

**T.C.
BALIKESİR ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI**

**THE EFFECT OF TEACHING PROFICIENCY THROUGH READING
AND STORYTELLING (TPRS) METHOD ON THE ORAL
PERFORMANCE OF YOUNG LEARNERS**

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

Gülten YILDIZ AKYÜZ

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**Tez Danışmanı
Yrd. Doç. Dr. FATİH YAVUZ**

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SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
TEZ ONAY SAYFASI

Enstitümüzün Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda 201412553005 numaralı Gülten YILDIZ AKYÜZ'ün hazırladığı "The Effect of Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS) Method on the Oral Performance of Young Learners" konulu YÜKSEK LİSANS tezi ile ilgili TEZ SAVUNMA SINAVI, Lisansüstü Eğitim Öğretim ve Sınav Yönetmeliği uyarınca 22.12.2017 tarihinde yapılmış, sorulan sorulara alınan cevaplar sonunda tezin onayına OY BİRLİĞİ ile karar verilmiştir.

Üye: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Fatih YAVUZ (Danışman)

İmza:

Üye: Prof. Dr. Mehmet TAKKAÇ

İmza:

Üye: Prof. Dr. Dilek İNAN

İmza:

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Learning a foreign language is a necessity to live in today's world. English has become valid as "lingua franca". Therefore, countries try to teach English to their citizens as a foreign language. They have been implementing English courses in their education program. Turkey has also given importance to English courses. The courses were implemented into the second grade's curriculum of primary school. Priority was given to communicative skills; however, the problem of success in verbal communication could not be solved. This study aimed to search the brand-new language teaching method TPRS, whose goal is to provide fluency in target language.

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Gülten YILDIZ AKYÜZ

ÖZET

TPRS DİL ÖĞRETİM METODUNUN ÇOCUKLARIN SÖZLÜ ANLATIM BECERİSİNE ETKİSİ

YILDIZ AKYÜZ, Gülten

Yüksek Lisans, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı

Tez Danışmanı: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Fatih YAVUZ

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İspanyolca öğretmeni olan Blaine Ray, 90lı yıllarda dili akıcı konuşan öğrenciler yetiştirmek amacıyla bir yöntem geliştirmiştir. Yabancı dil öğrenenlerin çoğu için, İngilizce konuşma becerisinde yeterliliğe sahip olmak önemlidir. Sözlü beceriyi geliştirmek adına dil öğrenme kitaplarında çok sayıda teknik ve aktivite önerilmiştir. Blaine Ray amacına ulaşmak için tüm fiziksel tepki yöntemi ile hikaye anlatım tekniğinden oluşan bir bileşeni kullanmıştır. Dil öğretim aracı olarak, hikaye anlatım tekniği hem eğlencelidir hem de etkilidir. Öğrencilerin iletişim becerilerini geliştirir (Mokhtar, 2011). Bu çalışmanın amacı “okuma ve hikaye anlatma yoluyla yeterlik kazandırma (TPRS)” yönteminin, çocukların sözlü becerilerine olan etkisini ve derste öğrenilen konuyu uzun süre hatırlama üzerine etkisi olup olmadığını araştırmaktır. Yarı-deneysel bir çalışmadır. Katılımcılar, Balıkesir Burhan Erdayı İlkokulu 4. sınıf öğrencileridir. Veriler, 2017-2018 Eğitim-Öğretim Yılı'nın ilk döneminde toplanmıştır. 178 kişilik kontrol grubunu örneklemesi için 30 öğrenci, 134 kişiden oluşan deney grubunu örneklemesi için 30 öğrenci olmak üzere, toplam 60 katılımcıyı içeren bir çalışmadır. Kontrol grubunda dersler İletişimsel Dil Öğretim yöntemi (CLT) ve Dilbilgisi-Çeviri yöntemi (GTM) ile işlenirken, deney grubunda TPRS yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Veri toplama aracı olarak, bir çeşit konuşma oyunu kullanılmıştır ve katılımcıların sözlü ifadeleri ses kayıt cihazı kullanılarak kaydedilmiştir. Her konu, dersin işlendiği haftayı takip eden derste değerlendirilmiş ve elde edilen ses kayıtları anlık son-test verisi olarak kullanılmıştır. Ve her konu için ayrı ayrı, işlendiği haftadan 4 hafta sonra tekrar son-test yapılmıştır ve sonuçlar gecikmeli son-test verisi olarak değerlendirilmiştir. Veri analizi, tekrarlanan ölçümler için MANOVA programı kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Sonuç olarak, ilk hafta sonuçlarına göre her iki grupta da -deney grubunda daha yüksek değerlerde olmak üzere- artış gözlenmiştir. Fakat, aradan 4 hafta geçtikten sonra yapılan gecikmeli son-test sonuçları kıyaslandığında, öğrenilen bilgilerin kalıcılığı açısından, deney grubu açık ara farkla kontrol grubunu geçmiştir. Hatta, kontrol

grubunun başarısı, dersten hemen sonra yapılan ölçümlerle kıyaslandığında düşüş göstermiştir. Çalışmanın neticesinde yabancı dil öğretmenlerine, kalıcı öğrenme ve sözlü beceri için, hikaye yardımıyla yaparak öğrenmeye imkan veren TPRS yöntemini kullanmaları tavsiye edilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: TPRS Dil Öğretim Metodu, Sözlü Performans, Konuşma, Hikaye Anlatımı, Çocuklar.

ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF TEACHING PROFICIENCY THROUGH READING AND STORYTELLING (TPRS) METHOD ON THE ORAL PERFORMANCE OF YOUNG LEARNERS

YILDIZ AKYÜZ, Gülten

Master's Thesis, Department of English Language Teaching

Advisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Fatih YAVUZ

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A Spanish teacher, Blaine Ray, developed a method with the intention of raising fluent speaker-students in the 90s. The proficiency of speaking skill in English is crucial for most of the foreign language learners. Numerous techniques and activities have been recommended in language learning books for the sake of developing oral performance. Blaine Ray used the combination of Total Physical Response (TPR) and storytelling technique to reach his goal. As a language teaching tool, storytelling is both fun and effective. It enhances communication skills of the learners (Mokhtar, et al., 2011). The aim of this study is to search the effect of using Teaching Proficiency Through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS) method on oral performances of young learners and whether it is effective in long-term retention. This is a quasi-experimental research. The participants of the study were the fourth-grade students of Burhan Erdayı Primary School in Balıkesir, Turkey. The data were collected in the first term of 2017 – 2018 School Year. The study includes 60 participants in total: There were 30 students used as the sample out of the 178-person control group, and another group of 30 students used as the sample of the experimental group – which includes 134 participants indeed. While the control group was taught using the mixture of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Grammar-Translation Method (GTM), the experimental group was taught using TPRS method. As the data collecting instrument, a kind of speaking game was used and the utterances of the participants were recorded using a voice-recorder device. Each topic was evaluated after the following week of the course and the data were kept as immediate post-test results. And, each topic was evaluated separately after 4 weeks from the lesson time. Those data were recorded as delayed post-test results. The data were analyzed by using MANOVA for repeated measures. As a result, when the immediate post-test results were taken in consideration, success is

observed in both groups – the experimental group had higher scores. However, when delayed post-test results – which were gathered after 4 weeks – were compared, in terms of retaining the topics, the experimental group outperformed the control group. Moreover, the scores of the control group decreased when they were compared with the immediate post-test results. At the end of the study, for permanent learning and oral proficiency, foreign language teachers are recommended using TPRS method, which gives a chance to learning by practicing with the aid of storytelling.

Key Words: TPRS, Oral Performance, Speaking, Storytelling, Young Learners.

DEDICATION

During my master's degree process, I became a mother. I have always loved my mother and thought I understood her. However, at length it dawned on me that one cannot understand in the strictest sense what being a mother is...

This thesis is dedicated to all mothers who see their children not as their own future care-takers but this heaven-like country's – in particular to my beloved mom.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ELT	: English Language Teaching
TEYL	: Teaching English to Young Learners
YLS	: Young Learners
EFL	: English as a foreign language
LAD	: Language Acquisition Device
TPRS	: Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling
TPR	: Total Physical Response
GTM	: Grammar-Translation Method
CLT	: Communicative Language Teaching
SLLs	: Second Language Learners
TEFL	: Teaching English as a foreign language
ZPD	: Zone of Proximal Development

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1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter consists of eight sections including background of the study and the statement of the problem. The purpose and significance of the study are mentioned briefly. Research questions are introduced in the fifth section. After explaining the assumptions and limitations of the study, some key terms are defined.

1.1. Background of the Study

Because of social, educational, political, technological, commercial, literary, and sociolinguistic factors, the cross-cultural diffusion of English is unpreventable. In multilingual and multinational contexts, English is preferred as the additional language (Bolton and Kachru, 2006). When it is thought in terms of the users in native and non-native contexts, English is the most popular language in use. Therefore, almost all of the education systems have been looking for the best way to teach this language to students.

A normal, healthy human can have competence in his first language (Schumann, 1975), but most people have difficulty in learning a foreign language. As a result of this fact, many studies have focused on the effect of “age”. If a newborn baby can acquire his mother tongue thanks to the language exposure enabled by the environment, a foreign language learner might “acquire” the target language with the help of early language exposure. The comparison between adult and young learners’ language performances has revealed that there is a critical period for acquiring a language efficiently. Especially for picking up foreign accent and accuracy in pronunciation of words, age of first exposure is crucial (Flege, et al., 1999). Dulay, et al. (1982) highlight that “*Children under 10 who experience enough natural communication nearly always succeed in attaining native-like proficiency.*” (p.78). Tran (2009) mentioned the suggestions of Ellis (1994) in his study to reveal why younger is better: First, children focus and grasp input better. Second, they keep the knowledge of two languages in different parts of mind. Third, instead of analyzing the language, they try to learn it using their language acquisition device (LAD). Last and the most significant, child learners have high motivation and less anxiety in using the target language.

In our country, Board of Education and Discipline Department of Ministry of National Education reconstructed some points of the weekly course schedule for primary schools in 25.06.2012. With the decision of number 69, foreign language – English – was introduced to the 2nd grade of primary school students, as two hours per week, instead of waiting for the 4th grade. This is a major step forward to benefit from the fruitful era of the childhood in the context of language learning.

1.2. The Statement of the Problem

Turkish education system buys into teaching at least one foreign language to all students (Özdemir, 2006). Because the language affects social, technological, cultural, and economical life, every individual had better know some “lingua franca” as a “global citizen”. As a candidate country that tries to take part in the European Union, Turkey gives particular importance to foreign language education. Under the circumstances, English lessons were integrated into primary school 4th grade in 1997 and this was updated in 2012 as 2nd grade. However, although the intention of the project was good, lowering foreign language teaching to primary school has accompanied some problems.

First of all, when it was decided to start foreign language lessons at grade 4 - effective from 1997-1998 academic year -, the number of the students that had to take English courses had multiplied approximately five times. Because the decision had been made before creating the necessary infrastructure, in the matter of sufficient number of teachers, the government faced with an adversity. To overcome this “teacher shortage” obstacle, out-of-field teachers and even the ones who were not teachers but knew some English were licensed as English teachers after a short period of in-service training and certification programs. These teachers were not qualified enough in terms of techniques and methodology (Çetintaş, 2010), and this incapability left them no choice but using the traditional method (Şeker, 2007).

