

THE CORRELATES OF STORYTELLING FROM THE TEACHING
PROFICIENCY THROUGH READING AND STORYTELLING (TPRS)
METHOD OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION ON
ANXIETY, CONTINUED ENROLLMENT AND ACADEMIC SUCCESS
IN MIDDLE AND HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

By

Copyright 2011

K. David Beal

Submitted to the graduate degree program in the Curriculum and Teaching Department
and the Graduate Faculty of the University of Kansas in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Chairperson, Dr. Manuela Gonzalez-Bueno

Dr. Paul Markham

Dr. David Hansen

Dr. Steven White

Dr. Phil McKnight

Date Defended: April 4, 2011

The Dissertation Committee for K. David Beal
certifies that this is the approved version of the following dissertation:

THE CORRELATES OF STORYTELLING FROM THE TEACHING
PROFICIENCY THROUGH READING AND STORYTELLING (TPRS)
METHOD OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION ON
ANXIETY, CONTINUED ENROLLMENT AND ACADEMIC SUCCESS
IN MIDDLE AND HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Chairperson, Dr. Manuela Gonzalez-Bueno

Date Approved: April 4, 2011

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to explore storytelling as it is used in the foreign language teaching method called Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS), a technique which uses entertaining stories to introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar. After teachers were surveyed about the amount of storytelling that they use, middle school and high school students enrolled in first year and second year French, German and Spanish in a large suburban school district were surveyed. Based on the amount of storytelling that the teachers used, the student surveys researched anxiety rates as measured on the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986), rates of continued enrollment, self-reported ratings of reading and listening skills, and academic achievement, as measured on the semester final exams and the reading sections of the final exams used in the cooperating school district. Covariates were the grade levels of the students and their levels of engagement in the class.

Results of the study indicated no significant differences in levels of anxiety for all groups. Significant differences for levels of continued enrollment were not found for middle school students. For high schools students, it was the non-use group that had the highest levels of continued enrollment. While significant differences existed for high school students with regards to self-reported ratings of their receptive skills, it was the students of teachers who did not use the technique who had the highest ratings. Regarding academic achievement, when just high school students were measured, students of teachers who do not use the storytelling scored significantly higher. When only middle school students were measured, there were significantly higher scores for the students of teachers who regularly used the technique. Results suggest advantages of the using storytelling only with younger students.

Acknowledgements

First, I would like to thank my dissertation committee for their time and assistance. I appreciate Dr. Hansen's assistance with the statistics, and the time, critical eye and effort that Dr. Gonzalez-Bueno gave to my work.

I also must thank my department for their participation in my research. I am especially grateful to Cathy, Jamie, Julie, Julie, Deborah and Kendall.

This work would not have been possible without patience and loyalty of my biggest supporter. I am grateful to Daryl for his unwavering encouragement and support throughout this entire process.

Finally, although they are no longer with me, I must to acknowledge my parents, Ken and Jane Beal, for the inspiration and encouragement that they always gave me. It was at my mom's "suggestion" that I started this endeavor. This work is dedicated to them.

Table of Contents

Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
1.1 Problem Statement	1
1.2 Methods	3
1.3 Hypotheses	4
1.4 Definition of Variables	5
1.5 Summary	6
Chapter 2: Review of Literature	7
2.1 Presentation of the Theory and Method	7
2.1.1 Asher’s influence on TPRS	7
2.1.2 Krashen’s influence on TPRS	9
2.1.3 TPRS today	11
2.1.4 A TPRS lesson	12
2.1.5 Grammar and assessment in the TPRS lesson	18
2.2 Comparisons of second language acquisition theories and methods to TPRS	19
2.2.1 The natural approach and TPRS	20
2.2.2 The narrative method and TPRS	21
2.2.3 Communicative language teaching (CLT) and TPRS	22
2.2.4 Other methods and TPRS	23
2.3 The ACTFL Standards and TPRS	24
2.4 TPRS and Storytelling	26
2.5 Limitations of TPRS	29
2.6 Research Concerning Variables in the Study	30
2.6.1 Foreign language anxiety	31
2.6.2 Continued enrollment	33
2.6.3 Listening and reading skills	34
2.6.4 Academic achievement	34
2.7 Summary	35
Chapter 3: Methods	37
3.1 Participants	37
3.2 Instruments	38
3.3 Group Design	40
3.4 Data Analysis	41
3.5 Limitations to Internal and External Validity	42
Chapter 4: Results	45
4.1 Data Collections Methods	45
4.1.1 Teacher survey procedures and statistics	45
4.1.2 Student survey procedures and statistics	47
4.2 Data Analysis and Presentation	49
4.2.1 District-wide results about anxiety	50
4.2.2 District-wide results about continued enrollment	51
4.2.3 District-wide results about ratings of receptive skills	51
4.2.4 District-wide results about academic achievement	54

4.3	Differences between Middle School and High School Students	56
4.3.1	Middle School results about anxiety	57
4.3.2	Middle school results about continued enrollment	58
4.3.3	Middle school results about ratings of receptive skills	59
4.3.4	Middle school results about academic achievement	60
4.3.5	High school results about anxiety	62
4.3.6	High school results about continued enrollment	63
4.3.7	High school results about ratings of receptive skills	64
4.3.8	High school results about academic achievement	66
Chapter 5: Discussion		69
5.1	Introduction	69
5.2	Results Discussion	70
5.2.1	Anxiety and storytelling	70
5.2.2	Continued enrollment and storytelling	72
5.2.3	Ratings of receptive skills and storytelling	74
5.2.4	Academic achievement and storytelling	76
5.3	Limitations	77
5.4	Recommendations for Further Research	79
5.4.1	Younger students and storytelling	79
5.4.2	Classroom interaction	80
5.4.3	Nationally standardized exams	81
5.4.4	The modern foreign language learner	81
5.4.5	TPRS and the CLT classroom	82
5.4.6	Differentiated instruction and TPRS	83
5.4.7	The ACTFL standards and TPRS	84
5.5	Final Conclusions	86
References		88
Tables and Figures		96
Appendices		115
1	Copy of the Student Survey	115
2	Copy of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)	117
3	Permission to Use the FLCAS	118
4	Engagement with Challenge Survey	119
5	Copy of the Teacher Survey on TPRS and Storytelling Usage	120
6	Copies of the Academic Assessments	123
6.1	German 1 Final Exam	123
6.2	German 2 Final Exam	126
6.3	French 1 Final Exam	127
6.4	French 2 Final Exam	133
6.5	Spanish 1 Final Exam	137
6.6	Spanish 2 Final Exam	140

Chapter One

Introduction

Problem Statement

In the past fifteen years, a teacher-driven movement has occurred at the grass-roots level in foreign language education. A method for vocabulary and grammar introduction called Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS), which was first developed in the 1980s by a Bakersfield, California Spanish teacher named Blaine Ray, has been moving out of obscurity to a place of acceptance by some foreign language teachers. Although TPRS began as the personal technique of its creator, it has developed to the point where its proponents consider it to be a method. It will be referred to as a method in this research. The method's reputation has spread by word of mouth by teachers (Cantoni, 1999). In some districts, its effectiveness has been dismissed and teachers have been told not to use it, while other districts have embraced the method and changed the curricula of the district so that this one method is the one and only method being used by its teachers. Meanwhile, teachers in neighboring districts have never even heard of the method.

Textbook companies have caught on to the trend and some secondary school foreign language textbooks include suggestions in the margins of teacher editions of when and how to use TPRS, as well as its predecessor Total Physical Response (TPR). Most companies offer TPRS manuals that are available for purchase in its ancillary material packages (Ray & Seely, 2003).

Pre-service teachers in schools of education are usually not taught the method (Wilbur, 2007). It is not mentioned in university textbooks used in foreign language methods courses. Not only are these students not current on a newer trend in foreign language education, but also these

new graduates will be at a disadvantage when applying for jobs in districts that support the use of the method.

Because classroom teachers still feel the constant frustration with students who have finished many years of study of a language and yet who are not being able to use the language competently, TPRS has taken hold at the teacher level. TPRS is appealing to classroom teachers who look for techniques to make lessons engaging for students. Because TPRS was developed by and is advocated by classroom teachers, its appeal at this level is even stronger.

While teachers may know about the method, it has not thoroughly made its way to the universities and into scholarly journals. There have been relatively few articles in the prestigious journals, while there are plenty of websites, list serves, workshops, conventions, teaching materials and manuals available on the method. At the university level, only Middle Tennessee State University is doing any research on TPRS. Dr. Shelley Thomas writes that MTSU is “the only university trying to do something” and “there is nothing in any scholarly articles” about the method (S. Thomas, personal communication, September 22, 2009).

There have been a few small studies on the benefits of TPRS, but support for the method by classroom teachers is based primarily on anecdotal evidence and the word of its creator. The introduction of the TPRS manual for the Deutsch Aktuell textbook series published by EMC/Paradigm states, “according to Blaine Ray, students in TPRS classes who take national standardized tests consistently score better than the national average. In addition, the number of students of all ability levels who continue with the same foreign language continues to rise” (Schmitz & Polito, 2004, p. vi). There is no reference for this claim.

The purpose of this study is to research some of the claims of TPRS supporters. The study will try to discover if there is a statistically significant difference between the students of

teachers who use storytelling, as it is defined in the TPRS method, as their primary method of vocabulary and grammar introduction and reinforcement and the students of teachers who do not use it or use it less frequently. The dependent variables will be anxiety, continued enrollment, self-reported ratings of receptive skills and academic achievement. Anxiety will be measured using the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986).

Academic scores will be based on the first semester final exams used in levels one and two of French, German and Spanish in the cooperating school district. An explanation of the method and how storytelling is used in it is included in the review of literature.

Methods

For the independent variable, a survey for teachers will be developed to measure the amount in which they use one aspect of the TPRS method, specifically storytelling. Although there are many steps to the TPRS method, the technique of storytelling is a key element of the method and it is the one aspect of the method that all teachers who might consider themselves TPRS teachers would use. The survey will quantify how much teachers use storytelling, as it is defined in the TPRS method. Responses will be used to classify teachers into three groups: teachers who regularly use storytelling as it is defined in the TPRS method to introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar, teachers who partially use it and teachers who do not use it at all. Prior to the final draft of the surveys, brief interviews will be conducted with Blaine Ray, the creator of the TPRS, and Susie Gross, another expert in the method. Mr. Ray and Ms. Gross lead convention sessions, conduct workshops, lecture and write books on TPRS. The purpose of the interviews not only will be to understand the evolution and expansion of the method, but also to accurately represent how TPRS teachers use storytelling and other activities associated with the method.

For the dependent variables, a survey for students will be used. The students will be enrolled in levels one and two of French, German and Spanish in a large suburban school district in the Midwest. The student survey will include the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). The survey will include items asking for plans for continued enrollment, self-reported ratings of skill levels in reading and listening, scores on the semester exams and scores on the reading sections of the final exams used in the cooperating district. The two covariates included will be the grade level of the students and the level of engagement in the class. The goal is to research whether students of teachers who use storytelling as it defined in the TPRS method have less anxiety, higher rates of continued enrollment, higher ratings of skills in reading and listening, and higher academic achievement than the students of teachers who do not use it or use with less frequency, after controlling for grade level and engagement level differences. This survey will be reviewed by a group of teachers to look for bias in the questions and a pilot test with two or three classes from a middle school and a high school will be conducted.

Hypotheses

The first of four hypotheses is that, after controlling for grade level and engagement level differences, students of teachers who use storytelling as it is defined in the TPRS method and as the primary means of vocabulary and grammar introduction and reinforcement will have lower anxiety scores on the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) than the students of teachers who do not use the technique or use it with less frequency.

The second hypothesis is that students of teachers who use storytelling as the primary means of vocabulary and grammar introduction and reinforcement will have a statistically higher

level of continued enrollment in the foreign language than the students of teachers who do not use the technique or use it with less frequency.

The third hypothesis is that, after controlling for grade level and engagement level differences, students of teachers who use storytelling as the primary means of vocabulary and grammar introduction and reinforcement will rate the receptive skills of reading and listening higher than the students of teachers who do not use the technique or use it with less frequency. This will be a self-reported rating of the students' perceived ability to read and understand the foreign language.

The fourth and final hypothesis is that, after controlling for grade level and engagement level differences, students of teachers who use storytelling as the primary means of vocabulary and grammar introduction and reinforcement will score higher on academic assessments of their skills in the foreign language than the students of teachers who do not use the technique or use it less frequently. The assessments will be the first semester final exams and the reading sections of the final exams used in levels one and two of French, German and Spanish in the cooperating school district.

Definition of Variables

The independent variable for all four hypotheses is categorical. It is the amount of storytelling that teachers use as the primary teaching method for vocabulary and grammar introduction and reinforcement. There will be a scale of levels of the use of storytelling, based on a survey and self-identification of teachers. Teachers will fall into three categories: those who regularly use storytelling as it is defined in the TPRS method, those who partially use it and those who do not use it at all.

The dependent variable for the first hypothesis is the students' score on the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale developed by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986). The dependent variable for the second hypothesis is whether the students intend to continue on to the next level of the foreign language. The dependent variable for the third hypothesis is the ratings of the students' skills levels in the foreign language receptive skills on a survey. The students will rate their own perceived abilities. The final dependent variables will be the students' scores on the first semester final exams and the students scores' on the reading sections of the final exams given to students in levels one and two of Spanish, French and German. The cooperating district has common assessments, which include final exams.

The covariates are the grade level of the students and the level of engagement, as measured on a scale of engagement. The scale of engagement is used with permission.

Summary

Considering the paucity of scholarly research about TPRS, this study will try to research the claims of lowered anxiety, higher rates of continued enrollment, higher ratings of reading and listening abilities, and higher academic scores by students of teachers who use the storytelling part of the TPRS method. A survey for teachers will be used to divide teachers into three groups for the independent variable in the four research hypotheses. The groups will be students of teachers who regularly use storytelling as it is defined in the TPRS method, students of teachers who partially use storytelling and students of teachers who do not use storytelling.

Chapter Two

Review of Literature

Presentation of the Theory and Method

TPRS, which stands for Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling, began as a technique to introduce vocabulary and grammar. As its developers have refined it, it has grown to be considered a method. Blaine Ray created the technique, which developed into the method. The theory behind it is based on the work of two theorists in foreign language education: James Asher and Stephen Krashen.

Asher's influence on TPRS.

James Asher developed the foreign language teaching method called Total Physical Response (TPR) in the 1960s. The older and more traditional Grammar-Translation Method to foreign language instruction was not working as evidenced by the “often less than five percent who start a second language, who continue to proficiency. The lack of success is striking when compared to the language achievement of six-year-olds, who without schooling have mastered all the essential parts of the individual's native language” (Asher, 2000b, The Problem section, para. 1).

Asher's TPR is based on gestures and the imperative form, where students learn concrete vocabulary and grammar structures through comprehensible commands from the teacher. Like small children responding to the commands of their parents, understanding by students is demonstrated through successful completion of the commands from the teacher. The method creates a stress free environment that builds on the student's self-confidence, accelerates acquisition and results in long-term retention (Asher, 2000b, The Solution section, para. 6).

The theory is supported by brain-lateralization research (Asher, 2000c, Once Students Actually Understand section, para. 1). The right brain processes information, which it expresses through gestures. Both sides of the brain interpret language, but it must be deciphered first through action on the right side of the brain before the left can use the information when speaking. Comprehension comes from aural input in conjunction with kinesthetic engagement. “Once they understand, you can use this skill to move over into Broca’s area of the left brain with traditional exercises in speaking, reading and writing.” (Once Students Actually Understand section, para. 1). The first goal of language acquisition is for the student to be comfortable with the sounds and patterns of the target language. This is confirmed with the work of Paul Sulzberger’s work at Victoria University on “the importance of extensive aural exposure to a language,” where listening to the sounds of language are key to fluency (“Exposure to Sound Patterns Aids Language Learning,” 2009).

TPRS was called originally Total Physical Response – Storytelling and only recently changed its name to Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling. It was developed in the 1990s as a supplement to Asher’s TPRS by a Bakersfield, California Spanish teacher named Blaine Ray. Ray’s personal technique developed into the current version of TPRS. Ray changed Asher’s use of the imperative commands to the third person narrative to tell entertaining stories. Ray continues to support an emphasis on a stress-free classroom environment, which using stories helps to foster. Compared to Asher, Ray does not emphasize the use of gestures to introduce vocabulary, because TPR focuses too much on the imperative form and fosters passive language skills (Marsh, 1998). TPRS still employs gestures, but this part of the method is much shorter and is seen only as a temporary crutch to comprehension. Instead, Ray has increased his emphasis on the importance of reading (Marshall, 2007).

Although it has its base in TPR, TPRS uses less gesturing. Gesturing gets a great deal of support from academics. According to Blaz (1999) the use of gestures in TPRS is a way to tap into lexical memory. Gesturing enhances comprehension of vocabulary through association and the senses.

Krashen's influence on TPRS.

Along with Tracy Terrell, Stephen Krashen developed the Natural Approach for foreign language teaching in the 1970s. It is part of the communicative view of language learning where emphasis is laid on language as a set of messages that can be understood. Based on this approach, Krashen developed his Language Acquisition Hypotheses. The five parts of Krashen's Language Acquisition Hypotheses are the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the input hypothesis, the affective filter hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis and the natural order hypothesis (Krashen, 1981). Of Krashen's five hypotheses, TPRS focuses on the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the input hypothesis and the affective filter hypothesis.

“The (TPRS) method is founded on the language acquisition hypotheses of Stephen Krashen, tempered in some cases by realities” (Ray & Seely, 2003, p. xx). Krashen's acquisition-learning hypothesis states that language acquisition is an unconscious process that develops from meaningful input, while learning is a conscious process of discovering the rules of a language (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). Students should acquire their second language through natural language, rather than through grammar and translation methods, which emphasize reading and writing skills. A learning activity “focuses on how the message is given rather than the message itself” (Ray & Seely, 2003, p. 118). It is hoped that students will acquire a language and have feelings of correctness where things just sound right.

Krashen's second hypothesis, the input hypothesis, states that learners learn best when the input is just slightly beyond their current competence. Krashen and Terrell (1983) call it " $i+1$ " where the i stands for input. Teachers need to be conscious of not introducing more than that students can handle and adding small amounts of information only after previous information is mastered. In TPRS, only a few words are introduced at a time. Daily stories are short and workable in one day's lesson.

Finally, the hypothesis that the learner's emotional state can act as a filter that impedes acquisition of input is called the affective filter hypothesis (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). This is an important hypothesis for TPRS supporters. By creating interesting stories, students are engaged and their affective filter is hopefully lowered. According to Ray and Seely (2003) interest is increased through the use of humor, exaggeration, bizarre story lines, animals as characters, celebrities as characters, teacher enthusiasm, personalization of questions, personalization of stories, and comprehensibility of input (pp. 91-92).

TPRS focuses very little on the monitor hypothesis and the natural order hypothesis, since the focus of the method is on language acquisition and not on explicit grammar analysis. The monitor hypothesis is a metacognitive view of language acquisition that states that conscious learning only operates as an editor of output of what has been acquired. Once students acquire the language, they can only adapt and improve the grammar of their second language, if they are conscious of the grammar rules (Krashen, 1998b). In order to edit speech and writing, the student must know the grammar rule, be focused on the grammar rule and have time to edit using the rule (Ray & Seely, 2003, p. 119). The hypothesis that grammar structures are acquired in a predictable order is the natural order hypothesis. Applying this hypothesis to the classroom, teaching harder grammar concepts should occur after mastery of lower level grammar concepts

has occurred. Gross (2007c) deviates from this hypothesis, thinking that it is more important to give natural speech input, and not to be concerned about the natural order of grammar (Gross, 2007c). It is regularly stated in the TPRS literature that vocabulary, not grammar, should be sheltered. Stories, which require a specific grammar structure, should not avoid the structure, but include it as a part of the story.

TPRS today.

TPRS has evolved and has been refined over the past decade as it has moved from what Gaab (2006) called originally unconventional to become almost mainstreamed. She asserts that the method is better at promoting proficiency in listening skills and reading skills. Asher's well-documented research on TPR is in direct contrast to the limited research and occasional anecdotal article about TPRS (Gaab, 2006, para. 9). TPRS is a good evolution and mixture of the theories of Krashen and Asher (Marshall, 2007). As educators learn, experiment and evolve more, TPRS will become more widely accepted (Marshall, 2007, para. 2). Asher (2000a) writes that there is no research supporting storytelling without TPR, but he has gathered a great deal of anecdotal commentary that supports the use of storytelling after about three weeks of TPR in the foreign language classroom (para. 3). Asher (2000c) further claims that TPR is aptitude-free, meaning that when applied by a skilled teacher, any student can learn from this method (Here is What We Know section, para. 2). Asher (2000c) claims that TPR is brain-compatible and just as effective for adults and children (Here is What We Know section, para. 4).

Studies comparing TPRS to other methods of instruction have been minimal. There are only a few small-scale studies. Some support by academics could be inferred though. Ellis (2006) researched grammar skills for instructed and naturalist approaches. When the order of acquisition was held constant, instructed learners scored higher on grammar competence, but

there was no guarantee that what they learned was acquired. “Teaching grammar was beneficial but that to be effective, grammar had to be taught in a way that was compatible with the natural processes of acquisition” (Ellis, 2006, p. 85).

A TPRS lesson.

In a typical TPRS lesson, the teacher prepares by choosing the vocabulary and grammar that will be in the lesson (Baird & Johnson, 2003). The lesson builds on a previous vocabulary and grammar. The vocabulary choice can be in the form of single words, lexical units, phrases or full sentences, depending on how the teacher plans to use the vocabulary in the story. The teacher chooses around five words or phrases at a time. There are three steps of a typical TPRS lesson: establishing meaning, practicing the story and literacy.

Step one - establish meaning.

The first step of TPRS of a typical TPRS lesson is to establish meaning through comprehensible input (Gross, 2007a). During this step, the teacher uses gestures, assesses student understanding and uses personal questions. The use of gesturing has changed since the method was first introduced. While gestures through TPR were part of the original method, now gesturing is considered to be optional. When used, it is a short phase and only used to establish meaning and start the process for learning the vocabulary. It is based on Asher’s TPR. Students can create the gestures during class or use actual sign language gestures (Baird & Johnson, 2003). American Sign Language though can be frustrating for students as these signs are often not visual and concrete enough for students to instantly recognize the gesture. Many words are not easily turned into gestures, so a gesture that is quick and easy is practiced only briefly (Ray & Seely, 2003). In the gesturing phase, the teacher verbally presents the vocabulary word and its gesture, asking the students to make the gesture as the teacher says the word. The teacher should

slowly remove the gesture as the students continue to practice. The name change from Total Physical Response – Storytelling to Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling demonstrates that although gesturing is a step, the method’s main emphasis is no longer on gesturing. The students can end this step by practicing the gestures in pairs.

Another optional part of this step is a quick and informal assessment (Baird & Johnson, 2003). The students close their eyes and demonstrate comprehension of the vocabulary by gesturing the words as the teacher says them. The teacher can visually gauge which words need further practice and reinforcement.

Finally, the teacher gives a large amount of comprehensible input through personalized questions. The questions lead to a short story that the teacher has prepared ahead of time. The story is only a skeletal story, meaning that the teacher’s questions and the students’ responses can change the storyline during the lesson. The questions should spiral in difficulty as the teacher progresses through the lesson. The teacher helps the students to establish meaning of the words through many bizarre, exaggerated and personalized (BEP) questions. This term, used by Ray and Seely (2003), is found throughout the literature about TPRS. The goal is to keep the students engaged in the story because these three qualities exist in the questions and stories.

Ray and Seely (2003) provide an example of a story that could practice the verb *to think*. In the story, there is a girl that thinks she is a gorilla. One of the techniques taught at the TPRS workshops is called “circling,” where the teacher progresses from yes/no questions to either/or questions to open-ended questions (Baird & Johnson, 2003). In an example provided by Ray and Seely (2003,), the teacher begins by asking if a student in the class is a girl, then a boy and then a gorilla, followed by asking which one she is and finally asking what she is. In the next set of

questions, reasons why the girl thinks that she is a gorilla is established and developed for the story. During the personalization step, requiring complete sentence responses is not required.

The vocabulary is repeated numerous times and used only in context. For example, verbs are not presented in an infinitive form. The teacher presents them as they are used in the story. If the story is in the third person, then only the third person conjugated form is presented to the students. In a story in German about someone that plays a sport, only *spielt* (plays) and not *spielen* (to play) is included.

While introducing the vocabulary, the teacher will ask questions using the vocabulary and the intended grammar that lead to a short, entertaining and unusual story. The unusual story is intended to keep the students engaged and involved. Students are enlisted to act out the story, which also increases their attention. As the teacher tells and retells the story, the teacher gradually increases the amount of output that the students are asked to create. The teacher tells the story, all the while interrupting to ask questions. The questions involved in the retelling require increased amounts of output from the students. The questions are entirely verbal and are intended to assist the student in acquiring the vocabulary and grammar, while still learning the basic plotline of the story. This technique is intended to be gradual and non-threatening to the students. As the students hear the vocabulary in the story, they hear it modeled correctly and in context. They do not hear the vocabulary used out of context or in isolation. The grammar focus of the story is less noticeable to the students. They hear the intended structure used over and over (Baird & Johnson, 2003). TPRS uses a significant amount of comprehensible input that includes good and correct, albeit unusual, models of the language (Sandrock, 2002).

Step two – story practice.

After the vocabulary and story basics have been introduced in the first step, the teacher moves to the story-practicing step. This step has three parts: the teacher retell, the student retell and a point of view/perspective change. At first, the teacher retells the story with no actors. The teacher may move and have actions, but they are minimal. The teacher asks questions that require demonstration of comprehension of the vocabulary and knowledge of the story line. The teacher may make false statements, asking the students to make corrections. The teacher provides a large amount of comprehensible input (Baird & Johnson, 2003). According to Ray (2010b), the story is made interesting to the students by adding unexpected details, personalizing the facts of the story and dramatizing the story. The teacher makes the language repetitive by circling questions, continually starting over, adding details, adding extra characters and adding multiple locations to the story (Ray, 2010b).

After the teacher retells the story, the students retell the story in pairs or small groups. This step is short and optional, because the focus of the method is not on production (Baird & Johnson, 2003). The emphasis is on fluency and not accuracy. Because acquisition is a gradual process, it is acceptable for students to make mistakes, while telling the story. The teacher only interrupts and makes corrections when the students use the wrong word, have such poor pronunciation that it interferes with communication or have the plot line incorrect. The goal is to give students practice in speaking and build confidence.

The final part of the second step is called teaching a new perspective or point of view. For this part, the teacher provides a visual of the story by writing key words from the story on the board or the overhead. A perspective or point of view change is a way to make grammar instruction less formal and more natural for students (Gross, 2007b). The changes in perspective

or point of view can be changes from third to first person, changes in tense, changes from singular to plural subjects, changes in gender or additions of adjectives. The story is retold and then rewritten on the board or overhead by the teacher to reflect these changes. This is where explicit grammar focus can occur (Ray & Seely, 2003). In an extension of this part, the students again retell the story in the new perspective. The students tell the story in pairs or small groups. Baird and Johnson (2003) suggest that this activity should not be overused, especially at the beginning levels, as it is grammar-focused. Ray and Seely (2003) think this activity is better suited for upper level classes and is not suited for lower level classes.

Step three – literacy.

