THE EFFECT OF TWO FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING APPROACHES, COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING AND TEACHING PROFICIENCY THROUGH READING AND STORYTELLING, ON MOTIVATION AND PROFICIENCY FOR SPANISH III STUDENTS IN HIGH SCHOOL

by

Maïté Blanton

Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

Liberty University

April 2015

THE EFFECT OF TWO FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING APPROACHES, COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING AND TEACHING PROFICIENCY THROUGH READING AND STORYTELLING, ON MOTIVATION AND PROFICIENCY FOR SPANISH III STUDENTS IN HIGH SCHOOL

by Maïté Blanton

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

Liberty University, Lynchburg, VA

April 2015

APPROVED BY:

David E. Holder PhD, Committee Chair

Clive McClelland PhD, Committee Member

George Solter PhD, Committee Member

Scott B. Watson, PhD, Associate Dean of Advanced Programs

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this comparative study was to examine the effects of two foreign language teaching approaches--communicative language teaching and teaching proficiency through reading and storytelling--on motivation and proficiency for Spanish III students in high school. These two teaching approaches have gained prominence over the last couple of decades and no consensus exists between second language (L2) researchers and practitioners on which approach might be best to increase students' motivation to learn and to become proficient. One hundred and seventeen Spanish III students in high school studying with the TPRS or the CLT teaching approach, completed the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale in order to collect L2 motivational data and took the Standards-Based Measurement of Proficiency test (STAMP 4S) to collect data on proficiency. The researcher used descriptive and parametric inferential statistics to examine mean scores differences on the variables between both approaches. Looking at the results of the analyses run for this study, the researcher observed that the TPRS teaching approach had statistically significant higher levels of L2 motivation for IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge, and IM Stimulation ($p = .001$), whereas the CLT approach had higher levels of proficiency in Reading ($p = .001$); Writing ($p = .001$); and Listening ($p = .29$).

Key words: second language motivation, second language acquisition, Communicative Language Teaching, Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling, STAMP 4S

Acknowledgements

This dissertation, along with this degree, was a task of endurance, patience and wisdom, but I did not complete this on my own. Many people helped me throughout this process, and I am forever grateful to them. First, I would like to acknowledge God who led me through this lengthy process and gave me the strength and endurance to complete it. When I started this degree, I had many obstacles in front of me. One of them was the fact that English was my fourth language, and I had only been speaking it for a few years. God raised me up and provided His grace during each step of the way. I feel overwhelmed with blessings when I ponder His hand on my life during these last five years.

I would like to thank my husband, Travis, who was the first person to encourage me to pursue this degree. He truly walked with me, holding my hand during challenging times. His confidence has been a persistent source of motivation. Words cannot express all that he means to me. I am thankful for his support and that of my entire family.

I would like to thank Liberty University, who provided the means and opportunities to pursue this degree in such a professional and Christian value-based environment. This was my first time studying in a Christian university and Liberty provided me with life-long skills and perspective.

I would also like to thank my entire committee. First, Dr. Sharon Hähnlen, my original chair. Dr. Hähnlen helped me through my initial process but was unable to finish with me for two sad reasons. The first one being that her husband passed away and the second reason being that she became very sick and passed away in December 2014. Second, I would like to thank Dr. David Holder who stepped in and agreed to become my new chair and helped me finish this huge endeavor. I also wish to thank Dr. Clive McClelland and Dr. George Solter for their willingness

to oversee this process. They have all provided assistance, wisdom, and professionalism throughout the whole process of this dissertation. Finally, I would like to thank Rachel Bender for editing this paper.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Abbreviations

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB)

Center for Applied Second Language Studies (CASLS)

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

First Language Acquisition (1LA)

Foreign Language (L2)

Intrinsic Motivation (IM)

Institutional Review Board (IRB)

Processing Instruction (PI)

Second Language Acquisition (2LA)

Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

Software Package for Statistical Analysis (SPSS)

Target Language (TL)

Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS)

The Language Learning Orientations Scale – Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS- IEA)

The Standards-Based Measurements and Proficiency test (STAMP)

Universal Grammar (UG)

Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)

List of Figures

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Background

Every foreign language (L2) teacher knows by experience that, for a high school student, studying a L2 can be challenging. This challenge has evolved over the years as teaching approaches and requirements placed upon students move toward an educational system that rests heavily upon uniform standards and standardized testing. As an example of these standards, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) requires oral and written proficiency from any L2 student. However, many students graduate high school after two or three years of studying that L2 and struggle to show proficiency. For some students, these standards and requirements designed to encourage them to become fluent ultimately cost them the motivation to learn.

Over the past sixty years, various L2 teaching approaches have been used by teachers across the globe. Every approach has advocates claiming that their particular approach enhances the development of oral and written fluency, as well as promotes motivation among its learners (Littlewood, 1985; Ray and Sleely, 1997; Krashen 1995). Until the 1970s, studying an L2 meant that one would learn the vocabulary and grammar of that language through learned behavior (Lightbown and Spada, 2011); however, over the past twenty years, this emphasis has changed into an emphasis in oral proficiency and achievement through cognitive processes (Swain, 2000). For many L2 teachers faced with the demands of an educational system that requires performance from their students, the questions become "What is the best teaching approach that would promote fluency?" and "Would that teaching approach promote students' motivation to learn?"

Over the past century, half a dozen L2 teaching approaches have emerged. From the late 1890s until the 1930s, the Grammar-Translation Method was prominent (Gass & Selinker, 2001). This method offered students use of dictionaries and explanations of grammar rules of Latin or Greek with little opportunity for second-language acquisition. Between the 1940s and 50s, the Cognitive Approach was introduced (Krashen, 1995). This method presented students with the four principal of language skills for the first time: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Comprehensible output was a central focus and learning about the language was overly present. Following this approach, the Audio-Lingual method emerged in the 1950s and 60s. The emphasis of the Audio-Lingual method was audio tapes and oral drills mimicking the native speakers. The oral exercises provided students with speaking development, but they had a difficult time transferring learned dialogues into their real-life. The 1970s saw a rise in the Direct Method, which placed emphasis on discussion in the target language (Krashen, 1995).

Between the 1960s and 2000s, Terrel and Krashen (1982) developed the Natural/Communicative Approach based on acquisition-focused instruction. The approach focused heavily on students' output in the target language. During the same period of time, Curran (1976) elaborated a dynamic and non-directive approach: the Communicative Language Learning (CLL). This approach was more than a methodology--it rested upon a philosophy of learning. The two last approaches put an accent on student output and fluency development. Other L2 approaches materialized during this period; one in particular was the Total Physical Response (TPR), which emphasized body movement and delayed students' speech until they felt comfortable.

In more recent years, two teaching approaches have been predominant amongst practitioners. Theorists and practitioners developed the Communicative Language Teaching

(CLT) approach inspired by the Cognitive Approach and British language teaching tradition (Jamel, 2011). The CLT teaching approach focuses on developing fluency in L2 with close and systematic attention to functional and structural characteristics of the language (Littlewood, 1985). Then, the TPRS approach, which was inspired by the TPR Method and created by Blaine Ray (1997), focuses on developing students' skills to read, write, speak, and understand an L2 competently without initially focusing too much on structural correctness. All of these approaches bring something to the field of L2 acquisition and teaching, but the question is which one meets students' needs of fluency and motivation?

Learning an L2 also holds an important place at the national level. A few years ago, during an address at the Foreign Language Summit, U.S. Secretary of Education Arne Duncan emphasized the need for American students to learn L2s in order to compete on the international scene (2010). He stated "In this global economy, the line between domestic and international issues is increasingly blurred, with the world's economies, societies, and people interconnected as never before" (p. 284). Current U.S. President Barack Obama also views the learning of an L2 as an important step in challenging the global economy. At a Town Hall gathering in 2011, Obama raised the L2 acquisition question and explained his stance:

> I will tell you, though, just in case there are any French teachers here or foreign language teachers, having a foreign language, that's important, too. That makes you so much more employable because if you go to a company and they're doing business in France or Belgium or Switzerland or Europe somewhere, and they find out you've got that language skill, that's going to be important as well. And we don't do that as much as we should; we don't emphasize that as much as we should here in the United States. (The Alliance for International Educational and Cultural Exchange, 2011, para 3)

Listening to national leaders and looking at the global and growing world, studying an L2 is a must, but reasons for learning an L2 vary broadly from student to student. Some students choose to learn an L2 for the intrinsic satisfaction that comes with learning a new language,

while others may study it to gain the extrinsic reward of better grades (Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2003). Students also differ in their language learning goals. For example, students may want to have a better salary in the future or have the opportunity to travel abroad.

Language learning goals and motives are essential concepts in L2 research (Gardner, 1985, 2000). L2 teachers would benefit from finding what motivates students to learn and what kinds of activities sustain that motivation but motivation is a vast and complex topic and L2 teachers are not so interested in understanding *what* motivation is; they want to know *how* this motivation can be increased in their L2 students and *how* these changes can be practically implemented (Dörnyei, 2001).

Student motivation is not the only factor influencing achievement or fluency development; a teaching approach also plays an important role. Over the past couple of years, there have been a growing number of states and schools adopting Common Core Standards. The mission statement of Common Core Standards is to:

> Provide a consistent, clear understanding of what students are expected to learn, so teachers and parents know what they need to do to help them. The standards are designed to be robust and relevant to the real world, reflecting the knowledge and skills that our young people need for success in college and careers. With American students fully prepared for the future, our communities will be best positioned to compete successfully in the global economy. (Common Core Standards Initiative, 2012, p. 1)

The Common Core Standards are another demonstration that L2s play an important role in the development of knowledge and skills essential for twenty-first century learners. The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) created a series of documents in which they explain the importance of L2 approaches to align themselves on the Common Core Standards. In one of them, *The Common Core Framework and World Languages: A Wake up Call for All* (2013), Heining-Boyton and Redmond stated: "It is

important that language educators move students from simple to complex language usage as they develop the ability to communicate in authentic contexts, just as one would in the culture in which the language is spoken" (p.52). In order to put into practice these common cores, the Partnership for 21st Century Skills (P21) worked with key national organizations in the field of core academic subjects to map skills for students to develop in L2s, as well as between L2s and other core subjects. The Twenty-First Century Skills Map emphasized that the L2 teaching community reached a strong consensus on L2 programs "to develop student's language proficiency around modes of communicative competence reflecting real life communication" (ACTFL, 2012, p. 2). To this end, the map provided L2 educators with five key goals: communication, cultures, connections, comparisons and communities.

Looking at the demands coming from the educational organizations and state standards, it is clear that choosing an appropriate L2 teaching approach is a task upon which teachers, administrators, school districts and states must reflect and study before adopting one over another. Therefore, understanding the effects of these teaching approaches on motivation and proficiency is essential for current and future L2 education, making this study a valuable resource to aid in understanding the specific elements of L2 approaches that make a difference in motivational constructs and proficiency.

Over the past sixty years, L2 theorists and practitioners have developed a wide range of L2 teaching approaches across the globe. Even though each of these L2 teaching approaches is different and encompasses specific techniques and material in order to develop fluency, Omaggio (1986) classified them all into two categories: rationalist and empiricist. Rationalist teaching approaches focus on the use of cognitive methods; empiricist teaching approaches use conditioned responses as a teaching tenet.

Over the past decade, L2 teachers have supported one of two L2 teaching approaches, both rationalist: the CLT and the TPRS approaches. The CLT approach is best defined by its characteristic features, which are "systematic attention to functional, as well as structural, aspects of the language (Littlewood, 1981, p.1). The CLT approach was developed in the late 1960s and "acquired its origin from the British language teaching tradition" (Jamel, 2011, p.522). The TPRS approach is "an alternative foreign language methodology," (Spangler, 2009, p. 3) in which storytelling, creativity and natural acquisition are prominent. The TPRS approach was developed by a Spanish teacher, Ray Blaine, in California in 1990. Both approaches emphasize the importance of making L2 listening and reading inputs comprehensible. Advocates of TPRS have said, "Teachers often underestimate the importance of making the class comprehensible" (Ray & Seely, 2004, p. 106). Lee and VanPatten (2003), promoters for CLT, found that "The learner must be able to understand most of what the speaker or writer is saying if acquisition is to happen" (p. 26).

These two teaching approaches have the same goal—the students' language acquisition (LA)—but the techniques and strategies these approaches apply in the classrooms are very different. As teachers use one approach over the other, researchers have come across noteworthy variations in the role of teachers, the role of students, the classroom activities, and the role of language output (Spangler, 2009).

Problem Statement

At this time, little research has been conducted comparing the CLT and TPRS teaching approaches. There have been several studies done with the CLT teaching approach (Cattell, 2009; Dahmardeh, 2009; Li, 2011; Ruth, 2013), but the TPRS approach is still fairly new and more research must be conducted. Four authors have compared the TPRS approach to other approaches for dissertation purposes: Perna (2007), Spangler (2009), Beal (2011), and Oliver (2012). All four researches showed that TPRS outperformed or equaled another teaching approach in several measurable variables. Other authors, such as Garcynski (2003), Foster (2011), Varguez (2009), Oliver (2012), Dziedzic, (2012), Rapstine (2003), and Taulbee (2008), also conducted research on the TPRS approach. Some of these researchers did not add any empirical data to the comparison between TPRS and other L2 teaching approaches and thus presented personal observations and experiences from practitioners. These observations and experiences are valuable but must include empirical data to further any evidence of significant differences between the TPRS or other L2 teaching approaches.

The world of education has been heading towards standardized testing for many years and, more than before, school leaders and practitioners want to see which teaching approach works best and helps students to perform better on tests. Also, since research suggests that motivation can impact language learning outcomes independently from language aptitude (Gardner, 1972; Wigfield & Wentzel, 2007), motivation plays an essential role in L2 learning. With this in mind, this study hopes to uncover which teaching approach has the best effect on L2 motivation and proficiency.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study is to examine the effect of two L2 teaching approaches--the CLT and the TPRS--on L2 motivation and fluency for Spanish III students in high school. With a better understanding of the effects of these two teaching approaches on these variables, L2 practitioners and teachers will benefit from finding out which of these have the most positive impact on motivation and fluency.

The independent variables—the TPRS and CLT approach—are generally defined as (a) TPRS, an approach in which language is taught holistically without teaching grammar rules. Language is learned by understanding messages in the target language by using comprehensible input and language output is minimal (Ray & Seely, 2004); and (b) CLT, an approach using real-life situations that require interpersonal communication. In this method, the teacher sets up a scenario that students can encounter in real life and students communicate about the situation (Galloway, 1993).

The first dependent variable of this study is L2 motivation as measured through the Language Learning Orientations Scale–Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS – IEA) by Noels, Pelletier, Clement, and Vallerand (2000). This scale considers six different variables of motivation: (a) External Regulation, (b) Introjected Regulation, (c) Identified Regulation, (d) Intrinsic Motivation/Accomplishment, (e) Intrinsic Motivation/Knowledge and (f) Intrinsic Motivation/Stimulation. These variables are defined in the operational definitions of this research.

The second dependent variable is fluency measured by proficiency grades. To ensure the accuracy of data, regardless of the teacher's teaching approach, the STAMP 4S test was chosen. The STAMP 4S test measures proficiency in an L2 in Reading, Writing, Speaking and

Listening. The Center for Applied Second Language Study (CASLS) developed this test at the University of Oregon and based it upon the levels of the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines.

Significance of the Study

This study is significant for many different actors in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). First of all, SLA researchers and practitioners follow with interest language acquisition models and theories, but they become discouraged by the lack of consensus among the professionals of the field (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Also, language acquisition models need to translate into lessons and practice in the classroom. This study will add to the existing literature by practically comparing two teaching approaches with somewhat similar theoretical frameworks and their effect on L2 motivation and proficiency in order to help practitioners make sound pedagogical choices. Second, if lack of consensus exists among SLA professionals, the unanimity among motivational theorists (Keinginna & Kleinginna, 1981; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Keller, 1983; and Gardner, 1995) can even be wider. The reality is that "There is much still on the agenda in the study and understanding of motivation and schooling" (Maehr & Meyer, 1997, p. 403) and the study suggests the use of a fairly new tool to measure L2 motivation: the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale which encompasses seven important subcategories of motivation. The study suggested by this researcher will allow practitioners to look at empirical data on both teaching approaches and see their effects on these different subcategories.

Third, today's educational trend is to test students using standardized tools. When choosing a teaching approach, practitioners want to enable students to reach their full potential of proficiency but still be able to test at a national level. This study proposes to observe two approaches and examine their effects on proficiency using a national testing tool: the STAMP 4S proficiency test.

Finally, students are the direct beneficiaries of this study as they are the main actors of interest. Teachers want to see their students become fluent in their chosen L2, as well as remain motivated during the learning process. This study will provide empirical data to enable practitioners to choose the teaching approach that is revealed to enhance students' motivation and proficiency the most. This research will also enable school administrators and state curriculum writers to make sound decisions for their schools, teachers and students.

Research Questions

This research addresses two questions.

RQ1: What is the effect of the CLT or the TPRS teaching approach on the motivation of Spanish III students in high school?

RQ2: What is the effect of the CLT or the TPRS teaching approach on the proficiency of Spanish III students in high school?

Hypotheses

This research has two hypotheses. The purpose of these two different hypotheses is to break down the data for each teaching approach and each variable under study and ultimately to answer the two research questions of this study. These hypotheses will allow the researcher to gain an in-depth understanding of each teaching approach as it relates to L2 motivation and proficiency grades from the STAMP 4S test.

H01: There is no statistically significant difference in the motivation of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Motivation as defined and categorized in the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale as Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge, and IM Stimulation

H1: There is a statistically significant difference in the motivation of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Motivation as defined and categorized in the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale as Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge, and IM Stimulation.

H02: There is no statistically significant difference in the proficiency scores of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Proficiency as measured by the Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening sections of the STAMP 4S proficiency test.

H2: There is a statistically significant difference in the proficiency scores of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Proficiency as measured by the Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening sections of the STAMP 4S proficiency test.

Definitions

American Council for Foreign Languages (ACTFL)

The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign language (ACTFL), founded in 1966, is a professional and national organization dedicated to the enhancement and growth of foreign language teaching and learning at all levels. The ACTFL also provides means of assessing the proficiency of a foreign language learner through its Proficiency Guidelines, which are a "description of what individuals can do with language in terms of speaking, writing, listening, and reading in real-world situations in a spontaneous and non-rehearsed context" (ACTFL, 2012, p. 3).

Amotivation

Amotivation "refers to the situation in which people see no relation between their actions and the consequences of those actions; the consequences are seen as arising as a result of factors beyond their control" (Noel, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2003, p. 40).

CLT

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is a second language approach that uses real-life situations that require communication. In this approach, the teacher sets up a situation that students can encounter in real life and students communicate about the situation (Galloway, 1993).

External Regulation

As defined by Noels (2009), external regulation is when a person "performs an activity because of an interpersonal demand or a situational contingency" (p. 297 in Dörnyei & Ushioda).

Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation is defined as when students "do something in order to earn a grade, avoid punishment, please the teacher, or for some other reason that has very little to do with the task itself" (Woolfolk, 2004, p. 351). Clark & Schroth (2010) also stated that extrinsic motivation happens "when behaviors are done to achieve a goal or reward beyond the activity itself" (p. 19).

First Language Acquisition (1LA)

First Language Acquisition (1LA), or language acquisition, is the mechanism through which human beings achieve the ability to identify, understand and produce language. This mechanism allows them to generate and set in motion words and sentences in order to talk. First Language Acquisition (1LA) distinguishes itself from Second Language Acquisition (2LA)

which is the mechanism through which human beings develop the ability to communicate in a different foreign language.

Foreign Language Approach and Method

In the literature, theorists and authors explain L2 teaching approaches and L2 teaching methods almost interchangeably. Some made the distinction between these terms, but clear and definite definitions remain to be seen. This manuscript uses the term "approach" throughout for consistency.

Foreign Language Learning (L2)

Gass and Selinker (2001) defined foreign language learning (L2) as "the learning of a nonnative language in the environment of one's native language," (p. 5) (e.g., a French speaker learning to speak English in France, usually in a classroom setting). Foreign language learning (L2) and second language acquisition (2LA) are different and occur in different environments.

Identified Regulation

Within the context of L2 acquisition, Ryan and Deci (2003) defined Identified Regulation as "motivation in which a person engages into an activity because he or she consciously evaluates that activity as important and meaningful to herself" (p. 258).

Instrumental Orientation

Instrumental orientation is defined as "reasons for L2 learning that reflect practical goals, such as attaining an academic goal or job advancement (Noels, 2001, p. 44).

Integrated Regulation

Noels (2009) defined Integrated Regulation as the form of regulation that is the most internalized and self-determined, stating: "in the case of Integrated Regulation, the activity first

is with other goals, beliefs, and activities that a person already endorses, such that performing that activity is a realization and expression of the self" (p. 298 in Dörnyei & Ushioda).

Integrative Orientation

Integrative orientation is "the desire to learn a language in order to interact with, and perhaps to identify with, members of the L2 community" (Noels, 2001, p. 44).

Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation is "a natural tendency to seek out and conquer challenges as we pursue personal interests and exercise capabilities" (Woolfolk, 2004, p. 351). Intrinsic motivation is also "when behaviors are done out of pleasure or for the sake of enjoyment" (Clark & Schroth, 2010, p. 19).

Intrinsic Orientation: Knowledge

Noels (2001) defined the Knowledge subscale of Intrinsic Orientation as "feelings of pleasure that come from developing knowledge and satisfying one's curiosity about a topic area" (p. 45 in Dörnyei & Schmidt).

Intrinsic Orientation: Accomplishment

Noels (2001) defined the Accomplishment subscale of Intrinsic Orientation as to the "enjoyable sensations that are associated with surpassing oneself and mastering a difficult task" (p. 45 in Dörnyei & Schmidt).

Intrinsic Orientation: Stimulation

Noels (2001) defined the Stimulation subscale of Intrinsic Orientation as the "simple enjoyment of aesthetics of the experience" (p. 45 in Dörnyei & Schmidt).

Introjected Regulation

In the context of L2 learning, Noels (2009) defined Introjected regulation as the feeling a person experiences when he or she "ought to learn the language in order to demonstrate that he or she can live [up] to his or her own and other's expectations" (p. 297 in Dörnyei & Ushioda).

Motivation

Motivation is a "stirring force, a stimulus, or an influence" (The Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary, 2010).

STAMP Test

The Standards-Based Measurements and Proficiency Test (STAMP) measures students' foreign language understanding and proficiency (STAMP, n. d). It was developed at the University of Oregon by the Center for Applied Second Language Studies (CASLS) where it was test-piloted to ensure statistical accuracy and consistency.

The Language Learning Orientations Scale-Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS-IEA)

The most recent scale to measure intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in foreign languages is the Language Learning Orientations Scale–Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS- IEA) by Noels, Pelletier, Clement, and Vallerand (2000). This scale presents a hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and amotivation. Noels et al. included the Self-Determination Theory when they created this scale.

TPRS

Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS) is a language approach in which language is taught holistically without teaching grammar rules. Language is learned by

understanding messages in the target language by using comprehensible input and language output is minimal (Ray & Seely, 2004).

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter presents a review of the major theoretical frameworks involved in this study. First, this chapter will start with an historical perspective of motivational theories related to 2LA learning and detail major elements that should be part of any studies on 2LA learning motivation. In the second section, the focus will begin on 1LA theories supported by Skinner's Verbal Behavior Theory, Chomsky's First Language Acquisition Theory and Vygostky's Interactional and Developmental Theories on First Language Acquisition. Following the 1LA theories, the theoretical framework will elaborate on 2LA theories, such as Krashen's Monitor Model and Asher's TPR Model, because these theories provide the framework of the CLT and TPRS teaching methodologies. Finally, Krashen's Monitor Model and the comprehensible output hypothesis will be discussed, as the CLT and TPRS teaching methodologies diverge in their views of these theories.

