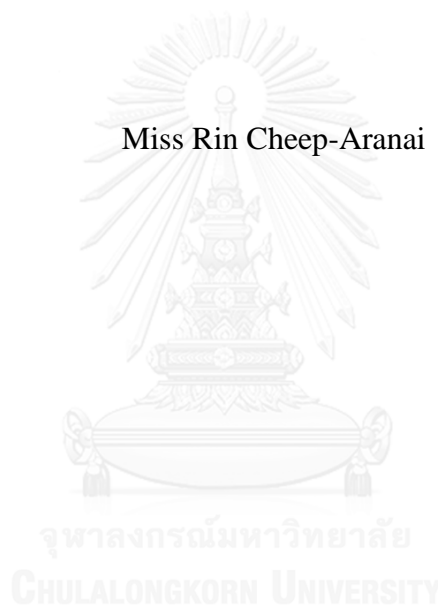


THE DEVELOPMENT OF PLAY-BASED LANGUAGE LEARNING ACTIVITIES
TO ENHANCE ORAL LANGUAGE SKILLS OF YOUNG EFL LEARNERS

Miss Rin Cheep-Aranai



บทคัดย่อและแฟ้มข้อมูลฉบับเต็มของวิทยานิพนธ์ตั้งแต่ปีการศึกษา 2554 ที่ให้บริการในคลังปัญญาจุฬาฯ (CUIR)
เป็นแฟ้มข้อมูลของนิสิตเจ้าของวิทยานิพนธ์ ที่ส่งผ่านทางบัณฑิตวิทยาลัย

The abstract and full text of theses from the academic year 2011 in Chulalongkorn University Intellectual Repository (CUIR)
are the thesis authors' files submitted through the University Graduate School.

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy Program in English as an International
Language
(Interdisciplinary Program)
Graduate School
Chulalongkorn University
Academic Year 2016

Copyright of Chulalongkorn University

การพัฒนากิจกรรมการเรียนรู้แบบการเล่นเป็นฐานเพื่อเสริมสร้างทักษะการสื่อสารด้วยวาจาของ
ผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศระดับประถมศึกษา



วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาศิลปศาสตรดุษฎีบัณฑิต

สาขาวิชาภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ (สหสาขาวิชา)

บัณฑิตวิทยาลัย จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

ปีการศึกษา 2559

ลิขสิทธิ์ของจุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Thesis Title THE DEVELOPMENT OF PLAY-BASED
LANGUAGE LEARNING ACTIVITIES TO
ENHANCE ORAL LANGUAGE SKILLS OF
YOUNG EFL LEARNERS

By Miss Rin Cheep-Aranai

Field of Study English as an International Language

Thesis Advisor Associate Professor Punchalee Wasanasomsithi,
Ph.D.

Accepted by the Graduate School, Chulalongkorn University in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Doctoral Degree

..... Dean of the Graduate School
(Associate Professor Sunait Chutintaranond, Ph.D.)

THESIS COMMITTEE

..... Chairman
(Associate Professor Supanee Chinnawongs, Ph.D.)

..... Thesis Advisor
(Associate Professor Punchalee Wasanasomsithi, Ph.D.)

..... Examiner
(Assistant Professor Apasara Chinwonno, Ph.D.)

..... Examiner
(Pattamasiri teeranurak Jaruchainiwat, Ph.D.)

..... External Examiner
(Assistant Professor Saksit Saengboon, Ph.D.)

รินทร์ ชีพอรณีย์ : การพัฒนากิจกรรมการเรียนรู้แบบการเล่นเป็นฐานเพื่อเสริมสร้างทักษะการสื่อสารด้วยวาจาของผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศระดับประถมศึกษา (THE DEVELOPMENT OF PLAY-BASED LANGUAGE LEARNING ACTIVITIES TO ENHANCE ORAL LANGUAGE SKILLS OF YOUNG EFL LEARNERS) อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก: รศ. ดร. ปัญชลี วาสนสมสิทธิ์, 297 หน้า.

การเล่นเป็นกิจกรรมสนับสนุนพัฒนาการในทุกๆด้านของผู้เรียนวัยเยาว์โดยเฉพาะพัฒนาการทางภาษา งานวิจัยนี้มีจุดมุ่งหมายในการศึกษาการพัฒนารูปแบบกิจกรรมการเรียนรู้ภาษาแบบเล่นเป็นฐาน กลุ่มตัวอย่างเป็นนักเรียนระดับประถมศึกษาชั้นปีที่ ๓ จำนวน ๑๒ คนที่ศึกษาอยู่ในโรงเรียนสาธิตแห่งหนึ่งในจังหวัดนครปฐม การเก็บข้อมูลเชิงปริมาณได้มาจาก แบบวัดสมรรถนะทางการสื่อสารด้วยวาจา ก่อนและหลังเรียน นอกจากนี้ยังใช้เอกสารที่ใช้ตรวจสอบสมรรถนะทางการสื่อสารด้วยวาจาในระหว่างเรียน การเก็บข้อมูลเชิงคุณภาพได้มาจากการสังเกต โดยการบันทึกวีดิทัศน์ที่แสดงให้เห็นถึงข้อมูลการใช้ภาษาของผู้เรียน การสนทนา และพฤติกรรมการเรียนและการเล่น ซึ่งข้อมูลจากวีดิทัศน์ประมาณ ๒๐๐ แฟ้ม ได้ถูกนำมาถอดเทปและวิเคราะห์โดยใช้การวิเคราะห์เนื้อหาในการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลเชิงคุณภาพ นอกจากนี้ยังมีการสำรวจความคิดเห็นที่มีต่อการเรียนรู้ภาษาแบบเล่นเป็นฐาน โดยใช้แบบสอบถามถึงโครงสร้าง

ผลสัมฤทธิ์จากแบบวัดแสดงให้เห็นว่าผู้เรียนได้คะแนนสมรรถนะทางการสื่อสารด้วยวาจาสูงขึ้นอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติ ($p < 0.05$) ซึ่งเป็นไปในทางเดียวกับผลสัมฤทธิ์จากเอกสารที่ใช้ตรวจสอบสมรรถนะทางการสื่อสารด้วยวาจาที่แสดงให้เห็นว่าผู้เรียนมีพัฒนาการในทักษะการรับรู้ความหมายมากกว่าทักษะการโต้ตอบระหว่างบุคคลและทักษะการนำเสนอ ผลลัพธ์ด้านอารมณ์และผลลัพธ์ด้านการเรียนรู้แสดงให้เห็นข้อมูลเชิงลึกในการใช้ภาษาซึ่งหมายถึงข้อมูลด้านกลยุทธ์การใช้ภาษาที่สอง นอกจากนี้ผลลัพธ์จากการสัมภาษณ์ได้สะท้อนความคิดเห็นของผู้เรียนที่มีต่อการเรียนรู้ภาษาแบบเล่นเป็นฐาน จากผลการวิจัยสามารถสรุปได้ว่ากิจกรรมการเรียนรู้ภาษาแบบเล่นเป็นฐานมีประสิทธิภาพในการพัฒนาทักษะการสื่อสารด้วยวาจาและทักษะอารมณ์และสังคมของผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศระดับประถมศึกษา

สาขาวิชา ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ ลายมือชื่อนิติ

ปีการศึกษา 2559

ลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาหลัก

5387806620 : MAJOR ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE

KEYWORDS: PLAY-BASED LANGUAGE LEARNING, YOUNG EFL LEARNERS, ORAL LANGUAGE SKILLS, CHILDREN'S PLAY

RIN CHEEP-ARANAI: THE DEVELOPMENT OF PLAY-BASED LANGUAGE LEARNING ACTIVITIES TO ENHANCE ORAL LANGUAGE SKILLS OF YOUNG EFL LEARNERS. ADVISOR: ASSOC. PROF. PUNCHALEE WASANASOMSITHI, Ph.D., 297 pp.

Play is considered a mediation of young learners' developmental areas, language development in particular. This research aimed at investigating the development of the instructional design of Play-based Language Learning (PLL). The participants were 12 third-graders who were studying at a demonstration school in Nakornpathom province. The quantitative data were collected from pre- and post-tests given before and after the implementation, respectively. Also, three oral language performance checklists were completed during the implementation. The qualitative data were obtained by video recordings to acquire data on the participants' language use, conversation, and behaviors. Nearly 200 video files were transcribed and analyzed using content analysis. The semi-structured interviews were also conducted to elicit the participants' opinions toward PLL activities included in the course.

The key findings showed that post-test scores for oral language performance increased with statistical significance ($p < 0.05$). The parallel findings from oral language performance checklists confirmed that the participants improved more highly on the interpretive mode of communication than the interpersonal and presentational modes. The findings from oral records shed more light on in-depth information on language use of the participants. Thus, affective outcomes as well as the learning outcomes in terms of L2 learner strategies were revealed. In addition, the interviews' results reflected opinions of young participants toward play-based language learning. Thus, it could be concluded that the PLL activities were effectively implemented to enhance oral language skills as well as social-affective skills of young EFL learners.

Field of Study: English as an International Language Student's Signature

Language Advisor's Signature

Academic Year: 2016

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study has engaged with a great number of stakeholders whom I would like to express my gratitude, special appreciation, and thanks. First and foremost, I gratefully acknowledge my adviser, Associate Professor Dr. Punchalee Wasanasomsithi, who believes in me for my hard work and effort. It has been an honor to work with an experienced and professional mentor like her who is extremely kind and supportive in my academic and personal growth. I am sincerely thankful for all her contributions of unlimited time, efforts, and immense knowledge to make my doctoral degree experience special and productive.

I would like to give special thanks to my committee members: Associate Professor Dr. Supanee Chinnawongs, Assistant Professor Dr. Apasara Chinwonno, Dr. Pattamasiri teeranurak Jaruchainiwat, and Assistant Professor Dr. Saksit Saengboon for their insights and comments that have widened my perspectives and deepened my understanding. Heartfelt thanks goes to Professor Dr. MaryAnn Christison, Professor Dr. Hayo Reinders, Professor Thom Huebner, Dr. Jutarat Vibulphol, Dr. Samuel Grubbs, and Mark Brady for their valuable discussions, suggestions, willingness to support, and devoting time despite their busy schedules. Also, they have helped shape, guide, and strengthen my dissertation to be beneficial to the field.

A very special thanks to Office of the Higher Education Commission, Silpakorn University, and Thailand-United States Educational Foundation through the Fulbright program for their financial support and opportunities to extend my knowledge and contribution inside and outside Thailand contexts.

I would like to thank all my EIL and SU friends for their friendship, understanding, and physical and mental support when I confront any hardship. I am thankful to Kanchit Rerkthatsanachai, Dr. Wanwisa Boonmak, Raveewan Viengsang, and the team of my beloved volunteer students who barely said no when I was in need of a helping hand, who believed in their teacher, and who enjoyed playing and learning together in the PLL classes. I am thankful to the cute and active young participants in the study who shared smiles and shed more light on education for young learners and to their parents for their cooperation and continuous support.

Last but not least, my work is wholeheartedly dedicated to my family who absolutely believe in me and never take my contribution in educational ideals lightly. My effort and the benefits of my work devote to their unconditional support and love I have been indebted throughout my life. I am also thankful to Rick Liu and his family for their love and kindness.

CONTENTS

	Page
THAI ABSTRACT	iv
ENGLISH ABSTRACT.....	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
CONTENTS.....	vii
LIST OF TABLES	1
LIST OF FIGURES	1
CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.2 Objectives of the Study.....	9
1.3 Research Questions.....	9
1.4 Scope of the Study	9
1.5 Definition of Terms	10
1.5.1 Play-based language learning (PLL) activities.....	10
1.5.2 Oral language skills	11
1.5.3 Young EFL learners	12
1.5.4 Learning outcomes	12
1.5.5 Affective outcomes.....	13
1.6 Significance of the Study.....	13
CHAPTER II LITERATURE REVIEW	16
2.1 Sociocultural Theory of Learning.....	16
2.1.1 Sociocultural theory and play.....	20
2.1.2 Piaget’s cognitive development theory	29
2.2 Children’s Play	31
2.2.1 Definition of play	32
2.2.1.1 General characteristics of play	33
2.2.1.2 Play taxonomy	37
2.2.2 Benefits of play	52
2.2.2.1 Physical development.....	53

	Page
2.2.2.2 Cognitive development.....	53
2.2.2.3 Social-affective development	56
2.2.2.4 Integrated child developmental areas	57
2.2.2.5 Language development.....	59
2.3 Oral Language Skills	62
2.3.1 Definition.....	63
2.3.1.1 Construct	63
2.3.1.2 Operationalizing concepts	66
2.3.2 Benefits of oral language.....	70
2.3.2.1 Cognitive development.....	71
2.3.2.2 Social-affective development	73
2.3.3 Oral second language development of young learners.....	73
2.3.3.1 Jim Cummins’s cultural diversity context.....	74
2.3.3.2 Michael Halliday’s functions of language.....	79
2.3.3.3 Michael Tomasello’s usage-based theory	82
2.4 Play and Oral Language Skill Development	87
2.4.1 PLL activities for oral language skills.....	87
2.4.1.1 Young learner’s characteristics and learning conditions.....	87
2.4.1.2 The integration of PLL and oral language principles.....	89
2.4.2 Oral language assessment of young learners.....	90
2.4.2.1 Language assessment of young learners	91
2.4.2.2 Oral language assessment of young learners.....	94
2.4.2.3 Oral language assessment for PLL.....	100
2.5 Related Research	108
CHAPTER III RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	123
3.1 Research Design and Approach.....	123
3.2 Population and Participants	123
3.3 Research Instruments.....	124
3.3.1 PLL pre- and post-tests.....	124

	Page
3.3.2 Oral language performance checklists	126
3.3.3 Observations	127
3.3.4 Semi-structured interviews	127
3.4 The Development of PLL Activities for Oral Language Skills	128
3.4.1 Organizing principle	128
3.4.1.1 Context	129
3.4.1.2 Goals and objectives	135
3.4.1.3 Contents	137
3.4.1.4 Materials	147
3.4.1.5 Course evaluation	149
3.5 Data Collection and Data Analysis	151
3.5.1 Before the implementation of PLL activities	151
3.5.2 During the implementation of PLL activities	151
3.5.3 After the implementation of PLL activities	154
CHAPTER IV RESULTS	157
4.1 Key Features of PLL	157
4.1.1 Language focus	157
4.1.2 Play contexts	158
4.1.3 Play materials	158
4.1.4 Playmates	160
4.1.5 Playfulness	160
4.2 PLL Activities and Oral Language Skill Development of Young EFL Learners	162
4.2.1 PLL pre- and post-test scores on oral language skills	163
4.2.2 Scores of the oral language performance checklists	165
4.2.3 Oral records from observations	168
4.2.3.1 Interpretive mode of communication	172
4.2.3.2 Interpersonal mode of communication	185
4.2.3.3 Presentational mode of communication	196

	Page
4.3 Opinions of Young EFL Learners toward PLL Activities.....	199
4.3.1 Semi-structured interviews.....	199
4.3.1.1 Play characteristics.....	200
4.3.1.2 Playmates.....	204
4.3.1.3 Play materials.....	205
4.3.1.4 Language in PLL activities.....	206
4.4 Summary of the Findings.....	212
4.4.1 Oral language skill development.....	212
4.4.2 Opinions toward the course using PLL activities.....	213
CHAPTER V DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	214
5.1 Summary of the Study	214
5.2 Discussion.....	216
5.2.1 Modes of communication.....	216
5.2.2 Learning outcomes	219
5.2.3 Affective outcomes.....	230
5.2.4 The participants' opinions toward PLL activities	233
5.3 Implications	239
5.3.1 Implications of PLL features and language skills	239
5.3.1.1 Language focus.....	239
5.3.1.2 Play contexts.....	241
5.3.1.3 Play materials	244
5.3.1.4 Playmates.....	244
5.3.1.5 Playfulness.....	246
5.3.2 Implications of classroom management.....	247
5.3.3 Implications of lesson planning for elementary level	247
5.4 Conclusion	248
5.5 Limitations.....	249
5.6 Recommendations for Further Research	249
REFERENCES	251

	Page
APPENDICES	259
Appendix A: Lesson plan—Chapter 1: Face and Body, Theme 5: A super doctor	260
Appendix B: Lesson plan—Chapter 2: Family and Friend, Theme 10: A sporting family (review)	263
Appendix C: Lesson plan—Chapter 3: Festivals, Theme 14: New Year	267
Appendix D: PLL pre- and post-tests	271
Appendix E: Oral language performance checklist—Unit 1, Theme 5	276
Appendix F: Oral language performance checklist—Unit 2, Theme 10	279
Appendix G: Oral language performance checklist—Unit 3, Theme 15	282
Appendix H: The PLL oral language score and mean score range descriptors	284
Appendix I: Examples of materials development for PLL course	285
Appendix J: Examples of the lesson plans overview	288
Appendix K: An interpretation of PLL pre- and post-test mean scores	289
Appendix L: Comparison of the mean scores of the oral language performance checklists	289
Appendix M: An interpretation of oral language performance checklists' mean scores	290
Appendix N: Frequency of learning and positive affective outcomes categorized by three units and 15 themes	291
Appendix O: Basic symbols for the participants' dialogues transcription	292
Appendix P: Child reporting of attendance and participation	293
Appendix Q: Semi-structured interview after Unit 1, Theme 5	294
Appendix R: List of experts validating instruments	295
Appendix S: List of volunteer teachers, teacher assistants, illustrators, and camera operators	296
VITA	297

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Caillois's classification of games	42
Table 2. Types of play organized by NCCA (2009).....	49
Table 3. Play taxonomy and sample activities.....	51
Table 4. Examples of oral language's operational skills/behaviors.....	68
Table 5. The learning areas of foreign languages for grade 3 levels by Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008).....	69
Table 6. Sample activities following Cummins's framework	77
Table 7. Halliday's functions of children's language (1973, 1975)	81
Table 8. The comparison between standard of foreign language skills and IPA.....	102
Table 9. Descriptions of the three modes of communication and assessment task type	106
Table 10. The comparison between Basic Education Core Curriculum and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages.....	136
Table 11. Operationalizing concept of learning objectives to enhance oral language skills for PLL course	137
Table 12. Phases of the research procedure	150
Table 13. Learning outcomes and affective outcomes.....	153
Table 14. The representations of affective outcomes	154
Table 15. An overview of the research methodology	156
Table 16. The actualizing concept of PLL features and their interpretation into the operationalized PLL activities.....	162
Table 17. A comparison of mean scores of three modes of communication.....	164
Table 18. A comparison of mean scores of the three modes of communication of the oral language performance checklists	167
Table 19. Frequency count of oral language learning outcomes and affective outcomes.....	169
Table 20. Frequency of learning outcomes and affective outcomes as categorized by modes of communication	171

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Cummins’s framework of contextual support and cognitive involvement. .75	
Figure 2. A summary of language constructing from children to adult language.86	
Figure 3. ACTFL—Integrated performance assessment with three modes of communication. 101	
Figure 4. A theoretical framework of oral language ability..... 105	
Figure 5. The conceptual framework of the Play-based Language Learning (PLL) for young EFL learners to enhance oral language skills. 121	
Figure 6. The conceptual framework of PLL activities. 122	
Figure 7. A comparison of the mean scores of the PLL pre- and post-tests. 163	
Figure 8. A comparison of mean scores of the PLL pre- and post-tests by test items. 164	
Figure 9. A comparison of mean scores of the test items among three oral language performance checklists at the end of three units. 166	

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Children's play has been viewed as one interesting activity as it has important characteristics of young learners' natural learning and denotes potential to develop English oral language skills among them. Play is considered a way children naturally learn with pleasure with any of their own choices and in their own time. Children are always motivated when it comes to play. Generally, children can play with or without objects by themselves or with others. When being engaged in play, children are implicitly developing all areas of child development including language skills. Vygotsky (1933, p. 548, as cited in Huang & Plass, 2009) remarks the way children learn a language while playing, stating "play is converted to internal processes at school age, going over to internal speech, logical memory, and abstract thought." Chuemchit (2009) points out that play and pretend performance benefit all child developmental areas. In language development in particular, new vocabulary is increasingly learned through pretend performance. Wisalutanan (2002) has explored private speech grounded on Vygotsky's sociocultural theory and found five patterns of private speech Thai children produced during free play activities. Those patterns were developed and displayed during the interpersonal and intrapersonal processes. In other words, children interacted with people they were familiar with like parents, teachers, and peers. Then, they realized and transformed those experiences into their inner process before finally producing their own speech.

Play is also characterized by a low affective filter that is another important factor for young learners to learn and produce a second language (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). It builds children's confidence while playing and increases their target language dialogues. Boonsue (2007) has studied free play and relationships with adults to help children transcend their actual development levels. Her study has shown the important roles of teachers who can introduce children to a wide variety of play types and balance their roles between facilitating children by playing with them and distancing themselves to promote children's individual learning when they learn to socialize, be independent, and be confident. To promote child development, Medwell, Wray, Minns, Griffiths, and Coates (2012) suggest activities that enrich talk and are meaningful for children including rhymes, sensory play, imaginative play, drama technique, storytelling, and use of puppets. Likewise, Roskos, Tabors, and Lenhart (2009) mention several effective instructional techniques that can enhance children's oral language learning such as group activities, block play, dialoguing about books, songs, rhymes, and pretend play.

When it comes to oral English language development, the English language plays a crucial role as a global language that connects people and builds up mutual understanding. The establishment of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) in 2015 appeared to be a major driving force behind the promotion of oral English language among ASEAN people. One practice that is set to be achieved in the educational plans is "Developing ASEAN Youths" (Ministry of Education, 2010). It sends a message to all countries in the region to give values to the young generations as well as to the use of oral English language. A lot of supports to this practice are derived from establishment of such projects as Ten Accomplished Youth Organizations in ASEAN (TAYO ASEAN), ASEAN Youth Day Award, and an ASEAN Youth Fund,

which intend to promote knowledge, skills, ideas, innovative creations, and quality of life in education among youths of ASEAN member countries. Thailand, as part of the ASEAN, needs to respond to this major reform by developing its young children's English language proficiency, particularly mastery of the oral language.

Besides its major role as a global language, English in Thailand is crucial for individuals in the aspects of education, work, and other areas of child development. A child who gains a high score on English tests may receive a scholarship or a pass to study in a renowned school. The intermediate to advanced levels of English may give an adult a raise or a promotion in the workplace. These are some advantages of English that can signify the differences in someone's life.

Oral language must be focused as it benefits the development of other language skills of a child. Oral language is naturally developed and initially learned before written language. Most scholars agree that listening and speaking skills play an important role as a fundamental resource for reading and writing skill development (Corson, 1988; Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Medwell et al., 2012; Roskos et al., 2009; M. K. Smith, 2001; Yule, 2006). A child who is fluent in oral language commonly found in an everyday conversation at home tends to be advanced in his academic written language in school (Cummins, 1980, as cited in Krashen, 1982). By the same token, children may have a hard time learning written language if they are inadequately exposed to oral language. Cummins (1979, as cited in Chin & Wigglesworth, 2007) points out that Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) within family is developed first and should be supported to be a solid foundation for the success of children's Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) necessary to function in school.

Another reason that oral language should be emphasized is that it brings about other developmental areas of children while they are advancing to an adult's language. Oral language is one important means with which children represent their abstract thoughts. They use the language to shape their ideas and opinions, interact with others, and express their feelings (P. G. Smith, 2001). Vygotsky (1978) proposes the sociocultural theory which posits that children use the language from the knowledge within their surrounded society and culture they are engaged with. Then the external realities are transformed to their internal understanding. This theory illustrates that oral language not only makes adults visualize a preliterate child's linguistic repertoires but also presents his/her identity as a whole person. Roskos et al. (2009) point out that there are five areas of oral language children should develop including semantics, syntax, morphology, phonology, and pragmatics. From school age to puberty around ten to 16 years of ages, children are believed to be able to effectively acquire native-like L2 proficiency (Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Yule, 2006, p. 164). Based on such a belief, mastery of oral language proficiency should be promoted at a young age to ensure children's maximum development and growth.

Although the significance of oral English language is recognized, Thai people still have problems orally communicating in English (Nuktong, 2010). One main reason is that oral English has rarely been emphasized in the Thai educational system which emphasizes reading and writing skill development, probably due to the sake of administration of standardized exams at all levels. Corson (1988) also identifies a similar problem in some native speaking countries that oral language is not given attention to in primary education. In Thailand, English is barely or never used as a medium of instructions in school. To be more specific, Panthumasen (2007) points out

two main problems—quality of teachers and teachers’ little use of the target language (TL) in the classroom—that affect Thai students’ English oral language achievement. Besides little use of English, instruction tends to be teacher-centered, hence teaching having more talking time than students, resulting in less opportunity for students to practice communication in the classroom (Stinson, 2004, as cited in Nuktong, 2010). For another reason, oral English is not often assessed when measuring students’ proficiency, partly due to the fact that oral examinations are more problematic and demanding to administer compared to written ones. According to Thailand’s Basic Education Core Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2008), foreign language skills for young learners should be stressed on oral communication, but, in reality, classroom instruction and language assessment are not in compliance with this policy. That is to say, English listening and speaking skills are rarely used in classroom instruction or in examinations. On the other hand, written language is always operated on in both teaching and written exams to assess students’ language proficiency. Thus, some students may get good grades from English courses but still cannot converse fluently or effectively in English with both native and non-native speakers of the language. A lack of an emphasis on oral language in both instruction and assessment becomes one of the main problems leading to the failure of English language education among Thai students (Panthumasen, 2007).

Furthermore, another problem that can hinder students’ success in English language development is a lack of motivation. Yule (2006) observes that the reason why some students are not successful in academic language in the school domain is not the limitation in fluency in oral language but simply an affective factor. Negative affective factors such as “dull textbooks, unpleasant classroom surrounding, exhausting

schedules, and feelings of stressed or uncomfortable” (p. 164) are observed to be major barriers for language acquisition of a child. Lightbown and Spada (2013) stress the significance of motivation in the classroom of second language learners, contending that it both content and the learning environment should be taken into consideration to ensure motivation of young learners. The content should be interesting and meaningful for their age and ability, while the learning environment should be supportive, fun, and challenging for the children. Yet, in the Thai context, students are learning to the books and to the tests. The English subject is seen as a compulsory subject they need to study, regardless of their personal preferences. The traditional teacher-centered environment can bore and demotivate children because they neither have freedom to choose what they are interested in nor understand the purpose of their learning situations. To explain, Panthumasen (2007) concludes five main causes of Thai students’ low language proficiency: 1) subject matters are boring and unfamiliar, 2) teaching methods are uninviting, not fun, and focusing on written language rather than oral language, 3) the learning environment is not supportive for everyday conversation, 4) learning materials are neither adequate nor appropriate for student’s interests or their autonomous learning, and 5) technological support is still limited, especially in schools in rural areas. These five causes can be compared to what Lightbown and Spada (2013) regard as motivation in terms of content and learning environment. As the undesirable impacts of negative affective factors are accepted, it is vital that young learners have the opportunity to receive support that promotes their affective factors in their English language classrooms.

To teach a foreign language to Thai students, teachers are urged to understand the main characteristics of their learners. In general, Thai students tend to be shy when

they have to speak the English language. They may see it as a language with which they are not familiar (Panthumasen, 2007). Some of the students who do not understand the purposes or importance of learning English may just refuse to learn or use the language. With the promotion of new methods of teaching English, teachers can apply different communicative language teaching (CLT) approaches to promote meaningful communication tasks to make English learning more meaningful and motivating to the students. J. C. Richards and Rodgers (2001) posit that effective task activities and achievement can improve learners' motivation and therefore promote their learning. Thus, it is a challenging job for teachers to develop meaningful and motivating English lessons for young learners, while at the same time being a good role model of English user to them. In doing so, firstly, it is important for teachers to model a clear speaking voice to their students (Lightbown & Spada, 2013) and engage them with rich talk and compelling themes (Roskos et al., 2009). Secondly, teachers also need to develop motivating and meaningful lessons, activities, and teaching procedures. More use of authentic materials and more use of the target language with learners in the classroom is suggested. Day and Bamford (1998) remark that the real language should be used for real purposes similar to the language used by native speakers. Meaningful activities applying the target language are seen to be essential practices to create more authentic classroom discourse.

Another important role of English language teachers to bolster Thai learners' English language skills and confidence is to maximize their potential by taking values of oral language skills, motivation, and learner-centeredness into account. Corson (1988) emphasizes that beginning teachers must take oral language into a serious consideration in their instructions. Thus, teachers should adjust their mindset and

advocate oral language development for young learners and teach it before written language skills. According to the renowned and effective Foreign Language in the Elementary School (FLES) programs in the English native speaking countries such as the United States of America, learners are instructed following the natural sequences of language learning from spoken to written language skills (Lipton, 1994). Thus, teachers are encouraged to follow young learners' natural sequence of language acquisition when attempting to enhance their oral language skill development.

In this study, play activities in various themes are expected to mediate children's English oral language development through their natural processes of learning a language for meaning making. Play-based Language Learning (PLL) activities are planned and developed to focus on enhancing young learners' oral language skills. The developed PLL activities exemplify one alternative classroom practice that corresponds mainly to learner-centeredness and motivation in order to improve oral language learning, pedagogy, and assessment applied for young learners.

As it is believed that children's play is a natural phenomenon that can be successfully utilized in language classrooms to benefit language development of young learners, and as PLL activities have never been used to promote language skills of Thai young EFL learners, it was anticipated that the present study would shed light on ways to make use of PLL activities for young Thai EFL learners by identifying PLL features and investigating how PLL activities influence oral language skill development and opinions of young Thai EFL learners, hence offering a promising alternative to assist these learners who are striving to acquire mastery of oral English skills.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this research were as follows:

1. To identify the key features of Play-based Language Learning (PLL)
2. To investigate how Play-based Language Learning (PLL) activities influence oral language skills of young EFL learners
3. To explore the opinions of young EFL learners toward Play-based Language Learning (PLL) activities

1.3 Research Questions

The research questions of this study were the following:

1. What are the key features of Play-based Language Learning (PLL)?
2. How do Play-based Language Learning (PLL) activities influence oral language skills of young EFL learners?
3. What are the opinions of young EFL learners toward Play-based Language Learning (PLL) activities?

1.4 Scope of the Study

The present study was carried out using a mixed-method research design. It aimed at investigating the use of PLL activities to develop oral language skills of young EFL learners. The study sample consisted of 12 young EFL learners studying in the third grade at the Demonstration School of Silpakorn University (Early Childhood & Elementary), Sanam Chandra Palace Campus, Nakornpathom province, Thailand. The independent variable was PLL activities, which were implemented in a total of 45 after-school sessions, lasting 45 hours within 15 weeks/themes. The dependent variables

were oral language skills of young EFL learners and their opinions toward the lessons. Quantitative data collection was conducted using the PLL pre- and post-tests and the oral language performance checklists, while qualitative data were collected by means of classroom observations to obtain oral records and semi-structured interviews. Quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and the dependent samples *t*-test, whereas qualitative data were analyzed by means of content analysis.

1.5 Definition of Terms

1.5.1 Play-based language learning (PLL) activities

Play-based Language Learning (PLL) activities refer to language learning activities that are designed based on the theories of children's play and oral language learning.

In general, Play-based Learning (PL) is defined as a kind of instruction that involves the use of children's play in a classroom to teach any subjects such as science, mathematics, language, etc. Even though children's play in general is defined as an activity (Lindon, 2002), it is characterized by fun, laughter, self-realization, self-expression, spontaneity, creative thinking, imagination, and exploration (Landreth, 2002; Lantolf, 2000; Smith & Pellegrini, 2008; Whitebread, 2003). In classrooms, the concept of Play-based Learning is developed based on play taxonomy which refers to types of play that engage players with play objects or play partners. Play taxonomy can be categorized differently such as by degree of social play (Parten, 1932), by age (Singer, 1994), by physical activities (Caillois, 1961), and by patterns of children's activities (National Council for Curriculum and Assessment, 2009; Smith & Pellegrini, 2008; Sutton-Smith, 2006). In this study, play taxonomy is divided into five types of

play including creative play, games with rules, language play, physical play, and pretend play.

Play-based Language Learning (PLL) refers to a kind of learning that includes the features of play and a specific goal of promoting language learning involving dialoguing situations with others and manipulation of objects within various choices in play activities, called Play-based Language Learning activities. In the present study, PLL activities were characterized by the contextual learning processes that integrated the concept of Play-based Learning with oral language teaching in the form of three learning stages—circle time, centers, and crystallization—so as to promote third-grade students' oral language skills classified into three modes of communication; that is, interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational, as well as learning and affective outcomes.

1.5.2 Oral language skills

Oral language skills refer to listening and speaking skills. Their functions and processes are viewed separately, yet inter-connectedly. Underhill (1987, as cited in Gottlieb, 2006) explains that speaking functions to convey meaning, whereas listening functions mainly as an interpreting tool. According to Raban (2001), speaking is a productive process for exchange of information, while listening refers to a receptive process to make sense and make meaning of the information. Similarly, both skills are developed from world knowledge and background experience of individuals. In this study, oral language skills are defined as listening and speaking skills of third grade students whose development occurred as a result of their participation in Play-based Language Learning (PLL) activities. In particular, oral language skills in this study

were divided into three modes of communication, namely the interpretive mode (interpreting what was heard or read), the interpersonal mode (interacting with others to exchange information and expressing feelings following the models heard), and the presentational mode (producing information and views on various matters).

1.5.3 Young EFL learners

Young EFL learners refer to learners who have begun learning English as a foreign language in elementary school. In terms of age, the range is before the age of puberty (Patkowski, 1980, as cited in Lightbown & Spada, 1993) or approximately between five to 12 years old (McKay, 2006). In the present study, the term “young EFL learners” referred to Thai third-graders whose ages were between eight and nine years old who were learning English as a foreign language at the Demonstration School of Silpakorn University (Early Childhood & Elementary), Sanam Chandra Palace campus, Nakhonpathom province, Thailand. They had been learning English in school for approximately two years, and their overall English proficiency was still at the beginning level.

1.5.4 Learning outcomes

Learning outcomes refer to statements of knowledge or skills that signify what learners have achieved after learning in a course or program (Lesch, n.d.). Learning outcomes in the present study were specifically defined as the ability to acquire and utilize three learning strategies, namely, metacognitive, cognitive, and socioaffective strategies (Brown, 2007), which were then sub-divided into ten sub-categories of 1) use of L1 translation, 2) use of L1 transfer, 3) peer-assisted instruction/MKO/scaffolding,

4) negotiation of meaning, 5) non-verbal cues/responses, 6) metacognition, 7) application to other contexts/themes/real-world, 8) unknown-word substitution, 9) interactional modification, and 10) Item-based construction, all of which were believed to reflect the students' oral language development after doing Play-based Language Learning (PLL) activities.

1.5.5 Affective outcomes

Affective outcomes refer to one of the three main domains of outcomes of learning—cognitive (thinking), affective (emotion/feeling), and psychomotor (physical/kinesthetic) (Wilson, 2016). Affective outcomes in particular refer to learners' feelings or emotional states that result from perceived success or failure that are caused by various affective factors such as individual attribution, beliefs, self-esteem, willingness to communicate, inhibition, anxiety, risk taking, empathy, extroversion, and motivation (Brown, 2007). Affective outcomes can be either positive or negative, but it is noteworthy that in this study positive affective outcomes that resulted from participation in Play-based Language Learning (PLL) activities were mainly investigated including enjoyment, spontaneity with use of target language (TL), absence from fear of failure, creativity, and enthusiastic participation.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The present study aimed to investigate the effects of Play-based Language Learning (PLL) activities to promote oral language skills of young EFL learners. As there has been no study that was previously undertaken with the same purpose and context, the findings of the present study could shed light on how PLL activities could be implemented to promote oral language skill development of young EFL learners.

First, theoretically, it was anticipated that this study would more clearly portray the key features of PLL activities including language focus, play contexts, play materials, playmates, and playfulness, as well as the main learning stages of circle time, centers, and crystallization that could be utilized as an alternative teaching model to promote oral language skill development of young language learners in the classroom. Thus, the present study would pave the way for other researchers and language teachers who share the same interest to adopt and adapt the conceptual framework of PLL activities to expand and contribute to the existing body of knowledge on the use of PLL activities to enhance oral language skill development of young language learners.

Next, when it comes to pedagogical/practical significance, the findings of the present study could contribute to English language teaching in Thailand and other EFL contexts by offering a model of language teaching that not only enhances oral language skill development but also boosts motivation and positive opinions of young language learners. With the use of a learning model and activities that are considered better suit specific characteristics, needs, and preferences of young language learners in the EFL context, more fruitful language learning outcomes can be expected in a language classroom. This model would also benefit policy makers who would like to adopt and adapt not only the lesson plans that correspond to the national and international standards—Basic Education Core Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2008) and American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)—but also alternative assessment of young language learners' performances that are considered authentic assessment. Outside language classrooms, the PLL activities could be utilized by parents who may extend their young children' language learning with the use of play

that allows family members to enjoy doing activities while simultaneously learning and developing language skills at home.

Lastly, as regards significance of this study in terms of research, the findings would reveal the ways in which an experimental study could be undertaken in a classroom where PLL activities are employed to promote oral language ability of young EFL learners. The results were anticipated to confirm an existing body of knowledge that all areas of child development increase with age. Besides this, as most research studies of play are carried out in L1 and for children's other areas of development, not language development, this study would contribute to the research in the field of young learners' language learning, particularly the ways young learners learn a foreign language and develop their oral language skills. The present study would also provide empirical evidence on the extents to which PLL activities can assist young language learners who are striving to achieve mastery of the target language, with insights into relevant definitions, learning processes, and benefits for young language learners based on the PLL conceptual framework analyzed and synthesized in the present study. Therefore, it could be said that the data gathered in this study would facilitate a grounded understanding on implementation of play to promote oral language development among young EFL learners in school.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This study focused on children's play and the development of oral language skills. The main topics related to development of PLL activities to enhance oral language skills of elementary school students reviewed in this chapter are the following:

1. Sociocultural theory of learning
2. Children's play
3. Oral language skills
4. Play and oral language skill development
5. Related research

2.1 Sociocultural Theory of Learning

“Play is converted to internal processes at school age, going over to internal speech, logical memory, and abstract thought” (Vygotsky, L., 1933, p. 548, as cited in Huang & Plass, 2009) in the area of language development and play).

Lev Vygotsky (1978, 1986) is the first person to propose Sociocultural perspectives to argue with Piaget's notion that the external realities must be mediated to construct internal realization. Those external realities are tools of mind that are related to social interaction and culture. This section examines Sociocultural theory proposed by Vygotsky in terms of its key elements and the relationship to children's development in particular.

Vygotsky is interested in explaining human's inner cognitive processes not from the inner brain mechanism but rather from his/her social living, external conditions of one's social life, or sociocultural context (van Der Veer, 2007). In other words, the

particular available contexts determine ideas, understanding, beliefs, and abilities of a person. The contexts are denoted by environment that involves “the physical, socioeconomical, technological, and intellectual environments” (p. 21). When looking at one same thing, it may mean differently to different individuals or even to the same person at a different time depending on one’s environments. Thus, human’s behaviors and development can be explained by how each individual gives meanings that attach to something under the conditions of particular environments.

Cognitive development is determined by sociocultural learning perspective, Johnson (2009) proposes more extended studies of this notion by Vygotsky’s followers such as Cole (1996), Lantolf (2000, 2006a), and Wertsch (1991). The cognitive development has been proved that it is formed through the main engagement of social interaction, culture, context, and language. The terms symbolic or semiotic artifacts are used to refer those materials to physical tools that surround us. These tools create the relationship between human mind and cultural environment to shape higher-level thinking including voluntary attention, intentional memory, planning, logical thought and problem solving, learning, and evaluation of the effectiveness of these processes (Lantolf, 2000, p. 2). Vygotsky mainly emphasizes the fundamental roles of social factors and cultural interaction in the development of cognition.

Genetic domains are another important perspective that elucidates the levels of the relationship between social and cultural interaction (Vygotsky, 1978, as cited in Bodrova & Leong, 2007). Infants are born with genetic domains that they possess and inherit from their ancestors and which are to be developed to the more sophisticated abilities known as higher mental functions. The developmental process is carried out through various cultural environments children encounter (Lantolf, 2000). Thus,

children's learning and mental process development varies from culture to culture in different contexts.

Aforementioned key perspectives and processes of cognitive development have signified internalization of human's mind, which is transformed into an external mediation tool called "language." John-Steiner (2007) examined the relationship between *Thought and Language* that was a title of Vygotsky's book first published in 1962 and retitled in 1987 to be *Thinking and Speaking* (p. 136). Vygotsky views that thinking process is interwoven and moved dynamically with speech. Vygotsky starts with children who are during the prelinguistic stage use nonverbal communication to represent their thinking. In a particular age, they use language for different purposes or private speech leading to the transformation of language use to verbal thinking. The thinking process becomes internalization of communicative language, which, then is used as a representation of thoughts. Thus, the process shows that thinking is related to speech. The language use contains different meanings given by individuals' interpretation that is influenced by linguistic contexts, socialization, and cultural aspects. Thus, it is not surprising to see children living near the sea have no difficulty recognizing the kinds of fish that they have already integrated their names and different appearances into their memory and thinking processes, for example. External mediation in terms of fish naming task together with the assistance of the interactions with adults, peers, and others (social influences) transform internalization function, or inner speech, into self-regulation behaviors, while language and verbal utterances play an important role to regulate internal knowledge externally. That is to say, the internalization process is essential in learning, and external speech or interaction with people or things such as culture is the key feature to mediate the internalization process.

Vygotsky (1997, as cited in Hedegaard, 2007) remarks the relationship of socialization and culture as tools for the development of children's concept formation. Three main concept formations have been described—everyday concept, scientific concept, and dialectical concept. The first two concepts are more emphasized to be intertwined for children in the transition from preschool to school-age children. That is to say, children have built concept from their everyday content and structure of family and community through the experiential process with objects. The scientific concept has formed from school contexts related to the knowledge content through the consciously and intentionally learning processes of various subjects. Both concepts are tightly linked in a way that they dominate, influence, and enrich each other. Vygotsky gives importance of play to establish these two concepts. He views that interestingly children naturally develop and give meaning from the perception that is deviated from the real object and/or action that is attached to it. That perception is connected to ideas that have risen and are determined by rules. The key point is that those rules become a domain of how children develop spontaneity and freedom of their learning.

In the Thai context where Thai people use Thai first as the mother-tongue and second as national and official language, the purpose to use English is generally limited. Play activities play a vital role as a natural and meaningful context for children to learn the English language while playing. Moreover, children's motivation to use the target language rises when they realize that they can still play while using it. It is because play attracts their interests and holds their attention. In other words, play motivates children to use the English language and become active and enthusiastic learners.

2.1.1 Sociocultural theory and play

To translate Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (SCT) into play-based language learning for young learners for oral language development, it is imperative to consider Daniels' (2007) summarization of Vygotsky's three theoretical notions on learning and development. They are 1) general genetic law of cultural development, 2) Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), and 3) concept formation.

Firstly, general genetic law of cultural development is connected to social interaction and culture of a particular learner. Two forms are proposed as the social level (interpsychological) and the individual level (intrapyschological). This explains how humans interact with external realities like objects or persons and reconstruct their cognition to realize them internally in the form of perception, attention, memory, and thinking (Vygotsky, 1978, as cited in Bodrova & Leong, 2007).

Secondly, ZPD is known for a relationship between the actual developmental level and the potential developmental level. That is to say, the collaboration can assist learners to move from their independent performance toward the higher level or assisted performance. ZPD is incorporated with more knowledgeable other (MKO) and scaffolding. MKO refers to someone or anyone who has higher ability, more knowledge, or more experience in a particular field, task, process, or concept. MKO is normally thought of as teachers, coaches, or older adults. In fact, peers, younger people, or even games and computer programs that can have more knowledge than the learners are considered MKO as well. The gap between the existing knowledge of the children and the new knowledge from MKO that is achieved independently or with guidance and encouragement from someone else or semiotic artifacts is defined as the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Hence, social interaction is important, and it is

suggested that thinking and learning should be scaffolded from the known to the new to fit the children's current performance.

When discussing play, a phenomenon in the child's development, G. Cook (2000) cites the Vygotskian learning theory and variable competence models that "they are particularly compatible with the notion of play as a use of language in which form, meaning, and function are in dynamic and mutually determining interaction" (p. 175). This notion has provided the socially-constituted "scaffolding" activities. Play is seen to incorporate play activities and playmates that take the roles of external mediation and MKO. When playing, learners develop new behaviors from their existing knowledge and experience to create new knowledge and problem solutions (or ZPD).

Lastly, concept formation refers to two types of concepts—everyday concept or spontaneous concept, and scientific concept. These two concepts can be explained briefly as they are embedded rather than separated. The everyday concept is usually found in children's regular activities at home with their parents. Children are also engaged in the scientific concept, which involves more systematic instruction in the school domain. Both concepts must be connected in the development of children's learning as they can be familiarized by children in different contexts.

Many of Vygotsky's studies have been devoted to children's development, which has changed the notions and practices in teaching young learners among school educators. The three notions above were also elaborated on a particular conception of the PLL activities in aspects of themes, circle time, centers, and crystallization.

Themes

Themes are the first conception which has been explained in relation to content in different ways. The essential one is explained by Stoller and Grabe (1997). They mention theme as one of the six-Ts' approach to the umbrella of content-based instruction. Topics are determined around the thematic unit. However, they note earlier that content-based instruction and theme-based instruction are used interchangeably in the contexts of applied linguistics graduate programs and the educational spectrum, especially in the elementary school classrooms.

Theme has been originated to use in the primary classroom in the UK since 1960s. At that time, one teacher taught all subjects in one day, and content subjects were not separated, so students learned in an integrated way in a school day. A theme was selected by the teacher and activities were planned around that theme, which could be used in different ways for different subjects (Cameron, 2001). Theme has been defined by different scholars as a key approach to conduct a course. Stoller and Grabe (1997), for example, remark that “themes are the central ideas that organize major curricular units” (p. 83). Brinton (2001, p. 284) posits that “a theme or themes serve as the unifying principle of the course.” Thus, themes are implemented as a big umbrella of ideas of a unit or a course. Theme has now been common to use in the elementary level worldwide for primary foreign language classes as well as other subject area classes.

In elementary level, the thematic unit is highly recommended as it signifies great benefits for young learners, as compiled from different scholars as follows (Herr, 2013, p. xxvii; Pappas, Kiefer, & Levstik, 2006, p. 69; Roskos et al., 2009, p. 33):

- it represents a concept for children to investigate,
- it provides a central focus that lends itself to the integration of curriculum areas,
- it reflects patterns of thinking, goals, and concepts,
- it can simplify a complex job,
- it is common to bodies of knowledge,
- it provides a context for examining how meaning is made in context,
- it provides choices of how to pursue learning,
- it can be used across all subjects,
- it is used as a framework for a community of learners,
- it can be developed to cover diverse cultures,
- it provides supportive context for meaning making, and
- it creates links to different topics.

From the above benefits, two major advantages can be observed. One is that a theme represents a main concept for the students, making it easier for them to comprehend the whole idea and to pay attention to working around the theme. The other one is that theme can be extended. A number of ideas can be mapped around the same theme including other subject areas, or cultural topics. Besides this, themes can be a focus as well as the extension of students' knowledge and experiences. In this study, the theme plays a central role of the whole idea that can be extended by different topics.

According to Vygotsky's theoretical notions, theme is one of the key factors for students to attain concept formation. Themes should be relevant to students' daily lives, so they can establish concept formation from home to school contexts, which helps develop their conceptual competence and level of ZPD. Themes also display the

concept of concreteness to abstraction of thought in their mind, and that abstract realization can be represented with a language.

In this study, the theme of each week is the main concept for learning and instruction for three modes of communication and learning stages—circle time, centers, and crystallization—to be corresponded to. The researcher developed each theme to associate with all learning stages for the benefits of students' ease of comprehension of what the content was and how content and language skills and structures were connected. Thus, the participants should be able to link and reinforce knowledge and practice of each learning stage to the learning theme.

Circle time

Circle time is the conception that is implemented first at the beginning of the lesson in relation to the main theme. Circle time is a time during with the teacher and children gather together to reach mutual understanding of each day's session. Circle time is defined as “a group approach to learning moral values and social, emotional and behavioral skills” (Moyles, 2005, p. 44). For young learners, circle time is a collaborative working time for a set goal between the teacher and the group of learners. The activities in the circle time are suggested to be well-planned before implementing them as well as be flexible during the actual implementation. Moyles (2005) introduces five stages to engage students in an effective circle time: 1) meeting up, 2) warming up, 3) opening up, 4) cheering up, and 5) calming up.

In brief, meeting up is the warm-up in which students sit together and participate in activities with rituals. It should have pleasant and calm rather than too energetic activities to keep their emotion down. Warming up is the stage where all learners listen

to and practice verbal patterns. It is the key stage for oral language practices, which is known as a “round” (Moyles, 2005, p. 45). A formulaic speech is used as an open-ended pattern for each of the students to fill in their own ideas related to the theme/topic of the day’s lesson. As for shy students, they may have mediators such as soft toys to help them feel secure and confident. Some students may need to pass their turn if they do not feel ready. At this point, the teacher needs to be aware of students who may need help and take the role of a facilitator to assist children with language and positive feelings. Opening up is when circle time offers chances for students to discuss some activities they want to do, take responsibility, and make choices and decisions. Cheering up is the time to express praises or thankfulness between peer and peer as well as between teacher and student to boost their morale after the success of the circle group. Calming down is signaling the closing time that tones the students’ emotion down to a peaceful state. Moyles (2005) further points out that circle time should last approximately 10-20 minutes. The size should not be big, with six to 12 students being the proper numbers. In terms of adult intervention, at least one adult is recommended to aid some students during the circle time. The environment should be positive and involves ground rules that ensure everyone has the rights to speak or be silent and respect each other’s ideas.

Circle time should be implemented as a routine where students can gather to acquire the main points of the lessons. It is also the time that the teacher prompts students to learn the lesson and get familiar with a small number of authentic social situations. With these processes, the students learn interpersonal as well as intrapersonal skills. They learn the language, take turn with their peers to make meaning, and scaffold their knowledge with each other. The theme is applied in this circle time to establish

the concept formation as a whole idea, which can be extended to different ways of understanding, depending on students' different background knowledge and experiences.

Centers

Centers for children are comparable to office desks or working tables for adults. In some play-based curriculum, Centers are called play centers or play space (Canning, 2011; Roskos et al., 2009; Seach, 2007). Trawick-Smith (2012) remarks eight play centers that are commonly found in young students' classrooms: dramatic play center, block area, art center, music center, book center, writing center, manipulative center, and math/science/cognitive center, while Roskos et al. (2009) suggest five basic play areas to promote oral language including library, discovery, blocks, art, and dramatic play. Several scholars mention that effective centers can illustrate a lot of advantages for students to learn. This can only be achieved when centers include appropriate arrangement of the atmosphere, activities, and materials.

Basically, centers should be arranged to have a supportive atmosphere both for learning and for emotional security. Seach (2007) adds that centers should be set to provide feelings of warmth, pleasure, comfort, and joy in order to free learners' mind, cognition, imagination, and socialization. Trawick-Smith (2012) suggests the logical arrangement of centers to maximize students' cognitive development. For example, loud areas should be set apart from quiet areas, or a creative center that tends to be messy should be arranged near a sink or water area. As for the big space, it can be separated with any dividers like partitions or bookshelves to split up independent areas from group work areas. The settings are dependent on the size of the classroom and the

purposes of the learning outcomes. The center areas should provide opportunities for students to learn. Thus, the atmosphere mentioned earlier must be compatible with activities and materials for a lesson.

Activities and materials can vary in terms of textures, sizes, shapes, and their benefits to particular developmental areas of children. They must also invite various thoughts, actions, and sensory experiences (Seach, 2007). Prescott's (1987, 2008, as cited in Trawick-Smith, 2012, p. 250) research suggests "the optimal mix of various types of toys, games, and art media." The balance of materials is an important issue to create cognition and imagination for students such as complex-simple materials, or highly structured-minimally structured toy materials (Drew & Rankin, 2004; Pulaski, 1973, as cited in Singer, 1994). To promote language learning, Roskos et al. (2009) note that activities and materials must encourage a great amount of talk and language use such as shared activity that students can converse, practice speech patterns, share and explore ideas in their discussion. Rules are important to set ground regulations, which should be discussed and agreed by students, be posted in the class, and be referred to regularly for them to realize and follow.

Centers are the spontaneous situations in which students are free to choose what to play with. Thus, the center can reflect the personality of individuals in the culture of play activities. With the same theme, a task lets the participants work cooperatively. Teachers in each center play the roles of a player, a facilitator, and an assessor to support students to the higher level of their assisted performance. The play activities with adults and same-age peers scaffold students to learn new knowledge with others to form a concept together. In the center, the language tends to be used as a tool to establish

mutual understanding and enable students to accomplish the task assigned in the form of play activities.

Crystallization

Crystallization is a creative intervention at the closing stage after children have gone through circle time and centers. It is a repetitive process for children to learn a routine that aims for them to become familiar with many different skills such as presenting, reflecting on their own work, listening to others, and giving comments. Presentation is considered difficult especially in English for young learners yet important. เฉลี่ยวศรึ พึบูลชล และคณะ (2551) collected data from ten countries around the world to reveal a guideline to improve talented children and youths and concluded that to improve the aspect of aptitude and ability, presentation skills are considered a part of advanced skills for intelligence.

To integrate crystallization into Vygotsky's theory, children need to form the new concept of play from their regular hours of play outside of the classroom or at home using the Thai language into play in the classroom context using the English language. Classroom settings and PLL activities facilitate this new concept by giving children a chance to use hands-on experience, different objects, MKOs, and repetitive routines. Children then scaffold their knowledge and understanding before crystallization by interacting with others and objects, and during crystallization by listening to friends to comprehend and generate ideas as well as by speaking from and about their own experiences with external mediation. For young EFL learners, full form

of free presentation is not expected, yet answers from guided questions are rather preferred.

To conclude, Vygotsky's sociocultural theory focuses on children's cognition about their world and experience that is developed through individual internalization with the mediation of external practices of societies and cultures. Play is considered an external mediation to support learners' concept formation within oneself and those among others, and facilitate their zone of proximal development. Play features make them distinctive from other instructional approaches such as task-based learning. Play features include 1) a variety of play contexts that support, provide dialoguing situations, and reinforce children's learning, 2) play objects that are external mediations for children's talk, 3) playmates who facilitate their conversation and socialization, and 4) playfulness that differentiates objects and ideas from realities. As such, they enhance development of imagination and free children from fear of failure when there are errors or when they make mistakes during playing. Some tasks may include some features of play, but play features combine all elements that are important for young learners.

