From the Page to the Stage; the Potential of Picturebook Dramatisation in the Development of Oral Skills of Young Learners of English

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For Joshua, Imogen and Beatrice, the inspiration for this project.

Do not be anxious about anything, but in everything, by prayer and petition,

with thanksgiving, present your requests to God.

Philippians 4 verse 6

Abstract

Both the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and the Primary School English Curriculum in Baden-Württemberg, Germany, place a strong emphasis on the development of communicative competences, particularly speaking (Council of Europe, 2020; Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016). However, the acquisition of EFL speaking skills is a process which takes time (Böttger, 2016) and is challenging for young learners in educational settings, where there is limited time in the curriculum for English teaching each week (Read, 2020). Learning to speak is a complex process (Levelt, 1989). Therefore, learners need support for understanding and production (Cameron, 2001). They need to be offered ample opportunities to speak in different situations (Böttger, 2016).

This research project explored whether drama based on picturebooks had the potential to help mixed-ability learners to develop their speaking skills and in what ways. Picturebooks were chosen because they are recommended for use in the primary classroom (ZSL Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung) and are often used in English lessons (Böttger, 2020). The intervention was tested with 9–10-year-old learners in the final year of primary school in four different schools.

A mixed method approach was taken and the data was merged to draw inferences about the development of learners' speaking skills (Creswell, 2022). Quantitative data was collected from pre and post speaking assessments, structured classroom observations and learner self-assessments. The data was analysed using SPSS. Qualitative data was collected from unstructured classroom observations recorded in a research journal. This were analysed with MAXQDA.

The analysis of the data indicated that the intervention had the potential to help mixed-ability learners to develop their oral skills. Linguistic skills developed because learners' use of vocabulary in speech broadened, and learners used more English after the intervention, including more chunks of language. Assessment of cognitive skills showed some evidence of the development of thinking skills, planning simple speech, the ability to pay attention, concentrate, and memorize repeated phrases and vocabulary. However, very little evidence of self-repair of utterances was found and no development could be confirmed in learners' phonology or pronunciation skills. All the learners who participated in the intervention established basic social contact. There was evidence for an increase in the amount of interaction and confidence in speaking if the picturebooks and drama activities were not too linguistically or cognitively challenging.

Keywords: young EFL learner, oral skills, picturebook, dramatisation

Zusammenfassung

Sowohl der Gemeinsame Europäische Referenzrahmen für Sprachen (GER), als auch der Lehrplan für Englisch an Grundschulen in Baden-Württemberg legen großen Wert auf die Entwicklung kommunikativer Kompetenzen, insbesondere das Sprechen (Council of Europe, 2020; Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016). Der Erwerb von Sprechfertigkeiten ist jedoch ein Prozess, der Zeit benötigt (Böttger, 2016). Für junge Lernende, mit einer begrenzten Englischunterrichtszeit ist es eine Herausforderung, sprechen zu lernen, (Read, 2020) da das Sprechen ein komplexer Vorgang ist (Levelt, 1989). Daher brauchen Lernende Unterstützung beim Verstehen und Sprechen (Cameron, 2001). Sie benötigen ausreichend Gelegenheiten, in unterschiedlichen Situationen zu sprechen (Böttger, 2016).

Dieses Forschungsprojekt untersuchte, ob dramapädagogische Verfahren auf der Grundlage von Bilderbüchern das Potenzial haben, Lernenden bei der Entwicklung ihrer Sprechfertigkeiten zu helfen, und auf welche Weise. Bilderbücher wurden verwendet, da sie für den Einsatz im Grundschulunterricht empfohlen (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016) und häufig im Englischunterricht verwendet werden (Böttger, 2020). Das Projekt wurde mit Lernenden in der vierten Klasse an vier verschiedenen Schulen durchgeführt.

Es wurde ein Mixed-Method-Ansatz verwendet. Anschließend wurden die Daten zusammengeführt, um Rückschlüsse auf die Entwicklung der Sprechfertigkeiten der Lernenden zu ziehen (Creswell, 2022). Aus kurzen Vor- und Nachbesprechungen mit den Lernenden, strukturierten Unterrichtsbeobachtungen und Selbsteinschätzungen der Lernenden wurden quantitative Daten erhoben. Die Daten wurden mit SPSS analysiert. Qualitative Daten wurden aus unstrukturierten Unterrichtsbeobachtungen erhoben, die in einem Forschungstagebuch festgehalten wurden. Diese wurden mit MAXQDA analysiert.

Die Analyse der Daten ergab, dass dramapädagogische Verfahren auf der Grundlage von Bilderbüchern das Potenzial hatten, Lernenden mit ihren Englischsprechfähigkeiten zu helfen. Die Lernenden konnten ihren Wortschatz in der gesprochenen Sprache erweitern. Sie verwendeten im späteren Verlauf mehr Englisch. Die Bewertung der kognitiven Fähigkeiten ergab einige Hinweise auf die Planung einfacher Äußerungen, die Fähigkeit, aufmerksam zu sein, sich zu konzentrieren und wiederholte Phrasen und Vokabeln auswendig zu lernen. Dennoch korrigierten sich die Lernenden kaum selbst. Es konnte keine Entwicklung der Fertigkeiten in Hinblick auf die Phonologie und Aussprache festgestellt werden. Es gab Anzeichen für eine

Zunahme der Interaktion und des Selbstvertrauens beim Sprechen, wenn die Bilderbücher und dramapädagogischen Verfahren sprachlich und kognitiv nicht zu anspruchsvoll waren.

Schlüsselwörter: *junge Englischlernende, Sprechfertigkeiten, Bilderbücher, dramapädagogische Verfahren*

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Preface

Drama in education has fascinated me ever since I attended an English and Drama course during my postgraduate studies at The University of Cambridge. The course introduced participants to drama strategies to promote listening and oracy skills amongst children in primary school. Apart from sounding fun, there were potentially many benefits to using drama in education. The course booklet distributed to students at the beginning of term stated how

> drama can appeal to children's desire to be active and involved and when structured to give quality experiences and good, focused reflection, […] offers enjoyable and highly successful teaching strategies (The University of Cambridge, 2001).

In particular, the opportunity to use literature in combination with drama made it sound particularly helpful in advancing learning, not just in English but in other subjects too. When I qualified as a primary school teacher in England, I practised using various drama activities in my English, History and R.E. classes. I noticed that the learners seemed very engaged in the activities and the work that they produced after a drama activity was of a high standard. However, I never found the right opportunity to empirically test drama in my role as a primary school teacher. My feeling that drama was beneficial to learning remained a hunch, based on the observations of my own classes at work.

Later when our children were at kindergarten and primary school in Germany, I looked for enjoyable ways to try to help them to improve their second language, German. I found a theatre in a nearby town which offered holiday courses. The children attended enthusiastically several times during the holidays, during which they practised and put on a play. At the end of the week, apart from having fun, they had not only learnt their own lines, but they had also managed to learn the lines of the other characters in the play as well. With the opportunity to do further study, I knew I wanted to investigate the potential benefits of drama to see if it could also help young EFL learners to further develop their speaking skills.

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Abbreviations

AAC	Augmentative and Alternative Communication
AMTB	Attitude Motivation Test Battery
BIG	*Beratung, Information und Gespräch*
CANVP	Conjunctions Adjectives Nouns Verbs and Prepositions
CDB	Communicative Drama-Based
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CF	Corrective Feedback
CG	Control Group
CLAWS	Constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-tagging System
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CNDB	Communicative Non-Drama-Based
DAF	*Deutsch als Fremdsprache*
EAL	English as an Additional Language
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
EVENING	*Evaluation Englisch ab Klasse 3 in NRW*
ICC	Intercultural Communicative Competence
L.	*Lehrkraft* (teacher)
LSC	Linguistic Self-Confidence
MAXQDA	Qualitative Data Analysis Software
P:	Pupil
PEAK1	*Projekt Englisch ab Klasse 1*
PEPELT	Picturebooks in European Primary English Language Teaching
PIP	Pillar Integration Process
POS	Parts of Speech
SL	Scenic Learning
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
STAD	Student Teams Achievement Division
SuS	*Schülerinnen und Schüler* (pupils)
T:	Teacher

Continuation of ***Abbreviations***

TEYL	Teaching English to Young Learners
TG	Test Group
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TPR	Total Physical Response
UCREL	University Centre for Computer Corpus Research on Language
UG	Universal Grammar
VAD	Vocabulary Acquisition via Drama
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

The Language Acquisition Potential of Young Learners

Young learners possess great potential for language acquisition (Böttger, 2016). Acquiring foreign languages early in life is not only beneficial for language development but also for cognitive development.

> Learning another language is not only learning different words for the same things, but learning another way to think about things. Flora Lewis (American journalist 1922-2002)

To possess flexible thinking, to have the ability to solve problems and understand other people's way of thinking are valuable skills in the twenty-first century. Possessing the ability to effectively communicate in a foreign language is also invaluable in a globalised world (Kirkgöz, 2022). In 2024 there were approximately 1.5 billion people who spoke English as either a native language or a second language, meaning that English was the most widely spoken language worldwide (Statistica.com, 2025).

Therefore, learning to speak English, "the world's lingua franca" (Kirkgöz, 2022, p. 171), is perceived to have many benefits. English speakers can express their views and be heard and understood by many people. Today, due to globalisation, the world seems more closely connected than it ever has been throughout history. The ability to speak English enables people to communicate information and to interact socially (Böttger, 2016). Learning English facilitates co-operation as it enables people to communicate more easily in a common language and to work together (Enever, 2011).

Children have great potential for language learning. Young learners have the ability to acquire foreign languages easily in a playful and intuitive way during childhood, at a time when they also tend to be highly motivated and interested in learning foreign languages (Böttger, 2022). Children love to talk and enjoy communicating and interacting with other people. They are good at interpreting meaning even if they have not understood every individual word that has been said. Children are creative with language and manage to communicate with very limited language knowledge (Halliwell, 1992).

Young learners have the ability to acquire languages more intuitively and naturally than older learners, who have to rely more heavily on conscious learning strategies (Böttger, 2022). Children's brains are flexible, more flexible than the brains of adult learners. This flexibility is known as plasticity which is at its highest level when learners are young (Gualtieri & Finn,

2022). Neuroplasticity allows the brain to change itself by forming new connections and reorganising itself in response to new experiences or information (Fandakova & Hartley, 2020).

Speaking has a high value in language learning because many people associate knowing a language with being able to speak it and this is the aim of most language learners (R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017). Young learners have an amazing ability to imitate and enjoy doing so (Böttger, 2020a). This means that they have the ability to acquire foreign languages with a native-speaker like accent when they are young (Böttger, 2022). The development of an authentic accent during childhood is one of the great benefits for early language learning. It is much harder for adult learners to develop an authentic accent than it is for young learners. Adult non-native speakers are often negatively judged in a foreign language if they have a strong non-native accent (R. Kim et al., 2019). In addition, a strong accent or poor pronunciation caused by mislearning sounds can prevent learners from being understood (Böttger, 2016). Therefore, it is beneficial to learn to speak a foreign language early when a native speaker-like accent can more easily be developed.

Learning a foreign language at a young age also has many positive effects on cognitive development as children are growing and developing. Infants who are exposed from birth to two languages are capable of acquiring those languages simultaneously and equally as well if the conditions are favourable i.e. if they have enough high quality exposure to the language (Ramírez & Kuhl, 2016). There is evidence that the two language systems that develop in bilinguals run parallel to each other (Costa & Sebastián-Gallés, 2014) and bilinguals use similar brain structures for both of their languages (Perani et al., 1998). Language learners who have learnt a second language later in life have to activate extra structures in the brain in order to speak a second language (Böttger, 2016, p. 183). In this case more energy is needed to learn foreign languages. Consequently, it is more efficient to learn languages at an early age.

In addition, learning to speak a foreign language at an early age helps to develop empathy (Böttger, 2016, p. 184) and creativity (Woll & Wei, 2019, p. 22). This is beneficial to learners because it is helpful in many different situations. It is also a reminder that learning another language is “learning another way to think about things” (Flora Lewis). However, learning to think about things is not just learning how to use our brain in different ways, it also requires learners to learn to see things from other people’s perspectives. The activity of learning a second language naturally includes learning about the cultures of the places where the language is

spoken (Crystal, 2003). Learning about other cultures helps learners to develop empathy and an understanding of other people (Byram et al., 2002).

Despite the great potential of young learners for language acquisition, teaching young learners the important skill of speaking in educational settings where time is limited is not an easy task (Read, 2020). Finding suitable activities and encouraging learners to speak is a challenge in many classrooms (Copland et al., 2014). In addition, speaking in a foreign language is demanding (Cameron, 2001) as many processes must happen simultaneously (Böttger, 2016). Therefore, effective teaching approaches which support mixed-ability learners to speak and that encourage learner participation in a positive and encouraging environment, are needed.

English lessons for young learners should include fun and engaging activities which encourage learners to join in and take place in a positive learning environment (Halliwell, 1992). Teaching which mirrors natural language learning scenarios as far as possible are likely to help learners to develop positive attitudes towards learning in general and also towards language learning (Gregson, 2024). In addition, the development of skills such as communication, collaboration, critical thinking and creativity through the learning foreign languages, help prepare learners for the future.

Drama offers many opportunities for learners to participate in concrete experiences involving language. Drama allows learners to take on another persona (Phillips, 1999), to enter another world (Even, 2008) and to speak in character. Learners can also participate in different ways with larger or smaller roles, allowing the possibility for differentiation to take place (Böttger, 2020a). Drama motivates learners to speak. Everyone can be involved in some way, either with a speaking part or through listening and joining in with the actions. Learners can join in with their “bodies, minds, emotions, language, and social interaction” (Phillips, 1999, p. 6).

Studies providing empirical data on the effects of learning through drama with young EFL learners are few and far between (Elis, 2023). However, evidence provided by several studies on the effects of drama on young EFL learners’ oral skills, produced promising results (Alasmari & Alshae’el, 2020; Chang, 2009; Demircioğlu, 2010; Kalogirou et al., 2019; Papadopoulos, 2014; Sambanis, 2011).

Given the many theoretical benefits of drama in language learning found in literature (Belliveau & Kim, 2013), and the known challenges but also benefits of acquiring speaking skills at an early age (Böttger, 2016; Cameron, 2001; Copland et al., 2014; Kirkgöz, 2022), the

idea of further studying drama to investigate its potential to help young EFL learners in educational settings where time is limited, to develop the complicated skill of speaking at the beginner level, warrants further investigation. The aim of this project is to investigate the potential of drama on the development of oral skills.

The Acquisition of Speaking Skills in Primary School Contexts in Baden-Württemberg

This section briefly explains the educational requirements of English in primary schools in Baden-Württemberg set out by the curriculum. It serves to illuminate the expectations of the development of young EFL speakers' skills and shows why focusing on speaking is important. Secondly, the processes of speech are explained so that an understanding of the demands placed on speakers can be developed. Finally, the potential benefits of using picturebooks and drama to provide speaking opportunities to young learners are briefly explored. The aim is to demonstrate why an intervention involving picturebooks and drama may have the potential to help learners to develop their oral skills.

English is currently taught in primary schools in Baden-Württemberg beginning in the third class (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016). There is a structured curriculum provided and the expectation that learners will reach A1 level (CEFR) by the end of the fourth class. Yet, limited time is allocated to the teaching of English within the curriculum. Therefore, finding effective strategies for the development of speaking skills which are fun, motivate learners to speak and encourage them to participate are essential.

Young learners in Baden-Württemberg, Germany begin learning to speak English in the third class of primary school when they are around eight years old (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016). They receive two years of English lessons in the third and fourth classes of primary school before they change to the secondary school system. The primary school English curriculum in Baden-Württemberg requires learners to be taught the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. The curriculum also lists themes which are particularly relevant to young learners' lives, such as giving personal information, and learning about the home, family, school, animals and transport, for example. The curriculum states that the goal of English teaching in primary school is for learners to reach A1 level according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016, p. 4).

According to the CEFR, A1 level is defined by the Common Reference Level Global Scale as follows: Learners

> can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help (Council of Europe, 2025).

Being able to communicate personal information and the development of communicative skills are the key goals that should be reached at level A1.

The Baden-Württemberg curriculum states that a key goal of English teaching at primary school is to develop communicative and intercultural communicative skills (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016, p. 4). This is commonplace in Germany, with most federal states placing the strongest emphasis on the development of first listening and then speaking competences, with the skills of reading and writing assigned a lower priority (Reckermann & Ritter, 2022), to be developed later once listening and speaking are underway.

The initial emphasis on the development of listening and speaking skills is because historically the acquisition of these skills was considered the most natural way to begin foreign language learning, based on the way that learners acquire their mother tongue. Therefore, these two skills became the focus of classroom teaching in young learner classrooms (Elsner, 2010; Pinter, 2006; Reckermann, 2018). This is also the case in Baden-Württemberg (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016, p. 8). The development of reading and writing skills have a lower priority. However, they do have a place in the curriculum. This means that the time available for English teaching must be shared between the four skills, particularly in the fourth class as learners prepare to transfer to secondary schools.

Between 2003, when English was introduced to primary schools in Baden-Württemberg (Müller, 2017, p. 11) and 2018, learners had English for four years in primary school. However, beginning in the school year 2018/19, the Ministry for Culture in Baden-Württemberg withdrew English from the first and second classes (Göres, 2017). Consequently, learners currently only have two years of English teaching in primary school instead of four years. Yet, the goal of reaching A1 level has not changed, although adjustments were made to the curriculum in 2020 to accommodate this change (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016).

Therefore, the time allocated to the teaching of English, of two forty-five minute lessons per week in the third and fourth classes (Kultusministerkonferenz 2013, p. 3), needs to include listening and speaking practice and once the learners have begun to develop these two competences, basic reading and writing practice. Effective teaching strategies and activities which maximise learning, help learners to reach A1 level and prepare learners for the transition to secondary school within the time available are essential. The primary school English curriculum in Baden-Württemberg states age-appropriate and learner-oriented activities that link content and language, are action-oriented, experience and play-oriented, relevant to the real world, holistic, authentic and interactive (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016, p. 7) need to be included in English lessons.

The development of foreign language skills however, takes time (Böttger, 2016). The speed of development depends on many factors including the individual differences amongst learners and the learner's existing knowledge of the language (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016, p. 7). Developing speaking skills in particular is very time consuming and learners need to be offered many opportunities to speak in different situations (Böttger, 2016). Developing the ability to speak in a foreign language is particularly demanding for young learners (Cameron, 2001). Cameron argues that:

> Speaking is much more demanding than listening on language learners' language resources and skills. Speaking activities, because they are so demanding, require careful and plentiful support of various types, not just support for understanding, but also support for production (Cameron, 2001, p. 41).

In addition, teaching the skill of speaking is something which teachers of young learners, who were surveyed across 142 countries, most often identified as challenging (Copland et al., 2014). This was partly because it is difficult to get children to speak in English and challenging to set up appropriate speaking activities.

Speaking coherently in a foreign language is a complicated skill which requires the speaker to have knowledge and control over a number of different aspects which work together simultaneously (Böttger, 2016). Learners need to develop both extralinguistic knowledge and linguistic knowledge. Extralinguistic knowledge includes sociocultural knowledge and linguistic knowledge includes the knowledge of genre, discourse, grammar, vocabulary, phonology and pragmatics (Thornbury, 2005, p. 11). Learners' knowledge of these various aspects will affect their ability to speak. Young learners who are learning to speak English need to focus

particularly on pronunciation of individual sounds, intonation, word stress, fluency and vocabulary as part of collocations (Böttger, 2016).

Speech production itself also requires skills to be used simultaneously. The skills of "conceptualization", "formulation" and "articulation" (Newton, 2018, p. 187) are employed with hardly any effort when learners speak their mother tongue. However, the amount of effort that is needed when a learner speaks a foreign language is much higher. The processes required in order to produce speech, happen "in real time" when the speaker is also under a certain amount of "communicative pressure" (Newton, 2018, p. 188). Therefore, students need to be offered many opportunities to speak in a low anxiety environment where they feel comfortable and able to speak without the fear of criticism.

"Speech conditions" (Thornbury, 2005, p. 25) also affect how well learners are able to use the knowledge that they have in speech. Cognitive factors including how familiar learners are with a topic and the genre of speech, how well they know the interlocutors and the mental processing demands that are placed on them all affect their ability to speak. Affective factors such as how learners feel about a topic or how they feel about the other learners, feelings of self-consciousness or a dislike of being "put on the spot" (Thornbury, 2005, p. 25) can make learners feel anxious and make speaking more difficult. In addition, performance factors such as the speaking situation, time pressure, background noise and how much control learners have over the situation can also make speaking more difficult (Thornbury, 2005).

In order for young learners to be able to practise and improve their speaking skills, they also need a speaking partner to converse with (Newton, 2018). That partner or interlocutor must also be a sympathetic listener who is interested and has time for the speaker. This means that it is difficult for some learners to practise their speaking skills outside of school unless they have a parent or friend who is willing to listen and interact with them. Not every learner has the opportunity to speak English in their free time. It is helpful for learners to be given opportunities to speak English during English lessons in school.

Although the state of Baden-Württemberg does have a few international bilingual primary schools, the majority of primary schools are not bilingual (International Schools Database, 2025). Most young learners in Baden-Württemberg are not immersed in English. Immersion is defined as a minimum of 50 percent of teaching time being in a language which is not the learners' first language (Surkamp, 2017, p. 134). Therefore, if speaking skills are to be further

improved, time needs to be devoted to regular practice during regular English lessons with appropriate speaking activities. Cameron argues that

> foreign language teaching needs to compensate for [the] lack of exposure to the language by providing other learning opportunities (Cameron, 2001, p. 60).

The curriculum for Baden-Württemberg suggests certain ways in which the amount of exposure to the English language can be increased. For example, through the use of Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) units in other primary school subjects (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016, p. 7). It is also helpful for teachers to think of a variety of ways for learners to practise their speaking skills during regular English lessons. A variety of materials are already used including the course book, games, songs and rhymes. In addition, picturebooks are used in TEYL (Böttger, 2020a) and they are also recommended for use in primary schools in Baden-Württemberg (ZSL Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung, 2024). Picturebooks are an excellent resource because they provide rich examples of language in context. They are "familiar and memorable" for learners (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014, p. 1). They are not only a useful resource for developing learners' listening skills, but they provide variation in teaching. Children enjoy listening to stories (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014). They appreciate the use of a variety of different resources which also helps to maintain their interest and motivation.

In addition to providing opportunities to develop listening skills (Böttger, 2020a), a picturebook could be used to provide extra opportunities for learners to practise speaking (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014). For example, learners could be asked to join in with repeated language in the story whilst the teacher is reading. The teacher could ask the learners about the pictures in the book using simple questioning, for example "What colour is…?" Learners could be asked how they think the characters in the story feel by looking at their expressions in the pictures and using vocabulary related to feelings. Aside from joining in or reacting to the story during the story reading, learners could be given the opportunity to participate in speaking activities related to the story in the post-listening story phase (Böttger, 2020a).

In this way, extra speaking opportunities could be offered to learners in the context of the story. Learners could be given opportunities to experience speaking in different situations. For example, learners could take on the role of the characters and act out some elements of the story using simple language and mime. The story could be dramatised in varied and child-appropriate ways using drama techniques (Winston, 2022).

Drama activities use language in context and provide learners with many speaking opportunities in different situations (Böttger, 2020a). Drama has been described as "a concentrated learning experience" which can help to maximise the use of available time productively (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014, p. 16). Drama allows learners to enter other worlds (Even, 2008), can engage learners (Rothwell, 2011) and encourage them to speak (Piazzoli, 2011). To practise speaking, young learners have to be motivated to speak because speaking is a difficult skill. Serrurier-Zucker and Gobbé-Mévellec argue that

> the creativity, whole-body experience and social interactivity involved in drama teaching produce high levels of motivation and an ideal method for language practice and acquisition (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014, p. 13).

Certain types of drama such as process drama have been shown to encourage adult learners to speak, lower anxiety and increase confidence if trust can be established and an "affective space" or "safe space" (Piazzoli, 2011, p. 562) can be created in which learners feel relaxed, not put on the spot and able to take risks. If learners are able to work with their peers, they can support each other and "negotiate meaning" (To et al., 2011, p. 4). Learners can become engrossed in the drama which can also lower anxiety. Wirag and Surkamp (2020) found this to be the case with teenage learners in drama clubs in secondary school (Wirag & Surkamp, 2020). Drama also gives learners the opportunity to speak as much or as little as they feel able to, which allows an element of differentiation to be incorporated (Böttger, 2020a). They can speak together as a group or on their own if they feel confident to do so.

Drama allows learners to build confidence, not just because it provides many opportunities to practise speaking (Böttger, 2020a), but also because it can provide learners with a role. Learners can have a puppet or mask to "hide behind" enabling them to say more than if they were acting a part as themselves (Phillips, 1999, p. 51). Speaking in character deflects attention away from the speaker enabling a learner to participate in a way that they would not be able to without a role. Phillips argues that "the language becomes one step removed" (Phillips, 1999, p. 51). The use of performative teaching strategies could be used in addition to established EFL methodologies to provide additional opportunities for learners to practise speaking. Winston (2022) sees performative teaching not as a replacement for other effective EFL teaching strategies, but as complementary to the already existing strategies (Winston, 2022).

This section described the present situation in primary school English education in Baden-Württemberg. It then discussed what is required of speakers when they speak a foreign

language and explained some of the theoretical benefits of participating in activities involving picturebooks and drama. The following section moves on to review empirical studies on young learners' oral skills in Germany and the potential of drama on the development of oral skills.

The State of Research on the Development of Speaking Skills

This literature review is divided into two sections. First, a review of empirical research is provided to reveal what is known about pupils' speaking skills at the end of the fourth class of primary school in Germany. Secondly, a review of drama studies that have already been undertaken with young learners of primary school age presents what is known about drama and EFL speaking skills. The aim of the review in this section is firstly, to present what is already known on the subject, but also to reveal gaps in the research and to see if there is already a connection between young EFL learners' oral skills and drama.

Given that speaking skills are challenging to acquire (Cameron, 2001) and there is limited time available in the primary school curriculum, the question is raised as to how far young learners' speaking skills have developed during the two years of English teaching that they receive in primary schools and if there are any aspects that could be further developed. Apart from potentially highlighting learners' strengths, a review of existing research data on the state of learners' speaking skills at the end of the fourth class may highlight what learners find challenging about speaking English and reveal aspects of EFL speaking which could receive further attention.

Since the school year 2005/06 when English became a compulsory subject in primary schools across Germany (Barucki et al., 2015; Börner et al., 2016), several studies have investigated learner competences in English, to attempt to assess the effectiveness of the newly introduced English teaching program in primary schools. Not all the tests gathered information about all four competences of reading, writing, speaking and listening and not all of them tested learners in every federal state of Germany (Müller, 2017). However, a conscious effort has been made to obtain a clear picture of learners competences and to use this information to inform policy, design curricula (Barucki et al., 2015; Engel, 2009), to develop suitable standards of education (Barucki et al., 2015) and to make decisions about when it is most appropriate to introduce English teaching (Kolb & Legutke, 2019).

Three of the studies found, provided detailed information about the state of learners' speaking skills at the end of the fourth class. *Evaluation Englisch ab Klasse 3 in NRW* (EVENING) from 2005-2007 (Engel et al., 2009), the *Beratung, Information und Gespräch* (BIG)

study from 2011-13 (Barucki et al., 2015) and the *Projekt Englisch ab Klasse 1* (PEAK1) study from 2011-2017 (Kolb & Legutke, 2019). Each of the studies is briefly evaluated and discussed in the light of what they reveal about learners' speaking skills in English at the end of the fourth class.

The EVENING study which was carried out just in the state of Nordrhein-Westfalen on learners in the fourth class, tested listening, reading and speaking skills (Engel, 2009). The study found that learners had made a good start to their English studies and were highly motivated. Positive results were also gained in the areas of listening and reading comprehension (Müller, 2017). Learners had developed good receptive skills (Engel, 2009). They were able to understand their partner speaking English. However, in relation to productive speaking skills, the study concluded that learners found some aspects of speaking challenging. The results showed that learners found it hard to formulate questions. Although learners knew a lot of words to describe objects and people, their active vocabulary was made up of mainly nouns and only a few adjectives, verbs, adverbs and structure words. Due to the missing verbs and verb forms, learners found it challenging to form a sentence because they didn't know enough words (Engel, 2009, p. 199). The study began a debate on how learners could improve their productive skills (Elsner & Keßler, 2013).

The BIG study tested 2,148 pupils (Barucki et al., 2015, p. 11) in all four competences and aimed to find out about the standard of English at the end of the fourth class in the whole of Germany. Results showed that the majority, about 75% of learners, had achieved the demands of the curriculum (Müller, 2017, p. 111). Results for speaking were found to be over and above what was expected by federal curricula (Barucki et al., 2015, p. 63) and a range of communicative performances were seen that were also above what is described by the CEFR A1 descriptors (Barucki et al., 2015, p. 67). However, results showed that learners were heterogeneous at the end of the fourth class, some having developed more advanced speaking skills than others. A small percentage of learners produced utterances that were incorrect or not understandable (Barucki et al., 2015, p. 64). However, the study concluded that learners showed great potential in speaking (Barucki et al., 2015, p. 68).

The most recent study on fourth class learners was the PEAK1 study (2019) which was carried out in Frankfurt am Main (Kolb & Legutke, 2019). Learners were also tested on the four skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening at the end of the fourth class. Not all the learners had begun English lessons in the first class. Some had received more English teaching

than others (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019). However, the research on speaking showed that learners got good scores in all the assessed categories that were tested including in vocabulary, structure and coherence, pronunciation, communication and task achievement. The scores in the category "Structure and Coherence" (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019, p. 72) were slightly lower which the researchers had expected. The results also showed that overall the learners said a lot of words, although the performances between learners in different schools varied (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019, p. 75).

The results also showed that the quality of language produced by learners in the PEAK1 story telling task was lower than in the other kinds of tasks that learners were asked to perform (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019). The researchers concluded that learners needed "more story-telling practices and activities in class" (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019, p. 75). They found that learners enjoyed the storytelling activities but did not always have the appropriate language available. It was concluded that the results showed that learners at this level were "very familiar with nouns" (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019, p. 78) and could use them but they were not as familiar with the other types of words.

The average student in the PEAK1 study, was not yet able to use full sentences but used single nouns and a lot of questions were answered with just one word (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019, p. 83). A further conclusion drawn from the study on learners' speaking skills was that learners could work further on improving their monologic skills through the practice of narrative and descriptive skills and telling stories "using connectors, time-related words and sequencing" (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019, p. 87).

These findings on young learners' speaking performance were echoed by Copland and colleagues (2014) who found in their research of young learners in 142 countries, that learners did not have enough knowledge of the language to say what they wanted to say (Copland et al., 2014). They also found that learners were reluctant to speak English. These findings were further supported by the research of numerous other researchers according to Kirkgöz (2022) e.g. Kirkgöz, (2008); Baker, (2008); Kuchah, (2009) and Littlewood, (2007) (Kirkgöz, 2022, p. 175). It is not just young learners in Germany who find speaking English challenging but the evidence suggests that young learners in other countries around the world also find speaking skills challenging to develop (Copland et al., 2014).

In addition, Copland and colleagues (2014) found that differentiation was the fourth most cited challenge by teachers of young learners (Copland et al., 2014, p. 747), indicating that many teachers were faced with

> students who are at different stages of learning and have different individual needs (Copland et al., 2014, p. 747).

Given the heterogenous state of learners' English-speaking skills at the end of the fourth class in Germany, but the clear potential of learners illustrated by the BIG study (2015), the opportunities offered by drama activities to further develop young learners' speaking skills warrants further investigation.

The remainder of this section examines how researchers have used drama interventions with young learners to develop speaking skills thus far. There is already some evidence from drama studies with adult and adolescent learners that demonstrate that drama can help learners to improve their speaking skills in a variety of ways (Bora, 2017; Delius, 2020; Dragovic, 2019; Galante & Thomson, 2017; Gill, 2013; Kurtz, 2001; Sirisrimangkorn, 2019; Sirisrimangkorn & Suwanthep, 2013; Stinson & Freebody, 2009). There is also evidence provided by ESL studies, that indicate that drama may help to improve oral skills amongst learners of English as a second language (Greenfader et al., 2015). However, there are relatively few drama studies on young EFL language learners in primary schools and very few studies on the fourth class (Elis, 2023, p. 31). Researchers also note the general lack of empirical research on drama (Klempin & Wirag, 2020). The following section discusses empirical studies that were found in the literature search on the effects of drama on aspects of young EFL learners' speaking skills. Studies which were included in this review focus on language learners between the ages of 6 and 12 who the researchers say were studying in a primary school.

In 2005, Bland carried out research on an interschool drama workshop in the classroom with fourth and fifth class learners (9-12 years old) from different kinds of schools in Nordrhein-Westfalen (Bland, 2014b, p. 163). The learners performed a script of the Pied Piper of Hamlin and gave two large performances. The study revealed that drama has the potential to develop cognitive and affective aspects related to speaking skills. A questionnaire completed by learners revealed that they had enjoyed the drama and they were able to learn their part off by heart. In addition, they had become more autonomous, were proud of their achievements and felt that their self-esteem had also improved. All the learners reported that they would perform in front of an audience again (Bland, 2014b, p. 164). However, a few learners reported

that they did not feel confident about reading the script, particularly the learners who attended the Hauptschule (lower-level secondary school in Germany).

Researchers also investigated the effects of drama on some linguistic aspects of speaking. In particular, three studies with young learners, one in English (Demircioğlu, 2010), one in French (Sambanis, 2011) and one in Welsh (Kalogirou et al., 2019), which employed an experimental or quasi-experimental design, investigated the gains made in vocabulary when vocabulary teaching was accompanied by drama or meaningful movements.

Demircioğlu examined vocabulary gains made by young learners of English through the use of creative drama in 2010 (Demircioğlu, 2010). The learners were in the third class (9-10 years old) in Turkey. They were receiving relatively high input in the English language, as they received eight hours of English teaching each week. The study employed an experimental design where the test and control group were randomly chosen. Thirty-two new words were taught to each group from a course book (Demircioğlu, 2010, p. 441). One group had teaching involving drama and the other group just received translations of the words into Turkish. Learners were given a post-test at the end of the intervention. Results obtained from a T-test performed on the results showed that "teaching vocabulary to young learners through drama is more effective than traditional vocabulary teaching methods" (Demircioğlu, 2010, p. 441). The study however, does not give information about the types of words that were taught, only that the words were related to "collections and animals" (Demircioğlu, 2010, p. 441).

A further study on vocabulary was carried out by Sambanis and Speck in two primary school French classes in Germany in 2010 (Sambanis, 2011). The study explored the effects of movement on the memorization of vocabulary and was inspired by the study on vocabulary and Scenic Learning done by Hille and colleagues (2010) in a secondary school in Germany. Two parallel primary school classes were taught the same vocabulary on the topic of food (Sambanis, 2011). One class was taught with traditional teaching methods. The words were introduced with a picture card and a word, which were then repeated once by the learners. In the parallel class, the same vocabulary was taught with accompanying movements, and the words were repeated simultaneously altogether. The control group was estimated by the class teacher to be roughly the same standard before the treatment as the test group. On the last day of the treatment both classes were tested. Two weeks later after the Easter holidays, both classes were tested again. The first measurement showed that the control group could remember slightly more than the test group. The researcher reported however, that the control group had been given extra training

for the test that the test group had not been given. Therefore, the two groups had had slightly different treatment which could have affected the first set of test results (Sambanis, 2011). However, after the two-week Easter break, the test group performed significantly better in the second test than the control group.

It was concluded that the significantly better results in the test group during the second test were due to a multimodal anchoring in the brain due to the teaching method involving movement used in the test group (Sambanis, 2011, p. 372). Over the holiday break, it was possible that the learners in the test group had subconsciously reactivated the words through similar movements made during play, thus causing a practice effect. It was concluded that less sitting still in lessons would benefit learners and make processing and access to vocabulary easier.

In 2019, Kalogirou and colleagues published a study on "Vocabulary Acquisition via Drama (VAD)" (Kalogirou et al., 2019, p. 332) on primary school learners of Welsh in Wales. VAD is "derived from both process drama and communicative task-based approaches to language teaching" (Kalogirou et al., 2019, p. 332). Play is central to VAD and the drama is approached using pre- and post- drama activities (Kalogirou et al., 2019) similar to the structure proposed by Tselikas (1999) for doing drama with learners of a foreign language (Tselikas, 1999). Two teachers taught their classes vocabulary with the VAD method for one school year (Kalogirou et al., 2019). In the following school year, one of those teachers taught their new class the vocabulary using traditional teaching methods. This class functioned as the control group. The learners in the study were 9-10 years old. They were tested with a pre- and post-retention test in which learners carried out three production tasks. The study showed that VAD helped learners to "retain and retrieve vocabulary for productive use more effectively than traditional techniques" (Kalogirou et al., 2019, p. 339).

A further study in Saudi-Arabia in 2018 also investigated the effects of drama on vocabulary and grammar acquisition, as well as the effects on spoken interaction in the classroom (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020). A case study on drama in EFL with a class of twenty female sixth class students aged 10-12 years old in a primary school in Saka City, Saudi Arabia was conducted by two researchers over an eight-week period in 2018/19. Role play and simulation were employed as drama techniques. A second group of learners formed a control group. All the learners were similar because they were from middle-class backgrounds (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020). Learners were given a multiple-choice language proficiency pre and post-test on

grammar and vocabulary. SPSS was used to compare the results of the test and control groups. In addition, the researchers observed the test group in the classroom using a checklist.

The results from the tests showed that drama improved learners' language proficiency levels in a written test (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020). The classroom observation of the drama group revealed that learners' oral fluency had improved and a higher social interaction level between learners and between learners and the teacher had occurred. Motivation amongst learners was also observed to have improved in the test group. Limitations mentioned by the researchers of this piece of research were that all the research subjects were female and the sample sizes in the test and control groups were relatively small. However, the researchers recommended further research into drama and English language learning "to gain a more comprehensive account of drama use" (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020, p. 61).

Four drama studies were found that solely or partly based the drama on storybooks or picturebooks with young learners. The first study was an action-research story-based drama study with young learners of English in Taiwan entitled *Acting It Out: Children Learning English Through Story-based Drama* (Chang, 2009). A mixed-method study was carried out using quantitative and qualitative research tools. Quantitative data was collected from questionnaires and qualitative data was collected from interviews, participant observations, journals, samples of work and video and audio recordings. Thirty-two fifth graders participated, and 109 teachers returned the questionnaire (Chang, 2009 ii). The research project aimed to find out if

> story-based drama affects children's learning [of] English as a foreign language [and] in what ways [does] story-based drama encourages children's participation in class (Chang, 2009, p. 6).

Learners participated in drama activities which included listening, speaking, reading and writing activities related to the stories. The data collected were used to determine if learners' participation had improved as a result of the intervention and if learners had improved their language (reading, writing, speaking, listening) and "non-verbal communication skills" (Chang, 2009 ii). The results showed that

> With the use of stories and drama, many of the pupils (…) were drawn out of their silence into more active classroom participation (Chang, 2009, p. 330).

However, the results on language skills were "encouragingly positive, but not conclusive" (Chang, 2009, p. 331) due to a number of limitations of the study. These included the

number of participants (32) and that the study took place over only one semester. However, the author did not say why these aspects were limitations. No specific results were presented or discussed on how the four skills improved, although the author commented on how conducting action-research made it difficult to observe the learners from a distance whilst also teaching them (Chang, 2009).

In addition, Chang (2009) raised several questions that future researchers should consider on the choice of story and how this could potentially affect learners' learning. These include for example if the type of story affects learners' "performance in class" (Chang, 2009, p. 331), if particular stories are more suitable for older or younger learners and if learners' reactions are affected by stories that they know or don't know yet. In the project, Chang began with a well-known story because learners had not done drama before and she thought this would help learners to feel less anxious.

In the second drama and literature study that was identified, the drama was based mainly on a class textbook (Elis, 2023). However, one picturebook was used. The study investigated the development of a drama concept to assist learners in the 4th and 5th classes who were changing from primary to secondary school in the school year 2010/11 in Göttingen, Germany. In addition, the study aimed to find out if learners felt that they remained motivated throughout the transition and if they felt that their competences were continuing to be advanced. The study focused on one primary school class and one secondary school class. It aimed to find out, through the use of mixed-method qualitative research, what learners' experiences were like during this phase and what potential they thought that drama had to help during this transition (Elis, 2023, p. 221). The study tested the hypothesis that drama teaching methods have an influence over pupils' subjective perceptions of changing schools (Elis, 2023, p. 226).

Results were obtained from interviews and questionnaires completed by pupils which included open and closed questions (Elis, 2023, p. 221). The data was collected at points throughout the fourth class and at one point during the first four months of the fifth class. In addition, an investigation of the learners' speaking skills and an investigation of drama as a method of teaching in foreign language classes was carried out through the development of English lessons involving drama in the fourth and fifth classes (Elis, 2023, p. 223). This was to be evaluated by the learners so that the lessons could be re-worked and improved. Primarily, the drama activities were based around the learners' textbook. However, one picturebook was also dramatized during the first half of the fourth class in the form of a mini play.

Results of the study, obtained from a questionnaire filled out by the students, showed that the learners in the fourth class said that they felt positive about their experiences. They felt that drama had great potential for improving their motivation levels and speaking skills (Elis, 2023, p. 245). However, in the fifth class, learners reported that they had some speaking inhibitions which the researcher suggested may have something to do with self-confidence levels (Elis, 2023, p. 246).

The study tentatively suggests, that drama has the potential to achieve continuity between the fourth and fifth classes (Elis, 2023, p. 336). No pre or post speaking assessments were carried out with learners to obtain a more objective perspective on the improvement in speaking skills as a result of the drama intervention. However, observations of learners' work on a picturebook and mini-play during the study suggested that these activities helped learners to acquire vocabulary and chunks of language which could then be used by learners in other contexts (Elis, 2023, p. 250). This evidence suggests that drama work with picturebooks has the potential to help learners to develop their vocabulary and speaking skills and warrants further investigation.

The third study involving children's literature and drama was carried out by two researchers Serrurier-Zucker and Gobbé-Mévellec in France in 2014. Thirty-nine 10-12 year old learners participated in drama activities for twelve lessons, based on two picturebooks (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014). One class was taught in English and the other in Spanish. The hypothesis underpinning the research was that the teaching unit "would motivate the class and have a positive consequence on the oral communicative performance" (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014, p. 22). The results were collected through teacher observations which were recorded in research diaries and the learners were asked to fill in a questionnaire. The researchers reported how they had conducted the project and concluded that it was possible in a school setting, although the teachers found it tiring towards the end of the school year. Learners nevertheless, had enjoyed the experience and had not become bored with the picturebooks (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014). The feedback given by learners was very positive. The teachers reported that the learners were able to learn their lines. It was concluded that the learners were motivated by the project. No pre or post assessment was carried out on learners to measure the development of speaking skills. However, the researchers' impression based on observation was that their speaking skills had improved.

The fourth study which included literature with drama found in the literature research was a study on the effects of reading children's literature, writing and performing learners' own plays (Papadopoulos, 2014). It was carried out with fifth class primary school learners aged 11 in Greece in 2014. Fifteen learners who wanted to take an Irish language proficiency test joined the sessions from several different primary schools in Larissa, Greece. There was also a control group containing 15 learners, but no details are included in the report about what activities the control group did. The learners were B1/B2 level (CEFR) (Papadopoulos, 2014, pp. 199–200) which means that they were a higher level than German learners in primary school who are aiming to reach A1 by the end of the fourth class (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016). The study was carried out due to the lack of research on drama and its effects on foreign language learning in Greece (Papadopoulos, 2014). The aim of the study was to find out about the effects of the program on learners' speaking and writing skills.

The project was carried out weekly in one hour a week sessions for five weeks (Papadopoulos, 2014, p. 193). In total the intervention lasted for seven months. In the first session, the books were read to the learners. "Snowwhite, Gulliver's Travels, Around the World in Eighty Days, The Three Little Pigs and the Wolf, Cinderella, Heidi and Oliver Twist" (Papadopoulos, 2014, p. 193) were the stories chosen for the intervention. Whether the stories were picturebooks or not is not mentioned in the text. However, the learners wrote their own plays based on the stories. In the third, fourth and fifth sessions, learners were given feedback on their grammar by the teacher. After the fifth session they performed their plays for the parents. As the program included learners from different primary schools, it can be assumed that the learners were also receiving English teaching in their primary schools in addition to the theatre project.

Results were obtained using two research tools, a "pre-test" and a "post-test" (Papadopoulos, 2014, p. 195) which assessed the learners' speaking and writing skills. A teacher journal was also written after each teaching session. In writing, "text production", "task achievement", "accuracy", "range and complexity" and "grammatical – structural correctness" (Papadopoulos, 2014, pp. 196–199) were assessed. In speaking, "interaction", "communicative effectiveness", "accuracy" and "range and complexity" (Papadopoulos, 2014, pp. 199–201) were assessed. The results for speaking showed that both the test and control groups improved their scores. However, the test group pupils showed a greater improvement than the control group pupils (Papadopoulos, 2014, pp. 200–201). The article does not say if the test and control groups received the same number of lessons. The journal results showed that the lesson objectives were met,

learners enjoyed the activities, always asked to repeat the activities and their behaviour during the lessons was very good (Papadopoulos, 2014, p. 203).

In summary, the review on speaking skills revealed that teachers worldwide found developing speaking skills with young learners particularly challenging (Copland et al., 2014). It was also found that learners were mixed ability. In Germany, evidence from empirical studies on learners at the end of the fourth class also found that they were mixed-ability (Barucki et al., 2015). Some learners also faced specific challenges in speaking such as a lack of vocabulary knowledge to use in speech. Some learners could also only produce single word answers at the end of the fourth class (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019).

Evidence provided by the studies on drama with young EFL learners aged 6-12 in primary schools discussed in this section, indicated that drama has the potential to help learners to remember vocabulary (Demircioğlu, 2010; Sambanis, 2011) and to verbally re-produce words used in drama activities (Kalogirou et al., 2019), suggesting that drama may be an effective way to help learners acquire and use new vocabulary needed for speech. In addition, learners in one study were found to have improved their skills of interaction through drama (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020). Evidence was found that learners could remember language from their scripts (Bland, 2014b; Elis, 2023).

The literature review revealed that there are some challenges in teaching young learners to speak in educational settings. However, there is evidence that suggests that drama may offer some support in the development of oral skills. Taking both aspects into consideration, the following section lays out the goals for this project.

Gaps in Research, Research Questions and Project Aims

This section presents the gaps in research that were identified through the literature review in the previous section. Based on the research gaps and on the theory of speaking and drama, the research questions were developed. These are presented in this section. In addition, the aims of the study are discussed.

Due to the fact that learners are mixed-ability at this level (Barucki et al., 2015), speaking activities that provide support through scaffolding but also offer flexibility, so that learners can choose what they want to say, are needed. Activities that allow varying amounts of participation, may enable a higher level of participation amongst learners as they may be encouraged

to participate in ways that suit them. Drama activities offer a variety of ways for learners to participate, either with large or small speaking parts.

Therefore, the potential of drama in the development of oral skills amongst mixed ability learners makes theoretical sense but does not appear to have been fully investigated yet. No studies on oral skills and drama with young EFL learners approaching A1 level (CEFR) were found in which researchers stated that they had considered the learners' differing speaking abilities in the design.

Very few high-quality empirical studies were found on drama and oral skills with EFL learners aged 9-10. Only one study was found in the literature review which was purely focused on exploring the effects of dramatising picturebooks with young learners. Although the study reported promising results for the development of speaking skills amongst 10-12 year olds (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014), conclusions on the development were reached through casual observation.

Therefore, there is potential for further investigation of the benefits of drama on different aspects of oral skill development with learners aged 9-10. One specific example is the development of vocabulary through drama. Vocabulary development is important at the beginner level, as learners need a store of words to draw on to enable them to speak (Field, 2018). The drama studies reviewed in the literature did not say what kinds of words were acquired by learners through drama (Demircioğlu, 2010; Kalogirou et al., 2019; Sambanis, 2011). Young learners need to acquire a mixture of different types of words to be able to form full sentences, and not just acquire nouns (Dreßler, 2020). Therefore, the acquisition of vocabulary through drama is further investigated in this project.

Evidence was found in the literature review that indicated that drama based on children's literature had positive effects on learners' speaking skills (Chang, 2009; Elis, 2023; Papadopoulos, 2014; Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014). However, limited details of the ways in which learners' speaking skills developed were provided, and the effect of different types of children's literature was not clear. It seems that there is a gap in empirical research on the effects of oral skills when picturebooks are dramatised with young learners who are younger than ten. Not much is known about the effects of the choice of text for dramatisation on learners' oral skills. Chang (2009) suggests that the choice of picturebook for dramatisation should be carefully considered, as it may influence learner outcomes. This study also considers the choice of

picturebook used for dramatisation by evaluating the picturebooks for suitability with young EFL learners doing drama activities.

In the German context, only two studies were found which included primary school-aged learners (Bland, 2014b; Elis, 2023) and neither of those studies focused primarily on the dramatisation of picturebooks within the curriculum framework to develop oral skills with learners in the fourth class. Further studies in a German context which explore how teaching with drama could fit into the primary school English curriculum could be carried out.

In addition, there were a lack of studies that focussed on how drama can be used to help beginner language learners who are pre-A1 or A1 level to further develop their oral skills. No studies were found that aimed to help mixed ability learners in educational settings with limited time to advance towards A1 goals. Therefore, a study which empirically investigates whether the dramatisation of picturebooks has the potential to develop speaking skills at the beginner level in mixed-ability groups within a limited time frame, has not been done.

This study aimed to investigate the gaps in research discussed above through the dramatisation of several picturebooks with learners aged 9-10, and to empirically investigate the effects by collecting quantitative and qualitative data on oral skills.

In summary, this study aimed to

1. add to the empirical evidence on drama in the EFL primary school classroom which is currently limited.
2. develop a drama intervention based on picturebooks for mixed-ability learners aged 9-10 who are learning English in an educational setting with limited time but where curriculum goals should also be met.
3. create an intervention based on carefully chosen picturebooks to investigate the potential to develop learners' oral skills in the approach to A1 level.

The project had one main research question and one sub-question. The research questions referred to young learners in the fourth class in Baden-Württemberg. The main research question was:

RQ1. Does picturebook dramatisation have the potential to develop young learners' oral skills?

The sub-question was:

RQ2. In what ways do learners' oral skills develop?

Five hypotheses were formulated based on the theoretical benefits of drama on speech.

HP1 Learners' use of vocabulary in speech broadens.

HP2 Learners use of chunks of language in speech increases.

HP3 Learners memorize short phrases from the picturebook and drama activities.

HP4 Interaction between learners during group work increases.

HP5 Learners become more confident in speaking.

This section summarized the issues to be addressed by this research and laid out the gaps which were found during the literature review on the effects of drama on oral skills development with learners aged 9-10 at A1 level. The research questions and hypotheses that were tested during the project were presented. The next section describes the method for setting up the picturebook dramatisation intervention and collecting the results on oral skills.

The Research Method in Brief

This section gives a brief overview of the research method employed to answer the research questions laid out in the previous section. The section also includes justifications for the decisions that were made during the research process.

The chosen research question required the testing of an intervention to be carried out to ascertain its effects. This kind of research asks "what happens when" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 115; Thomas, 2009, p. 92) this intervention is used? A mixed method research approach was chosen to answer the question which included the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data (Wilson, 2017) on speaking skills. A mixed method research approach was considered to be a suitable research method for a study on drama as it had been used in a number of other drama studies with young learners (Chang, 2009; Elis, 2023; Papadopoulos, 2014). The researcher planned to use it to assess different aspects of speaking skills in different ways. It was hoped that the qualitative data in the form of unstructured classroom observations and a research journal (Dörnyei, 2007) would help to "obtain a more reliable and authentic view" (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017, p. 160) by looking at the situation from different angles. A mixed method research design would also allow the researcher to gain data on speaking in both a classroom setting using observation, and in a more formal setting talking about some pictures with pairs of learners.

Quantitative data was collected on the learners' speaking skills in the form of a pre and post speaking assessment, before and after the intervention. This part of the investigation employed a quasi-experimental design with a control group (Winterbottom, 2017). Experimental and quasi-experimental test designs were also found amongst the drama studies with young learners reviewed in the literature review (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020; Demircioğlu, 2010; Kalogirou et al., 2019; Papadopoulos, 2014; Sambanis, 2011). The pre and post assessment data that were collected in this study were compared to look for change in learners' oral skills. The Control Group acted as a "base line" (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014, p. 231) as "change over time is likely to happen, irrespective of whether an experiment had taken place" (Denscombe, 2021, p. 112). Several of the drama studies that were reviewed above also had control groups.

In addition, quantitative data was collected using a classroom observation form (Wragg, 1999) during the drama group work phases. This focused on what the learners said to each other and how they interacted within their group during the groupwork phases. The observation forms from each unit were compared to look for change. This observation took place once per picturebook.

At the end of each picturebook unit, the learners were also asked to fill in a short six question self-assessment questionnaire in which they gave feedback on aspects such as whether they liked the picturebook, had understood the story, if they had enjoyed the drama activities and how they felt about speaking in front of their group. The self-assessment questionnaire had a Likert format, requiring the learners to circle the Smiley which most closely represented their feelings about each question (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017). The self-assessment forms were also used to look for change in attitudes throughout the project.

Through the employment of these quantitative and qualitative research tools, the "triangulation of sources, of methods and of investigators" (Evans, 2017b, p. 211) was attempted. The aim of triangulation is to counterbalance threats to validity inherent in using a single research method. The quantitative results collected were analysed with SPSS and the qualitative results were analysed with MAXQDA.

As picturebooks had been chosen as a basis for the drama activities, suitable picturebooks for use in the fourth class first had to be identified and chosen before the lesson plans could be written. Chang (2009) highlighted the need for a careful choice of text to suit the age and experience of learners. This was taken into consideration during this stage. Suitable picturebooks were identified according to the criteria for choosing a good story for EFL learners

(G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014). In addition, the vocabulary in each book was analysed with a tagger tool called CLAWS provided by UCREL at Lancaster University (UK) to determine the number of conjunctions, adjectives, nouns, verbs and prepositions present in the story. The total number of words in the story were also counted using this tool. The books were divided into three categories according to difficulty with group 1 being the easiest and group 3 the most difficult according to the results of the analysis. Four picturebooks were then chosen from the categories and five lesson plans were written for each book in preparation for the project. These lesson plans were subsequently adjusted as the project progressed.

Emails were sent to thirty primary schools in the area where the researcher lived, to ask if English teachers in the fourth class would be interested in participating with their classes in the following school year 2023/24 in the picturebook and drama project English lessons. Seven teachers replied that they would be interested. Each of the schools was situated in a different small town in Baden-Württemberg. Each class contained between 17 and 27 learners.

As several teachers from different schools in different areas had expressed an interest in participating in the project and the researcher was keen to collect an adequate amount of quantitative data, permission was sought and obtained from the *Regierungspräsidium Stuttgart* to conduct the project in more than one school. Conducting the project in multiple schools would not only allow for the collection of a larger set of results but would also allow a larger number of classes to participate as there was a clear interest in the project. A larger number of participants would also allow a "safety margin" in the sample to allow for "unforeseen or unplanned circumstances" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 100). Permission from the learners' parents was also sought and obtained for data collection for the speaking assessments and learner self-assessment forms. Approximately two thirds of parents in each school gave their permission.

A pilot study of ten lessons was carried out in one school in the Autumn term of the school year 2023/24 to test out the project and make any necessary adjustments. The results collection of the test phase took place in the Spring and Summer terms 2024 in several schools. Either ten or fifteen lessons were conducted in each school. Each class teacher was given the lesson plans in advance and taught the lessons to their own class.

The speaking assessments were recorded on an audio device by the researcher and then later transcribed. Everything that each learner said was highlighted with a colour. The transcriptions were then analysed in two different ways. Initially, the recordings were assessed using speaking descriptors. The researcher listened carefully and gave each learner a score for

vocabulary, structure and coherence, communication and task achievement. Each learner received a total from 0-16 points. The descriptors were designed with reference to the descriptors used for assessing the speaking tests in PEAK1 (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019). The descriptors had to be detailed enough for the researcher to be able to differentiate between achievement bands. The bands got incrementally harder. The learners were then grouped into four groups, group 1 being the weakest and group 4, the strongest.

The transcripts could be listened to as many times as needed to allow the researcher to give an accurate mark for each category. The transcripts were also assessed anonymously. This meant that the researcher did not know which transcript belonged to which learner during the assessment process, as only the pseudonym number to anonymize learners was used as a reference. The pre- and post-assessment scores were compared for each learner to find out how their speaking skills had changed as a result of the intervention.

A second level of quantitative analysis was also performed on each transcript. The English words and phrases produced by each learner were isolated and analysed with the CLAWS POS tagger (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) to find out what kinds of words the learners had produced in the speaking assessment. Focus was given to the number of conjunctions, adjectives, nouns, verbs and prepositions (CANVP) found in each transcript and the total number of words produced by each learner were also counted. The results from the pre and post assessments were compared to find out if the types of words that learners produced showed any change and if learners had produced more English words in the post assessment than in the pre assessment.

The data from the classroom observations were written up in a research journal which was analysed qualitatively with MAXQDA. Information contained in the journal was coded with oral skills codes that were defined in the theory section. The data collected from both the quantitative analysis and the qualitative analysis together were used to assess how learners' oral skills had developed as a result of the intervention.

It was decided that the study would be limited to the fourth class of primary school in Baden-Württemberg for several reasons. Firstly, large scale testing in Germany since EFL was introduced to primary schools has focused most heavily on the fourth class (Barucki et al., 2015; Engel, 2009; Kolb & Legutke, 2019), as this is the final class of primary school before learners change to secondary school. Therefore, there is a special focus on the fourth class in Germany and consequently more literature published on which to base further research.

Secondly, learners in the fourth class in Baden-Württemberg have had English teaching in the third class and it was expected that they would be able to understand enough to be able to participate in drama activities which involved speaking in English. At the beginning of the third class, there is often a heavier emphasis on listening and a lot of input is given (Dreßler, 2020). Later on in the third and in the fourth classes, more emphasis should be placed on output.

Thirdly, it was judged to be unrealistic for a solo researcher, to attempt to collect enough quantitative data on speaking skills to determine a pattern in more than one year group. Baden-Württemberg was chosen because it is the federal state where the researcher lived at the time of the study. It was practical to search for schools that would like to participate in the local area, so that the researcher could visit the schools to liaise with the teacher and observe the lessons.

It was decided that the class teacher would teach the intervention lessons so that the researcher could observe the learners participating in the intervention in the classroom. As the aim of the research was to try to find out what potential the intervention had on the development of learners' oral skills, it was the researcher's goal only to change the type of teaching and nothing else, in order to isolate the factor being tested (Winterbottom, 2017). Changing the teacher would introduce a second element of change, making it more difficult to attribute any change in the learners' oral skills to the intervention. Because the teacher was the usual class teacher and had not received further training in pronunciation, the learners' pronunciation was only observed in the classroom. It was not assessed with speaking descriptors. This was because the teacher is the greatest source of "listening input" (Pinter, 2006, p. 45) for the learners. So, it was hard to see how learners' pronunciation would improve if the pronunciation input that they were receiving was the same as usual.

Similarly, it was decided that the researcher would administer the speaking assessments, as the researcher had received training as an EFL speaking examiner. To find, recruit, train and pay suitable alternative speaking examiners was not realistic within the given framework of the project. The same was true for the analysis of the speaking assessments which were evaluated by the researcher. The assessment was multilayered and as objective as possible.

This section briefly described and explained the research methodology used in this mixed-method research study. In the next section, the structure of the work is explained.

Structure of the Work

This section describes how the project is organised and provides a summary of each section. The work is divided into six sections. The first chapter gives a brief introduction and background to the project and includes the literature review.

The second chapter addresses the theoretical background to the work and explains why the design makes theoretical sense. It is divided into four sections which are pertinent to the research subject. The first section addresses oral skills. It begins with definitions of key terms used throughout the project. This is followed by an examination of the expectations of young learners at the beginner level and a definition of the goals for speaking set by the CEFR and primary school curriculum for primary school learners in Baden-Württemberg, Germany. Language acquisition theories which relate to the development of speaking skills are then discussed in relation to their relevance to young learners. The sub-skills of speech which are important for A1 learners to develop are discussed and defined. These include linguistic skills (e.g. use of vocabulary, collocations, language chunks), cognitive skills (e.g. thinking) physical skills (e.g. pronunciation) and social and emotional skills (interaction skills). This is followed by a discussion of the types of speaking activities which are helpful for young learners in the development of speaking skills at primary school level. Finally, the relationship between listening and speaking and the importance of developing listening skills to promote the development of speaking skills, is discussed.