The third and final step is the literacy step, during which the teacher provides a written version of the story. The story can be exactly what the teacher just told or a similar version. Additionally, the teacher can use readers instead of self-written stories. During the literacy step, students will read the story or part of a reader and answer written or verbal questions about the story to demonstrate comprehension. The students may read the story at home for homework or during class by themselves or as a group. During class, the technique of simple translation into the native language can be used to demonstrate comprehension. Only after the story and vocabulary are comprehensible to the students does the teacher ask the students to look at the grammar of the written story. Baird and Johnson (2003) say that this step can occur at any time in the lesson, but they recommend it at the end of the lesson. Similar to the PACE (presentation, attention, co-construction, extension activities) Model of foreign language grammar teaching, the teacher will ask the students to notice differences and infer grammar rules (Ray & Seely, 2003). Ray and Seely (2003) only advocate this in upper level classes though.

The literacy step of TPRS fits Ellis's position that a "task-based approach that caters to the development of a proceduralised lexical system and simple, naturally acquired grammatical structures will ensure a threshold communicative ability and, therefore, is to be preferred to an approach that insists on grammatical accuracy from the start" (Ellis, 2006, p. 92).

According to Ray and Seely (2003), the benefits of reading are not only acquisition of vocabulary but also acquisition of structures, morphology, idioms and problematic grammar structures. There is a "gradual general improvement in correctness in their speech and writing," as well as "the breadth of material they comprehend aurally expands gradually but massively in the long run" (Ray & Seely, 2003, p. 104). Ray and Seely do not cite the supporting research.

The use of free and voluntary reading is an alternative technique in the literacy step (Ray & Seely, 2003). In the foreign language classroom, the TPRS teacher provides copies of other stories from class or authentic children's books written at the students' level for the students to read on a regular basis. Krashen (2004) states that free and voluntary reading increases skills in spelling, pronunciation, writing and oral/aural abilities. Programs, which favor the use of free and voluntary reading and shared reading, have significant improvements in reading skills over ALM programs in English as a Second Language situations (Krashen, 2004, p. 4).

In a study of college-aged students of Spanish, Krashen (2004) finds that free and voluntary reading was the only significant predictor of mastery of the subjunctive, even over the amount of formal study of the language, the amount of study of the subjunctive form and the amount of time spent in the country. When students read for pleasure, they develop a competence and "move from the beginning conversational level to a level where they can use the second language for more demanding purposes, such as the study of literature, business and so on" (Krashen, 2004, p. 147).

Grammar and assessment in the TPRS lesson.

While grammar is not the primary focus of a TPRS lesson, grammar structures are embedded in the story. For example, if a teacher is working on the direct object case, the story will have numerous examples of characters having objects used in the accusative case. According to Ray and Seely (2003), if enough examples of a structure are provided in the story and made comprehensible through the input, then no further practice will be needed, as the students will have acquired the grammar structure. Ray (2010b) states that the students will learn grammar through point of view changes and writing activities.

The students are not discouraged from asking questions about grammar (Baird & Johnson, 2003). As in the PACE model, the teacher encourages students to notice and discuss differences in grammar structures. It is done in the context of comprehension. The term used by TPRS supporters is “pop-up grammar.” As students ask or notice differences, the teacher gives brief, spur-of-the-moment explanations of differences. For Ray and Seely (2003), detailed grammar explanations are only necessary in upper level classes, as lower level students will acquire grammar through the input and the point of view changes.

Ellis (2006) does not specifically support TPRS, but he does support a system of grammar instruction that is cyclical over time and does not compress the grammar lesson into just a few concentrated lessons. He supports an approach that is compatible with Interlanguage development. TPRS focuses on acquisition rather than the explicit learning of vocabulary and grammar. Additionally, Ellis (2006) supports attempts to minimize and prevent errors made in the Interlanguage phase of second language learning. Curtain and Dahlberg (2004) advocate the use of the embedded grammar and that there is an extensive amount of listening practice before

verbal production is expected. They also like the use of vocabulary in a context and choosing vocabulary words for a specific purpose in the story.

For Sandrock (2002), TPRS has a good amount of comprehensible input in the target language. Additionally, vivid and interactive stories are good pre-speaking activities. The method is a good brain-compatible method because gestures aid in memorization and creativity is engaged through storytelling (Sandrock, 2002).

Assessment in TPRS is both formal and informal. A term used by Ray and Seely (2003) for informal assessment is to gauge comprehension based on the “barometer student.” If this average student demonstrates comprehension by gesturing or answering questions, then the teacher moves on with the lesson. Another phrase used in the TPRS literature is to teach “to the eyes” (Gross, 2007a). The implication for the classroom teachers is to look for, notice and react to the level of engagement of the students constantly.

Formal assessments are different for teachers that faithfully follow the method. Unannounced quizzes are preferred, as they demonstrate what the students have retained in long-term memory and not what students have quickly learned for traditional and announced tests (Ray & Seely, 2003). Ray and Seely (2003) also advocate giving tests that only include vocabulary and require students to translate into English the meaning of words and sentences. These activities will demonstrate comprehension of the vocabulary. In an unresearched way of gauging academic achievement, Baird and Johnson (2003) propose that success is achieved if eighty percent of the students able to score at least eighty percent on written assessments.

Comparisons of Second Language Acquisition Theories and Methods to TPRS

In their book, Ray and Seely (2003) only compare TPRS to two other second language methods: the Natural Approach and the Narrative Method. Although they give no direct

comparisons with other methods, some comparisons can be made based on the theory behind the method. Brief comparisons will be made with Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), the Grammar-Translation method, the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM), and the Direct Method.

The natural approach and TPRS.

Ray and Seely (2003) compare their method to the Natural Approach of Tracy Terrell and Stephen Krashen. Both advocate comprehension through pre-production of language, which includes TPR and descriptions of pictures and persons, who are usually class members. All input should be in the target language and comprehensible to the students. TPRS differs in that it focuses more on the personalized questions as a means to increase attention and interest. TPRS differs in that it finds pre-teaching the vocabulary through TPR more efficient so that the lesson progresses faster (Ray & Seely, 2003). Krashen finds pre-teaching the vocabulary unnecessary.

In the second stage of the Natural Approach, called early speech production, students move from listening modes to speaking modes (Curtain & Dahlberg, 2004). Like the circling technique of TPRS, the teacher moves through a progression of yes/no questions, either-or questions, one to two word answers, open-ended answers, dialogues and interviews. Both advocate a silent period, allowing the students to speak when comfortable and ready, which lowers the affective filter for the students.

The final stage is when speech emerges, which, according to Curtain and Dahlberg (2004), includes games, content activities, humanistic affective activities and information processing activities. TPRS' third phase is literacy, which includes reading stories about the students and completing activities, which demonstrate comprehension. As in the TPRS method, "In this approach (The Natural Approach) the teacher seeks to help students "bind" new language by providing experiences and associations with vocabulary in a meaningful context,

thus making the language both more meaningful and more memorable” (Curtain & Dahlberg, 2004, p. 43).

The narrative method and TPRS.

The second method mentioned by Ray and Seely (2003) in a comparison with TPRS is the relatively unknown Narrative Method (McQuillan and Tse, 1998). Both of these methods use stories to engage students and introduce the vocabulary. McQuillan and Tse (1998) view their method as a modification of TPRS. In the first step of the narrative approach the teacher tells the core or basic story, using gestures, props and visuals to introduce the vocabulary (McQuillan & Tse, 1998). The teacher retells the story numerous times. Each time, the teacher adds more details to the story, revises it and retells different versions of the story. Afterwards, the class creates their own version of the story, which the teacher storyboards on a visual. In the final step, the students create their own story by themselves, in pairs or in small groups. McQuillan and Tse (1998) think that schools can abandon thematically organized curricula for lessons that just include stories. The stories do not need to focus on any grammar functions or specific tasks, which TPRS does not advocate. High frequency vocabulary and grammar will be learned, as it will be recycled in classes that regularly utilize narratives.

Other differences between the methods include the use of TPR at the beginning of a TPRS lesson and that vocabulary is not pre-taught in the narrative method. Instead, the vocabulary is made comprehensible in the context of the story. In the Narrative Method, only the teacher acts out the story and tells the story. Students never retell it. Finally, in the Narrative Method, checks for comprehension and informal assessments are not on going, as they will hinder the flow of the story.

Communicative language teaching (CLT) and TPRS.

Although there is no comparison in the literature, a comparison of TPRS and the most current approach to teaching a foreign language, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), is necessary. Brown (2007) describes CLT less as a method and more as an approach. It is more of an eclectic blend of contributions of previous methods and a unified theory about the nature of language teaching. According to Brown (2007), the first characteristic of CLT is that there is a focus on communicative competence and no focus on grammar competence. TPRS also claims to have a focus on communicative competence and not on grammar. Secondly, CLT teaching techniques use authentic materials and focus on meaningful language functions. These are not included in TPRS lessons. Grammar is embedded in the functions and content of the conversations or stories in both CLT and TPRS. Next, although fluency and accuracy are seen as complimentary, fluency is more important. Fluency keeps students engaged in their learning. Finally, the goals of CLT and TPRS are for students to ultimately use language productively in unrehearsed settings.

The students should be able to simply comprehend and produce language without having to analyze it (Brown, 2007). This automaticity is the ultimate goal for both CLT and TPRS. In TPRS though, the focus is on retelling stories, rewriting stories and reading. Both have limited the use of scripted dialogues, mechanical drills, rehearsed exercises and discussion of grammar.

While both CLT and TPRS have goals of communicative competence, TPRS does not specifically mention the term communicative competence in its literature. Both desire to create uninhibited learners that are willing to adapt and experiment in the language. TPRS attempts to accomplish this goal through storytelling, while CLT does not specifically list a technique to accomplish this goal. Another difference is that CLT looks more at functions. This lack of focus

on practical functions is often one of the critiques of TPRS. While it is the goal of TPRS teachers to teach students to be adaptive in the language, practical tasks in the target language are not specifically addressed in the TPRS method.

As a part of CLT, the PACE (presentation, attention, co-construction of explanation, extension activities) Model for grammar introduction has similarities with TPRS. According to Shrum and Glisan (2005), the first step of the technique, presentation, is when the teacher presents the language in a meaningful way. The model is not as prescribed as TPRS, but it does advocate using TPR and stories to orally introduce the material. While storytelling is mentioned as a possible presentation activity, it is not the sole presentation activity. The attention and co-construction of differences in grammar are advocated for use in TPRS only in upper level classes (Ray & Seely, 2003). The PACE model has no emphasis on the affective aspect of teaching. Both PACE and TPRS have the same guidelines on error correction. Both advocate only correcting errors that interfere with meaning and comprehension. Grammar and pronunciation errors are only corrected if the errors are persistent and causing difficulties in understanding.

Other methods and TPRS.

Since TPRS is a reaction to the Grammar-Translation Method and the Audio-Lingual Method, and it has characteristics in common with the Direct Method, a brief comparison of TPRS and these methods is appropriate.

As TPRS focuses on communicative competence, TPRS shares little in common with the old-fashioned Grammar-Translation Method. TPRS supporters, like Krashen, support language acquisition before learning grammar rules. Regarding exercises to practice grammar, “Mechanical drills focus on form of language and not on its communicative intent” (Krashen, 1981, p. 103).

The Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) is rooted in behaviorism, where “language performance consists of a set of habits in the use of language structures and patterns” (Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p. 14). The goal of ALM is to develop habits of conversation through dialogue practice that can be utilized later in real-life conversations (Shrum & Glisan, 2005). Similarly, TPRS develops habits through circling of questions and repetition of the stories. While the vocabulary is used in context and there is a high amount of input, TPRS supporters argue that there is little interest in textbook dialogues and it is a flaw to require the immediate production of language. TPRS supporters, like Asher, support a silent period, which allows spoken production to emerge when the students are ready. In a study comparing students taught with TPRS and students taught with ALM, McKay’s (2001) research shows statistically significantly higher scores on a test of reading comprehension for students taught with TPRS as compared with students taught with ALM.

In the Direct Method, all input is to be given in the target language. Like TPRS, input is to be comprehensible and varied, using realia and visuals. In both methods, grammar is not explicitly taught (Omaggio, 1986). Unlike TPRS, grammar in the Direct Method is taught inductively through questions, modeling, and students working out the grammar rules (Shrum & Glisan, 2005). While the questions in the Direct Method are to be interesting and meaningful to the students, the affective filter may not be low, as there is such a focus on accuracy.

The ACTFL Standards and TPRS

A common critique by teachers who know about the method is its lack of focus on the national standards of the profession. In their website that promotes the method, Gaab, Gross and Placido (2010) claim that TPRS fits the standards of the American Council on the Teaching of

Foreign Language (ACTFL) “beautifully,” however they do not provide an explanation of how the method fits the ACTFL standards. Instead they provide only a link to the ACTFL website.

Referred to as the Five C’s, the five national standards of the ACTFL (2010a) are communication, comparisons, connections, communities and culture. Regarding these national standards, Ray and Seely (2003) “believe that communication is the important one that nearly all of class time should in some way be devoted to” (p. ix). Ray and Seely (2003) state that communication is what the classroom is for and it is “fine to include the other four within communication, but is counterproductive to work on any of them in class time without at the same time mainly focusing on the development of communicative proficiency” (p. ix). Similarly, for Krashen (1981), “The major function of the second language classroom is to provide intake for acquisition” (p. 101).

As TPRS focuses on input and language production, its supporters feel that it meets the standard of communication. Students demonstrating comprehension of verbal input by responding appropriately through gestures or short responses and demonstrating comprehension of reading passages demonstrate interpretive communication. According to Ray and Seely (2003), the negotiation of meaning that comes in the telling and retelling of stories and assisting the teacher with the details of the story during the classroom conversations demonstrate interpersonal communication. As the teacher assesses the students’ comprehension, the students are engaged in interpersonal communication by answering the teacher’s questions. TPRS moves from interpersonal to presentational communication, when students retell and act out the story. The method does not focus on the writing aspect of presentational communication.

The standards of comparisons, connections, and communities are minimally addressed in the literature. Ray and Seely (2003) state that it is possible for the teacher to make additions to

lessons to include these standards in TPRS lessons. Language comparisons can occur at any time that the teacher points out differences in grammar structures. Connections to other disciplines and connections that add perspective can be added as story points in the text of the story.

Although they do not mention TPRS specifically, Curtain and Dahlberg (2004) suggest making connections to other disciplines easier by using activities that do not require large amounts of the target language. The use of visuals, realia, rephrasing, repetition, connections to previous learning, connections to past experience and vocabulary in meaningful contexts are aspects included in a TPRS lesson.

Regarding the cultures standard, other TPRS supporters advocate written texts that “provide context and background knowledge that allow students to appropriately interpret the perspectives, practices and products of the target culture” (Barrette, Paesani & Vinall, 2010, p. 219). Elements of culture that fit the TPRS characteristics of bizarre and exaggerated can be added in the plot, characters and setting of a story. An example of the inclusion of culture into stories could be a story about misunderstandings of an American exchange student in Germany when shopping in a department store. The character gets lost because he does not know that the levels of buildings are numbered differently in Germany. Another example is that a character could learn correct restaurant etiquette in a story. Ray has written student readers in Spanish, French and German that are about American exchange students traveling in foreign countries and foreign exchange students traveling in America (Ray, 2010a). Specific cultural products such as folktales and fairy tales have not been adapted into TPRS stories.

TPRS and Storytelling

The biggest change from Asher’s TPR to Ray’s TPRS is storytelling. This significant aspect of the method is minimally addressed in the literature or on the websites devoted to TPRS.

There is only a brief section devoted to the academic benefits of storytelling in the main guide to the method (Ray & Seely, 2003). Ray writes that he adapted TPR by adding storytelling because his students quickly became bored with just gestures and personal questions about the vocabulary (Ray & Seely, 2003, p. 4).

Articles that mention the use of storytelling in TPRS are not extensive. Wieber du Saire (2010) mentions that the use of TPRS in the realm of theater, role-playing and reenactments is a good practice for foreign language teachers, as gestures and movement engage the kinesthetic learner and stories make memorization easier. Gibbons (2002) writes that storytelling is a good pre-reading activity as well as an after-reading activity, which allows for innovation in retells, rewrites and summarizations. McQuillan and Tse (1998) find that the use of narratives is effective, because narratives are rich in input, interesting to students and lower anxiety. Finally, Davidheiser (2002) states that the use of storytelling in college German classes allows for more ownership of the lesson and inclusion in classroom activities.

Although she does not mention TPRS specifically, Oller (1983) states that students would be more successful at second language acquisition, if teachers were to use good story writing methods. Students do not find textbook narratives and dialogues interesting. This fits the philosophy behind TPRS.

According to Curtain and Dahlberg (2004), storytelling and story reading are valuable when learning new vocabulary, because teachers “can highlight important and interesting vocabulary and perhaps comment on how it makes them feel, all in the target language, or they may involve students in a physical or emotional reaction to the word” (p. 40). Davidheiser (2002) finds that storytelling is effective because it appeals to the affective domain and helps build a sense of community and ownership in the classroom. According to Curtain and Dahlberg

(2004), there are four characteristics of storytelling that benefit the early stages of interpretive language learning. First, stories are predictable and familiar. Secondly, stories are repetitive, making the memorization of patterns easier. Next, stories lend themselves to dramatization and pantomime easily. Finally, stories use visuals and realia to illustrate content.

Cantoni (2005) finds that stories assist students by using a large amount of comprehensible input and lowering the affective filter. It is beneficial and easy for students, because stories do not require rote memorization of vocabulary. Hayden-Roy (2004) finds narrative texts with events in a causal chain, familiar frameworks of complication and resolution, and single heroes beneficial for second-year college students of German. Text choices should include stories, which focus on only one grammar structure. Stories, which are clear and familiar in structure, assist with recalling and retelling the stories. Hayden-Roy (2004), states the benefits of stories include mastery of the vocabulary, mastery of the syntax, implicit learning of unfamiliar structures and gaining of cultural literacy through the content (p. 24).

In addition to discussion about storytelling in terms of foreign language, there is plenty in the literature about the benefits of storytelling in general. Egan (1986) notes that stories engage our affective response because they are about feelings. Stories are usually a matter only for the arts and considered extras or frills in other academic areas. Egan laments that engaging the imagination is largely left out of content area classrooms. For Ray and Seely (2003), all stories should be “bizarre, exaggerated and personalized.” The bizarre and exaggerated aspect is intended to excite the imagination of the students and hopefully compel them to pay attention. Those two qualities, as well as personalization, are intended to tap into the affective domain of the students.

Egan (1986) gives a model of storytelling that includes a story rhythm. Story rhythm is appealing to students because they recognize the pattern of a story's beginning, elaboration in the middle and a conclusion at the end. It compels the students to move forward. Secondly, stories contain what he calls binary opposites, or opposing sides. Good stories contain elements of a conflict of sides. Finally, storytelling should contain a good conclusion and evaluation after the story. For Ray and Seely (2003), the evaluation after a TPRS story comes in the form of comprehension questions and discussion.

Green's (2004) research on stories in psychology classes lends some support to using stories in foreign language classes. Stories spark student interest, aid the flow of the class, make materials memorable, overcome student resistance, build teacher student rapport, and provide structure for remembering course material. These are some of the same reasons that TPRS supporters give to make vocabulary comprehensible, applicable, topical and interesting. Green's description uses almost the same terms that TPRS teachers use when describing the method. Green talks about using stories from different points of view. Point of view to a foreign language teacher could be a change from the third person narrative to a retelling of the story in the first person or a change in the tense of the story. Stories should be a "clear illustration of the principle you're trying to demonstrate" (Green, 2004, Telling Stories in Class section, para. 3). This is similar to a TPRS teacher creating a story to emphasize specific vocabulary and grammar structures.

Limitations of TPRS

As with any method or activity, there are limitations of overuse. Regarding the original TPR, Asher (2000c) says that any productive innovation will lead to adaptation and disinterest by its users, if it is used too long. Also, Bowen (2009) warns that TPR should be used in

conjunction with other methods for the same reason (para. 4). He uses harsher language though, calling TPR a fringe method and that wholesale adoption to the exclusion of any other method would be detrimental (para. 5). Additionally, Bowen disagrees with Krashen's belief that production must follow comprehension. TPR should not be used solely, as "TPR is not a complete method. It cannot do the entire job of language teaching, nor was it designed to do this" (Krashen, 1998a, Taking More Advantage of TPR section, para 6).

Gaab (2006) addresses some of the doubts of the effectiveness of TPRS acknowledging that the method is considered by most to be unconventional and offbeat (para. 2). "The original method of Ray was an accident, but the evolved TPRS is an effective second language instructional method" (Gaab, 2006, para. 4). As the method has been refined, it overcomes its original shortcomings. The original TPRS stories are meshed with brain research on reading, kinesthetic learning, and visuals in a way that appeals to both visual and auditory learners (Gaab, 2006, para. 6).

Gross (2009d) addresses the limitation of grammar teaching, when she advocates, "sheltering vocabulary, not grammar" (para. 3). This is based on natural language of parents to children, who do not hide the tenses, moods or voices from their children, but instead use simpler vocabulary to explain new or difficult concepts to children. Students will naturally pick up the grammar tenses, voices and moods through the stories their teachers carefully plan. This aspect of TPRS stems directly from Krashen's Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis.

Caruthers's (2010) critique of TPRS is about the use of bizarre, exaggerated and personalized stories. He thinks that the absurdity and silliness in the stories is not appropriate for older or adult learners. McKay (2001) suggests using stories from the news for older or adult learners.

Research Concerning Variables in the Study

Foreign language anxiety.

Based on literature on the theory, the first hypothesis is that students of teachers who regularly use storytelling will have a lower affective filter and therefore will have statistically significant lower (less anxious) scores on the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) than students of teachers who do not use storytelling or who use it less frequently. By lowering what Krashen (1981) calls the affective filter of students, the students will be more receptive to the input given by teachers and acquisition will be increased. In the TPRS literature, Ray (2010b) states that a fear of being rejected or ridiculed leads to student resistance, and therefore teachers must remove negativity from the classroom. Although there is no research on TPRS and anxiety specifically, there is research on anxiety in the foreign language classroom. Much of the research has been focused on college-aged students.

Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) defined foreign language anxiety as “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (128). Anxiety in the foreign language classroom was lessened by the student learning to cope with the anxiety or by the student learning to make the situation less stressful. The responsibility to lower the anxiety of the students falls to the teacher (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). According to Horwitz and Young (1991), ways to reduce anxiety in the classroom include making tasks easier, reducing the fear of ridicule, using positive reinforcement, encouraging students to make mistakes and explaining the benefits of mistakes.

Foreign language anxiety is a complex construct that includes public speaking, test taking and communication apprehension. It is a state anxiety over a trait or permanent predisposition

(Marcos-Llinas & Garau, 2009). Tallon (2009) finds that the most anxiety producing activities in the foreign language classroom include spontaneous role play, speaking in front of the class, oral presentations, skits, dialogues and writing on the board, which are all standards of the foreign language classroom. Oral presentations and skits can be even more anxiety producing than quizzes (Horwitz & Young, 1991, p. 113). Anxiety is detrimental to the academic achievement of the learner and either the anxiety or the low achievement cause students to drop out of the language (Marco-Llinas & Garau, 2009; Tallon, 2009).

In a study of university students in Quebec, Pichette (2009) finds that the commonly held belief that students enrolled in lower-level classes have lower anxiety than students enrolled in higher-level classes. The usual assumption is that anxiety goes down as proficiency increases. In a different study of university students enrolled in Spanish, Marcos-Llinas and Garau (2009) finds a significant connection between grades and anxiety. “The fact that advanced learners exhibited high anxiety but did not necessarily show low course achievement seems to imply that some anxiety may be beneficial to keep learners’ motivation high to learn and to do well” (105). Kim’s (2009) research on differences in anxiety levels of Asian college students enrolled in English as a foreign language conversation courses versus reading courses shows that anxiety levels are significantly higher in conversation courses (138). Using their FLCAS scale, Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) find a significant correlation between higher levels of anxiety and lower academic scores. There is no difference though in American students based on the language being learned (Horwitz, 2001).

Von Wörde’s (2003) research, which although contains a very small sample, shows a significant correlation between lower student grades and the FLCAS score. (Summary section, para. 5). Teachers can reduce anxiety in the foreign language classroom by decreasing the

amount of new material each semester, selecting interesting topics, using non-threatening methods, using collaboration and creating a sense of community (Von Wörde, 2003). Comfort producing activities include working in pairs, working in groups, TPR, preference ranking and stories (Horwitz & Young, 1991).

Continued enrollment.

The second research hypothesis is that students of teachers who regularly use storytelling will have a statistically higher level of continued enrollment in the foreign language than the students of teachers who do not use storytelling or use it less frequently. The older and more traditional Grammar-Translation Method of foreign language instruction was not working as evidenced by the “often less than five percent who start a second language, who continue to proficiency. The lack of success is striking when compared to the language achievement of six-year-olds, who without schooling have mastered all the essential parts of the individual’s native language” (Asher, 2000b, The Problem section, para. 1). In a similar type of results report, Rose states that Japanese instruction has an eighty percent attrition rate in most programs (1996). “Debilitative anxiety... impedes language learning. Learners who suffer from debilitative anxiety may have feelings of fear or insecurity and even suffer from poor performance and withdrawal from the foreign language class” (Marcos-Llinas & Garau, 2009, 96).

In Swaffar and Woodruff’s research (as cited in Asher, 1993) enrollment increased from fifty to seventy-five percent because of the use of TPR. Webster’s research (as cited in Ray & Seely, 2003) shows that students of TPRS teachers had a lower attrition rate than traditional teachers. The exact citation of this research was not given and the variables were not defined. Ray and Seely (2003) provide anecdotal stories of increased enrollment without proper research citations to support their claims.

Listening and reading skills.

The third hypothesis is that students of teachers who regularly use storytelling will rate higher the receptive skills of reading and listening over the output skills of writing and speaking at a statistically significant level as compared to the students of teachers who do not use the storytelling technique or use it with less frequency. The TPRS method focuses now more on reading skills. The best classroom activities are natural, interesting and understood by the students (Krashen, 1981). These activities include extensive reading and TPR (Krashen, 1981, p. 107). Because TPRS focuses on interesting and comprehensible stories, which are presented verbally and in written form, Gaab (2006) makes the claim that TPRS leads to higher levels of reading and listening skills. This research will evaluate whether students of teachers who routinely use storytelling, rate their receptive skills of listening and reading higher than the students of teachers who do not use the storytelling technique or use it with less frequency.

Academic achievement.

The fourth and final hypothesis is that students of teachers who regularly use storytelling will score higher on academic assessments of their skills in the foreign language at a statistically significant level than the students of teachers who do not use the method or use it less frequently. McKay (2001) found a statistically significant difference in a t-test comparison of the TPRS method and the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM), $t(58) = 3.69$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = .19$. The research compared scores on a ten-question assessment by middle school students taught with either TPRS or the ALM method.

Marsh's (1998) research shows above average scores with the TPRS method. Her middle school students in an introductory level class scored above the national average on the level one National Spanish Exam. No other details about the research are provided.

In a small study using a t-test comparison, Kariuki and Bush (2008) found a significant difference in academic scores of students of TPRS teachers and what they termed traditional teachers, $t(14) = 3.23$, $p < .05$. Their definition of a traditional teacher was not explained and the sample size was very small.

Regarding research on reading anxiety and academic achievement, Saito, Garza and Horwitz (1999) found a statistically significant correlation between academic scores and anxiety related to reading in foreign language classes. They postulate that reading anxiety is reflected in academic scores.