2.1.2 Piaget's cognitive development theory

One of Jean Piaget's famous theories is the cognitive development theory, which is based on the belief in human intelligence that is naturally and gradually acquired starting from birth. His work is mainly centered around children, investigating how they make sense of the world. Piaget (1952) states that "[i]ntelligence is an adaptation" (p. 2). Two key terms of the concept of 'adaptation' are assimilation and accommodation. Adaptation takes place when the organism is transformed by the

environment and when this variation results in an increase in the interchanges between the environment and itself which are favorable to its preservation” (Piaget, 1952, p. 5).

Assimilation is one way of adaptation when human structures or assimilates new data around him/her to his/her schemata to create intelligence. On the contrary, accommodation is an inverse process. Once the new knowledge does not fit with the schemata, human accommodates that new schema to fit the realities of external objects. Both assimilation and accommodation go together and cannot be separated from each other. Piaget (1952) concludes that “intellectual adaptation consists of putting an assimilatory mechanism and a complementary accommodation into progressive equilibrium” (p. 7). In other words, new data are firstly assimilated to schemata. Then, new knowledge is accommodated if it is not compatible to the existing knowledge or schemata. For example, Angie is a girl who looks at a picture of herself in her younger age. She assimilates data from her father that the girl in the picture is her. Once it does not fit with her schemata because she does not recognize that little girl, she accommodates or adjusts her schemata to fit the picture that it is her in the past. It is not that there are two of her selves in the same time at present (Bhattacharya & Han, 2001).

Piaget (1962, p. 87, as cited in Huang & Plass, 2009) addresses play’s contribution to children’s intellectual and cognitive development that “[i]n every act of intelligence is an equilibrium between assimilation and accommodation, while imitation is a continuation of accommodation for its own sake, it may be said conversely that play is essential assimilation, or the primacy of assimilation over accommodation.” As such, human cognition or intelligence occurs from adaptation that is formed from two main concepts—assimilation and accommodation. The former is a link to the existing knowledge and the latter complements the former.

To conclude, play activities bring about new data or knowledge and skills for children who manipulate external realities. Therefore, children can adapt and structure their schemata to create intelligence.

2.2 Children's Play

Children's play is obviously important for young learners both as a crucial work and as a vital tool for children's development. It, thus, could be integrated into their learning in content subjects in a school setting. The national policy in the Basic Education Core Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2008) is set as the standard for primary and secondary education. In the foreign language section, one of the four main strands gives significance to language for communication. To learn English in a language classroom, motivation and learner-centeredness are viewed as crucial features for young learners. There are many approaches to enhance those features. Children's play has been explored for more than half a century as a natural way to enhance learning with pleasure. With respect to second language acquisition, the Natural Approach (Krashen & Terrell, 1983) proposes the *Affective Filter Hypothesis* as one of the key elements to successful second language learning. A low affective filter is said to promote positive attitudes toward learning a language and to lead to higher language proficiency. One way to lower children's affective filter is through play because its characteristics enhance their positive affection such as enjoyment and freedom from a tie to correctness. In addition, when playing, learners are able to learn how to socialize and develop interpersonal skills through cooperative learning (J. C. Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Through play, learners learn how to work individually and in collaboration with other classmates. It is believed that interaction generated by play

activates their schemata, experience, and learning strategies, and scaffolds what is already known and what is new (Vygotsky, 1933).

In sum, children's play benefits young learners' developmental areas. It allows children to be the first experiencers who employ language as a tool to transform the internalized process of thoughts to children's oral language in their talks with the mediation of play materials and people. More importantly, play entails plausible feelings that are key factors of successful learning.

2.2.1 Definition of play

The notion of "play" as children's serious work has been proposed by many scholars who believe children learn and grow through play. When children play, it is not the heedless period of time they just intend to use up pointlessly (McMahon, 1992). Instead, it can be a precious time for their learning, exploration, use of physical movement, activation of their intellect, and practice of social as well as language skills.

Though this study mainly focused on the area of language development, the concept of children's play in general is still worth being explored to understand what children's play is, what aspects of children's development occur through play, and how those can be applied to practices in language classrooms.

While "play" seems to have a straightforward meaning for everyone, in a way it is not easy to define. As Sutton-Smith (1997, p.1 cited in Rieber, 2001) notes, "[w]e all play occasionally, and we all know what playing feels like. But when it comes to making theoretical statements about what play is, we fall into silliness. There is little agreement among us, and much ambiguity." Similarly, Rice (2009) states that it is difficult to define play because of its transitory, contradictory, and context dependence

quality. Several definitions of play and its characteristics have been proposed by many psychologists, therapists, and educators. Each characteristic of play in this study is separately elaborated on in the following section.

2.2.1.1 General characteristics of play

Mental and physical interaction activity

Initially introduced by Schiller (1759-1805) in his *Letters on Aesthetic Education* cited in (Sawyer, 2006), the notion of play is defined as a mental and physical activity. It elucidates how children interact with objects and people that draw on individual development. Physically, children explore, experience, order, and build objects. Mentally, children feel, think, learn, and make believe. Vygotsky (1967, cited in Bodrova & Leong, 2007) states that play involves children's physical and mental interaction with either objects or humans they play with. While children are working around the objects, they start to figure out solutions to problems as well as interpret symbols. Exploration and first-hand experience are key features of physical play, which is a means to encourage children to explore and later discover their abilities. Novack (1960) citing Dewey (1916) emphasizes the child's right to an education whose curriculum is based on child-centered and hands-on experiential learning. In the same way, Harding (2005) notes that play involves first-hand experience of the natural world. Piaget first identified developmental stages of play in 1927 (Cusson, 2001) to include four stages of physical and mental activities—the sensorimotor stage (birth to approximately two years old), preoperational stage (2-7 years old), concrete operational stage (7-11 years old), and formal operation stage (12 years old and over). In the first stage, children physically play with objects and deal with repetition. Then, they

gradually socialize with peers or adults for group acceptance. Play later becomes more complex engaging with rules and problem solving (Jrank, 2010).

Meaningful context

Play is characterized by a meaningful context, which involves children's perception. It is determined by each individual child's experiences and the degree to which they have been allowed the freedom of expression. Meaningful context includes both the conception of reality (Ramsden, 1992, p. 110 cited in Rice, 2009) and how to divorce from it (Jrank, 2010). In play, the conception of the real world is perceived and interpreted in response to children's schemata in order to construct and reflect new knowledge (Rice, 2009). Socio-dramatic play is sometimes used for signaling how children simulate the real world in their mind. Yet the exception from ordinary reality tends to be more essential and emphasized as the key extent of play. Pretend play is the term that can depict children's imagination as their meaningful context. Verenikina, Harris, and Lysaght (2003) cited Leontiev (1981) and Nikolopolou (1993) who emphasized that pretend is one of the key dimensions of children's play, which includes "as if" or imaginary situations (p. 100). Vygotsky (1933, cited in Bodrova & Leong, 2007, p. 129) marks that "play is such that the explanation for it must always be that it is the imaginary, illusory realization of unrealizable desires." Children do not always follow the rules or meanings that have been assigned to the surrounding objects. Instead, children can freely replace things of the real world or meanings given by adults. Unusual situations, unreal creations, or extraordinary ideas are possible in play. In other words, play is characterized by flexibility and improvisation. Objects are put in new combinations, or roles are acted out in new ways (Smith & Pellegrini, 2008, p. 1).

McMahon (1992, p. 1) claims that “the player is freed to be inventive and creative.” Creativity in play is associated with meaningful adaptation and application of the non-existing to the existing items or vice versa in the child’s world or context.

Enjoyment

One foremost characteristic of play is that it entails enjoyment. This term suggests that play is fun, pleasurable, relaxing, and entertaining. Children display their enjoyment in play as fun and relaxing by laughing and smiling. Smith and Pellegrini (2008, p. 1) identify positive affection of play that children often smile, laugh, and say they enjoy playing. Moreover, Lantolf (2000, p. 122) notes that it is often accompanied by laughter. Rieber (2001) mentions that play is fun, the opposite of seriousness. Regarding attentiveness in playing, many scholars contrast children’s play with adults’ work. The main difference is the quality of fun and relaxation in play versus attention or effort in work (Elkind, n.d.). When adults work with children, children play with adults and they look at adults as their models. They enjoy imitating and playing with them.

Spontaneity

Another predominant feature of play is its spontaneity. Whitebread (2003) cites that “play is spontaneous and initiated by the children themselves” (p.11). Smith and Pellegrini (2008) note that play is the activity done for the children’s own sake. McMahon (1992) observes that “play is a spontaneous and active process” (p. 1). Spontaneity of play is explicated as arising voluntarily and naturally without external force. It is designated as a self-initiated and self-regulated activity (Verenikina et al.,

2003). During play, children are normally in control of their own playing and learning. Malaguzzi (1998, as cited in Cordier, Bundy, Hocking, & Einfeld, 2009) points out the importance of children being allowed to control and to self-initiate tasks. One of those tasks is play, the outcomes of which can be regulated by children.

Absence from fear of failure

Play is also viewed in a way that children persist in play without fear of failure, punishment, or destructive forces (McMahon, 1992). Furthermore, Landreth (2002) suggests that through play, children can get rid of the feelings of stress and boredom. When they play, they feel free from the fear of loss, risk, and harmful or damaging possibilities. Even though children are serious in their play, for example, they are concerned with fairness, rules, and belongingness that can result in success or failure. The characteristics of play can explain how play can extricate children from the fear of failure. For one thing, play is pressure-free, as it must be fun and relaxing. In addition, the features of meaningful context, such as imaginary situations, creativity, and innovation can reduce the tension arising from feeling the need to be right. Correctness is not always of paramount importance. Moreover, exploration and experience allow children to play and learn by trial-and-errors. Instead of learning from mistakes, children feel freer when they play and analyze failure, adapt and adjust, and try again as many times as they want in their own time and space. Finally, there is no serious punishment when children play. Hence, they feel relaxed and willing to play, as it does not involve any undesirable consequences. They do not have to feel stressful if they fail during playing.

2.2.1.2 Play taxonomy

Different taxonomies of play types have been proposed according to the particular motivation, psychological functions and characteristics of play, and the basic development of children. G. Cook (2000) advocates the use of play materials that bestow great value on personal importance and psychological saliency, and that enhance authentic language use, such as songs, soap operas, advertisements, rhymes, jokes, and prayers. Some scholars view play types in terms of object and non-object, or activities play. Activities promote collaborative processes that entice children to experience and develop their behaviors in the sense of meaning-making and connection to their physical and mental development. From a therapeutic viewpoint, activities can free children from being constrained to physical movement or emotion. It helps patients transform mental processes into appropriate behaviors (wiseGEEK, 2003-2010). Only object play and activities are, in fact, not sufficient to classify the nature of children's play in a certain context such as indoors or outdoors. This section investigates different taxonomies of play, presented in a chronological order. This is followed by a discussion of the researcher's informal observation of play activities in the specific context of an elementary school and by the development of a play taxonomy for this study.

An early scholar of children's play, Parten (1932) has influenced several studies of play, especially children's social play. She classifies play into six developmental stages, including Unoccupied Play, Solitary Play, Onlooker Play, Parallel Play, Associative Play, and Cooperative Play. They are arranged from ones with less social interaction to ones with more social interaction. Xu (2010) groups the first three types of play, in which children engage in play by themselves and do not join with others, as

non-social activities. The second group includes Parallel Play, which includes some interaction with others, though limited. The third group refers to the last two types that are the most important types for socialization with others and are called true social interaction.

Unoccupied Play describes activities in which children are basically watching what is happening around them and perhaps making some movement without purpose such as moving their body parts, following the teacher, or sitting in the playground. Solitary Play refers to activities in which children are fully engaged with play objects like toys by themselves and without notice of other friends nor an attempt to stay nearby those friends. Onlooker Play includes behaviors in which children mainly watch the play activities of other children. They may ask questions or articulate their thoughts but do not participate with other children. Parallel Play involves children who play by themselves but the selection of play objects is mostly the same as their friends. They may imitate what other children play with but do not join in. In other words, they play alongside their friends but do not collaborate with them. Associative Play is an activity in which children interact with other children as they play together with friends like exchanging toys. Communication and interaction emerge but without goals, organization, or any control over the others to play or say anything. Lastly, Cooperative Play requires that children take part in an organized play with some goals for their group, such as setting roles for formal dramatic role-play or formal games.

Parten's study is valuable as a guideline for later studies in that the development levels in areas of social and communication skills are seen as approaching higher levels with increasing age. Play also provides a particular opportunity for children to learn flexibility in different play contexts and social skills with different players and different

social situations. The pattern of social play they have engaged in has, then, been reformed. Xu (2010) remarks that although Parten's study (1932) found that play is sequential following the above order according to an increase in children's age, play does not always evolve in a logical order as claimed. She notes that older children are still found to be involved with parallel play. Thus, age and social play are seen to be dependent on cultural, linguistic, environmental, social, and economic influences. For example, children may be less able to communicate because of their linguistic background, which makes them less accepted and less conversant with their native-speaking friends. And that in turn can lead to social problems and children's misconduct. Nonetheless, true social play including associative and cooperative play can assist children to play and establish trust and companionship among friends and create less social behavioral problems among children of diverse backgrounds in the future.

In *Man, Play, and Games*, a critique of Huizinga's (1950) work, *Homo Luden, the Play Element in Culture*, Caillois (1961, as cited in Hunnicutt, n.d.) proposes to define human in terms of two contrasting conceptions: Homo Sapiens, Man the Knower, and Homo Faber, Man the Maker (G. Cook, 2000, p. 110). Man the Player or Homo Luden explains the nature of play that originates in aspects of human culture such as religion, education, exploration, and negotiation, etc. (G. Cook, 2000; Henricks, 2011). In other words, play is a natural way to distinguish between human and animals, and to identify cultural and historical differences.

To begin with, Huizinga conceptualizes play as rituals, sacredness, and traditional customs within a specific community. Caillois (1961) acknowledges that

play could include these rituals and customs but not be defined by them. According to Caillois, play is not the abstract and exceptional forces removed from the real world. Rather, it includes a sense of relaxation or the absence of seriousness or disastrous circumstances. Furthermore, Huizinga limits his notion of play to only competitive activities. Caillois, on the other hand, opposes this idea and proposes the taxonomy of four forms of play.

Play is classified into four forms including *Agôn*, *Alea*, *Mimicry*, and *Ilinx*, which are interpreted to be competition, chance, pretense, and vertigo, respectively. Throughout his work, it is observed that the term “play” and “game” are used interchangeably in different contexts. *Agôn* or competition is the play type in contrast to *Alea* or games of chances in that the former must include competitors and the elimination of them, while in the latter, the players must await the outcome. In *Agôn*, rivals share the same rules and equipment, and they have an equal chance to win, such as in such physical skill activities like sports and intellectual games like chess and checkers (Caillois, n.d., as cited in Salen & Zimmerman, 2006). In addition, *Alea* or chance is not found among animals. Players conform to the rules. The game of chance never relies on one’s physical ability but on one’s fortune or a mystical force as in roulette, lotteries, games of dice, dominoes, cards, or betting. For these chances, human sometimes spends money to win more money. The players of this type are more passive than active. Accordingly, these games are more for adults than children. *Mimicry* or pretense is another type of play, involving a great deal of imaginary and illusory features. *Mimicry* is inherent in nature in that human or other animals lure prey by disguising themselves to be seen unconventionally. Children imitate adults by playing with toy guns or kitchenware, taking different roles like soldiers or police officers, and

acting atypically like an airplane. Another example of mimicry is sometimes called dramatic performance, usually accompanied by themes, costumes, and stage. Children tend to act as the main or popular characters from novels, movies, music bands, or sports games. Last, Ilinx is defined as “the pursuit of vertigo and which consist[s] of an attempt to momentarily destroy the stability of perception and inflict a kind of voluptuous panic upon an otherwise lucid mind” (Caillois, n.d., as cited in Salen & Zimmerman, 2006, p. 138). Caillois mentions the idea of the way acrobats move, turn, twist, or whirl their bodies around the acrobatic wires. Likewise, children sometimes spin themselves around or hold their friends’ hands and twist under their arms back and forth. He also takes in other physical activities that rouse similar reactions like sliding, swinging, speeding, fast rotation, rolling down from some spacious areas or being in the state of chaos or frenzy. This type of play is commonly found among children rather than adults.

The previously denoted game types can be placed into a continuum transitioning from improvisation (Paidia) to rule-bound circumstance (Ludus) to explain children’s capability to control their play. To illustrate, children at first may examine and move things freely with their enthusiasm to explore or Paidia. Without concern for how to control their play, children may handle toys roughly and cause destruction from that play. Once rules are invented or Ludus, the play activities become challenging and require discipline, careful directions, specific skills, and problem-solving skills. Caillois’s classification of games, cited in Salen and Zimmerman (2006), illustrates the summary of his taxonomy as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. *Caillois's classification of games*

	AGÓN (Competition)	ALEA (Chance)	MIMICRY (Simulation)	ILINX (Vertigo)
<p>PAIDIA</p> <p>Tumult Agitation Immoderate laughter</p>	<p>Racing Wrestling Etc. } not regulated</p> <p>Athletics</p>	<p>Counting-out rhymes Heads or tails</p>	<p>Children's initiations Games of illusion Tag, Arms Masks, Disguises</p>	<p>Children "whirling" Horseback riding Swinging Waltzing</p>
<p>Kite-flying Solitaire Patience Crossword puzzles</p>	<p>Boxing, Billiards Fencing, Checkers Football, Chess</p> <p>Contests, Sports in general</p>	<p>Betting Roulette</p> <p>Simple, complex, and continuing lotteries*</p>	<p>Theater Spectacles in general</p>	<p>Volador Traveling carnivals Skiing Mountain climbing Tightrope walking</p>
LUDUS				

N.B. In each vertical column games are classified in such an order that the *paidia* element is constantly decreasing while the *ludus* element is ever increasing.

* A simple lottery consists of the one basic drawing. In a complex lottery there are many possible combinations. A continuing lottery (e.g. Irish Sweepstakes) is one consisting of two or more stages, the winner of the first stage being granted the opportunity to participate in a second lottery. [From correspondence with Caillois. M.B.]

Even though Caillois's play taxonomy provides a concise concept of children's play that can be applied to many studies of play, some elements of children's natural play today have been altered owing to social and cultural changes. Caillois's taxonomy limits play elements mostly to physical activities, whereas there are many play activities that benefit other areas of child development which do not fit into this model. From the researcher's casual observation in an EFL school in Thailand, play activities, such as pat-a-cake, playing tag, playing coloring, and many more cannot be explicated by this model because they involve leisure time using creativity, language, physical movement, and playful behaviors. Other scholars have been studied for further diverse notions of play.

Sutton-Smith (1997, as cited in Salen & Zimmerman, 2006) proposes nine types of play. Unlike the aforementioned notions of play that determine play as rituals, customs, competition, chances, or pretense, they are seen to lack clarification. Sutton-

Smith remarks that play becomes vague, and hence, he suggests viewing play through the rhetoric of play.

Sutton-Smith (1997, as cited in Salen & Zimmerman, 2006) attempts to justify the diversity of play forms or play experiences by classifying them into nine types arranged from more private to more public engagement. First, Mind and Subjective Play is the mental perception like daydreams, imagination, or fantasy. Second, Solitary Play refers to an independent player playing with toys or materials, such as hobbies, collections, building models, gardening, watching videos, reading or writing books, cooking, photography, etc. Third, Playful Behaviors is regarded as behavior that transforms ordinary activity into a playful one through the use of a quality of tricks, words, or actions. Fourth, Informal Social Play appears to be the first type to involve interaction with others to some degree. For example, one may or may not know people in the playgroup who are engaged in joking, parties, cruising, dancing, rough-and-tumble, amusement park, and speech riddle and jokes. From the following play types five to nine (Vicarious Audience Play, Performance Play, Celebrations and Festivals, Contest, and Risky and Deep Play), play is characterized by an interaction with larger groups of people and more public events. Fifth, Vicarious Audience Play is illustrated by concerts, fantasy-lands, spectator sports, folk festivals, and museums. Sixth, Performance Play is regarded as playing the piano, being a play actor, and playhouse. Seventh, Celebrations and Festivals refer to birthdays, Christmas, wedding, and carnivals. Eighth, Contest (games and sports) pertains to physical skills, chances, and all sports games. Ninth, Risky and Deep Play is applied to extreme kinds of sports such as kayaking, snowmobiling, bungee jumping, climbing, and mountain biking.

This model makes great effort to include universal kinds of play, although many of them visualize more play activities for adults than those for children, so they are not applicable in the context of this study.

Smith and Pellegrini (2008) identify five types of play. Firstly, Locomotor Play gives significance to physical or body exercise such as running, climbing, and exercising activities that require the use of muscles. They note the importance of exercise play in that it “increases from toddlers to preschool and peaks at early primary school age, when the neural and muscular basis of physical coordination and healthy growth is important, and vigorous play obviously provides good opportunities for this; later, it declines” (pp. 1-2). They emphasize that Locomotor Play brings advantages to cognitive development. Pellegrini, Dupuis, and Smith (2007) additionally note that males and females take part in this play type differently. Boys tend to engage with exercise play more than girls.

Secondly, Social Play is regarded as interaction with other people. Smith and Pellegrini (2008) find that kids develop socializing skills with the increase in age. In their early years, children tend to engage in Solitary Play or Parallel Play. Later on, it is common to observe that they play with small groups of children. Here, Social Play is divided into two subtypes as Parallel Play and Rough-and-Tumble Play or R&T. Parallel Play here corresponds to Parten’s Social Play in the previous discussion. Regarding R&T, it is often compared with aggressive play, about which there are many discussions over the differences between the two. R&T is basically composed of nonaggressive and playful behaviors (Pellegrini, 1989). It is mostly found in primary levels and tends to decline in middle school (Frost, Wortham, & Reifel, 2001). It

benefits both cognitive and social-cognitive development (Pellegrini, 1989). In fact, it is suggested that it is dependent upon grade levels, sexes, and physical settings. Frost et al. (2001) cite Pellegrini's (1998) explanation that R&T includes such activities as soft touching, wresting behaviors, playful attacking, tumbling, tagging, running, chasing, and fighting, which may look real but usually end up in mutual laughter. Children agree on roles and rules set together and then continue playing other activities when they finish R&T. In contrast, aggressive play is described as children's fighting behaviors containing elements of violence and without roles to exchange among them. Subsequently, in this type of play, children separate and reject socializing with each other after the aggressive incident, unlike in R&T play, in which children are able to learn to establish roles and rules, to be flexible with each other with the use of negotiation skills, and to always solve problems when playing in a social way with their play partners (Pellegrini, 1989).

Thirdly, Object Play is explicated as children playing with or manipulating objects, such as toys, dolls, cars, etc. It can involve pretend play as well, such as when dolls are fed some food or drink. This play type promotes solitary as well as social learning. Improvising actions involving diverse objects increase creativity and problem-solving skills. Girls are more inclined to play with domestic themes, while boys are usually more occupied with physically themes (Rubin et al., 1983, as cited in Pellegrini et al., 2007).

Fourthly, language play refers to the use of linguistic forms to make meaning. Smith and Pellegrini (2008) note that language play comprises the features of laughter and repetition of linguistic elements including phonology, vocabulary and meaning, grammar, and pragmatics. G. Cook (2000) also observes that language play is involved

with the patterning of linguistic form. In addition, Cook remarks upon the characteristics of repetition, strangeness, and emotion into defining language play.

Finally, pretend play is mentioned as children's imaginative manipulation of real objects or actions. According to Smith and Pellegrini (2008), pretend play is viewed as socio-dramatic play, which is related to the roles of adults in real life such as a doctor or a firefighter. Frost et al. (2001) cite Smilansky's (1968, p. 168) six characteristics of dramatic and socio-dramatic play: 1) imitative role play, 2) make-believe with regard to objects, 3) verbal make-believe with regard to actions and situations, 4) persistence in role-play, 5) interaction, and 6) verbal communication. The first four characteristics are of dramatic play that later evolve into socio-dramatic play, which is characterized by the last two features, such as verbal pretense interaction in a specific context of a play episode (Smilansky & Shefatya, 1990, as cited in Frost et al., 2001, pp. 186-187).

Smith and Pellegrini (2008) have profoundly contributed insights into play types, which have become the grounds for instigating a play taxonomy suitable for this study of play emphasizing language learning. Notwithstanding those denoted five types, some play activities observed informally in the actual context for this study cannot be examined by this model. For example, some play activities that involve craft tools or games with rules that promote cognitive, social-affective, and language development are not included in the aforementioned categorization.

Two organizations that work on children's play have identified different types of play. They are The National Institute for Play (NIFP) and National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA).

The National Institute for Play (2009) or NIFP is an organization in the United States that believes in the human potential through play. Seven patterns of play are proposed including 1) Attunement Play, 2) Body Play and Movement, 3) Object Play, 4) Social Play (subtypes of Play and Belonging, R&T, and Celebratory Play), 5) Imaginative and pretend play, 6) Storytelling-Narrative Play, and 7) Transformative-Integrative and creative play. These play types are similar to Smith and Pellegrini's (2008) types of play. Attunement Play is worth reviewing as it has not been mentioned by any aforementioned studies. It is explained as contact between the mother and her baby to show and share their emotions with each other, including activities such as using finger play with a baby, a smile of joy, and a baby babble of active response to the mother. It is also a way that a child displays compassion, companionship, and trust of adults. In young children, the actions include hugs or kisses to their parents, caregivers, or teachers. From the informal classroom observation, Attunement Play is observed such as children playing and touching around a teacher, holding hands walking with friends, whispering, and hugging a teacher. Even though it is the only type that shows the naturalness of being a child in their play interaction with others, it does not carry features that build up activities to promote oral language. Next, Storytelling-Narrative Play is neither regarded as a subtype of language play nor clearly explained. It seems to be characteristically related to stories, which can expand children's experience and involve feelings of fun. Children may narrate their lives or experience from real situations or media. It is important for intellectual development. Lastly, Transformative-Integrative and creative play partly overlap with Imaginative and pretend play in that both encourage imagination and creativity. However, Transformative-Integrative and creative play is underlined by the quality of applying

new ideas to existing circumstances. Like producing a new product, imagination of new ideas is required. Also, it is explained that science fosters play to bring about a new thing or idea, called transformation.

The National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (2009) or NCCA is an organization located in Dublin, Ireland. It emphasizes that play is important in children's lives. The NCCA classifies play into five main types with clear and detailed explanations. Table 2 shows the different types of play and their description organized alphabetically by the council.

It is noteworthy that when investigating the model thoroughly, it can be seen that each type of play seems to exhibit activities for merely a solo player. Social Play is absent as a type of play. On the other hand, to re-examine these five main types of play, it is possible to explain those activities for both individual and group play depending upon the context of discussion. For example, creative play like painting can be an individual play when the paper and colors are given to one child for him/her to paint. Yet, if the paper is bigger and colors are given to more than one child to paint together to create a group picture, a social activity such as group discussion and creativity may occur here. Games with rules is quite an obvious kind of play involving others where language is used to negotiate meaning and children take turns to do so among playmates.

Table 2. *Types of play organized by NCCA (2009)*

Type of Play	Description
Creative	Creative play involves children exploring and using their bodies and materials to make and do things and to share their feelings, ideas and thoughts. They enjoy being creative by dancing, painting, playing with junk and recycled materials, working with play-dough and clay, and using their imaginations.
Games with rules	Another type of play involves games with rules . Even babies and toddlers can partake in these, as <i>peek-a-boo</i> and turn-taking games have rules. In the beginning children often play by their own rather flexible rules! In time they also partake in more conventional games with 'external' rules. Language is an important part of games with rules as children explain, question and negotiate the rules. Rules are often an important part of pretend play where children negotiate rules about what can and can't be done.
Language	Language play involves children playing with sounds and words. It includes unrehearsed and spontaneous manipulation of these, often with rhythmic and repetitive elements. Children like playing with language – enjoying patterns, sounds and nonsense words. They also love jokes and funny stories.
Physical	<p>Physical play involves children developing, practising and refining bodily movements and control. It includes whole body and limb movements, co-ordination and balance. These activities involve physical movements for their own sake and enjoyment. Children gain control over their gross motor skills first before refining their fine motor skills.</p> <p>Exploratory play involves children using physical skills and their senses to find out what things feel like and what can be done with them. Children explore their own bodies and then they explore the things in their environment.</p> <p>Manipulative play involves practising and refining motor skills. This type of play enhances physical dexterity and hand-eye co-ordination. Over time children need to experience a range of different levels of manipulation if they are to refine their motor skills. This type of play includes manipulating objects and materials.</p> <p>Constructive play involves building something using natural and manufactured materials. As children develop, this type of play can become more complex and intricate.</p>
Pretend	<p>Pretend, dramatic, make-believe, role, and fantasy play involves children using their imaginations. It includes pretending with objects, actions and situations. As children grow, their imaginations and their play become increasingly complex. Children use their developing language to move from thinking in the concrete to thinking in the abstract. They make up stories and scenarios. Children act out real events and they also take part in fantasy play about things that are not real, such as fairies or super heroes. Children try out roles, occupations and experiences in their pretend play.</p> <p>Early literary and numeracy are clearly evident in this type of play, for example children make lists and menus and pay for cinema tickets. They also get the chance to play with different forms of ICT such as mobile phones, keyboards, cameras, and calculators.</p> <p>Small world play involves children using small-scale representations of real things like animals, people, cars, and train sets as play props.</p> <p>Socio-dramatic play involves children playing with other children and/or adults. It provides opportunities for children to make friends, to negotiate with others, and to develop their communication skills. This play helps extend language. The ability to write stories also has its roots in socio-dramatic play.</p>

Furthermore, language play can be considered as a one-child activity like chanting by oneself, or a social activity like chanting or singing in a group or team. Other activities include using words or playing with linguistic forms. Physical play can be explained as a child working on something by him/herself following Parten's non-social activity. In other words, it can be group play or true social interaction (Parten, 1932). Also, pretend play can be explicated in two ways, both with one child imitating adults and with many children dramatizing different roles during their play.

Table 3 illustrates some sample activities that can be found from the actual observations from two demonstration schools in Thailand. It is worth noting that there is some empty space in the table because the context and materials were not provided for children to perform some types of play. Furthermore, one activity might include more than one kind of play, depending on the purposes of each play. To illustrate, when children fold a paper to create a house, it could be seen as a physical play. Meanwhile, children can use their creativity to reshape the paper into something else like a fan, a bozo, a rocket, etc. Then physical play is changed to be creative play. Therefore, it is possible that some play activities are characterized in more than one type, depending on the focus of the play and the extension of each play time. Moreover, a child in transition from non-social to social interaction was observed. For example, a child was drawing a picture of a friend by himself. Then, his friends started to be interested in his picture and come to see it. They appeared to draw together. As shown in Table 3, a group of friends draw, add strange fantasy characters on it, and laugh along with drawing and painting with imagination of their fantasy friends together. Therefore, play illustrates how it can evolve and how child developmental areas are also promoted to the further stages of learning or zone of proximal development (ZPD) according to

Vygotsky's social development theory. The scaffolding processes are to be discussed in the later section.

Table 3. *Play taxonomy and sample activities*

Type of Play	Subtypes of Play	Non-social Activity	Parallel and True Social Interaction
Creative play		drawing a picture; playing with a drum; folding paper to make a rocket, paper fan; drawing clocks; putting the paper upside-down and writing on it; coloring a picture of a boy with surreal coloring	drawing friends with strange characteristics
Games with rules		-	running; playing tag; hide-and-seek; playing bases; playing with balls; guessing games; R&T; playing paper-scissor-rock; a big ball tossing game
Language play		counting numbers aloud; humming a song; singing while working on an assignment	pat-a-cake; singing songs with friends; chanting
Physical play	Physical play	standing; dancing; running; ballet dancer; turning or spinning around	acting out what they hear (TPR); running; hiding; riding on a friend's back
	Exploratory play	playing with trees, branches, soil; searching for circle-shape objects; posting	playing with trees, branches, soil
	Manipulative play	playing on swing sets; playing with stationery	playing on swing sets; playing with stationery
	Constructive play	playing dominos; making a bozo	folding papers; doing origami
Pretend play	Make-believe or Fantasy play	frog jumping	transforming to be a robot; discharging power; acting out of gun shooting, being shot, and bleeding
	Early literary and numeracy	reading cartoon books	-
	Small world play	-	-
	Socio-dramatic play	acting out of gun shooting	acting like a leader of a gangster; softly and slowly punching a friend who is smaller; playing dead; playing in a mushroom house

In sum, this study included five types of play as shown in the tables above. They were creative play, games with rules, language play, physical play, and pretend play. Some activities can be adopted, but others need to be adapted in order to be appropriate to use inside the classroom. Some activities were created based on the description of each type of play as illustrated in Table 2. The key concept to execute each type of play was social play or cooperative learning. As for creative play, games with rules, language play, and pretend play, most of the activities were proper to apply inside the language classroom, while some activities in physical play such as exploratory play was difficult to apply as it required more space outside of the class. Appendix J displays the lesson plan overview including the activities of each play type.

2.2.2 Benefits of play

In the aforementioned definition of play, children's play is, in fact, comparable to adults' work. As children play, they are learning. McMahon (1992, p. 1) asserts that "play is not a mindless filling of time or a rest from work." He emphasizes that it allows children to fit new ideas into the existing ones and to use them as their own. Play activities allow them to transfer skills and knowledge to solve problems, discover, and analyze ongoing processes to develop language skills and strategies. Authentic activities, materials, or tasks are believed to expose children effectively to social issues, various roles, groupings, and activities. Playing, then, is observed to be one way that children learn to grow in that it interweaves both developments of motor and intellectual skills. Play has also been observed to increase social and language skills (Connecting play and learning, 2011). Additionally, van Kyuk (2005) sees play as an extra support for children's education such as language motives, play activities, and tutoring. He

points out that play promotes child development including cognitive, emotional, and physical intelligence, which is similar to the characteristics of play previously illustrated in the definition of play.

2.2.2.1 Physical development

One dimension of children's play involves motor skills and the use of muscles. Van Kuyk (2005) defines physical development in terms of intelligence of body parts' movements and awareness of the materials or objects around children. It also incorporates body language in order to express meaning, create new projects, and develop total experience. Play obviously increases well-being of children's physical health. Harding (2005) emphasizes that first-hand experience in the real world, which refers to the outdoor play practice, is beneficial for children in many ways such as children's physical development and their health. As physical development plays an important part in early childhood education, it should be integrated as a part of activities in all subjects in the school domain such as playing balls to develop hand, wrist, and joint movements. Total Physical Response (TRP) is a dominant language method that uses physical movement as the main instructions. It not only develops and assesses children language comprehension, but it also engages them in physical development.

2.2.2.2 Cognitive development

Cognitive development refers to the ability of children to think, recognize, and learn over time. It is concerned with internalized processes of the mind such as memory, calculation, and problem solving (Connecting play and learning, 2011), of which

language is one external representation. Play offers many benefits for children's cognitive development.

First, play is a crucial tool for children's cognitive development which entails the enrichment of their world view and experience of the world. The importance of play involves assimilation of new information into their existing schema about the world to establish intelligence (Jrank, 2010). Equally important, accommodation is the conversion when the new information does not fit with the schemata. Then, children accommodate that information by adjusting or developing their schema to fit the realities of external objects in their world. Both go together and cannot be separated from each other. For instance, for a matching game or picture-card games, children can gradually adjust their knowledge of the new picture to match the same word they know and develop new understanding of the new pictures and new word card to children's existing background knowledge.

Next, children improve their problem-solving skills and endurance when facing complications during play. Bruner's (1972, as cited in Whitebread, 2003, p. 11) experimental study found that a group of children who had opportunities to play with objects achieved higher problem-solving skills, but they distinctively persevered longer and displayed more tolerance in trying to solve hardships compared to those who were in the 'taught' group and who did not have the chance to play. Similarly, van Kyuk (2005) mentions that when teachers use play activities with children, those activities not only support learning but also help extend their perseverance to find solutions for the play materials or activities they are dealing with.

Moreover, in exploring ways to solve problems, children who have experience playing with materials tend to be more creative and inventive, and this is accompanied

by generalizable skills and positive attitudes. According to Landreth (2002), “play stimulates creative thinking and exploration, regulates our emotions, and boosts our ego” (p. 1). Corresponding to the creativity in play, new knowledge or adjustment can be invented during playing as children manipulate things around them (G. Cook, 2000). Play stimulates children to think creatively and flexibly and learn from what is currently in their hands. Apart from the occurrences of new knowledge, learning morality can be established by the creativity (Piaget, 1952). For examples, in pretend play, the rules that children impose reflect those that they have acquired from interacting with or imitating adults such as mother-children interaction.

Self-regulation and negotiation skills are also observed to be an aftermath of play. McMahon (1992) remarks that the spontaneity of play can unfold the processes of thinking, feeling, and doing which occur naturally when children are not under the threat. Thus, in play, children feel free to initiate and regulate their own learning. In some kinds of play, such as role-play or games, roles and rules are assigned (Vygotsky, 1967, as cited in Bodrova & Leong, 2007). Children’s behavior and the scenario are assigned. As such, some people may view play as unlikely to be absolutely spontaneous. However, others may argue it becomes spontaneous again afterward once the roles and rules are negotiated and assigned among playmates. Children’s spontaneous play, thus, enhances negotiation skills. This situation can be found not only in the classroom, where children’s behavior is sometimes of necessity predetermined, but also during the voluntary play in their own free time.

2.2.2.3 Social-affective development

Social-affective development refers to how children work independently to realize their ability to interact with others in a social way. It includes the ability to express one's affection as well as to understand the emotions of others (van Kyuk, 2005). Social communication is the term proposed by Seach (2007) referring to ways to communicate with others such as turn-taking manners or participating behaviors in particular social contexts.

Extraordinariness from the real world is seen to be a meaningful context for children. They establish their own roles and rules in imaginary situations in the play phenomenon. With the quality of a meaningful context in play, it is advantageous for children to develop self-regulation and socialization. Vygotsky (1933) specifies the benefits of the dramatic or make-believe play of preschoolers and primary school-age children, pointing out that imaginary situations allow children to take on and act out different roles, with a set of rules established. Hence, dramatic play elicits behaviors and allows children to acquire the rules associated with those behaviors. Verenikina et al. (2003) cite Mead (1934) who maintains that role-play for children is an essential vehicle for developing values of oneself. This is because assuming roles and establishing rules in dramatic play eventually result in an adult with the capability of socializing with others in the society. Playmates are determined to be very significant in play as they enhance a child's social development. They play a crucial role in scaffolding children's learning. Some may give more values to elder play partners like parents and teachers in their learning and growing. However, age of playmates does not matter as Piaget (1951, as cited in Scarlett, Sophie, Dorothy, & Iris, 2005) supports the

position that the same-age child fosters learning similar to that provided by older playmates.

Additionally, affective development is seen as a distinctive result of play. Children mostly play with curiosity, which leads to learning. However, it may be hindered when unfavorable conditions are present. For example, an aggressive play or a too difficult game may discourage them from continuing playing and learning. Consequently, Landreth (2002) remarks that children should learn to play and associate with other people in a positive way in order to continue their play. As a matter of fact, play helps children develop socialization skills, express their feelings, and establish trust among peers that greatly builds social relationships, a relaxing and stress-free atmosphere as well as readiness to play and communicate.

Furthermore, the spontaneous nature of play substantially bolsters interpersonal skills. In other words, through the opportunity of choosing play materials and playmates, children can develop independent or group learning and playing. Initially, children naturally play by themselves, but, later they learn to play by sharing and cooperating with others or active players (Bailey, 2006). Children develop desire and decision-making and can determine the outcomes during their play. Thus, play builds children's self-control in playing independently and with others, which signifies their development in the social-affective domain.

2.2.2.4 Integrated child developmental areas

Playing situations do not facilitate different areas of child development separately, but rather in an integrated way. This section investigates the integrated areas of physical, cognitive, and social-affective development through play.

Play as a cognitive and motor-integrated activity is of primary importance for children's mental and physical development. Bailey (2006, p. 1) notes that "[P]lay develops brain as well as brawn power." Through the essential component of enjoyment, play uplifts the spiritual and intellectual conditions of children's lives (Landreth, 2002). In addition, with the variation and changes in the nature of the outdoors, children manage to play by adjusting their learning through physical manipulation of things such as toys or play materials and mental conceptualization following various outside resources of learning. For instances, Howe and Davies (2005, as cited in Moyles, 2005, p. 157) describe the relationship between exploring and playing. For instance, exploration of materials and physical movement during play activate children's brains.

Play is joyful and frees children from fear of failure. It also benefits children's cognitive and social-affective development. On the one hand, children develop more complex behaviors through the feeling of pleasure or enjoyment with the language used as a tool in the interaction in play to convey meanings and feelings (Cordier et al., 2009). Enjoyment is an affective feature that is important for the human brain and cognitive development (Whitebread, 2003, p. 15). When playing, children's brains are at ease. Therefore, it is considered a valuable time for learning. On the other hand, play benefits children's cognition and affect through the reduction of tension and conflicts, especially with the freedom provided through imaginary situations (Jrank, 2010). McMahon (1992, p. 1) claims that cognitive and affective development in play thrives when children are separated from the fear of failure or disastrous consequences.

2.2.2.5 Language development

Language is used as a medium to improve the extent of previously denoted areas of child development. It is basically employed to demonstrate what one means and how one feels. Language development is described as “how a child learns to speak, listen, write, and read” (Connecting play and learning, 2011, p. 1). Those language skills can be developed through narratives as they enhance knowledge of linguistic structure. Griffith (2007), cited in Seach (2007), notes the qualities of narratives. Exchanges of dialogues in role play provide more understanding of linguistic structures. Moreover, narratives also allow children to employ the language in a meaningful way. Seach (2007) suggests two major elements in developing children’s language and communication, namely a reason for communication and a context to foster meaningful use of the language. Playing with the use of narratives provides meaningful reasons to communicate and play partners facilitate children to share the play experience with each other and implicitly learn the pragmatics essential for communication.

Language and physical development

Physical play is obviously connected to the growth of children’s motor skills. Frost et al. (2001) advocate combining language with physical activities and enjoyment resulting in children’s development of well-being. For instance, children play jump rope with friends while singing or chanting some funny rhymes. They then physically play, mentally create ways of playing, feel good about their playing and learning, and enjoy socializing in play. Exploration activities in play experience also support the properties of physical quality of children such as outdoor play like games and sports.

Communicative acts (Seach, 2007) are based on the language use through actions, which is viewed to increase more complex communication. Also, language learning is linked with objects, events, and feelings children experience (Weininger & Daniel, 1992). Language assists children to understand the meaning of those experiences and emotions, to recognize and make sense of the sensory faculties, and to build them up in groups of meaning. Widdowson (2001, p. 137) notes “the playground culture is almost exclusively oral.” When they are occupied with symbolic play, children build up confidence in their self-expression. Bishop and Curtis (2001) suggest a continuum of play activities in which one end involves highly verbal skills and the other end involves distinctly physical actions. Imaginative play is placed in the middle position of the continuum as it is considered to be a blend of language and physical content. Those activities include role-play and acting games. It advances children’s imagination and motivation as well as social skills similar to playing and acting in group play. Pretend play favors other dimensions of child development as well. Self-initiation is developed through pretend play with the use of language when children play with toys, such as dolls and cars, and create a story or plot for them. Language used in socio-dramatic play also fosters collaboration (Frost et al., 2001). Besides collaboration, Broadhead and English (2005) note that reliance and solidarity among playmates are established in open-ended play and multi-layered play. For example, children select their props and share opinions with their friends to create a free dramatic play in the classroom.

In addition, literacy skills are enhanced when associated with physical activities. Symbolic play contexts, together with block play and socio-dramatic play, generate the natural use of literacy with the assistance of the teacher in modeling literacy for

children. Later on, play centers are a suggested setting for spontaneous play in order to continue the development of literacy skills (Frost et al., 2001). Games like scrabble or design board games also provide opportunities to increase literacy skills because there are words and written instructions for children to follow.

Language and cognitive development

Language is developed when it is used as a tool to represent children's mental processes. Frost et al. (2001) maintain that metalinguistic ability is enhanced when children talk about their play. The states of intelligence can be well-structured with linguistic competence. Scarlett et al. (2005) propose that "[L]anguage adds extraordinary power and flexibility for turning ordinary imitation into make-believe" (p. 35). In other words, language leads to the development of the mental state. The realization of linguistic features can develop in-depth understanding of those mental concepts and intelligence in different ways in different contexts. For example, giving instructions scaffolds cognitive learning in problem-solving play.

Language and social-affective development

Children learn to express their feelings and knowledge, which reflect their individual realization of the world and language abilities. Krashen and Terrell (1983) mention in his monitor model that the Affective Filter is one of the key factors for successful second language learning. A low affective filter is said to increase the positive attitudes toward learning a language and to lead learners to higher language proficiency. Thus, effective learning occurs in a joyful, fun, entertaining, or relaxing environment, which is a key feature of play. Also, Nadel et al.(1990, cited in Seach,

2007) demonstrate that the pragmatics of social interaction are applied differently such as imitation of vocalizations and actions in a particular function of communication. Linguistic competence is effectively developed when the playing situation is nonassertive and creates bonds between children and adults or peers. It can be seen that children learn to establish more fellowship and interpersonal skills using both verbal and non-verbal communication when playing with adults or peers.

In short, children's play seems to be recognized easily, yet it can be different and difficult to denote its specific quality to make a precise definition. Children's play in this study has been defined from several studies by different scholars in order to suit the specific characteristics of young EFL learners. This section has also been devoted to play taxonomy as there are a great numbers of play types related to its definition. The studies of distinct play types of different conceptions cast light on proper play types for the context of this study. The play definition and play taxonomy have been specified in relation to all areas of child development including language development.

2.3 Oral Language Skills

In a baby's first months, s/he uses sounds and his/her body to signal his/her communication. Later on, during the next six to 12 months, the child uses oral language to communicate. This section investigates the definition of oral language and the operational skills of oral language, its benefits for young learners, and the processes of oral language that are developed naturally and become a link to oral language pedagogical implications in the school domain.

2.3.1 Definition

Oral language can simply be viewed as spoken language used in interactions between speakers and listeners (Raban, 2001, p. 28). Many times, oral language is defined according to its purposes or functions and the quality of its features. This section explores how oral language has been defined by various scholars in a chronological order.

2.3.1.1 Construct

Oracy is a term coined by Wilkinson (1965, as cited in P. G. Smith, 2001, p. viii) to mark the significance of language skills of listening and speaking. Lee and Rubin (1979) use the term “oral communication” to include both verbal and nonverbal communication. Willbrand and Rieke (1983) use “oral communication” for a spoken language used by elementary students to mean “the process of interaction through heard and spoken messages in a variety of situations” (p. 11). They remark further that speaking and listening may vary in different contexts involving both verbal and nonverbal cues. Corson (1988) uses the term oral language to contrast with written language based on its main function of carrying meaning between interlocutors. Lindfors’ (1987) definition of oral language cited in Genishi (1988, p. 2) is based on aspects of linguistic features: “the complex system that relates sounds to meanings, is made up of three components: the phonological, semantic, and syntactic”. P. G. Smith (2001) views oral language in terms of form as well as functions when she writes “the form of our language and the nature of our thoughts and understanding that may change and develop quickly as we reshape our feelings and impressions in the form of spoken words and gestures” (p. 11). This definition suggests that oral language involves both

verbal and nonverbal cues to mark children's talk. J. L. Cook and Cook (2005) describe children's language development from birth as they communicate through sounds and progress to speech production. In other words, speech or oral language is the language first used by children to communicate. Naturally, children's physical growth over years becomes concrete evidence of oral language abilities and development over time. They further remark that oral language develops in the same ways as language is structured through linguistic features starting from sounds, semantics, grammar, and pragmatics. Likewise, Gottlieb (2006, p. 42) agrees that oral language is a developmental process that commences very early in a child's life, which is true for both L1 and L2 learners, with listening being acquired first. She adds that "[L]anguage learners most likely have greater comprehension than language production". She concurs that oral language functions mainly for negotiation of meaning. O'Malley and Piere (1996 cited in Gottlieb, 2006, p. 45) also define oral language in terms of its function as "a purposeful, communicative action with emphasis on the specific use (the language function) or performance." Seach (2007) describes spoken language in terms of its function to convey messages, and its form of a symbolic representation of thoughts and words (p. 90). Rahman (2010) defines oral communication as "spoken interaction between two or more people" (p. 29). On the other hand, Baker (1988, as cited in Gottlieb, 2006, p. 46) defines oral language in terms of linguistic features: it "is envisioned as a linguistic system with emphasis on the code to be mastered. The principal components of speech include grammar (or syntax), vocabulary (or the lexicon), intonation and stress, pronunciation, fluency, and accuracy (appropriateness of expression or register.)" Therefore, two main different definitions are determined, with the emphasis being placed on both oral language's functions and purposes and on linguistic features.

The commonalities of the various definitions of oral language cited above include listeners, speakers, and message exchange, both spoken and heard, with verbal and nonverbal cues, and with processes of thoughts and interactions, to name a few. In addition, there is general agreement that oral language is the first language developed at an early age in natural and spontaneous ways.

However, some differences can also be observed. Firstly, there are variations in terminology. Different scholars use the terms oral language, oral communication, and spoken language interchangeably to refer to the common notion of the language produced orally to make meanings. Secondly, oral language can be identified in two dimensions: a functional dimension and a grammatical dimension (terms used in Tomasello, 2009, p. 69), even though some scholars combine them together. That is to say, oral language can be viewed as the functions of a language for different purposes and situations, and at the same time, as the form of language including linguistic elements.

The commonality and differences shed light on the term and definition applied in this study. The term oral language has been defined as children's natural processes of speaking and listening interaction to represent thoughts, actions or performance, and emotions through heard and spoken messages, and verbal and nonverbal cues in various contextual functions.

Despite various definitions of oral language proposed by different scholars, oral language in this study focuses on the functional dimensions rather than grammatical or structural dimensions in order to suit learners' age, their language development, assessment, and the national policy of language and communication for primary levels. In the next section, the functional dimensions are discussed with operationalizing

concepts further from the above general definition in order to identify skills, behaviors, and activities of oral language specific for this study.

2.3.1.2 Operationalizing concepts

Oral language is related to listening and speaking skills deployed during interactions between speakers and listeners. Some scholars explain them separately, but others combine them as one skill.

Oral language can be seen as different skills that are elucidated separately in aspects of their functions and processes of learning and acquisition. Underhill (1987, as cited in Gottlieb, 2006, p. 45) briefly describes the speaker functions to convey meanings and the listener functions to interpret and respond. Then, they take turns to take each other's role as speakers and listeners to continue their further conversations. Raban (2001) states that children, as a matter of course, can use a wide range of oral language varying from simple to sophisticated language for various purposes in different contexts, such as home or classroom. To illustrate, children are able to simply talk about objects, persons, and events, and develop to the more complex functions of predicting and synthesizing by talking about things that are not immediately present at the moment of speaking. Moreover, in the school context, he emphasizes that children use language to learn about the world, interact with others, and understand topics or contents shared by teachers or peers. He further explains that speaking is a productive process that comes from ideas or personal experience including giving and asking for information about concerns and experience. Thus, speaking functions to produce speech in order to give information and convey meaning. On the other hand, listening refers to the receptive process of trying to make sense of language to construct meaning,

and predict and anticipate talk. It also comes from experience and world knowledge, so the interlocutors may never share exactly the same meanings. Willbrand and Rieke (1983) remark that effective oral communication behaviors involve the following processes:

Speaking in a variety of educational and social situations: Speaking involves, but is not limited to, arranging and producing messages through the use of voice, articulation, vocabulary, syntax and non-verbal cues (e.g., gesture, facial expression, vocal cues) appropriate to the speaker and listeners.

Listening in a variety of educational and social situations: Listening involves, but is not limited to, hearing, perceiving, discriminating, interpreting, synthesizing, evaluating, organizing, remembering information from verbal and non-verbal messages (pp. 11-12).

Although listening and speaking are processed differently, they involve equally hard work to process (Raban, 2001) because they are interrelated and cannot be set apart. Gottlieb (2006) supports that “listening and speaking go hand in hand” (p. 47). It can be inferred that listening and speaking skills are to develop at the same time and should not be separated. Many different scholars (Corson, 1988; Lee & Rubin, 1979; Monsalve & Correal, 2006; Raban, 2001; Seach, 2007; Willbrand & Rieke, 1983) report some examples of oral language’s operational skills/behaviors as shown in table 4.

Table 4. *Examples of oral language's operational skills/behaviors*

adopt language	anticipate	check-recheck	construct meaning
describe	echolalic	engage others	enjoy conversation
explain	express emotion	evaluate	find out information
give instructions	hearing	hypothesize	imagine
imitate	impress	interact with objects	interpret
joke	justify	learn about the world	learn how to learn
make sense of something	negotiate- renegotiate	organize	perceiving
predict	remember information	speculate	synthesize
talk about something not present	tell stories		

The operational skills/behaviors above can be categorized following Halliday's seven functions of language explained in details in a later section. However, some skills/behaviors are vague to identify because they are relatively abstract according to personal responses such as predicting, negotiating, and learning. Also, some skills can perform more than one function. For example, imitating may have interactional, personal, imaginative, or representational functions. Besides the general operational skills mentioned, the present study needs to investigate the ones that are required for Thai young EFL learners to enhance their oral language skills in particular.

According to the national policy known as Basic Education Core Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2008), the learning areas of foreign languages display operationalizing concepts set into four main strands, which can be seen as skills/behaviors specified in order to be appropriately applied in the present study. Table 5 displays the learning areas of foreign languages for grade 3 level.

Table 5. *The learning areas of foreign languages for grade 3 levels by Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008)*

Strand 1: Language for Communication	
Standard FL1.1: Understanding and ability in interpreting what has been heard and read from various types of media, and ability to express opinions with reasons.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Act in compliance with orders and requests heard or read 2. Pronounce and spell the given words; accurately read aloud groups of words, sentences and simple chants by observing the principles of reading. 3. Match the picture or the symbols with the meanings of groups of words and sentences heard. 4. Answer the questions from listening to or reading sentences, dialogues or simple tales.
Standard FL1.2: Possessing language communication skills for effective exchange of information; efficient expression of feelings and opinions	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Speak in an exchange with short and simple words in interpersonal communication by following the models heard. 2. Use orders and simple requests by following the models heard. 3. Express their own simple needs by following the models heard. 4. Ask for and give simple information about themselves and their friends by following the models heard. 5. Tell their own feelings about various objects around them or various activities by following the models heard.
Standard FL1.3: Ability to speak and write about information, concepts and views on various matters	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Speak to give information about themselves and matters around them. 2. Categorize words into groups according to the types of persons, animals and objects based on what they have heard or read.
Strand 2: Language and Culture	
Standard FL2.1: Appreciating the relationship between language and culture of native speakers and ability in using language appropriately	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Speak and make accompanying gestures in accordance with social manners / culture of native speakers. 2. Tell the names and simple vocabulary about the festivals / important days / celebrations and lifestyles of the native speakers. 3. Participate in language and cultural activities appropriate to their age levels.