Section 2 of the theory chapter addresses the theory of drama in relation to speaking skill development. It begins with a brief review of the historical contexts of drama in education and then moves on to define drama and the theoretical and practical applications of drama on the development of listening and speaking skills. Section 3 explores the role of picturebooks in the acquisition of oral skills. It begins by defining picturebooks and discussing the qualities that they possess which make them suitable for developing listening and speaking skills. It continues by discussing the criteria for choosing suitable picturebooks for EFL lessons and for dramatisation purposes. Finally, ways in which picturebooks can be dramatised for the primary EFL classroom to develop oral skills are explained. The theory section concludes with section 4 which addresses the theory of assessment of young learners' speaking skills. Types of assessment including teacher and learner-based assessments of oral skills and oral testing practices are explained. The chapter concludes by examining how oral skill development through drama can be assessed.

Chapter 3 presents the gap in research which was identified through the literature review and presents the research questions and hypotheses developed for the project. The chapter describes the empirical research process. A detailed discussion of the considerations made in the choice of research design and in the development of the research instruments is included in this section. The method for analysis of the collected data to reach the answer to the research questions is explained. An explanation and justification for decisions made during the research process are provided.

Chapter 4 presents the quantitative and qualitative results gathered during the four test phases. It is divided into three sections. The first section presents and describes the quantitative results of the pilot study and the main study in the test schools. This is followed by a presentation of a selection of qualitative results on each of the oral skills from the Research Journal analysis. The third section merges the quantitative and qualitative results into four joint displays or mixed method tables on the oral skills that were assessed in the project. There is one joint display for each school. The joint displays merge the quantitative and qualitative data to draw inferences or conclusions about the development of learners' oral skills in each test school.

In chapter 5 there is a discussion of the results presented in chapter 4. The discussion is divided into sections. The first section discusses the overall results from the four test schools and answers the main research question. This is followed by a discussion of the results obtained in each test school. Comparisons between the results are made and explanations for the findings are made in relation to existing theory. Finally, the results are discussed in relation to the linguistic, cognitive, physical, and social and emotional aspects of the development of speaking skills amongst young learners, which were investigated in this study. The sub-research question is answered and the hypotheses are accepted or rejected. This is followed by a discussion of the limitations of this research and the measures taken by the researcher to try to limit their impact on the results. An outlook for the future is given which includes suggestions for future research. The final section provides a summary of each chapter of the thesis and discusses the work's contribution to research.

The Acquisition of Oral Skills by Young EFL Learners

This chapter defines what is meant by the terms "oral skills" and "young EFL learners". The goals for the development of EFL speaking skills at primary school level in Germany are analysed with reference to the CEFR and curriculum for English teaching in primary schools in Baden-Württemberg. The discussion then moves on to describe the theoretical process of learning to speak which is followed by an investigation of oral skills frameworks designed for young learners. These frameworks suggest the processes and sub-skills that young learners need to develop oral skills in a foreign language and may help teachers to select appropriate speaking activities. How these processes and sub-skills relate to the expectations of the Common European Framework of languages (CEFR) is also investigated. The chapter continues with an investigation of how speaking is taught in primary schools to illustrate how the intervention used in this project fits with what is already known about good practice in the teaching of speaking at this level. Finally, a look at the key skill of listening is taken to demonstrate why listening is essential and how it can contribute to the development of oral skills.

Defining The Terms "Young Learner" and "EFL learner"

There are many definitions of what constitutes a "young learner". Broadly, the term describes "students younger than those entering college" (Nikolov & Timpe-Laughlin, 2021, p. 3). However, the term can also describe young learners as those who are learning a foreign language in "the first six or seven years of formal schooling" (McKay, 2005, p. 1). This means that learners are often attending primary school. The age range between "five and twelve" is often given (McKay, 2005, p. 1), although some authors also include Kindergarten learners in this category too (Bland, 2015c; Papp, 2022). In other cases learners up to the age of 16 are also described as young learners which means that students in secondary school could also be described with this term (Papp, 2022, p. 389). In this research project the term "young learner" is used to describe primary school learners who are studying in the fourth class of primary school and are nine or ten years old.

English as a foreign language (EFL) learners are learning a foreign language in school or language classes in a situation where that language is not heard very often outside of lessons (McKay, 2005). This is because the language is not spoken by the native population in the country where they are living in regular interactions. Often EFL learners have relatively low exposure to the language each week. The main contact with the language is during language lessons. This describes the learners who participated in this research project.

EFL is not to be confused with ESL which stands for “English as a second language” (McKay, 2005). ESL learners are learning a language which is not their mother tongue perhaps for example, because they are living in a country where their mother tongue is not the official language. This could be for example, the children of expats who learn the language of their host country whilst they are living there. Generally, in contexts such as these, the exposure to the second language is much higher than in EFL contexts because the language is used in the country where they are living. In English speaking countries this is also known as “English as an additional language” (EAL) (McKay, 2005).

Defining Oral Skills

Oral skills are required to produce speech. “Oral” is an adjective meaning “spoken not written” (Cambridge University Press and Assessment, 2024). A “skill” is an ability. The term “oral skills” is a collocation used to refer to the skills required for speaking. Therefore, the terms “oral skills” and “speaking skills” are often used interchangeably to mean the same thing.

Another similar word to “oral” is the word “aural” which sounds the same when spoken. However, the term “aural” refers to hearing. The Cambridge English dictionary simply defines “aural” as

> relating to hearing (Cambridge University Press and Assessment, 2024).

Therefore, the terms “oral” and “aural” are to be understood as two different skills. However, speaking and listening skills are sometimes referred to together as “oral/aural skills” (Nikolov & Timpe-Laughlin, 2021, p. 29).

The term “Oracy” is also used to refer to speaking and listening skills. “Oracy” was adopted by Andrew Wilkinson (1965), a British professor, to raise the profile of speaking and listening skills to the same level as “literacy skills” (reading and writing skills) in the British school system (Mercer et al., 2017, p. 52). Speaking skills were a group of skills which had been neglected in that context in favour of a strong focus on the development of literacy skills. Recently however, the term “oracy” has gained recognition internationally as people are becoming more aware of the importance of developing speaking skills (Cambridge Assessment International Education, 2022). “Oracy” is defined in the Cambridge English dictionary as

> the ability to speak clearly and grammatically correctly (Cambridge University Press and Assessment, 2024).

Both “oracy” (Lopriore, 2025) and “oral skills” (Čengić, 2025; R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017; Mourão et al., 2025; Sougari & Batsari, 2025) are terms that were used in recent research on speaking. Whereas oracy is used with reference to speaking and listening together, the term “oral skills” is used in reference to speaking (Čengić, 2025; Mourão et al., 2025; Sougari & Batsari, 2025). In a recent publication, Lopriore (2025) defined oracy in the following way:

> Oracy is now perceived as a process whereby students learn by being exposed to listening and engaged in speaking, thus deepening their understanding through dialogue (Lopriore, 2025, p. 8).

Skills can improve with practice (Cambridge University Press and Assessment, 2024). They are dynamic and can change over time. To develop skills, it is not enough for a learner to be told the theory of how to do something, to acquire that skill themself, they must actively try it out (Haith & Krakauer, 2018, p. 196). It may take some time and practice to become proficient at a skill.

> Practice has a multitude of effects on behavior, including increasing the speed of performance, rendering the practiced behavior habitual and reducing the cognitive load required to perform the task. These effects are often collectively referred to as automaticity (Haith & Krakauer, 2018, p. 196).

This is also true of speaking skills. Speaking can only be learnt through the act of speaking itself (Böttger, 2016, p. 137). If a learner would like to become a more proficient speaker, he should speak a lot (Newton & Nation, 2021). When a learner speaks, he or she practises the skills needed to speak. Eventually with enough practise, speaking will become quicker and easier for the speaker and becomes a habit (Haith & Krakauer, 2018). Therefore, the use of the word “skill” for the purposes of this project, refers to activities which can be improved over time with practice.

Oral skills refer to speaking skills. Oral skills and speaking skills will be used interchangeably throughout the following pages. Speaking is a productive skill in which speakers actively use “language to express meaning” (Kirkgöz, 2022, p. 172). Speech is the transformation of “intentions, thoughts [and] feelings into fluently articulated speech” (Levelt, 1989, p. 1). Levelt (1989) argues that the formation of speech is a complicated cognitive process composed of many sub-processes operating in parallel and consecutively.

Speaking has a high value in language learning because many people associate knowing a language with being able to speak it and this is the aim of most language learners (R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017). Yet, there is a lack of research on spoken forms of language. An investigation of international journals revealed many more articles on writing than on speaking (R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017, p. 12). This could be because speaking is difficult to study because it covers many different disciplines e.g. “pragmatics”, “ethnography”, “syntax”, “grammar”, “neurolinguistics” and “psycholinguistics” (R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017, p. 4), just to name a few.

In addition, Hughes and Szczepek Reed, (2017) argue that speech and language have become difficult to separate which affects what is researched in the field of speech.

> For if language and speech are seen as indistinguishable, one kind of research will be carried out, and if they are regarded as distinct areas of investigation, then different kinds of research – ones that attend to channel, mode, and context – will be seen as appropriate (R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017, p. 13).

This intertwining of language with speech makes

> focusing on the skill of speaking in its own right [difficult] when it comes to pedagogy (R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017, p. 3).

Spoken forms of language are also unstable and “difficult to establish” (R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017, p. 6). Written forms in comparison are much more stable and don’t change as quickly as dynamic spoken forms. Therefore, teachers and materials writers may feel much more confident about focusing on written forms than spoken forms because they are easier to pin down (R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017).

Therefore, in the teaching of speaking there is uncertainty about what should be taught. People also hold different beliefs about how speaking skills should be taught to second language learners. Some argue that teachers should be teaching “the spoken form of the language” (R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017, p. 6) e.g. what people actually say in English. However, if that is the case, then a decision must be made about which form. Others argue that teachers should instead be focusing on teaching the language through speech (R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017, p. 6). The way these questions are answered influence beliefs about how speaking should be taught.

How learners should be taught foreign language is also debated because people hold different views on how learners acquire speaking skills. Hughes and Szczepek Reed (2017) attribute this divergence of opinions to two influential but opposing, twentieth century theories on first language acquisition. These theories also influenced views on second language acquisition (R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017). Noam Chomsky (1960s), an American linguist, argued that people have language ability or "competence" (R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017, p. 13) and are pre-programmed to acquire language naturally according to the principle of Universal Grammar (UG). This theory largely replaced B.F. Skinner's behaviourist theory from the earlier twentieth century, which argued that people acquire language from external stimuli, through interacting with their surroundings and through "trial and error" (R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017, p. 15), rather than through an innate ability. These two theories

> have a strong bearing on both the status of speech data in linguistic science and on theories of teaching language (R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017, p. 15).

Schachter (1990) however, found that learners who are learning English as their second language refer to their first language for grammar knowledge. Therefore, Schachter argues the principle of Universal Grammar (UG) does not apply to them (Schachter, 1990). Learners who have left infanthood base every additional language that they learn upon their mother tongue (Böttger, 2016).

Currently, yet another change of emphasis is in progress, away from "native speaker accuracy" towards the more realistic goal of "effective communication" (Georgountzou & Tsantila, 2025, p. 158). This is in part due to the rise in interest in multilingual teaching and the ever increasing number of non-native speakers of English in school systems (Lopriore, 2025).

Given that the initial stages of learning a language are key to further language development (Mohtar et al., 2015), it is perhaps helpful for teachers who have to make decisions about what to teach, to consult curriculum documents prepared by experts, as guidance. There are several documents available to EFL teachers to help them to decide what to teach in relation to speaking skills, and what is appropriate for learners at each language learning level. The most significant of these are the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2020). In Baden-Württemberg, the English curriculum for primary school English (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016) is available. These and other relevant documents are reviewed in the following section to find out what the expectations for young EFL learners at beginner level are in Baden-Württemberg.

The Expectations of Young Learners at the Beginner Level

To gain an idea of the level of oral skills that can be developed by learners, it is helpful to have a reference point to consult. The Common European Framework for Reference (CEFR) provides descriptors for each of the language learning levels from Pre A1-C2 (Council of Europe, 2020). Although this document was developed for adults and not for young learners, many school curricula are often based on the CEFR descriptors (Hasselgreen & Caudwell, 2016). The curriculum for primary school English in Baden-Württemberg is based upon the descriptors for A1 level (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016). Therefore, to know what learners are aiming for in the development of their speaking skills and to be able to plan appropriate activities to help them, curriculum documents should be consulted.

The CEFR (2020) identifies sub-skills or competences needed for speech which are discussed in the following section. These include "vocabulary range and control, grammatical accuracy, phonological control, fluency, coherence, propositional precision [and] turntaking" (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 129). The CEFR clearly differentiates between what is expected of learners at each of the language learning competence levels from A1-C2. What is expected of beginner learners is much less than the expectations of advanced learners. The expectations of A1 level learners are therefore, considered to be realistic even though they were not developed with young learners in mind. Little (2006) argues that the CEFR description of spoken production "can be mastered by learners of any age" (Little, 2006, p. 174).

However, advanced level descriptors (C2) are not considered realistic for young learners due to the advanced linguistic and cognitive demands required (Little, 2006). This means that it would not even be realistic to expect an L1 speaking child to fulfil the C2 level criteria for speaking. However, this research project focuses its attention on the goals for primary school EFL learners. In Baden-Württemberg the curriculum states that A1 level is the goal (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016).

As the CEFR was not created for young learners, a new document for 7–10-year-olds entitled *Collated Representative Samples of Descriptors of Language Competences Developed for Young Learners* (2018) was created by a panel of experts from the EU. The document was created by consulting language portfolios and other language sources to create a set of descriptors specifically for young learners (Szabo, 2018). These descriptors for 7–10-year-olds are also briefly considered, although the Baden-Württemberg curriculum does not reference this document specifically.

The development of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) is an important goal in foreign language teaching (CEFR Expert Group, 2023). The CEFR makes reference to "Sociocultural Competence" (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 31). However, no descriptors for ICC for learners A1-C2 are provided in the document. Therefore, it is not entirely clear what is expected by the CEFR of learners at A1 level in terms of ICC.

The Demands of the CEFR on Oral Skills

The CEFR which provides educational goals for EFL learners, defines speaking skills in relationship to the development of communicative competence. Communicative competence involves much more than just the acquisition of linguistic knowledge (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 9). The CEFR Descriptive Scheme states in relation to the development of communicative competences that:

> In any communicative situation, general competences (for example, knowledge of the world, sociocultural competence, intercultural competence, professional experience if any) are always combined with communicative language competences (linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences) and strategies (some general, some communicative language strategies) in order to complete a task (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 9).

The CEFR provides a diagram which depicts three main strands of "communicative language competence" (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 129). The three categories are "linguistic competence", "sociolinguistic competence" and "pragmatic competence" which together form the requirements for "communicative language competence". Each sub-component of the three categories contributes to overall communicative language competence. Listed under "linguistic competence" are "general linguistic range, vocabulary range, grammatical accuracy, vocabulary control, phonological control" and "orthographic control". Under "Sociolinguistic control" is "sociolinguistic appropriateness" and under "pragmatic competence", "flexibility, turntaking, thematic development, coherence and cohesion, propositional precision" and "fluency". These sub-categories can be considered as sub-skills which together contribute to communicative language competence. Although the competences are depicted separately in the diagram, they are "intertwined" and cannot be separated (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 129).

The CEFR also describes the competences further and provides descriptors for language learners from pre-A1 (beginner) level to C2 level (advanced). The descriptors become incrementally more demanding for each of the competences depicted in the diagram, as learners

improve (Council of Europe, 2020, pp. 130–142). However, at A1 level there are no descriptors for "vocabulary control", "flexibility", "turntaking" or "thematic development" (Council of Europe, 2020, pp. 138–140).

Jäger (2018) argues that the development of communicative competence including linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences is not possible for learners in primary school settings (Jäger, 2020, p. 139). The ability of young learners to communicate

> under a range of circumstances depends on the degree of language ability. This is particularly true of sociolinguistic ability when it comes to getting people to do things, which has been seen to be age related (Hasselgreen & Caudwell, 2016, p. 20).

Communication in the real world is very broad. There are many situations in which people need to communicate with different people and in different ways. Learners need time to listen and understand (Jäger, 2020). Gradually learners must build up knowledge of communication so that they are able to communicate appropriately in a range of situations.

At A1 level learners are not expected or required to have acquired all the competences needed for communication in a measurable capacity yet. The scales are designed to help to identify new language forms which are emerging, rather than language that has been fully acquired (Council of Europe, 2020). The competences that they are in the process of acquiring are not expected to be complete at A1 level. Communicative language competence in the CEFR diagram however, is presented as the goal and young learners are in the process of acquiring the competences depicted (Jäger, 2020). Their skills are not yet fully developed.

The CEFR descriptors (2020) describe the sub-competences and knowledge which contribute to communicative competence at A1 level with "can do" statements, as listed below:

> General Linguistic Range:
>
> [The learner] has a very basic range of simple expressions about personal details and needs of a concrete type (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 131).
>
> [The learner] can use some basic structures in one-clause sentences with some omission or reduction of elements.
>
> Vocabulary Range:
>
> [The learner] has a basic vocabulary repertoire of words/signs and phrases related to particular concrete situations (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 131).

Grammatical Accuracy:

[The learner] Shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a learnt repertoire (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 132).

Phonological control:

Pronunciation of a very limited repertoire of learnt words and phrases can be understood with some effort by interlocutors used to dealing with speakers of the language group. Can reproduce correctly a limited range of sounds as well as stress for simple, familiar words and phrases (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 135).

[The learner] can reproduce sounds in the target language if carefully guided. Can articulate a limited number of sounds, so that speech is only intelligible if the interlocutor provides support (e.g. by repeating correctly and by eliciting repetition of new sounds).

[The learner] can use the prosodic features of a limited repertoire of simple words and phrases intelligibly, in spite of a very strong influence on stress, rhythm and/or intonation from the other language(s) they speak; their interlocutor needs to be collaborative.

Sociolinguistic appropriateness:

[The learner] can establish basic social contact by using the simplest everyday polite forms of: greetings and farewells; introductions; saying please, thank you, sorry, etc (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 137).

Coherence and cohesion:

[The learner] can link words/signs or groups of words/signs with very basic linear connectors (e.g. “and” or “then”) (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 141).

Propositional precision:

[The learner] can communicate basic information about personal details and needs of a concrete type in a simple way (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 142).

Fluency:

[The learner] can manage very short, isolated, mainly pre-packaged utterances, with much pausing to search for expressions, to articulate less familiar words/signs, and to repair communication (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 142).

The 2018 document specifically for young learners who are 7-10 years old is also divided into language learning levels from pre-A1 to C1 level (Szabo, 2018, p. 157). The competences are described with "can do" statements which provide concrete examples of what can be expected of learners at this age. For listening at A1 level, for example the document says:

> I can follow a short story if I listen to it and look at it several times (Szabo, 2018, p. 24).
>
> I can understand when someone speaks about animals in simple, short sentences e.g. A tiger lives in the jungle.
>
> I can perform the actions to a song or story as I hear it.

The "can do" descriptors for speaking at A1 level say for example,

> I can retell a simple, short story e.g. a holiday story (Szabo, 2018, p. 32).

Likes and dislikes, giving simple information, describing familiar places and objects, hobbies and free time activities are also included (Szabo, 2018). The descriptors for reading include for example,

> I can recognize and read out familiar words from a story (Szabo, 2018, p. 28).
>
> I can read and understand familiar words from a song we have sung together.

The Demands of the Baden-Württemberg English Curriculum

The English curriculum for Baden-Württemberg is based on the main CEFR document produced for all learners (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016). There are five goals for communicative competence mentioned in the Baden-Württemberg curriculum for primary school English. It says that learners should:

> 1. acquire understandable pronunciation
>
> 2. use clear intonation for communicative intentions (questioning, giving information, requests)
>
> 3. make oneself understood with the help of practised formulaic phrases and short phrases (monologue speaking)
>
> 4. take an increasingly active part in conversations (speaking in dialogue)

> 5. gradually utilize the possibilities of written communication (understanding or composing short written messages) (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016, p. 9)

The emphasis of communicative competence in the primary school rests with the development of speaking skills (Mindt & Schlüter, 2003). The curriculum of Baden-Württemberg also states that the aim for young learners is to reach Level A1 (CEFR) by the end of the fourth class (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016). The curriculum provides seven further specific goals for the development of speaking. Learners should be able to:

1. make themselves understood (includes nonverbally).
2. introduce themselves and use simple polite forms.
3. say what their likes and dislikes are.
4. ask questions and formulate answers.
5. formulate their wishes.
6. use rehearsed means of speech to talk about people, animals, places, things and conditions.
7. reproduce short rhymes, songs and role plays. (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016, pp. 11–12)

In order to be able to reach these goals, learners have to develop cognitive, linguistic and physical skills to be able to speak (Levelt, 1989).

In relation to young learners who are learning English as a foreign language, there seems to be agreement that the goal of speaking at primary school level is communication (Kirsch, 2008). The focus in the primary school context is on communicating meaning rather than on accuracy, although certain skills such as pronunciation benefit from correct practice right from the start. This is because pronunciation which is mislearnt is very difficult to correct later (Böttger, 2016). Therefore, both fluency and accuracy in speaking need to be developed (Cameron, 2001) so that learners are enabled to communicate and can be understood by other people.

Intercultural Communicative Competence

The development of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) is also an important goal for young learners (Legutke et al., 2014). ICC is an important aspect of communicative skills in a foreign language. Learners of English will invariably at some point interact with other speakers of English who may come from a variety of cultures. Having ICC skills

helps learners to communicate appropriately and successfully. Therefore, ICC is briefly addressed here in respect to speaking skills. The Council of Europe defines ICC as:

> the ability to understand and respect each other across all types of cultural barriers.
>
> [It is a] set of knowledge and skills necessary for people and organisations to act in an intercultural way in diverse societies (Council of Europe, 2024).

Simply put, ICC

> refers to the ability to understand cultures including your own, and to use this understanding to communicate with people from other cultures successfully (The British Council, 2024).

Over the past two decades since the introduction of English to primary schools in Baden-Württemberg, the profile of ICC has been raised. In Baden-Württemberg it is also included in the primary school English curriculum in the section on cultural competences (3.2.3) (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016, p. 16). Under a subheading of "Sociocultural knowledge and intercultural competence" the goals of ICC for primary school English are to familiarise pupils with the world of the target language and to encourage the development of openness and tolerance for language, people and the different cultures of the target language (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016).

Byram (2021) argues that ICC has become important due to changes within society (Byram, 2021). Society today is subject to the movement of people, not just in terms of the level of tourism that is experienced but also due to the movement of people related to war and unfavourable economic conditions. Byram uses the word "*sojourner"* (Byram, 2021, p. 3) to describe people who migrate and live amongst other cultures. Therefore, these days children are increasingly likely to grow up in a multicultural society where they frequently meet and also grow up with a mixture of people from other cultures. Therefore, the development of ICC is an increasingly important skill.

It seems however, that a certain knowledge or awareness of culture is first required before ICC can develop. The discussion of culture cannot be avoided when we are learning a language (Böttger, 2020b) because language and culture cannot be separated. The Cambridge English dictionary defines culture as:

> the way of life, especially the general customs and beliefs, of a particular group of people at a particular time (Cambridge University Press and Assessment, 2024).

To be able to communicate and behave appropriately with people from other cultures, it is helpful to know something about the customs, practices or expectations of the people. Knowledge of the polite forms of the language are helpful for interacting with people (Böttger, 2020b).

> Understanding cultural conventions of interaction and rules of social engagement, therefore, is considered essential to minimize the potential for offense or miscommunication (Driscoll & Simpson, 2015, p. 170).

Driscoll and Simpson (2015) argue that culture is all around us both visually and in the behaviour and customs of people. However, culture is also invisible and penetrates society in unspoken ways through people's perceptions, beliefs, heritage and hopes for the future (Driscoll & Simpson, 2015). Therefore, children are likely to already be subconsciously or consciously aware of the "macrocultures" that surround them in society and from a young age begin to learn how to adjust their behaviour to "respond in different settings" (Driscoll & Simpson, 2015, p. 169). In German speaking places, English speaking culture is also widely accepted, particularly amongst young people (Böttger, 2020b). English speaking culture and the English language is also experienced through television programs, films and the internet. Some English words have even filtered into the German language and are used in everyday speech. Therefore, primary school is a good time to talk to children about culture. Many people think that primary school aged children are well suited to the introduction of other cultures, as they are open and have fewer fixed ideas on cultural differences (Kirsch, 2008, p. 155).

Intercultural learning can take place in English lessons. Although English is not the only subject which is responsible for the development of ICC amongst learners (Byram, 2020), opportunities will often arise during English lessons to discuss other cultures in relation to the English language. Although intercultural learning may be introduced in the primary school, Legutke et al. (2014) describe ICC as a life-long process. Learners learning English at primary school will only begin to acquire the competences that are required for intercultural communication "on a very simple level" (Legutke et al., 2014, p. 84). However, early teaching of foreign languages in primary school settings can support positive attitudes amongst learners towards languages, develop language awareness and teach learners about other cultures (Pinter, 2012, p. 105). It is also important to communicate to learners that different cultural groups can live

together in a country, or even in one society and not share the same values. Furthermore, as suggested by the definition of culture given above, culture is subject to change. It refers to a particular group of people at a particular time. It has a "fluid nature" and will not remain the same (Kolb & Schocker, 2021, p. 149).

To become an "intercultural speaker" (Byram, 1997, pp. 31–32) learners need to be able to understand speakers from other cultures and communicate with them in an appropriate way. In addition, they need to develop an understanding of themselves (Legutke et al., 2014, p. 84). The skills needed to do this involve the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing and in addition, the development of cultural and linguistic knowledge.

Teaching children ICC will encourage the development of understanding and acceptance (Council of Europe, 2024) and the discouragement of the formation of stereotypes about particular cultures (Böttger, 2020b). This in turn will lead to a more tolerant and understanding society in the future.

In 2001 The Council of Europe published their guidance document which has influenced curricula in Europe and beyond (Driscoll & Simpson, 2015). Contained within this document was a five-point ICC model for education developed by Byram (1989, 1997) which is the basis for the conceptualisation of ICC in the CEFR.

Byram's model includes five main competences which are a set of *savoirs* which describe the knowledge, skills, behaviour and attitudes required to interact with people from other cultures. The five points of knowledge required are:

> *Savoir être, Savoir, Savoir comprendre, Savoir apprendre/faire* and *Savoir s'engager* (Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 101–107).

Savoir être refers to attitudes. Pupils develop interest and "attitudes of curiosity and openness" (Byram, 1997, p. 34) to other cultures and the "readiness to suspend disbelief and judgement with respect to others' meanings, beliefs and behaviours" (Byram, 1997, p. 34). They value other cultures and their own. *Savoir* refers to knowledge of other cultures and knowledge of oneself. *Savoir comprendre* refers to the skills of interpreting and relating. *Savoir apprendre/faire* refers to the skills of discovering and interacting. *Savoir s'engager* refers to the development of critical cultural awareness and use of the other *savoirs* to interact with people from other cultures (Byram 1997 p.34). "Cultural awareness" (Kirsch, 2008, p. 156) means that

learners are aware of their own culture and the cultures of others. Teachers can help learners by making similarities and differences clear (Böttger, 2020b).

Byram and Doyé (1999) argue that the skills of *savoir être*, *savoir* and *savoir apprendre* are possible for primary school children to acquire (Byram & Doyé, 1999, p. 145). However, they acknowledge that the acquisition of these skills is complex and is not completely "attainable in all its dimensions at the end of primary school" (Byram & Doyé, 1999, p. 146). However, they argue that it is important to establish the foundations in primary school. It seems though there seems to be a lack of evidence to support the effectiveness of the use of particular tasks or activities amongst different age groups to promote ICC (Driscoll & Simpson, 2015). The curriculum for Baden-Württemberg provides suggestions for teachers as to how these skills can be appropriately developed amongst learners at this age in English lessons (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016).

The Baden-Württemberg curriculum (2016) says that English speaking cultures can be placed in relation to the children's own culture in regards to everyday practices and traditions, celebrations or customs (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016). Finding out where in the world English is spoken is also a suggested activity. Furthermore, the curriculum states that a consideration of the children's interests in the target language culture should be taken into consideration when the teacher decides how to handle ICC. The children's first language is to be given special attention, for example, through the appropriate inclusion of vocabulary or socioculturally important aspects in lessons (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016).

To avoid the risk that the comparison of cultures may lead learners to mistakenly believe that what they are learning about a group of people, applies to everyone who is a member of that culture, teachers should use their wisdom and experience to raise critical cultural awareness (Kirsch, 2008; Kolb & Schocker, 2021), to guide learners in their understanding by specifically expressing that the examples are just that, examples. They apply to an individual or a small group from a particular culture at a particular point in time and can't be generally applied to everyone.

Furthermore, the curriculum for Baden-Württemberg (2016) also provides examples of suitable materials which could be used to promote ICC. These include authentic stories, picture books, games and songs from the target culture. Films, the internet and video clips can also help

learners to become familiar with the cultural areas of the target language (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016).

In addition, stories or traditional tales allow teachers to work with children on many different levels (Kirsch, 2008). Teachers can choose to focus on the language in the story, the message of the story or cultural aspects of the story. They can also use the story to identify similarities and differences between stories from their own culture and the culture portrayed in the book and also "reflect on the values and beliefs portrayed in the story" (Kirsch, 2008, p. 168).

Additional ideas for developing ICC in the primary school include organising the learning situation in the classroom to include open teaching forms such as project work which allow learners to investigate a theme relevant to ICC (Böttger, 2020b). In addition, inviting a local native speaker from the local community into school to visit an English lesson is also a way to allow children access to the target language and culture and develop ICC skills. In addition, Driscoll and Simpson found many examples of teachers who had set up an email project with a partner school (Driscoll & Simpson, 2015).

Some focus can also be placed on the language. Learners can learn how to communicate politely in English using "please" and "thank you" (Böttger, 2020b). The teacher can set an example for learners by using polite language in English in the classroom themselves. Teachers can also talk about polite forms in English directly with learners at appropriate moments in the German language when the topic is relevant. In this way learners learn important skills which they can use when they visit an English-speaking country. In addition, classroom language which occurs naturally in an English only teaching environment and is repeated regularly, will also help learners to learn politer forms of the language for example, the language of requests "Could you open the window, please?" (Böttger, 2020b, p. 197). Classroom phrases like these can also be displayed in the classroom on the wall as reminders for learners. Learners can also use the phrases themselves in the classroom when asking for things. For example, "Please could I have …., Thank you?"

Appropriate language for everyday situations can also be practised by learners through role plays (Böttger, 2020b). Appropriate examples of language situations that are part of the English curriculum in primary schools in Baden-Württemberg could be eating, drinking and shopping (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016). However, in addition other topics such as the "year and celebrations" or "free time" could also lend

themselves to the use of language which promotes ICC (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016, pp. 20–21).

There are many and varied communicative demands on young learners' oral skills at A1 level. To meet these demands, learners need to employ "cognitive, linguistic, and motor skills" (Levelt, 1989 xiii). The next section investigates these skills further.

Speech Production – Levelt's Theoretical Model

To be able to reach the goals for speaking at A1 level, there are many processes which have to work together. Learning to speak is a demanding process.

> Speaking is, (….) , one of our most complex cognitive, linguistic, and motor skills (Levelt, 1989 xiii).

Speech development in babies proceeds at different rates from birth onwards. The development is intensive and successful (Böttger, 2016, p. 68). Children's speech continues to develop into adulthood, aided by a high level of interaction with other people, for example, parents, siblings, teachers and friends. Even into adulthood, speech can continue to develop as speakers acquire further vocabulary or additional speaking skills (Levelt, 1989), for example public speaking skills. The acquisition of oral skills in a foreign language can be more challenging than learning to speak our mother tongue. Factors such as the amount of exposure a learner has to the foreign language, and individual differences amongst learners, such as personality and aptitude for language learning (Böttger, 2020a) or "a predisposition or natural ability to acquire additional languages" (Nikolov & Timpe-Laughlin, 2021, p. 9) can affect the speed and success of the process.

In the 1980s, Levelt a Dutch psycholinguist published a review of what psycholinguists at the time knew about speaking. In addition, he included his own theoretical "blueprint" (Levelt, 1989, p. 9) depicting speech production in adults. The complete work entitled *Speaking: From Intention to Articulation* describes the process of producing utterances as a number of processing components which "cooperate together in generating their joint end product", speech (Levelt, 1989, p. 1). Levelt's comprehensive model of speaking has shaped the research field on speech over the last thirty years (A. S. Meyer et al., 2019). At the time when it was published, knowledge of "neurobiological" and "computational methods" were limited (A. S. Meyer et al., 2019, p. 1075). In the intervening years since then, these methods and further methods such as "eye-tracking" (A. S. Meyer et al., 2019, p. 1075) have advanced. However,

although much research has been carried out on multiple aspects of Levelt's theory (see Meyer et al., 2019 for examples)

> much more theoretical work and empirical work is [still] required to understand how utterances are produced in real-life contexts (A. S. Meyer et al., 2019, p. 1081).

Yet, Levelt's theoretical model gives an overview and serves as an aide to understanding of the speaking process. It demonstrates the level of complexity involved in speech. Levelt divides the processes into four main activities which include "conceptualisation", "formulation", "articulation" and "self-monitoring" (Bygate, 2010, p. 16). According to Levelt, the processes occur rapidly and simultaneously to allow a fluent speaker to produce speech at a rate of two or three words per second (Levelt, 1989, p. 22).

Initially a speaker has a speech intention, an idea of what they want to say, based on what they think, need or want to express (Levelt, 1989). This is the point of conceptualization. The "Conceptualizer" (Levelt, 1989, p. 27) creates a message that the speaker wants to verbalize. Knowledge of the topic, knowledge about how discourse works, information about the interlocutor, situation and the context of the discourse are drawn upon from the long-term memory to create a "pre-verbal message" (Levelt, 1989, p. 9). All of the information available to the speaker is stored in the working memory (Levelt, 1989, p. 10). This stage requires attention from the speaker, not just because the memory is active but also because self-monitoring occurs. The speaker checks the planned message against their existing knowledge.

In the next stage the message is formulated using the speaker's knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. The "Formulator" (Levelt, 1989, p. 11) chooses and also creates an order for the words or phrases. "Appropriate grammatical markers" (Bygate, 2010, p. 16) such as an article or a plural "s" are added to the message. The speaker's phonological knowledge is drawn upon to enable the speaker to pronounce the words correctly. The speaker again monitors the message for accuracy and improves it if necessary (Levelt, 1989).

The third stage of the process is articulation of the formulated message. At this stage the speaker must use the muscles in their mouth and diaphragm to produce a sound. Motor control of the articulatory organs used to produce speech involve the "lips, tongue, alveolar palate, velum, glottis, mouth cavity and breath" (Bygate, 2010, p. 16). These work together largely automatically in fluent speakers who are speaking their native tongue. The process relies upon automation to a certain extent at the conceptualization stage, largely at the stage of formulation and almost entirely at the articulation stage (Bygate, 2010). The muscles are well co-ordinated

to allow the speaker to pronounce the sounds of the language accurately, to use the correct pronunciation, word stress and intonation when they speak. Muscle memory is key to this process (Böttger & Höppner, 2024).

Muscle memory is the ability to move a part of your body without thinking about it (Cambridge University Press and Assessment, 2024). It is developed through repetition and practice of movements. In the case of speaking, it is the muscles required for speech which are trained. Speakers develop muscle memory through regular repetition and practice which enables speech to become more fluent, accurate and automated (Böttger & Höppner, 2024). The benefit of reliance on muscle memory is that eventually less conscious effort is required by the speaker to produce speech because the motor sequences have become automated. Due to the speed at which speech occurs, automation is necessary because speakers have a limited amount of attention and cannot consciously control the processes of conceptualisation, formulation and articulation simultaneously (Bygate, 2010). Therefore, muscle memory frees up capacity for speakers which they can use to attend to other processes or to the interlocutor, for example.

Lastly, the speaker self-monitors their speech to correct any mistakes that are made (Levelt, 1989). In addition, the speaker monitors the message to check that it matches the speaker's intentions. Interlocutors may give feedback which allows the speaker to evaluate whether or not the message has been understood. For example, an interlocutor might respond with "sorry?" which indicates to the speaker that they need to re-formulate the message because there has been a breakdown in communication (Bygate, 2010).

These processes happen at speed and run parallel to each other, to enable speakers to communicate fluently (Levelt, 1989). The interlocutor cannot be kept waiting too long before he or she is allowed their turn to speak (Bygate, 2010). Therefore, speech is produced under time pressure (Thornbury, 2005). Although monitoring is included in the process, there is not much time for learners to reformulate or correct a message (Bygate, 2010). A certain amount of forward planning is required but Levelt argues that "lookahead" is limited (Levelt, 1989, p. 25) because there is a limited amount of capacity in the working memory.

Speech is also "reciprocal" (Bygate, 2010, p. 16). Speakers need to "interactively listen" (Hasselgreen & Caudwell, 2016, p. 89) to what other contributors say, remember it and formulate an appropriate response. They interact with each other, taking turns. Speakers must decide how and when to respond to their fellow speakers. In the working memory, learners keep a record of the ongoing conversation which is being continuously monitored during the

interaction (Levelt, 1989). The conversation stored in the working memory helps the speaker to further contribute in a meaningful way to the conversation, to ask a follow-up question related to what has already been said or to add a relevant point to the conversation.

Furthermore, speech has to be adjusted in different situations depending upon the context (Böttger, 2016). A conversation may take place in which more than one interlocutor contributes at a time. In a conversation with more than one speaking partner, the interaction is unpredictable (Bygate, 2010). Sometimes speaking interactions in a group may take place where there is ambient noise and other distractions for example, in a restaurant or canteen. The interactions may overlap to a certain extent. The ambient noise may make it more challenging for speakers to understand each other. However, this is not so much of a problem for native speakers who are very experienced in their own language. They are able to reconstruct the message even if some of it was missed (Böttger, 2016). Their knowledge of chunks of language, words which are commonly used together in a language, enable native speakers to understand what was said, even though they may not have heard every word.

In certain contexts, a particular speaker may have more right to speak than the other (Bygate, 2010). Speakers must develop an understanding of the conventions of speech in their own language. Speakers are not always perceived to be equal in a conversation. A patient for example, may wait for a doctor to initiate a conversation. In such situations the weaker party, the patient, may not feel entitled to ask whatever they wish, talk about certain topics or end the conversation (Bygate, 2010). The speaker with more rights, in this case the doctor, may lead the conversation. If both speakers have equal rights however, for example if they are friends, then both may initiate the conversation, ask further questions, begin new conversation topics and end the conversation. These conventions affect what the speaker says and how they phrase their turn. The same conventions may not apply in every culture but may be culture specific. Therefore, learners who are learning a foreign language may need to learn the speech conventions if they are different to the conventions in their own language. The conceptualisation and formulation processes of speech are influenced by the speaker's knowledge of the speech conventions.

Adult native speakers have complete messages stored in their long-term memory which are available for use (Levelt, 1989). They are so experienced at speaking their own language that their speech is automatic and can be produced at speed so that they are not aware of the plan. They can change the tone of their speech, being polite for example, with very little effort.

This section explored what is required of speakers when they speak. The following section investigates whether the process described in this section for producing speech is also the same process followed by young EFL learners when they speak.

Speech Production in Young EFL Language Learners

It is clear that speaking is a complicated process (Levelt, 1989) even for a native speaker. However, it is unclear if the process of producing speech is exactly the same for young EFL learners as it is for native speakers (A. S. Meyer et al., 2019). However, Levelt's model helps us to understand why speaking in a foreign language doesn't just happen automatically in young learners and why there could be problems (Diehr & Frisch, 2008). If we imagine that a child learning a foreign language must go through a similar process to produce speech to that described above, we begin to get a sense of what is demanded of learners and the kind of knowledge and skills that they need to develop to become fluent speakers of the foreign language.

Learners who have reached the age of between four and six years old do not acquire a foreign language in the same way that a baby acquires its mother tongue (Böttger, 2016, p. 132). They cannot go back to the same immersive natural situation in which they acquired their first language. They have lost the ability that they once had to process and order the sounds of the language which comes naturally to babies. Therefore, every language which is subsequently learnt after that early phase is based upon the mother tongue (Böttger, 2016). In addition, young learners may not yet be fluent in their mother tongue (Pinter, 2006) which means that a second language may be based on an incomplete version of a first language.

Therefore, learners need to build up knowledge of a foreign language and skills to use that knowledge.

> To be able to use language (...) a learner needs knowledge of the properties of language as well as various skills to help put the language knowledge into practice in language use. Learning how to use a language is therefore characterised by development of a knowledge base and a continuum between unskilled and skilled use (Papp, 2018, p. 101).

Young learners in primary school therefore need to be supported to learn speaking skills with activities structured and supported by the teacher (Cameron, 2001). The skill of speaking which is acquired by young native speakers in a natural environment over time, with many

listening opportunities, much repetition and gentle correction, cannot be replicated exactly in the classroom though, due to the time constraints and demands of an educational curriculum (Böttger, 2016). Learners have less contact time in the foreign language than they do in their mother tongue. There is also no necessity for them to communicate in the foreign language because their first language is their main language (Diehr & Frisch, 2008). They can often communicate with their teachers and peers in their first language and be understood perfectly well. This means that the need to communicate in the foreign language is less urgent. Al Hosni (2014) found this to be the case in EFL lessons with young learners in a school in Oman (Al Hosni, 2014). Therefore, the situation in the classroom seems to be highly significant in the development of EFL learners' oral skills.

Other aspects which may make speaking a foreign language challenging for young beginner learners are that they only have a partial knowledge of the vocabulary and grammar of the foreign language (Cameron, 2001). They may lack vocabulary or phrases needed to express themselves in English (Al Hosni, 2014; Diehr & Frisch, 2008). They have less world knowledge to draw upon than an adult because they have had fewer experiences and are also less cognitively and socially developed than adults (Cameron, 2001). Conceptual difficulties, for example, a lack of world knowledge on a subject that learners want to talk about may make it difficult for them to speak. This may mean that young learners don't understand the topic that is being discussed (Diehr & Frisch, 2008) and this limits or prevents them from contributing. Diehr and Frisch (2008) differentiate between learners between the age of 6-10 and learners younger than six in terms of cognitive development (Diehr & Frisch, 2008, p. 35). The older age group are able to do more than the younger age group because they are cognitively more developed.

Research carried out by Al Hosni (2014) in Oman with fifth class learners also found that the development of oral skills was neglected by teachers who felt that they did not have time within the curriculum to allow pupils to speak (Al Hosni, 2014), a point also emphasised by Mohtar and Singh (2015) in Malaysia. In Oman, teachers spent a lot of class time talking while learners listened (Al Hosni, 2014). There was more of a focus on the development of reading and writing skills which may be because there is often an emphasis in classrooms on using coursebooks (Lopriore, 2025). The textbooks used in class with young learners in Oman did not include many communicative speaking tasks. Therefore, Al Hosni (2014) found that the priority was a focus on form rather than a focus on communication. Learners refrained from speaking because they were worried about feelings of embarrassment if they made mistakes, perhaps due to a lack of opportunity and also practice in class. Not having the opportunity to

speak English outside the classroom either, hindered learners in the development of speaking skills (Al Hosni, 2014; Mohtar et al., 2015).

In contrast to the results obtained by Al Hosni (2014), a recent study in 2021 with fourth class learners in Turkey, found that instead of a lack of relevant communicative activities or inappropriate teaching strategies, in fact learners'

> attitude, language aptitude, negative beliefs about foreign language speaking skills and linguistic difficulties (Günes & Sarigöz, 2021, p. 1289)

were causing a delay in speech. Yet, the authors note that these results may not be "generalizable" because they were obtained in just one school (Günes & Sarigöz, 2021, p. 1292). In addition, they concluded that the inventory used to assess learners' problems contained 39 main questions and 95 sub-questions which were too many for learners who were in the fourth class.

Zhang (2009) found it is difficult to determine exactly which factors influence fluency in young EFL learners' speech because the factors are "closely related to each other" (S. Zhang, 2009, p. 99). However,

> learners' age, language aptitude, personalities, motivation, attention and learning strategies were found to be influential factors (S. Zhang, 2009, p. 99).

Therefore, the difficulty of teaching speaking in a context where limited time is available, is not to be underestimated (Read, 2006). Young learners need time to develop their speaking skills which usually develop slowly and gradually (Böttger, 2016). In a small-scale study with fifteen learners in China, Zhang (2009) found that "input, interaction and output" were key in the development of EFL oral fluency (S. Zhang, 2009, p. 98). Learners who had started learning English later (aged nine), learnt English in a big class where the teacher spoke and there was not much time for interaction. Learners did not have much time for English outside of class due to homework assignments. These learners were not able to interact with the researcher in English at the age of thirteen (S. Zhang, 2009, p. 97).

However, Zhang (2009) also found an example of a learner who could communicate very well, although he was only nine years old (S. Zhang, 2009, pp. 96–97). The learner had started to learn English when he was just four years old. He had received a very high level of input in the form of both spoken and written language. He had also interacted with a native speaker tutor at home and native speakers at school. He read English books and listened to CDs in English. He had access to many resources at his level and spent a lot of time practising his

English. Therefore, Zhang concluded that near native proficiency is possible for EFL learners, provided that sufficient time and resources are available.

It seems that time devoted to practising the language (S. Zhang, 2009) and the quality of learners' language learning experience (Al Hosni, 2014; Mercer et al., 2017; S. Zhang, 2009), affect learners' language development. However, Lopriore (2025) argues that "language exposure is not linearly connected with achievement" (Lopriore, 2025, p. 15). There are many complex factors at play which need further investigation.

Certainly though, teachers are advised to use "age-appropriate teaching approaches, activities, materials and evaluation tools" (Lopriore, 2025, p. 14) with young learners. It seems that high quality, holistic approaches appropriate for their age group and language level (Böttger, 2016) which are "learning-centred" (Cameron, 2001xiii) are advantageous. In addition, much time and patience is needed and an approach which caters to the needs of individuals (Böttger, 2016). Over time learners build up experience in the foreign language, as they meet the language in a variety of situations (Cameron, 2001). These experiences gradually help to develop their language knowledge so that it changes.

In addition, opportunities for interaction are key to the development of speaking skills (S. Zhang, 2009). The importance of interaction with the teacher when learners are learning to speak a second language was also noted by van Lier (1996) and Ellis (1994) (van Lier, 1996). Similarly, Vygotsky saw talk as essential to the development of children's speech and to their cognitive development. His theory of learning sees talk as socially constructed through the interaction between children and other people (Vygotskiĭ, 1962). Therefore, to develop speaking skills amongst learners in a classroom setting, teachers need to be aware of the importance of "the quality of classroom interaction in developing talk and learning" (Read, 2006, p. 1). Speaking skills amongst young learners are primarily acquired through interaction with the spoken language.

> The spoken language is usually the medium through which a new language is encountered, understood, practised and learnt (Kirkgöz, 2022, p. 172).

Teachers can encourage learners to interact with them in English during the English lesson, both non-verbally, by asking them to point at an object to demonstrate understanding for example, and then verbally once learners are ready. Even though talk is underpinned by listening and it is essential for learners first of all to listen and understand the language to have a chance of responding (Jäger, 2020), as Al Hosni (2014) found in her study, if teachers spend

the whole time talking and provide very few opportunities for learners to join in, this will slow learners' speaking progress down. Therefore, teachers need to find a balance between giving input and building learners' confidence to speak through providing opportunities in a relaxed environment.

Learners can also be given opportunities to interact in oral activities with each other in the classroom (Leslie, 2025). There are presently very few studies on the relationship between EFL learners' interaction and learning, particularly amongst "low proficiency levels" (Leslie, 2025, p. 99). As mentioned above, the age of learners also influences how they interact with the teacher (Diehr & Frisch, 2008) and with other learners (Leslie, 2025). In a study comparing the interaction patterns of 9- and 12-year-old EFL learners, very low proficiency 9-year-olds were found to interact with each other in several different ways which could encourage language learning. The results showed that collaboration between learners was the most commonly employed interaction strategy in this age-group (Leslie, 2025, p. 103).

Opportunities to speak in meaningful communicative situations (Böttger, 2016) and situations in which learners can be encouraged to produce creative talk (Diehr & Frisch, 2008, p. 49) are important for the development of oral skills amongst young EFL learners. A mixture of controlled practice of speaking skills and the use of real language in communicative situations helps learners to develop speaking skills (Kirsch, 2008). As EFL teachers find teaching speaking to young learners difficult (Burns, 2019; Copland et al., 2014) an analysis of speaking skills frameworks which define the sub-skills needed for speech may help teachers in choosing appropriate speaking activities (Goh & Burns, 2012). Oral skills frameworks for young learners are investigated in the following section.

Oral Skills Frameworks

> To teach speaking effectively, as teachers, you need to understand what speaking competence entails. You also need to know how different aspects of speaking competence relate to one another. This understanding will help you plan and deliver lessons that develop learners' speaking ability in a balanced and comprehensive way. It will also help you approach teaching materials you work with every day in an informed and critical manner (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 49).

There are differing opinions on the classification of oral competences (Celce-Murcia et al., 1995) and there are very few models specifically designed for young beginner learners working towards level A1 (CEFR).

Diehr and Frisch (2008) proposed a revised version of Levelt's model of speech which takes into consideration the simultaneous and parallel cognitive processes which take place (Diehr & Frisch, 2008, p. 36). It also acknowledges that speech happens in a social context where a listener is also present. The model shows how speech begins with conceptualisation and a pre-verbalised message which is then formulated into inner speech and is finally articulated (Diehr & Frisch, 2008, p. 37). Two storage systems, one of world knowledge and the other of knowledge of the language, feed into each of the stages. These provide information, thoughts and ideas which are ordered by the speaker whilst also keeping in mind what has already been said.

According to Diehr and Frisch (2008), the model helps to explain why young learners may not participate in a conversation. Either learners possess too little language related to the topic that is being discussed, or gaps in their world knowledge prevent them from being able to imagine what is being discussed (Diehr & Frisch, 2008, pp. 41–42). Therefore, it is difficult for them to participate in a conversation.

In 2016 Hasselgreen and Caudwell published a "communicative language ability" (Hasselgreen & Caudwell, 2016, p. 15) model for young learners to be used for writing and speaking. The model is a condensed version, based on a previous model of Hasselgreen's from 2004. It contains four categories which include:

> Microlinguistic ability: The ability to understand and use (...) the basic building blocks of the language, such as vocabulary, syntax, sounds, and spellings (Hasselgreen & Caudwell, 2016, p. 15).
>
> Textual ability: The ability to create and understand coherence in a spoken or written text.
>
> Sociolinguistic ability: The ability to adapt language to the way that it is typically used (…) in a particular situation or social group.
>
> Strategic ability: The ability to (...) keep the communication going, in the face of difficulties (…).

The model was designed to be easy to use, although the authors acknowledge that there is some overlap in the categories. In the discussion that follows their model, the authors acknowledge that some primary school children particularly those who are not bilingual, would not be expected to be able to do everything described in the model (Hasselgreen & Caudwell, 2016).

A framework for speaking developed by Mercer and colleagues (2017) for young speakers of English aged 11-12 years old in British schools is based on the work of applied linguists Hymes (1977) and Halliday (1978) (Mercer et al., 2017). In addition, the model of communicative competence proposed by Celce-Murcia and colleagues (1995) was consulted in the preparation of Mercer and colleague's (2017) model. Schools and a group of experts, including drama, English, sociolinguistic, applied linguistics and educational assessment experts, speech therapists, test developers and educational organizations such as Cambridge Assessment also contributed their expertise to the researchers during the development of the framework (Mercer et al., 2017, p. 55). A discussion of this framework has been included here because it provides a further example and was developed for young learners who are only one or two years older than the learners who are participating in this project.

The purpose of the framework is to help teachers to identify the skills needed by young learners in different speaking situations, to organise classroom talk to help 11-12 year olds improve their speaking skills (Mercer et al., 2017). According to Mercer and colleagues, until the publication of the framework there was no suitable oracy framework for learners of this age group available. The framework represents the range of oral skills which could be drawn upon by learners in any situation. Although learners are able to speak their native language to their peers or parents, often they come to formal educational settings with very varied speaking abilities. Some oral sub-skills may be more developed than others and they may not be confident at speaking in formal situations. Deficits in oral skills may negatively affect their ability to participate at school. Teachers are expected to help learners to develop their oral skills. Therefore, they also need effective ways to assess pupils and to develop suitable speaking activities. For these reasons, the Oracy Skills Framework (2017) was developed (Mercer et al., 2017).

The framework identified four skill areas which are needed for speaking. These are "physical; linguistic; cognitive; social and emotional" (Mercer et al., 2017, p. 55). Similar to the other models, these skills are depicted in a linear form with "physical" at the top and "social and emotional at the bottom. It was proposed by the authors that these four areas are the four that are needed to speak effectively. Each of the four areas also included sub-skills such as "voice, body language" in the "physical" category, "vocabulary, language variety, structure, rhetorical techniques" in the "linguistic" category, "content, clarifying and summarising, self-regulation, reasoning, audience awareness" in the "cognitive" category and "working with others, listening and responding and confidence in speaking" in the "social and emotional" category (Mercer et al., 2017, p. 54).

In the framework, "confidence in speaking" is included under "social and emotional" skills (Mercer et al., 2017, p. 54), indicating that it is a sub-skill that can be practised and improved over time, just like any other skill (Haith & Krakauer, 2018). Although some learners may naturally possess more confidence than others, classing confidence as a skill suggests that every learner can work towards developing the feeling of confidence when they are speaking. However, the question of whether these skill areas identified by Mercer and colleagues apply to young EFL learners, is explored in the following section.

Oral Sub-Skills Required at A1 Level

The expectations for speech amongst native speakers or ESL learners is far greater than the expectations of young EFL learners who have just begun to learn English. Yet, the four main categories "physical, linguistic, cognitive, social and emotional" (Mercer et al., 2017, p. 54) defined by Mercer and colleague's (2017) Oracy Skills Framework are also relevant to young EFL learners when one considers the expectations of the CEFR at A1 level (Council of Europe, 2020, pp. 129–135). Mercer and colleagues' model (2017) leans heavily on the work of applied linguists Hymes and Halliday (Mercer et al., 2017). In addition, Levelt argued that cognitive, linguistic and motor skills are needed for speaking (Levelt, 1989), which overlaps to a large extent with Mercer and colleagues' four categories. Therefore, parts of Mercer and colleagues' (2017) model also seem to be relevant to L2 learners of English.

As Mercer's (2017) model was designed for native speaker and ESL learners who are slightly older (11 years old) than learners in the fourth class in Germany (9-10 years old), some elements of the model are not yet required or cannot be expected of young learners at A1 level (CEFR) who are learning English as a foreign language. For example, these include the use of appropriate "rhetorical techniques", "clarifying and summarising" skills, "reasoning" and "audience awareness". In addition, "tonal variation" or the use of "metaphor, humour" or "irony" (Mercer et al., 2017, p. 54) which are listed on the right-hand-side of Mercer's model (2017) are also not yet required of EFL learners at A1 level according to the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2020). However, the main categories on the left-hand side of the model which are "physical, linguistic, cognitive, social and emotional" (Mercer et al., 2017, p. 54) could be applied to young EFL learners when one considers the requirements of the CEFR at A1 level.

Mercer and colleague's linguistic category could be used as a label for basic vocabulary, chunks, expressions, linking words, grammar or structure and phonology mentioned by the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2020). The cognitive category could cover skills such as thinking,

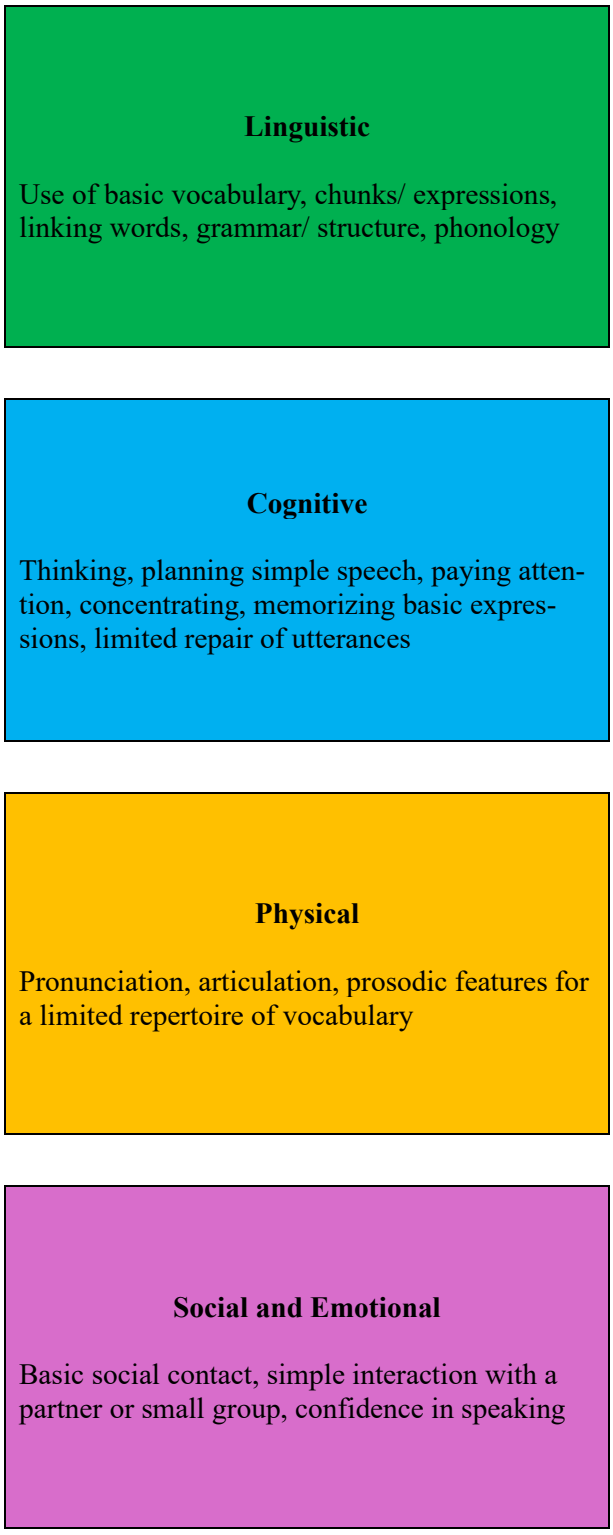
planning simple speech, paying attention, concentrating, memorizing basic expressions, limited repair or utterances. The physical category could include pronunciation, articulation and prosodic features. Finally, the social and emotional category could include basic social contact and some basic interaction. The CEFR however, gives no mention in the descriptors of emotional skills in relation to speaking (Council of Europe, 2020).

The sub-skills mentioned in the Mercer and colleague's (2017) linguistic category also partly overlap with Hasselgreen and Caudwell's model (2016) discussed above, which describes the need to be able to use "basic building blocks of the language, such as vocabulary, syntax [and] sounds" (Hasselgreen & Caudwell, 2016, p. 15) as important for the development of communicative skills. However, the categories and sub-skills included above also largely overlap with the key competences listed by Böttger (2016) that allow speakers to communicate in everyday situations and to tailor their speech. These include concentration, understandable pronunciation, enough basic vocabulary, relevant grammatical structures, comprehension skills, memorisation strategies and self-confidence in speaking (Böttger, 2016, p. 131).

Figure 1 below depicts the oral skills discussed above. A linear arrangement has been incorporated which is similar to that employed in Mercer and colleague's (2017) model. This seems to fit best in this case because it is unclear how the sub-skills overlap or influence each other. Figure 2 below shows how the CEFR descriptors support the choice of categories and sub-skills for EFL learners at A1 level. Furthermore, Figures 1 and 2 are designed to provide an example of oral sub-skills that may help in the development of oral skills amongst young learners at this level. The choice for inclusion is based on existing literature and research. However, Figure 1 is not designed to be definitive, only to act as a guide to the sub-skills that could be helpful in the development of oral skills towards A1 speaking goals. It is the model which was used in this project to define EFL learners' oral skills at A1 level. It helped the researcher to know what learners were aiming to achieve at A1 level. However, it must be born in mind that language learning and acquisition are never linear (Böttger, 2016, p. 203). Speech develops in an unpredictable way which cannot be totally planned.

