CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter focuses on several topics, the ideas, finished thesis, generalization or conclusions, methodologies and others. Those that were included in this chapter help in familiarizing information that are relevant and similar to the present study and are presented in the following topics:

1. The basic Education core curriculum; Learning Area of Foreign Languages
2. Vocabulary
3. Game
4. Lesson plan
5. Attitude
6. Relevant research studies

2.1 The basic Education core curriculum; Learning Area of Foreign Languages

2.1.1 The Importance of Foreign Language Learning

In the present global society, learning foreign languages is very important and essential to daily life, as foreign languages serve as an important tool for communication, education, seeking knowledge, livelihood and creating understanding of cultures and visions of the world community. Foreign languages enable learners to be aware of diversity of cultures and viewpoints in the world community, conducive to friendship and cooperation with various countries. They contribute to learners' development by giving learners better understanding of themselves and others. The learners are thus able to learn and understand differences of languages and cultures, customs and traditions, thinking, society, economy, politics and administration. They will be able to use foreign languages for communication as well as for easier and wider access to bodies of knowledge, and will have vision in leading their lives (Ministry of educationcommission, 2008, p. 1).

2.1.2 Nature of Foreign Language Learning

Learning foreign languages is different from other learning areas since learners do not learn languages for seeking language knowledge but they learn them as a key for communication in any situation both in their real life and in their livelihood. The use of accurate, fluent and suitable language is dependent skill of language usage. Therefore, good language teaching and learning management will enable learners to increase their time in practicing language skills, both inside and outside the classroom. Teaching and learning processes must correspond to the nature and characteristics of language. A variety of teaching and learning management activities should be organized in language class including both language skills practice and activities that improve the self acquisition of language. This will lead learners to become learner-independent and become lifelong learners by using foreign language as a tool in seeking knowledge for other learning areas, to further education and to use in livelihood. Learners are the one major purpose of language learning reform (Office of education council, 2004, pp. 2 - 3).

2.1.3 Visions of Foreign Language Learning

In language teaching and learning management in the basic education core curriculum, it is expected that language learners learn the language constantly from elementary to secondary education level, it is expected that learners will have a good attitude toward learning foreign languages and will be able to use them to communicate in different situations, acquire knowledge and pursue further education. Foreign language learners will have knowledge and understanding of events and the diversity of cultures within the global community and also be able to transfer their concepts and Thai culture to global society creatively (Office of education council, 2004, pp. 2- 3).

2.1.4 Goals of Learning Processes

The Office of the Education Council (2004, pp. 3 - 5) explains that teaching and learning foreign language is a complex procedure that depends on the relationship between learners and the instructor, theoretical principles and the divers procedures of learning and teaching. Teaching and learning English for communication emphasize practical learning processes, adopting language usage in meaningful communication, defining goals in using language for communication in

real life, especially using suitable language with social situations. Therefore, teaching and learning processes will lead learners to gain opportunities to practice language usage and to have skills in seeking knowledge from the diversity of knowledge sources in teaching and learning activities. Instructor should select learning strategies and learning styles that suit the learners' age and level. Learning strategies consist of communication strategies, recognition skills, question skills, considerate thinking skills, creative thinking skills, self-evaluation, self-learning planning, using a variety of learning and working with other learners. Child centered learning was brought into use in teaching and learning to let the learners gain opportunities to practice and use language following their interests. Child-centered learning should consist of : 1) choosing learning activity styles and materials that suit the learners' status and characteristics, encouraging learners to practice happily in the learning process, and considering integrative learning management, cooperative learning management, a whole language approach, communicative language teaching, project based learning and task-based learning. 2) Searching for learning strategies and adapting them suitably with contents that relate to the learners' interest and age as well as corresponding with the learning standards of the school and community.

2.1.5 Foreign Language Indicators and Learning Goals

It is hoped that learners will have a favorable attitude toward foreign languages, the ability to use foreign languages in a variety of situations, to acquire knowledge and to pursue further education at a high level as well as having more knowledge and understanding of the diversity of global cultures, and the ability to transfer concepts and Thai culture to the global community creatively. The main contents of foreign language include:

2.1.5.1 Language for communication: learners should be able to use a foreign language for listening, speaking, reading and writing; exchanging data and information; expressing feelings and opinions; interpreting; presenting data, concepts and views on various matters; and creating interpersonal relationships appropriately.

2.1.5.2 Language and Culture: learners should be able to use foreign languages harmoniously within the culture of native speakers.

2.1.5.3 Language and Relationship with Other Learning Areas: learner should be able to use foreign languages to integrate knowledge in other learning areas, form the basis for further development, seek knowledge and broaden learners' world views.

2.1.5.4 Language and relationship with Community and the World: learners should be able to use foreign languages in various situations, both in the classroom and in the community and the global society, to form a basic tool for further education, exchange learning within the global society.

The Ministry of Education (2008, pp. 2-3) has defined foreign language indicators and core learning areas as four strands and eight learning standards as follows:

Strand 1: Language for Communication

Standard   FL1.1: Understanding with a capacity to interpret what has been heard and read from various types of media, and having the ability to express opinions with proper reasoning.

Standard   FL1.2: Possessing language communication skills for the exchange of data and information; having the ability to efficiently express of feelings and opinions

Standard   FL1.3: Having the ability to present data, information, concepts and views about various matters through speaking and writing.

Strand 2: Language and Culture

Standard   FL2.1: Appreciating the relationship between language and culture of native speakers and having the capacity to use the appropriate language for occasions and places.

Standard   FL2.2: Appreciating similarities and differences between language and culture of native English and Thai speakers, and having the capacity for accurate and appropriate use of language.

Strand 3: Language and Relationship with Other Learning Areas

Standard   FL3.1: Using foreign languages to link knowledge with other learning areas, as a foundation for further development and to seek knowledge and widen one's world view.

Strand 4: Language and Relationship with the Community and the World

Standard FL4.1: Having the ability to use foreign languages in various situations in the school, community and society.

Standard FL4.2: Using foreign languages as basic tools for further education, livelihood and exchange of learning with the world community.

2.1.6 Qualities of Learners

The Office of the education council (2004, p. 5) asserts that foreign language learning areas are a basic learning area of humanity. Learner's development requires competent thinking and creative working for the learners to have the desirable characteristics for the purposes of producing the expected quality of basic education. Learning foreign language will help learners gain wide visions, confident communication with foreigners, good attitudes toward foreign language and culture as well as pride in Thai language and culture. Thai learners will gain the expected qualities when they complete their studies. They will have the following abilities: 1). Are able to use foreign language for communication. 2). Are able to read, write, listen and speak effectively as well as are have aesthetics and creativity. 3). Realize the relationship between language and culture of English-speaking countries. 4). Understand the similarities and the differences between English-speaking countries' language and culture and Thai culture. 5). Are able to use foreign language as a tool in learning, seeking knowledge in further education, livelihood and living happily in society.

The structure of the foreign language learning area curriculum has been defined of the language competency level of learners' development in four stages as follows: 1). Preparatory level in grade 1-3. 2). Beginner level in grade 4-6. 3).Developing level grade 7-9. 4).Expanding level grade 10-12.

Learners' Quality

The quality of Matthayom Suksa 3 (grade 9) student should follow the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008) (Ministry of Education Commission, 2008, p. 253) after graduation as follows:

1. Act in compliance with requests, instructions, clarifications and explanations that they have heard or read; accurately read aloud texts, news,

advertisements, tales and short verses by observing the principles of reading; specify/write various forms of non-text information related to sentences and texts that they have heard and read; choose and specify the topics, main ideas and supporting details, and express opinions about what they have heard or read from various types of media, as well as provide justifications and examples for illustration

2. Converse and write for an exchange of data about themselves, various matters around them, situations and news of interest to society, and communicate such data continuously and appropriately; use appropriate requests, clarifications and explanations and give suitable instructions; speak and write to show needs; offer and provide assistance; accept and refuse to give help; speak and write appropriately to ask for and give data, describe, explain, compare and express opinions about what they have heard or read; speak and write to describe their own feelings and opinions about various matters, activities, experiences and news/incidents, as well as to provide appropriate justifications

3. Speak and write to describe themselves, experiences, news/incidents/ various issues of interest to society; speak and write to summarize the main idea/ theme or topic identified from the analysis of matters/news/incidents/situations of interest; speak and write to express opinions about activities, experiences and incidents, as well as provide justifications

4. Choose appropriate language, tone of voice, gestures and manners by observing social manners and culture of native speakers; explain about the lifestyles, customs and traditions of native speakers; participate in/organize language and cultural activities in accordance with their interests

5. Compare and explain similarities and differences in pronunciation of word orders and sentence structures between foreign languages and Thai language: compare and explain the similarities and differences between the lifestyles and cultures of native speakers and those of Thais.

6. Search for, collect and summarize data/information related to other learning areas from learning sources, and present them through speaking and writing

7. Use language for communication in real situations/simulated situations in the classroom, school, community and society

8. Use foreign languages in searching/conducting research, collecting and drawing conclusions about knowledge/various data sources from the media and various learning sources for further study and livelihood; disseminate/convey to the public data and news about the school, community and local area in foreign languages

9. Be skilful in the use of foreign languages (with emphasis on listening, speaking, reading and writing) to communicate about themselves, their families, schools, the environment, foods, beverages, free time and recreation, health and welfare, buying and selling, climate, education and occupations, travel for tourism, provision of services, places, language and science and technology with a vocabulary of around 2,100-2,250 words (words of higher abstract quality)

10. Use compound and complex sentences to communicate meanings in various contexts for both formal and informal conversations

2.2 Vocabulary

2.2.1 The Definition of Vocabulary

Vocabulary is a sub- skill of learning language (Siriwan, 2007) but it is the most important thing for success in language learning because without vocabulary, we can not guess or understand what we have read or heard. There are many researchers who have defined the meaning of vocabulary as follows:

The Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary defines the term vocabulary is all the words known and used by a particular person and all the words which exist in a particular language or subject.