Summary

In conclusion, the four hypotheses stem from the claims of the creator, Blaine Ray, and the supporters of the foreign language teaching method called Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS). The method is grounded in the Total Physical Response Method of James Asher and the Language Acquisition Hypotheses of Stephen Krashen. The method, which began as an obscure adaptation of TPR, now includes entertaining stories which are intended to not only engage the students, but also are intended to provide the large amount of comprehensible input that leads to acquisition of the target language. Based on a review of literature, the method's focus on comprehensible input through stories is intended to lower the affective filter of students allowing them to acquire the language in a natural way. The four research hypotheses are that students of teachers who use the storytelling as it is defined in the TPRS method will have lower anxiety scores on the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986), plan to stay enrolled in the foreign language at a higher rate, rate their reading and listening skills higher, and score higher on academic tests than the students of teachers who do not use storytelling or use it less frequently.

Chapter Three

Methods

Participants

The participants in this quasi-experimental quantitative study will be a convenience sample of thirty-one teachers of the foreign language department in a suburban school district in the Midwest and their middle and high students enrolled in levels one and two of French, German and Spanish. The cooperating school district has three large middle schools and three large high schools. The total secondary school population is 8160 students. Of that population, fifty-two percent enroll in a foreign language. Each participating teacher will be asked to administer the survey to level one and level two students. Potentially, data from 1500 students could be collected. Because the students must return a signed parent consent form in order to participate in the study, it is anticipated that the data set will be smaller. The students will be in grades eight through twelve and between the ages of thirteen and eighteen.

The teachers participating in the research will complete the survey used to develop the independent variable using an Internet-based survey program. Their responses will remain confidential. Two options for taking the surveys will be provided for the students. The students will be able to complete the survey either on paper or using an Internet-based survey program, depending on the wishes of the teacher. The students will remain anonymous. Only students who return a signed parent consent form will be allowed to participate in the study.

The participants will be fully informed of the parameters and rationale for the study. Human subjects approval has been granted from Human Subject Committee of Lawrence. Approval has been secured from the cooperating school district.

Instruments

The first instrument to be developed for the study will be a survey to be given to the teachers of the foreign language department in late 2010. It will assess the amount that they use the storytelling technique of the TPRS method. Although there will be many questions about the frequency that they use different activities, the main question to be used to put the teachers into the different research groups will be the amount that they use bizarre, exaggerated and personalized (BEP) stories to introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar.

The teacher survey will be finalized after conducting interviews with Blaine Ray and Susie Gross. Mr. Ray and Ms. Gross lead workshops, lecture, write books, write articles and run websites about TPRS. They are considered experts in the method. As developers of the method, Mr. Ray and Ms. Gross will provide insight into its history and evolution. They will be asked about the second language theories supporting TPRS and specific activities that TPRS teachers use and do not use. The interviews will be used to validate the teacher survey that will be used as the independent variable. The telephone interviews will take around twenty-five minutes to complete and include a list of prepared questions about the history of the method, its theoretical background and activities associated with the method. After the interviews, the survey used as the independent variable will be finalized. The survey will be reviewed and evaluated for bias by a group of teachers in the district. The evaluators include teachers who use and do not use the TPRS method.

The instrument used as the dependent variable for the first hypothesis on the students' level of anxiety is the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). It is being used with permission. This thirty-three question Likert-type scale has been used in other studies to rate student anxiety in the foreign language classroom, which

increases its validity. Rose (1996) reports a high test-retest reliability ($r = .80$ and $r = .83$, $p < .01$) using the FLCAS. Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) demonstrated internal reliability, achieving an alpha coefficient of .93 with all items producing significant item to total scale correlations.

The instrument used to test the second hypothesis on continued enrollment is one question about whether the students plan to take the next level in the next academic year. At the beginning of the second semester, the students will start the enrollment process for the 2011 - 2012 school year, so they should be able to truthfully answer whether they plan to continue their enrollment in the foreign language.

The instrument used to test the third hypothesis on ratings of abilities of the receptive skills of foreign language learning will be part of a survey created for this research project. By administering the survey at the beginning of the second semester, level one students should be able to rate their skills at learning a foreign language learning more accurately. Prior to administration, a group of three to four teachers from the cooperating school district will review, critique and provide input on revising the survey. They will look for bias in the survey. A pilot study will be conducted with a sample of three or four classes of students at a middle school and a high school. The survey will be revised as needed after pilot testing it.

The final two instruments used to test the academic success of the students in the fourth research hypothesis will be the final exams and the reading sections of the final exams given to the students at the end of the semester. The school district has common assessments. The final exams are cumulative. The curriculum review committee of the cooperating school district's foreign language department writes the exams, reviews them regularly and revises them regularly. The teachers on the committee have taught the subject for at least five years. The

curriculum review committee, which oversees all curricula and assessments, includes teachers who use TPRS regularly, partially and not at all.

Semester final exam scores will be used rather than overall semester grades, because different teachers give different weights to different categories for the semester grades. The teachers who participate in the research will use the same questions for the reading sections of the final exams.

Only the multiple-choice sections of the final exams that assess reading, listening and grammar skills will be used to measure academic achievement as the fourth dependent variable in this study. While assessments requiring writing and speaking production in the target language are included in other grades for the classes, they are not included in the final exams or in this study. These writing and speaking assessments would be difficult to access and track. Additionally, the consistency of evaluation of the writing or speaking samples would create an issue of validity for the present research.

The instruments for the covariates are the students' grade level, as reported on the survey, and the six questions from the Engagement with Challenge Survey developed by Dr. David Hansen. It is used with his permission.

Group Design

The groups for the study will be based on the teacher responses to the survey about their use of storytelling as defined in the TPRS method. The study will be quasi-experimental, since the student participants are grouped by the method choice of their teachers. Because a computer assigns students to classes, random assignment of the student participants to the different teacher groups is not possible. There will be three groups: teachers who regularly introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar with BEP storytelling as it is defined in the TPRS method, teachers

who sometimes use storytelling and teachers who do not use storytelling. The teachers in the second group sometimes tell stories as defined by the TPRS method and sometimes use other methods to introduce vocabulary and grammar. It is anticipated that seven or eight teachers will fit the first category and another seven or eight will fit the third category, while about half of the teachers involved in this research study will fit the second category of being partial storytellers.

Data Analysis

An analysis of covariance test will be conducted to test the first hypothesis about lowered anxiety using the FLCAS. The teachers' use of storytelling will be the independent variable and the student scores on the FLCAS will be the dependent variable. The covariates will be the students' grade levels and their level of engagement in the class, as measured on the engagement scale.

An independent samples chi-square test will be conducted to test the second hypothesis about continued student enrollment. The teachers' use of storytelling is the independent variable and the students' plan for continued enrollment is the dependent variable. Both are categorical.

Two analyses of covariance tests will be conducted for the third hypothesis. The dependent variable will be the students' ratings of their foreign language skills of reading and listening. The teachers' use of storytelling will be the independent variable. The covariates will be the students' grade levels and their level of engagement in the class, as measured on the engagement scale.

Two analyses of covariance tests will be conducted for the fourth hypothesis about academic success. Again, the teachers' use of storytelling will be the independent variable, while the scores on the final exams and scores on the reading sections of the final exams will be the

dependent variables. The covariates will be the students' grade levels and their level of engagement in the class, as measured on the engagement scale.

Analysis of covariance tests were chosen for the hypotheses about anxiety, ratings of receptive skills and academic achievement. All three have multiple levels of the amount of use of BEP storytelling used as the independent variable. All three analyses have scores or ratings as their dependent variables. A chi-square test was chosen to for the analysis about continued enrollment, because the dependent variable is categorical. All analyses will be conducted at the .05 level of significance.

Data analysis will be conducted for the hypotheses district-wide for grades eight through twelve as well as analyzed just for the middle school students in eighth grade and the high school students in grades nine through twelve. When separate data about the eighth grade students is presented, the only covariate used will be the level of engagement.

Data analysis for the hypothesis about continued enrollment will not include twelfth grade students, as the plans for continued enrollment of twelfth graders in the next academic year are not as certain and predictable.

Limitations to Internal and External Validity

The internal validity of the surveys made for this research study will be increased by the large sample size. The items on the student survey will be pre-tested and revised for improvement. Since the survey and final exams will be new to students, there will be little threat to validity due to testing, instrumentation or maturation. Regarding instrumentation, the final exams, which are used as one of the dependent variables, have been reviewed and revised regularly. The exams were written by teachers who identify themselves as TPRS teachers and by teachers who do not identify themselves as TPRS teachers.

The students are all receiving the same curriculum and assessments. The only difference will be the teaching method of their teachers. There is a minor risk of validity due to instrumentation, as the cumulative exams are written so that there is little bias towards any particular method. Not all students are being tested on all questions in the way in which they were taught.

As there is not one method that is more or less desirable to the students, there is little threat to validity due to compensatory equalization of treatments, compensatory rivalry of respondents or resentful demoralization of respondents. There is a minor risk of some diffusion of treatment, as some students could study outside of class with students of other teachers. Since there is no posttest, there is no threat to validity due to mortality. Because the surveys will be administered to the teacher participants via a computer program, the administration of the survey and information given to the teachers should be consistent. Because the surveys will be administered to students via a computer program or on paper, there is a minor risk due to two forms of administration.

The research is quasi-experimental, since the student participants are not randomly assigned to the treatment. The students are grouped by how their teacher chooses to teach them, so there may be a minor risk to validity because of selection. Although most students are randomly assigned by the computer to a teacher, there are some instances where small groups of students are in the same classes due to the scheduling of single section courses, such as band or choir.

Careful evaluation and revision of the process to determine the independent variable, as well as evaluation and revision of the student surveys will reduce the threat to construct validity due to poorly defined constructs. Additionally, there should be little hypothesis guessing by the

students or evaluation manipulation. As the measures will have been tested for reliability prior to administering them to the participants, there should be little threat due to low reliability of the measures.

There may be threats to construct validity due to confounding constructs. Confounding constructs might be other characteristics of the teachers or students that influence student affect and academic success. These include the level of education of the teachers, the age of the teachers, the language abilities of the teachers, the personality of the teachers, the attitude of the students or the aptitude of the students.

Chapter Four

Results

Data Collection Methods

Teacher survey procedures and statistics.

Thirty-one teachers from the foreign language department of a suburban Midwestern school district were asked to participate in the research study about the use of the storytelling technique of the Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS) method of foreign language instruction. The sample of twenty-eight teachers who agreed to participate included male ($N = 2$) and female ($N = 26$) teachers. There were teachers of German ($N = 5$), French ($N = 3$), both French and Spanish ($N = 1$) and Spanish ($N = 19$). The sample included middle school teachers ($N = 9$), teachers who work at both middle and high schools ($N = 1$) and high school teachers ($N = 18$). All of the teachers involved teach level one or level two classes.

The twenty-eight teachers took a survey that was used to evaluate their use of the storytelling technique of the TPRS method. Although there were many questions on the survey about the use of the different aspects of the TPRS method, one question about their use of the bizarre, exaggerated and personalized (BEP) stories to introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar was used to place teachers into the three groups.

Additionally, seven questions were used to create a scale of their use of the most basic aspects of the BEP storytelling technique. Teachers answered how often they have students give input to the storyline of the BEP stories, have students answer verbal questions about BEP stories, how often they have students verbally translate a BEP story in class, how often they have students retell a story in a different point of view or perspective, how often they have student read a BEP story that was written by a teacher, how often they use BEP stories to introduce

vocabulary and grammar and finally how often they introduce vocabulary through personalized questions. Teachers scored between five and twenty-eight on the scale.

On the survey, teachers also rated themselves between zero and four on a scale about how much they consider themselves to be a TPRS teacher, with zero being not a TPRS teacher and four being an exclusive TPRS teacher.

In order to be certain that each teacher's group assignment was true to his or her teaching style, correlation coefficients were computed among three variables: the self-reported use of BEP storytelling to introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar, the scale of basic BEP storytelling activities and the self-reported rating of the usage of the entire TPRS method. Using the Bonferroni approach to control for Type I error across three correlations, a p value of less than .017 ($.05/3 = .017$) was required for significance. The results of the correlated analyses show that all of the correlations were statistically significant and were greater than or equal to .76. The results suggest that the teachers who use storytelling to introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar tend to use the basic aspects of the storytelling technique and tend to rate themselves higher as TPRS teachers. Results suggest that teachers who do not use storytelling to introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar tend to use few BEP activities and also tend to rate themselves low as TPRS teachers. Results are presented in table 1.

The teachers fell into three categories. Teachers who answered on the question from the survey that they do not use BEP stories to introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar also had the lower scores on the scale of BEP story activities. Teachers who answered that they often and routinely use the BEP stories to introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar had the higher scores on the BEP scale. Group one ($N = 6$) includes the teachers that do not use storytelling to introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar. Group two ($N = 16$) includes

teachers who only partially use the technique. Group three ($N = 6$) includes the teachers who answered that they regularly use storytelling to introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar. Table 2 shows the ratings of how much the teachers use storytelling to introduce vocabulary and grammar, the scores on a scale of 0 to 28 about their usage of the basic parts of the storytelling technique, their self-rating of usage of the entire TPRS method and their group assignment.

Student survey procedures and statistics.

At the end of the first semester, the level one and two students of the twenty-eight participating teachers were requested to participate in the research. In total, participation was requested from 1443 students from twenty-two classes at the three middle schools and forty-six classes at the three high schools. The students at the middle school were enrolled in first year level one of French, German or Spanish. The students at the high schools were enrolled in first year level one or second year level two of French, German or Spanish. Students were given a parent consent form to be allowed to participate in the research.

At the beginning of the second semester, the students completed the survey either on the Internet or on a paper copy. For less classroom disruption, the participating teachers had all of their students in their classes complete the surveys. In accordance with rules from the Human Subjects Committee of Lawrence and the cooperating school district, only data from students with returned parent consent forms is included in this research. 56.9% or 821 of the 1443 students who completed the survey had signed parent consent forms.

The student sample consisted of students in middle school ($N = 307$) and in high school ($N = 510$). The students were enrolled in first year level one or second year level two of French ($N = 140$), German ($N = 150$) or Spanish ($N = 531$). The middle school students were enrolled in first year level one of French ($N = 82$), German ($N = 44$) and Spanish ($N = 181$). The high school

students were enrolled in first year level one of French ($N = 19$), German ($N = 28$) and Spanish ($N = 45$). The high school students were enrolled in second year level two of French ($N = 39$), German ($N = 78$) and Spanish ($N = 301$). The students were enrolled in level one ($N = 399$) or level two ($N = 422$). The students were in eighth grade ($N = 307$), ninth grade ($N = 322$), tenth grade ($N = 113$), eleventh grade ($N = 42$) or twelfth grade ($N = 33$). There were more girls ($N = 513$) than boys ($N = 294$). Table 3 shows the frequency statistics for the students.

As a part of the survey, students answered whether they enjoyed the class and what their grade point average was. In order to assess their level of engagement in the class, the students also answered the six questions from the Engagement with Challenge survey. The engagement survey was used with permission.

When examining the students district-wide and then by grade level, differences appear. Regarding levels of engagement, the mean for the district-wide group was 26.59, while middle school students had a higher level of engagement ($M = 28.64$) and high school students had a lower level of engagement ($M = 25.37$).

With a score of 1 indicating enjoyment of the class and a score of 0 indicating not enjoying the class, the district-wide mean was .835. Middle school students had a higher mean ($M = .944$) indicating higher levels of enjoyment. High school students had a lower mean ($M = .771$) indicating lower levels of enjoyment.

District-wide, the grade point average mean was 3.57, while middle school students had a higher average grade point average ($M = 3.77$). High school students had a lower grade point average ($M = 3.44$).

Results about engagement, enjoyment and grade point averages were further divided by grade level, showing a trend of lower levels of engagement, lower levels of enjoyment and lower

grade point averages as the students' grade level increased. Results suggest that as students get older, they become less engaged, enjoy their foreign language classes less and have lower GPAs. These trends are shown in figures 1, 2 and 3.

Data Analysis and Presentation

Preliminary analysis of the distribution of the outcome variables indicated that the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) assumption of the data being sampled from a normal distribution was violated. As a result, nonparametric bootstrap sampling procedures were used in all ANCOVA analyses (1000 bootstrap resamples). When the assumption of normal distribution is not met, the computed standard error can be grossly inaccurate, leading to wrong conclusions regarding the null hypothesis and increased Type I error rates. The bootstrap sampling procedure is a modern statistical method that leads to a robust standard error and, thus, greater confidence that the test results are accurate.

Bootstrapping proceeds as follows. A reasonably large number of random samples (with replacement) of size N (equal to original sample size) from the data are generated. Based on the distribution of the data across all of the bootstrap samples, the 95% confidence interval (or any other desired confidence interval) is computed. For a particular test statistic, if the confidence interval excludes zero the decision is made to reject the null hypothesis, i.e., claim statistical significance. For the present study, 1000 bootstrap resamples were computed for each of the ANCOVA hypotheses. Interpretation of the decision to reject or fail to reject the null hypothesis is the same as when using nonparametric ANCOVA procedures.

The students of the teachers who regularly use the BEP storytelling technique to introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar will be referred to as the regular use group in this document. The students of teachers who only partially use the BEP storytelling technique

will be referred to as the partial use group. Finally, the students of teachers who do not use the BEP storytelling technique to introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar will be referred to as the non-use group.

District-wide results about anxiety.

The first of four hypotheses was that students in the regular use group would have lower anxiety scores on the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) than the students of teachers who do not use the storytelling or use it with less frequency.

A one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique of the TPRS method of foreign language instruction and student scores on the FLCAS anxiety scale. The independent variable, the amount of use of storytelling, included three levels: no use of the technique, partial use of the technique and regular use of the technique. The dependent variable was the student scores on the FLCAS. The covariates were the students' grade levels and level of engagement, as measured on the engagement scale.

The ANCOVA was non-significant at the $p < .05$ level, $F(2, 771) = 1.37$, $p = .255$. The results of the one-way ANCOVA did not support the hypothesis that regular use of the storytelling technique of the TPRS method would have a differential effect on the students' anxiety levels.

The results of the scores on the FLCAS adjusted for initial differences were not ordered as expected. The regular use group had the highest adjusted mean ($M = 95.18$) on the FLCAS. The partial use group had a smaller adjusted mean ($M = 93.26$). The non-use group had the

smallest adjusted mean ($M = 91.18$). Results suggest that there are no differences in anxiety levels based on the amount of use of storytelling.

District-wide results about continued enrollment.

The second hypothesis was that students of teachers who use storytelling as the primary means of vocabulary and grammar introduction and reinforcement would have a statistically higher level of continued enrollment in the foreign language than the students of teachers who do not use the technique or use it with less frequency.

A two-way contingency tables analysis was conducted to evaluate whether students of teachers who use the storytelling technique have a higher level of continued enrollment than students of teachers who do not use the technique or use it with less frequency. The two variables were the amount of use of storytelling with three levels (non-use, partial use and regular use) and plans for continued enrollment with two levels (affirmative plans for enrollment and no plans for continued enrollment). Test results about the relationship of the amount of use of the storytelling technique and continued enrollment were non-significant, $\chi^2(2, N = 806) = 2.75, p = .326$. The results of the test did not support the hypothesis that regular use of the storytelling technique of the TPRS method would have a differential effect on the students' continued enrollment.

With a score of 1 indicating plans to continue enrollment and a score of 0 indicating no plans to continue with enrollment, the regular use group had the mean of .789 ($SD = .41$). The partial use group had a mean of .737 ($SD = .44$). The non-use group had a mean of .738 ($SD = .44$).

District-wide results about ratings of receptive skills.

The third hypothesis was that on a scale of 1 to 10, students of teachers who use storytelling as the primary means of vocabulary and grammar introduction and reinforcement

would rate the receptive skills of reading and listening higher than the students of teachers who do not use BEP storytelling or use it with less frequency. This was a self-reported rating of their perceived abilities in the reading and listening skill areas of foreign language learning.

Two one-way analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were conducted to evaluate the relationship between the amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique of the TPRS method of foreign language instruction and self-reported student ratings of their skills in reading and listening. The independent variable, the amount of use of the storytelling technique, included three levels: no use of the storytelling technique, partial use of the technique and regular use of the technique. The first dependent variable was the student ratings of their skills in reading. The second dependent variable was the student ratings of their skills in listening. The covariates were the students' grade levels and level of engagement as measured on the engagement scale.

The first ANCOVA testing ratings of reading skills was significant at the $p < .05$ level, $F(2, 791) = 5.61, p = .004$. The strength of the relationship between amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique and ratings of reading skills, as assessed by η^2 , was weak. The amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique accounted for 1.4% of the variance of the dependent variable, holding constant the students' grade levels and levels of engagement.

The means of the self-ratings of reading skills adjusted for initial differences were not ordered as expected across the three groups. The non-use group had the largest adjusted mean ($M = 7.25$), the partial use group had the smallest adjusted mean ($M = 6.71$) and the regular use group had an adjusted mean in between the other groups ($M = 7.00$).

Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the adjusted means, using the Bonferroni adjustment. There was a significant difference in the adjusted means between the non-use group and the partial use group. There was no significant difference

between the regular use group and the other two groups. Results suggest that the non-use group tends to rate their reading skills higher than the partial use group. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, as well as the means and standard errors for the three groups are reported in table 4.

The second ANCOVA testing ratings of listening skills was significant at the $p < .05$ level, $F(2, 795) = 5.75, p = .003$. The strength of the relationship between amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique and ratings of listening skills, as assessed by η^2 , was weak. The amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique accounted for 1.4% of the variance of the dependent variable, holding constant the students' grade levels and levels of engagement.

The means of the self-ratings of listening skills adjusted for initial differences were not ordered as expected across the three groups. The non-use group had the largest adjusted mean ($M = 7.64$), the partial use group had the smallest adjusted mean ($M = 7.05$) and the regular use group had a mean in between the other groups ($M = 7.25$).

Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the adjusted means. Because Levene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant, it was decided to assume that the variances were homogeneous and post hoc comparisons were conducted with the use of the Bonferroni adjustment, a test that does assume equal variances among the three groups. There was a significant difference in the adjusted means between the non-use group and the partial use group. There was no significant difference between the regular use group and the other two groups. Results suggest that non-use group tends to rate their listening skills higher than the partial use group. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, as well as the means and standard errors for the three groups are reported in table 5.

District-wide results about academic achievement.

The fourth hypothesis was that students of teachers who use storytelling as the primary means of vocabulary and grammar introduction and reinforcement would score higher on academic assessments than the students of teachers who do not use storytelling or use it with less frequency. The two assessments were the scores on the final exams and the scores on the reading sections of the final exams used at the end of the first semester in levels one and two of French, German and Spanish in the cooperating school district. Exam scores were used rather than overall semester grades, because different teachers gave different weights to different categories for the semester grades. The district has common assessments.

Two one-way analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were conducted to evaluate the relationship between the amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique of the TPRS method of foreign language instruction and the students' academic achievement. The independent variable, the amount of use of the storytelling technique, included three levels: no use, partial use and regular use of the storytelling technique. The first dependent variable was the students' scores on the final exams. The second dependent variable was the students' scores on the reading sections of the final exams. The covariates were the students' grade levels and levels of engagement as measured on the engagement scale.

The first ANCOVA test evaluating scores on the final exams was significant at the $p < .05$ level, $F(2, 743) = 3.98, p = .019$. The strength of the relationship between amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique and scores on the final exams, as assessed by η^2 , was weak. The amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique accounted for 1.1% of the variance of the dependent variable, holding constant the grade level of the students and their level of engagement.

The means of the scores on the final exams adjusted for initial differences were not ordered as expected across the three groups. The non-use group had the largest adjusted mean ($M = 84.81$), the partial use group had the smallest adjusted mean ($M = 81.78$) and the regular use group had an adjusted mean in between the other groups ($M = 84.06$).

Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the adjusted means. Because Levene's Test for Equality of Error Variances was significant, it was decided to assume that the variances were homogeneous and post hoc comparisons were conducted with the use of the Bonferroni adjustment, a test that does assume equal variances among the three groups. There was a significant difference in the adjusted means between the non-use group and the partial use group. There were no significant differences between the regular use group and the other two groups. Results suggest that the non-use group tends to score higher on the final exams than the partial use group. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, as well as the means and standard errors for the three groups are reported in table 6.

The second ANCOVA test evaluating scores of the reading sections of the final exams was significant at the $p < .05$ level, $F(2, 703) = 3.89$, $p = .021$. The strength of the relationship between amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique and scores on the final exams, as assessed by η^2 , was weak. The amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique accounted for 1.1% of the variance of the dependent variable, holding constant the grade level of the students and their level of engagement.

The means of the scores on the reading sections of the final exams adjusted for initial differences were not ordered as expected across the three groups. The non-use group had the largest adjusted mean ($M = 82.82$), the partial use group had the smallest adjusted mean ($M = 78.89$) and the regular use group had an adjusted mean in between the other groups ($M = 82.67$).

Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the adjusted means using the Bonferroni adjustment. Because Levene's Test for Equality of Error Variances was significant, it was decided to assume that the variances were homogeneous and post hoc comparisons were conducted with the use of the Bonferroni adjustment, a test that does assume equal variances among the three groups. There was a significant difference in the adjusted means between the partial use group and the other two groups. There were no significant differences between the regular use group and the non-use group. Results suggest that non-use group tends to score higher on the final exams than the partial use group. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, as well as the means and standard errors for the three groups are reported in table 7.

Differences between Middle School Students and High School Students

The previous presentation of results was for the district-wide sample of students in grades eight through twelve. When the students were divided by middle school and by high school, the results differed. The results for middle school students are presented with only two groups. None of the participating middle school teachers answered that they did not use the storytelling technique. There were students in the partial use group ($N = 166$) and students in the regular use group ($N = 141$). When just middle school students are examined, the results show non-significant differences for anxiety levels, continued enrollment and ratings of receptive skills. There were significant differences for the levels of academic achievement.

All three of the group levels were represented in the high school student sample. There were high school students in the non-use group ($N = 167$), students in the partial use group ($N = 269$) and students in the regular use group ($N = 74$). When the high school students are examined separately, there were non-significant results for levels of anxiety. There were significant results

for levels of continued enrollment, ratings on receptive skills and academic achievement. The results did not support the hypotheses that high school students in the regular use group would have the better scores for each measure. Instead, the non-use group had the higher rates of continued enrollment, more positive ratings for receptive skills and higher academic achievement scores.

Middle school results about anxiety.

The first of four hypotheses was that eighth grade students of teachers who use the BEP storytelling technique, as it is defined in the TPRS method, as the primary means of vocabulary and grammar introduction and reinforcement would have lower anxiety scores on the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) than the students of teachers who do not use storytelling or use it with less frequency.

A one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique of the TPRS method of foreign language instruction and middle school student scores on the FLCAS anxiety scale. The independent variable, the amount of use of storytelling, included two levels: partial use of the technique and regular use of the technique. The dependent variable was the student scores on the FLCAS and the covariate was the students' level of engagement as measured on the engagement scale.

The ANCOVA was non-significant at the $p < .05$ level, $F(1, 281) = .428$, $p = .514$. The results of the one-way ANCOVA do not support the hypothesis that regular use of the storytelling technique of the TPRS method would have a differential effect on the middle school students' anxiety levels.