Figure 1

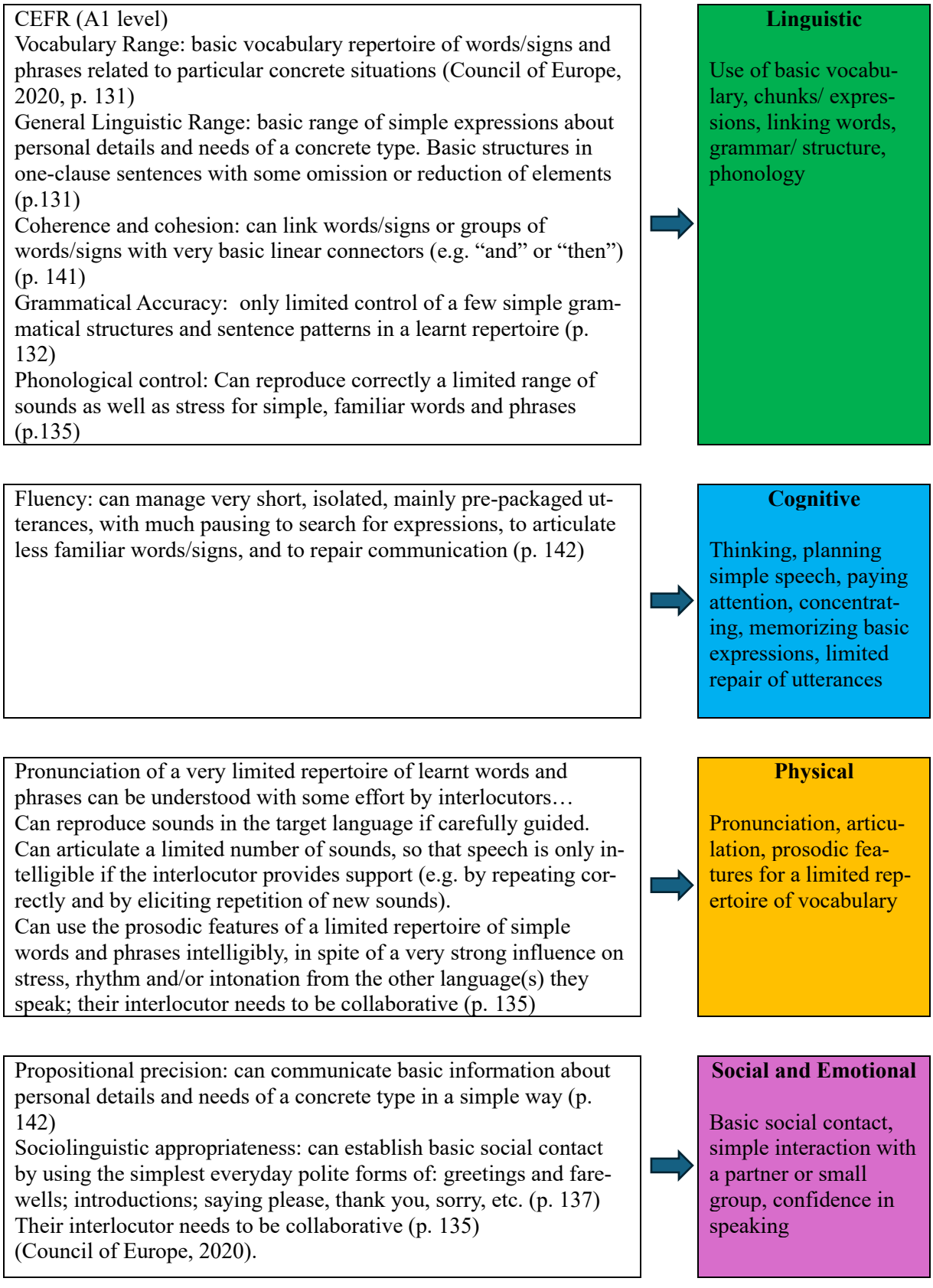
Oral Skills Framework for EFL Learners Approaching A1 level



Adapted from (Mercer et al., 2017, p. 54)

Figure 2

The CEFR and Oral Skills Framework for EFL Learners Approaching A1 Level



The following section discusses and explains the category choices and the sub-skills depicted in the diagram above in further detail. “Listening and responding” (Mercer et al., 2017, p. 54) is one important aspect which is included in the “emotional and social” skills category of Mercer’s Oracy Skills Framework which has not been included here because the model in Figure 1 focuses on developing speaking sub-skills. However, the development of listening skills is essential so that learners can understand and respond appropriately. The development of speaking skills are based upon listening skills (Read, 2020). Therefore, listening skills are addressed in detail in the following chapter.

In the next section of this chapter a discussion and justification of the importance of each of the sub-skills included in the adapted version of Mercer and colleague’s (2017) framework depicted in Figure 1, are discussed in relation to young learners’ oral skills development.

Linguistic Skills.

Learners need to have some linguistic knowledge, including knowledge of vocabulary and grammar, in the form of a basic understanding of the structures of the language (Böttger, 2020a). Copland and colleagues (2014) argue that government “policy decisions” in many places and the

> spread of English as a lingua franca has given rise to the belief that learners need to acquire communication skills rather than knowledge about English. As a result young learner curricula have emphasised communicative competence (Copland et al., 2014, p. 740).

However, beginner learners need to build up knowledge to reach communicative competence. It is not possible to say anything at all without any vocabulary knowledge. Communication would be limited to point[ing] and grunt[ing] (Nunan, 2015, p. 105). This is the reason that there tends to be an emphasis on the acquisition of vocabulary with beginner learners. However, acquiring enough vocabulary to be able to use it for “communicative purposes takes a substantial amount of time” (Čengić, 2025, p. 142) and often young learners receive limited input in English at school.

Yet, fewer words are needed in speech than in writing (Thornbury, 2005). Analyses of large corpora of transcribed speech in English have shown that fifty of the highest frequency words “make up nearly fifty percent of all talk” (Thornbury, 2005, p. 22). This is perhaps far fewer words than one might imagine.

Cameron argues that words are significant to learners and ways of teaching need to be used that help learners to notice them (Cameron, 2001). Learners know what words are in their first language and they know that words are useful. It is helpful for learners if vocabulary is organised into themes because this makes words more memorable for them (Böttger, 2020a). It is also helpful for the chosen vocabulary to be taken from areas of relevance and interest for young learners. The curriculum provides relevant themed topics e.g. school, home, clothes, with accompanying vocabulary and phrases which are relevant to young learners' lives and experience (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016).

In addition, learners' age and linguistic proficiency level should also be taken into consideration when choosing vocabulary to introduce. Vocabulary which is too difficult for learners at their current linguistic level won't be acquired. In a study in Croatia, first class beginner learners who could not read or write and had not learned a foreign language before, were introduced to a set of animal words (owl, pig, frog, rabbit, snail, lion, shark, snail, fish) (Čengić, 2025, p. 148) and asked to complete a receptive recall task by looking at a picture. Although the words chosen were nouns, both the words and the task were found to be too difficult for first class beginner learners.

Children acquire nouns before other word classes which may relate to the "imageability" (N. Ellis, 1994, p. 251). It is easier to imagine a noun than it is to imagine a function word, for example. However, learners should not just be introduced to nouns, but to other word classes such as adjectives and verbs as well, so that they can eventually form full sentences (Dreßler, 2020). Vocabulary knowledge needs to be taught in meaningful contexts because it is helpful for learners to know how to use the knowledge that they have gained to communicate. This means that learners also need to learn short phrases and collocations in context rather than just isolated vocabulary items (Böttger, 2016). Depending on the age and linguistic experience of learners, "abstract nouns" (Hasselgreen & Caudwell, 2016, p. 16) and words which are not meaningful to learners because they lie outside the learner's experience, will only be acquired gradually over time.

It is only later when learners are approaching adolescence and their verbal reasoning skills become more developed, that their knowledge of certain aspects of language such as "morphology", "syntax" and "conjunctions", can be expected to be fully developed (Hasselgreen & Caudwell, 2016, p. 16). The CEFR at A1 level mentions just two connectors that

learners are expected to be able to use. These are “and” and “then” (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 141).

However, at primary school the acquisition of collocations in meaningful contexts, “natural combination[s] of words”, (O'Dell, 2017, p. 4) and chunks of language, a group of words that commonly appear together, provide young learners with knowledge about the grammar of the language which help to develop their “internal grammar” (Cameron, 2001, p. 100). Internal grammar refers to implicit learning in which learners build up an understanding of how the grammar of the language works through hearing examples in the classroom through teacher talk or books. The acquisition of formulaic language is more economical for the limited capacity of a speaker’s working memory and helps language to be produced more fluently (Kersten, 2015). Chunks also “allow more rapid processing” (Thornbury, 2019, p. 7) for reception and production and lead to increased fluency.

A study in a third class in Germany investigated seven learners’ use of formulaic language in relation to the development of productive speaking skills (Koska, 2020, p. 669). The results which were quantitatively and qualitatively analysed, revealed that learners in the third class could acquire chunks of language and use them productively. In addition, learners demonstrated that they could use formulaic language to communicate in dialogues. Even weaker learners could use formulaic language to communicate personal information (Koska, 2020, p. 672). However, Koska found that even the most able learners did not always fill the gaps in the chunks grammatically correctly, indicating that they did not understand the rules, rather that they were starting to develop an awareness of the rules (Koska, 2020, p. 672). However, learners could use vocabulary taught in the lessons and vocabulary from elsewhere to fill the slots in the chunks of language (Koska, 2020, p. 669). It was concluded that learning or acquiring formulaic language helps to develop learners’ productive speaking skills.

It is therefore, important in the teaching of speaking to teach “integrated skills” (Böttger, 2016, p. 137) rather than hoping that learners will add a number of isolated skills together to produce speech. It is clear that it is difficult to separate vocabulary and grammar at the beginner level (Cameron, 2001). Knowledge of both are needed (Puchta, 2022) but

> learning words can take students a long way into grammar (Cameron, 2001, p. 72).

Cognitive Skills.

For learners to acquire a foreign language, they also need to develop cognitive skills such as perception, understanding, thinking, interpreting (Böttger, 2020a, p. 17) and concentration (Böttger, 2016, p. 170). Learners must think about what they have heard and plan what they are going to say. They need to plan their speech including choosing the vocabulary and organising the grammar to express what they want to communicate (Cameron, 2001).

Concentration and attention are related but different. Concentration can be defined as:

> an attentional process that involves the ability to focus on the task at hand whilst ignoring distractions. Cognitive research shows that it is vital for success in any field of skilled performance (Moran, 2012, p. 117)

Attention is:

> mysterious because it refers to many different types and levels of psychological processes ranging from biological arousal or alertness to high-level conscious awareness. For example, Ashcraft (2006) identified six different meanings of attention, including biological alertness or arousal (a state of readiness to respond to the environment), the orienting response (whereby attention is captured reflexively by an unexpected stimulus), visual search (a shift toward a specific region of visual space), selective attention (the ability to attend to a particular source of information while ignoring other material), mental resources (a form of mental effort that fuels cognitive activity), and a supervisory process that regulates conscious cognitive activity (Moran, 2012, p. 118).

The difference between concentration and attention is not always clearly defined in literature on the subject (Moran, 2012). However, learners must be able to pay attention for long enough to be able to listen to the teacher giving language input through a story, song or rhyme, for example. Attention is "crucial for noticing features of the language input" (Papp, 2018, p. 104). Learners also need to pay attention and concentrate to gather information. For example, they need to listen to instructions so that they know what to do or they need to listen and watch to find out the names of objects that they need to use in the lesson. For all these tasks, concentration and attention are needed.

The memory is also helpful to young foreign language learners, as initially they will rely on their memory to help them to speak, drawing on words and phrases that they have memorized as chunks of language (Cameron, 2001). Memory is also helpful to learners when they

start to create language to communicate what they want to say, through the manipulation of chunks of language and vocabulary that they know. Memorisation is the basis for free speaking later on (Böttger, 2020a).

Initially memory capacity in young learners is limited due to their age, individual differences (Papp, 2018) and level of "expertise" (Pinter, 2017, p. 29). Pinter (2017) describes research carried out with young learners relating to memory and reports that it was found that young learners who are "experts" (Pinter, 2017, p. 30) on a subject such as football, for example, found it easier to remember football related vocabulary than learners who didn't know anything about football at all. Pinter argues that it is helpful to find out what learners are good at, interested in and "what they know about" (Pinter, 2017, p. 30) as this makes remembering easier for learners.

In addition, Pinter (2011) places the memory span of a 9 year old learner at 6 items that learners can keep in mind (Pinter, 2011, p. 24). Therefore, initially young EFL learners can only "notice, store, access and produce" (Papp, 2018, p. 104) a limited amount of language in their short-term memory.

Physical Skills.

Learners need to develop physical skills in order to be able to move the organs of their mouth to pronounce the sounds and words of the English language (Böttger, 2020a). This is an important part of learning to speak, and pronunciation is the key to being understood by others. However, the teaching of pronunciation is also very demanding for teachers and learners (Georgountzou & Tsantila, 2025). It is therefore, an element of learning to speak which is often neglected in EFL teaching because speaking isn't a priority in every context, and textbooks sometimes don't provide contextualised support for pronunciation (Georgountzou & Tsantila, 2025). Harmer (2015) notes that there is far less overt teaching of pronunciation in EFL classes these days and suggests that teachers are perhaps

> nervous of dealing with sounds and intonation; [or] perhaps they feel they have too much to do already and pronunciation teaching will only make things worse (Harmer, 2015, p. 277).

Perhaps teachers feel that learners' pronunciation is good enough without spending a lot of time in class focusing on it and this is why pronunciation is only addressed "in passing" (Harmer, 2015, p. 277). Sarıçoban & Arslan, 2022 argue that due to the shift in focus and beliefs away from Behaviourist language learning models towards communication, pronunciation has

become less fashionable in language teaching (Sarıçoban & Arslan, 2022). Repetition and drills have gone out of fashion perhaps because teachers are concerned that drilling pronunciation with learners would be boring for them and there were few alternative communicative methods of teaching pronunciation available. Therefore, despite poor pronunciation skills being the main cause of miscommunication (Böttger, 2016), pronunciation receives less attention than it did in the past.

In addition, many people consider comprehensibility to be a more realistic goal for speakers. It is considered unrealistic for many speakers to achieve native speaker-like pronunciation (Georgountzou & Tsantila, 2025). Therefore, pronunciation goals have shifted towards "interculturally dependent, non-norm-bound" (Georgountzou & Tsantila, 2025, p. 158) examples that are understandable.

Harmer (2015) points out that there are a wide range of native speaker accents and most text books include recordings of either general American English or standard southern English native speakers (Harmer, 2015, p. 277). However, in the language classroom, the main source of pronunciation comes from the teacher (Pinter, 2012). Therefore, it has been suggested that concentrating on core sounds that are needed for intelligibility is realistic and certain sounds are more important than others (Harmer, 2015).

A recent study on pronunciation in Greece with young EFL learners suggests that young learners prefer listening to native speaker accents (Georgountzou & Tsantila, 2025). The learners who listened to recordings of a mixture of native and non-native speakers speaking English and gave feedback to the researchers, said that they preferred listening to native speaker accents. Although learners could understand the non-native speaker accents, their attitude towards listening to them was negative. This seemed to affect learners' understanding of those speakers. Learners reported that they preferred the native speaker accent because it was easier for them to understand.

The researchers reflected that many parents and teachers in Greece still hold to traditional views of pronunciation and view native speaker pronunciation as accurate (Georgountzou & Tsantila, 2025). Many parents in Greece have high expectations of the education system and perceive that their children will have better opportunities in the future if their pronunciation is native speaker like. Some learners also aspire to have a native speaker like accent and Harmer (2015) argues that there is nothing wrong with that.

Not having the opportunity to acquire native speaker like pronunciation may mean that young learners acquiring "interculturally dependent, non-norm bound" (Georgountzou & Tsantila, 2025, p. 158) pronunciation have problems to be understood when they are adults, depending on who they need to be understood by. Globalization currently contributes to the creation of diverse workplaces (R. Kim et al., 2019). In a workplace based interview study, Kim and colleagues (2019) found that "real" and "perceived" (R. Kim et al., 2019, p. 74) difficulties with pronunciation experienced by non-native speaker employees lead to self-esteem issues.

> Speaking with an accent serves as a cue that one is not a native speaker and that one does not wield the language fluency, regardless of one's actual competence (R. Kim et al., 2019, p. 74).

Speakers are often judged on their pronunciation, as this is immediately noticed by native speakers who form their perception of a speaker based on their pronunciation, and not on their competence. This can lead to "subtle forms of discrimination", "underevaluation", "fewer career opportunities" and consequently, the underperformance of organizations (R. Kim et al., 2019, p. 74). The difficulty with teaching pronunciation to young learners is that they may not yet know what they want or need their English for in the future.

However, having the ability to acquire a native-like accent is one of the key benefits for beginning language learning early, as young language learners have the ability to acquire a native-like accent (Böttger, 2022). This ability disappears as they grow older. Learners who begin language learning when they are older find it much harder to acquire a native-like accent because the ability to re-produce the sounds of a foreign language accurately, disappears.

Certainly, if learners are to be trained to produce "interculturally dependent, non-norm bound" (Georgountzou & Tsantila, 2025, p. 158) pronunciation, it is helpful for the teacher to encourage the development of a positive image of the speaker as a "confident intercultural communicator" (Georgountzou & Tsantila, 2025, p. 175).

Therefore, teachers should consider pronunciation as a high priority (Böttger, 2016; Georgountzou & Tsantila, 2025; Harmer, 2015). Harmer (2015) argues that the teaching of pronunciation raises learners' awareness of the sounds of the language. He suggests showing learners how sounds are created in the mouth and drawing attention to word stress and intonation. This helps learners to improve their speaking skills and helps to make them understandable. In addition, pronunciation teaching helps learner to listen and understand (Harmer, 2015).

> Indeed, we might want to say that one of the goals of pronunciation teaching is to develop the students' listening "brains" so that the pay attention (and thus understand) how things are, and should be said. For some learners, this could well be a vital first step towards helping them say things in that way (Harmer, 2015, p. 277).

Opportunities to listen and notice pronunciation are important for learners and young EFL learners in a Greek study carried out by Georgountzou and Tsantila (2025) enjoyed this aspect of the study of pronunciation.

The researchers say that pronunciation needs to be practised systematically and recommend that teachers focus on practising sounds that learners in their teaching context find particularly challenging and may prevent them from being understood (Georgountzou & Tsantila, 2025). In their study of a multi-cultural class of young learners learning English in Greece, Georgountzou & Tsantila found that learners from different cultural backgrounds faced different pronunciation challenges. This may be because learners find it very difficult to hear features of pronunciation that do not exist in their own native language (Harmer, 2015, p. 278). To help with this issue, Harmer suggests demonstrating and explaining how sounds are produced and showing diagrams to learners.

Georgountzou & Tsantila (2025) also investigated phonology in their study. They developed and tested collaborative pronunciation lessons for teaching pronunciation over three sessions with fifty multi-cultural learners aged 9-12 in different teaching establishments to find out about phonological problems. Not just individual sounds were practised, but also word stress and sentence stress. The sessions included listening to native and non-native speakers and awareness-raising activities to identify specific phonological variations in speech. The results showed that learners with different cultural backgrounds experienced different difficulties to the Greek native speaker learners (Georgountzou & Tsantila, 2025).

How best teachers can assist a multicultural group of learners who have different phonological issues to develop their pronunciation in a context where time is limited and cannot solely be spent on pronunciation training, is a good question. Drawing attention to and helping learners to notice important aspects of pronunciation only has to take a few minutes of the English lesson. Often it is meaningful to do this during teaching phases when learners are introduced to new vocabulary. Although meaningless parroting can be boring for learners, pronunciation practice in the form of imitation is important for learners so that they practise accurately articulating what they have heard (Böttger, 2016). It is helpful for learners to listen to the

teacher demonstrating how to say the words and for learners to practise imitating them. Having the opportunity to see the teacher moving his or her mouth to produce the correct sounds is also essential for imitation (Böttger, 2016). This allows learners to see the shape that they must make with their own mouth to produce the same sound. When new vocabulary is taught, learners can practise the correct pronunciation together as a class in chorus. In this way learners can find out at least two pieces of information about a word; a meaning and how to pronounce the word. If a word is taught in context within a sentence, learners can also acquire grammatical knowledge indirectly about how the word is used together with other words (Cameron 2001).

Social and Emotional Skills.

It is not just linguistic knowledge and examples of the language that learners need to have to be able to speak English. Learners need social skills to be able to talk to a partner. In primary school, the teacher and peers play different roles. The teacher can provide scaffolding or support for learners when they are talking. The peers provide each other with opportunities for speaking practice (Hasselgreen & Caudwell, 2016). Both roles are important in the development of speaking skills.

The CEFR (2020) states that in relation to oral interaction, learners at A1 level are aiming to be able to:

> (…) interact in a simple way but communication is totally dependent on repetition at a slower rate, rephrasing and repair. [Learners] can ask and answer simple questions, initiate and respond to simple statements in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 72).

Initially helping young learners who are learning a foreign language to interact appropriately with each other may take some practice. Working with other people is more demanding for learners than working on their own because there is more to think about. It requires learners to pay attention to other people (Cameron, 2001). Young learners are naturally focused on themselves at a young age (Hasselgreen & Caudwell, 2016). In addition, learners find it difficult to plan their turn (Cameron, 2001). If learners are set a collaborative task to do together, for example a puzzle or a game, they do not interact in quite the same way as adults do (Oliver, 1998). Oliver (1998) found that young learners do not negotiate in the same way as adults do in speaking activities. Young learners tend to be occupied with communicating their own meaning and don’t tend to adjust their speech as adults do, to help the listener to understand the message.

Successful interaction requires awareness of other people and the ability to identify with them (Hasselgreen & Caudwell, 2016). This is a skill which develops gradually over time.

In a recent study with young EFL learners aged 9 and 12, Leslie (2025) recorded samples of interaction between learners doing a collaborative activity in the classroom. Leslie compared the types of interaction found to four different categories identified by Storch (2002) that classify different types of engagement between learners as either "collaborative", "expert/novice", "dominant/dominant" and "dominant/passive" (Leslie, 2025, p. 99). The different types of interaction differ according to how equal the learners are in their interaction and how highly they engage with the contributions made by their partner. Leslie found that the most common type of interaction between the pre-A1 level 9-year-olds participating in the study, was collaborative. In this type of interaction learners were very equal and Leslie argues that this led to peer interaction. There were also cases of passive/parallel interaction where learners interact with "minimum engagement" (Leslie, 2025, p. 100) and expert/novice where one learner shares their knowledge with another (Leslie, 2025, p. 103). However, in comparison to the older learners, the younger learners did not correct their peers or themselves as much (Leslie, 2025, p. 108). Leslie argues that to correct, learners must have an awareness of the language. They must be able to monitor speech either internally to self-correct or externally to correct others. They also must be able to remember what has been said so that they can compare it to their existing knowledge of the language. This may be difficult for young learners (Leslie, 2025). However, it may also be difficult for learners who don't have much language knowledge yet. The results obtained by Leslie supported the results obtained in some, but not all other similar studies (Leslie, 2025, p. 103). This may be because the type of activity affects the interaction.

Collaborative classroom activities can be very demanding for learners (Cameron, 2001). It is helpful for learners to see a demonstration of an activity before they are asked to have a go at it themselves. This helps learners to know what is expected of them or what they are aiming for. It helps learners to know what the teacher's expectation of them are. Learners also need time to listen to examples of the language for interaction. They may pick up language through classroom English phrases, through interaction with their teacher and through dialogues that have been scaffolded by the teacher (Böttger, 2020a). Initially choosing activities that are not too demanding on learners' interaction skills is helpful. Tasks can become gradually more challenging as learners become accustomed. Regular repetition of classroom phrases and having the phrases displayed in the classroom also helps learners to become familiar with them.

Collaborative and cooperative teaching forms (Böttger, 2016) such as including learners in the teaching phase of the lesson, simple questioning on topics which are familiar to learners e.g. colours or asking simple questions during a story reading session to check understanding, will provide learners opportunities to practise interacting with the teacher and each other.

Pair work or group work has been shown to provide learners with more opportunities for interaction than whole class phases (Tsui, 2010). However, a common problem with young learners is that they often do not speak English together in group work or pair work phases. They revert to speaking their native language together (L. Meyer, 2022).

Emotional skills also play a role in speech (Mercer et al., 2017). Learners need to build confidence so that they feel able to speak. Confidence in foreign language learning is often referred to as linguistic self-confidence (LSC).

> [LSC] reflects a confident, anxiety-free belief that the mastery of a L2 is well within the learner's means. It subsumes the individual's beliefs about his or her abilities to reach goals successfully or to finish tasks, and it usually concerns a generalized perception of one's coping potentials, relevant to a range of tasks and subject domains (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005, p. 22).

Clément and colleagues also found that self-confidence had a positive effect on

> L2 proficiency, both directly and indirectly through the students' attitude toward and effort expended on learning English (Clément et al., 1994, p. 443).

It seems that confidence is closely related to learner motivation and interest. An inter-correlation was also found between listening motivation, interest, confidence and proficiency in research carried out on one hundred and eleven primary school EFL children in Hong Kong (Tsang, 2022, p. 1). In the study which collected quantitative data, a greater interest in the foreign language did not relate to higher foreign language proficiency, but increased learner confidence. Greater confidence was related to higher achievement in the foreign language (Tsang, 2022, p. 7). Therefore, it seems that learner interest also plays an important role in self-confidence. Tsang (2022) acknowledged however, that the study has some limitations as no qualitative data was collected to be able to triangulate the quantitative data.

Activities which are relevant to learners and raise their curiosity will encourage learners to speak (Böttger, 2016). Learners must be motivated to make the effort and to take the risk to speak in front of other learners. The teacher needs to create a "supportive and risk-taking

environment" (Kirsch, 2008, p. 111) to encourage learners to speak. Interesting tasks or tasks which involve a problem-solving element, and ensuring that learners have ample opportunities to speak and are supported to do so, will help to support this (Böttger, 2016). In addition, daily routines in which similar language is regularly repeated provides an authentic scenario for learners to use the language for a real purpose e.g. taking the register at the beginning of the class. Teachers can gradually introduce new language to relax the task and make it more open, although it remains familiar to learners (Kirsch, 2008).

Creating a classroom environment in which there is trust, an environment in which learners feel confident to be able to participate without the fear of being criticised is essential. An environment like this can be created through frequent gentle encouragement of learners' efforts to contribute and a lack of negative feedback and restrictions (Böttger, 2016). If a learner makes the effort to say something, it is essential that they receive a positive response and encouragement even if what they said was not perfect. The development of "a positive mindset" (L. Meyer, 2022, p. 187) amongst learners is essential in helping them to start speaking.

However, it is important that learners receive some feedback (Böttger, 2020a; Kirsch, 2008) so that fossilization of mistakes (e.g. mislearning of pronunciation which becomes fixed) can be avoided. Positive re-enforcement of correct language through repetition in chorus before doing a speaking activity where learners talk to their partner is also helpful (Böttger, 2016) because repetition of correct language helps to eliminate mistakes and also generates the feeling of security and success. Learners react most positively to correction if they can notice and correct their own mistake through "self-repair" (Kirsch, 2008, p. 114). Negative feedback, which is critical can discourage learners, make them afraid of making mistakes so that they are discouraged and become afraid to try again. It may discourage learners from experimenting with the language (Böttger, 2020a). This is to be avoided.

In a recent study Ergül and Uysal (2025) investigated form-focused interaction sequences in the primary school classroom with learners between the ages of nine and twelve years old to find out about corrective feedback (CF). They analysed classroom discourse analysis through 200 hours of recordings of interactions between teachers and pupils who produced errors, and their peers (Ergül & Uysal, 2025). Through analysis of a limited portion of the data collected, they found that a mixture of different types of corrective feedback were used by teachers in oral interactions with pupils. In addition to the six types of CF listed by Lyster and Ranta (1997), which include "recasts, explicit correction, meta-linguistic cues, elicitation,

repetition and clarification requests" (Ergül & Uysal, 2025, pp. 93–94) the researchers also identified "negotiated corrective feedback" (Ergül & Uysal, 2025, p. 94) in which

> the teacher encourages other students in the class to jointly construct the feedback sequence (Ergül & Uysal, 2025, p. 92).

If a learner makes an error, the teacher first invites the student who made the error to try to repair it. This allows the learner the opportunity to self-correct. If the learner is unable to, the teacher asks if anyone else in the class can help, allowing for "peer participation and engagement" (Ergül & Uysal, 2025, p. 93). The interaction is then concluded by the teacher. The authors argue that by doing this, learners are involved in correcting their own errors together with help from the teacher. The researchers however, also noted that on account of the fact that only a limited portion of the collected data was analysed for this study, the results should not be overgeneralised at this stage, and are considered to be "preliminary" (Ergül & Uysal, 2025, p. 87).

Learners need the skills that have been discussed in this section to be able to speak. However, in addition, they also need to be able to use the skills simultaneously. Therefore, the following section explores the concepts which scaffold the teaching of speaking in practical ways in the primary language classroom, to help learners with the difficult task of speaking.

The Teaching of EFL Oral Skills in Primary Schools

Speaking skills are taught in an integrated way in primary schools in Germany through listening and speaking practice, carried out in meaningful contexts. In primary school

> communicative skills are implicitly integrated with the linguistic components of the foreign language (Reckermann, 2018, p. 57).

The teaching of EFL speaking skills to young learners in primary schools in Baden-Württemberg aims to allow learners to gradually build up their skills to become more independent. Some learners who begin learning English in primary school may have very little knowledge of the language when they begin. As speaking can only be learnt through the act of speaking itself (Böttger, 2016, p. 137), learners must actively build up their speaking skills through participation in speaking activities. Initially learners are allowed to have a silent phase, where they listen to input from the teacher and give non-verbal responses (Pinter, 2006). Learners who are not very confident often initially have a silent phase (Böttger, 2020a). When learners have listened sufficiently, they will want to join in (Pinter, 2006).

Only with the introduction of structured language which is regularly practised and becomes gradually more difficult, in a similar way to the spiral curriculum proposed by Bruner (1960), will learners become communicative (Dreßler, 2020, p. 148). Ritual use of language, for example at the start of a lesson in the greeting, can lead on to a rhyme spoken together, followed by the refreshing of phrases related to a particular topic introduced in a previous lesson and finally onto the topic for the lesson and time for speaking in pairs. After two years of English teaching, learners should be able to say simple sentences and react in everyday situations (Böttger, 2020a).

Every teaching unit should include an initial presentation of the language by the teacher so that learners become familiar with the new words and their pronunciation (Dreßler, 2020). There should also be opportunities for the learners to join in and practise saying the words, followed by some reproduction opportunities. Depending on the level of the learners, at the end of each unit, they should have the opportunity to produce their own language. However, it depends on what stage the learners have reached. Learners are very different to each other, but learning should always be the goal. In places where there are four years of English lessons, focus should be placed more heavily on output in the third and fourth classes (Dreßler, 2020, p. 149). In Baden-Württemberg because learners begin English lessons in the third class, the emphasis on output is more heavily focused on the fourth class.

Although learners should be encouraged to speak in full sentences, it is challenging for young learners initially because:

> A speaker needs to find the most appropriate words and the correct grammar to convey meaning accurately and precisely, and needs to organise the discourse so that a listener will understand (Cameron, 2001, p. 41)

Therefore, learners cannot be expected to create long sentences when they first begin speaking. There is a lot for learners to think about, to organise in their minds and to articulate. In addition, not every learner naturally likes to talk and the teacher can accept varying responses from learners in the English lesson (L. Meyer, 2022) to allow every learner to participate at their own level. However, the goal is for every learner to develop their speaking skills as they are able. This proceeds at different rates. This difference amongst learners was confirmed by the BIG study which showed that learners were heterogenous at the end of the fourth class (Barucki et al., 2015). The following sections consider how learners can be supported in the classroom by the teacher.

The Zone of Proximal Development and Scaffolding Speaking

Given the common difficulty that teachers all over the world face in encouraging learners to speak (Copland et al., 2014), it may be helpful to consider Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotskiĭ, 1962, 1978) when choosing speaking activities. The ZPD is a metaphorical place in which the child is able to reach a new level of capability with the help of someone who is more expert. Lev Vygotsky was a Russian psychologist who studied children in the 1920s and 30s in Russia. His writing became very influential in the 1970s when it was translated into English. Vygotsky thought that "language develops primarily from social interaction" and that in a "supportive interactive environment", such as one where tasks are scaffolded by adults or more advanced learner, learners can be helped to progress to a "higher level of knowledge and performance" (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 25). Therefore, tasks which are set learners in the ZPD, defined as the gap between what a child is able to do on their own and what they are able to do in collaboration with others who are more capable (Mourão & Ellis, 2020), are most likely to be successful as long as children have access to support.

The Zone of Proximal Development is often discussed together with scaffolding, as they are seen as a way of helping learners to develop their speaking skills (Burns, 1998). Speaking activities can be scaffolded or supported by the teacher to help learners to speak. Scaffolding is adult talk which is adjusted to an individual child to help them to do an activity (Wood et al., 1973, p. 98). Cameron describes scaffolding as a process in which an adult holds the steps and aims for the whole task in mind for the learner. This frees the learner's attentional capacity to focus on the language needed to do the task. This process enables the learner to complete the task with the help of the teacher (Cameron, 2001).

In relation to developing learners' speaking skills, Cameron cites Wood (1998) and says that teachers can support speaking activities by helping children in several ways (Cameron, 2001, p. 9). Teachers generate interest in a task and can encourage children to pay attention to what is relevant through making suggestions. They can encourage learners to focus on what is significant in that situation or remind them of the goal of the activity. Learners can also be encouraged to use strategies when learning speaking, such as organisational strategies and rehearsal strategies. In addition, teachers can keep the whole task in mind but model parts of the activity for learners or provide smaller activities that practise parts of the task before the whole task is put together. In addition, teachers can help to control learners' frustration levels by helping them to manage the task (Read, 2006). In the young learner classroom appropriate scaffolding for speaking is necessary to support learners adequately when they begin to speak (Pinter,

2006). Scaffolding will differ depending on the stage the child has reached (Wood et al., 1973). Beginner learners need more scaffolding for speaking activities than more advanced learners (Cameron, 2001). In addition, speaking in the classroom can also be supported through the organisation of speaking activities. This support is explored in the following section.

Imitation, Reproduction and Production

A systematic sequence of activities which gradually become more open to allow learners more freedom to choose the language, can be used to provide structure in the teaching of speaking in primary school. The sequence begins with imitation followed by re-production and finally free speaking (Jäger, 2020). The first two stages are necessary as training so that learners can reach the third stage (Böttger, 2020a). The first two stages are also guided by the teacher. Imitation is initially heavily guided by the teacher to give learners security and to help to build confidence. Re-production activities should also be guided and structured by the teacher to give learners support as they work a little more independently. It is important for learners to move quickly from imitation and repetition to activities like dialogues (Böttger, 2016, p. 137) so that they can actively use what they have heard and so that speaking becomes more like real speech. However, this is only possible after automation of speech has occurred. Jumping straight to free speaking activities too quickly without the necessary preparation and steady practise, could lead learners to produce muddled speech (Böttger, 2016, p. 138). If too much is demanded too quickly, some learners may be overstretched and not say anything at all (L. Meyer, 2022). The goal is rather for learners to become more independent over time and to be able to reach the free speaking or production phase so that they can use the language to communicate (Read, 2006).

Therefore, the sequence which involves imitation, reproduction, free speaking is designed to support children to gradually develop their speaking skills over time, to help them to develop their language and to build up “frameworks” (Böttger, 2016, p. 138) for speech or meaningful examples. This idea of supporting speech was incorporated into this project during the intervention lessons. In the following, further examples are given.

The purpose of imitation, the first step in the sequence, is to help learners to begin to speak (Böttger, 2016). It gives learners the opportunity to listen several times to the teacher demonstrating the language and to hear the correct pronunciation. It is also helpful to learners because repetition through listening has been shown to increase the likelihood of remembering what they have heard. In imitation activities the teacher says a word, sentence or phrase, the

learners listen and then try to reproduce it. Songs and rhymes are also good as imitation activities (Pinter, 2006). Learners can learn them off by heart with relative ease because the music and rhythm make them more memorable. They are also fun to sing or say. Learning off by heart is helpful in enabling successful imitation (Böttger, 2016).

Initially imitation exercises will be challenging for learners because a high level of concentration is needed (Böttger, 2016). Learners need to listen carefully, remember what they have heard and build up courage to try to imitate the sounds by articulating them. Language presented in a meaningful context which is relevant to learners or that links to the learner's world is easier than language which is out of context or not relevant to them. Key to the process is that the meaning of the phrase or sentence to be repeated is clear to learners. However, repetition of imitated phrases, sentences, words or sounds should not turn into meaningless parroting (Böttger, 2016, p. 136) which could be boring and de-motivating for learners. Repeated imitation of meaningful phrases will help learners to remember them.

The imitation stage of learning to speak a foreign language is more successful when the language is provided in context because it is more meaningful to learners and therefore, more memorable. Learners need to understand the meaning of what they are imitating to have any chance of remembering it. Cameron says that the meaning of the language must come first (Cameron, 2001). The meaning of what the learners are saying is most important to them. If they don't know the meaning of what they are saying, then it will be irrelevant to them and they will not remember it (Böttger, 2016).

In addition, the context is important because learners need the opportunity to be able to connect new knowledge from the input that they receive in the classroom to their existing knowledge (Böttger, 2016). Knowing about the context of the language helps learners to activate and use their world knowledge to help them to understand and remember.

In the reproduction stage young learners often use chunks of language when they speak. This is because learners don't initially break down the language and analyse it like adults do (Pinter, 2006). They remember chunks of language that they have heard or read on the board and "lift" them for use in new situations. Rhymes, songs, chants and stories are good sources of chunks which are memorable because they are presented to learners in a meaningful context. This makes speaking easier for speakers because they don't have to formulate every utterance from scratch. They can use chunks of language from memory (Cameron, 2001). For this reason, chunks also help to automate speech. Fluent speakers learn which chunks of language are

regularly used in certain situations and can use and re-use them automatically without needing to think too much. Automation therefore, plays an important role in free speaking (Böttger, 2016).

It is helpful for learners to be provided with models of language which can be adapted and used to communicate (Legutke et al., 2014). Within a language model which has been presented to learners, they need freedom to be able to choose the language that they use. Activities such as role plays and dialogues are good activities to use for this purpose because they provide language models. Learners can be allowed to choose the language they use from the choice provided to complete their own version of the dialogue. Activities which allow learners some choice also encourage participation (L. Meyer, 2022). Activities like dialogues and role plays can be used to help learners to move from guided tasks like those in the re-production phase to freer speaking activities (Kirkgöz, 2022). Dialogues and role plays can also allow older or more advanced learners flexibility to use the language more creatively (Pinter, 2006).

Due to the desire to communicate and the time pressure on speaking, learners may draw on all their linguistic resources, both L1 and L2. Interactive activities, based on dialogue help learners to develop their reproductive and free speech (Böttger, 2020a, p. 190). In such activities "language switching" (Böttger, 2020a, p. 190) where utterances include a mixture of both L1 and L2 words together may occur.

Becker and Roos (2016) argue that learners should be provided with more opportunities to experiment with the language and to produce creative speech. They argue that learning to communicate is more than "just producing memorized chunks of language" (Becker & Roos, 2016, p. 9). Spontaneous responses are also needed. In reaction to this they designed a creative communicative task-based information gap activity and tested it with third class learners. Task-based learning is designed to be meaning-focused and requires learners to communicate information to reach a clearly defined outcome (R. Ellis, 2003).

The results showed that learners did make errors, used some German words and used unanalysed chunks of language, but they also successfully communicated with their peers and became more autonomous in the process (Becker & Roos, 2016). The tasks were not too difficult for learners. The errors were evidence that the learners' language was developing. In conclusion, the authors recommend using a "creative speaking approach" (Becker & Roos, 2016, p. 21) to help with language production. There are three steps which are "reproductive, creative and creative and productive" (Becker & Roos, 2016, pp. 21–24), for helping learners to speak

creatively. It is similar to the imitation, re-production, free speech model (Jäger, 2020) of teaching speaking discussed above, but without the initial imitation stage. This suggests that it would not be appropriate for absolute beginners whose speech is just beginning to emerge but would be appropriate for learners who have been learning for a short while.

The following section describes some further examples of speaking activities that are used in the primary school EFL classroom in Germany. They show how the development of oral skills can be supported in practical ways through the choice of activities. The exploration of the types of speaking activities for the classroom also help to put the planned intervention activities into context.

Speaking Activities in the Primary EFL Classroom

There are many activities for the practice of speaking in the young learner classroom. Diehr and Frisch (2008) divide types of speaking activities for young learners into four categories (A-D) organised into quadrants (Diehr & Frisch, 2008, p. 42) according to how well learners are acquainted with the concepts of a conversation and the language needed to participate. Speaking activities in the "A" quadrant include mechanical repetition for example, songs and rhymes (Diehr & Frisch, 2008, p. 43).

Activities in quadrant B include learners reciting language that they understand (Diehr & Frisch, 2008, p. 43). For example, learners sing a song and do the actions, or they perform a sketch. Activities like these are familiar and help learners to feel that they can join in. Quadrant C is more demanding than quadrant B because learners use world knowledge that they already have in the foreign language, for example describing the classroom for visitors (Diehr & Frisch, 2008, p. 44). Activities in quadrant D are the most interesting for learners because they include new content and also new language. This quadrant carries a slight risk that learners may be over challenged depending on the amount of new language that has to be employed or the new concepts are too intellectually challenging (Diehr & Frisch, 2008, p. 45). The examples given include a discussion on the subject of depression with the third class, which may be intellectually and linguistically overchallenging. However, re-telling a familiar story is possible for learners if they work hard and practise. Diehr & Frisch recommend speaking activities in quadrants C and D are the most appropriate (Diehr & Frisch, 2008, p. 45).

Both monologic (speaking alone) and dialogic skills (speaking to someone else) are important for learners to acquire, as both are required by speakers in different situations. Activities to practise monologues at this level could include for example, describing a picture or

speaking using images as prompts (Jäger, 2020). Describing a person or animal would also fall into this category. Practising monologues provides a good opportunity for learners to repeat and memorize communicative phrases, which they may be able to draw upon in conversation to make the situation easier for them by freeing up attentional capacity.

Dialogues can be practised through asking and answering simple questions e.g. in relation to colours, through classroom language for organising learners' books etc. (Jäger, 2020). They can also be practised through classroom routines such as discussing the weather, the seasons, birthdays etc. Dialogue situations can be related to topics that learners are studying in class. Learners can take on roles and act out the situation. One learner could be a shopper and the other a customer if the topic is shopping. Alternatively, learners could put on a short theatre piece for an audience for example, a parallel class. Games also offer opportunities to speak to a partner. Language which is relevant to children's lives should be chosen in the practice of communicative situations. The curriculum provides appropriate topics for young learners to practice these situations (Jäger, 2020).

Diehr & Frisch (2008) provide a step diagram of speaking activities for the primary school EFL classroom which moves from reproductive to productive activities. The activities are depicted in the following order starting with reproductive activities and moving to more productive activities: short song or poem, mini dialogue, role play, presentation, telling a story, describing, reading aloud and free speaking (Diehr & Frisch, 2008, p. 52). The goal is for learners to become gradually more coherent and productive as they move through primary school. The mini dialogue is an important form of speaking between guided speaking and free speaking. The diagram represents what learners could be expected to do in the zone of proximal development, meaning that all the activities are appropriate for primary school learners, but they may need to be adjusted to the learners' language level. They could also be made more challenging by adjusting other aspects like the number of learners in a group, the length of an activity or by including extra help such as pictures (Diehr & Frisch, 2008). Learners are therefore, not expected to have completely mastered one type of activity before moving onto the next one. Any of the six most productive activities could interest learners between the ages of 9-11 as long as the topic that they are based upon is interesting for learners (Diehr & Frisch, 2008).

The planned intervention activities include many of the activities described in this section e.g. dialogues, games and telling stories. However, the activities in the intervention are all based around a story requiring learners to listen. Listening to the language is key to the

development of oral skills. This section discussed the requirements of young learners at A1 level and how the development of oral skills can be supported in the classroom by the teacher and through speaking activities. The next section examines how listening contributes to the development of oral skills.

Listening as an Aid to the Development of Oral Skills

In the young learner EFL classroom there is an initial focus on listening, followed by the introduction and development of speaking skills (Elsner, 2010; Pinter, 2006; Reckermann & Ritter, 2022). Listening and speaking skills have priority in EFL teaching in primary schools (Legutke et al., 2014). Although the teaching of listening starts before the teaching of speaking, the two skills become rapidly intertwined. Pinter argues that "listening and speaking are truly integrated in the primary English classroom" (Pinter, 2006, p. 45). It is difficult to separate them. The skills develop simultaneously, as part of the "output" encoded by the speaker, is at the same time part of the "input" decoded by the listener (Böttger, 2016, p. 133). Therefore, young learners should be assisted to understand from the beginning and then become accustomed to speaking coherent utterances in meaningful contexts.

Listening input is essential for the development of oral skills and for the development of the other skills (Rost, 2002). As mentioned briefly in the previous section, the development of speaking skills are based upon listening skills (Read, 2020). Listening describes a complicated process that enables people to understand a "spoken language" (Rost, 2010, p. 7). The process involves using information provided through the context and from one's own "knowledge of language and the world" (Kirkgöz, 2022, p. 172), to interpret messages.

Although listening is key to language acquisition and learning, there is still much which is unknown "about how foreign language learning and teaching differs from naturalistic immersion experiences" (Luk et al., 2020, p. 1). However, it is known that "listening is fundamental to speaking" (Nunan, 2002, p. 239). Listening gives learners input which is essential for learning. Language input could be described as examples of spoken language that learners hear. Learners must understand input at their level so that learning can start (Rost, 1994). Without any language input, learners have nothing to help them begin learning the language. Extreme cases of child isolation have clearly demonstrated that language input is essential for the development of speech. Children who do not hear their native language when they are young and have no social interaction, do not acquire speech until they begin to receive input (Curtiss et al., 1974).

Our knowledge and understanding of the development of listening and speaking skills in second language learning contexts, has greatly advanced over the last twenty years (Kirkgöz, 2022, p. 173). It takes time for second language learners to develop good listening skills (Vandergrift & Goh, 2018). Listening skills are essential, so that learners can make sense of what they hear and so that they can understand what other people mean (Cameron, 2001). Listening helps learners to manage in foreign language situations, such as in school lessons or when they are abroad (Richards, 2005). This is because listening is the basis for understanding (Böttger, 2020a, p. 62). It is "the channel in which we process language in real time" (Rost, 2010, p. 7). The following section discusses listening in relation to speaking skills. First, the requirements of listening skills at A1 level are examined and discussed.

The Requirements of the CEFR on Listening Skills at A1 Level

A simple level of comprehension is required at A1 level according to the CEFR descriptors (Council of Europe, 2020). The descriptors mention the following skills that learners are aiming to develop in oral comprehension at this level:

> [Learners] can follow language which is very slow and carefully articulated, with long pauses for them to assimilate meaning (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 48).
>
> [They] can recognise concrete information (e.g. places and times) on familiar topics encountered in everyday life, provided it is delivered slowly and clearly.

In terms of understanding conversations between people, the CEFR (2020) at A1 level states that learners:

> Can understand some expressions when people are discussing them, family, school, hobbies or surroundings, provided the delivery is slow and clear (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 49).
>
> Can understand words/signs and short sentences in a simple conversation (e.g. between a customer and a salesperson in a shop), provided people communicate very slowly and very clearly.

The demands of the CEFR (2020) increase as a learner's language level increases. To develop fluent comprehension skills or to automate them so that learners are able to listen and understand what they hear at speed, listening skills need to be practised and developed at every language learning stage. Therefore, it is important to practise listening regularly and to have the opportunity to listen to different kinds of listening texts (Kirkgöz, 2022).

According to the CEFR (2020) descriptors at A1 level in regard to interaction, expect learners to be able to understand enough to be able to interact with a partner in a simple way. Understanding is specifically mentioned in the CEFR at A1 level in the context of interaction:

> [They] can understand everyday expressions aimed at the satisfaction of simple needs of a concrete type, delivered directly to them in clear, slow and repeated language by a sympathetic interlocutor (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 74).

However, listening skills also support the development of other skills such as speaking and reading skills (Richards, 2005). Richards (2005) argues that listening skills have two key functions which both support the development of speaking skills amongst foreign language learners. The first is "listening as comprehension" and the second is "listening as acquisition" (Richards, 2005, p. 90). These are explained in the following sections. We start with listening as comprehension.

Listening as Comprehension

Initially, the primary purpose of listening for comprehension for young learners is to get the "gist" of what learners have heard. It is "meaning focused rather than language focused" (Cameron, 2001, p. 40). Initially young learners can listen and try to understand what they have heard. They are not expected to give a verbal response. Learners may not understand every single word that they have heard but the goal is to have understood enough to be able to follow what someone has said or to build a mental picture of a storyline in their mind, for example (Cameron, 2001, p. 40). In listening for comprehension purposes, the exact recall of language heard is not expected of learners (Richards, 2005). Learners need only recognize the sounds to form a "mental representation" or "approximate meaning" in their minds (Vandergrift & Goh, 2018, p. 126).

Listening helps speaking because it helps learners to actively take part in conversations. Comprehending what has been said enables learners to react appropriately to what they have heard (Böttger, 2020a). "Reciprocal listening" (Nunan, 2002, p. 239) skills need to be developed to enable learners to interact with other speakers. This is essential as it is rare for learners only to have the role of "eavesdropper" (Nunan, 2002, p. 240) in the real world outside the classroom. They must interact because interaction is essential for communication.

In order to be able to comprehend what was heard, "attention, perception and memory" (Vandergrift & Goh, 2018, p. 127) have to work together so that the listener can interpret what has been heard. Listening opportunities enable learners to become familiar with the sounds,

rhythm and intonation of a foreign language (Brown, 1977) so that they can begin to recognise those sounds and identify words at speed in a stream of speech (Goh, 2000).

> Recognising words in fluent speech is the basis of spoken-language comprehension (Rost, 2002, p. 20).

This is a complicated process, however. Learners must recognize the separation between words so that they know when one word ends and when the next word begins. This de-coding process (Field, 2008) is known as bottom-up processing, in which learners learn to segment what they hear into recognizable words (Vandergrift & Goh, 2018). Application of knowledge from the linguistic system such as "phonological", "morphological, syntactic and semantic knowledge" (Kolb & Schocker, 2021, p. 82), will help learners to de-code words. However, even if a word has been decoded, the listener must know something about the word's basic meaning to be able to understand it. A lack of knowledge of the word's meaning can hinder understanding. Therefore, vocabulary knowledge is also important in the listening process (Rost, 2002). In addition, limited knowledge of the grammar of the language may also slow young learners down, either because they do not yet know a grammatical form or they misinterpret it (Rost, 2010). This hinders understanding.

The ability to recognise and tell the difference between sounds in a foreign language is important for understanding and also so that learners can eventually produce speech with the correct pronunciation (Ur, 1984). It is helpful for learners to have good role models who use authentic pronunciation. It is impossible for learners to produce correct sounds themselves if they have not heard the sounds pronounced correctly. Cameron says that learners tend to imitate and reproduce the kinds of language that their teachers say (Cameron, 2001, p. 16). Pinter (2012) agrees that the quality of teacher talk cannot be underestimated as it is the main source of input in the primary classroom (Pinter, 2012).

Learners need to practise hearing the difference between the sounds of the foreign language, so that they can perceive them correctly. Brown (1977) argues that:

> phonetic sounds have to be interpreted as different phonemic tokens – which causes a great deal of difficulty in the teaching of the spoken language (Brown, 1977, p. 13).

It is difficult for learners to produce the sounds of a foreign language clearly if they cannot hear or recognize the difference between them. Tokens can be defined as sounds that a native speaker accepts to be "the same basic type" (Brown, 1977, p. 13). Brown gives an example of Cantonese

and Luganda speakers who perceive the phonemes /l/ and /r/, which are distinctly different in English, to be the same sound. Therefore, these speakers must learn to distinguish between the two sounds in order to be able to say words such as “lead” and “read” in English (Brown, 1977, p. 14). It is therefore, essential that teachers use the correct pronunciation so that learners hear words pronounced correctly. This is a condition (Barucki, 2020, p. 110) for the development of correct pronunciation. Any differences between a learner’s first language and second language, such as the phonology, the tone or the stress of the language are likely to make it difficult for them to understand what they have heard (Rost, 2010). Therefore, learning to listen exactly to the sounds of the language is important. Cameron states that:

> Pupils need to hear a new word in isolation as well as in a discourse context, so that they can notice the sounds at the beginning and end, the stress pattern of the word, and the syllables that make up the word. They will need to hear the word spoken in isolation several times to catch all this information (Cameron, 2001, p. 86).

It is helpful for learners to listen and then try out language themselves (Böttger, 2016). This helps to avoid mislearning and mispractising incorrect pronunciation and also to avoid interference from the learners’ mother tongue. The more exactly a learner can subsequently reproduce the sounds of a language, the more authentic their own pronunciation will be, and the easier it will be for other people to understand them when they speak. A mispronunciation of a sound within a word can change the meaning of that word or distract a speaking partner so much that they fail to understand the message and have to ask a follow-up question (Böttger, 2016, p. 137). Young learners have the advantage of being very good at imitating new sounds (Kirkgöz, 2022).

Although bottom-up processing strategies which focus on the sounds and words of a language are essential for the development of listening skills, they are not sufficient on their own to enable comprehension of a spoken text (Vandergrift & Goh, 2018). It is helpful for learners to acquire and employ top-down strategies in addition to bottom-up strategies, which draw on knowledge of the world from their long-term memory. Top-down processes help to set the listening text in context and help learners to interpret what they have heard (Vandergrift & Goh, 2018). Top-down processes also help learners who are participating in a conversation to respond appropriately within the context, and to contribute interesting and relevant information that develops and moves the conversation along. Teachers can help learners to access their knowledge of the world by allowing them time to look at the pictures in a story book and talk

about them, for example. This helps to set the story in context and activate what learners already know about the story topic.

Both the long-term memory and the working memory (Baddeley, 2003) help learners in the listening comprehension process. In addition to storing information about the world, the long-term memory stores information about how the language is used, which listeners can draw on to help them to understand what they hear. The short-term memory also has a role to play in that it stores what learners hear temporarily whilst it is processed and interpreted. The short-term memory has limited space for phonological information that is heard. New information replaces existing information in the working memory (Vandergrift & Goh, 2018). This makes listening as comprehension challenging for young learners, as their bottom-up processing skills often do not work quickly enough, especially if what they are listening to is delivered quickly. Sometimes they are not able to interpret and understand what they have heard before the next new information is subsequently heard, and the first information is forgotten. This causes a break down in understanding.

As learners become more proficient listeners through practice however, top-down and bottom-up processes work better together and more quickly so that listening comprehension becomes easier (Vandergrift & Goh, 2018). Becoming more familiar with the language makes listening easier because learners become quicker at processing the information that they hear. More advanced comprehension skills may enable speakers to respond more quickly and appropriately in a conversation and help them to avoid awkward silences in which their speaking partner may lose interest. Listeners who have more advanced skills can draw out the most important information from what they have heard (Vandergrift & Goh, 2018), interpret it and ask a follow-up question to obtain further information if needed (Brown, 1977), to help them understand the meaning.

Beginner learners have a limited vocabulary, need more time to process what they hear and don’t co-ordinate their top-down and bottom-up processes as well as experienced listeners (Vandergrift & Goh, 2018). Therefore, it is helpful to pre-teach certain linguistic aspects which appear in a listening text, slow the pace of a listening text down to give learners more time to process the information, repeat tasks and allow learners some time for planning (Richards, 2008). The ability to infer or to make an educated guess can also help learners to understand the meaning of what they hear, particularly if knowledge of the vocabulary is missing (Rost, 2002).

Language which is grammatically correct and of a high quality is beneficial for language learners to hear. Child-directed speech often focuses on a child's direct environment and often "recasts" (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 26) what a child has said. In this case an adult repeats back to a child what they have said in a modified form to demonstrate grammatically correct use of the language e.g. if a child says "Dump truck! Fall! Fall!" an adult could recast that exclamation with "Yes, the dump truck fell down" (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 26).

Developing the ability to pay attention and concentrate are important for young learners in the development of listening skills (Böttger, 2016). Learners must listen to detailed information and process it. It is more than just hearing because listening requires what has been heard to be processed, interpreted and understood so that learners can appropriately react to the information. Speaking is also a complicated skills where attention is needed (Levelt, 1989). Working to improve attention and concentration skills will help the development of speaking and listening skills, as well as helping learners in other areas of the curriculum. The next section explores listening as acquisition.

Listening as Acquisition

Listening is a skill and also a way to acquire a second language (Rost, 2010). Language acquisition through listening seems to be less widely discussed in texts about second language listening skills than listening for comprehension purposes. However, Richards (2005) describes one of the purposes for listening as "listening as acquisition" (Richards, 2005, p. 87). Acquisition is commonly defined as "the subconscious process in which children acquire their mother tongue" (Krüger, 2023, p. 52). Listening as acquisition comes from the idea that second language learners acquire language by listening.

There are second language acquisition theories that emphasize the importance of listening in second language acquisition (Richards, 2005). One example is Krashen's second language acquisition hypothesis which he described as "theoretical linguistics" (Krashen, 1982, p. 2). The hypothesis is composed of five sub-hypotheses, one of which is the "Input hypothesis" (Krashen, 1982, p. 20). The hypothesis states that if learners listen to a high amount of comprehensible input at an appropriate level described as i+1 on subjects that interest them, delivered in a low anxiety environment, it is sufficient for second language acquisition to occur if learners are focused on meaning and not on the form of the language. I+1 includes language which is a slightly beyond the point where learners are presently. Comprehensible input could come from a variety of different sources for example, from the spoken language or from other

media (Krüger, 2023) such as the television or radio. No teaching of structures is necessary for acquisition to occur.

However, some applied linguists believe that although language input is important, more is needed for language acquisition than input alone (Legutke et al., 2014; Tomlinson, 2013). Krashen's input hypothesis received some criticism partly because no explanation for the relationship between "listening and language acquisition" was given (Richards, 2005, p. 88). In addition, the hypothesis placed a strong emphasis on input being sufficient but there was a lack of consideration for the importance of social interaction in language acquisition, on language output and on incidental language learning (Krüger, 2023).

Richards, (2005) draws our attention to Schmidt's (1990) explanation for the relationship between comprehension and acquisition through an emphasis on the significance of consciousness in language learning and on noticing in order to learn (Richards, 2005; Schmidt, 1990). Simply hearing the language, even if learners are listening, does not enable them to acquire language unless they notice something about it. Therefore, Schmidt concluded that input and intake are not the same thing. Noticing however, is important for intake to occur from input (Schmidt, 1990). Cameron (2001) explains noticing in the following way:

> Noticing is, (…) an active process in which learners become aware of the structure, notice connections between form and meaning, but do not themselves manipulate language (Cameron, 2001, p. 109).

In regards to focusing on the form of the language and noticing something about it, the question of when and in what ways it is appropriate to draw young learners' attention to the language is raised by Kolb and Schocker (Kolb & Schocker, 2021, p. 112). Puchta (2022) considers this in relation to the age of the learners and sees young learners in two groups (Puchta, 2022). He argues that learners who are ten and older are cognitively more able and abstract thinking is possible for them (Puchta, 2022, p. 204). Older learners are also more interested in analysing the language (Pinter, 2012). Therefore, perhaps it is possible to draw older learners' attention to some features of the language. This would not be appropriate with learners aged between 5 and 9 (Puchta, 2022). In this age group, learners tend to memorize unanalysed chunks of language that they have heard (Pinter, 2012).

Cameron (2001) argues that teachers can be aware of opportunities that occur naturally for grammar learning in the young learner classroom (Cameron, 2001). They can also discuss

features of the language that learners ask about because they find them particularly interesting (Kolb & Schocker, 2021).