Taylor (1990, cited in Graves, 2005) defines vocabulary as the entire stock of words belonging to a branch of knowledge or known by an individual. He also states that the lexicon of a language is its vocabulary, which includes words and expressions. Krashen (1998, cited in Herrel, 2004) extends Graves' definition further by stating that lexicon organizes the mental vocabulary in a speaker's mind. An individual's mental lexicon is that person's knowledge of vocabulary (Krashen, 1998, cited in Herrel, 2004). Miller (1999, cited in Zimmerman, 2007) states that vocabulary is a set of words that are the basic building blocks used in the generation and understanding of sentences.

Adger (2002) states that vocabulary is not only confined to the meaning of words but also includes how vocabulary in a language is structured: how people use and store words and how they learn words and the relationship between words, phrases, categories of words and phrases. Hornby (2005, p. 1707) states that there are three definitions of vocabulary. First, vocabulary is the total number of words in a language, every language has its own words and its number of words makes it different from other language. Second, vocabulary is the words known and understood by the learner. Third, vocabulary is a list of words with their meaning especially one that accompanies a text book in a foreign language.

From the definitions mentioned above vocabulary is a set of the words known and used in general conversation to understand a sentence. Words in each language made it different from other language.

2.2.2 The Importance of Vocabulary

Vocabulary is one of the most important components in language learning because vocabulary knowledge helps the learner with reading and listening comprehension, speaking, writing and understanding fluently. Vocabulary is the knowledge of the meaning of words (Hiebert and Kamil, 2005, p. 3). It is the basic building block of language learning (Pollard, Anderson, Maddock, Swaffield, Warin and Warwick, 2008, p. 13), and the center for our ability to communicate or to understand new knowledge (Benjamin and Crow, 2009, p. 2) It means that vocabulary is the basic component in learning language, if the learners want to become skillful in language, they have to have a rich vocabulary first because vocabulary will help them easily to communicate both orally and in writing. Allen (1983, p. 5 cited in Wei-Wei Shen, 2003) also emphasized that "lexical problems frequently interfere with communication; communication breaks down when people do not use the right words". That means vocabulary is important in term of communication and understanding knowledge.

Widdowson (1989, p. 136) and Mc Keown (2002) state that vocabulary knowledge is the heart of language comprehension and use. Additionally, Barra (2005) suggests that to comprehend a text successfully learners need to have sufficient word knowledge. This is to say that the comprehension of a language depends on the amount of vocabulary that is known in that language. Also, learners need to have

sufficient word knowledge to understand what they read. Learners can understand a writer's message only if they know the meaning of most of the words used in a text. Nation (2001) states that readers need to know at least 97% of the vocabulary in a text for an adequate understanding of it. Without knowledge of the key vocabulary in a text, a learner may have serious trouble in understanding the message. Moreover Huckin and Coady (1999, pp. 181-193) mentioned the importance of words: that the learning of words is necessary and it is a necessary ability in comprehensive reading at every education level of English language learners, whether it to be the first or second language. That is, vocabulary knowledge is crucial to reading comprehension and determines how well learners will be able to comprehend the texts they read.

Thornburry (2002) even mentions that without the knowledge of grammar we can convey very little of what we actually want to, but without the presence of vocabulary, we would not be able to convey anything at all. Similarly, Allen (1983) claims that students who learn only grammar rules of the language without learning the vocabulary will not be able to use the language learned for communication purposes. So, most people would say that it is crucial to learn all the grammar rules but in reality grammar and vocabulary have to go together instead of separately.

Siriwan (2007) supported the importance of vocabulary as language learners with vocabulary knowledge can achieve a great deal of success in their classroom, their social life, and in their continuing acquisition of the target language. A large, rich vocabulary gives language learners the right words to use at the right time, and also enables them to express their real thoughts, ideas, and feelings. The lack of knowledge in the vocabulary of the target language will affect one's mastery and hinder one from expressing oneself, (Mc Carthy, 1990).

From the scholars' statements mentioned, we can conclude that vocabulary plays a dominant role in reading and listening comprehension, speaking, writing and understanding a language as well as in communication and seeking new knowledge.

2.2.3 Types of vocabulary

According to information from Judy K. Montgomery's book: The Bridge of Vocabulary: Evidence Based Activities for Academic Success (NCS Pearson Inc, 2007), there are 4 types of vocabulary: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Laflamme (1997) also states that vocabulary instruction was identified in 2000 by the National Reading Panel (NRP) as an essential skill students need to improve reading achievement. The NRP identified four types of vocabulary – listening vocabulary, speaking vocabulary, reading vocabulary, and writing vocabulary.

Listening vocabulary is the words people hear and understand. Starting in the womb, fetuses can detect sounds as early as 16 weeks. Furthermore, babies are listening during all their waking hours – and they continue to learn new words this way all of their lives. By the time they reach adulthood, most of them will recognize and understand close to 50,000 words. (Stahl, 1999 cited in Tompkins, 2005) Children who are completely deaf do not get exposed to a listening vocabulary. Instead, if they have signing models at home or school, they will be exposed to a "visual" listening vocabulary. The amount of words modeled is much less than a hearing child's incidental listening vocabulary.

Speaking vocabulary is the words we use when we speak. Our speaking vocabulary is relatively limited: Most adults use mere 5,000 to 10,000 words for all their conversations and instructions. This number is much less than our listening vocabulary.

Reading vocabulary is the words we understand when we read text. We can read and understand many words that we do not use in our speaking vocabulary. This is the 2nd largest vocabulary if you are a reader. If you are not a reader, you can not "increase" your vocabulary.

Writing vocabulary is the words we can retrieve when we write to express ourselves. We generally find it easier to explain ourselves orally, using facial expression and intonation to help get our ideas across, then to find just the right words to communicate the same ideas in writing. Our writing vocabulary is strongly influenced by the words we can spell.

Some experts divide vocabulary into two types: active and passive vocabulary. Harmer (1991) distinguishes between these two types of vocabulary. The first type of vocabulary refers to the one that the students have been taught and that they are expected to be able to use. Meanwhile, the second one refers to the words which the students will recognize when they meet them, but which they will probably not be able to pronounce.

Haycraft, quoted by Hatch and Brown (1995), indicates two kinds of vocabulary, namely receptive vocabulary and productive vocabulary.

1. Receptive Vocabulary is words that learners recognize and understand when they are used in context, but which they cannot produce. It is vocabulary that learners recognize when they see or meet it in reading text but do not use in speaking and writing (Webb, 2009).

2. Productive Vocabulary is the words that the learners understand and can pronounce correctly and use constructively in speaking and writing. It involves what is needed for receptive vocabulary plus the ability to speak or write at the appropriate time. Therefore, productive vocabulary can be addressed as an active process, because the learners can produce the words to express their thoughts to others (Webb, 2005).

Siriwan (2007, p. 28) groups the four language skills with vocabulary items into two pairs in order to understand how vocabulary items work or relate to the four language skills clearly. There are two ways to do so: Firstly, listening and speaking are the skills necessary in oral communication, they can be grouped together. For some learners, this is the main focus of their interest. Secondly, reading and writing can be grouped together since they are the skills necessary in written communication, and this may be the main focus or motivation for other learners. Alternatively, we can group listening and reading together, since they both are used to understand language which is produced by other people. To this extent, listening and reading are known as receptive skills, and speaking and writing are productive skills.

Based on the type of vocabulary in general, there are four categories of vocabulary learning: listening, speaking, reading, and writing .Listening vocabulary refers to words learners use to understand what they hear. Speaking vocabulary is known as words they use when they speak. Reading vocabulary concerns words in print that they recognize and use to understand what they read, and writing vocabulary involves words they use in their own writing. Pikulski and Templeton (2004, p. 2 cited in Siriwan, 2007, p. 29) have produced a diagram that may make a better understanding of the relationship between vocabulary and the four language skills:
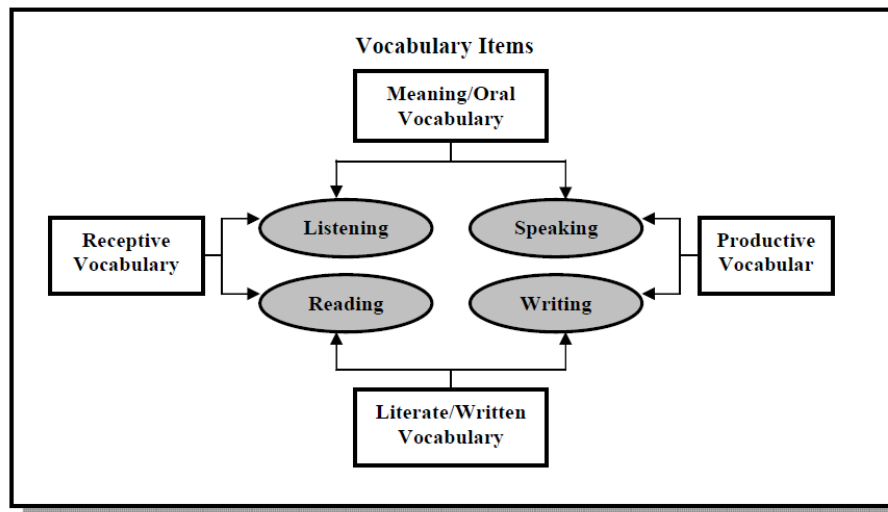
Vocabulary Items

Meaning/Oral Vocabulary

| Listening | Speaking |
| Reading | Writing |

Receptive Vocabulary

Productive Vocabular

Literate/Written Vocabulary

Figure 2.1 Vocabulary and the four language skills. Adapted from Vocabulary Items by Pikulski and Templeton (2004).

