structure does not exist in his/her L1 or because it has not yet been acquired as a cognitive structure (Danesi 1988, 1998). Such tasks elicit R-mode functions in the individual. Once these items are analysed and categorized the L-mode function is activated. The left hemisphere is unable to make sense of information for which it does not have pre-existing cognitive codes or programs (Danesi 1998, Goldberg & Costa 1981). Therefore, teaching must follow the cognitive path of initially stimulating the right hemisphere followed by activities which encourage the participation of the left hemisphere. It is in the left hemisphere that linguistic, semantic and cognitive aspects of the language are stored once the right hemisphere has organized the material. Hence the encoding and decoding of the tactic level, and the cataloguing of material, is what we are encouraging by planning/establishing/ setting out teaching in this manner. It is important to note that some aspects of L2 will be learned better by activating right hemisphere (analytical) abilities and others by activating the left hemisphere abilities (synthetic/global).

Once the initial presentation of a topic or subject matter has occurred – this may be accomplished by looking at dialogue and commenting on pertinent and relevant items (grammatical, semantical or lexical) – the suggestion is to follow up with more formal teaching
methods, such as exercises, fill in the blank, content questions, or pattern practice etc. which serve to activate L-mode functions, enforce and instill in the learner cognitive rules. It is important to follow initial orientational tasks, which permit the right hemisphere to decode the new input in its entirety, with tasks or activities which will catalogue the information and permit the individual to work on the mechanical, tactical aspects of the language, rules etc. A student familiar with the language, having taken courses previously, may not require as much time to go through the processes as a novice. It is necessary to be aware of this fact in terms of the time required by students at the various learning stages – the procedure remains the same but the time factor may vary.

Upon completion of the inductive processing of the introductory text it is time to apply the knowledge acquired by working with the structures and using the knowledge to express oneself. In order for one to speak they must be able to coordinate the mechanical aspects of the language with the global communicative language abilities, "tale principio presuppone che l'apprendimento diventa un processo comunicativo globale solo quando l'istruzione mira ad attivare i due emisferi in modo complementare" (Danesi, 1998: 151). Danesi (1998: 153) identifies the following as implications for language teaching of modal directionality:

- Le attività in classes dovranno essere concentrate sull'allievo.
- L'input nuovo dovrà essere presentato in modo contestualizzato attraverso dialoghi, simulazioni, ecc. che sono stati confezionati secondo un tema concettuale.
- Le tecniche didattiche dovranno permettere agli studenti di esplorare intuitivamente il materiale da apprendere e poi di indurre le sue componenti verbali e concettuali.
- È cruciale la partecipazione interattiva di tutti i membri della classe durante questa fase incoativa.
Reinforcement of what has been learned/acquired in earlier stage is an aspect of modal directionality. One begins with the experiential. The first phase involves a generalization of ideas through the use of exercises which require reflection on the structures presented and organization of these items. Therefore after the right hemisphere has assimilated the information it is then time for the left hemisphere to assign the input to the appropriate category, or mental schema. This phase may make use of rote or mechanical exercises as well as grammatical explanations. There is the fear that such exercises may be boring therefore it is important that the exercises utilized contain relevant information, coordinated with the topic of the unit and enforce the abilities that are trying to be imparted. It has been demonstrated that situational type exercises help to make the activity more interesting. These types of exercises are unavoidable. As the learner’s exposure to the language increases and he/she makes greater use of it he/she will include his/her global competence into the task. Such an approach, in addition to the nature of the activities, helps to assimilate information from short term to long term memory – a sign that acquisition has occurred.

There is a need for reinforcement of the material introduced as well as a review, this implies the following activities

- The teacher must direct the direction of learning and the activities.
- The input from the previous phase must be analysed descriptively.
- Certain concepts or structures may present more difficulty than others to assimilate, as a result may require further review.
- Rote learning must occur - this entails inclusion of mechanical-like/drill exercises. (Danesi 1998)
Focussing on precise structures of the language helps to eliminate errors in the learner and correct those that are already present. Part of the humanistic view of error correction is that vigorous correction of errors should not occur but rather only those errors which are typical or affect communication and comprehension must be addressed. This is all part of establishing a learner-friendly environment. It has been demonstrated that if active correcting by the instructor occurs not only do the learners feel intimidated and do not participate but such interference interrupts the flow of speech and become of little use from a pedagogical viewpoint. More time must be given for monitoring to occur, to ensure that the student is aware of his/her error and makes adjustments accordingly. I am not advocating that error correction not occur, but I am suggesting that the instructor be aware of the nature of the error and intervene in a positive and encouraging manner. If the error appears to be persistent and there is fear that it may become fossilized, it is advisable to draw the class' attention to the specific error as a point of grammar review or deal with it through feedback. Errors can be of a grammatical, lexical or semantic nature, as well as culture type errors of inappropriate conduct, register of speech, or pragmatic errors. Accuracy should not be enforced at all costs but the student should be encouraged to use the target language to communicate. His/her efforts should be encouraged and rewarded with positive feedback. Errors should be viewed as part of the learning process, and as a result they should not be viewed as a negative thing but rather as a stepping stone towards communicative proficiency. The absence of errors marks the progress being made in learning the L2.

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4.1.1.3 *Strategic principle*

A holodynamic teaching unit would be based on topics, functions or themes. As a result it is vital that the material be presented in a meaningful manner to the student in order to ensure that acquisition occurs. As we have stated previously material that is presented in isolation from the topic or which is of little or no interest to the student is not acquired as readily and may also be the cause for resistance to learning. This requires that the initial dialogue, reading, etc. set the tone and theme for the unit and that the exercises used to enforce the grammar, communicative patterns, and semantic or cultural categories all be centred on the same topic, connecting aspects of the unit in terms of vocabulary, grammar, concepts and functions.

- Students will be required to apply the information they acquired/learned in the initial phases to new exercises.
- Exercises and other tasks as well as the functional knowledge one wants to impart to the learner must be constructed around the topic of the unit.
- These activities may take a number of forms from cloze exercises to role-playing.
- The instructor does not take an active role in this process – has a passive role of offering suggestions and assistance.

Let us consider for example a hypothetical unit centred on the topic/function giving and receiving direction. If the unit was further associated with a grammatical topic of the imperative, when developing exercises one could incorporate the two items in the following manner:
Sandra e Luca sono in un ufficio turistico a Firenze. L’agente gli dà le seguenti direzioni. Determinate dove li manda.

Agente: Per arrivare a...

B. Disegnare una cartina e dare le direzioni per arrivare a casa tua.

MODELLO: prendere l’autobus numero 7.
Prenda l’autobus numero 7.

scendere all’angolo di Via Napoleone e Corso Vittorio Emanuele II
camminare lungo via Napoleone
girare a via S. Tommaso
attraversare il ponte.
Ecc.

The final principle to be considered requires that the student take all the material learned and acquired in the teaching unit and apply it independently to authentic, problem solving, true-to-life simulating tasks or communicative situations. This may be accomplished through interactive activities such as role-play, Di Pietro’s Strategic Interaction, simulations or in higher
levels, this may also include discussions and sharing of ideas and feeling, similar to the approach taken by Community Language Learning (C-L/CLL). Units built upon given notions will include areas of concept formation. The exercises and activities used must be built around notions, encouraging students to determine what the appropriate forms and structures pertaining to the topic are. During this final stage of the teaching unit the teacher's role becomes a passive one. He/she is present to offer suggestions, support, and help if requested, in activities the students are involved in.

It is important that global links are established between lexicon, grammar, concepts, functions, as well as integrate cultural and conceptual context. The use of pedagogical tools, such as photos or videos that are of interest to the students, but even more specifically the use of the computer, internet and multimedia tools may assist in supplementing the language class. These tools create a more interesting learning experience while the language is given a contemporary value in terms of the students' world and what they know as opposed to a strictly textbook image of the language. The use of traditional visual aids such as overheads with diagrams of grammatical transformations, images, illustrations, films, etc. are also helpful in activating R-mode functions.\(^\text{10}\)

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4.1.2 Summary

The following is a summary of the teaching principles presented above in addition to several other items an instructor should bear in mind when constructing a teaching unit.

- Consider emotional aspects and personality of the student – provide necessary motivation for learning – use authentic language which is of interest to students.
- Instill a positive learning environment.
- Build a positive attitude in the students toward the target language and target culture.
- Work on conceptual competence – provide tools needed to negotiate meaning; teach appropriate use of language structure (communicative competence); present differences in conceptual domains (etymologies of words may be useful to this end and certainly interesting); also include discussion of what is considered appropriate behaviour within the target culture.

- “Authentic language” – language in a real context should be used to introduce new units. The target language should be encouraged to be used in classroom as vehicle for communication not just object of study. This may be more difficult at early stages of learning but as student’s proficiency increase as should use of target language. Establish situations in order to sustain communication.
- Students should be encouraged to express their ideas and feelings in the L2.
- Units should be created based on communicative functions and concepts one wishes to impart to the student – aspects of the language that the student will require in daily exchanges with target language culture. Consider also specific cultural, linguistic and situational needs of the learner.
- Provide necessary feedback to students’ utterances – whether positive or negative, this will give them the necessary information to determine if their attempt at communication has been successful.
- Ensure that the communicative situations, grammar, functions, conceptual domains are relevant to the student’s need for the language.
- Errors should be tolerated and viewed as natural process of learning a new language.
- Use a wide variety of teaching techniques: incorporate games; humour; cultural anecdotes; visual aids such as, video, computer, film etc.; problem solving activities; role-playing; in addition to the traditional pattern practice exercises.
- Each new unit should be presented in a manner that the right hemisphere is stimulated – ex. dialogues, visual aids.
- New material should be analysed (look at grammatical, lexical, functional, conceptual, and communicative aspects). In so doing, this will stimulate the left hemisphere, permit categorization and storage and encourage transition of material from short to long term memory.