Secondly, until 1998, there had not been a specific course about teaching children on the curriculum of English Language Teaching (ELT) departments of education faculties (Şeker, 2007). Although the course “Teaching English to Young Learners (TEYL)” was added to the

curriculum, most of the teachers are unsuccessful in practice. Instead of preparing their lesson plans suitable just for young learners (YLS), they prefer to use traditional methods which are developed for teaching general English as a foreign language (EFL) context, which can be discouraging for young learners and can lead to fear of failure, loss of interest, and creating psychological walls (İşpınar, 2005; Şeker, 2007; Türkeş, 2011).

Third, the course duration which is insufficient against the intensive curriculum (İşpınar, 2005; Şeker, 2007; Şad, 2010; Topkaya and Küçük, 2010) is another factor that obligates teachers to use traditional methods. Because the time is limited, the learners cannot learn all the topics and words very well and so when they turn back from summer holiday, it is hard to remember the subjects and the lexical items. Because of that reason, teachers have to do old titles all over again and this hinders continuity (Çetintaş, 2010), which is a key to success.

The teacher was at the center and the course book was like an “indispensable” book in traditional method when the aim of learning a foreign language was just understanding what you read and translation; and these were enough for being successful at a language examination. However, today the goal is communicating. Therefore, the courses should include not grammar-rule-lists or vocabulary lists but the activities that enable students to communicate. That is to say, communication-based methods should replace traditional ones.

Especially after 2012 – when English courses were implemented in primary school 2nd grade curriculum – the mentioned problems came into light again and there is a need to search strategies to ameliorate foreign language teaching of young learners.

1.3. The Purpose of the Study

This research is presented as an alternative method for TEYL in Turkey, chiefly to help learners to speak fluently and accurately in the target language. This study aims to investigate the role of Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS) method on speaking achievement of young EFL learners.

1.4. The Significance of the Study

Despite the fact that TPRS is a wide-spreading methodology, it is unknown in our country. When this subject is searched within the National Thesis Center database, it is clearly seen that few studies have taken place in the field of TPRS and young learners and there is no study focusing on the relation between TPRS and speaking skill. This study is introduced to present a brand-new approach in foreign language teaching. It can create awareness among ELT teachers to delve into different techniques for being useful in TEYL. Additionally, it can be useful for pre-service TEYL courses of ELT departments of faculties of education.

1.5. Research Questions

- 1- Does TPRS method have an impact on oral performances of young learners?
- 2- Does TPRS method have an effect on retaining the subjects in long term?

1.6. Limitations of the Study

The first limitation of this research is the inadequate lesson duration. Having only two lessons for a new language teaching was not enough for practicing the subjects. Also, loaded context and general tests prevent the teacher from using time consuming methods and activities. The second limitation can be the number of the participants. Although I had more than two hundred participants, I had to evaluate just the sixty of them because there was not enough time to recognize each of them. Because this study measures verbal skill, it was a must to hear the participants' voices. Therefore, a larger group of participants will make the results more reliable. Next, the classrooms were so crowded that it was impossible to deal with every student one by one. Besides, the length of the instruction was limited to four weeks. In addition, because of time constraint, only a few subjects were handled. Trying teaching more subjects during a longer-period could be better for studying on speaking achievement. Finally, the data was collected from Balıkesir Burhan Erdayı Primary School's 4th graders. Gathering samples from different regions and different levels of students may provide more valid results.

1.7. Definitions

The following terms have been used in this study in the given meanings:

Acquisition: As it is in developing first language (L1) competence, acquisition is the product of subconscious process that while people are using the language for communication, they are not aware that they are acquiring it. The rules are not taught but people can use the language correctly thanks to the “feeling” that they have for the language (Krashen, 1981).

Learning: The process of gaining knowledge and experience in a subject intentionally. The product of formal instruction and a conscious process.

Competence: The knowledge or ability to do something effectively.

Performance: The degree of success in doing something.

Oral Performance: The degree of success in speaking English.

Young Learner (YL): The learners who are at the ages of 5 to 11-12 (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990). YLs participated in this research were those who are 9-10 years old in primary school.

Foreign Language: Language that takes place in a country where it is not an everyday medium.

Second Language: “A language acquired by a person in addition to his mother tongue” (UNESCO). A language which is not native but – to get by – has been learned in real-life environment.

Input: Information that the brain gets through the eyes, ears, or nerves.

Language Exposure: the situation of being covered with a language

2. RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter consists of two sections as “Theoretical Framework” and “Literature Review”. In the first section, information is given about the first and the second language acquisition and learning. In addition, a detailed explanation of young learners’ characteristics is provided. Thereafter, theories and hypotheses on EFL learning are covered under the titles of maestros Vygotsky, Piaget, and Bruner. Before reviewing the literature on TPRS method, other methods and approaches were mentioned. The relation among Total Physical Response (TPR) method, the Natural Approach, and TPRS was evaluated. Information about the place of storytelling in language teaching was corroborated. Finally, TPRS and its outdated and current steps were explained. The second section reviews the literature related to TPRS. The studies which were carried out all over the world on language teaching through TPRS method are scrutinized carefully.

2.1. Theoretical Framework

In this section, the differences between acquisition and learning are discussed within the context of first, second, and foreign languages. Then, the characteristics of young learners are mentioned. Finally, besides information about the prominent linguists, TPRS and other language teaching approaches are introduced.

2.1.1. First Language Acquisition

Babies generally utter their first word at the end of their first age (Saxton, 2010). During the pre-speech period, the baby listens to and observes the world around it. Before pronouncing a word completely and correctly at one time, the baby babbles some sounds and it may repeat these sounds spontaneously such as “ba-ba”, or “ma-ma”. The parents are so ready and willing to hear a word from their baby that they liken these random syllables to a meaningful vocabulary item in their mother tongue. For instance, while a Turkish family brings food when they hear “ma-ma” from their baby, an English mother is over the moon after these “ma-ma” sounds because it means “mother” in English. According to *the Behaviourist perspective*, the baby takes these reactions as “positive reinforcements” to practice these sounds. Imitation-

reinforcement-practice triangle is the basic point to shape the baby's language. Therefore, the environment – as the source of reinforcement and the guide for further knowledge to be learnt – is very significant to this theory (Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

As the proponent of *the Innatist perspective*, Chomsky said that language develops like other biological functions; there is no need to teach how to speak. Children acquire the language that surrounds them with its complex grammatical rules and this happens thanks to the innate mechanism, which everyone has by nature.

“... children's minds are not blank slates to be filled by imitating language they hear in the environment. Instead, children are born with a specific innate ability to discover for themselves the underlying rules of a language system on the basis of the samples of a natural language they are exposed to.” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p.15).

On the other hand, *Interactionist and Developmental perspectives'* leaders argue that a special innate capacity is not necessary for acquiring a language because all the elements of a language that a child needs to use it already take place in the input that the child is exposed to. The importance of the environment and the social/physical interactions with the environment are emphasized as key points of language acquisition. (Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

As one of the recent perspective to acquiring a language subject, the *Connectionists* think totally different from the Innatists and they share the same idea that the language contains within itself all the knowledge to be learned. They say that the “connections” between vocabulary items, chunks, phrases and the settings that these language items are used in enable language acquisition. (Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

2.1.2. Second Language Learning

For some reasons such as marriage, education, job, health, politics, or – unfortunately – wars, people settle in another country. These new settlers are obliged to learn that country's language to communicate for real-life purposes at least. According to Krashen (1982), to get the

knowledge of a second language, there are two options; “acquire” or “learn”. On the one hand, people can acquire it subconsciously by doing nothing special to get the language – but via the comprehensible input around them, without explicit instruction, they start to understand the language and use it. On the other hand, people intentionally learn about the rules of the language. They may get language courses for explicit instruction of the language, memorize vocabulary items and phrases.

No matter how old they are, all second language learners (SLLs) have known a language. This may be both a vantage – because they know how a language works – and a disadvantage – because the previous knowledge may be the cause of some erroneous predictions. Young SLLs, however, do not experience the latter part because they have not completed the development of cognitive maturity and metalinguistic awareness (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). Therefore, it can be concluded that young ages are advantageous for language learning.

2.1.3. Foreign Language Learning

Learning a foreign language is a necessity for our era. Especially the languages of countries which are leading the world in the field of economy, politics, population, tourism, and science are preferred. Because English is accepted as the world’s language, also in Turkey, English is taught as the primary foreign language. Foreign language is learnt in the learner’s own country where the spoken language is different from the target language – a Turkish student learns English in Turkey.

2.1.4. The Characteristics of Young Language Learners

Teaching a foreign language to very young learners, to young learners, and to adults are quite different. To answer the questions of “How?” and “Why?”, defining who the young learners are might be useful. Some linguists pinpoint the young learners according to their biological ages. On the other hand, others predicate on the age of starting to primary school – and it may differ from country-to-country. In the book “Teaching English to Children”, Scott

and Ytreberg (1990) clearly states that the book was telling about the children who are 5 to 10/11 years. The writers also point out that apart from the differences between children aged 5 and 10, even when the issue is coeval children, still some differences may be observed in capabilities. On the same topic, Reilly and Ward (1997) declares that being a witness to the huge gap between different children of the same age is not surprising. Pinter (2017) corroborates the issue by stating that children within the same age range can be quite different. All in all, apart from age differences, due to the dissimilarities in their physical, mental and cognitive development, very young learners, young learners and adults should be tackled separately in teaching. The content of the courses should be taught taking into account differences in their characteristics.

The best quality of young learners is that they are so enthusiastic about learning. They learn very well in an enjoyable environment. They particularly like games; they are so energetic that being engaged in activities which include moving, jumping, running, dancing, singing makes them happy. However, because they have a very limited attention and concentration span; various short-time games should be preferred to keep them busy during the course. They may sometimes have difficulty in dividing fact and fiction. These characteristics should be taken into consideration especially while deciding on a story for them. Understanding the distinction between the real world and the imaginary one can be hard. Physical world is meaningful for them. When they use their sense organs, like seeing a thing or hearing its voice or touching it - if it is possible- understanding and learning occur better (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990; Türkeş, 2011).

In this study, 4th grade primary school students are studied and their general characteristics are as follows:

- 1- The difference between fact and fiction is clear.
- 2- They are not self-centered anymore; they are able to play with each other and learn from each other.
- 3- They are able to decide on their own learning.

Eventually, a teacher should know the learners' characteristics and should notice their capabilities clearly. If the teacher knows about his/her students, s/he can prepare the course exactly to the level of the students.

2.1.4.1. Speaking Skill and Young Learners

Teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) is easier when the target audience consists of children. As they are also new in learning their native language, they are ready to grasp the meaning instead of wondering about all the words. Intonation, gestures, facial expressions, actions are all clues for them to understand what is meant. The best point is that they are willing to take part in the lessons, especially they are good at talking (Halliwell, 1992). Lightbown and Spada (2006) state that – despite their scarce competence – most of the children are eager to chat in target language.

In foreign language learning, the most necessary skill is speaking, which gives the freedom of communicating. However, it is the hardest skill to be mastered because of some causes such as lack of exposure out of the classroom, not having to use the target language in real life context, the phonological differences between the mother tongue and the target language. Teaching young learners, besides the given reasons, is harder because they have limited proficiency in their own language (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990). Therefore, they need a silence period before starting utterances, as it is the case in first language acquisition.

This silence period will be full of one of the first two language skills – listening. Children will absorb the sounds of the language silently. They will try to get your messages with the help of non-verbal communication. Besides listening, gestures, actions, mimics, and visuals will support their comprehension. In time, they will repeat the sounds. The point is remembering that the more they are exposed to listening, the more their speaking will be strengthened (Slattery, 2008).