Figure 1 demonstrates that vocabulary items play a dominant part in learning to communicate effectively by listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Vocabulary items in the diagram above can be classified in terms of types, meanings, and functions. Based on the diagram, vocabulary is categorized into four main groups as meaning/oral vocabulary, literate/written vocabulary, receptive vocabulary, and productive vocabulary. However, it is obvious that all vocabulary items are overlapped in meanings and functions.

In summary, a vocabulary means both a list of words and the range of words known by any one person. There are four main types of vocabulary: Reading vocabulary is all the words he or she can identify when reading, writing vocabulary is the words that used in various forms of writing from essays to twitter feeds. A writer will have his own preference as to which synonyms to use from the entire word list, Listening vocabulary is all the words a person can recognize when listening to speech or communication and speaking vocabulary is all the words he or she uses in communication.

And vocabulary also can be divided into two kinds depended on a person's knowledge of vocabulary: Active vocabulary or productive vocabulary consists of vocabulary that a person uses for speech or writing that he fully

understands the meanings of the words and passive vocabulary or receptive vocabulary consists of words a person encounters in a newspaper and editorials or in others' speech.

2.2.4 Teaching of vocabulary

Teaching vocabulary may be a problem because many teachers are not confident about the best practice in vocabulary teaching and at times do not know where to begin to form an instructional emphasis on word learning (Berne & Blachowicz, 2008 cited in Mofarenh, 2015). Teaching words is a crucial aspect in learning a language as languages are based on words (Thornbury, 2002 cited in Mofarenh, 2015). It is almost impossible to learn a language without words; even communication between human beings is based on words. Both teachers and students agree that acquisition of the vocabulary is a central factor in teaching a language (Walters, 2004 cited in Mofarenh, 2015). Teaching vocabulary is one of the most discussed parts of teaching English as a foreign language. The problems would appear to be the teachers. They have problems of how to teach students in order to gain satisfying results. The teacher should prepare and find appropriate techniques, which will be implemented with the students. A good teacher should prepare himself or herself with various and up-to-date techniques. Teachers need to be able to master the material in order to be understood by students, and make them interested and happy in the teaching and learning process in the classroom.

Deliberately teaching vocabulary is one of the least efficient ways of developing learners' vocabulary knowledge but nonetheless it is an important part of a well-balanced vocabulary program. The ways and techniques of the vocabulary presentation are important for vocabulary acquisition. The teacher must take into account what item is being presented because some techniques are more suitable for particular word types and some are less. Most of the researchers agree that the item "should not be presented in isolation and should not be learned by rote memorization. It is important that new vocabulary items be presented in context rich enough to provide clues to meaning and those students should be given multiple exposures to items they should learn." (Celce-Murcia, 2001, p. 288).

Nation (1974, p.18) also points out that the meaning of the words must be taught in context, not from lists of unrelated words. For students realize that the

meaning of many words can change according to their use in particular sentences and particular contexts. And students are primarily interested in presenting words to their learners as vehicles for relaying information and ideas. In teaching words, teachers must teach three things (Nation, 1974, p. 18):

1. Teaching the shape or form of the words. There are many ways to teach shape or form and here are some ways which can help the learner perceive the word by means of three separate senses:

Visually – teachers should teach by showing the written form of the word, showing the mouth movements involved in saying the word, showing hand movements that draw the letters of the word in the air or showing wooden or plastic letters that spell the word

Tactilely (meaning the learner use their sense of touch) - teacher should teach them by using letters made of wood, cardboard, sand- paper and so on, so the learners can feel the shapes of the letters that make up the word, using a system of writing like Braille (the writing for the blind), writing the word, letter on the learner's hand.

Aurally – teachers should teach by saying the word, producing the word in Morse code or some other aural code.

2. Teaching the meaning of a word. Here are ways which can help learner understand the meaning of the word by using different approaches:

Demonstration – teachers teach their learners by showing an object or cutout figure, by gestures or by performing an action.

Picture – teachers teach their learners by using photographs, blackboard drawings, illustrations cut from magazines or newspapers

Explanation – teachers teach their learners by description, giving synonyms or opposites, putting the word into a defining context or translating.

3. Teachers can help their learners connect the form of a word with its meaning by presenting the form and meaning together, so that the learner knows they are connected to each other and this knowledge is firmly implanted in their automatic responses.

Celce-Murcia (2001, p. 288) gives an example of word learning technique as follows:

Illustration: This is very useful for more concrete words (dog, rain, tall) and for visual learners. It has its limitation though, as not all items can be drawn.

Mime: This lends itself particularly well to action verbs and it can be fun and memorable.

Synonyms/Antonyms/Gradable items: Using the words a student already knows can be effective for getting meaning across.

Definition: Make sure that it is clear (maybe check in a learner dictionary before the lesson if you are not confident). Remember to ask questions to check students have understood properly.

Translation: If you know the students' L1, then it is fast and efficient. Remember that not every word has a direct translation.

Context: Think of a clear context when the word is used and either describe it to the students or give them example sentences to clarify meaning further.

And here are some techniques for teaching vocabulary as stated by Brewster, Ellis, and Girard, (1992 cited in Mofareh, 2015).

1. Using Objects

Using this technique includes the use of visual aids, and demonstration. They can function to help learners in remembering vocabulary better, because our memory for objects and pictures is very reliable and visual techniques can act as cues for remembering words (Takac, 2008). In addition, Gairns & Redman (1986) state that the use of real objects is appropriately employed for beginners or young learners and when presenting concrete vocabulary. Objects can be used to show meanings when the vocabulary consists of concrete nouns. Introducing a new word by showing the real object often helps learners to memorize the word through visualization. Objects in the classroom or things brought to the classroom can be used.

2. Drawing

Objects can either be drawn on the blackboard or drawn on flash cards. The latter can be used again and again in different contexts if they are made with cards and covered in plastic. They can help young learners easily understand and realize the main points that they have learned in the classroom.

3. Using Illustrations and Pictures

Pictures connect students' prior knowledge to a new story, and in the process, help them learn new words. There is plenty of vocabulary that can be introduced by using illustrations or pictures. They are an excellent means of making the meaning of unknown words clear. They should be used as often as possible. The list of pictures includes: posters, flashcards, wall charts, magazine pictures, board drawings, stick figures and photographs. Pictures for vocabulary teaching come from many sources. Apart from those drawn by the teacher or students, there are sets of colorful pictures intended for schools. Pictures cut out of newspapers; magazines and internet are very useful as well. Nowadays many readers, vocabulary books and course books contain a vast number of attractive pictures that present the meaning of basic words. The teacher can use learning materials provided by the school. They can also make their own visual aids or used pictures from magazines. Visual support helps learners understand the meaning and helps to make the word more memorable.

4. Contrast

Some words are easily explained to learners by contrasting them with their opposite, for instance, the word" good" contrasted with the word "bad". But some words cannot be contrasted. It is almost impossible to contrast the words whose opposite is a gradable one. When the word "white" Is contrasted with the word "black", there is an "in between" word" grey". Furthermore, verb "contrast" means to show a difference, like photos that reveal how much weight someone lost by contrasting the "before" and "after" shots Many more studies have also shown that vocabulary is best acquired if it is similar to what is already learnt (Rudska, Channell, Ostyn and Purseys, 1982, 1985). It is not surprising that learning synonyms is a way to expand our vocabulary. Learning about synonyms is important also because this is how dictionaries are organized. Putting bilingual dictionaries aside, mono-lingual dictionaries essentially use words to explain words, and in this process, synonyms are often used (Ilson, 1991 cited in Mofareh, 2015).

5. Enumeration

An enumeration is a collection of items that is a complete, ordered listing of all of the items in that collection. It can be used to present meaning. In other words, this technique helps when any word is difficult to explain visually. We can say" clothes" and explain this by enumerating or listing various items. Teachers may

list a number of clothes, e.g. address, a skirt, trousers etc, and then the meaning of the word "clothes" will became clear. The same is true of 'vegetable' or "furniture", 'for example (Harmer, 1991).

6. Mime, Expressions and Gestures

Klippel (1994 cited in Mofareh, 2015) implies that "mime" or "gesture" is useful if it emphasizes the importance of gestures and facial expression on communication. At the essence it can not only be used to indicate the meaning of a word found in a reading passage, but also in a speaking activity, as it focuses mostly on communication. Many words can be introduced through mime, expressions, and gestures. For example, adjectives: "sad", "happy"; miming and taking a hat off your head to teach "hat" and so on. Several studies have emphasized the role of gestures in second language (L2) acquisition (Gullberg, 2008). Teachers tend to gesture a lot (Sime, 2001; Hauge, 1999), especially when addressing young learners and/or beginners. It is commonly acknowledged that "teaching gestures" capture attention and make the lesson more dynamic. Using analyses of video recordings of English lessons to French students, Tellier (2007 cited in Mofareh, 2015) determined three main roles for teaching gestures: management of the class (to start/end an activity, to question students, request silence, etc.), evaluation (to show a mistake, to correct, to congratulate, etc.) and explanation (to give indications on syntax, underline specific prosody, explain new vocabulary, etc.). Teaching gestures appear in various forms: hand gestures, facial expressions, mime, body movements, etc. They can either mime or symbolize something and they help learners to infer the meaning of a spoken word or expression, providing that they are unambiguous and easy to understand. This teaching strategy is thus relevant for comprehension (Tellier, 2007). However, its utility may depend on the kind of gesture used by the teacher. It has been highlighted that foreign emblems, for instance, may lead to misunderstandings when it is not known by the learners (Hauge, 1999; Sime, 2001 cited in Mofareh, 2015).