After presenting the theoretical frameworks behind this study, the literature review will focus on presenting a synthesis of the research that has been done regarding the TPRS and CLT approaches. The researcher will provide examples of research comparing both approaches, as well as studies comparing one of them to other L2 teaching methods. The literature will show that few empirical studies exist which study and compare the motivational differences of Spanish III students in high school under the CLT teaching approach to the TPRS teaching approach. The literature will also indicate that few empirical studies have observed and compared the effects of these two teaching approaches on L2 proficiency.

Theoretical Framework Motivation

To be motivated means to be moved to do something (Deci & Ryan, 2000). A more specific definition "refers to the choice people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid and the degree of effort they will exert in this respect" (Keller, 1983, p. 389). These definitions include some elements of the concept, but not all of them, because motivation is a complex and vast topic that includes many theories and propositions. In 1981, Kleinginna and Kleinginna offered 102 statements discussing the concept of motivation. Reeve (2009) elaborated on two dozen theories of motivation. Maslow (1970) discussed 17 propositions to be included in any sound motivational theory. Each one of these statements and theories provides knowledge, shedding more light on the reasons that humans do what they do. Motivational theories have been developed through a variety of observational settings, including clinical, animal laboratories, and one study even gathered human subjects to play games or assemble puzzles under observation (Woolfolk, 2004). After years of research and countless studies, Dörnyei, (1998) said, "Although 'motivation' is a term frequently used in both educational and research contexts, it is rather surprising how little agreement there is in the literature with regard to the exact meaning of the concept" (p. 117). Over the past decades, motivation has been defined in different ways and approached from several angles by researchers in the field of psychology. The assessment of motivational theories made in this literature review will be selective for length purposes and will focus exclusively on motivation within the educational context and L2 learning motivation.

In the field of motivational psychology, the self-determination theory (SDT) is one of the most significant (Dörnyei, 2003). According to this theory, established by Deci and Ryan, "to be self-determining means to experience a sense of choice in initiating and regulating one's own

actions" (Connell, & Ryan, 1986, p. 580). In SDT, motivation is either intrinsic or extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation is the "natural tendency to seek out and conquer challenges as we pursue personal interests and exercise capabilities" (Woolfolk, 2004, p. 351). Clark & Schroth (2010) added the concept of pleasure to intrinsic motivation noting that it occurs "when behaviors are done out of pleasure or for the sake of enjoyment" (p. 19). Deci and Ryan's (1985) SDF detailed the state of students' intrinsic motivation in the classroom; they found that "intrinsic motivation is in evidence whenever students' natural curiosity and interest energize their learning. When the educational environment provides optimal challenges, rich sources of stimulation, and a context of autonomy, this motivational wellspring of learning is more likely to flourish" (p. 245).

Extrinsic motivation is defined as doing "something in order to earn a grade, avoid punishment, please the teacher, or for some other reason that has very little to do with the task itself" (Woolfolk, 2004, p. 351). Clark & Schroth (2010) added the concept of goal in their definition, stating that extrinsic motivation happens "when behaviors are done to achieve a goal or reward beyond the activity itself" (p. 19).

Finally, a third category can be added to the intrinsic and extrinsic motivational constructs: amotivation. According to Ryan and Deci (2002), amotivated people have a tendency not to value the activity, feel unskilled, and do not anticipate it will necessarily lead to a preferred result.

Woolfolk (2004) indicated that the major difference between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation is the locus of causality (the location of the cause), in other words, the student's reason for acting always comes from an internal or external cause. For example, one student may study a L2 because his or her parents make that choice. This cause is external as it is imposed by the parents. Another student may study it because he or she wants to work for an

international company upon graduation. This cause is internal as this student freely chooses to study and to engage the L2 learning process. While both can be useful in the classroom (and certainly were factored into the research discussed in chapter 3), Woolfolk also emphasized that the dichotomy between external and internal motivation is not black and white because, in many cases, students may internalize an external cause. For instance, a student may see the fact of getting good grades, which is an external motivation, as an internal motivation.

Deci and Ryan (1985) studied the locus of causality in their cognitive approach of motivation and found that a change in the perception of locus of causality results in what they termed the Cognitive Evaluation Theory, stating that

> "Intrinsically motivated behavior has an internal perceived locus of causality: the person does it for internal rewards such as interest and mastery; extrinsically motivated behavior has an external perceived locus of causality: the person does it to get an extrinsic reward or to comply with an external constraint" (p. 49).

In the same study, these researchers stressed the fact that "intrinsic motivation is based in the need to be self-determining and suggested rewards, which are widely used as instrument of control, can often co-opt people's self-determination and initiate different motivational processes" (p. 49). They also explained this phenomenon as being a change in perceived locus of causality from internal to external.

L2 Motivation

Regardless of the teaching approach used within the learning situation, different factors drive L2 learners to acquire an L2. For decades, researchers in the fields of psychology and education have acknowledged the prominence of motivation in effective L2 learning (Gardner,

1985a; Gardner & Clément, 1990). Affective variables, such as motivation, have proven to be almost as important as language aptitude for predicting L2 success (Gardner, 1985).

Gardner and Lambert (1959) played a major role in the pioneer work in the field of L2 motivation. In the specific context of L2 learning, one can divide motivation into two concepts: language learning motivation and language classroom motivation (Gardner, 2010). Language learning motivation accounts for the major processes underlying individual differences in the success in which the language is assimilated. Language classroom motivation is influenced by the class setting, the course itself, the curriculum, the teacher's characteristics and the academic nature of the L2 learner (Gardner, 2010). These two aspects of motivation were influential to the development of the socio-educational model of 2LA in which L2 was learned for integrative or instrumental motivational orientation. Integrative orientation is "the desire to learn a language in order to interact with, and perhaps to identify with, members of the L2 community" and instrumental orientation are "reasons for L2 learning that reflect practical goals such as attaining an academic goal or job advancement" (Noels, 2001, p. 44). The socio-educational model of 2LA measures motivation in terms of the desire to learn, the attitudes towards learning the L2, and motivational intensity (Gardner, 2010). Gardner (1985b) constructed a battery test to measure the affective individual difference variables identified by the socio-educational model of 2LA: the Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB). The AMTB has been used in different L2 settings over the past two decades and has allowed the socio-educational model of 2LA to be preserved for a long time (Stephen, 2001).

In the same period of time, Deci and Ryan's (1985) SDT was developed, suggesting that motivation could be divided into three categories: intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivations and amotivation. Details about this theory were explained earlier in this chapter.

Gardner's AMTB was, and still is, a reliable tool for many studies but Crookes and Smith (1991) claimed that Gardner's socio-educational model of 2LA was limited to a too dichotomous integrative/instrumental concept of motivation. However, Gardner (2010) argued that he never defined motivation in these terms and emphasized the up-to-date compatibility of his model with many new research agendas. Following Crookes and Smith's claim of the Gardner's social-educational model of 2LA being too dichotomous, many researchers attempted to broaden the integrative/instrumental definition. Half a dozen researchers, such as Dörnyei (1994a, 1994b), Oxford and Shearin (1994), Gardner and Tremblay (1994), Tremblay and Gardner (1995), and Schmidt, Boraie, and Kassabgy (1996), studied the issue on both empirical and theoretical bases. Their research led to the emergence of expansive concepts of motivation resulting in models like the one developed in Schmidt, Boraie, and Kassabgy (1996). These newer models were not meant to replace the integrative/instrumental dichotomy, but to complement it (Oxford, 1996; Dörnyei, 1994; Schmidt, Boraie, & Kassabgy, 1996; Williams & Burden, 1997).

Recently, Dörnyei (2001) attempted to synthesize 13 different constructs of motivation and categorized them in seven broad dimensions: (a) affective/integrative dimension, (b) instrumental/pragmatic dimension, (c) macro-context-related dimension, (d) self-concept-related dimension, (e) goal-related dimension, (f) educational context-related dimension, and (g) significant others-related dimension. In his synthesis, Dörnyei concluded that: The different L2 motivation models varied in the extent of

> "Emphasis they placed on each of the seven dimensions, in the actual ways they operationalized them, and in the way they linked the different factors to each other and to the general process of second language acquisition" (2001, p. 401).

Noels and her colleagues (Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000) addressed the importance of combining the constructs of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as defined by Deci and Ryan's (1985) SDT with hypotheses discussed by Gardner (1985) in order to come to a fuller understanding of the development of specific orientations and their impact on L2 motivation. Noels et al. (2000) developed the Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS- IEA) through a study designed to assess students' self-determination of L2 and its subtypes: intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation. In developing the LLOS- IEA, Noels and her team explained that there were different categories for each one of these motivational constructs.

Noels and her colleagues based the LLOS-IEA scale on motivational constructs that were identified by many others. First, at least three types of intrinsic motivation have been found: Intrinsic- Knowledge, Intrinsic-Accomplishment, and Intrinsic–Stimulation (Vallerand, 1997; Vallerand, Blais, Brière, & Pelletier, 1989; Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Brière. Senécal, & Valliires, 1992, 1993). Intrinsic-Knowledge refers to the pleasure that a student may feel from developing knowledge and quenching his or her curiosity for the sake of the topic. For example, an L2 student may look up a series of words related to a topic of choice just because he or she is curious. Intrinsic–accomplishment refers to the feelings associated with accomplishing a difficult task and mastering it. Intrinsic–stimulation makes reference to the pure enjoyment of aesthetics of the experience of learning an L2.

Second, just like intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation has different subcategories: Integrated Regulation, Identified Regulation, Introjected Regulation, and External Regulation. Beginning with the type of least self-determined type of extrinsic motivation, External Regulation represents students who study an L2 because of their environment. Introjected

Regulation is somewhat a little bit internalized (Noels as cited in Dörnyei & Schmidt, 2001) and refers to students who perform a task because of some internally directed system of rewards and punishment. Identified Regulation moves more toward self-determination in the sense that students will engage in activities because they understand the value to be important. Finally, Integrated Regulation is the highest form of self-determination of the extrinsic motivation type. As Ryan and Deci (2000) stated, "Integrated regulation occurs when identified regulations are fully assimilated to the self, which means they have been evaluated and brought into congruence with the one's other values and needs" (p. 73). It is somewhat similar to intrinsic motivation but differs in the fact that the activity is not accomplished out of enjoyment. Last, amotivation as discussed earlier is a third motivational construct and is the opposite of the other two constructs. When students are amotivated, they participate in activities and feel like they do not control any of them.

After combining these three motivational constructs of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation, as well as their respective subtypes, Noels and her team developed the Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS- IEA). This specific scale was used for this study, as it is one of the most recent scales in the field of L2 motivation. The Cronbach alpha index of internal consistency was acceptable for all subscales of the study varying between .67 and .88 (Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2003).

1LA Theories

Most theorists and researchers agree that in order to understand 2LA theories, the understanding of 1LA theories is required. Within the last 50 years, different frameworks have emerged to explain 1LA. Among them, three theoretical perspectives are prominent: behaviorist, innatist and interactional/developmental perspectives. Behaviorist theorists propose that first

language acquisition happens through a series of behaviors influenced by the environment of the learner. Proponents of the innatist theories suggest 1LA happens through imitation only. The interactional perspective supports that cognition and development play the major roles in 1LA. The behaviorist perspective is grounded on the work of B. F Skinner and his main theory about 1LA found in *Verbal Behavior*. According to Skinner, 1LA happens naturally, as children observe and imitate the language of the adults surrounding them, practicing the language until they master it properly. Therefore, language is a learned behavior influenced by the environment of the learner. As Skinner explained: "What happens when a man speaks or responds to speech is clearly a question about human behavior and hence a question to be answered with the concepts and techniques of psychology as an experimental science of behavior" (1957, p. 5). Two years after the publication of Skinner's theory, Chomsky (1959) wrote *A Review of B. F. Skinner's Verbal Behavior* and challenged the idea that the L1 was learned through a behavioral perspective. Chomsky believed that 1LA is innatist, meaning that children are biologically wired to develop their L1 just as they are to crawl, walk and run. Chomsky refused to limit the 1LA to a series of imitations, emphasizing the concept of Universal Grammar. Chomsky (1957) defined the concept as a limited set of rules located in the human brain which help in the organization of the language.

A few decades after behaviorist and innatist theories were proposed, the interactionist/developmental theory emerged, with theorists arguing that Skinner and Chomsky did not place enough importance on cognition and developmental psychologies. One of the major theorists of this perspective, Vygotsky (1978), disagreed that 1LA is under the influence of the environment or is developed through a series of rules innate to humans. Instead, Vygotsky believed that 1LA happens through social interaction and labeled this the Zone of Proximal

Development (ZPD). Vygotsky defined ZPD as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers" (1978, p. 86).

Over the last 50 years, much research has focused on 1LA. The behaviorist, innatist and interactional/developmental perspectives are the main theories guiding the field. Today, theorists and researchers are still trying to agree on how children acquire their L1 and, according to Gass and Selinker (2001), no consensus has been reached.

2LA Theories

Many theories and studies of 1LA have had an influence on the field of 2LA. If no consensus exists on how children acquire an L1, there are even more debates over 2LA theories. Gass and Selinker (2001) defined the study of 2LA as the study of how L2s are learned but stated "the study of second language acquisition impacts and draws from many different areas of study, among them linguistics, psychology, psycholinguistics, sociology, sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, conversational analysis, and education, to name a few" (2001, p. 1). Looking at these differing areas of study provides multiple perspectives from which theorists and researchers can look at 2LA; each approach offers an insight into the understanding of how 2LA currently occurs.

Among the theories prominent in the field are the innatist and cognitivist/developmental theories based, in this order, on the work of Chomsky and Vygotsky. Cook (2003), White (2006), and Lightbrown and Spada (2006) explain how Chomsky's innatist theory of 1LA and his UG theory impacted the work in 2LA; then Krashen (1982) used Chomsky's work in order to create his Monitor Model for 2LA that will be explained below. Linguists in the field of 2LA agree

that the cognitive/developmental theory of Vygotsky and his ZPD theory influenced the construction of 2LA theories (Donato, 1994; Lantolf, 2000). Regardless of the research made in 1LA, the application cannot always be generalized to 2LA because of L1 and L2 characteristics and learning environments. Just as many factors influence 1LA, many factors, such as the learner's characteristics, the role of the environment, and the learner's capacity for language acquisition, influences 2LA.

A clarification between 2LA and L2 is also important. 2LA refers to the acquisition of a second language after L1 and usually happens in an environment in which the learned language is spoken. For example, this could be the situation of a French speaker learning Spanish in Spain. L2, however, usually offers a different learning environment, such as a classroom. L2 learners are usually learning in a setting where their L1 is spoken. For example, this could be the situation of a French speaker learning Spanish in France in a classroom setting.

Some linguists chose to explain 2LA theories from the epistemological perspective of empiricism and rationalism. In his book titled *Linguistic Wars*, Randy Harris (1993) summarized the two perspectives and defined empiricism as an approach through which knowledge (i.e., L2) is acquired through senses or conditioned responses. This approach encourages the reproduction of correct forms of verbs and uses drills heavily. Harris (1993) also defined rationalism as a linguistic approach in which most knowledge is not acquired through the senses but through meaning and problem-solving skills.

Most L2 approaches or methods fall into one or the other category. In a recent dissertation work, Perna provided a summary of approaches (2007), as seen in the following table (Table 1).

Table 1.

Foreign Language Teaching Methods

Approach	Description	Rationalist/Empiricist
Audiolingual Method	Rooted in psychology and linguistics; natural order of language acquisition is listening, reading, and writing; focus on recurring patterns of language	Empiricist
Cognitive-Code Methods	Teachers move from known to unknown; students are expected to become familiar with the rules of language before applying them	Rationalist
Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)	Essential grammar and vocabulary and their meanings are emphasized to students and activities are conducted in the four skill areas (listening, reading, speaking, and writing)	Rationalist
Natural Approach	Focus on vocabulary; de-emphasis on grammar	Rationalist
Structural Approaches	Focus on the teaching of grammatical structures	Empiricist
Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS)	High-frequency vocabulary and structures are repeatedly presented in context; students listen to and read stories to develop proficiency; stories are of high-interest	Rationalist
Total Physical Response (TPR)	Teachers make use of students' kinesthetic sensory system; focus on developing listening comprehension	Rationalist

Table 1 classifies the different teaching approaches into two categories: rationalist and empiricist. The Audio-lingual Method and the Structural Approach are part of the empiricist category and the Cognitive-Code Method, the CLT, the Natural Approach, the TPRS Approach and the TPR approach are part of the rationalist category.

Birth of CLT and TPRS. The broad range of 2LA theories leads practitioners to use different L2 teaching approaches such as TPRS and CLT. CLT and TPRS began from two different historical origins. The CLT approach came about after disappointment and frustration with the Audiolingual Method (ALM) which was developed and used by the U.S. Army over a period of 30 years (VanPatten, 2003). This approach used memorized phases, repetitive dialogues, drills and other activities to teach L2 learners to speak without mistakes. ALM is the same method that was used in high schools, in the United States and in Europe, 50 years ago when L2 students were required to memorize and repeat drills, phrases and dialogues. In Europe, the thousands of immigrants who arrived in France in the late 1960s and beginning of 1970s due to the lack of employment in their own country forced linguists to think about the way they were teaching an L2 and they realized that the ALM was not working. In 1972, Sandra Savignon conducted a study in which she analyzed the effectiveness of the ALM method and concluded that "language communication and understanding increased when the learner had the opportunity to communicate" (Spangler, 2009, p. 18); the ALM did not provide L2 students with enough opportunities to communicate. "CLT thus can be seen to derive from a multidisciplinary perspective that includes, at least, linguistics, psychology, philosophy, sociology, and education research" (Savignon, 1991, p. 265).

On the other hand, the TPRS approach did not evolve from the perspective of a linguist but from one of a practitioner. Ray Blaines, a high school Spanish teacher in California, based

the TPRS method on the famous Total Physical Response (TPR), developed by Asher in the 1960s. Asher (1965) based his method on principles by which children acquire their L1, such as many hours of listening to input, giving non-verbal responses or gestures and delaying initial speech (Spangler, 2009). Asher (1993) believed that many L2 teachers are unsuccessful in teaching languages to learners because they do not take into consideration the way the learner's brain works. Instead, Asher was an advocate of letting the learner receive the language with a silent period in which the spoken language was delayed.

In the early 1990s, Ray Blaines combined the TPR method with Storytelling and called it Total Physical Response Storytelling. In 2004, he renamed it Teaching Proficiency Through Storytelling (Ray & Seely, 2004). Today, some teachers still use the TPR movements in TPRS and others have dropped the TPR component as a whole.

In the TPRS approach, high school teachers are highly involved in the instruction process and produce the majority of the language through storytelling and reading. This approach enables learners to hear comprehensible input from their teacher. Students are not required to produce output messages until they have been exposed long enough to the input messages. In other words, the output production is delayed for the students as they listen to many input messages.

Krashen's Monitor Model. Another theory supporting the CLT and TPRS teaching methods is Krashen's (1981) Monitor Model. In this model, Krashen developed the Language Acquisition Hypotheses supporting five hypotheses as follows: the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the input hypothesis, the affective filter, the monitor hypothesis and the natural order hypothesis.

1. *The Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis* states that there are two ways of learning a second language. The first way is acquisition, which happens naturally or subconsciously, and the second is learning, which is developed through education and conscious effort.

2. *The Monitor Hypothesis* explains the relationship between acquisition and learning. Acquisition makes the learner become fluent in a second language and learning serves as a correcting or monitoring tool. Krashen proposed three difficulties encountered in monitoring the learning process: not having enough time, not being focused and not knowing the proper rules.

3. *The Natural Order Hypothesis*. In this hypothesis, Krashen states that people learn rules of a language in a predictable order. For this reason, he strongly discourages language teachers from changing that order.

4. *The Input Hypothesis*. This hypothesis suggests that people acquire a second language by means of comprehensible input, which focuses on the meaning and not on the form. Krashen encourages language teachers to present learners with inputs or messages that are just above their actual or current proficiency and understanding. One can relate the input hypothesis with the natural order hypothesis. If *i* represents an input that one acquires, $i + 1$ represents an input plus the next structure that one is ready to acquire.

5. *The Affective Filter Hypothesis*. This hypothesis suggests that learners learn best in an environment with low anxiety, high motivation and self-confidence.

These five hypotheses which comprise Krashen's theory have been instrumental in the current 2LA methods and pedagogies. Even though Krashen's Language Acquisition Hypotheses became very popular, many researchers criticized his theory and lack of empirical studies to support the hypotheses (Gregg, 1984; McLaughlin, 1987; Gass & Selinker, 2001;

Catton, 2006). Regardless of the criticisms, Krashen's Hypotheses continue to have a resilient influence on L2 research.

Three out of the five hypotheses are the underpinning theories of the TPRS and CLT teaching approaches: the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the input hypothesis and the affective filter. Ray, the author of TPRS, explained that his approach was based on the language acquisition hypotheses of Krashen; these hypotheses were sometimes reduced by the classroom learning environment (Ray & Seely, 2004). Even though the CLT and TPRS teaching approaches have their foundations in the same hypotheses, they differ in interpretations.

Acquisition Learning Hypothesis. The Acquisition learning hypothesis asserts that a student has two independent means of developing and acquiring an L2: language acquisition and language learning. Language acquisition is a subconscious process, which means that when a person is learning an L2, he or she is not aware that learning is taking place. Krashen (1982) declared that both children and adults acquire L2s subconsciously while receiving meaningful inputs. On the other hand, language learning is conscious and usually happens in a learning environment such as in a school. Krashen (1982) explained that the "grammar" and the "rules" of the languages are elements of learning (p. 1). L2 acquisition happens through the use of both systems, language acquisition and language learning, but each system grows independently from the other. What one student learns through learning cannot be assimilated as knowledge coming from acquisition.

Krashen's theory led practitioners to go from using methods focusing on grammar and memorization to methods focusing on meaning and comprehension. The CLT and TPRS were born out of a desire to see L2 students receiving comprehensible input and being able to use the L2 in a more practical and meaningful way.

Affective Filter Hypothesis. Krashen explains the idea that affective variables such as motivation, anxiety and self-esteem do not have an impact on 2LA, but that they inhibit input from reaching the part of the brain in charge of language acquisition which is what Chomsky called the "language acquisition device" (Krashen, 1992, p. 6). Krashen explains that the Affective Filter Hypothesis describes how several students in a classroom receive the identical comprehensible input, yet some progress while others do not.

Advocates of the TPRS teaching approach focus on this hypothesis through different teaching elements, such as creating fascinating stories, engaging students, using humor, creating unusual story lines, using animal as characters, using comprehensible input and personalizing questions and stories used in the classroom (Ray & Seely, 2004).

Input Hypothesis. According to Krashen (1982), "the Input Hypothesis may be the single most important concept in 2LA theory today. The Input Hypothesis is important because it attempts to answer the crucial theoretical question of how we acquire language" (p. 9). This hypothesis suggests that a student acquires an L2 when he or she understands messages or obtains "comprehensible input" (Krashen, 1982, p. 4). Comprehensible inputs are messages which are to some extent beyond a student's existing proficiency. Over the last decades, professionals in the field of L2 teaching have tried everything from grammar rules and repetition drills to computers; comprehensible input has been the last alternative. The Input Hypothesis can be summarized as follows: (a) more comprehensible input results in more language acquisition; (b) teaching methods containing more comprehensible input have been shown to be more effective than "traditional" methods; (c) the development of second language proficiency can occur without formal instruction and study; and (d) the complexity of the language makes it unlikely that much of language is consciously learned (Krashen, 1982, pp. 5-6). Comprehensible

inputs play a key role in 2LA but Krashen and Terrell (1983) emphasized the need for teachers to introduce a few new words at the time. The TPRS approach follows this guideline as the teacher introduces a small number of new words by class time. As a matter of fact, TPRS classroom activities focus on "how the message is given rather than the message itself (Ray & Seely, 2004, p. 118).

The CLT and TPRS teaching approaches take into account the Input Hypothesis, but practitioners of both approaches understand that the practical implications of this Hypothesis varies from one approach to the other. The CLT teaching approach includes inputs from real-life situations or communicative tasks, such as being able to introduce oneself, ordering food at a restaurant, making a hotel reservation, and so forth. The language teacher is then able to validate whether or not L2 students meet the communicative tasks and acquire the vocabulary.