Beginning level language lessons are teacher-centered and the teacher can present the language using puppets or mascots, and through simple drawings. Puppets give the teacher a

chance to practice the language structure in dialogues. Slattery (2008) says that “...the use of your puppet offers you the opportunity to introduce new and appropriate language as well as re-using familiar language throughout your lesson.” (p.44). Making a mascot speak is fun for the young learners. Drawings also help the learners to understand the overall situation. In further lessons, some guided activities such as dialogues and role-playing can be good activities to practice the language orally (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990).

Consequently, as Vale (1995) indicates, children are going to speak quite well in their classroom if they have a topic that is related to their interest and when they feel capable enough. They just need some time.

2.1.5. Theories and Hypotheses on EFL Learning

Teaching development is related to educational psychology. In order to understand how a young learner thinks and learns, the ideas of these esteemed scientists will be mentioned in this section.

2.1.5.1. Piaget

It is unquestionable that children think differently from adults. It is – according to Piaget – because of brain’s developmental differences. He classifies the characteristics of thinking abilities in view of the fact that specific ages -more or less- show similar evolution. While studying the stages, it should be kept in mind that all humankind is matchless. Therefore, there is not a sharp line between the stages (Rodas Reinbach, 2011).

Table 1. Piaget's Developmental Stages

STAGE	AGE	CHARACTERISTICS
Sensorimotor	0 – 2	Begins to make use of imitation, memory, and thought. Begins to recognize that objects do not cease to exist when they are hidden.
Pre-operational	2 – 7	Gradually develops use of language and ability to think in symbolic form. Able to think operations through logically in one direction. Has difficulty in seeing another person's point of view.
Concrete operational	7 – 11	Able to solve concrete (hands-on) problems in logical fashion. Understands laws of conservation and is able to classify and seriate. Understands reversibility.
Formal operational	11 – adult	Able to solve abstract problems in logical fashion. Becomes more scientific in thinking. Develops concerns about social issues, identity.

(Source: Rodas Reinbach, 2011, p.15)

Piaget says that a child is an active learner. Children learn by interacting with the world that surrounds them. Environment presents them lots of problems to be solved (Türkeş, 2011). According to Piaget, for a young learner who is in the concrete operational stage, there are several significant cognitive processes to improve in problem solving and learning; decentration, reversibility, and causality (Trawick-Smith, 2006).

Table 2. Intellectual Advancements in the Primary Years

Cognitive Process	Description
Decentration	Children no longer center just on self or on just one aspect or dimension of a problem, but can consider multiple factors simultaneously. For example, they can think about a container as both <i>tall</i> and <i>thin</i> and another as <i>short</i> and <i>wide</i> .
Reversibility	Children can mentally reverse the steps of a process. For example, they can put a toy back together the way it was before and retrace their steps on a walk.
Causality	Children can understand that actions or events cause things to happen. For example, they can see that throwing a ball harder results in its flying farther or that pushing a peer on the playground causes upset and anger.

(Source:Trawick-Smith,2006, p.368)

These three qualifications, especially decentration and causality, are significant for understanding a story. Piaget states that they may still have problems in understanding cause and effect relationship; therefore, to prevent the events from misinterpreting, the stories should be clear or they should be explained by the teacher clearly (Trawick-Smith, 2006).

2.1.5.2. Vygotsky

As opposed to Piaget’s language and cognitive development model “autistic, egocentric, social”; Vygotsky prioritizes speech as “social, egocentric, and inner”. According to him, from the advent of the baby to the world, speech is used for communication. The interaction between the child and the environment enables sociability; and, the individualism comes after sociability – not before as it is in Piaget’s ordering.

According to Vygotsky, the interaction between language and social environment cannot be undervalued. The language cannot be the result of a child’s self-discovery of the environment.

Humans are created as social beings. The infant compiles information thanks to the social and cultural elements of his/her surrounding world. Speeches of people around are precious for language development. Children use language as a tool for organizing the things that they have understood. They use self-directed speech; that is, while they are thinking and learning something, they speak to themselves silently. This “inner speech” has a significant function in controlling manner of conducting oneself. With Vygotsky’s own words, “verbal thought” is a sign of internalization and that means thinking and learning are occurring (Trawick-Smith, 2006; Cameron, 2001).

Vygotsky believed the power of social interaction so much that he stated a child can be able to perform much better in a supportive interactive setting. He submitted the idea that there is an area between a child’s current level and his/her potential level. The child can succeed a hard job with the help of an adult. He named the symbolic area as “Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

Cameron (2001) mentions ZPD as the following:

“Vygotsky used the idea of ZPD to give a new meaning to ‘intelligence’. Rather than measuring intelligence by what a child can do alone, Vygotsky suggested that intelligence was better measured by what a child can do with skilled help. Different children at the same point in development will make different uses of the same help from an adult. Take as an example, ... in foreign language learning, we might imagine children listening to the teacher model a new question: *Do you like swimming?* and being encouraged to ask similar questions. One child may be able to use other phrases he has learnt previously and say *Do you like drinking orange juice?* whereas another may be able to repeat *Do you like swimming?* and yet another would have trouble repeating it accurately. ...what the child can do with the help of the adult is different” (p.6 – 7).

2.1.5.3. Bruner

To develop cognition in children, language is the vital tool according to Bruner. He uses the term “scaffolding”, which is a tutoring process that a tutor/instructor assists a child for solving a problem or completing a task which is initially beyond the child’s capacity (Cameron, 2001; Wood, et al., 1976). Donato (1994) explains scaffolding as creating supportive conditions

for novice to take part in, with the intent of developing present knowledge and skills to better degrees of capability. Wood, et al. (1976, p.98) listed the features of scaffolded help as:

- 1- Recruitment
- 2- Reduction of degrees of freedom
- 3- Direction maintenance
- 4- Marking critical features
- 5- Frustration control
- 6- Demonstration

Foley (1994) mentions about the importance of student ownership of the learning event, suitability of the task, learning atmosphere, teacher's sharing responsibility with the learner, and teacher's transferring the control to the learner as the task progresses for effective scaffolding.

Teachers can help children to attend to what is relevant by suggesting, praising the significant, and providing focusing activities. If the teacher is explicit about the organization, learners can adopt useful strategies. With the help of part-whole activities or by modelling, teachers can remind children the whole task and goals (Cameron, 2001).

In conclusion, these reputable men present extremely significant contents on teaching young learners. The point is awareness and effort of teachers of young learners.

2.1.6. TPRS

Teaching Proficiency Through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS) – which was described as Total Physical Response Storytelling at first – is a comprehensible-input method to teach a foreign language. It was developed by a Spanish teacher named Blaine Ray in California in

1990s. The goal of TPRS is to raise students who can use the vocabulary and basic structures of the foreign language accurately and fluently (Ray and Seely, 2012).

2.1.6.1. Historical Background of Language Teaching Approaches

Although the surface area remains the same, the world is now like a very small village. Thanks to technological devices, all the information is accessible. That is, getting news about far away parts of the world is possible for everyone. People find out about the beauties of the world and want to see them. Not only for touristic purposes but also for education, occupation, political or religious issues, people need to go to foreign countries. Then, to communicate with the people there, the necessity of knowing a foreign language occurs. Apart from face-to-face communication, people may need to know foreign languages while they are reading something written in that language, or while they are doing online shopping, or having a telephone conversation. No matter what the reason is, the main question here can be that “Which language must be learnt as a second language?”. In today’s world, commonly accepted language is English. Therefore, almost all the countries’ education programs contain teaching English as a foreign language.

To get the knowledge of foreign languages, the search for the best teaching method has been going on. There are a good number of methods to teach a foreign language. And, this thesis examines one of the latest methods – TPRS – to address the issue of foreign language teaching. To narrow down such an extensive subject, because the main aim of a language and the main expectation from a language is communication, the issue of oral ability is tackled. And because of the critical period for learning a language, young learners were observed. The introduction of its historical background is crucial to gain a clear understanding about TPRS.

According to Brown (2007), the growth of the language teaching methods is cyclical. After a while of appearance of a teaching method, it is criticized in terms of the positive and the negative aspects. Leaving the negative sides behind, a new method is constructed with some additions to the positive sides of the previous one. After having enough time to identify the fruitful and inefficacious features of the new method, a newer one is composed and this process outlines the development of language teaching approaches.

Grammar Translation Method (GTM), which is very old but still used, sought for accurate use of language rules. Therefore, memorizing vocabulary lists and grammatical rules were popular techniques of this approach. To give information about something without any doubt, using mother tongue is the easiest and the best option. Therefore, GTM explained the instructions in L1. This method was a good way for reading-comprehending-translating texts and writing grammatically perfect paragraphs. However, it was inadequate in speaking skill. The search of how to teach speaking paved the way for a new method named the Direct Method.

The Direct Method put forward an idea of learning L2 that could be the same as L1 learning. To accomplish this objective, lesson plans were prepared focusing on oral activities. Teachers used the target language during classes to supply input in L2. There was no translation and almost none grammatical explanation. Being exposed to such an intense incomprehensible input caused the feeling of failure. As a result, linguistic world withdrew from that enterprise and the GTM preserved its popular existence.

The Second World War caused a new enterprise in the field of language teaching. The army needed soldiers who could speak foreign languages. GTM and the Direct Method were time-consuming and there was not enough time to try them. Urgency culminated in the development of Audiolingual Method (ALM). The aim of ALM was to reach correct articulation – grammatically and phonologically. Providing punishment and reward, in order to cover the main structures of the language, learners memorized the sample dialogues by saying them again and again. They were expected to grab the correct grammar inductively. In conclusion, ALM enabled not native-like but functional oral achievement.

In 1970s, The Affective-Humanistic approach and the Comprehension-Based approach brought a completely different dimension to the subject of foreign language teaching. Designing a stress-free, comfortable learning environment and providing lots of comprehensible input were accepted as primary necessities of language learning.

1970s were the prime years of foreign language teaching. The psychologist James Asher developed Total Physical Response (TPR) in these years too. This method links language to actions. Learners hear the commands – which are the comprehensible input for them – and

perform the instructions. For instance, the teacher says “Open your books!” and demonstrates it himself. The students combine what they hear and see and do. It is fun and useful especially for vocabulary teaching. However, all the language points and words cannot be taught with TPR.

Stephen Krashen – one of the most significant linguists of twentieth century – and his co-worker Terrell developed the Natural Approach. In their point of view, meaningful production is the most important issue in Second Language Acquisition (SLA). A stress-free environment should be prepared for the students and the teachers should let them be silent; they should not be forced to produce the language. As it is in the first language acquisition, the environment should provide lots of comprehensible input and time should be given to the learner to transform input to output. In order not to affect this process negatively, the learners’ feelings must be considered. When they feel ready, they will give utterance to their thoughts.

To clarify about Krashen’s SLA theory, it is a must to mention about his five hypotheses:

1- The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

To develop competence in a second language, there are two possible ways; acquiring and learning. Like being capable in the mother tongue, *acquisition* is a subconscious progress which ends with the ability of communicating by using the language. The learner uses the language by depending on his/her feelings, not the knowledge of grammatical rules. On the other hand, as a result of *learning* process, the learner does not “feel” what is right or wrong; s/he “knows” it. Being aware of the rules, the learner gets the knowledge of language consciously (Krashen, 1982). While acquisition accompanies with the language’s original accent and a fluent speech, learning process does not enable such fluency and native-like articulation (Türkeş, 2011). Not learning, but acquisition enables fluency in the target language (Brown, 2007).