Standard FL2.2: Appreciating the similarities and the differences between language and culture of the native speakers and Thai speakers, and ability in using accurate and appropriate language	1. Tell the differences of the sounds of the alphabets, words, groups of words and simple sentences in foreign languages and Thai language.
Strand 3: Language and Relationship with Other Learning Areas	
Standard FL3.1: Using foreign languages to link knowledge with other learning areas, as foundation for further development, seeking knowledge and broadening one's world view	1. Explain the terms related to other learning areas.
Strand 4: Language and Relationship with Community and the World	
Standard FL4.1: Ability to use foreign languages in various situations: in school, community and society	1. Listen / speak in simple situations in the classroom.
Standard FL4.2: Using foreign languages as basic tools for further education, livelihood and exchange of learning with the world community	1. Use foreign languages to collect relevant terms around them.

2.3.2 Benefits of oral language

Skills are directly related to benefits. To explain, what are children able to do in their oral language to benefit them? For example, children may use language to tell stories. Direct benefit is that they have an ability to tell a story; indirect benefits are such as that they can enjoy the stories, establish relationships with friends, understand the reading literacy, and develop their thinking and imaginative skills and many more.

On the other hand, the aforementioned skills or behaviors can also be classified in relation to the child's development: cognitive, social-affective, language, and others. The first two developmental areas display significant and beneficial consequences of oral language development.

2.3.2.1 Cognitive development

Cognitive development is related to children's abilities to apply the inner processes of their minds to external representations, such as thinking, memorizing, and problem solving.

Many scholars agree that oral language provides advantages for children by shaping their thoughts and understandings to bring about changes or to solve problems (Lee & Rubin, 1979; P. G. Smith, 2001; Wilkinson, 1965). For example, Corson (1988) reports a study showing that adolescent boys could solve problems of a task once they started explaining how they worked on it. He also remarks that intelligence was displayed by the internalized processes from dialogues. In addition, P. G. Smith (2001) suggests that problem-solving skills can be enhanced by linguistic elements such as word form, tones of voice, and sentence structures as they can transform learning experience to cognitive structures. They are advantageous for "modern society activities" such as public decision making and making one's voice heard in semipublic situations.

Next, oral language develops understanding of abstractness. In other words, oral language development is essentially involved with dialogues or conversations with others that transform abstractness, which is created in internalized concepts and processed as inner thoughts, to be represented or expressed in the more concrete form or reality. That representation can develop to be more complex as children become able to represent things that are not present at the moment of speaking, as known as decontextualized experiences of language (Corson, 1988; Raban, 2001; P. G. Smith, 2001; Wilkinson, 1965). The notion of decontextualized experiences of language is associated with Cummins' notion of context reduction, which is the aim for learners'

language use. The more oral language is developed, the more decontextualized experiences of language can be enhanced. Raban (2001) suggests that it can be improved by having children talk about something to someone they have not shared their experience or time with, so children have their ideas extended.

Additionally, oral language helps create language experience, thinking and thoughts, and children's view of the world. Corson (1988) mentions that thought is formed from oral language experience and is represented by words. However, some argue that many thoughts may not be represented or named when there is no word for it, especially abstractness of mind or feelings. This notion correlates with the concept of language comprehension being greater than language production. One suggestion is to enhance abstractness of mind by the inner speech through external dialogues. Peters (1967, pp. 20-21 cited in Corson, 1988, p. 23) states that "external dialogues like oral language are a rehearsal for later internal dialogues." Not only does oral language provide ability to think, but it also promotes the patterns of thinking (or the analytical competence). Raban (2001) cites Vygotskian's notion of language and thought that thinking is related to spoken and written languages as demonstrated through the process of talk. As children converse, their creativity and thoughts are enhanced from their conversations with others and they learn how to be creative and critical (P. G. Smith, 2001). This means individual learners will be equipped with the thinking skills they need. Furthermore, oral language ability assists children to organize their old thoughts and understandings and move toward exploring more ideas and researching problems. Then, they learn to share their ideas and points of views with others. In so doing, new insights are developed, adjusted, and acquired (Lee & Rubin, 1979; Monsalve & Correal, 2006; Raban, 2001; P. G. Smith, 2001).

2.3.2.2 Social-affective development

Oral language is also an important skill for social-affective development. Children, like adults, converse to make relationships and express their feelings. In the process of creating relationships, there are also many benefits mentioned by different scholars; for example, children use oral language to identify themselves, learn to understand others, to unite with them, or to state their differences from them. In addition, they learn to negotiate meanings, take turns, share feelings, compromise, and take part as members of the group in order to reward themselves, their group, and the whole class (Lee & Rubin, 1979; Monsalve & Correal, 2006; Raban, 2001; P. G. Smith, 2001). Also, children learn to appreciate themselves and others, which develops their concerns with cultural diversity. They have different roles to represent themselves in diverse contexts and cultures and use oral language to make and build relationships with others to increase their social-affective development. Understanding and care about others can reduce conflicts that may come from self-centeredness, and reduce the issue of racism or discrimination as everyone realizes people's rights and differences, which can create new insights that benefit them.

In conclusion, oral language skills come with many benefits for children, and it can be categorized in relation to the areas of development in children including cognitive and social-affective development.

2.3.3 Oral second language development of young learners

A number of researchers have proposed models of child second language development. With regard to the child SLA models, the primary focus of each has been on oral language development.

2.3.3.1 Jim Cummins's cultural diversity context

Cummins suggests that fluency and accuracy in children's language depend on diverse contexts of language use and learning. Cummins (1979, as cited in Chin & Wigglesworth, 2007) distinguishes between two types of language proficiency: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). BICS refers to the ability to use language to communicate with others orally (listening and speaking skills) in daily interpersonal situations (Krashen, 1982). On the other hand, CALP refers to the ability to use a kind of language necessitated in the educational system, which is related to literacy skills to achieve in school and the future profession (Cummins, 1980, as cited in Krashen, 1982).

BICS is hypothesized to be developed earlier when children are young and use the language every day at home, while CALP is developed later in the schooling system when they are required to use the language in a formal educational setting. Thus, BICS is acquired relatively rapidly compared to CALP, as it requires longer time to achieve long-term academic language proficiency. Cummins provides a framework to explain the relationship between contextual support and cognitive demands that provide an overview in the instruction and assessment of children's language proficiency.

According to Cummins's framework, BICS involves language that is contextually embedded (talk about the here and now) and is cognitively undemanding (involving common vocabulary and simple syntax), whereas CALP involves language that is context removed (language used to refer to the distant past, future, hypotheticals, etc.) and cognitively demanding (more specialized vocabulary and complex syntax). Applied to curricula and assessments, these two binary features (\pm context embedded

and \pm cognitively undemanding) can be viewed as two intersecting continua, resulting in four quadrants, as seen in Figure 1.

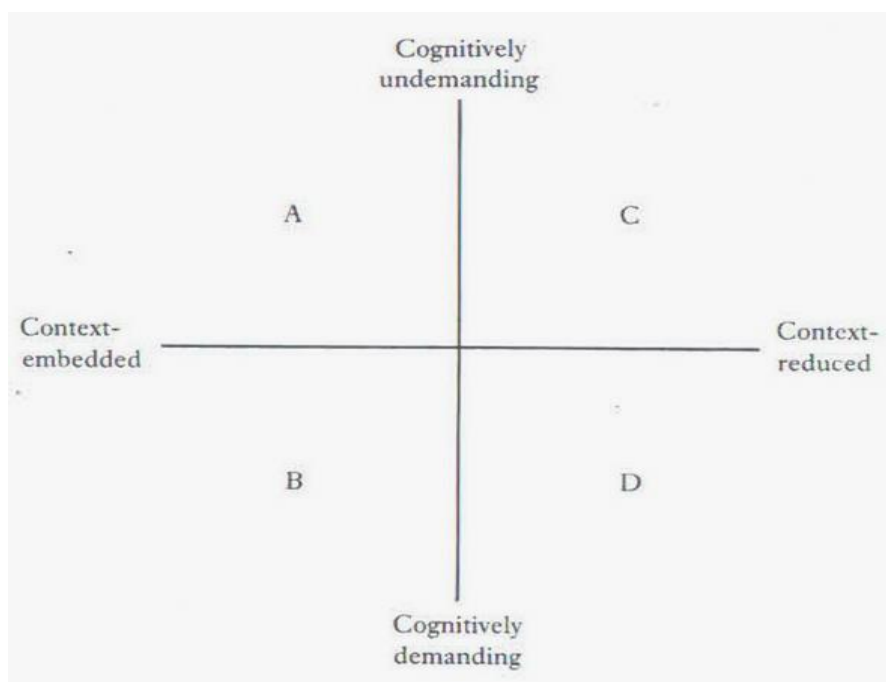


Figure 1. Cummins's framework of contextual support and cognitive involvement.

The upper two quadrants display language activities that are not cognitively demanding. The lower two quadrants show more academic activities requiring cognitive involvement to complete tasks. The horizontal continuum demarcates different activities according to contextual support. Activities in two quadrants on the left are supported by contextual cues, whereas those in quadrants on the right are context-reduced tasks. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) additionally explain contextual cues as directly related to comprehensible language. In other words, the more supportive the context is, the more comprehensible the language will be. Likewise, the language is less comprehensible when the context is reduced. Those context clues include nonverbal expressions and paralinguistic cues such as the use of concrete

objects, gestures, facial expressions, visual aids, and vocal intonation and stress markings. Chin and Wigglesworth (2007) mention that contextual cues defined by Cummins include sociocultural context, negotiation of meaning, and meaningful interpersonal and situational cues.

In each quadrant, Becker (2001) specifies some activities for ESL learners. She also remarks that the ESL curricula should begin with activities in quadrants A and C, which are non-academic, more communicative, and easiest to learn before moving toward activities presented in quadrants B and D, which are more difficult and academically demanding tasks. Between the left and right quadrants, the context-embedded activities are viewed to be easier and should be constructed before context-reduced ones. Thus, activities in quadrants A and B should be implemented before those in quadrants C and D, respectively. Table 6 illustrates some suggested activities adapted from and shown in Becker (2001, p. 14) and Cummins (n.d., as cited in Chin & Wigglesworth, 2007, pp. 168-169).

Table 6. *Sample activities following Cummins's framework*

<p>Quadrant A (Cognitively undemanding, Context embedded)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing survival vocabulary • Following demonstrated directions • Playing simple games • Engaging in face-to-face interaction • Practice oral language exercises and communicative language functions • Causal conversation 	<p>Quadrant C (Cognitively undemanding, Context reduced)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing initial reading skills: decoding and literal comprehension • Reading and writing for personal purposes: notes, lists, recipes, etc. • Reading and writing for operational purposes: directions, forms, etc. • Writing answers to lower-level questions • Copying notes from blackboard
<p>Quadrant B (Cognitively demanding, Context embedded)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing academic vocabulary • Understanding academic presentations accompanied by visuals, demonstrations of a process, etc. • Participating in hands-on science activities • Making models, maps, charts, and graphs in social studies • Solving math word problems assisted by manipulatives and/or illustrations • Participating in academic discussions • Making brief oral presentations • Using higher-level comprehension skills in listening to oral texts • Understanding written texts through discussions, illustrations, and visuals • Writing simple science and social studies reports with format provided • Answering higher-level questions • Using persuasive skills • Using a project-based lesson 	<p>Quadrant D (Cognitively demanding, Context reduced)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understanding academic presentations without visuals or demonstrations • Making formal oral presentations • Using higher-level reading comprehension skills: inferential and critical reading • Reading for information in content subjects • Writing compositions, essays, and research reports in content subjects • Solving math word problems without illustrations • Writing answers to higher-level questions • Taking standardized achievement tests • Participating in intense intellectual in group discussions

Cummins' framework has critical implications for EFL learners and play activities. First, in many EFL contexts, CALP is taught and used more and more often than BICS. Some activities listed in Table 6 may be more appropriate for ESL rather

than for EFL learners. That is because the environment to support BICS is different. In daily situations, EFL learners have less exposure to the target language than ESL learners. That is to say, generally, Thai learners have limited opportunities to use English in their daily lives. In the Thai classroom, however, English is mostly employed where CALP is demanded. It appears to be opposed to the notions of Cummins' framework in that Thai learners are exposed to CALP before BICS. But academic language for achieving academic content in the school system is neither adequate to strengthen learners' real basic conversational language nor their language proficiency as a whole. On the contrary, Krashen (1982) mentions that BICS is developed earlier than CALP. Chin and Wigglesworth (2007) also assert that children acquire L2 conversational language more quickly and easily than academic language in the school domain. In terms of play, play activities can promote oral language learning beginning from BICS and continuing to CALP or transitioning from quadrant A or context-embedded and cognitively undemanding activities (such as controlled or constructive play) to quadrant D or context-reduced and cognitively demanding activities (such as dramatic free play). Play can begin with familiar and easy games and move toward more unfamiliar and complex activities such as picture-word matching game and role-play, for instance.

A second issue raised by the BICS/CALP distinction is the goal of language learning. Like ESL learners, EFL learners are expected to produce the language effectively to construct meaning to meet academic demands using linguistic tools with the least contextual support. As mentioned previously, because play assists children to move from BICS to CALP, to reach the goal of CALP, subject matter contents should

be added in BICS or play activities in order to achieve oral proficiency in academic language.

BICS/ play activities + Content area = CALP

2.3.3.2 Michael Halliday's functions of language

The child knows what language is by using it. In other words, a child's oral language comes from direct experiences in order to satisfy his/her needs. When a child is still young, s/he may say only one sentence to respond to one function. But, when s/he grows older, the structures as well as functions become more complex and possibly more various than one function per sentence. Therefore, language can be used to perform several functions. Also, the child starts interacting with parents at a very young age in order to establish relationship with them, to learn the surroundings, and to express his/her needs and identity. Halliday (1973) presents a view of the child's oral language that develops from the simplest to the most complicated functions, or what he called "models."

The first and simplest function is known as the *Instrumental Model*. Children use language to signal their needs or exert their control over something. Like adults, imperative forms or loud noise can be a means to use language as an instrument to complete a task. Next, the *Regulatory Model* employs language to give directions or instructions to other children. It is a part of socialization processes that demand or direct children's behaviors. It is realized in many forms, such as conditions and threats, and is sometimes bounded by rules. The third model function of a child's language is the *Interactional Model* involving the use of language to build relationships between the

child him/herself and other people like parents and friends. Besides, it is used to create solidarity with his/her peer group as opposed to breaking the connection with someone and separating him/her out of the group. Both active and passive actions can be found in this model. To rephrase, children may actively take the role of a speaker and passively act as a listener to internalize the language. The *Personal Model* requires self-awareness and language awareness in developing one's personality. Language, then, is used to express one's emotions and attitudes to show his/her ideas and identity. The next model, closely related to the Personal Model, is the *Heuristic Model*, in which children use language to explore the environment and their world. The obvious form of learning is question-answer patterns. Children attempt to find not only answers but also their explanations. Initially, young children normally talk to their closest adult or mother. Mothers naturally and automatically become aware of their linguistic features in their utterances. Language correction and learning of linguistic forms consequently occur during this pattern of questions and answers which leads children to learn how to learn a language or metalanguage, the use of language as a means to talk about the language. Halliday calls the following model the *Imaginative Model*, which is also connected to metalanguage. Unlike the Heuristic Model, children use the Imaginative Model to talk about the environment that they create by themselves, and their world is not necessarily found in reality. The final model is called *Representational* (1973) or *Informative* (1975), which refers to the language children use to convey the content of information they have in their mind. Thus, the language of reference to people, objects, place, times, and abstractions are used. In fact, it is the most complex function normally found in adult language. However, it can also appear in children's internalization in the later stages, which becomes an indicator of children's language development.

In this model, Halliday illustrates those functions of children's language development arranged from the simplest to the most complicated. The links from one to the next are sequenced to show the development from the former to the latter functions. Therefore, the simplest function—Instrumental—is found in the early years. The next models are increasingly complex until children develop the most complicated models—Representational or Informative. The model is intended to show the development of children's language towards adult language according to children's intentions. The seven functions of children's language model are summarized in Table 7.

Table 7. *Halliday's functions of children's language (1973, 1975)*

Function	Intentions	Example uses of language
Instrumental	Satisfy the needs of materials	"I want"
Regulatory	Control someone's behavior	"Do as I tell you"
Interactional	Get along with others	"Me and you"
Personal	Express self's identity and feelings	"Here I come"
Heuristic	Use language to learn about the world	"Tell me why"
Imaginative	Create one's make-believe environment	"Let's pretend"
Informative	Communicate the content	"I've got something to tell you"

Observing children's utterances makes it possible to identify what language children know, what they want to mean, and what linguistic systems they have mastered in relation to stages of their age or physical development. However, there may be arguments that some children do not use the language that adults expect them to

communicate with. However, that cannot be interpreted as a lack of knowledge, understanding, or the ability to convey their intentions. There may be several factors limiting linguistic resources and experiences that create a mismatch among children's levels of language competence, expectation from the school's curriculum, and children's surrounding context.

In Thailand, the context of language learning can become an obstacle for young Thai learners since it is an EFL context, where English is not used in their daily lives. English appears to have very limited purposes for use among Thai learners in the society outside school. Even though English is a compulsory subject for learners from as early as kindergarten in some cases, the teaching of English as a subject cannot be considered completely successful as there is little demand or appropriate purpose or context to use the language, especially oral language. The connection between the appropriate context and the use of the English language to benefit the development of children's oral language was investigated in this study. For children, play is a part of their living, and when play is integrated into learning, it can provide a suitable context for them to develop the oral language.

2.3.3.3 Michael Tomasello's usage-based theory

Children's language is not the same as adult language. Children acquire and use language differently from adults as they communicate with a focus on meaning making rather than linguistic accuracy. Usage-based Linguistics (UBL), a theory of children's language construction, is defined as a process of language learning through language use. There are two dimensions serving as UBL's basis: the meaning or functional dimension and the structure or grammatical dimension. UBL maintains that the

acquisition of a language involves both social-cognitive (Tomasello, 2001) or functional (Tomasello, 2000) and cognitive processes. It is also believed that language and cultural learning occur concurrently.

The first, functional dimension, refers to how people use their linguistic conventions to make meaning involving semantic and pragmatic features to meet social circumstances. UBL maintains that linguistic convention is learned culturally and with understanding of joint attention and intention or intentional-reading (Tomasello, 2009). The second, grammatical dimension, refers to how an individual acts on meaning based on formally grammatical and cognitive constructions. It is suggested that children learn by pattern-finding, which derives from children's linguistic experience involving a set of expressions they already own or linguistic schema involving items they have previously experienced, used, and mastered (Tomasello, 2000).

Children cannot use language to communicate in their early age; their learning trajectory is acquired ontogenetically. Babies initially use other communicating functions like pointing or iconic gestures to make meaning (joint attentional frame) in a particular way (shared experience) with a specific person (potential communicative partners). To illustrate, children may point to the table in the kitchen to let his mother know that he wants to eat. In later years, those prelinguistic communicative acts are replaced by utterances to create meaning.

An utterance is the smallest linguistic unit that children use to express their communicative intention (Tomasello, 2009). The significance of an utterance includes reference, purposes or motive (Tomasello, 2009) with emotion, and the communicative function of linguistic role assignment. Thus, from utterances children learn language moving from individual words and phrases to abstract linguistic knowledge by

extracting an utterance from expressions, applying their functional roles, finding patterns for them, and generalizing abstract meaningful grammatical construction. In this way, multi-meaning words can also be learned, although word choices are to be selected appropriately to intention or pragmatic choices also known as referential choice in Tomasello (2009). In the early years, children learn to construct utterances of three types: word combination (a combination of single words appropriate for a given scene), pivot schema (a more systematic pattern mainly using one word or phrase with an open slot), and item-based construction (a more systematic use of syntactic structure than pivot schema combining formulas and patterns). The last type, item-based construction, is a crucial indicator of the early linguistic competence of a child aged two to three years old moving toward abstract linguistic construction of adult language, even though his/her syntactic categories are not as numerous as those in adult language. Contrary to Chomsky's notion of linguistic nativism, usage-based approaches argue that language is not innate but rather involves more general cognitive and communicative processes (i.e., intention-reading and pattern-finding) (Tomasello, 2001, 2008) that children use to categorize and schematize item-based constructions used in various contexts. Tomasello (2001) cites some observational studies showing that children use a particular verb form in a sentence frame with little or no modification, known as the Verb Island Hypothesis. Subsequently, children may assimilate those verb islands to new sentence frames to construct their language. That is to say, the items in an utterance are words or phrases that children hear, imitate, and creatively combine using individual cognitive and social-cognitive skills in order to attain adult language competence (Tomasello, 2001). These processes become evident as children move toward adult language construction.

Eskildsen (2008) applies the UBL item-based construction framework to SLA. According to this framework, acquisition begins with the use of formulas in low-scope patterns. Formulas are defined as “rote-learned chunks” or “recurring multi-word expression (MWE).” Low-scope patterns consist of two parts: a fixed part and an open slot where “schematic knowledge of symbolic units” are filled in. It is called “utterance schema” (p. 336).

This item-based construction of formulas and utterance schema is proposed to be the basis of adult abstract language or “ultimate abstractness” (Eskildsen, 2008). As such, children’s learning trajectory starts from specific words, expressions, and low-scope patterns, and moves toward abstract generalities of adult linguistic construction. Linguistic experience is the basis for how children develop item-based constructions to reach adult-language goals. That is, children start with item-based constructions that can be expanded when children encounter more linguistic experience involving linguistic interactions and the gradual change of environment or situations. Learners’ emergent linguistic inventory is established in usage events. Token and type frequencies are used to explain entrenchment and schematicity of the recurring constructions. The additions of utterance schema and evolution of formulas increase the productive structures in a child’s linguistic inventory, which requires a high token-type ratio.

In conclusion, item-based construction tries to explain how child language moves toward adult language by using specific expressions and reaching general schematic constructions. In other words, children are likely to use rote-learned chunks in various patterns depending on their linguistic experience and the emergent linguistic

situation in order to produce creative adult-abstract and general constructions. Figure 2 summarizes the language constructing from children to adult language.

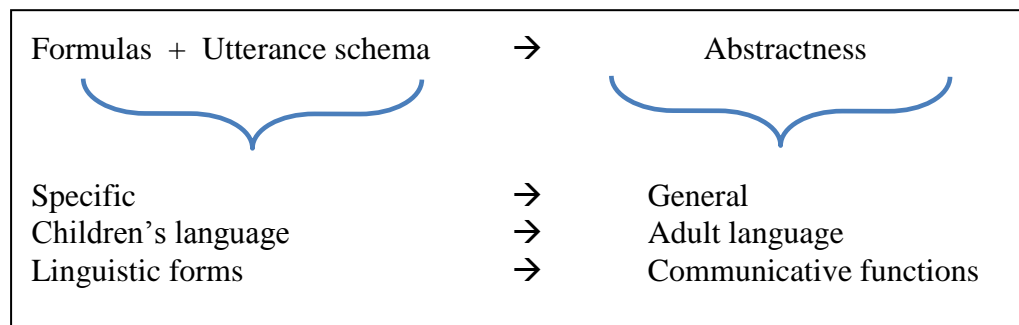


Figure 2. A summary of language constructing from children to adult language.

However, the item-based construction (IBC) has several constraints, the main issues of which concern the more complex structures and overgeneralization. It is conceded that IBC cannot be applied to teach more complicated constructions and children may overgeneralize their own linguistic forms, which may make them perform functions incorrectly or inappropriately. Therefore, linguists in the usage-based linguistics field argue that with the more frequent use of constructions, the more chance for children to increase linguistic experience of complex constructions and the less chance of overgeneralization. Put another way, overgeneralizations are produced less as children become more mature (Tomasello, 2001).

To conclude, oral language skills are advantageous to main areas of child development. Children acquire oral language from early years through a variety of means, including interaction with adults. Children's language is learned from adults' language; nevertheless, they are different. Children's language is short and simple where context is not necessarily mentioned in a sentence. On the other hand, adults'

language is different as scholars present individual notions of oral language that can be defined in general construct as well as operationalizing concepts.

2.4 Play and Oral Language Skill Development

The play activities and the natural developmental processes of oral language in children are worth exploring in purposes of developing the instructions in school context, which is linked to assessment of children' oral language proficiency.

2.4.1 PLL activities for oral language skills

This section investigates key elements necessary to develop a course conducted by PLL activities for young learners to enhance their oral language skills.

2.4.1.1 Young learner's characteristics and learning conditions

Medwell et al. (2012) point out that learners' characteristics must be considered carefully for effective learning and assessment to take place. Lightbown and Spada (1993) mention five characteristics of language learners that teachers should be concerned with including 1) knowledge of another language, 2) cognitive maturity, 3) metalinguistic awareness, 4) knowledge of the world, and 5) nervousness about speaking. These five characteristics are discussed with respect to four groups of learners: Child L1, Child (informal) L2, Adolescent (formal) L2, and Adult (informal) L2. Formal and informal marked in the parentheses refer to an environment in which particular learners acquire their second language. When comparing young L1 and L2 learners' characteristics, 'knowledge of another language' is a major advantage of young L2 learners. When comparing young learners with older groups, 'cognitive

maturity,' 'metalinguistic awareness,' and 'knowledge of the world' are deficient in children but seem to be attained depending on their developmental maturity. The commonality of both young L1 and L2 learners is that the 'nervousness about speaking the language' is considered positive, as it benefits children by preventing them from developing fear of failure in using the language.

Lightbown and Spada (1993) classify learning conditions into: 1) freedom to be silent, 2) ample time, 3) corrective feedback: grammar and pronunciation, 4) corrective feedback: word choice, and 5) modified input. Young learners tend to feel comfortable with learning language under four out of five conditions except corrective feedback on grammar and pronunciation. To explicitly point out and correct errors on grammar and pronunciation may obstruct children's learning. To illustrate, opposite to adults, young learners should rather be corrected on meaning and vocabulary more than forms so that they feel less anxious with grammar correction and accuracy, yet being more confident to get correction on their fluency to make more meaning. Also, children should feel free to stay silent and should not feel forced to answer questions or speak to others when doing activities, taking quizzes, talking about their life experience, or explaining things and situation, etc. They should be allowed to acquire knowledge and experience a learning environment that they can enjoy themselves and from which they can gradually learn. Once children feel free to produce the language, adults are key facilitators who naturally modify their speech by being their role model. That is to say, adults usually adjust their language by making it simpler or slower when talking to young children. This kind of language is known as caretaker talk for L1 and foreigner talk or teacher talk for L2.

To sum up, the discussion on learner characteristics and learning conditions of learners display advantages and disadvantages that teachers should be concerned with when conducting a course. As for L2 learners in particular, their characteristics include an already know another language and a limited cognitive maturity and worldview knowledge. Young L2 learners should be exposed to more learning environment for worldview knowledge. Also, they should be placed in relaxing learning conditions in which they have freedom to speak, are given ample time to be silent, and receive some corrective feedback and modified input.

2.4.1.2 The integration of PLL and oral language principles

PLL activities developed and implemented in this study was an integration of an extensive review of theories on children's play and oral language development. Play-based Learning had been looked into to shed more light on important features that should be concerned with. It is worth synthesizing both main concepts closely to establish a solid framework.

In the part of play, characteristics of children's play that well suit young learners have been revealed. The play activities are characterized with the components of meaningful context, enjoyment, spontaneity, and absence from fear of failure. In this study, play activities had been categorized and proposed in the form of play taxonomy, which was designed to comply with play characteristics. The play taxonomy involved language play, physical play, creative play, games with rules, and pretend play.

In the part of oral language for young learners, three fundamental concepts were applied—national policy and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages' (ACTFL) modes of communication, thematic unit, and vocabulary and

sentence patterns appropriate for third graders. The national policy signified three main standards under strand 1, the Language for Communication, in the foreign language learning area for grade 3 in the Basic Education Core Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2008). The international standard is grounded on ACTFL's three modes of communication—interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational modes.

In this study, effectiveness of the PLL activities was determined based on the possible learning and affective outcomes as well as the learners' attitudes toward the PLL activities. The evidence of learning outcomes resulted from both quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative data were collected from PLL pre- and post-tests and oral language performance checklists, whereas oral records from observation reflected learners' L2 strategies.

Thus, Play-based Language Learning (PLL) referred to activities that included the features of play and emphasized language learning components involving dialoguing situations with others and manipulation of objects within various choices in play contexts. The key elements of play and oral language development were articulated into the actualizing concept for PLL curriculum design and its interpretation into an operationalizing course development. All features were based on a grounded conceptual framework on PLL activities aimed for oral language skill development. Figure 6 displays an overview of the conceptual framework of the play-based language learning activities for young EFL learners to enhance their oral language skills.

2.4.2 Oral language assessment of young learners

Effective assessment should concern several factors. Children's characteristics and their learning conditions are two main factors that affect instruction as well as

assessment. A number of assessments in general and those specific to oral language of young learners are examined.

2.4.2.1 Language assessment of young learners

Generally, the notion of language assessment is embedded in instruction, which signifies that teaching and assessment are inseparable to observe learners' language development. Medwell et al. (2012) suggest that teaching and assessing young language learners should be carried out by integrating language skills in various situations. Besides, it is necessary that factors of young language learners' characteristics and learning conditions be taken into considerations when developing an assessment for young language learners.

Characteristics of young language learners

The special characteristics of young language learners suggested by McKay (2006, p. 5) include growth, literacy, and vulnerability, which influence effective instruction and assessment in general.

The first characteristic is children's growth in all developmental areas that influences how the lessons should be constructed. Growth refers to all areas of children's development concerning cognitive, social and emotional, and physical skills. McKay (2006) emphasizes growth affects the developmental areas of young children in present background schemata toward future experience. In other words, across different ages, children's present knowledge is increasing as they gain more experience and that may affect their future identities. Generally, children's characteristics gear toward those of adults', such as thinking skills and the change of their interest. For one

thing, the cognitive ability is developed to be more logical and more systematic. For another thing, children's worldview can be expanded and learned from concrete objects and experience toward abstract thoughts or ideas, which are important features in adults' language. Assessment needs to involve the present knowledge of young learners as well as the more logical and abstract schemes.

Second, children's literacy should be considered starting from oral language to written language. L1 and L2 young learners are similar in that their oral language is developed earlier than written language by interacting with various topics, situations, genres, and interlocutors. It is assumed that literacy begins at the age of five to seven years old and develops along with oral language ability by firstly, talking about what they read and write. Reading develops slowly from reading aloud to silent reading, and from simple to more complex and critical reading. Writing represents what children have read. Drawing may be engaged in the early stage to assist children's writing skills. Subsequently, they may develop only writing, advancing from basic to formal writing for a particular purpose. Assessment in general needs to be concerned with how children construct literacy skills in order to create appropriate judgment or criteria and develop proper test tasks for different stages in different ages of learning.

Third, vulnerability is another characteristic that influences children's performance. Children require a great amount of positive support to encourage them to continue learning and growing physically and mentally. On the contrary, a lack of love and support neither motivates children to respect themselves nor develops their knowledge and abilities. Thus, it is essential that instruction and assessment for young learners mainly concern a sense of positive support for individual positive progress and

development. Assessment needs to provide physical and mental supports and focuses on individual progress rather than the patterns of all children's development.

These three characteristics allow educators and assessors to prepare instructional activities and materials incorporated with assessing tools appropriate for their age and growth, literacy, and vulnerability.

Learning condition factors

The above characteristics of children directly influence the development of instructional procedures and test tasks. McKay (2006, p. 41) mentions factors of conditions suitable for children that must be taken into consideration. Firstly, the focus on meaning gives children opportunity to communicate and interact freely. The second feature is interesting and engaging input and interaction, which is necessary in setting a purposeful communication. It is advisable to arrange cooperative and language-rich activities that match children's interest in order to give them a chance to use the language meaningfully. The third feature is the focus on form. That is to say, young language learners naturally learn grammar implicitly. Initially, they are engaged in interaction with others for meaning. Later, the forms of language can be developed with the support of simple and repetitive activities using pictures or games as instructional tools for them to implicitly internalize the language. Lastly, a safe and supportive environment is determined by the time allowed and risk-taking situations or tasks that provide children not a stressful but challenging experience they are encouraged to participate. This feature can be created with the teacher's facial expressions, tones of voice, and positive feedback that welcome children's participation as well as establish their individual confidence necessary to develop oral language skills.

Both learners' characteristics and language learning conditions are significant for assessing language of young learners in general and oral skills in particular. They signify what teachers need to take into consideration when designing an assessment.

2.4.2.2 Oral language assessment of young learners

In measuring young learners' oral language learning, McKay (2006) highlights the task types that should comprise vocabulary and formulaic language following their abilities and age. The abilities being tested must also be connected with their characteristics and learning processes involving tasks that are routine, regular, repetitive, and those children are familiar with in their daily lives as well as in classroom settings. Additionally, test tasks must reflect how they learn a language. For advanced levels of learners, tasks should be engaged with rules and explicit language use.

Types of assessment and tasks

Classroom assessment, another term of teacher assessment, refers to the measures prepared and carried out in the classrooms by teachers who are closest to learners they measure (McAfee & Leong, 2011; McKay, 2006). It is possible to use formative assessment, summative assessment, or other alternative assessments that can be conducted (McKay, 2006), as discussed in the following part.

Classroom assessment is the term used opposed to external assessment, which is prepared by others such as standardized tests. Generally, these two assessments are conducted and implemented for different purposes. As classroom assessment is applied to collect learners' oral work as evidence of their learning progress across the semester, the teacher can make use of the information to diagnose learners' needs, determine their

strengths and weaknesses, and keep track of their progress. On the other hand, teachers usually use external assessments to measure learners' learning proficiency in comparison to other students' of the same level following a certain standard. The standardized test then may benefit parents to make use of the scores for further studies of their children, teachers to develop their lessons, and school administrators for school and curriculum improvement on a high-stake level.

Formative assessment is a formal assessment to keep track of children's learning. Teachers can use the information for several purposes. McKay (2006) mentions that formative assessment can provide information of learners to carry out *diagnostic assessment* to identify specific needs of the learners, *on-the-run assessment* to observe and give feedback immediately during instruction, and *planned assessment* to prepare in advance the targeted observations and achievement. For example, role-play in various situations can be used as a formative assessment to assess oral language skills of your learners

Summative assessment is typically formal assessment at the end of the course to measure the children's progress. It can be in the forms of test or the summative decisions observed by teachers at the end of semester. Also, the results of summative assessment may involve many stakeholders including parents to know the child's progress as well as school administrators and education departments to know the progress of individual learners, classes, and policy to make an improvement of the school domain. Oral reading tests and retelling a story can exemplify summative test tasks to assess oral language skills of young learners.

Discrete-point assessment is a common approach to assess a particular element of language, especially the linguistic units, in the period of audiolingual method,

structuralism, and behaviorism (Buck, 2001, p. 62). McKay (2006) divides discrete-point assessment into two types of assessment: selected-response tasks and limited-production tasks. The former refers to how children select specific test items as their responses, which can be found in the form of true/false, multiple-choice items, picture cloze, and picture-matching vocabulary items. Buck (2001) exemplifies the extreme discrete-point items in listening such as phonemic discrimination tasks that ask learners to distinguish the differences of two sounds. The latter is determined by a small amount of response required in form of words or sentences in the test types such as gap filling, fill-in-the-blank items, and short-answer tasks (McKay, 2006). Both types can possibly be utilized to assess oral language skills provided that the tasks are carried out using listening and speaking skills. The short-answer tasks are seen to be the most obvious ones. McKay (2006) further classifies the two tasks of selected-response tasks and limited-production tasks into language-use oriented and language-item oriented. The former involves more children's ability to use language for particular points required in the test such as listening for details and drawing lines to match pictures with words they heard. The latter is focused mainly on vocabulary and grammar units.

Oral language should then be measured based on both learners' language knowledge and their skills. Young learners' language development can be seen when chunks and formulas are expected to perform their limited language knowledge. The test tasks need to consider several components that include the authenticity of language use in real-life situation, promote children's language on spontaneity and creativity, and involve integrative and communicative skills. It is suggested that oral assessment for young learners should emphasize how children use language instead of what they know, and whether they can use it to communicate effectively and appropriately in a particular

situation. Buck (2001) points out the relationship between communicative testing and Chomsky's notion of competence versus performance that language test should not be testing children's language knowledge but rather their language performance "use of language in ordinary situations" (p. 84). Therefore, oral language skills of young learners should be evaluated based on their performance to determine how effective they can use the language.

Performance-based Assessment is one authentic approach to assess children's real language use. It allows children to use oral language in realistic tasks, in realistic situations, and for realistic purposes. Generally, observation of learners' behaviors and attempt in language use is mainly employed to assess their linguistic knowledge and performance as a whole. McKay (2006, p. 99), citing Jalongo's (2000, p. 287), summarizes the principles and characteristics of performance assessment as follows:

- students are active participants rather than passive subjects;
- evaluation and guidance occur simultaneously and continuously;
- processes as well as products are evaluated;
- development and learning need to be recognized and celebrated;
- multiple indicators and sources of evidence are collected over time;
- results of the assessment are used to plan instruction, improve classroom practice, and optimize children's learning; and
- the assessment process is collaborative among parents, teachers, children, and other professionals as needed,

Performance-based assessment is seen to require collaboration from several partners as it is an ongoing process that fosters teaching and learning. To illustrate, students can learn from teachers, peers, and themselves (self-evaluation), which

influence teaching activities and contexts that provide situations for students to perform the language.

Main methods of collecting information can vary from informal to formal assessment. Pappas et al. (2006) address five methods to collect information of young learners' language skills: ongoing observations and periodic documentations, student/teacher conferences, student self-evaluation, tests and exams, and parent and caregiver input.

Ongoing observations and periodic documentations is one way in which teachers interact with children to observe what support they need and evaluate them at the same time they teach. Teachers can keep journals about events occurring in the classroom. Additionally, it can be snapshot, or artifacts produced by children. *Student/teacher conferences* display continuing process that teachers and children discuss subject content through which students learn and evaluate themselves and peers across the curriculum. Conferences can be arranged in groups so that children may take different roles in each conference. *Student self-evaluation* is a critical feature with which children reflect their own opinion in their work and learning. It can be in forms of children's learning portfolio. Teachers may discuss with children and take note to help them examine their learning progress or attitude. *Tests and exams* can incorporate authentic materials and simulated situations that are implemented to gather oral information in order to evaluate children's ability such as the test tasks that are carried out orally on comparison and contrast using films on Thanksgiving situation, or tests on identifying errors using pictures of country home and family in the old time and present day (p. 397). Most tests are aimed to evaluate how children develop their idea and thinking process, so children must be given time to think, rethink, revise, and

communicate their idea. *Parents and caregiver input* is a method that invites participation of parents and caregivers to share more feedback on students' learning with teachers. The parents and caregivers can communicate with school by conferencing with teachers about their children's performance.

While methods demonstrated above involve different kinds of documentaries and stakeholders, McKay (2006) posits performance-based assessment encompasses real-world tasks. Thus, tasks that test children's abilities and require their language use are taken into account. She claims that "young learners learn best through activities that are concrete and meaningful, and evidence of their language learning is most likely to be present in language use assessment tasks that have similar characteristics to those in the child's real world" (p. 100).

Language use tasks are meaning-oriented tasks that children understand the purpose and goal of the situation. They are expected to see the language they produce, which may begin in chunks but gradually approach adult's language patterns. McKay (2006) emphasizes that performing tasks should include two main elements of spontaneity and creativity in children's language. Tasks can simulate realistic situations where students add on information in the open-ended blanks so they can perform their oral language as well as those two main elements. The teacher can implement those tasks as an assessment that teachers observe and take notes on what and how children use the language (McKay, 2006; Pappas et al., 2006). Williams (1994, as cited in McKay, 2006) illustrates examples of language use tasks for young learners. The language use tasks for oral language skills are such as conducting surveys (e.g., food, birthdays, traffic surveys, etc.), interviewing people (e.g., parents, people in the neighborhood, etc.), planning things (e.g., an outing, a party, etc.). Therefore, language

use tasks should be designed and employed to examine young learners' language performance.

2.4.2.3 Oral language assessment for PLL

This section explores key features in oral language assessment involving language use tasks underpinning a type of performance assessment appropriate for PLL activities.

2.4.2.3.1 Integrated performance assessment (IPA)

Integrated Performance Assessment or IPA is another type of performance assessment that is specified as the assessment in the classroom and corresponded to the national standard. It was originally developed by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) to be performance guidelines for K-12 learners and to be incorporated with the Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century of the US curriculum (Adair-Hauch, Koda, & Swender, 2006). The features of IPA include the use of thematic unit to be a basis for designing the assessment tasks. Tedick and Cammarata (2012) outline three main communicative modes to construct the performance tasks around the theme: interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational tasks. Figure 3 displays the description of ACTFL—Integrated Performance Assessment with three communicative modes.

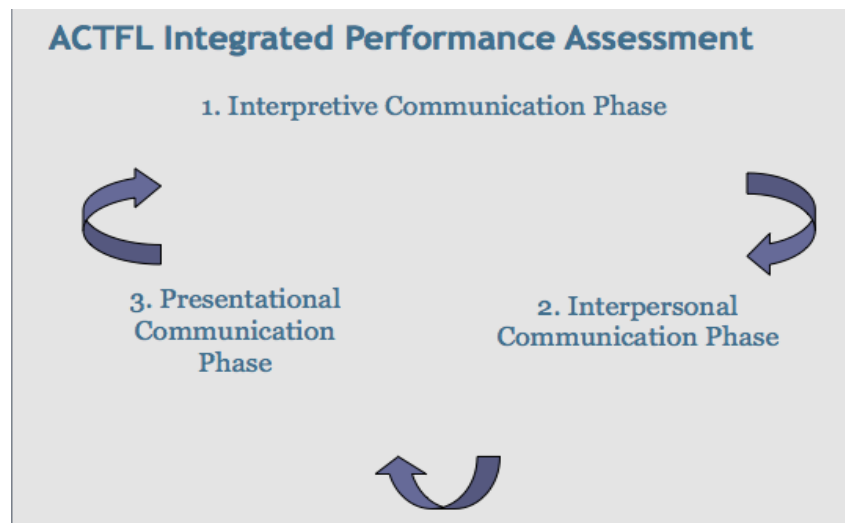


Figure 3. ACTFL—Integrated performance assessment with three modes of communication.

According to this study, the Integrated Performance Assessment was suitable for several reasons. Firstly, it is a performance-based assessment that corresponds with the National Policy of Thailand or BECC (2008). The three modes of communication—interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational mode—have similar elements to the standards FL 1.1, 1.2, and 1.3, as shown in Table 8. Secondly, the performance assessment is suitable for young learners.

Table 8. *The comparison between standard of foreign language skills and IPA*

BECC Language for Communication	ACTFL Integrated Performance Assessment
Standard FL1.1: Understanding and ability in interpreting what has been heard and read from various types of media, and ability to express opinions with reasons.	Interpretive mode Students listen to and/or read an authentic text and answer information as well as interpretive questions to assess comprehension. The teacher provides students with feedback on performance.
Standard FL1.2: Possessing language communication skills for effective exchange of information; efficient expression of feelings and opinions	Interpersonal mode After receiving feedback students engage in communication about a particular topic which relates to the interpretive text. This phase is audio- or videotaped.
Standard FL1.3: Ability to speak and write about information, concepts and views on various matters	Presentational mode Students engage in the presentational mode by sharing their research/ideas/ opinions. Samples presentational formats: speeches, drama, skits, radio broadcasts, posters, brochures, podcasts, websites, etc.

The assessment instruments of this study incorporated three modes (interpretive tasks, interpersonal tasks, and presentational tasks) of IPA to be compatible with three main standards of BECC to promote oral language skills. Observations, with the use of three video recorders, were the main method to measure the participants' behaviors and oral language skills.

To explain, interpretive tasks could be engaged with language play activities. The participants played around words and sounds using different materials and activities like songs and storybooks. For example, the tasks may require the participants to listen to a sentence. Then, the participants were asked to act out, as their action could signify their comprehension. Interpersonal tasks may be carried out with games with rules activities that they played with their friends. The language was used to set the rules, negotiate meanings, or take turns. For example, the participants played

board games similar to monopoly, so they needed to take turns and follow the rules and instructions. Presentational tasks was when students sat at the center with peers and a teacher. They might discuss the roles and take turns to present what they did at the centers and express how they felt.

McKay (2006) suggests three factors to consider before constructing oral language assessment tasks for young learners. First, the issue of motivation should be examined to meet learners' interest as tasks need to be meaningful and attractive so as to draw and sustain their attention. The materials could embrace colorful items, pictures, and puppets because they got the participants' attention and made meaning while speaking. Second, appropriateness and usefulness of the tasks must be determined. She explains that the more appropriate support teachers provide to children, the more opportunity they are invited and encouraged to talk. Support may comprise visual aids, meaningful topics in children's interest, introductory sessions and in-task supports, text mechanic supports, etc. McKay emphasizes the vital role of supports in relation to task completion as "oral language tasks are less likely to engage learners if no help is given along the way, and usually teachers give support to help children to continue and be successful in the task" (p. 186). For instance, telling-retelling a story task would engage learners more with toys or play materials that were related to the story, which also aided comprehension. The participants could play around those materials and use it to retell the story they were told. This notion is also termed "assisted performance," the mediated learning in classroom assessment underlying children's ZPD (zone of proximal development) of the sociocultural theory proposed by Vygotsky (Roopnarine & Johnson, 2013). It is primarily based on the concept of child development areas advancing from an actual developmental level to a potential

developmental level by the assistance of others in their interaction. In the school domain, peers and teachers play the significant roles to help learners develop their language performance. The assistance can include instructional materials, question probing, feedback and suggestions, and the teacher modeling. This can be observed as a formative assessment or another term “assessment *for* learning” (p. 173). For example, when learning a new word, the teacher may use various kinds of supports including action, pictures, and flashcards. The teacher may also use language to simplify the explanation, paraphrase, give examples, explain details around the word, and ask leading questions for comprehension. Besides, when giving longer sentences such as instructions, the teacher should speak slowly with one sentence after another. S/he may use the same visual aids and language use as mentioned above while giving instructions. Lastly, extended talk signifies the degree of difficulty in terms of continuing the conversation with the interlocutors. It requires cognitive ability to carry on a conversation. Extended talk can be difficult, resulting from the requirement to accomplish the tasks since it contains textual and pragmatic elements.

What to assess

Bachman and Palmer (1996, as cited in McKay, 2006, p. 183) develop a theoretical framework of oral language ability, as shown in Figure 4, in order to understand the characteristics of oral language ability of young learners and take them into consideration in constructing appropriate assessments.

Organisational knowledge

Grammatical knowledge: Children's knowledge of vocabulary, syntax and phonology needs to grow and deepen. Their syntax needs to increase in accuracy. Their knowledge of phonology needs to improve – they need to utter sounds, words and sentences clearly with appropriate pronunciation and intonation. They need increasingly to understand others' pronunciation and intonation clearly. They need increasingly to be able to understand the different meanings implied by different intonation patterns (e.g., 'You're going home now? You're going home now.')

Textual knowledge: Children need to be increasingly able to speak in ways that are cohesive and well-organized; they need to do this both in conversational interactions and in extended speaking turns. For example, they need to be able to use and understand conjunctions that join sentences and paragraphs together (*but, then, and, though*). They need to improve in their ability to use relative clauses (*That is the house that my uncle lives in*). They need to learn how to refer back to other parts of the sentence (*That's my uncle's house. Let's go in and meet him*). In listening, children need to improve their ability to use textual knowledge to understand what is being said. They need to learn how to listen both to conversations and to extended texts.

Pragmatic knowledge

Functional knowledge: Children's ability to use language for many different functions needs to grow. They need to learn how to use language to get what they want, to learn, to imagine things, to think about things. They need to learn how to understand the purposes behind the language that is spoken to them, even when those purposes are not directly stated. (e.g., if the teacher says *You can go outside if you want to do that again*, does the child understand that she is really saying that she should stop? Experience of the context tells the child that no one goes outside the classroom unless they are in trouble.)

Sociolinguistic knowledge: Children need to learn to use oral language appropriate to the language use situation that they are in. They need to learn to use and understand the idioms and cultural references that they encounter in target language situations (Do they understand, for example, that they can say *See ya* to friends, but *Goodbye* to the teacher?) They need to learn how to appreciate the humour, the attitudes, beliefs, ideals and values inherent in the talk of other people from different cultures, and to communicate and act in ways that help them to reach out to people from another culture.



Figure 4. A theoretical framework of oral language ability.

In order to comply with the school curriculum, Thailand Basic Education Core Curriculum's (Ministry of Education, 2008) aspects of Language and Communication, Strand 1 of the three main foreign language learning standards for third graders and ACTFL standard are taken into account. Table 9 details the description of the three modes of communication and assessment task type.

Table 9. *Descriptions of the three modes of communication and assessment task type*

Modes of Communication	Description	Assessment Task Type
Interpretive	The ability to comprehend and follow various oral or written text types as well as answer simple questions to assess comprehension.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Identifying familiar words and/or objects - Acting following verbal instructions. - Listening and repeating chants and rhymes, and sing songs. - Answering simple questions or statement about people, pictures, and objects.
Interpersonal	The ability to engage in a familiar communication in general, and ask and answer simple questions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Exchanging personal or object information; initiating and responding to simple statements. - Asking for and giving information, or answering questions.
Presentational	The ability to produce and communicate information, and express feelings and opinions in isolated phrases about people, objects, and views.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Giving information or opinions about oneself, people, and the environment. - Expressing feelings of like or dislike about various objects and activities.

How to assess

Language use tasks specific to measuring children's oral language skills recommended by McKay (2006) are separated into three main tasks: Speaking only tasks, Listening only tasks, and Speaking-Listening integrated tasks. Speaking only tasks require children to perform speaking activities with the use of different materials suitable for children such as narrating news, telling a story, describing picture, categorizing objects, and giving oral presentations. Listening only tasks are similar to activities that require specific listening skill to complete the tasks such as action tasks, TPR tasks, true/false tasks, aural cloze tasks, matching tasks, and spot the mistake tasks. The last types require the integrated speaking and listening skills to perform a task,

question-and-answer tasks, oral interview, mini-dialogues, role-plays, oral information gap tasks, and partner and group discussion tasks.

In terms of PLL activities, they used all three main tasks. Speaking only tasks could be found in the crystallization stage where the participants presented what they played with. Listening only tasks were found in the circle time during which the interpretive mode was focused on. And, Speaking-Listening integrated tasks were found in centers where the participants interacted with their playmates in activities that encouraged the interpersonal mode of communication.

Assessment measures/methods

McAfee and Leong (2011) propose how to assess children's performance in four main methods as observe children, elicit responses from children, collect products, and elicit information from other adults. According to the present study, the first two methods were utilized. As for the former, observations were employed to collect oral records data. The nature of this method involved time and people in their natural play settings. It documented the participants' oral language skills and social-affective behaviors. It was advantageous because it could access the participants' authentic behaviors that provided contexts and in-depth understanding. Also, with the use of video recording, the researcher could replay it multiple times to gain valuable insights. However, observations could be very time-consuming and viewed as subjective. As for the latter, semi-structured interviews were used to elicit opinions of the participants toward the PLL activities. The nature of this method was that the questions were prepared and the answers could be open-ended in order for the researcher to probe to understand the participants' opinions and feelings. The advantages were that the

information was primary, fresh, and could be extended. It also meant inexpensive cost and the ease of correcting misunderstanding. On the other hand, this method could be time-consuming and lack thorough answers since interviewing was basically an impromptu process but some interviewees may have needed more time to think before answering the questions.

2.5 Related Research

This section aims to explore related research studies on use of play to develop oral language skills of EFL learners.

In the early years in the study of play, Pellegrini (1984) examined how different learning centers and housekeeping and block centers elicited different language functions used by the preschoolers. Twenty children, ten boys and ten girls, were the subjects randomly chosen from two classrooms, four- and five-year-old groups. Two assumptions were proposed that context and/or the age of the subjects affected specific functions of language and uses of multifunctional language. The procedures began with familiarization of children for two weeks by a female experimenter. Later, the subjects were paired up to form same-sex and same-age dyads. Each of them was videotaped in 20-minute sessions divided into four times of their play, twice in the block center and twice in the dramatic props, in the experimental playroom. The observation was mainly focused on the language functions elicited by different age groups in different play contexts. The two play contexts were enriched with different play objects of dramatic play and the block tools. After that, individual children were administered the Cooperative Preschool Inventory, which measured children's language abilities in four aspects involving language comprehension, numbers, social awareness, and sensory

awareness. Their corresponding actions and language were later transcribed by selecting five utterances from each of the four observations. Those utterances were coded according to Halliday's (1967-1970) six functions of language. The descriptive statistics showed that, firstly, dramatic context elicited more imaginative language than the block context including individual functions and multifunction of language. Secondly, age of students affected both specific and multifunctional language to do different things. That is to say, older children showed more maturity through more varied forms of language and pragmatics. Also, both block and dramatic plays brought about fantasy play. Next, different learning centers affected children's social cognition and linguistic behaviors differently. Lastly, the presence of adults affected the use of desired forms of language. Based on such findings, it was concluded that teachers should use specific learning centers for different language purposes. For the older children, the more complicated language use in the instructions was suggested by the teacher.

