

PROCESSING INSTRUCTION AND TEACHING PROFICIENCY THROUGH READING AND
STORYTELLING: A STUDY OF INPUT IN THE SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Sarah Jenne Foster, B.A.

Thesis Prepared for the Degree of
MASTER OF ARTS

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH TEXAS

May 2011

APPROVED:

Jenifer Larson-Hall, Major Professor
Shobhana Chelliah, Committee Member
Donny Vigil, Committee Member
Timothy Montler, Director of Graduate Studies
for Linguistics and Technical
Communication
Brenda Sims, Chair of Linguistics and Technical
Communication
James D. Meernik, Acting Dean of the
Toulouse Graduate School

Foster, Sarah Jenne, Processing instruction and teaching proficiency through reading and storytelling: A study of input in the second language classroom. Master of Arts (Linguistics), May 2011, 85 pp., 7 tables, 2 illustrations, reference list, 34 titles.

This paper reports a study of VanPatten's processing instruction (PI) and Ray's TPRS. High school students in a beginning Spanish course were divided into three groups (PI, TPRS, and control) and instructed in forms using the Spanish verb *gustar*. Treatment included sentence-level and discourse-level input, and tests included interpretation and production measures in a pretest, an immediate posttest, and a delayed posttest given two and a half months following treatment. The PI group made the greatest gains in production measures and in a grammaticality judgment test, and the TPRS group made the greatest gains in written fluency. The PI group's statistical gains in production measures held through the delayed posttest.

Copyright 2011

by

Sarah Jenne Foster

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES.....	iv
LIST OF FIGURES.....	v
INTRODUCTION.....	1
Comparison of Two Input-Based Teaching Methods: Processing Instruction and TPRS	
Explanation and Analysis of the Target Form	
Previous Studies	
Motivation for the Present Study	
METHOD.....	15
Participants	
Procedures and Materials	
Instruments	
RESULTS.....	30
Speaking Test Results	
GJT Results	
Writing Accuracy Results	
Written Fluency Results	
Reading Test Results	
DISCUSSION.....	40
CONCLUSION.....	45
APPENDIX A: MATERIALS AND ACTIVITIES FOR TPRS GROUP.....	47
APPENDIX B: MATERIALS AND ACTIVITIES FOR PROCESSING INSTRUCTION GROUP	61
APPENDIX C: SAMPLE TEST SET.....	77
REFERENCE LIST.....	82

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Comparison of Processing Instruction and TPRS.....	8
Table 2. Mean Score Increases and Results of One-Way ANOVA and Tukey Post-Hoc Comparisons for Speaking.....	31
Table 3. Mean Score Increases and Results of One-Way ANOVA and Tukey Post-Hoc Comparisons for GJT.....	33
Table 4. Mean Score Increases and Results of One-Way ANOVA and Tukey Post-Hoc Comparisons for Writing Accuracy.....	35
Table 5. Mean Score Increases and Results of One-Way ANOVA and Tukey Post-Hoc Comparisons for Written Fluency.....	37
Table 6. Mean Score Increases and Results of One-Way ANOVA and Tukey Post-Hoc Comparisons for Reading.....	38
Table 7. Group Ranking by Test, Cohen's <i>d</i> Effect Sizes, and Statistical Significance of Comparisons.....	39

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Boxplot of student scores by test.....	16
Figure 2. Sample speaking test item.....	26

INTRODUCTION

Research is ongoing as to what facets of second language acquisition have the greatest effects on learners. Although opinions among researchers differ as to how it is used by learners, there is general agreement that input is essential for language acquisition to take place (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Interest in input-rich methods is apparent in research and their use in the classroom. Among these approaches are Bill VanPatten's processing instruction framework (VanPatten, 1996) and Blaine Ray's Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling® (TPRS) method of language instruction (Blaine Ray Workshops, Inc., Eagle Mountain, UT, www.blaineraytprs.com). This study compares the effects of these popular instructional approaches on students' receptive and productive abilities in using Spanish case markers and pronouns with the verb *gustar*. The accuracy of interpretation, the accuracy of production, and the fluency with which students can produce these structures in writing are investigated.

Processing instruction has been compared to traditional output-based instruction as found in textbooks (Cadierno, 1995; VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993; VanPatten & Wong, 2004), to meaning-based output instruction (Farley, 2000; 2001; 2004), and to explicit instruction alone and structured input alone (Benati, 2004; VanPatten & Oikkenon, 1996). It has not been compared to another primarily input-based, meaning-oriented instruction technique such as TPRS, which is the second of the two instructional techniques used in the current study. Many Second Language Acquisition (SLA) researchers may not have heard of the TPRS method, but it is commonly used for teaching foreign languages in junior high and high schools in the United States. Evidence for this popularity can be seen in the online communities in which TPRS practitioners participate. At this writing, *More TPRS*, an online group of TPRS advocates and

practitioners had over 6,000 members (More TPRS), and the “TPRS map” on the TPRS Publishing website showed registered TPRS users in 45 states and Washington, D.C. as well as nine additional countries (TPRS Publishing, Inc.).

TPRS materials claim that this method is very effective, but in fact I could find only two studies that had been conducted using TPRS techniques. Both compared TPRS and traditional instruction. One was a survey of test scores from many teachers who were classified as being rooted in TPRS or more output-oriented explicit instruction (Varquez, 2009). The other was a comparison of TPRS and traditional instruction with personalized questions and TPRS-style reading (Watson, 2009). Both studies found that TPRS was more effective than the teaching approach they classified as traditional instruction and both appeared in an online journal edited by an author of commercially available TPRS materials. Most articles in this online journal are one to three pages in length and are clearly targeted at an audience that is already interested in TPRS. There have been no other empirical studies that look at the effectiveness of TPRS, and there have been no empirical studies that measure the effectiveness of TPRS against the backdrop of another input-based teaching approach. This study aims to fill this gap in the research to see whether this method, which is being widely used, holds any advantage over, or can produce results that are comparable to, another input-based method.

Comparison of Two Input-Based Teaching Methods: Processing Instruction and TPRS

Processing instruction is a framework first compared to traditional output-based instruction in VanPatten and Cadierno (1993). It has been described as “an input-based approach to focus on form” (VanPatten, 1996, p. 6). The primary goal of processing instruction is to influence learner processing strategies to alter the developing system (VanPatten, 2002).

In conducting a processing instruction lesson, a teacher will first introduce the target form and provide an explanation of the grammar involved. This may be similar to the grammar explanations provided in a typical language textbook, including an overview of the morphology and syntax involved in the various forms of the target structure. Unlike a typical textbook, however, the teacher will draw learners' attention to the non-optimal processing strategies they may be tempted to use (e.g., assuming that the first noun in a sentence is the subject). Finally, the students will engage in structured input activities, which are designed with the processing strategies of learners in mind so that learners must attend to meaning to successfully complete the activities, and so that learners are guided away from non-optimal processing strategies and toward more appropriate strategies (Farley, 2005).

The centerpiece of processing instruction is the way it addresses learners' processing problems. VanPatten (1996, 2004b) lays out two principles with corollaries that describe these processing problems, both of which are relevant to the target structure of the present study. The first principle, the primacy of meaning principle, states that "learners process input for meaning before they process it for form" (VanPatten, 2004b, p. 14). For example, a learner may miss case markers in a sentence because he or she is focused on processing content words. The second principle, the first noun principle, states that "learners tend to process the first noun or pronoun they encounter in a sentence as the subject/agent" (VanPatten, 2004b, p. 18). According to these two principles, a learner might misinterpret the Spanish phrase *a Francisco le tira la pelota* as *Francisco throws him the ball*, when a correct translation would be *he throws the ball to Francisco*. The learner would select the meaningful words *Francisco*, *tira* (*throw*), and *pelota* (*ball*) and would miss the seemingly meaningless but important *a* and *le*. The learner

would also misinterpret the sentence by seeing Francisco as the subject rather than the indirect object (indicated by the *a* before the noun and the redundant *le* after the noun). An instructor or researcher designing structured input activities to overcome the learners' non-optimal processing strategies would design activities that require the learner to notice the *a* and *le* (Farley, 2005). In the following example of a structured input activity designed with the learners' processing strategies in mind, a learner would have to notice and correctly interpret the *a* and *le* to successfully put a checkmark next to the second sentence, but not the first. (Translations in parentheses would not appear on instructional materials.)

Read the following sentences and put a checkmark next to the ones that are possible.

_____ *A Francisco le tira la pelota la rana.* (The frog throws the ball at Francisco.)

_____ *A la rana le tira la pelota Francisco.* (Francisco throws the ball at the frog.)

TPRS is a popular input-based, meaning-oriented teaching method that is largely absent from SLA research and, as such, is a good candidate for comparison to processing instruction. It is similar to processing instruction in that it places a heavy emphasis on input and all activities require students to attend to meaning. While it does not explicitly use VanPatten's processing principles (2004b), teachers and curriculum designers who use TPRS could be said to consider at least two of these principles in a standard TPRS lesson. VanPatten's (2004b) availability of resources principle says that "for learners to process either redundant meaningful grammatical forms or nonmeaningful forms, the processing of overall sentential meaning must not drain available processing resources" (p. 14). TPRS practitioners consider the availability of resources in that they "shelter" vocabulary, which means they limit vocabulary used in input and activities to phrases that students know, that are cognates, or that are being targeted in the current

lesson. Teachers using TPRS do not “shelter” grammar, using any grammar necessary to convey meaning with natural speech (with brief, meaning-based explanations lasting less than 15 seconds each where needed) (Gross, 2010). Instructors using TPRS may also design activities that require students to make use of event probabilities. The idea of probabilities is addressed in VanPatten’s event probabilities principle, which says that “learners may rely on event probabilities, where possible, instead of word order to interpret sentences” (2004b, p. 18). This may include a reliance of knowledge of characters and events from stories they have heard in class to complete activities. Teachers could draw learners’ attention to contrasting structures by using questions while telling a mini situation, which is a story told to the class using input from the students. (How a mini situation plays out in the classroom is discussed later in this explanation of TPRS.) In the following example of using questions in combination with the event probabilities principle, the English class is familiar with the character Bob, who is a bully and is more likely to hit Diana than to hug her.

Teacher: What does Bob do to Diana? Does he hit her or hug her?

Class: He hits her.

Teacher: Yes, Bob hits her. Does he hit her or does she hit him? (At this point the teacher may write the phrases *he hits her* and *she hits him* on the board and have student actors demonstrate each phrase to emphasize the difference in meaning.

Class: He hits her.

In conducting a TPRS lesson, the teacher first presents target language structures (generally three per lesson) as vocabulary by showing students their meanings with gestures

and translations. The teacher then reinforces the target structures through personalized questions and answers (PQA). During a PQA session, the teacher repeatedly exposes students to input containing the target structures by asking individual students questions about their lives, “circling” the questions. This means that the teacher focuses on one topic and asks many questions that can be classified as yes/no, multiple choice, and short answer about that topic. The teacher asks many repetitive questions at this time, taking every opportunity to use the target structures both in asking the questions and in repeating and expanding student answers (Gaab, 2008; Gross, 2005). Here is a shortened example of a personalized question-and-answer session that might take place in an English class (an actual question-and-answer session could be expanded to include many more questions on the same topic, increasing the number of tokens in the input).

Teacher: Elena, do you like to run?

Elena: Yes.

Teacher: Class, Elena likes to run. Does Elena like to run or swim?

Class: Run.

Teacher: Yes. Elena likes to run. Elena, when do you like to run?

Elena: After school.

Teacher: Class, what does Elena like to do after school?

Class: Run.

Teacher: Yes, Elena likes to run after school.

After sufficient questioning, the teacher tells a comprehensible story (called a mini situation) in the target language, using the same questioning technique as in the question-and-

answer session. During the mini situation, student actors take on the roles of the characters and all students answer the questions presented by the teacher. Some questions are designed solely to check comprehension and some to allow students to invent details for the story (Gross, 2005). The goal of the teacher during the entire process is to create as many tokens of the target forms as possible (Gaab, 2008). The mini situation is repeated several times by the teacher and students over the course of multiple class periods through retelling, reading, and rewriting from memory. See Appendix A for the mini situation and questions used in this study.

Various activities follow the mini situation, with reading as an essential element. Students may read a story that is similar to the mini situation or they may read other material relevant to the mini situation or target structures. Reading-related tasks vary, but all are designed to increase exposure to the target structures (Ray & Seely, 2003). Finally, students may retell and rewrite the story from memory. While this is output, retelling the story can provide further input, be a mechanism for checking comprehension, and help motivate students (Ray & Seely, 2003).

Grammar is not discussed explicitly in TPRS because the goal is for students to internalize grammar structures as described by Krashen (1997). For complicated target structures, the teacher may use “contrastive grammar” at any point in the process to demonstrate the difference in meaning between two grammatically different forms (Gross, 2006, 2009b). This involves showing students the target phrases with their translations and marking the phrases to visually draw the students’ attention to the differences. Unlike in processing instruction, grammar is not explained explicitly (Gross, 2010; TPRS Publishing, Inc., 2010).

The similarities between TPRS and processing instruction make these instructional approaches comparable. Input is central to both TPRS and processing instruction, and both consider learner processing strategies, although processing instruction is more precise in this concern in that its goal is to alter these processing strategies. Both approaches place a heavy emphasis on meaning. Meaning is central to processing instruction in structured input activities for altering learner processing strategies, and TPRS relies on it in both grammar explanations and input practice. Table 1 below summarizes the similarities and differences between processing instruction and TPRS.

Table 1

Comparison of Processing Instruction and TPRS

Processing Instruction	TPRS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explicit grammar explanation • Always considers processing strategies • Teaches one thing at a time, acknowledges limited resources • Input is in a series of activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 15-second meaning-based comparative grammar • Considers availability of resources; may consider event probabilities, but there is no official instruction to do so • Shelters vocabulary, but not grammar • Input is in story form

Both Processing Instruction and TPRS

- Activities require focus on meaning and are input-based
 - Output is secondary to input

Explanation and Analysis of the Target Form

The target structure for the present study was the use of the Spanish verb *gustar*, including the obligatory use of *a* and either the singular *le* or plural *les* to identify a third-person singular or plural object. The example below includes the object marker *a*, the third person singular indirect object pronoun *le*, and *gusta*, which is the third person singular of the verb *to please*. *Bailar*, which means *to dance*, is the subject of the sentence.

A *Susana* *le* *gust-a* *bailar*.
OBJ *Susana* 3SG *please-PRS.3SG* *dance.INF*
'Dancing pleases Susana.'