The results of the scores on the FLCAS adjusted for initial differences were ordered as expected. The regular use group had the highest adjusted mean ($M = 91.51$) on the FLCAS. The partial use group had a smaller adjusted mean ($M = 90.25$). Results suggest that there are no differences in anxiety levels of middle school students based on the amount of use of storytelling by their teachers.

Middle school results about continued enrollment.

The second hypothesis was that the eighth grade students of middle school teachers who used storytelling as the primary means of vocabulary and grammar introduction and reinforcement would have a statistically higher level of continued enrollment in the foreign language than the students of teachers who do not use storytelling or used it with less frequency.

A two-way contingency tables analysis was conducted to evaluate whether middle school students of teachers who use the storytelling technique have a higher level of continued enrollment than the middle school students of teachers who do not use the technique or use it with less frequency. The two variables were the amount of use of storytelling with two levels (partial use and regular use) and plans for continued enrollment with two levels (affirmative plans for enrollment and no plans for continued enrollment). Test results about the relationship of the amount of use of the storytelling technique and continued enrollment were non-significant, $\chi^2(1, N = 302) = 2.43, p = .119$. The results of the test did not support the hypothesis that regular use of the storytelling technique of the TPRS method would have a differential effect on middle school students' continued enrollment.

With a score of 1 indicating plans to continue enrollment and a score of 0 indicating no plans to continue with enrollment, eighth grade students of middle school teachers who regularly

used the storytelling technique had a mean of .921 ($SD = .27$) on their rates of continued enrollment. The partial use group had a mean of .963 ($SD = .19$).

Middle school results about receptive skill ratings.

The third hypothesis was that on a scale of 1 to 10, eighth grade students of middle school teachers who use storytelling as the primary means of vocabulary and grammar introduction and reinforcement would rate the receptive skills of reading and listening higher than the students of teachers who do not use storytelling or use it with less frequency. The scores were self-reported ratings of their perceived skills in the receptive skill areas of foreign language learning.

Two one-way analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were conducted to evaluate the relationship between the amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique of the TPRS method of foreign language instruction and self-reported student ratings of their skills in reading and listening. The independent variable, the amount of use of the storytelling technique, included two levels: partial use of the technique and regular use of the technique. The first dependent variable was the student ratings of their skills in reading. The second dependent variable was the student ratings of their skills in listening. The covariate was the students' level of engagement as measured on the engagement scale.

The first ANCOVA testing ratings of reading skills of middle school students was non-significant at the $p < .05$ level, $F(1, 296) = 3.73$, $p = .054$. The partial use group had the smallest adjusted mean ($M = 6.91$) and the regular use group had the higher adjusted mean ($M = 7.31$). The results of the analysis did not support the hypothesis that the eighth grade students of middle school teachers in the regular use group would have significantly higher ratings of their skills at reading.

The second ANCOVA testing ratings of listening skills of middle school students was non-significant at the $p < .05$ level, $F(1, 297) = .436$, $p = .510$. The partial use group had the smaller adjusted mean ($M = 7.51$) and the regular use group had the higher adjusted mean ($M = 7.64$). Results of the analysis do not support the hypothesis that the eighth grade students in the regular use group would have significantly higher ratings of listening skills.

Middle school results about academic achievement.

The fourth hypothesis was that eighth grade students of middle school teachers who use storytelling as the primary means of vocabulary and grammar introduction and reinforcement would score higher academic assessments than the students of teachers who do not use storytelling or use it with less frequency. The assessments were the scores on the final exams and the scores on the reading sections of the final exams used at the end of the first semester in levels one and two of French, German and Spanish in the cooperating school district. Exam scores were used rather than overall semester grades, because different teachers gave different weights to different categories for the semester grades. The district has common assessments.

Two one-way analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were conducted to evaluate the relationship between the amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique of the TPRS method of foreign language instruction and the middle school students' academic achievement. The independent variable, the amount of use of the storytelling technique, included two levels: partial use of the technique and regular use of the technique. The first dependent variable was the middle school students' scores on the final exams. The second dependent variable was the middle school students' scores on the reading sections of the final exams. The covariate was the middle school students' level of engagement as measured on the engagement scale.

The first ANCOVA test evaluating scores on the final exams was significant at the $p < .05$ level, $F(1, 286) = 22.59, p < .001$. The strength of the relationship between amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique and scores on the final exams, as assessed by η^2 , was medium. The amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique accounted for 7.3% of the variance of the dependent variable, holding constant the students' level of engagement.

The means of the scores on the final exams for the middle school students adjusted for initial differences were ordered as expected. The partial use group had the smallest adjusted mean ($M = 87.26$) and the regular use group had the highest adjusted mean ($M = 92.12$). Results of the analysis support the hypothesis that middle school students in the regular use group would score higher than the students in the partial use group on the final exams.

Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the adjusted means. There was a significant difference in the adjusted means between the partial use group and the regular-use group. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, as well as the means and standard errors for the groups are reported in table 8.

The second ANCOVA test evaluating scores on the reading sections of the final exams was significant at the $p < .05$ level, $F(1, 283) = 23.92, p < .001$. The strength of the relationship between amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique and scores on the final exams, as assessed by η^2 , was medium. The amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique accounted for 7.8% of the variance of the dependent variable, holding constant the students' level of engagement.

The means of the scores on the reading sections of the final exams for the middle school students adjusted for initial differences were ordered as expected. The partial use group had the smaller adjusted mean ($M = 82.01$) and the regular use group had the higher adjusted mean ($M =$

91.06). Results support the hypothesis that middle school students in the regular use group would score higher than students in the partial use group on the reading sections of the final exams.

Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the adjusted means. There was a significant difference in the adjusted means between the partial use group and the regular use group. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, as well as the means and standard errors for the groups are reported in table 9.

High school results about anxiety.

The first of four hypotheses was that high school students of teachers who use the BEP storytelling technique, as it is defined in the TPRS method, as the primary means of vocabulary and grammar introduction and reinforcement would have lower anxiety scores on the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) than the students of teachers who do not use storytelling or use it with less frequency.

A one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique of the TPRS method of foreign language instruction and high school students' scores on the FLCAS anxiety scale. The independent variable, the amount of use of storytelling, included three levels: no use of the technique, partial use of the technique and regular use of the technique. The dependent variable was the student scores on the FLCAS. The covariates were the grade level of the students and their level of engagement as measured on the engagement scale.

The ANCOVA was non-significant at the $p < .05$ level, $F(2, 487) = .989$, $p = .373$. The results of the one-way ANCOVA do not support the hypothesis that regular use of the storytelling technique of the TPRS method would have a differential effect on the students' anxiety levels.

The results of the scores on the FLCAS adjusted for initial differences were not ordered as expected. The regular use group had the highest adjusted mean ($M = 97.61$) on the FLCAS. The partial use group had a smaller adjusted mean ($M = 95.12$). The non-use group had the smallest adjusted mean ($M = 93.14$). Results suggest that there are no differences between high school students' levels of anxiety based on the amount of storytelling used by their teacher.

High school results about continued enrollment.

The second hypothesis was that high school students of teachers who use storytelling as the primary means of vocabulary and grammar introduction and reinforcement would have a statistically higher level of continued enrollment in the foreign language than the students of teachers who do not use the method or use it with less frequency.

A two-way contingency tables analysis was conducted to evaluate whether students of teachers who use the storytelling technique have a higher level of continued enrollment than students of teachers who do not use the technique or use it with less frequency. The two variables were the amount of use of storytelling with three levels (non-use, partial use and regular use) and plans for continued enrollment with two levels (affirmative plans for enrollment and no plans for continued enrollment). Test results about the relationship of the amount of use of the storytelling technique and continued enrollment were significant, $\chi^2(2, N = 469) = 8.77, p = .012$.

With a score of 1 indicating plans to continue enrollment and a score of 0 indicating no plans to continue enrollment, the regular use group of high school students had a mean of .582 ($SD = .497$). The partial use group of high school students had a mean of .627 ($SD = .485$) and the non-use group of high school students had the highest levels of continued enrollment with a mean score of .752 ($SD = .433$). Overall, results of the test suggest that the high school students

in the non-use group are more likely to continue to the next level. Results suggest that high school students of teachers in the regular use group are least likely to continue to the next level.

High school results about receptive skill ratings.

The third hypothesis was that on a scale of 1 to 10, high school students of teachers who use storytelling as the primary means of vocabulary and grammar introduction and reinforcement would rate the receptive skills of reading and listening higher than the students of teachers who do not use storytelling or use it with less frequency. The score was a self-reported rating of their perceived skills in the reading and listening.

Two one-way analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were conducted to evaluate the relationship between the amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique of the TPRS method of foreign language instruction and self-reported ratings of their skills in reading and listening of high school students. The independent variable, the amount of use of the storytelling technique, included three levels: no use of the storytelling technique, partial use of the technique and regular use of the technique. The first dependent variable was the students' ratings of reading skills. The second dependent variable was the students' ratings of listening skills. The covariates were the grade level of the students and their level of engagement as measured on the engagement scale.

The first ANCOVA test evaluating ratings of reading skills of high school students was significant at the $p < .05$ level, $F(2, 492) = 3.73$, $p = .025$. The strength of the relationship between amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique and ratings of reading skills, as assessed by η^2 , was weak. The amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique accounted for 1.5% of the variance of the dependent variable, holding constant the students' grade level and level of engagement.

The means of the self-ratings of reading skills adjusted for initial differences were not ordered as expected across the three groups. The non-use group had the largest adjusted mean ($M = 7.08$), the partial use group had the smallest adjusted mean ($M = 6.59$) and the regular use group had an adjusted mean in between the other groups ($M = 6.76$). Results did not support the hypothesis that high school students in the regular use group would have significantly higher ratings of their reading skills.

Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the adjusted means. There was a significant difference in the adjusted means between the partial use group and the non-use group. There were no significant differences between the regular use group and the other two groups. Results suggest that the non-use group of high school students will rate their reading skills higher than the partial use group. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, as well as the means and standard errors for the three groups are reported in table 10.

The second ANCOVA test evaluating ratings of listening skills of high school students was significant at the $p < .05$ level, $F(2, 495) = 5.48$, $p = .004$. The strength of the relationship between amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique and ratings of listening skills, as assessed by η^2 , was weak. The amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique accounted for 2.2% of the variance of the dependent variable, holding constant the students' grade level and level of engagement.

The means of the self-ratings of listening skills adjusted for initial differences were not ordered as expected across the three groups. The non-use group had the largest adjusted mean ($M = 7.40$), the partial use group had the smallest adjusted mean ($M = 6.77$) and the regular use group had an adjusted mean in between the other groups ($M = 6.99$). Results did not support the

hypothesis that high school students in the regular use group would have significantly higher ratings of listening skills.

Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the adjusted means. Because Levene's Test for Equality of Error Variances was significant, it was decided to assume that the variances were homogeneous and post hoc comparisons were conducted with the use of the Bonferroni adjustment, a test that does assume equal variances among the three groups. There was a significant difference in the adjusted means between the partial use group and the non-use group. There was no significant difference between the regular use group and the other two groups. Results suggest that high school students in the non-use group tend to rate their listening skills higher than students in the partial use group. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, as well as the means and standard errors for the three groups are reported in table 11.

High school results about academic achievement.

The fourth hypothesis was that high school students of teachers who use storytelling as the primary means of vocabulary and grammar introduction and reinforcement would score higher academic assessments than the students of teachers who do not use storytelling or use it with less frequency. The assessments were the scores on the final exams and the scores on the reading sections of the final exams used at the end of the first semester in levels one and two of French, German and Spanish in the cooperating school district. Exam scores were used rather than overall semester grades, because different teachers gave different weights to different categories for the semester grades. The district has common assessments.

Two one-way analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were conducted to evaluate the relationship between the amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique of the TPRS method of

foreign language instruction and the high school students' academic achievement. The independent variable, the amount of use of the storytelling technique, included three levels: no use of the storytelling technique, partial use of the technique and regular use of the technique. The first dependent variable was the high school students' scores on the final exams. The second dependent variable was the high school students' scores on the reading sections of the final exams. The covariates were the high school students' grade levels and their levels of engagement as measured on the engagement scale.

The first ANCOVA test evaluating the high school students' scores on the final exams was significant at the $p < .05$ level, $F(2, 454) = 5.36$, $p = .005$. The strength of the relationship between amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique and scores on the final exams, as assessed by η^2 , was weak. The amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique accounted for 2.3% of the variance of the dependent variable, holding constant the high school students' grade level and level of engagement.

The means of the scores on the final exams for the high school students adjusted for initial differences were ordered as expected across the three groups. The non-use group had the highest adjusted mean ($M = 81.46$). The partial use group had the smaller adjusted mean ($M = 78.37$) and the regular use group had the smallest adjusted mean ($M = 74.39$). Results of the analysis did not support the hypothesis that high school students in the regular use group would score higher than students in the partial use or non-use groups on the final exam.

Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the adjusted means. There were significant differences in the adjusted means between non-use group and the other two groups. There were no significant differences between the partial use group and the regular use group. Results suggest that high school students in the non-use group tend to score

higher than students in the regular use or partial use groups. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, as well as the means and standard errors for the three groups are reported in table 12.

The second ANCOVA test evaluating scores of the reading sections of the final exams of high school students was significant at the $p < .05$ level, $F(2, 417) = 3.85$, $p = .022$. The strength of the relationship between amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique and scores on the final exams, as assessed by η^2 , was weak. The amount of use of the BEP storytelling technique accounted for 1.8% of the variance of the dependent variable, holding constant the students' grade level and level of engagement.

The means of the scores on the reading sections of the final exams of the high school students adjusted for initial differences were not ordered as expected across the three groups. The non-use group had the largest adjusted mean ($M = 79.41$), the partial use group had the smaller adjusted mean ($M = 76.83$) and the regular use group had the smallest adjusted mean ($M = 70.86$). Results of the analysis do not support the hypothesis that high school students in the regular use group would have significantly higher scores on the reading sections of the final exams.

Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the adjusted means. There was a significant difference between the non-use group and the regular use group. There were no differences between the partial group and the other two groups. Results suggest that high school students in the non-use group will score higher on the reading sections of the final exams than high school students in the regular use group. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, as well as the means and standard errors for the three groups are reported in table 13.

Chapter Five

Discussion

Introduction

The foreign language teaching method called Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS) is very broad and it has changed since its development by Blaine Ray. Since the teachers in the present research study use the various aspects of the method inconsistently, it was decided to only examine one part of the method. The independent variable for this research was the amount of use of storytelling using bizarre, exaggerated and personalized (BEP) stories to introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar. The dependent variables are the levels of anxiety, as measured on the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986), levels of continued enrollment, self-perceived ratings of the receptive skills of reading and listening, and academic achievement. Academic achievement was measured using two different scores: the score on the entire final exam and the score on the reading sections of the final exam. The covariates were the grade levels of the students and their levels of engagement in the class.

When the middle school students in eighth grade and the high school students in ninth through twelfth grades were examined as a district-wide group, the first two hypotheses that the regular use group would have lower anxiety levels and higher levels of continued enrollment than the partial use and non-use groups had results with statistically non-significant differences. The third hypothesis was that the regular use group would rate their own skills in reading and listening higher than the partial use and non-use groups. The results were significant but the order was different than was anticipated. The non-use group had the higher ratings of receptive skills. The fourth hypothesis that the regular use group would have higher academic

achievement, as measured on the cooperating district's final exams and on the reading sections of the final exams, had statistically significant results. In both analyses the non-use group had higher scores. When the students were analyzed district-wide, none of the four hypotheses had the anticipated results.

When the results analyzed for just middle school students in eighth grade, there were non-significant differences among the groups for anxiety levels, continued levels of enrollment, self-ratings of receptive skills. There were significant differences for middle school students in academic achievement on both the final exams scores and the scores on the reading sections of the exams. For middle school students, the regular use group had a higher mean score than the partial use group. For middle school students, only the fourth hypothesis about academic achievement was confirmed.

There were no significant differences for high school students with regards to anxiety levels. There were significant differences for high school students in the groups for levels of continued enrollment, self-ratings of receptive skills and assessments of academic achievement, but the results were not in the anticipated order. The regular use group did not have higher mean scores on these variables as was hypothesized. Instead, the non-use group had higher rates of continued enrollment, higher ratings for receptive skills and higher scores on academic achievements. An overview of all results is presented in table 14.

Results discussion

Anxiety and storytelling.

Until now, there has not been any research comparing TPRS or the BEP storytelling technique to levels of anxiety. Ray (2010b) makes the claim that the TPRS method lowers the students' affective filter as it is defined by Krashen (1981). Ray (2010b) claims that lowering the

affective filter leads to increased acquisition. Using the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986) as a measure of anxiety levels in students, there were no significant differences in anxiety levels of the regular use group, the partial use group and the non-use group. There were also no significant differences when just middle school students were examined and just high school students were examined. Results are presented in table 14.

Tallon (2009) found that the most anxiety producing activities used in a foreign language classroom include oral presentations, skits, dialogues and role-playing. The TPRS method does not use these terms when describing the storytelling technique, but the concepts are similar. This is supported by the research of Frantzen and Magnan (2005). Although the research was with college students, beginning level students still listed oral performance as the most anxiety producing activities in class.

The TPRS method advocates using volunteers as actors in class and not requiring students to speak until they are ready. Because the TPRS method focuses entirely on input and downplays output in class, it was hypothesized that students of teachers who regularly use storytelling would have lower levels of anxiety as measured on the FLCAS. Results suggest that storytelling is no more anxiety producing than not using the technique or using it less frequently. Further qualitative and quantitative research on what are the causes of anxiety in a secondary school TPRS teacher's classroom and how those differ from those of teachers who do not use storytelling or TPRS is warranted.

Because no correlations were found when comparing the use of the storytelling technique of the TPRS method and anxiety levels, it could be construed that anxiety is influenced by factors other than the use of storytelling to introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar.

Continued enrollment and storytelling.

Inconsistent with the research of Webster (as cited in Ray and Seely, 2003), students of teachers who regularly use the BEP storytelling technique of the TPRS method did not have statistically higher rates of continued enrollment as compared to students of teachers who do not use the technique or use it with less frequency. When the students were grouped district-wide, there were no statistically significant differences between the three groups in this research. When just middle school students were analyzed, there were no significant differences. There were, however, significant differences for high school students, but not in the order that was anticipated. The non-use group had the higher level of continued enrollment.

The high school results suggest that the use of BEP storytelling by the teacher does influence the decision about continued enrollment. Since the TPRS method does not place an emphasis on culture, it may be possible that the lack of a positive attitude about the target language and culture is a confounding construct in the decision to continue enrollment. This is partially supported by the research of Mantle-Bromley (1995) who finds that a lack of motivation and negative attitudes towards the language and the culture are ultimately the major obstacles in achieving increased continued enrollment. Further research using robust measures of attitudes about the language and culture is warranted.

It is also possible that the decision to continue enrollment is less a factor of the teaching method, but instead correlated to the enjoyment of the class and attitudes towards the teacher. Mantle-Bromley (1995) finds that teachers have the best effect on influencing positive changes in attitudes. The present research study did not specifically include robust measures of attitudes. Looking at the attitudes of the high school students by using only one question on the survey about their level of enjoyment of the class, there was a correlation between their level of

enjoyment of the class and continued enrollment. Further research using a more robust measure of attitude is warranted.

When a correlation coefficient was computed for high school students among the two variables of plans for enrollment next year and the level of enjoyment, the results show a statistically significant correlation of .431, $p < .001$. A two-way contingency tables analysis was conducted to evaluate whether high school students in the regular use group would have a higher level of enjoyment of the class than students in the partial use or non-use group. The two variables were the amount of use of storytelling with three levels (non-use, partial use and regular use) and enjoyment of the class with two levels (enjoyment and no enjoyment). Test results about the relationship of the amount of use of the storytelling technique and enjoyment were significant, $\chi^2(2, N = 453) = 7.85, p = .020$.

With a score of 1 indicating enjoyment and a score of 0 indicating no enjoyment, high school students in the regular use group had a lower mean of .734 ($SD = .445$). High school students in the partial use group had a mean of .746 ($SD = .436$) and high school students in the non-use group had the highest levels of enjoyment with a mean score of .859 ($SD = .349$).

Since there was a correlation between enjoyment of the class and continued enrollment in high school students, results suggest that high school students in the non-use group tend to enjoy the class more and tend to have higher rates of continued enrollment. Figure 4 shows the differences in levels of enjoyment by grade level and group assignment.

With no significant results for middle school students, the research suggests that the teaching method of the teacher does not influence the decision of middle school students to continue to the next level. It could be construed that the variable is influenced by factors other than the use of storytelling. This is supported by the research of Shedivy (2003), who found that

the factors that lead to continued enrollment are not as simple as the one factor of the teaching method of the teacher. Less measurable motivators for continued enrollment include cultural curiosity, intellectual curiosity, community involvement and attitudes towards the target language community. Verkler (as cited in Shrum & Glisan, 2005) found that middle school students generally find the foreign language learning experience significantly more favorable than high school students. Reasons for differences included a positive climate at the middle school level, as well as the openness and curiosity about the world of younger adolescents.

Middle school students of teachers who regularly used storytelling had a level of enjoyment mean of .944 ($SD = .231$) while middle school students of teachers who partially use the technique had a mean of .939 ($SD = .240$), with a score of 1 indicating enjoyment of the class and a score of 0 indicating no enjoyment of the class.

A two-way contingency tables analysis was conducted to evaluate whether middle school students of teacher who regularly use storytelling have a significantly higher level of enjoyment than students of teachers who partially use it. The two variables were the amount of use of storytelling with two levels (partial use and regular use) and enjoyment of the class with two levels (enjoyment and no enjoyment). Tests results about the relationship of the amount of storytelling and the level of enjoyment were non-significant, $\chi^2(1, N = 301) = .136, p = .712$. Results suggest that the amount of storytelling does not affect the level of enjoyment of middle school students. Figure 4 shows the differences in levels of enjoyment by grade level and group assignment.

Ratings of receptive skills and storytelling.

Because the TPRS method focuses on the receptive skills of reading and listening by using entertaining stories to introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar, Gaab (2006)

asserts that the method is better at promoting proficiency in listening skills and in reading skills. It was therefore hypothesized that students of teachers who use this technique would rate their own skills in reading and listening higher than the students of teachers who do not use the technique or use it with less frequency.

Results of the research did not support the hypothesis that middle school students in the regular use group would have higher ratings of reading or listening skills. When all the students in grades eight through twelve, and just the high school students were analyzed, there were significant differences. The differences were not in the anticipated order. Results showed the regular use group had higher ratings than the partial use and non-use groups.

Since there were no the statistical differences for middle school students, it is possible that the question was poorly worded and misinterpreted by the students. It is also possible that the students do not possess a frame of reference on which to base their ratings of their skills in reading, listening, writing and speaking a foreign language. Mantle-Bromley (1995) finds that students consistently have false beliefs about the nature of language learning and aptitude. Finally, there may be confounding constructs, which influenced the group differences.

The high school results were not in the anticipated order. Since the non-use group scored higher on academic assessments, it is likely that the higher ratings of the receptive skills are correlated to actual higher academic skills. In order to test the relationship between the self-reported ratings of reading skills, the self-reported ratings of listening skills, the scores on the final exams and the scores on the reading sections of the final exams, correlation coefficients were computed for the four variables. Using the Bonferroni approach to control for Type I error across the six correlations, a p value of less than .008 ($.05/6 = .008$) was required for significance. The results of the correlated analyses show that all of the correlations were

statistically significant and were greater than or equal to .26. Results suggest that high school students in the non-use group who rate their reading and listening skills high also tend to score higher on the final exams and the reading sections of the final exams. Results are presented in table 15.

Academic achievement and storytelling.

Although the research of McKay (2001), Marsh (1997), and Kariuki and Bush (2008) looked at the academic differences of the TPRS method and this research only examined the academic differences of the BEP storytelling technique of the method, limited support could be given to the claims of TPRS supporters for higher academic achievement in middle school students. When looking at both final exam scores and scores on the reading sections of students district-wide in grades eight through twelve and then just in high school, the non-use group had the highest scores. However, middle school students in the regular use group had the highest scores, as hypothesized. Results suggest that storytelling is beneficial for middle school students in academic achievement and not for high school students.

Much of the prior research about academic achievement in foreign language classes found correlations between lack of academic success and elevated anxiety levels (Marco-Llinas & Garau, 2009; Tallon, 2009; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; Von Wörde, 2003). Since there were no significant differences in anxiety levels associated with storytelling, the results suggest that the observed significant differences in academic achievement are more associated with the storytelling technique than anxiety.

This research lends support the research of McKay (2001) and Marsh (1998) who also found significant differences in academics of middle school students using TPRS. It is perhaps a developmental difference allowing for easier acquisition by younger students, but it also may be

due to the character of younger adolescents who are still young at heart and enjoy learning through entertaining stories.

High school student results show that older students tend to enjoy classes that use storytelling less. As supported by Caruthers (2010), it might be in the character of older students not to enjoy the silliness of bizarre and exaggerated stories and therefore score lower on academic achievements. There may also be differences between high school students and teachers in how they value different teaching practices. Brown (2009) finds that students rate the value of formal grammar instruction higher than the value of communicative exchanges, while teachers tend to rate them in the opposite direction. Further research about which aspects of the TPRS method are motivating and not motivating to different age groups is warranted.

As seen in table 14, the middle school students tend to score higher than the high school students on all assessments. Survey question results about grade point averages also showed that the younger students had higher grade point averages than the older students as presented in figure 3. Results suggest that the observed grade level differences in academic scores may be due to aptitude. Further research is warranted.

Limitations

This research did not examine the entire TPRS method. Because the method has evolved since its initial development, it was difficult to define the entire method for the independent variable in this study. The amount of use of activities associated with TPRS such as TPR, storytelling, story asking, using actors in class, point of view changes, pop-up grammar, silent reading, reading stories and personalized questions was not consistent with the sample of participating teachers. Since most teachers are eclectic in nature, they use the parts of various methods, which serve their own teaching philosophies, styles and personalities best. They also

look to adapt to the learning styles and personalities of their students. None of the teachers surveyed for this research rated themselves as exclusive TPRS teachers, because the definition was different for each of them depending on when they received training in the TPRS method. It was decided to group the teachers based on the amount that they use BEP storytelling to introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar in level one and level two students of French, German and Spanish, since that was an activity that was easily defined and interpreted.

Because the research did not find a correlation between the use of BEP storytelling and anxiety levels and a consistent correlation with continued enrollment, it should not be construed that there is no correlation between the entire TPRS method and these variables. If the method could be concisely defined and measured in a research study, further research looking at the use of the entire TPRS method would be interesting.

This present research was conducted with level one and level two students. Because no questions were asked about the level two students' first year teachers, the research regarding the level two students did not factor the effects of the teaching methods of their previous level one teachers. Student attitudes and academic success in level two classes could be influenced, in part, by level one teachers. A longitudinal research study following students through multiple levels of classes where TPRS is regularly used would be interesting. High school students enrolled in upper level foreign language classes were not included because the use of TPRS and storytelling was less consistent in upper level classes.

Results about middle school students only included two group levels: non-use and partial use of storytelling. None of the middle school teachers involved in the study rated themselves as complete non-users of the BEP storytelling technique.

The survey only asked about the students' intent to enroll in the next level of the class. Because of the timing of the survey, the students were not surveyed on whether they actually enrolled in the next level. Although the students had already begun the enrollment process at school, official enrollment had not occurred. Twelfth grade students were not included in this research question, because their answers about plans of continued enrollment would have been less definite and their responses would have been a threat to validity.