Proponents of the TPRS teaching approach see the comprehensible input differently. They believe that the input does not come from real-life communicative tasks, but from personalized mini-stories (PMS), stories, mini-stories and chapter stories (Ray & Seely, 2004). According to Ray, comprehensible input must create a way for students to express themselves and not simply memorize lines, even going so far as to state that he had "found stories to be a vehicle that meets all of these criteria" (Ray & Seely, 2004, p. 16). Ray and Seely (2004) further explained that students must be exposed to vocabulary and grammatical structures over 50 times, through many different inputs, in order to be retained in student's brain.

Output Processing Theory. The CLT and TPRS approaches have different interpretations on the Output Processing Theory. The Output Processing Theory, as understood and defined today, was explained by Merril Swain (1985). Swain argued that even though comprehensible input is important to the acquisition of an L2, input alone is not sufficient. After

much research, she concluded that L2 learners need input and output for language acquisition. In other words, L2 learners need to receive messages through listening or reading and send messages through speaking or writing.

The CLT teaching approach uses the Output Processing Theory relatively early, as teachers provide their classes with real-life communicative tasks which generally require students to produce the L2 early on, as early as the first day of class. Research such as Ellis' (1995) also showed that L2 learners who are exposed to native speakers and formulate output messages gain more vocabulary than learners who are not required to speak or to write.

The TPRS teaching approach, on the other hand, does not emphasize production early on. Advocates of this approach argue that students should be exposed to the L2 for a considerable length of time before being asked to produce any words. This philosophy converges with Krashen's Natural Order Hypothesis which claims that L2 learners acquire the different parts of a language in a predictable order (Krashen, 1982). If teachers try to force the production of certain grammatical structures before the L2 learner has assimilated them, the process will more than likely fail. Teachers using the TPRS teaching approach provide many inputs and it may be weeks until students actually come to produce the L2. Teachers' personal testimonies consistently report that when L2 learners do actually start producing, it is difficult to make them stop.

Review of the Research

2LA Motivation

Some of the existing research focuses on L2 motivation on one specific foreign language, while other studies have examined and compared two or more distinct L2s and their motivation (Clément & Kruidenier, 1983; Laine, 1995; Tachibana, Matsukawa, & Zhong, 1996). Still other researchers have conducted their studies within a specific cultural context. Noels, Pelletier, Clément, and Vallerand (2003) conducted their research on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and amotivation within the context of Anglo-American and Anglo-Canadian L2 learners.

When Noels et al. (2003) conducted their research on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and amotivation among Canadian-American L2 learners, they recommended replicating their study with North-American L2 learners, given recent discussions concerning the conceptualization of intrinsic motivation. For example, Lepper (1999) studied the difference between Anglo-American and Asian-American L2 learners in regards to intrinsic motivation, and he discovered that the Asian-American L2 learners showed more intrinsic motivation when choices were made for them by authority figures, but Anglo-American students showed more intrinsic motivation when they could make their own choices. Therefore, it appeared that the cultural difference between the two cultures may have impacted the intrinsic motivation variable. Replicating the study in another cultural context, according to Noels et al. (2003), would help to generalize their original findings on Anglo-American and Canadian-American L2 learners.

In a recent study, Hussain and Sultan (2010) examined motivational factors from a sample of 234 Pakistani students. Hussain and Sultan used the Instrumental and Integrative Motivation Scale developed by Gardner (1985) and correlated the results with students' achievement scores on an English test. The results of their study showed that "over all students'

attainment is positively correlated with their instrumentality and integrativeness towards learning the foreign language. However, results also demonstrated that the association between acquisitions and two types of motivation is higher for the high achievers than for low achievers" (Hussain, & Sultan, 2010, abstract). Other studies on L2 motivation and achievement were carried out during the last couple of years by Shaikholesami and Khayyer (2006), Schmakel (2008), and Engin (2009). Gardner (2010) recently explained that 2LA and its correlation with motivation are often used as indices of proficiency in a class; this study will focus on that aspect.

TPRS Research.

As noted earlier in this review, Asher (1965) developed the TPR method and published his first paper in 1965 in which he explained the results of his study comparing adults and children learning Russian. In the study, Asher showed how the TPR method helped adults to outperform children in 2LA proficiency. Until recently, research on TPRS was theoretical, but over the last ten years L2 teachers and researchers have focused on acquiring empirical data as evidence that the TPRS teaching method positively influences 2LA (Lichtman, 2012). As of the publication of this research, TPRS author Blaine Ray provided the latest literature on TPRS, which, as of June 2012, includes 12 studies. Four of those studies primarily focus on the TPRS method alone and ten make a comparison between TPRS and another teaching approach (see Appendix A).

In the studies that looked at the TPRS approach only, the results showed a positive influence on 2LA. These results confirmed what Braunstein (2006) found in studies demonstrating that ESL adult students who expected to be taught with a traditional approach responded positively to TPRS after being introduced to it. Beyer (2008) also used the TPRS

approach to teach his Spanish high school students the past tense and students expressed their interest and gratifying learning experience.

Bustamante (2009) measured several independent variables such as vocabulary, grammar, fluency, writing fluency and reading comprehension in a study he designed for a college TPRS class. Bustamante discovered that TPRS did improve students' abilities in these measurable variables. The study also found that college students who had never taken a 2LA course taught with TPRS methods enjoyed TPRS more than other 2LA teaching approaches used in their previous years of studying an L2.

Webster (2009) sought to develop an in-service for World Language Curriculum within the tenets of 2LA and TPRS. During his research, he conducted a survey that unveiled the increasing number of enrollments in TPRS courses compared to traditional ones in high school. It also appeared that attrition was decreasing and that TPRS improved students' performance on AP exams and increased level of preparedness to college level studies.

TPRS and Other 2LA Teaching Approaches.

As of the publication of this research, four authors have compared the TPRS approach to other approaches for dissertation purposes: Perna (2007), Spangler (2009), Beal (2011) and Oliver (2012). All four researches showed that TPRS outperformed or equaled another teaching approach in several measurable variables.

Perna (2007) compared three teaching approaches: traditional, TPRS, and instruction through primary–reinforced by secondary–perceptual strengths. This last approach, known for its use of learning stations based on tactual, visual, kinesthetic, or auditory learning styles, calls for students to select one station according to their personal learning style.

Perna's comparison measured vocabulary and grammar achievement scores and attitudes of 118 high school students in Italian classes. Students showed higher attitude level when in a perceptual-strength class compared with traditional and TPRS teaching approaches. Grammar-achievement scores for the three approaches did not show any significant differences, except for the attitudes toward learning grammar. In this case, results indicated higher scores for the perceptual-strength method. Overall, the research showed that students obtained higher vocabulary-achievement, vocabulary-attitude, and grammar-attitude scores in a perceptual-strength class.

Spangler (2009) brought empirical data to comparisons of the TPRS teaching approach and more traditional methods. Encompassing 162 participants in high school and middle school Spanish classes, Spangler's study measured student proficiency through the STAMP test (also used in this study) and through an anxiety measure scale. The TRPS participants outperformed the traditional ones in speaking, but their results in reading, writing and anxiety level were almost equal.

The third dissertation bringing empirical data to the TPRS research is Beal's (2011) research in which he compared TPRS and CLT teaching approaches on achievement, fluency and students' anxiety level. The major finding of this research was the proof that there was not a significant relationship between the TPRS teaching approach and achievement. The research did not show significant statistical differences between both teaching approaches concerning achievement and anxiety level and confirmed data already brought by Spangler (2009). Beal's study showed that among the 821 middle and high school participants surveyed, the traditional group scored higher on their final test than the students under the TPRS approach.

Finally, the most recent dissertation work on the TPRS teaching approach was accomplished by Oliver (2013). In his study, the author compared beginning Spanish college students in four traditional classes and two TPRS classes. The results of this study showed that TPRS students outperformed traditional students in the reading, writing and grammar sections of their test. Even though this dissertation compared quantitatively testing scores for four traditional classes and two TPRS classes, Oliver failed to provide research questions, methodology, and descriptive analysis of the data. The author also claimed that TPRS students would have scored higher if they had been tested for their listening and speaking skills based on the TPRS teaching approach, but provided no data to support this claim. Finally, the author made the case that TPRS students had better grammar on their final test, but again, no data supported this statement and the author did not explain how "better grammar" would be measured.

Other authors, such as Garcynski (2003) and Foster (2011), conducted their research for their Master's theses, while others published articles on the topic (Varguez, 2009; Oliver, 2012; Dziedzic, 2012). It should be noted the literature encompasses additional research from scholars like Rapstine (2003) and Taulbee (2008), but these did not add any empirical data to the comparison between TPRS and other L2 teaching approaches and thus constituted personal observations and experiences from practitioners. These observations and experiences are valuable, but must acquire empirical data to show any evidence of significant differences between the TPRS or other L2 teaching approaches.

Garczynski (2003) compared TPRS to the Audiolingual Method in a middle school setting in which he taught two sample groups for a period of six weeks using one method for each group. Garczynski did not implement a pre-test, but compared both groups on a post-test

by administering a reading and listening test to the middle school students. The results of this study showed that students obtained the same outcomes on both tests. However, through students' testimonies, Garczynski's study revealed that "acquisition activities such as reading and listening to stories in the language were more desirable and interesting than performing written practice drills from the textbook or workbook" (2003, p. 36).

Foster (2011) recently completed a study comparing TPRS, traditional L2 teaching approaches and processing instruction (PI). IP theory, developed by VanPatten (1996), focuses on the processes through which learners interact with input. VanPatten's theory applies grammar instruction to help accommodate learners' inept processing strategies. Foster conducted research in high school and focused on one single grammatical structure in Spanish: *gustar*. The word *gustar* is a Spanish verb. Students in TPRS classes obtained better results than students from the other L2 methods on a grammar and writing test, and they achieved comparable results on other measures such as speaking and writing accuracy and reading skills.

At this time, little research has been conducted comparing the CLT and TPRS methods in the field of education. Additional rresearch must be conducted in order to determine what serves L2 learners best in regards to motivation. Authors of L2 approaches and theorists in the field of education are encouraging higher education students to push the research further.

Summary

This review of the literature started with a framework on motivation as its relates to 2LA. Several prominent researchers in the field of 2LA motivation helped to construct motivational models and tests in order to evaluate L2 learners' motivation. Among them are Gardner, Lambert, Deci and Ryan, Dörnyei, Vallerand, Noels and Clément. This review identified the most recent scale to measure L2 learners' motivation as the Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic

Motivation and Amotivation Subscales developed by Noels and her colleagues (Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2003).

In addition, the literature review focused on 1LA theories such as Skinner's Verbal Behavior Theory, Chomsky's First Language Acquisition Theory and Vygostky's Interactional and Developmental Theories on 1LA. These theories are important as they served as a catalyst for other researchers to develop 2LA theories. Even though research and data cannot always be transferred to 2LA, 1LA theories bring a theoretical framework that many 2LA researchers used to build their theories of 2LA.

Following the 1LA theories, the theoretical framework elaborated on 2LA theories such as Krashen's Monitor Model and Asher's TPR Model and how these theories relate to the CLT and TPRS teaching approaches. Finally, Krashen's Monitor Model and the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis were discussed because the practitioners of the CLT and TPRS teaching approaches diverge in their views of these theories. The literature showed that the CLT and TPRS teaching approaches were born out of a desire to make 2LA more meaningful and comprehensive. Even though they were born out of this desire, their interpretations of several 2LA theories and hypotheses were somewhat different.

After presenting the theoretical frameworks behind this study, the literature review focused on presenting recent studies in the field of L2 learning motivation. The literature showed that few empirical studies exist in which the motivational differences of first-time foreign language students in high school under the CLT teaching approach or the TPRS teaching approach are studied. Also, the researcher reviewed recent research related to TPRS and other L2 approaches. This summary established the lack of empirical and quantitative data within the research of comparing TPRS and CLT based on proficiency grades and motivational orientation.

Next, this researcher will explain in chapter 3 the methodology used in this research study. In chapter 4, this researcher will provide empirical data that will decrease the lack mentioned above.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

The CLT and TPRS teaching approaches are the leading approaches of today's L2 classroom practitioners today; however, few quantitative researches have proven if one is more efficient than the other. For this reason, this study used a quantitative research design in which both groups were compared. The two research questions addressed in this study were: (1) What is the effect of the CLT or the TPRS teaching approach on the motivation of Spanish III students in high school? and (2) What is the effect of the CLT or the TPRS teaching approach on the proficiency of Spanish III students in high school?

The specific design chosen for this study was a quasi-experimental static group comparison. This design was the most appropriate for the research questions because the research participants were not randomly assigned to one of the two treatment groups, and only a post-test was administered to both groups (Gall et al., 2007). The research participants were picked based on their enrollment in a Spanish III class, and they were not specifically assigned to either the CLT or TPRS teaching approach, rather they were in a class in which the teacher already used one or the other teaching approach.

The participants did not take a pre-test measuring their L2 motivation or their L2 proficiency. They were only required to submit themselves to two post-tests: one that would measure their L2 motivation and another that would measure their L2 proficiency. Spangler (2009) used a similar design when she compared both teaching approaches on beginning-level students' achievement, fluency, and anxiety.

Since research has shown that motivation is a significant predictor in learning an L2 (Gardner, 1985a), the first aspect of this study was to measure how Spanish III students in high school being taught by two different teaching approaches--the CLT and the TPRS--would score

in L2 motivation as measured by the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale and its seven subscales: Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, Intrinsic Motivation–Accomplishment, Intrinsic Motivation–Knowledge, and Intrinsic Motivation–Stimulation. Then, looking at the direction of education today and the way it encourages standardized testing, the second purpose of this study was to measure how Spanish III students in high school being taught by these two different approaches would score in L2 proficiency as measured by the Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening sections of the STAMP 4S proficiency test.

In order to do this, the researcher used a quasi-experimental static group comparison with descriptive statistics that would allow her to make a careful description of these variables (Gall et al., 2007). The researcher also used a t-test in order to do a group comparison and determine whether both groups differ significantly from each other in regards to the two measured variables (Gall et al., 2007). This chapter will highlight the research questions, hypotheses, participants, setting, instrumentation, procedures and data analysis of this study.

Questions and Hypotheses

RQ1: What is the effect of the CLT or the TPRS teaching approach on the motivation of Spanish III students in high school?

H01: There is no statistically significant difference in the motivation of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Motivation as defined and categorized in the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale as Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge, and IM Stimulation

H1: There is a statistically significant difference in the motivation of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Motivation as defined and categorized in the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale as Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge, and IM Stimulation.

RQ2: What is the effect of the CLT or the TPRS teaching approach on the proficiency of Spanish III students in high school?

H02: There is no statistically significant difference in the proficiency scores of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Proficiency as measured by the Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening sections of the STAMP 4S proficiency test.

H2: There is a statistically significant difference in the proficiency scores of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Proficiency as measured by the Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening sections of the STAMP 4S proficiency test.

Setting

The researcher selected two L2 departments from two different high schools: one department was already using the TPRS approach to teach students and the other was already using the CLT approach. After receiving approval to conduct this research through the Institutional Review Board (IRB), the researcher requested permission to administer the study in two different public school districts. The researcher wrote an official request to the central office of each school district and received permission to conduct the research.

The L2 department using the TPRS approach was located in the northeastern United States and served around 600 students in grades 9 to 12. Founded in 2007, the student body was comprised of 93 percent African-American students, 6 percent Latino students, and 1 percent

other ethnicities. Within the student body, 66 percent of students had access to a free lunch, 17 percent to reduced lunch, and 17 percent to a non-free lunch. The gender diversity was 38 percent male students and 62 percent female students. Lastly, 15 percent of the school's students qualified for special education services.

The department using the CLT approach was located in the northeastern United States as well and served around 2,500 students, grades 9 to 12. Founded in 1971, the school was made up of 16.64 percent Asian students, 5.4 percent African American, 13.91 percent Hispanic, 59.18 percent white, and 4.87 percent of other ethnicities. Students with access to free or reduced meals represented 12.48 percent of the student body. The school's population was comprised of 48.54 percent female students and 51.46 percent male students. The percentage of students qualified for special education services and for lunch programs was not available at the time the study was conducted.

The researcher selected these two L2 departments based upon interviews with their department chairs in which they reviewed the key concepts of each teaching approach in order to insure that teachers would implement the approach the way they were created to be used.

Participants

This researcher used convenience sample in order to select classes in the L2 departments and to collect data from subjects in these classrooms. This sampling method was employed because, as many researchers have found, the sample suits the purposes of the study they seek to pursue. And, as its name suggests, it is convenient (Gall et all., 2007)

The subjects were Spanish III students in high school (N= 117); 72 were females (n= 72) and 45 were males (n= 45). The school using the CLT approach had 64 Spanish III students sign up for the study, and the school using the TPRS approach had 61 Spanish III students sign up for

the study; however, some students did not sign the consent form and were unable to be considered in this study. Therefore, for the CLT approach, 64 students participated (*n*=64), 35 of which were female (*n*=35) and 29 were male (*n*=29) and for the TRPS appr`oach, 53 students participated (*n*=53), 37 of which were female (*n*=37) and 16 were male (*n*=16). This study only drew data from one foreign language—Spanish—in order to avoid multiple variables because some foreign languages are more challenging to learn than others depending on their closeness to the student's L1. This researcher also did not find two other settings in which the CLT and TPRS approaches were used with other L2 other than Spanish.

Instrumentation

The students' motivational orientation and proficiency in L2 for two different teaching approaches, the CLT and the TPRS, were the objects of this study. In order to measure these variables, students were given two tests in the fall of 2013: the LLOS- IEA Motivation Scale by Noels, Pelletier, Clement, and Vallerand (2000) and the STAMP 4S proficiency test.

The LLOS-IEA is a 21-item self-report instrument that uses seven motivational constructs: Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, Intrinsic Motivation–Accomplishment, Intrinsic Motivation–Knowledge and Intrinsic Motivation–Stimulation. Each of these constructs was explained at length in Chapter Two of this study. Each construct consists of three questions with the following answer choices: does not correspond, corresponds very little, corresponds a little, corresponds moderately, corresponds a lot, corresponds almost exactly, and corresponds exactly (see Appendix B for the survey). The language of the survey was somewhat changed in order to randomize the questions and to clarify some of the expressions which were first created to survey a group of Canadian students (see

Appendix C for Canadian student survey). The researcher received the authorization of the main author, Kim Noels, to use the survey in this study (see Appendix D).

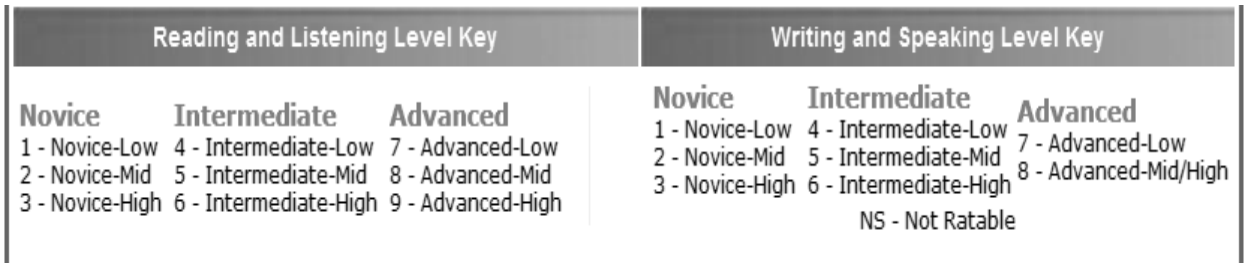
The LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale was used for several studies (Ardasheva, Tong, & Tretter, 2012; Gomari, Lucas, & Rochelle, 2013; Alfina, 2013; and Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000) in which the researchers showed positive correlations between Intrinsic Orientation and Identified Regulation and various outcome variables, such as motivational intensity and persistence (Noels, Clément, & Pelletier, 1999; Noels, 1999), positive attitudes towards learning (Noels, in press), and competence in L2 (Noels, in press; Noels et al., in press). The LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale has a Cronbach alpha varying between .67 and .88 which is acceptable (Noels et al., 2003).

The second instrument, the STAMP 4S proficiency test measuring Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening proficiency, enabled this researcher to independently evaluate students' proficiency in Spanish. Both teaching approaches have differences; grading and testing students' proficiency are two of them. Therefore, student performance needed to be evaluated with an independent measuring tool in order to guarantee data accuracy for students' proficiency. The STAMP 4S scoring is done using Benchmark Levels 1-9 for Reading and Listening and Benchmark Levels 1-8 for Writing and Speaking. The levels are associated with Benchmark Categories of Novice, Intermediate, and Advanced. While they are similar to ACTFL's levels, there is not a direct correlation. This Benchmark Scale relates to the ACTFL scale as shown in Figure 1. For the Reading and Listening Scales, levels 1 through 9 corresponds to novice-low, novice-mid, novice-high, intermediate-low, intermediate-mid, intermediate-high, advanced-low, advanced-mid, and advanced-high. For the Writing and Speaking Scales, levels 1 through 8

corresponds to novice-low, novice-mid, novice-high, intermediate-low, intermediate-mid, intermediate-high, advanced-low, and advanced-mid/high.

Figure 1

ACTFL Benchmark Scale



The STAMP 4S proficiency test, designed by the Center for Applied Second Language Studies in Oregon (2006), is intended to evaluate L2 students' real-world L2 knowledge. This test holds statistical reliability and validity because each one of its versions goes through a 30,000 student pilot test which produces a minimum of 905 of inter-rater reliability, according to the CASLS (2006). Inter-rater reliability defines "the extent to which the scores assigned by one rater agree with the scores assigned by other raters who have observed the same event or analyzed the same tests or other material" (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007, p. 555). Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007) consider an inter-rater reliability score of 905 as acceptable. In other words, the STAMP 4S proficiency test is a consistent test and independent of bias from raters, which was needed to measure language proficiency in Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening for each teaching approach.

The STAMP 4S test is also used today in many school districts around the United States to test student proficiency in a particular L2. In 2010, Arlington County, Va., tested 19,903 students using the STAMP 4S test (AvantAssessment, 2013). Similarly, Middleburry, Vt., and

Eugene, Ore., schools have also used the STAMP 4S test to assess students' proficiency in K-12 online world language learning (Business Wire, 2010).

According to the ACTFL Performance Guidelines, the STAMP 4S test is designed to assess L2 students' proficiency in Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening. The STAMP 4S is a web-based and proctored 90-minute test that costs $17.50 per student. The researcher was responsible for purchasing it for each student involved in the research. The researcher had access to the listening and reading test results right way; however, the researcher had to wait two or three days business days to gain access to the speaking and writing test results. This wait allowed the STAMP staff to review and assign a benchmark to the different tests. All test results were provided by the STAMP staff.

Procedures

After passing the proposal stage of this research, the researcher submitted the outline of this research to the IRB committee and waited for acceptance. The IRB committee would not grant approval until both participating sites provided an official letter, so the researcher contacted both school districts and requested permission to conduct this study in their building (see Appendix E for Request Letter to Participant Schools). Both public school districts officially approved the research (See Appendices F & G for Research Approval). The researcher submitted these official approvals and the IRB granted approval for this research (see Appendix H for IRB Approval).

Once the IRB granted approval for the research, the two public school districts assigned a point of contact (either Spanish III teachers or a department chair) to the researcher for the duration of the study. Once the researcher worked out instructional and logistical details with the point of contact in each school, the Spanish III students in the selected classrooms received a

parental consent form. The parents and students were both required to sign the form. This step was necessary as most students were under the age of eighteen (see Appendices I & J for Consent Forms).

After the consent forms were returned, the researcher purchased the STAMP 4S proficiency test from Avant Assessment, Avant Assessment then generated codes and passwords for each Spanish III student to take the computerized test.

On the day of the STAMP 4S test, Spanish III teachers whose classes were selected for the study administered the LLOS-IEA questionnaire to each student during class time. Students were given fifteen minutes to fill out the survey. The teachers then collected the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale questionnaires, stored them in a secured area, sealed them in envelopes, and sent them back to the researcher through a prepaid envelope provided by the researcher. Once the researcher received the data, it was encoded into an Excel spreadsheet and secured on a personal password-protected computer.