Pretend play was also found to encourage multifunctional language in children's talk. For instance, Farver (1992) found important communicative strategies in the language children used during spontaneous social pretend play in order to create shared meaning. The study aimed to understand how communicative strategies were developed in children with different ages in relation to their social pretend play experiences. The subjects were 40 children whose ages were two, three, four, and five years old. They were grouped to form five pairs with the same gender per age group. The subjects were observed and audiotaped for 20 minutes of their play with a fantasy toy chosen from the prepared 15 toys. Data were collected, coded from the audiotape, and categorized into episodes. Each episode contained three and more exchanges of

continuous dialogues about pretend play including toys, actions, or activities. The taping was terminated when those talks related to pretend play were over. One hundred episodes were selected randomly and analyzed. The researcher adopted seven communicative strategies from Corsaro (1986) including paralinguistic cues, descriptions of action, repetitions, semantic tying, calls for attention, directives, and tags. The episodes were coded according to their complexity levels, which the researcher adopted them from Howes and Unger (1992) including simple social pretend play, associative social pretend play, and cooperative pretend play. Chi-square analysis showed the relationship between age and the episode length. The findings also revealed that children at younger ages had positive relationship with shorter play episodes. ANOVAs were used to compare between age groups and to compare frequency of seven communicative strategies and the relationship between the dyads and the use and complexity of communicative strategies. The findings indicated that there were significant effects of age group on strategy use except the use of directives. The findings also revealed significant effects of three social pretend play forms on all strategies except call for attention and paralinguistic cues. Also, ANOVAs used to compare episode duration and the use of communicative strategies showed that there were significant effects of episode length on the use of three strategies including descriptions for action, semantic tying, and tags. The findings led to a conclusion that younger children used simple processes of communicative strategies and social play forms in a shorter length of time. In other words, the more complexity and longer period of time to play in the social play increased with age.

Not only spontaneous pretend play but also free play were examined in the same age-group of children in relation to the interaction with their teachers to look at

cognitive and social schemes in integrated classroom settings for children with disabilities and typically developing children (File, 1994). Children with disabilities and typically developing children were paired in 12 male pairs ($n = 24$) and two female pairs ($n = 4$). Their average age was 56 months. They were enrolled in 13 different classrooms. The other group of subjects were 36 teachers in all classrooms ranging from one to six teachers per class. Thirty-five teachers were female, and only one was male. Most of them graduated from colleges, and half of them majored in early childhood education. Data on children's play were collected with the use of observation intervals, ten-second intervals, conducted during two visits to each classroom for 45 minutes during free play. A total of 90 recorded observations for each child were obtained. Then, the child's behaviors were coded in two main schemes—cognitive and social plays. Cognitive play levels included functional, constructive, and dramatic plays while social play levels included solitary, parallel, and interactive plays. Complexity of each play level was weighed (1 for the least advanced). Data were then calculated and summed in terms of the scores of complexity of each play level. Another set of data on child-teacher interaction was compiled and coded according to five categories of teachers' interactions: no teacher involvement, involved in routines/nonplay, watching, supports of cognitive play, and supports of social play. Data were collected using observation intervals, and the proportion of play supports was calculated. As for teachers' beliefs, the data were collected with questionnaires to explore their perceptions on interactions of/with children. Means of descriptive statistics and a one-way ANOVA were used to analyze the collected data. The results showed that mean scores of cognitive play levels from both groups of children were relatively low. The mean scores of social play levels of normal children were higher than those of children with disabilities. With regard to

child-teacher interaction, it was revealed that teachers interacted relatively equally to both groups of children. However, they tended to offer cognitive rather than social support to both groups. Some social supports were provided depending on the developmental status of a child. Results from the questionnaires revealed that teachers were concerned with social skills of children with disabilities. They supported peer interaction, especially same-age peers, more than child-teacher interaction.

The perception on play and work was also investigated, which indicated children's understanding of types of activities, materials, and relationship patterns of activities and materials for play and work. Wing (1995) investigated perceptions of kindergarten to grade 2 students on classroom activities at school with the aim to find how children defined work and play. The subjects were children from two classrooms from a small school in countryside and teachers of those classrooms. Fourteen children from each classroom were interviewed with open-ended general questions related to school. Then, they were observed by means of participant observation during their classroom activity. Immediately after that, they were interviewed with a semi-structured interview to elicit data involving their intentions and perceptions of the activities such as the types and characteristics of the activities and how such activities were related to their experiences. All of the children were engaged in the above two types of interviews, except for some who were engaged in four interviews. As regards the teachers, they were interviewed twice about their responsibilities, the prepared activities, and the activities' purposes and objectives. They were also asked to comment on play in the classrooms, children's learning, definitions, classroom management, material selection, and assessment. Data were analyzed with a constant comparative method in order to obtain emerging themes and patterns and the identified relationships

among patterns. Classrooms were set in centers. The collaborating, problem-solving, and reasoning activities and manipulative materials were prepared for shorter time of teacher-directed instructions for the whole class and longer time of learner-directed activities in small groups. The results revealed that children perceived play differently from work in terms of obligation, compulsion, freedom in choosing and controlling activities, teachers' directions, correction, evaluative comments, completion, cognitive or physical requirement, and fun. They related play to materials such as crayons, blocks, sand, and connecting cubes. As for involvement of teachers, children perceived activities in which teachers allowed them to manipulate freely as "play" such as when they were painting, interacting in the housekeeping area, and playing with board games. On the other hand, those that came with teachers' constant supervision were called "work" such as writing, spelling, math, calendar routine, and reading. However, some of them viewed the continuum of play and work in which they engaged as a mix between the two types of play.

Putting play into the classroom was considered important as a transition for children to learn at school. The interaction between teacher and children during play in the classroom was then explored. Boonsue (2007) looked at the relationship between the teacher and children to promote children's transcendence in play in a Thai context. The emphases were on 1) appropriate play patterns, 2) teacher-child relationship patterns appropriate for young children, and 3) conditions increasing children's transcendence in play. The participants were 13 children and four teachers in Thailand. Data were collected with non-participatory observation during children's free play and in-depth interviews from teachers. The study found two main appropriate play patterns to promote transcendence in play: intrapersonal and interpersonal play patterns. For the

former, they included resourcefulness, expressiveness, and problem-solving willingness, while the latter included positive thinking, responsiveness, and sympathy. In terms of teacher-child relationship, teachers most frequently used observation of children's states at the critical moment and throughout play time. The relationship that was the second most frequent use was distancing. As for the third emphasis, both kinds of the aforementioned relationships allowed children to play with close friends for approximately one hour and they had an effect on children's transcendence in play.

Interactions between children and adults in different kinds of play in a classroom have also been investigated. Welsch (2008) combined teacher-children interaction with storytelling and free pretend play among children. He initially stated the importance of pretend play that embraced a wealth of children's control of their learning context; contribution to critical areas of development especially verbal skills, metacommunication skills, and social and emotional competence; enhancement of story comprehension and encouragement of personal responses to story characters and texts by social interaction. The subjects were two veteran preschool teachers who earned a degree in early childhood education and had a number of years of experiences in teaching elementary levels. Thirty-three four-year-old students were from two neighboring schools. The experimental classroom was set to be augmented with high quality children literature, story-specific props, and materials for pretend play according to the books. The books were selected according to the features of memorable repeated language, and props related to the books were utilized. Second, each book was shared by two teachers during the daily read-aloud time. Then, at the third read-aloud, teachers shared the prop sets for each book. During the center time, how children chose props and completed the teacher-directed activities was observed. Teacher's logs

regarding students' play with the props on each day were collected. The researchers observed the teacher's read-aloud sessions three mornings per week from each classroom, taped the students' play, took notes at the play center, and interviewed both teachers for their views on center activities. The tapes were transcribed and field notes were collected using Roskos's (1990) criteria to identify schemes and episodes, totaling 119 episodes over six books. Eight behaviors were discerned and categorized. The findings demonstrated that students comprehended the story more in terms of characters, texts, and events. They could control their own learning and choose books and props. They also learned the rules that were bounded with the story. They sometimes showed the play beyond the text to global themes, extending the existing story and connecting play and the story to the real world. In brief, book-related pretend play enhanced students' cognitive, linguistic, and social competence and interaction.

Similar to the above study, Griva, Semoglou, and Geladari (2010) looked at oral communication skills that could be enhanced by using games as a play context. Not only were verbal skills examined but social skills and active learning were found to be increased after. The researchers studied the development of basic English oral skills of two second-grade primary classrooms in Greece using game-based context. They believed that games could help engage children in cooperative and team learning, increased students' attention and fun environment, and enhanced effective learning due to its competitive element. Twenty-five Greek-speaking students were placed in each of the two classrooms of the experimental and control groups. Four teachers, two English language teachers, and two assistant researchers, participated in the intervention. The project was aimed to emphasize five aspects: cooperation, competition, verbal interaction, active participation, and enjoyment. Two main

activities were role-play games and physical activities. A topic-centered and activity-based approach was, then, followed to link new and meaningful learning experience and vocabulary learning. The process involved three basic levels including a practice, an organization, and a production level. A main feature of the play activities was the play without pressure of correctness in interacting socially with peers. The implementation time lasted three months. The effectiveness of the project was determined with the pre- and post-tests to assess students' oral communication skills, non-participant observations like diaries to evaluate game-based context and students' participation, and structured interviews to record the students' satisfaction with the project. There were positive effects on children's oral skills as the post-test revealed significantly higher scores of the experimental group. Games also promoted students' motivation and active learning as evidenced by their test scores and the interviews.

When it came to use of feedback, Mackey and Oliver (2002) explored the effects of interactional feedback—negotiation of meaning and recasts—on young learners' second language development and learning outcomes. The subjects were children whose age ranged from eight to 12 years old. A child of each group interacted in dyads with one of the adult native speakers. The interactional feedback including negotiation of meaning and recasts was provided by the adults to children in the experimental group but not to those in the control group during their interaction in response to the context of question forms, which aimed to measure children's L2 development. The post-test was designed to measure L2 learning outcomes. Tasks were prepared and used for tests and treatment that were appropriate for young participants such as story completion, spot the difference, and picture sequencing tasks. All tasks were randomly selected for tests and treatments. Three task types were used in the pre-test and three day weekly

treatment sessions which lasted approximately 30 minutes. Two task types were used in the post-tests that were carried out three times—immediate post-test on the day after the treatment, one week later, and three weeks later. Data from the pre- and post-tests were coded. The results revealed that the sustained development was found in approximately 73 percent of the children in the experimental group, whereas it was found in only 27 percent of the children in the control group. The results showed relatively similar scores throughout all three post-tests. The results confirmed the assumption that the provided feedback in addition to interaction extended children's interlanguage and promoted their L2 development with assistance of sequences of question forms.

Play activities were not only useful and had effect on young language learners, but they were also applicable to adult language classroom to enhance language development. Pomerantz and Bell (2007) investigated creativity in language related to foreign language instruction for a university level with varied forms of verbal interaction and communicative approaches. The main element that was focused on was engagement with creative and playful language practices that were expected to enhance metalinguistic awareness, and syntactic and semantic development. In terms of language play, in this study, it is believed that errors or deviance of the ordinary could be constituted, code-switching was allowed, and other activities were encouraged through manipulations of linguistic form, meaning, and use. Data were collected in advanced Spanish conversation course at a US university of a 15-week semester. Sixteen mid-intermediate students scored on the ACTFL scale and one Cuban-American 4-year teaching experienced teachers were the participants. The class lasted 50 minutes and met three times per week with a focus on transactional oral skills and

strategies. The regular tasks involved students reading a pair of opposing essays and a 30-minute group discussion. Only two hours of games or role plays were applied. All 45 hours of classroom interaction were tape-recorded and transcribed. The instances of language play were identified, coded, and framed—sanctioned and unsanctioned play. Other instruments of the ethnographic observation included extensive field notes from inside and outside classrooms and interviews with individual students both in English and Spanish. The study found that most interactions were non-playful utilitarian talk which was the norm of a classroom with an aim to accomplish an activity. However, during the two classes that employed a role-play and a game, interactive discourses were evidenced as students used playful language to show their linguistic expertise such as pun, creative FL discourse, playful subversions of the topic, creative acting, and its creative linguistic features like voices, structures, and lexical items. Hence, play could be a part of L2 development that increased various experiences for students and broadened their communicative repertoire.

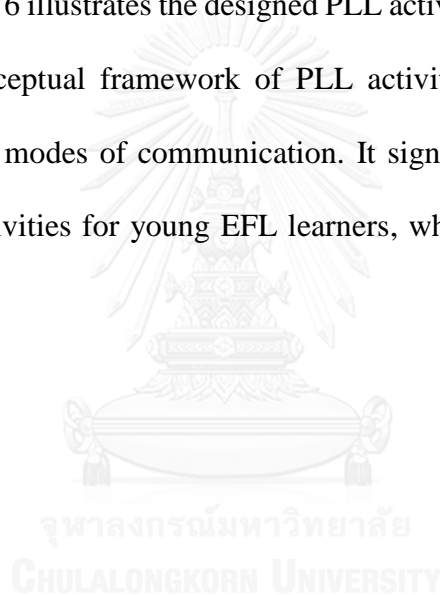
The aforementioned research studies have shown that play activities have effects on young language learners' language development in such aspects as imaginative language and communicative strategies. Play to promote oral language skills were explored with different foci such as activity-based activities and interactional feedback. Interaction has also been shown to encourage both interpersonal and intrapersonal play patterns that have positive effects on communication, both interactions between children of the same age and between adults and children. Therefore, it can be concluded that play activities are promising for enhancement of oral language development of young language learners in an EFL classroom.

Conclusion

The general meaning of children's play has been explored as a means to ensure knowledge and understanding of how children play and develop language during their playtime. The definitions, key characteristics, and benefits have been analyzed and synthesized. The key characteristics of play include children's mental and physical interaction activity, meaningful context, enjoyment, spontaneity, and absence from fear of failure. Play is viewed to benefit all areas of child's developmental stages including physical, cognitive, social-affective, and language development. Play taxonomy is developed to identify activities for particular child development. Play taxonomy has been developed from different principles from different scholars and organizations. It has been adapted and adopted to be suitable for this study in which play types referred to creative play, games with rules, language play, physical play, and pretend play. Those types of play became a framework to develop oral language skills for young students. In this study, the oral language skill encompassed listening and speaking skills that were applied during play activities. The oral language skill development was based on two main fundamentals: national and international policies and Vygotsky's theoretical notions. Vygotskian's sociocultural theory highly supports the relationships of play and oral language development that children achieve through conversation with the More Knowledgeable Other (MKO). Vygotsky (1933) categorizes play into pretend play that provides opportunity to use language when expressing their imaginary situations, scaffolding knowledge and skills with their playmates and play objects, and leading to the internalization process known as Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).

This study contributes the exploration of children's play activities that include the elements of oral language skills in both the course instructions and assessment in order to benefit children's oral language proficiency and motivation in EFL context.

Figure 5 shows the conceptual framework of PLL that was determined based on the principles of play characteristics and taxonomy. The key features of PLL were conceptualized and involved language focus, play contexts, play materials, playmates, and playfulness. It was developed as a framework to design the course conducted by PLL activities. Figure 6 illustrates the designed PLL activities of a lesson based on PLL framework. The conceptual framework of PLL activities included learning stages, features of PLL, and modes of communication. It signified the main components in constructing PLL activities for young EFL learners, which was to enhance their oral language skills.



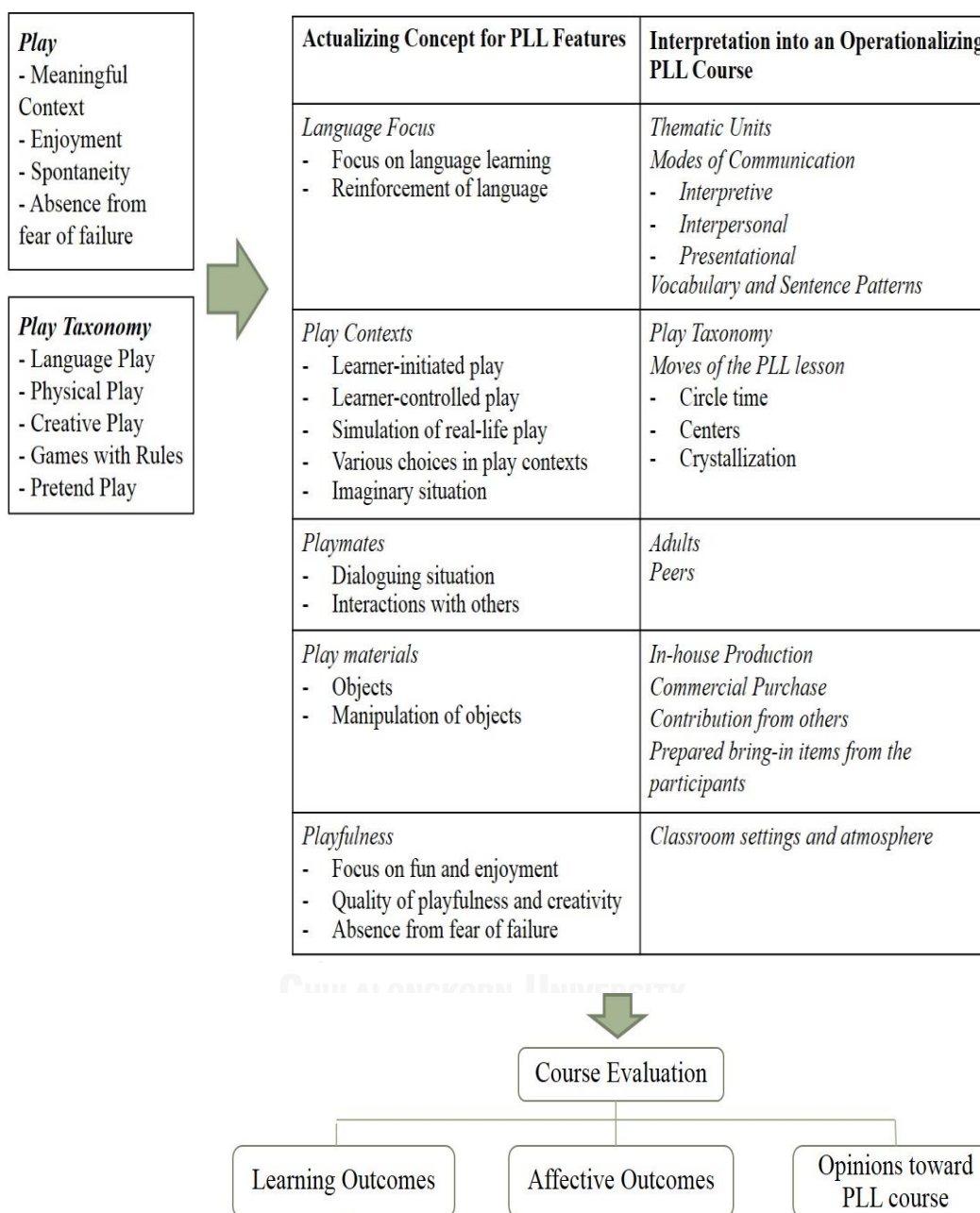


Figure 5. The conceptual framework of the Play-based Language Learning (PLL) for young EFL learners to enhance oral language skills.

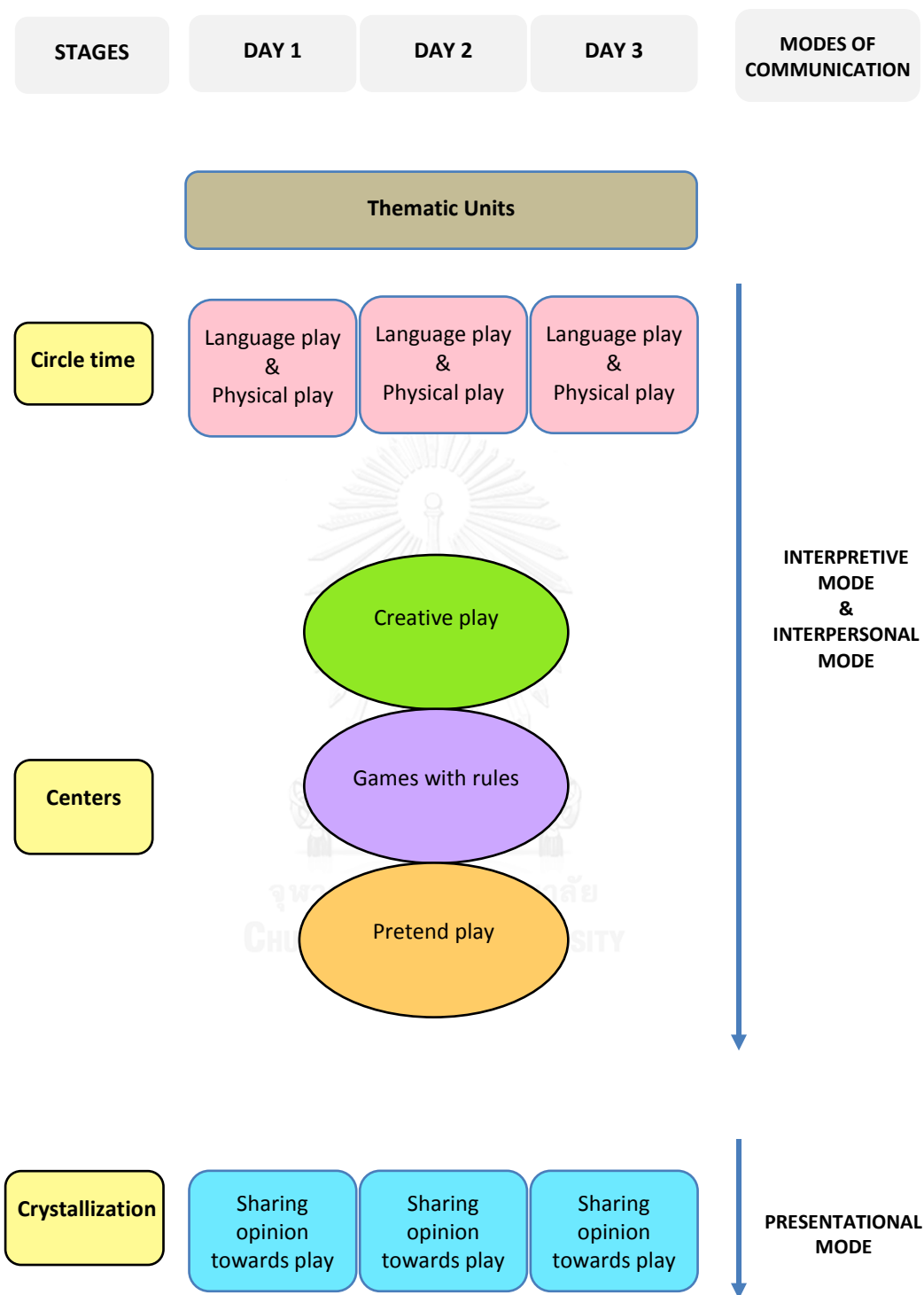


Figure 6. The conceptual framework of PLL activities.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents research methodology and procedures for this study.

3.1 Research Design and Approach

This research used a mixed method design (Ivankova & Creswell, 2009) to answer three research questions:

1. What are the key features of Play-based Language Learning (PLL)?
2. How do Play-based Language Learning (PLL) activities influence oral language skills of young EFL learners?
3. What are the opinions of young EFL learners toward Play-based Language Learning (PLL) activities?

The one-group pre-test post-test, non-randomized design was employed to explore participants' oral language development after participating in play-based language learning activities. In addition to the pre-test and post-test, observations and interviews were utilized.

3.2 Population and Participants

The population were students who were of Thai nationality. They were studying at the early elementary level (grade 3) at the Demonstration School of Silpakorn University (Early Childhood & Elementary), Sanam Chandra Palace campus. Their ages ranged from eight to nine years old. The 12 participants were selected based on a voluntary basis. The consent forms were sent to the parents of third-grade students to

ask for their permission for their children to participate in the research study. In the regular classroom schedule, the English subject was taught three hours per week. The participants spent two hours with a Thai teacher and one hour with a native teacher. The participants had to take the paper-based mid-term and final examinations and a pronunciation test requiring them to read aloud from the textbook. The main textbook was called *Projects: Play & Learn (Student's Book) 3*. In the book, there were eight units that were covered in two semesters: 1) All about Us, 2) Home Sweet Home, 3) Keeping Healthy, 4) Good Food, 5) Country & City Life, 6) It's New Year, 7) Plants We Eat, and 8) Care & Clean. Based on the PLL pre-test scores, the participants' levels of English language proficiency varied.

3.3 Research Instruments

The four main research instruments used in this study were as follows:

3.3.1 PLL pre- and post-tests

The PLL pre- and post-tests were employed to investigate the effects of the PLL activities on oral language development of the participants. They were developed to conform to the theory of integrated performance assessment (Tedick & Cammarata, 2012), three main standards, FL.1.1, FL.1.2, FL.1.3, of Strand 1—Language and Communication—of the Basic Education Core Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2008), and the contents in the units of the school course book—*Project: Play & Learn (students) 3*. The PLL pre- and post-tests were designed to include ten performance tasks to incorporate eight objectives and five types of PLL activities. First, three modes of communication and eight objectives were determined based on the foci on play

taxonomy. In other words, physical and language play activities belonged to interpretive mode, while creative play, games with rules, and pretend play were considered parts of the interpersonal mode. Then, all themes excluding review themes were distributed relatively equally throughout the eight objectives. The activities were selected with consideration of suitability to each objective and play type. Each item of the tests had the full score of three points, 30 points in total, and the items were scored based on the PLL oral language score descriptors.

The pre- and the post-tests were validated by three experts in the fields of English language teaching, English language assessment, and young learner development. The experts indicated the degree to which each test task was congruent with the learning objectives using index of item-objective congruence rating. Some changes were mainly related to clearer question items such as ‘What’s the matter?’ that was used to measure the participants’ understanding on the Sickness theme. Also, the test items to check their ability to exchange information was suggested to use ‘What’ and ‘How to’ questions instead of ‘Yes/No’ questions. The instructions of some items that set a situation was advised to make it clearer. Those comments were used to adjust the PLL pre- and post-tests. The PLL pre-test was administered in the first week, while the post-test was used one week after the last sessions of the implementation of the PLL activities. The tasks in both tests were carried out in a one-on-one basis between the examiner and the participant. The test took about 10 to 15 minutes per one participant. The details of PLL pre- and post-tests were attached in Appendix D.

Each task shown in the PLL pre- and post-tests required each participant to perform different skills according to the objectives set. The teacher, also taking a role of an examiner who gave the scores based on the PLL oral language score descriptors

and the mean score range descriptors in four scales including ‘excellent,’ ‘satisfactory,’ ‘improvement needed,’ and ‘not achieved’ as shown in Appendix H.

3.3.2 Oral language performance checklists

Three oral language performance checklists were designed to be used particularly with the three main units of the PLL course. Each oral language performance checklist was designed to contain parallel formats, objectives, numbers of test items, and other test specification with pre- and post-tests. The content in each checklist followed the specific unit content to meet the objectives and to be aligned with the PLL pre- and post-tests. For instance, the content of the first four themes of unit one were arranged to ten test items of the first oral language performance checklist for unit one. All three checklists were validated by three experts in the fields of English language teaching, English language assessment, and young learner development. Index of item-objective congruence rating form was prepared for the experts to check the congruence of each item with the learning objectives. The suggestion was mainly concerned with spoken language and technical terms such as ‘gonna,’ ‘creative play,’ and ‘pretend play’ that the teacher needed to make sure that the participants knew the words. Each of the three checklists was conducted at the end of the unit, which was Themes 5 (A super doctor), 10 (A sporting family), and 15 (Let’s party!). It measured participants’ performance and comprehension of the previous four themes. To illustrate, the oral language performance checklist in week 5 measured knowledge and skills of weeks 1 to 4. Scoring was based on the PLL oral language score descriptors and mean score range descriptors.

3.3.3 Observations

Oral observation of the participants was designed to record a total of 45 sessions of the PLL classes. In each lesson, the teacher taught, observed, and took notes of all participants' performance in the class. The video recording helped record the precise behaviors and allowed the researcher to replay and study the participants' performance more thoroughly after the class hours. The transcriptions were coded and categorized as the first draft, which were validated by one expert in the field of young learners and English education. The drafts of the coding and categorizing were revised and finalized.

Three cameras were used with a minimum of three camera operators. In each day, approximately seven video recordings were taped and filed. Two cameras taped the circle time and crystallization to get two different perspectives of the learning group as well as different perspectives to view and hear clearer dialogues from different angles of the participants. At the three centers of creative play, games with rules, and pretend play, three cameras were positioned in each center to capture PLL activities, participants' dialogues and feelings, learning atmosphere, and their interactions with VTs and peers. The participants usually remained seated at the creative play center while by the nature of games with rules and pretend play centers, they moved around more often, which sometimes caused difficulty to hear some dialogues.

3.3.4 Semi-structured interviews

The semi-structured interview was used to investigate the participants' opinions toward the activities they played, people and materials they played with, their attitudes and opinions of their play time at home, their play at the centers, PLL classroom settings, and English language education for the elementary level. The semi-structured

interviews consisted of open-ended items to elicit attitude answers. The interview questions were designed based on the characteristics of play, play types, and PLL features. All three interviews were validated by three experts in the fields of English language teaching, English language assessment, and young learner development. Index of item-objective congruence rating form was used. The key suggestion was related to the question items that needed to be more open-ended questions rather than controlled questions. Some questions were, then, adjusted as shown in Appendix Q. The data were collected three times at the end of each unit or weeks 5, 10, and 15 and analyzed by content analysis.

3.4 The Development of PLL Activities for Oral Language Skills

This course was designed as an alternative instruction of an English subject with which young learners could naturally enjoy mental and physical activities in the form of children's play while using the English language as a tool to transform knowledge and experiences into the internalized process to develop English oral language skills in particular.

3.4.1 Organizing principle

Based on Graves' (2000) framework of course development processes, the course conducted by PLL activities was designed by taking its context, goal, contents, materials, and course evaluation into careful consideration.

3.4.1.1 Context

Learning and the learner

This course was developed for the third-grade students in the Demonstration School of Silpakorn University (Early Childhood & Elementary) to be used as a supplementary course in addition to the compulsory English subject. PLL activities allowed transition for students to see that school was not necessarily separated from home because some of the play activities in PLL class were similar to what they play at home. The affective factor was the goal to be considered in their learning, language, and classroom atmosphere. The PLL activities could also bring enjoyment and language learning into the class in the same time. Variety of the PLL activities became reinforcing contexts for oral language development for the participants. The important learning contexts for young learners that corresponded to this study was play activities. Cooperative learning in PLL activities helped the participants learned socializing and interpersonal skills both from individual and group work by interacting with play objects or other playmates as the basis for self- and interpersonal development. Also, authentic activities and tasks were developed to expose the participants to various experiences and practices. In sum, the play environment encouraged positive learning and attitudes in the use of a foreign language to cognitively and metacognitively interact with others about diverse content that was further discussed.

Language

The PLL activities were expected to help students develop English oral language skills through children's natural processes of learning a language which resembled a natural process of language development in which children were engaged in the negotiation and communication of meaning. They applied the functional knowledge focusing mainly on can-do performance about various meaningful themes related to children themselves, their family, community, and others such as 'My body,' 'Routine,' 'Family,' 'School,' 'My town,' and 'New Year.' Teacher-student interaction could facilitate the participants to develop their oral language skills first. Later on, interaction between student-student was encouraged through the use of PLL activities that were focused on three modes of communication including interpretive mode, interpersonal mode, and presentational mode. PLL activities were possible to be integrated into each theme when the students were encouraged to interact with one another, such as during pretend play.

Social context

The PLL activities in this course embedded sociocultural skills that enabled the participants to understand intercultural context—own culture in their community, its differences from culture of other countries, and the appropriate behaviors to develop their social awareness, for example learning different clothing for different seasons that are different from those in Thailand. Also, the participants had the opportunities to act in different situations with different contents and social contexts such as pretending to be a doctor, a teacher, and a customer at a restaurant. In so doing, it could be expected that they learned to incorporate language into diverse social contexts.

People

The participants were 12 Thai students studying in the third grade whose ages were between eight and nine years old. They were expected to be exposed to the English language in the language classroom; able to use vocabulary and language patterns learned to play in PLL activities; improve their oral language skills in terms of their interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational modes of communication; and be active learners who had positive attitude toward language learning. Thus, they would participate in the circle time where they learned and practiced the language structure for each lesson. They would use the language learned in the centers where they could reinforce what they learned in the circle time. Also, in crystallization, they would present and share opinions of what they learned and played in the centers.

Besides, there were three volunteer teachers (VTs) whose ages were between 19 and 25 years old. They were assigned to the PLL activities as the external mediators or MKOs. They joined all activities in the circle time with the young participants as they could be examples as well as adult playmates. In centers, each VT helped give instructions of how the participants would play and facilitate language use at each center in each lesson. The VTs were volunteer undergraduate students who either were studying or had graduated with the English major from the Faculty of Education, Silpakorn University. The VTs had teaching experience or were doing their practicum. Before the experiment, all VTs were given lesson plans, lists of all materials, PLL pre- and post-tests, oral language performance checklists, and semi-structured interviews. The informal meeting was set up to explain the overall PLL course. The roles of adult playmates as well as the language facilitators were discussed following the lesson plans. All VTs participated in the pilot study so they could have a better understanding of the

roles they needed to take in the PLL classroom. Their main roles were facilitators, playmates, and more-knowledgeable others (MKOs), the term first proposed by Vygotsky (1978), to support the participants in using the target language during play. For example, VTs gave examples when introducing a new activity in the circle time. The participants heard the instructions and saw the examples VTs did to have a better understanding of what they should do. Therefore, with this cooperative learning process, it was expected that the participants implicitly learned the language through interaction and scaffolding with VTs in both aspects of content and skills. After each lesson, especially at the end of the first day, the main teacher and VTs conducted a small group discussion to share what had happened on each day and what they could possibly do to make changes for the next day.

Time

PLL activities were designed to cover 48 hours. Three hours were devoted to the PLL pre- and post-tests. Forty-five hours in a total of 15 weeks remained for implementation of the PLL activities. The PLL sessions were conducted after school from 04:00 p.m. to 05:00 p.m., three days a week, on Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday.

Physical setting

There were several topics to consider. To begin with, PLL activities were arranged at the Demonstration School of Silpakorn University (Early Childhood & Elementary)—DSU—located on the campus of Silpakorn University, Sanam Chandra Palace campus, Nakornpathom province. One classroom was reserved for this purpose.

It was large enough for 12 participants who had mixed levels of English language proficiency. The classroom environment expected to facilitate PLL activities included a spacious and tidy room, with play toys and play materials available. As for teaching resources, they were carefully selected to ensure their relevance to activities in the play taxonomy and the targeted themes, such as dress-up clothes, songs, craft tools, play toys, pictures, and stories.

With regard to the nature of the PLL activities, the instruction was mainly the application of play activities which were divided into three learning stages—circle time, centers, and crystallization. The circle time was when the participants sat together with the teacher in a circle. They listened to the instructions, brainstormed, or did tasks in the language play and physical play. The teacher used the expected language structures in this learning stage to familiarize the participants with language focused in a particular topic. In centers, three centers were planned for each session including the centers of creative play, games with rules, and pretend play. In each center, there was one VT to play the role of a playmate with the young participants. The participants in each center were assigned to work with their peers and the VT on different activities in each particular session such as playing creating a hospital. The VTs at the centers were considered MKOs who used the target language to mediate the participants' learning in negotiating meaning and performing language and play. Finally, in crystallization, the participants gathered together with the teacher after they had played at the centers to talk and share ideas of what they had played with, to present their play creations or activities, and to express how they felt about their play.

Course design and implementation

The study aimed to examine oral language development by imitating natural ways of young students learning a language or play activities. The course was designed and implemented according to the curriculum ideology, school and national policies as well as the PLL activities framework. The emphasis was on development of oral language abilities of young learners. The main stakeholders included student participants in the course and VTs as MKOs, who contributed great benefits to the course construction by scaffolding the young participants' language learning.

Besides, the course was designed to encourage the participants to self-instruct with the assistance of: 1) playful lessons with themes and language focuses incorporated into lessons; 2) play activities mainly inside the classroom context; 3) play materials or playmates to promote the participants' English oral language skills; and 4) instructional procedures to support and improve the participants' oral language development.

The course was implemented for 45 hours within 15 weeks. It was the after-school course. The PLL activities were used with an emphasis on play and oral language skills. Each day, the lesson included three learning stages. First, circle time involved language play and physical play that were focused on interpretive mode of communication. The second learning stage was centers where the participants could choose one of the three centers—creative play, games with rules, and pretend play. The interpersonal mode of communication was focused. Lastly, crystallization was a presentational mode of communication with which the participants learned to share their ideas about what they had played with and express their feelings.

3.4.1.2 Goals and objectives

The present study aimed at investigating key features of PLL activities designed to enhance oral language skills of young learners. According to the course goals and objectives, the national and international standards—the national standard for English language teaching and learning for elementary students grade 3, Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008) or BECC and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)’s performance guidelines for K-12 learners—were implemented in developing this course. Table 10 shows a comparison between these two standards. Thus, eight objectives in three modes of communication were developed from the aforementioned standards, which corresponded to operationalizing oral language functions in BECC’s strand 1 as shown in Table 11.

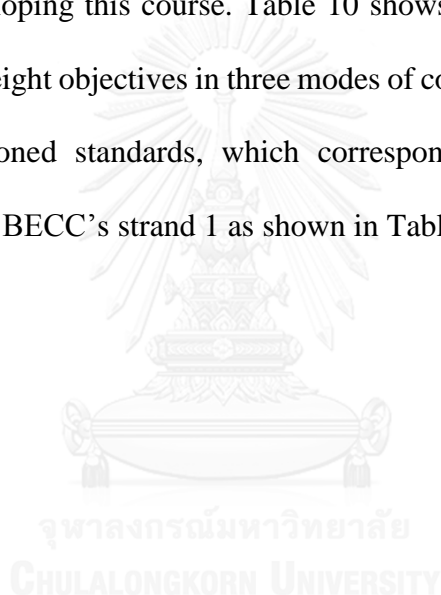


Table 10. *The comparison between Basic Education Core Curriculum and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*

BECC's language for communication	ACTFL's three modes of communication
<p>Standard FL1.1: Understanding and ability in interpreting what has been heard and read from various types of media and ability to express opinions with reasons:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Act in compliance with orders and requests heard or read. 2. Pronounce and spell the given words and accurately read aloud groups of words, sentences and simple chants by observing the principles of reading. 3. Match the picture or the symbols with the meanings of groups of words and sentences. 4. Answer the questions from listening to or reading sentences, dialogues, or simple tales. 	<p>Interpretive mode Students listen to and/or read an authentic text and answer information as well as interpretive questions to assess comprehension. The teacher provides students with feedback on performance.</p>
<p>Standard FL1.2: Possessing language communication skills for effective exchange of information and efficient expression of feelings and opinions</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Speak in an exchange with short and simple words in the interpersonal communication by following the models heard. 2. Use orders and simple requests by following the models heard. 3. Express their own simple needs by following the models heard. 4. Ask for and give simple information about themselves and their friends by following the models heard. 5. Tell their own feelings about various objects around them or various activities by following the models heard. 	<p>Interpersonal mode After receiving feedback, students engage in communication about a particular topic which relates to the interpretive text. This phase is audio- or videotaped.</p>
<p>Standard FL1.3: Ability to speak and write about information, concepts, and views on various matters:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Speak to give information about themselves and matters around them. 2. Categorize words into groups according to the types of persons, animals, and objects based on what they have heard or read. 	<p>Presentational mode Students engage in the presentational mode by sharing their research/ideas/ opinions. Samples presentational formats are speeches, drama, skits, radio broadcasts, posters, brochures, podcasts, websites, etc.</p>

Table 11. *Operationalizing concept of learning objectives to enhance oral language skills for PLL course*

Three modes of communication	Objectives of PLL activities
<p>Interpretive mode The ability to comprehend and follow various oral or written text types as well as answer simple questions to assess comprehension.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Identify familiar words and/or objects 2. Act following verbal instructions. 3. Listen to and repeat chants and rhymes, and sing songs. 4. Answer simple questions or statements about people, pictures, and objects.
<p>Interpersonal mode The ability to engage in a familiar communication in general and ask and answer simple questions.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Exchange personal or object information and initiate and respond to simple statements. 6. Ask for and give information or answer questions.
<p>Presentational mode The ability to produce and communicate information and express feelings and opinions in isolated phrases about people, objects, and views.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 7. Give information or opinions about oneself, people, and the environment. 8. Express feelings of like or dislike about various objects and activities.

In conclusion, the course conducted by PLL activities could be designed by organizing principle based on Grave's framework that signified the main components of contexts, goals, and objectives. They provided information needed for the course development that employed PLL activities.

3.4.1.3 Contents

The three main theoretical notions on learning and development reviewed in the previous chapter translated Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (SCT) into the practice of PLL activities for young EFL learners to promote their oral language skills in a school context. The conceptions of the instruction proposed in the PLL activities involved lesson plans, themes, and three learning stages—circle time, centers, and

crystallization—in a lesson. Each teaching conception is elaborated along with the application of Vygotsky's SCT and teachers' roles below.

Lesson plans

The key instructional instruments were lesson plans, which were based on the PLL activities. The objectives were searched, obtained, and adapted from the national policy—Basic Education Core Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2008) and the commercial textbook used in the Demonstration School of Silpakorn University (Early Childhood & Elementary). The PLL activities were designed to enhance the participants' oral language skills. Before the activities could be designed, first, the themes needed to be determined. The appropriate themes and topics were searched from the schoolbook—Project: Play & Learn (Students) 3 and some commercial textbooks—YLE tests: Movers (Four tests for the young learners English movers test), Fun for Movers student's book, Kid's Box 3 Pupil's Book, and Playway to English Level 3 Pupil's Book (2nd Edition). Those selected 15 themes could be categorized into three main units from what were closer to the participants' understanding such as themes related to their body parts and clothing to what were further from their understanding such as New Year celebrations from different cultures. Each theme was used as the main concept of each lesson. That is to say, all 15 themes were the main instructions for 15 lesson plans that were grouped into three main units: Face and Body, Family and Friend, and Festivals. The objectives of PLL activities were adapted, adopted, and identified based on national and international standards. Then, the language structure and vocabulary appropriate for the participants' level were determined by combining unit topics from the schoolbook and several commercial textbooks for third-grade level.

Authentic play activities and materials were searched from the Internet, books, and toy shops. Some of them were created by the researcher such as board games in order to coordinate with the themes and language structures. The lesson plans and contents were validated by experts in the fields of English language teaching and elementary education using the index of item-objective congruence (IOC) (Rovinelli & Hambleton, 1977).

The lessons covered 45 hours, which were divided into three 45-to-60-minute classes per day, three days per week, for 15 weeks. The first and the last hours were arranged additionally for the PLL pre- and post-tests. Each unit containing five themes that were taught within 15-16 hours to complete the total 45 hours of the entire three units. In a particular lesson, the activities were planned with three learning stages including circle time, centers, and crystallization. Circle time and centers took about 20-25 minutes and the last ten to 15 minutes were reserved for the crystallization learning stage. Each learning stage was discussed further in details in the following section.

Themes

According to Vygotsky's theoretical notions, theme is a key method for the concept formation. In an English language subject, a thematic content gives opportunity to the participants to learn authentic use of the language for meaning making. As for this study, themes or thematic units or theme-based modules were applied as the main content of PLL activities. There were three main units, each of which consisted of different themes as follows:

<u>Unit</u>	<u>Theme</u>
1. Face and Body	1) My body
	2) Clothes
	3) Routine
	4) Sickness
	5) a review theme called A super doctor
2. Family and Friend	6) Family
	7) Home
	8) School
	9) Sports
	10) a review theme called A sporting family
3. Festivals	11) My town
	12) Food
	13) Fruit and vegetable
	14) New Year
	15) a review theme called Let's party!

Each unit consisted of four different themes, which had been determined from a collection of commercial textbooks for grade 3 students mentioned above as well as the main textbook of the Demonstration School of Silpakorn University (Early Childhood & Elementary) entitled Project: Play & Learn (Students) 3.

Fifteen themes of the three main units formed a concept for the participants to learn part-whole relationship. They started from one that was closest in meaning to the participants' experiences, and gradually moved toward familiar people to them in unit two. The last unit moved them farther to engage in the larger social activities related to different cultures and communities. These themes also reflected everyday concepts combined with scientific concepts. In other words, the first unit was related to the participants' daily lives they were acquainted with before moving on to some festivals

they might or might not have experienced in the last unit. The way a theme expanded into different concepts not only created a concept formation but also increased levels of the participants' ZPD. The participants received scaffolding about what was new to them. Those themes brought about different activities and materials that mediated their understanding. At this point, the teacher took the role of a lesson planner (Bodrova & Leong, 2007).

The roles of the teacher to apply in themes in this study were the planner, the teacher, the adult playmate, and the language facilitator. As the planner, the teacher designed approximately 45-hour lessons of instruction including activities and materials of every stage. Besides, the classroom was expected to set in the areas of circle time and centers. Therefore, the teacher planned and adjusted the environment and materials to work around each particular theme.

Circle time

Circle time was a routine event that assembled and prepared the participants for the main lessons. It was the beginning learning stage of every lesson that assisted the participants to exercise comprehension that might aid them when making a conversation (Roskos et al., 2009). As for this study, language play and physical play were two main play activities in the circle time. In language play, the participants were able to play with sounds and words through different types of methods and materials such as rhymes, chants, songs, or books. The story they heard could be ordinary or extraordinary such as germs or superheroes, which was the main feature for children's imagination development. The story was in-house produced in order to ensure compatibility with vocabulary, language structures, and the content learned in each

lesson. In physical play, the participants were able to associate their body movement with the language use in their play. It was an important task that the teacher could examine the participants' understanding. The participants enjoyed moving, exploring, manipulating, and constructing materials with the uses of their other developmental areas including language, cognition, affection, and socialization.

According to Vygotsky's theory, circle time falls into all three theoretical notions mentioned earlier. It could be explained in relation to themes in the notion of scaffolding and concept formation. The theme discussed in a circle time scaffolded the participants' knowledge when they worked in group with other participants as they had different background knowledge and experiences. Therefore, some participants might not know what the others knew, which gave them advantages in bringing up shared knowledge with MKOs, including the teacher and their peers. In the 'round,' the participants listened to others' speech and idea and that increased their ZPD and concept formation. Each participant produced the language to respond to the particular activity. After the first participant finished, the second one took turn to repeat the same patterns with different content. The turns went on in the round. Thus, each participant could hear the examples from each peer before their turn. The patterns and examples created by the teacher and friends played the role of external mediators that the participants could observe, memorize, attend to, imitate, think, and scaffold for comprehension. This process explained the way the participants engaged with interpersonal dialogues, scaffolded their knowledge, and formed the overall concepts by socializing with others, hence internalization of the concept comprehension. In other words, the participants' private speech is realized and established to make a public speech (Bodrova & Leong, 2007).

The roles of the teacher to take part in the circle time were as the planner and the partner. As the planner, the teacher arranged activities, materials, and other features for each lesson. As the partner, the teacher engaged in the activity with the participants. Teachers in this conception were expected to be one main teacher and three VTs who sat with the participants in the circle time area. The main teacher conducted the activities for either language play or physical play, or both of them depending on the lesson. The activities in each circle time were conducted following the lesson plan, yet they were flexible to the context. The three VTs took the main roles of partners who learned the goal set with the teacher. They participated in the activities and facilitated the participants when necessary with the content as well as the language. They supported the participants' understanding and language use such as by modeling language patterns needed in a specific situation.

Centers

Centers were the times when the participants did PLL activities set on separate tables. The participants were able to choose to join a certain lesson according to their own preference. As for PLL in this study, creative play, games with rules, and pretend play activities were set in three separate centers in each lesson. In each center, there was one adult stationed at the table to take a role of a playmate and the more-knowledgeable other (Vygotsky, 1978).

In creative play, the participants were encouraged to use the targeted structure to make crafts. The activities and materials included drawing, coloring, creating schoolbags, and playing with play-dough. In games with rules, the participants played the set games related to the theme of the lesson of the week. The participants learned

how they needed to observe rules and to respect their playmates at the center. In pretend play, activities and materials varied. They pretended being a superhero, a doctor, a teacher, a sport player, a merchant, or a customer, and they pretended visiting friends, serving food, and traveling around. The participants were encouraged to incorporate their play with their imagination that they made believe to be something or someone, or they could imitate adults' behaviors and played around small-scale toy figures or fantasy toys. Pretend play was very important as it helped the participants use the language in a meaningful context. It was noted that in all three centers, the participants played with their friends to learn socializing skills such as sharing ideas or taking turns. The targeted structure was the focus; however, the language beyond the focus was possible to be used by them.

According to Vygotsky's theory, centers reflected all three theoretical notions previously mentioned. Firstly, play reflected the culture of how children played with their peers. The play centers were in fact the places where children socialized and where they learned about their emotion and cognition. Secondly, the level of ZPD was seen when children learned to play independently and with others. Their ideas emerged when they were playing with peers who might have different ideas from their experiences and background knowledge. The VT in the center was the MKO who not only facilitated understanding of the content knowledge but also encouraged use or practice of the language skills that they could use to successfully engage in play. In each center, the participants learned the rules and roles of different types of play. As for the games with rules center, the rules were obvious, whereas for creative play and pretend play, the rules were seen as roles, conditions, scenarios, or situations that directed how they played in groups. For instance, the participants stated what they would do to create a

hospital together or when they pretended being at a restaurant. Rules were very significant to develop socialization (Bodrova & Leong, 2007). To illustrate, rules became a guidance both when the participants were playing in a group and when they were playing individually to learn how to plan, play, evaluate the situations, and correct their behaviors, which were directly related to scaffolding and inter-intrapsychological relationships. As regards concept formation, play reflected children's regular activities in their daily lives at home, which developed their everyday concept. In school, similar play they engaged in helped them acquire more content knowledge as well as oral language skills. Play, therefore, was seen as a learning context as well as learning materials that mediated language use to form various concepts for different purposes.

The roles of the teachers at the centers stage were the observers, partners, and assessors. In this study, there were one main teacher and three VTs. In centers, the main teacher planned the lessons, activities, and materials for different centers in a particular session. The main teacher sometimes participated as a partner in a center but mainly took a role of the observer who watched the play that was taking place between VTs and participants and among participants themselves. As partners, all three VTs played not only the roles of playmates but also facilitators and assessors. To be facilitators, VTs acknowledged the set goals for each lesson. They supported participants' understanding of content in play as well as language skills by using question-answer techniques to gear the participants toward the expected goals. As assessors, VTs evaluated the understanding and behaviors of the participants in the center. Thus, they assessed who needed assistance and what kind of mediates they could facilitate.

Crystallization

Crystallization was the last learning stage where the participants gathered together after they had finished playing at the center in each lesson. It aimed for participants to present, show, and describe their products and the processes of play at each center they engaged in with different friends in each lesson. The participants sat in a circle and described what they experienced, created, or played with. During PLL activities, the participants were expected to speak the target language, but with limitations in language proficiency, the teacher facilitated their presentation by using guided questions for them to answer. During this stage, the participants learned from their peers to understand what they could expect to play with in each center. They practiced listening in the way they had to listen to the questions from the teacher and to the possible answers from the peers. Also, they developed speaking skills by starting from answering in chunks and gradually moving on to answering in full sentences. When presenting, their other affective outcomes were also positively enhanced such as confidence in speaking the target language, creativity, absence from fear of failure, pronunciation, fluency, etc.

According to Vygotsky's theory, crystallization clearly reflected ZPD as the participants had a chance to express what they knew, what they learned, what was new to their background knowledge. They also got to share their feelings. More importantly, the internalization process to make a public speech was developed. The participants would scaffold vocabulary, language structure, and language use from the questions asked by the teacher and/or from the answers given by peers. By listening and speaking in the learning stage, the participants experienced concepts formation in terms of content and linguistic features.

The main teacher played the role of a facilitator who supported each participant to present the play work, play processes, and his/her feelings. The teacher started from asking the participants easier questions, beginning with the ‘What’ questions to name the center they played at, and what they created or played with. Next, the teacher moved on to ask ‘Who’ questions, allowing the participants to identify the persons they played with. It could be expected that children were generally not familiar with crystallization activities since they were not found in the regular school context. Thus, yes/no question structures were expected to guide the participants along with Wh-questions to scaffold their understanding of the questions and the terms they could repeat to answer the questions.

In sum, the main contents in the PLL activities included lesson plans that incorporated thematic units that guided the concept for each lesson. Three learning stages—circle time, centers, and crystallization—were practically employed to move from whole group learning together to small groups at the centers in order to set a more oral interaction. Lastly, the participants could learn how to share what they played with and express their feelings.

3.4.1.4 Materials

Play materials are one of the crucial factors in ensuring the success of PLL activities. Not only do they engage the participants in the lessons, but play materials also motivate them to learn and use the target language. Seach (2007) points out that communicative competence can increase through the use of a variety of toys, games, play materials, and play partners that extend the use of diverse levels of language to communicate. To illustrate, a child may use different linguistic features such as

different tones when interacting with different conversation partners. In this study, play materials were designed to be compatible with play taxonomy in each learning stage, play activities, learners' characteristics, availability, and the physical setting of the study. Besides, materials were outlined for cooperative learning that promoted language learning and socializing skills. Some play materials were searched from online or printed media, while other materials were purchased such as small-sized toys. Some were in-house products to match newly created activities such as Snakes and Ladders board game; others were gathered from friends and family such as clothing. Finally, some were brought into the class by the participants with the assistance of their parents.

In circle time, physical and language play activities were focused. Materials that engaged the participants' body movement and language uses were created. For example, songs involved acting; flashcards and storybooks required the participants to act, mime, touch, run, and match; and finger puppets encouraged them to move and talk. In addition, some materials like costumes for the Clothes theme were brought to the sessions as requested by the teacher to ease understanding and stimulate movements when playing such activities as I-spy.

During centers, materials for creative play, games with rules, and pretend play possessed different characteristics. As for creative play, craft tools were mostly prepared such as markers, staples, glues, play dough, colored papers, masking tape, socks, and decoration stickers. Games with rules were card game, board games, running games, bingo sheets, and magnetic chart games. Most of them were produced in-house because specific language contents were needed. The materials in this play types could be something out of the ordinary such as a huge dice and boards so one material could be simultaneously played with by multiple participants. The nature of pretend play

requested a great amount of materials in order for the participants to manipulate and experience the objects. For instance, real clothes, cutlery for kids, dolls, toothbrushes, glasses, school supplies, and sports equipment for kids were used.

To conclude, a wide variety of materials were prepared to match the nature of different play characteristics. There were different methods to collect materials for PLL activities including purchased toys, in-house products, contributions from friends, and personal materials brought by the participants. They were the key external mediation that aided the participants' understanding.

3.4.1.5 Course evaluation

The PLL activities were evaluated by determining their effects on oral language development of third-grade students using a number of instruments. First, the PLL pre- and post-tests evaluated the oral language development by comparing the participants' oral skill scores before and after implementation of PLL activities. Second, the oral language performance checklists were designed to measure the participants' oral language performance during the 15-week implementation. It was administered three times at the end of each unit. Third, observations were employed in order to gain oral records that reflected in-depth information on language production, young participants' strategies to learn the target language, and their affective outcomes. Finally, semi-structured interviews that were implemented three times along with the oral language performance checklists were used to receive opinions toward PLL activities. Table 12 below summarized the phases of the research procedures in this study.