This research only looked at a few aspects of academic achievement, that being scores of reading, listening and grammar skills. While the cooperating district does have speaking and writing assessments, it was decided not to include those in this research because inconsistencies of evaluation would threaten the validity of the study. The academic assessments used in this research were not nationally standardized. Instead teachers in a cooperating school district developed the assessments. It was not financially possible to use national standardized exams that are sponsored by professional foreign language teaching organizations.

While the participating teachers used the exact same exam questions on the reading sections of the final exams, minor deviations were allowed in the cooperating school district on the rest of the final exam. Teachers were allowed to change a few questions to allow for minor deviations of emphasized vocabulary words and grammar.

Finally, homogeneity within the sample is a limitation of the research. Only middle and high school students from one large suburban district in the Midwest were surveyed.

Recommendations for Further Research

Younger students and storytelling

Since there were statistical differences between middle and high school students, the most important question that arose from this research is about differences between younger and

older adolescents when it comes to storytelling in the foreign language classroom. Differences in the middle and high school students could be due to developmental differences in foreign language abilities of different age groups (Shrum & Glisan, 2005). Success of the storytelling technique with middle school students may be due, in part, to the character of young adolescents, which Egan (as cited in Shrum & Glisan, 2005) called romantic learners influenced by strong affective components.

Since this research suggested a trend for benefits of storytelling for younger students and more American school districts are exploring elementary school foreign language classes, it is suggested to look at elementary school student anxiety levels, interest levels and academic success based on storytelling or TPRS. As writing and reading skills for younger elementary students may not be valid measures of success, oral and listening assessments are suggested. Since this research suggests a trend for academic benefits for the younger middle school students and if the trend towards benefits for even younger students were extended, promotion and use of storytelling and the TPRS method with elementary and middle schools students seems more appropriate than with high school students. The use of storytelling with younger foreign language learners would also be an appropriate technique to include in university methods courses for pre-service teachers.

Classroom interaction.

Ray and Seely (2003) provide several anecdotal examples of success and positive student rapport in chapter eleven of their book. While inspiring, these anecdotes do not qualify as qualitative research. The success stories that the developers of the TPRS have seen may not be transferable to every teacher. Perhaps the successes that lead to fluency as described by Ray and Seely (2003) are caused less by the method and more by such immeasurable variables as teacher

and student rapport, teacher personalities, and student motivation. A suggestion for further research would be a qualitative study looking at characteristics of teachers and classroom activities that lead to academic success and positive rapport between successful TPRS teachers and their students.

Nationally standardized exams.

Taking a cue from Asher (as cited in McKay, 2001), it would be interesting to research the claims of academic success by comparing the scores of students of TPRS teachers on national standardized proficiency exams in the foreign languages. National organizations such as the American Association of Teachers of German, French and Spanish/Portuguese sponsor such programs. Unfortunately, few districts have the funds to spend on optional national exams for elective classes. While Ray and Seely (2003) cite six examples of student success on national exams, none of the references have any proper statistical citations or explanations. Ray and Seely's (2003) list of examples of academic success, while inspiring, are just testimonials. Researching the scores of a large number of students of teachers who exclusively use the method on nationally recognized and standardized exams is suggested. It is recommended that rigorous standards of statistical research be followed, since claims of academic success are often published without proper citations, as found in Schmitz and Polito (2004).

The modern foreign language learner.

TPRS has responded to the changing foreign language classroom and appears to attempt to be in tune with the modern learner. In a commentary about the changing characteristics of today's learners, Spodark (2010) describes ways that the modern young person differs from past generations. TPRS seems to have tapped into these societal changes not only affecting the workplace but also the classroom, as students "have a desire to incorporate their own ideas into a

project,” “have fun at work” and have a “need for immediate feedback” (pp. 40-41). The basic aspects of telling stories allow for student input, are hopefully more fun for the students and allow teachers to give immediate feedback by constantly checking for understanding throughout the storytelling process.

In a study about teaching behaviors, Bell (2005) finds that some of the basics of a TPRS lesson include items that are rated as important in the foreign language teaching profession. These include reducing anxiety, learning grammar through less formal instruction, teaching grammar inductively, and teaching new language structures only after there is mastery of previous structures.

Included in ACTFL’s recommendations for using target language in the classroom are suggestions for teachers to promote comprehensible input, make meaning clear through visuals and gestures, conduct comprehension checks, elicit talk that increases fluency and complexity over time, and offer oral feedback (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2010b). These are all aspects of the typical TPRS lesson. Researching which particular aspects are most beneficial and motivating is suggested.

TPRS in the CLT classroom.

Rather than reject other methods, it is suggested that TPRS supporters embrace aspects of other foreign language experts and demonstrate how their method fits other methods. It is recommended that TPRS supporter attempt to demonstrate how the method fits in the eclectic Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) Approach. It is obvious that TPRS aspires to fit Krashen’s theory of natural acquisition of language through copious amounts of comprehensible input. Linguistic competence does not come only from input. It also comes from meaningful output. Swain’s output hypothesis states that speaking and writing in meaningful ways is

necessary for students to build confidence in the language (Shrum & Glisan, 2005). Such a stringent focus on only receptive skills makes the method feel restrictive to teachers that may want to try it.

Through the repetition of stories and a focus on circling questions, TPRS fits Savignon's focus on developing strategies that become second nature to the students. Another recommendation is that TPRS supporters promote that it fits Ellis' suggestions for contextualized lessons, immersion and implicit grammar teaching (Burke, 2010).

TPRS also fits some of Burke's (2010) recommendations for improving the amount of target language used during class. These recommendations include posting common expressions in the target language, regularly implementing communicative activities and asking students for their input. However, TPRS does not follow Burke's (2010) recommendations to use discussions of strategies for communication, authentic assessments, or explicit grammar lessons in the target language.

Differentiated instruction and storytelling.

Nowhere in the literature about TPRS is differentiated instruction addressed. In fact, directions for the method provided in Ray and Seely (2003) and Baird and Johnson (2003) are only for an entire class. There are no references to activities for students who do not learn best through storytelling. As this research suggests, high school students are not as successful with regular use of storytelling. Asher (as cited in McKay, 2001) suggests researching if there is an optimal mix of storytelling with other methods. The present research only defined the middle research group as teachers who partially used the BEP storytelling technique. It was not divided to a more specific amount that they use this one technique or any other techniques or methods.

Following Asher's suggestions, it is recommended that future research divide the partial group further to discover if there is an optimal amount of inclusion of TPRS activities.

ACTFL standards and TPRS.

The TPRS method remains a fringe method of foreign language instruction. Its supporters have responded to the ACTFL standards inconsistently. While Gaab, Gross and Placido (2010) claim that TPRS fits the standards, Ray and Seely (2003) dismiss the importance of the standards of the profession. Ray and Seely (2003) state, "There are many activities we did not mention in earlier editions but which are commonly used by some teachers and which steal valuable class time that could and should be used for efficient development of proficiency" (p. ix). Regarding the five C's of the ACTFL and ten other national language associations, Ray and Seely (2003) believe that "communication is the important one, and nearly all of class time should in some way be devoted to this one. This is what language classes are for. It is fine to include the other four within communication, but it is counterproductive to work on any of them in class time without at the same time mainly focusing on the development of communicative proficiency" (p. ix). While Ray and Seely may find it unnecessary to reflect on the ACTFL standards past that brief statement, widespread acceptance of the method will only occur through inclusion of the standards of the profession.

Rather than making unsupported statements of inclusion of the communication standard in the method, it is suggested that TPRS supporters better demonstrate how the method fits into the communication standard. TPRS includes many of the activities recommended by ACTFL (2010b) to increase target language use in the classroom. TPRS provides comprehensible input, makes meaning clear through visuals and gestures, conducts comprehension checks, and elicits talk that is intended to increase fluency. Through the "story asking" part of the method, where

students provide the input and details of a story, it could be argued that there is some negotiation of meaning and encouragement of self-expression. It is also recommended that TPRS supporters advocate teaching strategies that request clarification and offer explicit feedback to improve oral skills.

The results of the present study show significant differences and indicate advantages for middle school students when using storytelling. In middle school, young adolescents begin to notice the “otherness” of the world and they are inspired by adventure and drama (Shrum & Glisan, 2005). It is therefore suggested that TPRS supporters focus more on the ACTFL culture standards. It would also be appropriate to include the connections standard that focuses on differing viewpoints and the comparisons standard that focuses on cultural comparisons. Since middle schools encourage interdisciplinary projects, the connections standard to work with other disciplines would also be appropriate to include. Cultural products such as folktales and fairy tales have not been adapted into TPRS stories. Instead of only using stories made up by teachers, authentic stories from the target cultures could be adapted to demonstrate inclusion of ACTFL’s culture standard.

If the supporters of the TPRS method would embrace and adapt to the ACTFL standards rather than shun them, then the method might become a more widely accepted part of the professional system. It could gain the legitimacy needed to be included in university foreign language methods textbooks and courses. In a study of foreign language methods courses at thirty-two universities, Wilbur (2007) notes that only one university includes TPRS at a substantial level. If TPRS were included in university methods courses and pre-service teachers learned it as part of their repertoire of methods and techniques, it might reach the mainstream that its supporters simultaneously shun and yet seem to desire. By demonstrating that the method

includes the ACTFL standards, leaders in foreign language teaching profession and professors at universities might consider it more seriously. By adapting their focus and outlook to fit the national standards, the method might move out of its status as a fringe activity to a status as a legitimate part of a teacher's repertoire of skills needed to be a good foreign language teacher.

Final Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to explore storytelling as it is used in the foreign language teaching method called Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS). The method, which involves telling and reading entertaining stories in order to introduce and reinforce vocabulary and grammar, is based on the Total Physical Response method of James Asher and the language acquisition theories of Stephen Krashen. Based on the amount of storytelling that the teachers use, the student surveys researched claims of lowered anxiety as measured on the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986), higher rates of continued enrollment, higher self-reported ratings of reading and listening skills, and higher academic achievement, as measured on the semester final exams and the reading sections of the final exams used in the cooperating school district.

Results of the study indicated no significant differences in levels of anxiety between the students of teachers who used the storytelling technique and students of teachers who did not use it or used it with less frequency. Middle school students had no significant differences with regards to continued enrollment or ratings of reading and listening skills. Results indicated that middle school students in the regular use group did have higher scores on academic assessments. High school student results, on the other hand, indicated that not using storytelling led to higher rates of continued enrollment, higher ratings of reading and listening skills and higher scores on academic assessments.

As Ray and Seely (2003) state, storytelling from TPRS can be fun and interesting for students. The motivation behind the method and enthusiasm of its supporters is commendable. There is academic theory that lends support to it. The claim of its superiority over other methods, however, appears to be overstated. This research only indicates higher academic achievement for younger adolescents. This research does not indicate that the storytelling technique leads to lowered anxiety, higher rates of continued enrollment, higher ratings of receptive skills and higher academic scores for high school students. If TPRS supporters were to augment their claims with proper qualitative and quantitative research, as well as work within the standards of the profession, the method might become one of the academically sound, widely accepted and commonly used tools in the toolbox of a good foreign language teacher. As it stands now, the TPRS method will not attain the status and wide spread acceptance that its supporters seek.

References

- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (2010a). *National standards for foreign language education*. Retrieved from <http://www.actfl.org/i4a/pages/index.cfm?pageid=3392>
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (2010b). ACTFL announces new position statements. *The Language Educator*, 5(4), 26.
- Asher, J. J. (1993). *Learning another language through actions*. Los Gatos, California: Sky Oaks Productions, Inc.
- Asher, J. J. (2000a). *How and when to transfer from TPR to TPRS: How to apply TPRS for best results*. Retrieved from <http://www.tprsource.com/transfer2tprs.html>
- Asher, J. J. (2000b). *Language by command: The total physical response approach to learning language*. Retrieved from <http://www.context.org/ICLIB/IC06Asher.htm>
- Asher, J. J. (2000c) *The total physical response, known world-wide as TPR.* Retrieved from <http://www.tprsource.com/asher.htm>
- Baird, J. (Producer) & Johnson, L. (Producer) (2003). *TPRS for German teachers: An instructional DVD*. [Motion Picture]. Muncie, IN: Ball State University Office of Teaching and Learning Advancement.
- Bell, T. R. (2008). Behaviors and attitudes of effective foreign language teachers: Results of a questionnaire study. *Foreign Language Annals*, 38(2), 259-270.
- Barrette, C. M., Paesani, K. & Vinall, K. (2010). Toward an integrated curriculum: Maximizing the use of target language literature. *Foreign Language Annals*, 43(2), 216-230.
- Blaz, D. (1999). *Foreign language teacher's guide to active learning*. Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education.

- Bowen, T. (2009). *Teaching approaches: Total physical response*. Retrieved from <http://www.onestopenglish.com/section.asp?docid=146503>
- Brown, A. V. (2009). Students' and teachers' perceptions of effective foreign language teaching: A comparison of ideals. *The Modern Language Journal*, 93(1), 46-60.
- Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. (5th ed.). White Plains, New York: Pearson.
- Burke, B. M. (2010). Promoting communication in the target language with and among students. *The Language Educator*, 5(5), 50-53.
- Cantoni, G. (2005). Using TPR-storytelling to develop fluency and literacy in native American languages. In J. Reyhner, G. Cantoni, R. St. Clair & E. P. Yazzie (Eds.) *Revitalizing Indigenous Languages*, (53-58). Flagstaff: University of Arizona Press.
- Carruthers, S. W. (2010). *The total physical response method and its compatibility to adult ESL-learners*. Retrieved from http://web1.hpu.edu/images/GraduateStudies/TESL_WPS/03Carruthers_TPR_916707.pdf
- Curtain, H. & Dahlberg, C. A. (2004) *Languages and children: Making the match*. 3rd edition. Boston: Pearson.
- Davidheiser, J. (2002). Teaching German with TPRS [Electronic version]. *Die Unterrichtspraxis Teaching German*, 35(1), 25-35.
- Egan, K. (1986). *Teaching as storytelling: An alternative approach to teaching and curriculum in the elementary school*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Ellis, R. (2006). Current issues in the teaching of grammar: An SLA perspective [Electronic version] . *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1), 83-107.

“Exposure to sound patterns aids language learning.” *Language Educator*, 4(3), (2009): 9.

Frantzen, D. & Magnan, S. S. (2005). Anxiety and the true beginner – false beginner dynamic in beginning French and Spanish classes. *Foreign Language Annals*, 38(2), 171-186.

Gaab, C. (2006). TPRS: Evolution or creation? *Language Magazine*, 5(7). Retrieved from <http://www.languagemagazine.com>

Gaab, C., Gross, S. & Placido, K. (2010). *Welcome to TPRS publishing*. Retrieved from <http://www.tprstorytelling.com>

Gibbons, P. (2002). *Scaffolding language scaffolding learning: Teaching second language learners in the mainstream classroom*. Portsmouth, New Hampshire: Heinemann.

Green, M. C. (2004). Storytelling in teaching. *Association for Psychological Science*, 17(4). Retrieved from <http://www.psychologicalscience.org/observer/getArticle.cfm?id=1562>

Gross, S. (2007a). *The 3 steps of TPR storytelling*. Retrieved from <http://www.susangrosstprs.com/handouts/index.html>

Gross, S. (2007b). *Make grammar meaningful*. Retrieved from <http://www.susangrosstprs.com/handouts/index.html>

Gross, S. (2007c). *Order of acquisition*. Retrieved from <http://www.susangrosstprs.com/.docs/index.html>

Gross, S. (2007d). *The importance of using natural language in level-one classes*. Retrieved from <http://www.susangrosstprs.com/.docs/index.html>

Hayden-Roy, P. (2004). Well-structured texts help second-year German students learn to narrate. *Die Unterrichtspraxis / Teaching German*, 37(1), 17-25.

- Horwitz, E. K. (1986). Preliminary evidence for the reliability and validity of a foreign language anxiety scale. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(3), 559-562.
- Horwitz, E. K. (2001) Language anxiety and achievement. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 21, 112-126.
- Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B. & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70, 125-132.
- Horwitz, E. K. & Young, D. J. (1991). *Language anxiety*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Kariuki, P. & Bush, E. (2008). *The effects of total physical response by storytelling and the traditional teaching styles of a foreign language in a selected high school*. Retrieved from <http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/contentdelivery/servlet/ERICServlet?accno=ED503364>
- Kim, S. Y. (2009). Questioning the stability of foreign language classroom anxiety and motivation across different classroom contexts. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42(1), 138-157.
- Krashen, S. D. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. New York: Pergamon Press.
- Krashen, S. D. (1998a). TPR: Still a very good idea. *NovELTy*, 5(4). Retrieved from <http://www.languageimpact.com/articles/other/krashentpr.htm>
- Krashen, S. D. (1998b). Teaching grammar: Why bother? *California English Project*. Retrieved from <https://www.msu.edu/~sandinkr/grammarwhybother.htm>
- Krashen, S. D. (2004). *The Power of Reading: Insights into the Research*, 2nd Edition. Heinemann/Libraries Unlimited.

- Krashen, S. D. & Terrell, T. D. (1983). *The natural approach: Language acquisition in the classroom*. New York: Pergamon/Alemany.
- Mantle-Bromley, C. (1995). Positive Attitudes and realistic beliefs: Links to proficiency. *The Modern Language Journal*, 79(3), 372-386.
- Marcos-Llinas, M. & Garau, M. J. (2009). Effects of language anxiety on three proficiency-level courses of Spanish as a foreign language. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42(1). 94-111.
- Marsh, V. (1998). Total physical response storytelling: A communicative approach to language , learning. *Learning Languages: The Journal of the National Network for Early Language Learning*, 4(1), 24-28.
- Marshall, C. (2007). Increasing international interest requires a quantum leap in methodologies for learning world languages [Electronic Version]. *McNair Research Review*, 5.
- McKay, T. (2001). *TPR storytelling: Teacher's guidebook*. Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions.
- McQuillan, J. & Tse, L. (1998). What's the story? Using the narrative approach in beginning language classrooms. *TESOL Journal*, 7(4), 18-23.
- Oller, J., Jr. (1983). Some working ideas for language teaching. In J. Oller & P.A. Richard-Amato (Eds.), *Methods That Work*, (pp. 3-19). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Omaggio, A.C. (1986). *Teaching language in context: Proficiency-oriented instruction*. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle Publishers, Inc.
- Pichette, F. (2009). Second language anxiety and distance language learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42(1), 77-93.

- Ray, B. (2010a). *Blaine Ray workshops TPR storytelling*. Retrieved from <http://www.blaineraytprs.com>
- Ray, B. (2010b). Proceedings from *Blaine Ray TPRS Workshops: Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling*. Eagle Mountain, UT: Blaine Ray Workshops, Inc.
- Ray, B. & Seely, C. (2003). *Fluency through TPR storytelling*. Berkley, CA: Command Performance Language Institute.
- Rose, H. (1996). *Designing construction of virtual environments for Japanese language instruction*. Retrieved from <http://www.hitl.washington.edu/publications/rose/home.html>
- Saito, Y., Garza T. & Horwitz, E.K. (1999). Foreign language reading anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83, 202-218.
- Sandrock, P. (2003). *Planning curriculum for learning world languages*. Milwaukee: Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction.
- Schmitz, H. & Polito, M. (2004). *Deutsch aktuell 1 TPR storytelling manual*. St. Paul, MN: EMC/Paradigm.
- Shedivy, S. L. (2003). Factors that lead some students to continue the study of foreign language past the usual 2 years in high school. *System*, 32(1), 103-119.
- Shrum, J. L. & Glisan, E. W. (2005). *Teacher's handbook: Contextualized language instruction*. Boston: Thomson/Heinle.
- Spodark, E. (2010). Structuring a language course to respond to millennial generation workplace characteristics. *The Language Educator*. 5(4), 39-42.
- Tallon, M. (2009). Foreign language anxiety and heritage students of Spanish: A quantitative study. *Foreign Language Annals*. 42(1), 112-137.

- Von Wörde, R. (2003). Students' perspectives on foreign language anxiety. *Inquiry*, 8(1). Retrieved from <http://www.vccaedu.org/inquiry/inquiry-spring2003/i-81-worde.html>
- Wilbur, M. L. (2007). How foreign language teachers get taught: Methods of teaching the methods course. *Foreign Language Annals*, 40(1), 79-101.
- Wieber du Saire, K. (2010). Bringing content and language to life through theater. *The ACIE Newsletter*, 13(2), 4.

Tables and Figures

Table 1

Correlations among Storytelling Usage, the BEP Scale and TPRS Self-Ratings (N = 28)

	Storytelling Usage	BEP Scale
BEP Scale	.915*	
TPRS Self-Rating	.764*	.797*

* $p < .017$

Table 2

Division of Teachers into Groups Based on the Use of the BEP Storytelling Technique

Teacher	Storytelling Use Introduce Voc./Gram. 0 = never 1 = occasional 2 = sometimes 3 = often 4 = regular/routine	BEP Scale 0 to 28	TPRS Self-Rating 0 = none 1 = occasional 2 = sometimes 3 = often 4 = regular/routine	Group Assignment 1 = non use 2 = partial use 3 = regular/routine use
1	0	5	0	1
2	0	6	0	1
3	0	7	1	1
4	0	7	1	1
5	0	8	1	1
6	0	8	0	1
7	1	10	1	2
8	3	13	1	2
9	2	15	1	2
10	2	15	1	2
11	2	16	2	2
12	2	17	2	2
13	2	17	1	2
14	2	17	1	2
15	2	18	2	2
16	3	19	1	2
17	2	19	2	2
18	1	19	2	2
19	3	20	1	2
20	3	20	2	2
21	3	20	2	2
23	4	22	2	3
24	4	22	3	3
25	4	22	2	3
26	4	24	2	3
27	4	25	3	3
28	4	28	3	3

Table 3

Overview of the Statistics on the Student Sample

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Middle School	309	37.4	37.6	37.6
High School	510	62.1	62.4	100
Total	817	99.5	100	
French	140	17.1	17.1	17.1
German	150	18.3	18.3	35.3
Spanish	531	64.7	64.7	100
Total	821	100	100	
Middle Sch. French	82	26.7	26.7	26.7
Middle Sch. German	44	14.3	14.3	41.0
Middle Sch. Spanish	181	59.0	59.0	100
Total	307	100	100	
High School French	58	11.4	11.4	11.4
High School German	106	20.8	20.8	32.2
High School Spanish	346	67.8	67.8	100
Total	510	100	100	
Level 1	399	48.6	48.6	48.6
Level 2	422	51.4	51.4	100
Total	821	100	100	
8 th grade	307	37.4	37.6	37.6
9 th grade	322	39.2	39.4	77.0
10 th grade	113	13.8	13.8	90.8
11 th grade	42	5.1	5.1	96.0
12 th grade	33	4.0	4.0	100
Total	817	99.5	100	
Girls	294	35.8	36.4	36.4
Boys	513	62.5	63.6	100
Total	807	98.3	100	

Table 4

Estimated Marginal Means, Standard Errors and 95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Use of the BEP Storytelling Technique for Self-Ratings of Reading Skills for All Students

BEP Group	<i>M</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	95% C. I.		95% C. I. for Differences	
			Lower	Upper	1. Non Use	2. Partial Use
1. Non Use	7.25	.143	6.96	7.54		
2. Partial Use	6.71	.092	6.53	6.89	.13 to .95*	
3. Regular Use	6.99	.122	6.76	7.23	-.23 to .73	-.65 to .09

Note: An asterisk indicates that the 95% confidence interval does not contain zero, and therefore the difference in means is significant at the .05 significance level using the Bonferroni adjustment. Listed above are the adjusted means and standard errors. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: grade level = 8.98* and level of engagement = 26.60*. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap resamples.

Table 5

Estimated Marginal Means, Standard Errors and 95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Use of the BEP Storytelling Technique for Self-Ratings of Listening Skills for All Students

BEP Group	<i>M</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	95% C. I.		95% C. I. for Differences	
			Lower	Upper	1. Non Use	2. Partial Use
1. Non Use	7.64	.140	7.35	7.91		
2. Partial Use	7.05	.100	6.86	7.24	.16 to 1.01*	
3. Regular Use	7.25	.121	7.02	7.48	- .11 to .88	-.58 to .18

Note: An asterisk indicates that the 95% confidence interval does not contain zero, and therefore the difference in means is significant at the .05 significance level using the Bonferroni adjustment. Listed above are the adjusted means and standard errors. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: grade level = 8.98* and level of engagement = 26.63*. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap resamples.

Table 6

Estimated Marginal Means, Standard Errors and 95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Use of the BEP Storytelling Technique for Scores on the Final Exams for All Students

BEP Group	<i>M</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	95% C. I.		95% C. I. for Differences	
			Lower	Upper	1. Non Use	2. Partial Use
1. Non Use	84.81	1.02	82.84	86.84		
2. Partial Use	81.78	.72	80.31	83.13	.67 to 5.54*	
3. Regular Use	84.06	1.07	81.86	86.13	-2.29 to 4.17	-4.59 to .04

Note: An asterisk indicates that the 95% confidence interval does not contain zero, and therefore the difference in means is significant at the .05 significance level using the Bonferroni adjustment. Listed above are the adjusted means and standard errors. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: grade level = 8.97* and level of engagement = 26.62*. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap resamples.

Table 7

Estimated Marginal Means, Standard Errors and 95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Use of the BEP Storytelling Technique for Scores on the Reading Sections of the Final Exams for All Students

BEP Group	<i>M</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	95% C. I.		95% C. I. for Differences	
			Lower	Upper	1. Non Use	2. Partial Use
1. Non Use	82.82	1.54	79.70	85.69		
2. Partial Use	78.89	1.05	76.79	80.89	.04 to 7.63*	
3. Regular Use	82.67	1.38	79.96	85.35	-4.19 to 4.66	-6.92 to -.54*

Note: An asterisk indicates that the 95% confidence interval does not contain zero, and therefore the difference in means is significant at the .05 significance level using the Bonferroni adjustment. Listed above are the adjusted means and standard errors. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: grade level = 8.95* and level of engagement = 26.74*. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap resamples.

Table 8

Estimated Marginal Means, Standard Errors and 95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Use of the BEP Storytelling Technique for Scores on the Final Exams of Middle School Students

BEP Group	<i>M</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	95% C. I.		95% C. I. for Differences
			Lower	Upper	2. Partial Use
2. Partial Use	87.26	.78	85.61	88.78	
3. Regular Use	92.17	.64	90.88	93.31	-6.87 to -2.85 *

Note: An asterisk indicates that the 95% confidence interval does not contain zero, and therefore the difference in means is significant at the .05 significance level using the Bonferroni adjustment. Listed above are the adjusted means and standard errors. The level of engagement covariate appearing in this model is evaluated at 28.60*. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap resamples.

Table 9

Estimated Marginal Means, Standard Errors and 95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Use of the BEP Storytelling Technique for Scores on the Reading Sections of the Final Exams of Middle School Students

BEP Group	<i>M</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	95% C. I.		95% C. I. for Differences
			Lower	Upper	2. Partial Use
2. Partial Use	82.01	1.41	79.12	84.83	
3. Regular Use	91.06	1.03	88.88	93.05	5.41 to 12.69*

Note: An asterisk indicates that the 95% confidence interval does not contain zero, and therefore the difference in means is significant at the .05 significance level using the Bonferroni adjustment. Listed above are the adjusted means and standard errors. The level of engagement covariate appearing in this model is evaluated at 28.73. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap resamples.