English-speaking students of Spanish often misinterpret *gustar* as meaning *to like*, but the verb is more appropriately translated as *to please*. An English speaker would say, *Susana likes to dance*, where a Spanish speaker would say, *A Susana le gusta bailar*. (*Dancing pleases Susana*.) Both the *a* and the *le* are necessary to identify *Susana* as the object rather than the subject of the sentence. Beginning Spanish students tend to leave off the *a* because it is overpowered by learners' tendency to see the first noun as the subject (VanPatten, 2004a), and has no equivalent in English sentences with the verb *to like*. Students also tend to learn the phrase *le gusta* as a complete unit and do not replace the *le* with *les* when required by a plural object as in *A Susana y David les gusta bailar*.

This target structure has a high rate of error among novice learners of Spanish. It is also a prime candidate for study using TPRS as it requires some explanation to demonstrate differences in meaning among its different forms. It is a good structure for processing instruction study, as well, because of the learner's tendency to use non-optimal processing strategies. The object is misinterpreted by English speakers as being the subject as described by

the first noun principle (VanPatten, 2004a). The primacy of meaning principle (VanPatten, 2004a) also applies. Learners tend to leave off the *a* as it is not present in L1 and not used with a subject in L2, so the *a* appears to be meaningless. Additionally, lexical preference is given to the people in the phrase, the availability of resources regarding the subject is a concern, and the pronoun *le* or *les* is located in the middle (and most difficult) part of the sentence (Farley, 2005), all of which are described in VanPatten's (2004a) processing principles.

Previous Studies

The first PI study, VanPatten and Cadierno (1993), addressed processing problems defined by VanPatten's first noun principle (2004b) that interfered with the acquisition of object pronouns and word order in Spanish. The researchers found that processing instruction resulted in greater gains than traditional output-based instruction and in greater gains than the control group in the ability to correctly interpret sentences. They found that processing instruction and traditional output-based instruction resulted in equal gains (surpassing gains made by the control group) in writing the target form to correctly complete sentences. Many conceptual replications followed with similar findings, demonstrating that processing instruction could be beneficial for addressing other structures, languages, and processing principles (see Benati & Lee, 2010, for a summary of these replications). The current study is rooted in these initial investigations, testing processing instruction's effects on sentence-level receptive and productive tasks.

To expand the line of research into processing instruction, VanPatten and Sanz (1995) investigated the effects of processing instruction on oral and written discourse-level production, which this study also does. Their tests included a sentence-level production test

based on that of VanPatten and Cadierno (1993), a question-and-answer interview, and a video narration. The processing instruction group made significant gains in all tests from pretest to posttest. Although the effects were greater on sentence-level tasks, VanPatten and Sanz (1995) showed that processing instruction can be effective for tasks that are more open, such as video narration. Benati, Lee, and McNulty (2010) expanded on this with their investigation of the Spanish subjunctive, testing discourse-level production through a guided essay and two receptive tasks (listening and reading). They averaged these scores to find that processing instruction did have an effect on receptive abilities. The study also found that processing instruction led to increased, more accurate production of target forms in the essay.

Motivation for the Present Study

Processing instruction research has been dominated by comparisons of processing instruction to output-based instruction such as traditional output-based instruction or meaning-based output instruction. These studies have “ecological validity” in that traditional output-based instruction is widely used in foreign language classrooms in the U.S. and elsewhere (VanPatten & Wong, 2004, p. 100). They have also been beneficial in showing that structuring input can affect a learner’s developing system and that meaning-based output instruction is often effective while processing instruction is always effective (see Benati & Lee, 2010, for an analysis). Unlike processing instruction, TPRS has not appeared in SLA research despite its popularity among junior high and high school language instructors. Further insight into how input and different types of grammar instruction affect the developing system may be gained by studying two input-based, meaning-centered approaches side-by-side, which has not been done before.

While measuring the effects of these two teaching approaches, I sought to expand or improve upon some lines of investigation from previous studies. The first of these is the delay in posttests. Although one study has shown the effects of processing instruction to endure over a period of eight months (VanPatten & Fernández, 2004), most studies that replicated VanPatten and Cadierno(1993) included delayed posttests of only two weeks to one month. The present study uses a delayed posttest given two and a half months following the initial posttest. Additionally, the research on processing instruction generally does not address fluency. Production tasks in most research have been at the sentence level. Those that test discourse-level tasks do not measure general fluency. An increase in overall fluency is a claim made by TPRS proponents (Ray & Seely, 2003). Processing instruction makes no such claim but is similar to TPRS in many ways; therefore, a test for effects on written fluency in general would be informative. Also, research including discourse-level tests is relatively new and has not, to my knowledge, included any study with discourse-level input *and* discourse-level output tasks, nor has it included any study that includes tests for reading, listening, speaking, and writing. This study does both of these things. This will broaden the current database of effects of processing instruction. Finally, there is a lack of empirical research in TPRS specifically, and evidence for its success is anecdotal (See Alley, 2008 and Ray & Seely, 2003, which assert the benefits of TPRS without research-based evidence).

The present study addresses the role of input through the following questions:

1. How do the effects of repetitive input and brief comparative grammar explanations (lasting less than fifteen seconds each for a total of approximately two minutes in this experiment) compare to the effects of structured-input activities and a longer,

explicit metalinguistic explanation (approximately ten minutes total in this experiment) when measured by tests of receptive abilities and production of the Spanish case marker *a* and the indirect object pronouns *le* and *les* with the verb *gustar*?

2. Does input presented in a story format as in TPRS produce higher levels of grammatical accuracy of the target form and overall written fluency than the input presented in processing instruction activities, which also contain input but are designed to address processing strategies?
3. Are any effects of TPRS or processing instruction treatments on the target structure maintained over time?

Based on the favorable results of processing instruction in prior research, I hypothesized that students instructed with explicit information and structured input activities (as in processing instruction) would show significantly greater gains in accurate use of the target structure than those instructed with comparative grammar explanations and repetitive input (as in TPRS). I formed the exploratory hypothesis that the comparative grammar explanations and repetitive input would be more effective than no instruction, but less effective than explicit instruction with structured input activities. An additional hypothesis based on the claims of TPRS (though they are not verified in SLA research) was that the story format of the input given to the TPRS group would lead to significantly greater gains in written fluency scores than the structured input given to the processing instruction group. Both types of input would lead to greater gains in written fluency than no input, as the control group received. I hypothesized

that these advantages would be maintained over the two-and-a-half month period leading to the delayed posttest.

The results partially supported these hypotheses. The processing instruction group increased their scores more than the TPRS group in speaking and writing accuracy, and the effects were maintained over time. The processing instruction group and the TPRS group made similar gains in the GJT and the statistical significance of the differences was not maintained through the delayed posttest. The TPRS group made the greatest gains in written fluency, but there was no difference in written fluency between the processing instruction group and the control group. Effects on written fluency were not maintained over time. The reading test showed no effects for teaching method due to high pretest scores. Results are discussed in detail below.

METHOD

Participants

This study was approved by the University of North Texas Institutional Review Board. Each participant signed a consent form and submitted an additional consent form signed by his or her parent or guardian. Participants were 61 high school students ages 14-18 who were enrolled in beginning Spanish. To determine their eligibility for the study, all students took a pretest set which tested their knowledge of the use of *a* and *le* with the Spanish verb *gustar*. In the pretest set, an oral picture narration task tested whether students knew how to use the target form with the correct third person singular or third person plural indirect object pronoun in Spanish. An aural grammaticality judgment test (GJT) probed whether students knew whether the case marker *a* was needed and which third person indirect object pronoun was needed in sentences with *gustar*. A reading test tested whether participants could match the third person singular and third person plural indirect object pronouns to the correct indirect object when used in sentences with *gustar*. An open-ended writing prompt revealed whether they were able to form written discourse using the target structures correctly. A word count performed on the writing test responses provided a baseline written fluency score. (See the Procedures and Materials section below for a more detailed explanation of the test sets, as well as Appendix C for a sample test set.)

I decided prior to the test that I would remove any student who scored higher than 60% on either the written or oral production from the data set to avoid a ceiling effect, but based on the pretest scores, no student was dropped. Although many students understood the function of *le* and *les* as indicated by their pretest reading and GJT scores, no student was able to score

higher than 50% on the speaking or writing test sections, indicating that their knowledge of the structure was limited to an understanding of the coordination between the indirect object and the indirect object pronoun and that they could not produce the different indirect object pronouns reliably with *gustar*. Students could not produce (nor did they understand the function of) the indirect object marker *a* in a sentence with *gustar*. Figure 1 below shows a summary of pretest scores in percentage form.

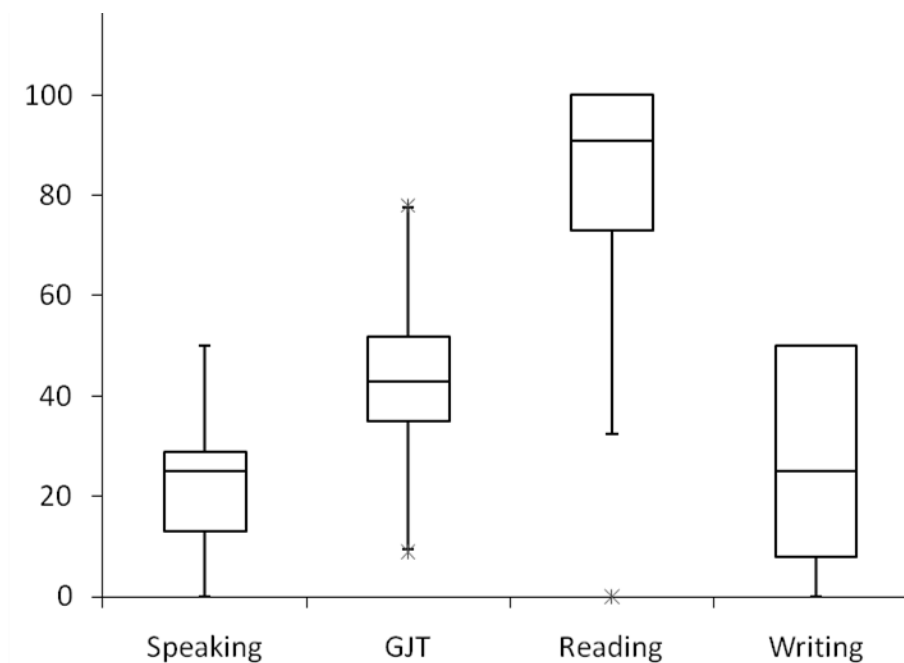


Figure 1. Boxplot of student scores by test. Scores are in percentages. The horizontal line represents the median score of all participants. The box represents the middle 50% of scores. * represents outliers.

I was the students' regular classroom teacher for the semester of the study and served as both researcher and instructor for the entire study, but students advanced to level 2 courses with different teachers eight weeks prior to taking the delayed posttest. Their access to instruction and input was not controlled after their advancement. The participants had been introduced to the phrases *a mí me gusta* (it pleases me), *a mí me gustan* (they please me) and

les gusta (it pleases them) lexically through vocabulary lists in the textbook *Realidades* (Boyles et al., 2005). All participants were familiar with the activity vocabulary used throughout the experimental activities and tests. They had been exposed to this vocabulary repeatedly through traditional instruction in the *Realidades* (Boyles et al., 2005) curriculum and through classroom activities.

The groups were three intact classes as assigned by the high school for the semester. Each group received 130 minutes of instruction and practice, divided among three consecutive days. This time included a small amount of “down time” between activities as students who finished more quickly waited for those who worked more slowly to finish. The TPRS group ($N=24$) received instruction through Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling, the processing instruction group ($N=20$) received processing instruction, and the control group ($N=17$) received no instruction in the target forms. Participants were given the pretest mentioned above immediately before treatment began, a posttest immediately following treatment, and a delayed posttest 82 or 83 days after the posttest, depending on when each participant was available for the delayed posttest. Data from participants who missed any of the three tests or any portion of the treatment due to absence were not included in the data set, and these participants are not included in the above counts.

Procedures and Materials

Each experimental group was given directions and materials for six different activities that fit within the processing instruction or the TPRS framework. I guided the participants through the various activities by reading the instructions, answering questions, ensuring students were on task, and assisting students in understanding the directions where required. I

did not provide feedback to student answers to the activities. The number of target structure tokens was 192 on the TPRS script and activities and 120 on the processing instruction script and activities. Additional incidental input (e.g., input from student participation) added tokens, but these were not counted.

Procedure and materials for the TPRS group. All activities for the TPRS group were designed according to guidelines found in Gross (2005, 2006, 2009, 2010), Ray (2005, 2010), and Ray and Seeley (2003). Input was supplied to students through PQA, a mini situation with questions on various levels, a student retell, and reading activities. Activities were designed with the goal of keeping meaning in focus and using minimal, visual intervention to help students notice the target forms. The target forms were addressed using contrastive grammar in brief (lasting less than 15 seconds) explanations during the vocabulary introduction phase, when the phrases first appeared in the mini situation, and when the phrases first appeared during the reading activity.

The TPRS group began treatment with a brief introduction of three target phrases:

A Jorge no le gusta leer.

A María le gusta pasar tiempo con Jorge.

A Jorge y María les gusta tener buenas notas.

The phrases were written on the board and students were asked to volunteer translations to review the meanings and assess comprehension. Volunteers provided the translations *Jorge doesn't like to read*, *María likes to spend time with Jorge*, and *Jorge and María like to have good grades*. I highlighted each *a* in yellow and asked the students to notice the *a* at the beginning of each phrase. I then highlighted each *le* or *les* in green, pointing out that there was a difference

in meaning between *le* and *les*. I underlined *A Jorge y María* and pointed first to that portion of the phrase, then to the *les* in the same phrase. I asked the students to notice the differences between the sentences that used *le* and the sentence that used *les*. A PQA session followed in which I asked individual students questions about their likes and dislikes and the likes and dislikes of their classmates. Circle questioning was used during the PQA session. The participants were asked the following questions in Spanish about themselves and about classmates:

¿A (ti/Enrique/Enrique y Susana) (te/le/les) gusta tener buenas notas o malas notas?

(Does it please (you/Enrique/Enrique and Susana) to have good grades or bad grades?)

¿A (ti/Enrique/Enrique y Susana) (te/le/les) gusta pasar tiempo con amigos?

(Does it please (you/Enrique/Enrique and Susana) to spend time with friends?)

¿Qué (te/le/les) gusta hacer a (ti/Enrique/Enrique y Susana)?

(What does it please (you/Enrique/Enrique and Susana) to do?)