In addition to supporting comprehension, teaching gestures may also be relevant for learners' memorization process. Indeed, many second language teachers who use gestures as a teaching strategy declare that they help learners in the process of memorizing the second language lexicon. Many of them have noticed that learners can retrieve a word easily when the teacher produces the gesture associated with the

lexical item during the lesson. Others have seen learners (especially young ones) spontaneously reproducing the gesture when saying the word. The effect of gestures on memorization is thus something witnessed by many but hardly explored on a systematic and empirical basis (Tellier, 2008 cited in Mofareh, 2015).

7. Guessing from Context

Guessing from context as a way of dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary in unedited selections has been suggested widely by L1 and L2 reading specialists (Dubin, 1993 cited in Mofareh, 2015). Nation and Coady (1988, cited in Mofareh, 2015) claim that there are two types of context. The first type is the context within the text, which includes morphological, semantic and syntactic information in a specific text, while the second one is the general context, or non-textual context, which is the background knowledge the reader has about the subjects being read. Williams (1985 cited in Mofareh, 2015) agrees with Nation and Coady in considering the specific context as the other words and sentences that surround that word it follows that other words in the context of the unfamiliar word often 'throw light on' its meaning. These other words can be found in the sentence containing the unknown word or other sentences beyond the sentence of the unknown item. Similarly, McCarthy (1988 cited in Mofareh, 2015) sees context as within the text itself i.e. the morphological, syntactic, and discourse information, which can be classified and described in terms of general features. Learning from context not only includes learning from extensive reading, but also learning from taking part in a conversation, and learning from listening to stories, films, television or the radio (Nation, 2001 cited in Mofareh, 2015). In order to activate guessing in a written or spoken text, there should be four elements available: the reader, the text, unknown words, and clues in the text including some knowledge about guessing. The absence of one of these elements may affect the learner's ability to guess. Furthermore, this technique encourages learners to take risks and guess the meanings of words they do not know as much as possible. This will help them build up their self-confidence so that they can work out the meanings of words when they are on their own. There are many clues learners can use to establish meanings for themselves, such as illustrations, similarity of spelling or sound in the mother tongue, and general knowledge (Walters, 2004 cited in Mofareh, 2015).

8. Eliciting

This technique is more motivating and memorable by simply giving pupils a list of words to learn.

9. Translation

Even though translation does not create a need or motivation of the learners to think about word meaning (Cameron, 2001), in some situations translation could be effective for teachers, such as when dealing with incidental vocabulary (Thornbury, 2002 cited in Mofareh, 2015), checking students' comprehension, and pointing out similarities or differences between first and second language, when these are likely to cause errors (Takač, 2008 cited in Mofareh, 2015). There are always some words that need to be translated and this technique can save a lot of time.

From the vocabulary teaching techniques mentioned above, we can conclude that teachers cannot teach the words without showing them in a sentence and using a situation. These should be taught together with giving meaning, when and how they are used and also form. Learners will learn the form of the words and their meaning in each situation and can link them to other sentences.

2.3 Game

2.3.1 The Definition of Game

Games are one of the interesting methods to practice English learning because games give learners a good attitude in learning. They will have fun and be able to play and learn at the same time. Game has a wide variety of meanings. According to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, game is a form of competitive activity or sport played according to rules.

Hadfield (1997: cited in Deesri, 2002, p. 1) describes games as an activity with rules and goals and an element of fun. Roger Caillois (1957); French sociologist, in his book "Les Jeux et les Homes" (Men, Play and Games), defined a game as an activity that must have the following characteristics: fun, that is the activity is chosen for its light-hearted character; separate, that means it is circumscribed in time and place; uncertain, that is the outcome of the activity is unforeseeable; non-productive, that means the participation does not accomplish anything useful; governed by rules,

that is the activity has rules that are different from everyday life and fictitious (it is accompanied by the awareness of a different reality). Gibbs (1978: cited in Rixon: 1991, p. 3) states that games are activities that are carried out by cooperating or competing decision makers, seeking to achieve, within set of rules their objectives. And Salen and Zimmerman (2003, p. 70) also state, "A game is a system in which players engage in an artificial conflict, defined by rules, which result in a quantifiable outcome."

Other definitions of games are as follows as: A game is a form of art in which participants; termed *players*, make decisions in order to manage resources through game tokens in the pursuit of a goal. (Costikyan, 1994)

A game is an activity among two or more independent decision-makers seeking to achieve their objectives in some limiting context. (Clark C., 1987)

At its most elementary level then we can define game as an exercise of voluntary control systems in which there is an opposition between forces, confined by a procedure and rules in order to produce a disequilibria outcome (Avedon and Sutton-Smith, 1971).

"A game is a form of play with goals and structure." Maroney (2001).

"to play a game is to engage in activity directed toward bringing about a specific state of affairs, using only means permitted by specific rules, where the means permitted by the rules are more limited in scope than they would be in the absence of the rules, and where the sole reason for accepting such limitation is to make possible such activity." (Suits, 1967)

"When you strip away the genre differences and the technological complexities, all games share four defining traits: a goal, rules, a feedback system, and voluntary participation." (McGonigal, 2011)

In terms of learning language, games are used in learning activities because games are simple structured activities which may contain few language components but are meaningful to students and involve the whole self (Fleta, 2009).

From the definitions of games mentioned above, we can conclude that games are the enjoyable, challenging and competitive activities that must be contained with rules and goals. Games will give the player enjoyment, fun and also use the challenge to solve problem in each level.

2.3.2 Educational Games and the Classification of Educational Games

Educational games are games explicitly designed for educational purposes, or which have incidental or secondary educational value. All types of games may be used in an educational environment. Educational games are games that are designed to help people to learn about certain subjects, expand concepts, reinforce development, understand a historical event or culture, or assist them in learning a skill as they play.

An educational game is a game designed to teach humans about a specific subject and to teach them a skill. As educators, governments, and parents realize the psychological needs and benefits of games on learning, this educational tool has become mainstream. Games are interactive play that teaches us goals, rules, adaptation, problem solving, interaction, all represented as a story. They give us the fundamental needs of learning by providing - enjoyment, passionate involvement, structure, motivation, ego gratification, adrenaline, creativity, social interaction and emotion. "Play has a deep biological, evolutionarily important, function, which has to do specifically with learning." (Prensky, 2011, p. 15)

Educational games are difficult to classify into categories because such categories often overlap. However, they could be classified as follows:

Hadfield (1999) explains two ways of classifying language games. First, she divides language games into two types: linguistic games and communicative games. Linguistic games focus on accuracy, such as supplying the correct antonym. On the other hand, communicative games focus on successful exchange of information and ideas, such as two people identifying the differences between their two pictures which are similar but not exactly alike. Correct language usage, though still important, is secondary to achieving the communicative goal. The second taxonomy that Hadfield uses classifies language games into many more categories. Together with the classification of games as linguistic games or communicative games, some games will contain elements of more than one type. Jacobs and Kline Liu (1996) further classified games into more detailed forms which are composed of both elements defining linguistic and communicative games. Such as:

1. Sorting, ordering or arranging games. For example, students have a set of cards with months, and they have to arrange those cards in order.

2. Information gap games. In such games, one or more people have information that other people do not, and they have to exchange their information to complete a task.

3. Guessing games. These are a variation on information gap games. For instance, one student who has a flash card cannot show it to others but must instead mime it to others, and then other students have to guess the word from his or her performance.

4. Searching games. These games are another version of two-way information games, with everyone seeking and giving information. For example, everyone is given a clue to find out who the criminal is. They have to ask and then reply to their partners to solve the problem.

5. Matching games. As the name implies, participants need to find a match for a word, picture, or card.

6. Labeling games. These are a form of matching game. The only difference is that the participants match labels and pictures.

7. Exchanging games. Many card games fall into this category. In these games, students barter cards, objectives, or ideas.

8. Board games. "Scrabble" is one of the most popular games n this category.

9. Role playing games. The terms role play, drama, and simulation are sometimes used interchangeably but can be differentiated (Kodotchigova, 2002). Role play can involve students playing roles that they do not play in real life, such as dentist, while simulations can involve students performing roles that they already play in real life or might be likely to play, such as customer at a restaurant. Dramas are normally scripted performances, whereas in role plays and simulations, students come up with their own words, although preparation is often useful.

According to Lee (2000), games have been classified into ten kinds. These are structure games which provide experience of the use of particular patterns of syntax in communication, vocabulary games in which the learners' attention is focused mainly on words, spelling games, pronunciation games, number games, listen-and-do games, games and writing, miming and role play, and discussion games.

Another classification of games by McCallum (1980) consists of seven kinds. These are structure games, vocabulary games, number games, spelling games, conversation games, writing games and role play or drama.

According to the classification and type of games mentioned above, researcher used the following games in this research: "Guess the Card Game", "Crosswords Game", "Mime Game", "Who am I?", "Slap game" and "Roll the dice". These were chosen because they are vocabulary games that they can motivate learners, promote learners' interaction, and improve learners' acquisition. As a result, games can increase learners' achievement, which means that learners' test scores, ability of communication, skills, knowledge of vocabulary, or other language skills can improve.