Appropriate noticing activities for young learners are the types of activities that are often employed during English lessons that focus on organising learners' internal grammar (Cameron, 2001). A series of activities including "noticing", "structuring" and "proceduralising" (Cameron, 2001, p. 108) activities can be used. Learners listen to a text which includes the repetition and contrast of a particular form and then complete a chart or table on what they have heard. For example, learners could listen to a story and tick off the prepositions that they hear in a grid (Legutke et al., 2014, p. 71). The series of activities progresses from noticing to structuring activities, where learners have the opportunity to practise manipulating the language themselves and lastly to proceduralising activities which allow learners to choose a form and express their own meaning (Cameron, 2001).

VanPatten (1996) agrees that restructuring is necessary for learners to add new language to their repertoire (VanPatten, 1996, p. 134). Accordingly, not all input becomes intake. In order for intake to be permanently acquired, it needs to be restructured by the learner. Learners in fact need to restructure, complexify and stretch output a process in which

> [they] (…) take part in activities which require them to try out and experiment in using newly noticed language forms in order for new learning items to become incorporated into the linguistic repertoire (Richards, 2005, p. 89).

This suggests that learners need to be given the opportunity to actively use the new language that they have listened to themselves to express their own ideas. Cameron (2001) supports the idea that listening and understanding comprehensible input on its own is not enough for language learning to happen. Studies in Canadian immersion contexts in the 1980s showed that learners received plenty of input in French and had developed good listening comprehension skills (Swain, 1985). However, learners' speaking skills were not grammatically "equivalent to that of native speakers" (Swain, 1985, p. 251). Therefore, Cameron (2001) argues that a further step is required for learners to acquire the language and supports Swain's (1985) view that "comprehensible output" (Swain, 1985, p. 236) is also important.

> Learners need to use their production resources and skills if they are to develop knowledge and skills to share their understandings fully and accurately (Cameron, 2001, p. 41).

Learners need practice formulating and expressing their own ideas in speaking contexts. According to Cameron, in order to effectively communicate with other speakers in a foreign language, attention must be given to "precise details of the language" (Cameron, 2001, p. 41). Listening for gist or for comprehension purposes focuses on understanding the meaning and not on the syntax, grammar or vocabulary specifically. The implication here is that specific attention must be paid to language features to improve spoken accuracy. Learners need to find the right words and organise their speech so that they can be understood. They also need to pronounce their words in an understandable way so that another speaker can understand them. Therefore,

> [i]n order for input in the L2 to become intake, the learner must address the issue of cognitive capacity for processing information. Until learner's cognitive capacity increases, acquisition remains stagnant, and though the learner may come to understand more of the L2 through strategic compensations (…) her ability to process information from linguistic cues in real time remains the same (Rost, 2002, p. 97).

For input to become intake, a learner has to be able to "detect" a new language form and further process it (Rost, 2002, p. 97). The learner must pay attention to the form, and this uses the processing power of the short-term memory, meaning that less capacity is available to process the message. This leads to a competition between meaning and form. It is very difficult to pay attention to both at the same time because learners can only process so much linguistic information at once. Rost argues that in this case "detecting any new linguistic information is unlikely" (Rost, 2002, p. 97).

In conclusion, in relation to "listening for comprehension" and "listening for acquisition", Richards (2005) advises against separating the two for the purposes for listening (Richards, 2005, p. 90). Instead, he recommends handling listening for acquisition and listening for comprehension purposes together, to avoid misunderstandings of the purpose of listening. There is a risk that focusing on listening as acquisition may turn into a testing situation in which learners have to identify exact linguistic information during listening practice. The repetition of this activity which focuses learners purposely on specific linguistic features within the text, may bore learners (Richards, 2005). Therefore, he argues that it is best avoided.

There is one further type of listening which contributes to the development of oral skills. It is called incidental listening, and it is explained in the following section.

Incidental Listening

Incidental listening does not require purposeful attention to be paid to form (Böttger, 2016). It can be understood as a "by-product of any activity not explicitly geared to vocabulary learning" (Hulstijn, 2001, p. 271). Incidental learning is a subconscious process. It is different to intentional learning in which learners consciously try to remember information. However, Webb et al. (2023) argue that this definition also has some difficulties, as a learner's intention to learn may change during an activity and may also vary between individuals (Webb et al., 2023). Therefore, incidental learning is also defined as a side-effect.

There is evidence from studies of incidental learning through listening that words can be learned incidentally (Webb et al., 2023). In a meta-analysis of studies on incidental vocabulary acquisition carried out by Webb and colleagues, (2023) evidence for "incidental vocabulary learning through reading, listening, and reading while listening" (Webb et al., 2023, p. 162) were found. Twenty-four studies involving 2,771 participants were analysed. Results from immediate post tests and delayed post tests were compared and showed "large overall effects for incidental vocabulary learning on first and follow-up posttests" (Webb et al., 2023, p. 161). The results for gains made in reading, listening and reading while listening were similar in both initial and delayed post tests. For incidental learning through listening a 15% gain was calculated for the initial post test and a 13% gain for the second post test (Webb et al., 2023, p. 174). However, the results also revealed that results were not stable but that certain variables affected the amount of incidental learning that occurred (Webb et al., 2023, p. 161).

The factors that were found to be significant in affecting the amount of incidental learning were the characteristics of the learners themselves, the materials used, the learning activities and the methodological features used to obtain the results (Webb et al., 2023, p. 161). Older learners were shown to make more efficient use of frequently used words than younger learners (Uchihara et al., 2019), although this finding would benefit from further research due to study limitations (Webb et al., 2023, p. 162).

The type of text was also found to be significant (Gardner, 2004). Narrative texts which included more high frequency words were found to be more conducive to vocabulary acquisition than factual texts. The explanation given for this by Gardner (2004) was that narrative texts contain more higher frequency words and are dense. Factual texts contain a higher number of different words (Gardner, 2004). Webb et al. (2023) comment that the studies that they found used a mixture of different texts (Webb et al., 2023). Therefore, further investigation of different

types of texts would be beneficial. The conclusion drawn by Gardner (2004) on text type also refers to vocabulary acquisition through reading and not through listening (Gardner, 2004). However, it would be logical to assume that the same would apply to listening texts, as story books may also be read aloud to learners. However, further research on this point is essential for clarification and nothing can be assumed.

Webb et al. (2023) draw attention to the fact that texts are written for different audiences (Webb et al., 2023). However, little seems to be known about whether authentic materials aimed at L1 audiences or materials specifically designed for L2 learners are more effective in terms of acquisition through listening. There seems to be no empirical evidence to prove that one or the other are more effective for acquisition at present. Webb et al. suggest that materials designed for L2 learners warrant further investigation to find out if they can improve L2 vocabulary acquisition (Webb et al., 2023).

Learning over time with repeated exposures to words at intervals increases the retention of vocabulary acquired (S. K. Kim & Webb, 2022). Spaced out repeated encounters with vocabulary lead to a greater learning effect than one long session where vocabulary was encountered. Therefore, listening to material which repeats the same vocabulary over several sessions, leads to greater incidental vocabulary acquisition than if vocabulary was only encountered in a single session.

Webb et al. (2020) also found in their research that a meta-analysis of intentional vocabulary learning revealed that more vocabulary was retained on delayed post tests (39.4%) (Webb et al., 2020, p. 730) than in the studies on incidental vocabulary learning (Webb et al., 2023, p. 174). This would support the idea that noticing is important for language acquisition to occur (Schmidt, 1990). Yet, Webb et al. (2023) advise caution when interpreting these results. They state that the analysis of incidental vocabulary, contained studies where there were control groups. The intentional learning studies on the other hand, did not employ the same level of control group (Webb et al., 2023). Therefore, the incidental vocabulary gains in the intentional learning studies cannot be directly attributed to intentional learning strategies, as other possible influencing factors were not controlled or eliminated.

Learners who were more advanced made larger gains in vocabulary than learners who were not as proficient (Webb et al., 2023). The authors suggest that this may be because they have more attention free to notice unusual words. Learners who are less proficient need to

devote much more of their attention to understanding and have less attention free for words that they don't know. This could have affected the amount of language that was retained by learners.

It has been argued that acquiring a native language and learning a second language are not the same thing, although there are some similarities between the two processes (Krüger, 2023). The evidence points to the fact that listening is important and helpful for second language acquisition and that learners will acquire a certain amount of language incidentally through listening (Webb et al., 2023). However, in a second language it is unlikely to be enough on its own for learners to just listen to acquire the language. Rost (2002) argues that three things are required for a person to learn a foreign language. Firstly, the learner must be motivated. Secondly, they need support from other people who know the language well and can speak it and thirdly, they need to be in a social situation in which they have frequent and sustained access to speakers of the language (Rost, 2002). Two of these activities involve listening which is why listening is key to language development.

The following section discusses some examples of listening activities used in the primary school EFL classroom to develop listening skills.

Listening Activities in the Primary EFL Classroom

An initial goal of English language teaching in primary schools is to assist learners in developing listening strategies to help them to recognize sounds, words and sentences (Tolk, 2020). One way to achieve this is to allow learners many opportunities to listen to the language during lessons, by teaching the lesson in the target language. An English only policy in the classroom is often applied in EFL teaching in Germany (Wessel, 2020). This is the case in Baden-Württemberg (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016).

Young learners need to be motivated to listen and also to be presented with examples of authentic language in realistic contexts (Legutke et al., 2014). Rost (2010) says that listening materials should be carefully chosen so that they are "appropriately authentic, interesting, varied and challenging" (Rost, 2010, p. 11). In addition, listening is effective when it is linked to the other skills of speaking, reading and writing in an appropriate way. This is because the four skills help each other.

Young learners also have certain characteristics which means that they love to join in actively with activities that involve movement and elements of play (Pinter, 2017). Young learners are focused on meaning (Pinter, 2006). Therefore, activities that appeal to young learners

should also be meaning-focused and allow learners to join in. Participating in games, storytelling lessons, songs, rhymes and Total Physical Response (TPR) activities are all appropriate for the young learner classroom.

TPR activities are effective in helping learners to develop their listening comprehension skills and allow them to physically join in. TPR was developed by James Asher in the 1960s (Asher, 1988). The activities involve learners listening to imperative instructions given by the teacher and then carrying them out actively, e.g. pick up your pencil, wave to the class, walk to the door etc. TPR has a number of benefits for learners in that it does not require them to speak. They can focus on listening and doing. The idea was based on Asher's observation of young learners acquiring their mother tongue. Asher noticed that learners first listen and understand during a silent period before they produce any language themselves (Surkamp, 2017, p. 347). Asher therefore assumed, that language is best learnt when learners listen and perform a corresponding action. Originally developed as a language teaching method for adults, TPR is often employed with young learners to develop their listening skills (Surkamp, 2017).

Asher (1998) thought that the movement involved in the TPR approach may have a positive effect on long-term memory recall through the use of the motor-sensory system (Asher, 1988). Long-term memory recall could be produced through "muscle learning" (Asher, 1988, p. 18). When Asher developed the approach, the kinaesthetic sensory system was only occasionally used in FL classrooms. In addition, the student's muscular system was rarely used (Asher, 1988). Asher thought that these two systems could be harnessed to enhance the memory.

In addition to choosing listening activities that appeal to young learners, there are materials that can be used to support the development of listening comprehension skills. The use of realia which can be used to connect a spoken word with an object and to make the meaning of the word clear for pupils can support listening skills. In addition, what learners have heard can be mentally anchored through the connection of a picture and a word card (Tolk, 2020). Pictures can also provide contextual information that is helpful to learners in understanding meaning (Kolb & Schocker, 2021) and can support understanding. Learners can be encouraged to do a movement, gesture or mime for certain words which will appear in the listening text so that they are prepared in advance for what they are about to hear. These strategies will make it easier for them to understand the text (Tolk, 2020, pp. 120–121).

Repetition of listening materials is also essential for young learners so that they understand what they heard and begin to indirectly understand the structure of the language (Mindt

& Schlüter, 2007, p. 38). Just to hear a text once is often not enough for young learners to be able to understand it or to extract all the information that they are able to from it. Repetition in a variety of ways is not boring for learners but reassuring and it promotes consolidation and a feeling of confidence.

Listening to the same text more than once is helpful to young learners who have many gaps in their vocabulary knowledge, are not very familiar with the sounds of the foreign language and who may feel that it is essential to understand every word (Ur, 1984). Young learners may be easily put off if they feel that they haven't understood, even though it is usually not necessary for listeners to understand every single word that they hear. This is more of a "psychological" (Ur, 1984, p. 14) issue created by learners themselves when they believe that "successful comprehension is total comprehension".

Cameron (2001) recommends that activities which involve pictures or realia are suitable and helpful for young learners to develop listening skills in the classroom. These activities also allow learners to actively join in which aids understanding. They include "listen and do, listen and identify, bingo, listen and take away, find the odd one out, listen and put, listen and choose and, listen and sort" (Cameron, 2001, pp. 62–63). Listen and draw, listen and arrange and listen and colour are also types of activities where learners can develop their listening skills through active participation. These activities can be added to later so that learners are familiar with the format but are given the opportunity to speak as well. An example of activities in which learners can also join in productively after listening would be listen and saying activities such as saying words associated with pictures. Learners can speak in chorus altogether or on their own (Cameron, 2001, p. 63)

Learners need opportunities to reproduce what they have heard in a secure environment. In the classroom learners can be encouraged to practise the pronunciation by repeating words or phrases altogether in chorus after they have listened to the teacher (Tolk, 2020, p. 123). Speaking altogether in a group means that attention is not focused on individuals as it is when a learner speaks on their own. Speaking altogether in chorus means that learners can have a go and experiment with their voices in the safety of a group.

This section discussed how listening can contribute to the development of oral skills through the delivery of rich input. Listening for comprehension, acquisition and incidental listening are all helpful to learners in the development of oral skills.

The review of theory and practice on listening and speaking skills highlighted the importance and advantages of listening on the development of speaking skills. Consequently, listening was incorporated into the practical design of the intervention developed for this project. Learners had the opportunity to listen to a high amount of rich spoken input from the teacher and from a picturebook. The input from the teacher was relevant and interesting for young learners and at an appropriate level of difficulty so that learners could acquire grammar and vocabulary knowledge through listening. Careful consideration was also given to the content of the stories chosen. Learners were given opportunities to participate in pronunciation activities after listening so that they were encouraged to notice phonological features and could practice producing what they had heard. The imitation, reproduction, production sequence was followed to support the development of speaking skills. Learners were also provided with scaffolded speaking activities which offered support but allowed them to add their own ideas if they wanted to. The next section moves on to discuss how drama activities can contribute to the development of oral skills.

Developing Oral Skills through Drama with Young EFL Learners

This chapter explains the relationship between drama and foreign language learning. It defines terms related to drama and in addition, defines dramatisation in the context of this project. This is followed by an explanation of the theoretical foundations for the development of oral skills through drama. The theory of drama's effects on each of the four areas of oral skills: linguistic, cognitive, physical, and social and emotional skills are explained to show how drama theoretically could contribute to the development of young learners' EFL oral skills in this context.

Drama in Language Learning Contexts

The word "drama" is originally derived from Greek, meaning "deed, action, dramatic performance, play [or] dramatic event" (Merriam-Webster.com, 2025). In German the word "*Handlung"* (Tselikas, 1999, p. 21) is often used to describe drama and is a type of learning that brings about "*handlungsbezogenes ganzheitliches Lernen"* (Tselikas, 1999, p. 21), that is in other words action-based holistic learning.

Long ago, the ancient Greeks enjoyed the tragedies and comedies performed in Greek theatre as a form of entertainment. However, drama has not only provided entertainment throughout history, it has also been used for learning purposes. Drama in educational and language learning contexts has fascinated educators since the time of Ancient Greece (Schewe,

2015b). Therefore, the perceived benefits of using drama to assist learning have long been extolled.

> Common to all pioneers throughout the century has been the assumption that when pupils are involved in drama some kind of learning occurs (Bolton, 1985, p. 155).

Professor Philip Coggin in his 1956 book *Drama and Education: An Historical Survey from Ancient Greece to the Present Day* which is now out of print, traced the first uses of drama in a pedagogical context as far back as Plato (427-347 BC) and Quintilian (ca. 35-97 BC) (Schewe, 2015b, p. 21). In Plato's time, it was expected that children would learn without coercion and if possible, in a playful way. For Quintilian, actors were experts who could play an important role in teaching the art of speaking. Throughout the second half of the sixteenth century, European schools began increasingly to use drama in the form of school plays to practise correct pronunciation in Latin.

More recently during the twentieth century, the use of drama pedagogy in educational contexts in the English-speaking world grew in significance as drama was integrated into school curricula. In the USA for example, Winifred Ward developed "Creative Drama" and published *Playmaking with Children from Kindergarden through Junior High School* in 1947 (Schewe, 2015b, p. 22). Drama became a subject in the school curriculum in England and was also used as a teaching method in other school subjects, influenced and encouraged by the work of Finlay-Johnson (1911), Cook (1917), Slade (1954), Way (1967), Heathcote (1979) and Bolton (1984) (Schewe, 2015b, p. 23).

It is since the 1990s when communicative language teaching (CLT) began to spread in Europe and worldwide that researchers of drama pedagogy or *Dramapädagogik* and foreign language teaching in Germany, began to connect the two disciplines (Schewe, 2015b). In 1993 Manfred Schewe published *Fremdsprache Inszenieren*, action-research based study in which he discussed his research on drama, carried out in a diverse range of his own language classes, including university language classes and teacher training courses. A second publication by Schewe and Shaw (1993) in the same year entitled *Towards Drama as a Method in the Foreign Language Classroom* presented international perspectives on drama in foreign language teaching which was followed by a number of other significant studies on drama with DAF students, such as a study by Tselikas (1999) on drama in foreign language teaching in Austria and Susanne Even (2003) on using drama to teach grammar (Schewe, 2015b). As a result of these publications awareness about drama grew in Germany.

However, teachers have often employed acting techniques themselves within the classroom to gain or retain learners' attention (Schewe & Shaw, 1993). There has therefore, long been a connection between foreign language teaching and drama or theatre through the teacher, although teachers may not have realised that they were using drama. Teachers who know how to use their body and voice, the space in the classroom, and humour in moderation to keep the lesson engaging and understandable can help to

> increase motivation and deepen the relationship between learners and teachers (Almond, 2005, p. 16).

Drama has been influential in language learning in different places throughout history, but what is "drama"? The following section attempts to define what we mean by the term "drama".

Defining Drama

There are differing views amongst educationalists in defining drama, and many different views concerning the difference between "drama" and "theatre" in pedagogy. Some distinguish between the two terms and see some distinct differences, whereas, others see them as closely related and believe that differentiating between them is sometimes difficult due to the similarities between them (Bolton & Davis, 2010). Sambanis (2013) distinguishes drama from theatre in terms of the focus, aim and activity types (Sambanis, 2013, p. 117). Drama is process-oriented and directed towards the participants, whereas theatre is product-oriented and directed towards an audience. Drama is learning with imagination, involving a certain amount of interpretation and reflection, whereas the activity of theatre is directed towards a polished performance prepared for an audience.

Whereas drama may include activities such as mime, role plays and drama games, theatre places a greater emphasis on props, costumes and the type of text to be performed. However, it seems to be the case that theatre projects require more time, energy and effort than drama activities which can be used in classrooms without too much preparation (Ronke, 2005). However, drama may also include a performance (Sambanis, 2013). Therefore, there is sometimes some overlap between drama and theatre pedagogy.

Elis (2023) sees theatre teaching processes touching upon the aesthetic or artistic side of theatre and upon pedagogical aspects. However, drama pedagogical processes could, in addition to those two areas, also extend to include foreign language teaching (Elis, 2023, p. 113).

Depending on the context, situation and goal of a drama or theatre learning activity, the concepts of theatre and drama pedagogy are flexible, and more emphasis can be placed on one or more of the three aspects: aesthetic, pedagogic and foreign language learning objectives. This means that in school situations where there are foreign language learning aims, aesthetic aims of a drama or theatre activity don't have to be neglected (Elis, 2023, pp. 113–114). Therefore, theatre pedagogy exercises are not just a means to an end for achieving language learning goals and one should not be viewed as more important than the other.

Despite the differences in opinions,

> every piece of drama or theatre (whether for an external audience or just the participants) is therefore also the artistry of ensemble, where each player must listen to each other, [and] play their part in the whole (Yi-Man & O'Toole, 2024 xvi).

Therefore, a key similarity is that both forms bring people together in a shared experience in which they must work together to create something.

Schewe (2015) sees drama pedagogy and theatre art on a continuum (Schewe, 2015a, p. 72) and argues that the forms are flexible. A small activity that begins in the classroom can turn into a large performance in front of an audience and vice versa. A big activity can be worked on in greater depth in the classroom in a small form (Schewe, 2015a, p. 74). Schewe (2015) classifies a theatre production in a foreign language context as a big form (Schewe, 2015b, p. 28) and includes in this classification additionally improvised theatre projects, theatre in education projects, theatre education workshops and dramatic culture transfer projects. A small form includes "process drama", creative improvisation in lessons, small drama activities such as hot-seating and acting out a scene, for example (Schewe, 2015b, p. 27).

Within Schewe's (2015) description of small performative forms, several drama terms are used including "process drama" and creative improvisation (Schewe, 2015b, p. 27). Earlier on in the same text, the term "creative drama" was used in connection with child drama and Winifred Ward (Schewe, 2015b, p. 22). These terms are all forms of drama. They have some similarities but there are also some differences.

Process drama is attributed to Dorothy Heathcote and Gavin Bolton who saw drama as "an effective medium of human learning" (Yi-Man & O'Toole, 2024, p. 34), a way to gain new insight and understanding, experience emotional engagement in a "lived-through process". The key characteristics of process drama include that it takes place in an imaginary world over time.

It can include improvisation, or it can be rehearsed, and all the participants are involved. It doesn't have to be "in the form of linear narrative" (Yi-Man & O'Toole, 2024, p. 34). Episodes from a narrative can be addressed to gain a deeper "group understanding of the significance of the story".

Improvisation requires participants to react "imaginatively and spontaneously to a stimulus" (Baldwin, 2024, p. 37). Learners can improvise on their own or in groups. However, improvisation involves reacting creatively and "on the spot" as the improvisation develops. The situations could be realistic or imaginary and there is no specified length to improvisation.

Creative drama was developed by Winifred Ward in the 1920s for use in the classroom with children in the USA (Brain Siks, 1965, p. 328). Ward's drama promoted self-expression, appreciation of literature and spoken English. There were some similarities to improvisation because no scripts were involved in the activities. In England, Peter Slade introduced "Child drama" (Bolton & Davis, 2010, p. 108). The term aimed to illustrate that every child has a "potential for dramatic expression". Both Ward and Slade believed in child-centred education and the education of the whole child. For Slade it was the responsibility of the teacher to "nurture" each child's "individuality" (Bolton & Davis, 2010, p. 108).

In the intervening period, many other practitioners and researchers have used creative drama often creating variations and giving it a different name. In a meta-analysis on creative drama studies, Mages (2008) found thirty-seven different terms related to creative drama, including "acting out stories, child drama, drama in education, dramatic play, educational drama, fantasy play, make-believe, role-play, shared-enactment and story-dramatization" (Mages, 2008, pp. 146–147) to name just a few of the terms that were found. Mages also noted that these creative drama forms were not always clearly defined. The drama activities that were used by researchers were not consistently described.

> This multiplicity of terms can be problematic because it is often difficult for scholars to determine whether studies that use identical terms are, in fact, investigating identical constructs. Similarly, it is often difficult to discern whether studies that use different terms are, in fact, investigating different constructs (Mages, 2008, p. 130).
>
> Although scholars select particular terms to refer to very distinct concepts or practices, other scholars use those same terms to denote different ideological constructs.

In a publication containing a series of creative drama activities based around stories for young foreign language learners, Jeffries (2017) describes creative drama as a process in which the teacher guides learners through both imaginative and real-life situations to help them to understand themselves and the wider world and to explore issues that are relevant to them (Jeffries, 2017). The purpose of this type of drama is

> to develop connections between language and expression, to memorize language in a more natural way and to boost their self-confidence and self-esteem with encouragement from peers and their teacher (Jeffries, 2017, p. 4).

Phillips (1999) argues that the term "dramatizing" is perhaps a better term than "drama" because it is "much simpler" (Phillips, 1999, p. 5). The word "drama" may conjure up visions of end of term stress as teachers try to organise learners to do a performance. Dramatizing on the other hand means "that the children become actively involved in the text" (Phillips, 1999, p. 6). "Dramatisation" is defined as

> a book, story, poem, etc. that has been written again by a writer in a form that can be performed, or a performance that tells the story of past events; the process of showing a book, event, etc. in a performance (Cambridge University Press and Assessment, 2024)

Phillips (1999) argues that it is lower key than drama and the

> personalization makes language more meaningful and memorable than drilling or mechanical repetition can (Phillips, 1999, p. 6).

Perhaps a broader term to describe these dramas is "performative" (Schewe, 2013, p. 5) language teaching which is an "umbrella term" for "foreign language teaching and learning that derive from performing arts" (Schewe, 2013, p. 5).

> The goal of performative foreign language didactics is to create a new approach to teaching and learning, whereby emphasis is placed on forms of aesthetic expression. This means a special attention is given to "language form" and to the pleasure and even desire to play with words, sentences and expressions. "Form" also implies the ways in which the body speaks and how sound, word sentence and movements all interact with each other (Schewe, 2013, p. 16).

This project focuses on the dramatisation of stories with young learners using performative activities drawn from other drama publications for young learners (Jeffries, 2017; Phillips,

1999; Winston, 2022). Therefore, it does not fit neatly into a singular definition of drama, rather it includes a mixture of drama activities suitable for young EFL learners, including creative drama activities which aim to dramatise the stories in a learner-centred way that is meaningful and personal for young learners. It also includes some dramatisation of the stories, in which a short script or written prompts relating to part of the story were re-written and provided to learners to allow them to personalise the story and make it their own. It aims to enable learners to join in, have fun and enjoy the language in a stress free, relaxed environment.

The following section explores how drama activities have been shown to contribute to the development of skills including listening and speaking skills in language learning contexts and therefore, to justify why it makes sense to use drama in language learning. The studies were found in many different places. However, it seems that some of the observations made by Podlozny (2000) about drama studies, when she carried out her meta-analysis on the effects of drama on children's verbal abilities, are still true today. Podlozny commented

> there was very little conversation among researchers, replication of studies is rare, consistency of measures is almost non-existent, methodology for reporting of results span the range from "excellent" to "poor", and labels used for "drama" (…) have no set definitions, especially in the research with young children (Podlozny, 2000, p. 239).

In 2013, Belliveau and Kim also found some limitations in the literature available on drama which they described as

> limited to being descriptive reports based mainly on personal anecdotes, observations, and intuitive interpretations of researchers (Belliveau & Kim, 2013, p. 17).

Most recently in 2023 Elis also commented on the lack of studies found on the potential of drama teaching methods in English in the fourth or fifth classes (Elis, 2023, p. 31).

The studies which are used to illustrate the following section were chosen because they are either particularly relevant to this study, are empirical in nature or the authors are well established, experienced and respected in the field of drama study.

The Acquisition of Language through Drama

Drama in foreign language education is "learning by doing" (Sambanis, 2013, p. 116). It focuses on

> situations experienced by people, or interactions arising between different people, of a sort that display features characteristic of the dramatic tension, resolution, intensification, relief, anticipation, recollection, similarity and contrast, exposition, expostulation, retort, dispute, altercation and interplay (Schewe & Shaw, 1993, p. 14).

"Participants add to the ongoing creative production" whilst taking on roles such as actor, director and scriptwriter (Schewe & Shaw, 1993, p. 14).

The aim of using drama in language learning is not to create a perfect performance (Sambanis, 2013, p. 115) in which the learners say all their lines faultlessly, like one might expect to see in a professional performance. The aim is not a "stiff, self-conscious 'dramatization' of dialogues and short sketches" (Maley & Duff, 1982, p. 6). Neither does drama pedagogy necessarily mean the production of a literary dramatic text such as in the Greek comedy or tragedy. Rather, the learners and the process of doing drama are most important (Maley & Duff, 1982; Phillips, 1999). Drama pedagogy in language learning can contribute to a varied, interactive and competence-oriented form of language teaching (Sambanis, 2013, p. 115). According to Sambanis, (2013) the aim of using drama in teaching is to encourage the personal engagement of learners and the creation of meaningful, cognitively challenging, and emotionally engaging situations that enable them to relate to the content and learn effectively (Sambanis, 2013, pp. 117–118).

In a recent publication, Winston (2022) gave a good illustration of this point. He reported on a performance given by young learners that he witnessed in Romania. There were no props or costumes, but the learners included some English in the playful spoken and physical interactions (Winston, 2022, p. 33). The audience enjoyed the performance very much and although the performance was not perfect, it had "natural energy" (Winston, 2022, p. 33). The learners enjoyed working together and appeared to be accustomed to group work. In contrast, he reflected on another performance of young learners that he was shown on video. The costumes and stage were elaborate, but although the learners spoke English, they were not fully involved in their performance. It was difficult to understand them and Winston was not sure that the learners knew what they were saying (Winston, 2022, p. 34). It is the personal engagement which is key to learning through drama.

Therefore, the key to unlocking the potential of drama is that it is holistic and involves the whole person (Schewe & Shaw, 1993) and the "whole language in context" (Bland, 2015a, p. 222). The focus is on the process rather than the product, although Bolton (2010) questions

whether the two can really be separated from each other (Bolton & Davis, 2010). However, through the process, learners encounter and use language which naturally encourages acquisition. The following sections explore how drama can contribute to the development of listening and speaking skills.

Listening and Using the Senses

In the previous theory chapter on the acquisition of oral skills, it was established that listening and speaking are closely related and that the development of listening skills is essential for the development of speaking skills (Read, 2020). Drama provides learners many opportunities for listening. To interact effectively during drama activities, learners must listen and understand the other participants. Listening carefully to what a partner is saying is essential to be able to react appropriately and effectively, to be able to move the drama on. Just as in a conversational situation, listening is as important as speaking. Work on role play and dialogues require learners to listen carefully to what their partner is saying.

At a deeper level, listening without judgement during drama activities can enable students' opinions to be expressed and heard by other learners (Gallagher & Ntelioglou, 2015). Even at a beginner level, young learners can be enabled to listen to how others feel and talk about their own feelings or the feelings of others. Using facial expressions or doing mimes can enable young learners to explore feelings. In the activity "Pass it on" (Jeffries, 2017, p. 6), learners sit in a circle. They identify the feelings of characters in a story and then think about how they might express that feeling with their body. One learner or the teacher starts with an expression and passes it on around the circle so that everyone has a chance to try miming the emotion. It is also a way for learners to begin to understand how people may express their emotions in different ways.

Whatever a learner's language proficiency level, information contained within the sounds of the language is communicated to learners. Bland (2015a) notes that prosodic features also play a part in drama activities. The "rhythm", "patterns of intonation", changes in "volume", "tempo", "pitch" and "stress" (Bland, 2015a, p. 222) also provide information to listeners which can enhance the meaning and therefore, also contribute to better understanding. Sound effects, music or silence may also help to create a particular mood or build tension in the drama. Listening to pick-up on the sounds during a drama activity can help learners to understand the mood and feelings of the characters or build-up a feeling for the setting.

An activity which uses sound effects is creating a "Soundscape" (Jeffries, 2017, p. 6) with learners. An example given by Jeffries (2017) is the rainforest. In this activity, the learners use their voices and bodies to create the sounds of various animals that live in the rainforest. Learners can also tap their fingers on the floor to create the sound of rain, for example. Depending on how many learners are taking part in the activity, they can either be individually responsible for a sound or be divided into small groups. The activity works by gradually layering the sounds on top of each other. The teacher can raise or lower the volume, by raising or lowering their hands. Learners need to pay attention and concentrate to follow the teacher's directions so that they know when to make their sound and when to be silent. Jeffries (2017) says that "learners are exploring themes and moods" and learning "how to create an atmosphere that represents this" (Jeffries, 2017, p. 6).

There are plenty of drama activities that enable learners to practise listening skills. Apart from Total Physical Response activities (TPR), where learners listen and follow the teacher's instructions by doing the corresponding actions (Asher, 1988), there are numerous other drama games which require learners to listen, watch and join in to do the actions. One such activity is a game called "Knights, Dogs and Trees" (Winston, 2022, p. 72). The teacher chooses a selection of objects, perhaps from a story or on a particular theme that he or she would like to practise with learners. They start the game when the teacher says "go". The learners move around the room. When the teacher says "Stop, show me a tree", the learners have to stop and make the shape of a tree with their body. When the teacher says "go" again, the learners can move again. The game can also be extended with a more detailed description of the tree e.g. show me a tree with branches that are waving in the wind. The game can be played for as long as the teacher would like or until all the words have been practised. The game encourages learners to listen and to remember the words. In this activity, as in TPR, learners can also look at what the other learners are doing. Therefore, if they initially can't remember the meaning of a word, they can get help by looking at what the other learners are doing.

Additionally, a teacher who takes on a role and gives a demonstration at the beginning of an EFL drama lesson allows learners to watch and listen before they join in themselves. Having the opportunity to listen to a script, either read aloud by the teacher or played to the class on a CD provides intensive listening practice for learners, which they can join in with appropriate actions. When working with scripts, Bland (2015) recommends that learners listen intensively first of all as the teacher reads the script. Subsequently, learners can take it in turns to say a line or a phrase of the script each. Learners can be divided into two groups. Each group

takes the part of a character, listens again and echoes the teacher alternately (Bland, 2015a, p. 225).

To be able to listen, learners must use their sense of hearing. They must actively listen and interpret what they hear. Drama involves the sense of hearing. However, drama also involves the use of other senses. It "involves multiple overlapping sensory systems" (Bland, 2015a, p. 221). In addition to the sense of hearing (auditory), there are four others: visual (seeing), haptic (touch-related), olfactory (smell), and gustatory (taste) (Böttger, 2020c, p. 43). The olfactory and gustatory senses are perhaps used the least in drama work, particularly in a classroom context where special effects like dry ice, for example, are not used. However, the other three senses which involve hearing, seeing and touching are regularly used together during classroom drama. Whenever multiple senses are employed in a learning context, the content will be more memorable for learners (Böttger, 2020c). Baldwin argues that

> linking learning to speech, sound, movement and gesture makes the learning more memorable and retrievable (Baldwin, 2024, p. 13).

Multisensory activities are also very appropriate for primary school-aged EFL learners (Böttger, 2020c). Children rely on their senses often to provide them with information about the world. The information provided by the senses is stored in the sensory memory. Activities which are varied, actively practised, contain repetition, include language presented in context, which are well structured in a thematic context and are documented (in a written form) help the information stored in the sensory memory to enter the short-term and long-term memory. The goal of EFL teaching is to enable information to be transferred to the long-term memory (Böttger, 2020c).

In addition, hearing and seeing are closely related because the information from both senses together enable a better understanding to be established. Drama also involves the visual sense because there is often a stimulus to base the drama upon, such as pictures, a picture book, puppets or a film or TV series (Delius, 2020), for example. Props, costumes, masks or scenery may be used which provide information to the actors and the audience about the drama and its context, the characters or the setting. However, even if there are no props being used in the drama, participants usually don't act alone, they also have visual input from watching the other participants playing their parts.

Extra information through the sense of touch is provided when participants come into contact with props, masks, puppets, or realia, for example (Bland, 2015a). These experiences

are often exciting for learners, partly because they don't happen everyday. In the rainforest example above (Jeffries, 2017), learners use their sense of touch at the same time as making and listening to sounds. Understanding in drama is promoted through listening, but also through the use of the other senses.

However, it is the opportunity for learners to join in, in a multi-sensory manner which can lead to a rise in noise levels (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020). If learners get up from their desks, move around and work together, the classroom is naturally noisier than when learners are quietly sitting at their desks doing exercises from their books. This may be challenging for teachers to accept at first, as it may appear that learners are not really engaged in learning. It may challenge perceptions of what constitutes learning.

It could also make classroom management more challenging for the teacher (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020). Zafeiriadou (2009) also notes that

> With younger learners the enthusiasm and exuberance produced by engaging in drama can turn into problems of discipline (Zafeiriadou, 2009, p. 5).

Other drama studies also allude to this issue. Teachers who participated in Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec's (2014) study on picturebooks also expressed nervousness about how energetic they expected the "older boys" to be during the drama (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014, p. 27). Demircioğlu (2010) recommends that a room with plenty of space for drama activities or smaller class sizes may be advantageous for teachers leading drama classes (Demircioğlu, 2010). Introducing drama activities gradually may also help learners and teachers to become accustomed to a new way of teaching and learning. Tselikas (1999) says that in a drama lesson, the whole time does not have to be taken up with drama activities (Tselikas, 1999). Drama activities can also be introduced gradually to a group that is not accustomed to doing drama.

In addition, including drama in lessons may require the teacher to leave their comfort zone, not just in terms of classroom management but they may also have to move

> away from familiar approaches [towards approaches] which are more open-ended and unpredictable (Zafeiriadou, 2009, p. 5).

Drama requires the teacher to leave their comfort zone if they are not accustomed to doing drama. This may be easier for some teachers than for others. Kalogirou and colleagues (2019) suggest that the teacher's personality may influence how they perceive the drama activities.

They reported that in their study the teachers reacted differently to the drama activities. Two examples of teachers were given. The first teacher participated in the drama activities "focusing on learner enjoyment and encouraging experimentation" (Kalogirou et al., 2019, p. 340). In contrast, the second teacher focused on the lesson instructions, corrected mistakes and created a "more controlled classroom atmosphere" (Kalogirou et al., 2019, p. 340). However, both teaching styles led to an improvement amongst learners.

This example shows how it may be more challenging for some teachers to teach with an unfamiliar approach than others. Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec (2014) found that the teachers in their study found doing drama tiring (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014). The explanation given was that their project took place towards the end of the school year. However, the teachers also said that they would do drama with learners again because they found the work "very productive" (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014, p. 26).

In addition, teachers may feel that extra preparation time is needed to use drama in EFL classes. In a discussion with a pre-service teacher who had participated in an interactive theatre event, Bland (2014) reported that the teacher thought that drama was not often used in EFL

> due to various reasons such as additional work for the teacher or insufficient practical experience in this area (Bland, 2014b, p. 167).

The teacher thought that a lot of extra time would be needed in "preparation, organisation and rehearsals" (Bland, 2014b, p. 167). Dundar (2013) acknowledges, that teachers often feel that a lot of preparation is needed to do drama with a class. However, although preparation is needed, Dundar argues that this is also true of any activity that is not from the textbook (Dundar, 2013).

The suggestion that there could be some challenges associated with doing drama projects with non-drama English teachers is further supported by several researchers who carried out a project with non-drama teachers (Delius, 2020; Stinson, 2009). Stinson (2009) provides many details of the difficulties faced during a project to introduce drama approaches to experienced English teachers in Singapore, who had never done drama before. Some of the difficulties were caused by the organisation of the school setting. Difficulties reported by the researcher were for example, not having the full participation of the headteacher, not having full voluntary consent from the staff, the teachers not receiving recognition for participating in the research and not enough time in the school timetable being allocated to the study (Stinson, 2009). In addition, the teachers' misconceptions of drama, like for example, that one has to be talented to do drama or that drama is a way to make a lesson livelier, drama is just for fun or teachers were

afraid of losing control of their class, made doing a drama project in a school with non-drama teachers challenging.

In the projects where the researchers reported challenges with working with non-drama teachers, the researchers either provided drama training for the teachers or planned and reflected on the drama with the teachers as the project progressed (Delius, 2020; Stinson, 2009). Considerable extra time and effort was required by the teachers who participated (Delius, 2020).

Demircioğlu (2010) suggests that it seems that drama training would be advantageous in supporting teachers to use drama in EFL lessons. However, if teachers have not received any training in drama during their studies and don't have time for in-service training, it would be necessary for them to be provided with pre-prepared drama lesson plans (Demircioğlu, 2010), to enable them to use drama with their class. Teachers in Kalogirou and colleague's (2019) study were provided with lesson plans on the VAD approach used in the project (Kalogirou et al., 2019). Delius (2020) suggests creating a database of drama lesson plans (Delius, 2020). The planned approach for this project is to provide the project teachers with the drama lesson plans in advance, to support them and to reduce the extra time needed by them for preparation.

Despite the challenges experienced by teachers who had not received training in drama mentioned in this section, Stinson (2009) also reported receiving positive feedback from some of the teachers who participated in her Singapore study. This included that the teachers noticed an improvement in students' learning outcomes, learners showed an increased motivation to join in, there were more opportunities for learners to participate, and learners who were often not usually able to say much, contributed more in lessons (Stinson, 2009). Therefore, it seems worth the effort to search for and find ways to enable teachers to use drama in EFL teaching. Yet, it seems that a solution may be to offer pre-service training on drama to EFL teachers.

The following section moves on to explore how drama can contribute to the development of oral skills.

The Use of Oral Skills

Speaking is an integral part of drama and intertwined with movements which act together to create meaning when we imagine ourselves in "situations and contexts that are or might be" (O'Toole & Stinson, 2015, p. 161).

> Drama is, after all, the art form of the spoken word and of gesture and the body (O'Toole & Stinson, 2015, p. 161).

Actors are highly trained to master this art form. Educational drama however, is a process in which everybody can be involved (Bland, 2007). The process is more important than the end product (Bland, 2007; Sambanis, 2013). Learners do not have to be especially artistically talented to join in, enjoy the activities and simultaneously express themselves in words and gestures. Everybody has the natural ability to "imitate, mimic and express himself or herself through gesture" (Maley & Duff, 1982, p. 6). Everybody also has memories, imagination and experience to draw upon which can be used to help create ideas for the drama.

It is important to focus on the process rather than the end result, as a focus on the results may "inhibit learners' motivation and engagement in the dramatic activities" (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020, p. 63). This is a risk of doing drama with pupils who are not yet fluent in English (Zafeiriadou, 2009). The focus must be carefully placed. In addition, Alasmari & Alshae'el describe how if the focus of drama is on a language learning goal, learners who are less proficient at English may not take drama activities seriously in the future (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020).

If learners can participate and enjoy the artistic side of drama however, it provides them with many opportunities to practise speaking (Elis, 2023; Gill, 2013). In regular EFL classes, learners may not be presented with as many opportunities to speak as they do in an EFL lesson involving drama (Elis, 2023). During EFL lessons involving drama, learners can speak simultaneously in groups, increasing the time which each person gets to speak. Drama activities can also create conversations that lead to learning in the foreign language (Kao & O'Neill, 1998). However, drama doesn't just provide many opportunities to speak, it also helps learners to respond with "intellect, emotions and natural instincts" (Almond, 2005, p. 11). Yet, it is important that learners are not "type cast" in a particular role "where the role remains basic" (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020, p. 63) because this could hinder learners' language from developing. In addition, for every learner to be involved in the drama, every learner must have a role. In Alasmari and Alshae'el's (2020) study, the drama set-up did not allow every learner to have a role and learners without a role were consequently, disengaged and "felt alienated" (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020, p. 67). They did not benefit from the drama because they were not fully involved. Therefore, every learner should have the opportunity to be involved and should have a role if they would like one. Consequently, in this project every learner had the opportunity to have a role in the drama. Depending on the class, either the teacher helped to assign roles or learners chose their own roles.

Drama activities are particularly suitable for young EFL beginner learners as they "exploit children's natural dramatic play" (Bland, 2007, p. 6). Learners who may initially be nervous about speaking English can play a non-speaking role which allows them to listen to the other learners, to join in with the actions or to be an observer (Bland, 2007). Similarly, learners can act together with other learners in a group, giving them the security of being able to say their words together with other people. Learners can choose to have a larger speaking part, to join in with a smaller speaking part or just to do the actions.

Drama activities do not necessarily have to include a performance in front of the class if learners are reluctant to do so. It is not necessary for learners to speak in front of the class if they don't want to. Doing the activities in pairs or in groups is also valuable for learning and allows learners time to practise speaking together. Therefore, criticism of role play for example, being "too emotionally demanding" for learners "because the task has to be performed in front of others" (Dundar, 2013, p. 1426) does not necessarily apply. Young learners do not have to give a performance.

That said, research carried out by Lee and colleagues (2021) on oral presentation skills and the effect of "Drama-Based Tasks" in the classroom "with an authentic audience" (Lee & Liu, 2021, p. 253) showed that there were some benefits of performing in front of an audience, at least for adult learners. The research found that

> the inclusion of a real-life audience [is] a crucial element of drama-related activities in language learning (Lee & Liu, 2021, p. 265).

The quasi-experimental study which took place over a year, involved two groups of 20 and 22 EFL third year university students studying in an English department in Taiwan. The learners had two hours of teaching per week. The aim of the study was to

> explore drama-based activities as a vehicle for real-world situations to train foreign language (FL) oral presentation skills in tertiary education (Lee & Liu, 2021, p. 253).

The test group received drama-based training, and the control group received ordinary public speaking training. Quantitative and qualitative research tools were used to determine whether

> drama-based tasks implemented with classroom and real-life audiences differentially promote learners' FL oral presentation performance (Lee & Liu, 2021, p. 256)

and if learners' perceptions of their oral performance would be affected by the intervention. Raters made judgements on learners' oral performances and students filled out a questionnaire

on “self-perceived presentation techniques” (Lee & Liu, 2021, p. 259). The quantitative results from these two sources were analysed using a t-test. A qualitative post-study interview provided learner perspectives and was analysed to support the quantitative findings.

The results of the study revealed that there was no significant difference between the test group and the control group in terms of oral presentation performance or in the self-perception of their oral skills until the second semester when the audience was added to the drama-based tasks. This suggests that it was the performance for an audience which created a difference in the results. This may have been because there was a difference in motivation levels between the groups, meaning that the group who were performing for an audience were more motivated to work on their speaking skills because the task had a purpose. No similar studies were found on the effect of the audience on young EFL learners though. Although learners in Bland’s (2014) Interactive Theatre project reported that they enjoyed performing for an audience.

There are many different types of drama activities which can allow young learners to practise speaking in different ways (Elis, 2023). These can include ritual warm-up activities, rhymes or games which include rhythmical repetition, scripted scenes, sketches, role plays, freeze frames and questioning in role (Bland, 2007, pp. 6–8) which encourage learners to interact with each other. Drama activities allow different perspectives to be introduced for example, the perspectives of main characters, bystanders or even objects (Bland, 2007, p. 7).

> Drama is a whole person approach to language teaching which requires us to look at communication holistically (Almond, 2005, p. 10).

However, teachers should think carefully about which drama activities would be most appropriate for their learners’ “abilities, interests and needs” (Alasmari & Alshae’el, 2020, p. 67). If they choose a role play, it should be interesting for learners, to engage them and to provide opportunities for them to practise what they have learnt in class (Athiemoolam, 2004).

Dundar (2013) lists several other drama activities such as drama games, improvisation, mime, simulation, reader’s theatre, frozen image building, script writing and sketches and discusses the pros and cons of each (Dundar, 2013, pp. 1425–1429). For example, games can be short and can be used to introduce or prepare learners for drama activities. However, because games are less structured, often learners use their mother tongue to play them (Dundar, 2013). Drama games can also be used to build listening skills though (e.g. TPR type games) (Jeffries, 2017; Winston, 2022).

Improvisation activities allow learners opportunities to communicate and to grow in confidence (Dundar, 2013). However, to be able to improvise, learners need to have reached a certain level of fluency e.g. they should be able to have a conversation. Therefore, the language level of a class needs to be taken into consideration when choosing improvisation activities. Learners who are pre-A1 level can't be expected to improvise because they do not know enough language yet. As it was expected that some learners participating in this project would be pre-A1 level, improvisation activities were not actively chosen. However, learners could improvise if they wanted to. Scaffolding (e.g. prompt cards, language on the blackboard) was always provided to learners to support them to speak.

Mime provides learners with opportunities to practise "paralinguistic features of communication" (Dundar, 2013, p. 1427) or communicating meaning other than with words (e.g. facial expressions, hand gestures). In addition, mime can be used to practise giving a performance to other people without worrying about having to speak. Mime can be used to help learners to get used to performing without the pressure of speaking. However, Dundar (2013) says that some learners may not even want to mime a performance. It is helpful for teachers to be aware of this and to plan accordingly. In addition, some words or phrases are not very easy to mime (Dundar, 2013).

Activities which involve a high level of literacy competence such as reader's theatre and script writing may only be possible when learners have reached a certain level of fluency in the FL. As learners participating in this project were expected to be mostly pre-A1 or A1 level, activities such as drama games, short role play activities, sketches, frozen image building and mime, which focused on listening and speaking were considered more appropriate for them than writing their own scripts. In the fourth class in Baden-Württemberg, learners have only just begun to read and write in English. Therefore, activities which focus heavily on writing such as script writing, weren't chosen. However, this did not mean that learners didn't do any writing in the project at all, only that the skill of writing wasn't heavily focused upon.

The types of drama or activities chosen to try to help learners to develop their oral skills may depend on the age or language learning level of the participants. The following section provides examples of this with the help of drama studies with diverse groups of people from around the world.

Stinson and Freebody (2009) conducted a case study to investigate process drama and its effect on Singaporean 16-year-olds' speaking skills. The researchers aimed to find out if

working in role would "develop participants' communicative skills" (Stinson & Freebody, 2009, p. 152). This group of students were identified specifically because they were older and playful activities tend not to be used as often with older students as they are with younger students. Previous data from a meta-analysis had suggested that "working in imagined roles" (Stinson & Freebody, 2009, p. 147) had the greatest effect on communicative skills with older learners. Due to this, the researchers wanted to test the effects of process drama on older learners.

A quasi-experimental design with a pre- and post-oral test was conducted. The oral test was a standardized speaking test. In total 240 students participated with 120 students in four test classes and 80 in two control groups. The control groups followed the usual curriculum with their normal class teacher. The teaching in the test group included some communicative activities. The test groups worked on four different dramas over ten lessons with specialist drama teachers. Each lesson lasted for one hour. However, some of the lessons took place back-to-back. Each of the dramas was longer and more challenging for the learners than the previous drama and each included an oral focus, such as interviewing or speaking spontaneously. Each student had at least one dialogue each lesson and group work was also always included.

Quantitative data was collected from the pre- and post-speaking tests and analysed with a t-test. The results revealed a significant improvement in the test group in every area which was assessed. The areas included "clarity, vocabulary, relevance, interaction [and] need for prompting" (Stinson & Freebody, 2009, p. 159). The control group in comparison, showed very little change. The qualitative data from the study showed an improvement in teamwork, enjoyment and confidence (Stinson & Freebody, 2009).

Gill (2013) tested the effects of a repeated measures methodology (ABAB) including "communicative non-drama-based (CNDB)" phases and "communicative drama-based (CDB)" (Gill, 2013, p. 29) phases on the oral skills of ten international university students at Bond University in Australia. The learners had two hours of teaching per week in the evenings for twelve weeks. Their speaking was rated with a "composite rating tool" (Gill, 2013, p. 31) which included twelve criteria relating to speaking. The raters were two native speaker non-teaching staff at the university who rated the students using a Likert scale. Participants were observed after three, six, nine and twelve weeks. The observers and researcher compared notes. There was a post intervention interview which was not compulsory and provided additional qualitative data. The study hypothesized that all the learners would improve as soon as communicative drama was introduced and that by the end of the sessions, all the learners would have a higher

mean score. The results disproved the first hypothesis but proved that the second hypothesis was true (Gill, 2013). The learners in the drama intervention group did have a higher mean score. A limitation of the study was that there were very few participants (only ten). In conclusion, Gill recommended that the study be repeated with more participants.

In addition, Sirisrimangkorn (2019) published a study on drama and communicative language skills. The research used project-based learning, including drama to develop EFL learners' speaking skills. Twenty-three EFL learners who attended a Learning English through Drama course at the Nakhon Ratchasima Rajabhat University (NRRU) in Thailand participated in the study over the course of a semester (Sirisrimangkorn, 2019). Quantitative and qualitative results were collected with a pre- and post- speaking test, semi-structured interviews, and student reflections gained the students' perceptions towards project-based learning focused on drama. The study aimed to promote communicative language skills. Sirisrimangkorn concluded that the students' speaking skills improved. The results showed that they achieved a higher mean score in the post test. The intervention also had a positive effect on affective factors, motivated learners to speak and helped to develop confidence (Sirisrimangkorn, 2019).

A further important aspect of the development of oral skills mentioned in part one of the theory section on oral skills, is the ability for speakers to communicate in an appropriate way in intercultural contexts. Although intercultural communicative competence wasn't specifically evaluated in the intervention in this study with young learners in the fourth class, an evaluation of drama studies identified several which showed how drama could help learners in the development of their intercultural communicative skills. The studies investigated different aspects of the development of intercultural communicative competences. The first looked at the effects of movement with beginner learners (Rothwell, 2011) and the second investigated the use of improvisation to develop oral interaction skills with more advanced learners in a secondary school (Beecroft, 2022).

Rothwell (2011) used video recordings, student interviews and questionnaires with middle school beginner EFL learners of German in Australia to investigate how kinaesthetic movements in process drama could be used to develop intercultural language learning (Rothwell, 2011). The author argued that communication with the body is an important part of intercultural literacy. It was found that drama helped to raise students' interest and provided multiple different ways for learners to participate. Although it was challenging to balance the language demands, kinaesthetic aspects could help to

> stimulate, scaffold and authenticate the verbal participation of beginner learners (Rothwell, 2011, p. 575).

Exploring imaginative worlds with learners which involved kinaesthetic movements helped to engage them and to improve learner outcomes (Rothwell, 2011).

A further example of intercultural learning through drama was provided by a longitudinal study on the use of improvisation to promote speaking skills amongst secondary school learners in Germany. The study investigated the

> potential of Improvisational Theatre as improvisational tasks in the foreign language classroom for creating meaningful context[s] for oral interaction which reflects the conditions of speech, spontaneity and reciprocity (Beecroft, 2022, p. 149).

Three secondary school classes with a total of 78 learners, and four teachers participated over two school years (2012-14) (Beecroft, 2022, p. 163). The study aimed to investigate if a "pedagogical framework" could be developed which allowed learners to experience "English as a Lingua Franca" (Beecroft, 2022, pp. 49–50) in interaction in the classroom. A mixed-method action research design was chosen for the investigation, which involved three iterations.

Data was collected from

> lesson plans, semi-structured interviews with the teachers and learners, learner questionnaires and observation schemes (Beecroft, 2022, p. 152).

Results of the study showed that improvisational tasks could be used in teaching over a longer period and could be fitted to the school requirements. In addition, the tasks could be based on the contents of the textbooks (Beecroft, 2022). The learner and teacher feedback showed that both groups of interviewees thought that the learners' spontaneity had increased during the project. The feedback on reciprocity was less clear due to a lack of information provided on the questionnaires by participants (Beecroft, 2022). However, feedback showed that learners and teachers perceived that learners could make their own decisions about which language structures to use and that this had got quicker over time. The results were promising for "creating meaningful context[s] for oral interaction" (Beecroft, 2022, p. 149) through improvisation. Therefore, it seems that studies provide evidence that drama can contribute to communicative intercultural learning.

Therefore, convincing evidence that drama has the potential to help diverse learners to develop their English communication skills was found. As this project aims to consider the

effect of a drama intervention on four different areas of oral skill development (linguistic, cognitive, physical, social and emotional) with young EFL learners, the next section investigates the evidence from the point of view of theory and practice, to develop an understanding of how drama can contribute to the development of the different aspects of oral skills.

Linguistic Skills.

> Vocabulary and essential structures (…) lie(s) at the base of nearly every foreign language syllabus (Maley & Duff, 1982, p. 7).

Although drama changes the real into the imaginary, the language used in this creative process can remain "down-to-earth" (Maley & Duff, 1982, p. 2). To be useful to learners in other contexts, the language needs to remain meaningful and communicative. During drama activities learners see the language in a particular situation. However, Maley and Duff (1982) argue that a situation does not just involve a physical setting, it also includes consideration of the role and status of the characters, their mood, attitude and feelings and the setting which all contribute to the colouring of the language (Maley & Duff, 1982, pp. 9–12). Initially though, young learners need to be helped to understand the meaning of the language (Cameron, 2001). Only language that has been understood, can be acquired. Understanding can be supported through mime, gesture, facial expressions and movement in drama activities (Winston, 2022).

Drama not only presents language to learners in context (Maley & Duff, 1982), it also combines language with meaningful movements. There is evidence to support the theory that movement helps with memorization of words (Macedonia, 2014). In the "Nobjects" (novel object) study, learners were introduced to 64 made-up object words (e.g. nolo) (Arndt & Sambanis, 2017, p. 134). The subjects of the study had to remember the words, just as one would have to do in a foreign language. The control group were taught the words with a corresponding picture but without any movements. The test group were taught the words with movements. Tests were carried out in both groups to measure the reaction time and recall by the participants. The results of the study showed that the test group participants outperformed the control group participants in speed of recall and cognitive tasks involving the words (Arndt & Sambanis, 2017). Further studies on the effects of movement on word memorization found that it was not any movement which helped with the memorization of vocabulary, but meaningful movements related to the meaning of the words (Macedonia & Klimesch, 2014).

A study carried out on four groups of students learning vocabulary with four different methods in upper secondary classes in Germany found that the use of meaningful movements

related to vocabulary items had a positive effect on the memories of vocabulary learners (Schilitz, 2018). In a quasi-experiment, learners learnt nine vocabulary items using different strategies, including covering the words, asking each other questions, learning in a relaxed way and using movement (Schilitz, 2018, p. 250). The aim of the research was to find out which of the four methods was the most effective for memory in the short and middle terms. The words were taken from a topic which was unfamiliar to the students because it had not yet been covered in class. The learners used their prescribed strategy to try to learn the words. After a twenty-minute break, learners were given the first vocabulary test. After six weeks they were then given a follow up vocabulary test. Over the intervening six-week period, learners were not shown the vocabulary again. The results of the research showed that after twenty minutes, there was no dramatic difference between the four groups. The relaxation technique group performed slightly worse. However, after six weeks, the students remembered slightly more vocabulary in the movement group, than they did in the other three groups (Schilitz, 2018).

Another study carried out with a group of 137 adolescent Latin learners in six classes of a higher secondary school (Gymnasium) in Germany, tested the effects of *Szenisches Lernen* (Hille et al., 2010, p. 337) or "Scenic Learning" on vocabulary retention. Scenic Learning is

> a technique involving choral recitals of vocabulary accompanied by meaningful gestures and movements (Hille et al., 2010, p. 337).

It is considered to be a holistic method (Sambanis, 2013, p. 97). If new vocabulary is to be introduced, then each word is assigned its own movement. However, in the case that a whole phrase is being taught, then the movement that accompanies it should reflect the meaning.

The researchers used a quasi-experimental research design with a test group and a control group (Hille et al., 2010). The learners were in the 7th, 8th and 9th classes. The test group were taught Latin vocabulary using Scenic Learning whilst the control group were taught the vocabulary with traditional teaching methods. The learners were not allowed to practise the vocabulary outside of the school lessons. After 13 weeks, the Scenic Learning group could remember on average 15 of the 20 words that had been taught. In contrast, the traditional teaching group could only remember on average 5.5 words (Hille et al., 2010, p. 337). The multimodal character and higher amount of speaking involved in the Scenic Learning was the explanation given for the results reached by the researchers (Hille et al., 2010, p. 347).

However, the researchers reported some limitations with the study. The learners were not randomised but remained in their class groups. In the repetition phase after the teaching, the

SL test group's teacher played an active role, whereas in the control group the teacher was passive. This element should have been the same in both groups so as to isolate the SL teaching that was being tested. In effect, the SL group received more "treatment" than the control group. In addition, the groups had different teachers which introduced another element of change into the quasi-experimental design. Despite this, the researchers argue that the same results were obtained in each of the three class pairs, indicating that SL had a learning effect (Hille et al., 2010, p. 347).

Three empirical studies with young learners in primary school settings that were similar in design to the study carried out by Hille and colleagues (2010), were reviewed in the literature review in the opening chapter of this work. The studies demonstrated that learners who were taught English, Welsh and French vocabulary with movements, remembered more than learners who were taught vocabulary without movements (Demircioğlu, 2010; Kalogirou et al., 2019; Sambanis, 2011). These studies support the findings of Hille and colleagues (2010).