After the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale questionnaire, students took the STAMP 4S proficiency test in their school's computer lab. The researcher provided several resources for teachers who would proctor the test, students who would take the test and IT personnel who would deal the technology aspect of the STAMP 4S proficiency test. For the teachers who would proctor, the researcher provided the STAMP 4S Proctor Guide. For the Spanish III students who would take the STAMP 4S test, the researcher provided a link to a practice test and the STAMP 4S test taker guide in order for them to become familiar with the format of the STAMP 4S test. The researcher also communicated with the Information Technology personnel in both schools to provide all the technical requirements for the STAMP 4S test, as well as the test codes and passwords for each Spanish III student.

Spanish III teachers proctored the test. The students took the 90-minute test during two class periods. Students had the option to stop their test and resume it at a later time. The reading and listening scores were available for the students to view immediately after the test. The speaking and writing scores took three days to arrive because the staff of Avant Assessment had to evaluate students' achievement in these areas.

The researcher had access to all STAMP 4S results through the Avant Assessment center a few days after students finished their tests. The researcher stored the data on a personal password-protected computer.

Data Analysis

This research had two sets of data for each teaching approach: L2 motivation data from the questionnaire on the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale and its seven subcategories and the results of the STAMP 4S proficiency test in Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening. First, the researcher provided descriptive statistics of the sample from which the data was collected for each teaching approach. Then, the researcher analyzed the data based on the chosen research questions and hypotheses.

The first question that needed to be answered was as follows:

RQ1: What is the effect of the CLT or the TPRS teaching approach on the motivation of Spanish III students in high school?

The first question helped write the following hypothesis:

H01: There is no statistically significant difference in the motivation of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Motivation as defined and categorized in the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale as Amotivation, External Regulation,

Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge, and IM Stimulation

H1: There is a statistically significant difference in the motivation of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Motivation as defined and categorized in the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale as Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge, and IM Stimulation.

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the data collected through the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale for both teaching approaches. Descriptive statistics included means and Standard Deviations for each subcategories of the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale: Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge, and IM Stimulation. The results of the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale came in the form of numerical data and descriptive statistics were "mathematical techniques for organizing and summarizing a set of numerical data" (Gall et al., 2007, p. 132).

After the use of descriptive statistics and before running a t-test, the researcher used Levene's test in order to assess homogeneity of variances between both samples. Levene's test is a precondition for parametric tests such as the t-test (Wielkiewicz, 2000). The standard .05 significance level was determined for the Levene's test. If the *p* value of the Levene's test was less than .05, it would be considered that variances between groups were significantly different and an alternate calculation of the *t*-test would be used.

After the Levene's test, the researcher ran a parametric test, the *t*-test between both teaching approaches (CLT and TPRS) with the results on the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale in order to determine if the difference between the mean scores of both groups was statistically significant. Gall, Gall and Borg (2007) recommend the use of a *t*-test for independent means "to

determine whether to accept or reject the null hypothesis" (p. 200). The *t*-test was chosen over an ANOVA because of the presence of two samples and no more. Also, a .05 alpha level was used as the standard for achieving statistical significance because it is the most common threshold used for determining statistical significance when conducting an inferential statistical test (Gall et al., 2007). The alpha level was selected before computing the data as recommended by Gall, et al. (2007). The .05 alpha level of significance is acceptable as the sample size of this study was *N= 115*. Gall et al. (2007) explain that with a sample size greater than *N=50*, a null hypothesis can be rejected at the 0.5 level of significance.

The second question that needed to be answered was as follows:

RQ2: What is the effect of the CLT or the TPRS teaching approach on the proficiency of Spanish III students in high school?

The second question helped write the following hypothesis:

H02: There is no statistically significant difference in the proficiency scores of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Proficiency as measured by the Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening sections of the STAMP 4S proficiency test.

H2: There is a statistically significant difference in the proficiency scores of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Proficiency as measured by the Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening sections of the STAMP 4S proficiency test.

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the data collected through the STAMP 4S proficiency test. Descriptive statistics included means and standards deviation for each of the subcategory of the STAMP 4S proficiency test in Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening. The results of the STAMP 4S proficiency test in Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening

came in the form of numerical data and descriptive statistics were "mathematical techniques for organizing and summarizing a set of numerical data" (Gall et al., 2007, p. 132).

After the use of descriptive statistics, the researcher used a Levene's test in order to measure equality of variances between both samples. Like mentioned above, Levene's test is a precondition for parametric tests such as the *t*-test (Wielkiewicz, 2000). The significance level was determined for the Levene's test at .05. If the researcher found a *p* value of the Levene's test lower than .05, it would be considered that variances between groups were significantly different and an alternate calculation of the *t*-test would be used. With these results, the researcher ran a *t*-test between both teaching approaches (CLT and TPRS) with the results on the STAMP 4S proficiency test in order to determine if the difference between the mean scores of both groups was statistically significant. As mentioned above, the *t*-test for independent means is useful to accept or reject the null hypothesis and was chosen over the ANOVA test because of the presence of only two samples. The alpha level of significance was set at .05 before computing the data and was considered acceptable because of the sample size *N=115* (Gall et al., 2007).

Assumptions

There are several assumptions underlying this study. First, the study employed a quantitative research method because the researcher assumed that the different variables could be studied objectively and independently from personal bias. Second, it was clear that in a quantitative study the researcher should distance herself from what was being studied so that she could study the data without bias. Therefore, this researcher did not interact with participants of this study before, during, or after this study.

The third assumption was in the study itself. The researcher assumed that the Spanish III students in high school were representative of a larger population and that the duration of their exposure to the L2 was long enough for any significant differences in 2LA and motivational orientations to emerge between the two groups.

The fourth assumption was that teachers had received enough knowledge and training on the approach they used in class with their students and implemented their respective approaches to its maximum capacity. This assumption existed because teachers for both approaches received in-service teacher-training on the specific tenets of each approach within their school district.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

This chapter presents and discusses the results of the analyses conducted for the present study: *The Effect of Two Foreign Language Teaching Approaches, Communicative Language Teaching and Teaching Proficiency Through Reading and Storytelling, on Motivation and Proficiency for Spanish III Students in High School.* The purpose of the study was twofold. First, the study aimed to discover the effects of the CLT and TPRS teaching approaches on L2 motivation as defined and categorized in the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale as Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge and IM Stimulation. Secondly, to the study sought to establish the effects of the CLT and TPRS teaching approaches on the proficiency scores of Spanish III students in high school as measured by the Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening sections of the STAMP 4S proficiency test.

Initially, descriptive statistics were conducted on the population sample which primarily consisted of frequencies and percentages because the majority of the demographic and related measures incorporated within this study were categorical. Following this, a series of additional descriptive statistics, along with associated independent-samples *t*-tests, were ran to determine whether significant differences were present in the L2 Motivation and STAMP 4S measures on the basis of the CLT and the TPRS teaching approaches. This chapter will present the findings of this study organized by research questions and hypotheses.

Research Questions

RQ1: What is the effect of the CLT or the TPRS teaching approach on the motivation of Spanish III students in high school?

RQ2: What is the effect of the CLT or the TPRS teaching approach on the proficiency of Spanish III students in high school?

Hypotheses

H01: There is no statistically significant difference in the motivation of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Motivation as defined and categorized in the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale as Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge, and IM Stimulation

H1: There is a statistically significant difference in the motivation of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Motivation as defined and categorized in the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale as Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge, and IM Stimulation.

H02: There is no statistically significant difference in the proficiency scores of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Proficiency as measured by the Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening sections of the STAMP 4S proficiency test.

H2: There is a statistically significant difference in the proficiency scores of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Proficiency as measured by the Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening sections of the STAMP 4S proficiency test.

Descriptive Statistics on Demographics

Full Data Set

Initially, a series of descriptive statistics were conducted in SPSS 22 in order to present an initial picture of the data collected and the participants included within this study. The vast

majorities of the demographic and related measures were categorical and are summarized in Table 2 below.

In total, 115 students participated in the study (n = 115)—72 were female (n = 72) and 45 male (n = 45). These numbers translate into 62 percent of the sample being female, with almost 39 percent being male. Just over 50 percent of students were in the 11th grade (n = 59), with slightly over 34 percent in the 10th grade (n = 40). Over 11 percent of the students were in the 12th grade (n = 13), and 4 percent were in the 9th grade (n = 5). Mean participant age was 15.880 years (SD = .911) with a median and mode of 16 years of age indicated. Overall, participant age ranged from a minimum of 13 to a maximum of 18 years.

With respect to status of completion of the STAMP 4S test, 21 percent of participants were in progress (n = 24), nearly 71 percent completed the test (n = 83), and close to 9 percent were missing data (n = 10). One hundred percent of the participants completed the LLOS-IEA questionnaire (n = 115).

Next, with regard to the age at which the participant started studying Spanish, in close to 60 percent of cases students began their study between the ages of 13 and 17 (n = 70) and 14 percent began between the ages of one and six (n = 16). More than 11 percent of participants began studying Spanish between the ages of 10 and 12 (n = 13), with 6 percent starting between the ages of seven and nine (n = 7). Additionally, close to 1 percent of participants started studying Spanish at the age of 18 or above (n = 1), with close to 9 percent of participants having missing data on this item (n = 10).

Participants were also asked about their first language. Eighty-five percent (n = 100) of participants indicated that their first language was English. Two percent (n = 2) declared Tagalog as their first language, one individual declared Arabic (n = 1), and one declared

Vietnamese as their first language (*n* = 1). Three participants indicated an alternate language with respect to this item (*n* = 3), with close to 9 percent of participants having missing data on this question (*n* = 10).

When asked about their family language dynamics, 12 percent of participants indicated that their grandparents were Spanish speaking (*n* = 14), with slightly over 4 percent indicating that their father speaks Spanish (*n* = 5), and slightly over 4 percent indicating that their mother speaks Spanish (*n* = 5). With regard to the frequency with which respondents said they speak Spanish with family members, close to 56 percent of participants indicated they never do (*n* = 65), with 7 percent indicating this occurred between one and two times per week (*n* = 8). Additionally, slightly over 3 percent stated that this occurred less than once a year (*n* = 4), close to 3 percent stated that this occurred 1 to 3 times per week (*n* = 3),and the same percentage replied that this occurred every few months (*n* = 3). Two participants stated that this occurred every day (*n* = 2), with a single participant replying that they spoke Spanish with their family members 1 to 2 times per year (*n* = 1). More than 26 percent of participants were missing data on this item (*n* = 31). Close to 13 percent of participants indicated that they spoke Spanish at home (*n* = 15).

Approximately 26 percent of participants stated that they studied another L2 (*n* = 30). Sixty-three percent stated that they had never studied another L2 (*n* = 74). Eleven percent of participants did not respond to the question asking whether or not they have studied another L2 (*n* = 13).

For the students who said they had previously studied another L2, a broad set of language skills was found. The most commonly studied language was French, representing almost 7 percent of the sample (*n* = 8). More than 11 percent of the sample indicated that they studied

language through immersion (*n* = 13) and 75 percent indicated that they did not study an L2 through immersion (*n* = 88).

CLT Data Set

Sixty-four CLT-instructed students participated in the study (n = 64). Out of this group, 35 were female (n = 35) and 29 were male (n = 29). These numbers translate to 55 percent of the sample being female and 45 percent being male. Of this sample, 50 percent of students were in the 10th grade (n = 32), 37 percent in the 11th grade (n = 24), 7 percent in the 9th grade (n = 5), and 4 percent in the 12th grade (n = 3). Participants had a mean age of 15.578 years (SD = .851). With respect to status of test completion, close to 14 percent of participants were in progress, slightly over 84 percent having followed through to completion (*n* = 54), and close to 1 percent were missing data with respect to the completion of their STAMP 4S test (*n* = 1). One hundred percent of the participants completed the LLOS-IEA questionnaire (*n* = 64).

In close to 66 percent of cases, students began studying Spanish between the ages of 13 and 17 (*n* = 42). Nearly 19 percent stated that they began studying Spanish between the ages of one and six (*n* = 12), more than 9 percent started studying Spanish between the ages of 10 and 12 (*n* = 6), and 5 percent between the ages of seven and nine (*n* = 3). Close to 1 percent of participants had missing data on this item (*n* = 1).

In slightly over 87 percent of cases, participants' first language was English (*n* = 56), Tagalog in close to 3 percent of cases (*n* = 2), with one individual having Arabic (*n* = 1), and one individual having Vietnamese as their first language (*n* = 1). Three participants indicated an alternate language with respect to this item (*n* = 3), with close to 1 percent of participants missing data on this question (*n* = 1).

When asked about family language dynamics, 15 percent of participants indicated that their grandparents speak Spanish (*n* = 10), with slightly over 6 percent indicating that their father speaks Spanish (*n* = 4), and slightly over 6 percent indicating that their mother speaks Spanish (*n* = 4). Close to 54 percent of participants indicated they never speak Spanish with their family members (*n* = 35). Nearly 6 percent indicated this occurred between one and two times per week (*n* = 4), slightly over 3 percent stated that this occurred every few months (*n* = 2), and close to 3 percent stated that this occurred 1 to 3 times per week (*n* = 2). One participant stated that this occurred every day (*n* = 1), with another single participant replying that they spoke Spanish with their family members 1 to 2 times per year (*n* = 1). Over 29 percent of participants had missing data on this item (*n* = 19). More than 17 percent of participants indicated that they spoke Spanish at home (*n* = 11)

Nearly 33 percent of participants stated that they had studied another L2 (*n* = 21). Sixty-four percent of participants stated that they had not studied another L2 (*n* = 41). Besides Spanish, the most commonly studied L2 was German, representing about 6 percent of the sample (*n* = 4). Over 65 percent of participants (*n* = 42) did not respond to the question about which other L2 they had studied. More than 15 percent of the sample indicated that they studied language through immersion (*n* = 10) and 82 percent indicated that they did not study an L2 through immersion (*n* = 53). Two participants did not respond to the question of whether or not they have studied another L2 (*n* = 13).

TPRS Data Set.

There were 53 TPRS students who participated in the study (n = 53), of which 35 were female (n = 35) and 29 were male (n = 29). These numbers translate to 70 percent female and 30 percent male. Of the group, 66 percent were in the 11th grade (n = 35), 18 percent in the 12th

grade (n = 10), 15 percent in the 10th grade (n = 8), and no participants in the ninth grade (n = 0). Participants had a mean age of 16.245 (SD = .853).

With respect to status of test completion, close to 28 percent of participants were in progress (*n* = 15), with over 54 percent following through to completion (*n* = 29), and close to 17 percent missing data with respect to the completion of their STAMP 4S test (*n* = 9). Seventeen percent of participants did not fully complete their STAMP 4S test due to snow days in the district and a very demanding make-up schedule. One hundred percent of the participants completed the LLOS-IEA questionnaire (*n* = 53).

In nearly 53 percent of cases, participants began studying Spanish between the ages of 13 and 17 (*n* = 28). In 7 percent of the cases, it was between the ages of one and six (*n* = 4), with this number being the same for participants who started between the ages of 7 and 9 (*n* = 4). Slightly over 13 percent of participants started studying Spanish between the ages of 10 and 12 (*n* = 7). Close to 17 percent of participants had missing data on this item (*n* = 9).

In more than 83 percent of cases (*n* = 44), participants' Participants' first language was English, with 17 percent of participants having missing data on this question (*n* = 9). Additionally, 7 percent of participants indicated that their grandparents speak Spanish (*n* = 4), with 1 percent indicating that their father speaks Spanish (*n* = 1) and over 1 percent indicating that their mother speaks Spanish (*n* = 1). With regard to the frequency with which respondents speak Spanish with their family members, close to 57 percent of participants indicated they never do (*n* = 30), with about 7 percent indicating this occurred between one and two times per week (*n* = 4), over 5 percent stating that this occurred less than once a year (*n* = 2), and close to 2 percent stating that this occurred 1 to 3 times per week (*n* = 1). One participant stated that this occurred every day (*n* = 1) and one participant stated that they spoke Spanish with their family members 1

to 2 times per year (*n* = 1). Over 22 percent of participants had missing data on this item (*n* = 12). Slightly over 7 percent of participants indicated that they spoke Spanish at home (*n* = 4).

Close to 62 percent of participants stated that they have studied another L2 (*n* = 33). French and English were the two most common additional L2s learned, with French representing over 5 percent of the sample (*n* = 3) and English representing over 7 percent (*n* = 4). Over 79 percent of participants (*n* = 42) did not respond to the question asking which other L2 they had studied before. Over 5 percent of the sample indicated that they studied language through immersion (*n* = 3) and 66 percent indicated that they did not study an L2 through immersion (*n* = 53). Seventeen percent of participants stated that they have not studied another L2 (*n* = 9). Over twenty percent of participants did not respond to the question of whether or not they have studied another L2 (*n* = 11).

Table 2 summarizes the important demographics for the full sample, the CLT sample, and the TPRS sample.

Table 2.

Categorical Variable Frequencies

Category	Full Sample *N* (%)	CLT Sample *N* (%)	TPRS Sample *N* (%)
Grade			
9	5 (4.3)	5 (7.8)	
10	40 (34.2)	32 (50.0)	8 (15.1)
11	59 (50.4)	24 (37.5)	35 (66.0)
12	13 (11.1)	3 (4.7)	10 (18.9)
Language			
Spanish	107 (91.5)	63 (98.4)	44 (83.0)
Missing	10 (8.5)	1 (1.6)	9 (17.0)
Status of completion of the STAMP 4S			
Done	83 (70.9)	54 (84.4)	29 (54.7)
In Progress	24 (20.5)	9 (14.1)	15 (28.3)
Missing	10 (8.5)	1 (1.6)	9 (17.0)
First Language			
Arabic	1 (.9)	1 (1.6)	
English	100 (85.5)	56 (87.5)	44 (83.0)
Tagalog	2 (1.7)	2 (3.1)	
Vietnamese	1 (.9)	1 (1.6)	
Other	3 (2.6)	3 (4.7)	
Missing	10 (8.5)	1 (1.6)	9 (17.0)
Studied Which			
Arabic	4 (3.4)	3 (4.7)	1 (1.9)
Arabic French	2 (1.7)	1 (1.6)	1 (1.9)
Chinese	1 (.9)		1 (1.9)
English	6 (5.1)	2 (3.1)	4 (7.5)
English, Spanish	1 (.9)	1 (1.6)	
French	8 (6.8)	5 (7.8)	3 (5.7)
French, German, Italian	1 (.9)	1 (1.6)	
German	4 (3.4)	4 (6.3)	
German, English, Chinese	1 (.9)	1 (1.6)	
Japanese	1 (.9)	1 (1.6)	
Korean	1 (.9)	1 (1.6)	
Portuguese	1 (.9)		1 (1.9)
Spanish	1 (.9)	1 (1.6)	
Vietnamese	1 (.9)	1 (1.6)	
Missing	84 (71.8)	42 (65.6)	42 (79.2)

Results

Hypothesis One

H01: There is no statistically significant difference in the motivation of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Motivation as defined and categorized in the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale as Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge, and IM Stimulation

H1: There is a statistically significant difference in the motivation of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Motivation as defined and categorized in the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale as Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge and IM Stimulation.

First, the Spanish III students of the CLT teaching approach filled out the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale questionnaire and each question targeted a different motivational orientation. These orientations were: Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, Intrinsic Motivation-Accomplishment, Intrinsic Motivation-Knowledge, and Intrinsic Motivation-Stimulation. Each orientation included three questions and students were instructed to respond with a number from 1 to 7 representing a statement. One meant "does not correspond", 2 meant "corresponds very little", 3 meant "corresponds a little", 4 meant "corresponds moderately, 5 meant "corresponds a lot, 6 meant "corresponds almost exactly, and 7 meant "corresponds exactly". Descriptive statistics including Mean, Standard Deviation, and Standard Error of Means were used to describe the data collected through the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale for CLT students. For the sample of CLT participants (n=64), the descriptive statistics showed that the lowest motivation orientation was Amotivation, with a mean of 2.370

meaning that the statements related to Amotivation were the statements with which students related the least as a 1 meant “does not correspond”, 2 meant “corresponds very little” and 3 meant “corresponds a little”. The mean being 2.370 for Amotivation shows that the majority of students did not relate much to the Amotivation statements. The Standard Deviation for Amotivation is 1.453 which is high and means that the data was not concentrated around the mean scores. The Standard Deviation was relatively large in comparison to the mean score of Amotivation. This indicates that the students’ responses were not concentrated around the same scores for the scale of Amotivation. The descriptive statistics also showed that the highest orientation was External Regulation was a mean of 4.172. An answer of 4 meant that the statements corresponded “moderately”. The statements for External Regulation were the ones students related to the most as it represented the highest mean. Also, the Standard Deviation for External Regulation was 1.440 which represented a high number and indicated that the data was not concentrated around the mean scores. The second highest mean was for Identified Regulation (x= 3.969). Identified Regulation is the second motivation subcategory with which students identified the most. A 3 meant “corresponds a little” and a 4 meant “corresponds moderately”. The Standard Deviation for Identified Regulation was 1.453 which represented a high number in comparison to the mean score of Identified Regulation and indicated a range in scores among participants.