Following the PQA, the class began the mini situation (see Appendix A). Students volunteered to be actors in the mini situation and I followed a script in telling the mini situation, directing actors, and asking questions of individual students and the whole class. During the story, I kept the three target phrases from the introduction on the board at the front of the room for reference. When the phrase *a Jorge le gusta tener buenas notas* appeared in the story, I added it to the board, highlighting *a* and *le* in the same way as they were highlighted in the three target phrases during the introduction. When the phrase *a los gatos les gusta vivir en las montañas* appeared, I added it to the board, highlighting *a* and *les*. I then drew the students' attention to the differences in meaning between the two sentences above by pointing at the *le*

and the *les* and asking students to notice the differences between the sentences. These contrastive grammar explanations were limited to 15 seconds in length. The explicit explanation during this time was limited to pointing out the fact that the *a* was there and that *le* and *les* served different purposes.

After the mini situation, students were asked to retell it as well as they could with a partner. They were instructed to speak in the target language for 10 minutes, repeating lines if necessary to fill the time. Next, they were given 10 minutes to rewrite the mini situation from memory. During this activity they were instructed not to be concerned with errors but to write as much of the mini situation as possible. Next, students were asked to write eight sentences about the likes and dislikes of characters in the mini situation and to illustrate each sentence. They were then given a list of sentences from the mini situation that did not include an explicit object (e.g., *Le gusta leer y escribir.*) and were instructed to sort the sentences into columns marked *A Jorge*, *A Maria*, *A los gatos*, and *A nadie*. The final activity was a class reading activity in which students took turns orally translating the sentences in a written version of the story into English. See Appendix A for activities assigned to the TPRS group.

Procedure and materials for the processing instruction group. All activities for the processing instruction group were designed using the guidelines for designing structured input activities put forth in VanPatten (1996). The activities included both descriptive and affective activities. Several activities included follow-up steps as motivation for participants to focus on the input. Although some of these follow-up steps are output, they generally involve reading or repeating the target phrases presented in input in the steps before and do not require the student to form unique phrases. Only the second step of the final activity for the processing

instruction group involved unique output, and participants were not given feedback. All activities in the processing instruction condition followed the principles of processing instruction: learners had to focus on meaning to complete the activities, learners were always required to use the input in some way, both oral and written input were used in the activities, activities moved from sentences to discourse, and learners' processing strategies were kept in mind (Farley, 2005). The availability of resources principle (VanPatten, 2004a) was important in all activities and apart from the target structures, all vocabulary used was familiar to the participants and had been used for several weeks in their Spanish class activities. See Appendix B for all materials provided to the processing instruction group for the activities.

Students received an introduction to the target forms before beginning the activities. I used a projector to show the students the following sentences:

A Jorge le gusta tocar el piano.

A María le gusta escribir.

A Jorge le gusta leer.

A María le gusta pasar tiempo con amigos.

I then explained that these are sentences describing what Jorge likes to do and what María likes to do. I then told the students to notice the A in the sentences and highlighted the A. Next, I put four more sentences on the screen:

A Jorge y María les gusta esquiar.

A Jorge y María les gusta escuchar música.

A Jorge y María les gusta montar en bicicleta.

A Jorge y María les gusta correr.

I explained that these are the things that María and Jorge both like to do. I then underlined the *les* in each sentence. I explained that although English speakers would interpret the phrase *a Jorge y María les gusta esquiar* as *Jorge and María like to ski* (and thus need to match the verb to the plural subject), it actually means *skiing pleases Jorge and María*, so the verb remains in the singular to match the singular subject. I explained that the singular indirect object pronoun has a different meaning from the plural indirect object pronoun. To address the indirect object marker *a*, I explained that the meaning of the sentence would not change without it, but the sentence would be grammatically incorrect. I cautioned students about non-optimal processing strategies, specifically that they would be tempted to leave out the *a* and to either leave out the pronoun or use the wrong pronoun if they followed the tendency to interpret the first noun as the subject of the sentence.

Following the explanation period, students were assigned structured input activities. In the first activity, students were asked to read sentences about what their teacher liked and about what dogs liked, and then select those sentences they believed to be true. They were then asked to use the sentences they had selected in a conversation with a partner. This first activity stayed at the sentence level and focused on one thing at a time, with the singular (*la profesora*) and the plural (*los perros*) sentences located in separate parts of the activity. Students responded to written input while marking the sentences they agreed with and they responded to oral input while conversing with a partner.

In the second activity, the processing instruction participants were given the second half of a complete sentence and asked to choose the logical first half of the sentence. In keeping with the Sentence Location Principle (VanPatten, 2004a), each question began with the second

half of a sentence, so the middle (and most difficult) part of the utterance (*le gusta* or *les gusta*) was moved to the beginning. Of four answer choices, two were grammatically correct so participants were required to attend to meaning to make a logical choice. Students were then asked to select a person or group of people mentioned in the activity and write a sentence about another activity that person or group liked to do. Finally, students were asked to visually illustrate a sentence written by a classmate.

The third activity for the processing instruction group required participants to move beyond multiple choice. In step one, participants filled in a blank in a sentence about themselves with activities they liked to do. Step two was an aural activity in which participants listened to the sentences from step one as completed by a partner, then filled in blanks with their partners' activities. In step three, I told them what I liked to do and they filled in blanks in sentences about my preferences. Step four required participants to write four sentences that each explained an interest shared by me and the student. The goal was to elicit a response that was a complete sentence that included the phrase *les gusta*.

The fourth activity had students listen to a story and fill in a chart indicating the likes and dislikes of each character in the story. The story was identical to that given to the TPRS group, but did not include the questions and repetition. To avoid a drain on processing resources, I went over the activities vocabulary with the students before reading the story. In part two of this activity, students read nine English questions about the story and said their answers in complete Spanish sentences into a voice recorder. They were not permitted to write their answers down prior to recording, but they were permitted to rehearse what they would say with a partner. Students were told that if they didn't know a word they needed in Spanish,

they were to substitute the English word. This would prevent them from getting stuck on a particular word and thus failing to complete the activity.

In the fifth activity, the participants in the processing instruction group were given a written narrative and 18 line drawings representing nine different activities. Participants were asked to read the narrative and put a check mark on each of the pictures that represented a statement in the narrative. For each activity mentioned in the narrative, there were two illustrations, one with one stick figure doing the activity and one with two stick figures doing the activity. One of the two drawings representing each activity was a correct illustration of a piece of information included in the narrative. Many of the phrases in the story did not include the object (e.g., Francisco), requiring participants to notice the pronoun (e.g., *le*) to determine whether there was one character or more than one character being referenced. This was done with the Lexical Preference Principle in mind as removing the direct object rendered the pronoun non-redundant.

The final activity given to the processing instruction participants had a theme centering on the 2008 presidential election. In the first part of this activity, I read imaginary speeches given by Barack Obama and John McCain that told about their favorite activities. Participants were given a list of statements concerning interests for each candidate and asked to put check marks next to the statements that were true based on the speeches. In the second part, participants were asked to circle the items on the lists that both candidates enjoyed, and then write four sentences describing the interests shared by the candidates. This part was designed to elicit complete written Spanish sentences that included the form *les gusta* and provide additional input when the sentences were read aloud to the class. The final step of this activity

was a question in English asking students to explain which candidate they would vote for and why if the election were based solely on the candidates' pastimes.

Procedure for the control group. The control group participated in reading and vocabulary practice activities unrelated to the target forms. They received no instruction in the target forms or any new material.

Instruments

The students took a pretest set, a posttest set, and a delayed posttest set, with each set including two production and two receptive tests. All test sets were structured in the same way with similar activities. Test set A was given to all groups as the pretest. Test set B was given to all groups as the posttest. Test set C was given to all groups as the delayed posttest. See Appendix C for a sample test set.

The tests began with an aural grammaticality judgment test (GJT) containing 23 phrases using the verb *gustar*. This tested an understanding of the need for *a* and the correct pronoun (*le* or *les*). Each phrase was read aloud twice with a pause of three seconds (timed using a clock with a second hand) between utterances. The GJT consisted of 23 statements. Students were awarded one point for a correct answer and zero points for an incorrect or incomplete answer.

The second test section was a reading comprehension test. Participants were asked to read sentences and determine whether each sentence referred to one person or two people. To prevent participants from seeing a pattern in the test questions, this section contained distractors, which did not use the verb *gustar*. The reading comprehension section consisted of 11 critical items. Distractors were not scored. Students were awarded one point for a correct answer and zero points for an incorrect answer.

The third test section was a speaking test. Students were given 12 line drawings. Each drawing included one or two characters participating in an activity and either smiling or frowning. The drawings were labeled with the names of the characters pictured. Students were asked to look at the drawings and say what they could about the likes and dislikes of the characters into an audio recorder. They were not permitted to make notes, nor were they allowed time to plan their output. Figure 2 is a sample item from this test.

Ignacio y Laura

Correct answer: *A Ignacio y Laura les gusta montar en bicicleta.*



Sample student answer: *Ignacio y Laura le gusta montar en bicicleta.*

Figure 2. Sample speaking test item with the correct answer and a sample student answer from the pretest.

For the speaking test, students were awarded one point for each correct use of *a*, one point for each correct use of *le* or *les* for a possible two points for each picture they narrated and a possible 24 point total for the oral test. No student used *a* or any pronoun when it was unnecessary; all errors involving *a* were omissions and all errors involving the pronoun were either omissions or usage of the wrong pronoun. Scoring criteria for overuse were therefore unnecessary.

The final test section was a writing test. This test was designed to be somewhat open-ended and provide students the opportunity to use the target structures as naturally as possible. Students were instructed to spend 10 minutes writing a story about two people they knew, including information on the likes and dislikes of each person as well as the likes and

dislikes shared by the two people. The phrasing of the instructions in this section was to elicit examples of both *le gusta* and *les gusta*, along with the required indirect object marker *a*. The instructions to *write a story* were intended to influence students to write beyond the basic requirements and demonstrate whether they had made gains in overall written fluency as a result of the treatment. Because students were asked to write as much as they could in the time allotted, the writing test could not be scored by simply totaling the number of correct responses. I developed a scoring system that would measure which concepts the students understood *and* what percentage of the time they used those concepts correctly. The writing accuracy portion was scored by breaking the correct usages of *a* and the pronouns *le* and *les* down into separate scores. The *a* score (x) was calculated by counting the number of times *a* was used correctly in the essay and dividing by the number of phrases that required *a*. A maximum *a* score would be 1. To calculate the *le/les* score (y), the number of correct uses of *le* and *les* were added together and divided by the number of target phrases written. Because I was testing two separate concepts within the target structure (the first being the presence or absence of *a* and the second being the difference between *le* and *les*), I also created a related but different scoring category to account for students' knowledge of the indirect object pronoun, the *le/les* concept score (y'). A score of 1 indicated that the student had used each of the two pronouns correctly at least once in the essay. A score of .5 indicated that the student only used one of the two pronouns correctly in the essay, and a score of 0 indicated that the student did not use either of the pronouns correctly. A *le/les* total score (z) was then calculated by multiplying the *le/les* concept score (y') with the *le/les* score (y). A simple percent correct model as used for the *a* score would not suffice because under that system, a student who used

only singular pronouns could score as highly as a student who used both kinds of pronouns, and I was interested in whether students could use both singular and plural indirect object pronouns in the target structure. Multiplication was selected as the means of combining y and y' over averaging because it would more accurately reflect whether the students had learned all of the required concepts. By multiplying y and y' a student who only understood the use of *le* and not *les* could achieve a score of no more than .5 (fifty percent). Had I averaged y and y' , that same student could have received a falsely inflated score of .75, which would not reflect the lack of knowledge of both indirect object pronouns.

The final writing accuracy score was an average of the *le/les* total score (z) and the *a* score (x), with a maximum score of 1. The variables z and x were averaged to attain a writing accuracy score that accounts for both the correct use of the case marker *a* and the correct use of the indirect object pronouns *le* and *les* without giving an advantage to students who used one pronoun correctly multiple times but avoided the other pronoun entirely. As an example of a writing accuracy score, a student who wrote the following atypically short essay would receive a score of .125:

Miguel le gusta tocar la guitarra. Miguel y Laura le gusta bailar.

This score would be determined using the following equations:

$x = 0$, because the student used *a* correctly zero out of a required two times.

$y = .5$, because the student wrote two target phrases and used one correct pronoun.

$y' = .5$, because the student used *le* correctly at least once but did not use *les* correctly at least once.

$z = .25$, the product of y and y' .

Final writing accuracy score = .125, the average of x and z .

No student ever used a in an inappropriate place. All errors with a were omissions.

Similarly, no student ever used a pronoun in an inappropriate place. All pronoun errors were either omissions or the use of the wrong pronoun in the correct place. As with the speaking test, scoring criteria for overuse of a or the pronouns were unnecessary.

Written fluency was scored using a word count on the same timed essay used to measure writing accuracy. All Spanish words and proper nouns were counted.

RESULTS

Speaking Test Results

For the speaking test in the pretest to posttest comparison and in the pretest to delayed posttest comparison, a one-way ANOVA of the three groups found a statistical difference. Tukey's post-hoc comparison revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the processing instruction group and the TPRS group, and between the control group and the processing instruction group for both the pretest to posttest comparison and the pretest to delayed posttest comparison. Table 2 below shows the statistical significance of each comparison. It also indicates effect size measured by Cohen's d and the 95% confidence intervals for each comparison. Each 95% confidence interval has a lower limit and an upper limit, which means that if the experiment were done many times, the difference between the groups' mean score increases would fall between those limits 95% of the time.

The results show that students in the processing instruction group improved in their ability to correctly produce the target structure (including the case marker *a* and the indirect object pronoun *le* or *les*) more than those in any other group. In fact, the TPRS group and control group both made small gains that were not statistically different from each other, and effect size measured by Cohen's d indicates a small-to-medium effect size (.67 standard deviation difference) for the pretest-posttest comparison of these groups and a very small effect size (.18 standard deviation difference) for the pretest-delayed posttest comparison ($d = .70$ is classified as a 'medium' effect size for the SLA field by Oswald and Plonsky (2010), while $d = .4$ is classified as 'small'). The delayed posttest showed that the processing instruction group maintained their gains in speaking two and a half months later, even though the TPRS group

was the only group to improve from the posttest to the delayed posttest. Cohen's d shows a huge difference between the processing instruction group and the TPRS group (3.30, which means the groups differed by over three standard deviations) and between the processing instruction group and the control group (3.85 standard deviation difference) from the pretest to the posttest. The effect was also large (though not as large) for these groups in the pretest to delayed posttest comparisons (1.50 and 1.53 standard deviation difference, respectively).