Learners are often exposed to a lot of individual words rather than phrases in EFL lessons (Phillips, 1999). Many of those words that they are introduced to are often nouns (Kersten, 2015). In speaking activities, learners are also not often asked to combine words or phrases (Phillips, 1999). Drama presents "unknown language in a context which often makes the meaning clear" (Phillips, 1999, p. 8). Drama activities, therefore, provide learners with this opportunity to combine words and phrases in new ways.

Elis (2023) found that learners may use phrases to remind them of the meaning of words (Elis, 2023). One learner in her study used the sentence "Gerald don't be silly" from the drama lesson to remind her of the meaning of the word "silly" (Elis, 2023, p. 250). The use of scripts during drama activities provided learners with model sentences and language in context. Teachers can choose the sentences that appear on the script to include certain words to make the script communicative (Elis, 2023).

> The cognitive level of suitable language choice is practised while children negotiate and infer meanings. Formulaic sequences can be employed such as: Who are you? I'm a crocodile/witch/clown (Bland, 2015a, p. 219).

During the rehearsal phase, these sentences are naturally repeated by learners. Vocabulary and sentences are heard, read and spoken. They can be practised multiple times in different ways, first altogether, then with a partner and then in a group, enabling learners to build their internal grammar knowledge or knowledge of how the words and phrases of the language are

often used together (Elis, 2023). Chunks of language from the script are then used in new contexts by learners (Almond, 2005; Bland, 2007; Elis, 2023).

It is not only important to understand the meaning of words or phrases, it is also important to develop an awareness of the change that can be created by the way that something is said in different situations (Maley & Duff, 1982). Playing with words and phrases through drama-based activities and trying the language out in different situations, encourages the development of sensitivity to the foreign language.

In drama activities the teacher can never be absolutely sure of the language that will be needed (Maley & Duff, 1982). Even if learners are working with a script, new ideas will almost certainly be generated during drama activities, particularly during group work. The language demands are unpredictable. This requires some flexibility on the part of the teacher, as learner "imagination, spontaneous creation and chance discovery" (Maley & Duff, 1982, p. 13) during group work will often require further vocabulary or structure input. Teachers may have to provide learners with an extra word or phrase during the drama phases of the lesson to enable learners to say what they want to say.

The effects of drama on the development of learners' grammar learning through drama has also been researched (Dragovic, 2019; Even, 2011). Drama activities or games can be used to directly teach and practice grammar concepts such as the present progressive, first conditional or question tags (Rinvolucri, 1984). However, drama activities also naturally provide learners with language in meaningful contexts (Phillips, 1999). It is important that learners acquire the structures correctly, but it is essential that learners understand the meaning of those structures and the contexts for language use first of all (Maley & Duff, 1982). Without understanding, learners will not acquire the language (Cameron, 2001). Therefore, young learners in primary schools in Germany are helped to develop their knowledge and understanding of grammar in meaningful contexts without metacognitive labels. This is because young learners' knowledge of English in situations such as this is limited, which makes meta-language discussions difficult (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014). In practice, grammar is not generally directly explained as it is to adolescent learners, but rather young learners' internal grammar is developed through activities in class that practice specific structures (Cameron, 2001). This is where drama may help young learners to develop their internal grammar, as drama presents language in context (Phillips, 1999) and repetition of the language is frequently required. The language is often repeated within the context of practice in class or group settings and can be

applied to new contexts by learners when they are ready. “Language and language acquisition rely on repeated patterns” (Bland, 2015b, p. 149).

There are examples of the use of drama to assist EFL learners in the acquisition of grammar. A study conducted by Even (2011) on grammar teaching using drama with University DAF students at the University of Leicester, involved

> the synthesis of grammar instruction and drama pedagogy, which integrates both structural and communicative paradigms through a dialectic combination of acting and linguistic analysis (Even, 2011, p. 299).

The study was in response to the division amongst scholars on whether direct or indirect grammar teaching was more beneficial for learners and the lack of empirical evidence on the subject (Even, 2011). In addition, drama had not at that point been used specifically for the teaching of grammar. Results of discussions with students after the drama grammar activities led to the conclusion that the students’ attitudes to grammar had changed as a result of the intervention. They felt more self-confident and willing to take risks when speaking and were not afraid of making mistakes. The students also thought that they had developed a better understanding of grammar and could self-monitor their use of grammar more effectively. Therefore, it was concluded

> that drama grammar advances the understanding of grammatical phenomena through concrete and practical application in dramatic situations (Even, 2011, p. 308).

However, a recent longitudinal yearlong DAF drama study with sixty, fifth class German learners (aged 10-11) in two secondary schools in Serbia (Dragovic, 2019) concluded that the effects of drama teaching on grammar with young learners were inconclusive. The research was based on nine hypotheses which addressed for example, language skills, motivation, learner interest, fear in language learning and the acquisition of grammatical structures (Dragovic, 2019). Three groups of learners were included in the study. One group had drama grammar teaching and two other groups acted as control groups who were taught with the school textbook. A range of skills were assessed which showed that drama helped learners to improve their language skills overall both receptively and productively, although only pronunciation and production were measured through the use of a standardized DAF speaking test (Dragovic, 2019, p. 184). One limitation of the study may have been however, that the amount of speaking in the non-drama groups was not controlled. Therefore, potentially the results for spoken production show a comparison of more speaking in the drama group with less speaking in the control

groups. However, in terms of written competence and grammar, the drama test group did not improve more than the two conventional groups. In terms of grammar competence, the quantitative and qualitative results collected in the study diverged (Dragovic, 2019). Therefore, the researcher suggested that further research on the development of grammar competence through drama could be undertaken in the future.

Piazolli (2011) found that too strong a focus on grammar when speaking in a role play prevented an adult learner of Italian from speaking fluently. The learner consistently stopped to ask questions about grammar and to ask for missing vocabulary in English. This focus on form interrupted her fluency. Piazolli noted how the learner was very frustrated and wrote in her journal

> I had to push Tina to exasperation to get to the breaking point of choosing fluency over accuracy; it's a big step, especially for someone like her who is desperate to communicate but always gets tangled in grammar (Piazzoli, 2011, p. 568).

However, over the project weeks, the student became gradually braver as she continued to participate (Piazzoli, 2011, p. 568). The incident shows that too strong a focus on form by learners in drama can prevent the development of fluency. The following section examines the effects of drama on cognitive skills.

Cognitive Skills.

Drama creates opportunities for learners to think about, plan and create something of their own (Wessels, 1987). Make believe activities encourage creativity and help to develop imagination (Phillips, 1999). Problem solving involved in creating the drama is also engrossing and can provide practice of thinking in the foreign language (Maley & Duff, 1982). However, learners must also think and plan who is going to say what. Learners can be involved in the learning process by organising their roles (Elis, 2023). In addition, they must look at the script if they have one and think about how to say their character's words. Then they must articulate their speech. These activities all involve thinking.

During a drama activity, learners must pay attention to what their group members are saying so that they know when to say their own part, just as speakers do during a real conversation. This requires them to pay attention to what is happening, to concentrate so that they can reply at the right time.

Drama activities can also help with memorization of language. In addition to assisting learners with the memorization of vocabulary, several studies have demonstrated that drama can help learners with memorization of longer stretches of language (Bland, 2014b; Elis, 2023; Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014). Each of the studies reported that the majority of learners could remember their lines from the drama without trouble, although Bland found that learners from the Hauptschule (lower-secondary school) in Germany reported some difficulties with remembering them (Bland, 2014b). Bland (2007) says that young learners can be assisted to remember the lines of a script through listening and echoing the teacher and then finding a movement to match the text. This process enables young learners to remember their words without even noticing (Bland, 2007, p. 7). Memorization has also been shown to help with automation of speech and consequently increased spoken fluency. It can also eventually help learners with free speaking because it enables the memorization of chunks of language.

Physical skills such as pronunciation are also important in the development of EFL speaking skills.

Physical Skills.

Primary school children enjoy rhyme and rhythm which can be incorporated into play scripts and drama activities. They also tend to acquire rhyming language with very little effort. Rhyme and rhythm are aids to memory (Bland, 2015b).

> With suitable input, young learners can acquire authentic, idiomatic English as they are generally tolerant of ambiguity (Bland, 2015a, p. 224).

Participating in activities that explore the rhyme and rhythm of the language can also help learners to become sensitive to the sounds of the language (Bland, 2015b).

Drama work lends itself very well to the integration of pronunciation practice (Elis, 2023). Pronunciation work can be integrated into role or scene work. However, the effective development of young learner pronunciation depends upon having a good pronunciation role model to listen to. The repetition involved in script work provides an excellent opportunity for learners to listen to the pronunciation of the language, to practise altogether, to practise with a partner and then in a group. Ideally good pronunciation will be modelled to the learners at the beginning of a unit of work and re-enforced during the unit through repetition. A number of drama studies tested the development of different aspects of pronunciation including phonetic correctness (Hille et al., 2010), fluency (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020; Bora, 2017; Galante &

Thomson, 2017; Hille et al., 2010), comprehensibility (Galante & Thomson, 2017; Hille et al., 2010) and accent (Galante & Thomson, 2017).

Scenic learning (Hille et al., 2010) was shown to help learners to improve their pronunciation. A study involving 85 pupils of French who took part from four different 6th and 7th classes and were taught with Scenic Learning methods demonstrated that at the end of the intervention, the learners in the test group were awarded a higher score for French pronunciation (phonetic correctness, fluency and comprehensibility) by four expert raters when reading a French text, than the pupils in the control group who were taught with traditional methods. The researchers concluded that the results showed the advantage of Scenic Learning over traditional methods that don't include "choral recitals accompanied by gestures and movements" (Hille et al., 2010, p. 338). The multi-modal character and higher amount of speaking involved in the Scenic Learning was the explanation given by the researchers for the results obtained (Hille et al., 2010, p. 347).

A quantitative study by Galante et al. (2017) in Brazil investigated how teaching adapted from drama could help learners to improve their oral skills, namely fluency, comprehensibility, and accent (Galante & Thomson, 2017). The study included a pre- and post-test with a test group and a control group. Twenty-four teenaged Brazilian EFL learners took part in the test group which involved process and product-based drama teaching (Galante & Thomson, 2017, p. 123). The teaching took place over a period of four months. The control group had four months of traditional communicative EFL teaching instead. The learners were rated by thirty native speakers who listened to recorded samples of speech and gave "impressionistic scalar judgements of fluency, comprehensibility and accentedness" (Galante & Thomson, 2017, p. 115). The speaking test raters listened to "20-second speech samples (…) after initial false starts and hesitations had been removed" (Galante & Thomson, 2017, p. 125). Then the raters were given five seconds to give their rating using a nine-point scale (e.g. 1 = very easy to understand or 9 = very difficult to understand) (Galante & Thomson, 2017, p. 126). The raters had two two-hour sessions to rate 240 samples. The results showed that the learners in the drama group improved their fluency more than learners in the control group. However, the study found that comprehensibility and accent were not significantly affected by the drama treatment (Galante & Thomson, 2017).

Additionally, a study on drama and its effects on speaking skills with Year 12 English students (aged 17) in a private school in Italy investigated the effects on learners' oral

complexity, accuracy and fluency (Bora, 2017). Text-based activities and drama activities in two consecutive phases were employed in a longitudinal study with a test group and a control group. The students' spoken skills were tested before and after the yearlong intervention. The study indicated

> that the text-based approach that [was] used initially led to higher syntactic complexity, breakdown fluency (…) and phonation time ratio (…), whilst the performance-based approach led to a higher level of accuracy, both on the global scale and pronunciation accuracy, and on speed fluency and phonation time ratio (Bora, 2017, p. 225).

It should be emphasized, however, that the significant results produced in the post-test, conducted at the end of the entire period of the intervention, may be due to the practice effect, which cannot be ignored here. The performance phase followed the text-based intervention and, therefore, **"**the students had practised their speaking more at this point" (Bora, 2017, p. 225). Although the groups in the study were small and not randomized due to the private school setting where the research was undertaken, the results suggest that the combined use of a text and drama activities yields positive results.

In a study with young learners, classroom observation also revealed that an improvement in learners' oral fluency occurred due to the interaction that took place whilst the learners were preparing and performing their drama (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020). Learners did not focus on form whilst they were rehearsing, but on communication. The results also showed that the level of social interaction between learners and between learners and the teacher had increased due to the increased "cooperation and collaboration" (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020, p. 66) that occurred. However, the researchers also reported that the twenty female learners reverted to their native Arabic to discuss ideas and to give explanations. They did not discuss in English. As the study did not include any male participants, it was not possible to determine whether the same result would be obtained in a mixed class. The study carried out by Alasmari & Alshae'el (2020) also investigated learners' interaction in the classroom.

Social and Emotional Skills.

Drama activities often require learners to interact with a partner, a group or the teacher. Bland (2015a) says that drama is "sociocultural interaction" (Bland, 2015a, p. 221). The process of developing a sketch together or putting on a short play requires collaboration and support of each other (Almond, 2005). It involves "collaborative dialogue" in which "language performance is jointly constructed" (Bland, 2015a, p. 221). Therefore, drama involves the "linguistic

or verbal system" (Bland, 2015a, p. 221) when dialogues are practised or performed, when scripts are read or when participants converse in order to organise the drama, performers speak to one another.

This provides learners with the opportunity to speak but also to practise working with others. Most learners enjoy working together with other people (Baldwin, 2024). Group work can be very inclusive, particularly if every learner in the group is encouraged to contribute something. A group working together needs to be "in harmony" however, (Maley & Duff, 1982, p. 2) if it is to achieve its goals. Therefore, group work may need some practice if young learners are not accustomed to it.

Working in a group means that learners rely on each other to produce something which has value. This can also be motivating for them (Almond, 2005). Working together can help with the problem of learners being reluctant to speak or not knowing what to talk about. The shared activity means that it is necessary for learners to talk to each other to create something new (Maley & Duff, 1982). In a group there are likely to be different kinds of learners. Even learners who are shyer can be involved "by functioning as part of the group" (Wessels, 1987, p. 28). If a learner does not feel brave enough to speak at a particular moment, then they can signal that they would like to "pass". In this case, nobody in the class should comment. Baldwin argues that it is better for a learner to join in with the activities and to "pass" than to sit out and just watch (Baldwin, 2024, p. 12).

Drama activities often require learners to change partners or move around the room talking to different people. They argue, agree, disagree, organize and execute instructions (Maley & Duff, 1982). O'Toole and Stinson (2015) argue that changing groups or partners for different activities creates a need for learners to negotiate with other students. It also means that learners do not always work with other people from their direct friendship groups and so they may not have the usual interactions (O'Toole & Stinson, 2015).

The opportunity for movement during drama activities could also lead to an increase in speech production, as people naturally move when they speak (Maley & Duff, 1982).

> Across all cultures speech and gesture occur together when people communicate (Macedonia & Klimesch, 2014, p. 74).

The combination of both together makes the meaning more complete. Unnatural classroom situations in which learners are static at their desks may make speaking in a foreign language

difficult for learners. It is true that not every word spoken by learners during a drama activity will be heard by the teacher. Some lines or words may only be heard by the group members. Perhaps some of the words will not be heard by anyone except the learner. However, every learner needs some opportunities to practise without being afraid of making a mistake. Opportunities to speak in a small group setting allow learners to practise in low pressure situations. However, although not every word will be heard, the whole class is engaged with the drama and the language for most of the time (Maley & Duff, 1982, p. 14).

The use of drama in EFL has been shown to have several effects on interaction within groups of learners and between the learners and the teacher. An early and influential study on process drama and speaking skills entitled *Words into Worlds* (Kao & O'Neill, 1998) synthesised drama theory with practice. In the study, which is often referenced by other researchers, 33 first semester Science and Engineering students at the National Cheng Kung University in Taiwan studying English (Kao & O'Neill, 1998), participated in process drama. The study focused on the interaction between the teacher and students during the drama which was collaboratively developed. The aim of the study was not only to describe how the teacher and participants participated together, but also to find out how different drama themes affected the students' performances. The study also aimed to gain an understanding of learners' experience, the development of their communicative competence, and to find evidence that the drama situation was similar to a natural setting (Kao & O'Neill, 1998).

A pre- and post- speaking test was administered to the participants who were rated by two different raters. The average of their scores was taken. Audio and video recordings of the drama sessions were made and four drama sessions were selected and analysed in detail. Two of the sessions had realistic themes and two had imaginary themes. The classroom interaction was analysed for turn-taking data, coded with van Lier's (1988) classroom interaction analysis (Kao & O'Neill, 1998). The researchers analysed the number and types of interactions in the classroom during the drama, and the quantity and quality of speech produced in the test.

It was found that the conversations between the teacher and students during process drama, which was collaboratively developed, were not completely controlled by the teacher, as is the case in many formal classroom settings. The teacher and students were much more equal in their contributions and the relationships were more flexible and more representative of communication in real-life (Kao & O'Neill, 1998). The results also showed that the students improved in expressing themselves, and in the quantity of speech that they produced.

An improvement in the interaction between students and students and teachers was also found in a study involving young learners in Saudi Arabia. The researchers found through classroom observation that there was an increase in social interaction levels between learners and between the learners and teacher during drama activities (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020).

However, the evidence for social learning through drama is mixed. In the Drama Improves Lison Key Competences in Education (DICE) study from 2008 to 2010, children and young people from twelve countries around the world took part in educational theatre projects (Eriksson et al., 2014). Again, a quasi-experimental pre- post-test design was used to measure creativity and several other social competences such as empathy. The study of 4,475 learners (Eriksson et al., 2014, p. 403) found that participation in the theatre project had led to an increase in creativity amongst learners. However, no significant differences were found in the post-test results for the other competences (Wirag, 2019). Wirag points out however, that learners had actively chosen to participate in the theatre projects, so perhaps they already possessed particular social competences before the intervention, which had influenced them to choose to participate. This could explain why there was no great change visible in the post-test for empathy and social competence (Wirag, 2019).

In addition, drama is motivating for learners because learners find it interesting (Maley & Duff, 1982). Phillips (1999) agrees that "dramatizing a text is motivating and (…) fun" (Phillips, 1999, p. 6). It is also possible for all learners to join in with the activities because dramatizing allows a variety of forms of participation. Learners can participate in different ways and to a greater or lesser extent, as they feel able. They have the opportunity to speak or just to join in with gestures, mime, movements or facial expressions. They can join in with their "bodies, minds, emotions, language, and social interaction" (Phillips, 1999, p. 6).

Learners can experience success because there are a variety of possible outcomes in a drama activity. Giving a small performance at the end of a unit for fellow learners, however, can in addition provide a goal to aim for (Phillips, 1999). It can also be encouraging and build confidence. This is particularly true if learners receive applause when they show what they have created (Almond, 2005). A number of researchers reported that they had observed a rise in motivation levels amongst young EFL learners participating in drama projects (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020; Dragovic, 2019; Elis, 2023; Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014).

Quantitative results obtained from drama-based role play and Student Teams Achievement Division (STAD) cooperative learning with university students at the Suranaree

University of Technology, Thailand, confirmed that drama creates a rise in motivation. Standardised battery tests for motivation (AMBT) were used in the research which showed that drama-based role play and STAD was more effective in improving motivation levels and self-esteem than the course book teaching used in the control group (Sirisrimangkorn & Suwanthep, 2013, p. 70).

The purpose of doing drama to motivate learners is so that they are engaged in the lesson. Motivation is needed to speak because speaking takes effort. Therefore, if the lesson is motivating for learners, learners will be more willing to expend effort to participate and try speaking in English. Dörnyei (2001) lists thirty-five strategies for encouraging learners' motivation in the language classroom. Number seventeen states:

> Make learning more stimulating and enjoyable by breaking down the monotony of classroom events (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 141)

And includes:

> varying the learning tasks and other aspects of your teaching as much as you can (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 141).

Using drama techniques in the classroom brings variety to the teaching method. In addition, number nineteen in the motivational strategies listed by Dörnyei refers to including learners "as active task participants" which includes choosing activities which "require mental and /or bodily involvement from each participant" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 141). Drama invites learners to participate both cognitively and physically and therefore, increases motivation.

In addition, Gill (2016) argues that drama leads to increased confidence and motivation when students are "allowed to speak freely" (Gill, 2016, p. 240) and are not constrained by the requirement to say everything accurately. A cyclical pattern is described in which learners practise speaking though drama, improve, are motivated, have further speaking opportunities which in turn increases their "desire to speak" (Gill, 2016, p. 240) in a positive practice cycle.

However, it is true that some learners may feel nervous about speaking English in front of their peers or the teacher. Phillips (1999) argues that doing drama can help to improve learners' confidence (Phillips, 1999). The results from a number of drama studies confirmed this and found that drama improved the confidence levels amongst adult and adolescent learners (Sirisrimangkorn, 2019; Stinson & Freebody, 2009). Phillips offers the following explanation for the rise in confidence amongst young learners doing drama:

> By taking on a role, children can escape from their everyday identity and lose their inhibitions. This is useful with children who are shy about speaking English, or don't like joining in group activities. If you give them a special role it encourages them to be that character and abandon their shyness or embarrassment. This is especially true when you use puppets or masks. The teacher can use roles to encourage children who would otherwise hold back, and control children who dominate weaker ones (Phillips, 1999, p. 7).

O'Toole and Stinson (2015) argue that role and dramatic context also contribute to learning. When students do drama, they take on a role in a dramatic context. This is an unreal situation, but it allows learners to take risks in role. It "gives permission to be someone different to oneself" (O'Toole & Stinson, 2015, p. 175). In role, learners can do things which they cannot do in real life. They can therefore, experiment with the language.

In addition, the activity of creating a character in a play can be "meaningful and memorable" (Almond, 2005, p. 10) for learners because it involves the intellect and the emotions. Learners must think about the character and how to create them, what personality traits they will have, how they will speak, what will they look like and how they will behave. Almond argues that this process is transferrable to the real world, as it helps learners to become aware of the needs of other people and the need for real communication (Almond, 2005).

Tselikas (1999) argues that drama encourages learners to speak because a *Sprachnotsituation* (Tselikas, 1999, p. 15) or a situation in which language needs to be used, is created. In a situation like this, the learners have to react spontaneously to what is happening around them and to each other (Tselikas, 1999, p. 15). They draw on their language knowledge because they have the need to communicate.

The methodology used for drama in language learning has three steps and is helpful in preparing learners to participate in drama and also to reflect on their experiences. It begins with a *Verkörperung* (Tselikas, 1999, p. 23) or warm-up phase, followed by the main drama phase and a warm-down phase including reflection. There should always be a warm-up phase for 5-10 minutes before the main drama activity. The purpose of the warm-up is to activate learners and help them to concentrate and become self-aware, to introduce the drama topic, to leave everyday reality and to warm-up their voices to prepare for speaking. This should occur in a relaxed environment so that learners don't feel self-conscious but can fully join in to get ready for the drama. Warm-up activities could include relaxation exercises, exercises where learners

practise interacting with a partner, exercises to practise concentration, expressing feelings using facial expressions or body language and voice warmers (Tselikas, 1999). It is best if the warm-up exercises are chosen to go with the main drama theme.

After the warm-up phase the main drama phase begins where learners get into the drama reality (Tselikas, 1999). Learners develop scenes, improvise and find roles within themselves. Drama is a process in which people are social beings who interact. The warm-down and reflection phase are essential in helping learners to return to the reality of the classroom, to leave the drama reality, to calm their fantasies and senses and reflect (Tselikas, 1999).

Drama can help learners to feel less fearful of speaking. Process drama was found to improve the willingness of learners on a third-year Italian course at the University of Brisbane to communicate. The "participatory action research" (Piazzoli, 2011, p. 571) involved twelve participants from diverse backgrounds. The research was carried out in response to the fact that although beginner language courses are often designed to develop communicative competences, more advanced courses are often based on literature (Piazzoli, 2011). Piazolli argues that it is often challenging to create authentic communicative situations for advanced learners. Six workshops were conducted with the researcher and learners, and video recorded. The researcher kept a reflective journal. Ten semi-structured interviews were also conducted, and a focus group reviewed and commented on some sections of the video recorded process drama sessions.

Piazolli found that process drama led to a reduction in foreign language anxiety (FLA) amongst some of the participants. This was attributed to the "affective space" (Piazzoli, 2011, p. 565) created by the collaboration and trust built up through the process drama and the subsequent willingness of students to communicate. The "medium of role", "authentic contexts" and "dramatic tension" all helped learners to speak more spontaneously (Piazzoli, 2011, p. 571). Through the use of video-stimulated recall, Piazolli found that

> participants seemed to focus on judgemental intra-group dynamics, rather than learning processes (…) which expose[d] a covert judgemental pattern in the classroom. This pattern hindered spontaneous communication, especially in participants who experienced a degree of language anxiety. Findings suggest that process drama helped to neutralise this pattern, fuelling a spontaneous willingness to communicate in the target language (Piazzoli, 2011, pp. 570–571).

Research carried out in a secondary school context on the effects of drama on foreign language learners' anxiety in an empirical study in four extra-curricular drama clubs over a period of six months used quantitative and qualitative research methods to find out if the presence or absence of specific drama-pedagogical elements related to the presence or absence of student Foreign Language Anxiety (Wirag & Surkamp, 2020). Questionnaires were used to obtain feedback from the participants which were then quantitatively assessed.

The results showed that drama does reduce FLA when learners were engrossed in role (Wirag & Surkamp, 2020). However, any negative feedback on either their drama performance or their language skills, led to an increase in feelings of FLA. Wirag and Surkamp (2020) therefore concluded, that if work on roles takes place in a supportive environment with teacher feedback that is tolerant of errors, then drama should minimise learners' FLA. However, further research on appropriate feedback in drama contexts which does not raise FLA would be beneficial (Wirag & Surkamp, 2020). No such research on young learners aged 9-10 and FLA participating in drama activities in EFL contexts is known to this author.

Drama is reported to have a number of characteristics that help "remove obstacles to unrestricted speech" (Gill, 2016, p. 241) which could also apply to young learners. Drama is communicative, errors are accepted, meaning is negotiated, learners are autonomous, learners participate rather than being passive, speaking is a focus of the activities, the development of fluency is above that of accuracy, responses are unpredictable, and utterances are joined together (Gill, 2016, p. 241).

In summary, existing empirical drama studies of learners of varying ages from a variety of contexts, suggest that different kinds of drama may contribute to the development of oral skills in many ways. Studies were found that suggest that in certain contexts drama helped learners' vocabulary (Demircioğlu, 2010; Hille et al., 2010; Kalogirou et al., 2019; Sambanis, 2011), grammar (Even, 2011), use of chunks (Elis, 2023), pronunciation (Hille et al., 2010), fluency (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020; Bora, 2017; Galante & Thomson, 2017), memory (Bland, 2014b; Elis, 2023; Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014), participation (Stinson, 2009) and their interaction skills (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020; Kao & O'Neill, 1998) to develop. In addition, drama was shown to have the potential to lower anxiety in foreign language speaking (Piazzoli, 2011; Wirag & Surkamp, 2020) and to increase learners' confidence (Gill, 2016; Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014; Sirisrimangkorn, 2019; Stinson & Freebody, 2009).

This section demonstrated how drama has many qualities which make it suitable for the young EFL learner classroom. Amongst those is the focus on meaning and communication, rather than on form and accuracy. Drama also provides many opportunities to practise speaking. That said, young beginner learners because of their limited language knowledge, need scaffolding to help them to speak. At A1 level, most learners are not yet ready to improvise in speaking situations. Therefore, in the following section, picturebooks are investigated to find out if they could provide appropriate scaffolding upon which to base drama activities.

The Role of Picturebooks in the Acquisition of Oral Skills

Picturebooks provide learners with many opportunities to listen and speak in meaningful contexts. In this section, picturebooks as a source of input in the primary language classroom are discussed. In addition, ways in which picturebooks provide support for listening, understanding and acquisition through the language and features of the book, and the way that they are used for storytelling are discussed. Furthermore, ways in which picturebooks can be used to provide opportunities for learners to speak are examined. Features to look for when choosing a picturebook to use with young learners in an EFL lesson and some considerations when choosing a picturebook for dramatisation purposes to develop oral skills, are discussed. Finally, ways in which picturebook texts can be dramatised with young learners to develop oral skills are explored.

Picturebooks in EFL Teaching with Young Learners

Picturebooks are a popular resource for use in EFL teaching with young learners. A picture book is a story accompanied by pictures printed in a paper book. Also known as "picturebooks" (Bader, 1976, p. 1), "picture-books", "real books" (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2002, p. 188; Wright, 2008, p. 9) and "storybooks" (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014, p. 1). Enever (1996) mentions three different kinds of picturebook. A picturebook could be a book with pictures but no written text, a book with pictures which support the meaning of the text or a book with pictures that offer an alternative meaning to the text (Enever, 2006, p. 65).

Picturebooks are considered to be a great resource for primary EFL learners (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2002, 2014). Children love listening to stories (Böttger, 2020a; G. Ellis & Brewster, 2002) and picturebooks are recommended for use in English lessons in primary schools in Baden-Württemberg (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016). Picturebooks are often used to practise listening and comprehension skills in the young learner EFL classroom in Germany (Kolb, 2014). They provide learners with a rich source of language input. Ellis & Brewster (2014) argue that the main reason for using stories with young EFL learners is to

> foster positive attitudes towards learning English and to encourage general comprehension (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014, p. 10).

English children's books, whether fully authentic, produced for educational purposes, in big book format or in the standard size, are exciting and funny (Böttger, 2020a, p. 119). They

help learners to develop a positive attitude towards the foreign language, to develop their imagination, practise listening and comprehension skills and to acquire vocabulary.

> Stories, which rely so much on words, offer a major and constant source of life and of language experience for children. Stories are motivating and memorable, rich in language experience, and inexpensive! (Wright, 2008, p. 4).

Picturebooks can be used to develop literacy skills, literary competence (Bland, 2022b), to foster cognitive development (Kümmerling-Meibauer & Meibauer, 2022), to further "general educational goals" (Zirkel, 2022, p. 117) and to address current issues in society such as climate change. In addition, carefully chosen picturebooks can be used to build knowledge of cultural, social and historical aspects of a place or people, that learners can experience through the story and pictures (Bader, 1976).

> A picturebook is text, illustrations, total design, an item of manufacture and a commercial product; a social, cultural, historic document; and foremost, an experience for a reader. As an art form it hinges on the interdependence of pictures and words, on the simultaneous display of two facing pages, and on the drama of the turning page (Bader, 1976, p. 1).

Picturebooks in the English language come from all over the world. Therefore, they can also be used to discuss different varieties of English with learners and to help learners become "globally literate in English(es)" (Enever, 2006, p. 69). Mourão (2023) found that picturebooks had been used for intercultural learning not just with young learners, but also with adults (Mourão, 2023, p. 182). Picturebooks can be used to develop "attitudes, knowledge, understanding and skills associated with intercultural learning" (Mourão, 2023, p. 200). Although research on this aspect of learning through picturebooks published in English is currently limited, studies on the topic are increasing.

Picturebooks are a great resource for the EFL classroom. They can be used in many ways for different purposes. In this project picturebooks were not only used for the purposes mentioned above, but they also played a role in the development of listening and speaking skills. The ways in which picturebooks can contribute to the development of these skills is investigated next.

The Development of Aural/Oral Skills through Work with Picturebooks

In addition to intercultural learning (Mourão, 2023), picturebooks can be used to develop linguistic, literary and cognitive skills (Daugaard & Johansen, 2014). However, research shows that teachers often use picturebooks for comprehension purposes and to focus on "pre-established language items" (Laliena et al., 2022, p. 346). Laliena and colleague's (2022) study of teachers' beliefs on EFL picturebook teaching found that teachers frequently prioritise language goals when working with picturebooks rather than literacy or cognitive development goals (Laliena et al., 2022). The teachers interviewed by the researchers

> seemed to approach picturebooks primarily as sources of language input rather than literary objects. They prioritised functional literacy – comprehension of the text or its essence – and focused on specific, pre-established language items (Laliena et al., 2022, p. 346).

Teachers "used picturebooks as teaching tools for EFL acquisition" (Laliena et al., 2022, p. 346). This is understandable when one considers that picturebooks are a resource which contain rich language (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2002). Listening to stories and picturebooks provide learners with high quality and quantity language input which they need to acquire the English language. Listening often to stories and talking about them also helps learners to develop comprehension skills and to gradually build up skills for speaking.

Stories contain examples of almost all the linguistic phenomena of the beginner level, including vocabulary, collocations and grammatical structures (Piepho, 2007, p. 7). Learners also have the opportunity to listen to rhythm, intonation and stress patterns and to the "phonic sounds and blends" (Enever, 2006, p. 69) specific to the English language. A picturebook offers

> access to an authentic experience of the pleasure of story, rhymes or information, in the foreign language (Enever, 2006, p. 60).

Although listening is not a "passive activity" (A. Hughes, 2006, p. 154), listening to stories introduces language to learners without requiring them to initially produce any language themselves (Wright, 2008). Learners can listen and gather examples of language which can be added to their language "reservoir" (Wright, 2008, p. 5). Later when they are ready to productively use the language, they are already familiar with it and can gradually "move the language items into their productive control" (Wright, 2008, p. 5). Therefore, it is difficult to separate the development of listening and speaking skills when working with picturebooks. They are often addressed together in texts on the subject (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2002).

Elley (1989) demonstrated in three studies, one with EFL learners and two with native speakers of English, that learners acquired a significant amount of vocabulary from listening to stories read repeatedly aloud to them. Incidental gains of around 20% were measured in the EFL learner study (Elley, 1989, p. 177) and 15% in the native speaker studies, without extra explanation of vocabulary from the teacher. In a group of native speakers who received explanation of the vocabulary, learners acquired 40% (Elley, 1989, p. 174), indicating that teacher explanation increased vocabulary acquisition dramatically.

However, Elley also found that the choice of story was significant and made a difference in learner vocabulary acquisition. He concluded that stories which include "novelty, humour, conflict, suspense, incongruity, vividness, and the like" (Elley, 1989, p. 185) hold learners attention, which is needed for vocabulary acquisition. In the group who acquired much less vocabulary, the story contained characters and a setting that was more difficult for learners to relate to. The story also did not contain any humour, and the plot did not involve much action. Elley concluded that less learner involvement due to the type of story was why the learners in this group had not acquired as much vocabulary as the other groups. Elley also found that it was more likely that a learner would acquire a word if it was repeated in the text and was depicted in the illustrations (Elley, 1989, p. 184). Repetition in Elley's study was found to be a significant factor in vocabulary acquisition. Therefore, it seems that stories need to be carefully chosen for the EFL classroom so that learners enjoy them and want to listen to them more than once. There are language acquisition benefits to listening repeatedly.

Picturebooks allow language to be heard repeatedly without learners getting bored because every reading of the story is a little different (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014). It is recommended that EFL learners hear a story several times. This is not just beneficial for language acquisition; it also helps to build confidence amongst learners. Each time learners listen, they know the story a little better. Repeated words or chunks of language from the story become more familiar to learners through listening. They begin to notice the sounds of the language, the rhythm and pronunciation. A rhythmic repeated refrain in a story often results in "spontaneous joining in by a young audience" (Kolsawalla, 1999, p. 18). Repetition encourages learners to join in (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014) and encourages the memorization of language. Bland (2023) argues that

> usage frequency seems to be the ideal condition for input to become intake (Bland, 2023, p. 57).

In addition,

> stories present learners with a meaningful context, authentic language, larger chunks of language and repetitive structures which enhance acquisition and memorization of new vocabulary items and structures (Kirsch, 2008, p. 112).

Rhythm, repetition and the use of interesting words such as onomatopoeia or alliteration in stories can contribute to the expansion of learners' vocabulary (Zirkel, 2022). Repetitive, "meaningful language patterns" (Bland, 2023, p. 62) are essential for language acquisition and carefully chosen picturebooks are a good source of this type of language.

In a small study with young EAL learners who were 5-6 years old, Kolsawalla (1999) investigated whether the learners retained items of vocabulary better when they were stressed during a rhythmic refrain or as part of a narrative (Kolsawalla, 1999). The learners who were being educated in England but were from backgrounds where other languages were spoken at home, heard two different versions of a story. The learners were matched and divided into two groups of twelve. They heard each story twice on one occasion (Kolsawalla, 1999, p. 26). After hearing the stories, learners' recall was checked to see how well they could remember the key vocabulary.

In each version of the story two nonsense words were either included as part of a rhythmic refrain or as part of a narrative (Kolsawalla, 1999). The nonsense words had been specially created so that learners could not have heard them before the story telling, and so that the words contained the same number of syllables and the same word stress was on the first syllable in each word. The learners listened to the stories in which the nonsense words were repeated either four times in a rhythmic refrain or four times in a section of narrative. Afterwards, the learners were asked a question about the story context in which the words were significant. For example, "What did Mrs. Sticklebeck bring for the children?" (Kolsawalla, 1999, p. 23). The learners provided broad and varied answers and recalled many chunks of language from the stories. However, whereas nonsense words from the rhythmic refrains were recalled, no nonsense words from narrative sections were recalled at all (Kolsawalla, 1999, p. 24). Kolsawalla concluded that

> the results seem to indicate that vocabulary elements presented within a rhythmic refrain in a story are more readily recalled by learners than those within the prose narration of a story (Kolsawalla, 1999, p. 26).

Therefore, it seems that the inclusion of rhythmic refrains in stories aids recall of language at least in the short term.

Kolsawalla also noticed that learners in the study recalled and produced "whole chunks" (Kolsawalla, 1999, p. 23) of language readily even if they were not directly relevant to answering the question. Picturebooks contain many chunks of language for example, "Where is…?" or "I'd like …" which are important for young learners (A. Hughes, 2006) and seem to be readily acquired. The chunks are also presented in the context of the story helping to support their meaning. Although learners may only get the gist of the meaning at first and may only be able to use chunks in a limited way themselves, as their proficiency level improves, they are increasingly able to make use of chunks of language.

Although learners do not need to understand every single word in a book to be able to follow the story, sometimes they feel that they have to (Ur, 1984). Ur recommends that teachers choose texts for listening carefully

> taking into account its length, level, and intrinsic interest value for the students (Ur, 1984, p. 67).

There is support for understanding of the text in a picturebook provided by the context and the clues to meaning in the pictures. The pictures contained within the pages of a picture book make each book unique and are particularly appealing to learners, who love to study the pictures and respond to them (Mourão, 2013). Mourão (2013) argues that a picturebook contains "two modes of communication, the visual text and the verbal text" (Mourão, 2013, p. 98). Picturebooks can therefore, also be described as "multimodal" (Zirkel, 2022, p. 118). Pictures which correspond closely to the meaning of the text in a picturebook or are "symmetrical" or "synchronising" (Zirkel, 2022, p. 118) can help learners to understand and follow the story. They act like "scaffolding" for learners (Enever, 2006, p. 61). Consequently, learners can be enabled to understand quite complicated texts with a minimum of verbal explanation, simply through the support offered by a "visual image" (Enever, 2006, p. 61). If there are "gaps" between the text and the pictures, meaning that the text and pictures are not completely symmetrical, this leaves room for interpretation and provides opportunities for learners to generate meaning (Mourão, 2013, p. 98).

In a picturebook study in Norway, two picturebooks, *The Gruffalo* and *Voices in the Park* (Ørås, 2025, p. 2) were used in English teaching with a small group of special education learners (aged 6-16) in primary and lower-secondary schools. The learners "rel[ied] on

Augmentative and Alternative Communication" (AAC) (Ørås, 2025, p. 2). The teachers who participated in the picturebook teaching reported that they believed that the pictures in the picturebooks had helped learners to understand the text. They thought that the pictures had provided scaffolding for the text which aided learners' understanding. With the help of the pictures, learners could understand what the story was about even though they did not understand all the language. The results based on the perceptions of four teachers suggested that picturebooks are helpful for inclusion of special education learners because they are multimodal.

The meaning of the text can also be supported by the teacher whilst they are reading the story (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014). Strategies like pointing to parts of the pictures, using gestures and facial expressions help to support meaning and learner understanding of the text. Additionally, the story reader's voice may be used as a tool to support the meaning of the text (Enever, 2006). Certain words may be stressed to enhance meaning or story characters may be given different voices to help learners to follow who is speaking. Encouraging learners to guess what an unknown word means within a context is an important and useful skill. There are many contexts in which educated guessing based on knowledge of the context and visual clues is helpful when listening in a foreign language.

The recommended methodology for use with picturebooks in class includes pre-, while and post-listening phases (Böttger, 2020a; G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014; Wright, 2008). The pre-listening phase happens before the story is read to the class. It prepares learners to listen to the story. It can also awaken learners' interest in the story and activate their world knowledge. It can be used to introduce key vocabulary needed to understand the story (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014). Vocabulary chosen to be introduced at this stage may be words that are not be entirely clear from the text or pictures and which may hinder learners' understanding if they are not introduced before the first reading of the story (Böttger, 2020a). The characters and their appearance, personal qualities or elements of the setting may also be discussed in this phase. However, it is important not to give too much of the story away in the pre-listening phase (A. Hughes, 2006). It would be a shame to spoil the story or negatively affect learners' listening motivation during the main story reading. The goal is to "whet (...) learners' appetites for an authentic picture book" (A. Hughes, 2006, p. 155). Learners need to be interested and motivated to listen, but also well-prepared to be able to understand the story when it is read aloud to them. The pre-listening phase is designed to give learners some context for listening. It is designed to make listening to an unfamiliar text in a foreign language easier for learners because they have some idea of what the text is about before they hear it.

The while listening phase is designed to encourage learners to listen carefully to the story and to try to understand the meaning. It helps learners to "focus their attention" (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014, p. 28). Learners can be set a while listening task. For example, learners may be encouraged to join in and say repeated lines from the story altogether. This can be an encouragement to learners who are listening to a story in a foreign language, as they can actively listen for the repetition of specific language and can build confidence when they can join in. They begin to know the story and can tell parts of it in English. The while-telling phase can also be used to develop learners' skills of prediction (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014). The teacher may ask learners what is going to happen next when they turn the page, adding excitement and suspense to the experience.

Depending on the length of the story, it may be initially read all the way through to learners (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014). The pictures should be shown to learners to allow time for them to process and build-up an understanding of the text. Features in the pictures can be pointed to aid understanding. During a second reading of the text, learners may be asked simple questions like "Can you point to …. in the picture?" Or "Where is the red hat? Can you see the red hat? Can you point to it?" Learners could be asked to join in with the actions or to put some pictures in order to check understanding of the story (Böttger, 2020a, p. 122). The experience is an interactive one for learners, although they don't necessarily have to participate verbally.

During the story reading, it is impossible for the teacher to know what learners will focus on, be interested in or remember. Enever (2006) places the learner "at the centre of the book as an active meaning maker" (Enever, 2006, p. 68). Therefore, allowing learners to make their own contributions on aspects which are interesting or relevant to them allows "authentic communication" (Bland, 2023, p. 57) to take place.

Picturebooks are very effective in encouraging learners to participate in storytelling lessons. Several ways that learners may respond to picturebooks have been observed by researchers (Adomat, 2010; Mourão, 2013; Sipe, 2000). Sipe (2000) observed first and second graders in the USA responding to picturebooks and found five responses; "analytical", "intertextual", "personal", "transparent" and "performative" (Sipe, 2000, p. 268). An analytical response could include analysis of the story meaning, the illustrations, the language or the book itself.

> This category included all responses that seemed to be dealing with the text as an object for analysis and interpretation (Sipe, 2000, p. 264).

An intertextual response was when learners made a connection to a different text. In a personal response, the learners shared something about their own life, their opinions or likes/dislikes, for example. A transparent response is a "spontaneous" (Sipe, 2000, p. 267) response, for example adding some sound effects or acting part of the story out. A performative response could be similar to a transparent response, but it is pre-meditated or thought-through. These

> responses (…) indicated the children were entering the world of the text in order to manipulate or steer it toward their own creative purposes (Sipe, 2000, p. 267).

In an EFL context, Mourão (2013) observed kindergarten learners in English lessons responding to the picturebook "Good Night Gorilla!" (Mourão, 2013, p. 102) and found that learners responded both physically and verbally in their L1 and L2. The learners used a mixture of both English and Portuguese to communicate their responses with examples of code-switching. The results showed that most of the learners' responses were analytical (75-85%) (Mourão, 2013, p. 102), the next most common response was transparent (5-15%). Personal, intertextual and performative responses were much less common (less than 2%) but were also used by learners. Mourão argues that these lesser used responses should be accepted and valued as "legitimate responses" (Mourão, 2013, p. 111) and learners shouldn't be told off for moving around or calling out as this is a natural response of some learners to picturebooks. Adomat (2010) agrees that learners who give a performative response may be discouraged by teachers who consider them to be "disruptive" or "off-task" (Adomat, 2010, p. 218). However, she argues that this type of response encourages interaction between learners and should be accepted as a legitimate learner response to the reading aloud of picturebooks.

In the post-listening phase after the story has been read, teachers can capitalise on the opportunities for talk provided by a picturebook by asking learners questions about the story. Learners can be asked to give a personal reaction to the story e.g. "Who was your favourite character? Why?" (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014, p. 20). Bland (2014) argues that not too many questions should be asked to learners that require them to "display command of the language" (Bland, 2014a, p. 86) because it is boring for learners. Instead, genuine questions about the story are much more interesting and motivating for learners. She adds however, that these questions should also be "linguistically manageable" (Bland, 2014a, p. 86) for learners. In the use of questioning, teachers need to use their good judgement, as learners who have only just begun learning English may not yet have much linguistic knowledge to draw upon to answer in

English. With beginner learners it may be suitable to ask some questions about the story so that learners have the opportunity to speak English. Questions such as "What did the elephant say at the grocer's shop?" or "Which shops did they go to?" (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014, p. 20) can involve learners, allow them to join in and build confidence in their abilities as an English speaker.

Listening to the story can also lead on to speaking activities after the listening phase is complete. The post-listening phase of the storytelling methodology lends itself well to the introduction of a speaking activity based on the story, such as a short dialogue or role play of the story. Suggested speaking activities might also include "look, listen and repeat" (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014, p. 30) activities which assist learners with remembering vocabulary and pronouncing words. "Listen and participate" with repeated key words and phrases from the story when they appear, "dramatisation activities", "role play activities", "questionnaires and surveys" relating to learners' story preferences (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014, p. 30).

Hughes (2006) argues that stories can be used to help develop all four language skills and in addition

> to introduce, recycle, and re-use vocabulary and structures and make them meaningful and memorable through the story context (A. Hughes, 2006, p. 153).

As the development of listening and speaking skills is the focus of this project, this section investigated the ways in which picturebooks can help learners to develop those skills. The next section discusses the selection of appropriate picturebooks for the primary EFL classroom. This is an important aspect of this project because suitable picturebooks had to be chosen for the intervention.

Choosing Appropriate Picturebooks for EFL Lessons

There is a very wide range of picturebooks available and therefore, it is possible to find stories which appeal to learners, and which they will enjoy. Laliena and colleagues (2022) argue that

> The selection of teaching materials is one of the cornerstones in the field of foreign language teaching and research (Laliena et al., 2022, p. 342).

Therefore, the choice of materials is important in the teaching of young EFL learners. However, despite the enormous choice of picturebooks available, in FL classrooms teachers most often choose to use the textbook (X. Zhang, 2020). This may be because teachers believe

literature designed for native speakers to be too difficult for EFL learners (Daugaard & Johansen, 2014; Torrano Guillamón et al., 2019). They may not know how to choose interesting and cognitively appropriate materials (Torrano Guillamón et al., 2019). Bland (2023) also notes that teachers often find it difficult to choose appropriate books for their classes.

There is some disagreement over what is an appropriate choice of picturebook for the EFL classroom (Laliena et al., 2022). The disagreement is caused by a difference in opinions on what the goal of using literature with EFL learners is or should be. The goals may include the development of literacy skills (Hestetraeet, 2022; Mourão, 2015), literary competence (Bland, 2013), cognitive development (Kümmerling-Meibauer & Meibauer, 2022) and FL language acquisition (Hestetraeet, 2022). However, it seems that not every lesson should or must have the same goal.

Research on teacher's beliefs in regards to the choice of appropriate literature for the EFL classroom and the appropriate level of cognitive challenge, showed that teachers thought that children's literature should allow opportunities to work on "specific language content" (Laliena et al., 2022, p. 343) and allow work to be done on "language production and interaction". Teachers thought that using children's literature in EFL lessons was valuable, but they thought that the choice of book needed to be carefully considered. The four teachers who were interviewed in Laliena and colleague's study (2022) were experienced teachers who used literature regularly in EFL classes. They had all been teaching for more than ten years (Laliena et al., 2022, p. 343). The teachers thought that books chosen should be based on the syllabus. Younger learners should have shorter books with more repetition and more pictures in relation to the amount of text. Scaffolding was necessary and important when using literature with EFL learners because they perceived it to be challenging for learners (Laliena et al., 2022, p. 343).

Guidance on choosing appropriate picturebooks for young EFL learners varies widely and perhaps depends on what authors believe to be the learning goal in picturebook lessons. Mourão (2015) argues that picturebooks which include a "complex picture-word dynamic" (Mourão, 2015, p. 203) such as "*Yo! Yes*" (p.205) and "*Wolves*" (p. 208) offer opportunities for learners to use the language as the pictures can be interpreted by learners and their thoughts expressed.

Picturebooks can be chosen for the features that they contain so that the picturebook becomes an "object of discovery" (Mourão, 2014, p. 71). Three books (*Just like Jasper, Good Night Gorilla and Rosie's Walk*) (Mourão, 2014, p. 71) were chosen for preschool learners to

explore the peritextual features. Mourão found that learners shared their opinions in their first language which enabled them to

> expand[ed] their L2 language and literacy skills as well as enhance[d] their cognitive and aesthetic development (Mourão, 2014, p. 71)

The age and language learning level of learners and the goals for the picturebook session should be a consideration in the choice of a suitable picturebook for EFL learners. Böttger (2020) argues that there are three important key aspects to consider when choosing a storybook for the primary school EFL classroom: the content, the language level and the layout of the book (Böttger, 2020a, p. 119). The contents of the story should lie within young learners' experience. The security of that which is well known, helps to produce self-confidence amongst learners and affects understanding in English. An age-appropriate story which is representative of English-speaking culture should encourage learners to use their imagination and be funny. If possible, a memorable story which includes suitable repetition should be chosen (Böttger, 2020a, p. 119).

The language level of the story should be appropriate in terms of vocabulary and structures (Böttger, 2020a, p. 119). Stories which include well known vocabulary and short phrases help the storyteller to tell the story fluently. The presence of rhyme and rhythm help learners when they join in and in turn allows for the practice and improvement of the ability to imitate and pronounce the language. Repeated structures or sentences make it possible for learners to join in and to listen and follow the story. Preferably the visual layout of the book and the pictures should be colourful, attractive and big so that the whole class can see them when they are sitting in a circle (Böttger, 2020a, p. 119). Encouraging learners to be confident in their handling of materials in a foreign language and to develop "positive attitudes" (Browne, 1998, p. 18) towards learning is key to success. A belief in one's ability to succeed often leads to further success in subsequent attempts to complete a task (Ommundsen, 2022).

If the class does not have to follow a curriculum, the teacher may choose storybooks that they and the learners like and develop these into their own curriculum (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014). However, if a curriculum set out by the government is being followed, which may be the case in many EFL teaching contexts (Laliena et al., 2022; Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016), a picturebook may be chosen which relates to the course of studies that learners are following. At the end of a teaching unit, a story may be chosen which reinforces what learners have just covered. In addition, the wide variety of picturebooks

available means that it is possible to find a picturebook on most topics. Teachers may also want to consider the current language teaching goals, including for example vocabulary or grammar (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014; Wright, 2008). Teachers interviewed by Laliena and colleagues (2022)

> believed that the syllabus is necessary as it selects books according to their suitability for practising the specific vocabulary and grammar associated with each work unit (Laliena et al., 2022, p. 343).

A book which includes some of the language that has just been covered in a curriculum topic may be chosen to provide opportunities for the reinforcement of chunks of language or vocabulary (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014). In this way, the use of picturebooks to support curriculum goals can enhance learners' experiences and knowledge of a topic.

When choosing a book to use with an EFL class, the language level of the text is often a concern for teachers (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014; Laliena et al., 2022).

> Because authentic storybooks are not specifically written for foreign language learners, it is difficult to give definitive indications for the level of each book (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014, p. 10).

Picturebooks are written with native speaker children in mind. Therefore, they are not specifically written for EFL learners (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014). One consideration when choosing an appropriate story for the EFL classroom is to try to find a balance between the language demands of the story and the suitability of the topic for the age group in question. Reckermann (2018) argues that we do not really know which picturebooks are best (Reckermann, 2018). Perhaps having a specific group of learners in mind is helpful when choosing a picturebook. However, learners in primary school can vary widely (Barucki et al., 2015) meaning that any book may be too easy or difficult for some learners in a group. Due to the linguistic demands of a picturebook written in English, EFL learners will however, often accept stories which they might not be interested in in their native language (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2002; Wright, 2008). Daugaard and Johansen (2014) argue that a mixture of simpler and more challenging books would be best, to develop not just learners' language and comprehension skills but also literary and cognitive skills as well. Choosing a mixture of easier and more challenging books may also be helpful in a mixed-ability class where learners have reached different stages.

In terms of deciding if the language in a book is appropriate for learners, Bland (2023) offers some guidance. She argues that the language in the story should challenge learners beyond their present language level, but it should not be too challenging. She refers to Krashen's acquisition hypothesis for deciding on an appropriate level as "i+1", meaning that the language should be just slightly beyond what learners are already capable of (Bland, 2023, p. 58). The total number of unknown or new words in a story should not be too high or the story won't be understood (Cameron, 2001). The number of new words is unclear however, because it depends on the other sources of support for meaning that are available to learners, such as the pictures. According to Nation (2022), learners need to know about 95% of the words in an "informal spoken" text in order to be able to understand it and to be able to guess from context (Nation, 2022, p. 156). Even higher coverage (98%) is needed to understand academic texts (Nation, 2022, p. 156).

The length of the picturebook is another important feature to consider. A longer story requires learners to concentrate for a longer time. Considering the learners ability to concentrate can help to guide teachers towards a suitable story (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2002). Younger learners may not be able to concentrate for as long as older learners, although it depends on the learner. Knowing the learners well and knowing how long they can concentrate for helps in making a suitable choice of picturebook.

> Real success depends on having the right story for the linguistic and conceptual level of the children (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2002, p. 189).

Stories that contain a balance of narrative and dialogue are helpful because the dialogue passages can be acted out and used in conversations (Cameron, 2001). In addition, narrative passages often include repetition which learners can join in with once they have become familiar with them.

It is difficult to divide picturebooks into levels of difficulty because different features of different picturebooks may counterbalance one another (Reckermann, 2018). One picturebook may include more complicated language structures but a lot of repetition and pictures that match the meaning of the text. Whereas another picturebook may contain simpler language but not have pictures that match the text. Ellis and Brewster (2014) recommend checking the story carefully before reading it to the class and adapting it if necessary. This could include swapping some tricky words for simpler words, checking how many different grammar tenses are

included and reducing the number or shortening and simplifying the story if it is very long and complicated. However, if stories are altered too much

> there is a danger of losing some of their magic. However, this magic may also be lost if the language is too advanced for children to follow (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014, p. 10).

Adaption of the story should be done with care so as not to spoil it. Reckermann (2018) argues that rhyming language in a story should be kept as this element makes the story appealing and memorable for learners.

> Realistic expectations and suitable tasks can make adaption of a picture book unnecessary (Reckermann, 2018, p. 153).

Similarly, Wright (2008) argues that any story can be used in a variety of

> different ways and at a variety of language levels (Wright, 2008, p. 8).

Reckermann (2018) analysed and chose picturebooks used in a reading study with young bilingual learners with the help of an online tool called "Lextutor" (Reckermann, 2018, p. 258). The tool compared the text of the books to an oral corpus of words used often by children and performed a word frequency analysis. An oral corpus was used because there is no written corpus which is easily available to researchers (Reckermann, 2018, p. 258).

Features of the picturebook which could contribute to the difficulty of the text include the "lexical density" (Reckermann, 2018, p. 258) and how well learners already know the words that are present in a text. If the text contains a high level of unknown words, it will be more difficult for learners than a text which contains fewer unfamiliar words. The number of words and different types of words present, also known as tokens and token type, affect the complexity of the text. The higher the number of types, the greater the token-type ratio is and the greater the complexity of the text (Reckermann, 2018, p. 258).

In order for learners to acquire vocabulary from a story, they need to be able to understand the story (Nation, 2022). The amount of vocabulary that learners learn is dependent on the amount of unknown vocabulary that the text contains, the amount of support provided from scaffolding (pictures and the teacher for example), the learners' background knowledge and "the forms and meanings of the words themselves" (Nation, 2022, p. 163).

The length of sentences and the presence of repetition or rhyme also affect the difficulty of a picturebook (Reckermann, 2018). The shorter the sentences are, the easier they are for

learners to understand. The tenses that are used in the text also affect the difficulty level. In primary school, the present simple and continuous and the past tense are thought to be manageable for young EFL learners (Cameron, 2001, p. 166).

Choosing a story which is interesting and enjoyable for learners is key to the success of any lesson planned around a picturebook according to Ellis and Brewster (2002). They provide criteria for selecting storybooks which take "linguistic, psychological, cognitive, social and cultural" aspects into consideration (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2002, pp. 190–191). They recommend that teachers consider the

> vocabulary, literary devices, content, illustrations and layout, educational potential, motivation, values, global issues, language content and potential for follow-up work (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2002, p. 191).

In particular the language contained in the chosen story should be an appropriate level for learners i.e. challenging enough, but not too challenging, containing elements of

> repetition, rhythm, rhyme, dialogue and narrative, questions, humour, predictability and surprise, onomatopoeia, alliteration, metaphors and similes (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2002, p. 191).

In addition, the language should also be representative of the culture that the story is portraying, but nevertheless still be understandable for the learners (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2002). Reading the chosen picture book carefully and considering the points mentioned above before making a final choice is essential.

The images in a picturebooks can offer support for understanding (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014). Reading the pictures can enable learners to develop their visual literacy skills. Ellis and Brewster (2014) argue that this is an important skill in our global world. However, some picturebooks have a complex interplay between the text and pictures which may increase the level of cognitive challenge for learners (Ommundsen, 2022). Reckermann (2018) analysed the number of words there were on each page of the books and the correlation between meaning in words and pictures (%) to establish the difficulty of the chosen texts for learners to read to themselves in her study on reading picturebooks. How closely the pictures match the meaning of the text affects learners' understanding. Pictures which are congruent to the meaning of the words in the text make the story easier for learners to understand (Reckermann, 2018).

Research by Laliena and colleague's (2022) suggests that teachers hold several beliefs regarding the characteristics of the pictures in picturebooks. In their research on teachers' beliefs, teachers said that they thought that in EFL teaching the pictures in a picturebook should "favour understanding of the text" (Laliena et al., 2022, p. 344). They preferred a "symmetrical picture-text relationship" (Laliena et al., 2022, p. 344). They thought that pictures and text "should work together to create meaning" (Laliena et al., 2022, p. 344). These beliefs led them to choose texts with pictures that matched their expectations.

A conclusion drawn by Laliena and colleagues (2022), was that teachers needed training on the use of picturebooks to enable them to "combine both simple and cognitively complex picturebooks" (Laliena et al., 2022, p. 346) in EFL classrooms. This would enable them to use picturebooks for multiple purposes (Bland, 2013). The need for training was echoed by the teachers in Ørås' (2025) study in Norway. The study suggests that teachers need to be trained in the use of picturebooks in EFL teaching and in "inclusive language instruction" (Ørås, 2025, p. 94).

This section discussed the considerations that may be made when choosing picturebooks for use with young EFL learners in the classroom. Teachers' beliefs and preferences in the choice of picturebook were also considered. The following section extends the investigation of appropriate picturebooks for EFL purposes further, by considering whether picturebooks for dramatisation purposes need to fulfil the same criteria.

Choosing Appropriate Picturebooks for Dramatisation Purposes

As discussed previously, it is helpful to consider the purpose of the picturebook in an EFL lesson. The picturebooks chosen for this project were dramatised with EFL learners. This influenced the choice of picturebooks to some extent, although the points discussed in the previous section (on choosing appropriate picturebooks for EFL lessons) were also considered. Drama activities are often based on literature which provides a context for the drama (Tselikas, 1999). There are several different types of texts that could be chosen for drama with young EFL learners in Baden-Württemberg which are discussed in this section.