### 4.2 Titone’s Modular Model

Titone (1982a: 236) proposes that, “[w]hat seems to be recommended on the basis of a three-level model (the HDM), is a teaching-learning process consisting of flexible ‘modules’ ensuring the gradual assimilation (internalization) of coordinated levels of verbal skills and capacities.” Such “a teaching model based on the GDM [Glossodynamic Model] of language learning is necessarily an integrated one, synthesizing inductive, deductive, functional, and humanistic instructional practices in a complementary fashion” (Titone & Danesi 1985: 173), and suggests the most sound and well balanced approach to the problem of L2 teaching. The teaching model which is introduced by Titone based on his view of language learning is referred to by the author as the Modular Model. Titone maintains that an integration of ego > strategy > tactics depends on a process of assimilation which tends to incorporate a language behavioural system into the
communicator’s personality (1982). Titone refers to such a process as the Glossomathetic Process\(^\text{11}\) and argues that it is common to both L1 acquisition and L2 learning (this is also the key aspect of what he later presents as the Modular Model for language teaching). He describes the process as a series of phases or learning units, “each constituting a set of well-defined activities aiming at the fixation of specific verbal habits” (Titone 1982a: 236). These units, referred to by the author as *macromathemes* (a matheme is a minimum learning unit) often include rather large portions of content and usually extend for a long period of time, thus we might argue that a macromatheme is a teaching unit (Titone & Danesi 1985).\(^\text{12}\) This large unit may be further broken down into *micromathemes*, or teaching stages. The features of the language which need to be learned, for example discourse or sentences, need to be assimilated into the learner, to become part of the learner’s verbal behaviour and personality. In order for the language units to become part of the learner’s repertoire – or as Titone identifies them

\(^{11}\) The author explains that the term mathetics is taken in its broad etymological, from the Greek *manthânomai*, indicating a general theory and methodology of learning stemming from interdisciplinary principles. T. F. Gilbert proposes a “mathetic model” of programmed learning which Titone states his notion is not restricted to. Gilbert’s model maintains that the use of mathetics (sequence of events or stages) is necessary for teaching behaviour, increased repetition improves results. It is not restricted to the teaching of only verbal and written behaviour. Description found in D. F. Pennington and C. W. Slacks, “The mathetical design of effective lessons,” in S. Margulies & L. D. Eigen, eds., *Applied Programmed Instruction* (New York: John Wiley and Sons Inc., 1962) 298-310.

\(^{12}\) Freddi (1994: 111-26) presents the notion of “unità didattica,” which translates into English as lesson plan. He divides his idea of lesson plan into five stages: motivazione, globalità, fissazione, riflessione, controllo.

In contrast to Freddi’s “unità didattica,” one immediately notice that though there is a basic similarity between Titone’s macromathemic stages and Freddi’s lesson plan the striking difference lies in the fact that Freddi proposes an initial motivational stage. For a personological theory of language teaching Titone does not view motivation as requiring its own stage but rather, it is an ever present aspect of learning at all stages of the lesson plan.
"autonomous skills" – they must pass through the following three stages: cognitive comprehension or inchoation, practice/reinforcement, and control. These three stages may be further subdivided, see figure 4.1.

![Figure 4.1 A macromatheme or teaching unit (Titone & Danesi 1985: 174)](image)

Let us begin by considering the various aspects of the three, above mentioned stages. During the inchoation stage or the cognitive comprehension stage as it is also referred to (I prefer the latter label) perceptual and cognitive skills in both the tactical and strategic components are developed. Transition of these skills into long term memory occurs by activating the following three main operations: (a) global perception/comprehension, (b) operational analysis, and (c) operational synthesis.

(a) Global perception: since reception precedes production, it is a given that learners should first be exposed to the target language through dialogues, narratives or other language samples.

(b) Operational analysis: At this stage items are discriminated in a systematic fashion; the item
of the language are analysed and their function within the whole structure of language is considered. Comprehension exercises based on items from (a) should be used to test and improve the learner’s understanding of structure and content. This entails an intuitive exception of the language even though the learner is not yet able to discriminate the various elements of the target language.

(c) Operational synthesis: In this phase once the items of language have been disassembled to discover the role and function, reassembling must take place. In so doing, language is being used as a vital tool for communication and one arrives at a living language once again. Instructor should use activities that will have the student reconstruct discourse units.

In this first stage analysis of language occurs and learner learns to reassemble language in novel realistic conversation, (to note that this may be extended to concepts and is not limited to linguistic structures only). This type of presentation may be applied to teaching of conceptual fluency. In the initial phase the student is presented with a concept and is asked to give his/her impressions of the concept – meaning, use, effectiveness in relaying image or meaning. The item is then dismantled to understand its use within the target language as well as the images it possesses. In the final phase it may be reconstructed and used in discourse as a native speaker would, making the learner discourse more conceptually fluent and far more similar to target language expression. Exposure to text: refers to the presentation of a text, which can be a dialogue, article, paragraph from book, conversation, etc. The purpose of such a level is to present the learners with the conceptual, grammatical, or thematic/cultural topic of the unit. This also entails comprehension of text – exercises which will lead the learner to the understanding of the text.
The second stage of the instructional unit is the practice stage which consists of reinforcement techniques. Reinforcement may occur both through pattern practice, motivated practice, or practice of communicative tasks through meaningful situational exercises. The goal is that of consolidating and strengthening the process. The feedback component should be exercised at this stage as in cognitive-based approaches both by the teacher and the students by monitoring what is occurring. Both tactic and strategic operations are active. Titone (1988: 177) explains that, "[e]xercises and drills of all kinds, as used in usual teaching practice, exert the function of reinforcing habits and attitudes, on the tactic level, on the strategic, as well as on the ego-dynamic levels." Analysis of text: This level is guided by the instructor and entails the consideration of the text in terms of the grammatical, cultural, or conceptual notions which the unit is attempting to impart to the learner. In so doing one identifies the linguistic and communicative aspects of the language. This must be done in an interactive manner; as an instructor one does not want to alienate one's students by lecturing. The items which will be considered must be enforced using activities and exercises which will permit the learner to make use of what they have learned. The aim here is to reinforce the material in order that the information moves from short term to long term memory. Such a function will also increase the learner's conceptual and verbal fluency.

The final stage, control stage: "[t]his is a metacognitive stage (and accordingly a metalinguistics one) that enables the learner to grasp more fully the rational of each linguistic task, and therefore the basic rules governing grammar and lexicon, as well as pragmatic use of the language. It is something higher than mere acoustic feedback: it entails consciousness or increasing awareness of the structure and functioning of the language system and language use
in varying communication situations” (Titone 1988: 177). The students must demonstrate that the information has been acquired and he/she is able to use the language in an authentic, creative manner (all four language skills must be considered). In terms of teaching it entails evaluation and correction. These may come from the instructor in a structured manner (either occasional or programmed) or by the students themselves.

The model is considered modular because the three stages are cyclical and reversible: that is to say the sequence may vary depending on the specific needs of the learner and the structural demand of the material being taught. In the words of the author, the model “[...] embodies ego-dynamic demands by grafting all learning processes upon self-consciousness and motivation; it deploys strategies by developing cognitive programming and feedback operations; finally it turns ego-orientations and strategies into tactic skills that allow for procedural knowledge to be activated in language use (communicative competence)” (Titone 1988: 178).

Titone and Danesi (1985:173-74) point out that this modular model “provides for a control stage in the teaching process. Since the process is cyclical rather than linear, the teacher can move back and forth among micromathemes, adapting them to the learning style and personality of the learner. [...] a model based on the glossodynamic view of language learning should synthesize the insights and findings of various schools of linguistics, psychology, and language-teaching methodology in some logical fashion. The GDM suggests very strongly that, since language learning is an integrated process, the most suitable teaching approach is an integrated one as well.”

To note that certain instances it may not be advisable to tackle a whole grammatical point and so it may be best to split it up into smaller units and only look at one aspect or element at
a time. For example, piacere/essere simpatico, present perfect - use of the two auxiliaries. There are no a priori criteria for boundaries of such macro-units. Their number and size depends on the discipline, the level of learning, the speed of learning, etc. Titone (1988c: 137) offers the following example:

*l'apprendimento di una famiglia di vocaboli di una lingua può costituire un macro-matema significativo, specialmente se tali vocaboli non devono impararsi isolatamente ma in strutture d'uso effettivo.*

The learning process itself Titone describes as modular and maintains that adult learning must be systematic (implies careful planning of situations, materials and procedures; while unlike *formal* instruction which rational or notional level), which entails concreteness and practicality. The author states that, "[s]ystematic instruction is a principle of intellectual economy; it makes for fast and effective learning without wasting an excessive amount of time and energy; it is synonymous with 'programming'" (Titone 1982: 236). Given this information and based on the HDM, Titone (1982) proposes a teaching-learning process consisting of flexible "modules" which ensure the gradual assimilation and internalization of the various aspects of language. This is based on programmed learning.

Titone describes modular teaching-learning "as any instructional process characterized by *cyclical reversibility* and *spiral development* (1982a: 236). He identifies the characteristics of such an approach as follows (Titone 1982a: 236-37):

(a) Teaching is modular when it is characterised by reversibility and interchangeability of instructional roles and phases. This means that the position of each phase can be changed or reversed according to particular needs. It may be useful or necessary accordingly to go back and forth along the basic stages of learning in order to clarify, recognize, strengthen, and expand the essential constituents of language competence.
Teaching is modular if instructional roles are reversible. The teacher offers initiating stimuli to the learner's responsiveness; but he becomes in turn a respondent by taking up contingently the role of learner, and so forth. Both the teacher and the student are alternately stimulators and reactors.

Teaching is modular if each phase is co-present while each of the others is being developed. Development of each phase takes place in a spiral manner and is virtually endless ("open-ended learning").

The cyclical nature of modular teaching is an overall characteristic of this process inasmuch as phases and roles are not linearly juxtaposed one onto the other but unfold one out of the other after some sort of generative process. Each phase is more like a germinal molecule urging toward greater development, not like a fenced-up monad or a completely self-contained unit. Learning is therefore a developmental process working through differentiation and integration; it is in a profound sense a biological continuum; it is not an accumulation of disjointed building blocks.