Table 10

Estimated Marginal Means, Standard Errors and 95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Use of the BEP Storytelling Technique for Self-Ratings of Reading Skills of High School Students

BEP Group	<i>M</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	95% C. I.		95% C. I. for Differences	
			Lower	Upper	1. Non Use	2. Partial Use
1. Non Use	7.08	.136	6.81	7.35		
2. Partial Use	6.59	.117	6.34	6.82	.12 to .84*	
3. Regular Use	6.76	.229	6.30	7.20	-.20 to .84	0.71 to .34

Note: An asterisk indicates that the 95% confidence interval does not contain zero, and therefore the difference in means is significant at the .05 significance level using the Bonferroni adjustment. Listed above are the adjusted means and standard errors. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: grade level = 9.57 and level of engagement = 25.37*. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap resamples.

Table 11

Estimated Marginal Means, Standard Errors and 95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Use of the BEP Storytelling Technique for Self-Ratings of Listening Skills of High School Students

BEP Group	<i>M</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	95% C. I.		95% C. I. for Differences	
			Lower	Upper	1. Non Use	2. Partial Use
1. Non Use	7.40	.139	7.12	7.68		
2. Partial Use	6.77	.134	6.51	7.02	.28 to .98*	
3. Regular Use	6.99	.205	6.58	7.39	-.07 to .90	-.69 to .25

Note: An asterisk indicates that the 95% confidence interval does not contain zero, and therefore the difference in means is significant at the .05 significance level using the Bonferroni adjustment. Listed above are the adjusted means and standard errors. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: grade level = 9.58 and level of engagement = 25.41*. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap resamples.

Table 12

Estimated Marginal Means, Standard Errors and 95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Use of the BEP Storytelling Technique for Scores on the Final Exams of High School Students

BEP Group	<i>M</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	95% C. I.		95% C. I. for Differences	
			Lower	Upper	1. Non Use	2. Partial Use
1. Non Use	81.46	.98	79.53	83.34		
2. Partial Use	78.37	1.00	76.30	80.21	.50 to 5.79*	
3. Regular Use	74.55	2.32	70.02	78.93	2.12 to 12.04*	-.93 to 8.76

Note: An asterisk indicates that the 95% confidence interval does not contain zero, and therefore the difference in means is significant at the .05 significance level using the Bonferroni adjustment. Listed above are the adjusted means and standard errors. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: grade level = 9.58* and level of engagement = 25.38*. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap resamples.

Table 13

Estimated Marginal Means, Standard Errors and 95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Use of the BEP Storytelling Technique for Scores on the Reading Sections of the Final Exams of High School Students

BEP Group	<i>M</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	95% C. I.		95% C. I. for Differences	
			Lower	Upper	1. Non Use	2. Partial Use
1. Non Use	79.41	1.40	76.56	82.04		
2. Partial Use	76.83	1.40	74.09	79.65	-2.41 to 7.56	
3. Regular Use	70.86	3.06	64.66	76.46	1.13 to 15.98*	-1.18 to 13.14

Note: An asterisk indicates that the 95% confidence interval does not contain zero, and therefore the difference in means is significant at the .05 significance level using the Bonferroni adjustment. Listed above are the adjusted means and standard errors. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: grade level = 9.60* and level of engagement = 25.40*. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap resamples.

Table 14

An Overview of Statistical Results

Hypothesis & Group	8-12 Results	Middle School	High School
1. FLCAS Anxiety	Non-significant p = .255	Non-significant p = .514	Non-significant p = .373
1. Non-Use	91.18		93.14
2. Partial Use	93.26	90.24	95.12
3. Regular Use	95.18	91.51	97.61
2. Continued Enrollment	Non-significant p = .326	Non-significant p = .119	*Significant p = .012
1. Non-Use	.738		.752 +
2. Partial Use	.737	.963	.627
3. Regular Use	.789	.921	.582
3a. Reading Skills Rating	*Significant p = .004, $\eta^2 = 1.4\%$	Non-significant p = .054	*Significant p = .025, $\eta^2 = 1.5\%$
1. Non-Use	7.25 +		7.08 +
2. Partial Use	6.71	6.91	6.59
3. Regular Use	7.00	7.31	6.76
Significant Pair Differences	1 to 2		1 to 2
3b. Listening Skills Rating	*Significant p = .003, $\eta^2 = 1.4\%$	Non-significant p = .51	*Significant p = .004, $\eta^2 = 2.2\%$
1. Non-Use	7.64 +		7.40 +
2. Partial Use	7.05	7.51	6.77
3. Regular Use	7.25	7.64	6.99
Significant Pair Differences	1 to 2		1 to 2

Hypothesis & Group	8-12 Results	Middle School	High School
4a. Final Exams Scores	*Significant p = .019, $\eta^2 = 1.1\%$	*Significant p < .001, $\eta^2 = 7.3\%$	*Significant p=.005, $\eta^2=2.3\%$
1. Non-Use	84.81 +		81.46 +
2. Partial Use	81.78	87.26	78.37
3. Regular Use	84.06	92.12 +	74.55
Significant Pair Differences	1 to 2	2 to 3	1 to 2, 1 to 3
4b. Reading Exams Scores	*Significant p = .021, $\eta^2 = 1.1\%$	*Significant p < .001, $\eta^2 = 7.8\%$	*Significant p=.022, $\eta^2=1.8\%$
1. Non-Use	82.82 +		79.41 +
2. Partial Use	78.89	82.01	76.83
3. Regular Use	82.67	91.06 +	70.86
Significant Pair Differences	1 to 2, 3 to 2	2 to 3	1 to 3

Note: An asterisk means that the difference in means is significant at the .05 significance level, using the Bonferroni adjustment. Hypotheses 1, 3 and 4 include adjusted means. Covariates appearing in the model in hypotheses 1 3 and 4 are grade level and the level of engagement. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap resamples.

Table 15

Correlations among Ratings of Reading Skills, Ratings of Listening Skills, Scores on the Final Exams and Scores on the Reading Sections of the Final Exams in High School Students (N = 407)

	Reading Skills Rating	Listening Skills Rating	Final Exam Score
Listening Skills Rating	.455*		
Final Exam Score	.712*	.347*	
Reading Section Score	.370*	.257*	.541*

* $p < .008$

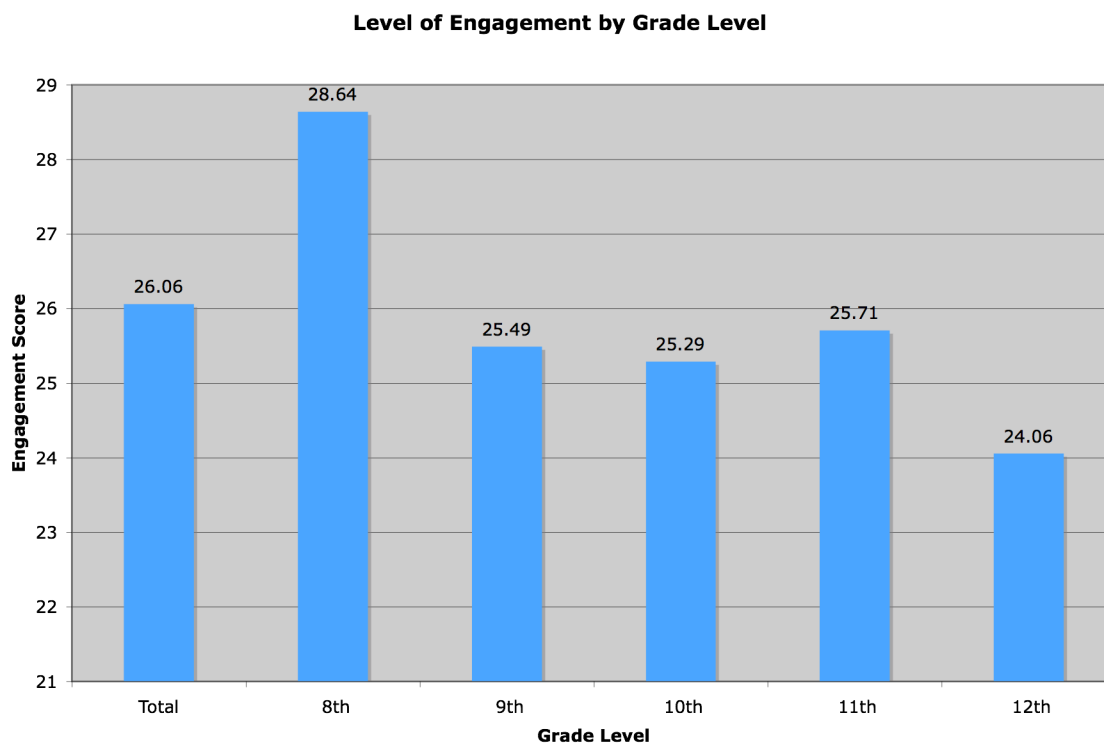


Figure 1. Level of engagement, as measured on the Engagement with Challenge Survey, for all students and by grade level.

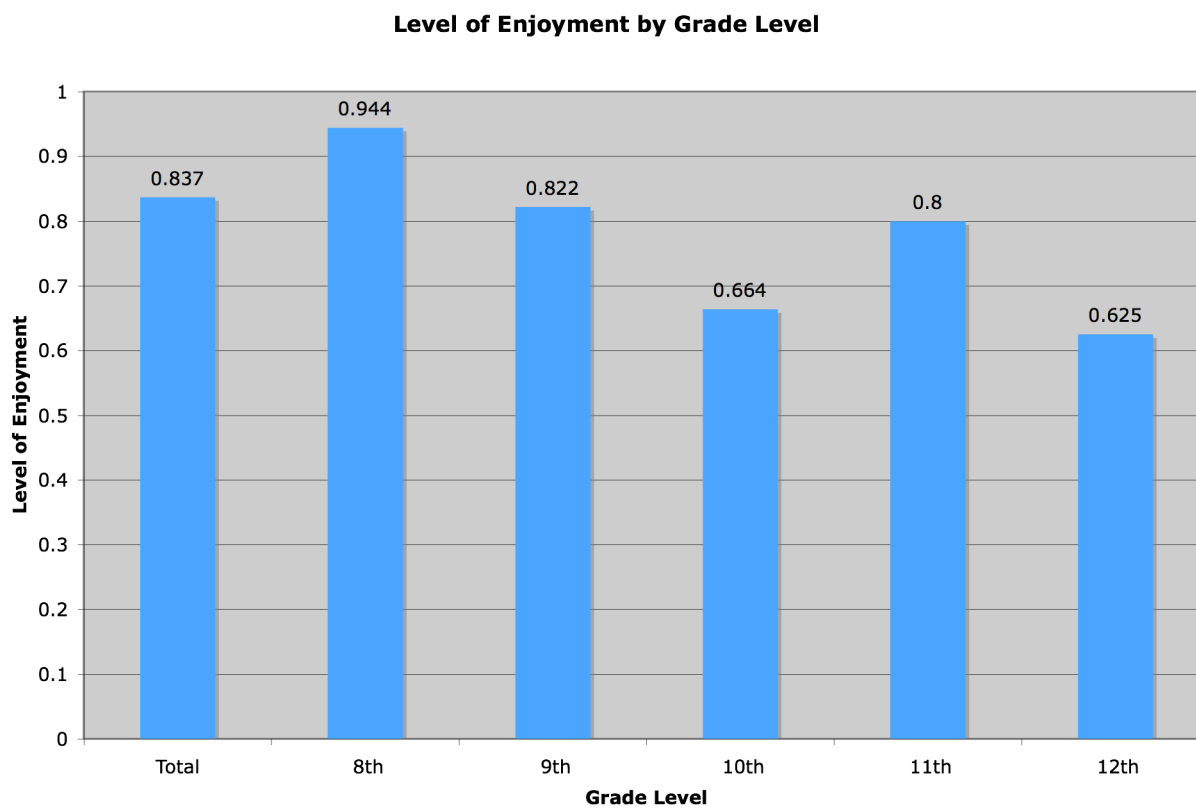


Figure 2. Level of enjoyment of the foreign language class for all students and by grade level.

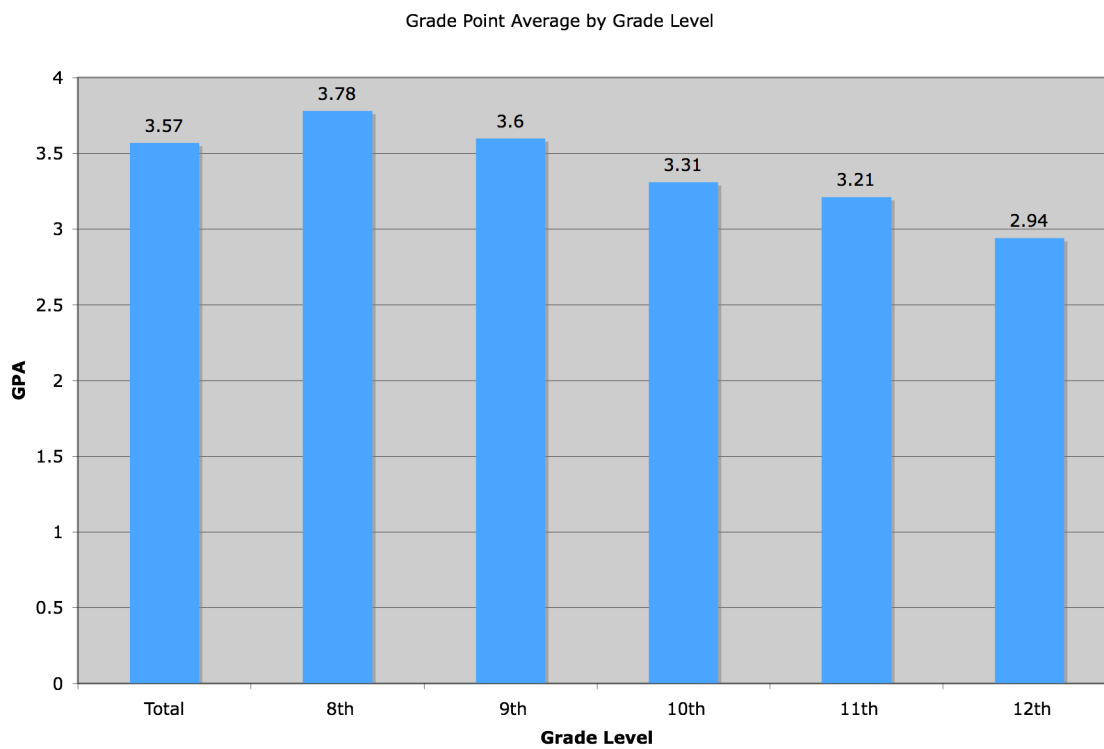


Figure 3. Grade point averages for all students and by grade level.

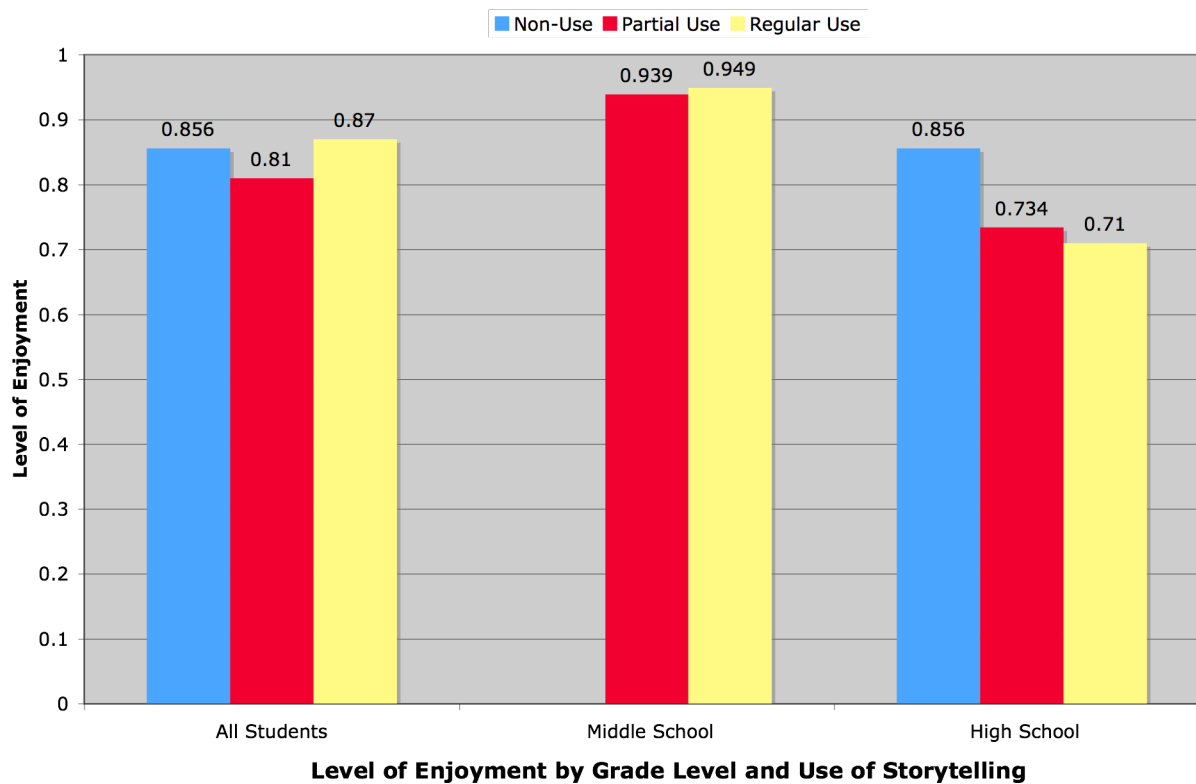


Figure 4. Level of enjoyment, as measured on the Engagement with Challenge Survey for all students, middle school students and high school students, grouped by amount of use of storytelling. There are three levels of use of storytelling: non-use, partial use and regular use.

Appendices

Appendix 1

Copy of Student Survey

All respondents to this survey should be in middle or high school and enrolled in a foreign language. The survey is interested in your attitudes and feelings about learning a foreign language. Some questions may be personal. Feel free to skip any questions you wish. If you do answer, please choose a response, which is as accurate as possible. The survey asks questions about your FOREIGN language class and not your language arts class. Your answers will remain confidential. Your answers will have no reflection on your grades and are not used as an evaluation of your teacher.

1a. Your teacher's code.

1b. Level of language in which you are enrolled

1 2 3 4 5

1c. Your current grade level

8 9 10 11 12

1d. Gender 1. Male 2. Female

2a. What is your GPA (if you know it or your teacher has access to it)?

2b. What was your percent (%) score on the first semester final exam?

2c. What was the number of questions correct on the reading section of the final exam?
Your teacher will tell you exactly which questions to count.

3. Do you plan to take the next level of the language that you are learning next year (either in high school or, if you are a senior, at university/college)?

1. Yes 2. No

4a. Which skill do you feel is your BEST?

1. Reading 2. Writing 3. Speaking 4. Listening

4b. Which skill do you feel is your WORST?

1. Reading 2. Writing 3. Speaking 4. Listening

4c. Please rate your skills in READING the foreign language from 1 to 10.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 (10 is the highest)

4d. Please rate your skills in WRITING the foreign language from 1 to 10.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 (10 is the highest)

4e. Please rate your skills in SPEAKING the foreign language from 1 to 10.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 (10 is the highest)

4f. Please rate your skills in UNDERSTANDING the foreign language when it is spoken from 1 to 10.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 (10 is the highest)

5. Did you enjoy your French/German/Spanish class this year?

1. Yes 2. No

Directions: Please read each statement and for each question in the following section circle the number that is most correct about your participation in your foreign language class in the last 12 months. Use the following scale.

(1) strongly disagree

(2) disagree

(3) slightly disagree

(4) slightly agree

(5) agree

(6) strongly agree

E1. There are always things I'm trying to work on and achieve in this class.

E2. I feel challenged in a good way in this class.

E3. The activities in this class are boring.

E4. I'm not working toward anything in this class.

E5. What we do in this class is both difficult and enjoyable.

E6. The goals people are working on in this class are not important to me.

Appendix 2

Copy of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Survey (FLCAS)

Directions: For each statement indicate whether you

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|
| (1) strongly disagree | (2) disagree |
| (3) neither agree nor disagree | |
| (4) agree | (5) strongly agree |

Answer “neither” if you have no opinion or if the statement does not apply to your situation.

- F1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in the French/German/Spanish.
- F2. I do *not* worry about making mistake in my foreign language class.
- F3. I am anxious when I know that I am going to be called on in French/German/Spanish class.
- F4. It frightens me when I do not understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.
- F5. It would *not* bother me at all to take more French/German/Spanish classes.
- F6. During French/German/Spanish I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.
- F7. I keep thinking that the other students are *better* at the foreign language than I am.
- F8. I am usually at ease during tests in my French/German/Spanish class.
- F9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation my French/German/Spanish class.
- F10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.
- F11. I do *not* understand why some people get so upset over French/German/Spanish class.
- F12. In French/German/Spanish class, I can get so nervous that I forget things that I know.
- F13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my foreign language class.
- F14. I would *not* be nervous speaking French/German/Spanish with native speakers.
- F15. I get upset when I do not understand what the teacher is correcting.
- F16. Even if I am well prepared for class, I feel anxious about it.
- F17. I often feel like *not* going to my French/German/Spanish class.
- F18. I feel confident when I speak in my French/German/Spanish class.
- F19. I am afraid that my teacher is ready to correct every mistake that I make.
- F20. I can feel my heart pounding, when I am going to be called on in my French/German/Spanish class.
- F21. The more that I study for a French/German/Spanish test, the more confused I get.
- F22. I do *not* feel pressure to prepare well for French/German/Spanish class.
- F23. I always feel that the other students speak French/German/Spanish better than I do.
- F24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking French/German/Spanish in front of other students.
- F25. My foreign language class moves so quickly, I worry about getting left behind.
- F26. I feel *more* tense and nervous in my foreign language class than in my other classes.
- F27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in French/German/Spanish class.
- F28. When I am on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.
- F29. I get nervous when I do *not* understand what the French/German/Spanish teacher says.
- F30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak French/German/Spanish.
- F31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak French/German/Spanish.
- F32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of French/German/Spanish.
- F33. I get nervous when the French/German/Spanish teacher asks questions, which I have not prepared in advance.

Appendix 3

Permission to Use the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

Email dated June 7, 2010

From: Elaine Horwitz
To: David Beal

It's nice to meet you, and I appreciate your interest in my work. My computer is down right now, so I don't have my "official" permission note, but your e-mail seems to anticipate it. I am happy to give you permission to use the FLCAS as long as you give proper citation in presentations/publications. I also ask for you to inform me of your results.

Best wishes on your project.

Elaine Horwitz

Email dated June 6, 2010

From: David Beal
To: Elaine Horwitz

Dear Dr. Horwitz,

I am a doctoral student at the University of Kansas studying foreign language education. Specifically, I am looking at storytelling as used in TPRS (Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling) with middle and high school students in levels 1 and 2 of foreign language.

As a part of my research, I would like to use the FLCAS. I am writing to ask for your permission to use your Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale from your 1986 article. I will identify the origin of the scale in my dissertation and any future presentations or publications that may result from my research. I will also provide you with the results of my study.

Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,
David Beal

Appendix 4

Engagement with Challenge Survey

Dr. David Hansen at the University of Kansas developed the Engagement with Challenge Survey. It is used with his permission.

Directions: Please read each statement and for each question in the following section circle the number that is most correct about your participation in your foreign language class in the last 12 months. Use the following scale.

- (1) strongly agree
- (2) agree
- (3) slightly agree
- (4) slightly disagree
- (5) disagree
- (6) strongly disagree

- E1. There are always things I'm trying to work on and achieve in this class.
- E2. I feel challenged in a good way in this class.
- E3. The activities in this class are boring.
- E4. I'm not working toward anything in this class.
- E5. What we do in this class is both difficult and enjoyable.
- E6. The goals people are working on in this class are not important to me.

Appendix 5

Copy of Teacher Survey on TPRS and Storytelling Usage

All respondents should be a teacher in the Modern Language Department. This survey is interested in your usage of various classroom activities and teaching methods. Feel free to skip any questions you wish. If you do answer, please choose a response, which is as accurate as possible. Your answers will remain confidential. Your answers will have no reflection on your position as a teacher in the district.

Your responses should be limited to how you teach your level one and two classes.

1a. What is your code for the survey? See David Beal for this number.

1b. Including this year, how many years have you been a foreign language teacher?

2a. What do you consider yourself?

1. A TPRS teacher, exclusively. I regularly/routinely use TPRS.
2. Mostly a TPRS teacher. I often use TPRS
3. A partial TPRS teacher. I sometimes use TPRS.
4. Rarely TPRS teacher. I only occasionally use TPRS.
5. Not a TPRS teacher. I do not use TPRS.

2b. What is your level of comfort with the storytelling technique from the TPRS method?

1. Not comfortable at all.
2. Somewhat comfortable.
3. Mostly comfortable.
4. Completely at ease.

2c. What types of TPRS training have you received? Check all that apply.

1. A national TPRS conference
2. A workshop here in Lee's Summit led by a TPRS expert
3. A 2 or 3 day workshop held in Kansas City led by a TPRS expert
4. A 2 or 3 day workshop held in a different city led by a TPRS expert
5. In house training held at the district level led by a colleague
6. Informal training with a colleague
7. Instruction as part of a university class
8. Other
9. None. I have received NO training in TPRS.

2d. How much training in TPRS have you received? Estimate the number of days you have attended a conference, workshop or training session.

3. What other techniques/methods/approaches for foreign language teaching do you consider an important part of your teaching style? List all that you consider part of your teaching style.

Options include, but are not limited to, the following list:

- ALM – Audio-Lingual Method
- Communicative Language Teaching
- The Direct Method
- The Gouin Series (Gouin)
- Grammar translation
- The Narrative Method (McQuillan & Tse)
- The Natural Approach (Krashen)
- The PACE Model (Presentation, Attention, Co-Construction, Extension)
- Suggestopedia (Lozanov)
- TPRS – Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (Ray)
- TPR - Total Physical Response (Asher)

For each question below, use the following scale.

- 0. Never. I do not use this activity or technique at all.
- 1. Only occasionally.
- 2. Sometimes.
- 3. Often.
- 4. Routinely/regularly.

For each question, BEP stories refer to bizarre, exaggerated and personalized stories as defined in the TPRS method.

As you may teach differently for your upper level classes, please answer the questions about how you teach your level one and two classes.

How often do you:

- 4a. Tell a fanciful/entertaining (bizarre, exaggerated, personalized - BEP) story to your students to introduce vocabulary or grammar?
- 4b. Tell a story, but it is not fanciful (BEP)?
- 4c. Tell an entertaining story that is only personalized, but not bizarre or exaggerated?
- 4d. Have students give input into a BEP story that you tell?
- 4e. Have students answer verbal questions about the BEP story you are telling?
- 4f. Have students answer written questions after telling a BEP story?
- 4g. Have students verbally translate a BEP story that was told in class?
- 4h. Have students translate a BEP story in writing that was told in class?
- 4i. Have students act out a BEP story that you have created in class?
- 4j. Have students read during class a BEP story or very similar story that you have told?
- 4k. Have students read at home a BEP story or very similar story that you have told?
- 4l. Have students retell a BEP story during class to a classmate?
- 4m. Have students retell a BEP story at home for an assignment?
- 4n. Have students retell in class a BEP story in a different perspective/point of view?
- 4o. Have students retell at home a BEP story in a different perspective/point of view?
- 4p. Have students rewrite in class a BEP story in a different perspective/point of view?
- 4q. Have students rewrite at home a BEP story in a different perspective/point of view?