The Standard Deviation of each motivation orientation was relatively large, between *SD*= 1.187 and *SD*= 1.453, in comparison with the mean scores of the LLOS-IEA Motivation scale, suggesting a fairly large range in scores among participants. This indicates that the students’ responses were not concentrated around the mean scores for each of the motivation orientation

scales. Table 3 provides the details of the descriptive data from the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale for CLT participants.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of the CLT dataset: LLOS-IEA

Measure	Dataset	*N*	Mean	*SD*	SEM
Amotivation	CLT	64	2.370	1.453	0.182
External Regulation	CLT	64	4.172	1.440	0.180
Introjected Regulation	CLT	64	2.260	1.187	0.148
Identified Regulation	CLT	64	3.969	1.463	0.183
IM Accomplishment	CLT	64	2.891	1.341	0.168
IM Knowledge	CLT	64	3.167	1.417	0.177
IM Stimulation	CLT	64	2.188	1.241	0.155

The Spanish III students of the TPRS teaching approach also filled out the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale questionnaire and each question targeted a different motivational orientation. These orientations were: Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, Intrinsic Motivation-Accomplishment, Intrinsic Motivation-Knowledge, and Intrinsic Motivation-Stimulation. Descriptive statistics including Mean, Standard Deviation, and Standard Error of Means were used to describe the data collected through the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale for TPRS students. For the sample of TPRS participants (n=53), the descriptive statistics showed that the lowest motivation orientation was Amotivation, with a mean of 2.283 meaning that the statements related to Amotivation were the statements with which students related the least as a 1 meant “does not correspond”, a 2 meant “corresponds very little” and a 3 meant “corresponds a little”. The mean being 2.283 for Amotivation shows that

the majority of students did not identify with Amotivation statements. The Standard Deviation for Amotivation is 1.353 which is high in comparison to the mean score and means that the data was not concentrated around the mean scores. The descriptive statistics also showed that the highest motivation orientation was Identified Regulation with a mean of 4.491. Identified Regulation is the motivation orientation with which students related the most. A statement with a score of 3 meant "corresponds a little" and a score of 4 meant "corresponds moderately". Also, the Standard Deviation for Identified Regulation was 1.445 which represented a relatively high number and indicated that participants ranged in the scores for that category. The Standard Deviation of each motivation orientation was low, between *SD*= 1.204 and *SD*= 1.597, which is fairly high in comparison to the means indicated and suggesting a fair range in scores among participants. This indicates that the students' responses were not concentrated around the same scores for each of the motivation orientation scales. Table 4 provides the details of the descriptive data from the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale for TPRS participants.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics of the TPRS dataset: LLOS-IEA

Measure	Dataset	*N*	Mean	*SD*	SEM
Amotivation	TPRS	53	2.283	1.353	0.186
External Regulation	TPRS	53	4.226	1.344	0.185
Introjected Regulation	TPRS	53	2.673	1.204	0.165
Identified Regulation	TPRS	53	4.491	1.445	0.198
IM Accomplishment	TPRS	53	4.031	1.637	0.225
IM Knowledge	TPRS	53	4.214	1.597	0.219
IM Stimulation	TPRS	53	3.780	1.586	0.2

The means of the seven subcategories of the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale for the CLT participants are lower, although not significantly, than the means of the seven categories of the TPRS participants. This illustrated that, overall, CLT participants had mean scores reflecting that they related less to statements made measuring the seven subcategories of motivation than the TPRS participants. No major differences were noted between the mean scores of the CLT participants and the TPRS ones for the Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, and Identified Regulation and significant differences between both groups were only noted in the means of the IM accomplishment, the IM Knowledge, and the IM Stimulation in which mean scores of the CLT sample were lower than the TPRS sample. These results are shown in Table 5 below. For the CLT participants, the mean score of IM accomplishment was 2.891 compared to 4.301 for the TPRS participants. These results showed that the TPRS participants related more to the statements about IM Accomplishment than the CLT participants. The mean being closer to 4 representing a 'corresponds moderately" is higher than the mean being close to a 3 representing a "corresponds a little". The CLT participants had a mean score of 3.167 for the IM Knowledge category, whereas the TPRS participants had a mean score of 4.214. Again, the TPRS participants related more to the statements about IM Knowledge than the CLT ones. Finally, the mean score of IM Stimulation for the CLT participants was 2.188, whereas that of the TPRS participants was 3.870. The TPRS participants related more to the statements about IM Stimulation than the CLT participants.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics of the CLT and TPRS dataset: LLOS-IEA

Measure	Dataset	*N*	Mean	*SD*	SEM
Amotivation	CLT	64	2.370	1.453	0.182
	TPRS	53	2.283	1.353	0.186
External Regulation	CLT	64	4.172	1.440	0.180
	TPRS	53	4.226	1.344	0.185
Introjected Regulation	CLT	64	2.260	1.187	0.148
	TPRS	53	2.673	1.204	0.165
Identified Regulation	CLT	64	3.969	1.463	0.183
	TPRS	53	4.491	1.445	0.198
IM Accomplishment	CLT	64	2.891	1.341	0.168
	TPRS	53	4.031	1.637	0.225
IM Knowledge	CLT	64	3.167	1.417	0.177
	TPRS	53	4.214	1.597	0.219
IM Stimulation	CLT	64	2.188	1.241	0.155
	TPRS	53	3.780	1.586	0.218

The next step was to measure how significantly different the mean scores of the CLT data were compared to the mean scores of the TPRS data. For this purpose, this researcher ran one parametric test, the independent-samples *t*-test in order to compare the means of both samples. The *t*-test is preferred over the ANOVA in this case because this study only compared the data of two samples (Gall et al., 2007). One of the assumptions of the *t*-test is homogeneity variances between samples. The researcher conducted a Levene's test whose purpose was to measure

whether the variances between samples were homogeneous or not. The alpha level of .05 was determined to be the cut-off level for the Levene's test. If the *p* value of the Levene's test was less than .05, it would be accepted that the variances between samples were significantly different and that an alternate calculation of the *t*-test was to be used. The results of the Levene's test (Table 6) on the CLT and TPRS samples for the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scales indicated that all *p* values were greater than .05 (p = .364, .654, .940, .610, .330, .635, .057) which showed that the variances between samples were homogeneous (Martin & Bridgmon, 2012).

After verifying the equality of variances between both samples, a parametric independent *t*-test was conducted in order to validate the statistical significance between means of both groups. The *t*-test allowed this researcher to observe differences between the mean scores of the CLT sample and the TPRS sample and determine if the differences were statistically significant and if H01 or H02 could be rejected. It was the *p* value that was used to decide whether to accept or reject both null hypotheses (Gall et al., 2007). The *p* value was determined at .05 before running the *t*-test. Table 6 shows the results of the *independent-sample t-tests* comparing the means of the CLT and the TPRS samples for the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scales.

As shown in Table 6 below, significant mean differences between groups were indicated with respect to the subscales of IM Accomplishment ($p < .001$), IM Knowledge ($p < .001$) and IM Stimulation ($p < .001$) as the probability levels associated with these analyses were below .05. These results indicated that the TPRS sample had significantly higher means on these measures as compared with the CLT sample. Additionally, the results of the independent-samples *t*-tests conducted with Introjected Regulation ($p < .066$) and Identified Regulation ($p < .056$) were both found to approach significance at the .05 alpha level, with the results in these cases also indicating that the TPRS sample had higher means as compared with the CLT sample.

This set of results indicated rejection of the null hypotheses (H01) associated with IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge, and IM Stimulation because the results of the associated *t*-tests were found to achieve statistical significance in spite of the fact that this was not the case with regard to the remaining items because statistical significance was not present in these other cases. Also, H1 can be accepted because the results of the combined *t*-tests for IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge, and IM stimulation were found to be statistically higher for the TPRS approach.

Table 6

Independent-Samples t-Tests: LLOS-IEA Motivation Scales

Measure	Levene's Test		*t*-test for Equality of Means			
	F	*p*	*t*	*df*	*p*	Mean Diff.
Amotivation	.831	.364	.332	115	.741	0.087
External Regulation	.202	.654	-.210	115	.834	-0.055
Introjected Regulation	.006	.940	-1.859	115	.066	-0.413
Identified Regulation	.262	.610	-1.931	115	.056	-0.522
IM Accomplishment	.957	.330	-4.143	115	.000	-1.141
IM Knowledge	.226	.635	-3.756	115	.000	-1.047
IM Stimulation	3.707	.057	-6.090	115	.000	-1.592

Hypothesis Two

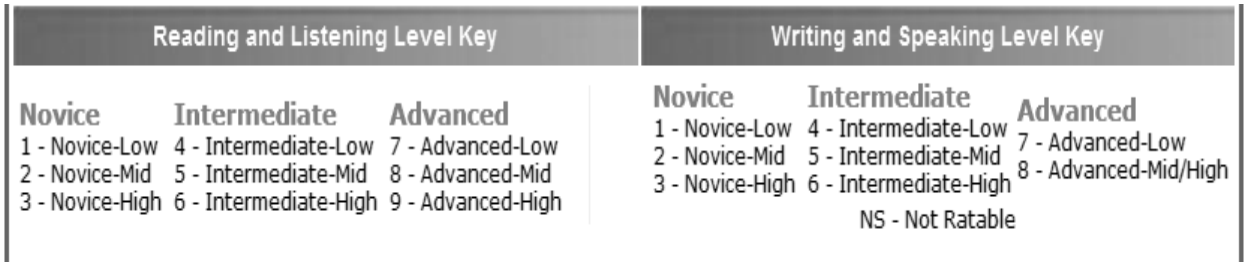
H02: There is no statistically significant difference in the proficiency scores of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Proficiency as measured by the Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening sections of the STAMP 4S proficiency test.

H2: There is a statistically significant difference in the proficiency scores of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Proficiency as measured by the Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening sections of the STAMP 4S proficiency test.

The Spanish III students of the CLT teaching approach completed the online STAMP 4S proficiency test in Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening. Descriptive statistics including Mean, Standard Deviation, and Standard Error of Means were used to describe the data collected through the STAMP 4S test for the CLT participants. Before looking at the descriptive statistics represented in Table 8, it is important to remember the context of the STAMP 4S and its scoring which uses Benchmark Levels 1-9 for Reading and Listening and Benchmark Levels 1-8 for Writing and Speaking. The levels are associated with Benchmark Categories of Novice, Intermediate, and Advanced. While they are similar to ACTFL's levels, there is not a direct correlation. This Benchmark Scale relates to the ACTFL scale as shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2

ACTFL Benchmarks of STAMP 4S Test



The descriptive statistics of the STAMP 4S proficiency test for the CLT participants showed that the students' strongest area was Reading with a Mean score of 4.032. This mean shows that the average students' score for reading was a 4, representing an Intermediate-Low level. The second best category was Writing with a Mean score of 3.466 representing a level between Novice-High and Intermediate-Low. After this, the descriptive statistics shows that

CLT participants' third best proficiency was Speaking with a Mean score of 3.229, representing a level between Novice-High and Intermediate-Low. Last, the Listening is the category for which CLT participants scored the lowest with a Mean score of 2.754, representing a level between Novice-Mid and Novice-High. The Standards Deviations of the four categories are between 0.751 and 1.250.

Standards Deviations being calculated in the same value as the means showed that the individual scores were relatively close to the mean score. Standards Deviations for the STAMP 4S proficiency test results were fairly low in comparison to the means found, suggesting less variation among participant as compared to the Standards Deviations found on the LLOS-IEA set of measures. Also, it is important to note the sample was different for each category as some participants did not finish some of the categories of the STAMP 4S proficiency test. Sixty three (n=63) students completed the Reading section, 58 completed the Writing section, 61 completed the Listening Section, and 48 completed the Speaking section. Table 7 below shows the detailed results.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics of the CLT dataset: STAMP 4S

Measure	Dataset	*N*	Mean	*SD*	SEM
Reading Score	CLT	63	4.032	1.270	0.160
Writing Score	CLT	58	3.466	0.799	0.105
Listening Score	CLT	61	2.754	0.960	0.123
Speaking Score	CLT	48	3.229	0.751	0.108

The Spanish III students of the TPRS teaching approach also completed the online STAMP 4S proficiency test in Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening. Descriptive statistics including Mean, Standard Deviation, and Standard Error of Means were used to describe the data collected through the STAMP 4S test for the TPRS participants. The results are provided in Table 8 shown below.

The descriptive statistics of the STAMP 4S proficiency test for the TPRS participants showed that the students' strongest area was Writing with a Mean score of 3.050. This mean shows that the average students' score for Writing was 3, representing a Novice-High level. The second best category was Speaking with a Mean score of 3.069, representing a level between Novice-High. The Mean score of the Speaking section (x=3.050) was close to the one of the Writing section (x=3.069). After this, the descriptive statistics showed that TPRS participants' third best proficiency category was Reading with a Mean score of 2.667, representing a level between Novice-Mid and Novice-High. Lastly, the Listening was the category for which TPRS participants scored the lowest with a Mean score of 2.211, representing a Novice-Mid level. The Standards Deviations of the four categories are between 0.753 and 1.018.

Standards Deviations being calculated in the same value as the means showed that the individual scores were not very different from the mean scores. Standards Deviations for the STAMP 4S proficiency test results were fairly low in comparison to the means found, suggesting less variation among participants as compared to the Standards Deviations found on the LLOS-IEA set of measures. Also, it is important to note the sample was different for each category as some participants did not finish some of the categories of the STAMP 4S proficiency test. Thirty six (n=36) students completed the Reading section, 29 completed the Writing section, 38 completed the Listening Section, and 20 completed the Speaking section.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics of the TPRS dataset: STAMP 4S

Measure	Dataset	*N*	Mean	*SD*	SEM
Reading Score	TPRS	36	2.667	0.828	0.138
Writing Score	TPRS	29	3.069	0.753	0.140
Listening Score	TPRS	38	2.211	1.018	0.165
Speaking Score	TPRS	20	3.050	0.887	0.198

Looking at the descriptive statistics of both teaching approaches (Table 9), several observations can be made. First, the Mean scores of the CLT participants are higher than the Mean scores of the TPRS participants for all categories of the STAMP 4S proficiency test. The category that shows the most difference is Reading. The CLT sample had a Mean score of 4.032 which represents an Intermediate-Low level and the TPRS sample had a Mean score of 2.667 which represents a level between Novice-Mid and Novice-High. The descriptive statistics showed that for the other three categories of the STAMP 4S proficiency test, the CLT sample had higher Mean scores than the TPRS sample, but these differences do not represent a change within the benchmark classification.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics of the CLT and the TPRS dataset: STAMP 4S

Measure	Dataset	*N*	Mean	*SD*	SEM
Reading Score	CLT	63	4.032	1.270	0.160
	TPRS	36	2.667	0.828	0.138
Writing Score	CLT	58	3.466	0.799	0.105
	TPRS	29	3.069	0.753	0.140
Listening Score	CLT	61	2.754	0.960	0.123
	TPRS	38	2.211	1.018	0.165
Speaking Score	CLT	48	3.229	0.751	0.108
	TPRS	20	3.050	0.887	0.198

After looking at the mean scores of both samples through the use of descriptive statistics, the researcher wanted to discover how significantly different were the mean scores of the CLT data compared to the mean scores of the TPRS data (Table 10). The researcher ran an independent samples *t*-test with the purpose of comparing the means of both data samples. One of the assumptions of the *t*-test is equality of variances between samples. The researcher conducted a Levene's test in order to measure whether the variances between samples were homogeneous or not. It was determined if the *p* value of the Levene's test was less than .05 that the variances between samples were significantly different and that an alternate calculation of the *t*-test were to be used. The results of the Levene's test (Table 10) on the CLT and TPRS samples for the STAMP 4S test indicated that 3 *p* values were greater than .05 (Writing score: $p = .239$; Listening sore: $p = .514$; and Speaking score: $p = .872$) which showed that the variances between samples were homogeneous (Martin & Bridgmon, 2012). One *p* value was less than .05, the *p*

value of the Reading score *(p* = .038) which indicated that the variances between samples were not homogeneous so that the assumption of equality of variances for a *t*- test was violated (Gall et al., 2007). Wielkiewicz (2000) stated that even when the assumption of equality of variances is violated, the results are practically indistinguishable and other statisticians have found that a *t*-test "provide[s] accurate estimates of statistical significance even under conditions of substantial violation" (Gall et al., 2007, p. 315) of equality of variances. Even considering the robustness of the *t*-test, the researcher used an independent-samples t-test equation not assuming the equality of variances for the Reading score category.

After verifying the equality of variances between both samples, a parametric independent sample *t*-test was conducted in order to measure the statistical significance between the mean scores of both groups. The *t*-test helped this researcher to quantify differences between the mean scores of the CLT sample and the TPRS sample and control if the occurred differences were statistically significant and if H02 could be rejected. The *p* value was used to decide whether to accept or reject both null hypothesis (Gall et al., 2007). The *p* value was determined at .05 before computing the *t*-test. Table 4 shows the results of the independent-sample *t*-tests comparing the means of the CLT and the TPRS samples for the STAMP 4S test. As shown in Table 7, significant mean differences between groups were indicated with respect to the subscales of Reading score ($p < .001$), Writing score ($p < .029$), and Listening score ($p < .009$) as the probability levels associated with these analyses were below .05. These results indicated that the CLT sample had significantly higher means on these measures as compared with the TPRS sample. Additionally, the results of the independent-samples *t*-tests conducted with the Speaking score ($p < .399$) were found higher than the alpha level ($p < .05$) and indicated that the difference between the mean score of the CLT sample and the mean score of the TPRS sample

was not significantly different. This set of results indicated a rejection of the null hypothesis (H02) associated with the Reading, Writing and Listening sections of the STAMP 4S test because the results of the associated *t*-tests were found to achieve statistical significance, in spite of the fact that this was not the case with regard to the remaining items because statistical significance was not present in these other cases. H2 was accepted for the results in Reading, Writing, and Listening as mean scores for the CLT approach were significantly higher than the TPRS ones.

Table 10

Independent-Samples t-Tests: STAMP 4S

Measure	Levene's Test		*t*-test for Equality of Means			
	F	*p*	*t*	*df*	*p*	MeanDiff.
Reading Score	4.448	.038	6.461	95.205	.000	1.365
Writing Score	1.405	.239	2.223	85	.029	.397
Listening Score	.429	.514	2.677	97	.009	.544
Speaking Score	.026	.872	.850	66	.399	.179

This chapter served to present and summarize the results of the analyses conducted for this study: *The effect of two foreign language teaching approaches, communicative language teaching and teaching proficiency through reading and storytelling, on motivation and proficiency for Spanish III students in high school*. After the initial descriptive statistics, a series of independent-samples *t*-tests found that the TPRS sample had higher scores on the majority of the L2 Motivation measures coming from the LLOS-IEA scale, with the majority of the analyses conducted achieving or approaching statistical significance at the .05 alpha level. The results of

the independent-samples *t*-tests focusing upon the STAMP 4S measures found that the CLT sample had significantly higher scores on all items with the exception of the Speaking score.

Based on the results found in these analyses, Hypotheses 2 and 3 were found to be strongly supported because the independent-samples *t*-tests conducted in relation to these hypotheses produced a very substantial number of significant results, indicating significant differences between groups with respect to many of these measures. This was indicated through the number of tests which produced significant levels under .05. For H2, the hypothesis was supported for the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scales and the subscales of IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge, and IM Stimulation. Hypothesis 3 was supported for the STAMP 4S test and the categories of Reading, Writing, and Listening.

In the next chapter, the researcher will discuss the findings of this study as well as its limitations. Also, the researcher will elaborate on methodological and practical applications that can be drawn and future research that can be conducted in this field.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMANDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of two teaching approaches: Communicative Language Teaching and Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling on Motivation as defined and categorized by the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale and on the STAMP 4S proficiency test in Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening. During the last fifty years, the number of SLA theories and methods has blossomed, and L2 practitioners and teachers have tried to discover and implement the most effective teaching approaches in order to best meet the needs of their students. Most people would agree that one of those needs is motivation to learn an L2, and this need plays a significant role in the learning process (Gardner, 1985a).

Another aspect of L2 instruction that has received growing consideration is the increasing need to prepare students to enter an increasingly global and diverse workforce. As the need for foreign language knowledge increases, Common Core Standards and the ACTFL are becoming the driving forces of the development of knowledge and skills needed to advance students' L2 proficiency around modes of communication that reflect real-life situations. That being said, the purpose of this study was to address the need for motivation and to enhance students' proficiency by contributing to the literature and data related to L2 learning and teaching approaches.

The researcher chose two L2 teaching approaches that are predominant in many public schools: CLT and TPRS. The researcher also selected two measuring tools that were reliable and external to these teaching approaches in order to be as objective as possible. The first measuring tool was the Language Learning Orientations Scale–Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS – IEA) developed by Noels, Pelletier, Clement, and Vallerand (2000). This scale was designed to consider six different variables of motivation: (a) External Regulation, (b) Introjected Regulation, (c) Identified Regulation, (d) Intrinsic

Motivation/Accomplishment, (e) Intrinsic Motivation/Knowledge and (f) Intrinsic Motivation/Stimulation. The second measuring tool chosen was the STAMP 4S test (Standards-based Measurement of Proficiency) which was developed for middle school-aged students through college students to measure reading, speaking, listening, and writing proficiency. The STAMP 4S holds statistical reliability and validity because each one of its versions goes through a 30,000 student pilot test which produces a minimum of .905 inter-rater reliability (CASLS 2006). Once the measurements were selected, this researcher selected two groups of Spanish III participants, one from the CLT teaching approach and one from the TPRS teaching approach.

Discussion

In this section, findings are summarized in the order of the stated hypotheses for this research study. The first hypothesis was as follows:

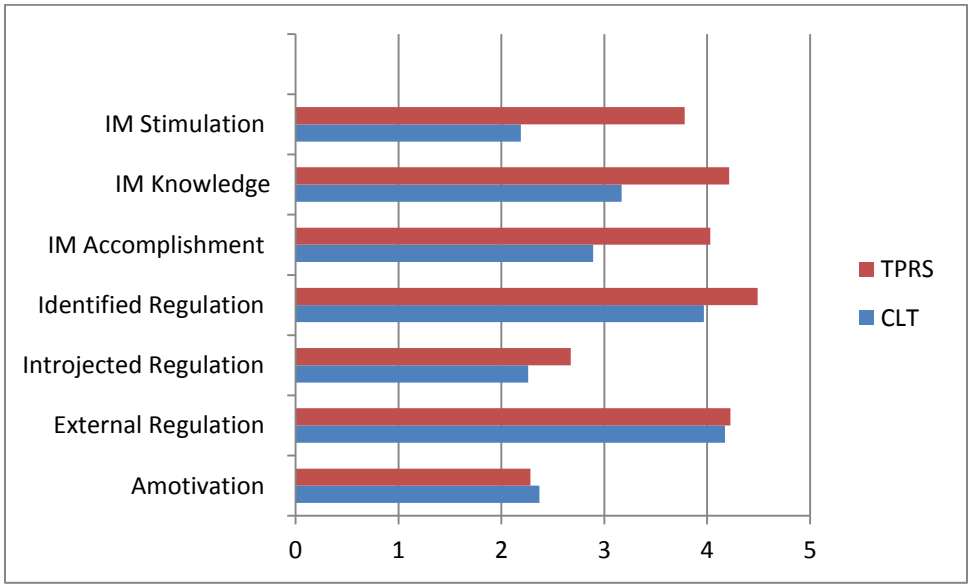
H01: There is no statistically significant difference in the motivation of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Motivation as defined and categorized in the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale as Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge, and IM Stimulation

H1: There is a statistically significant difference in the motivation of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Motivation as defined and categorized in the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale as Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge, and IM Stimulation.

After running a series of descriptive statistics and *t*-tests, this researcher found the following results for the LLOS-IEA scale for both teaching approaches. The TPRS teaching approach had mean scores higher in all cases with the exception of amotivation. The TPRS

mean score for amotivation was $\bar{x}$ = 2.283 and the CLT mean score was $\bar{x}$ = 2.370. Figure 3 provides a visual way of comparing mean scores for the LLOS-IEA scale for both teaching approaches.

Figure 3: CLT and TPRS Mean Score Comparison for LLOS-IEA



Following the analysis, the researcher ran a series of independent-samples *t*-tests in order to determine whether there were significant group differences between the CLT and TPRS students with respect to the LLOS-IEA data. Among these tests, significant differences between these two groups of students were found in three of the following cases: IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge, and IM Stimulation. Also, these tests revealed results that were found to approach significance in two additional cases: Introjected Regulation and Identified Regulation. Based on these results, Hypothesis 1 was supported for the categories of IM Accomplishment, IM Knowledge, and IM Stimulation.

The first hypothesis observed the LLOS-IEA differences between both approaches and the TPRS one had higher mean scores. Perna's (2007) study compared three teaching approaches: traditional, TPRS and instruction through perceptual strength. In the study, Perna

uncovered significant relationships between motivation and student enjoyment of the TPRS vocabulary instruction more than traditional vocabulary instruction (r=.215, p<.05). Perna did use different measuring tools; however, her quantitative results confirm the results of this present study.

The following section will examine the results of this study under the light of the theoretical framework that guided it. Krashen's Language Acquisition Hypotheses continues to have a resilient influence of L2 research, and both teaching approaches examined in this study use it as a theoretical framework. Three out of the five hypotheses are the supporting theories of the TPRS and CLT teaching approaches: the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, the Input Hypothesis, and the Affective Filter. Even though the CLT and TPRS teaching approaches are based on the same hypotheses, they diverge in interpretations.

H1 examined motivation of Spanish III students from the effects of two teaching approaches. Motivation is the variable constituting the Affective Filter Hypothesis of Krashen's Language Acquisition Hypotheses and the idea that affective variables such as motivation, anxiety and self-esteem can inhibit input from reaching the part of the brain in charge of language acquisition, what Chomsky called the "language acquisition device" (Krashen, 1992, p. 6). The Affective Filter Hypothesis describes how students in a classroom can receive the identical comprehensible input but progress (results) can be varied. Proponents of the TPRS teaching approach focus on this hypothesis through different teaching elements, such as creating fascinating stories, engaging students, using humor, creating unusual story lines, using animals as characters, using comprehensible input, and personalizing questions used in the classroom (Ray & Seely, 2004).

This study concluded that, indeed, students' level of motivation was higher in the TPRS classroom. However, in this study, the TPRS-instructed students did not perform at a higher level than the CLT students on the STAMP 4S test, even though their affective filter was down and the inputs they received were comprehensible. This begs the question: if the TPRS approach lowers student's anxiety, as proven by Beal (2011), and increases levels of motivation as shown in this research, why aren't students performing at higher levels linguistically when compared to another approach like the CLT? According to the Affective Filter Hypothesis: "if the Filter is down, or low, and if the input is comprehensible, the input will reach the acquisition device and acquisition will take place" (Gass & Selinker, 2001, p. 201), but the data acquired by the researcher showed this is not always the case.