Titone believes that the learning process can begin at any point can go from top to bottom or from bottom to top: i.e. from tactic to ego dynamic or from ego-dynamic to tactic. The suggestion here is that one may, if necessary, begin with structural exercises. This approach may be most applicable during the early stages of learning and when trying to reinforce the use of difficult grammatical items. The information acquired about the language is then integrated into the individual's personality which may bring about a change in the individual and the manner in which he/she views and interacts with the world. This is due to the fact that part of what occurs while one is learning a L2 is a change in the individual's world perception.
### 4.2.1 Summary

#### Cognitive Comprehension Micromatheme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Global Perception</th>
<th>Operational Analysis</th>
<th>Operational Synthesis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>✤ presentation of the text which may be any one of the following: - situational dialogue - literary text - newspaper clipping - brochure - download website - advertisement - proverbial language &amp; metaphors - visual texts such as: *TV commercial *scene from a movie *slides *weather forecast</td>
<td>✤ analyse text by identifying within it linguistic, communicative and conceptual items which one wishes the learner to assimilate - expressions - proverbs - conceptual domains - communicative units - grammatical structures - vocabulary &amp; idiomatic expressions - may take this time to continue to consider pronunciation, intonation and stress.</td>
<td>✤ ensure that material which has been inductively presented has been assimilated - questions based on text - multiple choice questions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** The text is initially viewed or read in its entirety, it is then read or viewed in segments and a discussion of the relevant material in the sections are presented until information is assimilated.
**Reinforcement Micromatheme**

- movement from inductive look at language to use of deductive operations to complete tasks required.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice</th>
<th>Pattern Drills/Situational Exercises</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- imitation and repetition</td>
<td>- situational exercises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- reinforce habits and attitudes</td>
<td>- feedback component</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- consider individually in exercises the grammatical, conceptual, and communicative notions one is attempting to impart to students</td>
<td>Techniques:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Techniques:</td>
<td>- oral/written</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- oral/written</td>
<td>- productive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- receptive/productive</td>
<td>- texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- texts/sentences</td>
<td>- group work/individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- group work/individual</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* Deductive work.
A modular model by its nature may allow one to being with a deductive presentation of the material, as a result this stage may come before the cognitive. The movement would be from reinforcement to cognitive.

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**Control Micromatheme**

- Verification that the communicative, linguistic and conceptual goals of the unit have been met.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluation</th>
<th>Correction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- awareness of the structures and functions of language system</td>
<td>- feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- metacognitive/metalinguistic</td>
<td>- structured tests, assignments, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- consider communicative, conceptual and linguistic competence in relation to material presented in the unit</td>
<td>- peer groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- linguistic competence: reading, writing, speaking, comprehension</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* Testing may take the form of traditional tests or exams at specific intervals or may take other forms such as creation and presentation of dialogue or composition.
Chapter V

Implications and Applications of the Holodynamic Model for L2 Teaching

5.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter I looked at the fundamental teaching principles arising from the Holodynamic Model (HDM), in this chapter, it is my aim to consider how Titone’s model may translate to a teaching methodology which will support and facilitate Second language (L2) learning and acquisition by the individual. This will be accomplished by proposing a teaching syllabus which will not only integrate Titone’s hierarchical view and theory of L2 learning but which will also offer a concrete adaptation of the Modular Model proposed by the same author and its implications and applications for L2 teaching at the secondary school level and at the post-secondary level. It is my aim to establish a syllabus which will facilitate L2 learning, simplify the process, enabling the learner to achieve autonomous, creative use of the target

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1 Ramirez (1995: 85) describes syllabus in the following manner: “Syllabus is often used to refer to the subject-matter content of a given course or a series of courses (first, second, third semesters or years). A well-designed course syllabus maps language content to be covered over a period of time. It usually outlines linguistics goals, assessment procedures, the number and types of tests and quizzes, homework assignments, laboratory requirements, classroom tasks, and grading system. The term curriculum also refers to course content, but it incorporates goal statements for different language skill areas (listening, reading, speaking, and writing) and learning outcomes for a prescribed sequence of instruction [...]. Curriculum statements often relate philosophical assumptions about language, learning processes, and educational goals. Learning outcomes demonstrate a particular view about the structure of language as it relates to the four language modalities and the processes required to master the different domains.”

There is the belief (Ramirez 1995, Yalden 1987) that it is not necessary to follow any one specific syllabus, and that often a number of different syllabi are used under any given heading. Ramirez’s (1995: 86) point is that there is no one approach to syllabus design and that a combination of approaches are used under the various syllabi headings, while Yalden (1987) demonstrates the possibility of mixing various types of syllabi.
language. This will be accomplished through the use of activities, materials and strategies which will focus on the learner as individual, all the while considering also the neuro-psychological aspects of L2 learning. The syllabus will demonstrate flexibility in its application in order that it can account for various learning strategies but more specifically it will highlight Titone's tri-level model of language learning and behaviour and accommodate teaching from a tactic level to an ego-dynamic level and vice-versa. This work is intended as a bridge between the theory and practice.

5.1 Teaching Syllabus

As was identified in earlier chapters, the fundamental aspect of the HDM is its personological emphasis. One of the benefits of such a view is that it permits the integration of a variety of approaches to language teaching, psychological, structural, and cognitive, all mediated by the individual's personality. J. P. B. Allen (1983) in considering various types of L2 teaching syllabi argues that though each type of curriculum is designed to account for an important aspect of language learning, there exists a place for all three approaches (i.e. structural-analytic, functional-analytic, and experiential) in a comprehensive model of L2 education. It is my hope to demonstrate how an integrative teaching syllabus may be arrived at using Titone's HDM. In discussing the importance of a teaching syllabus Yalden (1987: 85-86) posits, "[w]ith the advent of more complex theories of language and language learning, as well as a recognition of the diversity of learners' needs, wants and aspirations, the concept of the syllabus for second
language teaching has taken on new importance and has become more elaborate [...] The syllabus is now seen as an instrument by which the teacher [...] can achieve a certain coincidence between the needs and aims of the learner, and the activities that will take place in the classroom. It is thus a necessity in terms of providing educational services to the community to which the teacher is responsible.”

As in the case of all syllabi one must establish the aims and objectives of its students and proceed to select the material one wishes to present and the order in which such material should be presented. Given that the HDM is a personological theory our choices will be based on an attempt to create an environment in which the student will learn the language in an experiential manner. Students should be involved in active personal learning experiences instead of passive learning, as is the case in rote or habit formation learning of behaviouristic teaching methods, though as we have stated previously there is a niche for this type of teaching at the stage of re-enforcement. Since we maintain that there is a link between language and the individual, it is accepted that language cannot be just a matter of habit or cognitive rules, since it is the personality which makes sense of all the incoming and outgoing signs and symbols, and it is the personality which controls language behaviour. Titone (1982a: 228) states that, “verbal behaviour is first of all the fundamental expression of the individual and social personality of each human being.” It is therefore important to keep in mind that though the individual is central to this view of language learning he/she is not isolated from the rest of the world, and there exists a constant interaction between the individual and “the world” at various levels.

From our overview of language teaching philosophies presented in the first chapter we may state that grammar-based views of language have produced structural syllabi which dealt
with the learning of language from the point of view of sentence patterns and grammatical items. The Functional-Notional syllabus presented its material based on notions and functions of language use. The Communicative-based syllabus which appeared in the 1980s, and may be considered an elaboration of the notional-functional method, constructed the learning process around language functions such as identifying, reporting, requesting, and apologizing. The humanistic syllabi attempted to teaching languages by concentrating on personality variables such as motivation, attitude and affective factors such as fear, interest, etc.

The early Functional-Notional syllabi were constructed on the basis of functions and notions. Functions are described as the "communicative purposes for which we use language" (Nunan 1988: 35) e.g., greetings, persuading, describing and suggesting. While, notions are general areas of meaning based on ideas, concepts, logical relationships or entities, e.g., time, cause, emotion, size. This approach to language learning and teaching is considered an atomistic approach. Functions are often based on interactions between two people and are generally composed of simple exchanges involving two or three moves, for example: Greeting

\[\text{Buon giorno. Come stai?}\\ \text{Bene grazie, e tu?}\\ \text{Bene.}\]

One is given long lists of functions and notions and it is often difficult for teachers to choose which to use in a syllabus and to properly sequence them.

The main contribution of such an approach is that it presents a whole text, reflecting authentic communication, contributes to the structure of a whole text, for example, greetings come before descriptions of events. Notions are seen as the area of meaning; they can be used
in variety of vocabulary and grammar with a range of different types of discourse and can be used to integrate activities into the course.

In Structural syllabi the emphasis is on lexical items and grammatical structures. The lexical and grammatical items are sequenced in terms of their perceived complexity. The belief is that the student accumulates knowledge about the target language as well as the necessary building blocks for the language. Once this has occurred they are able to produce creative authentic structures. The problem with this type of an approach is that in placing emphasis on vocabulary, grammar and phonology in an itemized manner, little emphasis is placed on context and meaning. In fact, if one looks at the exercises found in structural language texts one will note that they are isolated and unrelated to the topic of the unit, nor do they reflect real life occurrences of the language. In addition, these exercises offer no insight into the target culture or language. Grammatical items are sequenced according to what is considered simple to complex, without much thought being given to what grammatical structures are necessary for communication (occasionally grammatical structures which are considered simple are, in fact, difficult for a learner to acquire). From this type of an approach a holodynamic (HD) teaching model may adopt the use of pattern practice of specific grammatical structures. The important thing to keep in mind when using pattern practice or drills in a HD teaching unit is that the structures must be presented in a meaningful manner, in addition, one must offer a wide repertoire of vocabulary and grammar structures.

The analytic or situation syllabus is organized based on experiential meaning of language, the elements in this type of a syllabus are usually dialogues placed in everyday settings for example, ordering or buying a newspaper, etc. The dialogues include lexical items and
grammatical structures which are used in follow-up activities by the students and the choice and sequence of setting are based on perception of learner needs as well as difficulty of the grammar and vocabulary needed to function in that setting. It differs from the Functional/Notional in that as Feez (1998) argues, "some situational syllabuses are criticised for being structural syllabuses in disguise because vocabulary and grammatical structures are selected first and then situation are built around these." Such syllabi place too much emphasis on the topic, situation or social activity and often do not take into account the relationship amongst interactants, which is the overall social purpose of the language being used. Nor do these syllabi consider that language comes together to make a whole text. The situations and the vocabulary used in the tasks that the student is required to carry out are considered contrived and stilted.

Other syllabi whose originating theories of language learning and acquisition which were not considered in the first chapter are as follows:

* **proficiency-based curriculum** - language content is presented in terms of linguistics levels (novice, intermediate, advanced, etc.), according to language functions, content and accuracy;

* **task-based curriculum** - organized on the basis of learner activities such as using the telephone, following instructions, etc.;

* **situational-based** - centred around social settings and the activities associated with these settings, for example visiting a friend, shopping, being at a restaurant, etc.