2.3.3 The Importance and Advantage of Games

Language teaching is very hard work for a teacher. Effort is required at every moment and must be maintained over a long period of time. Games are the best way to help and encourage many learners to sustain their interest and work.

Avedon & Sutton-Smith (1971, pp. 28-29 cited in Luu Trong Tuan and Nguyen Thi Minh Doan, 2010) believe, "The main reason that games are considered effective learning aids is that they spur motivation and students get very absorbed in the competitive aspects of the games; moreover, they try harder at games than in other activities".

Wright, Betteridge and Buckby (2005) state that games also help the teacher to create contexts in which the language is useful and meaningful. The learners want to take part and in order to do so must understand what others are saying or have written, and they must speak or write in order to express their own point of view or give information. Thanks to games, shy language learners will have more chances to speak and show their feeling and opinions in English.

Playing games also help teacher and learners with focus, self esteem, and memory because they are being patient while waiting to get the next level. Playing games helps their self esteem because sometimes they get a quicker reaction from the game system and they can really see that they have accomplished something (Schuna, 2010).

Prensky (2011, p. 6) states that learners are naturally motivated to play games. Serious games are interactive play that teaches students goals, rules, adaptation, problem solving and interaction, all represented as a story. They give them the fundamental needs of learning by providing enjoyment, passionate involvement, structure, motivation, ego gratification, adrenaline, creativity, social interaction and emotion. "Play has a deep biological, evolutionarily important, function, which has to do specifically with learning."(Prensky, 2011, p. 6)

Not only are they fun, interesting and challenging but games also increase learners' achievement. We know as, games can involve all the basic language skills, i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and a number of skills are often involved in the same game (Lee, 1995). Further support comes from Zdybiewska (1994, p. 6) who states that games are a good way of practicing language, for they provide a model of what learners will use the language for in real life when exercises that practice and utilize the new language have been completed, games can then be introduced as yet another means for enabling greater comprehension.

As is repeatedly mentioned above, games can motivate learners, promote learners' interaction, and improve learners' acquisition. As a result, games can increase learners' achievement, which means that learner' test scores, ability to communicate, knowledge of vocabulary, and language skills can improve.

Riedle (2008) emphasizes the advantage of games in improving learners' achievement,

"We are teaching a new generation of students, which requires unconventional teaching strategies be put into practice in the classroom. And when schools use the games, the student benefits speak for themselves--a greater desire to learn and higher test scores."

Luu Trong Tuan and Nguyen Thi Minh Doan. (2010) state that games prove to be a useful tool when employed regularly in language teaching. Games not only offer learners a highly motivating, relaxing class, but most importantly, meaningful practice in all language skills. Consequently, games can motivate learners, promote learners' interaction, improve their acquisition and increase their achievement.

Lee Su Kim (1995) also said that there are many advantages of using games in the classroom:

1. Games are a welcome break from the usual routine of the language class.

2. They are motivating and challenging.

3. Learning a language requires a great deal of effort. Games help students to make and sustain the effort of learning.

4. Games provide language practice in the various skills- speaking, writing, listening and reading.

5. They encourage students to interact and communicate.

6. They create a meaningful context for language use.'

Anther advantages of games in the classroom are listed below:

6.1 Through fun and apparently less demanding practice, Ames increase learners' motivation and promote teaching (Hansen, 1994)

6.2 Group and peer work may induce teamwork and enable successful interaction (Rinvolucri & Davis, 1995)

6.3 By lowering the affective filter (Krashen, 1985), games provide favorable conditions for effective language acquisition (Wierus, 1994)

6.4 Through a meaningful context, students are provided with a comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985)

6.5 The emotions aroused when playing games add variety to the sometimes dry, serious process of language instruction (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000; Ersoz, 2000; Lee, 1995).

6.6 The variety and intensity that games offer may lower anxiety (Richard-Amato, 1988) and encourage shyer learners to take part (Uberman, 1998), especially when games are played in small groups.

6.7 Games can connect to a variety of intelligences (Gardner, 1999), e.g,

6.7.1 Games played with others involve interpersonal intelligence

6.7.2 Games involving drawing connect with visual/spatial intelligence

6.7.3 Games often have a hands-on element, such as cards, spinners, or pieces, which connect with bodily/kinesthetic intelligence

In summary, Games are highly motivating since they are amusing, interesting and at the same time challenging. Using games is one of the most important ways to teach efficiently in a language class because games mean the world to children. Nothing is more fun than playing games for them. They feel happy and free while playing. Remember when you were a child; you will remember the games you played and the happiest moments of your life. It does not matter indoor or outdoor; we cannot deny the importance of games. If students learn with games, have fun, feel happy and free, it means that you have reached your goals. Games strengthen language skills, besides; learners develop social skills and good relationships while they interact with each other.

2.4 Instructional plan

2.4.1 Definition and purpose of the Instructional Plan

An instructional plan is one of learning and teaching management activities in classroom and it guides instructors in the learners' learning process. This researcher studied and reviewed the definitions of instructional plan from educators who have defined it as follows:

Airasia and Russell (2008) state that the instructional plan is the set of methods and processes used to change students' behavior. Lectures, discussions, worksheets, cooperative projects, and homework are but a few of the instructional techniques used to help students learn.

Poosara (2002, p. 159) asserts that an instructional plan is a tool in setting learning experiences for learners based on learning strand areas.

Moonkhum (2006, p. 58) states that an instructional plan is a teaching manual that it assists teachers to prepare the methodologies, materials and evaluations for every lesson of teaching. The instructional plan will make teachers easier in teaching and reach the objectives set in the each lesson.

Tardthong (2 0 0 9 , p. 1 3 4) states that an instructional plan means the teaching manual in preparing stage of teaching that teachers prepare objectives, method of teaching, the material, activities and the assessment of teaching. In instructional plan consists of learning objectives, activities, materials as well as assessment and evaluation.

Sinpeng (2010, p. 79) asserts that an instructional plan is a plan or model of learning and teaching. It is created follow by the learning objectives.

Pornkul (2 0 1 4 , p. 3 5 5) states that an instructional plan is an academic document that teachers prepared systematically in advance for using in their learning and teaching management activities. It also covered the diversity of activities between teachers and made it convince in teaching.

Nuangchalerm (2 0 1 3 , p. 1 6 8) defines the instructional plan as a plan or project which is written for using in learning and teaching in a specific course. It is also a teaching preparation systematically instrument based on the purposes of the curriculum.

From the definitions of instructional plan mentioned above, it can be concluded that instructional plan is a teaching manual which is contained teaching activities, teaching methodologies, materials and evaluations based on the objectives in each lesson. The instructional plan emphasized the learners on learning perceiving follow the curriculum purposes and developing of knowledge, process as well as attitude.

2.4.2 The Importance of an Instructional Plan

This researcher studied and reviewed concepts of educators about the importance of an instructional plan as follows:

Laksana (1990, pp. 3-4 cited in Soontornrojana, 2010, p. 30) states that an instructional plan assists teacher in many ways. First, it helps teachers to plan the teaching methodology. Second, instructional plans assist teacher to create teaching materials and it convince teachers in learning and teaching methodology. Thirdly, it can be an academic work and published as an academic model. Lastly, it also creates convenient for co-teachers when the teachers is absent.

Moonkhum (2006, p. 58) mentions the importance of an instructional plan that it is a teaching methodology that it is planned by teachers. It assists teachers to prepare the lessons for the learners in advance, and it helps teachers confident to manage the lessons. Additionally, it helps teachers notice their teaching methodologies clearly and also notice learning materials or sources as well as assessment and evaluation

Tardthong (2009, p. 134) states that an instructional plan has number of importance as follows: 1) It assists learning and teaching methodologies meaningfully, 2) teacher has a teaching manual, 3) It is an academic work that reflects competence of professional instructors, 4) Co-teacher can use it when teacher absents, 5) It assists teacher to manage learning activities, 6) Learners perceive whole learning approach as they can learn everything at the same time, 7) It can integrate in other learning areas unlimitedly, 8) It assists teacher to teaching activities based on objects of the lesson and school curriculum and 9) It promotes perfect learning activities in unlimited period of time.

As the study of importance of instructional plan mentioned above, the researcher summarizes that the instructional plan is the material that provides a useful basis of lesson planning and provides a coherent framework for smooth efficient teaching. It helps the teacher to be more organized and be more confident when delivering the lesson, gives a sense of direction in relation to the syllabus, helps the teacher to plan lessons which cater for different students and it is a proof that the teacher has taken a considerable amount of effort in his teaching.

2.4.3 Elements of Instructional Plans

The researcher reviewed elements of instructional plan from number of educators like: Kitrungreung, Sternyanon and Chaowdumrong (2002, p. 54) and Poosara (2003, p. 160) who suggest that the elements of instructional plans should have the main elements as follow: 1) Headings, 2) Concepts, 3) Objectives, 4) Contents, 5) Activities, 6) Material or Media and 7) Assessment.

Besides, study of the elements of instructional plan is still different in some issues according to Pornkul (2014, p. 356) and Sinpeng (2010, pp. 79 - 80) who suggest elements of learning management plan as follow: 1) Introduction consists of learning strand area, class, semester, academic year, learning unit, title, learning

strand and standard, indicators and learning and teaching time, 2） Concepts, 3） Expected or learning objectives, 4) Contents, 5） Learning processes, 6） Evaluation and 7） learning materials/learning resources and 8） Learning and teaching outcomes note.