This section examined the results of this study for H1 in the light of important 2LA theories. Krashen's Language Acquisition Hypotheses and the Output Processing Theory both constitute a framework for the CLT and the TPRS approaches even though their interpretation varies. Taking into consideration these theories and the results of this study, more research is recommended.

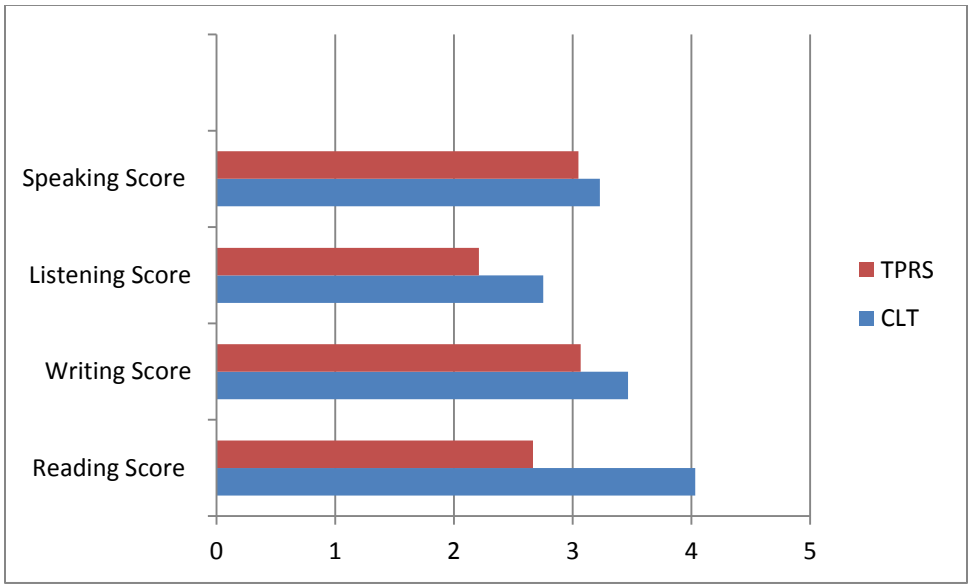
The second hypothesis was as follows:

H02: There is no statistically significant difference in the proficiency scores of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Proficiency as measured by the Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening sections of the STAMP 4S proficiency test.

H2: There is a statistically significant difference in the proficiency scores of Spanish III students in high school between the CLT and TPRS teaching approach. Proficiency as measured by the Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening sections of the STAMP 4S proficiency test.

The researcher ran a series of descriptive statistics and *t*-tests on the STAMP 4S data for both teaching approaches and the CLT data set showed higher mean scores on all measures as compared with the TPRS sample. Figure 4 provides a visual description of the difference in scores on the STAMP 4S between teaching approaches.

Figure 4: CLT and TPRS Mean Scores comparisons for STAMP 4S



Following this analysis, this researcher ran a series of independent-samples *t*-tests in order to determine whether there were significant group differences between the CLT and TPRS students with respect to the STAMP 4S data. Among this set of tests, three in total were found to achieve statistical significance. The test showed that the CLT participants had statistically significant results in all areas of the STAMP 4S except for the Speaking score. These results lend strong support to Hypothesis 2 as the CLT sample showed higher levels in all areas of the STAMP 4S but the Speaking score.

One of the purposes of this study was to examine its findings in light of other studies looking at the same variables for similar groups. The third hypothesis stated that the effects of the CLT teaching approaches would have a greater positive impact on the proficiency scores of

Spanish III students in high school. Proficiency as measured by the Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening sections of the STAMP 4S proficiency test.

Spangler's 2009 examination of the *Effects of Two Foreign Language Methodologies, Communicative Language Teaching and Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling, on Beginning-Level Students' Achievement, Fluency, and Anxiety* was one of the first to compare both approaches with supporting quantitative data. Spangler used the STAMP 4S test to assess students' achievement and fluency and discovered that achievement results in reading and writing did not produce a statistical significant difference between both groups after running an independent-sample *t*-test. This is a contrast with the present study as this author found statistically significant differences between both approaches for the reading and writing categories of the STAMP 4S test.

While there are some differences, these results are not necessarily contradictory because different variables may be involved. For example, Spangler conducted her study among beginning-level students in high school whereas this present study used level III students. The length of exposure to the language may also have played a role in students' achievement. Beyond that, Spangler also measured and compared students' achievement in speaking for both teaching approaches and found that TPRS students outperformed CLT students, and the difference was statistically significant after running an independent-sample *t*-test. This present study found that the CLT study outperformed the TPRS students in speaking, but the statistical difference was not significant. Again, Spangler's study focused on beginning-level students, whereas the present study focused on level III students whose level of speaking fluency may have been different has a result of several variables not present in her study.

The second study to compare with this present one is Beal's (2011) examination of *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*. In this study, Beal compared TPRS classes to traditional classes based on academic success. It must be noted that he did not compare the TPRS students to the specific CLT approach and the students' academic success was measured through final exams written by the school district's foreign language department, not through a national standardized test.

In Beal's study, the students in traditional classes scored higher on the final exam than the TPRS students, but these results were not significant. Similar results appeared for the reading section of the final exam; the traditional students tended to score higher than the TPRS students, but these scores were not statistically significant. When Beal separated results between middle and high schools students, he found that TPRS students outperformed traditional students. This difference seems to confirm other qualitative research such as Garczynski (2003),who found that middle school students benefited more from the TPRS approach more than older students.

Finally, the third and most recent study on the TPRS teaching approach was conducted by Oliver (2013) who compared beginning Spanish college students in four traditional classes and two TPRS classes. The results of Oliver's study showed that TPRS students outperformed traditional students for the reading, writing, and grammar sections of their test. Even though this study quantitatively compared testing scores for four traditional classes and two TPRS classes, the author failed to provide research questions, measuring tools, methodology, descriptive statistics and analysis of data. Therefore, it is difficult to compare Oliver's study to the present one due to the lack of empirical data.

The amount of research that compares both teaching approaches based on measurable and reliable variables is still scarce. The present study aims to fill some of the gaps, particularly by adding quantitative data. Now that this study has uncovered different effects from each teaching approach on the variables of the LLOS-IEA scale and the STAMP 4S test, more research must be conducted to observe these variables under different conditions and with different population samples.

The Acquisition Learning Hypothesis asserts that a student has two independent means of developing and acquiring an L2: language acquisition and language learning. Language acquisition is a subconscious process and takes place when receiving meaningful inputs; language learning is conscious and usually happens in a learning environment such as a school. CLT and TPRS were born out of a desire to see L2 students receiving comprehensible input and using their L2 in a more practical and meaningful way; however, both approaches look at the Acquisition Learning Hypothesis from a different angle. The CLT approach uses language acquisition and language learning deliberately as teachers will pause to look at grammar rules and explicitly do language learning. On the other hand, the TPRS approach spends more time on language acquisition aspects than language learning. This difference could be one of the elements that impacts students' level of motivation since TRPS students are not required to learn grammar rules and teachers do not emphasize the language learning aspect of the Acquisition Learning Hypothesis. On the other hand, this difference could also be an element that impacts students' achievement as CLT students performed higher on the STAMP 4S test as the CLT approach emphasizes both elements of the Acquisition Learning Hypothesis.

Krashen's Input Hypothesis suggests that a student acquires an L2 when he or she understands messages or obtains "comprehensible input" (1982, p. 4). Krashen (1982) stated

that “the Input Hypothesis may be the single most important concept in 2LA theory today. The Input Hypothesis is important because it attempts to answer the crucial theoretical question of how we acquire language” (p. 9). The CLT teaching approach leads students to acquire language skills from real-life situations or communicative tasks, such as being able to introduce oneself or order food at a restaurant. The TPRS approach does not provide inputs from real-life communicative tasks but from personalized mini-stories, stories, mini-stories, and chapter stories (Ray & Seely, 2004). Both teaching approaches provide the comprehensible input Krashen discusses, but their content is different. One comes from real-life communication, and the other from made-up stories. This present study examined students’ achievement in various L2 skills and inputs such as reading and listening. The CLT students significantly outperformed the TPRS students in these two areas. Could it be because the STAMP 4S test presented real-life communicative tasks?

Swain (1985) defined another important theory underlying the CLT and TPRS approaches: the Output Processing Theory. This theory explains that input alone is not sufficient to acquire a L2. Swain asserted that L2 students need both input through listening and reading and output through speaking and writing in order to fully grasp the L2 because “it forces the learner to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing” (p. 249).

The CLT approach introduces the Output Processing Theory early into the teaching process, often as early as the first day. The TPRS teaching approach, on the other hand, does not emphasize production early on. TPRS proponents argue that students should be exposed to the L2 for a considerable length of time before being asked to produce any words. In this current study, students' output was measured through the speaking and writing sections of the STAMP 4 test. The CLT students outperformed the TPRS students. In fact, their performance represented

a significant statistical difference for the writing section. Are CLT students performing better on writing tasks because they are required to write from the beginning?

Conclusion

This study examined the effects of two teaching approaches on motivation and proficiency. The first hypothesis observed the differences in the effect of the CLT approach and the TPRS approach on L2 motivation as defined by the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale. Motivation remains an important subject to study as Gardner (2010) reminded us when he stated the following after years of research:

> "In our research, we have investigated different aspects of second language learning varying from simple vocabulary learning to oral communication. We have defined achievement in terms of performance on objective tests of grammar and aural comprehension, oral production, grades in the language course and we amazes me is that motivation has been found to be implicated at all stages" (p. 8).

As previously stated, the LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale was based upon the work of various solid motivation theories from scholars including Deci and Ryan (1985), Dörnyei (2001), and Gardner (2010). The LLOS-IEA Motivation Scale examines seven constructs of motivation: Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified Regulation, Intrinsic Motivation–Accomplishment, Intrinsic Motivation–Knowledge, and Intrinsic Motivation–Stimulation. Each one of these constructs was explained at length in Chapter Two. The results of this study indicated that a statistically significant difference existed between the Intrinsic Motivation–Accomplishment, Intrinsic Motivation–Knowledge, and Intrinsic Motivation–Stimulation of both teaching approaches. The TPRS approach students presented significant higher levels of these three constructs. The results indicated no statistically significant differences between both teaching approaches for the remaining four constructs: Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation and Identified Regulation.

Both teaching approaches were born with a desire to engage students in the learning process and do it in a motivating way. The motivating elements of each approach are different though. The CLT approach uses highly communicative tasks engaging the students in the learning process and placing them into a real-life scenario (Littlewood, 1995). The TPRS uses students' imagination, choice and creativity when creating personalized stories, mini stories and chapter stories (Ray & Sleely, 2004). This study revealed that TPRS students exhibited more Intrinsic Motivation–Accomplishment, Intrinsic Motivation–Knowledge, and Intrinsic Motivation–Stimulation than CLT students. Considering the existing literature and observing that both teaching approaches engage students, this difference can be explained by the fact that TPRS students appear to have more choice in their learning as they choose their stories, words, and employ creativity as they please. This freedom of choice can be a powerful factor affecting intrinsic motivation, as Patall, Cooper, and Robinson (2008) found when they examined the effects of choice on intrinsic motivation and related outcomes. In their meta-analysis, they reviewed the findings of 41 studies that examined the effect of choice on intrinsic motivation and related outcomes in several settings with adults and children. Results showed that providing choice enhanced intrinsic motivation.

Another element that could increase the intrinsic motivation of TPRS students more than CLT students lies in the fact that TPRS students do not perform for grades. Teachers do not use grades in order to "test" students; grades are given based on engagement into the learning process. Students are then not working for an external reward and move from an external to an internal purpose. Deci & Ryan (1985) stated "Intrinsically motivated behavior has an internal perceived locus of causality: the person does it for internal rewards such as

interest and mastery; extrinsically motivated behavior has an external perceived locus of causality: the person does it to get an extrinsic rewards or to comply with an external constraint" (p. 49). Deci & Ryan (1985) also found that grades and rewards are to be used carefully because research has shown that intrinsically motivated learning is superior that the extrinsically one. Lastly, Deci & Ryan (1985) suggested that students see grades and classroom rewards as controlling elements of the learning experience and these grades affect students' intrinsic motivation for learning.

Motivation is also part of the Affective Filter Hypothesis of Krashen (1985). In this hypothesis, Krashen indicated that language acquisition is higher when motivation is high and anxiety is low. Anxiety between both teaching approaches was examined recently by Spangler (2009) and Beal (2011). These studies did not show any major differences in students' anxiety level between both teaching approaches. Anxiety cannot be a contributing factor of higher levels of IM motivation in TPRS students. Also, according to Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis, the higher the motivation level, the better the language acquisition. This leads to the question: if TPRS students indicated more IM than CLT students, why did they not perform better on the STAMP 4S test?

In order to examine this question, let us look at the H2.

The second hypothesis of this study examined the effect of the CLT and TPRS teaching approaches on language proficiency. The results indicated that CLT students significantly outperformed TPRS students in regards to Reading, Writing, and Listening proficiency. First, let us examine these proficiency categories from a language learning acquisition standpoint. The reading and listening proficiency scores are part of the input hypothesis of Krashen's Monitor Model (1982). Krashen explained that the input hypothesis "may be the most important concept

in second language acquisition theory" (p. 9). As a reminder, this hypothesis proposes that students learn an L2 when they understand comprehensible inputs. The more students understand the messages they receive, the more language acquisition takes place. Both approaches pay close attention to making inputs comprehensible for students, but their approach deviates one from another.

The CLT approach provides comprehensible inputs from real-life situations. Students are immersed in language inputs, reading, and listening, all of which comes from articles, media, movies, restaurant menus, radio messages, news, and more. Teachers using the CLT approach introduce new input within a specific context. They place students in a real-life context such as buying a train ticket and introduce new inputs within that context. Littlewood (1995) suggested that putting the learners "in situations they might expect to encounter at some point" (p. 10) helps them to conceptualize the language and provides a link between structure and function. Littlewood (1995) also emphasized that "since the relationship between forms and functions is variable and cannot be definitively predicted outside of specific situations, the learner must also be given opportunities to develop strategies for interpreting language in actual use" (p. 3).

The TPRS approach provides comprehensible inputs from personalized mini-stories, and chapter stories (Ray & Sleely, 2004). Using personalized and created stories pushes the teachers and the students to use vocabulary and structure that is known and comprehensible but does not provide enough +1 input encouraging the students to the next level. Real-life stories provide this +1 input and enhance students' ability to read and understand L2 inputs above their levels. The TPRS approach also pre-teaches vocabulary out of context before placing them into a context. TPRS practitioners teach new vocabulary by first explaining the meaning and translating it then later providing comprehensible inputs using this new vocabulary (Ray & Sleevy, 2004).

Krashen disagreed with pre-teaching vocabulary and thought that over time it was more efficient to let vocabulary be assimilated within a specific context.

Even though the TPRS strives to total understanding, it initially detaches it from a context. This disparity may play a major role when students are tested with a tool such as the STAMP 4S test because it assesses real-world knowledge by using real-world questions. This emphasis on real-world questions was one of the reasons for choosing the STAMP 4S test in this study. The researcher sought to evaluate students' real-life language ability because after all, that is what students need the most. Students need to be able to communicate with the real world for job fulfilment and personal activities. How can students be expected to be proficient in a language using a teaching approach that mainly exposes them to made-up stories such as the TPRS approach?

Input alone is not sufficient to the language acquisition process; output is necessary as well. Writing and speaking are part of the Output Processing Theory, giving students the opportunity to express themselves in the L2. As Swain (1985) stated "it forces the learner to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing" (p. 249).

Since the results of this study indicated higher results of the writing proficiency for the CLT approach, it is important to examine this component alone. The Output Processing Theory puts forward that output is essential to the learners as it (1) helps them to notice the gap between what they want to say and what they know how to say; (2) helps them to receive feedback from their interlocutors; and (3) encourages the learners to reflect on the language and empowers them to internalize linguistic knowledge. Krashen (1987) agreed with the output elements of language acquisition and explained that it "provides a domain for error correction. When this error is

corrected, this supposedly helps the learner to change his or her conscious mental representation of the rule or alter the environment of rule application" (p. 61).

Practitioners of the CLT and TPRS approaches view the Output Processing Theory differently in the writing component. Teachers using the CLT approach expect students to write early on in their learning process—during the first year certainly. . Teachers of the TPRS approach also assign written tasks to their students, but they are not required to produce correct or complete sentences. Students are only required to do the work, not master the work (Ray & Seely, 2004).

This disparity brings another difference between both approaches. Practitioners of the CLT approach teach grammar systematically and stop the learning process in order to examine how the language works; practitioners of the TPRS approach do not "deal with grammar in any of the traditional ways" (Ray & Seely, 2004, p. 129). The TPRS approach does "pop-up" questions about grammatical elements in a studied story. CLT students learn grammar systematically and are requested to produce correct written tasks early on, whereas TPRS students do not stop to examine grammar systematically and are not requested to produce sentences grammatically correct at the start. This difference in instruction was clear in the results of the writing section of the STAMP 4S test which required students' to write accurate and complete sentences.

Now, let us look at the speaking aspect of the Output Processing Theory. This study indicated that both groups scored different levels, but these levels were not statistically significant. This section surprised this researcher as both approaches see this element completely differently. On one hand, the CLT approach requires students to speak an L2 as early as day

one. Ellis (1995) showed that students exposed to native speakers and required to produce output messages gain more vocabulary than learners not required to speak or to write.

On the other hand, the TPRS approach has a silent period during which students are immersed in the language and are not required to speak. Asher (1993), creator of the TPR approach, which became part of the TPRS approach, was a supporter of allowing students to receive the language with a silent period and of deferring the spoken language. In other words, the output is delayed for the students as they listen to many inputs. Delaying the spoken language is based on Krashen's Natural Order Hypothesis, which claims that L2 students acquire the different parts of a language in an expected order (Krashen, 1982).

According to Krashen (1982), forcing output of certain structures before the L2 students have acquired them will result in failing. Krashen explained that pushing students to speak will make them uncomfortable, activate their affective filter, and lower their acquisition.

In personal encounters with TPRS instructors, the researcher of this present study found that teachers claimed that once students started to speak, it was difficult to stop them. Based on the claims of several qualitative researchers (Taulbee, 2008; Webster, 2009; Foster, 2011) and the fact that the TPRS approach puts so much emphasis on not correcting students (believed to help lower their anxiety level (Spangler, 2009) and motivate them to speak) led the researcher to expect that TPRS students would outperform CLT students on the speaking section of the STAMP 4S test. The researcher was surprised to find out that the TPRS students, did not in fact, outperform the CLT students in this section.

These findings also contradicted Spangler (2009), who found that TPRS students outperformed traditional students in speaking, but not in reading, writing and listening. Spangler, however, did not compare the TPRS approach to the CLT approach. In addition, the

STAMP 4S test assessed both groups on correct speech and d this emphasis on correctness over general understanding may have played a major role in the results found in this study. Again, speaking in an L2 is essential for students of both approaches, but conveying a message that is understood and grammatically correct is essential for preparing students to communicate outside of the classroom and a signature feature of the CLT approach.

The argument could be made that the differences Spangler (2009) found may also have occurred because the students evaluated in that case were beginners and many mistakes frequently arise at the beginner level. This present study, however, was conducted with third year Spanish students. These students had three years to practice output messages and assimilate grammatical structures.

The findings of this study in relation to speaking may be attributed to the teaching methods themselves. Teachers using the CLT approach study grammar systematically from the beginning of the students' instruction. Teachers of the TPRS approach do not look at grammar systematically and delay teaching major elements of the language until the third year. This means TPRS students have little exposure to essential grammatical requirements like future tenses before the third year (Ray & Seely, 2004).

This study indicated that CLT students outperformed TPRS students in Reading, Writing and Listening. This researcher examined the possible reasons for these results by looking at how both teaching approaches deal with these different parts of speech. One of the biggest findings was that the emphasis on real-life knowledge favored by the STAMP 4S test highlighted significant differences in the two teaching methods being considered. CLT students are exposed to real-life communicative tasks and are required to produce outputs early on with accuracy and context. TPRS students are exposed to made-up stories and reading activities and are not

required to produce messages early on with accuracy and within a real-life context. This means that the students under the CLT method performed better on a test designed to evaluate their real-world preparedness in the use of their particular L2.

These conclusions provide a number of points for teachers and practitioners to consider. First, students are required to perform in a world that demands real communication. The teaching approach used in a classroom should always be concerned with reality and encourage students to be connected to this reality. Second, students are real people with real differences and teachers need to take this element into account. Neither of the two teaching approaches under study proved to be the "ultimate choice" when it came to students' motivation and/or proficiency. Because students learn differently and have different academic needs, one approach may meet one student's needs better than the other. Therefore, teachers must be willing to foster diversity of approaches. For example, one student may require a TPRS approach for a variety of reasons and may need help with translation or mimicking of vocabulary; another student may understand vocabulary within the context.

In the end, differentiating instruction is the key when faced with a diverse public. This is also essential in an educational climate that is increasingly relying on standardized curricula and testing. Even though teachers want their students to succeed on these tests, their goal should always be to push students to a level higher than the standards.

The outside reality and the reality of diversity of students are complex matters and still poorly understood by many (Littlewood, 1995). Therefore, no definite teaching approach will ever be the best solution for an entire body of students. This study was an attempt to contribute to the existing literature by adding some missing, even though small, elements to this endeavor

of understanding two prominent teaching approaches and the effects on motivation and proficiency.

Implications

For the last two decades, L2 practitioners and teachers have employed different L2 teaching approaches in order to motivate students to learn an L2 and learn it well. Upon investigating two L2 teaching approaches—CLT and TPRS—the researcher found that the CLT approach enabled the students in question to achieve at a higher level of proficiency in reading, writing and listening compared to the TPRS approach, but the students' level of motivation to learn this L2 was lower compared to those learning under the TPRS approach. The speaking scores were not significantly different between students of both approaches.

On the other hand, the research found that students learning under the TPRS approach had higher levels of motivation than those learning through the CLT approach. The discrepancies between motivation and proficiency may be explained by different factors and variables often highlighted in L2 teaching debates. Littlewood (1981) explained the CLT approach the following way: "one of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view" (p. 1). For example, the users of the CLT approach usually measure students' proficiency through authentic assessments and many school districts today do it through nationally standardized tests. Teachers using the CLT approach also teach grammar exclusively.

The fact that CLT is more rigid and systematic seemed to allow students to achieve at a higher level but ultimately lacked the motivational elements needed to sustain students' interest. Proponents of the TPRS approach have argued that the motivational element should come out of

Krashen's natural acquisition theory which pushes L2 teachers to give many inputs to students and proposes teaching grammar more exclusively. In addition to this, the wide variety of activities found in the TPRS approach seems to foster students' motivation and its usefulness in this arena should be investigated more thoroughly.

Methodological Implications

Several implications can be drawn from this study. Any L2 teaching approach should be evaluated against nationally standardized test scores because national standardized testing is the direction being taken by most school districts and states. Moreover, each L2 teaching approach proponent who claims to have students scoring at high levels on nationally standardized tests should be able to present actual empirical data supporting these claims to the academic community.

According to Ray and other proponents of the TPRS approach, students in TRPS classes who take standardized tests "consistently score better than the national average" (as quoted in Schmitz & Polito, 2004, p. vi), but no references were provided for these claims. In a recent dissertation study, Beal (2011) provided empirical data by testing over 800 middle school and high school students on their proficiency for several L2s. In this particular study, the high school students in non-TPRS classes scored significantly higher than TPRS students in regards to academic achievement. Even though proficiency was measured by exams created internally by the school district, and not by a nationally standardized test, the results must still be considered.