Therefore if we begin from a personological perspective we must concede that the choices we will make are experience based, but given that we believe that elements of bimodality also play a role in this, we may want to consider the argument Danesi (1998) presents for a
syllabus based on conceptual domains. As he suggests the choice of grammar structures, vocabulary and communicative notions will have to be made based on the categories selected. Danesi argues that a concept based syllabus is not preset by a linguistic manual but moreover by the specific needs of the culture (which defines as cultura-oggetto), the learning needs, etc. Danesi (1998: 174) points out, “[o]vviamente, non si tratta di un sillabo prefisso dal manuale di lingua, ma piuttosto dalle specifiche esigenze della cultura-oggetto, della situazione d’apprendimento, ecc.”

5.2 Holodynamic Syllabus

The premise for the following proposed syllabus is that a language course should address specific linguistic needs. It should also offer an alternative to the current status in the L2 teaching and learning. I believe that the HD vision for language learning and language behaviour offers just such an alternative to the L2 class. Each unit in the syllabus is established to fix a set of specific verbal habits (Titone 1973a, 1973b, 1982, 1988, 1991). The HDM is open to various strategies for language learning since it is based on the individual. There are two phases to teaching: 1) to guide the learning process and 2) to maintain what has been learned (Danesi 1998). The first phase is attained through explanations, exercises or readings, while the second phase requires reinforcement and review. When determining a syllabus there are two essential components to consider: the selection of the material which will be taught and the order in which it will be presented. The selection for the units of the HD syllabus will be made based on
functions and notions (these specific themes and topics and will focus on the linguistic, conceptual and communicative abilities the instructor wishes to impart to the learner, further it will also consider the student’s needs for the language). One may ask, how is this different from the syllabus established by the functional-notional method? The answer is that it will, in fact, share certain similarities with this approach to language teaching in that, I feel such a syllabus was correct in the manner in which it presented its material (in terms of notions and functions) but its short coming lies in the fact that it does not develop units as far as it could in terms of imparting conceptual fluency. The aim then is to establish a syllabus that is not only personological in its scope but also enforces and encourages the acquisition of linguistic, communicative and conceptual competence.

The presentation of vocabulary, grammatical information, communicative notions and conceptual notions will be selected according to the functions and notions chosen for each unit. These notions will not be the foundation of the syllabus but rather will be contained within the greater global work. These elements will be coordinated within the unit and not exist independently. Some functions or notions may include items such as: greeting, ordering, giving directions, time, expressing likes and dislikes, etc. Such a syllabus will require that the instructor take a much more active role in programming and executing the language lesson, as is also pointed out by Danesi (1998: 174) “[a] differenza dei metodi, che programmavano il sillabo e la routine didattica in modo prefisso, questo implica, ovviamente, un maggior impegno attivo da parte dell’insegnante, per cui dovrà osservare continuamente i vari comportamenti linguistico-comunicativi dei suoi discenti e verificare l’efficacia di una tecnica, di una particolare scelta, ecc.” Additionally, it will be the instructor’s role to choose the topics
according to specific requirements students may have for the language, duration of the course, and the proficiency level (advanced, intermediate, beginner) of the students will certainly play a major role in the presentation, order, and choice of topics. The instructor should make the class experience more lively, meaningful and increase the students' sense of personal participation and satisfaction while addressing their needs to develop conversational skills. The aim here is to keep in mind that one is not teaching for tests but rather teaching to transmit the ability to understand and be understood in the target language as well as work with and understand authentic language.

The lessons need to be cyclical, that is, one should be able to move from one level to the next and back, from intuitive to deductive presentation of the material. One will want the syllabus to be more functional, focusing on learning and acquiring an understanding of the rules which govern the development of spoken and written discourse in the target language as well as develop language proficiency. The lesson will focus on the learner’s formal linguistic knowledge and the manner in which this knowledge is but to use in order to accomplish a variety of communicative tasks: establishing social relations, seeking and giving information, promising, apologizing, and explaining, etc. (J. B. P. Allen, 1983: 37).

The programme maintains that

- The students need not learn all of the rules and features of the target language required to produce grammatical utterances before they may begin to speak. In fact students are encouraged to work with and use the language immediately, discovering the grammatical features as they progress. (At the beginner level more attention may be paid to grammar and vocabulary as the lessons are being presented. The problem arises at the intermediate and
advanced levels – where one does not want to be caught reinforcing and covering the same material presented in the earlier stage. Evidence of second and third year students demonstrates that even if accuracy is attained whatever proficiency they may have acquired is soon lost).

- Cognitive grasp of rules, along with pattern practice is not sufficient for arriving at authentic speech utterances. Conceptual ability is also necessary.

- In order for language to be properly acquired the material must be presented in a coherent, meaningful and relevant manner.

- One must continue to present material in such a manner that the learned material is categorized and stored in order that the material being learned may be moved from short term to long term memory as it is stored and categorized. Helps maintain level of proficiency.

- Elicit the student’s interest as well as educate him/her about the language and culture, and aspects of life. Tremblay et al (1990) argue that it is through interest that one may achieve the goal of total personal involvement characteristic of experiential learning

The syllabus should be versatile and flexible, encouraging creative interaction and meaningful communication. It will interweave vocabulary, structures and culture information both present and past via text and images. The teaching material which will be prepared in this syllabus will contain marginal notes with a wealth of cultural insights and trivia, and pedagogical hints. The teaching units will be constructed to fit the needs of the class and the goals established. The emphasis of the course should be on language use as opposed to abstract, isolated knowledge of the language, as a result the teaching units should be built around functions to be preformed and notions; vocabulary and grammar will appear as background
material which will be used to support the learning process. Included should be items of cultural information such as the role of the piazza or bar in daily life, category information, false cognates, idiomatic expressions and proverbs. It has been demonstrated that individuals learn best from material that is fun, interesting and relevant – therefore one should select material that encourages creativity and fosters use of target language in meaningful everyday situations as well as cultural awareness, enforcing reality based communication skills. Each unit should be organized in the same manner at all proficiency levels.

The syllabus must address certain communicative competency concerns such as that the student’s ability to carry out a conversation with native speakers and understand and be understood by them. Since, communication entails the encoding and decoding of elements of speech, requiring the cooperation of the speaker and hearer, for this to successfully occur the participants must not only share a common linguistic code but more importantly a common conceptual code. As a result it is important for student to work with novel and realistic input, items that he/she can use and will be of use and interest to him/her during his/her interaction with target language speakers.

5.2.1 Identification of subjects

In planning a language syllabus it is important to initially identify the type of students one will be dealing with, the needs and motivations of the learners and to be aware of their learning styles, interests, native languages, level of education, socioeconomic levels, and it is very important to consider the nature of the individual’s personality (Brown 1987, Feez 1998). One must consider the level of knowledge of the learner (beginner, intermediate, advanced). Such
knowledge establishes and determines many of the choices that will be made during the course of the program, factors such as age of the students, requirements for the language, previous knowledge of the language, and feeling for the language and target culture will all play a significant role in the design and adaptation of a syllabus. For the purpose of the present work, the group I will be focussing on are university students and adults learners. From my teaching experience to date, (any choices I make will be based on this), I will conclude that most university students and adults learners of Italian study the language for four main reasons:

1) they wish to travel to Europe and while there they plan to visit Italy and would like to be able to converse with the locals – this would suggests that notions and functions such as asking for directions, ordering and other such requests should be considered and addressed in the language class.

2) An interest and appreciation of the Italian language, literature and culture, and a desire to learn more about these.

3) They are of Italian background or are dating/married to someone who is Italian and wish to converse with them in Italian – in such an instance issues dealing with identification of family and related topics may be considered.

4) Students must fulfill a language requirement and have chosen Italian for no particular reason and hope to encounter a course which will not be too demanding – this group may pose to be the most difficult to accommodate since you wish to present a course that will be enjoyable and educational. You do not want to frighten them off with a strictly grammar based approach. In addition, you hope to make the course of interest so that they may pursue a second level course.
This information establishes a set of requirements, for example grammatical material will be presented inductively through brief dialogues on topics which are relevant to the students’ existence and which also account for the reasons why they learn the language. Students will be given plenty of opportunity to work with the language and learn to manipulate it. One will establish the importance of proficiency but not lose site of our goal by getting caught-up as many instructors do with accuracy.

In a teaching environment similar to the one being considered here, the teacher’s role is important and is in constant fluctuation between being central to the learning process and acting as facilitator. It is necessary that the teacher be innovative and creative in his/her choices of presentation and execution of the lessons. This may increase his/her work load but the results should be positive and give students opportunity to work creating authentic utterances, which are meaningful, and lively.

Each level of instruction beginner, intermediate, advanced presents its challenges. At the beginner level the work that must be done is much more straightforward form a grammatical perspective. Greater emphasis is paid to structure and form at this stage in the learning of process of a L2 than at later stages. The challenge arises in devising communicative exercises and activities that challenge the student to be creative and move beyond the knowledge that they have just acquired all the while making certain that it is simple enough that what is required is not beyond their scope of knowledge of the target language. At the intermediate and advanced levels of language learning there is more room for authentic language and discussion. At these levels the student’s knowledge of the L2 begins to be much more similar to their mother tongue knowledge and therefore more discussions and debates are possible. Though at this stage a
greater burden is placed on the instructor to provide exercises and tasks which continue to reinforce previously learned material as well as build on that knowledge.

The main objective of listening and speaking activities is the communication of ideas and information. A situational approach which meets the adult students’ immediate language needs should be stressed in order to appeal to the various levels of proficiency. The individual learns to respond to such needs as ordering in a bar or restaurant, shopping, finding accommodations, asking for directions, and learning about the target culture.

Realistic situations will be used in class so that the students will feel as if they have learned something useful and practical for everyday life. Though the teacher will initially provide a great deal of stimulus for class discussion, the focus of the lessons will be student participation and interest through the use of stories, films, skits, games, dialogues and problem-solving activities. Teacher’s body language (facial expressions, gestures and body movements) and general enthusiasm during class time will enhance the student’s interest and increase motivation. In addition learning variables such as the age of the student, life experiences, competence in that target language, language proficiency must also be considered.