Table 12. *Phases of the research procedure*

<p>Phase 1: Preparing and developing the research instruments</p> <p>1) The instructional instruments</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reviewing related theories and research studies to underpin the PLL activities integrated play activities with oral language skills • Researching and designing the lesson plans using the PLL activities for three-day lessons weekly for one semester • Designing, purchasing, and producing instructional play materials and activities <p>2) The research instruments</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reviewing related theories, research studies, and the instructional instruments including the national policy, standardized tests, school textbook, and commercial textbooks to conceptualize the instruments • Designing the research instruments to measure the participants' oral language skills development and learning outcomes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - PLL pre- and post-tests - Oral language performance checklists - Observations - Semi-structured interviews <p>3) Confirming the validity and reliability of both the instructional and research instruments</p>
<p>Phase 2: Implementing the research instruments and evaluating the PLL activities</p> <p>1) Experiment preparation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Determining the research design • Selecting the participants of the main study • Preparing the venues and time <p>2) Instrument implementation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consulting experts on lesson plans and research instruments • Revising the instruments <p>3) Course evaluation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Data collection <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Administering the PLL pre-test - Conducting the PLL lessons (3 hours/week, 15 weeks) - Observing lessons with video recording - Assessing oral language performance at the end of three main units (weeks 5, 10, and 15) using the oral language performance checklists - Recording participants' learning and behaviors in writing - Administering the PLL post-test - Administering the semi-structured interviews • Data analysis <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Comparing the scores of the PLL pre- and post-tests using <i>t</i>-test - Watching, listening, transcribing, quantifying, coding, and categorizing the participants' oral records with content analysis - Analyzing the oral language performance checklists with <i>t</i>-test and descriptive statistics - Coding and categorizing semi-structured interviews by using content analysis

3.5 Data Collection and Data Analysis

3.5.1 Before the implementation of PLL activities

The PLL pre-test was carried out in the first session of the period of the study. The ten-item test was developed according to the objectives of the PLL activities to test performance of eight objectives of five types of PLL activities. The test was administered on a one-on-one basis, and it took approximately 10-15 minutes per participant. The task instructions were given to provide the information on how to conduct the task. The score of each participant was given based on the PLL oral language score descriptors and mean score range descriptors to indicate the oral language proficiency before the experiment began.

3.5.2 During the implementation of PLL activities

The instructional instruments were implemented. During the implementation of PLL activities, the research instruments including the oral language performance checklists, observations, and semi-structured interviews were conducted at different points of time. The oral language performance checklists and the semi-structured interviews were administered at the end of each unit using video recordings. The examiner also took notes in the comment section of the oral language performance checklist to add information that might be necessary for more thorough understanding of the participants' oral language performances. Observations and note-taking included play interactions and sequences, oral language use, learning behaviors, and participants' emotions. The PLL oral language performance descriptors were prepared to collect data and evaluate the improvement in participants' oral language skills. The semi-structured interviews were conducted with the participants to assess their opinions toward the PLL

activities. Video recordings were used to tape every class so as to enable the researcher to watch the behaviors and language for the improvement of the instructions, for assessment of particular participants, and for transcription of discourses in cases more details were needed.

To elaborate the observation data from video recording, the PLL activities was one-hour class per day, three days per week/theme. Thus, there were at least 21 video recordings per one-week/theme lesson, 105 video recordings per a five-week/theme unit, and 315 video recordings per 15 weeks/themes, excluding those of one-on-one PLL pre- and post-tests, and oral language performance checklists periods.

In each class, the participants learned the repeated routine of the PLL course's learning stages including circle time, centers, and crystallization. It was tailored to develop the concept of the activities in the PLL classroom, the expected lesson structure, and acquaintance with playing while learning the target language. Concerning practicality and manageability of data analysis, only part of the collected data were analyzed as soon as it was decided that the data were sufficient for accurate interpretation of the study findings. Thus, in this study, 105 video recordings of the first five weeks/themes were watched and transcribed. From weeks/themes six to 15 of units two and three, most of the video recordings on the second day were purposively selected for the analysis because it was the middle day where the participants already had some background knowledge from the first day. Also, learning and affective outcomes such as scaffolding process could be found before the third day when the participants were reviewing and reaching the point of comprehension. Nonetheless, some recordings of the first and the third days were transcribed in order to gain more information and triangulate the occurrences of the second day. Therefore, nearly 200 video recordings

were watched to obtain transcripts of utterances and discourses found in the course implementing PLL activities. The analyzed data on the first unit revealed more details of learning and affective outcomes, whereas those on the second and third units emphasized information on interesting or unexpected discourses varying from the first unit.

The dialogues that were interesting, compatible with the objectives, and/or surprisingly unexpected were analyzed by using content analysis to obtain the in-depth information of the oral language of young learners to triangulate with the data from the tests and the checklists.

Table 13. *Learning outcomes and affective outcomes*

Learning Outcomes - L2 Learner Strategies	Affective Outcomes
1. Use of L1 translation	11. Enjoyment
2. Use of L1 transfer	12. Spontaneity with use of TL
3. Peer-assisted instruction/MKO/Scaffolding	13. Absence from fear of failure
4. Negotiation of meaning	14. Creativity
5. Non-verbal cues/responses	15. Enthusiastic participation
6. Metacognition	
7. Application to other contexts/themes/real world	
8. Unknown-word substitution	
9. Interactional modification	
9.1) Self- and other-repetition/ Reinforcement	
9.2) Code mixing	
9.3) Clarification request	
9.4) Self- and peer-repairs	
9.5) Confirmation check	
9.6) Recast	
10. Item-based construction	
10.1) Chunks, Open slots, Language Patterns	
10.2) Full sentence response	

Table 13 summarizes the categories of 15 features of two main outcomes referring to learning outcomes and affective outcomes. Learning outcomes included ten L2 learner strategies. There were five features emphasized in the affective outcomes.

Most affective outcomes were represented by different behaviors that could signify the participants' feelings. Table 14 exemplifies the representations of affective outcomes.

Table 14. *The representations of affective outcomes*

Affective Outcomes	Behavior Representations
Enjoyment	smiling; laughing; saying it straightforwardly that s/he is enjoying it; saying that it is fun; jumping; clapping hands
Spontaneity with use of TL	initiating and controlling their own learning; not being forced or tensed; self-regulation
Absence from fear of failure	not trembling; continuing doing the present work; being confident to speak, act, and express feelings; speaking out continuously; shouting loudly; not afraid to ask questions, argue, or share ideas
Creativity	being playful; inventing unreal or extraordinary toys or work; presenting imagination; imitating real-life situation; producing original ideas
Enthusiastic Participation	shouting; moving forward to be near the teacher; raising their hands high; being attentive; paying attention; being active; engaging with a particular activity

3.5.3 After the implementation of PLL activities

The PLL post-test was implemented one week after the last session of the PLL activities. It was the same form of the tasks in the PLL pre-test, which included content of three units covering the PLL course objectives. The PLL post-test instructions were provided for the examiner and the VT to conduct the one-on-one test with the participants. The post-test was used along with the PLL oral language score descriptors and the mean score range descriptors. The score of each participant was compared with his/her PLL pre-test score in order to determine their progress in oral language skills.

First, the PLL pre- and post-test scores were compared using the *t*-test to analyze the participants' oral language development before and after the implementation of PLL activities. After that, the oral language performance checklists were scored based on the four performance scales. The data could be either quantitative data when analyzed by means of descriptive statistics or qualitative data when described by score descriptors. The obtained data illustrated the participants' performance over time of the study to signify the effectiveness of the PLL activities on their oral language development. The teacher's notes yielded qualitative data that were analyzed by means of content analysis. The common key words were coded and grouped into categories. Finally, oral records from the transcription of the observation provided qualitative data and displayed in-depth information of the participants' oral language ability. Their dialogues were transcribed, coded, categorized, and quantified using content analysis. The qualitative data were analyzed and interpreted to triangulate with the quantitative data mentioned above to determine the effectiveness of the PLL activities.

Three semi-structured interviews containing 15 questions were used to evaluate opinions of the participants at the end of each unit during the experiment. They were analyzed using the processes of content analysis involving codes and themes (K. Richards, 2009).

Table 15. *An overview of the research methodology*

Data Collection	Research Instruments	Types of data	Analyzing procedures	Product
1. Before the experiment	1.1 The PLL pre-test with the PLL oral language score descriptors and mean score range descriptors	QN*	<i>t</i> -test	Numerical data
2. During the experiment	2.1 Three sets of oral language performance checklists with the PLL oral language score descriptors and mean score range descriptors	QN	Descriptive statistics	Numerical data
	2.2 Observation—oral records from video recordings.	QL	Content analysis	Transcription, codes, categories, and analytical text data
	2.3 Three sets of semi-structured interview	QL	Content analysis	Transcription, codes, categories, and analytical text data
3. After the experiment	3.1 The PLL post-test with the PLL oral language score descriptors and mean score range descriptors	QN	<i>t</i> -test	Numerical data

Remarks: *QN refers to quantitative data. QL refers to qualitative data.

Adapted from the visual diagram of Explanatory Design procedures in Jie and Xiaoqing's (2006) study as cited in Ivankova and Creswell (2009).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents findings of the implementation of the PLL activities obtained from different data collection methods including PLL pre- and post-tests, oral language performance checklists, observations, and semi-structured interviews. The analyzed data are presented following the research questions as follows:

4.1 Key Features of PLL

Research Questions 1: What are the key features of Play-based Language Learning (PLL)?

This research question aimed at identifying key features of PLL, which were grounded on sociocultural theory, characteristics of play, oral language skills for young learners, and young learners' learning styles, all of which have been previously reviewed. In this study, PLL was characterized by five key features, namely, language focus, play contexts, play materials, playmates, and playfulness, which are described in detail below.

4.1.1 Language focus

The first feature, language focus, was basically defined by targeted oral language skills, a focus on language learning, and reinforcement of the target language. This feature was translated into operationalization of PLL activities totaling 15 thematic units, three modes of communication—interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational modes, and targeted vocabulary and sentence structures. The language focus of PLL

activities in this study were determined based on an extensive review and a compilation of oral language structures and vocabulary included in textbooks for the third-grade level. To elaborate, the sentence structure included simple present. For example, in the sickness theme, it contained a verb (have) and a noun (vocabulary about sickness), so the participants produced such sentences as ‘I have a headache’ and ‘I have a bump.’ As for the clothes theme, it contained a verb (wear) and a noun (vocabulary about clothes). The participants learned to say ‘I wear shorts in summer’ and ‘He wears scarf in winter.’

4.1.2 Play contexts

The concept of PLL play contexts was grounded on characteristics of play and young learners’ learning styles, especially in terms of spontaneity and meaningful context including learner-initiated play, learner-controlled play, various choices of play situations, simulation of real-life play, and imaginary situations that were meaningful for children. In an actual practice when PLL activities were organized, play context features included play taxonomy—physical play, language play, creative play, games with rules, and pretend play—and three learning stages—circle time, centers, and crystallization. The targeted language focus was repeated and reinforced throughout the lesson in each learning stage with prepared play contexts.

4.1.3 Play materials

Play materials referred to objects and manipulation of objects for young learners, including both structured and unstructured toys. Structured toys referred to play objects that were set specifically for a purpose and highly realistic, whereas

unstructured toys referred to more open-ended and low realistic objects that children might have different imagination and creativity when playing each time with them. Play objects were gathered from in-house production, purchasing, contribution from others, and bring-in items from the participants. They were arranged to suit different natures of play types. For language play, play objects involved songs both in video files and written texts in forms of word cards, lyrics charts, storybooks, story cards, and family trees. As for physical play activities, some play objects such as clothing and play toys could be used along with those for language play activities because most of the time these two play taxonomies were integrated. Realia, or objects in real life used in classroom instructions, were often used because they ensured children's understanding and enrich their experiences in engaging with different play materials. The more the children were exposed to varieties of toys, the more they could try and learn ways to handle different toys. In creative play, materials used consisted of craft tools that were placed in a craft box from which the participants could select or ask for what they wanted for the activity they wanted to do with their peers or VTs such as creating a superhero, a hospital, a sport stadium, a menu, a fruit and vegetable hunt, and a New Year's resolutions tree. Concerning games with rules, board games and running games were mainly prepared. They could be games that native speaking children played with such as Monopoly, Snakes and Ladders for Super Doctor theme, card games for school, sports running dictation, and bingo food. Activities could be repeated by using similar materials following each theme so that the participants could become familiar with the instructions and could focus more on language use. In terms of pretend play, toys were mostly arranged. Situations were given, and the manipulation of the toys was opened for children to use their imagination. Brief instructions were required, while a great deal

of facilitation from VTs was needed in order to keep the participants focused and make them use the targeted vocabulary and language structures. Example activities of pretend play were dressing-up, visiting friends' house, going to school, traveling to the city or countryside, and shopping for fruits and vegetables. Some materials for this course are exemplified in Appendix I regarding themes and learning stages.

4.1.4 Playmates

This feature was based on sociocultural theory in the aspect of more knowledgeable other (MKO). In this study, the participants' playmates were the main teacher and three VTs who facilitated their learning of English language skills on each day of the lesson. It is not all VTs were able to participate in all sessions, and substitute VTs were recruited. Thus, the participants could play with different adult playmates that simulated the real-life situation of socialization in which children could play with different playmates at different times. Besides, peers were found to take an important role to assist and scaffold each other to learn both the targeted vocabulary and language structures. They helped each other with what to play with and how to say something about their play. Peers also had a great influence on each other when attempting to use English during the PLL activities.

4.1.5 Playfulness

Playfulness referred to the characteristics of play that entailed fun and enjoyment, involving the quality of extraordinariness and creativity, as well as absence from fear of failure. To ensure playfulness, the classroom settings and atmosphere were relaxing so that smiles, laughter, fun, and enthusiasm could be promoted. This feature

was considered important as it distinguished PLL from other instructional methods for young language learners. As for language focus, the thematic units were something unusual so they attracted the participants' attention and sustained their interest to continue using the target language. Also, the language use comprised contents that were fun, funny, and interesting for the children, which helped with memorization of vocabulary. Fun contents could also be used to assess the participants' comprehension based on their reactions, responses, and behaviors. Additionally, playfulness was increased during play activities and in play materials by using some objects that were bigger than usual, allowed deviation from reality or correctness, and provoked ideas, thinking, and imagination. Playmates were also encouraged to make joke and carry out playful conversations to enhance playfulness during PLL activities.

In conclusion, PLL features consisted of five features including language focus, play contexts, play materials, playmates, and playfulness. Each feature was intertwined in ways that the language skills were mediated by a variety of play contexts and materials. Playmates facilitated not only content knowledge but also language skills so that they helped scaffold each other's understanding and fluency and accuracy. Playfulness was the key feature of PLL activities that allowed young participants to lower affective filters in order to enhance their motivation in learning the target language.

Table 16 illustrates the actualizing concept of PLL features and their translation into the operationalized PLL activities.

Table 16. *The actualizing concept of PLL features and their interpretation into the operationalized PLL activities*

Actualizing Concept for PLL Features	Interpretation into Operationalized PLL Activities
<i>Language Focus</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Focus on language learning - Reinforcement of language 	<i>Thematic Units</i> <i>Modes of Communication</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Interpretive - Interpersonal - Presentational <i>Vocabulary and Sentence Patterns</i>
<i>Play Contexts</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Learner-initiated play - Learner-controlled play - Simulation of real-life play - Various choices in play contexts - Imaginary situation 	<i>Play Taxonomy</i> <i>Moves of the PLL lessons</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Circle time - Centers - Crystallization
<i>Playmates</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Dialoguing situations - Interactions with others 	<i>Adults</i> <i>Peers</i>
<i>Play materials</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Objects - Manipulation of objects 	<i>In-house Production</i> <i>Commercial Purchase</i> <i>Contribution from others</i> <i>Brought items from the participants</i>
<i>Playfulness</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Focus on fun and enjoyment - Quality of playfulness and creativity - Absence from fear of failure 	<i>Classroom settings and atmosphere</i>

4.2 PLL Activities and Oral Language Skill Development of Young EFL Learners

Research Question 2: How do Play-based Language Learning (PLL) activities influence oral language skills of young EFL learners?

This research question aimed at investigating how PLL activities influenced development of oral language skills of young EFL learners. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were utilized including PLL pre- and post-tests, oral language performance checklists, and observations.

4.2.1 PLL pre- and post-test scores on oral language skills

The paired-sample *t*-test was conducted to compare mean scores of the PLL pre-test administered before the experiment and the PLL post-test administered one week after implementing PLL activities. The findings revealed that the participants' oral language skills significantly increased at $t(11) = -11.47, p < .05$ after 15 weeks of the PLL activities. The mean score of the PLL post-test (Mean = 26.17, SD = 3.10) was significantly higher than the mean score of the PLL pre-test (Mean = 12.08, SD = 4.36) out of the total score of 30.

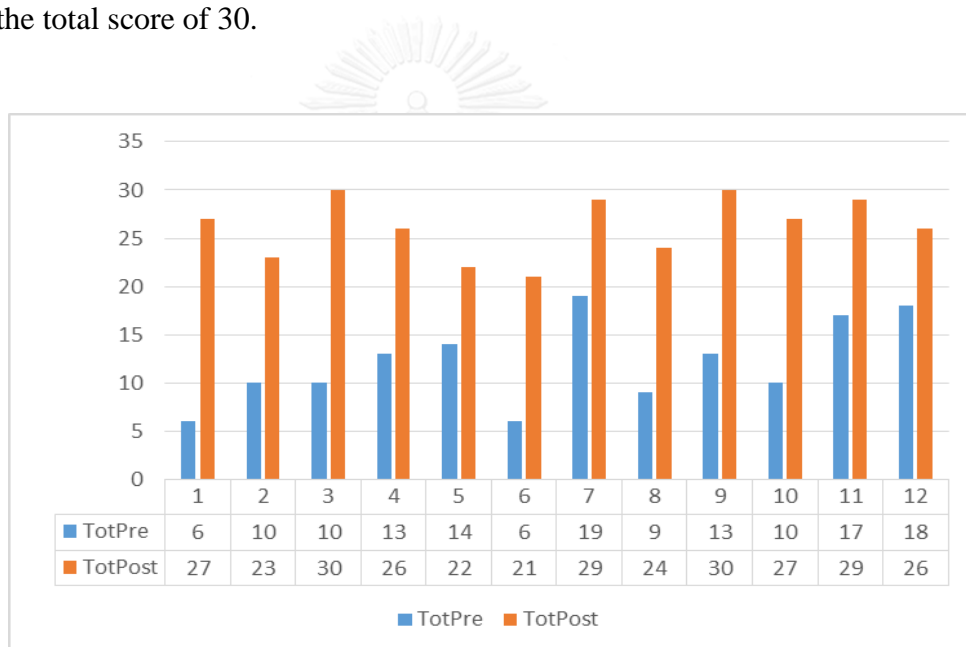


Figure 7. A comparison of the mean scores of the PLL pre- and post-tests.

According to Figure 7, all participants' scores on oral language skills increased in the range between 26.7% and 70%. The scores of the participants 1, 3, 9, 6, and 8 increased by 70%, 66.7%, 56.7%, 50%, and 50%, respectively.

The PLL pre- and post-tests were designed to correspond to three modes of communication to measure the participants' oral language skills. In the test, items 1 to 5 corresponded to the first four course objectives that evaluated mainly the interpretive mode of communication. Items 6 to 8 corresponded to objectives 5 and 6 that evaluated the interpersonal mode of communication. Finally, items 9 and 10

corresponded with the remaining objectives that evaluated the presentational mode of communication. Figure 8 shows the comparison of mean scores of the PLL pre- and post-tests by test items.

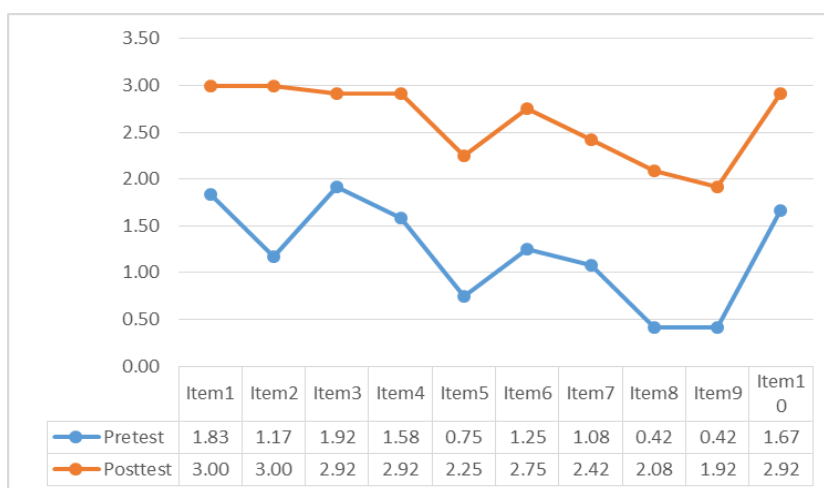


Figure 8. A comparison of mean scores of the PLL pre- and post-tests by test items.

When considering the three modes of communication, as shown in Table 4.2, it could be seen that the mean scores indicated significant differences in the interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational modes of communication after the implementation of PLL activities.

Table 17. A comparison of mean scores of three modes of communication

Mode of Communication	Test Items	N	PLL Pre-test		PLL Post-test		diff	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
			Mean	SD	Mean	SD				
Interpretive	1-5	12	7.25 (48.4%)	2.18	14.08 (93.8%)	0.90	6.83 (45.4%)	-11.88	11	.000
Interpersonal	6-8	12	2.75 (18.5%)	1.96	7.25 (48.3%)	1.76	4.50 (29.8%)	-7.24	11	.000
Presentational	9-10	12	2.08 (13.9%)	0.90	4.83 (32.3%)	0.83	2.75 (18.4%)	-7.40	11	.000

Table 17 indicates that mean scores of the three modes of communication in the PLL pre- and post-tests were statistically significantly different. The post-test mean score of the interpretive mode of communication significantly increased by 45.4%, $t(11) = -11.88, p < 0.05$, (Mean = 14.08, SD = 0.90), which was the highest increase. The post-test mean score of the interpersonal mode of communication rose by 29.8%, $t(11) = -7.24, p < 0.05$ (Mean = 7.25, SD = 1.76), and the post-test mean score of the presentational mode of communication went up by 18.4%, $t(11) = -7.40, p < 0.05$, (Mean = 4.83, SD = 0.83). Such findings illustrated that the participants had the highest level of improvement when it came to the interpretive mode of communication, followed by the interpersonal and presentational modes of communication, respectively.

The mean scores of both the PLL pre- and post-tests were also interpreted based on the four scales of the PLL oral language performance descriptors and the mean score range descriptors as shown in Appendix H.

To summarize, the overall mean scores of all participants increased with statistical significance after the implementation of PLL activities.

4.2.2 Scores of the oral language performance checklists

Three oral language performance checklists were used to examine the participants' oral language skills at the end of each unit, totaling three units (themes 5, 10, and 15) of the PLL activities. They were parallel with the PLL pre- and post-tests in terms of objectives, numbers of question items, and evaluation criteria. In so doing, the participants' language progress and comprehension were determined not only before and after but also during the implementation of PLL activities.

The obtained mean scores of the oral language performance checklists showed significant differences between themes 5 and 10, $t(11) = -3.04, p < 0.05$ (Mean = -3.58, SD = 4.08), and themes 5 and 15, $t(11) = -2.37, p < 0.05$ (Mean = -2.42, SD = 3.53). However, there was no statistically significant difference in the mean scores of the checklists between themes 10 and 15, $t(11) = 1.26, p < 0.05$ (Mean = 1.17, SD = 3.21), as shown in Appendix H. Also, the findings revealed that at the end of units 1, 2, and 3 (or themes 5, 10, and 15), the participants' oral language skills increased to the satisfactory level at the end of theme 5 (Mean = 23.17) and the excellent level at the end of theme 10 (Mean = 26.75) and theme 15 (Mean = 25.58) according to the PLL oral language performance descriptors and mean score range descriptors.

As shown in Figure 9, the mean scores of each test item of the three units were compared in order to assess the participants' interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational modes of communication.

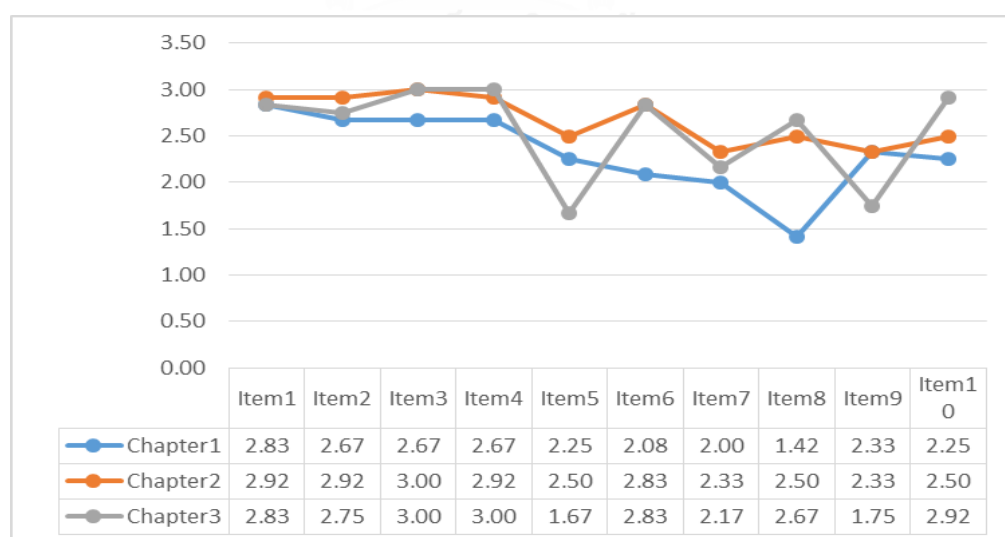


Figure 9. A comparison of mean scores of the test items among three oral language performance checklists at the end of three units.

The oral language performance checklists were composed of ten test items that explored the interpretive (items 1 to 5), interpersonal (items 6-8), and presentational (items 9 to 10) modes of communication. All participants' scores of the interpretive mode were highest. On the other hand, their mean scores were lower when they were asked to perform the interpersonal and presentational modes of communication.

Table 18. *A comparison of mean scores of the three modes of communication of the oral language performance checklists*

Mode of Communication	Test Items	N	Unit 1		Unit 2		Unit 3	
			Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Interpretive	1-5	12	13.08 (87.2%)	1.55	14.25 (95%)	0.72	13.25 (88.3%)	1.01
Interpersonal	6-8	12	5.50 (61.1%)	1.98	7.67 (85.2%)	1.43	7.67 (85.2%)	1.03
Presentational	9-10	12	4.58 (76.3%)	1.26	4.58 (76.3%)	1.26	4.67 (77.8%)	0.75

As displayed in Table 18, the mean scores of the interpretive mode of communication in all three units were highest. As for the other two modes, the mean scores of the interpersonal mode for units two and three were higher than those of the presentational modes. The mean scores of the presentational mode of all three units were relatively similar. In terms of the participants' mean scores of oral language proficiency interpreted by the PLL oral language performance descriptors and mean score range descriptors, they were mostly at the excellent level, especially when it came to the mean scores of test items one to five in the interpretive mode of communication. Approximately one-half of the mean scores in items 6 to 10 fell into the satisfactory level, whereas the other half of the mean scores were at the excellent level.

To sum up, the mean scores of the oral language performance checklists indicated that the participants' oral language proficiency was chiefly at the satisfactory and excellent levels after the implementation of the PLL activities.

4.2.3 Oral records from observations

In this section, the data collected from class observations with the use of three cameras are presented. The observations were conducted with all 45 sessions of PLL activities. It was expected that oral records from the observation would reveal the oral language use and development during the implementation of PLL activities.

In order to obtain an overall understanding of learners' oral language learning outcomes and affective outcomes from the video transcripts, data were analyzed by counting the frequency of occurrences of each outcome as demonstrated in Table 19, arranged from highest to lowest numbers of occurrence. Both main types of outcomes were quantified by using frequency count. Learners' discourses were sought after and counted. Data from the conversations and interactions in English occurring among young learners and between young learners and VTs were all analyzed. In other words, the counted occurrences were sometimes between participants and participants as well as between participants and VTs.

Table 19. *Frequency count of oral language learning outcomes and affective outcomes*

Learning Outcomes	Coding	Counts
L2 Learner Strategies		
9. Interactional Modification		283
9.1) <i>Self- and other-repetition/Reinforcement</i>	REPET	142
9.6) <i>Code mixing</i>	CODE	49
9.4) <i>Clarification request</i>	CLARI	37
9.2) <i>Self- and peer-repairs</i>	REPAIR	26
9.4) <i>Confirmation check</i>	CFM CHK	20
9.3) <i>Recast</i>	RECAST	9
3. Peer-assisted instruction/ MKO/Scaffolding	PEER/SCAF	269
10. Item-based construction		231
10.1) <i>Chunks, Open slots, Language patterns</i>	IBC	153
10.2) <i>Full sentence response</i>	IBC-FULL	78
5. Non-verbal cues/responses	NON-V	131
1. Use of L1 translation	L1 TRL	130
6. Metacognition	META	34
7. Application to other contexts/themes/real-world	APP	22
4. Negotiation of meaning	NEGO	18
8. Unknown-word substitution	UNKNOWN	16
2. Use of L1 transfer	L1 TRF	5
Affective Outcomes		
11. Enjoyment	ENJ	120
14. Creativity	CREAT	89
15. Enthusiastic participation	ENTHU	57
12. Spontaneity with use of TL	SPON	30
13. Absence from fear of failure	ABS	11

During the 15-week implementation of the PLL activities, the participants used different second language learning strategies in order to sustain and continue conversations. The first strategy mostly found was interactional modification with the sub-features of repetition both after others and themselves, followed by the sub-features of code mixing and clarification request. The second strategy was peer-assisted instruction, which was associated directly with the more knowledgeable other (MKO), and scaffolding. Third, the participants utilized a large number of chunks, open slots insertion, and language patterns learned in the PLL class. These sub-features were associated directly with the negotiation of meaning strategy, especially to answer the

reviewed questions using language patterns and to form new concepts. These were followed by non-verbal cues/responses and use of L1 translation strategies.

Apart from learning outcomes, affective outcomes were frequently detected during the implementation of PLL activities. The participants' behaviors such as smiling, jumping, laughing, raising hands high, swaying, humming, moving themselves forward, participating, and shouting out answers were observed and considered evidence of their enjoyment; engagement; attentiveness; enthusiasm; motivation; playfulness; spontaneity with use of TL; creativity; confidence to speak, act, and express feelings; imagination; retention; absence from fear of failure; comment giving; and cultural learning. In addition to the main features of affective outcomes, there were some features that were not as common but could still be found such as playing by rules, taking roles, socializing with others, and showing their spirits. Moreover, the review themes in weeks 5, 10, and 15 illustrated other language development features the participants possessed such as quicker responses, automaticity in producing terms and language structures, TL pronunciation, more fluency and continuing conversation, acknowledging longer instructions, realization of problematic words that were new and hard to pronounce, better understanding of the written language, and reading development from storybooks, as well as other activities that required reading skills.

Table 20. *Frequency of learning outcomes and affective outcomes as categorized by modes of communication*

Learning Outcomes/Modes/Themes	Interpretive			Interpersonal			Presentational		
	1-5	6-10	11-15	1-5	6-10	11-15	1-5	6-10	11-15
L2 LEARNER STRATEGIES									
1. Use of L1 translation	19	3	9	42	13	28	10	2	4
2. Use of L1 transfer	2			1	1	1			
3. Peer-assisted instruction/MKO/ Scaffolding	16	1	11	23	18	7	11	1	1
4. Negotiation of meaning	43	1	20	49	18	25	12	1	11
4. Negotiation of meaning	1			7	4	2	1		3
5. Non-verbal cues/responses	28		12	31	13	10	30		7
6. Metacognition	17		2	6	2	2	5		
7. Apply to other contexts/themes/real world	3		1	3		11	3	1	
8. Unknown-word substitution					1	2	7	3	3
9. Interactional Modification									
9.1) Self- and other-repetition/reinforcement	46	6	15	23	12	16	20	2	2
9.2) Self- and peer-repairs	4		5	3	8	1	4		1
9.3) Recast	2		3	2			2		
9.4) Clarification request	3	1	3	17	7	3	2		1
9.5) Confirmation check		3	2	9	3	3			
9.6) Code mixing	6		1	17	7	9	6		3
10. Item-based construction									
10.1) Chunks/open slot/language pattern	31	4	7	29	8	18	26	4	26
10.2) Full sentence response	9	1	10	10	36	7	4		1
AFFECTIVE OUTCOMES									
11. Enjoyment	33	3	9	42	7	17	6	1	2
12. Spontaneity with use of TL	5	1	1	2	16	4	1		
13. Absence from fear of failure	2			5	1	2	1		
14. Creativity	16		6	23	19	11	3	2	9
15. Enthusiastic participation	8	2	10	13	13	5	4	2	

Table 20 presents learning outcomes and affective outcomes as categorized by the three modes of communication. The PLL activities comprised five types of play activities to correspond with the three modes of communication in each learning stage. To elaborate, language and physical play activities were planned for circle time to enhance students' interpretive mode of communication, while creative play, games with rules, and pretend play were targeted for centers to improve their interpersonal mode of communication. As for crystallization, there was no specific play activity designed for the stage as it aimed to enable the participants to reflect on their knowledge and attitudes

after their experience with PLL activities. However, it is worth noting that various L2 learner strategies, language learning outcomes, and affective outcomes would be discovered to reflect their presentational mode of communication.

In addition, the findings showed that L2 learning strategies that were mostly used in all three modes of communication—interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational—were interactional modification in terms of repetition; peer-assisted instruction; item-based construction primarily using chunks, open slots, and language patterns; use of L1 translation; and non-verbal cues/responses. In the interpersonal mode, it was interesting to see that even though answers or statements in full sentence responses were not often observed, they were more commonly detected in the interpersonal mode rather than in the other two modes. Affective outcomes were found in the form of enjoyment, enthusiastic participation, creativity, and spontaneity. During activities in the interpersonal mode, the findings displayed that the participants were free from fear of failure.

The following section discusses an in-depth analysis of a number of distinctive learning and affective outcomes found in different oral records exemplified according to different modes of communication and learning objectives.

4.2.3.1 Interpretive mode of communication

In this section, transcriptions that revealed dialogues corresponding with objectives one to four of the interpretive mode of communication are exemplified.

Oral record 1: Objective 1—to identify vocabulary and sentence structures

File-Theme/Day; file name; min.	Interaction	Interpretation (Coding)
1/2; 274; 3:40	T: One, two, three {opening a picture} Uma: Hand. Ss: Finger. Uma: Finger. Leslie: Fingers.	SCAF PEER RECAST

Oral record 1 illustrated that the participants scaffolded each other's knowledge and assisted others on linguistic feature awareness, namely the plural -s ending.

Oral record 2: Objective 1—to identify vocabulary learned from the previous day

File-Theme/Day; file name; min.	Interaction	Interpretation (Coding)
4/2; M2U03279 (0:38); M2U00006 (0:44)	T: He or she? {pointing to another picture} Ss: She. T: She has a ## {act} Bond: เจ็บคอ (sore throat) {speaking Thai with English accent} Ss & T: {smiling} T: She has a sore throat. Ss: She has a sore throat. (2 times repetition) T: Do you remember this one? {point to another picture} Ss: ##### Uma: This? ## She># T: She has diarrhea. Uma: [Diary. {smiling}] Ss: {smiling to the picture} Ss: She has diarrhea.] (2 times repetition)	SCAF L1 TRL / CREAT ENJ REPT SCAF META ENJ REPT ENTHU

	<p>T: Try to memorize. {pointing her index finger to her head} You're gonna play game.</p> <p>Uma: {knocking the index finger on her head to signal trying to memorize}</p> <p>T: {pointing to another picture}</p> <p>Uma: ไม่รู้อะ (I don't know.)</p> <p>Ss: She She has a a</p> <p>VTN: What's the matter?</p> <p>T: What's the matter?</p> <p>Ss: xxx</p> <p>T: He has a fever. {act}</p> <p>Ss: He has a fever. (Two times repetition)</p> <p>T: What about this one? {pointing to another picture} ##</p> <p>Uma: She has a. [He has a ฟันหลุด (pronounced /funlood/ in Thai) {laugh}</p> <p>T: {act}</p> <p>Bond: toothteeth. /looteeth/</p> <p>Pedro: She has] a ฟันหลุด {friends laughing}</p> <p>Bond: /tooteeth/</p> <p>Uma: หลุด /lood/ /lood/ /lood/ อะไรอะ</p> <p>Bond: /tooth/ /tooteeth/. {raising his finger and his voice up to try to say the word signaling he remembers it} /teethlud/ Uh:: {rubbing his head}</p> <p>T: He has a loose tooth.</p> <p>Ss: He has a loose tooth.= (Two times repetition)</p> <p>T: {pointing to another picture} What's this one?> {fast and soft}</p> <p>Ss: =He has a bump< {loudly answering, laughing, and smiling}</p> <p>T: Very good!</p> <p>Ss: {clapping their hands}</p> <p>T: He has a bump.</p> <p>Ss: He has a bump. {some Ss acting} (Two times repetition)</p> <p>T: How about his one? {pointing to another picture}</p> <p>Ss: He has a อ้วก. She: has a: อ้วก (puke){laughing}</p> <p>T: She throws up. {acting}</p> <p>Ss: She throws up. {act} (Two times repetition)</p>	<p>NON-V</p> <p>L1 TRL IBC / SCAF</p> <p>REPT</p> <p>IBC / CODE ENJ / META</p> <p>SCAF / META CODE / CREAT SCAF META/SCAF/L1 TRL /L1 TRF PEER / SCAF/ META/ L1 TRF</p> <p>REPT</p> <p>ENJ</p> <p>REPT</p> <p>IBC/ CODE/ ENJ L1 TRL</p> <p>REPT</p>
--	--	--

	<p>T: {pointing to the next picture and acting} Ss: He has: [a:: ยิ้มกโง่ง {smiling} Leslie: Nose> # Nose running> T: {pointing to Leslie to signal that she had a good guess} He He has a [runny nose. Paula: He has a nose xx] Ss: He has a runny nose. (Two times repetition) T: How about this? {pointing to the next picture} Ss: He has a cut. Uma: Sh-. He ha/p/ a cup. {acting and smiling} T: Very good!<= Uma: {clapping her hands} Ss: {smiling; some clapping their hands} T: = He has a cut. Ss & Uma: He has a cut. Bond: {clapping his hand and say} “หนูชอบมากเลยอันนี้” (I really like this one.) T: He has a cut. Ss: He has a cut.</p> <p>T: How about this? Ss: He has/hap a head::ache. {acting} T: Very good! He has a headache. Ss: {clap their hands; some act} He has a headache. T: He has a headache. {acting} Ss: He has a headache. {acting} T: {pointing to the next picture} Ss: He has a # bicycle {laughing, smiling, saying no, laughing to signal that they made joke of their own answer even they knew it was not the correct sickness} Ss: He has a ## Bob: ส้ม (fall) T: {act} Pedro: xx ข่วน (xx scratch.) Bond: ส้มจกักรยาน (fall off the bicycle.) T: He has a /s/ Paula & Uma & Bond: /skaat/ T: He has a scratch. Ss: He has a scratch. (Two times repetition) T: Mr. Baxter, he has a scratch.</p>	<p>IBC/ L1 TRL/ CREAT/ SCAF/ META/ ABS</p> <p>SCAF CODE/ SCAF REPT</p> <p>ENJ</p> <p>REPT ENJ</p> <p>REPT</p> <p>SCAF/ IBC-FULL / SPONT</p> <p>ENJ REPT</p> <p>CREAT/ ENJ/ APP</p> <p>L1 TRL</p> <p>L1 TRL L1 TRL</p> <p>SCAF</p> <p>REPT</p>
--	---	---

	<p>Ss: He has a scratch. T: Okay. This is one time. [One more time and then we'll play:: [game::, okay? Uma: {clapping her hands} Bond: เล่นเกม (play game) {smiling} Ss: {clapping their hands} T: So memorize, memorize. {acting} Try to remember. Ready? This time, we'll make it faster.</p>	<p>REPT ENTHU/ ENJ L1 TRL ENJ</p>
--	---	---

Displayed in oral record 2 are the multi-strategies including learning outcomes, affective outcomes, and discourses in PLL activities that allowed the participants to elicit their background knowledge along with constructing new knowledge learned in playful ways using L1 with the English accent, acting funny, shouting out repetitions after the teacher, and being absent from fear to make mistakes or to say “I don’t know.” One interesting word, “loosetooth,” could display a lot of strategies and interactions the participants had to scaffold and help each other come up with the needed word. They made use of familiar sounds of Thai and English words, background knowledge of the word “tooth,” and scaffolding from peers. In the end, they could enjoy, learn, and repeat the correct word in a sentence, which they would then apply with the next words.

Oral record 3: Objective 1—to identify words about clothes when playing “I spy”

File-Theme/Day; file name; min.	Interaction	Interpretation (Coding)
5/2; M2U00017; 25:08	<p>Directions: Ss got two flashcards of clothes. Each S took turn to say I spy. At least, two people who had pictures on their flashcards would switch seats in the Circle. But, Ss spied on people who really wore it instead of only on flashcards. T: VTN {signaling him to call on something he spied on}</p>	

	<p>VTN: I spy ##### long sleeves. T: {holding the picture of long sleeves} Who do I switch with? Pedro: {standing up and switching places with T} Leslie: {pointing to VTN} Long sleeves. {signaling that he had a long-sleeved top on} VTN: {touching his sleeves and showing them to T} Long sleeves. T: Oh, yeah. Long sleeves. Ss: {laughing} T & VTN: {switching seats} Ss: {laughing} Salma & Paula: Long sleeves> (x2) {pointing to VTU's real long sleeves, not the flashcard he held} VTU: {making a surprised face} Ss: {shouting and laughing} Long sleeves. VTU & VTN: {switching seats} Ss: {laughing}</p>	<p>NON-V SCAF / META</p> <p>ENJ CREAT</p> <p>REPT/ SCAF/ APP</p> <p>ENJ</p>
--	--	--

This oral record signifies that the participants not only learned from the flashcards but they could also apply what they had learned to the real world as they made meaning to people using the learned word in the real world. They could use their metacognition to make judgment of the language they produced as well.

Oral record 4: Objective 1—to identify quantifying names of fruits

File-Theme/Day; file name; min.	Interaction	Interpretation (Coding)
13/1; M2U00089; 1:19	<p>T: What are they? Ss: Grapes. T: Grapes. So if I say, “One grape, two grapes, three grapes. But, this is a bunch of grapes. Aaron: คืออะไร (What does it mean?) VTN: {acting} T: A bunch of grape. {pointing at the picture} Uma: Two bunch. T: Yes. So, we have two bunches of grapes.</p>	<p>L1 TRL/ CLARI</p> <p>SCAF RECAST</p>

<p>Uma: Two bunch<u>es</u> of grapes. {smiling} Bond: พวงหรือ T: Yes. How many grapes (x2)? Ss & T: One. Two. Three. Four. Five. Six. Seven. Eight. Nine. T: Nine. So, if I ask, "How many grapes (x2)? T & Ss: There are nine grapes. T: How many bunches of grapes? (x2) VTs & Ss & T: There are # two ## bunches of grapes. Alright! Can you ask the questions? How many are grapes? Oh. Listen again. How many grapes are there? Ss: How many grapes are there? T: How many grapes are there? Ss: There are nine grapes. T: Okay. Ask the question. Repeat after me. How many bunches of grapes are there? Ss: How many bunches ## are there? T: of grapes. Ss: of grapes. T: are there? Ss: are there? T: How many bunches of grapes are there? Ss: How many bunches of grapes are there? T: How many? Uma: {shouting} Two. Two. T: There are two bunches of grapes. Okay?</p> <p>T: What are they? Ss: Apple. {shouting} T: They are ## Ss: They are apples. T: How many apples are there? Ss: There are:: ## three apples. T: Are you sure? Ss: Yes. T: One. Two. Three. Okay. Repeat after me. What are they? Ss: What are they? T: They are apples. Ss: They are apples.. T: How many apples are there? Ss: How many apples are there? T: There are three apples. Ss: There are three apples. T: Okay?</p>	<p>REPAIR/ META CFRM CHK/ L1 TRL</p> <p>SCAF</p> <p>SCAF IBC-FULL</p> <p>SCAF IBC-FULL REPT IBC-FULL</p> <p>REPT</p> <p>REPT/ REPAIR</p> <p>REPT/ REPAIR</p> <p>REPT/ IBC- FULL SCAF/ IBC</p> <p>IBC-FULL</p> <p>IBC-FULL</p> <p>IBC</p> <p>REPT</p> <p>REPT</p> <p>REPT</p> <p>REPT</p>
---	---

It could be seen that interactional modification took a main role to help the participants comprehend the concept and meaning of a new term. Once the term was understood, repetitions took place.

Oral record 5: Objective 1—to review unit three to identify vocabulary in themes 11 to 14

File-Theme/Day; file name; min.	Interaction	Interpretation (Coding)
15/2; M2U00381; 0:03	<p>T: Today, we're going to have a party. And, we have gifts, a lot of presents. If you can answer # {showing the flashcards}</p> <p>Baxter: อ้อ ตอบคำถาม (Oh, answer the questions.)</p> <p>T: If you can answer, # {showing more flashcards} then you can choose the presents.</p> <p>Uma: อ้อ ตอบคำถามแล้วก็จะได้รางวัล (Oh, answer the questions and we'll get the presents.)</p> <p>T: Okay? {nodding her head}</p> <p>Ss: Yay< {clapping their hands}</p> <p>T: And then, we're going to have some pizza and bread, raisin bread. And then, then, then, we're going to the centers, three centers. {pointing to the corner of each center} If you win {acting} in the centers {using gesture}, you can come to choose the presents {using gestures}.</p> <p>Ss: Yay< (respond instantly)</p> <p>Baxter: Miss Rin (x2) ถ้าเกิดตอบอันนี้ได้ ก็จะไปหยิบอันนั้น แล้วทานเสร็จแล้ว ถ้าเล่นที่ฐานได้ winner ก็จะไปหยิบอันนั้น (If we can answer this (flashcard questions), we will pick up those (presents). Then, after finish having food, we play at the center. If we are the winner at the center, we'll pick up those presents.)</p> <p>T: Exactly! Very good.</p> <p>Ss: {clapping their hands, shaking, and smiling}</p> <p>T: Are you ready to play? (x3)</p> <p>Ss: Yes::::</p> <p>T: Where are you going? Whoops! {showing a flashcard}</p>	<p>L1 TRL</p> <p>L1 TRL</p> <p>ENJ ENTHU</p> <p>(Long instructions)</p> <p>ENJ L1 TRL CFM CHK/ CODE</p> <p>ENTHU</p> <p>ENTHU</p>

	<p>Ss: {raising their hands} T: Tanya. Tanya: I'm going # to the farm. T: To the farm. {handing it to Paula to pass it to Tanya} Paula: Here you are. {passing it to Tanya} Tanya: Thank you. ** The question-answer went on throughout all flashcards ** Ss were very attentive and could answer the difference between there is and there are. They were aware of different structure in the review. They could answer/say the sentences more quickly.</p>	<p>IBC-FULL/APP IBC-FULL SCAF (speed response) ENTHU</p>
--	---	---

Oral record 5 sheds light on other linguistic features to signal the participants' understanding as they had been familiar with the TL used in the PLL activities. Speed response after a long instruction was found. One of the participants was able to correctly translate the long string of instructions into Thai. After that, engagement and enthusiastic participation were revealed.

Oral record 6: Objective 2—to act according to the places they hear about

File-Theme/Day; file name; min.	Interaction	Interpretation (Coding)
<p>11/2; M2U00352; 21:53</p>	<p>T: I'm going to a bookstore. Ss: {acting reading a book} T: I'm going to the river. Ss: {acting swimming and boating} T: I'm going to a farm. Ss: {acting feeding their friends, as an animal, and seeing animals} T: I'm going to the supermarket. Ss: {acting picking up food supplies and scanning the barcode} - The action continued on the entire of vocabulary. In the round, Ss took one flashcard, looked, hid, and acted out for his/her friends to guess.</p>	<p>NON-V/ PEER NON-V/ PEER NON-V/ PEER NON-V/PEER CREAT/ SPONT NON-V/CREAT</p>

11/2; M2U00352; 31:41	Tanya: {acting shopping} SS & VTs: Oh! Ah! ဝေးလှစေ့? (What?) Aaron: Oh! {raising his hand and shaking his body} Bond: Ah! {raising his hand} Paula: {shouting} Shopping (x2) T: What is she going to do? (x2) Paula: She's going to buy milk. T: She's going to buy milk. Is it correct? Yes? Tanya: {nodding her head} T: Where is she going to? Paula & Salma: She's going to supermarket. T: Very good. She's going to the supermarket. Ss: {repeating after T} - Every S took turn to act.	L1 TRL/ CLARI ENTHU ENTHU ENTHU ENJ IBC-FULL NON-V IBC-FULL/ ENTHU REPT
-----------------------------	---	--

Oral record 6 exemplified some activities in which the participants manifested their understanding. In the first round, the participants interacted with the teacher. In the second round, the participants interacted with peers with the facilitation of the teacher. The findings showed that the participants employed the non-verbal cues/responses; showed their enthusiastic participation, engagement, and their creativity; and felt free to act out individually or with peers for their own learning and understanding.

Oral record 7: Objective 3—to listen to and repeat the “Name of” activity

File-Theme/Day; file name; min.	Interaction	Interpretation (Coding)
13/2; MOV07C; 28:30	T explained how to play the game in the circle time. Each S made rhythm by slapping, clapping, and snapping. Each S did two times, first time was to name fruit, and the second time was to name a person who would say next.	

	<p>T: Okay. Look. This is how we play. I will say slap {slapping the laps}, clap {clapping with two hands}, mango {snapping each syllable of the word}. Some Ss: {acting following what T did} T: {leading everyone to try again} And then, next time I will say slap, clap, VTN. Ss: ๑๑ (Oh! - get the activity's rule) T: Okay? So, VTN will go [T pointed at the flashcards} slap, clap, ##### VTN: {laughing} slap, clap, ## pineapple. T: Yeah. And then, VTN will call someone else. VTN: Slap, clap, VTU. VTU: Slap, clasp, strawberry. T: Ahh. And, VTU will call another name. VTU: Tanya {doing the snaps} T: Slap, clap. VTU: Oh! Slap, clap, # Tanya T: Ah! And, Tanya will go ## Ss: {laughing, crying for their turn, and making noises} Tanya: Slap, clap, Er::: ##### {looking at flashcards of fruits and vegetables on the board} Tanya: Orange. (snap two times) VTU & T: Orange. {showing her how to snap and say the name} T: Yes. And then, one more time. Slap, clap, Call somebody's name. Tanya: Pedro. Everyone: Yeah! {cheering that she made it.} Ss: {shouting for their turn} T: Slap, clap ## Pedro: Banana. Everyone: {cheering, laughing, clapping} Ah:::! T: And. Slap, clap ## call the name. Pedro: Usher. Everyone: {laughing and cheering} ** It went on for everyone could get the chance to say the names.</p>	<p>SCAF</p> <p>REPET SCAF/ L1 TRL/ SCAF</p> <p>SCAF</p> <p>SCAF SCAF</p> <p>SCAF</p> <p>REPAIR</p> <p>ENJ SCAF</p> <p>IBC SCAF ENJ</p> <p>SCAF</p> <p>ENTHU/ ENJ</p> <p>SCAF IBC ENJ SCAF SCAF/IBC ENJ</p>
--	--	--

The new activity was introduced to the participants for the first time as shown in oral record 7. Scaffolding of rules, rhymes, and vocabulary was mostly found to help the participants acquire more new knowledge. The findings also showed the participants' excitement with and engagement in the activity.

Oral record 8: Objective 4—to ask and answer questions about ordering food

File-Theme/Day; file name; min.	Interaction	Interpretation (Coding)
12/1; M2U00359; 25:25	<p>T pretended to be a chef and gave food flashcards to the S.</p> <p>T: What are you going to have or drink?</p> <p>Bob: I'm going to spaghetti.</p> <p>T: To have spaghetti.</p> <p>Bob: Spaghetti.</p> <p>T: Can you say, "I'm going to have spaghetti"?</p> <p>Bob: I'm going to have spaghetti.</p> <p>T: Yes. {turning to Leslie} How much is spaghetti? {looking for a flashcard and handing it to Bob} 80 baht. (x3)</p> <p>Bob: {pretending to give money}</p> <p>T: Here you are.</p> <p>Bob: Thank you.</p> <p>T: Mr. Aaron. What are you going to have or drink?</p> <p>Aaron: I'm going to milk.</p> <p>T: Going to drink milk.</p> <p>Aaron: I'm going to drink milk.</p> <p>T: Very good. How much is milk?</p> <p>Leslie: 10 baht.</p> <p>T: {handing the flashcard} 10 baht. 10 baht, please.</p> <p>Aaron: {getting the flashcard and pretend giving money}</p> <p>T: Thank you.</p> <p>** Ss continued taking turn saying the sentence.</p>	<p>CREAT/ SCAF/ RECAST REPAIR/ REPT</p> <p>REPT</p> <p>NON-V/ CREAT</p> <p>IBC/ SCAF/ RECAST REPT/ REPAIR</p> <p>CREAT/IBC</p> <p>NON-V/ CREAT</p>

In this oral record 8, the participants conducted self-repair of their pronunciation and language structures after the teacher's recasts. As shown in the excerpt, the participants repeated the correct stressed syllable of the word 'spaghetti' after the teacher's correction. The situation of pretend play provided a meaningful context for the conversation as well as non-verbal cues/responses that the participants utilized to show their understanding.