Neuangchalerm (2013, p. 168) states that the procedures of instructional plans writing should consist of diverse details likewise:

1. Heading, it is the first part of instructional plans which consists of the fundamental details: Number of instructional plan, identify learning strands area, identify learning class, identify the heading, identify timing of learning activity and identify date, month, year and period of time in learning activity.

2. Concept, it is the introduction of the information in the instructional plan also it identifies or concludes the learning areas of learners after finish learning in learning content. The guidelines of the concept learning writing are: (1） Instructor need to write in the way of narrow knowledge, skills or attitude- write in short and clear, (2） Instructor should write in the text model or write it in sequence in the case of there are more than one concept, (3) In learning activity in each class level, concept should have only one in learning.

3. Objectives, the objectives are details about the characteristics of cognitive, affective or psychomotor domains. The writing of objectives can be variously written. Generally, instructors write in two ways:

3.1 Behavioral objective is indicated to the learners' behavior after finish learning based on learning management plan. Therefore, instructors need to identify learning behavior clearly. The completed behavioral objective should be consisted of three main parts these are condition, terminal behavior and criteria.

3.2 Terminal objective is an identified detail as main purposes of learners' learning after finish learning based on learning management plan. The characteristics of terminal objective are indefinite purposes in learners' learning behavior.

As for External objective is a small part of terminal objective which shows the expected behavior of learners. The main purposes of terminal objective are to monitor learners to show their behavior in positive side. Hence, external objective is written in behavioral objective.

4. Learning activity is the teaching situation of instructor both inside and outside the classroom. It is designed to present content, teaching method or effective learning methods. In learning activity writing, instructor needs to consider about: 1) Learning activity should be related to the learning objectives, knowledge, process and attitude, 2) It should be written orderly of the procedures of learning management plan writing such as presentation, practice and production, 3) It should be clearly identify that instructor or learners take a role or all of them participate in learning and teaching. Learning assessment and evaluation is a process in checking the quality of learners in their learning. Learning assessment and evaluation may use the various measurement or method instruments such as observation, interview, questionnaires, portfolio or testing. The rating scale of assessment and evaluation may be pass or fail, satisfied or unsatisfied, good, fair or poor as well as define number system such as 4-3-2-1.

And Jaiteang (2010, p. 209) also states that elements of instructional plan should be comprised of 1) Learning standard, 2) Indicators, 3) Contents, 4) Learning objectives, 5) Learning area, 6) Teaching and learning activities, 7) Assessment and evaluation, 8) Learning materials and resources and 9) Learning and teaching outcomes note.

In the study of elements of instructional plan mentioned above, it can be concluded that the elements of the instructional plan consist of heading of the plan that consist of the detail of a number of instructional plan, identify learning strands area, identify learning class, identify the heading, identify timing of learning activity and identify date, month, year and period of time in learning activity, the concept of the plan, the objectives of learning and teaching, the activities used in the plan, the material or media and the assessment and evaluation of learning.

2.4.4 Procedures of Instructional Plan Writing

In the study of the procedures of instructional plan writing, there are two educators who explain the procedures of instructional plans writing as follow:

Chookhumpang (2010, pp. 94-95) states that the instructional plan writing should have procedures the following:

1. The instructional plan writer has to study curriculum or related document.

2. The teacher studies methodology of content analysis and concepts so that teacher applies in teaching planning, define expectation learning as well as learning assessment.

3．Teacher has to analyze the relationship between contents, concepts and expectation learning.

4．Teacher designs instructional plan that it is corresponded to teaching methodology.

5. Expert proves the content validity of instructional plan and

6. Teacher uses a proven instructional plan with the students.

Airasian and Russell (2008) state that the instructional process comprises three basic steps. The first is planning instruction, which includes identifying specific expectations or learning outcomes, selecting materials to foster these expectations or outcomes, and organizing learning experiences into a coherent, reinforcing sequence. The second step involves delivering the planned instruction to students that is, teaching them. The third step involves assessing how well students learn or achieve the expectations or outcomes. Notice that to carry out the instructional process the three steps should be aligned with one another. That is, the planned instruction should be logically related to the actual instruction and the assessments should relate to the plans and instruction.
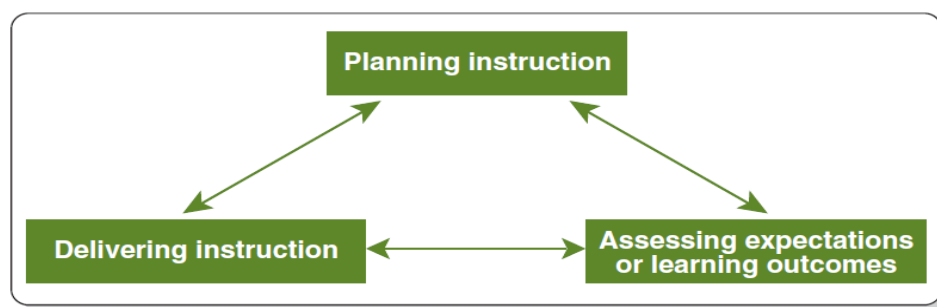

Figure 2.2 Shows these three steps and the relationships among them. Adapted from *Planning Instruction.* by Airasian and Russell (2008).

Notice that the diagram is presented as a triangle rather than as a straight line. This indicates that the three steps are interrelated in a more complicated way than a simple one-two-three sequence. For example, in planning instruction (step 1), the teacher considers the characteristics of students and the resources and materials available to help attain desired changes (step 2). Similarly, the information gained at the time of student assessment (step 3) is useful in assessing the appropriateness of the learning experiences provided students (step 2) and the suitability of intended expectations or learning outcomes (step 1). Thus, the three steps are interdependent pieces in the instructional process that can be aligned in different orders.

In summary, There are three main steps in writing an instructional: first, planning the instruction, which includes identifying specific expectations or learning outcomes, selecting materials to foster these outcomes, and organizing learning experiences into a coherent, reinforcing sequence; second, delivering the planned instruction to students by teaching them; and thirdly, assessing students, which involves the collection and synthesis of formal information about how well students are learning or have learned compared with the expectations of learning outcomes.

2.4.5 Evaluation of the Instructional Plan

Instructional plan is an innovation of learning and teaching so, the evaluation of it can do two ways according to Neuangchalerm (2013, pp. 212-215) these are rational and empirical approaches.

Rational approach is a process in finding effectiveness of research instrument by focusing on knowledge and reasons of experts in considering the valuation of learning and teaching innovation. The experts' considerations depend on content validity, usability by using research statistics. Also, learning and teaching innovations are evaluated by rating scales. Hence, the mean score of the experts assessment is ranging between 3.51-5.00 that shows the acceptance of experts at the same way if the effective value of learning and teaching innovation is lower than determined value, it have to be improved and considered again by experts.

Empirical approach is an experimental method. The finding effectiveness of learning and teaching innovation is considered from the percentage of learning process especially, during learning by using two numbers e.g. $E1/E2 = 80/80$ $E1/E2 = 85.85$ $E1/E2 = 90/90$. Therefore, the acceptance of effectiveness is based

on:1) . The criterion of E1 / E2 is higher than the determined effective value. 2) . The criterion of E1 / E2 is as equal as the determined effective value.3) . The criterion of E1/E2 is lower than the determined effective value is not over or under 2.5 percent.

Besides, Chookhumpang (2 0 1 0 , pp. 1 3 1 -1 3 3) presents the finding of efficiency and effectiveness of instructional plan by using efficiency process (E1) . The value of it tells that instructional plan enable learners to acquire their learning constantly or not in the defined activity. The scores of it collect sub-exercises or learning behavior. Effectiveness process (E2) is a value of learning management. Learners achieve the learning objectives or not as well as it is an indicator of learning achievement. The scores of it's comes from an achievement test (post-study test) of all learners. Effectiveness Index (E.I.) is the value of learning progression based on background knowledge after they study by using learning materials or innovations.

Kitrakarn (2003, pp. 1-6) has proposed a way to find the effectiveness of a learning plan by considering the development of students from before and after learning whether the ability increases credibly. The ways to determine the increasing ability include T-test Dependent Samples and the effectiveness index (Effectiveness Index: E.I).

1. Finding the incremental value of the learner by using the t-test (Dependent Samples) is to determine whether the student's development has increased reliably. By testing all students before (Pretest) and after learning (Posttest) and then testing by the t-test Dependent Samples, if it is statistically significant, it can be considered that the student development has increased reliably.

$$\text{T-test} \quad = \quad \frac{\sum D}{\sqrt{\dfrac{n \sum D^2 - (\sum D^2)}{n-1}}}$$

When

$$D \quad = \quad \text{the difference between posttest and pretest}$$
$$n \quad = \quad \text{the number of participant}$$

2. Finding the development of student growth by using the Effectiveness Index (E.I) is as follows:

$$\text{E.I.} = \frac{P_2 - P_1}{(number\ of\ student \times number\ of\ test\ item) - P_1}$$

P_2 means   summation of posttest score

P_1 means   summation of pretest score

To sum up, there are 2 ways of instructional plan evaluation: the rational approach and the empirical approach. The rational approach relies on experts and evaluation before application but the empirical approach relies on learners and evaluation after application. Both of them use research statistics in calculating an effective value for finding content validity and usability. Besides, effectiveness index is value of learning and teaching methodologies as well as learning innovations. In this study, the researcher uses the rational approach to evaluate the instructional plan by the experts

2.5 Attitude

2.5.1 The Definition and Components of Attitude

It is not easy to construct a definition sufficiently broad to cover the many kinds of attitudinal determination which psychologists today recognize and at the same time narrow enough to exclude those types of determination which are not ordinarily referred to as attitudes. But there are a lot of experts who attempt   to give the definition of attitude as follows:

Gleitman (1991) "Attitudes are relatively stable mental positions held toward ideas, objects or people".