5.2.2 Goals and Objectives

The objectives of the syllabus is to develop the student’s awareness of basic Italian language structures and communications strategies, to provide the individual with the confidence to engage in authentic conversation and to be knowledgeable of the target language culture, thus conducting oneself appropriately with in the target culture, as well as the ability for students to express and comprehend thoughts, instructions, ideas within target language setting. Language
mastery Titone (1982: 231) writes, “can be defined as the ‘acquired ability to symbolize, to express, and to communicate experience by means of a system of verbal symbols’.” In addition, figurative language and idiomatic expressions will be presented and discussed in order that the learners’ utterances not resemble a textbook. An effort will be made to consolidate and increase their language skills. The principle goal is to develop and encourage communicative, linguistic and conceptual competence in the learner in a balanced manner. All four of the language skills will be developed, though speaking and listening will be highlighted. Di Pietro (1993:41) suggests that “[...] non-natives who display their “foreignness” in a target culture by their accents or less-than-fluent speech may not be expected to adhere to all the target culture norms. It is for this reason that a realistic goal of second-language instruction should be to prepare learners to be ‘knowledgeable aliens’ rather than attempt to make them fully participatory in the target culture.”

During the course of a teaching unit work on the following competencies will be enforced and developed.

*Linguistic Competence* - Is the implicit or explicit knowledge of the formal elements of a language eg. phonology, morphology, syntax, graphic; it is the grammatical knowledge of the linguistic code. It is knowledge about the language form, in contrast to communicative competence which is knowledge that enables a person to function and interact within the language. It is knowledge of the cognitive rules which structure communication and permits the speaker/hear to encode and decode the linguistic message. In terms of the HDM this knowledge is represented at the strategic level while the manifestation and demonstration that this knowledge has been assimilated and is being used effectively is seen at the tactic level.
Communicative Competence² - The ability to communicate, to convey and interpret messages, to understand and be understood and to "negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts" (Brown 1994: 227). This ability depends on the cooperation of the participants involved - Brown (1994: 227) states that communicative competence is "a dynamic, interpersonal construct that can only be examined by means of the overt performance of two or more individuals in the process of negotiating meaning." It is the knowledge of communicating.

Danesi (1998: 147) sub-divides communicative competence into pragmatic competence (ability to use the language effectively and correctly within a specific communicative situation), stylistic competence (ability to control and use the correct register when communicating - formal, informal, etc.), and strategic competence (ability to address communicative problems and encode the linguistic message according to the situation).³

² Coined by Dell Hymes, "On communicative competence," in Sociolinguistics, eds. J. B. Prode and J. (Holmes, Harmondsworth, UK: Penguin Books, 1972), in reaction to Chomsky's notion of competence which he thought to be too limiting, because he felt it did not account for social and functional rules of the language.

³ Canale and Swain (1980:29) in their seminal work on defining communicative competence arrive at four subcategories which construct communicative competence.

   a) grammatical competence - encompasses the "knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology." (29) Associated with mastering linguistic code
   b) discourse competence - ability to connect sentences in discourse, to create a meaningful whole - can be represented dialogue or written text
   c) sociolinguistic competence - knowledge of social-cultural rules governing discourse and language
   d) strategic competence - "the verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or due to insufficient competence" (30). Therefore this is the ability to make repairs to speech and to cope with an imperfect knowledge of the rules and to carry on conversation by employing a number of strategies; "paraphrasing, circumlocution, repetition, hesitation, avoidance, and guessing, as well as shifting register and style" (Savignon 1983:40-41).
Conceptual/Figurative Competence

Danesi associates conceptual competence with the idea of conceptual fluency, developed by him in 1980s (see also section 3.1.3). It is the ability to program the messages one will use in specific situations so as to behave or respond in a culturally appropriate manner. Language may be viewed as a vehicle of thought. When programming an utterance not only must one be able to structure it in a grammatically, syntactically and semantically correct manner but it is also important that the message be conceptually correct – that is to say that it reflects the appropriate world categories set out by the culture – and how these reflect the conceptualization of the world in the given culture. Conceptual competence also includes appropriate behaviour and response. It allows one to create conceptually appropriate messages which are acceptable in the target culture. This competence is subdivided into the following three categories: metaphoric competence (the ability to create metaphors appropriately), reflective competence (ability to choose the categories and structures which will reflect appropriately the conceptual domains of the message), cultural competence (the ability to integrate the various cultural domains associated with a topic in terms of implicated cultural domains) (Danesi 1998: 147-148).

This information establishes a set of requirements, for example grammatical material will be presented inductively through brief dialogues on topics which are relevant to the students’ existence and which also account for the reasons why they learn the language and address issues

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of motivation. Students will be given plenty of opportunity to work with the language and learn to manipulate it. The instructor must be aware of the students' inhibitions about speaking in the target language and the frustration that they encounter when they are at the initial stages of language learning. Learners expect that their utterances in the L2 will be as coherent, complex and elaborate as in their L1, yet they do not, in the initial stages of language learning, have the necessary knowledge of the target language for such complex speech. As a result the learner often tries to conform their L2 utterances to L1 structures. The teacher should not make correction a central part of the course and limit it to portions of the course where correction may occur comfortably without intimidating the learner or creating anxiety within the learner. As a general rule pronunciation difficulties should be dealt with only if the error creates a breakdown in comprehension, and then only as a general discussion and not by correcting the pronunciation of specific individuals. Error correction should be kept to a minimum or not at all during discussion or skits. This will increase the student's confidence and encourages the flow of ideas. The hope is that as the term progresses the learner will be less fearful of making errors and more willing to use the target language creatively. Error correction of pronunciation and grammar may be successfully dealt with during the portions of the class when exercises or drills are occurring.

The HDM itself presents certain objectives: for example the course must be experiential, including dialogues, visual material and right hemisphere involvement in the initial encounter with the language. The aim is to develop the student's awareness of basic language structures and communication strategies, integration and proper use of idiomatic expressions. To consolidate and increase the learner's language skills.
General Language Goals:

- learner will act as receiver, negotiator, producer of messages in a variety of communicative situations
- learner will enrich his life experiences through repeated interaction with the environment
- learn to think in the target language – form new habits may be accomplished by presence of authentic material – establish new links to concepts and new manner of viewing the world
- use language for self expression, communication thoughts, feelings, perceptions
- create independent learners
- accelerate learning process by breaking down psychological barriers
- focus on nature of communication not on structure
- include a lot of practice but not repetition for its own sake
- help the learner enjoy the language experience

I will establish the goals for the three levels of proficiency (basic, intermediate, advanced) as follows:

**BASIC**

At the introductory stages of L2 learning the aims are to establish a solid foundation upon which to build further knowledge of the language. To develop the four basic skills: listening, reading, speaking and writing in order that a student may comprehend a native speaker, read authentic text and be understood by a native speaker; to function effectively in specific social situations. The instructor must establish a positive environment within which the student may learn to function independently in the target language and provide experience with the target language.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaking basic communication</th>
<th>Reading read and comprehend simple written Italian</th>
<th>Writing begin using simple structures</th>
<th>Listening understand basic spoken Italian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Salutation</td>
<td>Recognize and begin to acquire vocabulary</td>
<td>Write dialogues and short descriptive passages</td>
<td>Respond to simple requests and instructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proper use of the polite form of address</td>
<td>Ability to read simple passages and recognize ideas of such passages</td>
<td>Properly use grammatical items learned</td>
<td>Following directions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make simple requests</td>
<td>Proper pronunciation</td>
<td></td>
<td>Respond appropriately to familiar conversational topics words and phrases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Express likes and dislikes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Respond to short, simple stories, ads or songs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participate in discussion using short simple phrases</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Build listening comprehension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perform short prepared oral reports or skits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use simple verb tenses, present, present perfect, imperfect, future, and present, past continuous, negations, plurals as well as correct agreements of nouns adjectives, possessives, pronouns, prepositions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describe personal experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be able to carry out very simple conversation with a native speaker and be understood</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expose the individual to proverbial and idiomatic language structures</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicate and think in the target language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use language for self expression</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create independent learners</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cultural/Figurative
- knowledge of appropriate greeting form (ex. kissing on each cheek, social function of the piazza, bar etc.)
- use of the formal form of address
- introduction to the metaphors and idiomatic and figurative expressions used in the target language and proper use in independent speech
- ability to express, in simple terms, states of being and produce novel metaphors
- work on conceptual fluency
- ability to interact in the target culture
- appreciation for target culture
- ability to associate meaning directly to the target language - may involve identifying difference in conceptual domains

INTERMEDIATE

The learner, will be able to initiate conversation in the target language and carry on a more complex conversation. Will be able to write simple letters and notes and will be able to read more complex material. This level will build on communicative abilities through the contribution of more in-class discussions. The ability to express personal experiences or feelings to other students or friends. The learner will act as receiver, negotiator, producer of messages in a variety of communicative situations. The learner will be exposed to increased quantity of authentic language in the form of ads, magazine articles, newspaper clippings, media segments, etc. The learner will enrich his life experiences through repeated interaction with the environment and simulated target language situations.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaking</th>
<th>Reading</th>
<th>Writing</th>
<th>Listening</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>speak with increasing spontaneity, accuracy and complexity</td>
<td>extract information from written material</td>
<td>ability to write more complex dialogues and reports</td>
<td>request clarification of necessary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- describe personal experience</td>
<td>- read newspaper, simple books in the target language</td>
<td>- write simple letters</td>
<td>- participate in conversation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- participate in social or academic discussions using short simple sentences</td>
<td>- derive meaning from presentations</td>
<td>- write compositions on familiar topics</td>
<td>- derive meaning from presentations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- maintain conversation</td>
<td>- respond correctly to body language as well as intonation in the target language</td>
<td>- paraphrase</td>
<td>- ability to negotiate meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- speak well enough for peer and teacher comprehension</td>
<td>- ability to function effectively within the target culture</td>
<td>- proper use of modals, conditional, attempt to use passive voice</td>
<td>- ability to think in the target language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- ability to carry out authentic conversation</td>
<td>- continue to build on metaphor and figurative language use, including use of proverbs and idiomatic expressions in novel speech utterances - individual able to include these structure in own communication.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- proper use of modals, conditional, attempt to use passive voice</td>
<td>- ability to think in the target language</td>
<td>- use language for self expression</td>
<td>- ability to function effectively within the target culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- able to think in the target language</td>
<td>- initiate conversation in the target language</td>
<td>- use language for self expression</td>
<td>- continue to build on metaphor and figurative language use, including use of proverbs and idiomatic expressions in novel speech utterances - individual able to include these structure in own communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- use of conditional</td>
<td>- initiate conversation in the target language</td>
<td>- initiate conversation in the target language</td>
<td>- ability to think in the target language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- ability to include proverbial and idiomatic expressions in speech</td>
<td>- initiate conversation in the target language</td>
<td>- initiate conversation in the target language</td>
<td>- ability to think in the target language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- use language for self expression</td>
<td>- initiate conversation in the target language</td>
<td>- initiate conversation in the target language</td>
<td>- ability to think in the target language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CULTURAL/FIGURATIVE</td>
<td>- initiate conversation in the target language</td>
<td>- initiate conversation in the target language</td>
<td>- ability to think in the target language</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ADVANCED**