Oral record 9: Objective 4—to ask and answer questions about age

File-Theme/Day; file name; min.	Interaction	Interpretation (Coding)
3/1; M2U03277; (2:30)	<p>In a round, Ss asked and answered using the language pattern. T: Good afternoon, S1. How old are you? S1: I'm <u>8/9</u> years old. Ss: S/he is 8/9 years old. After Ss had practiced answering questions with about ten friends with T's guidance, T let Ss ask question sentence by themselves.</p> <p>T: Good afternoon, Mr. Aaron. How old are you? Aaron: I am nine years old. Ss: He is nine years old. T: Can we say "Good Afternoon, VTN, together?" Ss: Good afternoon, VTN. How old are you? VTN: I am {chuckling} 25 [years old]. Ss: {Oh! smiling and turning to their friends} T: Wow]. [He {using gesture to signal the choral of the affirmative sentence} # Ss: He is 25 years old.] T: Let's say good afternoon to ###. VTN: Paris. T: Paris.</p>	<p>META</p> <p>REPT/ IBC-FULL</p> <p>ENJ</p> <p>REPT IBC-FULL</p>

	<p>Ss: Good afternoon, Paris. How old are you? Paris: I am #. I am # nine years old. {speaking softly with smile} T: Okay {turning her face to other Ss and using gestures to signal the use of language pattern.} Ss: She is nine years old.</p> <p>T: {using her hands to point to Salma to guide Ss to speak the pattern} Ss: Good afternoon, Salma. # How old are you? Salma: ##### (5 sec.) T: I am ##### 100 years old? Salma: {smiling} No! Ss: Huh! {smiling and making a surprised face} Salma: Eight Paula: Eight years old T: Everybody! Ss: She is eight years old.</p> <p>The practice went on to all the routines. Ss could ask and answer questions and answers faster.</p>	<p>META IBC-FULL</p> <p>IBC-FULL</p> <p>IBC-FULL</p> <p>CREAT ENJ</p> <p>PEER</p> <p>META IBC-FULL</p>
--	---	---

The finding in oral record 9 displayed the participants' linguistics awareness of subject-verb agreement. They showed comprehension by laughing. One important role of the teacher was timing a waiting time for the participants to think and respond if they needed one.

4.2.3.2 Interpersonal mode of communication

This section revealed examples of oral records from the observations that corresponded with objectives five and six, with a focus on the interpersonal mode of communication.

Oral record 10: Objective 5—to initiate and respond to name a group-work drawing

File-Theme/Day; file name; min.	Interaction	Interpretation (Coding)
1/3; 022; 43:22	VTM: [xx] name? The name of superhero? Leslie: The name of superhero คืออะไรดี? (What should be the name of Superhero?) {turning to Tanya and smiling} Tanya: Superlaser. Leslie: {laughing} VTM: Superlaser {laughing}	META/ APP ENJ
1/3; 023; min.1:43	Leslie: ตัวต่อนี้จะวาดอีกตัวหนึ่งหรือ (Tanya, are you drawing another one?) Tanya: [x] จะวาดอีกตัวหนึ่ง (I'm drawing another one.) Leslie: Superla. Superla. Tanya: อันนี้ Superlaser ใช่ไหม (This one is Superlaser, right?) Leslie: อันนี้ [Superlasey Tanya: Superlasey] Leslie, Tanya, Paris: {laughing} VTM: Lazy! {laughing} Leslie: Superlasey Paris: ชื่อผู้หญิงใช่ไหม (The name is for girl, right?)	REPT PEER/ CODE/ META META ENJ REPT (cultural learning)

The participants coined two terms “super” and “laser” to name a male superhero learned in the circle time to play in the creative play center, as displayed in oral record 10. Later on, they discussed with each other to name another drawing of a female superheroine they created together. They changed the word “laser” to “lasey” for a female superhero. It was then interpreted as evidence of the learning outcomes of cultural learning of females’ names in English.

Oral record 11: Objective 5—to initiate an action for friends to guess and respond to each sickness they hear

File- Theme/Day; file name; min.	Interaction	Interpretation (Coding)
<p>4/2; M2U00006; 15:32, and M2U03279; 15:20</p> <p>M2U03279 (16:10)</p>	<p>T: In the next game, you talk to your team and then you talk to each other. And then, you try to act. Then, your friends guess what it is {using gestures}. For example, what do you want to act? ## {talking to the first team}. Then, you stand up. And then, you act {standing up and acting using gestures}. Then, your friends guess # what it is. Ss: ๓๓ (oh, I see.) {making noises to signal that they understood}. Ss: Bump T: He has a ## Ss: Bump. T: He has a bump. Okay? Then, your team got one point, one sticker.</p> <p>Ss got together and worked on what they wanted to act. They thought, selected what to act, and rehearsed their acting. T and VTs helped each group as needed.</p> <p>For instance, a group worked on their own without VTs.</p> <p>Paula: xx Tanya: Broken arm {acting} Paula: Shh {telling Tanya to keep it down} T: {helping the group} Okay! What do you want? {showing the pictures and pointing to Aaron} Aaron: xx T: Four. Four. One, two, three, four {pointing to each student} Four, okay? {pausing for Ss to think}. And, picture 2? Tanya: {acting as if she had a headache} Paula: {pointing at the picture—loose tooth} Salma: {looking at the picture and turning to her friends whispering “cut” and act} Paula: Shh {putting her index finger on the mouth}</p>	<p>IBC IBC</p> <p>IBC CREAT SCAF</p> <p>NON-V NON-V CREAT/ IBC</p>

	<p>Salma: Cut. Cut {whispering to her team and acting}</p> <p>Aaron: อะไรนะ (What is that?)</p> <p>Paula: {acting as if she was having a headache to her team}</p> <p>Tanya & Salma: {smiling and pretending to have a headache}</p> <p>Paula: Aaron มานี้ {whispering and calling out for the team}</p> <p>Tanya, Paula, Salma: {acting the word 'loose tooth' and smiling}</p> <p>Tanya: {pointing to the picture 'diarrhea'}</p> <p>Salma & Paula: {acting as if having a diarrhea, smiling, and laughing softly in order not to let other teams know}</p> <p>Aaron: ไม่เอาด้วยอะ (I'm not going to do that) {smiling}</p> <p>Salma & Tanya: {acting as if having a diarrhea, laughing, and clapping their hands}</p> <p>T turned to them to ask what they wanted to act. They replied the key terms in English.</p> <p>Each S stood up and acted. Other team said what the acting of sickness was in a full sentence; e.g.</p> <p>Bond: {acting}</p> <p>Team Paula, Tanya, Salma, Aaron: He has a loose tooth. {shouting out the answer}</p> <p>T: Correct!</p> <p>Team: Yay! {shouting 'Yay' and raising their arms!}</p> <p>T: {giving one sticker}</p> <p>Ss: {becoming alert and paying attention}</p> <p>Bob: {acting}</p> <p>Ss: He has a ##### (4 seconds) {then, Ss turned to each other in their team and discussed}</p> <p>VTM: Again. {telling Bob to act again}</p> <p>T: {looking around and smiling} He has a /s/</p> <p>Ss: /skaat/ {raising their fingers to signal they got the answer}</p> <p>Bond: Scratch.</p> <p>T: He has a #</p> <p>Ss: /skaat/</p> <p>T: {shaking her head} scratch.</p> <p>Ss: Scratch.</p>	<p>CREAT NEGO CLARI/ L1 TRL NON-V/ PEER</p> <p>NON-V/ PEER</p> <p>PEER</p> <p>NON-V</p> <p>NON-V</p> <p>NON-V/ ENJ/ CREAT</p> <p>L1 TRL</p> <p>NON-V/ ENJ</p> <p>NON-V IBC/ ENTHU</p> <p>ENTHU/ ENJ</p> <p>NON-V IBC</p> <p>SCAF</p> <p>SCAF</p> <p>SCAF</p> <p>SCAF</p> <p>SCAF</p> <p>REPT</p>
--	--	--

	<p>T: He has a scratch. Ss: He has a scratch. {shouting loudly} * When Ss knew the answer, they shouted it out very loudly, laughed, smiled, and go a bit wild enthusiastically.</p>	REPT/ ENTHU
--	--	-------------

Oral record 11 illustrates cooperative learning that occurred when the participants discussed and made use of different strategies such as code mixing, item-based construction, negotiation of meaning, and non-verbal cues/responses to whisper to each other because it was a play situation in which they did not want other teams to eavesdrop on their responses. The findings also showed that the participants assisted each other to scaffold any difficult words they came across.

Oral record 12: Objective 5—to exchange information about vocabulary

File-Theme/Day; file name; min.	Interaction	Interpretation (Coding)
5/3; 00000; 11:00	<p>In the whispering activity, a representative from three groups listened to a sentence and went back to whisper to one friend in his/her row. T: {whispering a sentence to three Ss} Usher: xxx {whispering} Tanya: อะไรนะ? (What is it? (x2)) Usher: I xx a scarf in winter. Tanya: ไม่เข้าใจอะ (I don't understand what you said.) Bond: อ้อ นู่นรู้ๆ (Oh, I know I know.) (whisper to Tanya) Tanya: Yay. {turning him to VTN and jumping} Bond: I have a scarf in winter. {whispering to VTN} VTN: {whispering to Pedro} Pedro: {running to the front to the T} Tanya: ใช่หรือ? (Is that correct?) Usher: ผิดตรงไหนไม่รู้อะ (I'm not sure which part is incorrect.)</p>	<p>L1/ CLARI SCAF / PEER ENJ IBC-FULL NEGO/L1 TRL/ CLARI</p>

	<p>Bond: ฉันรู้ (I know). I have a scarf in winter. {using his gesture while chanting out the sentence}</p> <p>Tanya: I have a /skuf/?</p> <p>Usher: อะไรอะไร? (What /sa/?)</p> <p>Bond: Scarf.</p> <p>Usher: {smiling and making a blank face}</p> <p>Bond: Scarf มันแปลว่าอะไร (What is scarf?) {asking Usher and smile}</p> <p>Usher: {smiling and laughing—signaling that he did not know}</p> <p>Bond: {using gesture to act as if wrapping something around his neck} scarf ก็อันนี้จ๊ะ (Scarf is this thing.)</p> <p>Tanya: /skuf/. {thinking before turning to Bond and calling for his attention} นี่ มันเป็น scough ไปแล้วนะ scough?</p> <p>Bond: Scarf. {confirming to his friends}</p>	<p>SCAF/ PEER</p> <p>REPT/ META/ CFM CHK/ CLARI/ PEER</p> <p>SCAF/ PEER/ CLARI</p> <p>CODE/ ENJ / NEGO</p> <p>NON-V/ PEER/ CODE/</p> <p>META/ CFRM CHK</p> <p>NEGO/META/ CLARI/ PEER</p>
--	--	--

As exhibited in oral record 12, three participants engaged in an interesting discourse in which they negotiated the meaning of a word and its sound using different strategies including negotiation of meaning, self-talk or meta-cognition to make a confirmation check with oneself, a clarification request with MKO-peer, and L1 translation.

Oral record 13: Objective 6—to ask and answer questions about superhero

File-Theme/Day; file name; min.	Interaction	Interpretation (Coding)
1/1; games_chat; 11:40	<p>VTN shows his muscles to help Ss come up with the new vocabulary for them “muscle.”</p> <p>Uma: Big...</p> <p>Paula: /botl/ (x2)</p> <p>VTN: Bottom! {putting his hands around bottoms} Ohw!</p> <p>Ss: {laughing}</p> <p>VNT: Bottom is here. {touching the Ss’ bottoms}</p>	<p>SCAF</p> <p>PEER</p> <p>ENJ</p> <p>PEER</p>

	<p>Ss: {laughing}.</p> <p>Bond: {trying to guess} Buffalo.</p> <p>VTN: {pretending to be a buffalo} Buffalo!?</p> <p>Ss: {laughing}</p> <p>Paula: /mish/ {guessing and laughing}</p> <p>VTN: {pretending to be shocked to hear the answer in a funny way}</p> <p>Ss: {laughing}</p> <p>VTN: Muscle (x3)</p> <p>Ss: {repeating the word three times and laughing}</p>	<p>SCAF</p> <p>ENJ</p> <p>SCAF</p> <p>ABS</p> <p>REPT</p>
<p>1/1; games_chat; 12:35</p>	<p>Next picture they uncover is another strong superhero.</p> <p>VTN: Do you know what has he got?</p> <p>Paula: {Jumping and raising her hands}</p> <p>Bond: Big muscle.</p> <p>Paula & Uma: Big muscle.</p> <p>VTN: Big muscle::. So he can be very {acting strong} ##### very {acting strong}.</p> <p>Bond: Big bottom {laughing}.</p> <p>VTN: No big bottom.</p> <p>Ss: {laughing}</p> <p>Paula: Big bottom. {laughing loudly}</p> <p>VTN asks Ss to repeat the word “big muscle” with him three times.</p>	<p>ENTHU</p> <p>IBC</p> <p>APP/ ENJ</p> <p>ENJ</p> <p>REPT</p>

Oral record 13 presented the discourses in which the participants scaffolded one word with a familiar sound but then the word was close to another known word “bottom.” Later on, they intentionally used an incorrect answer in another context so as to make it fun and laugh. In so doing, they learned how to play with words by applying what was already known in a new context.

Oral record 14: Objective 6—to ask for information and answer questions to comprehend the instructions

File- Theme/Day; file name; min.	Interaction	Interpretation (Coding)
4/1; M2U03278; 00:01/ MOV058; 0:55	<p>VTM: Build a hospital. Build a hospital. {using gestures to give clues}</p> <p>Baxter: xx</p> <p>VTM: Hospital? There is a doctor, there is a nurse # work here. ## Work in a hospital.</p> <p>Bob: Doctor!</p> <p>VTM: Hospital.</p> <p>Pedro: บ้านหมอ? (Doctor's home?)</p> <p>VTM: {shaking her head} It's a. You draw a hospital.</p> <p>Bob: บ้าน doctor (Doctor's home)</p> <p>VTM: It's a # big # {using gesture to give clue}. Sanamchandra, err., เทพากร (Tepakorn) is a hospital. {giving examples of the hospital's names in Nakornpathom}</p> <p>Baxter: เอ๊ะ ให้[วาดสถานที่สำคัญหรือ? (Aeh? We draw important attractions?)</p> <p>Pedro: ให้วาดโรงพยาบาล] (Draw a hospital)</p> <p>VTM: {pointing to Pedro and nodding her head}</p> <p>Paris: ให้วาดโรงพยาบาล</p> <p>VTM: Yes {pointing to Paris}. It's a hospital. You draw a hospital.</p> <p>Baxter: ให้วาดโรงพยาบาล? (Draw a hospital?) {uttering voice to show unexpectedness}</p> <p>VTM: Yeah. You can draw someone bump {acting}, someone cut {acting}.</p> <p>Ss: {smiling}</p> <p>VTM: You can draw a doctor.</p> <p>Baxter: {pretending to have a broken wrist and finger and showing them to his friend} อ้า ช่วยด้วย (crying sound, Oh, help, help)</p>	<p>REPT / SCAF</p> <p>L1 TRANSL/ CFM CHK</p> <p>SCAF / CODE PEER SCAF L1 TRL</p> <p>CLARI</p> <p>SCAF/ CFM CHK/ L1 TRL</p> <p>CFM CHK /L1 TRL/ PEER/ CFM CHK/ L1 TRL</p> <p>SCAF ENJ</p> <p>NON-V/ CREAT/ L1 TRL</p>

The participants scaffolded their understanding of the instructions using different strategies—L1 translation, confirmation check, peer-assisted instruction, and non-verbal cues/responses.

Oral record 15: Objective 6—to ask for and give information in pretend play, restaurant situation

File-Theme/Day; file name; min.	Interaction	Interpretation (Coding)
12/2; M2U00088; 1:16	VTN: You are the waiter okay? Aaron: {nodding his head} Bond: หนูขอจกอาหาร (May I take your order?) VTN: Next time. Next time. Aaron: เราทำแล้ว (I'm doing it.) Bond: {nodding his head} VTN: {summarizing} Paris is the chef. Aaron is the waiter. And then, you are the customers {pointing to Bond and Tanya} You come to the restaurants, okay? Now, you go. And, walk to the restaurant. Bond & Tanya: {walking out of the center to pretend coming to the restaurant.} VTN: Stand up. (x2) Aaron: ไปไหน (Where am I going?) VTN: Clean the table. Aaron: {cleaning the table} Tanya: {walking in} VTN: Take a seat. (x2) VTN: Aaron, can you ask the question first? Bond & Tanya: {talking in Thai loudly} VTN: Listen. Listen to the waiter first. What are you going to have? Aaron: What are you going to have? Tanya: {speaking very quickly} I'm going to have pizza. I'm going to have spaghetti. I'm going to have French fries. I'm going to have soup. {pointing to pictures in the menu with a smile}	NON-V L1 TRL/ CREAT L1 TRL NON-V CREAT/ SPONT NON-V CREAT SPONT L1 TRL REPT CREAT/ (speed) IBC-FULL/ ENTHU/ REPT/ SPONT/ ENJ

	<p>Aaron: {acting taking notes of the order and smiling} Bond: {starting speaking quickly, too} I'm going to have fish. กินทุกอย่าง (I'll eat everything.) {pointing at the menu} VTN: {laughing} Tanya: I'm going. {looking up to VTN} VTN: What are you going to drink? (x2) {telling Aaron what to say} Can you ask? Tanya: I'm going to. Aaron: What are you going to drink? Bond and Tanya ordered drink very quickly in the same time. Tanya: I'm going to drink # lemonade. Bond: I'm going to have orange juice. Tanya: I'm going to drink tea. Bond: I'm going to have lemonade. Bond: I'm going to have ## milk. Tanya: I'm going # to drink ## water. Aaron: {smiling} ทุกอย่าง (everything) Tanya & Bond: {smiling} VTN: And then, you tell the chef. Aaron: {pretending to write down the order}</p> <p>Aaron & Paris: {cooking} Tanya: Water. (x4) Quickly (x8) Tanya: Serve (x4) {smiling} Ss took turns to play different roles.</p>	<p>NON-V/ ENJ CREAT/ (speed) ENJ/ IBC-FULL CODE/ REPT</p> <p>REPT/ SCAF</p> <p>SCAF REPT</p> <p>REPT (speed) CREAT/ IBC-FULL SCAF/ SPONT ENTHU/ ENJ REPT/ SCAF SCAF L1 TRL ENJ</p> <p>NON-V</p> <p>CREAT SCAF IBC/ ENJ</p>
--	--	---

Oral record 15 illustrates that the participants were able to control their own play in the situation in which they pretended to order food at a restaurant. The important strategies found during their engagement in this particular play activity were learning by looking at the menu and speaking full sentences in speed response with their confidence. It could also be seen that the participants exploited repetition as a reinforcement of the language learned.

Oral record 16: Objective 6—to ask for the information about their New Year’s resolutions

File-Theme/Day; file name; min.	Interaction	Interpretation (Coding)
14/2; MOV082; 16:34	<p>At the creative play, after the Ss wrote down their New Year’s resolutions on the leaves and were decorating their tree, VTU asked question.</p> <p>VTU: What is your New Year’s resolution, Uma? What is your New Year’s resolution?</p> <p>Uma: I’m going to xxx.</p> <p>VTU: What? I’m going to take ##. {looking at her leave of New Year’s resolution}</p> <p>Uma: I’m going to take a # swimming.</p> <p>VTU: Swimming? A piano class, right?</p> <p>Uma: Yes. แล้วยังไวโอลิน แล้วยังว่ายน้ำ (And, violin. And, swimming)</p> <p>VTU: What about you, Bond? What is your New Year’s resolution?</p> <p>Bond: {looking up and thinking}</p> <p>VTU: What did you write? What is your New Year’s resolution?</p> <p>Bond: {looking up and thinking}</p> <p>VTU: I’m going to #####</p> <p>Bond: I’m going: to xx.</p> <p>VTU: Dream World? {acting surprised} (Dream World is an amusement park in Thailand)</p> <p>Bond: ไม่รู้จะกรู xx ไม่รู้เรื่อง (I don’t know. I don’t understand.)</p> <p>VTU: Tanya. ##### Tanya, what is your New Year’s resolution?</p> <p>VTU: I’m going to ##.</p> <p>Paula: Cinema.</p> <p>Tanya: {smiling and looking at the board}</p> <p>VTU: To ## Okay. Where? Where is [yours</p> <p>Tanya: Eat healthy.]</p> <p>VTU: Eat. Eat healthy. {nodding}</p> <p>VTU: Okay, Bond. Again, what is your New Year’s resolution?</p>	<p>SCAF</p> <p>SCAF APP L1 TRL/ CODE/ APP</p> <p>SCAF</p> <p>SCAF/APP</p> <p>L1 TRL ABS</p> <p>IBC / ENTHU</p> <p>ENJ</p> <p>IBC/ APP</p>

	<p>Bond: ไปไหนอะ? (Where to go?) VTU: No. No. What is your New Year's resolution? What do you want to do in the New Year? Bond: I'm:: going to:: feed animal. VTU: Feed animal? Okay. What about you? {asking Uma} Uma: I'm going to ##### swimming. VTU: Swim. Uma: ## Championship. VTU: What about you, Paula? [What Paula: Er. Cinema. VTU: No. What is your New Year's resolution? Paula: Er::: I'm: going to:: Erm:: play badminton. VTU: Play badminton.</p>	<p>L1 TRL/ CFM CHK IBC-FULL APP CFM CHK SCAF/UNKNOWN IBC IBC-FULL/ SCAF/ APP</p>
--	--	---

The findings shown in oral record 16 revealed that the participants employed different strategies to answer questions such as L1 translation, code mixing, and unknown-word substitution. They also answered the questions with both the language they had learned in the class and prior knowledge they had already had to help them cope with the situation. For instance, Uma was a swimmer. Even though “swimming” was not emphasized in the lesson, she applied it in her response. Moreover, Paula applied the word “cinema” learned in week 11 in this particular lesson in week 14. Besides, the participants were not afraid to say “I don’t know” or “I don’t understand” to the VTs, which reflected that they felt free to express their feelings and opinions.

4.2.3.3 Presentational mode of communication

Oral records 17 to 19 offered sample oral records of dialogues during the crystallization stage that corresponded with the presentational mode of communication.

Oral record 17: Objectives 7-8—to give information about experience and express feelings about the activity

File-Theme/Day; file name; min.	Interaction	Interpretation (Coding)
1/1; Creative_chat; 9.45	T: Uma, what did you play today? Paula and Salma: {laughing} Uma: {laughing} T: You play.... (waiting for S to answer/). Uma: You play... T: Games Uma: Games T: Can you say "I played games". Uma: I play game. {speaking quietly} T: What games did you play? What games? Uma: Hah? (What? – in Thai) T: What games? It's called "Guessing game". Uma: Guessing game Paula and Salma: Guessing game T: Do you like it? Uma: Good	REPT REPT REPT CLARI/ L1 TRL REPT REPT

Oral record 17 showed the discourse of the first crystallization on the first day the PLL activities were implemented. The participants were still shy and in the process of adapting themselves to a new kind of learning. They smiled and used repetitions to repeat after the teacher. It is noteworthy that repetitions were found mainly in the first unit and that they were used less and less as the participants' oral language skills were developed.

Oral record 18: Objective 7-8—to give opinions about their play at the centers and express feelings of like and dislike

File-Theme/Day; file name; min.	Interaction	Interpretation (Coding)
12/2; M2U00363; 2:43	T: Tanya, what did you play today? Tanya: Pretend play. T: Pretend play. Who did you play with? Tanya: Er.: Paris, Er. Bond, Aaron.	IBC SCAF

T: And, do you like it?	NON-V
Tanya: {nodding her head}	
What did you do in the pretend play?	
Tanya: ##### Cook.	IBC
T: Very good.	
Tanya: Serve.	IBC
T: Serve< Very good.	
Tanya: Er:::: Eat. {smiling}	IBC/ SCAF/ ENJ
T: Eat::< {acting} What did you eat?	
Tanya: Er:::: Spaghetti.	IBC/ SCAF/
T: Okay.	(pronunciation)
Tanya: 'Salad.	IBC
T: Salad<	
Tanya: Soup.	IBC
T: Soup< ## Do you like it?	
Tanya: {nodding her head and smiling}	NON-V

Oral record 18 demonstrates the use of chunks and non-verbal responses. Occurring in week 12, the continuing conversation flowed smoothly between the teacher and a participant at the crystallization stage when the teacher asked different types of questions.

In conclusion, to answer research question 2, the findings of this study showed that PLL activities were effective to enhance oral language skills as the participants' oral language skills measured by quantitative and qualitative methods increased. Quantitatively, the scores of the PLL pre- and post-tests along with the oral language performance checklists showed a significant increase in the participants' overall oral language skill development. Besides, the qualitative data collected during observations illustrated that the participants' discourses improved in terms of both learning outcomes and affective outcomes. To be more specific, as for their learning outcomes, the participants developed various L2 learner strategies that assisted their learning in all three modes of communication. Moreover, the effectiveness of PLL activities could

also be seen through the participants' affective outcomes, which were observed during the implementation of PLL activities.

4.3 Opinions of Young EFL Learners toward PLL Activities

Research Question 3: What are the opinions of young EFL learners toward the play-based language learning (PLL) activities?

This research question aimed at exploring the opinions of young EFL learners during the implementation of PLL activities. Three one-on-one semi-structured interviews were carried out to gather the qualitative data which were then categorized into different topics including play characteristics, playmates, play materials, and language in PLL activities.

4.3.1 Semi-structured interviews

Three semi-structured interview protocols were designed and utilized after the oral language performance checklists at the end of each unit, which fell into weeks 5, 10, and 15. The question items were outlined to ensure agreement with play characteristics and features of PLL, which were then validated by three experts. There were 15 open-ended items written in the Thai language in order to minimize language barriers when the participants expressed their opinions and feelings. Their responses were translated into English by the researcher. Every interview was note-taken as well as videotaped for subsequent replays and reviews to ensure accuracy of the transcription. The participants' responses to the interview questions were analyzed using content analysis to identify some commonalities and differences in the participants' opinions toward the PLL activities. This section presents the findings

regarding the participants' opinions toward PLL activities implemented in the present study.

4.3.1.1 Play characteristics

Meaningful context

For young children, meaningful context can be both ordinary and fantasy places, activities, or situations that bring about their conception, perception, and experiences. Findings regarding meaningful contexts of play could be categorized based on the gender of the participants. The most common play contexts for boys were playing sports, computer games including the iPad and games on a cell phone, watching cartoons, and playing with toys such as Lego blocks, respectively. On the other hand, the most to the least common play contexts for girls were playing with dolls, shopping, cooking and baking, playing sports, drawing and doing crafts, reading books, and playing board games, respectively. There were some differences between play contexts in the class and at home. As for boys, many of them had never done activities similar to the pretend play or creative play, while a few reported that they barely played board games or reading books. The data elicited from girl participants showed very few of them played computer games, played with toys, or watched cartoons. Only one of them replied that she had never played make-believe or crafts at home.

In the PLL classroom context, 75% of the participants noted that their favorite center was pretend play. The most important reason was it was fun. Nearly half of them explained that it was because they were able to dress up, play sports, cook, and pretend to be someone else such as a doctor or a superhero. They also got to play with a lot of play materials, as some of them described *"I like to dress up as a doctor,"* *"It made me*

feel like a real doctor who cured my favorite doll,” “I get to cook, answer questions, and play with picture cards,” and “I like to learn the vocabulary about school supplies such as glue and crayon.”

The numbers of the participants who liked games with rules and creative play were rather similar. The participants who favored games with rules gave reasons that they could play with friends and move around while speaking English, whereas those who preferred creative play mentioned that they were keen on arts and crafts.

When asked which center they did not like, almost all of the participants answered that there was no center they disliked, except for one boy who mentioned that he did not like creative play because it made him feel like turning back time to his childhood doing coloring and drawing. He preferred playing with new things instead.

Enjoyment

Enjoyment was another major component of play characteristics. Every participant said “fun” as the first and immediate response. Some of them further explained with activities they remembered playing. The sample comments were as follows: *“I could wear a doctor’s gown,” “I could draw,” “I could do activities,” “I could run,” “I could decorate the house,” “It was not stressful,” “I got to learn and play,” “I could play with my friends,” “I got to speak English,” and “I got to try how fun the activity is.”*

The participants also gave more details of their feelings toward PLL classroom settings, activities, and materials. Playing with friends was another key factor that brought them enjoyment, as evidenced in the following excerpts:

“I liked it. It was useful because playing was fun and everyone could play.”

(Usher)

“Small groups at the centers were good because sometimes when there were too many people, we would compete over the toys. I liked the written materials that were prepared and placed on the board, so students did not need to take note. Also, crystallization concluded things at the end and that helped me remember what we did.” (Pedro)

“It was good to have circle time and centers.” (Salma)

“I liked it because it made me not shy to speak.” (Aaron)

“It was good that I could play with friends—playing the play toys, drawing pictures, and answering questions.” (Paula)

“I liked it because there were play toys for me to play with. It was good because I could learn English at the same time while playing. When I played, I got to speak English as well.” (Paris)

Spontaneity

Another key characteristic of PLL activities was spontaneity that was an active process for children to regulate their own learning. The participants initiated their learning and playing with the uses of materials at the creative play and games with rules centers. They also learned about rules and regulations at the pretend play center. They played around with drawing, coloring, or engaging themselves in their own way, which they did all the time at the centers. However, some participants mentioned their spontaneous play as something they had not done before:

“I got to draw new pictures like Superhero and food, which I had never done before.” (Leslie)

“I cooked new kinds of food and drinks, such as fried food, fried bananas, grilled banana, boiled vegetables, vegetable salad, apple juice, and fruit spaghetti.” (Pedro, Paris, Tanya, and Uma)

Also, some participants explained what they extended their play when they initiated them at home:

“I put a ping-pong ball under the finger puppet, so it could stand, and it looked chubby and cute. Also, the ice-cream sticks I got from the craft we made in the class fell apart when I got home, so I played around with them and made a plant pot out of them.” (Tanya)

“I liked playing in English because I tried it with my little sister when playing with her at home. I asked her to repeat after me.” (Salma)

Absence from fear of failure

In the situation that the participants' play work did not come out as expected, every one of them thought, “It was fine.” They all explained that they would move on, redo it, play with something new, or continue finishing the new project. Further comments were, for example:

“It was okay. It was not real.” (Bob)

“If you thought it was fun, the unexpected product would also be fun, too. I liked the unexpected product, although it might not look as beautiful as expected.” (Salma)

“I laughed at myself. I changed the whole design and got something new instead. I kept fixing it. Or, I played with something else.” (Tanya)

“I already made notes of some procedures. It should not be a problem to redo it.” (Pedro)

“I just kept on doing it. There was no stress.” (Leslie)

4.3.1.2 Playmates

Both peer and adult playmates facilitated the participants’ language skills and contents. When mentioning playmates, the participants would mainly think of the same-age participants, even though some would refer to VTs and the teacher as their playmates as well. Most of the participants indicated that they liked to play with everyone. It was mostly because they were studying in the same class or they were close and used to be playmates in the previous grades. Other reasons were, for instance, because they were fun and funny, they shared the same gender, they did not complain while playing, they were logical, and they played nicely. In addition to peers, some participants mentioned that they liked to play with adult playmates who were their VTs and teacher.

When describing what kind of friends they did not like to play with, the participants mentioned friends who played too hard, were naughty, always complained, yelled, and whined a lot. In terms of gender, one boy stated that he did not like to play with girls because he was afraid that he would be too rough and tough with them. They expressed their opinions:

“I did not like to play with girls because I was afraid I would play too hard with them.” (Pedro)

“I did not like to play with some boys because they played too hard and were naughty.” (Salma)

“I did not like to play with one girl who yelled at me and teased me.” (Bob)

4.3.1.3 Play materials

Most of the participants mentioned that they liked all play materials, especially the materials in pretend play, followed by those in creative play and games with rules, respectively. As for pretend play, the findings revealed doctor kits and cooking tools were rated as their most favorite, which were followed by dolls, sports equipment, school supplies, finger puppets, action figures, and mini-home furniture toys. It is worth noting that the participants’ preferences varied, probably due to such reasons as gender, as one boy stated that he did not like to play with dolls because dolls were for girls. The following excerpts illustrated the participants’ responses:

“I liked Velcro-cutting fruit toys and fake money because it was fun to play with them and I did not have them at home.” (Baxter and Tanya)

“I liked a saucepan because it felt real.” (Uma)

“I liked finger puppets because I had not played with them before.” (Leslie)

“I liked doctor kits because it was fun.” (Bob)

“I could cure the patient dolls!” (Leslie)

During creative play, the participants liked stationery and school supplies such as color pencils, staplers, and the whole art boxes. However, the preferences of the participants varied as one boy commented that he did not like pencils because they were boring, while others liked to play with them, as could be seen as follows:

“I liked color pencils because I liked coloring.” (Bob)

“I liked staplers because they came in a small and cute size.” (Bond)

“I did not like pencils because they were boring, and I saw them all the time.”

(Pedro)

As for the games with rules, all of the participants liked all play materials in this center, such as big dice, Snakes and Ladders board game, and family tree game. Some responded:

“I like big dice and Snakes and Ladders.” (Baxter)

“I could talk about the pictures on the Snakes and Ladders.” (Tanya)

4.3.1.4 Language in PLL activities

Language learning

Oral language was a focus in this study including both listening and speaking skills for young EFL learners in a language classroom. Almost all participants reported that speaking English while playing was fun, they liked it, and they felt good about it due to a number of reasons, even though some of them found it difficult. Those who gave positive feelings toward speaking English while playing gave further reasons that they learned the language with the assistance of play materials and playmates, as evident below:

“It was fun because there were pictures. Even though I could not speak well, I tried.” (Bob)

“I had fun because there were both Thai and English.” (Usher)

“It was fun. I knew more English vocabulary such as a head of broccoli.”

(Paula)

“I liked singing and dancing because it was fun and helped with my speaking.”

(Baxter)

“I liked it because I could communicate with others as well as foreigners. We did not usually use it in our classroom.” (Bond)

“I felt good because I could switch to speaking English. I spoke ungrammatical English when I was younger, but now, I had improved.” (Leslie)

“It was fun. I liked it. I got to speak English. I spoke better. I could remember more vocabulary.” (Aaron)

“PLL was good because we did not get stressed. I understood more than studying in the regular classroom. I understood the structures and knew what and how I should answer the teacher’s questions. I could remember the vocabulary. If only you come to the PLL class, you can remember it.” (Tanya)

Nearly half of the participants stated that playing and learning English was new to them in terms of methods of learning, vocabulary learning, and the use of TL in the classroom. They shared their ideas:

“I got to run and write.” (Paula and Baxter)

“I got to think in a new way (a different way) to answer about pears. I didn’t know what pears were before.” (Aaron)

“I learned new vocabulary about sickness.” (Leslie)

“I got to use more English.” (Uma)

“I had freedom to switch between the English and Thai languages.” (Salma)

However, it is worth noting that even though most of the participants liked playing while speaking the TL, a few of them were not sure whether they felt okay with

it or whether it was too difficult for them because they did not comprehend the content, as they explained:

“I felt okay because sometimes I did not understand it. I asked my friends and kept listening. I just listened more to what was following. Then, I just figured it out. (Tanya)

“It was difficult. I did not understand it. Sometimes, I could listen and speak, but at other times I could not.” (Baxter)

“It was okay. Sometimes, I felt a bit shy.” (Uma)

Thematic units

Themes were utilized as main concepts for each weekly lesson so the participants could perceive what content and language skills were focused on. On the overall, the first three favorite themes that the participants mentioned were Routine, New Year, and Sports. Specifically to the particular unit, as for unit one, Routine was rated the most preferred theme, followed by Sickness, Clothes, and My body. The reasons why the participants preferred these themes are evident in their explanations shown below:

“I could cook, eat, and go to school. I enjoyed it, and I was captivated.” (Usher)

“I liked Sickness because I got to pretend that I was a doctor. I wanted to be a doctor one day.” (Salma)

The interviews at the end of unit 2 showed that Sports was the most favorite theme for the participants. School, Home, and Family were rated relatively equal, but the reasons varied. Some participants preferred it because it was fun, while others stated

that they liked other activities with other themes, as can be seen in the following excerpts:

“There were sports to play. Maybe I would be in a competition overseas.”

(Pedro)

“I liked House because it was fun, and there were questions for me to answer.”

(Bob)

“I like Home because there were a lot of interesting things in different rooms in a house.” (Tanya)

“I liked School because I got to create a school bag.” (Aaron)

The findings at the end of unit 3 showed the themes that the participants preferred more than the others were New Year, Fruits and Vegetables, Food, and My Town, respectively. The examples of the participants' comments were shown below:

“I liked New Year. It was fun, and I got to sing.” (Bob)

“There were a lot more toys.” (Usher)

“I got to party and eat (Salma); It was real.” (Leslie)

“I liked Food because it simulated what I really cooked at home.” (Pedro)

Motivation for language learning

Motivation is important for language learners especially on psychological functions and social affective development. In this study, most of the participants agreed that playmates and play materials stimulated their oral English interaction the most. Besides, their motivation was influenced by other factors including their intrinsic motivation, play activities, fun teaching/teacher, games, songs, centers setting, acting

out, video clips, adult peers, and English classrooms. Some of their sentiments are illustrated below:

“I want to speak English well. Playing games and playing at different centers helped.” (Paula)

“I want to speak English, so I can communicate with and understand foreigners when I travel abroad.” (Bond)

“Studying and speaking with friends. If I go abroad such as Singapore and Europe, I can communicate.” (Bob)

“I am still not good at English, but I want to improve.” (Uma and Aaron)

“Studying and playing at the same time. It was not stressful for us.” (Baxter)

“Friends, many play toys, and play materials helped.” (Paris)

“There were a lot of activities that I could do.” (Tanya)

“A fun teacher, games for students to play,” (Usher)

Comparison of play with regular English classrooms

PLL activities provided an alternative for oral English language development. During the interviews, the participants were asked to compare their experiences with the PLL activities and those in the regular English classrooms. All participants agreed that the two types of English language classes were different. Ten out of 12 participants mentioned that they preferred PLL over the regular classroom mainly because it increased their positive affections and helped improve their language learning. However, the remaining two participants expressed that they felt indifferent. One participant explained that he liked both; the other one stated that he could study in either one of them. The following excerpts voice the participants' reflections on two different

types of classrooms based on their personal experiences and attitudes. They are shown in accordance with their frequency, from the highest down to the lowest.

In regular classrooms, the participants reflected that they were more controlled with fewer play activities and English language use:

“We normally only study, sit, write, do homework, and do exercises.”

“We can barely play in the regular classroom or not at all.”

“We are not allowed to walk around, which is bad and boring. Sometimes, we are asked to describe things. We are asked to memorize the vocabulary list.”

“There is nothing like play materials in the regular classroom at all. It is boring.”

“There are no activities—no songs, no games, and no dances.”

“We take notes about grammar from the board. The teacher writes grammar rules on the board and asks us to copy them down on our notebook.”

“Students sit individually and boys and girls are separated. There are no centers.”

“We do not get to speak English.”

Referring to the PLL classroom, the participants voiced that they had more freedom to control their own learning with more play activities provided, more target language use, and an easier way of learning the language. The positive feelings they experienced are described as follows:

“We got to do a lot more activities.”

“It is more fun.”

“We can half play and half learn. We can play and learn at the same time.”

“We engage more in English speaking and listening. I use English more in the PLL classroom.”

“Play helps me remember vocabulary more and better because I speak while playing, so I can remember it. I can remember vocabulary without having to take notes.”

“Students sit and play together in centers. Students sit together on the floor in a circle.”

“It has a wider space, and it is not messy, which makes it more fun to play and it makes me feel comfortable.”

“I understand the lesson more this way.”

“Crystallization helps me summarize what we learn each day.”

In sum, the question in the semi-structured interviews reflected the participants’ experiential learning in the PLL classroom in terms of different features of PLL that they could compare to their experience in the regular language classroom. Almost all responses indicated that PLL activities provided a great positive impact on not only their oral language skills development but also other areas of child development especially affection, which could help them become positive and more effective learners.

4.4 Summary of the Findings

4.4.1 Oral language skill development

- PLL pre- and post-test scores indicated a significant improvement in the participants’ oral language skills divided into three modes of communication—interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational modes.

- Oral language performance checklists were used at the end of three main units during the implementation of PLL activities in weeks 5, 10, and 15. The findings revealed that the participants' performances were at the excellent and satisfactory levels. The participants did better in the interpretive mode of communication than the other two modes.

- Oral records from observations yielded qualitative data that presented in-depth information on learning outcomes and affective outcomes. As for the former, L2 learner strategies were revealed, and the interpersonal mode promoted more learning outcomes than the interpretive and presentational modes. The most common learning outcomes ranked based on the order of frequency were interactional modification, peer-assisted instruction, item-based construction, non-verbal cues/responses, and L1 translation. The major affective outcomes found included enjoyment, creativity, and enthusiastic participation.

4.4.2 Opinions toward the course using PLL activities

- Three semi-structured interviews were conducted at the end of three main units. They provided in-depth information on participants' opinions toward PLL activities in several aspects including play characteristics, playmates, play materials, language in PLL classroom, and their reflection on the PLL compared to the regular classroom. Most of them exhibited consistent findings that supported and triangulated the data on learning and affective outcomes. Positive experience in the implementation of PLL activities was reported as the participants felt that the activities enabled them to develop their English oral language skills and helped them grow mentally and cognitively.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The final chapter first presents the summary of the study. Then, the following sections present discussions of the findings, pedagogical implications, and limitations of the study. In the end, recommendations are drawn on for future studies.

5.1 Summary of the Study

The study aimed at investigating the extent to which Play-based Language Learning (PLL) activities could enhance oral language skills of young EFL learners. Twelve Thai third-grade participants attended 45 hours of instruction, with the PLL pre- and post-tests administered before and immediately after the instruction. Even though the PLL activities can generally be examined in multilayers of interpretation, this study mainly focused on oral language skill development in the classroom context in terms of modes of communication, learning outcomes, and affective outcomes, as well as the participants' opinions toward the course implemented with PLL activities.

The implementation of this study comprised the PLL pre-test before the implementation, 15-week instruction, and the PLL post-test—one week after the implementation. It was conducted at the Demonstration School of Silpakorn University (Early Childhood & Elementary), Sanam Chandra Palace campus. Twelve participants were purposively selected based on the inclusion criteria previously set. Parental consent was sought after and administrative documents and conversations were made to all stakeholders including parents, school administrators, VTs' supervisors, and other teacher assistants before the start of the implementation of PLL activities.

The findings of the study answered the following research questions:

- 1) What are the key features of Play-based Language Learning (PLL)?
- 2) How do Play-based Language Learning (PLL) activities influence oral language skills of young EFL learners?
- 3) What are the opinions of young EFL learners toward Play-based Language Learning (PLL) activities?

As for Research Question 1, the key features of PLL included language focus, play contexts, play materials, playmates, and playfulness. To answer Research Question 2, the findings showed that all participants' PLL post-test scores on their oral language skills of modes of communication significantly increased after the 15-week PLL course. Oral language performance checklists employed during the implementation presented specific scores on each mode of communication. Most of the participants' scores were at the excellent and satisfactory levels, with the highest scores falling into the interpretive mode. In addition, video observations were used to obtain oral records that revealed a large amount of learning outcomes and affective outcomes of the participants in the PLL course. The learning outcomes in the form of learning strategies that the participants manifested most were interactional modification, peer-assisted instruction, item-based construction, non-verbal cues/responses, and use of L1 translation. Along with learning outcomes, the participants also expressed a number of affective outcomes such as enjoyment, creativity, and enthusiastic participation. Finally, in answering Research Question 3, the data elicited with the semi-structured interviews indicated that all participants favored the PLL course and reflected on their positive experiences in the course in terms of classroom development and their language learning through PLL activities. Thus, based on the aforementioned findings, it could be concluded that PLL

activities had positive influences on the participants' oral language skills as well as their positive emotion that was one of the key factors promoting learning a foreign language.

5.2 Discussion

Based on the findings of the present study, PLL activities that were effective means to enhance oral language skills of young EFL learners were discussed in relation to the following aspects: 1) modes of communication, 2) learning outcomes, 3) affective outcomes, and 4) the participants' opinions.

5.2.1 Modes of communication

To explore the enhancement of oral language skills in terms of three modes of communication, the scores from the PLL pre-test, post-test, and three oral language performance checklists were examined. The results reported the similar trend of scores. The important findings showed that the scores of the interpretive mode were higher than those of the interpersonal and presentational modes of communication. One plausible explanation is that interpretive skills involve the use of easy and joyful responses which tend to be found in language learners who are still at the beginner's level. To elaborate, the participants could respond through body movements without too much effort to signal their comprehension such as nodding their head, acting, dancing, clapping, miming, following verbal instructions, and swapping seats in the I-spy activity, all of which involved physical movements together with use of oral language skills. Similarly, Farran and Son-Yarbrough's (2001) examined preschoolers' play and found that physical movements and verbal behaviors were key elements in children's development of oral language skills when they were playing. Children

enjoyed initiating their own movements as well as discovering ways to control their own learning (Caillois, 1961). Furthermore, it could be explained that in this study, the interpretive mode rose because language play and physical play activities were designed to be integrated into the circle time. A possible explanation is based on the understanding of how the participants were able to use the interpretive mode to integrate language use and convey meaning with physical activities at the same time. Such findings yielded support to previous studies that both language and physical play types are recommended to be employed together since they correspond to each other for the participants and enable them to deal with the saying-meaning scheme that could improve their comprehension (Bishop & Curtis, 2001; Frost et al., 2001; National Council for Curriculum and Assessment, 2009; Smith & Pellegrini, 2008). Thus, the interpretive mode of communication is important for oral language skill development of young learners as it is found more often than other modes of communication. Also, it is the easiest and most joyful mode that helps them make meaning of the second language by containing language and physical development into one meaningful activity.

Another important finding showed that when it came to test items that asked the participants to answer simple questions, give information, and express opinions, the mean scores of the participants were low regardless of the modes of communication—the interpretive, interpersonal, or presentational modes. It could be explained that such test items required more complicated speaking skills, vocabulary, and sentence structures to present abstract thoughts, which were difficult to be mediated by toys or play objects. Besides, those test items required the participants' use of productive rather than receptive language skills. The participants tended to give answers quite openly,

which were different from use of bodily responses, when identifying familiar words and/or objects, following verbal instructions, and listening to and repeating chants, rhymes, and songs, to name a few. Gottlieb (2006) has pointed out that speech production is more difficult than comprehension for young learners. In the same way, เฉลี่ยวศรี้ พิบูลชล และคณะ (2551) found in their synthesis of studies from ten countries that presentational skills are difficult but significant for children's language development. However, when comparing the same test items' mean scores between PLL pre- and post-tests, the results showed a significant increase after the implementation. It could be speculated that the repetition, reinforcement, and varieties of PLL activities during the implementation at the centers and crystallization stages promoted the participants' familiarity and automaticity to produce the vocabulary and language patterns. The rise of the PLL post-test scores could be explained in relation to the benefits of different play activities, which were remarked by many scholars. For instance, creative play is advocated as a foundation to represent the learners' inner thoughts which they produce to communicate their mind (Drew & Rankin, 2004). As for games, their great benefits are cited for language learning including development of vocabulary, listening, reading, and pragmatics as well as interaction engagement and cooperation (Cheep-Aranai, Reinders, & Wasanasomsithi, 2015; Griva et al., 2010). Moreover, pretend play is believed to be the activity that promotes communication the most by several scholars who highlight that pretend play is associated with language in the way of role negotiation, make-believe concepts, and imaginary conversations (Bishop & Curtis, 2001; Vygotsky, 1967, as cited in Bodrova & Leong, 2007; G. Cook, 2000; Smilansky & Shefatya, 1990, as cited in Frost et al., 2001). Farver (1992) has

found that pretend play entails communicative contexts, namely paralinguistic cues, descriptions of action, repetitions, semantic tying, calls for attention, directives, and tags, all of which require communication skills.

In summary, the test items that required the participants to answer questions more freely had lower mean scores than those that required them to respond by using body movements. Such results were explained that those items requiring speaking skills were more difficult for young participants, especially open-ended answers. More practice on oral productive skills, therefore, should be highlighted with the use of various PLL activities.

5.2.2 Learning outcomes

The findings from the oral records received from video observations revealed the improvement of oral language skills of young learners in terms of the emergent learning outcomes. In fact, ten L2 learner strategies were found. This section probed the commonalities and differences of the L2 learner strategies to discuss the importance and the underlying meaning of the findings in the aspects of: 1) interaction, 2) young learners' language learning, 3) the use of L1, 4) error correction, and 5) cognitive development.

Interaction

The findings revealed that the learner strategies related to interaction were mostly found and used for the purpose of comprehending the language and achieving the participants' play work. One crucial strategy was peer-assisted instruction that was seen as an umbrella that covers MKO and scaffolding. This strategy was mostly found

because PLL activities were intended to be social play activities as opposed to unoccupied or solitary play (Parten, 1932) that was grounded on the sociocultural theory of learning. Additionally, it could be assumed that PLL activities stimulated the peer-assisted instruction strategy because the participants wanted to play, follow the instructions, participate in the activities, complete the tasks, win the games, and achieve the goal of competitive activities. Not only were young participants influenced to develop self-regulated learning, internalization, and self-realization, but they also shared their realization with peers in order to play. Once one peer helped another, they learned how to be aware of the language accuracy through peer assistance and how to assist their peers to help them achieve their goal.

Apart from peer-assisted instruction, other learner strategies of interactional modification including clarification request, confirmation check, and negotiation of meaning were found and used by the participants for comprehension. It could be assumed that the use of these three strategies resulted from the participants' uncertainty about their understanding of content and language use. The difference was that each strategy was carried out differently by using questions, repeated previous statements with rising intonation, and giving comments on the output. With these strategies, it was worth probing the process of how language learning occurred from peers helping each other when they confronted difficulties beyond their current knowledge level. Another reason that the participants made use of these strategies was most likely because PLL activities made them feel engaged and encouraged them to untangle the ambiguity and adjust their understanding. Mostly, the more proficient children took the lead in modifying their peers' comprehension. Similar to this study, Chamot (2008) points out that learners who are at a higher proficiency level tend to employ more learning

strategies. Ellis's (1997) study examined negotiation of meaning used by NSs and NNSs showed that a more proficient speaker adjusted his/her friends' understanding. In this study, more proficient speakers could be peers with a higher level of language proficiency or VTs who were adult playmates. They were MKO who played an important role in scaffolding that benefited linguistics competence and socialization. Vygotsky (1978) explains that language is acquired by socialization with others or objects that structure and advance learners' actual knowledge to the potential level. Ervin-Tripp (1991) focused her study on different interlocutors—peers, siblings, and adults—that had an influence on children's language development and learning. She reported that children improved all levels of linguistic features, socialization, as well as their strategic learning, especially with friends of the same age. In general, while MKO focuses on the person who interacts with young learners, scaffolding refers to the process of learning with various social mediations. It is the process of giving support to children to enable them to produce the language that they otherwise are not able to do on their own. The support can come from parents (Bruner, 2003), experts (Vygotsky, 1978), and teachers or other materials (Cazden, 1983, as cited in Christison & Murray, 2014).

To sum up, PLL activities encouraged the study participants to employ interaction to adjust and reconfirm their comprehension. It is possible to explain that in so doing the language was learned through interaction and the processes of scaffolding and assistance of others that occurred further promoted such learning. As such, interactions between peer-peer and adult-children were encouraged for interactional communication to take place.

Young learners' language learning

The study findings also revealed natural ways in which young learners could learn a language through different learner strategies including self- and other-repetition, item-based construction, and non-verbal cues and responses.

As for the repetition strategy, in this study, it could be seen that the participants enjoyed repetition especially when they could clap their hands, act out, chant, and make rhythms while filling in different new terms in the patterned structure. They used repetition to learn both form and meaning of the language, which, in turn, gradually helped them acquire difficult words, structures, and concepts. The significance of repetition is emphasized by Smith and Pellegrini (2008) that beginning language learners learn through repeating what they have heard and seen multiple times in order to gradually form new concepts as well as linguistic features. Another accepted benefit of repetition is that it improves language learners' language use. In the present study, it could be seen that repetition took place when the participants tried to familiarize themselves with unfamiliar sounds, words, and sentences. In addition, the participants repeated their language use in various contexts and with materials that PLL activities provided. Besides this, through multiple repetitions that take place during play activities, children's creativity, mutual understanding of the meanings, and concept formation can also be promoted (Seach, 2007). Therefore, it could be concluded that repetition could be used not only for creation of enjoyment but also for reinforcement of new forms and meanings and repetition should be carried out in various contexts with the use of diverse materials to enhance comprehension and creativity.

Besides, the findings of this study displayed that the participants produced the TL in chunks unless they were encouraged to make full sentences. Both chunks and full

sentences of language production were crucial for language development. To begin with, the significance of learning in chunks is evident in a number of previous studies (Eskildsen, 2008; Lightbown & Spada, 1993; McKay, 2006). In this study, in particular, it was discovered that the participants' vocabulary learning, word formation, and memory were promoted when young learners were taught to produce the language in chunks. Once the vocabulary was acquired, language learners were encouraged to develop related language patterns by systematically teaching them how those learned vocabulary could be formed in a sentence to make meaning. Then, the participants could make sense of the limited language rules in order to re-order the vocabulary and fill in open slots to make myriads of sentences from their own choices. Consequently, the findings showed that the participants could correctly put chunks into patterned sentences, except for when it came to exceptions of irregular grammatical rules. When encountering irregularities, young participants were still able to produce the correct sentence patterns but with wrong grammatical rules that they had not yet mastered.

As regards to learning in full sentences, one interesting finding was that some full sentence responses were increasingly found in the later weeks/themes. It could be interpreted that the participants gradually conceptualized the language patterns and learned to use full sentences more as time passed by. Also, it was possible that the more teachers used full sentence structures, the more the participants repeated after her in full sentences. The more the participants responded in full sentences, the more they learned sentence structures and their formation. Even though young learners tend not to be able to produce full sentences (Halliday, 1973), it does not mean that the significance and use of such a sentence structure should be overlooked. Thus, teachers should take the

importance of full sentences into consideration and use more of them in the language classroom.

The findings showed that the participants used non-verbal cues and responses throughout all lessons. It could be assumed that young learners at the beginner's level felt comfortable to use non-verbal cues. They may have employed this strategy because the PLL activities were new to them due to their methodology, vocabulary, and language structures. These young participants may not have known yet what and how they could respond and interact with their limited target language proficiency. Thus, they participated in the lessons with the use of non-verbal cues/responses to signal their understanding. Similarly found in other studies, language learners illustrated their comprehension by using nonlinguistic signals that were determined as one of the compensatory strategies involving mimes, gestures, facial expressions, or sound imitations (Brown, 2007; Willbrand & Rieke, 1983). In short, the participants employed this strategy because their knowledge of the target language was limited regardless of their willingness to communicate (WTC).