2- The Natural Order Hypothesis

No matter what their first language is, there is a natural sequence in acquiring English as a second language (Dulay and Burt, 1974). In their study, Dulay and Burt (1974) observed native Chinese speaking children and native Spanish speaking children who were learning English as

a second language (ESL) and their oral performances were evaluated using three different speech analysis methods and as a result, it was found out that both of the groups acquired the language -more or less- with the same sequencing. This result supported the belief of existence of universal child language learning strategies.

As it is mentioned by Krashen (1982), it was reported by Bailey, Madden, and Krashen (1974) that there was a similar sequence among ESL adult learners, which is named as “natural order”.

3- The Monitor Hypothesis

This hypothesis is the explanation of the underlying reason of why second or foreign language learners are not fluent speakers. Krashen states that “... acquisition is responsible for our fluency” (1982, p.15). Acquirers of a language behave bravely when verbalizing is of concern, they speak spontaneously. However, language learners cannot help checking the correctness of their utterances and editing them. Before they write or speak, by taking into consideration the grammatical rules, they try to make correct sentences, which is a time-consuming process.

4- The Input Hypothesis

This hypothesis is a crucial clarification of how we acquire language. That is, it is not about learning but acquisition. Thanks to context, or our background knowledge, or extra-linguistic information, we can acquire the structure that is slightly beyond our current competence; which is formulized as “ $i + 1$ ”. i symbolizes the learner’s current level and $+1$ is the following subject, which is mostly understandable yet is still challenging (Krashen, 1982; Brown, 2007; Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

To present more revealing information, Krashen (1982) explains the input hypothesis as the following:

- As we acquire our first language, the priority is the meaning, not the structure. The baby gets all the input and when s/he feels ready, the first utterance occurs. The baby just tries to convey the message without noticing the structure. The listener – parents for example – do not care about the grammatical accuracy of the baby’s speech. The important thing is the message. They do not interfere in the correctness of the structure as long as the message is clear. In the general concept of second or foreign language teaching, the structure is introduced first, then it is practiced with communication-based activities and as a result of this, the development of fluency is expected. However, the input hypothesis claims the opposite. As in first language acquisition, the order should be first meaning

and then structure. Therefore, the first and the most crucial point of the input hypothesis is that it is about acquisition, not learning.

- With the help of elements which make comprehension possible, an acquirer can take a step forward from the ongoing stage.
- If there is enough comprehensible input and if the acquirer covers it, unconsciously +1 is provided.
- There is no way of creating a fluent speaker using a magical abracadabra formula. Fluency cannot be taught, it comes out in time. The thing that can be done to facilitate the process may be furnishing the environment with as much comprehensible input as possible. Exposure may affect proficiency in a positive way.

5- The Affective Filter Hypothesis

Filter is an imaginary barrier which cannot be seen with bare eyes but its presence can be felt by observing a learning process or as a result of assessment and evaluation process. This barrier prevents the learning.

There may be many factors that activate the filter up. Laine (1988) grouped the factors as the followings:

- Motivational factors
- Certain personality traits
- Attitudes towards items that are connected to L2
- Attitudes towards items in the learning setting
- Self-conception of the learner

In other words, learner's needs, interests, emotional state -for example feeling anxious, unmotivated, stressed, upset, not confident-, alienation, thoughts about the target culture, uncomfortable learning environment, teaching method, the relation between the source (teacher) and the receiver (the learner) compose an obstacle against input. To break down this resistant 'mental block', teachers should make every effort to provide a stress-free learning environment and comprehensible input.

In the light of this given information, it can be said that everyone has a common aim; to teach a foreign language. Their ways of teaching are so effective for some subjects especially. However, none of them alone is perfect for teaching all the elements of a language. What

happens if we use all of these methods separately for the subjects that they are best at? The answer to this question gave birth to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT).

CLT is an eclectic approach that takes the merits of different methods and uses this secret combination to achieve the ultimate aim of all language learners. It was created in the late 1980's and it has been serving language teachers to raise communicatively competent individuals. Combining functional and structural features of a language, this approach endeavors communicative ability (Littlewood, 1981). Richard and Rodgers (2001) explain the goal of the approach with these sentences: *“It is an approach that aims to (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication.”* (p.155). Via role-playing activities, this approach presents real life situations in a controlled form and prepares the learner to an environment which is surrounded by the target language (Cook, 2001).

2.1.6.2. TPR, The Natural Approach and TPRS

TPRS has its theoretical and methodological roots in both Asher's TPR and Krashen's Natural Approach. Stephen M. Silvers emphasizes the significance of TPR for TPRS with these words:

“... As we all know, storytelling is older than the Bible, and has long been used as a technique in language teaching. What makes TPRS unique and more effective for second language learning is Asher's TPR component – a powerful tool for getting students ready to understand a story when they hear it for the first time.” (Asher, 2006, p.3)

Asher (1972) asserts that second language learning is similar to acquiring native tongue. An infant is exposed to the language and for a long time, it is silent. Just listens and when it is ready, it responds with sounds and body gestures. After some more time, it acts out the commands. On the basis of this process, TPR focuses on listening skill. Learners – just as children – can listen and imitate the correct articulation of everything they hear. Because the skill of listening comprehension has effective positive transfer to speaking a second language, Asher (1969) states that developing listening ability is crucial and essential for fluency.

The significance of listening skill for learning a language cannot be underestimated, and TPR succeeds it quite perfectly for beginning levels especially. However, it is not much useful for advanced levels. While the learners' receptive skills are developed, the productive skills, which are necessary for communicating, are neglected (Cantoni, 1999). Therefore, TPRS combines it with the Natural approach with the aim of enabling comprehensible input (Ray and Seely, 2003).

Zaro and Salaberri (1995) say that "Storytelling can be linked in the same way to the hypotheses on the learning/acquisition of language put forward by Stephen Krashen." (p.4). The book *Fluency Through TPR Storytelling – Achieving Real Language Acquisition in School* by Ray and Seely (2012) explains Krashen's Input Hypothesis as the basis for TPRS. As it is mentioned above, under the heading of "Historical Background of TPRS", the Natural Approach attaches great importance to comprehensible input.

Simple sentence structure and repetition – which are two fundamental bases of a story – provides comprehensible input. In his Spanish lessons, Blaine Ray was using TPR. After some time, he realized that the students lose their interest in performing TPR commands. To pep up his classes, he added stories to the lesson plans (Castro, 2010). With the help of the stories, vocabulary items, which are taught via TPR, took places in contexts and learning is perpetuated. Also, when the stories are told using visuals, real materials, body language and intonation, it presents perfect comprehension.

2.1.6.3. Storytelling

Before the Sumerians first invented writing, there had been only speaking and listening. People had spoken of their happiness and sorrow, folklore and culture, Gods and religions, tales and legends to their children. Children had grown up by listening to these "stories". And then, they had narrated the same stories and also the new ones. In this way, the oral literature was inherited from generation to generation. In sum, it is clear that there were listening and speaking first, and storytelling was so crucial.

People are born with one of the language skills; listening – if there is not a health problem such as deafness. A new-born baby cannot speak, read, or write. It can only listen. During this silent period, it listens to everything. It observes the environment; the people, the acts, the objects. It tries to establish a connection between the sounds and the items. After a while, it reacts to the speech that it hears. It shows its liking by smiling and/or clapping hands happily; and, disliking by crying and/or screaming. In time, the baby tries to tell something just using gestures and facial expressions along with some unclear sounds. And, finally, when it is ready, it speaks to communicate. Consequently, as Castro (2010) states, an infant – firstly – internalizes mental schemas of the mother tongue by listening comprehension and then, speaking occurs naturally.

Storytelling gives you the chance of making adaptations in the language according to children's level. You can repeat the parts you want, you can amplify your telling with body gestures and facial expressions while you are keeping eye contact (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990). Parents tell stories to their children in their native language, and children like listening to them (Özer, 2004). At the age of four, they tell stories without following the plot. As they grow, they become better narrators. Being a narrator is the same as being an artist, because storytelling is a kind of art (Brune, 2004) which integrates four language skills (Atta-Alla, 2012). That is, storytelling – an enjoyable activity for children (Zaro and Sarabelli, 1995) – helps them master a language, both the native and target language.

The role of stories in language learning is noteworthy. Because they strike children's fancy, stories are used broadly as an effective and motivating language teaching tool. As a result of her study, Özer (2004) stated that storytelling motivated the fifth-grade students in English lessons. Elkılıç and Akça (2008) conducted a study to survey the fourth-graders' attitudes towards storytelling as a foreign language teaching tool. Their questionnaire to twenty-one students revealed that having stories in English lessons and acting them is so pleasing. Nguyen, et al. (2014) studied on perceptions about storytelling in teaching Chinese as a second/foreign language by stating the opportunities and challenges. The results indicated that storytelling is beneficial and enables multi-cultural understanding. In their study it is also stated that there are wires in our minds for a better understanding of the surrounding world and they do that with the help of stories, which strengthen language skills, promote comprehension and interaction in classes.

Stories are significant sources for vocabulary learning (Brune, 2004). Vocabulary learning may be a great challenge to many students. Thanks to presenting words in a meaningful context, it may be said that stories are a more comprehensive way of teaching a language (Castro, 2010). Also, presenting the target language in a story that is known by the learners in their own language may enable to memorize the words easily (Özer, 2004). For instance, with the phrase in *Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs* “mirror mirror on the wall, who is the fairest of them all?”, the learners can easily guess the meaning of the underlined words as they are familiar with the story. Mokhtar, et al. (2010) had a research to identify the effects of storytelling on students’ aspects of communication skills. The findings showed that participants gained new vocabulary items through storytelling technique.

The features of stories to advance in the target language in an entertaining and motivating way can be summarized with the list below. Stories (Zaro and Salaberri, 1995; Özer, 2004);

- present informal, lively, and communicative environment,
- lower student anxiety,
- awake the attention of the students,
- encourage the learners’ creativity and broaden imagination,
- build harmony among the students,
- provide social and emotional development – shared response of emotions such as laughter, sorrow, excitement -
- introduce the new language point and contextualize it to offer meaningful learning,
- teach to establish cause-effect relationship between events,
- evoke the studied subjects by giving them in varied, memorable, familiar contexts.

In conclusion, the significance of stories in language learning cannot be underestimated.

2.1.7. Developments in TPRS

TPRS has improved gradually and rectification process has gone on. TPRS consists of three main steps. The first step is vocabulary. Vocabulary was taught with TPR; however, because it is easier and more efficient, teaching with translation has been preferred recently. The second step is story. To enable lots of comprehensible input, questioning techniques are used. Besides comprehension, answers given to these questions provide developing several stories in classroom. The last step is reading. When it is compared to the early stages of this brand-new method, more reading is used now. Therefore, the acronym TPRS reflects “Teaching Proficiency Through Reading and Storytelling” rather than “Total Physical Response Storytelling” (Seely and Romijn, 1998).

2.1.7.1. The Seven Steps of TPRS

Originally, the acronym was “Total Physical Response Storytelling” and was vocabulary-based. TPR-Storytelling had seven steps. The steps became challenging from 1 to 7.

The first part includes teaching new vocabulary items with TPS gestures. These words are chosen from the story. Thus, they will help learners to understand the story. In crowded classrooms practicing the words with all of the students may not be possible but it is obvious that the more they practice the better they will comprehend.