As mentioned earlier, it is unknown exactly which picturebooks are best for young EFL learners (Reckermann, 2018). There are many factors that may influence a teacher's choice. The same is true for dramatisation with young EFL learners. Chang (2009) poses several questions in relation to the choice of book for dramatisation at the end of her thesis. She suggests that much more research needs to be done on this question. For example, she questions whether

there is a relationship "between story types and children's performance in class" (Chang, 2009, p. 333) or if learners have different responses to stories that they know or don't know. She also questions whether certain stories are more suitable for older or younger learners. These are good questions which in the intervening years have still not been definitively answered. In this project, the school curriculum had a strong influence on the choice of picturebooks for dramatisation. Although the researcher also considered the learners' enjoyment of the stories and the age and language learning ability of the learners. The fact that the learners were mixed ability also played a role in the choice.

In primary school in Germany, picturebooks and textbooks which follow the curriculum are used in English lessons. Other texts mentioned in the Baden-Württemberg curriculum are stories, rhymes, post cards and letters (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016, p. 18). These could also potentially provide a context for drama activities in the primary school English classroom.

Textbooks could also be used for drama activities (Elis, 2023; Jelic, 2012). Sometimes textbooks even provide instructions for learners to do drama activities (Elis, 2015). However, in an investigation of textbooks, Elis (2015) found that often the drama activities contained within them lack the context needed for learners to do drama. Elis found that textbooks often just say "Now act out the dialogue" (Elis, 2015, p. 89), making doing drama a challenge for learners. Preparations for staging the drama are often absent from textbooks. Therefore, it seems that having a context to base the drama on is helpful for learners.

According to Tselikas (1999), literary texts including dramatic, lyrical and epic texts lend themselves particularly well to drama activities (Tselikas, 1999, p. 121). In drama the actors can take on a persona and portray the characters in a story, speaking their words. Alternatively, a story or poem can be dramatized in an interpretive manner so that the actors' actions don't necessarily follow the text exactly but rather interpret or illustrate the text. Surkamp and Nünning (2016) argue that a text used as a basis for drama should not just be used for purely pedagogic purposes for example, for specific language goals, but rather learners should interpret the text. Performing arts always involve a certain level of interpretation (Surkamp & Nünning, 2016, p. 181). According to Tselikas (1999) learners can experience the text holistically and sensually in drama work. They can use their creative and artistic talents and often surprise the teacher with what they produce (Tselikas, 1999, p. 121).

As discussed in the previous section, there are a very wide variety of picturebooks available which offer teachers a lot of choice. Picturebooks can also be selected and used for different purposes. Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, (2014)

> postulate[d] that the communicative wealth of the picture book would represent a solid, productive base from which to imagine drama activities aimed at initiating children into a foreign language (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014, p. 14).

A carefully chosen picturebook which provides a context through a combination of pictures and a story, may make the staging of drama for young EFL learners easier because the context is already provided.

The way that a story is going to be used in a lesson will affect the choice of the story (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2002). This is important to consider when searching for picturebooks for dramatisation purposes. Picturebooks were not intended for dramatisation and therefore, not specifically written for that purpose (Winston, 2022). However, Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, (2014) argue that some picturebooks contain elements of theatre and consequently are already theatrical in their own right either "indexically", "iconically" or "symbolically" (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014, p. 18). For example, the theatre may be present in the picturebook "iconically" if it shows "a theatre or play" for example, "*The Gruffalo Pop-up Theatre Book*". Theatre techniques may be present in the book "indexically" through the use of "puppets" (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014, p. 18), for example, or the picturebook may "symbolically" represent the theatre if "the books become an imaginary stage" (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014, p. 19).

However, not every picturebook has these qualities. There are many other very good picturebooks that have excellent illustrations, a strong message about world issues or that contain cultural, historical or social information (PEPELT, 2021), that may nevertheless not be suitable for dramatisation in the EFL classroom. For example, some stories contain content which may be challenging or disturbing for learners who are nine or ten years old. For example, picturebooks about war. In addition, the teacher may decide that some stories are best avoided with certain age groups of learners. For example, *The Emperor's New Clothes* which is a traditional story, has a main character, The Emperor, who is not wearing any clothes for most of the story. Although this may be sensitively and age-appropriately handled in a picturebook for young children, a teacher may decide that a different story would be more suitable or easier to dramatise with a class of nine- and ten-year-olds.

Winston (2022) argues that the most important criterion for choosing a suitable story is that it will appeal to learners. Teachers should prioritize learners' enjoyment of the story.

> Rather than starting from what the teacher thinks is good for children, we need to prioritize stories that will appeal to children's imaginations and satisfy their aesthetic preferences (Winston, 2022, p. 46).

Therefore, he argues that teachers should not choose stories for dramatisation based on "incorporating moral education" or "meeting language objectives" with learners (Winston, 2022, p. 46). However, Winston (2022) admits that the language contained in the story may be a consideration for language teachers. In contexts where learners have only been learning English for a short while, the teacher may consider the difficulty of the language contained in the text when choosing a picturebook for dramatisation. Baden-Württemberg, Germany is one example of such a context in which learners who have just entered the fourth class have only been learning English for a year and have had two 45-minute lessons per week. As a result, English teachers may consider both the enjoyment of learners and the difficulty of the language in a picturebook when they are choosing appropriate stories for dramatisation. If learners are going to use some of the vocabulary from the book in the drama activities, or if it is essential for learners to have understood the plot to be able to participate in the drama, the language is certainly a consideration.

A beginner learner's receptive vocabulary, the words that they recognise, is relatively small, which means that their productive vocabulary, the words that they are able to actively use, is even smaller (Nation, 2022). Young learners' receptive vocabulary knowledge is ten times as big as their productive knowledge (Böttger, 2020a, p. 94). Therefore,

> certainly, for the beginning stages of listening and speaking, it is important to work out a manageable list of items (Nation, 2022, p. 175).

Nation, (2022) recommends consulting "range and frequency-based lists" for "multi-word units" as "a useful guide to what will give the best return for learning" (Nation, 2022, p. 433).

High frequency words that are used often in everyday language and relate to children's culture (Böttger, 2020a, p. 95) are a good choice because they are significant to learners and are likely to be remembered. In addition, international words, words with intercultural significance, words that are similar to words in the learners' first language, false friends, words which can be

organised into a word web and rhyming words, for example, are also good choices (Böttger, 2020a, p. 95).

Consideration of the kind of language that is interesting, relevant and useful for young learners for communication is key. This is the vocabulary which is most likely to be best remembered by learners (Böttger, 2020a, p. 95). Therefore, the search for picturebooks which are interesting for learners but also contain language which is useful for them to know and to be able to use is meaningful.

When considering the choice of picture book for dramatisation, teachers may also want to consider learners' experience with drama activities. Learners who have had no experience of drama previously must cope with a new learning format, drama, and a foreign language simultaneously. This factor may influence a teacher's choice of picturebook on which to base the drama. It must be possible for the teacher to think of appropriate and meaningful ways to dramatise the story with their learners. As with a picturebook for storytelling purposes, it is a good idea for the teacher to choose a story that they feel comfortable and confident about dramatising. This is also true when choosing a story to read to the class (Wright, 2008). The storytelling or dramatisation will be more successful if the teacher likes the story and feels confident about using it in class.

If learners are to use some of the language from the story productively in short drama activities or as part of a simple script, then they need to understand the meaning of the language and be able to pronounce the words. Consideration of the language which will be passively processed or actively used by learners is therefore, necessary (Böttger, 2020a). Consequently, stories that contain a large amount of unknown vocabulary or language that is difficult to pronounce, may make dramatising the story difficult for learners who have not been learning English for very long. The choice of story in relation to linguistic considerations is key to a successful dramatisation with young learners.

In a recently published book by Winston, (2022), the dramatisation of a collection of different stories, including some traditional stories and some picturebooks are described. The description provides helpful examples of the dramatisation of storybooks with young learners. The project developed a drama curriculum to support English teaching with young learners between the ages of three and seven in a bilingual Kindergarten in Taiwan (Winston, 2022, p. 1). Because the learners in this context were in a bilingual educational setting and had begun learning English early, some of the examples of stories that were dramatised may provide ideas

for other similar educational contexts where learners are older but have not had as much exposure to the English language. Some stories that were suggested in the bi-lingual Taiwanese Kindergarten context were a Ladybird version of "*The Little Red Hen*" (Winston, 2022, p. 105), "*Goldilocks and the Three Bears*" (Winston, 2022, p. 129), "*The opposite*" by Tom McRae and Elena Odriozola (Winston, 2022, p. 134) and "*The Shopping Basket*" by John Burningham (Winston, 2022, p. 157).

Goldilocks and the Three Bears is also a story recommended as a good choice for TPR activities because it contains repeated language patterns (Nunan, 2011, p. 70). Another traditional tale, *The Enormous Turnip* is recommended for dramatisation by several authors due to the repetition contained within the story (A. Hughes, 2006; Weier, 2008). Both stories also have a plot which is easy for learners to follow. For these reasons, both these stories were used in this project.

Drama based on picturebooks should be developed for the educational context in which it is going to be implemented, taking into account the curriculum, the teacher's wishes and the learners' linguistic and cognitive development. In educational settings in which picturebook dramatisation is to be used in English lessons, it may also be necessary for teachers to consider curriculum goals set for the learners. The wishes of stakeholders such as education authorities, headteachers and parents also need to be considered. How closely a teacher must adhere to the curriculum, may influence their choice of picturebook to dramatise with learners.

This section considered the choice of picturebook for dramatisation purposes in the EFL classroom. Factors such as the curriculum requirements, pupil and teacher preferences, the potential for dramatisation and the ease of understanding and pronounceability of the vocabulary in the stories were considered. The next section explores meaningful ways in which picturebooks could be dramatised in the primary EFL classroom to develop oral skills.

Dramatising Picturebooks to Develop Oral Skills

The following section discusses the different ways in which picturebooks can be dramatised with young EFL learners to develop oral skills. There are several ways that could be used (Chang, 2009; Jeffries, 2017; Phillips, 1999; Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014; Winston, 2022). One of several foci for the drama could be chosen. One possibility is that the story line or plot could be dramatised (Urban, 2007). This could involve sticking closely to the storyline or just dramatising elements of the story with activities which for example, focused on the emotions of the characters (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014; Winston, 2022).

Alternatively, shorter drama activities could be chosen that fit to the story (Phillips, 1999). The choice might depend on the length of the story and the language level and age of the EFL learners. Limited time available during the lesson could also play a role in the choice of drama activities (Holden, 1981).

The concentration span of the learners might also be taken into consideration when choosing the drama activities (Winston, 2022). Young beginner drama participants whose EFL language skills are not yet very advanced may find it difficult to join in with long drama activities that require a high level of concentration. Instead, learners could start with shorter less complicated activities. The difficulty of the activities could be gradually increased as learners become accustomed to doing drama (Tselikas, 1999) and their ability to concentrate for longer increases.

There is no set formula for dramatising a picturebook. The examples that were identified in the research for this project were carried out in different contexts and different methods were used for the dramatisations. When dramatising a picturebook or story, it is helpful to read the story to learners several times whilst working on it in the lessons (Winston, 2022). This helps learners become increasingly familiar with the story.

Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec (2014) describe the process that they followed to dramatise two picturebooks "*Crafty Chameleon*" and "*A Bit Lost*" with 10-12 year old learners in English and Spanish (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014, p. 23). They describe how the teacher firstly, decided how to tell the story and chose the linguistic goals to be covered. Next, a decision on how the characters in the story would be portrayed was made, drama techniques were used with learners to explore the emotions of the characters, some actions for telling the story together and stage interactions were practised. Finally, costumes and props were chosen. Written language practice activities which matched the curriculum were created and some time for talking about any problems with learners in their native language was set aside (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014, pp. 23–25).

Winston (2022) gives several examples of how stories and picturebooks can be dramatised. The "Schemes of Learning" provided in the book *Performative Language Teaching in Early Education* are divided into a series of sessions. The unit also includes a section on "specific language objectives" (Winston, 2022, p. 135) which includes "lexical chunks", language "to revise and practise" and the "competences" which will be acquired. There is a list of resources needed for the unit. In the example provided for the picturebook "*The Opposite*" by

Tom MacRae and Elena Odriozola, each session includes several different activities organised around the story. The first session begins with two drama activities which introduce and practise some adjectives from the story. Then the book is introduced by looking at and discussing the front cover, reading and discussing through the help of teacher's questioning e.g. asking questions about the front cover of the book. Then the learners learn a song about *The Opposite*. Finally, the story is read again. In each session there are a mixture of different kinds of activities relating to the story which create variety and allow the learners to join in. The activities revolve around the language in the story, the characters and their feelings and actions. They also include creative making activities and learning new songs. For each story, the units vary, but they are always closely related to the specific features of the story e.g. the language, the characters. In the example of *The Opposite*, the unit ends with a short performance of the story narrated by the teacher, assisted by the learners through sound effects, doing the actions and some lines spoken in chorus (Winston, 2022, p. 142).

Elis (2023) describes the dramatisation of the picturebook *Giraffe's can't Dance* with nine- and ten-year-olds in Germany (Elis, 2023, p. 185). The teacher read the book to the learners. Then some sections of the text were repeated altogether in chorus. Next, learners read a script of the story aloud in small groups to the class teacher, an assistant and the researcher. The script provided the basis for the dramatisation of the picturebook. Then learners were given a worksheet and were asked to copy-up what each of the animals in the story said. Then learners thought of ideas and wrote what they could say to the giraffe in the story (Elis, 2023, p. 185).

Some creativity on the part of the teacher is needed to dramatise the picturebook suitably for their class. It is essential to think about the goal of the lesson, how big the group is, the type and level of learner and what the learners should learn (Tselikas, 1999, p. 52). Decisions about the choice of drama activities depends upon the goal for the lesson and the lesson theme (Tselikas, 1999, p. 53). Therefore, it is helpful to have a collection of drama activities that one is familiar with and to know how demanding the activities are for learners of a particular age group. The drama activities can then be gradually introduced to lessons and can increase in difficulty as learners become more confident and more experienced at using drama. Tselikas (1999) says that it is advisable to build up the drama step-by-step so as not to over or under-challenge learners (Tselikas, 1999, p. 53). Each lesson should contain a drama experience but the whole lesson does not have to be spent doing drama. Some exercises could be completed within a defined timeframe. Others could happen as a sequence over several sessions (Tselikas, 1999, p. 54).

To dramatise a picturebook successfully, learners need to be able to follow and understand the story plot. “Unscripted drama” (Bland, 2015a, p. 228) activities can be chosen to help learners. One example of an unscripted activity which can help learners to follow the story plot is “The Whoosh” (Winston, 2022, p. 78) in which the learners form a circle, the teacher narrates the story and the learners take it in turns to act out the characters as the teacher reads. This activity also provides plenty of opportunities for learners to practise listening and interpreting the characters without necessarily having to say anything. However, they could join in with repeated phrases from the story if they would like to.

Drama games such as “Stop, Go, Show me” (Winston, 2022, p. 70) can be used to help learners to practise doing appropriate actions with their whole body, miming, or for interpretation practice, for helping learners to listen, and remember vocabulary and phrases.

> When people think of drama, they often think that it will be based on a script.
>
> Working from a printed text is probably what most people think of when one mentions “doing drama” but, paradoxically, it is in fact extremely hard to do [in EFL] (Holden, 1981, p. 59)

This is partly due to the fact that when learners are working with a text, there is the temptation to focus heavily on the words and to forget about the interpretation, the way that we are moving or the way that our character speaks (Holden, 1981, p. 59). In addition, the actor must “understand the thought processes” of the writer of the text and the character that they are playing (Holden, 1981, p. 59). The alternative to using a text is to improvise. Improvisation requires language learners to have a certain amount of foreign language knowledge to be able to convey the thoughts, desires or feelings of their character. As “free speaking” is the last stage after imitation” and “reproduction” that young EFL learners reach as their speaking skills are developing (Böttger, 2020a, p. 63), some learners may find it difficult to improvise. Bland (2007) argues that:

> Most improvised drama, including unscripted role-plays, is beyond the reach of primary school learners with their small number of hours of English (Bland, 2007, p. 8).

Therefore, with beginner learners, it may be necessary when doing short role play or acting out activities, to provide some scaffolding to help learners to speak. This could be done by writing short phrases on the blackboard or by providing learners with a short script or written prompts.

It is hard to find suitable ready-made scripts for young EFL learners (Bland, 2022a). The teacher may have to write a short script based around the picturebook text which is age appropriate and fits the learners' ability. The responsibility for speaking can be spread amongst EFL learners so that the responsibility for speaking is shared (Bland, 2022a, p. 275). Therefore, a script with short "rhythmical" (Bland, 2022a, p. 275) lines and short scenes which is based on a well-known story is best.

There are also several benefits of using a text for drama activities. These include developing an awareness of the close link between words and gestures, preparing learners for "sudden shifts" (Holden, 1981, p. 59) of topic during speech, focusing on relationships between characters and interpreting the meaning of written language. Furthermore, Holden recommends keeping a text for EFL learners short (Holden, 1981, p. 61). It is difficult to hold a text and look at it whilst simultaneously performing appropriate movements. In addition, texts which were written to be read, are not specifically designed to be used for drama purposes and need to be adapted. Appropriate texts for EFL learners are:

> short; contain language which is controlled in some way but yet not arid; focus on topics of genuine interest to the foreign learner; be conceived in terms of communication through both words and movement (Holden, 1981, p. 61).

To gain the most benefit from using a text, learners "should be encouraged to approach it in stages" (Holden, 1981, p. 63) perhaps doing smaller activities related to the text first of all. For example, Holden (1981) suggests discussing the characters or examining particular aspects of a scene. Learners who cannot yet read can be helped over several lessons to become familiar with the "sound patterns and meanings of a script" (Bland, 2015a, p. 224) before they are given the script to look at. This advice was incorporated into the intervention lessons in this project.

Considering the demands of a picturebook dramatisation lesson placed on learners and thinking of ways to balance the demands, may help to support learners whilst they are working. Cameron (2001) mentions the following demands related to task-based learning with young learners. She lists six different types of demands "cognitive, language, interactional, metalinguistic, involvement and physical" (Cameron, 2001, p. 25). When learners work together in a group to develop a sketch or short play, there are several demands placed on them at once. "Cognitive" demands include understanding the task and planning how to do it. "Language demands" include using the language from the story and talking to other members of the drama group in English. "Interactional" demands include interacting in a pair or group and negotiating

to develop a sketch. “Involvement” includes the length of time that learners are required to work at the task. If all these demands are simultaneously high when learners begin picturebook dramatisation, it may be altogether too demanding. Therefore, it is helpful to consider each of these elements and to think of ways to scaffold, support or reduce some of them.

There are a variety of ways that learners can be supported. During the dramatisation process the teacher can plan to read the picturebook to learners more than once (Winston, 2022). The book can be returned to throughout the process of dramatisation so that they become very familiar with the story and the plot. Not only do children enjoy listening to stories, listening multiple times to the story told with expression will help to gradually increase learners’ vocabulary (Winston, 2022). Learners must understand the language that they are using during the dramatisation otherwise the process will be meaningless if learners don’t understand what they are saying. Hearing the story will also help learners to remember the order of events in the story. This may be helpful to them during the dramatisation. It is also helpful to have copies of the picturebook available for learners to look at (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014).

The teacher can also play a supporting role. There are a number of important roles that the teacher fulfils during teaching involving drama (Bland, 2023; Surkamp & Nünning, 2016). The teacher should consider how they will be employed during the dramatisation. Activities may include assisting learners in staging the drama. Firstly, an important role of the teacher is to help the learners to prepare for the drama by helping them to change the text into “play” or to act it out (Surkamp & Nünning, 2016, p. 182). Surkamp and Nünning argue that acting has to be taught to learners so that they can effectively use it in EFL with literature. Teachers may have to give a lot of support with this aspect with young EFL learners, particularly if they have not done drama before. Helping learners to generate ideas or making suggestions of what they could do with their bodies and faces to portray their character effectively during the drama can be planned into the drama sessions.

Breaking the whole drama down into several steps and practising each step separately before putting them together can help young learners to manage the activity. Each step needs time devoted to it at the planning stage of the dramatisation. Phillips (1999) describes the process with the following steps:

Introduce the characters and tell the story

Introduce the dialogue

> Cast and build the characters
>
> Learn the lines and rehearse
>
> Reflect and give feedback
>
> Do the final rehearsal
>
> Organise the props and costumes
>
> Do the performance (Phillips, 1999, p. 81)

Time is needed for each of these steps. However, not all of them must be followed in every dramatisation. Props and costumes can be optional or kept to a minimum if time or resources are limited. Helping learners to manage the script, is also a form of scaffolding as the teacher guides learners through the process of working with a script step by step.

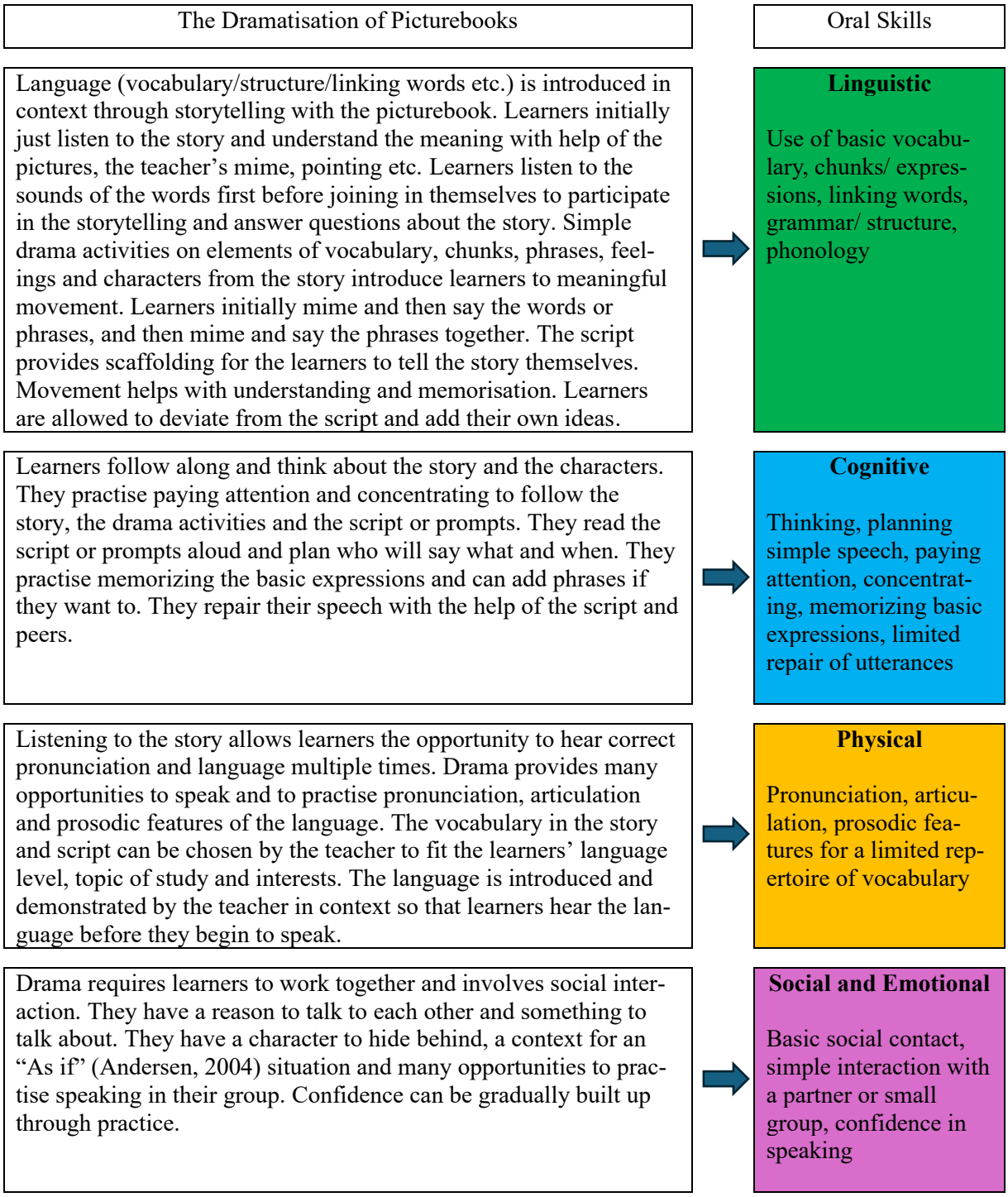
Bland (2015) recommends four steps: First, the learners listen as the teacher recites the script (Bland, 2015a, pp. 225–226). Then the learners take it in turns to echo a line each. Then the class is divided into two groups. Each group takes a character, and the learners rehearse in chorus. Finally, the learners rehearse in pairs and can give a small performance in front of the class if they would like to. This method helps learners to acquire the correct phonology and to gradually remember the words off by heart.

Dramatising a picturebook should also incorporate the methodology for learning through drama in EFL described by Tselikas (1999) which includes a warm-up phase, followed by the main drama phase and a warm-down phase including a reflection (Tselikas, 1999). Once learners are warmed-up, then work on the main drama activity can begin. When the drama is based on a story, the drama warm-up phase can happen once the story has been read to learners during the post-listening phase. Reading the story to learners provides the context for the drama.

Figure 3 below summarises the theory laid out in chapters 1, 2 and 3 of the theory section on oral skills, drama and picturebooks. It aims to show why the proposed intervention should theoretically help learners to improve their oral skills.

Figure 3

How the Dramatisation of Picturebooks Theoretically Develops Oral Skills



This chapter explained the role of picturebooks in the teaching of young EFL learners and how they can be used to help learners to develop their listening and speaking skills. The criteria for choosing appropriate picturebooks for EFL lessons was discussed and then subsequently further extended to include extra criteria for the choosing of picturebooks for

dramatisation teaching units. The following chapter continues with a discussion of how the development of oral skills through the dramatisation of picturebooks can be assessed.

Assessment of Young Learners' Oral Skills in Drama

This section discusses the purposes of assessment and the assessment of oral skills in contexts with young learners. This is followed by a discussion of the considerations when assessing young learners. As this study focuses on the potential for the development of oral skills through the dramatisation of picturebooks, existing studies with young learners are examined to draw on pre-existing knowledge and experience on the topic. This leads into an analysis of the assessment of oral skills in drama in existing interventions with young learners and concludes with a further analysis of how the data collected from those assessments was evaluated.

Assessment in drama is rarely addressed in theoretical works on the subject. There is little published material on

> research-based measures for drama learning that have been shown to be reliable and valid (Peppler et al., 2023, pp. 1–2).

There is also very little information available about "instruments designed for research goals (for example, embedded in experimental designs)" (Haanstra et al., 2015, p. 413). Therefore, drama researchers have tended to develop their own assessment tools. This has particularly been the case at primary school level (Peppler et al., 2023) and can also be seen in the drama studies on oral skills with young learners reviewed in this section.

Assessment carried out in drama has been found to have a wide range of foci including "transfer to non-arts learning", the effects of drama on "child development", on "socioemotional skills", "performance in reading comprehension", "maths", "social studies" and "history" (Peppler et al., 2023, p. 2). Assessment needs to be based on the learning aims of an activity (Haanstra et al., 2015) and needs to be fitted to the activity that is being assessed. Learning in arts subjects is challenging to assess because people have different opinions about what constitutes skill. Standardised tests are uncommon which also makes it challenging to compare results. Therefore, there is a need for the development of reliable and valid assessment methods. This is particularly true at primary school level (Peppler et al., 2023).

The drama assessment tools that do exist rarely discuss how they align with published standards either (Peppler et al., 2023). Observation rubrics which do align with published standards are recommended for reliable assessment for several reasons. They clearly set out

expectations for students and teachers, can be adapted for different assessment purposes and can be used to show change over time e.g. a development in skills (Peppler et al., 2023, p. 2). The assessment carried out in this study was not an assessment of learners' drama skills. If it had been, the researcher could have chosen to use a drama skills rubric for assessing "diction and volume" "movement and gesture", "group coordination" and "stage presence" (Peppler et al., 2023, pp. 3–4) whilst performing, such as the rubric developed by Peppler and colleagues (2023). Instead, this study aimed to assess the effects of dramatisation on oral skills development. Therefore, it aimed to assess learning through drama.

There are no standardized means for assessment of drama or learning transfer through drama on oral skills with young EFL learners known to this author. However, there are practical examples in intervention studies used by other researchers to find out about the development in oral skills made by primary school aged learners through drama (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020; Demircioğlu, 2010; Dragovic, 2019; Kalogirou et al., 2019; Papadopoulos, 2014; Sambanis, 2011). In these cases, researchers borrowed assessment techniques from the sphere of language learning. They either used standardized language tests, or they developed a language assessment to fit the purposes of their research studies.

As assessment is often required in school contexts (Pinter, 2017), if drama is used in school lessons, stakeholders or "anyone affected by the assessment procedure" (McKay, 2005, p. 20) like headteachers, teachers, students and parents may require assessment to be undertaken and the results to be reported. The use of assessment may also potentially strengthen the standing of drama if it is demonstrated that learners are either improving their drama skills or other skills through the use of drama in subject lessons over time (Peppler et al., 2023). Sceptics of drama's benefits in education may be encouraged if positive results can be obtained from drama interventions. Therefore, the search for appropriate assessment methods for the present study is warranted. As drama interventions that focused on the development of oral skills amongst young EFL learners thus far have drawn on existing assessment methods from applied linguistics, those methods for assessing oral skills are reviewed in the following chapter.

Assessment in Educational Contexts

> The main purpose of assessment in education is to
>
> Gather (…) and analyse (…) evidence to make valid inferences about learning and teaching (Papp, 2022, p. 390).

There are principally two kinds of assessment that are often used in school and language learning contexts. These are called formative and summative assessment. These two types of assessment have different purposes which affect their design. Formative assessment is carried out during a course of study and is designed to find out about learners' progress during the course so that the best next steps for learners can be determined. Assessment in the classroom tends to be more focused on "diagnosing learning needs" (Pinter, 2017, p. 144). Therefore, it tends to happen during a course and may take the form of an assessed piece of work, or it may be based on classroom observation of learners' performance. It may be teacher-based or learner-based (e.g. self-assessment). Summative assessment is designed to measure how much progress students have made by the end of a course. It is designed to find out "what they have achieved" (Pinter, 2017, p. 141) at the end of a teaching unit. Summative assessment often takes the form of a test.

Although a test may also promote learning and provide evidence for it, "the primary purpose of tests is to measure" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 19). Tests can provide learners with a mark (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). However, if the mark produced is to be used to make any decisions about learning, then it has to be possible to show how the test "is related to language use in specific situations other than the language test itself" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 10).

Although the information that can be collected is only a sample, information from assessment should be used to answer questions which can advance the learning of learners, questions such as:

> What are the conditions of success as demonstrated by best practices in learning and teaching? (Papp, 2022, p. 390)

Testing and assessment can be used to evaluate the effectiveness of a teaching programme (Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Papp, 2022), to find out if changes need to be made to further improve it.

The choice and design of a test or classroom assessment varies depending on what it aims to assess (the purpose), and on the learners who are being assessed. An assessment for young learners has a different character to a test for adults or adolescents because learners' knowledge and language use differs (Bachman & Palmer, 1996).

To assist in the choice of suitable assessments that fit this study and are suitable for young learners, an evaluation of the methods of assessment discussed in literature related to young learners, and examples from existing studies on the development of learners' oral skills was carried out. Teacher and learner-based assessment are discussed first and then an example of an oral test is given.

Teacher and Learner-based Assessments of Oral Skills

Teacher observation in the classroom can be used to assess learner's performance in speaking tasks. Observation can be done without learners noticing which makes it a very "non-intrusive" (Pinter, 2017, p. 146) method of assessment. It is also possible to observe an individual learner, a pair of learners or group of learners if the goals for observation allow it. Observation lends itself very well to

> checking the performance of non-linguistic skills such as engagement, interest [and] motivation (Pinter, 2017, p. 147).

However, it can also be used to observe linguistic skills such as pronunciation and vocabulary use (Diehr & Frisch, 2008).

There are two kinds of classroom observation, "structured" and "unstructured observation" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 179). In a structured classroom observation, a checklist can be used by the teacher or researcher such as that described by Wragg (1999). The observer observes for a set period of time and records with a tally what they see against pre-chosen categories (Wragg, 1999, p. 37). Structured observation standardises an observation process and allows observations to be compared.

Teachers can also assess the development of learners' oral skills through structured observation of a specific task involving speaking (Diehr & Frisch, 2008). Learners can be given time to prepare a task and then show it to the rest of the class. Depending on the language learning level of the learners, appropriate tasks could be for example, picture talks, presentations on a topic of interest or a creative task, show and tell on an interesting object or an item from a holiday (McKay, 2005). These tasks are all examples of monologic tasks.

Dialogic tasks can also be presented by a pair or group of learners in the classroom. Dialogues and role plays may provide an opportunity for teachers or assessors to observe learners interacting. Teachers may be able to assess the development of learners' oral skills through drama by observing learners' performances in a similar way through the presentation of a short

play, for example. The teacher may choose to make notes freely or develop an observation chart so that they can quickly assess learners' performances against pre-chosen criteria. An observation chart also serves to standardize the observation procedure for every learner.

Diehr and Frisch (2008) advise that when observing learners' speech in classroom settings, the skills needed to complete the task should be introduced and practised with learners over a few sessions before the assessment so that learners are well prepared. The teacher should decide in advance if the task is monologic or dialogic. The assessment should also be well organised. It is recommended that teachers use a pre-prepared form for the observation which has space for the teachers notes and allows the teacher to give a mark from 0-4 for pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and flexibility (Diehr & Frisch, 2008, p. 73). Recording of learners' performances allows teachers to make a more detailed assessment because it gives the teacher the opportunity to listen to the performances more than once. In a spoken assessment, the words that learners say quickly disappear and in a pair performance it is difficult to remember exactly who said what (Diehr & Frisch, 2008).

The final stage is the analysis of the results (Diehr & Frisch, 2008). The observation sheet and the recordings can be assessed together with the help of detailed descriptors. The descriptors should clearly describe what can be expected of learners in the task. The descriptors ensure that the awarding of marks is transparent, fair and provides targeted feedback to learners (Diehr & Frisch, 2008, p. 72).

Observation of learners' oral skills carried out in classroom settings may have some drawbacks though (McKay, 2005). In a group or pair assessment situation, more confident or competent learners may dominate talk in the classroom, meaning that weaker or shyer learners don't have as many opportunities to speak or to show what they are capable of (McKay, 2005). The assessment of oral skills should allow every learner equal opportunity. The observation of learners on several occasions and with a variety of different assessment methods allows teachers or researchers to build up a fuller picture of learners speaking skills.

Unstructured classroom observation can be used when a teacher or researcher would like to generally observe to build up an idea of what is happening (Dörnyei, 2007). Categories for observation can be developed during or after observation and can be subsequently used so that observations become more systematic.

Learner self-assessment can also be successfully employed with young learners and is learner-centred (Pinter, 2017). It allows learners to participate in the assessment process and to

consider their own performance. Learners who are older than eight or nine who have practised self-assessment may be able to assess some elements of their learning themselves. Their ability to accurately perform self-assessment will improve over time (Pinter, 2017, p. 149). In addition, self and peer assessments are "expected to enhance learner autonomy and learning opportunities" (Nikolov & Timpe-Laughlin, 2021, p. 26). However, a challenge of self-assessment is learners' ability to reflect on their own learning. This is easier for older learners than it is for younger learners.

Classroom observation, self, peer and portfolio assessment can be used to assess learners during drama activities. Rothwell (2012) describes a process drama hot seating activity with secondary school learners, based around an immigration scenario. Learners were aboard a ship from Hamburg to Brisbane during a storm (Rothwell, 2012, p. 56). In this situation they spontaneously improvised an informal conversation with the captain (teacher-in-role). The drama provided an opportunity for "anecdotal assessment" (Rothwell, 2012, p. 59) to take place. Rothwell said that not every learner could be assessed in this situation as some learners participated more than others, and she was in role as the captain of the ship. However, the authenticity of the situation made it a good opportunity for assessment of learners' spontaneous speech. It was an example of formative assessment of learners' oral skills in the classroom during drama.

In addition, the same immigration scenario was used to assess a formal conversation between learners. Learners were asked to participate in an immigration entry interview. They were in role and had to answer the immigration officer's questions to provide personal information to gain entry. As in the previous assessment, the language produced by learners was spontaneous, but the situation was a formal conversation. Learners said that they found being assessed in role motivating (Rothwell, 2012, p. 62).

We can see from these two assessment examples of oral skills during drama, that the assessment situations in the classroom depended on the type of speaking (informal or formal). The assessment was formative and in the case of informal speech, "anecdotal". Rothwell (2012) carried out summative assessment on learners' communication through the collection of written work based on the immigration topic (Rothwell, 2012) and not in an oral situation.

These examples show how assessment of oral skills can be performed in the classroom during drama. As learners in this project were younger than those described in Rothwell's (2012) project, the assessment was altered slightly to suit the age group. As the researcher did not know how far learners in primary school would be able to participate in the drama activities

verbally due to their language level, improvisation was not included as one of the activities. However, there were opportunities to observe learners in the classroom during the preparation and showing of their dramatisations. Due to this, classroom observation was included as one strategy for the assessment of learners' oral skills during drama. However, it seemed that there could be some drawbacks to this type of assessment. Rothwell (2012) found that some learners participated more than others in the classroom which affected the ability of the teacher to be able to assess them in this manner. To be fair to everyone (Diehr & Frisch, 2008; Luoma, 2004; McKay, 2005), a more structured oral assessment format was also considered for this research project.

Rothwell (2012) did not attempt to assess learners' oral skills with summative assessment through drama. Instead written samples of work were collected from pupils which assessed communicative skills in a written form (Rothwell, 2012). A written assessment was not possible in the context of this project because young learners in primary school in Germany cannot write very much yet. Therefore, other forms of assessment were explored. Formative and summative assessment provide different types of information (Pinter, 2017). A variety of different assessment methods can help to build up an overall picture of learner's progress.

The following section investigates how summative assessment of oral skills can be implemented orally with young learners. An example from Germany is described. Similar types of assessment were used by some drama researchers to find out about oral skills development through drama (Kalogirou et al., 2019; Papadopoulos, 2014).

Oral Skills Testing with Young EFL Learners in Germany – An Example

Apart from teacher and learner-based assessments, oral assessments can be used to assess speaking skills. In Germany the EVENING test (2009), the BIG test (2015) and the PEAK 1 test (2019) each assessed learners' speaking skills at the end of the fourth class of primary school with an oral test. Each research project was tasked to find out about learners' progress in English at the end of primary school (Barucki et al., 2015; Engel, 2009; Kolb & Legutke, 2019). Each of the tests was similar in that learners were given communicative speaking tasks and were rated with the help of descriptors of speaking skills or rating scales.

In the most recent set of oral tests carried out on fourth class learners in Germany, PEAK 1 (2019), a series of speaking tasks were developed specifically for the test (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019). Initially a needs analysis of learners was carried out. Then test specifications were designed, speaking tasks and rating scales were developed, a trial of the test was

performed, analysis and revision was done, raters were trained, the test was administered and finally post-test analysis was done.

The tasks that were developed for the tests were based on communicative tasks found in literature on speaking (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019). Learners were together in a pair with the researcher for the test. Each question allowed the researchers to assess slightly different aspects of speech. The first question included ice-breaker questions to allow learners to warm-up. These included some questions that required learners to give familiar personal information about themselves. The second part of the test involved a spot the difference task with a partner. Learners were presented with two similar pictures and had to compare them. This task required learners to use descriptive language, to form questions to ask their partner about their pictures and to use prepositions to describe the location of objects for example. As learners were working with a partner, the task also required them to use turn-taking language. A screen separated them so that they could not see their partner's picture.

The final task was a story sequencing task including five pictures which each learner performed individually as a monologue (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019). The story was about a family holiday, a topic which the researchers believed lay within learners' experience. Learners had to "develop a lengthier monologue, narrating the story that the pictures tell" (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019, p. 64). To do this they had to describe various objects, people and places and include information for example, about feelings. The tasks were designed for learners who were approaching A2 level who would be able to produce more detailed and longer descriptions (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019).

To assess learners' performance, "assessments bands" (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019, p. 65) were developed in the form of detailed descriptors. The descriptors consisted of "can" statements which became gradually more demanding in steps. Learners were awarded points (from 0-5) for each category matched closely to the descriptions of their performance. There were five categories of assessment: "vocabulary, structure and coherence, pronunciation, communication and task achievement" (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019, pp. 65–67).

Learners were recorded in the live test and the ratings were given after the test had finished (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019). Before this could be done, the data from the transcript had to be transcribed. The descriptors were then used to give each learner a rating for each of the five categories.

In a subsequent step, the researchers used SPSS to look for significant statistical results (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019, p. 71). Finally, "WordSmith" (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019, p. 71) was used to assess the linguistic content of what learners had said in the test. The total number of words that learners said were counted. German and English words were separated and counted separately. Relationships between different factors were identified for example, the relationship between the number of words produced in total and the score for high achievement (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019, p. 71).

There have been several drama studies that assessed learners' oral skills with a language test. They employed a similar method to that of the PEAK1 test described above. An example was a drama intervention on oral skills with young learners in Greece (Papadopoulos, 2014). The assessment also included a pretest of learners' oral and written skills before the intervention began, which allowed the researcher to gauge if there had been an improvement in oral skills due to the intervention. Learners were given pictures of "pets, hobbies, tourist destinations" (Papadopoulos, 2014, p. 195) to talk about. The criteria that were assessed for speaking were

> Interaction, communicative effectiveness, accuracy and range and complexity (Papadopoulos, 2014, p. 195).

The results that were produced by the experimental intervention with a control and test group was carried out in this case to

> evaluate the efficacy and the potential advantages that can be brought (Papadopoulos, 2014, p. 201) (by the intervention).

This type of assessment allowed the researcher to collect data on the 15 learners in the control group and the 15 learners in the test group in the same way, so that it was possible to compare the before and after results.

The purpose of an assessment may influence the teacher's assessment choices. The purpose for assessment in the present project was to find out about the effects of a drama intervention on the development of learners' oral skills. It was decided that both formative classroom approaches to oral assessment and a summative spoken assessment would be used to gain two different perspectives. Each type of assessment produced a different type of information which allowed the researcher to gain a fuller picture of the effects of the intervention on oral skills. As a formal assessment of young learners' oral skills needs special planning and consideration

(Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Luoma, 2004; McKay, 2005; Nikolov & Timpe-Laughlin, 2021; Papp, 2022), the following section investigates current knowledge on the subject.

Considerations in the Development of Oral Skills Tests with Young Learners

Assessing speaking is difficult because even experienced assessors are biased (R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017). Assessing oral skills is by its very nature subjective because "no two people hear the same thing" (R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017, p. 87). In addition, a speaking test situation is an unnatural situation which must be limited in certain ways e.g. in terms of time. The situation is "very different" (R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017, p. 91) to a conversation that people might have on a daily basis.

Testing young learners speaking skills is challenging, firstly because it is very time consuming (Nikolov & Timpe-Laughlin, 2021). Learners cannot be tested all at once but must be tested individually or in pairs. Testers need special training so that they "can elicit children's best performances" (Nikolov & Timpe-Laughlin, 2021, p. 14). In addition, it is difficult to find the ideal balance in speaking tasks (Diehr & Frisch, 2008). Although there is no perfect test (Bachman & Palmer, 1996), oral tasks for young learners need to be at the right language level, the right cognitive level and the right intellectual level (Diehr & Frisch, 2008) so that learners are able to participate successfully.

If a test is considered the most appropriate way to assess the development of oral skills or certain aspects of oral skills, there are some important aspects to consider. The age and language level of the learners who are going to take the test is important to consider including learners' world knowledge, linguistic knowledge and cognitive development (McKay, 2005). These factors must be considered in the development and administration of a test. Young learners cannot talk about subjects that are outside of their experience. Even if they have had an experience, they may lack the language knowledge to be able to talk about it in English. Even with the help of prompts, young learners won't be able to speak in English if they are lacking world knowledge or the means of verbal expression (Diehr & Frisch, 2008, p. 66). They can be verbally or conceptionally over-challenged by tasks which will prevent them from being able to say anything in English.

Tests should be useful (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). There are six qualities that can help to make a test useful: "reliability, construct validity, authenticity, interactiveness, impact and practicality" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 17). The advantage of commercially available tests is that they have usually been heavily tested by a team of researchers (Papp & Rixon, 2018).

> Existing instruments are internally and externally reliable – in other words, they have produced similar patterns and ranges of scores in many contexts, often over long periods and are considered to provide a high level of validity and reliability (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017, p. 166).

Usually, these tests have been created by a panel of experts and the tests have been rigorously tested (Papp, 2022). Some commercially available tests for young learners that measure "general English language competence" (Papp, 2022, p. 392) are Pearson's test of English for Young Learners and The Cambridge Young Learners test. Both tests have a syllabus which specifies the vocabulary and grammar structures that need to be mastered to pass the test. TOEFL tests are available for young learners in the USA. The TOEFL Junior test measures learners' proficiency level but does not provide learners with a syllabus (Papp, 2022).

Commercial tests for EFL learners usually test the four skills. Reading, writing and listening are usually tested in a written form and speaking is tested with a spoken oral test, either on a one-to-one basis with the examiner or in pairs with one or two examiners (Cambridge Assessment English, 2021). The Cambridge Young Learners test, tests single pre-A1 level learners and A1 level learners with a single examiner. Learners at this level are not expected to be able to interact with a fellow learner yet but a limited level of interaction is expected with the examiner who is a "sympathetic interlocutor" (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 73).

Researchers who are creating their own test, should consider the "construct validity" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 21) of the test. An assessment is thought to be valid if it "is appropriate for its purpose" (Papp, 2022, p. 395). It must be able to justify the interpretation of a score and

> provide evidence that the test score reflects the area(s) of language ability we want to measure, and very little else (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 21).

Does the score received in the test really indicate the ability that we want to measure?

A test should also be reliable. Reliability means that the test produces accurate results (Papp, 2022). This refers to how consistently the test measures. The same test used in a different location or on a different day should produce consistent scores. The score should not be heavily affected by a change in the "characteristics of the testing situation" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 19).

A test should also be authentic, although authenticity is "relative" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 28). Authenticity of test tasks can only be estimated. However, authenticity refers to the extent to which the contents (language and materials) of the test relate to use in the real world. They should relate as closely as possible, as the level of authenticity "affects test takers' perceptions of the test and therefore [also affects] their performance" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 24). The more authentic the test is perceived to be, the more motivating it is likely to be for learners. A test task can however, still be useful even if the authenticity is "relatively less" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 28) if it is suitable for the purpose.

"Interactiveness" in tests also contributes to the usefulness of tests and is defined as:

> the extent and type of involvement of the test taker's individual characteristics in accomplishing a test task (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 25).

This aspect of "interactiveness" is the requirement for learners to interact with the test tasks. This can also only be estimated because learners may react to tasks differently than expected (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). "Interactiveness" is affected by how well learners can apply their knowledge and strategies to the tasks presented to them. The test tasks should encourage or enable learners to interact so that they can demonstrate what they are able to do.

The more closely related a test is to the style of teaching employed in the classroom, the lower the impact will be on teachers and learners. However, there can also be an impact on learners related to the experience they have in preparing for a test, in the feedback that they receive after the test and the possible consequences of taking the test on their future (Bachman & Palmer, 1996).

In addition, another consideration is how practical the test is to administer. The test must be practical in that it is possible to carry out in the chosen setting with the number of candidates who need to take the test (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). The test cannot require more resources than are available. So in planning a test it is important to consider the resources needed (e.g. human, material, time) (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 37).

Bachmann and Palmer (1996) acknowledge the uncertainties expressed by other researchers over whether it is possible to optimise all six qualities of usefulness at once. They agree that there is a tension between the aspects but believe that they complement each other. In test development, attention should be paid to each of the qualities and a balance found. This balance will differ slightly from test to test (Bachman & Palmer, 1996).

However, because tests for young learners should also motivate them to learn English and prepare them to move forward in their studies; it should in no way discourage or de-motivate learners (Papp, 2022). Tests for young learners are not always considered to be totally reliable anyway. Papp says that there are several reasons for this. Tests tend to be designed so that most learners can answer most of the questions. This is so that the test is encouraging for learners and so that learners are not required to concentrate for too long. It also allows for a variety of acceptable answers, in case learners are not unsure what a task requires them to do (Papp, 2022, p. 396).

Face-to-face testing allows an element of flexibility (Hasselgreen & Caudwell, 2016). It can be helpful when working with young learners to be able to take a few more seconds if learners are very keen to tell the researcher or assessor something or are searching for a word. It allows learners to be able to demonstrate what they are capable of. A degree of flexibility also allows every learner to experience some success in the completion of an activity and to get "a sense of progression" (McKay, 2005, p. 14).

> Children need experiences that help them to succeed, to feel good about themselves. These experiences can help them maintain their enthusiasm and creativity (McKay, 2005, p. 14).

However, to produce results which are reliable a certain amount of structure must be included in an oral test (Hasselgreen & Caudwell, 2016). A frequent lack of test reliability amongst tests for young learners is why it is a good idea to use a variety of different assessment methods to assess young learners. The collection of data on their skills on a number of different occasions can help to form a clearer overall picture of their abilities (Papp, 2022, p. 396). Pinter (2017) agrees that "children's knowledge of English is hard to pin down" (Pinter, 2017, p. 145) and that teachers may need to look at a variety of different assessment methods to build up an overall picture of learner's progress.

Good tests for young learners provide "cognitive challenge with the right amount of support" (Papp, 2022, p. 400). They take "learners' cognitive, social and emotional development" (p.400) into account and are a positive experience for learners. Assessment of young learners should be "child-friendly" and compatible with everyday activities (Pinter, 2017, p. 146).

McKay (2005) emphasises the importance of appropriate and motivating tasks in testing situations with young learners (McKay, 2005, p. 23). Motivating tasks are tasks which learners

find interesting, and they encourage learners to join in. The inclusion of games such as guessing games or spot the difference, pictures and elements of humour will help to make the situation more relaxed and more familiar for learners. Familiar topics for young learners also enable them to participate more easily. Because young learners have limited knowledge of the world, they may not be able to respond to questions outside of their experience of the world, even if they have the linguistic knowledge or general ability (McKay, 2005, p. 8). In some situations where learners have a limited amount of linguistic knowledge, there may be some topics that learners won't be able to talk about yet because the vocabulary is not yet familiar to them. Even with a knowledge of chunks of language, learners still need a vocabulary repertoire available to them. For example, to participate in and complete a spot the difference activity to describe the differences between two pictures, learners must know the names of some of the objects in the pictures.

In addition to familiarity of content, familiarity of situation also helps to put learners at ease. A puppet can be used in oral testing situations to make the situation less threatening for learners (Hasselgreen & Caudwell, 2016). Many teachers of young learner classes regularly use puppets in the lesson and children come to know and love them. Learners may be more willing to interact with the puppet because it is familiar to them. Assessment of young learners should take place in a quiet location without a lot of distractions or movement so that they are able to concentrate (McKay, 2005).

The Development of Oral Assessments for Young Learners

When a test is developed, the developers aim is for it to be meaningful and relevant beyond the testing situation (Luoma, 2004). Bachmann and Palmer (1996) stress that:

> If we want to use the scores from a language test to make decisions about individuals or inferences about their language ability, we must be able to demonstrate how performance on that language test is related to language use in specific settings other than the language test itself (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 61)

In order to be able to achieve this, a "conceptual framework" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 61) is needed which takes two aspects into consideration: the "language use tasks and test task" and "the language users or test takers" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 61). However, even if these two aspects are carefully considered, there is no perfect test which suits everyone. However, these principles will assist test developers to create a better test which can help learners to perform to the best of their ability.

As there is a need for a "conceptual framework" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 61), tests are often based on a framework of reference such as the CEFR, on one or several language models such as those discussed in the section on oral skills, or on the learner's curriculum for example, which allow a test result to be interpreted (Luoma, 2004). An initial needs analysis of the testing situation can be carried out to decide on the purpose of the test and an appropriate framework or model, which represents the skills or knowledge that will be tested, can be chosen. Luoma (2004) also says that a theoretical model can be especially created for the purposes of a test. One example of this is the TOEFL (2000) test. The model created for this test

> defines communicative language use in academic contexts (Luoma, 2004, p. 109).

Testers must decide if the test will assess proficiency or specific skills or knowledge taught on a course, for example. Therefore, the process of test development begins with considering and defining "characteristics of the language" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 11) that are used in a particular situation and if a test task requires learners to use those language characteristics. Secondly, the characteristics of test takers need to be considered to establish if those test takers use those language characteristics to complete a task (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). In addition, the knowledge of learners about a particular topic, their feelings towards that topic and their present language ability also need to be considered.

The conclusions drawn from this analysis influence the way that a test is developed. Bachmann and Palmer (1996) also suggest that test developers may choose to

> use a current theory of language ability […] to help identify specific abilities involved (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 11)

in the completion of a task. No test is completely comprehensive, however. In other words a single test cannot test every aspect of speaking skills (Luoma, 2004). The aspects that are to be tested need to be carefully defined and chosen. Developing a set of written test specifications which define the type of speaking that will be tested, how the assessment will be carried out (what kind of tasks) and how the language that is produced will be rated (rating criteria) so that it is fair for all test takers, provides a "definition of the construct assessed in the test" (Luoma, 2004, p. 113).

Big organisations that create language tests often have very detailed test specifications because many different test developers are working on developing the same test (Luoma, 2004). Written test specifications ensure that developers are working towards the same goals.

However, the specifications are often not published or available to the public. Teachers who develop their own class tests may find test specifications helpful because they help to connect the classroom learning objectives to the assessment. They help teachers to decide if the test tasks will test what has been taught in class and will reveal what they hope that their students have learnt.

> Specifications (…) help the developers create a coherent system whose parts fit together (Luoma, 2004, p. 115).

As assessments have the tendency to continuously develop, it is helpful to view test specifications as working documents rather than a fixed document that cannot be changed.

To develop a test which is appropriate for the context, test developers should consider the context in which the test will be taken. Luoma (2004) provides a list of helpful questions that could be considered for this purpose which include considering the institutional context, the examinees, the relationship between the tester and the examinees and considering who will have access to the results (Luoma, 2004, p. 119). Practical testing considerations are also important for example, how will the test be carried out, administered, organised and assessed. In addition, clearly defining the following will help test developers to develop and context appropriate test. Knowledge of the examinees age and language experience will affect the expectations in spoken tasks and the choice and length of tasks. Luoma (2004) asks a series of questions to assist with test development:

> What is ‘speaking’ for these learners, in terms of this test/assessment procedure? (Luoma, 2004, p. 120)
>
> What kinds of tasks should be used in order to get this kind of speaking?
>
> How would you characterise a good/average/poor performance on these tasks?
>
> Is it useful for this assessment to consider speaking as consisting of sub-skills? If so, what?
>
> What other skills does the test-taking require in addition to language?

The tasks that are chosen for an oral test should require learners to produce the type of language which the examiner wants to assess. There are three “main frameworks for defining the construct” of the assessment which can be chosen. These are “linguistically oriented, communication-oriented and situation-based” (Luoma, 2004, p. 162). A linguistically oriented

construct would include tasks which test “vocabulary, grammar” and or “pronunciation”, (Luoma, 2004, p. 162) for example. Learners may have to read a passage from a text aloud so that assessor can hear their pronunciation. A communication-oriented construct will include communicative tasks where candidates interact with each other or the examiner. Situation-based tasks may include tasks where candidates must imagine themselves in a particular situation and decide what they would say in that situation. The three types can also be combined by test designers to test a number of different skills (Luoma, 2004).

Learners may begin an oral test by answering some simple personal questions about themselves which require short answers. These types of questions break learners gently into the testing situation and allow them to produce language that they are relatively familiar with. The types of oral tasks that follow may either be dialogic or monologic. Dialogic tasks require learners to participate in a conversation with a partner. They must listen and respond to their partner appropriately in real time. Monologic tasks require learners to speak on their own for a short time. A monologic task requires some planning of speech so that what is produced is coherent and organised (McKay, 2005).

A common choice in speaking exams is a task involving pictures. A picture or pair of pictures can be chosen on a topic that the candidates know about. After a short prompt to introduce and explain the task, learners can look at the picture and talk about anything in the picture that they choose or if there are two pictures, compare the pictures. The test developer needs to decide if it is important for all the candidates to describe just objects or just people or if a mixture of responses on both topic areas will affect the results of the test or not (Luoma, 2004).

Just providing a learner with one picture makes the task less complicated than providing several pictures (Luoma, 2004). However, as the examiner already knows what is in the picture, the need for the candidate to genuinely communicate is reduced. This is less the case where a pair of partners have two different but similar pictures and must work together to work out what the differences are without looking at their partner’s picture. This type of task creates a more genuine need to communicate. However, it is also a cognitively, linguistically and interactionally more challenging.

It is important when choosing pictures for oral tasks for young learners that the pictures are clearly recognisable. An ambiguous picture could lead to confusion and prevent a learner from being able to say anything because they are not sure what the picture is showing.

Conversely, well-chosen pictures which are clearly verbally introduced can offer learners support. They can help learners to "feel less anxious, drawing them into the task" (McKay, 2005, p. 186).

Sets of pictures that depict a story can be used for narrative description tasks (Luoma, 2004). A task like this provides learners with the opportunity to use storytelling language, language for sequencing events in addition to the language for describing the pictures. However, finding appropriate sequences of pictures is difficult. In particular finding the balance between pictures which are not too difficult for learners to talk about at their language learning level and pictures that provide enough material for learners to talk about is a challenge with picture sequences (Luoma, 2004).

Other oral testing tasks may include comparing and contrasting, explaining and predicting, discussing and reaching a decision, creating a role play or simulation. Not all these types of tasks may be suitable for every group of test takers due to the language or cognitive demands of the task. For example, young language learners may not have developed the language skills or be cognitively advanced enough to explain or predict but may be able to carry out a simple comparison task using very simple language.

If possible it is advisable for newly developed tests to be tested on a small group of similar learners to assess test validity and to provide the opportunity for the test to be adjusted if necessary, before using the test in a "real" situation (Luoma, 2004).

It is helpful if the assessment situation allows the interlocutor to give learners prompts. Pre-prepared prompts provide scaffolding to learners but should be consistent to allow learners access to the same help. This helps to create a fair situation. Pre-prepared prompts which are available to every learner who needs them can help learners to do their best, to "encourage" them and "remind" them of what they know and "keep them on track" (McKay, 2005, p. 10). A little support can also help to engage learners in a task. Assessors should not provide any correction to learners in an assessment situation because this would create inconsistencies (Nikolov & Timpe-Laughlin, 2021) and may also put learners off if they perceive that they have made a mistake.

Tests provide specific information which should be relevant beyond just the context of the testing situation. They should also be appropriate for the type of person being tested. A test is also only useful if it tests what it is designed to test. As tests are not needed in every situation, careful consideration should be given to the choice of assessment to decide if a test is necessary.

The next section examines further drama studies on oral skills with young learners, to find out how the researchers assessed oral skills through drama.

The Assessment of Oral Skills in Drama Interventions with Young Learners

Researchers of drama's effects on young learners' oral skills carried out different kinds of assessments, to investigate the effects of drama interventions. The type of assessment that were chosen depended on the aspects of oral skills the researchers aimed to assess. Each researcher chose to focus on different aspects of oral skills. This may be because oral skills are not clearly defined at the beginner level (see the acquisition of oral skills theory section). However, the researchers chose different forms of assessment depending on the skills that they had decided to assess. As discussed above, the type of assessment chosen must reveal what the researcher wants to find out. Time, opportunity (Nikolov & Timpe-Laughlin, 2021) and "practicality" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 17) are also considerations in the choice of type of assessment. These factors may help to explain the differences in the assessment methods chosen by the researchers. A mixture of EFL assessment strategies or classroom assessment strategies were used to assess developments in oral skills made through drama interventions.

Firstly, assessment in drama studies with bilingual learners, ESL learners and native speaker learners are discussed to evaluate a broader range of assessment types. It is worth noting that bilingual, ESL and native speaker learners are different to EFL learners (Nunan, 2010) because they have a much higher level of exposure to the English language than EFL learners. Therefore, the expectations of them in terms of language outcomes are higher than for EFL learners. This factor contributed to a difference in purpose for the use of drama in teaching. However, the drama studies which were examined by Mages (2008) in a meta-analysis on the effects of creative drama "on oral language outcomes" (Mages, 2008, p. 127) in early childhood with ESL, bilingual and native speaker learners aged between two and seven, employed a range of assessment types. Secondly, drama studies with EFL learners are discussed and the assessment methods employed are analysed.