- 4r. Have students write or tell a visual/drawn/picture/cartoon version of a story?
- 4s. Have student create their own BEP story?
- 4t. Have students identify specific grammar structures within a BEP story?

As you may teach differently for your upper level classes, please answer about how you teach your level one and two classes.

How often do you:

- 5a. Have students read stories or books that were written by other/past students?
- 5b. Have students read BEP stories that were written by you?
- 5c. Have students read scholastic or similar student magazines?
- 5d. Have students read authentic texts, such as magazines, newspapers or texts off the Internet?
- 5e. Have students read authentic children's literature books?
- 5f. Have students read passages in the target language from the textbook?
- 5g. Have students do free/voluntary reading in the target language?
- 5h. Read aloud to your students?
- 5i. Use readers written by TPRS experts?
- 5j. Use readers not written by TPRS experts?

How often do you:

- 6a. Use gestures (TPR) to introduce vocabulary?
- 6b. Use gestures (TPR) to practice or reinforce previously learned vocabulary?
- 6c. Verbally introduce vocabulary through personalized questions to and about the students?
- 6d. Verbally introduce vocabulary using manipulatives?
- 6e. Verbally introduce vocabulary using flash cards?
- 6f. Use children's songs or silly songs to reinforce vocabulary?
- 6g. Use authentic music to reinforce vocabulary?
- 6h. Use authentic TV clips or video clips to reinforce vocabulary?

How often do you:

- 7a. Provide a grammar explanation prior to any practice or activity, which demonstrates the grammar structure?
- 7b. Provide a grammar explanation after providing numerous readings and input which demonstrates the grammar structure?
- 7c. Use grammar manipulation worksheets to practice and reinforce a grammar structure?
- 7d. Use grammar manipulation activities from the textbook to practice and reinforce a grammar structure?
- 7e. Provide short (pop-up) grammar explanations?
- 7f. Provide grammar explanations in the target language?
- 7g. Provide grammar explanations in English?
- 7h. Have students return to a text to analyze the grammar?
- 7i. How often do you play games that are intended to reinforce grammar?

Appendix 6

Copy of Final Exams / Academic Assessments

German 1 Fall Final Exam

I. Hörverständnis

- A. For each of the clocks below, you will hear two options, A and B. Select for each clock, the expression which refers to the time shown
- B. Match the sentence you hear to the picture it describes.
- C. Match the numbers you hear to the numbers you see below. 11 through 15.
 a. 87 b. 78 c. 15 d. 80 e. 53 f. 30 g. 55
- D. Read the following questions. Listen to the story (you will hear it twice), and then answer each question based on what you hear.
16. Wie alt ist Melanie?
 a. 13 Jahre alt b. 14 Jahre alt c. 15 Jahre alt d. 16 Jahre alt
17. Wo wohnt sie?
 a. in Deutschland b. in Österreich c. in der Schweiz d. in den USA
18. Wie viele Geschwister hat sie?
 a. zwei b. drei c. vier d. fünf

II. Matching

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| 19. _____ Das Buch kostet fünfzehn Euro. | a. Ich gehe zu einem Rockkonzert. |
| 20. _____ Hast du viele Hausaufgaben? | b. Nicht weit von Frankfurt. |
| 21. _____ Wie viel Uhr ist es? | c. Das ist preiswert. |
| 22. _____ Was machst du heute Abend? | d. Er ist sechsunddreißig. |
| 23. _____ Kennst du Andreas? | e. Sehr interessant! |
| 24. _____ Wie alt ist dein Onkel Volker? | ab. Ja, in Deutsch und Mathe. |
| 25. _____ Wo ist die Stadt Mainz? | ac. Aus England. |
| 26. _____ Wie findest du Deutsch? | ad. Nein, nicht sehr gut. |
| 27. _____ Woher kommt die Rockgruppe? | ae. Es ist halb neun. |

III. Choose the correct verb form for each sentence: a. bin b. bist c. ist

28. Wie alt _____ du?
29. Wo _____ Rolf?
30. Das _____ mein Bruder, Gustav.
31. Ich _____ in Texas.

Choose the correct verb form for each sentence: a. komme b. kommst c. kommt

32. Woher _____ du?
33. Ich _____ aus Springfield.
34. Ein Pferd _____ um die Ecke!
35. Meine Großmutter _____ zu Besuch.

Choose the correct verb form for each sentence: a. habe b. hast c. hat

36. _____ du eine Katze?
37. Nein, ich _____ nur Goldfische.
38. Mein Onkel Timo _____ einen großen, bissigen Hund

IV. Which does not belong in the same category as the others?

- | | | | |
|------------------|----------------|---------------|---------------------|
| 39. a. drei | b. nein | c. zehn | d. vierzig |
| 40. a. Montag | b. Mittwoch | c. Sonnabend | d. Tafel |
| 41. a. Bleistift | b. Kuli | c. Hund | d. Lineal |
| 42. a. Tisch | b. Abend | c. Morgen | d. Nachmittag |
| 43. a. St. Louis | b. München | c. Hamburg | d. Berlin |
| 44. a. Tschüs! | b. Bis später! | c. Guten Tag! | d. Auf Wiedersehen! |
| 45. a. schlecht | b. gut | c. toll | d. prima |
| 46. a. viel | b. keine | c. nichts | |
| 47. a. England | b. die Schweiz | c. Österreich | d. Deutschland |

V. Fill in the best question word to complete each question:

- | | |
|--|-------------|
| 48. _____ heißt du? | a. wo |
| 49. _____ kostet das Heft? | b. wohin |
| 50. _____ beginnt die Party? Um 7 oder um 8? | c. woher |
| 51. _____ gehst du nach der Schule? Nach Hause? | d. wie viel |
| 52. _____ kommt der neue Schüler? Aus Tennessee? | e. wann |
| 53. _____ ist es von Kansas City nach St. Louis? | f. warum |
| 54. _____ ist der Deutschlehrer? Herr Wagner | g. wer |
| 55. _____ liegt Düsseldorf? Im Norden. | h. wie |
| 56. _____ gehst du zu Nathan? Ist er krank? | i. wie weit |

VI. Read the following stories and then answer the questions:

Gute Freunde

Annaliese geht in die Stadt. Michael, ein guter Freund, kommt um die Ecke. "Oh, guten Tag! Woher kommst du?" fragt Michael. Das Mädchen sagt: "Ich komme vom Park. Der Park ist nicht weit von hier. Michael, kommst du am Freitag zu meiner Party?" "Nein, ich kann nicht zu deiner Party kommen. Mein Cousin aus Berlin besucht* mich," antwortet Michael. Annaliese fragt: "Wie heißt dein Cousin?" Michael antwortet: "Er heißt Anton."

Annaliese sagt: "Bring doch Anton mit zur Party!" "Danke," sagt Michael. "Anton und ich kommen zu deiner Party!"

*besucht = is visiting

- | | | | | |
|---------------------------|--------------|------------------|------------------------|----------------------|
| 57. Wer hat eine Party? | a. Annaliese | b. Michael | c. Adolf | |
| 58. Wann ist die Party? | a. am Montag | b. am Sonnabend | c. am Freitag | d. am Samstag |
| 59. Wer kommt aus Berlin? | a. Annaliese | b. Anton | c. Michael | d. Annalieses Cousin |
| 60. Wo ist der Park? | a. in Berlin | b. weit von hier | c. nicht weit von hier | |

V. Lesestücke: Lesen Sie! Ist die richtige Antwort *ja* oder *nein*?

Eine Fußballmannschaft fliegt für ein Spiel nach Argentinien. Argentinien liegt in Südamerika und das ist sehr weit von Deutschland weg. Nach fünf Stunden ist es den Fußballspielern langweilig. Der Fußballtrainer schläft und Paul hat eine Idee. Er holt den Fußball aus seinem Rucksack. Alle beginnen mit dem Fußball zu trainieren. Der Ball fliegt über die Köpfe der Passagiere und manche machen mit. Der Ball trifft* die Schulter von der Stewardess. Sie sagt: "Oh! Das macht nichts!" Im Flugzeug* ist jetzt viel los. Zwischen zwei Sitzplätzen machen sie ein Tor. Rudi wirft Peter den Ball, aber der Ball trifft Peters Stirn. Peter fällt auf den Servierwagen. Das Abendessen für die Gäste fällt auf den Boden.* Der Trainer wacht auf und schreit: "Genug! Jetzt ist aber Schluss!* Ich schäme mich! Ihr habt eine so schlechte Ballkontrolle!" Die Gäste sind nicht glücklich, denn sie haben Hunger und jetzt gibt es bis Buenos Aires nichts zu essen. Die Stewardess schreit sie an: Seht mal, was ihr gemacht habt." Die Jugendlichen sagen: "Wir sind ein Team, wir machen Pizza zusammen. Das schaffen wir schnell! Gebt uns nur eine Chance!" Dann gehen sie in die Bordküche und machen Pizza für hundert Leute. Ende gut, alles gut!

*trifft – hits * Flugzeug – airplane *Boden – floor *Jetzt ist aber Schluss! – That's enough

- | | | |
|---|-------|---------|
| 57. Das Flugzeug fliegt nach Argentinien. | a. Ja | b. Nein |
| 58. Ein Hund springt über die Köpfe der Passagiere. | a. Ja | b. Nein |
| 59. Der Trainer und die Stewardess sind glücklich und machen mit. | a. Ja | b. Nein |
| 60. Die Stewardess ist böse auf die Mannschaft. | a. Ja | b. Nein |
| 61. Die Mannschaft hat gute Ballkontrolle. | a. Ja | b. Nein |
| 62. Das Abendessen fällt auf den Kopf von dem Trainer. | a. Ja | b. Nein |
| 63. Die Passagiere essen Pizza in Buenos Aires. | a. Ja | b. Nein |
| 64. Die Mannschaft kocht die Pizza in der Flugzeugtoilette. | a. Ja | b. Nein |
| 65. Ende gut, alles gut. | a. Ja | b. Nein |

Hänsel und Gretel wandern durch den Wald*. Sie gehen schon sieben Tage lang zu Fuß. Sie sind sehr müde, denn sie müssen ihr Zelt und das Essen tragen. Sie suchen einen Campingplatz, aber sie können keinen Campingplatz finden. Endlich sehen sie ein Haus. Sie klopfen* an die Tür und eine alte Frau macht auf. "Entschuldigen Sie!" sagt Gretel. "Dürfen wir unser Zelt in ihrem Garten aufbauen?" Hänsel hat aber Angst. "Nein, nein Gretel, gehen wir lieber zu einem Campingplatz," flüstert* Hänsel. "Sie sieht genauso aus wie eine Hexe.*" "Du hast Recht," sagt Gretel. "Liebe Frau, wissen Sie, wo es hier einen Campingplatz gibt?" Die alte Frau antwortet: "Natürlich! Geht immer geradeaus, über die Straße, und dann an der Ecke nach links! Der Campingplatz ist auf der rechten Seite." "Vielen Dank!" sagen Hänsel und Gretel.

Eine Stunde später sind sie wieder da. Sie sind im Kreis* gelaufen. Jetzt sind sie böse und klopfen laut an die Tür. Plötzlich* fällt ein Netz auf sie und sie hören die Hexe schrill lachen. Aber Hänsel hat sein Schweizer Campingmesser und schneidet ein Loch* in das Netz. Beide laufen weg so schnell sie können. Ende gut, alles gut!

*Wald – forest *klopfen – to knock *flüstert – whispers * Hexe – witch

*im Kreis – in a circle *plötzlich – suddenly * schneidet ein Loch – cuts a hole

66. Hänsel und Gretel sind _____.
- | | | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------|------------|---------------|
| a. auf einem Campingplatz | b. in der Schweiz | c. im Wald | d. in Hamburg |
|---------------------------|-------------------|------------|---------------|
67. Sie _____.
- | | | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------|------------|--------------|
| a. fahren mit dem Bus | b. gehen zu Fuß | c. fliegen | d. schwimmen |
|-----------------------|-----------------|------------|--------------|
68. Hänsel und Gretel wandern schon _____ lang.
- | | | | |
|---------------|----------------|-------------|--------------|
| a. eine Woche | b. einen Monat | c. ein Jahr | d. einen Tag |
|---------------|----------------|-------------|--------------|
69. Sie suchen _____.
- | | | | |
|-----------------------|-------------|------------------|-------------|
| a. einen Campingplatz | b. ein Haus | c. einen Bahnhof | d. ein Zelt |
|-----------------------|-------------|------------------|-------------|
70. Eine Hexe ist _____.
- | | |
|------------------------|--------------------------------|
| a. sehr nett | b. jung und attraktiv |
| c. eine böse alte Frau | d. ein Schaf in Wolfs Kleidung |

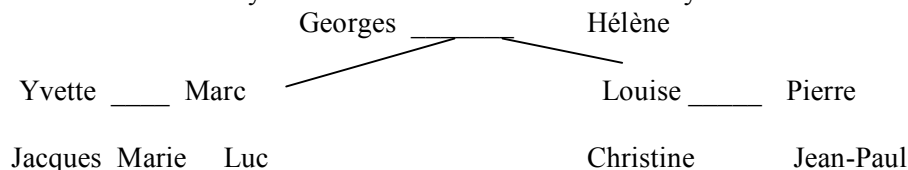
French 1 Fall Final Exam

I. Listening:

A. Choose the picture that matches the sentences that the teacher reads.

- A. Man with glasses B. old man and small child C. a man gives a lady a box of chocolates
 D. A young man gives a young lady a box and a balloon E. A fish jumps out of a fish bowl.

B. Look at the family tree and determine if the sentences you hear are true or false.



II. Vocabulaire:

A. Choose the correct picture for each word below.

- | | | | |
|------------------|-------------|----------------------|-----------------|
| a. sit down | b. stand up | c. smiling | d. eyes looking |
| e. raising hand | ab. chair | ac. book | ad. walking dog |
| ae. writing | bc. roof | bd. erasing | be. door |
| cd. running late | ce. ground | de. going in circles | |

- | | |
|--------------|-----------------|
| 11. se lève | 19. la chaise |
| 12. s'assied | 20. le livre |
| 13. marche | 21. le plancher |
| 14. tourne | 22. le plafond |
| 15. ouvre | 23. les yeux |
| 16. ferme | 24. la bouche |
| 17. écrit | 25. efface |
| 18. la main | |

B. Match the English word to its corresponding word in French.

- | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|
| 26. nous parlons | a. he comes from |
| 27. j' habite | b. we give |
| 28. il vient de | c. we chase |
| 29. elle tombe amoureuse | d. they wear |
| 30. je vois | e. I go for a walk |
| 31. ils portent | ab. we listen |
| 32. nous chassons | ac. I see |
| 33. elles donnent | ad. she falls in love |
| 34. elle cherche | ae. I live |
| 35. je me promène | bc. we speak |
| | bd. they give |
| | be. she looks for |

C. Choose the word that does not belong.

- | | | | |
|-----------------|-------------|---------------|--------------|
| 36. a. le chat | b. le chien | c. l'éléphant | d. le cousin |
| 37. a. soixante | b. comment | c. cinquante | d. trente |
| 38. a. l'oncle | b. le père | c. la classe | d. la tante |
| 39. a. le stylo | b. le livre | c. la copine | d. la gomme |
| 40. a. noir | b. patient | c. gris | d. vert |

D. Match the opposites.

- | | |
|-------------------|---------------|
| 41. aujourd'hui | a. grand |
| 42. triste | b. attrape |
| 43. sympathique | c. content |
| 44. vieux/vieille | d. soeur |
| 45. petit | e. pauvre |
| 46. frère | ab. Méchant |
| 47. beau | ac. demain |
| 48. doucement | ad. jeune |
| 49. riche | ae. Gauche |
| 50. jette | bc. laid |
| | bd. très fort |

E. Vrai ou Faux? Are the following statements Vrai (A) ou Faux (B)?

51. La sœur de ma mère est mon oncle.
52. Mon père est le fils (son) de mon grand-père.
53. Mon frère est un enfant de mes parents.
54. Ma tante est la fille (daughter) de ma mère.
55. Les enfants de mon oncle sont mes cousins.
56. Le père de mon cousin est mon grand-père

F. Match the associated words.

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| 57. un crayon | A. content |
| 58. la porte | B. écrit |
| 59. pourquoi | C. amoureux |
| 60. la chaise | D. le professeur |
| 61. l'élève | E. parce que |
| 62. sourit | AB. Ouvre |
| 63. un baiser | AC. s'assied |

G. Mark "A" if the statement is logical or "B" if it's illogical.

64. Le chien chasse le chat dans l'avenue.
65. Nous effaçons le tableau avec les dents.
66. Elle est très vieille. Elle a dix-neuf ans.
67. Je touche les yeux avec les oreilles.
68. Mon chien promène mes poissons.
69. Mes parents ont deux enfants, moi et mon frère.

H. Choose the best answer to complete each sentence.

70. La fille marche _____. a. ouvre b. saute c. une étoile d. rapidement
71. Le garçon _____ avec le crayon. a. jambe b. table c. écrit d. petit
72. Le garçon _____ la tête. a. sac à dos b. touche c. stylo d. carré
73. Answer the following question: ¿Comment ça va?
a. Bien, merci. b. Je m'appelle Amy. c. Blonde. d. À bientôt.
74. La mère de ma mère est ma _____.
a. tante b. cousine c. grand-mère d. soeur
75. Je dessine sur _____.
a. le nez b. le tableau noir c. le drapeau d. le plafond

76. Mes cheveux sont _____.
 a. livres b. sympa c. poissons d. roux
77. Mon chien ouvre _____ et attrape le chat.
 a. le nez b. la bouche c. l'oreille d. le genou
78. J'écris sur le papier avec _____.
 a. la table b. la gomme c. le crayon d. la chaise
79. La fille entre dans la classe à huit heures du matin et dit _____.
 a. bonjour b. bonsoir c. au revoir d. à bientôt

III. Reading:

A. Read the following paragraph. Then answer the questions that follow.

Le garçon entre dans la classe. Le garçon est grand et sympathique. Dans la classe, il y a un tableau noir et beaucoup de chaises. Il y a une porte qui a une petite fenêtre. Il y a des dictionnaires, des livres, et un ordinateur. Il y a un professeur devant la classe. Le garçon s'assied sur une chaise et écrit son nom sur une feuille de papier.

80. Qui entre dans la classe?
 a. a boy b. nice c. a girl d. a chalkboard
81. Qu'est-ce qu'il n'y a pas dans la classe?
 a. a computer b. a door c. a turtle d. Books
82. Où est-ce que le garçon s'assied?
 a. on the floor b. on the ceiling c. in a chair d. on a table
83. Où est-ce que le garçon écrit?
 a. paper b. the chalkboard c. the floor d. the table
84. Où est la fenêtre?
 a. on the wall b. in the door c. it's small d. near the chairs
85. Comment est le garçon?
 a. short b. handsome c. tall d. at school
86. Qu'est-ce qu'il écrit?
 a. his name b. in the book c. on paper d. on a chair
87. Qui est dans la classe?
 a. dictionaries b. a computer c. books d. a teacher

B. Read the following story and respond to the questions.

Catherine est dans la maison (house) avec sa mère, son frère, et beaucoup d'animaux domestiques. Catherine a treize ans, et son frère a huit ans.

Le chat de Catherine, qui s'appelle Beau, crie, "Miao!" Catherine se lève rapidement de sa chaise et dit, "Où est mon pauvre chat?" Elle regarde sous le sofa, mais le chat n'est pas là. Le chien est sous le sofa. Elle regarde derrière la porte, mais le chat n'est pas là. La tortue est derrière la porte. Elle regarde sur le piano, mais le chat n'est pas là. Il y a des photos de la famille, des livres, et l'oiseau, mais le chat n'est pas là. Catherine est triste parce qu'elle ne trouve pas son chat.

Catherine crie, "Maman! Vois-tu mon chat? Est-il dans la maison?"

Sa mère lui dit, "Oui, il est près de la fenêtre."

Elle marche vers la fenêtre et voit le chat. Beau a un poisson dans la bouche. Le frère de Catherine entre et aussi voit le chat avec le poisson. Il crie, "Non, chat bête! Ne mange pas mon poisson!" Mais Beau mange le poisson. Le frère de Catherine court vers le chat et lui frappe. Catherine frappe son frère, et il pleure. Le chat sort rapidement.

La mère arrive et demande, "Qu'est-ce qu'il y a? Pourquoi est-ce que ton frère pleure, Catherine?"

Catherine ne parle pas, mais son frère dit, "Catherine me frappe, et mon pauvre petit poisson est mangé par son chat méchant."

La mère dit à Catherine, "Catherine! Ne sois (be) pas méchante! Ton frère est plus jeune que toi. Et où est ce chat mauvais (bad)?"

"Regarde!" crie le frère. "Le chat a l'oiseau dans la bouche!"

Mark A if the statement is true, B if the statement is false.

88. Catherine is at home.
89. Catherine has 13 pets.
90. Catherine is looking for her cat.
91. Catherine finds the dog on top of the sofa.
92. The turtle is behind the door.
93. Her brother's name is Beau.
94. The cat is not in the house.
95. Catherine's brother hits her and she cries.
96. The cat eats a fish.
97. Catherine's brother is younger than she is.
98. The cat has the rabbit in its mouth.

French 2 Fall Final Exam

Teacher script for listening activities:

- A.
 - 1. Le grand-père est agé.
 - 2. Mon oncle porte des lunettes.
 - 3. Ton poisson sort (saute) du bol.
 - 4. Il tombe amoureux.
 - 5. Sa copine lui offre un cadeau d'anniversaire.
- B.
 - 6. Louise est la sœur de Marc.
 - 7. Pierre est l'oncle de Christine.
 - 8. Hélène est la mère de Luc.
 - 9. Marie est la cousine de Jean-Paul.
 - 10. Jacques est le bébé de la famille.
- C.
 - 1. Le chien chasse le lapin.
 - 2. C'est mon anniversaire et j'ai cinquante ans.
 - 3. Le méchant garçon trouve un chat.
 - 4. Elle donne un baiser à sa grand-mère .
 - 5. L'oiseau dit, "Bonsoir".

I. ÉCOUTEZ: Écoutez la question et choisissez la réponse logique.

- 1.
 - A. Oui, j'adore les comédies.
 - B. Oui, c'est un bon film.
 - C. Oui, deux ou trois fois par semaine.
- 2.
 - A. Non, il est bon marché.
 - B. Oui, il est moche.
 - C. Non, il est trop serré.
- 3.
 - A. Cette bague.
 - B. Ce foulard.
 - C. Cette casquette.
- 4.
 - A. Oui, j'aime aller au ciné.
 - B. Oui, les acteurs ont très bien joué.
 - C. Oui, j'aime les films d'aventures.
- 5.
 - A. Je suis grand.
 - B. Je fais du 40.
 - C. Je m'habille.
- 6.
 - A. Oui, ses chansons sont excellentes.
 - B. Oui, elle joue très bien.
 - C. Oui, c'est un bon groupe..
- 7.
 - A. Oui, c'est à la mode.
 - B. Non, je n'aime pas les fleurs.
 - C. Oui, elle est trop courte.
- 8.
 - A. Oui, elle est en argent.
 - B. Non, elle est en or.
 - C. Oui, mon portefeuille est dans ma poche.
- 9.
 - A. Non, il est en solde.
 - B. Non, il est neuf et tu ne peux pas l'emprunter.
 - C. Oui, il est très sale.
- 10.
 - A. Au stade Roland Garros.
 - B. Au théâtre de la Huchette.
 - C. Au Musée d'Orsay.

II. LE VOCABULAIRE :

A. Trouvez la réponse logique.

11. Claire va mettre ___ parce qu'il fait très froid.
 A. un manteau B. des sandales C. un maillot de bain
12. Je préfère les bijoux _____. A. en or B. à pois C. à carreaux
13. Ce chemisier est ___ et bon marché
 A. très cher B. démodée C. en solde
14. François veut inviter Valérie à un concert. Il lui demande:
 A. <<Tu as acheté les billets?>>
 B. <<Tu veux m'inviter?>>
 C. <<Tu es libre samedi soir?>>
15. Paul est allé au théâtre. Après, sa sœur lui demande:
 A. <<Tu as aimé la pièce de théâtre?>>
 B. <<Quel genre de film est-ce?>>
 C. <<Quelles équipes ont joué?>>
16. Renée veut savoir le prix des billets. Elle demande:
 A. <<Tu es occupé demain?>>
 B. <<Combien coûtent les places?>>
 C. <<Quel orchestre va jouer?>>
17. Éric et Pauline sont au Musée du Louvre. Il lui demande:
 A. <<Quelle est ta chanson favorite?>>
 B. <<Tu aimes ces dessins animés?>>
 C. <<Comment trouves-tu cette exposition?>>
18. Il pleut alors je vais mettre _____.
 A. mon imper B. ma ceinture C. mes lunettes de soleil
19. Si tu as froid aux mains, mets _____.
 A. un bracelet B. des gants C. un foulard
20. Marc veut écouter un CD, mais il ne peut pas. Il demande à Lucie:
 A. «Tu connais ce CD?»
 B. «Comment s'appelle ta chanteuse favorite?»
 C. «Est-ce que je peux emprunter ton lecteur?»

B. Trouvez le contraire.

21. à la mode A. bon marché
 22. cher B. démodé
 23. courte C. gros
 24. d'occasion D. joli
 25. large E. longue
 26. mince AB. neuf
 27. moche AC. propre
 28. sale AD. serré

C. L'intrus: Trouvez le mot qui ne va pas avec les autres.

29. A. baskets B. sandales C. chaussettes D. bottes
 30. A. énorme B. clair C. foncé D. uni
 31. A. collier B. chapeau C. montre D. chaîne
 32. A. émission B. télécommande C. nouvelles D. chanson
 33. A. exposition B. tableau C. musée D. rayures
 34. A. bas B. pièce de théâtre C. premier rang D. actrice

D. L'assortiment: Trouvez la définition.

- | | |
|--------------------------|---|
| 35. un billet | A. ABC, NBC, CBS |
| 36. une émission | B. une section d'un grand magasin |
| 37. une étiquette | C. un magasin avec beaucoup de rayons |
| 38. un centre commercial | D. le papier où se trouve le prix d'un vêtement |
| 39. une chaîne | E. le Mona Lisa |
| 40. heureux | AB. pour changer la chaîne |
| 41. foncé | AC. un groupe de magasins |
| 42. le genre | AD. la femme qui travaille au magasin |
| 43. le guichet | AE. le contraire de clair |
| 44. le rayon | BC. on l'achète pour entrer au cinéma. |
| 45. la séance | BD. où on achète des billets |
| 46. le grand magasin | BE. content |
| 47. le tableau | CD. un programme à la télé |
| 48. la télécommande | CE. la sorte, le type |
| 49. la vendeuse | DE. les heures des films |

III. La culture: A = Vrai (True) B = Faux (False)

50. Le couturier dessine des vêtements démodés.
51. On peut faire des achats au grand magasin.
52. Coco Chanel, Yves Saint-Laurent, et Tommy Hilfiger sont des couturiers français.
53. Juliette Binoche est une actrice célèbre en France.
54. En France, le César est l'équivalent de l'Oscar américain.
55. Pour la majorité des Français, les concerts sont les spectacles favoris.
56. Les magasins et les centres commerciaux sont ouverts le dimanche en France.
57. Les Galeries Lafayette, Monoprix, et Printemps sont de grands magasins français.
58. Pariscope est une magazine qui donne toutes les spectacles en France pendant une semaine.
59. Les émissions françaises les plus populaires sont les séries télé-réalité.