This study was quantitative in nature and focused on adding empirical data comparing both teaching approaches based on valid and reliable measuring instruments for the variables of L2 motivation and proficiency. However, the results of this study appear to challenge the findings of other studies in which TPRS classes outperform non-TPRS classes. This study

provides a set of data that is new to the field and seems to contradict studies that are more qualitative in nature, raising the question do qualitative studies provide data that is difficult to measure quantitatively such as student/teacher rapport, an element that could contribute to students' performance? The results show that both qualitative and quantitative research methods must be utilized in this type of research in order to discover why there are discrepancies in results measuring students' proficiency for both teaching approaches.

One of the biggest implications of this study was the finding that, statistically, the TPRS students were more motivated to learn than the CLT students. This naturally raises the question of how to foster and sustain motivation throughout the L2 learning process. This question should lead to continued and increased research on inventive and less formal learning environments. It also highlights the need for TPRS proponents to make time to qualitatively study which elements of their approach foster motivation in order to apply them to other L2 approaches. Ray and Seely (2004) also offered elements to sustain students' interest and motivation in their book *Fluency through TPR Storytelling: Achieving Real Language Acquisition in School.* They highlighted elements such as asking questions, using humor, involving students in the teaching, creating a story, and teachers' enthusiasm and excitement.

In addition to finding ways to increase motivation among L2 students, it will also be important to continue to study the effects of choice on student motivation. Copper and Robinson (2008) conducted a meta-analysis of 41 research findings on the effects of choice—in the stories and questions they create during class time—on intrinsic motivation and related outcomes. Their results showed that providing choice enhanced intrinsic motivation, effort, task performance and perceived outcomes which raise the question does the TPRS approach enhance

motivation due to the fact that students have choices in the content they create during class time? Again, further studies must be conducted in this area.

Practical Implications

It is clear that one single L2 teaching approach does not meet every student's needs. In this study, this researcher focused on the variables of L2 motivation and proficiency and found that neither method offered the perfect solution to enhance both variables. Based on these findings and because it is imperative that students perform with a high level of motivation and proficiency, this researcher highly recommends L2 practitioners and teachers blend teaching approaches within their classroom. Based on the research discussed previously, students would benefit from incorporating elements of TPRS into a primarily CLT-based approach because combining the CLT focus on meaningful outputs with the TPRS focus on comprehensible inputs would likely enhance students' overall proficiency and motivation.

That being said, L2 practitioners and teachers must carefully find a balance between teaching approaches. CLT is an approach that is communicative and focuses on form and error correction, whereas TPRS focuses on communication. As Lightbown and Spada (2006) concluded: "form-focused instruction and corrective feedback within the context of communicative and content-based programmes are more effective in promoting second language learning than programmes that are limited to a virtually exclusive emphasis on comprehension, fluency, or accuracy alone" (p. 179). Both teaching approaches have elements that practitioners can use within the classroom in order to maximize students' proficiency level. Limitations

This study focused on measuring quantitatively the effects of two L2 teaching approaches, the CLT and the TPRS, on L2 motivation and proficiency for 117 Spanish III students in high school. This researcher had intended to collect data from a much larger sample;

however, several factors led to a more limited sample size. One of the biggest limitations in having a small sample size is, as emphasized by Gall, Gall and Borg (2007): "the larger the sample, the smaller the difference, relationship, or effect needed to reject the null hypothesis" (p. 143). Moreover, Gall, Gall and Borg (2007) describe that a 0.5 alpha level of significance acceptable with a sample size of *N= 117* like this study. Gall et al. (2007) explain that with a sample size greater than *N=50,* a null hypothesis can be rejected at the 0.5 level of significance. Even though the sample (*N*=117) is considered large enough to draw conclusions from, this study would be statistically stronger with a larger sample because the margin of error would decrease.

Being quantitative in nature, the present study is less subject to bias than case study research (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 1999). Even though this study collected categorical data, the researcher detached herself from it during the entire data collection by gathering data from two school districts where she had not taught or had personal relationships with students, teachers, or administrators. The researcher did not meet with the participants of this study before, during, or after the data collection. Participants took a reliable, valid, and national test for proficiency and completed a validated L2 motivation survey, neither of which was produced by this researcher. Also, despite the fact that this researcher studied L2 teaching methodology in Europe and taught with a similar teaching approach to CLT, she never taught specifically or exclusively with the approaches in question. In fact, this researcher specifically chose these two L2 teaching approaches to limit the bias of this study.

This study used two instruments to measure students' proficiency: the LLOS-EIA survey and the STAMP 4S test. The first instrument was a self-reporting survey in which participants gave a score to different statements related to motivational orientations. Gall, Gall, and Borg

(2007) found that these type of tests "are generally much more objective, because they are mostly self-administered and all scorers can apply a scoring key; which allows them to agree perfectly" (p. 194). Also, in order to allow participants to respond without the bias of thinking that someone was going to judge their self-reporting survey, they filled it out anonymously. Questions that participants answered had also been tested in multiple studies in the past (Noël, 2003).

The second instrument, the STAMP 4S test, was designed by the Center for Applied Second Language Studies in Oregon (2006). This test holds statistical reliability and validity, as each one of its version goes through a 30,000 student pilot test which produces a minimum of 905 of inter-rater reliability according to the CASLS (2006). This instrument is non-biased and also self-administered. Proctors monitored the participants during the STAMP 4S test but in no way participated or guided them throughout the test.

As far as the sample is concerned, geographical location of the study was a limitation. Both groups of participants came from school districts located on the East Coast of the United States. Reproducing this study in another geographical location inside or outside of the United States could produce results of a different nature. Additionally, this study only examined two groups of participants--high school Spanish III--from two school districts and represented only a small portion of that population.

As far as validity is concerned, the results do not have external validity neither on other groups of same characteristics in other geographical locations or on groups with different characteristics from the same geographical location. This sample only represents an experimentally accessible population (Brach and Glass, 1968). Also, in this case, internal validity does not apply as this study did not seek to establish a causal relationship between

variables. Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007) stated that "the criterion of internal validity is not applicable to descriptive case study research, because it does not seek to identify causal patterns in phenomena" (p. 477).

Other limitations related to the L2 teaching approaches themselves ought to be mentioned. First, each of these two approaches has been defined by authors and practitioners, and their application varies from classroom to classroom. Also, these are approaches and not methods. In 1987, Richard and Rodgers stated the following about the CLT approach:

> Communicative Language Teaching is best considered an approach rather than a method. Thus although a reasonable degree of theoretical consistency can be discerned at the levels of language and learning theory, at the levels of design and procedure there is much greater room for individual interpretation and variation than most methods permit. (p. 83).

TPRS is described as a method by Ray and Seely (2004), but its application varies from teacher to teacher. If both teaching approaches could be defined concisely and measured and applied consistently, the results of this study might vary. Second, this study did not seek to examine the entire TPRS approach. TPRS has many facets and has evolved over the years through different methods such as TPR, storytelling, reading stories and more. This study only examined the TPRS teaching approach itself. The same observation applies to the CLT teaching approach.

The results of this study are not to be generalized to other L2 students because the study focused on Spanish III students in high school. Results do not apply to students in their first or second year of L2 studies in high school. The results also do not apply to students who are younger or college students, since the data was collected from high school students with distinct,

age-related characteristics. The results also cannot be applied to Spanish III students studying under another teaching approach besides TPRS or CLT.

Another limitation was in the instrument used to measure motivational orientations from two L2 teaching approaches. The researcher made sure that she chose students from both teaching approaches based on similar characteristics such as the L2 studied—in this case, Spanish III. The researcher did not choose other L2s because some languages are proven to be more or less challenging than others to learn because of their closeness to the L1 of the students.

Teacher preparedness was also a limitation. This researcher did not know each teacher's former education and training and could not account for such variables. Each teacher, however, received specific training within their school or school district on the unique principles that their teaching approach holds, as well as knowledge and practical ways to implement the teaching approach within their L2 classrooms. Department chairs also observed teachers on a regular basis in order to provide constructive feedback on how to maximize the teaching approach. .

The researcher also presumed that the students who would participate in this study would do it objectively. However, some students may have not participated objectively and the results may show some context-sensitive bias.

Lastly, but most importantly, the data collection was done on a small scale for several reasons. The researcher spent several months contacting different L2 departments in the country and many refused to participate in this research. The main reason was the lack of time allotted to L2 studies in general because of other areas of focus such as mathematics and English. Another reason was teachers' lack of understanding of their own L2 teaching approach. When the researcher contacted foreign language departments and inquired about their L2 teaching approaches, department chairs or teachers were often unsure of their own approach and unaware

of current L2 teaching approaches, raising additional questions about the training foreign language educators receive before and after becoming L2 instructors. The data sample was also small because of the difficulty of matching one set of participants from the CLT teaching approach with one from the TRPS teaching approach.

Recommendations for Future Research

The Effect of Two Foreign Language Teaching Approaches, Communicative Language Teaching and Teaching Proficiency Through Reading and Storytelling, on Motivation and Proficiency for Spanish III Students in High School was intended to add to the lack of empirical data in the field. Some research has been conducted comparing the CLT and TPRS teaching approaches, but much more must be done to truly understand which works best for students where motivation and proficiency are concerned. This researcher makes the following recommendations in order to increase the empirical data in this particular field of research:

1. This study focused mainly on Spanish III students at the high school level. It is recommended that this study be reproduced with Spanish I and II students in high school or Spanish students at diverse levels in middle school and elementary school.
2. This study concentrated on the study of Spanish as an L2. The field would benefit from reproducing the same study with different L2s such as French, German, Chinese, Arabic, Farsi, and others because Spanish presents difficulties that are different than learning Chinese or Arabic. Focusing on a different L2 could help practitioners and teachers better understand L2 motivation and proficiency when comparing these two teaching approaches.
3. This study included 117 participants and should be reproduced on a much larger scale in order to be able to randomize the data and increase the statistical strength and reliability.

4. Ray and Seely (2003) reported positive success with the TPRS teaching approach, but they did not provide enough empirical data. It appears that many of these success stories may be due to immeasurable variables, such as student/teacher rapport and teacher personalities. This researcher recommends future studies focus on producing more qualitative data in order to better understand the strengths and weaknesses of this teaching approach when compared with others.
5. This researcher recommends that more nationally standardized tests be used in TPRS-focused research in order to provide a stronger comparison of this approach with other teaching approaches. Measuring against national standards, such as the STAMP 4S test would strengthen the comparison because it seems unfair to claim success stories of one L2 teaching approach without measuring it on the national level.
6. This researcher also recommends more qualitative research comparing both teaching approaches in order to delineate the phenomenon of L2 motivation and proficiency from an observational standpoint.
7. After conducting this study, this researcher recommends doing more research on teaching certification and the way teachers learn to teach an L2. The amount of time it took to find and prepare just two participating schools for this study revealed the lack of teacher training and teacher's knowledge of L2 teaching approaches. This gap in teachers' own knowledge of L2 teaching methodology and pedagogy could have an impact on students' proficiency and motivation
8. A study incorporating TPRS teaching techniques and elements into the CLT approach and measuring its effect on proficiency and motivation is recommended.

9. This study used the LLOS-IEA which was designed to measure motivational orientations combining previous models such as Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory, constructs discoursed by Gardner (1985), Clément (1980), and others. The author of the LLOS-IEA scale, Noels (2001), recommended that this scale be used in different studies to "provide insight into how the two motivational substrates work together, taking into consideration the various people who affect learners' motivation and the diverse contexts in which language learning occurs" (as quoted in Dörnyei & Schmidt, p. 62). This researcher recommends using the LLOS-IEA in different L2 settings to further the application and empirical data of this model of motivation.

REFERENCES

Alfiana, F (2013). Motivation in learning English of first year students at study program of English faculty of cultural studies Universistas Brawijaya. *Journal Ilmiah Mahasiswa FIB, 3(1).*

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (2012). *ACTFL proficiency guidelines*. Retrieved from http://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/public/ACTFLProficiencyGuidelines2012_FINAL.pdf

Ardasheva, Y., Tong S. S., & Tretter, T. R. (2012). Validating the English language learner motivation scale (EELMS): Pre-college to measure language learning motivational orientations among young ELLS. *Learning and Individual differences, 22*, 473-483.

Asher, J. J. (1965). The strategy of total physical response: An application to learning Russian. *International Review of Applied Linguistics, 3*, 291-300.

Asher, J. J. (1981). The total physical response: theory and practice. *Native Language and Foreign Language Acquisition, 379,* 324-331.

Asher, J. J. (1984). Language by command: The total physical response approach to learning language. *Context Institute,* 35.

Asher, J. J. (1993). *Learning another language through actions*. Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions.

Asher, J. J. (2009). *Learning another language through actions*. (7th ed.). Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions.

AvantAssement. (2013). STAMP success story. *Arlington, VA: Arlington public schools*. Retrieved from http://www.avantassessment.com/sites/default/files/ArlingtonPublicSchools_STAMP.pdf

AvantAssessment. (2013). STAMP success story. *University of Minnesota, Mineapolis, and St Paul, MN*. Retrieved from http://www.avantassessment.com/sites/default/files/UofMinnSuccessStorySTAMP.pdf

Beal, D. K. (2011). 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. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from University of Kansas. (3449943).

Beyer, F. (2008). *Impact of TPR on the preterit tense in Spanish*. (Master's thesis). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (Accession Order No. AAT 1453782)

Bracht, G. H., & Glass, G. V. (1968). The external validity of experiments. *American Education Research Journal, 5,* 437-474.

Braunstein, L. (2006). Adult ESL learners' attitudes towards movement (TPR) and drama (TPR storytelling) in the classroom. *CATESOL, 18*(1), 7-20.

Bustamante, M.C. (2009). *Measuring the effectiveness of a TPRS pilot course in Spanish at the 100 college level*. (Master's thesis). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (Accession Order No. AAT 1470219)

CASLS Center for Applied Second Language Studies. (2006). Retrieved from http://casls.uoregon.edu/pages/tools/stamp.php

Cattell, A. G. (2009). *Re-evaluating communicative language teaching: Wittgenstein and postmethod pedagogy* (Order No. MR56018). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Full Text; ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (305139454)

Catton, J. C. (2006). *A pilot study on a holistic model incorporating a psycholinguistic approach accelerating second language acquisition.* (Master's thesis). Dominican University of California, San Rafael, CA. Retrieved from ERIC database (ED491629).

Chomsky, N. (1957). *Syntactic structures*. London: Mouton.

Chomsky, N. (1959). *Reflections on language*. New York: Pantheon.

Chomsky, N. (1959). Review of verbal behavior by B. F. Skinner. *Language*, *35*(1), 26-58.

Clark, M., & Schroth, C. (2010). Examining relationships between academic motivation and personality among college students. *Learning & Individual Differences, 20*(1), 19-24. doi:10.1016/j.lindif.2009.10.002.

Clément, R. (1980). Ethnicity, contact and communicative competence in a second language. In Giles, W.P. Robinson, & Smith, P.M. (Eds.). *Language: Social Psychological Perspectives* (pp.147-154). Oxford, UK: Pergamon.

Clément, R., & Kruidenier, B. (1983). Orientations on second language acquisition: The effects of ethnicity, milieu, and their target language on their emergence. *Language Learning, 41*, 273-291.

Connell, J. P., & Ryan, R. M. (1986). Autonomy in the classroom: A theory and assessment of children's self-regulatory styles in the academic domain. (Unpublished manuscript). University of Rochester.

Cook, V. (2003). The poverty-of-the-stimulus argument and structure-dependency in L2 users of English. *International Review of Applied Linguistics, 41*(3), 204-221.

Cook, V. (2008). *Second language learning and language teaching*. London: Hodder Education.

Crookes, G., & Schmidt, R. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning, 41,* 469-512.

Curran, C. A. (1976). *Counseling-learning in second languages.* Apple River, IL: Apple River Press.

Dahmardeh, M. (2009). *English language teaching in iran and communicative language teaching* (Order No. U509701). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (898791354).

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.

Deci, E. L, & Ryan, R. M. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *25,* 54-67.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2002). *Handbook of self-determination research*. New York: The University of Rochester.

Donato, R. (1994). Collective scaffolding in second language learning. In J. Lantolf, & G. Appel (Eds.), *Vygotskian approaches to second language research* (pp. 33-56). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Dörnyei , Z. (1994a). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*, 273-284.

Dörnyei , Z. (1994b). Understanding L2 motivation: On with the challenge! *The Modern Language Journal, 78*, 515-523.

Dörnyei , Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language teaching. *Language Teaching, 31*(3),117-135.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). New themes and approaches in second language motivation research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 21,* 43-59.

Dörnyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientations, and motivations in language learning: Advances in theory, research and applications. *Language Learning*, *53*(1), 3-32.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Duncan, A. (2010). Education and the language gap: Secretary Arne Duncan's remarks at the Foreign Language Summit. Retrieved from http://www.ed.gov/news/speeches/education-and-language-gap-secretary-arne-duncans-remarks-foreign-language-summitZero

Dziedzic, J. (2012). A Comparison of TPRS and Traditional Instruction, both with SSR. *International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, *7*(2), 4-7.

Ellis, R. (1995). Modified oral input and the acquisition of word meaning. *Applied Linguistics, 16*(4), 409-441.

Engin, A. O. (2009). Second language success and motivation. *Social Behavior and Personality, 37*(8), 1035-1041.

Foster, S.J. (2011). *Processing instruction and teaching proficiency through reading and storytelling: A study of input in the second language classroom*. (Master's thesis). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (Accession Order No. AAT 1504823)

Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. (1999). *Applying education research* (6th ed.). Boston: Pearson-Allyn & Bacon.

Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. (2007). *Educational research: An introduction.* Boston: Pearson-Allyn & Bacon.

Galloway, A. (1993). Communicative language teaching: An introduction and sample activities. *Eric Digest.* Retrieved from http://www.usc.edu/dept/education/CMMR/FullText/Galloway_ComLangTeach_IntroActivities.pdf

Garczynski, M. (2003). *Teaching proficiency through reading and storytelling: Are TPRS students more fluent in second language acquisition than audio lingual students?* (Master's thesis). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (Accession Order No. AAT EP30485)

Gardner, R. C. (1958). *Social factors in second language acquisition*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Montreal: McGill University.

Gardner, R. C. (1960). *Motivational variables in second-language acquisition*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Montreal: McGill University.

Gardner, R. C. (1972). Attitudes and motivation in second language learning. In Reynolds, Allan G. (Ed.), *Bilingualism, Mulitculturalism, and Second Language Learning* (pp. 43-64). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Gardner, R.C. (1982). Language attitudes and language learning. In E. Boudhard Ryan & H. Giles (Eds.), *Attitudes towards language variation* (pp. 132–147). London: Edward Arnold.

Gardner, R. C. (1985a). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London, Ontario: Linguistics Association Joint Plenary.

Gardner, R. C. (1985b). *The attitude/motivation test battery: Technical report*. London, Canada: The University of Western Ontario.

Gardner, R. C. (2010). *Motivation and second language acquisition: The socio-education model.* New York: Peter Lang.

Gardner, R. C., & Clément, R. (1990). Social psychological perspectives on second language acquisition. In H. Giles and W. P. Robinson (Eds.), *Handbook of social psychology* (pp. 495-517). Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W.E. (1959). Motivational variables in second language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Psychology, 13*, 266-272.

Gardner, R.C., & Lambert, W.E. (1972*). Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.

Gardner, R.C, & Tremblay, P. F. (1994). On motivation: Measurement and conceptual considerations. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*, 524-527.

Gardner, R.C. & Smythe, P. C. (1975). Motivation and second-language acquisition. *The Canadian Modern Language Review, 31*, 218-230.

Gardner, R.C. & Smythe, P. C. (1975b). *Second language acquisition: A social psychological approach*. (Research Bulletin No. 332). London, Ontario: University of Western Ontario, Department of Psychology.

Gans, A. M., Kenny, M. C., & Ghany, D. L. (2003). Comparing the self-concept of students with and without learning disabilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 36*, 285-293.

Gass, S. M. (1997). *Input, interaction, and the second language learner*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2001). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Gomari, H., Lucas, & Rochelle, I. (2013). Foreign language motivation and anxiety among Iranian students in the Philippines. *Philippines ESL Journal, 10*, 148.

Gregg, K. (1984). Krashen's monitor model and Occam's razor. *Applied Linguistics, 5*(2), 79-100.

Harris, R. A. (1993). *The linguistics wars*. Oxford: Oxford University.

Heining-Boynton, A., & Redmond, M. L. (2013). The Common Core Framework and World Languages: A Wake-up Call for all. *Language Educator, 52-56*. Retrieved from http://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/TLE_pdf/TLE_Jan13_Article.pdf

Jamel, A. (2011). Communicative language teaching: An approach rather than a method. *Language in India*, 522.

Keller, J. M. (1983). Motivational design of instruction. In C.M. Reigelruth (Ed.), *Instructional design theories and models: An overview of their current status* (pp. 383-434). Hillsdale, NJ: Laurence Erlbaum.

Kleinginna, P., Jr., & Kleinginna A. (1981). A categorized list of emotion definitions with suggestions for a consensual definition. *Motivation and Emotion, 5*, 345-379.

Krashen, S. (1978). The monitor model for second language acquisition. In R. Gingras (Ed). *Second language acquisition and foreign language teaching*, Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Krashen, S. D. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Upper Saddle, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall International.

Krashen, S. D.(1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. . Upper Saddle, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall International.

Krashen, S. D., & Terrell, T. D. (1983). *The natural approach: Language acquisition in the classroom*. San Francisco: Alemany.

Laine, E. J. (1995). *Learning second national languages: A research report*. Frankfurt, Germany: Peter Lang.

Lantolf, J. P. (2000). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning.* Oxford, England: Oxford University.

Lee, J. F., & VanPatten, B. (2003). *Making communicative language teaching happen* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Li, X. (2011). *Communicative language teaching in current chinese colleges and universities* (Order No. 1496112). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Full Text; ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (875883298).

Lightbrown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2006). *How languages are learned* (3rd ed.). Oxford, England: Oxford University.

Littewood, W. T. (1981). *Communicative language teaching*. Great Britain: Cambridge University.

Maehr, M. L., & Meyer, H. A. (1997). Understanding motivation and schooling: Where we've been, where we are, and where we need to go. *Educational Psychology Review, 9*(4), 371-409.

Magner, T.J., Saltrick, S., & Wesolowsk, K. (2011). *Partnership for 21st century skills.* Retrieved from http://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/21stCenturySkillsMap/p21_worldlanguagesmap.pdf

Martin, W. E., & Bridgmon, K.D. (2012). *Quantitative and statistical research methods: From hypothesis to results*. Somerset, NJ: Wiley.

McGroarty, M. (2001). Situating second language motivation. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition* (Technical Report #23, pp. 69-92). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Masgoret, A-M. and Gardner, R.C. (2003). Attitudes, motivation, and second language learning: A meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and associates. *Language Learning, 53*(1), 123-163.

Maslow, A. H. (1970). *Motivation and personality*. New York: Harper.

McLaughlin, B. (1987). *Theories of second language learning*. London: Edward Arnold.

Middlebury Interactive Languages and Avant Assessment Partner to Deliver Independent Verification of Proficiency in K-12 Online World Language Learning. (2010, October 21). *Business Wire*. Retrieved from http://go.galegroup.com/ps/i.do?id=GALE%7CA240038317&v=2.1&u=vic_liberty&it=r&p=ITOF&sw=w&asid=b4d1c883cbcc18fb6ef649eba168a214

Mitchell, R., & Myles, F. (2004). Second language learning theories (2nd ed.). New York: Oxford University.

motivation. (2010). In Merriam-Webster Online ddictionary. Retrieved from http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/motivation academics

Noels, K.A. (in press). Learning Spanish as a second language: Learners' orientations and perceptions of teachers' communicative style. *Language learning, 51*.

Noels, K. A. (1999). Intrinsic, extrinsic and integrative orientations for learning German: An examination of the role of others om supporting learners' motivation. In K.A. Noels & R.

Clément (Chairs), *Language and social psychology: Current directions in Canadian Research*, Symposium conducted at the meeting of Canadian association, Chicago, IL.

Noels, K. A. (2001). New orientations in language learning motivation: Towards a model of intrinsic, extrinsic, and integrative orientations and motivation. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition* (Technical Report #23, pp. 43-68). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Noels, K.A (2009). The internalization of language learning into the self and social identity. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self* (pp. 295-313).