Table 2

Mean Score Increases and Results of One-Way ANOVA and Tukey Post-Hoc Comparisons for Speaking

Comparison	Mean Score Increase			F (2, 58)	p	Cohen's d
	TPRS	Processing Instruction	Control			
Pretest to posttest	2.7 (3.3)	15.9 (4.6)	0.5 (3.3)			
Pretest to delayed posttest	4.4 (3.5)	12.1 (6.2)	3.6 (5.1)			

Comparison of Mean Score Increase	95% Confidence Interval		F (2, 58)	p	Cohen's d
	Lower Limit	Upper Limit			
Pretest to posttest			95.48	<.001	
Control vs. TPRS	-5.08	0.69			0.67
Processing instruction vs. TPRS*	10.48	15.99			3.30
Control vs. processing instruction*	12.43	18.43			3.85
Pretest to delayed posttest			17.547	<.001	
Control vs. TPRS	-4.61	2.95			0.18
Processing instruction vs. TPRS*	4.02	11.24			1.53
Control vs. processing instruction*	4.53	12.39			1.50

*Tukey post-hoc comparison shows that comparison between groups is statistically significant ($p < .05$).

GJT Results

For the GJT in the pretest to posttest comparison, a one-way ANOVA of the three groups found a statistical difference. Tukey's post-hoc comparisons found that there was a statistically significant difference between the control group and the TPRS group, and between the control group and the processing instruction group. There were no statistical differences in the pretest to delayed posttest comparisons. Table 3 shows Cohen's *d*, whether the comparisons proved to be statistically significant, and the confidence intervals for each group-to-group comparison of increase in mean test scores.

The results show that in judging the grammaticality of sentences read aloud to them, students in the processing instruction group and those in the TPRS group made similar gains from pretest to posttest that were not statistically different from each other, but were greater than and statistically different from the control group's gains. Cohen's *d* showed a large, immediate effect for teaching method in both the TPRS and the processing instruction groups. The processing instruction group had a greater gain (1.69 standard deviation difference) over the control group than the TPRS group (with 1.1 standard deviation difference), but both of these effect sizes can be considered large. The difference between processing instruction and TPRS was not significant in the pretest to posttest comparison and the effect size (.48 standard deviation difference) was small to medium. The statistical significance of the of the TPRS vs. control and the processing instruction vs. control comparisons was not maintained during the interval between the pretest and the delayed posttest, but Cohen's *d* values show that both groups retained a small-to-medium advantage (.70 for TPRS and .56 for processing instruction) over the control group in the delayed posttest.

Table 3

Mean Score Increases and Results of One-Way ANOVA and Tukey Post-Hoc Comparisons for GJT

Comparison	Mean Score Increase			F (2, 58)	p	Cohen's d
	TPRS	Processing Instruction	Control			
Pretest to posttest	7.7 (4.0)	9.5 (3.5)	3.5 (3.6)			
Pretest to delayed posttest	6.3 (3.8)	5.7 (3.6)	3.6 (3.9)			

	95% Confidence Interval		F (2, 58)	p	Cohen's d
	Lower Limit	Upper Limit			
Pretest to posttest			12.137	<.001	
Control vs. TPRS*	-7.03	-1.32			1.10
Processing instruction vs. TPRS	-0.94	4.52			0.48
Control vs. processing instruction*	3.00	8.94			1.69
Pretest to delayed posttest			2.7744	.071	
Control vs. TPRS	-5.61	0.12			0.70
Processing instruction vs. TPRS	-3.37	2.11			0.16
Control vs. processing instruction	-0.87	5.09			0.56

*Tukey post-hoc comparison shows that comparison between groups is statistically significant ($p < .05$).

Writing Accuracy Results

For writing accuracy in both the pretest to posttest comparison and the pretest to delayed posttest comparison, a one-way ANOVA of the three groups found a statistical difference. Tukey post-hoc comparisons reveal that for both the pretest to posttest comparison and the pretest to delayed posttest comparison, there was a statistically significant difference between the processing instruction group and the TPRS group, and between the control group and the processing instruction group. Table 4 below shows which comparisons proved to be statistically significant, the confidence intervals for each group-to-group comparison of increase in mean test scores, and Cohen's d for each comparison.

The results show that the processing instruction group improved more than the other groups in correctly writing the target forms, including the required case marker *a* and the correct use of each third person indirect object pronoun with the verb *gustar*. The TPRS group did not make statistically significant improvements over the control group. The statistical gains of the processing instruction group over the other groups were maintained through the delayed posttest. Cohen's *d* showed a large and immediate effect for teaching approach in the processing instruction group compared to the TPRS group ($d = 1.33$) and to the control group ($d = 2.24$). The effects were also large in the same comparisons performed with delayed posttest scores, with an effect size of 1.18 standard deviation difference for the processing instruction vs. TPRS comparison and an effect size of 1.34 standard deviation difference for the control vs. processing instruction comparison. While the comparison is not statistically significant, there is a small-to-medium effect size (.67 standard deviation difference) in the immediate posttest for the TPRS group's mean score increase, which is greater than that of the control group. This did not hold through the delayed posttest.

Table 4

Mean Score Increases and Results of One-Way ANOVA and Tukey Post-Hoc Comparisons for Writing Accuracy

Comparison	Mean Score Increase				<i>p</i>	Cohen's <i>d</i>
	TPRS	Processing Instruction	Control			
Pretest to posttest	.2 (.3)	.6 (.3)	.03 (.2)			
Pretest to delayed posttest	.1 (.2)	.4 (.3)	.1 (.1)			

Comparison of Mean Score Increase	95% Confidence Interval		F (2, 58)	<i>p</i>	Cohen's <i>d</i>
	Lower Limit	Upper Limit			
Pretest to posttest			23.288	<.001	
Control vs. TPRS	-.40	.02			0.67
Processing instruction vs. TPRS*	.20	.59			1.33
Control vs. processing instruction*	.37	.80			2.24
Pretest to delayed posttest			9.58	<.001	
Control vs. TPRS	-.20	.14			0.00
Processing instruction vs. TPRS*	.09	.41			1.18
Control vs. processing instruction*	.11	.46			1.34

*Tukey post-hoc comparison shows that comparison between groups is statistically significant ($p < .05$).

Written Fluency Results

For written fluency in the pretest to posttest comparison, a one-way ANOVA of the three groups found a statistical difference. Tukey's post-hoc comparison showed that the TPRS group's mean score increase was statistically different from each of the other two groups and the processing instruction group's mean score increase was not statistically different from that of the control group. These differences were not maintained through the delayed posttest. There were no statistical differences in the pretest to delayed posttest comparison. Table 5

below shows whether the comparisons are statistically significant, the Cohen's *d* effect sizes, and the confidence intervals of the group-to-group comparisons.

The results show that the TPRS group increased their written fluency in the writing test more than the processing instruction group and the control group. Cohen's *d* shows a large effect size for teaching approach in the control vs. TPRS comparison (1.19 standard deviation difference) and a somewhat large effect size for teaching approach in the processing instruction vs. TPRS comparison (.91 standard deviation difference) of pretest to posttest increase in mean scores. There was a small effect size in the processing instruction group's score increase compared to that of the control group in the immediate posttest comparison (.18 standard deviation difference). Other small effect sizes in the writing accuracy scores were found in the pretest to delayed posttest comparisons of the TPRS group's scores to the scores of the other groups. In the comparison to the control group, there was .29 standard deviation difference. In the comparison to the processing instruction group, there was .20 standard deviation difference. There was also a small effect (.10 standard deviation difference) for teaching approach in the control vs. processing instruction comparison of pretest and delayed posttest scores.

Table 5

Mean Score Increases and Results of One-Way ANOVA and Tukey Post-Hoc Comparisons for Written Fluency

Comparison	Mean Score Increase		
	TPRS	Processing Instruction	Control
Pretest to posttest	32.8 (29.9)	6.3 (28.3)	1.9 (21.1)
Pretest to delayed posttest	16.5 (40.5)	9.2 (33.1)	6.2 (29.4)

Comparison of Mean Score Increase	95% Confidence Interval		F (2, 58)	p	Cohen's d
	Lower Limit	Upper Limit			
Pretest to posttest			8.0817	<.001	
Control vs. TPRS*	-51.56	-10.06			1.19
Processing instruction vs. TPRS*	-46.32	-6.68			0.91
Control vs. processing instruction	-17.28	25.90			0.18
Pretest to delayed posttest			0.4703	.627	
Control vs. TPRS	-37.18	16.65			0.29
Processing instruction vs. TPRS	-33.01	18.41			0.20
Control vs. processing instruction	-25.05	30.98			0.10

*Tukey post-hoc comparison shows that comparison between groups is statistically significant ($p < .05$).

Reading Test Results

For reading, there were no statistically significant differences among groups from the pretest to the posttest or from the pretest to the delayed posttest. Table 6 below shows that no comparisons were statistically significant, what the confidence intervals were for each comparison of increase in mean test scores, and what Cohen's d was for each comparison.

The results show that all three groups made equal gains in reading a sentence and determining whether it referred to one person or two people. There were no large effect sizes as calculated by Cohen's *d*. There is a small effect size for both processing instruction and TPRS in the immediate posttest (.46 and .37 standard deviation difference, respectively). These effects were not maintained through the delayed posttest. The effect size in the processing instruction vs. TPRS comparison is very small for both the immediate pretest and the delayed pretest (.18 standard deviation difference and .04 standard deviation difference, respectively).

Table 6

Mean Score Increases and Results of One-Way ANOVA and Tukey Post-Hoc Comparisons for Reading

Comparison	Mean Score Increase			F (2, 58)	<i>p</i>	Cohen's <i>d</i>
	TPRS	Processing Instruction	Control			
Pretest to posttest	0.6 (1.8)	1.0 (2.5)	-0.6 (4.2)			
Pretest to delayed posttest	0.1 (2.2)	0.2 (2.6)	-0.2 (2.0)			

Comparison of Mean Score Increase	95% Confidence Interval		F (2, 58)	<i>p</i>	Cohen's <i>d</i>
	Lower Limit	Upper Limit			
Pretest to posttest			1.5717	.216	
Control vs. TPRS	-3.40	0.94			0.37
Processing instruction vs. TPRS	-1.70	2.44			0.18
Control vs. processing instruction	-0.66	3.85			0.46
Pretest to delayed posttest			0.1272	.881	
Control vs. TPRS	-2.01	1.50			0.14
Processing instruction vs. TPRS	-1.56	1.79			0.04
Control vs. processing instruction	-1.45	2.20			0.17

*Tukey post-hoc comparison shows that comparison between groups is statistically significant ($p < .05$).

The effect sizes of the immediate posttest comparisons in this study identify which language functions (speaking, listening, writing, or reading) were affected by the treatment, and the effect sizes of the delayed posttest comparisons identify which effects endured over time. Table 7 summarizes the comparison of mean score increases among groups for each test, the statistical significance of the comparisons, whether the statistical significance held through the delayed posttest, and the Cohen's *d* effect sizes.

Table 7

*Group Ranking by Test, Cohen's *d* Effect Sizes, and Statistical Significance of Comparisons*

Pretest to posttest	Speaking	Writing Accuracy	Written Fluency	GJT	Reading
Group ranking by increase in mean scores	1. PI 2. TPRS 3. C	1. PI 2. TPRS 3. C	1. TPRS 2. PI 3. C	1. PI 2. TPRS 3. C	1. PI 2. TPRS 3. C
Control vs. TPRS	<i>d</i> = 0.67	<i>d</i> = 0.67	<i>d</i> = 1.19*	<i>d</i> = 1.10*	<i>d</i> = 0.37
TPRS vs. processing instruction	<i>d</i> = 3.30*	<i>d</i> = 1.33*	<i>d</i> = 0.91*	<i>d</i> = 0.48	<i>d</i> = 0.18
Control vs. processing instruction	<i>d</i> = 3.85*	<i>d</i> = 2.24*	<i>d</i> = 0.18	<i>d</i> = 1.69*	<i>d</i> = 0.46
Pretest to delayed posttest	Speaking	Writing Accuracy	Written Fluency	GJT	Reading
Group ranking by increase in mean scores	1. PI 2. TPRS 3. C	1. PI 2. TPRS 2. C	1. TPRS 2. PI 3. C	1. TPRS 2. PI 3. C	1. PI 2. TPRS 3. C
Control vs. TPRS	<i>d</i> = .18	<i>d</i> = 0.00	<i>d</i> = 0.29	<i>d</i> = 0.70	<i>d</i> = 0.14
TPRS vs. processing instruction	<i>d</i> = 1.53*	<i>d</i> = 1.18*	<i>d</i> = 0.20	<i>d</i> = 0.16	<i>d</i> = 0.04
Control vs. processing instruction	<i>d</i> = 1.50*	<i>d</i> = 1.34*	<i>d</i> = 0.10	<i>d</i> = 0.56	<i>d</i> = 0.17

Note. Shading indicates that statistically significant gains held through the delayed posttest.

* indicates statistical significance of comparison between groups

DISCUSSION

The hypothesis that students instructed with explicit information and structured input activities would show significantly greater gains in accurate use of the target structure than those instructed with comparative grammar explanations and repetitive input is correct for measures of production. The hypothesis did not hold true for the reading test and GJT, both of which are receptive measures. In the case of the GJT, the TPRS group and the processing instruction group both improved more than the control group in the pretest to posttest comparison, but there was no statistical difference between the TPRS group and the processing instruction group. In the case of the reading test, there were no statistical differences in any comparison. This may be due to the fact that students were familiar with "a mí me gusta" and "les gusta" as fixed formulaic phrases, and could accurately understand these phrases although it was more difficult for the students to accurately produce these phrases (as seen in the lower scores on the productive tests). The pretest reading scores were very high (the median score was 91 out of a possible 100 points, and 34.4% of participants scored 100 points on the pretest), so a ceiling effect could explain the lack of statistical comparisons and the low effect sizes in the reading test.

The hypothesis that students instructed with comparative grammar explanations and repetitive input would show significantly greater gains in accurate use of the target structure than those not instructed is also correct, with some exceptions. The TPRS group showed greater gains than the control group in all cases except the pretest to delayed posttest comparison of writing scores, in which the TPRS group and the control group made equal gains.

In the matter of written fluency, the hypothesis that input presented in a story format would lead to statistically significant gains over the other types of input (structured input and no input) was correct for the pretest-posttest comparison, but not in the hypothesis that the gains would be maintained through the delayed posttest. The fact that the statistical gains were not maintained may indicate that a one-time use of the TPRS structure to increase overall written fluency is not sufficient and that continuous input is needed for lasting gains in written fluency.