Noe (2002), "Attitudes are a combination of beliefs and feelings that predispose a person to behave a certain way".

Antonak (1988) "Attitude is an idea charged with emotion which predisposes a class of actions in a particular class of social situations".

Triandis, Marin, Lisansky and Betancourt (1984) "An attitude is an idea (cognitive component) charged with emotion (affective component) which predisposes a class of actions (behavioral component) to a particular class of social situations".

Baker (1992) defines attitudes as "a hypothetical construct used to explain the direction and persistence of human behavior".

Ajzen (2001) mentions that attitude represents a summary evaluation of a psychological object captured in such attribute dimensions as good-bad, harmful-beneficial, pleasant-unpleasant, and likeable-dislikeable.

Zimbardo & Leippe (1991) summary the four components of attitude as following: (a) affective responses, (b) cognitions, (c) behaviors, and (d) behavioral intentions. The affective component of attitude consists of a person's evaluation of, liking of, or emotional response to some situation, object, or person. Affective responses reflect one's attitude with sensations of pleasure, sadness, or other levels of physical arousal.

Gardner (1985) considers attitudes as components of motivation in language learning. According to him, "motivation ... refers to the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language" However, Wenden (1991) proposed a broader definition of the concept "attitudes". He states that the term attitudes includes three components namely, cognitive, affective and behavioral. A cognitive component is made up of the beliefs and ideas or opinions about the object of the attitude. The affective one refers to the feeling and emotions that one has towards an object, 'likes' or 'dislikes', 'with' or 'against'. Finally, the behavioral component refers to one's consisting actions or behavioral intentions towards the object.

As can be seen in the above definitions, we can conclude that attitudes are often defined in terms of mood, thought processes, behavioral tendencies and evaluation. They combine beliefs, ideas and feelings of a person that will appear in each situation. And attitude can be divided into three components as follows: 1. the cognitive component our thoughts, beliefs, and ideas about something. When a human being is the object of an attitude, the cognitive component is frequently a stereotype, e.g. "welfare recipients are lazy", 2. the affective, component feelings or emotions that

something evokes, e.g. fear, sympathy, hate 3. the behavioral contains tendency or disposition to act in certain ways toward something.

2.5.2 Language Attitudes

Attitudes are personal beliefs, but there are patterns of attitudes throughout a community. Similar people will have similar attitudes and a profile of the community can be developed, (Maria-Adelina, Huguet, Janés, & Lapresta, 2015). People have attitudes/feelings/beliefs about language in general, their language, and the language of other people. They may feel that an unwritten language is not a 'real' language. They may feel shame when other people hear their language. They may believe that they can only know one language at a time. They may feel that the national language is the best language for expressing patriotism, the best way to get a job, the best chance at improving their children's future.

Attitudes cannot be observed directly but are demonstrated through actual behavior; for example, how people treat speakers of other languages (avoidance, approach), or in their desire (or not) to learn another language. The convergence of one's speech to conform to another's speech suggests a "positive attitude" toward the other's speech. By the same token, divergence suggests an intention for the opposite outcome.

Attitudinal studies aid in identifying how people of one language group view the personal character and social status of speakers of another language and how they form associations about other languages. Therefore, the assessment of language attitudes aids in grouping communities on the basis of their intergroup affinities and, in combination with other methods, in estimating potential extensibility of materials.

Since attitudes cannot be studied directly, the assessment of language attitudes requires asking questions about other aspects of life. For example, a person can be asked about their opinion of a person whose speech sample they just heard. The responses reveal attitudes about both people and their language. Opinions and attitudes are noted about how those being interviewed might be willing to accommodate to the people and languages that they just heard on the recordings. Language attitudes can be identified by simply asking why certain languages are in use (or not).

In summary, the language attitude can be assessed by asking questions about the feelings, beliefs, opinions and ideas of a person about learning a language.

2.5.3 The Measurement of Attitudes

Before procedures for measuring attitudes are discussed, there are several general characteristics of measurement that should be considered in order to determine if an evaluation technique is an effective one. Good tests have these characteristics. Basically, a quantitative approach to attitude measurement requires that measures be (Henerson, Morris & Fitz-Gibbon, 1987):

Valid, the instrument must be appropriate for what needs to be measured. In other words, a valid test measures the construct for which it is designed. A test of "attitude toward chemistry" will have items that deal directly with the concept of chemistry.

Reliable, the measure should yield consistent results. In other words, if people were to take a reliable test a second time, they should obtain the same, or nearly the same, score as they got the first time they took the test, assuming no changes occurred between the two testing.

Fairly simple to administer, explain, and understand. Generally, the measures that yield a single score of an attitude position epitomize the intent of this characteristic, although the single score may be deficient in meeting the intent of other characteristics of good measurement. Most tests of single attitudes have about 10 to 30 items, are valid, and have reliability estimates above .80.

Replicable, someone else should be able to use the measure with a different group, or in a different situation, to measure the same attitude. Replicable tests of attitude should be usable in a variety of situations. In other words, a test of computer anxiety should measure the existence of that construct in college students, parents, elementary schools students, and even stockbrokers.

There are four widely used and accepted categories, or approaches, for collecting attitude information. These approaches are (Henerson, Morris & Fitz-Gibbon, 1987):

1. Self-reports, where the members of a group report directly about their own attitudes. Self-reports include all procedures by which a person is asked to report on his or her own attitudes. This information can be provided orally through the

use of interviews, surveys, or polls, or in written form through questionnaires, rating scales, logs, journals, or diaries. Self-reports represent the most direct type of attitude assessment and should be employed, unless the people who are being investigated are unable or unwilling to provide the necessary information. Questions like "How do you feel about XT' where X is the attitude construct under investigation are often asked in self-reports.

2. Reports of others, where others report about the attitudes of a person or group. When the people whose attitudes are being investigated are unable or unlikely to provide accurate information, others can be questioned using interviews, questionnaires, logs, journals, reports, or observation techniques. Parents of children can be asked how their children feel about X, where X is the attitude construct under investigation.

3. Sociometric procedures, where members of a group report about their attitudes toward one another. Sociometrics are used when the researcher desires a picture of the patterns within a group. Members of groups can be asked questions like "Who in your group fits the description of XT' where X is the attitude position being studied.

4. Records, which are systematic accounts of regular occurrences, such as attendance reports, sign-in sheets, library checkout records, and inventories. Records are very helpful when they contain information relevant to the attitude area in question. For example, when a researcher is trying to determine if a school wide program to develop a higher level of school pride is working, the school's maintenance records might give an index of the program's effectiveness. If school pride is improving, then vandalism should decline, and maintenance costs should be lower. The amount of trash picked up from the school's floors might yield relevant information, too. Students who have school pride are less likely to throw trash on the floor.

Within each of these categories, there are strategies for measuring attitude-related behaviors. Most commonly, attitude measurement is accomplished by one of the following techniques:

1. Questionnaires and rating scales are instruments that present information to a respondent in writing and then require a written response, such as a

check, a circle, a word, a sentence, or several sentences. Attitude rating scales are special kinds of questionnaires. They are developed according to strict procedures that ensure that responses can be summed to yield a single score representing one attitude. Questionnaires and rating scales are often used because they permit anonymity, permit the responder time to answer, can be given to many people simultaneously, provide uniformity across measurement situations, permit relatively easy data interpretation, and can be mailed or administered directly. Their main disadvantage is they do not pen-nit as much flexibility as do some other techniques.

2. Interviews are face-to-face meetings between two or more people in which the respondent answers questions. A survey is a highly structured interview. Often surveys are conducted over the telephone, an approximation of face-to-face interviewing. A poll is a headcount. Respondents are given a limited number of options and asked to select one. For example, word-of-mouth procedures, such as interviews, surveys, and polls, are useful because they can be read to people who cannot read or who may not understand written questions. They guarantee a relatively high response rate, they are best for some kinds of information especially when people might change their answers if responses were written, and they are very flexible. There are two major problems with interviews. First, they are very time consuming. Second, it is Possible that the interviewer may influence the respondent.

3. Written reports for example: logs, journals, and diaries. Logs, journals, and diaries are descriptions of activities, experiences, and feelings written during the course of the Program. Generally they are running accounts consisting of many entries prepared on an event, on a daily or weekly basis. The main advantage of this approach is that reports provide a wealth of information about a person's experiences and feelings. The main problem is in extracting, categorizing, and interpreting the information. Written reports require a great deal of time by both the respondent and the researcher.

4. Observations, These procedures require that a person dedicate his or her attention to the behaviors of an individual or group in a natural setting for a certain period of time. The main advantage of this approach is its increased credibility when pertained; disinterested, unbiased observers are used. Formal observations often bring to attention actions and attitudes that might otherwise be overlooked.

Observations are extremely consuming time, and sometimes observers produce discomfort in those they are observing. The presence of an observer almost always alters what is taking place in a situation.

Attempts at measurement, including the evaluation of attitude, require that a systematic process be followed. Using structured procedures increases the likelihood of an effective measurement taking place. Guidelines for attitude measurement usually recommend that at least six steps be followed (Henerson, Morris & Fitz-Gibbon, 1987):

1. Identify the construct to be measured. A construct is simply defined as the attitude area of interest.

2. Find an existing measure of the construct. Once a certain attitude construct has been identified, an attempt should be made to locate an instrument that will measure it. Published tests are the first choice for measuring attitudes because they have usually been tried out in other instructional situations and include some statement of test validity and reliability. Additionally, instructions for administration of published tests often are available. The use of standardized measures simplifies the job of attitude evaluation.