> In the meta-analysis carried out by Mages (2008), studies included assessments of
>
> oral language proficiency, productive narrative development, story comprehension, story recall and story retelling (Mages, 2008, p. 138).

It was found that a large variety of assessment tools had been used to assess these five different aspects of oral production. To assess language proficiency, "receptive language" was tested with a variety of standardized tests including for example, the "Verbal Expression scale of the Illinois

Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities", (Mages, 2008, p. 138). Examples were also found of studies where the researcher had created their own test to assess specific words that had been introduced during drama activities. In one example, narration of a pictureless book was used to collect language samples from learners. These language samples were then coded to find out how many words were said by learners. In another example, raters observed the learners' speech and gave a rating. Mages notes, that because different assessments were used, it is hard to compare drama studies' effects on language skill development. She also found that studies did not always discuss reliability and validity of the assessment methods used, which makes interpretation of these studies difficult (Mages, 2008, p. 140).

"Narrative development" (Mages, 2008, p. 138), the ability to produce a story orally was assessed with a number of storytelling tools that required learners to produce a narrative. What learners said was subsequently assessed for "sophistication" (Mages, 2008, p. 138). In the case of narrative development, the results are also difficult to compare because the stories were created in different ways, either as the result of storytelling in the curriculum or stories that were prompted in some other way e.g. with picture prompts. The learners had potentially had different amounts of help from adults. This difference makes it difficult to compare the studies (Mages, 2008).

Story comprehension, recall and retelling was reported by Mages (2008) to have often been assessed by researchers to find out if learners were better able to re-tell a story as a result of creative drama work on stories. Again, different assessment strategies were found including picture ordering tasks and gap-fill tasks. Re-telling was tested by asking learners to re-tell the story after the teacher had told it and then comparing what the child had said to the original story (Mages, 2008, p. 139).

The difference in assessment strategies was caused by the desire to assess different aspects of oral skill development, sometimes in relation to specific stories. However, secondly, the learners that were being assessed may have had to be assessed in different ways because they were different ages, meaning that there was also a wide spread of cognitive abilities. The learners were aged between two and seven. Mages (2008) states however, that none of the studies included in the meta-analysis involved learners who were suffering from any learning difficulties (Mages, 2008, p. 144). In addition, no differentiation was made between different types of language learners in Mages' meta-analysis. Bilingual learners, ESL learners, or native speaker learners (Mages, 2008, p. 142) were analysed together.

Literature on the theory of drama with EFL learners discusses the benefits of employing drama strategies, suggests appropriate drama activities to be used with EFL learners, but contains little or no information on what to assess and how to assess learners at the end of a drama teaching unit (Almond, 2005; Baldwin, 2024; Phillips, 1999; Winston, 2022). Therefore, the research studies with primary school aged FL learners that were evaluated in the literature review at the beginning of the thesis, were returned to once more to find out which methods were used for assessment of learners' oral skills development through drama. The goal was to find out what kind of assessment is appropriate with this age group of learners in drama, and how the development of different oral sub-skills through drama activities were assessed by other researchers.

There are two parts to assessment, the collection of results and the analysis of those results (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). This section continues with an investigation of the methods for results collection in drama studies with young learners learning English as a foreign language. A variety of assessment tools were used in the studies with primary school aged FL learners to find out about the development of their oral skills through a drama intervention. The types of assessment included oral assessments (Kalogirou et al., 2019; Papadopoulos, 2014) written assessments (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020; Demircioğlu, 2010; Sambanis, 2011) observation of participants doing drama (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020; Elis, 2023; Papadopoulos, 2014), learner questionnaires (Bland, 2014b; Kalogirou et al., 2019) and interviews with pupils (Bland, 2014b; Kalogirou et al., 2019).

In each of the three studies on vocabulary acquisition through drama (Demircioğlu, 2010; Kalogirou et al., 2019; Sambanis, 2011), the tests carried out were designed by the researchers to test specific vocabulary that had been used during the interventions, to find out how many words learners could remember or re-produce.

Kalogirou et al. (2019) used pre- and post- speaking tests and an additional delayed post-test three weeks after the end of the study (Kalogirou et al., 2019, p. 336) to determine learners' vocabulary gains through the use of a "Vocabulary Acquisition via Drama (VAD)" (Kalogirou et al., 2019, p. 332) intervention. The researchers wanted to find out if learners were able to productively use any of the vocabulary taught through the drama intervention in the post test. The oral test included three different kinds of speaking tests. The first test tested the oral production of 21 vocabulary items. The second part employed pictures and required learners to

express their likes and dislikes using the vocabulary items. The final part required learners to use the vocabulary in a short improvised scene (Kalogirou et al., 2019).

In addition to tests to assess learners, questionnaires, observation and interviews with learners were also used. Kalogirou et al. (2019) asked learners in the drama group to fill in a short questionnaire after their oral tests (Kalogirou et al., 2019). The learners gave feedback on the drama activities and then discussed their answers to the questionnaire questions further with the researchers in an interview. The written feedback and short interview were used to provide qualitative data.

Alasmari & Alshae'el (2020), used a multiple-choice written proficiency pre- and post-test on grammar and vocabulary to assess the change in learners' skills, as a result of an eight week role play and simulation teaching unit (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020). In addition, they also used structured observation of learners' oral interaction patterns, oral fluency and motivation levels in the classroom. Observation checklists were used for this purpose, to assess the development of interaction skills which could not be revealed through a written proficiency test. The observation chart contained four observation categories for their observation of learners' oral fluency, motivation and interaction performances. The test group was observed once a week for eight weeks. The "average" "motivational dimensions" and "communicative dimensions" were rated with a tick against "rich" or "poor", the drama technique, either role play or simulation was indicated and "challenges" observed in the lesson were briefly noted (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020, p. 66). Although not directly stated by the researchers, the change in learners' motivation and communication must have been determined through an analysis of the change in the position of the ticks.

Chang (2009), Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec (2014) and Elis (2023) used observation to assess young learners' oral skills during a drama intervention based or partly based on drama with picturebooks. Chang and Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec recorded their observations in a research diary (Chang, 2009; Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014). Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec also asked learners to fill in a questionnaire about their experiences. Papadopoulos (2014) recorded teacher reflections in a research journal. The researchers used observation to help them to decide if learners' speaking skills had improved (Elis, 2023; Papadopoulos, 2014; Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014).

Bland (2014) used questionnaires to collect data on fourth and fifth class learners who had participated in an interschool drama workshop in which the learners performed a script of

the Pied Piper of Hamlin and gave two performances (Bland, 2014b). The questionnaires were used to collect data on learners' views on the drama that they had participated in. The questionnaires asked learners about their enjoyment levels, if they were able to memorize their words, if they felt that they had become more autonomous and how they felt about their achievement and self-esteem (Bland, 2014b).

Most recently, Elis (2023) used observations to record what she noticed about learners' speaking behaviour during the dramatisation of units from the school textbook and a picture-book. Learners also filled in a questionnaire. The drama project investigated the potential of drama to help provide continuity in the transition from primary to secondary school (Elis, 2023).

Tests were used by researchers to assess changes in aspects of oral skills for example, vocabulary and or grammar use (Demircioğlu, 2010; Sambanis, 2011). An oral test was used to find out if learners could productively produce vocabulary learnt through a drama intervention (Kalogirou et al., 2019). Questionnaires and interviews were used to find out about pupils' views on drama and on how they felt (Bland, 2014b; Kalogirou et al., 2019). Observations were used by researchers to assess elements of oral skills development amongst young learners which would be difficult to assess in a test, for example pupils' interactions in a group (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020).

Table 1 contains an overview of the drama studies carried out with young learners in primary school settings to develop aspects of oral skills:

Table 1

Assessment Strategies used by Drama Studies on Oral Skills with Young Learners

Drama Study	Aspect Assessed	Method of Assessment
Demircioğlu (2010)	Vocabulary memorisation	Written test (implied but not directly stated)
Sambanis (2011)	Vocabulary memorisation	Written test
Kalogirou et al. (2019)	Vocabulary acquisition → memorisation and reproduction of vocabulary	Oral assessment Three different kinds of oral test Tests recorded with recording equipment
Bland (2014)	Pupil attitudes → learner autonomy, learning by heart, enjoyment, pride in success, acting in front of an audience	Questionnaire
Serrurier-Zucker and Gobbé-Mévellec (2014)	Pupil attitudes → enjoyment	Questionnaire
Kalogirou et al. (2019)	Pupil attitudes → enjoyment	Questionnaire Interview
Chang (2009)	Language skills and non-verbal communication	Classroom observation Note taking Questionnaires Interviews
Serrurier-Zucker and Gobbé-Mévellec (2014)	Speaking skills	Classroom observation
Elis (2023)	Speaking skills	Classroom observation Questionnaire
Papadopoulos (2014)	Interaction, communicative effectiveness, accuracy, range and complexity Teacher reflections	Oral assessment with pictures Research journal
Alasmari & Alshae'el (2020)	Vocabulary and Grammar Interaction, oral fluency and motivation	Proficiency Test Classroom observation

In addition, in a study with young DAF (Deutsch als Fremdsprache) learners in the fifth class (age 11), Dragovich (2019) used a DAF speaking test to assess pronunciation and oral production (Dragovic, 2019, p. 143) and a "C-Test", a gap-fill test which measures language proficiency, to test the overall language learning level of learners (Dragovic, 2019, p. 142). An Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) developed by Gardner and Smythe (1981) was adapted and used to assess learners' motivation, anxiety, attitudes to the learning situation and integrated orientation (Dragovic, 2019, p. 146). A questionnaire was also given to learners and pupil focus groups were used to find out about learners' views on their own improvement, anxiety levels, memory performance and attitudes towards grammar.

Pre- and post- speaking tests were administered in some drama studies on speaking skills with adolescents doing process drama (Stinson & Freebody, 2009). The before and after intervention scores of these tests were compared to look for improvements in speaking skills. An oral test was used to provide information on "clarity, vocabulary, relevance, interaction, need for prompting" (Stinson & Freebody, 2009, p. 159).

Interviewing has been shown to be successful in the assessment of skills. Kalogirou and colleagues (2019) used short interviews with young learners to discuss feedback that had been collected through feedback forms (Kalogirou et al., 2019). Ideally interviews with learners need to be carried out in the learner's native language because it is easier for learners to express their views. Young learners may struggle to express their views and opinions in English if they haven't been learning English for very long.

In the drama studies which were discussed above in which oral skills were tested, researchers used a mixture of standardized tests (Dragovic, 2019) and tests tailored to the study (Kalogirou et al., 2019). Creating a test specifically for a research study is a practical solution if there is no standardized test available which will reveal what the researcher wants to find out. For example, if learners can use specific vocabulary after an intervention. However, a test developer who is creating a new test should consider the six qualities mentioned above (Bachman & Palmer, 1996) and the test should also be tested on a small group before being implemented with a large group of participants.

In this study, the following oral skills were defined for assessment:

Linguistic: Use of basic vocabulary, chunks/ expressions, linking words, grammar/ structure, phonology

Cognitive: Thinking, planning simple speech, paying attention, concentrating, memorizing basic expressions, limited repair of utterances

Physical: Pronunciation

Social and Emotional: Basic social contact, simple interaction with a partner or small group, confidence in speaking

Based on the assessment strategies and data analysis techniques used by other drama researchers and on theory, a plan for the assessment of young learners' oral skills was developed for this project. The plan was based on the oral skills defined for this project (linguistic, cognitive, physical, social and emotional skills listed above). In some cases, several possible assessment methods were found for a skill. In that case, the researcher had to decide which method was the most practical for use in the context of this project. For example, the assessment of vocabulary could be carried out with a pre and post assessment and analysed with speaking descriptors and a tool like "Wordsmith", as had been used in the PEAK1 (2019) test (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019), or it could be assessed with a written test (Demircioğlu, 2010). It was decided that an oral assessment to assess oral skills would be most appropriate, given the oral skills that had been chosen for assessment.

A standardised speaking assessment suitable for pre-A1 and A1 learners which would allow learners in the fourth class in Baden-Württemberg to produce a large enough sample of language for the researcher to assess, could not be found. Standardized assessments at this level follow a format which is unfamiliar to these learners and may require them to produce vocabulary that they don't yet know. Consequently, it was decided that a speaking assessment including pictures on familiar vocabulary areas, like those in their textbooks would be created.

The researcher considered what would be possible within the scope of the project with the time and resources that were available (Nikolov & Timpe-Laughlin, 2021). Although some cognitive skills could possibly be assessed with psychological tests, the researcher did not want to test learners excessively. Therefore, classroom observation to observe the results of thinking and planning simple speech etc. was chosen over tests. In addition, as the type of thinking that was being referred to in this case was "conceptualisation and formulation" (Bygate, 2010, p. 16) of speech (the thinking involved in formulating speech according to Levelt (1989)) which is hidden from the observer, it would be enough for the purposes of this project to assess this once the learner had made an utterance, showing that thinking had taken place. This could be assessed through observation of learners working in the classroom to see what they said, and through the

planned pre and post assessments, which would also be used to assess other oral skills such as vocabulary use.

Another example of a choice that the researcher had to make in the planning of the assessment of oral skills was the assessment of interaction. This skill had been identified as an A1 level oral skill in the CEFR during the theoretical definition of A1 level oral skills (discussed in the theory section). The researcher evaluated methods for assessing interaction used by other researchers and found that they were all different (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020; Kao & O'Neill, 1998; Leslie, 2025). Whereas Leslie evaluated learner interaction with the help of Storch's (2002) classification system, through the identification of different types of engagement between learners e.g. "collaborative", "expert/novice", "dominant/dominant" and "dominant/passive" (Leslie, 2025, p. 99), Alasmari & Alshae'el, (2020) evaluated young learner interaction in a drama intervention with the help of a classroom observation checklist developed by Deci and Ryan (1985). The checklist was

> adapted and abridged by the researchers to suit [their] study's focus and requirements (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020, p. 65).

In addition, Kao and O'Neill (1998) used van Lier's (1988) classroom interaction analysis to assess turn-taking in a drama intervention with adult learners.

The difference in the chosen methods for assessing interaction was possibly due to the presence or absence of a recording device in the classroom. Leslie (2025) and Kao and O'Neill (1998) recorded learners in the classroom and analysed the recordings after the interventions to find out about the types of interaction that had occurred. Alasmari & Alshae'el, (2020) on the other hand, observed and recorded learners' interactions in the classroom in real time. It would not have been possible for Alasmari & Alshae'el to analyse learner interaction happening in real time using the same method as Leslie, and Kao and O'Neill.

On that basis it was decided that as the intervention lessons in this project were not going to be recorded, a classroom observation chart for observing learners during the group work phases would be developed and used by the researcher to record observations of interaction amongst learners. The disadvantage of this was that it would perhaps not be as scientific as the method used by Leslie, and Kao and O'Neill. However, the observation form could be designed so that it was manageable for the researcher to complete in the classroom and fitted to the study (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020).

In addition to deciding how oral skills would best be assessed in this context, the researcher also considered how the data collected could be analysed to find out what it showed. The researcher again examined the existing studies on drama and oral skills with young learners. The next section discusses the findings.

The Analysis of Data on Oral Skills in Drama Interventions

The second step to assessment after data on speaking skills has been collected, is the analysis of the data to find out what it shows about the development of skills as a result of the intervention. A second look at the existing studies revealed the methods that were used by drama researchers with young learners.

Demircioğlu, (2010) analysed the data collected on vocabulary memorization from two groups of pupils, one group doing creative drama and the other using a translation method with words and or pictures using an Independent samples T-Test, "to compare the values of the means from two samples", to find out if results from the two groups had a different mean average (Demircioğlu, 2010, p. 441). Similarly, Sambanis (2011) statistically analysed data collected from two parallel groups with a T-Test (Sambanis, 2011, p. 372).

The data collected by Kalogirou et al., (2019) was analysed quantitatively, using statistical analysis. The first verbal test was a vocabulary recognition task in which pupils had to name the objects shown on flashcards. ANOVA was used to compare data collected from two test groups and a control group. The second and third verbal tests were rated by a researcher with a three-point scale. "Very good" meant that a complete sentence had been used, "good" meant that the sentence was incomplete and "poor" meant that English had been used or only a brief utterance had been made in Welsh (Kalogirou et al., 2019, p. 337). The data collected from questionnaires and an interview showed that learners enjoyed the drama (Kalogirou et al., 2019, p. 339).

Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, (2014) used a questionnaire to find out about learner attitudes to the drama project that they had participated in. The questionnaire contained closed questions with a number of answers presented to learners for them to choose from e.g. "yes, no, I don't know" (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014, p. 26). The data collected was quantitatively analysed by counting the total number of children who had chosen each answer. This was possible because the groups of learners were relatively small. The class teachers in the study reported that they had observed that the learners' "oral communication ability

improved" during the intervention. However, the "linguistic performance" of the learners was not tested (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014, p. 27).

Elis (2023) assessed learners' speaking skills through observation. What was observed and a specific example were recorded in an observation table (Elis, 2023). Learners also filled in a questionnaire. The methods for the analysis of data by researchers in previous studies on the effects of drama on oral skills is summarised in Table 2 below:

Table 2

Methods of Analysis for Data Collected from Drama Studies with Young Learners

Drama Study	Aspect Assessed	Method of Assessment	Method for the Analysis of Data
Demircioğlu, (2010)	Vocabulary memorisation	Test (implied but not directly stated)	Independent samples T-Test
Sambanis (2011)	Vocabulary memorisation	Written test	T-test
Kalogirou et al. (2019)	Vocabulary acquisition → memorisation and reproduction	Oral assessment → vocab recognition test Production task → video recorded Improvisation task → video recorded	ANOVA Holistic scoring by a single researcher Scored by a single researcher
Bland (2014)	Pupil attitudes	Questionnaire	Quantitative statistical analysis to give percentages
Serrurier-Zucker and Gobbé-Mévellec (2014)	Pupil attitudes	Questionnaire	Quantitative analysis – items counted (possible due to small group of learners)
Kalogirou et al. (2019)	Pupil attitudes	Questionnaire Interview	Qualitative data analysed quantitatively. Items counted (possible due to small group)
Chang (2009)	Language skills	Classroom observation Field notes Researcher journal Questionnaires Interviews	NVIVO
Serrurier-Zucker and Gobbé-Mévellec (2014)	Speaking skills	Teacher observations in the classroom	Reported observations that learners' oral communication improved
Elis (2023)	Speaking skills	Teacher researcher observations Questionnaire	Reported observations with some specific examples Tally
Papadopoulos (2014)	Interaction, communicative effectiveness, accuracy, range and complexity	Oral assessment of proficiency based on the CEFR	Mean and standard deviation calculated. CEFR level awarded
Alasmari & Alshae'el (2020)	Interaction Oral fluency Motivation	Language test Classroom observation	T-test Quantitative analysis through counting the ticks

If an intervention is recorded, the recordings can be viewed by the researchers after the lesson and analysis can be performed based on the recordings. For example, in Kao & O'Neill's (1998) study on the effects of drama on university students' speaking skills which was recorded, classroom interaction was subsequently coded with van Lier's (1988) classroom interaction analysis code, by re-watching the lesson videos (Kao & O'Neill, 1998). The researchers analysed the number and types of interactions in the classroom during the drama, and the quantity and quality of speech produced was assessed.

The analysis of the methods used for assessing and analysing oral skills above show that there is some overlap with the methods used for assessment in foreign language teaching. Drama studies that investigated learners' oral skills used assessment methods from EFL to find out about change in oral skills. The analysis of the data collected in drama studies on oral skills with young learners, shows that tests tended to be quantitatively analysed, questionnaires were also quantitatively analysed, but observations were both quantitatively and qualitatively analysed. The researcher also planned to use similar tools to find out about learners' oral skills in this project and to use both kinds of analysis to analyse the data collected. This is discussed in further detail in the following methodology chapter.

This section discussed the purposes of assessment and the assessment of oral skills in educational contexts with young learners. Methods for assessing young learners' oral skills through classroom-based assessment and testing formats were explained. A recent example of a large-scale test carried out recently on learners in the fourth class in Germany was discussed. This was followed by a detailed discussion of the considerations to be made when assessing young learners to ensure that the experience is positive for learners, but useful results can also be acquired. The knowledge and experience of other researchers who explored the development of young learners' oral skills through drama were examined to find out how these researchers assessed learners. Finally, an analysis of how the data collected from those assessments was evaluated and summarised. A detailed plan of the assessment methods and methods for analysis of the data collected on oral skills in this project is provided with an explanation in the following methodology chapters.

Research Interest and Research Question

This section states the research interest and presents the research question and sub-question for this project. The method chosen to conduct the research and the development of the research instruments are described and explained.

The literature review on the development of young learners' oral skills in educational settings where limited time for English teaching is available, shows that learners in these settings found it difficult to develop their speaking skills (Read, 2020). Although many speaking activities are available, teachers still reported that they found speaking a difficult skill to teach to young learners (Copland et al., 2014). Learners are often reluctant to speak English, only produce short utterances and are missing knowledge of certain word classes to be able to express themselves fully (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019). Teachers also found it difficult to encourage learners to speak the target language in situations where many of the class have the same mother tongue (Al Hosni, 2014). Motivating speaking activities that provide varied and intensive opportunities for young learners to speak in a relaxed environment, although the time is limited, are needed. Activities which create an "as if" (Anderson, 2010) situation such as drama, which encourage learners to imagine themselves into a situation that motivates them to speak, but that can also be manageably integrated into English lessons, could potentially help learners to develop their speaking skills.

The literature on the topic of developing young learners' oral skills through creative drama activities, revealed that although studies exist, none of the studies systematically assessed the effects of the intervention on a mixed ability group of learners' oral skills in the approach to A1 level (CEFR). Studies on the effects of drama activities based around picturebooks with young EFL learners aged 9-10 in educational settings are rare. None of the studies which included drama activities based on picturebooks that were found included the systematic collection and combining of both quantitative and qualitative data to investigate the potential development of the intervention on various aspects of oral skills.

A review of the theory on the development of oral skills amongst young learners in primary school and the theory on the benefits of using picturebooks and drama activities suggested that the combined use of picturebooks and drama based around the story could potentially help learners to develop their oral skills (Chang, 2009; Elis, 2023; Papadopoulos, 2014; Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014). Based on results from current research and an analysis of the available theory on the subject, the main research question was developed.

The main research question is:

Does picturebook dramatisation have the potential to develop young learners' oral skills?

A sub-question was also formulated related to the main question which is:

In what ways do learners' oral skills develop?

The next step was to decide how to collect data that would enable the researcher to answer the research question and sub-question.

Research Design

A research question determines the type of data that needs to be collected to be able to answer it (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). The main research question for this research project required the testing of picturebook dramatisation to be conducted to ascertain its potential to help learners to develop their oral skills. This kind of research asks "What happens when?" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 115; Thomas, 2009, p. 92) or "What effect does something have on (something else)?" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 115). An experimental design may be chosen for an intervention study when researchers aim to find out if there is a relationship or correlation between variables. The goal of an experiment is to establish a causal relationship between the intervention and any results (Dörnyei, 2007). It leads to the collection of quantitative data which is also likely to be quantitively analysed (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). Because this research project aimed to find out if a drama-based intervention had any effect on oral skills, an experimental element was included.

Drama researchers have been calling for further empirical research into drama for many years (Belliveau & Kim, 2013; Even, 2008; Klempin & Wirag, 2020; Stinson & Winston, 2011; Wagner, 1998). Klempin and Wirag (2020) argue for a need for impact research in drama research in which the concrete effects (e.g. on language acquisition) of an intervention are empirically investigated (Klempin & Wirag, 2020, p. 97). The researchers define the term empirical in this context as a scientific, systematic approach where data is collected under controlled conditions in a laboratory or in the field (Klempin & Wirag, 2020, p. 97).

Several studies that tested a drama intervention with young learners contained an experimental element which enabled the collection of quantitative data on elements of oral skills to find out if they had changed as a result of an intervention (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020; Demircioğlu, 2010; Dragovic, 2019; Greenfader et al., 2015; Hille et al., 2010; Kalogirou et al., 2019; Papadopoulos, 2014; Sambanis, 2011; Stinson & Freebody, 2009).

However, several of the drama studies that tested a drama intervention with young learners also included the collection of qualitative data through classroom observations (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020), interviews (Kalogirou et al., 2019) or a journal (Papadopoulos, 2014) so that different perspectives on learners' development could be acquired. These studies produced more data on learners and provided a rounder picture of their development. Therefore, the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data in this research project presented itself as a potential way to develop a fuller picture of the development of learners' oral skills.

A further consideration for the researcher was that it was unknown in advance how much learners would say in a small group pre assessment situation. The learners did not know the researcher at first and learners can be reticent in new situations with people that they don't know (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017). Classroom observation helps to build a fuller picture of what learners can do (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017). Therefore, a "pragmatic" (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017, p. 158) research design was chosen. In this approach quantitative and qualitative data are collected as appropriate, to help the researcher to find out the answer to the research question.

In this case it meant that the researcher decided to observe the learners in a classroom setting interacting with their teacher and peers in case they did not feel able to say very much in the small group pre assessment situation. Observation in the classroom allowed the researcher to observe the learners in a natural setting on more than one occasion (McKay, 2005). It also enabled two diverse types of data to be collected on speaking skills: the quantitative data from the pre and post oral assessments and qualitative data from observing learners interacting in a classroom setting. Research that collects more than one type of data is known as mixed method research (Dörnyei, 2007). This is discussed in the following section.

Mixed Method Research

As the researcher aimed to collect quantitative and qualitative data on learners' oral skills, mixed method research approaches were investigated. Mixed method research involves the collection of different types of data (Dörnyei, 2007; Nunan & Bailey, 2009; Wilson, 2017). Quantitative and qualitative data differ from each other.

> A quantitative approach means using measurements and numbers to help formulate and test ideas. It usually involves summarizing numerical data and/or using them to look for differences and associations between sets of numbers (Winterbottom, 2017, p. 217).

Qualitative research "does not use numbers" (Thomas, 2009, p. 83) but often begins with the collection of oral data from interviews or classroom observations (Evans, 2017a). The data is subsequently analysed in depth to look for "patterns and meaning" (Evans, 2017a, p. 260). Mixed methods research requires the two types of data to be combined in meaningful ways.

Definitions of mixed method research vary. However, researchers seem to agree that mixed method research involves the collection of more than one set of data (Creswell, 2022; Dörnyei, 2007; Nunan & Bailey, 2009; Wilson, 2017). Dörnyei (2007) defines mixed method research as follows:

> A mixed method study involves the collection or analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study with some attempts to integrate the two approaches at one or more stages of the research process (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 163).
>
> The variety of possible combinations is rich, going well beyond simple sequential arrangements (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 44).

Nunan and Bailey (2009) define mixed method studies as:

> those that involve both quantitative and qualitative data analyses (Nunan & Bailey, 2009, p. 408).

A slightly different explanation is provided by Wilson (2017) who defines mixed method research in the following way:

> Mixed methods research means adopting a research strategy employing more than one type of data research method. The methods may be a mix of qualitative and quantitative research methods, a mix of quantitative methods or a mix of qualitative methods (Wilson, 2017, p. 176).

Creswell (2022) defines mixed methods research as:

> A methodology and method to research in the social, behavioural, and health sciences in which the investigator gathers both quantitative (close-ended) and qualitative (open-ended) data, integrates or combines the two, and then draws inferences (called "metainferences") from the integration that provides insight beyond what can be learned from the quantitative or qualitative data (Creswell, 2022, p. 2).

"A core assumption" of this type of research is the understanding that it brings to a research problem through the combining of statistical data with "personal experiences" (Creswell, 2022, p. 2).

There are multiple benefits to conducting a mixed method research study. However, Creswell (2022) points out that many articles are critical of experimental studies. He argues that conducting a mixed method study with extra "human element[s]" helps to make the results of an experiment "more believable" (Creswell, 2022, p. 65). In addition, mixed method research can be helpful in educational settings to answer different research questions, to collect different kinds of evidence to develop a fuller picture of what happened (Thomas, 2009) or to investigate a complicated matter "from different angles" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 164). In addition, qualitative approaches can be used to explain why particular quantitative results have been obtained (Creswell, 2022). Mixed methods can be helpful in situations where it is difficult to answer the research question using a single research method (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). With different sets of data, it may be possible to verify results (Dörnyei, 2007). A practical consideration is also that some people prefer qualitative approaches and other people prefer quantitative approaches. The collection of both kinds of data makes a piece of research accessible to a wider audience (Dörnyei, 2007; Nunan & Bailey, 2009).

Using both quantitative and qualitative approaches in meaningful ways can enable researchers to capitalise on the advantages of both quantitative and qualitative research types. Quantitative and qualitative research methods both contribute something different to the development of theory in their own ways (Dörnyei, 2007). Combining the two types in meaningful ways should strengthen a study by minimising the weaknesses of individual research.

Nunan and Bailey (2009) provide an example of mixed method research in a teaching context in which the researcher combined qualitative and quantitative research methods in a classroom setting. Van Lier (1996) carried out an ethnographical study in Peru in which a bilingual program was started and monitored (Nunan & Bailey, 2009, p. 219). As well as collecting qualitative ethnographic data from the classroom such as "field notes, audio tapes, videotapes, archival documents, photographs, and maps" (Nunan & Bailey, 2009, p. 218), quantitative data in the form of percentages was collected on the teacher's use of Spanish and Quechua. The collection of quantitative data helped to answer a specific question. It enabled van Lier to show that the learners were learning Spanish but were forgetting Quechua. This would have been difficult to prove through the collection of purely qualitative data.

Mixed methods research requires the quantitative and qualitative data to be integrated in a meaningful way. There are several ways to do this according to Creswell (2022) who describes three core research designs, the "convergent design", the "explanatory sequential design" and the "exploratory sequential design" (Creswell, 2022, p. 7). In a convergent design, the researcher compares the quantitative and qualitative data to find out if they converge or diverge. In an explanatory sequential design, the researcher initially collects quantitative data and then qualitative data to explain the quantitative results. In the exploratory sequential design, the researcher initially collects qualitative data so that they can develop a cultural understanding of a group of people. The aim is to use this data to develop a quantitative instrument such as a survey that can subsequently be used to measure cultural aspects (Creswell, 2022, p. 7).

In addition to these three core designs described above, Creswell and his colleagues found that researchers were adapting mixed method designs to create more "complicated" (Creswell, 2022, p. 8) designs. These additional designs were used by researchers in evaluation projects, experiments or interventions, for example. In some cases, quantitative and qualitative methods were combined at multiple stages in a study. These designs were named "complex mixed methods research designs" (Creswell, 2022, p. 8) because "core designs are embedded within a complex framework or process". There are multiple types but "mixed method experimental (or intervention) designs" are one example of "complex mixed methods research design" (Creswell, 2022, p. 8). This design:

> is accomplished by combining qualitative data with the quantitative experiment or trial. The qualitative data can be added in before the trial, during the trial, after the trial, or some combination of these times during the trial. Adding data in this case consists of embedding the qualitative data within a quantitative experimental trial (Creswell, 2022, p. 8).

This information provides us with an example of how mixed method data can be combined. For mixed method research to be effective, it is important to consider how the data to be collected can be effectively combined. Creswell (2022) suggests the following four steps to design an effective research strategy:

1. Design the experiment with a pre/post treatment and decide on the groups (Creswell, 2022, p. 65).

2. Decide on the type of qualitative data to be embedded in the experiment and the reason for adding qualitative data to the research.

3. Carry out the experiment, collect and analyse the data to find out if the intervention was effective.

4. Then analyse the qualitative data and draw conclusions about how it enhanced the experiment.

Creswell adds that this type of research is challenging because the researcher has to carry out the experiment rigorously, controlling the threats to validity and deciding where the most effective place is to collect the qualitative data (Creswell, 2022). Collecting several types of data is demanding for the researcher and

> researcher bias needs to be closely monitored so that the intrusion of qualitative data collection does not unduly influence the outcomes in the trial (Creswell, 2022, p. 65).

The additional collection of "unobtrusive data" (Creswell, 2022, p. 65) is necessary to verify the results. Unobtrusive data provide information about the study participants indirectly and can be used to verify data obtained directly e.g. via interview. Unobtrusive methods of data collection don't change the study participants at all. Possible examples of this could be collecting physical evidence, looking at archives, observing people e.g. in a public place, or through contrived observation in which the researcher intervenes in the observation to change something without the participants' knowledge, and then observes the effects (Chambliss & Schutt, 2019).

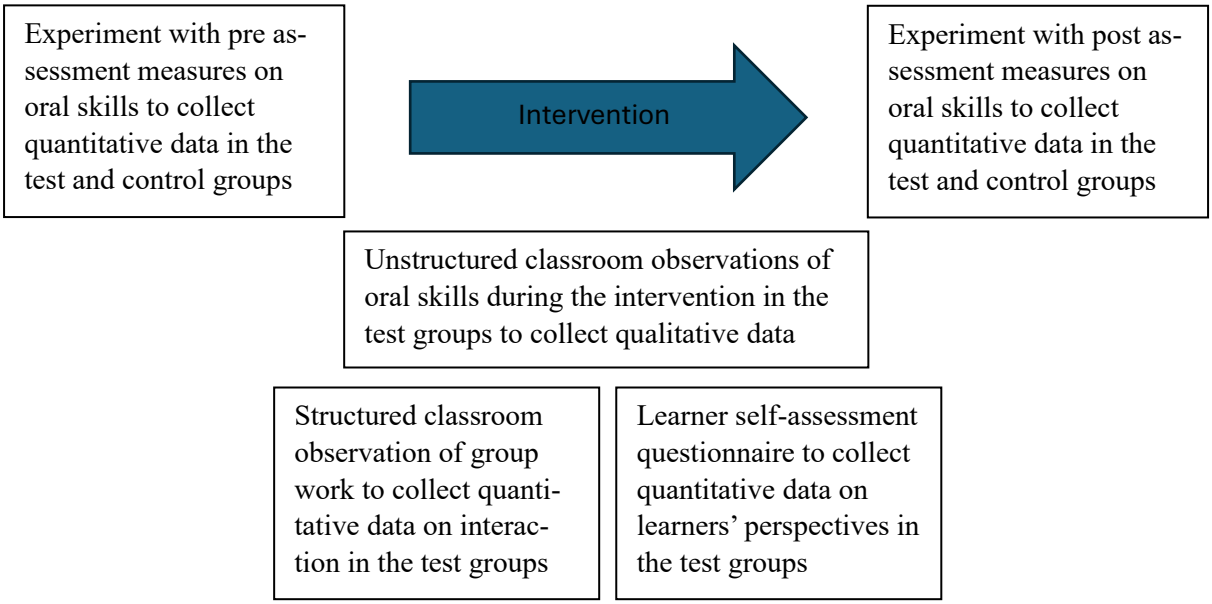
Creswell (2022) makes a strong case for the use of mixed method research, although it is demanding for the researcher. Warwick and Chaplain (2017) add that mixed method research is also well suited to research in settings with young learners because the researcher is placed on a "continuum" (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017, p. 162) in which "progressive participation" is possible depending on "practical considerations" such as time or access. Mixed method research allows the researcher to decide how appropriate or possible it is for them to be involved in various kinds of data collection. It can enable researchers to gain a fuller picture of a situation involving young learners as it allows flexibility (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017). Due to these reasons, mixed method research was considered to be a practical study design for a research project with young learners in this case. The researcher hoped that in addition to being flexible in a setting with young learners, a mixed method design with the integration of quantitative and qualitative data would allow the data collected on the development of oral skills to be enhanced (Creswell, 2022). The next section describes the design of this research project.

The Design of this Research Project

The researcher followed the four steps recommended by Creswell (2022) for carrying out a mixed method study (listed in the previous section), to plan the research design and to establish the point at which the qualitative data would be collected (Creswell, 2022, p. 65). The researcher concluded that a "mixed methods experimental" design (Creswell, 2022, p. 8) would be the most appropriate for studying a drama intervention empirically with a scientific, systematic approach where data is collected under controlled conditions in a laboratory or in the field (Klempin & Wirag, 2020, p. 97). The additional collection of qualitative data through classroom observation added a "human element" (Creswell, 2022, p. 65). The research design of this project embedded qualitative data in an experimental framework. The following diagram (Figure 4), adapted from Creswell's "Mixed Methods Experimental or Intervention Design" figure (Creswell, 2022, p. 66) depicts the design of this study and shows the position of the data elements collected.

Figure 4

Planned Collection of Quantitative and Qualitative Data



(Based on and adapted from Creswell, 2022, p.66)

Creswell (2022) describes a design where qualitative data is collected during an experiment as an "embedded convergent design" (Creswell, 2022, p. 66). The purpose of the design is to "examine participants' experiences" (Creswell, 2022, p. 66) during the intervention and possibly to modify the intervention if necessary. In this research project the embedded convergent design allowed the researcher to observe learners' oral skills development in the classroom

when they were participating in the intervention. It allowed the researcher to find out how the intervention was working and if any effects on oral skills could be observed in the classroom.

In the experimental part of the study a pre and post speaking assessment was carried out. Data on vocabulary, structure, communication and task achievement were collected. The researcher reviewed the theory and studies on oral skills with young learners at approximately A1 level to find out how other researchers had researched oral skills (Barucki et al., 2015; Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2023b; Engel, 2009; Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019) and collected similar data in a similar manner (also discussed in the theory of drama assessment section section).

The experimental part of the study required two groups of learners that were as similar as possible. One group was

> the "treatment" or "experimental group" which receives the treatment or which is exposed to some special conditions, and the (other group was the) "control group", whose role is to provide a baseline (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 116).

The data collected from the experimental part of the study was quantitative and was analysed quantitatively. This is discussed further below.

In addition, learners' transcripts from the pre and post assessments were tagged with a POS tagger CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) to find out more about the vocabulary that learners had used in their speech. This data was also analysed quantitatively. CLAWS had a similar purpose to Wordsmith which was used to find out about learners' word use in the PEAK1 study (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019). CLAWS was chosen for this study due to its accessibility.

Embedded within the experimental framework of the study, were unstructured classroom observations. These were used to collect further qualitative data in the form of field notes on aspects of learners' speech and behaviour during the lessons and on the learners,' teachers' and researcher's opinions. These notes were written up after each intervention lesson by the researcher in a research journal (Dörnyei, 2007).

In addition, during the observation phase, two further quantitative research tools were used to collect data. The first was a structured observation of the group work during the dramatisation phases and the second was a learner feedback form given to learners at the end of each drama work unit.

Due to the language learning level of the learners (approximately A1), it was decided that certain oral sub-skills would be better assessed in a classroom setting rather than during the pre and post assessment phase of the speaking assessment with the researcher (see the discussion in the theory of drama assessment section). For example, the researcher planned to observe and evaluate the amount of learner interaction during the group work phases (lessons 4 and 5) of each work unit. An observation form was designed so that it was manageable for the researcher to complete in the classroom and fitted to the study. Dörnyei, (2007) argues that observation schemes

> in most cases (…) will need to be adapted to our specific research focus and classroom situation (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 179).

"Event sampling" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 180) was chosen for observing the group work phases when learners were working together to develop their dramatisations. In event sampling, the researcher uses a tally or makes a mark against pre-decided categories of observation. The categories chosen were observable. The researcher focused on the language that learners were using together (English/German), if learners could organise their group, on learner participation and on the completion of the task together, indicating that learners had worked together. At A1 level (CEFR) only "basic social contact" (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 137) and simple interaction with a collaborative interlocutor (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 135) is required of learners. Commercial A1 tests do not require learners to interact with each other at this level, only with the assessor (Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2023a). Therefore, the categories chosen for observation were focused more generally on working together and how learners worked together, rather than on specific types of interaction e.g. expert/novice. The mainly quantitative observation checklist with space for brief comments, was designed with advice taken from Wragg's (1999) book *An introduction to classroom observation* (Wragg, 1999).

In addition, a learner self-assessment form in a Likert format (with smiley faces) (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017) was used to collect quantitative data on learners' likes and dislikes and their perspectives on their participation in the intervention activities. The self-assessment form was used to gain learners' own impressions of their interaction with other learners and confidence levels when speaking English. This information was used to gain a "rounded perspective" (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017, p. 162) on these aspects of oral skills. The researcher judged the learners at this age to be "capable of (…) introspection i.e. self-examination of feelings" (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017, p. 166).

The mixed method approach allowed different kinds of evidence to be collected to develop a fuller picture of what happened (Thomas, 2009), to investigate a complicated matter "from different angles" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 164). The data could be used to verify each other (Dörnyei, 2007). Through classroom observation and learner self-assessment, "human elements" were brought into the research which made the results of an experiment "more believable" (Creswell, 2022, p. 65). For example, three different types of quantitative data were produced from three different types of analysis on the use of vocabulary. One set of data was produced through rating learners' speech using rating scales (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019). The second set of data was produced through analysis of learners' speech with a POS tagger, CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023). The third set of data was obtained from a structured classroom observation to see if learners used English or German. Each research tool produced different information on vocabulary, allowing vocabulary acquisition to be viewed from different angles. Data obtained through analysis with the POS tagger provided a detailed, objective analysis on the use of vocabulary by learners. An unstructured classroom observation of vocabulary use provided yet further information on the development of vocabulary in classroom discourse, information not produced by the other three sources.

These data sets were analysed separately and then compared to see if they converged or diverged. Convergence is the term used to describe sets of data that support each other's findings (Dörnyei, 2007). Divergence describes the opposite phenomenon when the data do not support each other, but conflict. The qualitative data from observations was also used to help to explain the quantitative results (Creswell, 2022).

Although none of the data collected in this study was strictly "unobtrusive" (Creswell, 2022, p. 65), as the researcher was always present when the data was collected, it was hoped that the amount of data collected would be enough to develop an unbiased picture of what was happening to learners' oral skills.

The plan for data collection on different oral skills are summarised in the table below.

Table 3

Plan for Quantitative and Qualitative Data Collection on Oral Skills

Oral Skills	Assessment Method – Method for Gathering Data	Analysis of the Collected Data	Quan/Qual
Linguistic			
Use of vocabulary	Pre-post assessment	Rating scale score for Vocabulary Use	Quan
	Vocabulary analysis	CLAWS tagger	Quan
	Structured classroom observations	Classroom English/Story language score	Quan
	Unstructured classroom observations	Field notes and journal entry	Qual
Use of Linking words	Analysis of conjunctions used in the pre and post assessments	CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) tagger	Quan
Use of Grammar/ Structure/Chunks	Pre-post assessment	Rating scale score for Structure and Coherence	Quan
	Structured classroom observation	Story language score	Quan
	Unstructured classroom observations	Field notes and journal entry	Qual
Use of Phonology	Unstructured classroom observation	Field notes and journal entry	Qual

Continuation of Table 3

Oral skills	Assessment Method – Method for Gathering Data	Analysis of the Collected Data	Quan/Qual
Cognitive			
Thinking	Pre-post assessment	Average total points score from the rating scale. Average language Ability Classification score.	Quan
	Unstructured classroom observations	Field notes and research journal	Qual
Planning simple speech	Pre-post assessment	Rating scale score for Communication and Task Achievement	Quan
	Unstructured classroom observations	Field notes and journal entry for all four schools	Qual
Paying attention	Unstructured classroom observations	Field notes and journal entry for all four schools	Qual
Concentration	Unstructured classroom observations	Field notes and journal entry	Qual
	Structured classroom observations	Observation chart score for being on task.	Quan
Memorizing	Vocabulary analysis	CLAWS tagger	Quan
	Unstructured classroom observations	Field notes and journal entry	Qual
Repair of utterances	Pre-post assessment	Rating scale score for Task Achievement	Quan
	Unstructured classroom observations	Field notes and journal entry	Qual
Physical			
Pronunciation, articulation, prosodic features	Unstructured classroom observations	Field notes and journal entry	Qual

Continuation of Table 3

Oral skills	Assessment Method – Method for Gathering Data	Analysis of the Collected Data	Quan/Qual
Social and Emotional			
Basic social contact	Pre-post assessment	Rating scale score for Communication	Quan
	Structured classroom observations	Observation chart score for group member participation	Quan
Interaction with a partner or small group	Structured classroom observation	Observation chart score for group organisation	Quan
	Learner self-assessment	Likert format	Quan
	Unstructured classroom observations	Field notes and journal entry	Qual
Confidence in speaking	Learner self-assessment	Likert format	Quan
	Unstructured classroom observations	Field notes and journal entry	Qual

Once all the quantitative and qualitative data had been collected and analysed it was combined in a joint display and used to draw "metainferences" (Creswell, 2022, p. 103), meaning that "insights" could be gained and "conclusions and interpretations" drawn on the development of oral skills from the integration of the data. This process is described in further detail later in this chapter.

A question which hangs over mixed method studies, is whether it is additionally necessary to consider triangulation or whether triangulation is already inherently included (Howe, 2012). It is clear from the diagram above that the positions of the planned collection of data could potentially contribute to the triangulation of the data. Triangulation in mixed method studies is discussed briefly in the following section.

Triangulation in Mixed Methods Studies

There is debate amongst researchers as to whether triangulation must be separately considered in mixed methods studies. Therefore, it is briefly discussed here in relation to this study. Triangulation is a term which was first used in a social science research context in the 1970s (Dörnyei, 2007). It is a term which was borrowed from naval navigation. In the naval context it was used to describe the process of finding an unknown point from two other known points.

In social research terms triangulation is used for "corroborating findings" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 165) or for looking at a problem from different angles or perspectives using different

> data sources, investigators, theories, or research methods with the purpose of corroborating an overall interpretation (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 165).

The main purpose of triangulation is to improve the validity of the research (Evans, 2017b). Research which includes triangulation is often considered to be more valid than research carried out with only a single method (Dörnyei, 2007).

Some researchers argue that triangulation is already present in mixed method research through the inclusion of different data collection approaches and therefore, does not need to be separately considered (Howe, 2012). Dörnyei, (2007) states that triangulation is a term which

> has been used very broadly in research methodology texts, often as a synonym for mixing methods (p.165).

Therefore, the term "triangulation" has been used in different ways and in connection to different problems (Dörnyei, 2007). Howe (2012) brings clarity to the discussion on triangulation and argues that the term is not necessarily implied by mixed methods research (Howe, 2012). It depends how the terms "mixed method" and "triangulation" are conceived. Howe (2012) divides "mixed methods/triangulation" into two categories. One can have a

> disjunctive conception of mixed methods (…) which seems to imply a disjunctive conception of triangulation (Howe, 2012, p. 90).

In other words it "brings different methods to bear on different questions" (Howe, 2012, p. 90). This is also what Denzin (1978) called "within-methods triangulation" (out of print cited in Howe, 2012, p.90) where different methods are used to answer different research questions.

The second type is a

> conjunctive conception of mixed methods [which] seems to imply a conjunctive conception of triangulation (Howe, 2012, p. 90).

This type "brings different methods to bear on the same question" (Howe, 2012, p. 89). Denzin (1978) named this "between methods" (out of print cited in Howe, 2012, p.90).

In this research project, the main research question and sub-research question were closely related but they were two different questions. Quantitative and qualitative data were

collected from a pre/post speaking assessment, structured and unstructured classroom observations, and a learner self-assessment form. The main research question was answered principally using the quantitative data from the pre and post assessments. The sub-question was answered using the same quantitative data and additional quantitative and qualitative data. Therefore, if Howe's definitions were applied in this case, a "disjunctive conception of mixed methods" or "within-methods triangulation" (Howe, 2012, p. 90) would apply because there were two questions that had to be answered and slightly different methods were used to answer them. The table below summarises how the research questions were answered.

Table 4

Summary of Data Sources used to Answer the Research Question and Sub Question

Research Question and Sub Question	Data Source Used to Answer the Question
Does picturebook dramatisation have the potential to develop young learners' oral skills?	Quantitative data from the pre and post assessment analysis with the speaking descriptors.
In what ways do learners' oral skills develop?	Quantitative data from the pre and post assessment analysis with the speaking descriptors. Quantitative data collected from classroom observations of group work phases. Quantitative data collected from learner self-assessment forms. Qualitative data from a research journal.

Different types of data were collected to answer the sub-question so that information could be provided on learners' linguistic, cognitive, physical, social and emotional skills. These different types of data from different sources also provided information for triangulation purposes.

Another way to look at triangulation is to consider the triangulation of "sources, of methods and of investigators" (Evans, 2017b, p. 211). Evans discusses this type of triangulation in relation to qualitative research, arguing that if converging perspectives are found they "will arguably make the findings more powerful" (Evans, 2017b, p. 211). In this project, there were several sources, methods and investigators which provided data to contribute to triangulation. The sources of data were the four intervention schools. The methods were the pre/post assessment, structured and unstructured classroom observation and the learner self-assessments. The investigators were the researcher and the learners.

In relation to the subject of triangulation in mixed methods, there is divergence in opinions (Dörnyei, 2007). These were considered in the development of the project but were not the main focus of the research. Therefore, we move on now to discuss the design of the quantitative and qualitative research tools used to find out about learners' oral skills.

Considerations in the Design of the Experimental Element

To determine a causal effect of the intervention on oral skills, an experimental element provided a framework for the research. The development of oral skills examined by the experimental part of the research were measured using a pre- and post- assessment design (Dörnyei, 2007). An experiment can be used to provide evidence of causal effect so that researchers can be certain that learners' speaking skills improved as a result of a specific intervention (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014). Some consider an experiment the most reliable way to determine causation (Thomas, 2009). An experimental design aims to isolate and test the intervention, excluding other possible causal factors, to show that the intervention is responsible for a change. Other possible factors which could potentially cause a change are controlled. This is because there are always a number of factors, particularly in a social research scenario, which could cause a change (Thomas, 2009). Isolating the factors to be tested and controlling other factors enables researchers to tie the test factor to any change, to demonstrate cause and effect. It helps researchers to answer the question "How do you know that it wasn't a, b, c (and not x) that caused y to change?" (Thomas, 2009, p. 125). How do you know that the results that you see would not have occurred anyway without an intervention? How do you know that learners' oral skills didn't develop because they watched YouTube or played computer games in English at home? Therefore, the researcher aimed to isolate the factors to be tested (the intervention) and control other factors as well as possible so that any change could be tied to the picturebook dramatisation intervention, to demonstrate cause and effect. To do this, there were several steps that the researcher had to take. One of the steps was to establish a control group (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014).

In the case of an experiment, the intervention is known as the independent variable (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014). It can be manipulated by the researchers. The learners' speaking skills are the dependent variable. To be able to see if there is a relationship between the independent and dependent variables, a control group (CG) must be set up. A control group is a second group of learners who are as similar as possible to the intervention or test group (TG), but they do not receive the intervention that is being tested. The only difference between the TG and CG should be the treatment or intervention (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014).

The CG increases the validity of an intervention because it allows any observed changes in the TG to be tied to the intervention with a higher level of likelihood (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014). The CG is helpful as change is prone to happen to the dependent variable (speaking skills) being tested over time anyway (Thomas, 2009) regardless of the independent variable (the intervention) if learners are having regular English lessons. Therefore, having the ability to see if speaking skills changed in different ways in the two groups enables a better understanding of the effects of the intervention to be formed.

The CG provides a "baseline" (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014, p. 231) for the study. The "baseline" allows researchers to see how a group of very similar learners receiving English teaching, change over the time that the intervention is happening. If there is no difference in the changes in the TG and CG, then it can be concluded that the intervention has no advantageous or disadvantageous effects. However, if there are differences between the two groups, it can be ascertained in what ways the intervention was advantageous or disadvantageous compared to the teaching in the CG. A mixture of advantageous and disadvantageous effects may be identified. In addition, the CG allows the researcher to ignore factors such as learning English outside of school because both the TG and CG had access to these opportunities. Therefore, learning outside of school was theoretically the same in both groups.

The conditions in both groups must be controlled to keep them as similar as possible (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014). If the TG receive the intervention and in addition they receive for example, more teaching than the CG, then any changes detected in the TG could be due to extra teaching hours. Controlling other variables such as time, makes it easier for researchers to tie any change in the TG back to the variable being tested, in this case the intervention.

In this research project, the TG received English teaching involving drama activities based on picturebooks. The CG received English teaching but without any drama activities or picturebooks. The CG received the school English lessons taught in line with the curriculum. The lessons followed the school textbook and included the introduction of vocabulary and practice of the four skills. To create as fair a test as possible, the researcher attempted to control the variables as far as possible (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014). Both groups received English teaching for the same number of hours over the intervention period.

However, it was not possible for the researcher to control all the variables. For example, the TG and CG had different English teachers. Due to the timetabling in the school, this variable was not possible to control. It could have made a difference to the study results because the

teachers may not have possessed the same competences in English. The results of the BIG study (2015) revealed the significance of teachers' competences in English on the quality of the English lessons (Barucki et al., 2015). Teachers who felt less sure about their English did not speak it consistently during the English lessons, meaning that learners received less input in English and less exposure to the sounds, rhythm and structure of the foreign language they were learning (Barucki et al., 2015, p. 69). Therefore, it is not clear if the CGs in this study received the same amount or level of input in English as the TGs.

The groups also had their English lessons at different times of the day. This difference was also caused by timetabling restrictions that could not be controlled. The difference in the time of day when lessons are held can affect learners' concentration levels (Winterbottom, 2017). Certain times of day, for example the end of the day when learners are tired or before lunch when learners are hungry, can affect their concentration levels. The researcher was aware of these differences but could not control them.

Therefore, the researcher planned to find out more about the validity of the results obtained by repeating a similar intervention in several different settings to find out if the results obtained would be similar (Denscombe, 2021). If the results were "replicable" (Thomas, 2009, p. 100), then the findings would be considered more "secure".

The inability to control every variable in educational settings, means that a true experiment is not common (Dörnyei, 2007). In a true experiment learners also must be randomized and assigned to groups so that new groups are formed. The purpose of randomization is to eliminate bias that may be present in an established group caused by person-related variables (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014, p. 233), for example age or ability. It is often not possible to randomise learners in educational settings due to timetabling restrictions or ethical considerations, such as the disruption it may cause to the learners, the teacher and the school. However, even the random assignment of learners to new groups may not ensure that bias is eliminated. One group may contain more learners from a higher social class, for example. Therefore, Darsow and Felbrich (2014) discuss the possibility of dividing learners according to particular variables e.g. gender or place of origin to create more equal groups (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014, p. 233). The inability to randomise learners reduces the internal validity of a study because person-related variables are still present.

Timetabling restrictions in this project meant that the learners could not be randomized at all. The learners were left in their existing class groups for the project, and a quasi-experiment

was set up instead of an experiment. A quasi-experiment is a research design in which there are still at least two groups, a test group and a control group, but the learners have been left in their existing classes and not randomized (Dörnyei, 2007). This type of experiment has become accepted but the threats to validity have to be addressed by the researcher (Dörnyei, 2007). Instead of employing randomisation to increase validity, other measures are recommended for quasi-experimental studies that have natural groups. These measures were applied to this research study.

Learners in both the Control and Test Groups were tested to find out how they differed before the intervention began. The principle behind this measure is that if learners are the same before the intervention but differ after the intervention, then the difference is caused by the intervention (Wirag, 2019). This measure also enables pupils to be matched (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014; Winterbottom, 2017). "Matching" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 118) enables pairs of learners in the test groups to be compared to similar learners in the control group. In this study, learners were grouped into sub-groups 1-4 for the results analysis depending on how they had performed in the oral pre-assessment. Group 1 were the weakest and group 4 were the strongest. Therefore, even though learners were not randomised, they could be compared to similar learners in the other group. Stronger learners in the TG group 4 could be compared to stronger learners in CG group 4 etc. In addition, the results from a pre- and post-test could be used to find out if learners changed in different ways by comparing the pre- and post-test results of the learners in each group (Wirag, 2019). If the rate of change or the type of change is different, this can be attributed to the intervention. However, in the classroom, learners were not grouped according to ability but worked in mixed-ability groups so that the possibility of peer tutoring and learning from peers remained. Learners were not aware of the ability groupings that were applied to the analysis of the results.

In the study, learners were not permitted to self-select themselves to participate in the Test or Control Groups (Dörnyei, 2007). Self-selection can mean that learners who are more interested or more motivated choose to participate in the intervention group. This can introduce bias to an experiment. Therefore, classes were assigned to their group (Test/Control) by the researcher and teacher.

To improve the validity of the study still further, the researcher carried out the intervention four times in four different schools. The first intervention was carried out in a pilot test in one school in the Autumn term 2023-24 and then in three test schools in the Spring and Summer

terms 2024. The pilot test served to test the intervention and research tools to ensure their reliability and "iron out any difficulties" (Winterbottom, 2017, p. 223) before they were used in the three test schools. Repeating a test multiple times can help to increase certainty of the results if similar results are obtained multiple times (Thomas, 2009).

The researcher did not teach the intervention lessons in any of the schools as this would have introduced a new variable to the study. If the researcher had taught the lessons, then the teacher and the type of teaching would have been new, and it would not have been possible to say which had caused any changes that were observed. The class teachers kept their roles and led the intervention lessons. The researcher planned the lessons, prepared the materials for the teacher and observed the intervention lessons. The researcher was available to answer questions and give explanations before and after the sessions.

The quantitative results from the experimental part of the study on oral skills were quantitatively analysed using SPSS. Before the SPSS analysis could be conducted, the data was tidied and prepared in Excel. The quantitative results are presented first in the results section of this study.

This section discussed and explained the collection of quantitative results from the quasi-experimental part of this study, from the structured classroom observations and the learner self-assessment form. The next section discusses and explains the considerations made in the collection of the qualitative data from the unstructured classroom observations.

Considerations in the Collection of the Qualitative Data

As discussed at the beginning of this chapter, the researcher deemed it appropriate to carry out a mixed method study which also included the collection of qualitative data on the development of learners' oral skills through observation in the classroom. Observations were made of the intervention lessons by the researcher acting as a "nonparticipant observer" (Nunan & Bailey, 2009, p. 259). This meant that the researcher observed in the classroom during the intervention lessons and made notes. These field notes were written up immediately after each session by the researcher in a journal. A research journal is a diary kept by the researcher during a research project (Dörnyei, 2007). It is recommended that researchers keep a research journal in social research as the

> metadata generated by the researcher offer valuable insights into the project (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 160).

The collection of this kind of observation data in the form of field notes and a journal is extremely time consuming (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). However,

> the benefits of using an observation component in classroom research are too numerous to overlook. Without observational data, we are limited almost entirely to product studies – and even if their outcomes are interesting and provocative, we cannot say with much confidence what elements of classroom interaction and instruction led to any significant gains or differences that may emerge (Nunan & Bailey, 2009, p. 281)

There were two considerations made in relation to the researcher being present for the observations. The first was the possibility of the occurrence of the "Observer's Paradox" (Nunan & Bailey, 2009, p. 281). The "Observer's Paradox" occurs because the effect of having a "strange" or unknown observer in the classroom changes the behaviour of the learners or the teacher so that their "normal" behaviour (Wilson, 2017), which the observer aims to observe, is different to how it would have been if the observer had not been there. The learners may feel shy because someone new is present or they may try harder to impress the observer. These possible effects could potentially change the way that the learners participate. This being considered, the researcher felt that it was valuable to observe and judged that making notes in person would be less disturbing for learners than video recording the lessons (Wilson, 2017). In addition, it was expected that the learners would get used to the researcher being present in the lessons very quickly and the effect of an observer being present would lessen (Nunan & Bailey, 2009).

Video recording can be disturbing or interesting for learners in the classroom (Wilson, 2017). This can disrupt the lesson until learners are used to the video equipment. The researcher also felt that the use of video recording equipment was not manageable in this project as there was no time or opportunity to set it up in advance of the lesson. The classroom could not be entered before the start of the English lessons. More than one video camera would have been needed to capture the whole classroom (Wilson, 2017). As the researcher was particularly interested in observing the learners' speech during the lesson, the camera might not have been pointing in the right direction to capture the pupil who was speaking at the right moment (Wilson, 2017). Audio recording was a possibility, but the sound quality is often poor depending on the acoustics in the room (Wilson, 2017). Due to this, the researcher decided to observe and take notes in person.

During the observations the researcher made notes on what could be observed in relation to the learners' oral skills development. Observations of these skills had to subsequently be interpreted by the researcher who found it helpful to note down specific examples and accounts of "activities and events, or reconstructions of dialogues" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 161). To do this the researcher had to observe the learners' behaviour during the lesson and interpret it. The researcher also noted down what learners said during the lesson. The aim of these observations was to try to determine if the development of learners speaking skills could be observed in the classroom. However, the field notes were "open-ended" (Nunan & Bailey, 2009, p. 259) to allow the researcher to record anything that seemed to be interesting or relevant. These relatively unstructured observations contrasted with the quantitative data that was collected with observation charts used in the structured classroom observations of learners working in groups to develop their drama sketches during the group work phases.