The results allow for the following answers to the research questions posed above.

1. How do the effects of repetitive input and brief comparative grammar explanations (lasting less than fifteen seconds each for a total of approximately two minutes in this experiment) compare to the effects of structured-input activities and a longer, explicit metalinguistic explanation (approximately ten minutes total in this experiment) when measured by tests of receptive abilities and production of the Spanish case marker *a* and the indirect object pronouns *le* and *les* with the verb *gustar*? How do the test results of groups instructed in TPRS and processing instruction compare with an uninstructed group?

The results of this study show that the processing instruction treatment was significantly more effective than the TPRS treatment for the speaking test and the writing accuracy test. The differences between groups were statistically significant through the first posttest and the delayed posttest. While the benefits of processing instruction over TPRS and zero instruction are clear in the production measures of speaking and writing accuracy, the results are different in the receptive measures of aural grammaticality judgment and reading. There were no

statistical differences in any comparison of reading scores, the test for which was to read sentences containing the target form and determine whether each sentence was about one person or two people). One possible explanation is the fact that pretest scores for reading were initially quite high (see Figure 1), so students already knew how to correctly interpret the target forms. . The fact that the processing instruction group and the TPRS group improved equally over the control group on the GJT may indicate that the type of instruction in a processing instruction framework can improve both production and receptive abilities when using the target form, and the type of instruction in TPRS can improve both production and receptive abilities better than zero instruction, but is more successful in improving receptive abilities over production. The difficulty for them was in producing the form, and gains in this area occurred more for processing instruction than for TPRS.

2. Does input presented in a story format as in TPRS produce higher levels of written fluency than the input presented in processing instruction activities, which also contain input but are designed to address processing strategies?

The TPRS treatment was more beneficial to written fluency than the processing instruction treatment. This seems to be in line with claims made by TPRS proponents that students instructed with TPRS demonstrate superior fluency and the ability to write more than students instructed in other methods (Ray & Seely, 2003). This conclusion is to be treated with caution, however, as the statistical gains were not maintained through the delayed posttest and could be attributed to a skill practice effect because students practiced writing and telling stories in the TPRS treatment.

3. Are any effects of TPRS or processing instruction treatments on the target structure maintained over time?

The effects of processing instruction as compared to no instruction were maintained in speaking and writing accuracy scores from the pretest to the delayed posttest. For speaking, the large effect size of 3.85 standard deviations difference in the immediate posttest shrunk to 1.50 standard deviations difference in the delayed posttest, but the effect size in the delayed posttest is still considered large. The same held true for writing accuracy, with an effect size of 2.24 standard deviations in the immediate posttest and 1.34 standard deviations in the delayed posttest. In the GJT, the statistical significance of the TPRS group's advantage over the control group did not hold through the delayed posttest, but the medium effect size of .70 in the delayed posttest indicates that there were long-term effects. The same can be said for the effects of processing instruction compared to no instruction even though the comparison in the delayed posttest was not statistically significant, because there was a small-to-medium effect size of .56 standard deviations difference in the delayed posttest. Another comparison that was statistically significant in the immediate posttest but not in the delayed posttest was the comparison between the TPRS group and the control group. The TPRS group improved more on the written fluency test than any other group, and that group retained an advantage over the other groups in the delayed posttest that is somewhat interesting due to a small effect size of .29 standard deviations difference. Although students' access to instruction and input including the target forms could not be controlled after their advancement to level 2 courses, I believe the effects of processing instruction on speaking, writing accuracy, and grammaticality judgment and the effects of TPRS on written fluency can still be said to have endured over the

two-and-a-half month delay. This is because in speaking, writing accuracy, and grammaticality judgment the processing instruction group showed greater gains from pretest to delayed posttest than the other groups, and in written fluency the TPRS group showed greater gains from pretest to delayed posttest than the other two groups. Both statistical significance and effect size are important in indicating whether the different treatment conditions had lasting effects. The finding for processing instruction is in line with prior research on the long-term effects of processing instruction (VanPatten & Fernández, 2004).

CONCLUSION

The results of this study are in line with the results of previous studies that show immediate and lasting effects for processing instruction. Addressing learners' processing strategies in explicit grammar instruction and structured input activities (processing instruction) is more beneficial to learners than repetitive meaning-based input without explicit instruction (TPRS). The explicit instruction and focus on particular processing strategies makes processing instruction more effective at helping learners produce target structures more accurately than TPRS, which draws learners' attention to form but does not explain the grammar metalinguistically or attempt to alter specific processing strategies.

This study acknowledges a method of instruction that is basically untested in SLA but is frequently used in second language classrooms—TPRS. Based on the results shown here, TPRS is more effective than processing instruction at increasing written fluency and is more effective than no instruction at improving GJT scores, but it is not the most effective method of instruction for at least some target language structures.

This research could be improved in future replications or conceptual replications by removing all output from the structured input activities to more closely replicate previous processing instruction studies. Also, measuring spoken fluency in a timed oral production task would add to the growing body of knowledge of the effects of processing instruction. The current study adds to prior evidence in favor of processing instruction by comparing processing instruction to an input-based, meaning-oriented approach and revealing that processing instruction is beneficial over TPRS in measures of reading, listening, speaking, and writing, but not in written fluency. Because of the popularity of TPRS, SLA research would also benefit from

further investigation into this method and the reasons behind its apparent usefulness in the area of written fluency.

From the perspective of a language teacher, TPRS is more attractive than processing instruction due to the amount of published materials and support available from online resources and the large network of TPRS practitioners. TPRS also encourages and emphasizes the creativity of both the teacher and the students, making it entertaining for many teachers and students. Language teachers should consider that no single method or framework is ideal for all instruction and that tailoring their approaches to individual situations may yield the best results. Teachers who prefer to use TPRS as their primary type of instruction may help students improve in receptive abilities and production of difficult forms by incorporating structured input-style activities and explicit grammar instruction that cautions students against using non-optimal processing strategies. Practitioners of TPRS could improve their methods by not shying away from explicit grammar instruction and by considering learners' processing strategies in planning instruction.

APPENDIX A

MATERIALS AND ACTIVITIES FOR TPRS GROUP

Note: Translations in italics did not appear on teacher scripts or student materials.

Activity A. Students answer the personalized questions and then answer the questions embedded in the story as the teacher tells the story and student actors act it out. Students answer the questions orally in response to details given within the story and provide further details to embellish the story.

Personalized questions to ask students in the TPRS group to prepare them for the story:

1. ¿Te gusta ir a la escuela? *Do you like to go to school?*
2. ¿A (student) le gusta ir a la escuela? *Does (student) like to go to school?*
3. ¿Te gusta pasar tiempo con amigos? *Do you like to spend time with friends?*
4. ¿A (student) le gusta pasar tiempo con amigos? *Does (student) like to spend time with friends?*
5. ¿Te gusta tener buenas notas o malas notas? *Do you like to have good grades or bad grades?*
6. ¿A (student) le gusta tener buenas notas o malas notas? *Does (student) like to have good grades or bad grades?*
7. ¿A (student) y (student) les gusta ir a la escuela? *Do (student) and (student) like to go to school?*
8. ¿A (student) y (student) les gusta pasar tiempo con amigos? *Do (student) and (student) like to spend time with friends?*
9. ¿A (student) y (student) les gusta tener buenas notas o malas notas? *Do (student) and (student) like to have good grades or bad grades?*

TPRS mini situation for repeated input of A (person) *le gusta* and A (people) *les gusta*. This mini situation is to be told to students with comprehension questions asked throughout and student input to add details.

Hay un chico. Se llama Jorge. Jorge no es un chico muy inteligente. Es un chico muy tonto. Jorge no es inteligente ni guapo. Es tonto y feo. Jorge tiene muchos problemas. A Jorge no le gusta leer, pero la tarea para la clase de español es leer. ¿A Jorge le gusta leer? ¿Qué no le gusta hacer a Jorge? ¿A Jorge le gusta leer para la clase de español? A Jorge no le gusta escribir, pero la tarea para la clase de inglés es escribir. ¿Qué no le gusta hacer a Jorge? ¿A Jorge le gusta leer? A Jorge no le gusta tocar la guitarra, pero la tarea para la clase de música es tocar la guitarra. ¿A Jorge le gusta tocar la guitarra? ¿A Jorge le gusta leer? ¿A Jorge le gusta escribir? ¿A Jorge le gusta tocar la guitarra o no le gusta tocar la guitarra? A Jorge no le gusta nada ir a la escuela ni hacer la tarea. ¿A Jorge le gusta ir a la escuela? ¿A Jorge le gusta ir a la escuela o no le gusta ir a la escuela? ¿A Jorge le gusta hacer la tarea o no le gusta hacer la tarea?

Hay una chica. Se llama María. María es una chica muy inteligente y guapa. Es trabajadora y deportista. A María no le gusta pasar tiempo con Jorge. ¿A María le gusta pasar tiempo con Jorge? ¿A Jorge le gusta pasar tiempo con María? ¿A María le gusta pasar tiempo con amigas? ¿A María le gusta pasar tiempo con Jorge o no le gusta pasar tiempo con Jorge? María tiene un problema. María está enferma. No está bien. A María le gusta leer la tarea para la clase de inglés, pero no es posible. ¿A María le gusta leer? A María le gusta escribir la tarea para la clase de español, pero no es posible. ¿A María le gusta escribir? ¿Qué le gusta escribir a María? ¿A María le gusta escribir cuentos o le gusta escribir la tarea? ¿A María le gusta escribir la tarea para la clase de inglés o la clase de historia? A María le gusta mucho tocar el piano para

la clase de música, pero no es posible. ¿A María le gusta tocar la guitarra o el piano? ¿A María le gusta tocar el piano? ¿A María le gusta tocar la guitarra? ¿A María le gusta tocar el piano o no le gusta tocar el piano? ¿A María le gusta tocar el piano para la clase de matemáticas o la clase de música?

Jorge va a su escuela en Bogotá, Colombia. Es un día horrible. Jorge no escribió la tarea para la clase de inglés porque a Jorge no le gusta escribir. ¿A Jorge le gusta escribir? ¿Por qué no escribió la tarea Jorge? Jorge no leyó la tarea para la clase de español porque a Jorge no le gusta leer. ¿A Jorge le gusta leer? ¿Por qué no leyó la tarea? Jorge no tocó la guitarra para la clase de música porque a Jorge no le gusta tocar la guitarra. ¿A Jorge le gusta tocar la guitarra? ¿A Jorge le gusta tocar la guitarra o no le gusta tocar la guitarra? ¿Por qué no tocó la guitarra Jorge? Los profesores de Jorge le dan unas notas muy malas. A Jorge no le gusta tener malas notas. A Jorge le gusta tener buenas notas. ¿A Jorge le gusta tener malas notas? ¿A Jorge le gusta o no le gusta tener buenas notas? Jorge tiene un problema.

María va a su escuela. Es un día horrible. A María le gusta escribir, pero no lo hizo. ¿A María le gusta escribir? A María le gusta leer, pero no lo hizo. ¿A María le gusta leer? ¿A María le gusta leer o no le gusta leer? A María le gusta tocar el piano, pero no lo hizo. ¿A María le gusta tocar el piano? ¿A María le gusta tocar el piano o la guitarra? Los profesores de María le dan unas notas muy malas. A María no le gusta tener malas notas. A María le gusta tener buenas notas. ¿A María le gusta tener buenas notas? ¿A María le gusta tener malas notas? María tiene un problema.

El profesor de Jorge y María les dice, “Para tener buenas notas, corran a California y busquen al presidente de California.” Jorge y María van a California y buscan al presidente de

California. El presidente está en el puente Golden Gate. A Jorge y María no les gusta ver el puente. ¿A Jorge y María les gusta ver el puente? ¿A Jorge y María les gusta ver al presidente? ¿A Jorge y María les gusta ver el puente o no les gusta ver el puente? A Jorge y María no les gusta hablar con presidentes. ¿A Jorge y María les gusta hablar con presidentes o no les gusta hablar con presidentes? ¿A Jorge y María les gusta ver el puente? ¿A Jorge y María les gusta hablar con presidentes? ¿Por qué no les gusta hablar con presidentes? Pero a Jorge y María no les gusta tener malas notas, tampoco. ¿A Jorge y María les gusta tener buenas notas? ¿A Jorge y María les gusta tener malas notas? ¿A Jorge y María les gusta tener buenas notas o malas notas? ¿A Jorge y María les gusta tener malas notas o no les gusta tener malas notas? Jorge y María van al puente Golden Gate. El presidente les da 200.85 gatos y les dice, “A los gatos no les gusta vivir en un puente. A los gatos les gusta vivir en las montañas. Monten en bicicleta a las montañas con los gatos para buenas notas.” ¿A los gatos les gusta vivir en el puente o en las montañas? ¿A los gatos les gusta vivir en las montañas? ¿A los gatos les gusta vivir en el puente? ¿Por qué no les gusta vivir en el puente?

A Jorge y María no les gusta montar en bicicleta con los gatos. A Jorge y María no les gusta montar en bicicleta sin los gatos. ¿A Jorge y María les gusta montar en bicicleta con gatos? ¿A Jorge y María les gusta montar en bicicleta sin gatos? ¿A Jorge y María les gusta montar en bicicleta? Pero a Jorge y María no les gusta tener malas notas. Ellos montan en bicicleta a las montañas con los gatos. Montan en bicicleta a la casa de la princesa de gatos. A los gatos les gusta vivir con la princesa de gatos. A los gatos no les gusta vivir en un puente. A los gatos les gusta vivir en las montañas. ¿A los gatos les gusta vivir en el puente o en las montañas? ¿A los gatos les gusta vivir en las montañas? ¿A los gatos les gusta vivir en el

puede? A los gatos les gusta esquiar. ¿A los gatos les gusta montar en bicicleta o les gusta esquiar? ¿A los gatos les gusta esquiar en las montañas? ¿A los gatos les gusta esquiar o no les gusta esquiar? La princesa de gatos les da buenas notas. A Jorge y María les gusta tener buenas notas. A los gatos les gusta tener amigos con buenas notas. ¿A Jorge y María les gusta tener buenas notas? ¿A Jorge y María les gusta tener malas notas? ¿A Jorge y María les gusta tener buenas notas o malas notas? ¿A los gatos les gusta tener amigos? ¿A los gatos les gusta tener amigos con buenas notas? ¿A los gatos les gusta tener amigos con malas notas? ¿A los gatos les gusta tener amigos con buenas notas o malas notas? A la princesa y el presidente les gusta dar buenas notas. ¿A la princesa y el presidente les gusta dar buenas notas? ¿A la princesa y el presidente les gusta dar malas notas? ¿A la princesa y el presidente les gusta dar buenas notas o les gusta dar malas notas?