3. Construct an attitude measure. If no existing test of the relevant attitude is available, and a quantitative measure is needed, then it is necessary to construct a new test. Of the many types of attitude measurement possible, one widely used technique that seems to possess most of the characteristics of a good measure is the Agreement, or Likert-type, Scale. This technique involves the use of statements about the attitude that are either clearly favorable or unfavorable. Each student responds to each test item according to his perceived attitude "intensity" toward die statement. Often, students are asked to answer test items using a five-point scale that has responses varying in the amount of agreement to the statement from "strongly disagree" to 41strongly agree." Advantages of this technique are ease of scoring and ease of summarizing the information obtained.

2.6 Related research studies

2.6.1 Related Research Conducted in Thailand

Sripramong (2004) studied about 'The Study of the Effect of Using Vocabulary Games on the Retention in Learning Vocabulary of Prathomsuksa Five Students". The purpose of the experiment was to study the effect of using vocabulary games on the retention in learning vocabulary of Prathomsuksa five students in Assumption College, Rayong. The research used 12 lesson plans, a learning achievement test and a questionnaire about the students' opinions on learning vocabulary through games. And the findings revealed that the students' retention in learning English vocabulary through games was at a high level and the students of Prathomsuksa 5 were satisfied with the vocabulary activities.

Audtakorn (2013) studied the development of English vocabulary learning by using games for Prathomsuksa (grade) 1 students of Lakmuangmahasarakham School. This research studied development of instructional plans for using games to improve grade 1 students English vocabulary learning, was compared the students' learning achievement before and after learning through games and was assessed the students' satisfaction toward games for English vocabulary learning. The sample of the study consisted of 35 grade 1 students obtained through the purposive sampling technique. The instrument used for data collection in this study was instructional plans for developing English vocabulary learning by using games; an achievement test for English vocabulary learning ability; a questionnaire and an interview form for assessing the students' satisfaction toward games for English vocabulary learning. The findings of the study was the efficiency value of the instructional plans for English vocabulary learning of Prathom Sueksa 1 students of Lakmuangmahasarakham School was $83.79/91.00$, which was higher than the assigned criterion of 80/80. The students' posttest mean scores were higher than those of the pre-test at the .05 level of statistical significance. And the students' satisfaction, as a whole, toward games for English vocabulary learning was at a high level.

Tunchalearnpanih (2012) studied the use of games for Pratom 6 students' Vocabulary Learning. The objective of the research was to study the effects of using vocabulary games for improving vocabulary knowledge of Prathom 6 students of

Praram 9 Kanjanapisek School. The findings of this study were the post-test score of most students was higher than the pre-test score and the self-reflection forms from the 9 students reflected in the same way. The game helped them to remember more words. Therefore, the students' vocabulary knowledge was improved after they studied through games. The awareness came from students and teacher's experiences such as classroom management, clear instruction and motivation could be mentioned as the producing successful lessons.

Kunnu, Uiphanit, and Sukwises (2016) studied the development of vocabulary memorization by using games. The purpose of the study was to compare the learning achievement between pre-learning and post-learning after using games. The sample was primary education students studying in English clubs for 7 weeks. It was found that the average testing score difference between pre-learning and post-learning for classroom vocabulary had a statistical significance at 0.05.

Panboot and Piyanukool (2010) study the effects of using language game exercises to enhance the skill of reading basic words for Prathomsuksa 3 students. The objectives of the study were to study the efficiency of language game exercises to enhance the skill of reading basic words for Prathomsuksa 3 students according to the intended 80/80 criteria; to compare the reading achievement with pretest scores after learning through the game exercises; to find out the effectiveness index of reading basic words; and to study the satisfaction of those students towards the language game exercises. The results of the study were as follows: 1) the efficiency of language game exercises was at 83.74/85.17 according to the criterion; 2) The reading basic words achievement scores after learning through the language game exercises for Prathomsuksa 3 students were higher than pretest scores at the level of 0.05 significant difference; 3) the effectiveness index of reading basic words for Prathomsuksa 3 students was at 75 percent and 4) the students' satisfaction towards the language game exercises was at the most level.

2.6.2 Related Research Conducted in Other Countries.

Mubaslat (2012) studied the effectiveness of games on learning a foreign language. The study attempted to determine the role of educational games on learning a foreign language, and to compare games with more traditional practices as effective learning tools on the basic educational stage students at governmental schools in

Jordan. The experiment was conducted using three groups out of six randomly. To determine the relationship effect of learning a foreign language using educational games among the participants, a one way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed based on achievement levels. For the relation between educational games and learning a foreign language a Pearson's Co relational analysis was used. The results of the post test for the experimental group were better than the control one which showed that games had improved the achievement for the primary stage and had created an interactive environment. It was recommended to use games since they were very effective especially for the primary stages in teaching a second language and games were helpful for the teacher as a procedure for language acquisition.

Huyen, Nguyen Thi Thanh & Nga, Khuat Thi Thu (2003) studied the effectiveness of learning vocabulary though Games. The purpose was to explore how and whether the game could help learners learn vocabulary effectively. In the research the data were collected from using games in classes, observing others teachers' class and interviewing teachers and learners for their reactions and attitudes. The instruments were the post-game surveys and the interview surveys. The findings were revealed in 3 groups, which were learners' attitudes, learners' progress and unanticipated problems. Learners' attitudes were that games could help them a lot in vocabulary learning. Learners could obtain more words and apply them within a relaxed and comfortable environment such as games. Unclear instructions, lack of cooperation of learners and using L1 while playing games were the problems, which were always found while playing games in classes. These problems could improve the success of learning languages unless they were managed in an appropriate way.

Luu Trong Tuan and Nguyen Thi Minh Doan (2010) studied the teaching of English grammar through games. This study sought to review the literature on definitions of games, classifications of games, and the influence of using games on the language learners' performance. Games comprise many factors such as rules, competition, relaxation, and learning. The main focus of using game in class is not only to help students to learn more effectively but also to have fun. The advantages of using games in language teaching and learning prove to be a useful tool employed regularly in language teaching. Games not only offer learners a highly motivating, relaxing class, but most importantly meaningful practice to all language skills.

Consequently, games can motivate learners, promote learners' interaction, improve their acquisition and increase their achievement.

According to the related research studies mentioned above it can be concluded that games can be used in language learning and teaching because games can motivate learners, promote learners' interaction, improve their acquisition and increase their achievement. And also allow learners to have fun while they are learning. However, to use games in classrooms, it is equally important that before playing, the rules of the games are clearly explained and well understood by the students. There should be only a few, well-explained rules. Demonstrations also can be very helpful because it can help students understand the game and help them follow the rules. So, from the reasons above, the researcher decide to use games to develop English vocabulary learning ability of Matthayom Suksa 3 students.
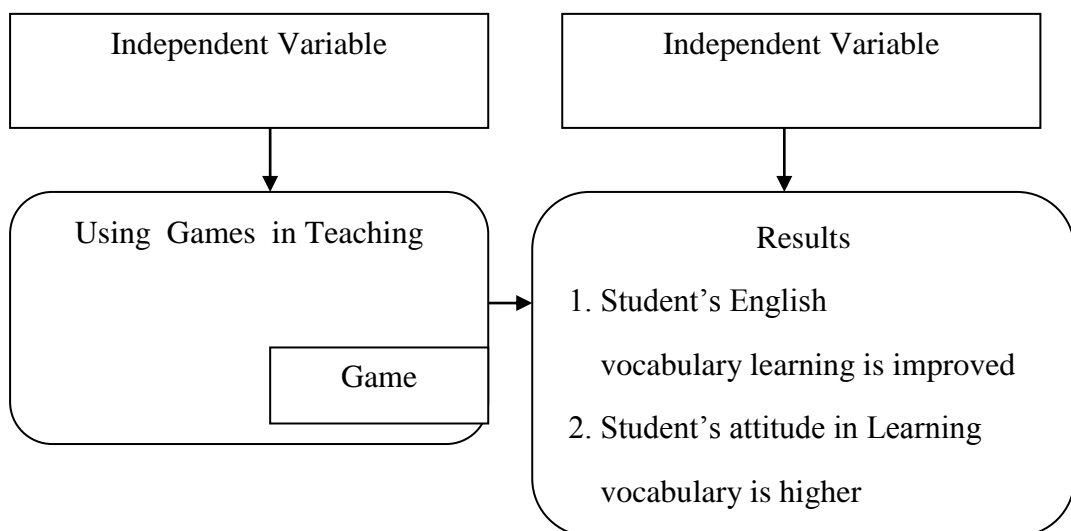
Framework of this Study

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┌─────────────────────────┐        ┌─────────────────────────┐
│   Independent Variable   │        │   Independent Variable   │
└───────────┬─────────────┘        └───────────┬─────────────┘
            ↓                                    ↓
┌─────────────────────────┐        ┌─────────────────────────┐
│  Using Games in Teaching │───────▶│         Results          │
│                          │        │  1. Student's English    │
│       ┌──────────┐       │        │     vocabulary learning  │
│       │   Game   │       │        │     is improved          │
│       └──────────┘       │        │  2. Student's attitude   │
│                          │        │     in Learning          │
│                          │        │     vocabulary is higher │
└──────────────────────────┘        └──────────────────────────┘
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Figure 2.3 Framework of this study