In the second step, the students’ understanding of new words is assessed by the teacher, by giving commands and observing actions.

After that, the teacher creates a situation and using the new words, s/he tells a story. To make the story comprehensible, the teacher may choose actors among students. As Brune (2004) asserts this level – the third one – is the most important one because it consists of a kind of translation. The translation is not from target language to the mother tongue. It is from target language to actions – which is not limited to a language. The demonstration helps mastering

the new items. By asking questions about the story, the teacher can check their comprehension. At the end, the teacher asks a student to retell the story and take a step to the fourth level. In this part, the teacher retells the story and asks questions while s/he is acting it out.

In the fifth step, the students retell the story. Retelling is a good way for practicing the new target vocabulary items.

The sixth step is used for introducing a new grammar point. The teacher may change the tense of the story. For example, the first form of the story says “Ali and Hasan ride their bikes every weekend” and to mention about the simple past tense, the teacher may change this sentence into “Ali and Hasan *rode* their bikes *last weekend*”. In this step, the teacher retells the story in the new form.

In the seventh – the last – part, the students retell the new-form story.

However, then, focusing on the most frequent structures with high-frequency words, it has evolved into “Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling” which has just three steps:

2.1.7.2. The Three Steps of TPRS

A lesson plan which is based on TPRS method includes three steps:

1- Establishing Meaning

TPRS is a learner-centered method that aims to teach ‘every’ student in the class. In this first step, vocabulary items and/or structures are limited to the story and meaning is established with comprehensible input which is presented by the teacher through TPR commands, direct translation to L1, gestures, pictures and charts, and Personalized Questions and Answers (PQA). Recently, maybe to allocate some more time for the other steps, instead of TPR instructions – which are more time-consuming – direct translation and PQA are preferred to teach early subjects (Seely and Romijn, 1998).

By asking easy comprehension questions one after another, The teacher checks learners' understanding (Nguyen, et al., 2014). The goals of this step are; *a*) putting the taught words and structures in the students' long-term memory and *b*) helping them use these items with at least decent fluency (Ray and Seely, 2012).

As it is stated at the beginning part of this heading, TPRS intended to teach all the students in the class. To achieve this crucial mission, the teacher should introduce the new items with a slow and clear speech (Ray and Seely, 2012). In order to understand whether the subject is covered by all the students, the teacher should ask the barometer student, who is the low-level one of the class, and until s/he gets the topic, the teacher has to explain it again and again. Brune (2004) shared his negative experience on this stage and stated his warning that advanced students may cause some discipline problems as they lose their interest because of this slow and repeated process – which is unnecessary to them.

2- Asking a Story

The second step of the method is the most crucial one. The teacher is responsible for providing as much comprehensible input as possible. S/he creates a situation for the story. There are some variables of the story. The teacher asks questions about these variables and with the answers of the students, the teacher constructs the story and writes it on the board. Hence, the teacher checks the learners' understanding and the learners feel motivated because they are involved in constructing a mini story in the class. This mini-story should have three stages (Rodas Reinbach, 2011);

- Introduction: There is a problem.
- Plot: There is an attempt to handle it.
- Conclusion: There is not a problem any more.

Making up stories teaches the children how to organize and express their ideas and creates them a chance for writing on their own (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990). By asking circling questions, the words or structures which were taught in step one repeated and this repetition helps memorization.

An example for circling technique:

“Hasan is **hungry**.” (The bold one is the target word.)

- Is Hasan hungry? Yes.
- Is Hasan hungry or thirsty? Hungry.
- Is Hasan thirsty? No. / No, he is hungry.
- Who is hungry? Hasan.

Yes, Hasan is hungry.

3- Reading

The story is read by the students. Also, the teacher may read it aloud. Reading aloud is a kind of listening activity for students. Instead of being read by the teacher, using audial materials, the stories can be listened to from different voices. As Scott and Ytreberg (1990) stated hearing much enables ability in speaking and writing. The story may be translated into the mother tongue. A parallel story can be written. The students may act out the story.

2.2. Literature Review

2.2.1. Research on Vocabulary Competence and Skills Other Than Speaking

Kariuki and Bush (2008) examined the effect of TPRS and the traditional method on foreign language learning in a high school. Randomly chosen thirty students were assigned to experimental group and control group. The results indicated a significant difference between the groups on vocabulary achievement. TPRS was accepted as a powerful language teaching method by them.

Koetz (2009) found that students comprehended more vocabulary as a result of using TPRS instead of traditional grammar-focused methods. Firduate (2009) conducted a study to reveal the effect of TPRS on vocabulary achievement of kindergarten students and the study resulted in TPRS’s favor.

Gantika (2013) investigated the implementation of TPRS in teaching vocabulary to young learners and the students’ perception about the method. As a result, it was obvious that the

students had fun. They were motivated and their attention lasted much longer. And, the method worked with vocabulary learning.

Çubukçu (2014) substantiated the effectiveness of TPRS on vocabulary teaching as a result of her pre- and post-test designed research.

Demir (2014) conducted a quasi-experimental study with the aim of revealing whether or not the TPRS method had any effect on lexical competence of very young learners in Turkey, and whether there was a gender difference in achievement. Twenty new vocabulary items were taught to 39 pre-school students using TPRS for the experimental group and with the Communicative Approach for the control group. As a result of four-week-treatment, it was found that the experimental group was more successful than the control group. Besides the lexical competence findings, she noted that there was no meaningful difference in the context of 'gender'.

Dewi (2014) aimed to find out the usefulness of TPRS method in teaching English vocabulary mastery of the fifth-grade students. As a result of Dewi's experimental research, a significant difference was observed. Participants of TPRS method was better.

Sutijono (2014) had a study to compare the vocabulary gain of elementary school students using TPRS in the experimental group and using word lists in the control group. As a result, using TPRS to improve vocabulary achievement was strongly recommended.

Rusiana and Nuraeningsih (2016) conducted a study to find out the influence of TPRS on students' vocabulary learning. Twenty second-graders were the participant of this study and the results showed that students' vocabulary knowledge was expanded with TPRS.

Besides these studies which show the usefulness of TPRS on vocabulary teaching, there are studies that reveal the uselessness of the method. For instance, Castro (2010) had a study with twenty-five adult learners. He compared the GTM and TPRS by means of identifying the mastery of unknown words. The result was surprisingly different from most of the studies that the GTM was better than TPRS. Also, Türkeş (2011) investigated the effect of TPRS method

on teaching vocabulary items to fifth-grade-students in Turkey. He analyzed the pre- and post-test results and found out that although the TPRS group did better, there was not a statistically difference between TPRS group and traditional definition-based group.

Apart from observing whether TPRS has an effect on vocabulary teaching, Armstrong (2008) wanted to assess the retention of the vocabulary items which were taught via TPRS. She collected data from her elementary school students. Besides the questions about their recall of words, the students were asked about their enjoyment of TPRS lessons. As a result, Armstrong explained that the students enjoyed the process and they could remember seventy-five percent of the vocabulary words.

In addition to studies that were conducted to search for TPRS's efficacy on vocabulary teaching, Susan (2013) investigated the relation between TPRS and listening comprehension. She wanted to learn whether the use of TPRS is able to improve the learners' listening skill, and the advantageous / disadvantageous sides of this new method. The researcher collected data not only applying pre- and post-tests but also by interviewing with the teacher and the students. The participants were twenty students of second grade of a junior high school. The study showed that – besides its positive effect on mastering vocabulary items – TPRS method improved listening comprehension as well.

Dziedzic (2012) and Chang and Chen (2015) carried out studies on the effectiveness of TPRS method on overall language capabilities. While Dziedzic chose high-school students as participants, Chang and Chen studied with a mix-group that included children, teenagers and adults. Both studies revealed that TPRS works. Dziedzic evaluated the skills specifically and found that, the experimental group was significantly better in speaking and writing skills although there was not a meaningful difference between TPRS and traditional method in listening and reading achievement.

Spangler (2009) and Blanton (2015) compared the effectiveness of CLT and TPRS. Spangler studied with beginning-level middle and high school students, who learn Spanish, to assess their achievement, fluency, and anxiety. As a result, the researcher observed high level of speaking fluency in the group with TPRS. Blanton studied with Spanish learning high school students to

evaluate their motivation and proficiency. The study corroborated that TPRS method was more motivating; however, CLT was better at proficiency.

2.2.2. Research on Speaking Skills

Rodas Reinbach (2011) conducted a research to analyze the effectiveness of TPRS as a methodology to teach English as a foreign language to pre-school children. The study focused on development of oral skills of the participants – thirteen children within the ages of 3 and 5. It was an action research and a qualitative methodology was used. To record the learners' language learning process, the researcher made use of a diary. The results of the study revealed the positive effects of TPRS.

Simanjuntak and Sihombing (2015) carried out a research to obtain the effect of using TPRS on students' oral achievement. In their investigation, they had seventy-two third-grade students. They were divided into two groups as the experimental and the control groups. The result of the study showed that the experimental group students' speaking achievement was higher than that of the control group.

3. METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides information about the research design. The participants, data collection tools, procedure and data analysis are presented.

3.1. The Model of the Study

This study is a quasi-experimental study. There were nine groups of 4th graders at Burhan Erdayı Primary School in 2017-2018 school year. The groups were organized by the school management as mixed groups by means of economic potential of the families, gender, and overall success of the students. The experimental groups and the control groups were chosen randomly among these 4th grade classes. Besides, this study is both a qualitative research – I tried to gain understanding of the teacher’s and the students’ opinion about the method through individual interviews and my own observations in their natural classroom environment– and a quantitative research – numerical data were gathered from the experimental and the control groups through immediate and delayed post-tests.

3.2. Population and Sampling

The participants of the study were primary school students at the age of 9-10 who were learning English as a foreign language in Balıkesir, Turkey. Of the 178 participants in the control group, 81 were female and 97 were male. Of the 134 participants in the experimental group, 55 were female and 79 were male. However, because the classrooms were too crowded and the course period was limited to two-hours a week, all of the students could not have the chance to attend oral practices. Therefore, for the assessment 30 students of the control group and 30 students for the experimental group were chosen randomly. Each of the groups had 15 male and 15 female students.

3.3. Data Collection Tools

The data of their feelings and opinions about the new method were collected through interviews with the teacher and the participants. Besides, immediate and delayed post-tests were applied because the aim was to compare the verbal achievements of the groups. In order to provide a stress-free environment, the assessments were carried out with the help of a kind of game. The students' voices were recorded.

3.4. Procedure

The goal of this study was to examine the impact of the brand-new language teaching method TPRS on oral performances of young learners. While the control groups were taught with CLT and GTM, the experimental groups were taught with TPRS. Besides the effect of TPRS method on speaking skill, the effect on the retention of the course subjects was evaluated. During the research, the researcher only prepared the lesson plans and the materials for the experimental group. To have an objective perspective, the lessons were taught by the school's English teacher. From time to time, the researcher attended the classes as the observer.

In order not to interrupt their curriculum, the topics were selected from the 4th grade-classes syllabus. Because the teacher confirmed that the learners did not have speaking proficiency in the target language, a pre-test was not applied. Each week, a new topic was introduced and the following week, it was checked as the immediate post-test during the revision of the previous week part. And each topic was asked one more time after 4 weeks as the delayed post-test to clarify the retention rate.