The use of L1

It is worth noting that the participants used L1 throughout the PLL course to mainly learn new and difficult vocabulary and concepts, smoothen and continue the conversation, and create laughter. Three learner strategies including L1 translation, code mixing, and L1 transfer were found. Possible reasons were discussed in this section. Firstly, L1 was used because the participants themselves felt free to use either language for their comprehension, and secondly, the participants wanted to participate and continue the conversation, even though they encountered difficulty caused by the

use of the target language that was beyond their current language ability level. To further explain, the participants may have felt free to use as many languages as they wanted, including their L1. Lightbown and Spada (1993) contend that young learners have more advantages in terms of their freedom to either speak the target language or to be silent. In this study, it could be seen that the participants were not afraid to use their L1 in the language classroom. Instead, they seemed to enjoy using it because it made them and their friends feel more comfortable with the language learning process, as they seemed relaxed and even laughed. In other words, allowing the language learners to use their L1 gave them the freedom to make choices that enabled them to continue their participation in the learning process and helped them overcome their fear, both of which were seen as the key to successes in language learning.

Secondly, the participants may have used their L1 because they wanted to engage in and carry on the conversation, but they lacked necessary L2 ability to do so. Hence, they had to switch to their L1 to enable themselves to carry on. As regards L1 translation, direct switch from English to Thai was found the most in the interpretive and interpersonal modes, especially when the participants were learning new vocabulary and trying to achieve comprehension. A similar study with Russian and Spanish students showed that the translation strategy was used most frequently when language learners were trying to understand the second language (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). In addition to L1 translation, code mixing was another strategy that was found. In the present study, it was discovered that the participants used code mixing to learn new words, especially when they tried to use difficult words in the patterned sentences. They mixed L1 words with the L2 words in the sentence to ensure completion of meaning. Pomerantz and Bell (2007) have pointed out that code mixing is one essential

feature for L2 beginning learners who commonly use it as they are moving towards a more advanced level. Thus, the participants' use of code mixing in the present study signified that learning was actively taking place. Finally, the third L1 strategy found in this study was L1 transfer. It could be seen that the participants attempted to use English to solve problems with their limited repertoire of vocabulary. Even though Thai was not used, the target language was employed in a way that it was clearly influenced by L1. According to McMahon (1992), the use of L1 transfer is seen as the process of developing language and problem-solving skills. Consequently, language learners, particularly young learners, should not be discouraged from using it.

To conclude, L1 mediated the participants' modes of communication that required a large vocabulary repertoire and understanding of language structures while their current language skills were still limited. Brown (2007, p. 139) acknowledged the significance of the role L1 plays in language development, proposing what is called "compensatory strategies" that are more commonly found in early language learners who are attempting to overcome their limited knowledge of the target language. As for this study, PLL activities could therefore be viewed as learning contexts that offered the participants a chance to use both of their L1 and TL to learn new vocabulary, present play work, carry on the conversation, solve language problems, and feel relaxed when learning English.

Error correction

Error correction by oneself and others is worth mentioning because it was seen as crucial evidence of linguistics awareness and language learning influenced by PLL activities. In this study, the participants made mistakes and errors, recognized them,

and corrected them. Brown (2007) has noted that young language learners generally make countless numbers of mistakes. Mistakes and errors that take place in the process of language learning can be examined in two main categories—errors and error correction. In the present study, the former signaled that the participants had not yet fully acquired the target language; the latter dealt with how learners overcame such incomplete acquisition. Simply put, error correction is important because it signifies linguistics awareness. In the present study, the young participants revealed concern with accuracy as they were able to identify errors, assess, and repair self- and peer-language. Error correction could also be seen as evidence of how the participants were aware of their errors as well as how to correct them. The findings showed that the participants sometimes fixed the language in order to help their friends answer the teacher's questions correctly. Such an act could be interpreted as their initiation of error correction by giving feedback to their peers who needed it. Besides giving feedback to peers, error correction during implementation of PLL activities was also carried out by adults who were the teacher or teacher assistants. The second type of error correction focused more on meaning making during the PLL activities. Some examples from the oral records showed how young participants corrected friends on linguistics features such as the plural –s with assistance from the teacher who used gestures, explanation, and some prepared materials.

In conclusion, error correction is the key evidence to verify that language learners not only were aware of language accuracy, but they also attempted to give corrections and feedback to others, which is regarded as a means to improve their language learning.

Cognitive development

The findings illustrated that PLL activities fostered thinking skills. PLL activities provoked the participants' ideas, cognition, and application of ideas into other contexts. This could be explained that, first, the young participants encountered language learning experience that forced them to self-regulate their cognition, as evident by the young participants' attempt to, for example, create their own play materials, think of their dancing poses to correspond with the songs they sang, and cooperatively brainstorm for actions of vocabulary in the meaning-guessing game. Halliday (1973) and Verenikina and Herrington (2006) have explained that self-regulation of ones' thinking enables learners to form concepts significant for language learning. Besides, the young participants' ability to apply what they had learned in one situation in another situation, or application, was also detected in this study when they employed the language patterns of the lesson previously learned in the lesson that they were learning. For instance, the participants applied vocabulary and patterns in the lesson on 'My body' to the 'Clothes' lesson and applied those in the 'Routine' lesson to the 'Home' and 'School' lessons. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) explain that application is a cognitive strategy that children employ to learn new vocabulary and that children could transfer or link new but similar words to those words that already exist in their repertoire. These aforementioned findings yielded support to the use of play activities in language development to promote cognitive development, the notion whose support could be found from remarks of different researchers and scholars. For example, McMahon (1992) posits that play activities allow children to use the language to apply and present their thoughts even to the non-existing states or objects at the moment of play. Lastly, development of creative thinking skills was also found as a

result of implementation of PLL activities. This could be explained that PLL activities included the feature of playfulness. When young learners were engaged in play, they were encouraged to come up with ideas of their own understanding that required the use of creative thinking. Also, PLL activities were related to the participants' real-life situations and world knowledge. For example, some play activities in this study required children to take part in creative play such as drawing, coloring, and decorating their family photographs or in pretend play such as taking different roles to order food at a restaurant. In so doing, these young participants had to rely on their experiences with real-life situations and world knowledge to devise their playing with materials, toys, and situations.

Additionally, metacognition was found though to a lesser extent than other kinds of cognitive development. It could be because these young EFL learners had had little exposure to the English language before participating in PLL activities implemented in this study. However, it is worth noting that some participants were aware of how they produced the target language. For instance, the participants discussed the pronunciation and meaning of the word they whispered to their friends in the whispering activity. Likewise, Pomerantz and Bell (2007) examined different activities of young language learners and found that playful language practices fostered them to be aware of and think about the language use.

To sum up, the use of L2 learner strategies observed during the implementation of PLL activities in the present study could be seen as evidence to support promotion of play among young EFL learners. This is because PLL activities were found to promote learning strategies that enhanced cognitive and metacognitive skills of learners owing to characteristics and features of play including the provided play contexts,

spontaneity, and playfulness in addition to oral language development that could occur through play.

5.2.3 Affective outcomes

Major affective outcomes that emerged in this study included enjoyment, creativity, enthusiastic participation, spontaneity with use of TL, and absence from fear of failure, which are discussed on their effects on language learning in this section. Most studies on play for learning have emphasized the benefits of using play for learner's emotional well-being in addition to language development. In this study, the main feature that was intentionally aimed for PLL activities was low affective filter as it was believed to enhance positive feelings that reduce the barrier in learning a language (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). The participants' behaviors illustrated that they not only engaged more in their language learning but they also developed positive emotion. They smiled, laughed, jumped, raised their hands very high to show their willingness to participate, invented interesting ideas, and were active and enthusiastic while using the target language during PLL activities. Such behavioral expressions could be used as evidence that the designed PLL activities interested and motivated young learners. Also, as one of the main characteristics of play was promotion of relaxing feelings and environments, it should not be a surprise that when learners were engaged in a relaxing learning environment, their affective outcomes would increase. This may have been because the participants were given the freedom to be creative. More importantly, their pressure or fear of possible punishment when making a mistake in producing the English language would be reduced in this kind of learning environment, hence more affective outcomes.

The major finding showed that several affective outcomes were found to have occurred at the same time in one activity. It could be explained that it was because PLL activities were joyful, interesting, and challenging for the participants so they brought about the integration of positive emotions. For instance, pretending to order, cook, and serve food at a restaurant could make the young participants feel joyful, be creative, and become enthusiastic. The participants creatively requested and made food which they truly enjoyed. This kind of fun and enthusiastic learning was shown to be associated with spontaneous learning. They used the language learned that displayed the rise of enthusiastic participation. Similarly revealed by several studies, spontaneity promotes enthusiastic participation and absence from fear of failure, which leads to enjoyment and creativity (Lantolf, 2000; Rieber, 2001; Smith & Pellegrini, 2008). Thus, in this study, PLL activities were seen to promote affective outcomes that enhanced language development.

To discuss each of the affective outcomes found in this study, enjoyment was the outcome that was found most frequently. It could be explained that PLL activities were fun and simulated children's real play in their own time. Next, as for spontaneity outcome, it is important to find that the participants were initiative and able to control their own learning because PLL activities gave them freedom for their thinking and creation. In the present study, the participants created their own fun for their own learning at their own pace. In addition, spontaneity was found relating and leading to enthusiastic participation outcome. For example, the participants were enthusiastic when they could create their own actions with songs. They enjoyed making funny actions that created laughter among friends and a joyful atmosphere while still staying on the language content of each particular theme. Some applied the vocabulary and

language structures learned to play by and among themselves outside the classroom. For instance, they used the word “germ” that they learned in the ‘sickness’ lesson to play a game called ‘monkey in the middle’ outside the classroom. Thus, PLL activities were seen to promote enthusiastic participation that led to language development. Lastly, absence from fear of failure was another affective outcome that resulted from PLL activities. It is obviously seen that PLL activities did not obstruct the participants’ confidence or desire to do trial-and-errors. Some of them ended up laughing at their own errors. Therefore, errors in PLL activities did not create a negative environment for language learning. Instead, children could have fun with, make fun of, and learn from those errors. Halliday (1993) has suggested that ending up with laughter signifies that playing is taking place. In addition, Brown (2007) has pointed out that children learn through errors because trial-and-error is a natural process of learning for children. They experiment, explore, make mistakes, make changes, and interact with their environment and contexts of learning. That is how children are seen not to be afraid to produce errors and make an attempt to adjust their language to adult language later. Thus, PLL activities motivated the participants not to feel bad when they made errors but to learn from the errors and try to produce the target language with supportive emotions for language learning.

To conclude, affective outcomes are important keys for language learning as it lowers learners’ affective filters that have positive effect on language learning. PLL activities revealed several of the participants’ affective outcomes that encouraged them to enjoy learning the language, become spontaneous, and transform into active learners who were free from fear of failure.

5.2.4 The participants' opinions toward PLL activities

With regard to the participants' opinions toward PLL activities, the findings obtained from the semi-structured interviews showed that the participants expressed highly positive opinions toward PLL activities. The participants' opinions toward PLL activities are discussed following the PLL features in aspects of language focus, play contexts, play materials, playmates, and playfulness.

Language focus

The significant finding on language focus is that the participants liked to use the target language while playing. First, it can be explained that the participants had a meaningful purpose to learn English and used it as a tool to play while doing PLL activities. The PLL activities are seen meaningful because they are in the participants' interests and suitable for their age. To elaborate, for one thing, it is obviously known that learners in different age groups have different interests. Thus, some activities are meaningful and appropriate for some age groups. PLL activities had been searched, selected, and designed to suit the interests of the participants' age group such as board games in the 'My town' theme, running dictation in the 'Clothes' theme, and creating a school bag in the 'School' theme. For the other thing, PLL activities could sustain the participants' attention to spend a long time working on their play. They paid good attention and were eager to learn the target language in PLL activities. Besides, some of them explained that they liked PLL activities because they could learn and remember more vocabulary as well as the language structures, partly because they felt that they were not forced to memorize anything. Likewise, Ausubel's Subsumption theory (1965, as cited in Brown, 2007) supports that meaningful learning, as opposite to rote learning,

increases long-term memory or retention. In the present study, the participants showed that they could still remember the vocabulary and structure learned from the earlier lessons since they would sometimes apply them to play in the later lessons by themselves.

To conclude, the participants liked to use the target language in the PLL activities because PLL activities suited their age and interests and supported their second language learning.

Play contexts

As for play types actualizing the play contexts, it was found that the students liked all types of play, namely, physical play, language play, creative play, games with rules, and pretend play. The participants simply gave the reason that they were all fun. With the varieties of play types, it could be possible to see that the participants' language use was repeated and reinforced while playing. Among these five types, pretend play was rated the most favorite. It is then worth discussing the characteristics of pretend play that interested and motivated the participants. The main explanations could be that it was similar to their play in their real life outside of the classroom or at home and it was the least controlled play type compared to other types. Some participants mentioned in the interview that they liked pretend play because it was the same as what they did at home. On the other hand, when it came to control or lack of control, during pretend play, less instruction was intentionally given in order to allow open-ended and natural interactions in the classroom. The participants were therefore free to play around with a large number of materials. Moreover, they were free to sit on the floor, stand, walk around, and move around in each lesson and they had freedom

to make believe, imagine, and be creative (Vygotsky, 1967, as cited in Bodrova & Leong, 2007; Leontiev, 1981 & Nikolopolou, 1993, as cited in Verenikina et al., 2003).

To sum up, play contexts gave opportunities for young learners to use and reinforce the language learned. The participants liked to play with all types of play especially pretend play because they could imitate real-life situations and control their own learning. Furthermore, they enjoyed playing with all play types because they felt free to use space and manipulate various play objects.

Play materials

As regards to play materials, the findings indicated that the participants could identify instantly which materials they liked and which helped stimulate their engagement and interaction. It could be explained that the great amount of materials prepared for each center could signify the characteristics and nature of each play type explicitly such as craft tools for creative play, card and board games for games with rules, and costumes and authentic play toys for pretend play. It could be seen that the use of such materials could guide the participants in terms of thematic contents, directions, and language use. Moreover, these kinds of relatively structured materials could distinguish personal interest of each participant and how the individual learner performed better with such materials. For example, some were active to use the language when playing with board games, while others tended to speak out their ideas more when handling craft tools during creative play. Therefore, it could be seen that when teachers had prepared the right structured materials for learners and the PLL activities were able to provide a variety of contexts for those materials, learners would be actively engaged in learning and language development. However, it is worth noting

that even though most of the materials in PLL activities were structured, unstructured or open-ended materials could also be utilized. Drew and Rankin (2004) support the use of unstructured or open-ended materials, claiming that they improve children's well-being, brain development such as critical thinking and problem-solving skills, language enhancement, and social engagement. Both kinds of materials are considered important for young learners. Regarding the main kind of materials in this study, it may be explained that young EFL learners are still in need of structured materials to guide them for the practice of the language patterns and use. Despite such discrepancy in the beliefs in the values of structured play materials utilized in the present study and unstructured play toys promoted by other researchers and scholars, both structured and unstructured play materials should still be included in PLL activities. As for the structured materials, they are beneficial especially for young language learners who need tangible objects to help them develop comprehension. For instance, the storytelling activity can incorporate books, picture cards, realia, and other toys related to the story for students to comprehend the meaning of the vocabulary as well as the whole story. As for the unstructured play materials, some should also be provided in order to extend their imagination and thinking. It also found that with the structured toys, the participants could fantasize about them and assign different meaning for their own fun as well.

In conclusion, play materials facilitated and engaged young learners in learning a language as they could associate with the content of a particular lesson and both structured and unstructured materials could signify personal interests and enhance language proficiency in playing with the materials and provoke imagination.

Playmates

Playmates were found vital because the participants assisted, scaffolded, and stimulated each other to use the language, learn, and play. In other words, they engaged in the PLL activities mainly through discussions and interactions shared with their playmates who could be either same-age playmates or adult playmates. Vygotsky (1978) supports social interactions that take place between a child and his or her playmate as well as those that occur between a child and an adult playmate, as both kinds of interactions benefit children's ZPD and cognitive development. Furthermore, cooperative learning that occurs during play can encourage learners to further develop their thoughts, discussion, and socialization with friends (Parten, 1932). Thus, children can help each other comprehend, brainstorm, share ideas, and adjust and correct understanding and language use. Besides, both adult and peer playmates helped reinforce young learners to use the target language and be aware of the purpose of PLL course and language learning. They accepted the rules of English use in the class, attempted to use the target language, and corrected friends to improve each other's language skills. Also, it could be seen that playmates in PLL activities had no barrier to talk, learn, and play among different friends because they were encouraged to interact with one another. When it comes to play, children are always open to talk, learn, and enjoy doing things with playmates of any age and gender. This is opposite to a traditional classroom in which children are generally required to listen to teachers passively and do exercise by themselves.

To sum up, playmates in PLL activities are essential in supporting learners to talk and engage in play activities as well as language use. The assistance from both peers and adults promoted young learners' use and adjustment of the target language,

socialization in cooperative learning, learning of rules and purposes, and participation in PLL activities.

Playfulness

The study findings showed that playfulness captured the participants' attention in language learning and maintained their engagement. It is a crucial element for young learners as they normally have a short attention span, but the component of playfulness of PLL activities could sustain young learners' attention and prolong their duration of participation in language learning activities. This may have been because playfulness made them feel excited, laugh, and pay attention to the lessons. Several scholars have supported the benefits of playfulness to learning that makes language learners experience fun and enjoyment as play temporarily takes them away from their ordinary life (Pellegrini, 1989; Pomerantz & Bell, 2007; Sutton-Smith, n.d., as cited in Salen & Zimmerman, 2006). When being asked about their experience with their language learning with PLL activities, the participants tended to immediately respond that PLL activities were "fun." When doing fun things, their affective filter was not obstructed, so they were able to learn without stress. Instead, they were rather motivated. One important characteristic of play is the ordinary content could be turned into fun, funny, or extraordinary situations. Some participants claimed that they remembered vocabulary well because of some funny words as well as the teacher and adult playmates' humor. Some mentioned that they liked it because there was no stress. Stress-free learning has been studied and implied for its necessity for success in motivation in learning and language proficiency (Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Panthumasan, 2007; Yule, 2006). It can be interpreted that employing playfulness in

the class can bring about advantages over disadvantages. Thus, learners do not feel prohibited to act or say anything fantasy, unexpected, or different from the ordinary situations.

In short, playfulness encourages the learners to feel relaxed and free from anxiety to learn, talk, and make mistakes. As a matter of fact, it aids various aspects of language learning such as memorization, long attention span, and motivation.

5.3 Implications

As PLL activities enhanced learning outcomes of the participants, they showed a number of pedagogical implications. According to the research questions of this study, the implications of oral language skills involving main PLL features and lesson planning for young language learners are presented.

5.3.1 Implications of PLL features and language skills

Oral language skills development can be found in relation to five main PLL features including language focus, play contexts, play materials, playmates, and playfulness.

5.3.1.1 Language focus

First, modes of communication are vital elements to enhance oral language skills especially for young students. It is recommended that teachers should allow non-verbal cues/responses to promote the interpretive mode especially on the first few days in the first few weeks at the beginning of the class when children need time for adjustment to PLL activities that emphasized oral language skills. Also, children need to have freedom to speak or not to speak when they do not feel confident with new and

difficult words or concepts. The interpersonal mode should be enhanced by designing more cooperative learning and interactional situations since the activities that are focused on in this mode seem to promote more language learning strategies. The presentation mode, which seems to be the most difficult skill, should be promoted with care. For example, the use of guided questions, object mediations, and repetition are highly recommended for children to gradually acquire the language and skills and practice repeatedly.

Besides, it is noteworthy that thematic units should be used in the lessons for young learners since they provide a clear picture of what the main content is emphasized on in each lesson. Some considerations in choosing themes are meaningful topics that suit children's interests. Also, it is recommended that when choosing themes, authenticity needs to be taken into consideration since it is related to children's real-life situations, background, and world knowledge and it can lead children to apply different strategies of language learning into meaningful use in their real lives.

Next, an essential language component that should be incorporated into teaching young learners is teaching in full sentences extended from small chunks, open slots, and language patterns. Because children like to repeat what adults say, teachers can input the whole sentence structure in order to scaffold the language use inductively with vocabulary filled in. The implementation revealed that some activities in language play integrated with physical play constructed young learners' syntax knowledge such as back-chaining activity, the I-spy, whispering game, and Name-of activity. Children should not learn only vocabulary alone without knowing how to construct sentences out of it. Otherwise, they will respond in chunks. Once the input is in interactive forms

of full sentences, children are more likely to realize, recognize, and respond the same way.

Lastly, the use of L1 has been a debatable issue whether it should be allowed in a language classroom. This PLL course was carried out using English as the medium of instruction for the whole 45 lessons by the teacher. Interestingly, the participants chose to use more English with adults and more Thai with peers. Thus, it can be seen that they respond with the interactive input they receive. In other words, English should be mainly used in order to instruct children what and how they can apply the target language into play, whereas L1 should not be denied. According to the important strategies found in this study, the children's use of L1 is determined to be beneficial in several aspects. For example, L1 helps children translate and learn the meaning of the language and create relaxing and entertaining environment. Also, children could combine L1 with the target language to continue the conversation and solve language problems that may interfere with their communicating and thinking skills. Thus, even though teachers may mainly use the target language to provide input and encourage its use, they should not prohibit young learners from using their L1 in class so as to facilitate their learning and create a stress-free and enjoyable environment from time to time.

5.3.1.2 Play contexts

Two main aspects illustrated in play contexts are in aspects of classroom settings and play activities.

As for classroom settings, the participants suggest the preference for the PLL classroom setting over that of their traditional language classroom. Teachers should

consider arranging more empty space, centers, loud areas, literacy resources, learning tools, and corners in order to create a learning atmosphere that suits children's interests and levels and supports interactive and communicative activities. An appropriate setting can benefit young language learners in their learning and language development more.

With regard to play activities, several topics on play activities are recommended. First, wide varieties of contexts and activities should be arranged since they can reinforce children to repeat the language in different situations. Those contexts allow children to employ their cognitive strategies to achieve a better understanding of the language use in various situations. O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) study found that learners at the beginner's level exploited repetition and L1 translation by over 30 percent of all strategies related to cognitive strategies to learn and comprehend.

Second, play activities that simulate those in children's daily life are suggested. As for Rothlein and Brett's (1987) study, they reported that outdoor play was the most favorite activity, followed by dramatic play, and blocks, all of which are examples of what children generally play in their real life. In the language classroom, play types at the centers that simulate their authentic play demonstrate how children are facilitated to apply language to their own play in the real world outside the language classroom. According to Ausubel's Subsumption theory (1965, as cited in Brown, 2007), children can associate with the new or unknown thoughts better and sustain them in their long-term memory when relating to reality, and weaving them in to their known structure.

Third, activities should contain problem-solving and critical thinking skills. Teachers should prepare play activities that include development of critical thinking and problem-solving skills because they provoke a great numbers of language use for

several reasons such as setting roles and rules, discussing the possible solutions and options, negotiating the misunderstanding points, brainstorming and selecting ideas, organizing and finalizing the solution. Therefore, challenging tasks that are a bit beyond their actual performance to stimulate the language and thinking skills should be taken into consideration.

Fourth, teachers of young language learners should consider arranging activities with more freedom that comprise less instruction, more open-ended situations, and more diverse tasks because they promote language adjustment, imagination, and innovation that can extend their language skills and communication contents. Teachers should use the activities to guide and encourage children to make their own choices of communication. Thus, it is suggested that teachers should provide freer play activities in order to advance children forward from a controlled to a freer conversation and concepts.

Lastly, not only are the varieties of play types recommended, but the way to operationalize them should also be highly considered. In order to promote interpersonal communication, social play situations should be incorporated into all play types. That is to say, all activities suggested should not be assigned to each individual child. Instead, cooperative learning such as whole class, group work, and pair work should be designed for them to play together. Frost et al. (2001) point out that children's play brings about language use and collaboration, especially pretend play, which should be integrated into social play to promote cooperative learning. Teachers may not observe a great number of inner speech when a child plays or does tasks by him/herself comparing to interpersonal conversation in socializing playful activities.

5.3.1.3 Play materials

A great number, varieties, and authenticity of play materials are suggested. Therefore, an individual learner is able to learn from a large number of different mediations, which teachers can integrate into various contents. Besides, with a wide variety of integrated content, they have more chances to learn more vocabulary and understand the overall picture of the content and language and their relationship. Authentic materials are also highly suggested since they simulate their real-life situation, which learners can learn application to the real-world context. In addition, both structured and unstructured play toys can be provided. The structured toys can help indicate meanings directly while the unstructured or open-ended materials are suggested to encourage imagination and a discussion on usage rules and support higher-order thinking skills. Drew and Rankin (2004) focused on children playing with open-ended materials. They found that children enjoyed different ways of learning with play materials such as using their hand-eye coordination, arranging, organizing, making judgments, and associating those materials (Smith & Pellegrini, 2008).

5.3.1.4 Playmates

People to talk to are among the key factors that enhance language development, especially oral language skills.

As for the role of facilitating language and content knowledge, it is recommended to invite adults to the language classroom, if possible. Adults can be parents, guest speakers, pre-service teachers, adults from different occupation related to the themes of the activities or lessons, and other subject teachers who can interact and exchange the conversation and share knowledge with them. Apart from adults,

children in the same age from other classes or schools can also be invited to show and share knowledge and skills. In crystallization, children were interested in play work of their friends. It can be seen that they asked questions, paid attention, and gave comments to their friends. Some of them used it to develop their own play work.

According to the role of correcting errors and giving feedback, adults naturally repair some errors children make such as the mother to children or native to non-native speakers. Halliday (1973) remarks that error correction is a feedback from adults, peers, and naturally the mother to promote language acquisition which not only benefits their grammatical and structural understanding but also comprehension of content (Lightbown & Spada, 1993). Thus, adults should undergo training on how to give appropriate corrective feedback, particularly how to give both positive and negative feedback effectively in order to support young learners. Brown (2007, p. 274) suggested that adults should balance between positive and negative feedback in a way that they neither left the errors uncorrected nor “devaluing, dehumanizing, or insulting” the children. Apart from adults, peers can also be instructed to do self and peer assessment. Training is then needed because young learners, specifically Thai students, have rarely been trained to evaluate their own work and/or give feedback or comments to friends’ work effectively. Therefore, not only do teachers need to learn how to correct errors and give feedback and comments to young learners, but they should also train young learners to do both self- and peer-assessment. In the study, it could be found that the less able participants could learn to be more confident to give comments and help improve his/her friends’ language. For example, there was one participant who had difficulty in using English in the earlier weeks and after he received assistance to

produce the TL from classmates, in the later weeks, he learned to correct his friends when they were playing together.

5.3.1.5 Playfulness

It is suggested to put playful language in the classroom such as extraordinary situations, funny ideas, or deviation from reality to suit young learners' characteristics and interests. It is beneficial for language learners in terms of language learning and assessment. First, teachers may consider using playful behaviors or language to bring about creativity and other affective outcomes and to gain and sustain children's attention. Once they are ready, they can better listen to, learn, respond to, and interact with their classmates and play materials and also become more creative. In the same way, the quality of playfulness is a key to success as suggested by different scholars in order to maintain children's attention span (Pomerantz & Bell, 2007), which is one of the three main procedural systems—planning, attention, and monitoring—in metacognition (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Furthermore, teachers can use the playfulness feature as an informal assessment to check learners' comprehension. In other words, if learners understand, they tend to express reactions and feelings toward playfulness such as laughing, smiling, and making exciting, surprising, and shocking facial expressions. Therefore, as for the benefits to young language learners, playfulness should be included in language use and activities in order to increase their positive feelings (Landreth, 2002; McMahon, 1992), cognitive development (Cordier et al., 2009; Whitebread, 2003), and language production (Lightbown & Spada, 1993).

5.3.2 Implications of classroom management

As for a new practice like PLL course and activities, teachers should consider several issues including adjustment time, student-talking-time, and routine of learning stages. To begin with, young learners may need time to adjust themselves and become familiar with the lessons' routine. Therefore, teachers should allow the earlier weeks for children's adjustment in order to make them feel comfortable in the second language classroom. Besides, in order to enhance learner-centeredness, student-talking-time is advised because it allows them to reconfirm, adjust, and clarify their understanding. Teachers should, then, play a role of a facilitator (Moyle, 2005) or afforder (Hyvonen, 2011) that effectively promotes learner-centeredness. Teachers also need to create a lesson routine that repeats the learning stages of each day's lesson to familiarize learners with the language learning procedures. Thus, it is important that teachers take these important issues into account in order to manage the PLL classroom effectively.

5.3.3 Implications of lesson planning for elementary level

PLL activities can be implemented as a part or a whole of a lesson. That is to say, on the one hand, teachers may consider applying activities of the PLL course in this study to a particular appropriate context. For example, they may adapt and adopt some language play and physical play activities for their introduction stage. On the other hand, the whole PLL course can be adopted to one's foreign/second language course. The PLL model for each lesson was suggested in the study and can be useful for teachers who want to develop a play-based language learning lesson. To elaborate, comparing to Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP approach) that most teachers are familiar with, the circle time is the P—Presentation of vocabulary and language

structures that prepare them to incorporate the language into their play in the next learning stage. Centers are P—Practice that are created to be meaningful contexts for children to make use of what they learn into their play and have fun with both language and PLL activities. As for the last P—Production, it can be seen as a part of both centers and crystallization. That is to say, during their play in the centers, the participants both practice and produce the language at the same time, while having a chance to produce the language to present their work as well as summarize their learning for each lesson in crystallization.

5.4 Conclusion

This study investigated the effectiveness of Play-based Language Learning (PLL) activities that were designed and implemented for oral language skill development of young EFL learners. The results revealed the enhancement of the participants' oral language skills in aspects of modes of communication and learning outcomes of L2 learner strategies. Apart from language skill enhancement, PLL activities also portrayed affective outcomes that were widely known as important factors to motivate students to become active, successful, and happy. The participants also voiced their opinions with impression and benefits gained from participating in the PLL course. Based on such findings, it can be concluded that PLL activities are effective tools in language development that can be replicated and applied to other language learning in different contexts such as interdisciplinary curriculum emphasizing learner-centeredness for the purpose of developing proficiency and positive learning environment for young language learners.

5.5 Limitations

Some limitations of studies can be found in terms of classroom setting, sample size, and instructional and human resources.

First, the activities at the centers were carried out in the same area while the nature of each play type required different location. To elaborate, some play type required movement and caused quite loud noise which interrupted and distracted other participants in other play types. It also caused some unclear pictures and sounds on the video recording during data collection. Although most of the time the participants were very determined and focused on their play, a different space that could separate the play activities for centers apart should be considered.

Second, the play materials and resources were prepared according to the budget available. The wider varieties of materials and other resources might have affected the participants' language production to create more conversations which could provide more data for better valid and reliable finding.

Lastly, all stakeholders had limited experiences in participating in the PLL course, especially VTs. Some training and guideline manuals would be helpful to them that might provide more reliable data.

5.6 Recommendations for Further Research

For further research studies in the field of play for language learning, the recommendations are as follows:

First, further research studies should be conducted with different participants, for example, VTs and/or parents. Thus, there may be more insightful reflections to shed more light on language learning and teaching in elementary education. They can

possibly further apply PLL activities into their teaching and evaluate the impact of PLL activities toward their children, which can lead to the improvement of language learning and teaching training.

Second, the interpretation of play can vary and be multilayered. It is recommended to scope the study which can follow the particular feature discussed above in this study. For instance, the study may explore the interrelationship between language and other children's developmental areas—physical, cognitive, and social-affective development. Thus, more studies in PLL can be replicated and extended in more aspects than a few previous studies have found. In particular, the in-depth study of play's impact on affective outcomes toward language learning has still demonstrated limited evidence.

Third, further studies should consider using a true experimental design in order to compare the results between two groups of study which can reveal more empirical evidence on their oral language enhancement.

Fourth, there had been more studies on play using L1 in order to examine other areas of child development except the use of L2. Thus, the studies of play with the children who use English as foreign, second, third, or other language should be further conducted.

Lastly, studies in PLL can be further applied to develop other skills and with learners in other age groups. As for the former, the use of PLL activities to promote written language skills should be explored. As regards the latter, PLL activities should be utilized with older children and adolescents to see if they are effective to enhance oral language skills of learners in other age groups to better determine the effectiveness of PLL activities in language development across age groups.

REFERENCES

- Adair-Hauch, B., Koda, K., & Swender, E. B. (2006). The Integrated Performance Assessment (IPA): Connecting assessment to instruction and learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, 39(3), 359-382.
- Bailey, C. M. (2006). Help children grow: Learning through play and fantasy. Retrieved from <http://ir.library.oregonstate.edu/xmlui/bitstream/handle/1957/18924/ec1297-e.pdf>
- Becker, H. (2001). *Teaching ESL K-12: views from the classroom*. Ontario, CA: Heinle & Heinle.
- Bhattacharya, K., & Han, S. (2001). *Piaget and cognitive development* M. Orey (Ed.) *Emerging perspectives on learning, teaching, and technology* Retrieved from www.coe.uga.edu/epltt/piaget.htm
- Bishop, J. C., & Curtis, M. (Eds.). (2001). *Play today in the primary school playground - Life, learning and creativity*. Buckingham, UK: Open University Press.
- Bodrova, E., & Leong, D. J. (2007). *Tools of the mind: The Vygotskian approach to early childhood education* (2nd ed.). Columbus, OH: Merrill/Prentice Hall.
- Boonsue, A. (2007). *A study of transcendence of young children in play under teacher-child relationship*. (Doctoral dissertation), Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand.
- Brinton, D. M. (2001). A theme-based literature course: focus on the City of Angels. In J. Murphy & P. Byrd (Eds.), *Understanding the courses we teach: local perspectives on English language teaching* (pp. 281-308). Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Broadhead, P., & English, C. (2005). Open-ended role play: supporting creativity and developing identity. In J. R. Moyles (Ed.), *The excellence of play* (2nd ed., pp. 72-85). Berkshire, UK: Open University Press.
- Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (5th Ed.). White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.
- Bruner, J. S. (2003). The nature and uses of immaturity, American psychologist. In D. Whitebread (Ed.), *Teaching and learning in the early years* (2nd ed., Vol. 27, pp. 1-28). New York: Routledge.
- Buck, G. (2001). *Assessing listening*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Caillois, R. (1961). *Man, play, and games*. New York: University of Illinois Press.
- Cameron, L. (2001). *Teaching languages to young learners*. UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Canning, N. (2011). Inspiring environments for inspirational play. In N. Canning (Ed.), *Play and practice in the early years foundation stage* (pp. 117-127). London, UK: Sage.
- Chamot, A. U. (2008). Strategy instruction and good language learners. In C. Griffiths (Ed.), *Lessons from good language learners* (pp. 266-281). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Cheep-Aranai, R., Reinders, H., & Wasanasomsithi, P. (2015). Implementing play-based language learning with children: From potential to practice. In P.

- Darasawang & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching* (pp. 141-159). UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Chin, N. B., & Wigglesworth, G. (2007). *Bilingualism: an advanced resource book*. New York: Routledge.
- Christison, M., & Murray, D. E. (2014). *What English language teachers need to know: Designing curriculum* (Vol. III). New York: Routledge.
- Chuemchit, S. (2009). *Child's development through play and performance*. (Doctoral dissertation), Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand.
- Connecting play and learning. (2011). *Better kid care*. Retrieved from <http://extension.psu.edu/youth/betterkidcare/early-care/our-resources/tip-pages/tips/connecting-play-and-learning>
- Cook, G. (2000). *Language play, language learning*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Cook, J. L., & Cook, G. (2005). *Child development: Principles and perspectives*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education.
- Cordier, R., Bundy, A., Hocking, C., & Einfeld, S. (2009). A model for play-based intervention for children with ADHD. *Australian Occupational Therapy Journal*, 56(5), 332-340. doi:10.1111/j.1440-1630.2009.00796.x
- Corson, D. (1988). *Oral language across the curriculum* Clevedon, Avon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Cusson, R. (2001). Jean Piaget and the theory of intellectual development: Assessment of the cognitive growth of children. *Angelfire*. Retrieved from <http://www.angelfire.com/ny4/rcusson/papers/piaget.html>
- Daniels, H. (2007). Pedagogy. In H. Daniels, M. Cole, & J. V. Wertsch (Eds.), *The Cambridge companion to Vygotsky*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Day, R., & Bamford, J. (1998). *Extensive reading in the second language classroom*. UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Drew, W. F., & Rankin, G. (2004). Promoting creativity for life using open-ended materials. *Young Children*. Retrieved from http://www.rediscovercenter.org/pdf/promoting_creativity1.pdf
- Elkind, D. (n.d.). Learning through play. *Parents in a pinch*. Retrieved from <http://www.parentsinapinch.com/public/pdf/Learning%20Through%20Play.pdf>
- Ellis, R. (1997). *SLA research and language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ervin-Tripp, S. (1991). Play in language development. In B. Scales, M. Almy, A. Nicolopoulou, & S. Ervin-Tripp (Eds.), *Play and the social context of development in early care and education* (pp. 84-97). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Eskildsen, S. W. (2008). Constructing another language-usage-based linguistics in second language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics*, 30(3), 335-357. doi:10.1093/applin/amn037
- Farran, D. C., & Son-Yarbrough, W. (2001). Title I funded preschools as a developmental context for children's play and verbal behaviors. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 16(2001), 245-262.
- Farver, J. A. M. (1992). Communicating shared meaning in social pretend play. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 7, 501-516.

- File, N. (1994). Children's play, teacher-child interactions, and teacher beliefs in integrated early childhood programs. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 9, 223-240.
- Frost, J. L., Wortham, S. C., & Reifel, S. (2001). *Play and child development*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Genishi, C. (1988). Young children's oral language development. *ERIC Digest*. Retrieved from <http://www.comeunity.com/disability/speech/young-children.html>
- Gottlieb, M. (2006). *Assessing English language learners: bridges from language proficiency to academic achievement*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Grave, K. (2000). *Designing language courses: A guide for teachers*. Ontario, CA: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Griva, E., Semoglou, K., & Geladari, A. (2010). Early foreign language learning: Implementation of a project in a game-based context. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2, 3700-3705.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1973). *Explorations in the functions of language*. London, UK: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1975). *Learning how to mean: Explorations in the development of language*. London, UK: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1993). Towards a language-based theory of learning. *Linguistics and Education*, 5, 93-116.
- Harding, S. (2005). Outdoor play and the pedagogic garden. In J. Moyles (Ed.), *The excellence of play* (3rd ed.). Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press.
- Hedegaard, M. (2007). The development of children's conceptual relation to the world, with focus on concept formation in preschool children's activity. In H. Daniels, M. Cole, & J. V. Wertsch (Eds.), *The Cambridge companion to Vygotsky* (pp. 246-275). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Henricks, T. S. (2011). Caillois's man, play, and games: An appreciation and evaluation. *The Board of Trustees of the University of Illinois*. Retrieved from www.journalofplay.org/sites/www.journalofplay.org/files/pdf-articles/3-2-article-cailloiss-man-play-and-games.pdf
- Herr, J. (2013). *Creative resources for the early childhood classroom* (6th International ed.). Belmont, CA: Cengage Learning.
- Huang, T., & Plass, J. L. (2009). History of play in education. *Microsoft research – games for learning institute*. Retrieved from <http://g4li.org/archives/523>
- Hunnicut, B. K. (n.d.). *Homo Ludens or Homo Faber*. Unpublished manuscript. Programs for Higher Education. University of Iowa.
- Hyvonen, P. (2011). Play in the school context? The perspectives of Finnish teachers. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 36(8), 65-83.
- Ivankova, N. V., & Creswell, J. W. (2009). Mixed methods. In J. Heigham & R. A. Croker (Eds.), *Qualitative research in applied linguistics: A practical introduction* (pp. 135-161). Hampshire, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- John-steiner, V. P. (2007). Vygotsky on thinking and speaking. In H. Daniels, M. Cole, & J. V. Wertsch (Eds.), *The Cambridge companion to Vygotsky* (pp. 136-152). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Johnson, K. E. (2009). *Second language teacher education: A sociocultural perspective*. New York, NY: Routledge.

- Jrank. (2010). Child development reference - Play-What is play?, The importance of play, elements of children's play, social elements of play. *Net Industries, LLC*, 6. Retrieved from <http://social.jrank.org/pages/492/Play.html>
- Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford, UK: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S. D., & Terrell, T. D. (1983). *The natural approach*. New York: Pergamon.
- Landreth, G. (2002). What is play? *Eureka*. Retrieved from http://www.eureka.org.uk/Play_and_learn/what_is_play
- Lantolf, J. (Ed.) (2000). *Introducing sociocultural theory*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lee, D. M., & Rubin, J. B. (1979). *Children and language*. CA, USA: Wadsworth.
- Lesch, S. (n.d.). Learning outcomes: Learning achieved by the end of a course or program knowledge-skills-attitudes.
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (1993). *How languages are learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2013). *How languages are learned* (4th ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Lindon, J. (2002). What is play? *Children's Play Information Service National Children's Bureau*. Retrieved from http://www.ncb.org.uk/dotpdf/open%20access%20%20phase%201%20only/factsheet_whatisplay_cpis_20060728.pdf
- Lipton, G. C. (1994). What is FLES* methodology?: An overview. *Hispania*, 77(4), 878-887. doi:10.2307/345749
- Mackey, A., & Oliver, R. (2002). Interactional feedback and children's L2 development. *System*, 30(2002), 459-477.
- McAfee, O., & Leong, D. J. (2011). *Assessing and guiding young children's development and learning* (5th Ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- McKay, P. (2006). *Assessing young language learners*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- McMahon, L. (1992). *The handbook of play therapy*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Medwell, J., Wray, D., Minns, H., Griffiths, V., & Coates, E. (2012). *Primary English: Teaching theory and practice* (6th ed.). London, UK: SAGE Publications.
- Ministry of Education. (2008). *Basic education core curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D.2008)*. Bangkok: Kurusapa Ladprao Publishing.
- Ministry of Education. (2010). *The role of education in building an ASEAN community 2015*. Retrieved from <http://www.bic.moe.go.th/th/images/stories/book/other/ASEAN/ed-building-ASEANcommunity.pdf>.
- Monsalve, S., & Correal, A. (2006). Children's oral communication in English class activities: An Exploratory study. *PROFILE Journal - Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, 7(2006), 131-146.
- Moyles, J. R. (Ed.) (2005). *The excellence of play* (3rd ed.). Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press.

- National Council for Curriculum and Assessment. (2009). Aistear: the early childhood curriculum framework - guidelines for good practice. Retrieved from http://www.ncca.biz/Aistear/pdfs/Guidelines_ENG/Play_ENG.pdf
- Novack, G. (1960). John Dewey's theories of education. *International Socialist Review*, 21(1).
- Nuktong, P. (2010). *The effects of drama-based instruction on English oral communication ability and motivation in learning English of the eleventh grade students*. (Doctoral dissertation), Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand.
- O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Panthumasan, P. (2007). *International program for teacher education: An approach to tackling problems of English education in Thailand*. Paper presented at the 11th UNESCO- APEID International Conference, Bangkok, Thailand.
- Pappas, C. C., Kiefer, B. Z., & Levstik, L. S. (2006). *An integrated language perspective in the elementary school – an action approach* (4th ed.). Boston, US: Pearson Education.
- Parten, M. B. (1932). Social participation among pre-school children. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 27(3), 243-269.
- Pellegrini, A. D. (1984). Effects of experimental play contexts on the development of preschoolers' functional language. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 8, 211-219.
- Pellegrini, A. D. (1989). Elementary school children's rough-and-tumble play. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 4, 245-260.
- Pellegrini, A. D., Dupuis, D., & Smith, P. K. (2007). Play in evolution and development. *Developmental Review*, 27(2007), 261-276. doi:10.1016/j.dr.2006.09.001
- Piaget, J. (1952). *The origins of intelligence in children*. US: The Norton Library.
- Pomerantz, A., & Bell, N. D. (2007). Learning to play, playing to learn: FL learners as multicompetent language users. *Applied Linguistics*, 28(4), 556-578.
- Raban, B. (2001). Talking to think, learn, and teach. In P. G. Smith (Ed.), *Talking classrooms: Shaping children's learning through oral language instruction* (pp. 27-41). Delaware, US: International Reading Association.
- Rahman, M. M. (2010). Teaching oral communication skills: a task-based approach. *ESP World*, 9(1), 27-37.
- Rice, L. (2009). Playful learning. *Journal for Education in the Built Environment*, 4(2), 94-108.
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, K. (2009). Interviews. In J. Heigham & R. A. Croker (Eds.), *Qualitative research in applied linguistics: A practical introduction* (pp. 135-161). Hampshire, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Rieber, L. P. (2001). *Designing learning environments that excite serious play*. Paper presented at the The Australasian Society for Computers in Learning in Tertiary Education, Melbourne, Australia. The Annual Meeting retrieved from
- Roopnarine, J. L., & Johnson, J. E. (Eds.). (2013). *Approaches to early childhood education* (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

- Roskos, K. A., Tabors, P. O., & Lenhart, L. A. (2009). *Oral language and early literacy in preschool: talking, reading, and writing* (2nd ed.). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Rothlein, L., & Brett, A. (1987). Children's, teachers', and parents' perceptions of play. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 2, 45-53.
- Rovinelli, R. J., & Hambleton, R. K. (1977). *On the use of content specialists in the assessment of criterion-referenced test item validity*. Paper presented at the The American Educational Research Association (60th.), San Francisco, CA. The meeting retrieved from <http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/contentdelivery/servlet/ERICServlet?accno=ED121845>
- Salen, K., & Zimmerman, E. (Eds.). (2006). *The game design reader: A rules of play anthology*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Sawyer, K. (2006). The history of play. *Play and Development*. Retrieved from <http://artsci.wustl.edu/~play>
- Scarlett, W. G., Sophie, N., Dorothy, S., & Iris, P. (2005). *Children's play*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Seach, D. (2007). *Interactive play for children with autism*. New York: Routledge.
- Singer, J. L. (1994). Imaginative play and adaptive development. In J. H. Goldstein (Ed.), *Toys, play, and child development* (pp. 6-26). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Smith, M. K. (2001). David A. Kolb on experiential learning. *The Encyclopedia of Informal Education*. Retrieved from <http://infed.org/mobi/david-a-kolb-on-experiential-learning/>
- Smith, P. G. (2001). Shaping our worlds: The role of oral language in children's learning. In P. G. Smith (Ed.), *Talking classrooms: Shaping children's learning through oral language instruction* (pp. 1-14). Delaware, US: International Reading Association.
- Smith, P. K., & Pellegrini, A. (2008). Learning through play. In R. E. Tremblay, R. G. Barr, R. D. Peters, & M. Boivin (Eds.), *Encyclopedia on early childhood development*. Montreal, Quebec: Centre of Excellence for Early Childhood Development.
- Stoller, F. L., & Grabe, W. (1997). A six-T's approach to content-based instruction. In M. A. Snow & D. M. Brinton (Eds.), *Content-based classroom: perspectives on integrating language and content* (pp. 78-94). White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Sutton-Smith, B. (2006). Play and ambiguity. In K. Salen & E. Zimmerman (Eds.), *The game design reader: A rules of play anthology*. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Tedick, D., & Cammarata, L. (2012). Integrated performance assessment: Adapting the model for CBI. *Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA)*. Retrieved from <http://www.carla.umn.edu/cobalrt/modules/assessment/ipa/index.html>
- The National Institute for Play. (2009). Play science – the patterns of play. Retrieved from http://www.nifplay.org/states_play.html
- Tomasello, M. (2000). First steps toward a usage-based theory of language acquisition. *Cognitive Linguistics*, 11(1/2), 61-82.

- Tomasello, M. (2001). The item-based nature of children's early syntactic development. In M. Tomasello & E. Bates (Eds.), *Language development: The essential readings* (pp. 169-186). Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Tomasello, M. (2009). The usage-based theory of language acquisition. In E. Bavin, L. (Ed.), *Cambridge handbook of child language* (pp. 69-88). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Trawick-Smith, J. (2012). Play and the curriculum. In J. Frost, S. C. Wortham, & S. Reifel (Eds.), *Play and child development* (4th ed., pp. 245-283). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.
- van Der Veer, R. (2007). Vygotsky in contexts: 1900-1935. In H. Daniels, M. Cole, & J. V. Wertsch (Eds.), *The Cambridge companion to Vygotsky* (pp. 21-49). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- van Kyuk, J. J. (2005). The Pyramid method. In J. L. Roopnarine & J. E. Johnson (Eds.), *Approaches to early childhood education* (4th ed., pp. 395-422). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Verenikina, I., Harris, P., & Lysaght, P. (2003). *Child's play: Computer games, theories of play and children's development*. Paper presented at the Young Children and Learning Technology. Conference in Research and Practice in Information Technology, Sydney.
<http://crpit.com/confpapers/CRPITV34Verenikina.pdf>
- Verenikina, I., & Herrington, J. (2006). Computer play, young children and the development of higher order thinking: Exploring the possibilities. *Transformational Tools for the 21st Century*, 22-27.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1933). Play and its role in the Mental Development of the Child. *Psychology and Marxism Internet Archive*. Retrieved from Voprosy psikhologii website:
<http://www.marxists.org/archive/vygotsky/works/1933/play.htm>
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge Harvard University Press.
- Weininger, O., & Daniel, S. (1992). *Playing to learn: the young child, the teacher, and the classroom*. Illinois: Charles C Thomas.
- Welsch, J. G. (2008). Playing within and beyond the story: Encouraging book-related pretend play. *The Reading Teacher*, 62(2), 138-148.
- Whitebread, D. (Ed.) (2003). *Teaching and learning in the early years* (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Widdowson, J. D. A. (2001). Rhythm, repetition and rhetoric: learning language the school playground. In J. C. Bishop & M. Curtis (Eds.), *Play today in the primary school playground – Life, learning and creativity* (pp. 135-151). Buckingham, UK: Open University Press.
- Wilkinson, A. (1965). *Spoken English*. UK: University of Birmingham.
- Willbrand, M. L., & Rieke, R. D. (1983). *Teaching oral communication in elementary schools*. New York: Macmillan.
- Wilson, L. O. (2016). The second principle: Three domains of learning - cognitive, affective, psychomotor.
- Wing, L. A. (1995). Play is not the work of the child: Young children's perceptions of work and play. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 10, 223-247.

- Wisalutanan, T. (2002). *Children's private speech in freeply activities*. (Doctoral dissertation), Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand.
- wiseGEEK. (2003-2010). What is activity therapy. Retrieved from <http://www.wisegeek.com/what-is-activity-therapy.htm>
- Xu, Y. (2010). Children's social play sequence: Parten's classic theory revisited. *Early Child Development and Care, 180*(4), 489-498. doi:10.1080/03004430802090430
- Yule, G. (2006). *The study of language* (3rd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

เฉลียวศรี พิบูลชล, ศิริพร ปัญญาเมธิกุล, สุจิตรา ปทุมลังการ, อินทิรา บำรุงสาดี, นันทนุช อุดมละมุล, เสาวลักษณ์ น่วมสำราญ, & และคณะ. (2551). แนวทางการพัฒนาเด็กและเยาวชนที่มีความสามารถพิเศษ: บทเรียนต่างประเทศ. สำนักงานเลขาธิการสภาการศึกษา.





APPENDICES

จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย
CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY

Appendix A: Lesson plan—Chapter 1: Face and Body, Theme 5: A super doctor

LESSON PLAN CHAPTER 1 – Face and Body

Course: PLL (Beginner level)

Time: 50-60 minutes

Week/Date: 5 / 1-3 July, 2014

Class level: 12

children (Grade 3)

Theme: - Review Chapter 1 (A super doctor)

Objectives: SWBAT - perform three modes of verbal communication – Interpretive, Interpersonal, and Presentational modes

Language focus: 1. Vocabulary

- Vocabulary of my body (theme 1)
- Vocabulary of clothes (theme 2)
- Vocabulary of routine (theme 3)
- Vocabulary of sickness (theme 4)

2. Form/Structures

- What have you got? I've got a nose.
- I'm gonna be a superhero.
- What do you wear in summer? I wear shorts.
- What do you do? What's your daily routine?
- Present simple:- I wash my face; I brush my teeth.
- What's the matter? I have a headache.
- You should go to bed. That's a good idea.

Settings: The class is held in the classroom. Students sit in circle and later on move to different centers.

Material details:

1. Art box: socks, yarn, button, string, glue, crayon, colored pencils, markers, fabric scraps, cottons, colored paper scraps, scissors
2. Video clips of the songs “This is ME!,” “Superhero,” and Wake up! Daily routine
3. The charts of the songs' lyrics
4. Flashcards of clothes
5. Vocabulary brochure – sickness
6. Story cards of a super doctor part one
7. Story cards of a super doctor part two
8. A magic bags with clothing items
9. Snakes and Ladders board game
10. Dice
11. Game markers
12. Items of doctor kits: bandages, cotton (balls or swabs), plastic syringe, a tweezer, a tongue depressor, stethoscope, eye patch, note pad and pen, empty packing of pills, plastic containers (different colored red-cross symbol tags on each container), small flashlight, thermometer, white clothing, etc.