Jorge y María nadan a la escuela con cinco gatos. ¿A Jorge y María les gusta nadar? ¿A los gatos les gusta nadar o no les gusta nadar? ¿A Jorge y María les gusta montar en bicicleta? ¿A Jorge y María les gusta más nadar o les gusta más montar en bicicleta? Los padres de Jorge y María están en la escuela. A los padres les gusta bailar. Los padres bailan en la escuela. ¿A los padres de Jorge y María les gusta bailar? ¿A los padres de Jorge y María les gusta bailar en la escuela o les gusta bailar en un restaurante? ¿A María y Jorge les gusta bailar? ¡No! A María y Jorge les gusta tener buenas notas, pero no les gusta cuando sus padres bailan en la escuela. ¿A los gatos les gusta bailar? ¡No! A los gatos no les gusta bailar. Jorge, María y los gatos corren a casa con las buenas notas.

There is a boy. He is called Jorge. Jorge is not a very intelligent boy. He is a very stupid boy. Jorge is neither intelligent nor handsome. He is stupid and ugly. Jorge has a lot of problems.

Jorge does not like to read, but the homework for Spanish class is to read. Does Jorge like to read? What does Jorge not like to do? Does Jorge like to read for Spanish class? Jorge does not like to write, but the homework for English class is to write. What does Jorge not like to do? Does Jorge like to read? Jorge does not like to play guitar, but the homework for music class is to play the guitar. Does Jorge like to play the guitar? Does Jorge like to read? Does Jorge like to write? Does Jorge like to play the guitar or does he not like to play the guitar? Jorge does not like to go to school or do homework. Does Jorge like to go to school? Does Jorge like to play the guitar? Does Jorge like to go to school or not like to go to school? Does Jorge like to do homework or not like to do homework?

There is a girl. She is called María. María is a very intelligent and attractive girl. She is hard-working and athletic. María does not like to spend time with Jorge. Does María like to spend time with Jorge? Does Jorge like to spend time with María? Does María like to spend time with friends? Does María like to spend time with Jorge or does she not to spend time with Jorge? María has a problem. María is sick. She is not well. María likes to read the homework for English class, but it is not possible. Does María like to read? María likes to write the homework for Spanish class, but it is not possible. Does María like to write? What does María like to write? Does María like to write stories or does she like to write the homework? Does María like to write the homework for English class or history class? María likes to play piano for music class a lot, but it is not possible. Does María like to play piano or does she not like to play piano? Does María like to play piano for math class or music class?

Jorge goes to his school in Bogota, Colombia. It is a horrible day. Jorge did not write the homework for English class because Jorge does not like to write. Does Jorge like to write? Why

didn't Jorge write the homework? Jorge didn't read the homework for Spanish class because he does not like to read. Does Jorge like to read? Why did he not read the homework? Jorge didn't play the guitar for music class because Jorge does not like to play guitar. Does Jorge like to play guitar? Does Jorge like to play guitar or does he not like to play guitar? Why didn't Jorge play the guitar? Jorge's teachers give him very bad grades. Jorge does not like to have bad grades. Jorge likes to have good grades. Does Jorge like to have bad grades? Does Jorge like to have good grades or not like to have good grades? Jorge has a problem.

María goes to her school. It is a horrible day. María likes to write but she didn't do it. Does María like to write? María likes to read, but she didn't do it. Does María like to read? Does María like to read or does she not like to read? María likes to play piano, but she didn't do it. Does María like to play piano? Does María like to play piano or guitar? María's teachers give her very bad grades. María doesn't like to have bad grades. María likes to have good grades. Does María like to have good grades? Does María like to have bad grades? María has a problem.

The teacher of Jorge and María tells them, "To have good grades, run to California and look for the president of California." Jorge and María go to California and they look for the president of California. The president is on the Golden Gate Bridge. Jorge and María do not like to see the bridge. Do Jorge and María like to see the bridge? Do Jorge and María like to see the president? Do Jorge and María like to see the bridge or do they not like to see the bridge? Jorge and María do not like to talk to presidents. Do Jorge and María like to talk with presidents or not like to talk with presidents? Why do they not like to talk to presidents? But Jorge and María do not like to have bad grades, either. Do Jorge and María like to have good grades? Do Jorge and María like to have bad grades? Do Jorge and María like to have good grades or bad grades? Do

Jorge and María like to have bad grades or not like to have bad grades? Jorge and María go to the Golden Gate Bridge. The president gives them 200.85 cats and tells them, "Cats do not like to live on a bridge. Cats like to live in the mountains. Bicycle to the mountains with the cats for good grades." Do the cats like to live on the bridge or in the mountains? Do cats like to live in the mountains? Do cats like to live on the bridge? Why do they not like to live on the bridge?

Jorge and María do not like to bicycle with cats. Jorge and María do not like to bicycle without cats. Do Jorge and María like to bicycle with cats? Do Jorge and María like to bicycle without cats? Do Jorge and María like to bicycle? But Jorge and María do not like to have bad grades. They bicycle to the mountains with the cats. They bicycle to the house of the princess of cats. The cats like to live with the princess of cats. The cats do not like to live on a bridge. The cats like to live in the mountains. Do the cats like to live on the bridge or in the mountains? Do the cats like to bicycle or do they like to ski? The princess of cats gives them good grades. Jorge and María like to have good grades. The cats like to have friends with good grades. Do Jorge and María like to have good grades? Do Jorge and María like to have bad grades? Do the cats like to have friends? Do the cats like to have friends with good grades? Do the cats like to have friends with bad grades? Do the cats like to have friends with good grades or bad grades? The princess and the president like to give good grades. Do the princess and the president like to give good grades? Do the princess and the president like to give bad grades? Do the princess and the president like to give good grades or do they like to give bad grades?

Jorge and María swim to the school with five cats. Do Jorge and María like to swim? Do the cats like to swim or not like to swim? Do Jorge and María like to bicycle? Do Jorge and María like to swim more or to bicycle more? The parents of Jorge and María are in the school. The

parents like to dance. The parents dance in the school. Do the parents of Jorge and María like to dance? Do the parents of Jorge and María like to dance in the school or do they like to dance in a restaurant? Do María and Jorge like to dance? No! María and Jorge like to have good grades, but they do not like it when their parents dance in the school. Do the cats like to dance? No! Cats do not like to dance. Jorge, María and the cats run home with the good grades.

Activity B. Without looking at the script, retell the story as well as you can with a partner. The story does not have to be in order when you retell it. First partner A says a sentence, then partner B says a sentence. When you can't think of anything else to say, you may repeat yourself. Talk for 10 minutes.

Activity C. Rewrite the story as well as you can without looking at the script. Write for 10 minutes. Do not worry about spelling and punctuation; errors are OK. Write as much as you possibly can of the story. It is OK to write out of order if necessary.

Activity D. Write eight sentences about the likes and dislikes of characters in the story. Above each sentence, draw a picture that illustrates it.

Activity E. Make four columns on your paper with the following phrases as titles:

A Jorge... A María... A los gatos... A nadie...

Sort the following sentences by writing them under the appropriate column on the paper.

Le gusta leer y escribir. He/she likes to read and write.

Le gusta tocar la guitarra. He/she likes to play the guitar.

No les gusta montar en bicicleta. They do not like to bicycle.

Le gusta tocar el piano. He/she likes to play piano.

No le gusta ni leer ni escribir. He/she does not like to read or write.

Les gusta vivir en las montañas. *They like to live in the mountains.*

Le gusta escuchar música. *He/she likes to listen to music.*

Le gusta comer hamburguesas. *He/she likes to eat hamburgers.*

No le gusta tocar la guitarra. *He/she does not like to play guitar.*

Le gusta pasar tiempo con amigas. *He/she does not like to spend time with friends.*

No les gusta vivir en un puente. *They do not like to live on a bridge.*

No les gusta tener malas notas. *They do not like to have good grades.*

Activity F. Read the following story in class, translating it into English. Each person translates one sentence aloud. Repeat until the story has been completely translated.

Hay un chico. Se llama Jorge. Jorge no es un chico muy inteligente. Es un chico muy tonto. Jorge no es inteligente ni guapo. Es tonto y feo. Jorge tiene muchos problemas. A Jorge no le gusta leer, pero la tarea para la clase de español es leer. A Jorge no le gusta escribir, pero la tarea para la clase de inglés es escribir.

Hay una chica. Se llama María. María es una chica muy inteligente y guapa. Es trabajadora y deportista. A María no le gusta pasar tiempo con Jorge. María tiene un problema. María está enferma. No está bien. A María le gusta leer la tarea para la clase de inglés, pero no es posible. A María le gusta escribir la tarea para la clase de español, pero no es posible. A María le gusta mucho tocar el piano para la clase de música, pero no es posible.

Jorge va a su escuela en Bogotá, Colombia. Es un día horrible. Jorge no escribió la tarea para la clase de inglés porque a Jorge no le gusta escribir. Jorge no leyó la tarea para la clase de español porque a Jorge no le gusta leer. Los profesores de Jorge le dan unas notas muy malas. A

Jorge no le gusta tener malas notas. A Jorge le gusta tener buenas notas. Jorge tiene un problema.

María va a su escuela. Es un día horrible. A María le gusta escribir, pero no lo hizo. A María le gusta leer, pero no lo hizo. A María le gusta tocar el piano, pero no lo hizo. Los profesores de María le dan unas notas muy malas. A María no le gusta tener malas notas. A María le gusta tener buenas notas. María tiene un problema.

El profesor de Jorge y María les dice, “Para tener buenas notas, corran a California y busquen al presidente de California.”

Jorge y María van a California y buscan al presidente de California. El presidente está en el puente Golden Gate. A Jorge y María no les gusta ver el puente. A Jorge y María no les gusta hablar con presidentes. Pero a Jorge y María no les gusta tener malas notas, tampoco. Jorge y María van al puente Golden Gate. El presidente les da 200.85 gatos y les dice, “A los gatos no les gusta vivir en un puente. A los gatos les gusta vivir en las montañas. Monten en bicicleta a las montañas con los gatos para buenas notas.”

A Jorge y María no les gusta montar en bicicleta con los gatos. A Jorge y María no les gusta montar en bicicleta sin los gatos. Pero a Jorge y María no les gusta tener malas notas. Ellos montan en bicicleta a las montañas con los gatos. Montan en bicicleta a la casa de la princesa de gatos. A los gatos les gusta vivir con la princesa de gatos. A los gatos no les gusta vivir en un puente. A los gatos les gusta vivir en las montañas. La princesa de gatos les da buenas notas. A Jorge y María les gusta tener buenas notas. A los gatos les gusta tener amigos con buenas notas. A la princesa y el presidente les gusta dar buenas notas.

Jorge y María nadan a la escuela con cinco gatos. Los padres de Jorge y María están en la escuela. A los padres les gusta bailar. Los padres bailan en la escuela. A María y Jorge les gusta tener buenas notas, pero no les gusta cuando sus padres bailan en la escuela. A los gatos no les gusta bailar. Jorge, María y los gatos corren a casa con las buenas notas.

There is a boy. He is called Jorge. Jorge is not a very intelligent boy. He is a stupid boy. Jorge is neither intelligent nor handsome. He is stupid and ugly. Jorge has a lot of problems. Jorge does not like to read, but the homework for Spanish class is reading. Jorge does not like to write, but the homework for English class is writing.

There is a girl. She is called María. María is a very intelligent and attractive girl. She is hard-working and athletic. María does not like to spend time with Jorge. María has a problem. María is ill. She is not well. María likes to read the homework for English class, but it's not possible. María likes to write the homework for Spanish class, but it's not possible. María really likes to play the piano for music class, but it's not possible.

Jorge goes to school in Bogotá, Colombia. It is a horrible day. Jorge did not write the homework for English class because Jorge does not like to write. Jorge did not read the homework for Spanish class because Jorge does not like to read. Jorge's teachers give him some bad grades. Jorge does not like to have bad grades. Jorge likes to have good grades. Jorge has a problem.

María goes to her school. It is a horrible day. María likes to write, but she didn't do it. María likes to read, but she didn't do it. María likes to play piano, but she didn't do it. María's teachers give her very bad grades. María does not like to have bad grades. María likes to have good grades. María has a problem.

The teacher of Jorge and María tells them, "To have good grades, run to California and look for the president of California."

Jorge and María go to California and look for the president of California. The president is on the Golden Gate Bridge. Jorge and María do not like to see the bridge. Jorge and María do not like to talk to presidents. But Jorge and María do not like to have bad grades, either. Jorge and María go to the Golden Gate Bridge. The president gives them 200.85 cats and tells them, "Cats do not like to live on a bridge. Cats like to live in the mountains. Bicycle to the mountains with the cats for good grades."

Jorge and María don't like to bicycle with the cats. Jorge and María do not like to bicycle without cats. But Jorge and María don't like to have bad grades. They bicycle to the mountains with the cats. They bicycle to the house of the Princess of Cats. The cats like to live in the mountains. The Princess of Cats gives them good grades. Jorge and María like to have good grades. The cats like to have friends with good grades. The princess and the president like to give good grades.

Jorge and María swim to school with five cats. The parents of Jorge and María are at the school. The parents like to dance. The parents dance in the school. María and Jorge like to have good grades, but they do not like it when their parents dance in the school. Cats do not like to dance. Jorge, María, and the cats run home with the good grades.

APPENDIX B

MATERIALS AND ACTIVITIES FOR PROCESSING INSTRUCTION GROUP

Note: Translations in italics did not appear in the teacher script or the student materials.

The teacher puts these on the board, underlining the necessary items. The teacher says, “These are some of the things Jorge likes to do and some of the things María likes to do.”

A Jorge le gusta tocar el piano. *Jorge likes to play the piano.*

A María le gusta escribir. *María likes to write.*

A Jorge le gusta leer. *Jorge likes to read.*

A María le gusta pasar tiempo con amigos. *María likes to spend time with friends.*

A Jorge y María les gusta esquiar. *Jorge and María like to ski.*

A Jorge y María les gusta escuchar música. *Jorge and María like to listen to music.*

A Jorge y María les gusta montar en bicicleta. *Jorge and María like to ride bicycles.*

A Jorge y María les gusta correr. *Jorge and María like to run.*

Activity A – part 1

Step 1: Check off what you believe to be true.