Learner will demonstrate ability to think in the target language. Attention will be paid to accuracy and inclusion of more complex forms. The learner will act as receiver, negotiator, producer of messages in a variety of communicative situations. The learner will enrich his life experiences through repeated interaction with the environment.
All three levels of proficiency will include activities which will be designed to specifically guide acquisition through explanation, exercises, and role-play, etc. Materials include language games, humour, role-play activities, "cloze" technique exercises to improve long term memory, problem-solving tasks and visual items. The units will keep in mind structural components, cognitive/affective, which all interact during the acquisition process – this is not the eclecticism which Brown (1994) and Freddi (1994) warn against. It presupposes that the teaching techniques adopted will be personological in nature and based on the kind of knowledge one wishes to impart, structural objectives hope to reach, age and former knowledge of learners, their experience.
5.2.3 Organization of Material

Titone suggests that the teaching-learning process consists of flexible "modules" ensuring the gradual assimilation (internalization), of coordinated levels of verbal skills and capacities. The modular approach permits the instruction process to be characterized by cyclical reversibility and spiral development. As a result the units should be designed in such a manner that it permits the instructor to move back and forth along basic learning stages in order to clarify, recognize, strengthen, and expand the essential elements of language competence. The series of phases or learning units are each constituted by a set of well-defined activities aimed at the fixation of specific verbal habits or rules. A large portion of content may extend for long periods of time.

The selection of topics is based on the students' needs, the frequency of encounter of certain structures, on functions one wishes to impart and conceptual domains. Examples of what such units might contain are the following:

- greeting / taking leave
- introducing oneself and others
- ordering in a bar/restaurant
- using the polite vs. the familiar form of address
- asking for and giving directions
- birthdays
- making request (booking a room), asking for information
- speaking about oneself
- time
- give descriptions, narrating
- at the market
- clothes shopping
- telephone conversation
- love / ideas / time / hope / illness
- etc.
The order in which these functions and notions will appear within a teaching syllabus will depend on the level of proficiency of the learner as well as the use of certain structures in the target language. Some of the functions may be distributed over more than one unit with reinforcement. The order in which grammatical items associated with the functions will be introduced will depend on the degree of difficulty. Therefore, simpler structures will be introduced first and more complex structures will be introduced later as the student’s linguistic ability increases. In some instances knowledge of complex structures which are necessary for communication in early stages of learning will also be introduced.

The unit will be set up according to the guidelines established by Titone in his Modular Model presented in section 4.2. The section which follows will consider the applications and implications of the Model to the actual structuring of a teaching unit.

5.3 A Teaching Unit

Refer back to section 4.2 for a discussion of Titone’s Modular Model, it will be used here to present a teaching unit. Elements for a lesson or unit may include inductive, deductive, affective and functional techniques. Pre-programming permits one to set out conceptual goals, linguistics, functional and cultural goals to pursue, to select appropriate teaching methods, and to decide on use of L1 or L2. Danesi points out that (1998:144) "L’idea di unità didattica implica che l’apprendimento verbale e un processo integrato, e che, quindi, anche l’approccio più conveniente all’insegnamento è di tipo integrato." A reminder that the lesson must be cyclic and
not linear, that is there must be flexibility, given the material one wishes to cover, to begin at any point in the lesson.

To complete our discussion of a lesson plan activities for the unit proposed must be considered, in order to arrive at exercises which will reflect the HD philosophy I will consider activities from a variety of teaching manuals and text books to arrive a sample. Modifications to exercise will be made to reflect a HD approach.
5.3.1. Example of a Lesson Plan

Topic:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traveling in Italy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planning Trip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- learning about the country</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Communicative objectives:

✓ describing events, personal characteristics, and states of mind, and weather in the past
✓ talking about past actions
✓ pointing out people and objects
✓ describing people and objects
✓ planning a vacation
✓ asking for information
✓ giving and receiving directions

Grammar:

† past descriptive
† past descriptive vs. present perfect
† irregular verbs stare, fare, dare, andare
† imperative
† modes of transportation
† prepositions in and a – as related to countries, cities, regions, provinces and islands
  * consider relating this in terms of conceptual domains: view country as a container which not only holds people but also the cities, therefore in Italian the use of in vs. the English to which considers the aspect of movement.

  \[ Vado \text{ in Italia.} \quad \text{vs.} \quad I \text{ am going to Italy.} \]

  * a: in Italian once you are within the container you move to a specific part of the container, therefore: \[ Vado \text{ a Roma.} \] Where as in English one still considers or rather uses a preposition of movement: \[ I \text{ am going to Rome.} \]

Culture

■ Vacations and tourism in Italy
■ Its cities, events
■ Places to stay
■ Preferred modes of transportation
■ “Paese che vai usanza che trovi”
5.3.1.1. **Cognitive Micromatheme**

*Global Perception:*

Gianluca e Silvia sono due amici candesi che si incontrano per caso in un bar in Corso Italia, nella *Little Italy* di Toronto.

**Gianluca:** Ciao Silvia, come va? È da molto tempo che non ti vedo. Dove sei stata?

**Silvia:** Ciao Gianluca, sto bene grazie! Sì, infatti sono andata in vacanza in Italia quest'estate, e ho viaggiato molto.

**Gianluca:** Che bello! Anch'io sono andato in Italia. Io ho visitato Napoli e la Sardegna. E tu?


**Gianluca:** Io sono andato a Napoli con un amico in autobus. Abbiamo fatto il campeggio. Ogni mattina dopo che ci lavevamo andavamo a prendere un caffè e una sfogliata in un bar non molto lontano dal campeggio. Siamo andati ad Amalfi, Pompei e Forcella in motorino e poi siamo andati a Capri in vaporetto.

**Silvia:** Davvero! Che emozione! Io sono andata in gondola lungo i canali del centro storico di Venezia. Come era il tempo a Napoli?

**Gianluca:** Il tempo era bellissimo, e non è mai piovuto. Ogni giorno la temperatura era di circa trenta gradi all'ombra. Faceva caldo. Ci siamo divertiti un mondo!

**Silvia:** Sì, l'Italia è bella. Perché non entriamo in questo bar, prendiamo un caffè e parliamo ancora un po'?

**Gianluca:** Ottima idea!
A dialogue at the beginning of a unit continues to be a valid point of departure during the initial stages of acquisition (Danesi 1998, Di Pietro 1993). As the learner’s knowledge of the target language increases and his/her proficiency increases these initial dialogues may be replaced with readings, literary texts or articles from newspapers or magazines, as well as other sources of authentic language providing more complex communicative structures and situations to analyse. The use of dialogues at the beginner stage are helpful for a number of reasons; in the initial stages the learner is not yet sufficiently fluent or familiar with the L2 to undertake a communicative task or is reluctant to speak in a new setting. Further, the lack of the conceptual, linguistic or communicative competence in the target language during the early stages may result in the student’s unwillingness to undertake a spontaneous conversation. Hence dialogues set out the appropriate parameters for conversation. Such an activity reduces learning anxiety which may hinder acquisition, as we have learned in our discussion of humanistic methods; the affective variables of which we have spoken throughout this work play a key role at this stage. Unlike the Silent Way where the student must establish the topic and dialogue a preset dialogue which may function as a pattern is helpful. Therefore one must have an idea of the situation one wants to present and the concepts which ones wishes to touch on. For example, asking direction, or ordering at a bar. As the individual’s knowledge of the language increases the dialogues may become more complex or readings or other authentic material from the target language may be used. Bosco and Di Pietro (1976) suggest that dialogues used should also contain interaction which they refer to as ‘state-of-mind’ as part of the material being presented. This would in
essence be the written verbalization of the character’s thoughts and motivations for the dialogue. In addition to presenting the learner with the motivation for communication such dialogues may serve the added purpose of demonstrating how grammatical rules may vary between direct discourse and commentaries.

An instructor may ask students to read the dialogue in groups memorize it and then present it in front of the class. This may assist the student in achieving the confidence necessary to create and dramatize dialogues they are asked to create. It is important that the dialogue reflect the topic, function, or concept that one wishes to impart in the unit and the elements of such a topic are clearly identified.

Following the stages of a lesson plan as set out in chapter 4 (see section 4.2) a lesson would begin with the reading of the dialogue followed by a discussion of the unknown aspects of the dialogue. Exposure to the discourse unit should be followed by work on operational analysis. These activities may take a variety of forms. Using the above dialogue the following are various activities which may be used to ensure comprehension of the material presented. Once this has been done, if time warrants and an instructor so desires this may be followed by students memorizing and select groups acting out the dialogue.

---

5 An example of the presence of conscious and unconscious thoughts in a dialogue is the following:

| Male Student: | [state of mind] Che bella ragazza! Come faccio ad attaccare discorso? Domando se questa è la classe del professor Greco. È questa la classe di psicologia del Prof. Greco? |
| Female Student: | No. È quella di lingua italiana del Prof. D'Amico. |
| Male Student: | Bene, è proprio ciò che cercavo. |
| Female Student: | Allora, perché ha chiesto del corso di psicologia? |
| Male Student: | Solo per attaccare discorso ... |
| Female Student: | [state of mind] Che imprudente! Però mi fa piacere perché è un bel giovane. (Di Pietro 1993: 43) |
Comprehension Activities / Operational Analysis

The grammatical item is analyzed by disassembling the dialogue and considering the function of the past descriptive followed by a comparison with the present perfect.

- Verification. True or False.

Rileggi il dialogo e di se le seguenti frasi sono vere o false. Se una frase è falsa, correggila.
1. Mario e Silvia sono amici.
2. Silvia è andata nel Veneto e ha visitato Marostica e Venezia.
4. Ecc.