Weekly outlook:

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3
Circle time	<u>Language Play and Physical Play:</u> Sing and dance Chant Listen and repeat	<u>Language Play and Physical Play:</u> Sing and dance Chant Mime and guess I spy - move Listen and repeat	<u>Language Play and Physical Play:</u> Dress and speak Sing and dance Chant Whisper Retell the story
Center	<u>Creative Play:</u> - Creating a paper doll of a super doctor <u>Games with Rules:</u> - Snakes and Ladders – a super doctor <u>Pretend Play:</u> - Pretend a super doctor		
Crystallization	Investigating opinions and attitudes		

Procedures (PLL)

Steps	Content	Classroom activities	Materials	Assessment and Evaluation
1. Circle time Day 1 (15-20 mins)	Vocabulary and language structure review and practice - A super doctor part 1	Language Play and Physical Play: - Ss sit together in circle. - T reviews the song about my body called “This is ME!”; and “Superhero”. - Ss sing and dance. - T leads Ss to chant the vocabulary of clothes using flashcards. - T reviews the song “Wake up! Daily routine” - Ss sing and act. - T leads Ss to chant the vocabulary of sickness. <u>Round:</u> - T reads a story of a super doctor and his routine part one. - Ss listen and repeat after the T.	- Video clips of the songs “This is ME!”, “Superhero”, and Wake up! Daily routine - The charts of the songs’ lyrics - Flashcards of clothes - Vocabulary brochure – sickness - Story cards of a super doctor part one	- Oral language performance checklist - Interaction observation checklist
1. Circle time Day 2 (15-20 mins)	Vocabulary and language structure review and practice - A super doctor part 2	Language Play and Physical Play: - Ss sit together in circle - T and Ss sing the songs “This is Me!”, “Superhero”, and “Wake up! Daily routine”. - Ss dance and act along. - T and Ss chant the vocabulary of sickness. - Ss play mime and guess the routine actions. <u>Round:</u> - Ss play, “I spy” - One is the spy. The friends who are spied on need to change seating. - T reads a story of a super doctor and his routine part two. - Ss listen and repeat after the T.	- Video clips of the songs “This is ME!”, “Superhero”, and Wake up! Daily routine - The charts of the songs’ lyrics - Flashcards of clothes - Vocabulary brochure – sickness - Story cards of a super doctor part two	- Oral language performance checklist - Interaction observation checklist
1. Circle time Day 3 (15-20 mins)	Vocabulary and language structure review and practice - A story retelling	Language Play and Physical Play: - Ss sit together in circle. - Ss choose clothing items from a magic bag and wear them. - Ss say what they are wearing. - T and Ss sing songs “This is ME!”, “Superhero”, and “Wake up! Daily Routine”. - T and Ss chant the vocabulary of sickness. <u>Round:</u> - Ss play whispering game focusing on vocabulary of routine and sickness. - The last S in the row acts and says what s/he hears.	- A magic bags with clothing items - Video clips of the songs “This is ME!”, “Superhero”, and Wake up! Daily routine - The charts of the songs’ lyrics - Vocabulary brochure – sickness - Story cards of a super doctor	- Oral language performance checklist - Interaction observation checklist

Steps	Content	Classroom activities	Materials	Assessment and Evaluation
		- Ss look at the story cards – a super doctor part one and two – and each S takes turn to retell the story.	part one and two	
2. Centers (25-30 mins)	2.1) Creating a paper doll of a super doctor	Creative Play: - Ss are asked to create a paper doll of a super doctor and his clothes for different routine the Ss want for him.	- Art box	- Oral language performance checklist - Interaction observation checklist
	2.2) Snakes and Ladders – a super doctor	Games with Rules: - Players play snakes and ladders game of a super doctor who has a busy routine of helping people. - Each player takes turns to toss dice and make moves. The player who gets to the finish box first wins the game.	- Snakes and Ladders board game - Dice - Game markers	- Oral language performance checklist - Interaction observation checklist
	2.3) Pretend a super doctor	Pretend Play: - Ss play a small character and fantasize him to be a super doctor. - Ss imagine how he helps people.	- Items of doctor's kits - Small world play scenes	- Oral language performance checklist - Interaction observation checklist
3. Crystallization (10 mins)	Investigating opinions and attitude	T asks about how Ss play in their centers and how they feel about the play. - Ss sit together in circle - Ss take turn to talk about what they play at the centers or about their work. - Ss take turn to talk about how they feel (eg. whether they like or dislike what they play)	- The play objects Ss make or use	- Semi-structured interview and checklist

Remarks:

An example of a handmade puppet theatre:

- <http://craftsbyamanda.com/2012/03/craft-stick-puppet-theater.html>
- <http://mynearestanddearest.com/santas-workshop/>

Story card set I

- A super doctor wakes up at 7 a.m. in the morning
- She's got thunder fingers and helps her mother cook breakfast. (optional: hot cocoa, soup, noodles, porridge)
- She wears a magic jacket. So, she can fly to school.
- After lunch, she plays with friends at school.
- Oh! Her friend gets hit by the ball and he has a bump.
- The super doctor's got long legs. She can run fast to get an icepack.
- You should put an icepack on it.

Story card set II

- At 3 p.m., the super doctor goes back home and she sees a dog falls into the water.
- She's got big feet. So, she can swim very fast to help him.
- Oh, poor dog! He has a cough and a runny nose.
- The super doctor has a scarf. It can make him warm.
- She's got thunder fingers. So, she can make hot water for him to drink.
- The super doctor is at home.
- She's got a big head. She can finish her homework very quickly.
- At 7 p.m., she has dinner with her family.
- It's bed time. Good night. Tomorrow, I want to help more friends.

Appendix B: Lesson plan—Chapter 2: Family and Friend, Theme 10: A sporting family (review)

LESSON PLAN CHAPTER 2 – Family and Friend

Course: PLL (Beginner level)

Time: 50-60 minutes

Week/Date: 10 / 5-7 August, 2014

Class level: 12 children (Grade 3)

Theme: Review Chapter 2 (A sporting family)

Objectives: SWBAT - perform three modes of verbal communication – Interpretive, Interpersonal, and Presentational modes

Language focus: 1. Vocabulary

- Vocabulary of family (theme 6)
- Vocabulary of home (theme 7)
- Vocabulary of school (theme 8)
- Vocabulary of sports (theme 9)

2. Form/Structures

- Who are in your family?
- How many brothers and sisters do you have?
- What is her name?
- How old is he?
- Where is the soap? It's in the bathroom. / The soap is in/on/under the sink.
- What's in the book bag? It's the lunch box. Please pass me the eraser.
- What sport do you/I like to play? / Do you like to play tennis?
- Yes, I like to play tennis. / No, I don't like to play tennis.
- I like to play tennis. / I like to bowl.

Settings: The class is held in the classroom. Students sit in circle and later on move to different centers.

Material details:

1. Art box: socks, yarn, button, string, glue, crayon, colored pencils, markers, fabric scraps, cottons, colored paper scraps, scissors
2. Video clips of the songs “Finger family” and “School song”
3. The charts of the songs’ lyrics
4. Flashcards of home and sports
5. Story cards of a sporting family part one (mother, father, brother, sister, and baby)
6. Story cards of a sporting family part two (grandfather, grandmother, aunt, uncle, cousin)
7. Finger puppets
8. Realia relating to vocabulary in theme 6, 7, 8, and 9
9. A sheet of sentences of the game – moving dictation to find things
10. Role-play cards

Weekly outlook:

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3
Circle time	<u>Language Play and Physical Play:</u> Sing and dance Chant Listen and repeat	<u>Language Play and Physical Play:</u> Sing and dance Chant Move following the instructions Listen and repeat	<u>Language Play and Physical Play:</u> Sing and dance Chant Pass and speak Retell the story
Center	<u>Creative Play:</u> - Creating photos of a sporting family <u>Games with Rules:</u> - Moving dictation to find things <u>Pretend Play:</u> - Pretend visiting friends’ houses		
Crystallization	Investigating opinions and attitudes		

Procedures (PLL)

Steps	Content	Classroom activities	Materials	Assessment and Evaluation
1. Circle time Day 1 (15-20 mins)	Vocabulary and language structure review and practice - A sporting family part 1	Language Play and Physical Play: - Ss sit together in circle. - T reviews the vocabulary of family using song “Finger family” and “School song”. - Ss sing and play with fingers or dance. - T leads Ss to chant the vocabulary about home and sports using flashcards and back-chaining techniques. - Ss listen and repeat. <u>Round:</u> - T reads a story of a sporting family part 1. - Ss listen and repeat after the T.	- Video clips of the songs “Finger family” and “School song” - The charts of the songs’ lyrics - Flashcards of home and sports - Story cards of a sporting family part one (mother, father, brother, sister, and baby) - Finger puppets	- Oral language performance checklist - Interaction observation checklist
1. Circle time Day 2 (15-20 mins)	Vocabulary and language structure review and practice - A sporting family part 2	Language Play and Physical Play: - Ss sit together in circle. - T and Ss sing the songs “Finger family” and “School song”. - Ss dance or act. - T and Ss chant the vocabulary about home and sports using flashcards and back-chaining techniques. <u>Round:</u> - Ss are asked to move around and locate things in the room. The moves may vary such as swimming, skating, jogging, etc. - T reads a story of a sporting family part 2. - Ss listen and repeat after T.	- Video clips of the songs “Finger family” and “School song” - The charts of the songs’ lyrics - Flashcards of home and sports - Story cards of a sporting family part two (grandfather, grandmother, aunt, uncle, cousin) - Finger puppets	- Oral language performance checklist - Interaction observation checklist
1. Circle time Day 3 (15-20 mins)	Vocabulary and language structure review and practice - Retell the story – a sporting family	Language Play and Physical Play: - Ss sit together in circle. - T and Ss sing the songs “Finger family” and “School song”. - Ss dance and act along. - T and Ss chant the vocabulary of home and sports, and act. <u>Round:</u> - Ss play musical passing pictures and realia. - Some Ss are given pictures and realia that they need to pass to the friend next to them. - The S who holds the picture or realia at the pause of a song, s/he needs to say the words. - If s/he can say it correctly, s/he stays. But, if s/he can say it incorrectly, s/he will be out of the game. - Ss look at the story cards – a sporting family part one and two – and each S takes turn to retell the story.	- Video clips of the songs “Finger family” and “School song” - The charts of the songs’ lyrics - Flashcards of home and sports - Story cards of a sporting family part one and two - Finger puppets - Realia relating to vocabulary in theme 6, 7, 8, and 9	- Oral language performance checklist - Interaction observation checklist

Steps	Content	Classroom activities	Materials	Assessment and Evaluation
2. Centers (25-30 mins)	2.1) Creating photos of a sporting family	Creative Play: - Ss draw and color pictures of a sporting family, and decorate paper photo frames. - The photos are placed in different rooms. - Ss play together or discuss how they delegate work	- Art box	- Oral language performance checklist - Interaction observation checklist
	2.2) Moving dictation to find things	Games with Rules: - Make two teams. - Players of each team sit together and look at a picture of a sporting family in a room, a garden, or a stadium. - Question sentences or statements are placed on the other corner of the room where each player takes turns to move there in various ways to read and memorize. The sentences can be, for instances, Where are erasers?, How many mothers are there in the room?, What sports do men play? - The player comes back as fast as they can to tell their friends to do following the instructions, and write down their answer on the answer sheet. - The team that gets answers all or most correct, and that follows statements correctly in the fastest time wins.	- Paper & pen - A sheet of sentences	- Oral language performance checklist - Interaction observation checklist
	2.3) Pretend visiting friends' houses	Pretend Play: - Ss pretend visiting their friends' house and look at the family's photos. - Ss receive role-play cards to be a guideline of their dialogues.	- Role-play cards	- Oral language performance checklist - Interaction observation checklist
3. Crystal-lization (10 mins)	Investigating opinions and attitude	T asks about how Ss play in their centers and how they feel about the play. - Ss sit together in circle - Ss take turn to talk about what they play at the centers or about their work. - Ss take turn to talk about how they feel (e.g. whether they like or dislike what they play)	- The play objects Ss make or use	- Semi-structured interview and checklist

Remarks:**Story card I: (A sporting family)**

- 1) (Peter and Molly are talking to each other)
 - P: Hello! My name is Peter. I'm your neighbour.
 - M: Hi! My name is Molly. Nice to meet you.
- 2)
 - P: Do you want to play at my house?
 - M: Okay! Let's go.
- 3)
 - M: How old are you, Peter?
 - P: I'm 9 years old. How old are you, Molly?
 - M: I'm 9 years old too.
- 4) (In the living room. They are looking at the pictures of each family member on the walls)
 - M: How many brothers and sisters do you have?
 - P: I have 2 brothers and one sister.
- 5)
 - P: This is my father, Paul. He is 50. He likes to play tennis.
- 6)
 - P: This is my mother, Paula. She is 48. She likes to jog.

- 7) P: These are my two brothers. Their names are Pocci and Popcorn. They are 14 and 15. They like to play soccer.
 8) P: This is me. I like to skate.
 9) P: This is my youngest baby sister. She is 6. Her name is Pam. She likes to swim.
 10) M: Oh! you have a big family.
 P: Yes. And, we like to play sports.
 11) P: How about you? What sports do you like to play?
 M: I like to ride a bicycle.
 12) P: How about we ride our bicycles to visit your house?
 M: That's a good idea.

Story card II: (A sporting family)

- 13) M: Com'on in, Peter! This is my living room.
 14) (In the living room. They are looking at the pictures of each family member on the walls)
 M: My mother and father play badminton together. Their names are Madonna and Matthew.
 P: How old are they?
 M: They are 42 and 45.
 15) M: This is my sister. She is 10. We play ping pong together. Her name is Minnie.
 16) M: We also like to play hide and seek.
 P: How do you play it?
 M: One person hides something. The other person needs to find it. Let's go to my bedroom and play.
 17) (In the bedroom. They are playing hide and seek.)
 M: You hide something. And, I'll find it.
 P: Okay. You count 1 to 10.
 M: 1, 2, 3, ..., 10. Ready or not? Here I come.
 18) P: Where is the eraser?
 (M: It's under the blanket.) – no writing showed here!
 P: Where is an English book?
 (M: It's in the wardrobe.) –
 P: Where is an alarm clock?
 (M: It's on the pillow.) –
 P: Well done! Now, it's your turn.
 19) M: Let's go to the kitchen.
 M: You count 1 to 10, Peter!
 P: 1, 2, 3, ..., 10. Ready or not? Here I come.
 20) M: Where are the scissors?
 (P: They are on the sink.)
 M: Where are the crayons?
 (P: They are in the refrigerator.)
 M: Where are the rulers?
 (P: They are under the fork.)
 21) M: You are good.
 P: That was fun.
 22) M: I have an idea. This is Mickey (her dog).
 P: How old is he?
 M: He is 5. He likes to play with water. Let's give him a shower!
 23) (In the bathroom, they are trying to give Mickey a shower.)
 M: Can you pass me the shower, please?
 P: Here you are!
 M: Thank you so much.
 24) M: Please pass me the soap.
 P: Here you are!
 M: Thank you so much.
 25) M: Please pass me the towel.
 P: Here you are!
 M & P: OH! No! Mickey! (Mickey shakes off water to those kids.)

Appendix C: Lesson plan—Chapter 3: Festivals, Theme 14: New Year

LESSON PLAN CHAPTER 3 – Festivals

Course: PLL (Beginner level)

Time: 50-60 minutes

Week/Date: 14 / 2-4 September, 2014

Class level: 12 children (Grade 3)

Theme: New Year

Objectives: SWBAT - recognize familiar words to talk about New Year's resolutions (obj.1)
 - say simple statement about New Year's resolutions (obj.4)
 - exchange information about New Year's resolutions (obj.5)
 - give opinions about personal New Year's resolutions (obj.7)

Language focus:

- Vocabulary
 - clean up, tidy, put away, healthy, exercise, piano lesson, plant flowers and trees
 - unhealthy, soda, tease, push, splash water
- Form/Structures
 - When is Thai / Western / Chinese New Year?
 - It's on April 13 / January 1 / in February.
 - What are your New Year's resolutions?
 - I'm gonna help mom clean up dishes.

Settings: The class is held in the classroom. Students sit in circle and later on move to different centers.

Material details:

- Art box: socks, yarn, button, string, glue, crayon, colored pencils, markers, fabric scraps, cottons, colored paper scraps, scissors
- A power point of different New Year's days
- New Year story I (story cards)
- New Year story II (story cards)
- A video clip of the song "Happy New Year Song (na, na, na, na, na)
- A chart of the song's lyrics
- Small pieces of paper
- Paper leaves
- Snakes and ladders board game
- Dice
- Game markers (e.g. shell, seed, stone, etc.)
- Dress up party costumes
- Dolls or cartoon characters
- Dialogue cards

Weekly outlook:

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3
Circle time	<u>Language Play and Physical Play:</u> Guess and answer questions Listen and repeat Sing and dance Mime and guess	<u>Language Play and Physical Play:</u> Guess and answer questions Listen and repeat Sing and dance Whisper and speak	<u>Language Play and Physical Play:</u> Sing and dance Tell a story Write and act Guess
Center	<u>Creative Play:</u> - Creating a New Year's resolution tree <u>Games with Rules:</u> - Snakes and Ladders – New Year's resolutions <u>Pretend Play:</u> - Pretend New Year party		
Crystallization	Investigating opinions and attitudes		

Procedures (PLL)

Steps	Content	Classroom activities	Materials	Assessment and Evaluation
1. Circle time Day 1 (15-20 mins)	Vocabulary and language structure review and practice - Mime and guess	Language Play and Physical Play: - Ss sit together in circle. - T reviews New Year's days of different culture (Thai, Western, and Chinese). - T introduces a New Year story I, which will include different toys telling about their New Year's resolutions. - T shows each page of the story card and ask simple question for Ss to guess, "What is his/her New Year's resolutions?" - Then, T reads the answer for Ss to listen and repeat. - T places each story card on the board. - T introduces a song called "Happy New Year Song (na, na, na, na, na)." - Ss learn to sing and dance. <u>Round:</u> - T mimes one New Year resolution and asks Ss to guess. - Ss are divided into two teams and sit in rows. - The first S of each team takes turn to come to the T to look at a story card and mime to their friends to guess. - The team that gets the answer correctly earns one point. - After that, the S moves to the other end of the row.	- A power point of different New Year's days - New Year story I (story cards) - A video clip of the song "Happy New Year Song (na, na, na, na, na)" - A chart of the song's lyrics	N/A
1. Circle time Day 2 (15-20 mins)	Vocabulary and language structure review and practice - Whispering game	Language Play and Physical Play: - Ss sit together in circle. - T reviews New Year's days of different culture (Thai, Western, and Chinese). - T introduces a New Year story II, which will include different toys telling about their New Year's resolutions. - The teaching steps will run as same as the Day 1's. <u>Round:</u> - Ss are divided into two teams to play a whispering game. - Each team sends the first person of the row to the T. - S/he listens and goes back to whisper to his/her friend next to him/her. The friend repeats the message by whispering to the next one until the last friend in the row. - The last S says the sentence aloud whatever s/he hears.	- A power point of different New Year's days - New Year story II (story cards) - A video clip of the song "Happy New Year Song (na, na, na, na, na)" - A chart of the song's lyrics	N/A

Steps	Content	Classroom activities	Materials	Assessment and Evaluation
		- The team that gets the correct answer earns a point.		
1. Circle time Day 3 (15-20 mins)	Vocabulary and language structure review and practice - The New Year story I and II	Language Play and Physical Play: - Ss sit together in circle. - T and Ss sing the song, “Happy New Year Song (na, na, na, na, na,).” - T shows each page of the New Year story I and II. Ss retell the story from the story cards. Round: - Ss write their own New Year’s resolutions on a small piece of paper. They do not reveal that paper to anyone. - Each S takes turns going in front of the class, gives the paper to the T, and acts. - The friends who guess correctly get one point. - T reveals the real message.	- New Year story I and II (story cards) - A video clip of the song “Happy New Year Song (na, na, na, na, na) - A chart of the song’s lyrics - Small pieces of paper	N/A
2. Centers (25-30 mins)	2.1) Creating a New Year’s resolution tree	Creative Play: - Ss get at least one paper leaf and write down their New Year’s resolutions. - Ss create a tree by attaching those leaves and help decorate the tree.	- Art box - Paper leaves	N/A
	2.2) Snakes and Ladders – New Year’s resolutions	Games with Rules: - T and Ss play the board game snakes and ladders – New Year’s resolutions together. - The player needs to say the sentence of a picture or a word in the square where s/he lands on. - The one who goes to the finish first wins the game.	- Snakes and ladders board game - Dice - Game markers (e.g. shell, seed, stone, etc.)	N/A
	2.3) Pretend New Year party	Pretend Play: - Ss dress up party costumes; for example, wearing hat, hanging on the decorations, holding a cup of drink, etc. - Ss get a dialogue card of asking about their friends’ New Year’s resolutions. - Ss select different dolls they like, pretend playing party, and converse the dialogues.	- Dress up party costumes - Dolls or cartoon characters - Dialogue cards	N/A
3. Crystallization (10 mins)	Investigating opinions and attitude	T asks about how Ss play in their centers and how they feel about the play. - Ss sit together in circle - Ss take turn to talk about what they play at the centers or about their work. - Ss take turn to talk about how they feel (e.g. whether they like or dislike what they play)	- The play objects Ss make or use	N/A

Remarks:

The New Year Story I and II are adapted from the concept retrieved from Toy New Years Resolutions Barbie Cookie Monster, Batman, McQueen, Elmo Eat Play Doh, Toy Story Rex:
<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6nJK9xwSBCg>

Happy New Year Song (na, na, na, na, na,): <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0soawtYqFOo>

Hey! Hey!

Here's to the girls singing, na, na, na, na, na

Here's to the boys singing, na, na, na, na, na

Everyone around is singing, na, na, na, na, na

Jump, scream and shout, singing, na, na, na, na, na

The old year's out. Let the new year in.

*Everyone around the world's jumping up and down, singing

Happy New Year, na, na, na, na, na (x4)

** Throw your hands up in the air. Count it down like Time Square.

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

Happy New Year, na, na, na, na, na (x4)



Appendix D: PLL pre- and post-tests

PLL pre- and post-tests

Student's name: _____ Date: _____ Score: ____/30

3 = excellent 2 = satisfactory 1 = improvement needed 0 = not achieved

Objectives	Themes	PLL activities	Directions and descriptions	√	Performance scores (3-0)	Testing aids	Remarks
1. Identify familiar words and/or objects	2) Clothes 7) Home 12) Food	Physical Play	1) Playing "I spy":- Pick up a thing or a picture that you hear a) I spy a t-shirt b) I spy a swimsuit. c) I spy soap. d) I spy a refrigerator. e) I spy a hamburger. f) I spy rice.		____ / 3	- A t-shirt, a shirt, a swimsuit, a jacket - Pictures of soap, a refrigerator, sofa, a spoon - Small toy or pictures of hamburger, salad, sandwich, rice	
2. Act following to verbal instructions	3) Routine 9) Sports 11) My town	Physical Play	2) Act and guess:- Playing "Whispering game" - One T whispers to the S. S/he acts out to another T to guess. a) Wake up b) Brush my teeth c) Play basketball d) Run e) Go to a hospital f) Go to a bookstore		____ / 3	- Gestures	
3. Listen and repeat chants and rhymes, and sing songs	1) My body 4) Sickness	Language Play	3) Listen to the line of a lyric and repeat after me?:- When I say "This is ME!", you repeat after me saying "This is ME!" a) Can you repeat after me? It's the song called "This is ME!"		____ / 3	- Gestures - The song's lyrics	

Objectives	Themes	PLL activities	Directions and descriptions	√	Performance scores (3-0)	Testing aids	Remarks
			* The songs' lyrics are shown in the end of this table. 4) Listen to the line of a chant of sickness and repeat after me?:- When I say "I have a bruise", you repeat after me saying "I have a bruise" b) Can you repeat after me the chant of sickness? * The chant of sickness is shown in the end of this table.		____ / 3	- An accordion-fold brochure of sickness	
4. Answer simple questions or statement about people, pictures, and objects	6) Family 14) New Year	Language Play	5) Can you tell me...? <u>Ex.</u> What's your name? a) How old are you? b) How many brothers and sisters do you have? c) What's your father's name? <u>Ex.</u> Do you know New Year? d) When is Thai New Year? e) When is Western New Year? f) What are you gonna do on New Year?		____ / 3	- Family finger puppets	
5. Exchange personal or object information; initiate and respond to simple statements	1) My body 3) Routine 6) Family 8) School	Creative Play	6) A 6-square storyboard of a superhero is provided for student. One square is left empty for the S to draw a picture of superhero's family members.		____ / 3	- A 6-square storyboard of a superhero - Colored pencils - Crayons	

Objectives	Themes	PLL activities	Directions and descriptions	√	Performance scores (3-0)	Testing aids	Remarks
			a) Can you draw family members for the superhero? b) How many people are there in the family? c) Have they got long arms?				
6. Ask for and give information, or answer questions	4) Sickness 7) Home 8) School	Games with Rules	7) Situation: A superhero sees a woman who needs help. She wants the superhero to help find her lost English book. (T plays a woman; S plays the superhero). T starts the conversation and asks some mediated questions, for instances: a) Is it in the book bag? b) Is it under the desk? c) Is it in the bathroom? d) Where is my English book? Do you see my English book?		____ / 3	- A game sheet – Finding the T’s English book - Small characters – a superhero and a woman - A picture card of a town	
		Pretend Play	8) Situation: The superhero flies around the town and sees a kitten on a tree. He helps the kitten but accidentally hit his head to the tree. He has a cut and a bump. Let’s take him to the hospital! (T plays a doctor; S plays the superhero – to speak the expected dialogues). For examples:		____ / 3	- Small characters – a superhero and a doctor - A picture card of a town - Doctor kits	

Objectives	Themes	PLL activities	Directions and descriptions	√	Performance scores (3-0)	Testing aids	Remarks
			Doctor: What's the matter? Superhero: I have a cut and a bump. Superhero: What should I do? Doctor: You should have a bandage on it. And, you should take medicine.				
7. Give information or opinions about oneself, people, and the environment	11) My town 14) New Year		9) Now, let's look at the story cards. It's about New Year's day. <u>Ex.</u> Do you know Thai New Year's day? a) What do you think about Thai New Year's day? b) What is it about? c) What are you going to do? What's your New Year's resolution?		___ / 3	- The story cards of New Year's day	
8. Express feelings of like or dislike about various objects and activities	9) Sports 12) Food 13) Fruit and Vegetable		10) We have parties on New Year's day. There are a lot of food and fun. a) Do you like New Year? b) Do you like to <u>play games/swim</u> on New Year's day? c) Do you like pizza? d) Do you like broccoli? Do you like ice-cream? Do you like broccoli ice-cream?		___ / 3	- The story cards of New Year's day	

Remarks:**LYRICS OF THE SONGS****Kids Body Parts Song (This is ME!):** <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QkHQ0CYwjaI>

Head, eyes, nose, mouth, ears, chin,

Arms, hands, fingers, legs, feet, toes,

This is me. Here we go.

My head, my eyes, my nose! This is me.

My mouth, my ears, my chin! This is me.

This is me (x3).

Arms, hands, fingers, legs, feet, toes.

My arms, my hands, my fingers! Count with me.

1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

My legs, my feet, my toes! Count with me.

1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

This is me. Here we go.

This is me (x3). This is me (x3).

This is me (x3). This is me (x3).

A chant of sickness in an Accordion-fold brochure of sickness (adapted from Learn Health Vocabulary! (Phrases 1): <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=do4mMBvrJH8>)

I have a bruise.

I have a bump.

I have a cough.

I have a cut.

I have diarrhea.

I have a fever.

I have a headache.

I have a loose tooth.

I have a runny nose.

I have a scratch.

I have a stomachache.

You should go to bed.

You should have a bandage on it.

You should take a hot bath.

You should lie down.

You should put an icepack on it.

You should stretch it out.



Appendix E: Oral language performance checklist—Unit 1, Theme 5

Oral Language Performance Checklist Review Unit 1 on week 5 (A Super doctor)

Student's name: _____ Date: _____ Score: ____/30

3 = excellent 2 = satisfactory 1 = improvement needed 0 = not achieved

Objectives	Themes	Play activities	Directions / Descriptions / Example words and sentences	Performance				Remarks
				3	2	1	0	
1. Identify familiar words and/or objects	2) Clothes	Physical Play	1) Playing "I spy":- Pick up a thing or a picture that you hear a) I spy a swimsuit. c) I spy a t-shirt. d) I spy a jacket.					
2. Act following to verbal instructions	1) My body	Physical Play	2) Act and guess:- Playing "Whispering game" - One T whispers to the S. S/he acts out to another T to guess. a) Wake up b) Brush my teeth c) Eat breakfast d) Go to bed					
3. Listen and repeat chants and rhymes, and sing songs	1) My body 4) Sickness	Language Play	3) Listen and repeat a song after me? a) Can you repeat after me? It's the song called "Superhero."					
			4) Listen and repeat the chant after me? b) Can you repeat after me the chant of sickness?					
4. Answer simple questions or statement about people, pictures, and objects	2) Clothes 4) Sickness	Language Play	5) Can you tell me...? a) What do you wear in summer? b) What do you wear in winter? c) What's the matter?					
5. Exchange personal or object information; initiate and respond to simple statements	1) My body 3) Routine	Creative Play	6) Create a paper superhero. a) Can you create a paper doll of a superhero? b) Has he got long arms? c) Can he fly?					
		Games with Rules	7) Playing Snakes and Ladders game a) What does he do? b) What is his routine?					
6. Ask for and give information, or answer questions	2) Clothes 4) Sickness	Pretend Play	8) Pretend a super doctor a) What's the matter? b) I have a <u>headache</u> . c) You should <u>take medicine</u> .					

Objectives	Themes	Play activities	Directions / Descriptions / Example words and sentences	Performance				Remarks
				3	2	1	0	
7. Give information or opinions about oneself, people, and the environment	1) My body 3) Routine		9) What do you think? a) What body parts have your superhero got? b) Do you think he has got big hands? c) What is his routine?					
8. Express feelings of like or dislike about various objects and activities	2) Clothes 4) Sickness		10) Do you like? How do you feel? a) Do you like a skirt/shorts? Do you like to wear a skirt/shorts in winter? b) When do you wear sunglasses? How do you feel? c) When you're sick, do you like to see a doctor?					

The song's lyrics "Superhero": <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AWI6P62TvfU>

I'm gonna be a superhero when I grow up
When I grow up next year.

I'm gonna be a superhero when I grow up
Flying so high in the air.

I'm gonna fly, fly, fly. (2 times)

I'm gonna be a superhero when I grow up.

Swim with my arms through the sea.

I'm gonna be a superhero when I grow up.

A superhero fish I'll be.

I'm gonna swim, swim, swim. (2 times)

I'm gonna be a superhero when I grow up
And, climb up the building walls.

I'm gonna be a superhero when I grow up
And, climb up the mountaintop.

I'm gonna climb, climb, climb. (2 times)

I'm gonna be a superhero when I grow up

With muscles bigger than me.

I'm gonna be a superhero when I grow up

The strongest hero I'll be.

I'm gonna be strong, strong, strong. (2 times)

I'm gonna be a superhero when I grow up
And, no-one will stop me.

I'm gonna be a superhero when I grow up
Faster than fast I'll be.

I'm gonna be fast, fast, fast. (2 times)

I'm gonna be a superhero when I grow up

When I grow up next year.

I'm gonna be a superhero when I grow up

Saving people everywhere.

But, till then, I'll be your friend.

You're my best superhero, friend.

A chant of sickness

I have a bruise.
I have a bump.
I have a cough.
I have a cut.
I have diarrhea.
I have a fever.
I have a headache.
I have a loose tooth.
I have a runny nose.
I have a scratch.
I have a stomachache.

You should go to bed.
You should have a bandage on it.
You should take a hot bath.
You should lie down.
You should put an icepack on it.
You should stretch it out.



Appendix F: Oral language performance checklist—Unit 2, Theme 10

Oral Language Performance Checklist Review Chapter 2 on week 10 (A sporting family)

Student's name: _____ Date: _____ Score: ____/30

3 = excellent 2 = satisfactory 1 = improvement needed 0 = not achieved

Objectives	Themes	Play activities	Directions / Descriptions / Example words and sentences	Performance				Remarks
				3	2	1	0	
1. Identify familiar words and/or objects	6) Family 7) Home	Physical Play	1) Using finger puppets and flashcards for Ss to see and say the words about family and home. a) Mother b) Bedroom c) Toilet					
2. Act following to verbal instructions	9) Sports	Physical Play	2) Act and guess:- Playing – moving around to locate things in the room a) Swim b) Skate c) Jog Playing – please pass me the... d) Crayon e) Pencil case f) Stapler					
3. Listen and repeat chants and rhymes, and sing songs	7) Home 8) School	Language Play	3) Listen and repeat a song after me? a) Can you repeat after me? It's the song called "School song."					
			4) Listen and repeat the chant after me? b) Can you repeat after me the chant of home? (back-chaining)					
4. Answer simple questions or statement about people, pictures, and objects	6) Family 9) Sports	Language Play	5) Can you tell me...? a) How old are you? b) How many brothers and sisters do you have? c) What sports does your father like (to play)? d) Does <u>your sister</u> like to play badminton?					
5. Exchange personal or object information; initiate and respond to	6) Family 9) Sports	Creative Play	6) Create a photo frame of a sporting family a) Can you draw a sporting family? b) Who are they? c) What sports does the mother play?					

Objectives	Themes	Play activities	Directions / Descriptions / Example words and sentences	Performance				Remarks
				3	2	1	0	
simple statements								
6. Ask for and give information, or answer questions	7) Home 8) School	Games with Rules	7) Moving dictation to find things (taking turns asking and answering) a) Where is the eraser? b) How many tables are there in the room? c) What sport does the mother play?					
		Pretend Play	8) Pretend visiting friends' houses – playing hide-seek a) What room is it? b) Where is the red pillow?					
7. Give information or opinions about oneself, people, and the environment	6) Family 7) Home		9) What do you think? a) What can you play with your family? b) Who play sports in the family? / Does your father play sports? c) What do you do in the Pretend play?					
8. Express feelings of like or dislike about various objects and activities	9) Sports		10) Do you like? How do you feel? a) Do you like to play the game Moving Dictation? b) What sports do you like to play? c) Do you like to play soccer?					

School song. Learn English with teachkidsenglish.com:

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=D1zf1mnFK_4

This is my table. This is my chair.

This is my bag that I take everywhere.

Sit down. Stand up. One, two, three.

School, school, school for you and me.

This is my pencil. This is my pen.

I use my school things again and again.

Sit down. Stand up. One, two, three.

School, school, school for you and me.

This is the window. This is the door.

This is the ceiling. This is the floor.

Sit down. Stand up. One, two, three.

School, school, school for you and me.

The Chant about home**(adapted from Rooms in your Home. Home vocabulary. Easy English Conversation Practice.:****<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TTctuRzBVMA> and Kids Learn About Home - Great****Ending!:** <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FVHzyoYan1Y>

Where's the soap?	bathroom / in the bathroom / The soap is in the bathroom.
Where's the toothbrush?	bathroom / in the bathroom / The toothbrush is in the bathroom.
Where's the toilet?	bathroom / in the bathroom / The toilet is in the bathroom.
Where's the shower?	bathroom / in the bathroom / The shower is in the bathroom.
Where's the pillow?	bedroom / in the bedroom / The pillow is in the bedroom.
Where's the alarm clock?	bedroom / in the bedroom / The alarm clock is in the bedroom.
Where's the blanket?	bedroom / in the bedroom / The blanket is in the bedroom.
Where's the wardrobe?	bedroom / in the bedroom / The wardrobe is in the bedroom.
Where's the lamp?	living room / in the living room / The lamp is in the living room.
Where's the sofa?	living room / in the living room / The sofa is in the living room.
Where's the table?	living room / in the living room / The table is in the living room.
Where's the television?	living room / in the living room / The television is in the living room.
Where's the plate?	kitchen / in the kitchen / The plate is in the kitchen.
Where's the spoon?	kitchen / in the kitchen / The spoon is in the kitchen.
Where's the fork?	kitchen / in the kitchen / The fork is in the kitchen.
Where's the sink?	kitchen / in the kitchen / The sink is in the kitchen.
Where's the refrigerator?	kitchen / in the kitchen / The refrigerator is in the kitchen.

Appendix G: Oral language performance checklist—Unit 3, Theme 15

Oral Language Performance Checklist Review Chapter 3 on week 15 (Let's party)

Student's name: _____ Date: _____ Score: ____/30

3 = excellent 2 = satisfactory 1 = improvement needed 0 = not achieved

Objectives	Themes	Play activities	Directions / Descriptions / Example words and sentences	Performance				Remarks
				3	2	1	0	
1. Identify familiar words and/or objects (e.g. names, sounds, colors, food)	12) Food 14) New Year	Physical Play	1) Playing “the Name of” game using flashcards of food and New Year’s party a) Broccoli b) Pizza c) Chinese New Year					
2. Act following to verbal instructions	11) My town	Physical Play	2) Act and guess:- Playing “Whispering game” – Where are you going? a) I’m going to the beach. b) I’m going to the bookstore. c) I’m going to the farm.					
3. Listen and repeat chants and rhymes, and sing songs	12) Food 13) Fruit and vegetable	Language Play	3) Listen and repeat a chant after me? a) Can you repeat after me the chant of food? It’s called “Do you like broccoli ice-cream?”					
			4) Listen and repeat a song after me? b) Can you repeat after me the song called “I like the fruit and the vegetables?”					
4. Answer simple questions or statement about people, pictures, and objects	11) My town 14) New Year	Language Play	5) In the Whispering game, asking and answering the questions as follows: a) When is Thai New Year? b) Where are you going? c) What are you going to do?					
5. Exchange personal or object information; initiate and respond to simple statements	13) Fruit and vegetable 14) New Year	Creative Play	6) Create a New Year’s day picnic a) Can you create a picnic for New Year’s day party? b) What fruits and vegetables do you want to draw? c) What are they?					
6. Ask for and give information,	11) My town 12) Food	Games with Rules	7) A board game about the town a) Where is it? b) Where are you going? c) What are you going to do?					

Objectives	Themes	Play activities	Directions / Descriptions / Example words and sentences	Performance				Remarks
				3	2	1	0	
or answer questions		Pretend Play	8) Pretend preparing the New Year's party a) What food is it? b) What are you going to eat/have? c) What are you going to drink?					
7. Give information or opinions about oneself, people, and the environment	11) My town 14) New Year		9) What do you think? Do you know New Year? a) What are you going to do on New Year's day? b) What are your New Year's resolutions? c) Where are you going in your town?					
8. Express feelings of like or dislike about various objects and activities	12) Food 13) Fruit and vegetable		10) Do you like? How do you feel? a) Do you like to broccoli ice-cream? b) Do you like the Pretend play? c) Do you like the Creative play?					

Do You Like Broccoli Ice-cream?: Food Song: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=frN3nvhIHUk>

Do you like broccoli? Yes, I do (x2).

Do you like ice-cream? Yes, I do (x2).

Do you like broccoli ice-cream? No, I don't. Yucky!

Do you like donuts? Yes, I do (x2).

Do you like juice? Yes, I do (x2).

Do you like Donut Juice? No, I don't. Yucky!

Do you like popcorn? Yes, I do (x2).

Do you like pizza? Yes, I do (x2).

Do you like popcorn pizza? No, I don't. Yucky!

Do you like bananas? Yes, I do (x2).

Do you like soup? Yes, I do (x2).

Do you like banana soup? No, I don't. Yuck!

I like the fruits and the vegetables song: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZbsAmrdFLPM>

(action is adapted from <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9UHdsky75Hg> – I like the flowers)

I like the mushrooms. I like the cucumbers.

I like tomatoes. I like the radishes.

I like the broccoli and the peppers, too.

Vegetables (x4). Vegetables (x4).

I like bananas. I like the apples.

I like the kiwis. I like the pineapples.

I like the pears and grapes, and the mangoes, too.

Fruity (x4). Fruity (x4). Fruity (x4) Fruits.

The "Names of" game (<http://fun.familyeducation.com/games/word-games/45747.html>)

- chant "slap-clap-snap-snap" – replace the part of snap-snap with names.

- So, you slap and clap and say names (fruits and vegetables)

Appendix H: The PLL oral language score and mean score range descriptors

The PLL oral language score descriptors were used as the criteria for oral language ability and it was developed to use with both the PLL pre- and post-tests and the oral language performance checklists. The scores descriptors applied to all ten test items measuring eight objectives by using five types of PLL activities.

Oral language score descriptors

Scale	Description
0	Do not comprehend or act following instructions even with multiple support; and do not communicate information or express feelings or opinions on any topics
1	Can comprehend formulaic language and act following instructions with multiple support of repetition, highly familiar texts, and strong visual aids (including learning materials and gestures); can communicate on familiar topics and express feelings or opinions using single words or phrases
2	Can comprehend and act following instructions with a few repetitions and some visual aids; can communicate in a few topics of everyday situations and express feelings or opinions using short sentences
3	Can comprehend and act following instructions without support; can communicate information on a variety of topics and express feelings or opinions using sentences, and series of sentences with possible details

Mean score range descriptors

Not achieved	= The mean score of a test item ranging from 0 to 0.49 = The mean score of a test and a checklist ranging from 0 to 4.9
Improvement needed	= The mean score of a test item ranging from 0.50 to 1.49 = The mean score of a test and a checklist ranging from 5.0 to 14.9
Satisfactory	= The mean score of a test item ranging from 1.50 to 2.49 = The mean score of a test and a checklist ranging from 15.0 to 24.9
Excellent	= The mean score of a test item ranging from 2.50 to 3.00 = The mean score of a test and a checklist ranging from 25 to 30

Appendix I: Examples of materials development for PLL course

Chapter 1 - Face and Body		
Theme 2 - Clothes	Circle time	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Flashcards of clothes (in summer - shorts, t-shirt, swimsuit, sun glasses) (in winter - scarf, jacket, long sleeves, mittens) (in rainy season - skirt, raincoat, flip-flops, rain boots) - Flashcards of people wearing clothes (ex. He wears shorts in summer.) - A chart of the chant of clothing vocabulary - Items of clothing (mentioned as the above) - A magic bag
	Centers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sketch of paper doll and his/her clothes eg. http://alilactree.tumblr.com/post/25970610959/idareu2bme-paper-doll-blaine-heres-a-blaine http://missmissypaperdolls.blogspot.com/2012/07/lacy-paper-doll-black-and-white.html - A list of questions - Items of clothing for Games and Pretend - Hangers and ropes
Theme 5 – Review (A super doctor)	Circle time	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Video clips of the songs “This is ME!”, “Superhero”, and Wake up! Daily routine - The charts of the songs’ lyrics - Flashcards of clothes - Vocabulary brochure – sickness - Story cards of a super doctor part one and two
	Centers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sketch of paper doll and his/her super doctor clothes - Snakes and Ladders board games – Super doctor - Dice & game markers - Small characters - Doctor’s kits
Theme 9 – Sports	Circle time	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Flashcards of sports - Vocabulary set 1: I like to play (basketball, soccer, baseball, golf, tennis, volleyball, badminton, ping pong) - Vocabulary set 2: I like to (bowl, dive, run, swim, jog, skateboard, rock climbing, ride a bicycle) - Sports’ sentence strips (mentioned as the above) - A soft ball - A magic bag with sports’ equipment (basketball, soccer ball, baseball, golf ball, tennis ball, volleyball, shuttlecock, table tennis racket or ping pong ball, bowling pins, snorkeling goggles, running pants, swimsuit, mini skateboard, rope, climbing harness, mini bicycle or bell)
	Centers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A cardboard stadium - Play dough - Paper & pen - Sentence strips about sports - Role-play cards for each S

Appendix J: Examples of the lesson plans overview

Chapter / Obj.	Structure / Play	Vocabulary	Physical	Language	Creative	Games	Pretend
2. Clothes (1 3 4 6 8)	What do you wear in <u>summer</u> ? I wear <u>shorts</u> . She wears a <u>skirt</u> .	- shorts, t-shirt, swimsuit, sun glasses, scarf, jacket, long sleeves, mittens, skirt, raincoat, flip-flops, rain boots - wear, winter, summer, raining, hot, cold - long, strong, big, fast	- Move/switch places their seating when playing “I spy...” - Wear clothing items	- Listen and repeat - Chant clothing vocabulary - Play “I spy...” - Choose a clothing item and say	Create a paper doll with clothes	Running dressing up!	Pretend dressing up (socio-dramatic)
9. Sports (2 4 5 8)	What sports do you like to play? <u>Do you</u> like to play <u>tennis</u> ? Yes, I like to <u>play tennis</u> . No, I don't like to <u>play tennis</u> . I like to <u>bowl</u> .	- Vocab set1: I like to play (basketball, soccer, baseball, golf, tennis, volleyball, badminton, ping pong) - Vocab set2: I like to (bowl, dive, run, swim, job, skateboard, rock climbing, ride a bicycle)	- Act out imaginary sports for guessing - Throw soft ball to act out	- Listen and repeat sports using back-chaining technique - Guess the actions - Choose different balls or sport equipment and say sentences - Listen and act	Create a sport stadium from play dough	Moving dictation (moving such as running, swimming, jogging, skating)	Pretend role-playing sports (socio-dramatic)
13. Fruit and vegetable (2 3 5 8)	I like the <u>apples</u> . What are they? They are <u>apples</u> . How many are there? There are <u>three apples</u> .	- apple, banana, grape, kiwi, mango, orange, pear, pineapple, strawberry, watermelon - carrot, corn, cucumber, pea, pepper, potato, broccoli, mushroom, radish, tomato	- Dance - Play “The Name of” game (finger snapping) - Move around the paper farm to count fruits and vegetables - Peeking game	- Sing a song “Fruits and Vegetables” - Sing a song “I like the fruits and the vegetables” (sing in choir) - Listen and repeat - Say more fruits and vegetables to sing using the rhythm of the song above	Create a fruit and vegetable hunt game	Whispering drawing	Pretend shopping for fruits and vegetables (make-believe)

Appendix K: An interpretation of PLL pre- and post-test mean scores

Test Item	PLL Pre-test	Description	PLL Post-test	Description	Diff (%)
1	1.83	Satisfactory	3.00	Excellent	39.0
2	1.17	Improvement needed	3.00	Excellent	61.0
3	1.92	Satisfactory	2.92	Excellent	33.3
4	1.58	Satisfactory	2.92	Excellent	44.7
5	0.75	Improvement needed	2.25	Satisfactory	50.0
6	1.25	Improvement needed	2.75	Excellent	50.0
7	1.08	Improvement needed	2.42	Satisfactory	44.7
8	0.42	Not achieved	2.08	Satisfactory	55.3
9	0.42	Not achieved	1.92	Satisfactory	50.0
10	1.67	Satisfactory	2.92	Excellent	41.7

Appendix L: Comparison of the mean scores of the oral language performance checklists

Paired samples statistics

Samples	N	Mean	SD
Theme 5	12	23.17	4.30
Theme 10	12	26.75	2.93
Theme 15	12	25.58	2.68

Paired samples test

Paired Samples	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Theme 5 – Theme 10	12	-3.58	4.08	-3.04	11	.011
Theme 5 – Theme 15	12	-2.42	3.53	-2.37	11	.037
Theme 10 – Theme 15	12	1.17	3.21	1.26	11	.235

Appendix M: An interpretation of oral language performance checklists' mean scores

Test Item	Unit 1 Theme 5	Description	Unit 2 Theme 10	Description	Unit 3 Theme 15	Description	Modes
1	2.83	Excellent	2.92	Excellent	2.83	Excellent	Interpretive
2	2.67	Excellent	2.92	Excellent	2.75	Excellent	
3	2.67	Excellent	3.00	Excellent	3.00	Excellent	
4	2.67	Excellent	2.92	Excellent	3.00	Excellent	
5	2.25	Satisfactory	2.50	Excellent	1.67	Satisfactory	Interpersonal
6	2.08	Satisfactory	2.83	Excellent	2.83	Excellent	
7	2.00	Satisfactory	2.33	Satisfactory	2.17	Satisfactory	
8	1.42	Improvement needed	2.50	Excellent	2.67	Excellent	Presentational
9	2.33	Satisfactory	2.33	Satisfactory	1.75	Satisfactory	
10	2.25	Satisfactory	2.50	Excellent	2.92	Excellent	

Appendix N: Frequency of learning and positive affective outcomes categorized by three units and 15 themes

Learning Outcomes / Theme-Week	Unit 1: Face and Body					Unit 2: Family and Friend					Unit 3: Festivals				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
L2 LEARNER STRATEGIES															
1) Use of L1 Translation	7	10	10	40	4	8		3	7		6	6	23	3	3
2) Use of L1 Transfer		1		2		1							1		
3) Peer-assisted Instruction/MKO	10	4	11	17	8	13		4	3		10	1	8		
Scaffolding	35	10	19	31	9	12		1	7		1	15	33	6	1
4) Negotiation of Meaning			1	5	3	3			1		2		3		
5) Non-verbal cues/responses	11	10	21	35	12	10		1	2		12	9	8		
6) Metacognition	6	1	4	11	6	1		1				1	3		
7) Apply to other contexts/themes/real-world	3			3	3				1		3		2	6	1
8) Unknown-word substitution		2	1	2	2	1			3		1		3	1	
9) Interactional Modification															
9.1) Self-and other-repetition/reinforcement	17	9	24	32	7	9	1	5	4	1	1	11	21		
9.2) Self-and peer-repairs	8	1			2	8						2	5		
9.3) Recast	2	1			3							2	1		
9.4) Clarification request	6	2	4	5	5	7		1			2		4	1	
9.5) Confirmation check				7	2	6						2	1	1	1
9.6) Code mixing	5	4	1	17	2	3		4			2	2	7	1	1
10) Item-based construction (IBC)															
10.1) Chunks/Open slot/Language patterns)	22	8	15	31	10	8	1	1	6		7	13	28	3	
10.2) Full sentence response	1	1	9	4	8	18		3	15	1	2	4	8	2	2
POSITIVE AFFECTIVE OUTCOMES															
11. Enjoyment	11	14	10	35	11	7	1	1	1	1	2	8	15	1	2
12. Spontaneity	2		2	4		4			13		1	4			
13. Absence from fear of failure	3	2		3					1				1	1	
14. Creativity	10	3	4	23	2	15			6		9	11	6		
15. Enthusiastic participation	3	6		8	8	9			5	3	5	3	2	1	4





Appendix O: Basic symbols for the participants' dialogues transcription

<u>Symbol</u>	<u>Meaning</u>	<u>Explanation</u>
[]	overlap	the overlapped talk with another's
#	pause	pause duration for half a second
:	lag/prosodic lengthening	lengthening duration for half a second
{ }	explanation	the additional explanation of the shown behaviors
()	translation/details	translation from Thai to English, and additional details of the instructions
>	softer	decreasing from louder to softer sound
<	louder	increasing from softer to louder sound
/ /	pronunciation	the actual sound pronounced
=	connected talk	no gap between the end of one's talk and the beginning of another's talk
x	unclear word/sound	one unclear word/sound

Appendix P: Child reporting of attendance and participation

(Adapted from McAfee & Leong, 2011, p. 174)

Week: _____ Theme: _____

	Tue.	Wed.	Thu.
Circle Time 			
Creative Play 			
Games with Rules 			
Pretend Play 			

Appendix Q: Semi-structured interview after Unit 1, Theme 5

A list of sample questions for students after unit 1

What the student says/reflects about the course is that ...

- 1) What did you play today? (e.g. Why do you like to play with this toy?)
วันนี้เล่นอะไร ทำไมถึงเลือกเล่นฐานนี้หรือของเล่นชิ้นนี้
- 2) Where/what center did you play today?
วันนี้เล่นที่เซ็นเตอร์หรือฐานไหน
- 3) How did you feel about today's play activities?
หนูรู้สึกอย่างไรกับกิจกรรมการเล่นในวันนี้
- 4) What did you initiate (things) by yourself?
วันนี้หนูริเริ่ม (หรือสร้างหรือคิดประดิษฐ์) อะไร
- 5) How did you feel if it won't come out as expected? Why (not)?
แล้วรู้สึกอย่างไรถ้ามันไม่เหมือนที่ตั้งใจเอาไว้ เพราะอะไร
- 6) What do you normally play at home?
ปกติเล่นอะไรบ้างอยู่ที่บ้าน
- 7) What center did you like the most?
ชอบเซ็นเตอร์หรือฐานไหน
- 8) Who did you like to play with? Why (not)?
ชอบเล่นกับใคร, เพราะอะไร ไม่ชอบเล่นกับใคร, เพราะอะไร
- 9) What play materials did / didn't you like to play with? Why/Why not?
ชอบอุปกรณ์หรือของเล่นอันไหนบ้าง, เพราะอะไร ไม่ชอบอันไหนบ้าง, เพราะอะไร
- 10) What play theme did you like? Why (not)?
ชอบเล่นกิจกรรมหัวข้อไหน (ร่างกาย, เสื้อผ้า, กิจวัตรประจำวัน, อากาศเจ็บป่วย) เพราะอะไร
ไม่ชอบเล่นกิจกรรมหัวข้อไหน เพราะอะไร
- 11) How did you feel when we spoke English while playing? Why (not)?
หนูรู้สึกอย่างไรที่เราใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเวลาเล่นหรือทำกิจกรรมกัน เพราะอะไร
- 12) What stimulated your oral English interaction? Why (not)?
หนูคิดว่าอะไรช่วยทำให้หนูอยากฟังและพูดภาษาอังกฤษ
- 13) What made you feel engaged with PLL course? Why (not)?
หนูคิดว่าอะไรช่วยทำให้หนูอยากเข้าร่วมการเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ เพราะอะไร
- 14) What is your opinion toward overall PLL activities? Why (not)?
หนูคิดว่าการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษแบบเล่นเป็นฐาน (แบบที่เราเรียนและเล่น กันแบบนี้) เป็นอย่างไรบ้าง?
(ถ้านักเรียนยังไม่สามารถตอบได้ ค่อยถามนำเป็นตัวอย่างเช่น ดีหรือไม่ดี ชอบหรือไม่ชอบ อย่างไร นำไปสู่ข้อ 15)
- 15) Can you compare and contrast your regular English language classroom and PLL classroom?
หนูคิดว่าห้องเรียนภาษาอังกฤษที่หนูเรียนปกติกับห้องเรียนแบบเล่นเป็นฐาน (แบบที่เราเรียนและเล่นกันแบบนี้) ต่างกันอย่างไร

Appendix R: List of experts validating instruments**Lesson plans for the development of the course conducted by PLL activities**

Kirati Khuvasanond, Ph.D.

Division of Elementary Education, Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University

Nopphawan Chimroylarp, Ph.D.

Division of Curriculum and Instruction, Faculty of Education, Kasetsart University

Assistant Professor Poranat Kitroongrueng, Ph.D.

Division of Elementary Education, Faculty of Education, Silpakorn University

Research instruments

Assistant Professor Kittitouch Soontornwipast, Ed.D.

Language Institute Thammasat University, Thammasat University

Pramarn Subphadoongchone, Ph.D.

Chulalongkorn University Language Institute, Chulalongkorn University

Assistant Professor Worawan Hemchayart, Ph.D.

Division of Early Childhood Education, Chulalongkorn University

Appendix S: List of volunteer teachers, teacher assistants, illustrators, and camera operators**Volunteer teachers**

Mr. Anupong Tuaynak

Mr. Kitipat Chutichaiwirath

Ms. Thida Nipitwittaya

Mr. Kamron Phungphai

Ms. Buppha Rodneam

Illustrator

Ms. Nantawan Jekjantuk

Camera operators

Ms. Chutinat Boonprakom

Ms. Jariyaporn Sawatpoon

Ms. Wachiraporn Sathiraphan

Ms. Napaporn Thanormponkrang

Ms. Nuttharika Tuntithanakij

Ms. Parima Suksathaworapan

Mr. Sapiyawat Tantidit

Mr. Wisan sritassanee



VITA

Rin Cheep-Aranai is an English Lecturer in the Foreign Language Teaching Division at the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, Faculty of Education, Silpakorn University, Thailand. She teaches content courses in the fields of children's language learning and ESP. Her main research interests include second language acquisition, young language learners, English for business, and curriculum design. Her recent publications are on English for young language learners, digital storytelling, business English, and extensive reading.