Noels, K.A., Clément R., & Pelletier, L.G. (in press). Intrinsic, extrinsic and integrative orientations of French Canadian learners of English. *Canadian Modern Language Review*.

Noels, K.A., Clément R., & Pelletier, L.G. (1999). Perceptions of teacher communicative style and students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *Modern Language Journal, 83*, 23-34.

Noels, K. A., Pelletier, L. G., Clément, R. and Vallerand, R. J. (2003). Why are you learning a second language? Motivational orientations and self-determination theory. *Language Learning, 53*(33), 64. doi: 10.1111/1467-9922.53223.

Oliver, J.S. (2012). Investigating storytelling methods in a beginning-level college class. *The Language Educator*, February 2012.

Omaggio, A.C. (1986). *Teaching language in context: Proficiency-oriented instruction*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Oxford, R., & Shearin, J. (1994). Language learning motivation: Expanding the theoretical framework. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*, 12-28.

Patall, E. A., Cooper, H., & Robinson, J. C. (2008). The effects of choice on intrinsic motivation and related outcomes: A meta-analysis of research findings. *Psychological Bulletin, 134*(2), 270-300.

Perna, M. (2007*). Effects of Total Physical Response Storytelling versus traditional, versus initial instruction with primary-, reinforced by secondary- perceptual strengths, on the vocabulary- and grammar-Italian- language achievement test scores, and the attitudes of ninth and tenth graders*. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses.

Piaget, J. (1951). *Play dreams, and imitation in childhood*. New York: Norton. (Originally published as *La formation du symbole chez l'enfant*. Neuchâtel: Delchaux et Nieslé).

Rapstine, A.H. (2003). *Total Physical Response Storytelling (TPRS): A practical and theoretical overview and evaluation within the framework of the national standards*. (Master's thesis). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (Accession Order No. AAT 1416100)

Ray, B., & Seely, C. (2004). *Fluency through TPR storytelling* (4th ed.). Bakerfield, CA: Command Performance Language Institute.

Reeve, J. (2009). *Understanding motivation and emotion* (5th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Richard, J.C., & Rodgers, T.S. (1987). *Approaches and methods in language teachings*.. Great Britain: Cambridge University.

Ruth, J. L. (2013). *Exploring factors contributing to Chinese college students' embracing communicative language teaching* (Order No. 3592022). Available from ProQuest

Dissertations & Theses Full Text; ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (1435629835).

Ryan, R.M, & Deci, E.L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist, 55*, 68-78.

Ryan, R.M, & Deci, E.L. (2003).On assimilating identities to the self-determination theory perspective on internalization and integrity of cultures. In M.R. Leary and J.P. Tangney (Eds.). *Handbook on Self and Identity*. (pp. 253-274). New York: The Guilford Press.

Savignon, S. (1972). *Communicative competence: An experiment in foreign language teaching*. Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development.

Savignon, S. (1991). Communicative language teaching: Sate of the art. *TESOL Quarterly, 25*(2), 261-277.

Schmakel, P. (2008). Early adolescents' perspectives on motivation and achievement in academics. *Urban Education, 43*(6), 723-749.

Schmitz, H. & Polito, M. (2004). *Deutsch aktuell 1 TPR storytelling manual.* St. Paul, MN: EMC/Paradigm.

Schmidt, R., & Watanabe, Y. (2001). Motivation, strategy use, and pedagogical preferences in foreign language learning. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition* (Technical Report #23, pp. 313-359). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Schmidt, R., Boraie, D., & Kassabgy, O. (1996). Foreign language motivation: Internal structure and external connections. In R. Oxford (Ed.), *Language Learning Motivation: Pathways*

to the New Century (Technical Report No. 11, pp. 9-70). Honolulu: University of Hawaii's Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Shaikholesami, R., & Khayyer, M. (2006). Intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and learning English as a foreign language. *Psychological Reports, 99*, 813-818.

Skinner, B.F. (1957). *Verbal behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Spangler, D. E. (2009) Effects of two foreign language methodologies, communicative language teaching and teaching proficiency through reading and storytelling, on beginning-level students' achievement, fluency, and anxiety. *Walden University*, pp. 1-203. AAT 3396360.

STAMP. (2010). Frequently asked questions. Retrieved September 3, 2012 from http://www.stamptest.net/stamp0708/stamptest/

Stephen, S. R. (2001). Preference for instructional activities and motivation: A comparison of student and teacher perspectives. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition* (Technical Report #23, pp. 185-211). Honolulu: University of Hawaii's Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Sultan, S., & Hussain, I. (2010). Significance of instrumental and integrative motivation is second language acquisition. *Journal of Educational Research, 13*(2), 145-152.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 235-253). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Swain,M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In Lantolf,J.P.(ED). Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning. *Oxford University Press, Oxford*, 97-114.

Tachibaba, Y., Matsukawa, R., & Zhong, Q. X. (1996). Attitudes and motivation for learning English: A cross-national comparison of Japanese and Chinese high school students. *Psychology Reports, 79,* 691-700.

Taulbee, A.M. (2008). *Twenty Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS) lessons for the Spanish I classroom*. (Master's thesis). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (Accession Order No. AAT 1460842).

Vallerand, R.J. (1997). Toward a hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. In M.P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (pp. 271-360). New York: Academic Press.

Vallerand, R. J., Blais, M. R., Brière, N. M., & Pelletier, L. G. (1989). Construction et validation de l'Echelle de motivation en education (EME). [Construction and validation of the motivation towards Education Scale]. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science, 21,* 349.

Vallerand, R. J., Pelletier, L. G.; Blais, M. R., Brière, N. M. ; Senécal, C., & Valliires, E.F. (1992). The academic motivation scale: A measure of intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation in education. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 52,* 1003-1017.

Vallerand, R. J., Pelletier, L. G.; Blais, M. R., Brière, N. M. ; Senécal, C., & Valliires, E.F. (1993). On the assessment of intrinsic, extrinsic and amotivation in education: Evidence on the concurrent and construct validity of the Academic Motivation Scale. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 53,* 159-172.

VanPatten, B. (1996). *Input processing and grammar instruction*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

VanPatten, B. (2003). *From input to output: A teacher's guide to second language acquisition.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Varguez, K. C. (2009). Traditional and TPR Storytelling Instruction in the Beginning High School Classroom. *International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 5*(1), 2-11.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in Society: The development of higher psychological processes.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University.

Vygotsky, L. S.(1985). *Thought and language.* Cambridge, MA: The M.I.T. Press.

Wang, J. (2008). Stimulating students' motivation in foreign language teaching. *US-China Foreign Language, 6*(1), 30-34.

Watson, B. (2009). A comparison of TPRS and traditional foreign language instruction at the high school level. *International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 5*(1), 21-24.

Webster, M. (2003). *Research for developing an in-service for more language curriculum within the tenets of second language acquisition and total physical response storytelling.* (Master's project). Submitted to grand Valley State University. April 2003.

White, L. (2003). *Second language acquisition and universal grammar*. Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Wielkiewicz, R. (2000). SPSS Online Guide. The McGraw-Hill Companies McGraw-Hill Companies. http://mhhe.com/socscience/psychology/runyon/spss/spss.html

Wigfield, A. and Wentzel, K. R. (2007). Introduction to Motivation at School: Interventions that Work. *Educational Psychologist, 42*(4), 191-196.

Woolfolk, A. (2004). *Educational Psychology* (9th ed.). Pearson: Ohio State University.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Email Communication With Blaine Ray

Blaine Ray <blaineray@aol.com>, January 10, 2012

The best place to see the latest TPRS studies is in the 6th edition of Fluency through TPR Storytelling. This is up to date as of last summer.

I have a lot of these studies on my computer. I have attached several of them.

Blaine

Blaine Ray <blaineray@aol.com>, January 21, 2012

There is no way to judge who is a TPRS teacher or not. There are thousands of varying stages of purity.

The best judge of the popularity of TPRS is the more TPRS list serve. It has steadily grown over the years.

I joined when there were about 400 members.

There are now 6796 members from all over the world.

We also had over 1000 teachers attend our workshops last year. There is lots of evidence that TPRS continues to grow.

Blaine

Appendix B: The LLOS- IEA Scale

The Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS- IEA) by Noels, Pelletier, Clement, and Vallerand (2000).

Amotivation

1. I cannot come to see why I study a second language, and frankly, I don't give a damn.
2. Honestly, I don't know; I truly have the impression of wasting my time in studying a second language.
3. I don't know; I can't come to understand what I am doing studying a second language.

External Regulation

1. In order to get a more prestigious job later on.
2. In order to have a better salary.
3. Because I have the impression that it is expected of me.

Introjected Regulation

1. Because I would feel ashamed if I couldn't speak to my friends from the second language community.
2. Because I would feel guilty if I didn't know a second language.
3. To show myself that I am a good citizen because I can speak a second language.

Identified Regulation

1. Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak more than one language.
2. Because I think it is good for my personal development.
3. Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak a second language.

Intrinsic Motivation – Accomplishment

1. For the enjoyment I experience when I grasp a difficult construct in the second language.
2. For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult exercises in the second language.
3. For the pleasure I experience when surpassing myself in my second language studies.

Intrinsic Motivation – Knowledge.

1. Because I enjoy the feeling of acquiring knowledge about the second language community and their way of life.
2. For the satisfied feeling I get in finding out new things.
3. For the pleasure I experience knowing more about the second language community and their way of life.

Intrinsic Motivation -Stimulation

1. For the “high” I feel when hearing foreign languages spoken.
2. For the “high” feeling that I experience while speaking in the second language.
3. For the pleasure I get from hearing the second language spoken by native second language speakers.

Appendix C : Student Survey/LLOS-IEA

Language Learning Orientations Scale – Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS – IEA) Noels, Pelletier, Clément, and Vallerand (2000)

The following section contains a number of reasons why you might study Spanish. Beside each one of the following statements, write **the number** from the scale which best indicates the degree to which the stated **reason corresponds with one of your reasons for learning Spanish**. Remember that there are no right or wrong answers, since many people have different opinions.

Does not correspond	Corresponds very little	Corresponds a little	Corresponds moderately	Corresponds a lot	Corresponds almost exactly	Corresponds exactly
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Statements	**Scores**
1. Honestly, I don't know; I truly have the impression I'm wasting my time in studying Spanish.	
2. For the pleasure I experience in knowing more about the Spanish/Hispanic community and their way of life.	
3. Because I think it is good for my personal development.	
4. Because I would feel ashamed if I couldn't speak to friends or people from the Spanish/ Hispanic community in their native tongue.	
5. In order to get a more prestigious job later on.	
6. For the pleasure I get from hearing Spanish spoken by native Spanish/Hispanic speakers.	

7. Because I would feel guilty if I didn't know Spanish.	
8. For the "high" feeling that I experience while speaking in Spanish.	
9. To show myself that I am a good citizen because I can speak Spanish.	
10. Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak Spanish.	
11. For the enjoyment I experience when I grasp a difficult construct (grammar point/concept) in Spanish.	
12. I cannot come to see why I should study Spanish, and frankly, I don't care at all.	
13. In order to have a better salary later on.	
14. For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult exercises in Spanish.	
15. I don't know; I can't come to understand what I am doing studying Spanish.	
16. For the pleasure I experience when surpassing myself in Spanish studies.	
17. Because I enjoy the feeling of acquiring knowledge about the Spanish/Hispanic community and their way of life.	
18. Because I have the impression that it is expected of me.	
19. For the satisfied feeling I get in finding out new things.	
20. For the "high" I feel when hearing Spanish spoken.	
21. Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak more than one language.	

Appendix D: Permission to Use The LLOS- IEA Scale

---------- Forwarded message ----------

From: **Kim Noels** <knoels@ualberta.ca>

Date: 2012/11/25

Subject: Re: Permission to use The Language Learning Orientations Scale – Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales

To: Maty Blanton <matyblanton@gmail.com>

Dear Maty,

Thank you for your message -- it is a pleasure to hear from other researchers with similar interests. To answer your questions, first, a copy of the LLOS is attached to this message. Since it's been published, it's in the public domain (i.e., you don't need my permission). Before you administer it, the subheadings must be removed and the items randomized. More importantly, some items may need to be changed in order to be more appropriate for the FLS context in the States. The validity and reliability depends on the context, so some items might not be relevant to the US (e.g. item concerning citizenship). I suggest that you try adding a couple of additional items that you think reflect the theoretical framework and suit the cultural context and pilot test it.

Another possibility is to check out the instruments posted on the Self-Determination website: http://www.selfdeterminationtheory.org/ There are some good instruments there that could probably be adapted to the language learning context (also many articles, etc.)
I've attached some earlier papers and I will forward some more recent ones when I go in to my office later this week. There is a growing body of research on SDT and we are just finishing up a review chapter; I can send you a draft in a week or so. One particular person that you might like to contact given that you are from Belgium is Evy Ceuleers who did her PhD at the VUB in Brussels (she's now in Gent). She has more of an interpretive perspective, but in her dissertation she did use the LLOS

I hope this is helpful -- I look forward to hearing how your research goes.

Appendix E: Request Letter to Participant Schools

June 14, 2013

To whom it may apply,

As a graduate student in the Education Department at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a Doctorate Degree in Curriculum and Instruction. The title of my research project is The effect of two foreign language teaching approaches, communicative language teaching and teaching proficiency through reading and storytelling, on motivation and proficiency for Spanish III students in high school

I am writing to request your permission to conduct my research in your school among Spanish III students in September. I would like to be able to work with Spanish III teachers in order to collect data from the students they teach.

Participants (all Spanish III students) will be asked to complete the LLOS-IEA survey (attached to this document) and take the STAMP 4S computer test. The data from the LLOS-IEA surveys and STAMP 4S tests will be used to statistically analyze students' motivation and proficiency in Spanish III. I will analyze these two sets of data in order to discover the effects of the teaching approach on these variables. Participants will be presented with parents' informed consent information (attached to this letter) prior to participating. Taking part in this study is completely voluntary, and participants are welcome to discontinue participation at any time. Participants' identity will not be revealed with the results of this research. Identities will be locked and stored in a secured place.

Thank you for considering my request. If you choose to grant permission, please provide a signed statement on approved letterhead indicating your approval or respond by email to my email address provided below. For education research, the permission of your school will need to be on approved letterhead with the appropriate signatures.

Sincerely,

Maïté Blanton

M.A, Ed.S, Doctoral Candidate

509 Roosevelt Boulevard D124

Mblanton2@liberty.edu

757-615-5450

Appendix F: CLT School Approval

September 4, 2013

Ms. Maite Blanton
509 Roosevelt Blvd., D124
Falls Church, VA 22044

Dear Ms. Blanton:

The Research Screening Committee has reviewed and approved, with conditions, your application to conduct a study entitled The effect of two foreign language teaching approaches, communicative language teaching and teaching proficiency through reading and storytelling, on motivation and proficiency for Spanish III students in high school.

The conditions of approval for this study are listed on the attached Research Approval Agreement enclosed with this letter. The division places great trust in you to maintain the highest standards for research, to comply with all of the specified conditions of approval, and to seek counsel from your sponsor if the conditions are ever in jeopardy. Mr. XXXXXXXXX, principal, XXXXXXXX Secondary, has agreed to be your sponsor and has designated Mrs. XXXXXXXXX to serve as your point of contact. Please contact Ms. XXXXXXXX at 000-000-0000 to begin the project.

You may begin the study as soon as you complete and return the enclosed Research Approval Agreement. We look forward to receiving the study results, which are expected to inform world language educators about the relation between different teaching approaches and students' language proficiency and motivation.

Sincerely,

XXXXXXXXX
Assistant Superintendent

Research Approval Agreement from CLT School

Research Title: The effect of two foreign language teaching approaches, communicative language teaching and teaching proficiency through reading and storytelling, on motivation and proficiency for Spanish III students in high school

Name of Researcher: Maite Blanton

Date: September 4, 2013

Conditions of Approval:

1. Participation in this research study is voluntary for all parties. Data collection from XXXXXX students requires written parent consent.

2. Anonymity of the XXXXXX County Public Schools division, individual schools, and all individual persons participating in this project will be preserved in reporting the results. Any disclosure of the name of the division, school, or participants requires written approval from the superintendent or his designee.

3. This approval allows the researcher to conduct a study to fulfill requirements for a doctoral course at Liberty University. Specifically, the researcher may administer a motivation survey and a language assessment (STAMP 4S) to Spanish III students at XXXXXXXX Secondary. As a condition of approval, the researcher has agreed to make the following changes to the submitted proposal:

    - To be in compliance with condition 2 of this agreement, the researcher will remove mention of XXXXXXXX from the methodology section of the final dissertation.
    - The researcher will share de-identified results of the language assessment (STAMP 4S) with teachers.

      Teachers will be able to see the range of language performances by their students but will not know how an individual student performed.

    The researcher will work with her sponsor, Mr. XXXXX and point of contact, Mrs. XXXXXXXX to implement the study.

4. The researcher will share a copy of the final report with the following:

    - The Sponsor
    - The Office of Program Evaluation

Note: Electronic version is preferred and should be e-mailed to the Research Screening contact identified on XXXXX County Public Schools' research screening webpage (address linked below). Please reference your application ID # when submitting reports.

5. This approval is valid for SY 2013-14. If the methodology changes during the course of the year or the research continues beyond this period, the researcher must submit a Modification or Continuation Request Form (available at the website listed below).

6. The researcher will follow the procedures approved by the Research Screening Committee. The researcher will adhere to all XXXXXXX County Public Schools policies and regulations.

7. The researcher will comply with general standards of best practices in conducting research.

_____ _____

Appendix G: TPRS School Approval

September 5, 2013

Ms. Maite Blanton
509 Roosevelt Blvd., D124
Falls Church, VA 22044

Dear Mrs. Blanton:

[redacted] has approved, with conditions, your application to conduct a study entitled *Communicative Language Teaching and Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling: A Correlational Research on Motivation and Proficiency Grades of Spanish III Students in High School*. The conditions of approval for this study are as follows:

- Participation in this research study is voluntary for all parties. Data collection from [redacted] students requires written parent consent.
- Anonymity of [redacted] individual schools and all individual persons participating in this project will be preserved in reporting the results. Any disclosure of the name of the region, school, or participants requires written approval from the School Leader or her designee. The name of the region or the school will not be mentioned in the methodology section of the final dissertation.
- The researcher will share de-identified results of the language assessment (STAMP 4S) with teachers. Teachers will be able to see the range of language performances by their students but will not know how an individual student performed.
- The researcher will share a copy of the final report with the following:
  - [redacted]
  - [redacted]
- This approval is valid for the SY 2013-2014. If the methodology changes during the course of the year or the research continues beyond this period, the researcher must notify the School Leader of any modifications or requests for continuation.

We place great trust in you to maintain the highest standards for research and to comply with all the specified conditions of approval.

You may begin the study as soon as you acknowledge in writing your acceptance of the above terms. We look forward to receiving the study results.

Sincerely,

Appendix H: IRB Approval

September 10, 2013

Maite Blanton

IRB Approval 1603.091013: Communicative Language teaching and Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling; A Correlational Research on Motivation and Proficiency Grades of Spanish III students in High School

Dear Maite:

We are pleased to inform you that your above study has been approved by the Liberty IRB. This approval is extended to you for one year. If data collection proceeds pas one year, or if you make changes in the methodology as it pertains to human subjects, you must submit an appropriate update form to the IRB. The forms for these cases were attached to your approval email.

Please retain this letter for your records. Also, if you are conducting research as part of the requirements of a master's thesis or doctoral dissertation, this approval letter should be included as an appendix to your completed thesis or dissertation.

Thank you for your cooperation with the IRB, and we wish you well with your research project.

Sincerely,

Fernando Garzon, Psy.D.
Professor, IRB Chair
Counseling

LIBERTY
UNIVERSITY.

Appendix I: Parent and Student Consent Form

Consent Form

The effect of two foreign language teaching approaches, communicative language teaching and teaching proficiency through reading and storytelling, on motivation and proficiency for Spanish III students in high school

Maïté Blanton
Liberty University
School of Education

You are invited to be in a research study of *foreign language motivation and proficiency.* You were selected as a possible participant because *you are a Spanish III student in high school.* I ask that you read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

This study is being conducted by *Maïté Blanton, School of Education.*

Background Information:

The purpose of this study is to determine which foreign language approach, between TPRS and CLT, has the best results on motivation and proficiency grades.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in this study, I would ask you to do the following things:

- *Fill out a 15 minute survey about your motivation to learn Spanish.*
- *Take a 90 minute computer-based test (the STAMP 4S) which will test your knowledge of Spanish in writing, reading, listening, and speaking. The speaking section will be recorded by the test and will remain stored on the test database.*

Riks and Benefits of being in the Study:

The study has no more risks than you would encounter in everyday life.

The benefits to participation are first for you personally. You will be able to see how you are doing in Spanish III through a very reputable and reliable test (STAMP 4S). Also, your school and your school district may benefit from it as they will be able to see if their teaching approach in foreign languages is working well.

Confidentiality:

The records of this study will be kept private in my password protected computer. In any sort of report I might publish, I will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a

subject. Research records will be stored securely and only the researcher will have access to the records.

The recording part of the STAMP 4S will only be available to the staff working for the STAMP 4S. The recording will be stored with them and unavailable to retrieve.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision on whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University or with your school. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time without affecting those relationships.

Contacts and Questions:

The researcher conducting this study is *Maïté Blanton.* You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact *her* at *mblanton2@liberty.edu or 757-615-5450. You may also contact the Committee chair of this research at* sbhahnle@liberty.edu.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, **you are encouraged** to contact the Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd, Suite 1837, Lynchburg, VA 24502 or email at irb@liberty.edu.

You will be given a copy of this information to keep for your records.

Statement of Consent:

I have read and understood the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.

☐ I agree to have my voice recorded for the speaking section of the STAMP 4S test.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Signature of parent or guardian: _____ Date: _____

(If minors are involved)

Signature of Investigator:_____ Date: _____

IRB Code Numbers: 1603.091013 **IRB Expiration Date:** 9/10/14

Appendix J: Written Statement about the Research for Participants' Record

Consent Form

The effect of two foreign language teaching approaches, communicative language teaching and teaching proficiency through reading and storytelling, on motivation and proficiency for Spanish III students in high school

Maïté Blanton
Liberty University
School of Education

You are invited to be in a research study of *foreign language motivation and proficiency.* You were selected as a possible participant because *you are a Spanish III student in high school.* I ask that you read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

This study is being conducted by *Maïté Blanton, School of Education.*

Background Information:

The purpose of this study is to determine which foreign language approach, between TPRS and CLT, has the best results on motivation and proficiency grades.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in this study, I would ask you to do the following things:

- *Fill out a 15 minute survey about your motivation to learn Spanish.*
- *Take a 90 minute computer-based test (the STAMP 4S) which will test your knowledge of Spanish in writing, reading, listening, and speaking. The speaking section will be recorded by the test and will remain stored on the test database.*

Risks and Benefits of being in the Study:

The study has no more risks than you would encounter in everyday life.

The benefits to participation are first for you personally. You will be able to see how you are doing in Spanish III through a very reputable and reliable test (STAMP 4S). Also, your school and your school district may benefit from it as they will be able to see if their teaching approach in foreign languages is working well.

Confidentiality:

The records of this study will be kept private in my password protected computer. In any sort of report I might publish, I will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a subject. Research records will be stored securely and only the researcher will have access to the records.

The recording part of the STAMP 4S will only be available to the staff working for the STAMP 4S. The recording will be stored with them and unavailable to retrieve.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision on whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University, or with your school. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time without affecting those relationships.

Contacts and Questions:

The researcher conducting this study is *Maïté Blanton.* You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact *her* at *mblanton2@liberty.edu or 757-615-5450. You may also contact the Committee chair of this research at* sbhahnle@liberty.edu.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, **you are encouraged** to contact the Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd, Suite 1837, Lynchburg, VA 24502 or email at irb@liberty.edu.

You will be given a copy of this information to keep for your records.