6 See Paola Bleloch and Rosetta D’Angelo, Eccoci! (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc. 1997), 267-68, for additional pedagogical ideas which may be used in this initial stage of exposure to the text. The specific topic that I have chosen in this case does not allow for such activities.

This chapter looks at the imperfect; the unit begins with a look at art. There is an initial dialogue on the Sistine Chapel. Consider the activities which follow.

B. Abbini i termini della colonna A con le descrizioni della colonna B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. il cielo</td>
<td>a. è l’arte di dipingere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. la pittura</td>
<td>b. è una pietra preziosa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. l’acquarello</td>
<td>c. può essere azzurro o grigio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. ecc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. Visitiamo Roma! You are a guide for a group of American tourists. Write a list of the Roman monuments you will include in your tour. (See also Capitolo 4.) Then, in pairs, compare your choices.

MODELLO: -Visitiamo la Basilica di San Pietro.
- Sono d’accordo. È una chiesa importantissima.

D. Visita alla Cappella Sistina. You and a friend are visiting the Sistine Chapel and disagree about the merits of the ceiling restoration. Create a short conversation (four to six lines), using vocabulary and structures learned so far.

MODELLO: -Mi piacciono i colori chiari e vivaci della Creazione. Com’è bella!
- Io invece preferisco i colori scuri del Giudizio Universale.
Complete the sentence with the appropriate ending.

Rileggi il dialogo e completi le seguenti frasi in modo appropriato.

1. Gianluca è ____________________.
2. Non ha veduto Silvia da ____________________.
3. A Marostica Silvia ha veduto ____________________.
4. Ecc.

Content questions.

Rispondi alle seguenti domande.

1. Chi sono Gianluca e Silvia?
2. Dove sono andati i due ragazzi?
3. Ecc.

Multiple choice.

Scegli la risposta corretta.

1. In estate Silvia è                        2. A Napoli
a. andato in Italia.                     a. è piovuto.
b. andata a Napoli.                      b. il tempo era bellissimo.
c. andata in Italia.                    c. il tempo era cattivo.

Operational Synthesis

Paraphrasing.

Rileggi il dialogo e completi il seguente paragrafo.

Gianluca incontra ________. Lui non ha veduto Silvia da ________. Silvia è stata in Italia ________. Ecc.
Reconstruct the dialogue.

| Silvia: | Si, l'Italia è bella. Perché non entriamo in questo bar prendiamo un café e parliamo ancora un pò? |
| Gianluca: | Ciao Silvia, come va? È da molto tempo che non ti vedo. Dove sei stata? |
| Gianluca: | Che bello! Anch'io sono andato in Italia. Io ho visitato Napoli e la Sardegna. E tu? |

Metti le seguenti frasi in ordine cronologica.

These comprehension questions may pertain to the content of the dialogue but others may be used to arrive at an understanding of the conceptual domain being explored.

5.3.1.2 Reinforcement Micromatheme

Pattern drills

In exercises of a pattern drill nature one must identify those aspects of the unit one wishes to develop. For example an instructor's choice to dedicate a portion of class time to analyzing and using vocabulary may be done by selecting the lexical items that are pertinent to the topic/function/notion of the lesson. In relation to our make-shift unit one may want to identify vocabulary dealing with modes of transportation and/or holiday vocabulary. Further, at this stage attention may be given to concepts, semantic domains and idioms by integrating these items into the reinforcement exercises.
Lexical Items

in autobus / a piedi
in aereoplano / aereo
in auto / automobile
in bici / bicicletta
in treno
in pedi
in tassì / taxi
in vaporetto

* may include a cultural aside about measures taken by various Italian municipalities to reduce the levels of exhaust fumes during the summer.

Exercises which answer questions such as:

Fare le seguenti domande al/alla tuo compagno/a.

MODELLO: Italia / aereo
Come sei andato/a in Italia?
Sono andato in aereo?
Parigi / auto
Sardegna / barca

One may also look at the grammar that one wants the student to learn. Therefore in relation to our topic one could consider the difference between in – a country and a – a city. In addition the student’s attention will be drawn to expressing modes of transportation. Look at the difference between present perfect (L’anno scorso sono andato/a in Italia.) and past descriptive (Da bambino ogni anno andavo in Italia). This stage also permits one to pay closer attention to certain structural issues and deal with those areas which may cause difficulty in use. A deductive approach verse an inductive approach is implemented.

Communicative exercises.

Un’intervista sulle vacanze! Con il/la compagno/a di banco fatte le seguenti domande.

MODELLO: A: Dove andavi sempre in vacanza?
B: Andavo sempre in Italia.

MODELLO: A: Quando eri bambino/a dove sei andato/a?
B: Quando ero bambino sono andato/a a Napoli.
Identification exercises.

Identificare i mezzi di trasporto. Poi svolgere un mini-dialogo.

MODELLO: Italia / Giovanni / aereo

Dove sei andato Giovanni?
Sono andato in Italia in aereo.

Parigi / Sandra / autobus
Sicilia / Paolo / vaporetto
etc.

Reconstruction exercises

Ricostruire il dialogo datto le seguenti informazioni.

A: Ciao Carlo. Come stai?
B:  
A: Sono stato in Italia per due mesi. E tu?
B:  
A: Dove si trova Leeds? Ti è piaciuta Leeds?
B:  
etc.

Functional exercises.

Formare frasi appropriate.

MODELLO: a quattr'occhi (Io e Gianni)
lo e Gianni abbiamo parlato a quattr'occhi

in prima persona (Giovanni, Sandra e Luisa)
un mucchio di posti (Giorgio)
etc.

Personalized exercises.

Indicare la preferenza personale.

MODELLO: montagna / mare
Dove preferisci andare?
Preferisco andare in montagna

campagna / montagna
mare / crociera
campeggio / albergo
lago / terme
Grammar induction.

CompletableFuture il seguente paragrafo con la form appropriata dei verbi sia al passato prossimo o all'imperfetto.

### Scacco - chessman

A Marostica, una cittadina del Veneto, c'è una bella manifestazione che fa parte della tradizione italiana dei giochi e degli spettacoli all'aperto. È una partita a scacchi giocata da personaggi e cavalli viventi su una grande scacchiera che è il pavimento della Piazza Castello, la piazza principale davanti al castello. La partita a scacchi è il ricordo di un evento drammatico di molti anni fa, al tempo del Rinascimento.

Due cavalieri, Rinaldo d'Angarano e Vieri da Vallonara, innamorati di Lionora, figlia di Taddeo Parisi castellano di Marostica. Il padre della ragazza non un duello tra i due cavalieri per conquistare il diritto di sposare Lionora, così di organizzare una partita a scacchi. I due giovani bravissimi nel gioco degli scacchi, il vincitore sposare Lionora e il perdente la sorella minore. Chi il vincitore? Non lo sappiamo, ma in un documento storico leggiamo che la partita luogo veramente «il 12 settembre del 1464 nel Campo grande del castello, con pezzi grandi e vivi.»

Anche quest’anno con la partita a scacchi davanti al castello illuminato Marostica un momento nostalgico della vita di un tempo. Dopo la partita, come in quel giorno lontano, la celebrazione con fuochi d’artificio, canti e suoni.7

Sentence formation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aerei / aereo</th>
<th>Autobus / autobus</th>
<th>Gondola / venezia / gondola</th>
<th>Italia / italy</th>
<th>Trasporto / transport.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Giosué / Giona</td>
<td>Nicola / Roma</td>
<td>Violetta</td>
<td>Giovani</td>
<td>Vivi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7 Re-elaborated from a reading on Marostica and website: www.telemar.it/mol10/homepage.htm.
Translation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fare le seguenti domande all'alla tuo/a compagno/a.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Did you go on holiday last year?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where did you go on holiday?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you enjoy your holiday?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Transformational exercises

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transformare le seguenti frasi dal passato prossimo all'imperfetto.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Abbiamo visto la Torre di Pisa ieri. B. Ogni giorno _________ la Torre di Pisa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Games - may play a central role in the language class. These may be used to reinforced grammatical structures and vocabulary such as crossword puzzles or word searches or they may be used to strength comprehension skills such as riddles and or problem-solving exercises. The following is a further example of a game which may be created to develop comprehensive skills.8

---

The class is divided into 4 teams. The following information on regions and tourist sites is read to the class. Given the information read out, individuals must match cities with regions or tourist sites with cities.


2. Il Ponte dei Sospiri è a Venezia. Venezia è una città nella regione del Veneto. Il Ponte dei Sospiri collega il palazzo Ducale e la prigione. Molte persone pensano che il nome del ponte è romantico perché Casanova è stato prigioniero qui, mentre il ponte si chiama 'sospiri' a causa dei carcerati che sospiravano prima di essere giustiziati.

3. Il Ponte Vecchio è a Firenze. Firenze è una città nella regione della Toscana. I Medici hanno costruito il Ponte per collegare il Palazzo Pitti al museo Uffizi. Sul Ponte Vecchio ci sono molti negozi. Originalmente, sul Ponte c'erano le macellerie e le concerie ma ora ci sono le gioiellerie e le oreficerie. Il Ponte Vecchio è l'unico ponte a Firenze che ha sopravvissuto i bombardamenti della seconda guerra mondiale.

4. La Chiesa di San Gennaro è a Napoli. Napoli è una città nella regione della Campania. San Gennaro è il santo patrono di Napoli. Nella chiesa si può tovare la testa di San Gennaro e due fial di sangue secco del Santo. Un proverbio dice che quando il sangue si fa liquido Napoli sara salva per la volontà di Dio. [questo è dovuto al fatto che il Santo ha difeso la città (Napoli) dalla peste e dai terremoti]

5. La Scala Santa è a Roma. Roma è una città nella regione del Lazio. La Scala Santa è nella Piazza di San Giovanni. Si suppone, che la Scala Santa è la scala che Cristo ha scalato per arrivare da Poncio Pilato. I piedi degli uomini non possono toccare la scala, allora salgono la scala con le ginocchia.

Group A
Roma
San Genaro
ecc.

Group B
Ponte dei sospiri
Lazio

OR: the game can be set up in a manner similar to Television Jeopardy. The student is given the name and they must pose the correct question.

Situational Exercises

This entails the final phase of the teaching unit as presented by Titone in this section role-play exercises as well as other such exercise give students the opportunity to draw on all they have
learned during the unit and use it. It is both written and oral ability that will be tested. This section may also include correction and informal evaluations.