As the immediate and delayed-post tests, the participants took part in a kind of game. This game is used as the assessment scale. Beside the thesis advisor's opinion, 5 English teachers' and 3 English instructors' opinions were asked while the given situations were being prepared. There were four boxes which include lots of pieces of paper. The situations were written in

mother tongue on those papers for each of the previous weeks' subjects. Each of the students drew lots - one for each box. They read the explanation of the given situation and were asked about what they would say in such a situation. In order to prevent test anxiety, the scores were not given at the time of the assessment. With the help of a recorder, the participants' voices were recorded to determine their grades later.

3.5. Data Analysis

The collected data were analyzed by the SPSS program. The data were examined statistically by using MANOVA for "repeated measures". The data were analyzed in terms of oral proficiency and retaining the knowledge in the long term. To make interpretation of the oral proficiency, two criteria were taken in consideration; "the language use to convey the message" and "the language use with the correct structure". The participants' speeches were examined first to reveal how successful they are in expressing their problems. Secondly, the speeches were parsed to propound how correct their utterances are grammatically and structurally.

4. FINDINGS

This section presents the findings of the study have been obtained from the analysis of the data in accordance with the research questions.

4.1. The Comparison of the Experimental and Control Groups in Terms of Immediate and Delayed Post-Test Results

The number of the participants were equal for both groups. Each group had 15 male and 15 female students. The study was carried out for four weeks. 1 week later from each lesson, immediate post-test was applied. That is, there were 4 different immediate post-tests which include the related week's topic. Each test consisted of 10 different situations which are given to make the students speak. Because the aim was not to compare the success on the basis of different topics, the average score was calculated for immediate post-test and delayed post-test separately.

Table 3. The Mean Scores of Immediate and Delayed Post-tests

Group	Mean	Std.Dev.	N
D1 Exp.	9,0000	2,55963	30
Cont.	8,5333	2,12916	30
Total	8,7667	2,34605	60
D2 Exp.	9,1333	2,20866	30
Cont.	6,5000	3,71158	30
Total	7,8167	3,30635	60

The mean scores of immediate and delayed post-tests' results were calculated for both control group and experimental group. In immediate post-test, the mean score of experimental group is (9 ± 2.55) and control group's mean score is (8.53 ± 2.12).

Before the treatment, a pre-test was not applied because; as a result of the interview that had been made with the English teacher, it was obvious that the topics and the related vocabulary items were new for the learners, and they had no proficiency in speaking. 10 sample situations were given. The participants picked one piece of paper and read the explanation written in Turkish. Then, they were asked to tell their words about what they would say in such a situation. This application was done for each topic separately. The same tests were applied to the groups as immediate post-tests after each treatment periods. The average of the tests were calculated and comparison was made between the control and the experimental groups. (see Table 4).

Table 4. The Comparison of Immediate Post-test Scores of the Study Groups

Groups	N	Mean	Std.Dev.	Sig.
Experimental	30	9,0000	2,5596	,005
Control	30	8,5333	2,1291	

According to Table 4, the immediate post-test mean score was measured as 9,0000 for the experimental group and the control group's mean score was measured as 8,5333. Although the experimental group had a higher score, the results were close and indicated that both groups were successful at the end of one-week-treatment. That is, they could utter sentences about the topic that they covered the previous week.

When the first lesson plan was implemented, the following week it was checked with the immediate post-test. And 3 weeks after the immediate post-test, that means 4 week after the treatment, delayed post-test was applied. This process was repeated for the other planned

lessons. The average of the delayed post- tests were calculated and comparison of the control and the experimental groups was presented in Table 5.

Table 5. The Comparison of Delayed Post-test Scores of the Study Groups

Groups	N	Mean	Std.Dev.	Sig.
Experimental	30	9,1333	2,2086	,002
Control	30	6,5000	3,7115	

According to Table 5, the delayed post-test mean score was measured as 9,1333 for the experimental group and the control group’s mean score was measured as 6,5000. While the experimental group saves the knowledge – even gets better – the control group could not retain the knowledge. In short, the experimental group was better than the control group in terms of recalling information.

Table 6. The Comparison of Immediate and Delayed Post-tests of the Experimental Group

Post-Test	Mean	Standard Deviation
Immediate	9,000	2,5596
Delayed	9,1333	2,2086

Table 6 presents the scores of the experimental group. Mean score of the immediate post-test was measured as 9,000 and the delayed post-test’s mean score was measured as 9,1333. As it is mentioned before, the experimental group was better than the control group in terms of

immediate post-test results. The comparison of the results indicates that experimental group's success increasingly goes on. Hence, it can be said that the success of TPRS method is a crystal-clear fact.

Table 7. The Comparison of Immediate and Delayed Post-tests of the Control Group

Post-Test	Mean	Standard Deviation
Immediate	8,5333	2,1291
Delayed	6,5000	3,7115

Table 7 exhibits the scores of the control group. Mean score of the immediate post-test was measured as 8,5333 and the delayed post-test's mean score was measured as 6,5000. Although the score of the immediate post-test was lower than the experimental group, the control group was still quite successful. However, the same cannot be said for the delayed post-test results. The knowledge of the courses did not accompany with the control group to the 4-week-period.

Table 8. The Comparison of the Study Groups' Immediate Post-test Results in Terms of Conveying the Message and Forming Structurally Correct Sentences

Immediate Post-test	Mean	Std.Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Forming Structurally Correct Sent.	Conveying the Message
Experimental Group	8,767	,304	8,158	9,375
Control Group	7,817	,394	7,027	8,606

According to Table 8, mean score of the experimental group was calculated as 8,767 and the control group's mean score was calculated as 7,817. When the scores of both forming structurally correct sentences and conveying the message factors were examined, it was clearly seen that the experimental group was better. The common point was that the scores of conveying the message were higher than the scores of forming structurally correct sentences.

Table 9. The Comparison of the Study Groups' Delayed Post-test Results in Terms of Conveying the Message and Forming Structurally Correct Sentences

Delayed Post-test	Mean	Std.Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Forming Structurally Correct Sent.	Conveying the Message
Experimental Group	9,067	,440	8,186	9,948
Control Group	7,517	,440	6,636	8,398

According to Table 9, mean score of the experimental group was calculated as 9,067 and the control group's mean score was calculated as 7,517. When the scores of both forming structurally correct sentences and conveying the message factors were examined, it was clearly seen that the experimental group was better. The common point was that the scores of conveying the message were higher than the scores of forming structurally correct sentences.

Table 10. The Comparison of the Experimental Group's Immediate and Delayed Post-test Scores in Terms of Forming Structurally Correct Sentences and Conveying the Message

Experimental Group	Forming Structurally Correct Sent.	Conveying the Message
Immediate Post-test	8,158	9,375
Delayed Post-test	8,186	9,948

Although the numbers were not so high, a development was seen in the scores of the experimental group. While the scores of forming structurally correct sentences showed increase of 0,028 , the scores of conveying the message increased 0,573.

Table 11. The Comparison of the Control Group's Immediate and Delayed Post-test Scores in Terms of Forming Structurally Correct Sentences and Conveying the Message

Experimental Group	Forming Structurally Correct Sent.	Conveying the Message
Immediate Post-test	7,027	8,606
Delayed Post-test	6,636	8,398

Although the numbers were not so high, a decline was seen in the scores of the control group. While the scores of forming structurally correct sentences decreased 0,391 , the scores of conveying the message decreased 0,208.

5. DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents discussions on the results of this study on the basis of research questions. After a short review of the study, suggestions for further research are given.

5.1. Discussions on the Research Results

5.1.1. Research Question 1: Does TPRS Method Have an Impact on Oral Performances of Young Learners?

Under the heading of “Findings”, with the help of the given tables, the comparison of the scores of immediate and delayed post-tests were viewed. The first research question is investigated under two subtitles. First, whether they can convey their message successfully is considered. Second, to what extent they can produce structurally correct sentences was taken into consideration.

Speech is different from writing. In writing, the misuse or the lack of the use of some words or structures may cause ambiguity. However, in face-to-face communication gestures, facial expressions and body language support the speech. Therefore, in the assessment process, points were given to structurally deficient but meaningful utterances.

Although, in speaking skill, the point is conveying the message, the correct structures and related vocabulary items are taught during the lessons. Hence, the learners are expected to use them correctly in their speech. Otherwise, their broken-English utterances have to go along with gesticulation.

5.1.2. Research Question 2: Does TPRS Method Have an Effect on Retaining the Subjects in the long term?

To answer this question, 4 weeks after the lesson, delate post-tests were applied and their average scores were compared. It can be clearly seen that, although both group excelled after just one week from the lesson, the control group could not retain their knowledge for four weeks. In other words, although the methods used in the control group were successful in

teaching a subject, they were incapable of retaining the understandings. Most of the students could not remember even a word related to the course.

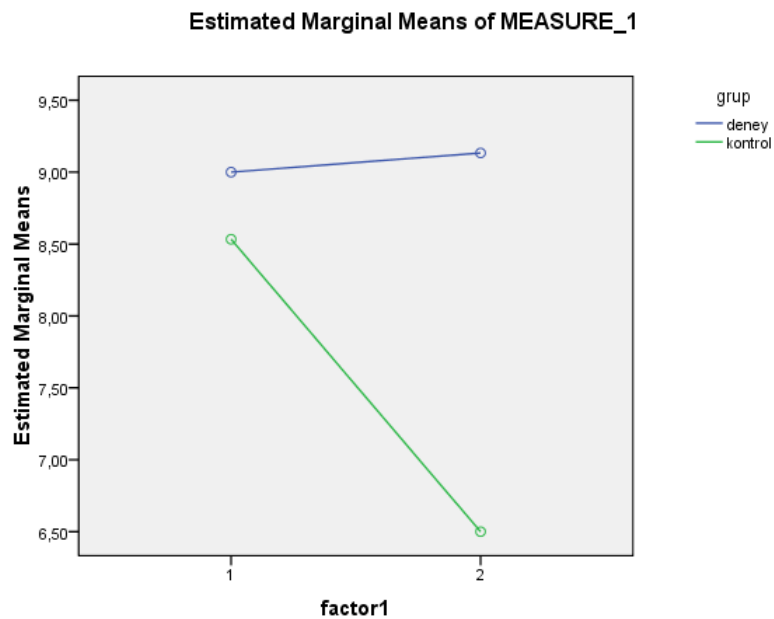


Figure 1. Immediate and Delayed Post-test Results for the Study Groups

On the other hand, the experimental group was rather successful in recalling the former information that was taught 4 weeks ago. They made connections to the stories that were composed in the lessons. As a result of the interviews that were made with the students, they expressed their opinions about the stories and they underlined that they even remembered the roles of their friends.

As a result, it can be said that TPRS presents permanence.

5.2. Conclusions

Language is the tool for communication, and speaking proficiency is the main goal of learning/teaching a new language. In the past, form was prior and all the methods were trying to teach strict rules of the languages for error-free use in written and/or verbal utterances. It was almost impossible for most of the learners to be successful in terms of speaking – even they succeeded in writing. However, the modern methods put emphasis on oral performance because this is the need at present.

The main teaching goal of the brand-new language teaching method TPRS is providing fluent speech in the target language. Therefore, as the study subject, the effect of TPRS method on oral performance was determined. As the application population, young learners were preferred because of the critical period in language learning. The younger is the better.

4 lesson plans were prepared on the basis of TPRS method, and these plans were implemented on the participants of the experimental group. The lessons of the control group continued as they were before the study. The teacher said that she had been using GTM and CLT mostly. In order to assess the utterances, voices of the students were recorded during the lessons and during the tests.