_____ A la profesora le gusta montar en bicicleta. *The teacher likes to ride bicycles.*

_____ A la profesora le gusta correr. *The teacher likes to run.*

_____ A la profesora le gusta ir a las montañas. *The teacher likes to go to the mountains.*

_____ A la profesora le gusta trabajar en la escuela. *The teacher likes to work at the school.*

_____ A la profesora le gusta cantar. *The teacher likes to sing.*

_____ A la profesora le gusta escribir cuentos. *The teacher likes to write stories.*

_____ A la profesora le gusta hablar por teléfono. *The teacher likes to talk on the phone.*

_____ A la profesora le gusta tocar el piano. *The teacher likes to play piano.*

_____ A la profesora le gusta comer los perros. *The teacher likes to eat dogs.*

_____ A la profesora le gusta dibujar las computadoras. *The teacher likes to draw computers.*

Step 2: Underline the items above which you believe are true of the school principal.

Step 3: **Partner A:** Using the phrase “creo que...” (“I believe...”), tell your partner which of the above you think is true of the teacher (for example, “Creo que a la profesora le gusta montar en bicicleta” *I believe the teacher likes to ride bicycles.*). Your partner will respond with “Yo, también” *I do, too.* or “Yo, no.” *I do not.*

Partner B: Using the phrase “creo que...” (“I believe...”), tell your partner which of the above you think is true of the principal (for example, “Creo que a la directora le gusta montar en bicicleta”). Your partner will respond with “Yo, también” or “Yo, no.”

Activity A – part 2

Step 1: Check off what you believe to be true.

_____ A los perros les gusta nadar. *Dogs like to swim.*

_____ A los perros les gusta correr. *Dogs like to run.*

_____ A los perros les gusta ir a las montañas. *Dogs like to go to the mountains.*

_____ A los perros les gusta caminar. *Dogs like to walk.*

_____ A los perros les gusta cantar. *Dogs like to sing.*

_____ A los perros les gusta leer. *Dogs like to read.*

_____ A los perros les gusta ver la tele. *Dogs like to watch televisión.*

_____ A los perros les gusta tocar la guitarra. *Dogs like to play the guitar.*

_____ A los perros les gusta comer. *Dogs like to eat.*

_____ A los perros les gusta escuchar a los gatos. *Dogs like to listen to music.*

Step 2: Underline the items above which you believe are true of cats.

Step 3: **Partner A:** Using the phrase “creo que...” (“I believe...”), tell your partner which of the above you think is true of dogs (for example, “Creo que a los perros les gusta nadar”). Your partner will respond with “Yo, también” or “Yo, no.”

Partner B: Using the phrase “creo que...” (“I believe...”), tell your partner which of the above you think is true of cats (for example, “Creo que a los gatos les gusta comer”). Your partner will respond with “Yo, también” or “Yo, no.”

Activity B

Step 1: Choose which person or group of people is most likely to like or dislike the things mentioned.

1. ...le gusta montar en bicicleta....*likes to ride bicycles*
 - a. A tu amigo
 - b. A tu mamá
 - c. A la Sra. Foster y la Sra. Rutledge
 - d. A los gatos
2. ...le gusta tocar el piano. ...*likes to play piano.*
 - a. A tu amiga
 - b. A tu papá
 - c. A tu amigo y tu profesor
 - d. A los perros
3. ...les gusta correr ...*like to run*
 - a. A tu amiga
 - b. A tu mamá
 - c. A la profesora y el director
 - d. A los amigos de Will Smith
4. ...les gusta cantar. ...*like to sing*
 - a. A Brad Pitt
 - b. A tu mamá
 - c. A la Sra. Foster y la Sra. Rutledge
 - d. A los hermanos Jonas
5. ...le gusta trabajar. ...*likes to work*

- a. A tu amigo c. A Jennifer Aniston y Courtney Cox
 - b. A tu perro d. A los presidentes de los Estados Unidos y México
6. ...les gusta pasar tiempo con amigos. ...*like to spend time with friends*
- a. A tu amiga c. A Superman y Spiderman
 - b. A tu perro d. A los estudiantes de español
7. ... le gusta hablar por teléfono...*likes to talk on the phone*
- a. A tu mamá c. A Brad Pitt y Angelina Jolie
 - b. A tu lápiz d. A los estudiantes de la clase de inglés
8. ...les gusta escribir cuentos. ...*like to write stories*
- a. A Oprah c. A tu bolígrafo y tu cuaderno
 - b. A tu perro d. A Stephen King y Ray Bradbury
9. ...les gusta esquiar...*like to ski*
- a. A tu amigo c. A las personas que viven en las montañas
 - b. A tu amiga d. A Inigo Montoya y Fezzik

Step 2: Choose one of the activities listed above that you also like to do. What else does that person (or group of people) like to do? Write a sentence telling what else the person or group likes to do.

Step 3: Trade sentences from step 2 with a partner. Draw a picture illustrating your partner's sentence.

Activity C

Step 1. Fill in the blanks below with things you like to do.

1. A mí me gusta (*I like*) _____

2. A mí me gusta _____
3. A mí me gusta _____
4. A mí me gusta _____

Step 2: With a partner, discuss your favorite activities. Listen to your partner read his or her sentences, and fill in the blanks below.

1. A mi compañero(a) (*my partner*) le gusta _____
2. A mi compañero(a) le gusta _____
3. A mi compañero(a) le gusta _____
4. A mi compañero(a) le gusta _____

Step 3: Listen to the teacher tell you what she likes to do. Fill in the blanks below.

1. A mi profesora (*my teacher*) le gusta _____
2. A mi profesora le gusta _____
3. A mi profesora le gusta _____
4. A mi profesora le gusta _____

Step 4: Are there any activities that your partner and your teacher both like to do? If so, fill them in below.

1. A mi profesora y mi compañero les gusta _____
2. A mi profesora y mi compañero les gusta _____
3. A mi profesora y mi compañero les gusta _____
4. A mi profesora y mi compañero les gusta _____

Activity D

Part 1: Listen to the following story and fill in the chart as you hear the information.

Teacher script (not shown to students):

Hay un chico. Se llama Jorge. Jorge no es un chico muy inteligente. Es un chico muy tonto. Jorge no es inteligente ni guapo. Es tonto y feo. Jorge tiene muchos problemas. A Jorge no le gusta leer, pero la tarea para la clase de español es leer. A Jorge no le gusta escribir, pero la tarea para la clase de inglés es escribir.

Hay una chica. Se llama María. María es una chica muy inteligente y guapa. Es trabajadora y deportista. A María no le gusta pasar tiempo con Jorge. María tiene un problema. María está enferma. No está bien. A María le gusta leer la tarea para la clase de inglés, pero no es posible. A María le gusta escribir la tarea para la clase de español, pero no es posible. A María le gusta mucho tocar el piano para la clase de música, pero no es posible.

Jorge va a su escuela en Bogotá, Colombia. Es un día horrible. Jorge no escribió la tarea para la clase de inglés porque a Jorge no le gusta escribir. Jorge no leyó la tarea para la clase de español porque a Jorge no le gusta leer. Los profesores de Jorge le dan unas notas muy malas. A Jorge no le gusta tener malas notas. A Jorge le gusta tener buenas notas. Jorge tiene un problema.

María va a su escuela. Es un día horrible. A María le gusta escribir, pero no lo hizo. A María le gusta leer, pero no lo hizo. A María le gusta tocar el piano, pero no lo hizo. Los profesores de María le dan unas notas muy malas. A María no le gusta tener malas notas. A María le gusta tener buenas notas. María tiene un problema. El profesor de Jorge y María les dice, "Para tener buenas notas, corran a California y busquen al presidente de California."

Jorge y María van a California y buscan al presidente de California. El presidente está en el puente Golden Gate. A Jorge y María no les gusta ver el puente. A Jorge y María no les gusta

hablar con presidentes. Pero a Jorge y María no les gusta tener malas notas, tampoco. Jorge y María van al puente Golden Gate. El presidente les da 200.85 gatos y les dice, “A los gatos no les gusta vivir en un puente. A los gatos les gusta vivir en las montañas. Monten en bicicleta a las montañas con los gatos para buenas notas.”

A Jorge y María no les gusta montar en bicicleta con los gatos. A Jorge y María no les gusta montar en bicicleta sin los gatos. Pero a Jorge y María no les gusta tener malas notas. Ellos montan en bicicleta a las montañas con los gatos. Montan en bicicleta a la casa de la princesa de gatos. A los gatos les gusta vivir con la princesa de gatos. A los gatos no les gusta vivir en un puente. A los gatos les gusta vivir en las montañas. La princesa de gatos les da buenas notas. A Jorge y María les gusta tener buenas notas. A los gatos les gusta tener amigos con buenas notas. A la princesa y el presidente les gusta dar buenas notas.

Jorge y María nadan a la escuela con cinco gatos. Los padres de Jorge y María están en la escuela. A los padres les gusta bailar. Los padres bailan en la escuela. A María y Jorge les gusta tener buenas notas, pero no les gusta cuando sus padres bailan en la escuela. A los gatos no les gusta bailar. Jorge, María y los gatos corren a casa con las buenas notas.

There is a boy. He is called Jorge. Jorge is not a very intelligent boy. He is a stupid boy. Jorge is neither intelligent nor handsome. He is stupid and ugly. Jorge has a lot of problems. Jorge does not like to read, but the homework for Spanish class is reading. Jorge does not like to write, but the homework for English class is writing.

There is a girl. She is called María. María is a very intelligent and attractive girl. She is hard-working and athletic. María does not like to spend time with Jorge. María has a problem. María is ill. She is not well. María likes to read the homework for English class, but it's not

possible. María likes to write the homework for Spanish class, but it's not possible. María really likes to play the piano for music class, but it's not possible.

Jorge goes to school in Bogotá, Colombia. It is a horrible day. Jorge did not write the homework for English class because Jorge does not like to write. Jorge did not read the homework for Spanish class because Jorge does not like to read. Jorge's teachers give him some bad grades. Jorge does not like to have bad grades. Jorge likes to have good grades. Jorge has a problem.

María goes to her school. It is a horrible day. María likes to write, but she didn't do it. María likes to read, but she didn't do it. María likes to play piano, but she didn't do it. María's teachers give her very bad grades. María does not like to have bad grades. María likes to have good grades. María has a problem. The teacher of Jorge and María tells them, "To have good grades, run to California and look for the president of California."

Jorge and María go to California and look for the president of California. The president is on the Golden Gate Bridge. Jorge and María do not like to see the bridge. Jorge and María do not like to talk to presidents. But Jorge and María do not like to have bad grades, either. Jorge and María go to the Golden Gate Bridge. The president gives them 200.85 cats and tells them, "cats do not like to live on a bridge. Cats like to live in the mountains. Bicycle to the mountains with the cats for good grades."

Jorge and María don't like to bicycle with the cats. Jorge and María do not like to bicycle without cats. But Jorge and María don't like to have bad grades. They bicycle to the mountains with the cats. They bicycle to the house of the Princess of Cats. The cats like to live in the mountains. The Princess of Cats gives them good grades. Jorge and María like to have good

grades. The cats like to have friends with good grades. The princess and the president like to give good grades.

Jorge and María swim to school with five cats. The parents of Jorge and María are at the school. The parents like to dance. The parents dance in the school. María and Jorge like to have good grades, but they do not like it when their parents dance in the school. Cats do not like to dance. Jorge, María, and the cats run home with the good grades.

Part 1: Put a checkmark in the box if the character likes to do the activity and an X in the box if the character does not like to do the activity.

Character	Read	Do Spanish homework	Write	Spend time with Jorge	Talk to presidents	Have good grades	Ride bicycles with cats	Give good grades	Dance
Jorge									
María									
La princesa									
El presidente									
Los gatos									

Part 2: Answer the following questions orally in Spanish.

1. Who does not like to read?
2. Who likes to do Spanish homework?
3. Who likes to write?
4. Who does not like to spend time with Jorge?
5. Who does not like to talk to presidents?
6. Who does not like to have good grades?

7. Who does not like to ride bicycles with cats?
8. Who likes to give good grades?
9. Who does not like to dance?

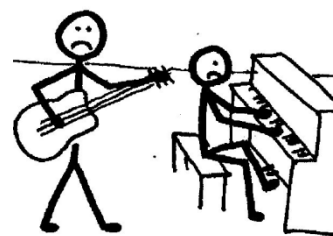
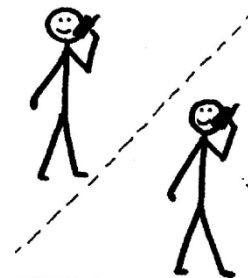
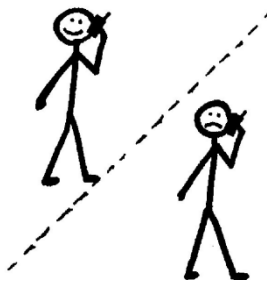
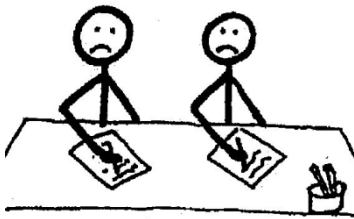
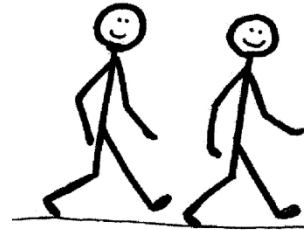
Activity E

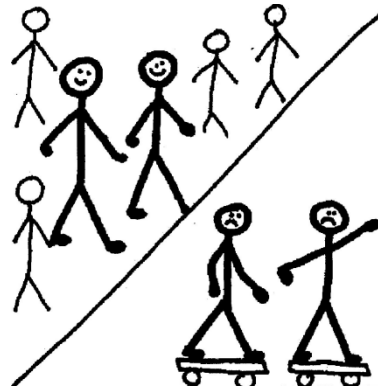
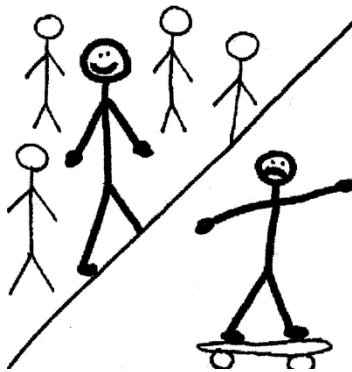
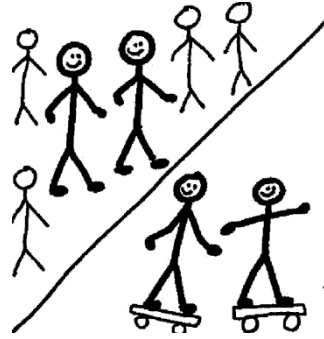
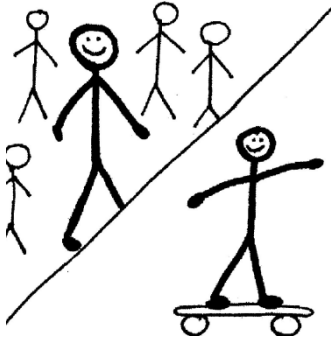
Circle each of the pictures that could be used to illustrate the story below.