- Oral discussion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discussione in classe.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dove hai viaggiato?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perché hai scelto questa città? paese?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hai viaggiato in prima class?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cosa ti è piaciuto di questa città?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ecc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Di Pietro’s Strategic Interaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Divide the class into groups. Groups A and B.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scenario: At the Ciampino Airport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group A: It is your first day at work as a ground attendant. You have been told that Eros Ramazzotti will be going through Ciampino with his entourage. You have been told that the group will need your assistance and will identify themselves by asking for directions to Civita Vecchia in order to avoid fans and not draw attention to themselves. You are a big fan and would like his autograph but you are being monitored by your supervisor. What will you do if you see him?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group B: It is your first time in Italy and your Italian friends are waiting for you at Civita Vecchia. You stumble into a large group which is also going to Civita Vecchia. You ask a ground attendant for assistance.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

Planned dialogue.

Chiedere al/alla compagno/a del banco accanto dov'è stato/a l'anno scorso in vacanza.

Ciao Sandra? Dove sei stata l'anno scorso in vacanza?
Sono stata a Parigi. E tu dove sei stato Luca?
Sono stato a Londra.

Role-playing

In gruppi di tre persone, svolgere dei mini-dialoghi secondo il modello. Le persone si incontrano davanti ad un museo a Roma.

MODELLO: Carlo / Sandra / Stefania

Stefania: Eccoti Carlo? Sei in ritardo dov'eri?
Carlo: Scusami Stefania ho perso il treno.

Information-giving tasks.

Descrivere il tempo durante la tua vacanza o portare in classe una foto scattata mentre eri in vacanza. Decrivi il giorno.

MODELLO: Faceva cattivo tempo.

Information-attaining tasks.

Svolgere con un/a compagno/a dei mini-dialoghi.

MODELLO: Di solito quando vai in vacanza?
Con che vai in vacanza?
Con chi vai? Ecc.

OR

Given a map of Siena on which areas of tourist interest are marked discuss what you saw while you were in Italy. Use information you have learned about the city and offer suggestions for places to visit.

MODELLO: C'era un campeggio vicino Siena?
Si, c'era un bel campeggio appena fuori Siena su una pitturesca collina.
C'erano dei mercati a Siena?
Si, c'era un mercato ogni venerdì ma ti suggerisco quello di Firenze.
Etc.
Descriptive Exercises - Use of the internet. - In the modern day classroom it is important to integrate modern technologies as much as possible. This gives the sense that the language is relevant and alive as opposed to a textbook language or disassociated from reality. It also increases student's interest in the language and culture, increasing the acquisition process.

This exercise requires the use of computers. Given the following websites of Italian cities and tourist information (including weather forecast and flight arrival and departures) plan a trip to the Italian city of your choice. Provide a complete itinerary and websites used in order that the class may follow along. Note there are some sites which offer virtual tours of the cities.

Websites: http://adesso.heinle.com
www.nettuno.it/cities
www.emmeti.it

OR

On your way to Robarts you find a wallet. In the wallet there is no money but there are quite a few sales receipts from Siena. You assume that the individual was there on holiday. What can you tell about the person and his/her trip? Work in groups of two or three.

Proverbs, Frozen Metaphors and Semantic Categories

Given various Italian proverbs/metaphors determine the English equivalent. Discuss the images. Give examples of when you would see it in speech and how it would be used.

Example:

```plaintext
immbarcarsi
[Noi] __________ sul tragetto per Messina.
[Noi] __________ per una nuova avventura.
```

PROVERBS

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10 In the article “Integration and research aspects of internet technology” Italica 75.4 (1998): 532-540 Sinyor discusses an exercise involving internet use in an Italian language class. She considers the utility of such a tool and its limitations.
 Conduct surveys

Reading from magazine or ads, brochures, legal documents, etc – the important fact is the integration and use of authentic language in order to introduce students to the proper use of target language conceptual domains. A discussion of such material allows the learner to better understand how concepts relate and contrast to his/her native language.

5.3.1.3. Control

Evaluation/Correction:

This stage of the learning process may be formal in terms of exercises, tests or exams which students must write. These exercises or test may be corrected by the instructor or they may be presented as a task for the students to correct. An instructor may ask the student’s to edit or correct each other’s work. Once after the task is complete the instructor may wish to collect the work to determine how well the students are doing. Further, evaluation and/or correction may occur with each exercise or activity the student participates in. The function of evaluation (both formal and informal) is to determine how well the language is being learned and assimilated.

 Editing

Read the following paragraph, identify, discuss and correct any and all errors.


Since language is not being taught as discrete-points it is inappropriate that discrete point test be used to test the material taught.\(^{11}\) Discrete point test are constructed around points of

grammar, and test students’ understanding of the grammar of the target language. For those items that are taught in this manner discrete point testing would be a fair manner of determining whether a student has learned that particular point. Since most of the teaching done in a HD teaching unit is based on pattern practice and true-to-life dialogues and other such authentic language any testing material used should be a reflection of the teaching method employed.

5.4 Conclusion

Reviewing the HDM as a source for L2 teaching, we will consider the 10 questions Larsen-Freeman (1986) poses in her discussion of L2 teaching methodologies in her book Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching.

1. What are the goals of an instructor using a holodynamic approach to L2 teaching?

The instructor’s goal is to impart to the student the ability to use the target language effectively in communicative situations within a given social context. To assist students to create utterances which are culturally and linguistically comprehensible and eventually correct. The hope is that one will help the students develop into knowledgeable aliens within the target culture. One hopes they will be able to use the language automatically, autonomously, and creatively. This is achieved by forming new linguistic habits and concentrating one’s efforts on providing meaningful input which will encourage the establishment of communicative, linguistic and conceptual competence.
2. What is the role of the teacher? What is the role of the student?

The role of the teacher is to provide a source of authentic language and be a facilitator for learning. To speak in the target language as much as possible in the early stages without compromising comprehension. To establish in the student a positive attitude about the language and his/her ability to use the language. The instructor is the most stable source of feedback in the language class, this feedback may be positive or negative. He/she is also responsible for providing an interesting, safe and positive learning environment for the student. His/her function may oscillate between a passive or active one depending on the specific task and situation.

Students should be active participants in the learning process as opposed to passive learners, they should be communicators. They should work on linguistic, conceptual and communicative competence and should be responsible for their own learning. They are responsible for trying to make themselves understood in the target language and being able to intuit meaning from authentic utterances.

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

The fundamental characteristic of holodynamic teaching is that the teaching and learning processes is that the individual’s personality is the governing “body” of all activity. Such characteristics as motivation, attitude, perception are important aspects of the teaching and learning. Activities selected are such that communication is encouraged (role-play, personal expression of feelings).

The individual chooses what he/she will say and how he/she will say it. The choice of words and manner of expression reflect the individual’s personality. If there is only one choice
we are not viewing the individual’s personality nor his/her perception of the world. A further characteristic is the use of authentic material as much as possible. This helps develop in the learner strategies for understanding the target language as well as models for imitation of discourse.

4. **What is the nature of student-teacher interaction?**  **What is the nature of student-student interaction?**

Instructor is initiator of activities and in early stages the only source of external feedback. He/she establishes communicative situations, coordinates the unit and the activities associated with it. Students are required to interact a great deal with one another, in pair work, in small groups, in teams and as a whole.

5. **How are the feelings of students dealt with?**

As with all humanistic based teaching methodologies the student’s feelings are of great importance. To this end a safe, encouraging teaching environment is established in which the student is comfortable speaking and making errors without fearing that he/she will be laughed at or ridiculed. Also the opportunity to express their own individuality, sharing their views, ideas and being creative in the target language helps to make the learners feel emotionally secure with the language and this in turn increases cooperation among students and with the instructor.

Further a significant amount of attention is paid to motivation and students, attitudes. Students will be more motivated to learn a language if they feel their linguistic needs are being addressed and that they are learning to function with the language. Also, it is important that ties
are drawn linking the target language to their life making the learning process more relevant. Use of technology (ex. computers, internet, etc.) that they are familiar with to discover new things about the target language and culture also assists in increasing motivation.

6. **How is language viewed? How is culture viewed?**

Language is necessary for communicating one’s desires, feelings, etc. Language contains insight into target culture. By studying the structures and conceptual domains presented in the target language the learner arrives at a better understanding of the target culture and the use which is made of the language for expressing inner thoughts. The hope is to impart knowledge, not only of the target language’s forms but also the of its meaning and function. The history and experience of a whole people is stored in the language and a L2 learner must acquire the tools necessary to unlock this knowledge.

Culture is viewed as an aspect of the individual and is reflected in the actions and words of the native speaker and learner. Misunderstandings generally arise due to differences between cultures and manner of expressing oneself. Culture is also the everyday lifestyle of the target language group. Instances such as nonverbal communication and idiomatic expression must be considered as a reflection of the target culture.

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

Language function is emphasized over form. The choices for the syllabus are based on functions and conceptual domains. Simpler forms of the language are introduced initially and as proficiency increases more complex structures are introduced. Students work with the language
at the level of dialogue, they learn to structure a coherent discourse which is not only linguistically correct but also conceptually and communicatively correct. All four language skills are considered and developed.

8. *What is the role of the student's native language?*

The student's native language in the initial stages of learning may be used to explain more complex or difficult grammatical notions as well as giving direction of the tasks that are required of them. The native language also plays a role in discussing and establishing the borders of semantic categories. The HD method of teaching encourages the use of the target language for all communicative situations and classroom management situations.

9. *How is evaluation accomplished?*

Evaluation may occur in a number of fashions. In a university setting where there is the need for grades and more formal manner of evaluating a student's progress one may wish to implement the traditional exam or test, in addition to formal assignments or regular correction of written dialogues or other work at the end of each unit or section. In addition, evaluation may occur during each task, by considering fluency, accuracy, and complexity of the utterances created by the learner. Achievement of pre-established linguistic goals allows one to move to the next unit.

10. *How does the teacher respond to student errors?*

Errors are tolerated and are viewed as the natural progression of the learning process. Only those errors which are typical or which affect comprehension or communication should be addressed immediately. As errors are self corrected proof that acquisition is occurring.
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APPENDIX

The following is a list of the abbreviations used in the dissertation.

C-L/CLL  Counseling-Learning / Community Language Learning
HD       holodynamic
HDM      Holodynamic Model for Language Behaviour and Language Learning
L1       first language
L2       second language
SLA      second language acquisition