IV. La lecture:

La Chanson en France

Comme les jeunes Américains, les jeunes Français sont passionnés par la musique. Chaque année, ils achètent des millions de CD et de cassettes, et ils vont au concert pour écouter leurs groupes favoris.

Le rock reste la musique préférée des jeunes de 15 à 19 ans. Les chansons françaises et étrangères s'appellent <<les tubes>>. La chanson française d'aujourd'hui a une inspiration traditionnelle et internationale. Par exemple, le rock et le rap, chanté en français, viennent des États-Unis. Le zouk, chanté en créole, exprime la joie, l'humour, et la fierté des Martiniquais. Le raï, chanté en français et en arabe, traduit la mélancolie, la joie, et l'espoir de la jeunesse algérienne immigrée. Le groupe célèbre, Mano Negra, chante en arabe, en espagnol, en français, et en anglais. La chanson française est devenue très multiculturelle juste comme la France.

60. Aujourd'hui, la chanson en France est _____.
A. multiculturelle B. nationale C. politique
61. Les jeunes Français préfèrent écouter _____.
A. du jazz B. du rock C. de la musique classique
62. <<Le tube>> est _____.
A. un instrument de musique B. un style de musique C. une chanson très populaire
63. Le zouk vient de _____.
A. l'Algérie B. la Martinique C. la France
64. Le groupe Mano Negra montre _____ de la chanson française.
A. la diversité B. la musique traditionnelle C. le jazz

La nouvelle veste de Monsieur Belhomme

Monsieur Belhomme est un homme très élégant. Aujourd'hui, il entre dans une boutique pour acheter une nouvelle veste. Un vendeur sympathique vient vers lui.

-Vous désirez, monsieur?

-Je cherche une nouvelle veste.

-Vous avez de la chance. Nous avons une nouvelle collection avec un très grand choix de vestes.

Le vendeur lui montre quelques vestes dans sa taille. M. Belhomme essaie la veste bleue mais elle est un peu trop grande. Puis, il essaie celle-ci en beige. Il aime le style, mais il déteste la couleur. Et il pense que celle en marron est un peu trop classique pour lui. Après, il voit une autre veste mais elle coûte 300 euros. C'est un peu trop cher pour lui. Puis, M. Belhomme essaie la veste en solde, mais elle ne lui va pas. Le vendeur voit qu'il y a d'autres clients qui entrent dans la boutique, et il va les aider.

M. Belhomme continue d'essayer toutes les vestes de la boutique. Après 45 minutes, il appelle le vendeur.

-J'ai essayé toutes vos vestes. Eh bien, enfin, j'ai trouvé celle que je veux. C'est celle qui est sur le cintre* là-bas. (*cintre = hanger) Elle me va parfaitement.

-Hélas, monsieur, je regrette, mais c'est la seule veste que je ne peux pas vous vendre.

-Pourquoi pas?

-Parce que c'est celle du patron*! (*patron = boss)

Trouvez le problème avec chaque veste:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--|
| 65. la veste bleue | A. Elle est trop classique. |
| 66. la veste en solde | B. Elle n'est pas à vendre. |
| 67. la veste à 300 euros. | C. Elle ne va pas à M. Belhomme. |
| 68. la veste sur le cintre. | D. Elle est un peu trop grande. |
| 69. la veste marron | E. La couleur ne plait pas à M. Belhomme |
| 70. la veste beige | AB. Elle est trop chère. |

Spanish 1 Fall Final Exam

I. Listening. A. Match the pictures with the phrases you hear. (Numbers 1-5)

- | | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------------|
| a. girl with birthday cake | b. small house | c. boy in school with book |
| d. calendar page, 23 | e. man and woman on cell phones | ab. angry man |
| ac. man and woman in love | ad. man at movies | ae. old man |
| | | bc. man in bed |

B. Decide if the picture depicts what you hear. Mark A for true and B for false on the answer sheet. (Numbers 6-10)

6. boy with stack of pancakes
7. monkey in a house
8. waiter bringing hamburger and soda
9. birthday cake
10. woman shopping

II. Vocabulary. Choose the correct picture for each Spanish word.

- | | | | |
|--------------------|-----------------|-------------|------------------------|
| a. sitting down | b. standing up | c. smiling | d. looking |
| ab. raising a hand | ac. desk chair | ad. book | ae. walking a dog |
| cd. open door | ce. closed door | de. walking | abc. going in a circle |

- | | |
|----------------|--------------|
| 11. se levanta | 19. la silla |
| 12. se sienta | 20. el libro |
| 13. camina | 21. el piso |
| 14. da vuelta | 22. el techo |
| 15. abre | 23. los ojos |
| 16. cierra | 24. la boca |
| 17. escribe | 25. borra |
| 18. la mano | |

B. Choose the best answer to complete each sentence and put the appropriate letter on your answer sheet.

26. La chica camina _____. a. abre b. salta c. una estrella d. rápido
27. El chico ___ con el lápiz. a. cuello b. mesa c. escribe d. me va
28. El chico _____ la cabeza. a. salta b. toca c. pone d. en voz alta
29. Answer the following question: ¿Cómo estás?
a. estoy bien. b. me llamo Amy c. alto y moreno d. se llama Amy
30. La profesora dice, <<___ la boca>>. a. grita b. regresa c. levanta d. abre
31. Yo dibujo en _____. a. el marcador b. la tabla blanca c. el borrado d. el techo
32. Mi casa es pequeña y es ___. a. libro b. grand c. gato d. blanca
33. Mi perro Snoopy abre _____ y come la pizza.
a. la nariz b. la boca c. la oreja d. el pelo
34. Yo escribo en el papel con _____. a. la mesa b. el borrador c. la puerta d. el lápiz
35. Las chicas entran en la clase y dicen _____.
a. buenas tardes b. hasta mañana c. hasta luego d. Chau

C. Choose the word that does not belong:

- | | | | |
|-----------------|-----------|--------------|--------------|
| 36. a. gato | b. perro | c. elefante | d. blanco |
| 37. a. azul | b. verde | c. grande | d. rojo |
| 38. a. marcador | b. lápiz | c. el cine | d. bolígrafo |
| 39. a. moreno | b. camino | c. pelirrojo | d. Rubio |
| 40. a. óvalo | b. nariz | c. triángulo | d. Estrella |
| 41. a. sesenta | b. hijo | c. ochenta | d. Cien |

42. a. hermano b. abuelo c. pez d. Tío
 43. a. contento b. triste c. grande d. Enfermo
 44. a. casa b. película c. restaurante d. cine

C. Choose the correct picture for each Spanish word.

- a. sad/crying b. smiling c. happy d. table with flowers
 ab. singing ac. in love ad. dancing ae. sitting under a tree bc. laughing

45. Se ríe 48. está contento 51. la boca
 46. canta 49. encima de 52. está triste.
 47. el beso 50. baila 53. debajo de

D. Match the English word to its corresponding word in Spanish:

- | | |
|----------------|-----------------------|
| 54. quién | a. rabbit |
| 55. dónde | b. horse |
| 56. caballo | c. how |
| 57. se enamora | d. h/s makes, does |
| 58. va | e. where |
| 59. hace | ab. cousin |
| 60. cómo | ac. h/s has |
| 61. conejo | ad. h/s falls in love |
| 62. primo | ae. who |
| 63. vuelve | bc. h/s returns |
| 64. le da | bd. why |
| 65. come | be. cat |
| 66. vive | cd. h/s eats |
| 67. tiene | ce. first |
| | de. h/s gives |
| | abc. h/s lives |
| | abd. h/s goes |

E. Match the opposites:

- | | |
|----------------|--------------|
| 68. la mañana | a. se sienta |
| 69. triste | b. corre |
| 70. viejo | c. llora |
| 71. feo | d. abre |
| 72. bajo | e. noche |
| 73. gordo | ab. joven |
| 74. se ríe | ac. Delgado |
| 75. se levanta | ad. alto |
| 76. cierra | ae. bonito |
| 77. camina | bc. contento |

III. Reading:

A. Read the following paragraph. Then answer the questions that follow.

El chico entra en la clase. En la clase hay la tabla blanca grande y muchas sillas. Hay una puerta que tiene una ventana pequeña. Hay diccionarios, libros y una computadora. El chico se sienta en una silla y escribe su nombre en un papel.

78. ¿Quién entra en la clase? a. a male teacher b. a boy c. a girl d. a female teacher
 79. NO hay ___ en la clase. a. a computer b. a door c. a flag d. some books
 80. ¿Dónde se sienta el chico? a. on the floor b. on the ceiling c. in a chair d. on a table
 81. El chico escribe en _____. a. paper b. the white board c. the chalkboard d. the table
 82. ¿Dónde está la ventana en la clase?
 a. in the wall b. in the door c. on the table d. on the floor
 83. ¿Dónde está el chico? a. at home b. at the store c. in the principal's office d. at school
 84. ¿Qué escribe el chico? a. his name b. in the book c. on his paper d. the date
 85. ¿Quién está en la clase? a. dictionaries b. a computer c. books d. a teacher

B. Read the following story and respond to the questions on your answer sheet.

busca = looks for, encuentra = finds

Catalina está en su casa con la familia. Ella se levanta y dice, «Necesito mi libro de español. ¿Dónde está?» Ella busca y busca el libro. Ella se sienta en una silla y busca el libro. Se sienta en el piso y busca el libro.

Catalina grita, «¡Mamá! No encuentro mi libro de español, ¿dónde está?» Su madre le dice: «Busca cerca de la ventana.» Ella anda a la ventana y busca el libro, pero no lo encuentra. Ella no está contenta y ella empieza a llorar. Ella le grita otra vez a su madre, « ¡Mamá! Mi libro no está cerca de la ventana!» La madre le dice: « Mira en la mesa.» Catalina anda a la mesa y encuentra su libro. Ella dice, « ¡Bueno!» Ella saca el libro y le grita a su madre, «¡Gracias, mamá! y « ¡Hasta luego!» Catalina abre la puerta y va a la escuela.

¿Cierto (A) o Falso (B)?

- 86) Catalina is at home.
 87) Catalina has 13 pets.
 88) Catalina is looking for her cat.
 89) Catalina finds the dog on top of the sofa.
 90) The turtle is behind the door.
 91) Her brother's name is Pancho.
 92) The cat is not in the house.
 93) Catalina's brother hits her and she cries.
 94) The cat eats a fish.
 95) Catalina's brother is younger than she is.
 96) The cat has the rabbit in its mouth.

Spanish 2 Fall Semester Final Exam

El Mapa. Look at the map and read the statements that follow. Determine if the statements are

A= Cierto or B= Falso.

1. Roberto está en el hospital y quiere ir al museo. Roberto siga adelante.
2. Roberto está en la iglesia y quiere comer una tortilla entonces Roberto cruza la calle.
3. Roberto pasa por en el parque y luego camina muy lejos al colegio.
4. El correo está muy cerca del museo.
5. La iglesia queda entre el restaurante y la tienda.
6. El hotel está al lado de la tienda.
7. Para ir de la tienda al hotel, cruza la Calle Cervantes.
8. La iglesia queda a la derecha del colegio.
9. Roberto está en la esquina de la Calle Ávila y la Calle Galdós porque quiere mandar una tarjeta postal.

Read and then answer #10:

Roberto sale del hotel y sigue derecho por la calle Ávila. Compra estampillas en el correo y entonces va al hospital y luego pasa por el museo. También come en el restaurante y se sienta en el parque. Vuelve al hotel a medianoche.

10. ¿Cierto o Falso? Roberto camina por todas partes.

Read the following story and answer the questions that follow:

Parte 1: Un viaje a Puerto Rico

<<¡Qué suerte!>> grita Elena. <<Sí, ¡Qué increíble! Tienes mucha suerte hoy>> grita Yolanda. Elena gana 3.000 dólares en La Lotería y ella va a recibir el dinero mañana. Yolanda le pregunta <<¿Qué vas a hacer con el dinero?>> Elena le responde <<No sé. Quiero comprar un carro nuevo, pero el dinero no es suficiente. ¿Tienes una idea?>> Yolanda responde <<Sí. Podemos tomar un viaje. No viajamos mucho y puede ser divertido. ¿Qué piensas?>> Elena le dice <<¡Buena idea! Vamos a hacer un viaje.>>

Yolanda va con Elena para recoger el dinero. Entonces las chicas van a la casa de Yolanda y buscan información sobre lugares turísticos que son baratos e interesantes. Elena piensa viajar a Puerto Rico durante las vacaciones de diciembre. Elena piensa que Puerto Rico tiene jóvenes guapos, playas bonitas, y restaurantes fantásticos. También hay un concierto de Ricky Martín en la misma semana del viaje de las chicas. Yolanda le dice <<Si vamos a ir a Puerto Rico, necesitamos ir de compras. No tengo ropa para el viaje.>>

Así que las chicas van de compras en el centro comercial. Yolanda le dice a Elena <<Necesito ropa para el invierno. Necesito comprar los guantes, una bufanda, y un abrigo. Puerto Rico hace frío en diciembre.>> Elena se ríe y le dice <<Necesitas ropa del verano. Puerto Rico hace buen tiempo todo el año.>> Las chicas compran trajes de baño, sandalias, algunas minifaldas, y camisetas. Entonces compran bolsas nuevas y pequeñas y maquillaje nuevo. La ropa de las dos chicas cuesta más de novecientos dólares. ¡Qué caro! Elena le dice a Yolanda <<Ahora tengo suficiente ropa. Debemos comprar los pasajes de ida y vuelta.>> Las chicas van a la tienda de viajes y compran los pasajes por seiscientos dólares en total. Las chicas regresan a la casa y hacen sus maletas. Están listas para viajar a Puerto Rico.

11. ¿Por qué quiere Elena visitar a Puerto Rico?
 - a. porque tiene mucho dinero
 - b. porque quiere ir a la playa o un concierto
 - c. porque quiere ir de compras
 - d. porque no visita mucho a Puerto Rico
12. ¿Cuándo van las chicas a Puerto Rico?
 - a. durante el invierno
 - b. porque Elena gana La Lotería
 - c. hay un concierto de Ricky Martin
 - d. las chicas bailan en la discoteca
13. ¿Cuánto cuesta la ropa de las chicas en el centro comercial?
 - a. mil dólares
 - b. setecientos dólares
 - c. ochocientos dólares
 - d. seiscientos dólares

14. ¿Por qué las chicas van de compras antes de viajar a Puerto Rico?
- necesitan más ropa para el viaje
 - quieren ir a edificios antiguos
 - porque Elena gana La Lotería
 - porque quieren conocer a Ricky Martín

Parte 2: Un Viaje a Puerto Rico

Cuando las chicas llegan en Puerto Rico bajan el avión y toman un taxi a su hotel. De su cuarto las chicas ven el mar, la playa, y muchos edificios viejos. Elena dice <<Quiero ir a la playa.>> Antes de ir, las chicas se ponen los trajes de baño y las sandalias. También llevan sus cámaras, un paraguas grande y sus toallas a la playa. Después de llegar a la playa Yolanda nada en el mar y Elena saca fotos del mar y de otras personas. De repente un vólibol pega a Elena en la cabeza. Ella da vuelta y un hombre guapo y joven le dice <<Lo siento. Tengo mala suerte con el vólibol. ¿Quieres ir a mi concierto y después ir a una discoteca?>> Elena se da cuenta que el hombre es Ricky Martín y le dice <<¡Qué fantástico!>> y corre hacia Yolanda y le dice las noticias buenas. Yolanda le dice <<Tenemos que ir de compras otra vez>>. Elena tiene ganas de ir de compras también.

Elena y Yolanda van de compras otra vez y compran vestidos elegantes, tacones, y perfume. Las chicas se divierten mucho durante el concierto porque a ellas les gusta la música de Ricky Martín. Después del concierto las chicas van a la discoteca y Ricky llega tarde. Elena baila con Ricky y piensa <<¡Qué asco!>> porque Ricky no se afeita y no huele bien. Elena le pregunta <<¿Te bañas hoy?>> Ricky responde <<No. Me baño tres veces por semana y nunca me cepillo los dientes. A veces me ducho con jabón y me lavo el pelo con Head & Shoulders. Soy superfamoso y no tengo que hacer estas cosas.>> Elena se aleja de él y sale de la discoteca con Yolanda. El próximo día van a lugares culturales y se le olvidan de Ricky Martín.

15. ¿Qué hacen las chicas después de llegar en la playa?
- Yolanda saca fotos y Elena juega vólibol
 - Elena saca fotos y Yolanda habla con Ricky
 - Elena saca fotos y Yolanda nada
 - Yolanda nada y Elena canta con Ricky
16. ¿Dónde conoce Ricky Martín a Elena?
- en el aeropuerto
 - en la ducha
 - en la playa
 - en el concierto
17. ¿Cómo conoce Ricky Martín a Elena?
- un vólibol le pega a Elena
 - Ricky canta una canción famosa
 - Ricky compra su ropa
 - Elena va al concierto de Ricky
18. ¿Se cuida Ricky Martín bien?
- Sí, porque es un hombre guapo
 - Sí, porque es un hombre famoso
 - No, porque no se baña mucho
 - No porque siempre se afeita

Choose the vocabulary word which DOES NOT belong:

- | | | | |
|--------------------|--------------------|--------------|----------------------|
| 19. a. almuerzas | b. cenas | c. atas | d. desayunas |
| 20. a. la garganta | b. las chanclas | c. la frente | d. la rodilla |
| 21. a. el abuelo | b. la cita | c. el primo | d. la tía |
| 22. a. los tacones | b. los zapatos | c. las botas | d. el cinturón |
| 23. a. me desperto | b. me ducho | c. me lavo | d. me baño |
| 24. a. el museo | b. el metro | c. el avión | d. el tren |
| 25. a. la carta | b. las estampillas | c. el pasaje | d. la tarjeta postal |
| 26. a. el vuelo | b. el pasaje | c. el avión | d. la discoteca |
| 27. a. se quita | b. se pone la ropa | c. se viste | d. lleva |
| 28. a. el país | b. la capital | c. la ciudad | d. los celos |

Match the following words with the related body part.

- | | |
|--------------------|--------------|
| 29. el jabón | a. el cuello |
| 30. el maquillaje | b. el cuerpo |
| 31. el gorro | c. la cabeza |
| 32. los calcetines | d. la cara |
| 33. la bufanda | e. los pies |

Match the correct statement in Spanish to the statement in English.

- | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 34. Doble Ud. a la derecha | a. Cross the street. |
| 35. Doble Ud. A la izquierda | b. Walk. |
| 36. Cruce Ud. la calle | c. Continue straight |
| 37. Siga Ud. derecho. | d. Turn to the right. |
| 38. Camine Ud. | e. Turn around. |
| | ab. Go past the street. |
| | ac. Turn to the left. |

Match the correct statement in Spanish to the statement in English:

- | | |
|----------------------|------------------------|
| 39. Se acercan. | a. He is in a hurry. |
| 40. Huele. | b. He has the desire. |
| 41. Tiene vergüenza. | c. She smells. |
| 42. Se asusta. | d. It flies. |
| 43. Vuela. | e. She gets scared |
| 44. Tiene celos. | ab. She is jealous. |
| 45. Tiene prisa. | ac. He is embarrassed. |
| 46. Tiene éxito. | ad. They get close. |
| 47. Se le olvida. | ae. He is successful. |
| 48. Tiene ganas. | bc. He forgets. |

Match the correct statement in Spanish to the statement in English.

- | | |
|----------------------|------------------------------------|
| 49. Almuerza. | a. He shaves |
| 50. Se afeita. | b. She gets dressed. |
| 51. Esta emocionada. | c. He didn't pay attention to her. |
| 52. Se acuesta. | d. He eats lunch. |
| 53. Se maquilla. | e. He eats breakfast. |
| 54. Se despierta. | ab. He goes to bed. |
| 55. Se viste. | ac. He cares for himself. |
| 56. No le hice caso. | ad. She puts on makeup |
| 57. Se cuida. | ae. She is excited. |
| 58. Desayuna. | bc. She wakes up |

Choose the vocabulary word which best completes the sentences:

59. Después de lavarme la cara, me la _____.
- | | | | |
|--------|---------|-----------|---------|
| a. uso | b. baño | c. acerco | d. seco |
|--------|---------|-----------|---------|
60. Cuando Alicia tiene un problema, sus amigas le dan _____.
- | | | | |
|-------------|--------------|----------|------------|
| a. consejos | b. películas | c. veces | d. tijeras |
|-------------|--------------|----------|------------|
61. Los chicos _____ para no apestar.
- | | | | |
|--------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|
| a. se visten | b. se duchan | c. se afeitan | d. se quejan |
|--------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|
62. Mis amigos y yo nos divertimos mucho...por eso _____.
- | | |
|--------------------|----------------------|
| a. nos quejamos | b. tenemos vergüenza |
| c. sonreímos mucho | d. gritamos |
63. Mi hermano siempre _____ en el espejo.
- | | | | |
|------------|-------------|--------------|-----------------|
| a. se mira | b. se aleja | c. se acerca | d. se da cuenta |
|------------|-------------|--------------|-----------------|

64. José nunca tiene éxito. Tiene mala _____.
- a. tobillos b. espalda c. espejo d. suerte
65. Mi perro siempre me sigue _____.
- a. nunca b. mañana c. el jabón d. por todas partes
66. Mi padre se cepilla _____.
- a. los dientes b. el espejo c. el maquillaje d. vergüenza
67. Los niños no están contentos. _____ se divierten.
- a. Nunca b. Todavía c. Luego d. Segundo
68. Me lavo los pies muchas veces pero _____ apestan.
- a. todos los días b. nadie c. cada d. todavía

Read the following paragraph and answer the questions that follow.

Ana se prepara porque sale en una cita con Pepe. Pepe va a llegar a las seis de la noche. Ana se ducha y se cepilla los dientes. Se mira en el espejo y se da cuenta de que el pelo es muy largo. Se corta el pelo un poco. Se viste y se maquilla. Está lista para salir con Pepe. Sale con Pepe y tiene mucho éxito. Se enamoran.

69. ¿Con quién va a salir Ana?
- a. Su amiga b. su amigo c. Pepe d. Pablo
70. ¿Qué **no** hace Ana para prepararse?
- a. no se corta el pelo b. no se ducha
c. no se afeita d. no se cepilla los dientes
71. ¿De qué se da cuenta Ana?
- a. que necesita cepillarse el pelo b. que necesita cortarse el pelo
c. que necesita ducharse d. que necesita usar el desodorante
72. Ana _____ con Pepe.
- a. tiene mala suerte b. tiene éxito c. no tiene éxito d. se queja
73. Ana y Pepe _____.
- a. se quejan b. se pegan c. se gritan d. se ponen felices

Read the following paragraph and answer the questions that follow.

Carlos llama a Elsa y le pregunta si quiere ir al baile. Elsa le dice que quiere ir. Carlos va a buscarla a las nueve. El baile empieza a las nueve y media.

A las ocho, Carlos se viste para el baile. Se ducha, se afeita, se lava el pelo. Se pone desodorante y se cepilla los dientes. Se pone ropa interior, pantalones, una camiseta, calcetines, y zapatos.

Él sale de la casa y sube al coche. Maneja a la casa de Elsa. Cuando llega, toca la puerta. Su mamá abre la puerta y él entra. Elsa todavía está en el baño. Se seca el pelo. También se viste y se maquilla la cara. Se pone un vestido nuevo. Ella está lista. Ellos salen de la casa y van al coche de Carlos. Van al baile y bailan dos horas sin parar.

Después del baile, Carlos la sigue por todas partes. A Elsa no le gusta que Carlos siempre la sigue. Ella se pone enojada. Ella empieza a gritarle. Carlos está confundido (confused), pero la deja sola.

A= cierto B = falso

74. A Elsa le gusta bailar.
75. Carlos no se ducha.
76. Cuando Carlos llega, Elsa está lista.
77. Elsa se viste al aire libre.
78. Elsa quiere ir a otro baile con Carlos pronto.
79. El papá de Elsa se pone enojado con Carlos.
80. Ellos no bailan mucho.

Fill in the blank with the best answer:

81. Cuando llegamos a Costa Rica _____ las maletas.
a. recogemos b. hacemos c. subimos d. comparamos
82. El joven se queja porque _____.
a. se ve bien b. está contento c. no se preocupa d. tiene que trabajar
83. Carlos y David _____ viajar a Venezuela.
a. piensan b. salen c. llegan d. buscan
84. Necesitan ir a la agencia de viajes para _____.
a. hacer una reservación b. llamar al piloto c. hacer las maletas
85. Cuando quiero enviar una carta, yo voy _____.
a. al aeropuerto b. al correo c. a la discoteca d. a la iglesia
86. El estudiante nunca llega a tiempo. Siempre _____.
a. está a tiempo b. no se preocupa c. las deja d. está retrasado
87. Le gusta sacar muchas fotos...por eso compra _____.
a. un cámara b. una estampilla c. un lugar d. una parada
88. Los estudiantes _____ el avión y se sientan en sus asientos.
a. bajan b. suben c. se alejan d. se cepillan
89. El chico se preocupa porque _____.
a. se pierde b. cambia el dinero c. hace la maleta d. manda una carta
90. ¿Dónde compra el chico un recuerdo? En _____.
a. la tienda b. el restaurante c. el hospital d. la casa de cambio

Read the following paragraph and answer the questions that follow.

Un día Jorge se pone enojado porque no le gusta la escuela. Él corre hacia su casa. Cuando llega a casa, saca las maletas y las hacen. Jorge piensa ir de vacaciones. Piensa ir a Hawaii. Cuando está listo, él sale para el aeropuerto. ¡O no! Se le olvida el traje de baño. Jorge vuelve a casa y agarra el traje de baño. Necesita el traje de baño para nadar. Otra vez, sale para el aeropuerto. Corre hacia la puerta de salida pero el vuelo está retrasado y Jorge no llega en Hawaii hasta las dos de la mañana. Jorge nada en el océano y está contento porque no tiene que ir a la escuela.

91. ¿Por qué se pone enojado Jorge? a. Piensa viajar a Hawaii b. No le gustan las vacaciones
c. No le gusta la escuela d. Se le olvida bañarse
92. ¿Por qué se queda hasta tarde en el aeropuerto?
a. El vuelo está retrasado b. Se le olvida algo en casa.
c. Se queja de la escuela d. La comida no es buena
93. ¿Qué piensa hacer? a. Piensa ir de vacaciones b. Piensa quedarse en Missouri
c. Piensa bañarse en casa d. Piensa ir a Colorado
94. Jorge está feliz porque...
a. porque el vuelo está retrasado b. porque su traje de baño es nuevo
c. porque hace las maletas d. porque no tiene que ir a la escuela
95. ¿Qué NO hace Jorge? a. no regresa a su casa b. no vuela en avión
c. no se asusta mientras nada en el océano d. no se le olvida algo en casa

Read the following statements. Determine if the statement is

A= Lógico or B= Ridículo.

96. El chico se despierta muy tarde y no tiene ninguna prisa.
97. La chica viaja hacia donde hace mucho frío entonces se pone guantes.
98. Mi amigo tiene celos porque su primo recibe un carro nuevo.
99. Después de acostarse, el chico almuerza.
100. Después de correr por todas partes, el hombre tiene ganas de tomar mucho agua.