The answers were sought for the research questions. As a result, the scores were measured and the consequences were explained with the help of tables. To sum up the tables, it can be noted that the scores of the experimental group were higher in terms of every criteria. While the differences of immediate post-test results were not so much high, delayed post-test results were pretty much different. Therefore, it may be revealed that the language teaching method TPRS is effective in teaching speaking skill and the knowledge is still remembered although a few weeks passed.

5.3. Recommendations

Education is a process. In time, with the development of new techniques and methods, different perspectives are acquired by instructors. Therefore, it can be said that there is not a final word as “this method is the best”. It is the teacher’s job to find the way that best suits her students.

On the basis of my observations, interviews with the teacher, and this study, in the first place, it is recommended that the number of English lessons in the curriculum should be increased. The loaded content should be decreased. Young learners are not very capable in their mother tongue. Therefore, their pace in a foreign language lesson is normally slower. The less content and the more time are things that they need. Secondly, one of the chief elements in learning a foreign language is practicing. In such crowded classes, practicing is impossible. Therefore, the governmental schools should have language classrooms and the population should be less than 20 – at least. Next, although the purpose of the English classes is to

communicate in the target language, enough time cannot be spared for oral activities. Emphasis should be put on the speaking skill. Finally, neither the teacher nor the learners should have test anxiety. During each school term, a placement test -which includes questions about all of the courses- is applied to the learners, and according to the result of this test, the teacher's performance is also evaluated. Therefore, the teacher gives priority to the topics that are asked in the placement test.

This study was carried out with young learners. Further studies can be carried out with other levels of students. This research was focused on speaking skill. The impact of TPRS with other skills can be studied.

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APPENDIX.1.

LESSON PLAN-1

Difficulty Level	: Beginner
Age of Students	: 9 – 10
Lesson Topic	: Asking for Permission ; Making simple requests; “May I / Can I ...?” “Can you give me... , please?”
Duration	: 80 min.
Language Skill	: Listening; Reading; Speaking
Learning Objectives	: Students will be able to recognize and produce the target words “take ; give”

Stage.1 : Establishing Meaning

Introduction and practice of vocabulary items

- During the first lesson, the words “take” and “give” will be taught and the verbs will be practiced in sentences of requests and permission.
- The teacher brings a box of tiny candies. She greets the students and says “I have a surprise for you!”. She serves the candy box around the classroom and for each student, she will say clearly and slowly “take one candy / take one / take it / take / take ... “ So, everyone will have heard the word clearly and the teacher will have repeated the word as the number of the students in the classroom. After serving, this time she will walk around the classroom to collect the candy wrappers. She will have a rubbish bag in her hand. This time, she will say clearly and slowly “give me the wrapper / give me the rubbish / give me / give / give ...” Here the point is that, the students should not throw the wrapper to the rubbish bag. Teacher should take it to her hand (because the students gives and she takes; if they throw it by themselves, they may think the meaning of “give” is the same as “throw” or “put”.) Again, everyone will have heard the word clearly and the teacher will have repeated the word as the number of the students in the classroom.
- They will repeat each of the verbs chorally and individually.

- After repetition, the teacher will choose a (contributing) student and with TPR technique, she will make them practice the verbs. She will give instructions using the target words “take” and “give” by pronouncing them stressed. (let’s say the student is Ali)
Teacher: - “Ali, go and **take** Ahmet’s pencil.” Ali goes and takes the pencil. (If there is need, the teacher may use Ali as a puppet.)

“Now, Ali go and **take** Ayşe’s notebook.” Ali goes and takes the notebook.
“Ali go and **take** Hasan’s eraser.” Ali takes the eraser, too.

Okay now, come here Ali. Ali **give** me the notebook. (She reaches out her hand)
Give me the eraser. **Give** me the pencil.

Okay, sit down Ali, thank you. (she goes to Ahmet, Ayşe and Hasan one by one to give the items back by saying “Ahmet, **take** your pencil (Ahmet takes it back). Ayşe, **take** your notebook (Ayşe takes it back). Hasan, **take** your eraser (Hasan takes it back).

After this short practice part, Turkish meanings of the verbs can be checked by asking in Turkish and, if necessary, Turkish meanings can be told.

This time, the teacher uses the structures of May I take ..? and Can you give me ...?
She goes to a random student and asks for a classroom object.

Teacher: (goes to Esra) Esra, **may I take** your book? (Kitabını alabilir miyim?)
Esra: Yes, of course / Sure.

Teacher : Berna, **may I take** your pencil?
Berna: Yes. Sure.

Teacher : Ediz, **may I take** your bag?
Ediz : Of course.

After about 5 students, the teacher chooses a student to go one of the friends and ask for an item. Some students will practice the sentence. Then, the teacher will ask for something using “Can you give me your...,please?” structure.

Teacher: (goes Tuna) Tuna, **can you give me your** notebook?

After some practice, again students will practice the same sentence structure.

- The teacher must use her gestures and body language to specify the meanings of the verbs and the differences between the sentences.

Stage.2: Asking a story

The teacher chooses a contributing student to come to the board. Everybody can see him/her. The teacher has a mini story. However, she wants to include the students to the story composing. And, asking the changeable parts to the students, she makes them feel that they created that story. The teacher tells a situation and by using the chosen student as a puppet, she demonstrates the story. At the same time, the teacher writes the story to the board. The point is using the target words and personalization.

Teacher: Okay children, Listen to me carefully! Your friend ...Ayşe... wants to go to a party. (The teacher starts writing the story to the board. Underlined parts are the story lines) Will she wear a pink dress or a red dress? (with a rising intonation, asks to the classroom. According to their answer, the story continues). Piiiiinnnkkkk.... Okay then, she wants to wear a pink dress. Ayşe is sad 😞 (puts on the sad face mask on Ayşe's face) She has no pink dress. (ooooh nooooo says the class) . (Teacher directs Ayşe to a female student. Puts on the mask of Cindrella to the girl's face) She goes to her friend Cindrella (wears off the sad-face mask) and asks for her pink dress.

AYŞE: Hello Cindrella, May I take your pink dress? (again the teacher asks the students for the reply and directs them to say no) T: Will Cindrella say yes or no ? Sts: Noooooo.....

Cindrella says; No Ayşe, sorry.

Ayşe is sad again. 😞 (puts on the sad mask and says ooooooooooohh all together) (Teacher directs Ayşe to another female student. Puts on the mask of Pamuk Prenses to the girl's face) She goes to her friend Snow White/Pamuk Prenses (wears off the sad mask again) and asks for her pink dress.

AYŞE: Hello Pamuk Prenses, Can you give me your pink dress? (again the teacher asks the students for the reply and directs them to say yes) T: Will Pamuk prenses say yes or no ? Sts Yeeeessss....

Pamuk prenses says Yes, of course.

Ayşe says Thank you . Ayşe is happy 😊 (puts on the happy face) and they clap hands all together.

Ayşe wants to go to a party. She wants to wear a pink dress. Ayşe is sad. 😞 She has no pink dress. She goes to her friend Cindrella and asks for her pink dress. "Hello Cindrella, may I take your pink dress?" Cindrella says "No,Ayşe.Sorry." Ayşe is sad again 😞 She goes to her friend Pamuk Prenses and asks for her pink dress. "Hello Pamuk Prenses, can you give me your pink dress?" Pamuk prenses says "yes, of course". Ayşe says "thank you". Ayşe is happy. 😊

Stage.3: Reading Aloud

The teacher reads the story aloud emphasizing the target words and the permission/request structure.

One student can retell the story as she remembers. Or, they may retell it all together with the help of the teacher. They have the verbal-translate of the story together.

If there is time left, volunteer students can have role-play of the story.

HOMEWORK HAND-OUT FOR THE STUDENTS: _____ **NAME-SURNAME:**.....



Ayşe wants to go to a party. She wants to wear a pink dress. Ayşe is sad. 😞 She has no pink dress. She goes to her friend Cindrella and asks for her pink dress. "Hello Cindrella, may I take your pink dress?" Cindrella says "No,Ayşe.Sorry." Ayşe is sad again 😞 She goes to her friend Pamuk Prenses and asks for her pink dress. "Hello Pamuk Prenses, can you give me your pink dress?" Pamuk prenses says "yes, of course". Ayşe says "thank you". Ayşe is happy. 😊

- TRANSLATE THE STORY, PLEASE.

- Color the little princess 😊

AYŞE: Hello Cindrella, may I take your pink dress?

CINDRELLA: No, Ayşe. Sorry. 😞

AYŞE: Hello Pamuk Prenses, can you give me your pink dress?

PAMUK PRENSES: Yes, of course. Here you are.

AYŞE: Thank you 😊



APPENDIX.2.

LESSON PLAN-2

Difficulty Level : Beginner

Age of Students : 9 – 10

Lesson Topic : Asking for Permission ; Making simple requests; “May I / Can I ...?” “Can you give me... , please?”

Duration : 80 min.

Language Skill : Listening; Reading; Speaking

Learning Objectives : Students will be able to recognize and produce the target words “use; pass”

Stage.1 : Establishing Meaning

Introduction and practice of vocabulary items

The teacher introduces the verbs “pass” and “use” by acting. For example, the teacher goes to a student and asks “May I use your pen?” and she writes something with that pen and gives it back. The teacher goes another student, she stands a bit far and says “Can you pass me the book?”

To make it clear, she practices a few more sentences and checks their understanding. If necessary, the teacher can directly say the Turkish meanings of the verbs.

Teacher: Hasan, can you pass me that book, please?

Esra, can you pass me those pencils, please?

Eda, may I use your eraser?

Ela, may I use your dictionary?

- They will repeat the verbs one by one chorally and individually.

Stage.2. Asking a story

The teacher chooses a student. S/He comes to the board. Everybody can see him/her. Let’s say the student is Özlem. Teacher starts telling the situation. Asking yes / no questions, the teacher makes the students join the lesson and composing of the story. She writes the underlined sentences to the board.

In the morning, Özlem has breakfast. There is a table in the kitchen. What are there on the table? Is there cheese? Yeeeeesss.... okay, there is cheese on the table. Olives? Are there any olives? Yeeeeesss,oliiivvveeessss..... okay, there are some olives on the table. What else? Egg? Does Özlem have an egg? Yeeesss, there is an egg on the table. Bread? Is there some bread? Yeeesssss.... There is some bread on the table. Is there coke on the breakfast table? Noooooo..... okay, is there some milk? Yeeesss... There is some milk on the breakfast table. Özlem is sleepy. Özlem’s mother is in the kitchen. Mother says “eat your breakfast Özlem.” What does she want to eat? Cheeseeee... Özlem wants to eat cheese and says: Mother, can you pass me the cheese, please? Mother says “of course”. What does she want to drink? Miiiiillkkk... Özlem wants to drink milk and says: Mother, Can you pass me the milk, please? Mother says “sure, here you are” Oh, no! There is no fork for Özlem. Özlem says: Mother, may I use your fork? Can she use mother’s fork? Noooo... Mother says “no Özlem, take a new fork.”

In the morning, Özlem has breakfast. There is a table in the kitchen. There is cheese on the table. There are some olives on the table. There is an egg on the table. There is some bread on the table. There is some milk on the breakfast table. Özlem is sleepy. Özlem’s mother is in the kitchen. Mother says “eat your breakfast Özlem”. Özlem wants to eat cheese and says “mother, can you pass me the cheese, please?” Mother says “of course”. Özlem wants to drink milk and says “ mother, can you pass me the milk please?”. Mother says “Sure,here you are.” Oh no! There is no fork for Özlem. Özlem says “mother, may I use your fork?”. Mother says “no Özlem, take a new fork.”