Francisco es un chico y Josefina es una chica. A Francisco y Josefina les gusta montar en bicicleta, pero no les gusta correr. Les gusta caminar, pero no les gusta nadar. A Francisco le gusta pasar tiempo con amigos y montar en monopatín. A Josefina no le gusta montar en monopatín, pero le gusta pasar tiempo con amigos. A Josefina y Francisco no les gusta hacer la tarea. A Francisco no le gusta hablar por teléfono con Josefina, pero a Josefina le gusta hablar por teléfono con Francisco. A ellos les gusta tocar la guitarra y el piano después de las clases.

Francisco is a boy and Josefina is a girl. Francisco and Josefina like to bicycle, but they do not like to run. They like to walk, but they do not like to swim. Francisco likes to spend time with friends and skateboard. Josefina does not like to skateboard, but she likes to spend time with friends. Josefina and Francisco do not like to do homework. Francisco does not like to talk on the phone with Josefina, but Josefina likes to talk on the phone with Francisco. They like to play guitar and piano after classes.







Activity F

Step 1. John McCain and Barack Obama are running for President. They have different ideas about how to run the country, and they also have different ideas of how to have fun. They also share some of the same pastimes. Listen to the following speeches that the candidates might give, and put a check mark next to the statements that are true according to their speeches.

Teacher script (not shown to students):

Hola. Soy John McCain. Me gusta pasar tiempo con mi familia y mi perro. También me gusta esquiar y nadar. No me gusta nada ni correr ni caminar. Me gusta mucho leer libros, pero no me gusta leer revistas. No me gusta nada ni usar la computadora ni escuchar música. Me gusta tocar la guitarra, pero no me gusta cantar. Gracias.

Hello. I am John McCain. I like to spend time with my family and my dog. I also like to ski and swim. I do not like to run or walk at all. I really like to read books, but I don't like to read magazines. I do not like to use the computer or listen to music at all. I like to play guitar, but I do not like to sing. Thank you.

Buenas tardes. Soy Barack Obama. Me gusta mucho pasar tiempo con mi familia. No me gusta pasar tiempo con animales. Me gusta esquiar y correr. No me gusta ni caminar ni nadar. Me gusta mucho leer libros y me gusta leer revistas. También me gusta usar la computadora para jugar videojuegos. Me gusta tocar la guitarra y el piano. No me gusta nada cantar. Adiós.

Good afternoon. I am Barack Obama. I really like to spend time with my family. I do not like to spend time with animals. I like to ski and run. I do not like to walk or swim. I really like to read books and I like to read magazines. I also like to use the computer to play videogames. I like to play guitar and piano. I do not like to sing at all. Good-bye.

Statements:

1. A John McCain le gusta... *John McCain likes to...*
 - a. _____ esquiar *ski*
 - b. _____ nadar *swim*
 - c. _____ pasar tiempo con su familia *spend time with his family*
 - d. _____ pasar tiempo con su perro *spend time with his dog*

- e. _____ caminar *walk*
 - f. _____ correr *run*
 - g. _____ leer libros *read books*
 - h. _____ leer revistas *read magazines*
 - i. _____ tocar la guitarra *play guitar*
 - j. _____ cantar *sing*
 - k. _____ usar la computadora *use the computer*
 - l. _____ escuchar música *listen to music*
2. A Barack Obama le gusta... *Barack Obama likes to...*
- a. _____ esquiar *ski*
 - b. _____ correr *run*
 - c. _____ pasar tiempo con su familia *spend time with his family*
 - d. _____ pasar tiempo con su perro *spend time with his dog*
 - e. _____ caminar *walk*
 - f. _____ nadar *swim*
 - g. _____ leer revistas *read magazines*
 - h. _____ leer libros *read books*
 - i. _____ jugar videojuegos *read videogames*
 - j. _____ tocar el piano *play the piano*
 - k. _____ tocar la guitarra *play the guitar*
 - l. _____ cantar *sing*

Step 2. Now write four sentences saying what John McCain and Barack Obama *both* enjoy doing.

Step 3. If the presidential election were based solely on candidate's pastimes, which candidate would you vote for? Why?

APPENDIX C

SAMPLE TEST SET

Grammaticality Judgment Test

Directions: Check “grammatical” for each sentence that is grammatically correct (sounds right) and “ungrammatical” for each sentence that is grammatically incorrect (sounds wrong). If you don’t know and cannot make an educated guess, check “don’t know.”

Sentences are to be spoken in a random order by the teacher in Spanish only and not written down for students. Each sentence is to be repeated after a three second pause.

A Lola le gusta nadar. *To swim is pleasing to Lola.*

A Marta le gusta tocar el piano. *To play piano is pleasing to Marta.*

A Juanita y Jorgito les gusta pasar tiempo con amigos. *To spend time with friends is pleasing to Juanita and Jorgito.*

A Carmen no le gusta leer. *To read is not pleasing to Carmen.*

A Tito y Paco no les gusta bailar ni cantar. *To swim or sing is not pleasing to Tito and Paco.*

A Julio y Enrique no les gusta ni caminar ni correr. *To walk or run is not pleasing to Julio and Enrique.*

A mi profesor no le gusta ni cantar ni bailar. *To sing or dance is not pleasing to my teacher.*

*A las chicas le gusta montar en monopatín. **To skateboard is pleasing to (him/her) the girls.*

*A Diana y Loli le gusta comer hamburguesas. **To eat hamburgers is pleasing to (him/her) Diana and Loli.*

*A la profesora les gusta bailar. **To dance is pleasing to (them) the teacher.*

*A mi amigo les gusta esquiar. **To ski is pleasing to (them) my friend.*

*Mi amigo le gusta escuchar música. **To listen to music is pleasing my friend.*

*Felipe le gusta llorar. **To cry is pleasing Felipe.*

*Margarita les gusta montar en bicicleta. **To bicycle is pleasing (them) Margarita.*

*Jorge les gusta caminar. **To walk is pleasing (them) Jorge .*

*Mis profesores le gusta hablar. **To talk is pleasing (him/her) my teachers.*

A Maya y Roberto les gusta caminar. *To walk is pleasing to Maya and Roberto.*

*Los profesores les gusta hablar por teléfono. **To talk on the phone is pleasing the teachers.*

*A Margarita y Miguel no le gusta escuchar música. **To listen to music is not pleasing to
(him/her) Margarita and Miguel.*

*A Miguel no les gusta tocar la guitarra. **To play guitar is not pleasing to (them) Miguel.*

*Mi mamá no le gusta cantar. **To sing is not pleasing my mom.*

*Mi amigo y mi papá no le gusta jugar videojuegos. **To play video games is not pleasing
(him/her) my friend and my dad.*

*La estudiante no le gusta escribir cuentos. **To write stories is not pleasing the student.*

Sample student form

Sentence number	Grammatical	Ungrammatical	Don't know
1			
2			

Reading Comprehension

Directions: Read the following paragraph and answer the questions that follow.

Julio is telling you about his twin sisters, Inés and Blanca. Some of his statements apply to just one of the girls and some statements apply to both. For each statement he makes, make a checkmark in the appropriate column. Pay attention to the words in the sentence to help you figure out if he is talking about one sister or both sisters.

	Una hermana	Dos hermanas
Le gusta montar en bicicleta. <i>She likes to bicycle.</i>		
Les gusta tocar la guitarra. <i>They like to play guitar.</i>		
Le gustan las manzanas. <i>She likes apples.</i>		
Les gustan los videojuegos. <i>They like videogames.</i>		
No le gusta leer revistas. <i>She does not like to read magazines.</i>		
No les gusta leer libros. <i>They do not like to read books.</i>		
Les gustan los gatos. <i>They like cats.</i>		
No le gustan los perros. <i>She does not like dogs.</i>		
Tienen ocho años. <i>They are eight years old.</i>		
Hablan por teléfono mucho. <i>They talk on the phone a lot.</i>		
Toca el piano todos los días. <i>She plays piano every day.</i>		
Quiere escuchar música en mi dormitorio. <i>She wants to listen to music in my bedroom.</i>		
Practican el fútbol. <i>They play soccer.</i>		
Practica el tenis. <i>She plays tennis.</i>		
Le gusta montar en monopatín. <i>She likes to skateboard.</i>		
Les gusta comer. <i>They like to eat.</i>		
Le gustan los refrescos. <i>She likes soft drinks.</i>		

Production

- I. Using the drawings below as a guide, say as many things you can about the likes and dislikes of the people in the drawings.



Sonia



Benito y Manuel



Ignacio y Laura



Tito



Ramón



María



Marisol y Pablo



Jesús y Patricia



Alejandro y Paco



César



Diego



Sandra y Frederico

- II. Write a story about your parents or your friend's parents in Spanish. Tell what each of them likes and does not like to do, as well as what likes and dislikes they share.

REFERENCE LIST

- Alley, D. (2008). An analysis of the Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS) method. In C. M. Cherry & C. Wilkerson (Eds.), *Languages for the nation: Dimension 2008* (pp. 13-25). Valdosta, GA: Southern Conference on Language Teaching.
- Benati, A. (2004). The effects of structured input activities and explicit information on the acquisition of the Italian future tense. In B. VanPatten (Ed.), *Processing instruction: Theory, research, and commentary* (pp. 207-225). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Benati, A. G., & Lee, J. F. (2010). *Processing instruction and discourse*. London: Continuum.
- Benati, A. G., Lee, J. F., & McNulty, E. M. (2010). Exploring the effects of processing instruction on a discourse-level guided composition with the Spanish subjunctive after the adverb *cuando*. In A. G. Benati & J. F. Lee, *Processing instruction and discourse* (pp. 97-147). London: Continuum.
- Boyles, P., Contreras, V. M., Pino, B. G., Met, M., Sayers, R. S., Wargin, C. E. (2005). *Realidades 1*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Cadierno, T. (1995). Formal instruction from a processing perspective: An investigation into the Spanish past tense. *Modern Language Journal*, 79, 179-193.
- Farley, A. P. (2000). *The relative effects of processing instruction and meaning-based output instruction on L2 acquisition of the Spanish subjunctive* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses database . (Publication No. AAT 9989988).
- Farley, A. P. (2001). The effects of processing instruction and meaning-based output instruction. *Spanish Applied Linguistics*, 5, 57-94.

- Farley, A. P. (2004). The relative effects of processing instruction and meaning-based output instruction. In B. VanPatten (Ed.), *Processing instruction: Theory, research, and commentary* (pp. 143-168). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Farley, A. P. (2005). *Structured input: Grammar instruction for the acquisition-oriented classroom*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Gaab, C. (2008). *How to apply TPRS for best results*. Retrieved from TPRS Publishing: <http://www.tprstorytelling.com>
- Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course*. New York: Routledge.
- Gross, S. (2005). *How to do PQA*. Retrieved from Susan Gross Educational Workshops and Consulting: <http://susangrosstprs.com/wordpress/articles/>
- Gross, S. (2006). *Advanced TPR Storytelling*. Retrieved from Susan Gross Educational Workshops and Consulting: <http://susangrosstprs.com/wordpress/articles/handouts/>
- Gross, S. (2009). *Contrastive grammar*. Retrieved from Susan Gross Educational Workshops and Consulting: <http://susangrosstprs.com/wordpress/articles/>
- Gross, S. (2010). *2010 TPR Storytelling workshop*. Retrieved from Susan Gross Educational Workshops and Consulting: <http://susangrosstprs.com/wordpress/articles/handouts/>
- Krashen, S. (1997). *Foreign language acquisition the easy way*. Culver City, CA: Language Education Associates.
- More TPRS. (n.d.). Retrieved December 18, 2010, from <http://groups.yahoo.com/group/moretprs/>

- Oswald, F. L., & Plonsky, L. (2010). Meta-analysis in second language research: Choices and challenges. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 30, 85-110.
- Ray, B. (2005). Teaching grammar with TPRS. *The International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 1 (4), 30-32.
- Ray, B. (2010). *Explanation of TPRS*. Retrieved from Blaine Ray Workshops - TPR Storytelling foreign language learning:
<http://www.blaineraytprs.com/pages.php?page=explanationpage>
- Ray, B., & Seely, C. (2003). *Fluency through TPR Storytelling: Achieving real language acquisition in school* (3rd ed.). Berkeley, CA: Command Performance Language Institute.
- TPRS Publishing, Inc. (2010). *Glossary of TPRS terms and acronyms*. Retrieved from TPRS Publishing, Inc.: <http://www.tprstorytelling.com>
- VanPatten, B. (1996). *Input processing and grammar instruction*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- VanPatten, B. (2002). Processing instruction: An update. *Language Learning*, 52 (4), 755-803.
- VanPatten, B. (2004a). Input and output in establishing form-meaning connections. In B. VanPatten, J. Williams, S. Rott, & M. Overstreet (Eds.), *Form-meaning connections in second language acquisitions* (pp. 29-47). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- VanPatten, B. (2004b). Input processing in second language acquisition. In B. VanPatten (Ed.), *Processing instruction: theory, research, and commentary* (pp. 5-31). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- VanPatten, B., & Cadierno, T. (1993). Explicit instruction and input processing. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15, 225-243.

- VanPatten, B., & Fernández, C. (2004). The long-term effects of processing instruction. In B. VanPatten (Ed.), *Processing instruction: Theory, research, and commentary* (pp. 273-289). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- VanPatten, B., & Oikennon, S. (1996). Explanation vs. structured input in processing instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18, 495-510.
- VanPatten, B., & Sanz, C. (1995). From input to output: Processing instruction and communicative tasks. In F. R. Eckman, D. Highland, P. W. Lee, J. Mileham, & R. R. Weber (Eds.), *Second language acquisition: Theory and pedagogy* (pp. 169-185). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- VanPatten, B., & Wong, W. (2004). Processing instruction and the French causative: Another replication. In B. VanPatten (Ed.), *Processing instruction: Theory, research, and commentary* (pp. 97-118). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Varquez, K. Z. (2009). Traditional and TPR Storytelling instruction in the beginning high school Spanish classroom. *International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 5 (1). 2-5.
Retrieved from www.tprstories.com/ijflt/
- Watson, B. J. (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.
Retrieved from www.tprstories.com/ijflt/