Stage.3. Reading Aloud

The teacher reads the story aloud emphasizing the target words and the permission/request structure.

One student can retell the story as she remembers. Or, they may retell it all together with the help of the teacher. They translate the story together.

If there is time left, volunteer students can have role-play of the story.



In the morning, Özlem has breakfast. There is a table in the kitchen. There is cheese on the table. There are some olives on the table. There is an egg on the table. There is some bread on the table. There is some milk on the breakfast table. Özlem is sleepy. Özlem's mother is in the kitchen. Mother says "eat your breakfast Özlem". Özlem wants to eat cheese and says "mother, can you pass me the cheese, please?" Mother says "of course". Özlem wants to drink milk and says "mother, can you pass me the milk please?". Mother says "Sure, here you are." Oh no! There is no fork for Özlem. Özlem says "mother, may I use your fork?". Mother says "no Özlem, take a new fork."

Mother: Eat your breakfast Özlem.

Özlem: Mother, can you pass me the cheese, please?

Mother: Of course.

Özlem: Mother, can you pass me the milk, please?

Mother: Sure, here you are.

Özlem: Mother, may I use your fork?

Mother: No, Özlem, take a new fork.

- **Draw a breakfast table for Özlem. Draw breakfast food on that table.**

LESSON PLAN – 3

Difficulty Level	: Beginner
Age of Students	: 9 – 10
Lesson Topic	: Identifying countries and nationalities; "Where are you from? - I'm from..."
Duration	: 80 min.
Language Skill	: Reading; Listening; Speaking
Learning Objectives	: Students will be able to ask people where they are from and what their nationalities are if articulated slowly and clearly. And, they will be answer these questions for themselves about people, their nationalities and home countries

Stage.1. Establishing meaning

The teacher introduces the question "Where are you from?" as a chunk with the help of two puppets or teddy bear-like toys. Before explaining the question in mother tongue, the teacher will try to teach it in the target language. To do that, using the students' own country and nationality can be helpful because they are familiar with them.

Teacher has toys in her both hands. First she introduces them to the students.

Teacher: Hi my lovely children, today we have 2 friends; Kuzucuk and Benekli. Let's listen to them.

Right hand (RH) (Kuzucuk)

Left hand (LH) (Benekli)

RH: Hi ! My name is Kuzucuk. What is your name?

LH: Hello! My name is Benekli. Nice to meet you...

RH:Nice to meet you... **Where are you from**, Benekli? (stressing the question;slowly;clearly)

LH: (Takes little Turkish flag) **I am from Turkey**. (waving the flag;slowly;clearly)

To make it more clear, the teacher may ask the question to the contributing students of the class.

Apart from their own country – Turkey – to introduce some more countries, the teacher hangs the flags to the board and first they try to guess the country that the flag belongs to. Or the names can be written onto the board randomly and they may match them with the flags.

Germany / France / Italy / Spain / Azerbaijan

They repeat the countries not word by word but as a sentence, like “I am from Germany!”

Stage.2.Asking a story

The teacher takes a volunteer student to the board. Everyone can see him/her.

Teacher: Ok, he is Berk. Say hello to your friends Berk. (Berk says Hello and the class says hello to him) Ok class, Berk has/has got a cousin. Is the cousin a girl or a boy? (According to their answer, the teacher chooses one more student to the board for the “cousin” role. Let’s say a girl.) Is she a girl? (Classroom: yeeeees.... this technique is called as “circling”. Asking questions for the same sentence with different aspects.) Berk’s cousin is a girl. What is her name? (According to their answer) Her name is / She is Fatma. Where does the cousin live? Does she live in Italy or Germany? (According to their answer) She lives in Germany. Does she live in Italy? (Class:Nooooooo...) In Germany? Yeeessss..... She has/has got a friend. Is the friend a boy or a girl? (According to their answer, teacher calls one more student to the board). The friend is a boy. Fatma says “Berk, this is my friend Hans.” Berk says “Hello Hans, where are you from?”. Hans says “ I am from Germany”. Berk and Hans shake hands and say “Nice to meet you”.

Stage.3.Reading Aloud

He is Berk. Berk has got a cousin. Berk’s cousin is a girl. Her name is Fatma. She lives in Germany. She has got a friend. The friend is a boy. Fatma says “Berk, this is my friend Hans.” Berk says “Hello Hans, **where are you from?**”. Hans says “ **I am from Germany**”. Berk and Hans shake hands and say “Nice to meet you”.

The teacher reads the story aloud and shows the characters of the story. Helps them to act out the story. Then the teachers chooses 3 more students to act out the same dialogue. After the second group, they may change the situation -for example they may change the friend’s country(giving a flag of a country); or they may increase the number of the friends.

- **Second lesson;** the teacher uses cartoon characters and their flags. She makes the characters speak ; “Hi! I am from Turkey. I am Turkish.” She does that for the countries that they practiced in the first lesson. Then she gives homework handouts. A story is written on these handouts. They will read the story in the classroom. For the rest of the time, the students will retell the story after reading Mary’s letter. To explain the unknown parts or words, mother tongue can be used. The point is to make them remember the countries and the nationalities.

HOMEWORK HAND-OUT**Name-Surname:** _____

Read the letter. Write a letter to Mary. Answer Mary’s questions.

Dear Emre,

I am your new pen-friend. My name is Mary. I am from England. I am English. I am 10 years old. My best friend is Adrianna. She is from France. She is French. Adrianna’s mother is not French. Her mother is from Spain. The mother is Spanish.

Where are you from? How old are you? Who is your best friend? Where is your friend from?

Best wishes,

Mary

Dear Mary,

APPENDIX.4.

LESSON PLAN-4

Difficulty Level	: Beginner
Age of Students	: 9 – 10
Lesson Topic	: Continents; Where do you live? I live in
Duration	: 80 min.
Language Skill	: Listening; Reading; Speaking
Learning Objectives	: Students will be able to recognize and produce the words “continent; zoo”

Stage.1 : Establishing Meaning

Introduction and practice of vocabulary items

- The teacher shows the world’s map and tells about the continents. Because the students haven’t learned the topic in their geography lesson, the teacher tells about the world and the continents using the native language and gives the meaning of “continent” in Turkish.
- Then, in order to teach the word “zoo”, the teacher tells a mini story using her gestures. “At the weekend, I went to İzmir. There is Sasalı Natural Park and **Zoo** there. Do you know zoo? There are a lot of different animals there. I saw a lion, a cheetah, a giraffe, an elephant. The elephant was very big. They live in that zoo. Can you guess “zoo”? If they cannot, the teacher may tell the word’s Turkish meaning.

Stage.2 : Asking a story

(Before asking the story, the teacher organizes the scene in front of the board. Each of the students should see it. Teacher says that the place of the story is a zoo.)

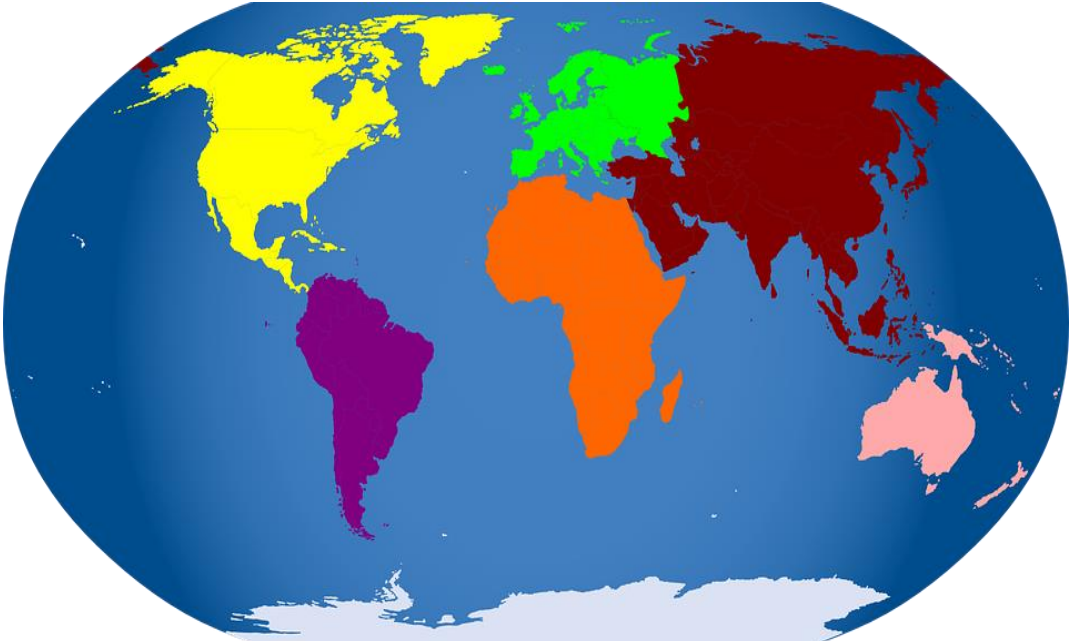
There are a lot of animals in that zoo. There is a lion (chooses a student to be a lion and the student puts on a poster of that animal), there is a kangaroo, there is a penguin, there is a buffalo, there is a panda, there is a skunk. At that day, there is a new comer to the zoo. It is a giraffe. Its name is Gigi. Gigi feels so lonely. Gigi is from Africa. Gigi misses Africa. Gigi wants to find a friend from Africa. Gigi goes to the penguin and asks: "Hello, where are you from?". Penguin says: "Hello, I am from Antarctica. Where do you live?". Gigi says: "I live in Africa. Gigi sees the kangaroo and asks "Hello friend, where do you live?". Kangaroo says: "I live in Australia." Gigi is sad. Gigi wants a friend from Africa. Gigi sees a buffalo and asks:"Hello... I live in Africa. Where do you live?" The buffalo says: I live in America." Oh no... Gigi is alone. Gigi sees a small skunk. Gigi goes to the skunk and asks:" Hello little skunk, where are you from?" The skunk says: "I'm from Europe. I live in France." Gigi is sad. Gigi is desperate. Gigi sees a panda and runs to the panda. "hello panda, I am Gigi. I am from Africa. Where are you from? Where do you live?" Panda says "Hello Gigi, I a from China. I live in Asia." Gigi is sad again and cries. Panda asks:"What happened? Why are you crying?". Gigi says:"I am from Africa. I feel alone. I want a friend from Africa." Panda says:"Hush hush!.. Calm down. I know a friend for you. Let's come with me". Gigi goes with the panda. The panda takes Gigi to the king of the zoo. Gigi sees the king; the lion. Gigi says: "Hello, king. I am Gigi. I live in Africa. I want a friend from Africa." The lion says:"Hi Gigi, welcome. I am your friend. I am from Africa, too." Gigi says "Oh really! That's wonderful! " Gigi laughs, she is happy now.

Stage.3: Reading Aloud

The teacher reads the story aloud emphasizing the target words/structures.

They translate the story together. If there is time left, volunteer students can have role-play of the story.

HOMEWORK HAND-OUT: There are 6 pictures of animals. Cut them and stick on the world-map.



I live in Africa.



I live in Africa.



I live in Asia.



I live in Antarctica.



I live in Europe.



I live in America.