Learners' reactions to the picturebooks and drama activities were also noted down as the researcher thought that these reactions may help to explain quantitative results later on in the data analysis phase (Creswell, 2022). Although there was not time to formally interview the class teachers during the project, the teachers sometimes gave feedback in passing which was noted down by the researcher to help improve the lessons and to gain an insight into the teachers' perspectives.

During the fifth session of each intervention unit, the learners showed the class the drama, sketch or puppet show that they had created in their groups during the group work phase. These were observed by the researcher and notes were made on learners' participation and interaction, speech (use of vocabulary, chunks, structure), concentration, memorisation skills and confidence in speaking.

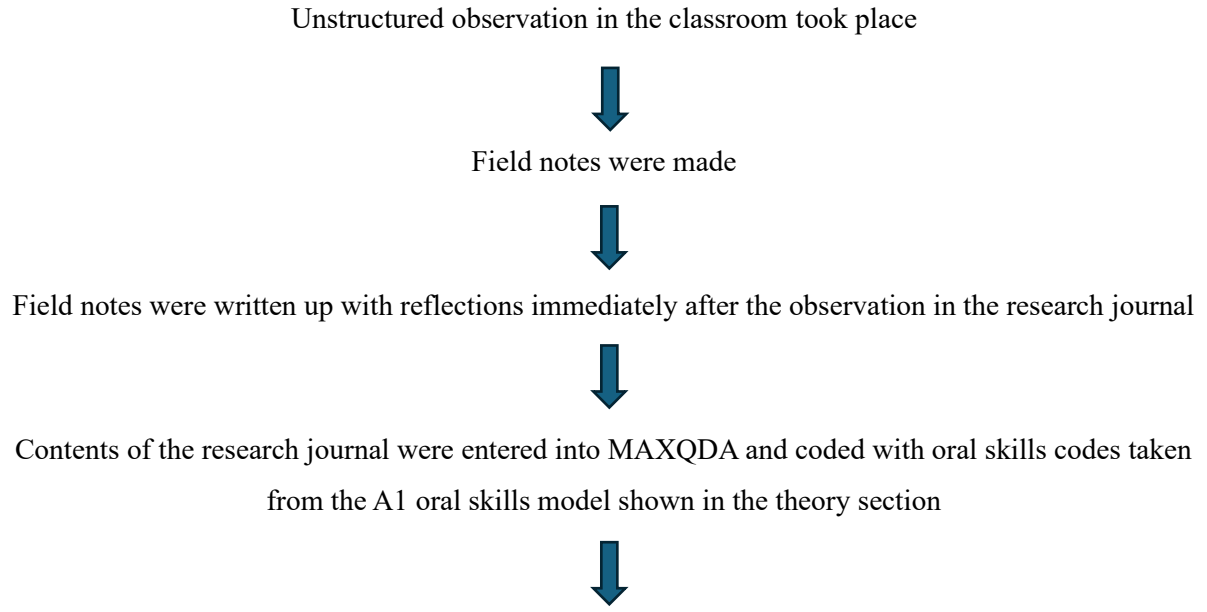
The field notes were made by a single observer, the researcher. They were unavoidably biased (Nunan & Bailey, 2009), as the observations relied upon the "researcher's self as the instrument of research" (Denscombe, 2021, p. 263). The researcher observed, interpreted what she had seen and wrote it down whilst also continuing to observe the lesson which was in progress. Researchers are influenced by their own "experience", "biases" (Wilson, 2017, p. 183) and cultural background which inform their thoughts and judgments as to what happened in a particular situation and what it means. Ideally two or more observers would observe each session, record their observations and then subsequently compare them, ensuring inter-rater reliability (IRR) (Cole, 2024, p. 1944). IRR would have increased the reliability of the classroom

observations. However, the observation by several researchers was not possible in this research project because the researcher was working alone on a PhD. Therefore, the observations were carried out by a single, yet experienced observer of educational settings (Denscombe, 2021). Despite the limitations, the researcher felt that the benefits of collecting some qualitative observational data from the classroom was justified. Classroom observations allowed a wider view of the development of learners' oral skills to be taken and possible explanations for the quantitative results to be provided.

The subsequent write up of the field notes in the journal, which took place after every lesson observation, also included the researcher's reflections on what had been observed and the researcher's interpretations of what the observations meant. It served as an aid to keep track of thoughts (Wilson, 2017). However, it also recorded the development of the researcher's thinking on the effects of the dramatisation of picturebooks on young learners' oral skills. The data from the journal was coded in MAXQDA with the oral sub-skills defined for A1 level speakers in the theory section of this project, and the observations were grouped. The method for collecting and analysing the unstructured observations had several steps:

Figure 5

Method for Collecting and Analysing the Unstructured Classroom Observations



This section discussed and explained the collection of qualitative data on oral skill development through unstructured classroom observations that were recorded in the form of field notes, written up in a researcher journal after each lesson. The next section discusses how the

quantitative and qualitative data were merged so that conclusions could be drawn on the development of oral skills.

The Merging of the Quantitative and Qualitative Data

Mixed method research requires the quantitative and qualitative data to be integrated in a meaningful way so that conclusions or "meta-inferences" (Guetterman et al., 2021, p. 1) can be drawn from the data.

> Despite an emphasis on integration in mixed methods research, there remain relatively few well-articulated integration techniques for use by researchers (Johnson et al., 2019, p. 301).

According to Johnson and colleagues (2019) integrating the data in a mixed method study is challenging. Therefore, an investigation on how to best integrate the data for this project was carried out. Guetterman and colleagues (2021) performed a review of "joint displays" for integrating data in mixed method studies. Joint displays are defined as

> a visual means of facilitating or representing the integration of qualitative and quantitative research (Guetterman et al., 2021, p. 2).

However, they admit that the description is "intentionally broad" so as to include the "integration of results, methods or data" (Guetterman et al., 2021, p. 2). Five different types of joint display were identified including "side-by-side", "statistics by themes", "interview questions", "participant selection" and "instrument development" (Guetterman et al., 2021, p. 2). Different types of joint displays were chosen to merge different types of data. Since the year 2017, visual sources of data in joint displays have also begun to appear (Guetterman et al., 2021, p. 4). Guetterman and his colleagues found increasing occurrences of this type of "creative joint display" (Guetterman et al., 2021, p. 2) which included "graphs, charts, maps, images, figures, diagrams, visual models or any other graphical feature" within the joint display table (Guetterman et al., 2021, p. 2). This method for integrating or merging the data was considered for this project. However, due to the amount of data and number of graphs or charts to be displayed, the researcher was afraid that they would be very small in a joint display and not possible for readers to see clearly. Therefore, other options for merging the data were considered.

In response to a need for further data integration methods in mixed method research, Johnson and colleagues (2019) developed the "Pillar Integration Process" or "PIP" (Johnson et al., 2019, p. 303) method which is a type of joint display.

There are four stages in their method of integration for setting up a PIP: “Listing, matching, checking and pillar building” (Johnson et al., 2019, pp. 305–307). First, the quantitative and qualitative data and categories are listed, then the two types of data are matched, checked for errors and finally,

> The researcher builds inferences about what patterns, insights, or themes have emerged and the possible explanations. They locate these in the PILLAR column in the centre of the display. The PILLAR holds the integrated themes from each row (Johnson et al., 2019, p. 307)

Quantitative data are displayed on the left side of the display and qualitative data on the right. In the centre is a pillar column. This method of merging the data without visuals, sounded most practical for merging the data in this project. However, the discussion of the results takes place in the discussion chapter. Therefore, only very brief inferences are made in the pillar column of the joint display for this project. Yet, Johnson and colleagues (2019) note that a PIP is very flexible. They welcome further contributions to the PIP integration method from other researchers and other disciplines, to further develop it and to provide more examples (Johnson et al., 2019).

As every joint display example is slightly different depending on the data collected, a PIP seemed to fit best to the requirements of this project. Therefore, a mixed method joint display was developed to merge the quantitative and qualitative results after a separate presentation of each set of data.

This section explained the research design of the project and why a mixed method research design was chosen. The following two sections describe the practical development of this research project.

The Development of this Research Project

This section describes the planning and development phase of the picturebook dramatisation project before the intervention was carried out in schools to collect data. It begins by explaining how the picturebooks for dramatisation were chosen. This was the first step that was taken by the researcher. The second step was the development of the research tools for collecting the data on oral skills, including the quantitative pre and post learner oral skills assessments and tools for evaluation of this data. The third step was the development of the structured classroom observation checklist for the group work phases of the dramatisation to observe learner interaction, and the learner self-assessment form to collect learners' perspectives on the intervention. The final step was the development of the intervention lessons which is discussed in the final section.

Choosing the Picturebooks

The first step in planning the intervention was to select the picturebooks. The research question "Does picturebook dramatisation have the potential to develop young learners' oral skills?" raised several other questions such as if drama lesson plans based on suitable picturebooks already existed which could be used. As a suitable complete intervention based on picturebooks for 9–10-year-old learners of approximately A1 level was not found, it was decided that one would be created with picturebooks that had been carefully selected for fourth class learners. Once the picturebooks had been chosen, suitable drama activities for young EFL learners were chosen to dramatise elements from the picturebooks and create the lessons plans for the intervention (Jeffries, 2017; Phillips, 1999; Winston, 2022). Five lesson plans per picture book were written.

In the search for appropriate picturebooks for the intervention, the researcher visited a book shop which had a large collection of English language picturebooks. A search for topically interesting picturebooks that might "appeal" to fourth class learners' "imaginations" (Winston, 2022, p. 46) and that would hopefully also be enjoyable, were selected. Story features discussed in the theory section for selecting potential picturebooks for the intervention (Böttger, 2020a; Cameron, 2001; G. Ellis & Brewster, 2002; Wright, 2008) were also considered. Ellis and Brewster's (2002) guidelines were used for choosing an appropriate story for the EFL classroom (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2002). Books which contained some humour, narrative and dialogue passages and were not too lengthy were identified. Cognitive and linguistic elements suitable for fourth class learners were also considered. The language contained in the books was scanned by sight

to see if it was appropriate for young learners at this level. As the picturebooks were going to be the main source of linguistic input for the drama, the language contained in the picturebooks had to be carefully chosen (Nation, 2022). Sentence structure, syntax, rhyming language and the congruence of the pictures to text were examined and evaluated. The researcher attempted to choose a selection of picturebooks that contained a range of language, some of which would be at an i+1 level so that learners could potentially advance their language skills (Bland, 2023).

It was important to choose picturebooks that learners would be able to understand well enough though, to be able to follow the story (Bland, 2015a). The researcher searched for picturebooks with a strong plot. However, it also had to be possible for learners to use some of the language in the story themselves in the drama activities. The relevance and suitability of the language for learners of this age and language level including the pronounceability of the key words (Böttger, 2020a) that learners might need for the drama activities, were considered in the choice of the picturebooks (Winston, 2022). It also had to be possible for the researcher to be able to think of ways in which the story could be dramatised in a meaningful and understandable way for young learners. The researcher did not know if the learners had done drama before the intervention. Therefore, a new learning format might have to be introduced, and the researcher thought that stories that had a complicated plot or were extremely linguistically demanding might make the intervention too challenging for young learners who were inexperienced in drama. The researcher wanted learners to feel confident to join in, especially as there was a limited time set aside for the project (Winston, 2022).

There were several challenges associated with the choice of picturebooks for the intervention. Learners were not expected to be at the same language level. They were expected to be mixed ability. Therefore, potentially learners in one class could fall between pre-A1 level and A2 level or higher (CEFR) (Barucki et al., 2015). Consequently, any picturebook chosen would potentially be too easy or too difficult for some learners. In addition, learners were expected to participate in the project at different times of the school year. As a result, learners who participated in the summer term (at the end of the fourth class) were expected to have better oral skills than learners who participated in the autumn term at the start of the fourth class because of the amount of English teaching they had received. Learners participating in the autumn term would have received less teaching. This was another reason why the picturebooks for the intervention had to be carefully evaluated. As a solution to these concerns, the researcher chose a range of picturebooks of differing difficulties that could be used in a “stepped” approach (Altamirano, 2021). The complexity of the picturebook text and the drama activities gradually

increased, although within the drama activities there was always a range of participation opportunities. This was a way to differentiate the language input provided to learners. The drama activities offered learners differentiated output opportunities.

Classes who participated in the intervention all started with a slightly simpler book and moved onto a slightly more challenging book once they had got used to the intervention format. Therefore, the drama activities could be introduced in a linguistic environment that was slightly less challenging for learners so that the demands on learners could be balanced (Cameron, 2001). Moving from a simpler to a more advanced picturebook aimed to advance learners. The researcher was also able to offer the class teachers a choice of picturebooks so that they could choose a story that they liked, thought was suitable for the learners, or which fitted to the Baden-Württemberg curriculum.

To analyse the level of linguistic difficulty of the identified picturebooks more accurately or scientifically, further analysis of the text was carried out with a POS tagger. This is not standard practice in EFL teaching. Usually, the choice of a picturebook is made on a practical basis. The children's interests, the teacher's preference and the appropriacy of the topic in relation to the curriculum may be considered, as well as the features of a good story for EFL learners. However, analysing the picturebook text is not unheard of in EFL contexts either (Reckermann, 2018).

Previously, Reckermann (2018) analysed the texts of the picturebooks used in her study on reading authentic picturebooks with young learners in a bilingual educational setting. However, the purpose of the analysis was to identify picturebooks of a similar level of difficulty (Reckermann, 2018). In contrast, this project aimed to identify picturebooks of differing difficulty levels. The picturebook texts in Reckermann's study were analysed in several different ways for text complexity. The length of the text was considered, the number of different words, the token type ration, the length of sentences, the number of words on the page, repetition and the relationship of texts and visuals were also taken into consideration (Reckermann, 2018, p. 255)

In this study a POS tagger, CLAWS (UCREL, Lancaster University) was used for text analysis of a selection of picturebooks chosen, to help determine the appropriacy of the language and to enable the books to be divided into four categories of linguistic difficulty. The analysis focused on the word classes used in the text, the amount of repetition of those words, and the total number of words in the text (the length of the text). These factors can all affect the

difficulty of a text (Reckermann, 2018) but they don't account for the full measure of text complexity. However, it was enough for this project, as an exact measure of text complexity was not needed. The purpose was only to categorise the books into approximate difficulty bands from 1-4 (from easier to more difficult).

The picturebook texts were typed up into Word and then analysed with CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023). The tagger identified and tagged words according to their word class throughout the whole text. The text which had been tagged, appeared with corresponding coding which was then checked by sight. The tagging tool is 96-97% accurate (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023). The accuracy was optimised by checking the text carefully. Occasionally, words which could be a noun or a verb depending on their context had been incorrectly coded. These codes were corrected according to the context in which the word had been used. The checked and coded data for every book was entered into an Excel spreadsheet.

The picturebook texts were compared to a list of pre-A1 and A1 words created by Cambridge Assessment English (Cambridge Assessment English, 2018). The words included in the Cambridge lists are words which have been identified by a team of researchers as useful for pre-A1 level and A1 level learners. This therefore, seemed to be the best solution for the analysis of the language in the picturebooks at the time, as no other young language learner corpus is easily available to researchers (Reckermann, 2018). The Cambridge English word lists are freely available online to help learners and teachers. The comparison of the lists to the picturebook texts provided an idea of the language level of the vocabulary contained there.

The researcher used a series of linked Excel spread sheets to compare the Cambridge Pre A1 and A1 word lists to the words contained within the picturebook texts which had been tagged with a POS tagger. This Excel sheets showed the frequency of occurrence of the words on the Cambridge lists in the picturebooks so the researcher could see if there were more pre-A1 or A1 words in the texts. This helped the researcher to gain a general picture of the percentage of words in the picturebook which were at the stated level. It was hypothesised that words levelled at A1 would be in the learners' Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotskiĭ, 1962, 1978) and would be more likely to be acquired than words that were more difficult. Although, it is not possible to predict or plan the vocabulary that learners will acquire. It was only considered to be more likely. Learners might also know some of the vocabulary already which would help them to feel confident.

Excel was programmed to count the total number of words in the picturebook, to count the total number of Pre A1 words, A1 words, and pre-A1 and A1 words together, contained in the book. Excel also counted the number of Pre A1 and A1 conjunctions, adjectives, nouns, verbs and prepositions (CANVP). These were the types of words that were counted and analysed in the PEAK1 test in 2019 and are considered useful for A1 level learners (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019). Words that were duplicated in the Pre A1 and A1 word lists were removed. Words which were listed as both a noun and a verb were checked and removed from the lists if necessary to improve the accuracy of the word analysis of the picturebooks. Excel could not differentiate between nouns and verbs if they were the same word.

The analysis of the CANVP words was also used in the post assessment analysis to find out if learners had acquired more of any particular type of word, and if learners had acquired and used any vocabulary from the picturebooks. The use of a tagger tool reduced the amount of time needed for this analysis considerably, over carrying out an analysis by sight.

The researcher analysed the twenty-five picturebook texts and some further picturebooks for comparison and categorised the books into approximate difficulty bands from 1-4 (from easier to more difficult). Picturebooks that contained fewer Pre A1 or A1 words, and or contained less repetition in comparison to their length were classified into a higher group (groups 3 and 4) because they were judged to be more challenging. Learners would potentially be faced with more unknown words and or unknown words that were not repeated as often. Picturebooks which contained a high percentage of pre-A1 level words were assigned to the easiest group (group 1).

The analysis could have been extended to A2 level as well. However, increasing the number of comparison words increased the complexity of the comparison considerably. Therefore, it was decided that it was adequate just to include Pre A1 and A1 word lists for the analysis. In addition, Pre A1 and A1 lists of words were considered the most relevant in this context, as the goal for the end of the fourth class is for learners to reach A1 level (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016). In addition, school textbooks which are used in Baden-Württemberg in the fourth class are in line with the Baden-Württemberg curriculum. It was hoped that the analysed picturebooks that were chosen for the intervention would be approximately the same level as the textbooks that learners often used in school, and not considerably easier or more difficult. The researcher hoped that having texts at a similar level

to the texts learners were used to would enable learners to join in confidently with the intervention.

The amount of repetition in the picturebook was also taken into account in the analysis. Repeated words are considered to make a text easier for learners because they hear the language multiple times. If the same words were counted multiple times, then the text contained a higher level of language repetition, a factor which was judged to make the story easier for learners (Reckermann, 2018). The opportunity to hear vocabulary more than once was found to help learners to acquire vocabulary (Elley, 1989).

In addition, although the words in the books were analysed, the words were naturally contained within chunks of language or phrases in the story. A separate analysis of these phrases in each book was not carried out because the words contained within them had already been analysed with the POS tagger. Many chunks of language already contain high frequency words (Thornbury, 2019, p. 6). Therefore, it was not considered to be necessary to analyse the language within them any further for this project. However, the grammar tenses included in the story were considered by the researcher and recorded in a checklist for each picturebook. These features were not analysed with an analysis tool because an exact measurement of the complexity of the texts was not needed.

Although the vocabulary in the picturebooks were linguistically analysed, the picturebooks were not viewed just as a collection of words. They were selected principally because they were good stories which would appeal to young learners and fit with the curriculum. The stories also contained a large number of features from the list of good features to look for in a story for the EFL classroom. The word analysis was an extra step which was designed to provide linguistic guidance on the potential difficulty of the text for A1 learners. The learners were not aware of any of the analysis that had happened before the intervention began, to choose the picturebooks. During the intervention the stories were read to learners with a genuine focus on the story and the meaning, and not with a focus on learning vocabulary.

In addition, although the stories were not chosen for intercultural learning reasons specifically, in the end four stories were chosen that had cultural significance in Britain. Two stories were well-known traditional tales that are told often and are very well-known, and two stories were written by famous British people (Julia Donaldson and Paul McCartney). All the stories chosen provided intercultural learning opportunities related to British language and culture.

This section described the process used to choose the picturebooks for dramatisation. Once appropriate picturebooks had been identified and categorised, the researcher began on the development of the research tools to collect the quantitative data on oral skills.

The Development of the Research Tools

The practical steps in the development of the research tools for the collection of quantitative data on oral skills are explained in this section. The section begins with an explanation of the development of the pre- and post-spoken assessment, followed by the development of the "can do" descriptors or rating scales (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019) which were used to analyse the spoken data. The set up of the speaking assessment is explained. This is followed by an explanation of how the classroom observation chart was developed for the structured observations to collect quantitative data on learner interaction during the group work phases. Finally, the design of the learner self-assessment form is explained.

The Development of the Pre-Post Speaking Assessment Tools

In order to develop a suitable spoken assessment for the project participants to find out about oral skill development, two key elements of test development were considered: the "test tasks" and "the test takers" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 61). A careful analysis of the expectations of A1 level learners described in the CEFR, the characteristics of learners in the fourth class, existing oral tests and the school textbooks were made.

The first step in the development of the pre- and post-speaking assessment was to look at the CEFR goals for speaking for A1 learners to find out what could be expected of learners at that level (Council of Europe, 2020). As learners in the fourth class are mixed ability (Barucki et al., 2015) and could therefore, potentially be below or above A1 level, the researcher looked at the Pre A1, A1 and A2 CEFR descriptors.

It was decided that a range of speaking activities would be included in the assessment to cater for learners from Pre A1 to A2 level. This was to allow every learner the opportunity to show what they were able to say and to "elicit the best performance" (Nikolov & Timpe-Laughlin, 2021, p. 14) from learners. It was unlikely that a Pre A1 learner would be able to demonstrate their skills fully if only A2 level activities were included. Only including Pre A1 questions would not provide enough scope for an A2 learner to demonstrate their full range of skills. As a result, it was decided that elements from existing speaking tests from Pre A1 to A2 level would be incorporated into the oral assessment to allow all the learners to participate as fully as possible. The assessment was planned to be communicative (Luoma, 2004), rather than a linguistic

test e.g. pronunciation. The reason for this was that the researcher wanted the learners to produce a sample of language which could be evaluated to find out if various aspects of their oral skills were developing. Using communicative activities were the most effective way to do this because learners would be required to produce whatever language they were able to communicate during the activities (Luoma, 2004). A comparison could then be made between their pre- and post-assessment performances.

Speaking tests used during the assessment of speaking skills of fourth-class learners in Germany were analysed to see what kinds of speaking activities had already been successfully employed with learners (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019). Cambridge Assessments for Pre A1, A1 and A2 level (CEFR) were also reviewed to find out what kinds of activities were appropriate for each language learning level (Cambridge Assessment English, 2025; Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2023b).

The school textbooks for the 3rd and 4th classes used in Baden-Württemberg by the intervention schools were analysed to see which topics the learners had already covered and to find out which vocabulary areas learners were likely to be familiar with. This was so that topics within learners' experience of the world could be chosen (McKay, 2005) and learners would have the best opportunity to be able to participate well in the spoken assessments. The researcher wanted every learner to have a positive experience, to have fun participating and to feel a sense of achievement at the end (Papp, 2022). The researcher wanted to avoid topics that the learners had not covered in class because unfamiliar topics might prevent them from being able to say much (Diehr & Frisch, 2008). Learners at this age may find it hard to improvise due to their cognitive development and linguistic level.

The researcher created a spoken assessment for the intervention based on previous tests with young learners in Germany, on standardised tests, and with consideration of relevant topics for young learners. The assessment was "appropriate for its purpose" (Papp, 2022, p. 395) and would produce quantitative data on the development of various oral skills.

In addition, as the researcher hoped that a control group would also participate in the study, the topic areas had to be familiar to them as well. To keep the assessment conditions the same in both the Test and Control Groups (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014), the assessment questions were designed on topic areas that learners had already covered in the textbook in either the third or fourth classes. It would not make sense to choose pictures based on the intervention picturebooks that the Test Group had covered in intervention lessons and the Control Group had not.

This would prevent the assessment from being a fair test because the groups had had unequal treatment (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014). Consequently, it was decided that both the Test and Control Group would be given the same questions and would be shown the same pictures. The pictures would be based on the topics in the textbooks that both classes had covered up until that point. This arrangement would hopefully reveal developments in the oral skills of both groups.

As far as possible, speaking activities that were game-like or had an element of fun were included (McKay, 2005). The assessment began with the simplest task and ended with the most challenging task. Some of the tasks were also designed to be familiar to learners because they were similar to activities found in the textbooks e.g. answering questions about themselves. Questions which required learners to provide simple personal information were included in the BIG test (2015) and the PEAK1 test (2019) (Barucki et al., 2015; Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019) and are included in the Cambridge Pre A1 Starters Test and the A1 Movers Test (Cambridge Assessment English, 2025; Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2023b).

The assessment was made up of four parts but were designed to last approximately eight minutes with a pair of learners (ten minutes in total from entering the room to leaving the room). The first part of the assessment included simple questions about the learners themselves. These questions were chosen from the school textbooks. For example, *How old are you? Do you have a pet? Tell me about your family.* Extra prompts were also prepared as follow up questions to give learners the opportunity to elaborate on their answers and to "keep them on track" (McKay, 2005, p. 10) for example, *Are you nine years old? Do you have brothers? How many brothers do you have? Do you have sisters? What is your pet?*

The simple personal questions were designed to allow learners to warm up their voices (McKay, 2005), to get used to listening to and speaking English and only required very short answers. The questions were posed alternately to learners so that learners took it in turns to start. They also each had the chance to listen first and start first.

In the pilot test, the researcher asked learners alternately the same questions in the same order. However, the researcher found that learners were parroting what their partner had just said and were giving identical answers. This meant that learners were also making the same mistakes as their partner. Therefore, in the assessments in the three test schools, the same questions were posed alternately to learners in a different order. This enabled learners to be more

independent of their partner and to give their own answers. It also allowed the researcher to make a more accurate assessment of each learner's skills.

The second activity required learners to look at a picture of a familiar scene. Learners were asked to talk about what they could see in the picture. They could talk about anything that they recognised or wanted to talk about. Two different pictures were prepared so that each learner was given a different picture to their partner. This task was similar to a speaking task used in the EVENING study in 2009 (Engel, 2009).

The researcher prepared prompts to help learners if they needed support (McKay, 2005). The prompts were available to every learner and were used if a learner had not managed to say very much unprompted. The prompts included questions, for example: *What can you see here? What are the people doing? Where's the rabbit? What colour is it? Tell me about this boy? What is he wearing? What is he doing? How many ducks are there?* The researcher pointed to the place in the picture that related to the question to find out what learners could say and what kinds of words, chunks or phrases they could use. The risk with this task was that it didn't have a communicative purpose (Luoma, 2004), and learners might not have been motivated to describe the picture. However, as each picture contained several different people or animals doing different activities, the researcher thought that learners would probably find something that they were interested to talk about. The picture allowed learners to show what they knew and could say on several topic areas.

The third task was a spot the difference task (Cambridge Assessment English, 2025; Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019). This task was introduced as a game and was much more communicative. Each learner was given their own pair of similar pictures and was asked to spot and describe the differences. Each learner had to try and find five differences. The pictures again contained items on a familiar vocabulary area that learners had already covered in class. However, the vocabulary area was different to the previous picture that learners had already described. This allowed learners the opportunity to talk about a different topic, in case the topic of the previous picture was not very familiar to them, or they couldn't remember the vocabulary. Some pictures were used from Cambridge English exam preparation publications. Some pictures were created by the researcher using the website Canva.com. The differences between the pictures were designed to elicit different word classes. Differences in objects, sizes, colours, shapes, locations and actions were included in the pictures to see if learners would produce

nouns, adjectives, prepositions and verbs. Learners also had the opportunity to use conjunctions in both the second and third tasks.

The final task was a storytelling task in which each learner was given a series of four pictures in order, numbered from 1-4 and was asked to finish telling the story (Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2023b; Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019). This was the most challenging activity of the four activities. However, again the researcher tried to find pictures which covered a familiar and relevant vocabulary area for learners, so that they could achieve the task. Some of the stories included an element of humour which the researcher hoped would motivate learners to talk (McKay, 2005). However, each of the stories included something familiar to learners e.g. family, pets, holidays. After a brief introduction in which the researcher introduced the story and talked about what was happening in the first picture, the learners were asked to finish telling the story by describing what happened in pictures two, three and four. This task lent itself very well to the use of story language, as the task was a narrative task.

Learners were not asked to interact with each other at any point during the assessment. They interacted solely with the researcher. This was because learners at A1 level may need the support of the interlocutor when they are speaking (Council of Europe, 2020). The researcher was able to offer that support. This was judged to be the fairest way to administer the assessment because it was unclear before meeting the learners what their linguistic level was. It was unclear if all the learners would be able to offer their partner support or interact with them. So, it was decided that it would be fairest to all the learners if they interacted with the researcher.

Throughout the assessment, the learners took it in turns to begin each question, so that each learner started a new task twice and twice they listened and watched their partner doing the task first before they had their turn. The learners could see their partners' pictures throughout the assessment but were asked just to listen while their partner was speaking. They were told that they would get their own picture to talk about once their partner had finished speaking.

For each task, the researcher had prepared a short rubric to read aloud to learners with the instructions. This rubric was standardised to ensure that each pair of learners had access to the same help. Each task was first explained to learners in German before the researcher explained briefly in English and gave an example in English. This was to ensure that learners understood what to do. The reason for switching back into English before letting learners start speaking was so that learners would give their answers in English. For example, for activity two the researcher said:

> *Ich habe für jeden von euch ein Bild dabei. Ich möchte, dass ihr euch euer Bild anseht und mir sagt, was ihr auf dem Bild sehen könnt. Was machen die Menschen oder Tiere im Bild? Das ist dein Bild. Du bist zuerst an der Reihe. Was siehst du im Bild?*
>
> *I have a picture for each of you. I'd like you to look at the picture and tell me what you can see in your picture. Tell me what the people or animals are doing? It's your turn first. Here is your picture. What can you see in the picture?*

The instructions given to the second learner were slightly shorter because the second learner had already seen the first learner do the activity. This also helped to allow learners the maximum amount of available time to speak. The researcher said:

> *Jetzt bist du dran.*
>
> *It's your turn. Here is your picture. I'd like you to look at the picture and tell me what you can see in your picture.*

Each learner had approximately the same amount of time to speak. An exact measurement of the time allowed for each turn was not made because the researcher had many other demands on her attention. However, there was a small clock on the computer screen which was timing the assessment so that each was about the same length. The researcher also did not want to stop learners in the middle of a sentence in case they found it off-putting (Hasselgreen & Caudwell, 2016). The researcher waited until a learner came to a natural end before moving on to the next question. At the end of each turn the researcher thanked the pupils but did not comment on what they had said.

The assessment was limited to ten minutes maximum because there was a limited amount of time available to carry out the assessments in the school timetable. The project was assigned just to the English lessons and did not disrupt the other timetabled subjects. For this reason, the time had to be strictly adhered to so that all the learners who had handed in the parental permission slip had the chance to speak to the researcher.

The researcher visited each class before the start of the intervention and introduced herself to the learners. On the day of the pre assessments, the researcher again first introduced herself to the whole class at the beginning of the lesson and explained a little about the project. It was also explained that the learners were going to have the opportunity to talk about some pictures in small groups with the researcher for a few minutes. The researcher was interested to find out about them and what they thought about the pictures. The assessments were recorded

with an audio device. A boy and a girl were paired together. Pairing a boy and a girl was to make the subsequent transcriptions of the recordings easier for the researcher because it was possible to distinguish between learners' voices to identify which learner had said what on the recording. However, the researcher also noted down the learner that began each section of the assessment. The learners' names were not recorded on the audio recording due to data protection. However, each learner was given a pseudonym number instead, which was verbally added to the recording by the researcher. The pseudonym was a mixture of numbers and letters made up of the number of the participating school, the learner number, the group (Test/Control), the assessment (Pre/Post) e.g. 0101TPRE.

The researcher also explained to learners where the discussions were going to be held so that the learners knew where to go. It was also explained to the learners that the discussion with the researcher was going to be recorded. It was made clear to the learners that although their parents had given permission to talk to the researcher, they did not have to participate in the discussions if they didn't want to and they could leave once the discussion had started. In this way, the learners' own permission was also gained for the discussions on the pictures and for the recordings (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017). During the assessment sessions the English teacher continued with the English lesson because the pre assessments were carried out before the intervention lessons had begun. All the participating learners completed the pre assessment picture discussion with the researcher before the intervention began. This was to ensure fairness in the collection of the results (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014).

The researcher took the first pair of learners to the room which had been made available by the school and started the assessments. Subsequently, the learners who had finished their assessment, went back to the classroom and told the next pair to join the researcher. The researcher used the short gap between pairs to save the recording, make sure that everything was correctly labelled and set up for the next pair.

Sometimes there was no separate room available and so the assessments were held in a corridor. The separate room was preferable because it was quieter and there were fewer distractions for learners (McKay, 2005). The recording was also clearer in a quiet environment. It was easier to transcribe the recordings which were made in a separate room because there was less background noise. A separate microphone was attached to a laptop which recorded the assessments using a free program called "Audacity". A second back-up recording was made using a handheld recording device. The difference of recording location (quiet room or noisy corridor)

may have made a difference to the learners' performance because there was a different level of distraction in the two locations. However, this could not be avoided.

The learners spoke to the researcher in pairs so that they were not alone but had another learner with them for moral support. This also ensured that the atmosphere remained relaxed. The pairing of learners meant that each could have the opportunity to watch another learner doing a task first and each learner also had rest breaks.

The researcher was polite, friendly and encouraging of learners' contributions and offered support when needed using the pre-prepared verbal prompts. Alternatively, the researcher pointed to parts of the pictures to prompt learners. The researcher did not correct anything that learners said incorrectly, as the purpose of the assessment was not to correct errors, but to find out about learners' communication skills. The researcher also did not want to discourage learners by correcting them (Nikolov & Timpe-Laughlin, 2021). Correcting could have disturbed learners' concentration, put them off and caused frequent interruptions. Correction would also have created differences between the treatment of learners and the researcher wanted to keep the conditions for each pair as similar as possible so that the results could be meaningfully compared. Large variations in conditions could have been created by correcting learners.

The spoken assessments were carried out before and after the intervention with the same activities and the same rubric followed by the researcher, but with different pictures. In the post assessments the pictures were carefully selected again so that they covered vocabulary areas that the learners had already covered in their 3rd and 4th class textbooks. The topics were different to the topic areas chosen for the pre-assessments. The choice of topic areas that were familiar to learners attempted to ensure that although the pictures were different, they were not considerably easier or more difficult. The assessments were recorded and transcribed again in the same way as they were for the assessments carried out before the intervention.

This section described how the pre and post assessment to collect quantitative data on speaking was organised. The following section describes how the data from those oral assessments was evaluated.

The Evaluation of Learners' Performance in the Speaking Assessment

It was decided that the data collected in the pre and post assessments would be analysed in two different ways, like the analysis of speaking data in the PEAK1 study (2019). Firstly, the researcher rated what learners had said against detailed "can do" descriptors or "rating scales" (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019, p. 65) which increased in difficulty incrementally. Learners'

oral performances were matched as closely as possible to the descriptors. “Can do” descriptors were also used by researchers in the BIG test (2015).

Four categories were chosen for the rating scales based on the PEAK 1 (2019) speaking test assessments (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019). These categories were “vocabulary, structure and coherence, communication and task achievement” (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019, pp. 65–67). The language used for the descriptors was chosen by the researcher specifically so that very small steps in progress could be detected and recorded. This was because the learners were expected to be Pre A1 or A1 level. In addition, the amount of time between the pre and post assessments was only planned to be 10 or 15 lessons. Therefore, it was not expected that the difference between the pre and post assessment would be very large. However, the researcher wanted to create descriptors that were detailed enough to describe small changes so that they could be detected. Each step was assigned a certain number of points from 0-4. Zero was only awarded for a category if a learner did not manage to produce any English at all. The “can do” descriptors or rating scales were laid out as follows:

Table 5

Oral Assessment Rating Scales for Vocabulary, Structure and Coherence, Communication and Task Achievement

Vocabulary

4	Can correctly use vocabulary to produce statements and/or questions. Appropriate vocabulary is available to perform a range of tasks.
3	Can use some appropriate vocabulary to form short coherent phrases or sentences. Mostly correct use of vocabulary. Occasional utterance of isolated words.
2	Can use some vocabulary appropriately to form some short phrases. Some vocabulary needed is not available for use and some inaccuracies in vocabulary use may occur. Some utterances still include isolated words.
1	Can use a limited vocabulary. Produces mostly isolated words.
0	Couldn’t produce any English words.

Structure and Coherence

4	Can use a wide range of structures and language chunks. Speech is usually coherent.
3	Can use a range of structures and language chunks appropriately. Speech is mostly coherent.
2	Can use a few structures and language chunks. Speech is sometimes coherent.
1	Can use limited language structures and chunks. A few utterances are coherent.
0	Couldn’t produce any language in English

Continuation of Table 4

Communication

4	Can maintain the conversation all the time and answers are appropriate. Sometimes initiates interaction. Interacts appropriately. Natural pauses and occasional hesitation are present.
3	Can maintain the conversation most of the time and answers are mostly appropriate. May occasionally take the initiative. Interacts mostly appropriately. Some pauses and hesitations are present in speech.
2	Can maintain a brief conversation with prompting and support. Sometimes interacts appropriately. Pauses and hesitations are often present in speech.
1	Can make a few contributions to the conversation. Can communicate with a lot of support and prompting. Interaction is very limited. Speech includes long pauses and many hesitations.
0	Couldn't produce any language in English. Wasn't able to communicate.

Task Achievement

4	Can communicate in short sentences or phrases to achieve a task. Can use strategies to maintain the conversation independently. All tasks achieved.
3	Can communicate in mostly short sentences or phrases to achieve a task. Some use of repair strategies evident to maintain communication. Tasks mostly achieved.
2	Can communicate with some short utterances. Can convey some short messages with some support. Has a few strategies for task repair or to maintain communication. Tasks partly achieved.
1	Can produce isolated words. Makes basic utterances. Can achieve some tasks to a minimum level with a lot of support. Some tasks partly achieved.
0	Couldn't produce any language in English. Tasks not achieved.

The recordings of the pre and post picture discussions with learners were transcribed with "Offline Transcribe" which automatically transcribes when an audio file is uploaded to it. "Offline Transcribe" was chosen so that the recordings of the learners speaking stayed on the researcher's computer and were not uploaded to any external servers. This was for data protection reasons. The completed transcriptions were exported into Word documents, checked against the recordings by the researcher, tidied up, corrected and colour coded. Contributions made by the male participant were colour-coded blue and the contributions made by the female participant were colour-coded orange. This gave the researcher a very clear visual picture of which contributions belonged to which learner.

The whole conversation between the researcher and pairs of learners was listened to multiple times by the researcher, whilst looking at the transcript of the recording to award each learner scores for each of the four categories. Usually, in a situation where learners' speech has to be rated, several raters would be employed to rate learners' performances and the scores awarded would be compared to eliminate rater bias (Galante & Thomson, 2017; Kao & O'Neill,

1998). This was not possible in this research project due to financing. Therefore, the researcher rated the learners blind, without knowing their names. Consequently, the learners remained anonymous during the rating. In addition, the researcher rated all the pre assessments together and after the intervention all the post assessments so that there was time in between. This meant that during the evaluation of the post assessments, the researcher could not remember what the results of the pre assessments were. This was the strategy used to help reduce rater bias from the results.

In addition, the researcher also did a second layer of analysis of the transcripts which involved isolating what each learner had said. The second layer of analysis provided more detailed information about the use of vocabulary and did not require any interpretation by the researcher. This analysis was considered to be objective. The language produced by each learner had already been colour coded during the transcription process in blue (boys) and orange (girls) on each transcript. The researcher counted the number of words that each learner had said in German. The number of German words were recorded and then removed. The remaining language which was in English was then tagged with CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) to find out how many words the learners had produced in total in English and what types of words they had used. The researcher wanted to find out if the learners had used more English words after the intervention than before. In addition, the number of German words used before and after the intervention were compared to find out if a change had occurred. The conjunctions, adjectives, nouns, verbs and prepositions produced (CANVP) were also counted. The researcher wanted to find out if the learners' usage of these words had changed after the intervention. Words that were used repeatedly were counted and then each different word was counted once. This was to find out if learners were using more of the same word or more different words.

The data from the descriptors or rating scales were used to divide learners in the Control and the Test Groups into sub-category language ability groups G1-G4 (G1= weakest learners, G4= strongest learners) depending on how many points they had scored in total for the four categories that were assessed. The groups were divided as follows:

Group 1 (G1): 0-4 total points

Group 2 (G2): 5-8 total points

Group 3 (G3): 9-12 total points

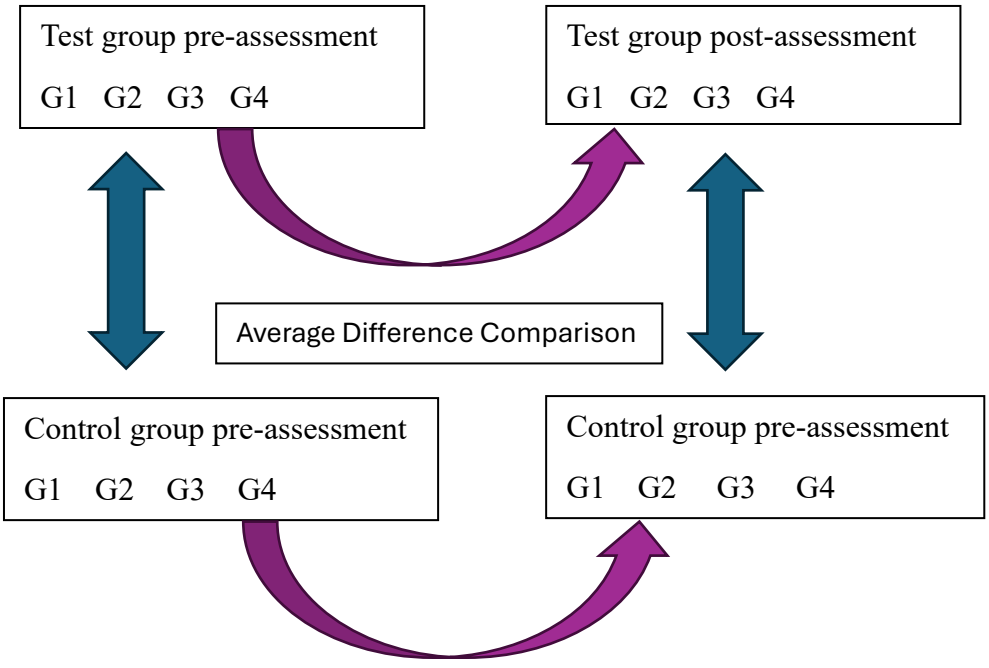
Group 4 (G4): 13-16 total points

An average for the pre- and post-assessment data from the descriptor analysis on vocabulary, structure and coherence, communication and task achievement were generated for each assessment in each category in each group: for the pre assessment in the Test Group, the post assessment in the Test Group, the pre assessment in the Control Group and the post assessment in the Control Group using SPSS. The pre and post assessment Test Group data for each group was compared to look for average change. The pre and post assessment Control Group data was compared to look for average change. The data for both groups was compared to find out how the Test and Control Groups differed on average before the intervention and after the intervention period. Using this method the researcher could find out how similar the Test and Control Groups were to each other before and after the intervention. It was also possible to see if the Test and Control Groups had changed in different ways. The number and percentage of learners in each language Ability Classification group could also be determined by the pre and post assessment data. Therefore, it was also possible to see how many learners were in each language Ability Classification group and if learners had changed group after the intervention.

The same process was followed for the data generated with CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) for each of the CANVP word classes. Therefore, the process was carried out twice, once for the data from the rating scales and a second time for the data on vocabulary produced by CLAWS. The diagram below shows how the quantitative results were compared to find out how learners' oral skills had developed:

Figure 6

Simple Method for Finding out about the Development of Oral Skills

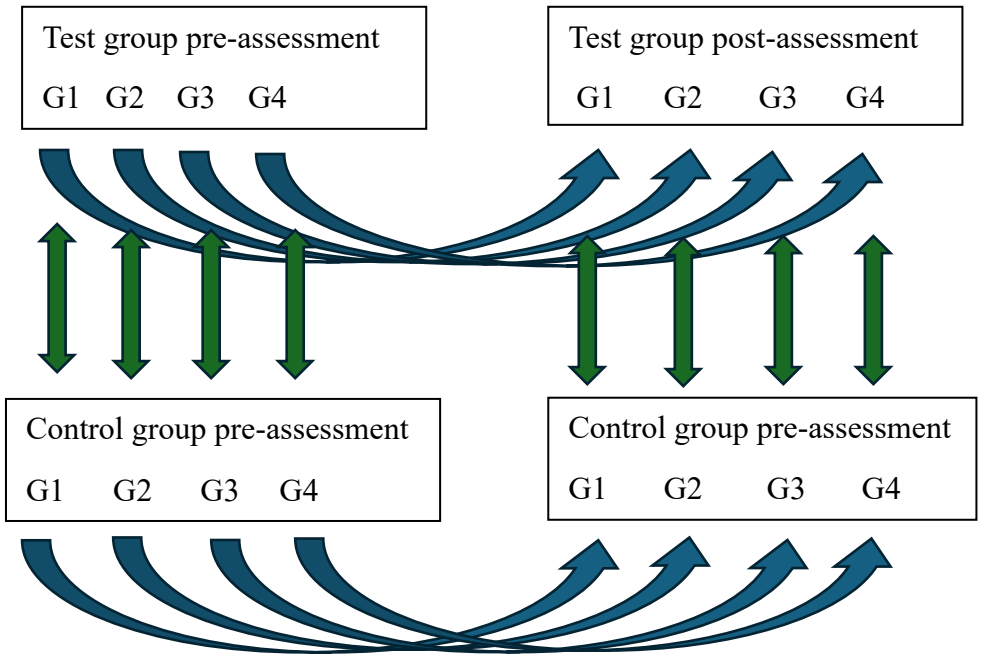


In addition, the post-assessment Test Group results from the POS tagger were compared with the words from the picturebooks that the learners had studied, to find out if vocabulary from the books had been produced by learners in their speech in the post assessment.

The data could also have been used to find out about the development of each language Ability Classification group (G1-G4) through an even more detailed analysis. This analysis required a comparison of the results for each language Ability Classification group in the pre and post assessment to find out how they had developed during the intervention. However, due to the limitations of time, space in the thesis, and the small number of learners in some groups, the more basic analysis using an average (depicted in Figure 6) was chosen. The more detailed analysis could be carried out in a future project. The complex analysis method is depicted in Figure 7.

Figure 7

Complex Method for Finding out about the Development of Oral Skills



The Classroom Observation Charts

As was described earlier, learners were also observed during the intervention phase. A structured observation was carried out during the group work phases when learners were working on their dramatisations together. An observation chart was designed for the group work

phases of the intervention that took place in the 4th and or 5th sessions of each intervention unit. During these phases, the learners were divided into groups of four or five learners (depending on how many learners were in the class) and each group was given a group colour (blue, yellow, red, green, orange) and a corresponding-coloured piece of card as a marker. This was to help the researcher to remember which group was being observed. The teacher, who knew the learners best, was asked to divide the learners into groups that would work well together.

The learners worked together to develop a short dramatisation based on the picturebook in their groups. As these group work phases usually began after a creative making activity, the groups were often ready to begin preparing their drama at different times because they needed different amounts of time to finish their making activity. This allowed the researcher to observe each group one at a time for a few minutes when they began preparing their drama. It would have been impossible for the researcher to observe each group simultaneously. It was helpful for the observation that the start was staggered. The researcher moved between groups and filled in the observation form.

The researcher used the observation form to find out if learners interacted with each other in the group work phases, about the language that they used, their ability to organise their groups and if they were on task or distracted. The researcher used a simple code to complete the eight observation categories for each group. Minus (-) meant “no”, plus (+) meant “yes” and zero (0) meant "some/sometimes”. There was also space on the observation form for the researcher to make a note of any other observations that did not fit into the eight categories. The observation form is shown in the following figure.

Figure 8

Observation Form for the Dramatisation Group Work Phase

Observation form for the group work phase in the classroom/ Beobachtungsbogen für die Gruppenarbeitsphase im Klassenzimmer – (no), 0 (some/sometimes), + (yes)

Mixed-ability groups of 4	Learners started the task straight away	Learners could organise their own group	Every group member was involved	Learners used classroom English during the task	Learners spoke German together	Learners used the language from the story	Learners were on-task during group work	Learners completed the task successfully	Comments
Blue									
Yellow									
Red									
Green									
Orange									

The observations recorded with "-, + and 0" were evaluated quantitatively. Each symbol was given a number (- = 0, 0 = 1, + = 2). A total for each category and a total for each colour group could then be calculated. Any comments recorded in the comments box were written up in the research journal and became part of the qualitative field notes.

The results from the observation forms collected during the group work phases towards the end of each intervention unit, were compared to each other to find out if any change had occurred in any of the categories over the course of the intervention in a school. The researcher could thereby find out through observation if the conditions during group work had changed. Notes on learners' motivation levels or any problems that occurred during those phases could also be recorded.

The Learner Self-Assessment Forms

A self-assessment for learners was developed to encourage learners to reflect on their participation at the end of each unit of the intervention and also to gauge the learners' impressions of the drama and picturebook intervention (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017). The form was completed by learners at the end of each fifth session of each unit in which the class had participated. The self-assessment form included six statements that learners were asked to respond to by circling the appropriate smiley. The self-assessment form had a Likert format (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017). The first two statements asked learners what they thought of the picturebook, followed by two statements about learner participation, one statement about the drama activities and one statement about how confident they felt about speaking English. The statements were as follows: I understood the story, I liked the story, I joined in with the story telling, I spoke English in my work group, I liked the drama activities, I felt confident about speaking English. Learners were only required to write their name on the form and for each statement to circle the smiley that best represented their own reaction to the statement. They were asked to work on their own and not to discuss it with other learners. There was a choice of five smileys ranging from very sad looking to very happy looking. Learners were generally familiar with this format as they had filled in similar self-assessment forms in class before. However, the form was explained thoroughly by the teacher before it was distributed to learners so that it was very clear what learners had to do and what the smileys meant. The self-assessment form is displayed in Figure 9:

Figure 9

Learner Self- Assessment Form for the End of each Dramatisation Unit

Selbstbeurteilung

Geschichte:

Name _____

Ich habe die Geschichte im Bilderbuch verstanden	😟	😟	😐	🙂	🙂 🙂
Ich mag die Geschichte	😟	😟	😐	🙂	🙂 🙂
Ich beteiligte mich am Geschichtenerzählen	😟	😟	😐	🙂	🙂 🙂
Ich habe mit meiner Arbeitsgruppe Englisch gesprochen	😟	😟	😐	🙂	🙂 🙂
Mir gefielte die Theateraktivitäten	😟	😟	😐	🙂	🙂 🙂
Ich fühlte mich sicher, vor meinen Mitschülern Englisch zu sprechen	😟	😟	😐	🙂	🙂 🙂

The researcher wanted to find out about learners' feelings about the intervention and their confidence levels. The researcher believed that in the fourth class, learners would be able to make an accurate judgement about their feelings and confidence levels (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017). The researcher felt that feelings would be most accurately assessed by the learners themselves. Learners' feedback was used to triangulate the researcher's classroom observations through triangulation of informant to "make the findings more powerful" (Evans, 2017b, p. 211).

The researcher also thought that if learners did not like a picturebook, if they didn't understand it or they didn't like the drama activities, this might affect how much their oral skills developed during the intervention. Learners learn better when they are enjoying themselves (Z. Zhang et al., 2024). A dislike of the stories might affect learners' willingness to participate in the intervention and to practise speaking. It also might affect the development of other sub-skills. In a study on reading conducted by Elley (1989), it was found that learners acquired less vocabulary from stories that they found hard to relate to (Elley, 1989). In addition, the researcher was also interested to know if the learners had enjoyed the dramatisation intervention units or if different picturebooks or drama activities should be selected for future groups instead.

The Intervention Phase

Once the project outline had been developed far enough that the researcher could adequately explain what the project involved, the search for a local school to participate in the project was undertaken.

The Search for Participants

A search of local school websites revealed many schools in a relatively small area. The researcher narrowed the search by identifying big primary schools that had several parallel fourth classes and schools that advertised on their website that physical activity was valued, or that the learners had participated in a theatre project. No specialist drama primary schools were found in the vicinity of the researcher's home. However, schools with a focus on sport were found and schools with several parallel fourth classes were also identified.

There were several reasons for the stated search criteria. Firstly, the researcher thought that if there were several English teachers in a school, there would be a larger pool of people who might be interested in participating in an English project. Teachers might be interested in participating if they could participate together with a colleague. As drama involves movement, the researcher thought that schools that valued movement might be interested to participate in a project that involved movement. Schools that had participated in a theatre project clearly had an interest in theatre or drama. Thirty schools within a 50 km radius of the researcher's house were identified. The researcher composed a short email providing details of what the project involved, a short project abstract and explained that the project would take place in the following school year.

Schools were approached via the main email address on the school website. There was high interest amongst English teachers in the project. Over the next three months, the researcher received seven positive responses from recipients of the project email enquiry. The researcher then decided that there was enough interest to conduct an initial pilot study and several intervention phases in further test schools. Therefore, the researcher sought the permission of the *Regierungspräsidium Stuttgart* to collect data in more than one school. Permission for the project was granted.

The researcher wanted to give as many schools as possible the chance to participate and also thought that the collection of multiple sets of data would enhance the validity of the results because it would be possible to see if the results could be replicated (Thomas, 2009). The researcher agreed a school term during the following academic year (autumn, spring or summer)

with each teacher who wanted to participate with their class. It was agreed with the teachers that the researcher would contact them again nearer to the start of the intervention.

The researcher contacted each teacher again in the school year 2023/24. Some of the teachers that had expressed an interest in participating in the project found that they did not have an English group in the fourth-class in their timetables or there were other reasons why they could not participate. Therefore, the participating schools were narrowed to four. There were four Test Groups and two Control Groups in total.

The researcher arranged a meeting with the English teacher of the first participating school to discuss the project in more detail. This school participated in the pilot project in the autumn term of the school year 2023/24. During the meeting it became clear that the intervention would have to align closely with the curriculum in the textbook so that the topics from the curriculum could be replaced by the intervention lessons. This allowed the participating class to pick up the textbook again after the intervention. The teacher and researcher looked at the picturebooks. The books chosen contained language that was similar to the language covered by the curriculum. The researcher then planned the intervention lessons including drama activities on the chosen picturebooks. Five lessons were prepared for each book.

The choice of topic for the picturebook also meant that the Test Group and the Control Group would cover the same topics and language during the period of the intervention, but in different ways. After the intervention had finished, the groups would have covered the same topic and language and could continue with parallel topics in the textbook.

Once everything was agreed with a participating headteacher and teacher, permission from parents was sought for the collection of data on speaking skills. A letter with a permission slip that had to be returned to the researcher via the teacher was sent home with pupils. The letter to parents included an explanation of what the project involved, which data would be collected and for what purpose. A permission slip was included which required parents to actively give permission for data on their child to be collected (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017). Only learners who returned the permission slip could participate in the data collection part of the project.

This process was repeated in each participating school. As the classes participated at different points during the school year, the picturebooks chosen were slightly different for each school. This was so that the picturebooks covered a similar topic to the topic laid out in the English curriculum in the textbook for that part of the school year. In addition, the picturebooks

chosen at the beginning of the school year contained simpler language than the books chosen for the groups later in the school year. This was because the learners who participated later in the school year had had more English teaching. They were expected to be more advanced in English than the learners who participated in the project at the start of the fourth class.

The following section describes how the chosen picturebooks were dramatised to create the intervention lessons.

The Development of the Drama Intervention

The creation of an intervention is not unusual in drama research (Mages, 2008). The literature review on drama studies with young learners revealed that the researchers had all developed their own interventions to fit their individual contexts. This means that no drama interventions are ever identical. Often different kinds of drama e.g. process drama, improvisation or creative drama may be chosen depending on the context. A variety of different activities within the chosen type of drama may also be used. Activities can be used in an intervention in a different order or a different amount of drama may be done. Often the exact details of the intervention are not described by studies, due to a lack of writing space in articles, for example (Mages, 2008). Consequently, it is also often difficult to know exactly what a drama intervention involved and to evaluate the reliability and validity of the results (Mages, 2008), or to replicate it. There does not seem to be any standardisation in drama interventions. So, it was not unusual or unexpected for the researcher to have to create an intervention to fit the context.

Once the picturebooks had been discussed and chosen, the researcher planned a series of five lessons on each picturebook. Three targets were chosen from the English curriculum for Baden-Württemberg for each lesson so that the intervention fully complied with the curriculum (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016). The lessons included creative drama activities based around different elements of the story such as the characters (appearance and feelings), the story plot (scenes from the story or locations) or around linguistic elements from the stories, such as repeated phrases or key words (Winston, 2022).

Each lesson included at least one drama activity, sometimes two. The drama activities started off simply just by asking the learners to listen and join in with an action or pose which represented the language spoken by the teacher. This was for listening practice but also to get used to the physical aspect of drama, to practise using the body to show feelings, for example. The learners were always given multiple opportunities to listen to the language and then to just concentrate on doing the actions. It was important to give learners the opportunity to listen and

understand the meaning of the language (Cameron, 2001) and to get used to participating in the drama elements before adding the spoken element. Language should always be presented to young learners before they join in (Dreßler, 2020). It was also important for learners to listen to the correct pronunciation before being asked to participate verbally themselves (Böttger, 2016). If learners didn't understand what they were saying it would be meaningless and irrelevant to them, and pronunciation could also be mislearnt.

Meaningful movements, the physical use of the body to create shapes or to embody characters and to express feelings, were practised with learners. This was done because the learners had never done any drama in school before the intervention. Therefore, it was understood that doing drama was a new activity for learners that they had not yet experienced and were not used to. Due to this, learners were introduced to the new format gradually. This information was incorporated into the lesson planning process so that learners had the opportunity to practise, experiment and gain confidence. In the fourth and fifth sessions of each unit, the learners participated in group work and dramatised part of the picturebook story together. The aim of this section of the intervention was to allow learners the opportunity to create something together, to be personally involved and emotionally engaged in language learning (Sambanis, 2013) and to experience the language in context (Bland, 2015a).

Each new book began with the teacher reading the story aloud to the class. A pre-, while and post-listening methodology was always employed for the picturebook reading during the first lessons on each book (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014). After learners had listened to the story, there was always some form of discussion to allow learners to share their thoughts and opinions about the story. For example, learners were asked to give their reaction to the story or to say how they thought a character felt (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014).

The first lesson of each unit contained a lot of language input because the story was read for the first time. A very simple drama activity was included towards the end of the first lesson. The drama activity was often planned into the lesson as the post listening activity. In effect this meant that the drama methodology including the drama warm-up, drama activity, warm-down and reflection (Tselikas, 1999) became part of the post listening story methodology. This was how the two methodologies were combined with reading the story. The reason for this was partly so that everything could be fitted into the 45-minute English lesson.

Lessons two, three and four explored different aspects of the same story with learners and gradually introduced new and slightly more challenging drama activities on elements of the

story. For example, in *The Enormous Turnip* which was the story chosen from group 1 picture-books (the simplest stories), the learners started with a drama activity to practise listening, becoming a character and making facial expressions. The drama game "Stop, Go, Show me" was used to help learners get into character. Learners were not required to say anything to do this activity. In the second lesson, learners participated in a "Story Whoosh" (Winston, 2022) in which they took it in turns to tell the story through mime, whilst the teacher read the book aloud. In this activity learners had the opportunity to say something if they wanted to or to join in with repeated phrases from the story. However, they didn't have to if they didn't feel ready. The purpose of the "Story Whoosh" activity was also to help learners to remember the order of events in the plot, which would help them with the dramatisation in lesson five.

In session three learners talked about vegetables and made a stick puppet of a character from the story. Learners were allowed to create their own version by changing the turnip to a different vegetable. They were also asked to make a stick puppet vegetable for the dramatisation. Learners had plenty of time to think about the story as they were making.

In session four, the script for the dramatisation was introduced with scaffolding, as described below, (Bland, 2015a) and practised altogether. This was done so that learners could become familiar with the script and correct pronunciation which they would need in session five. It was also to help learners who had limited reading skills in English to navigate through the script and to build learners' confidence in both reading and speaking.

In session five, learners worked in groups to produce a dramatisation of the story with the script. They had to work in groups and organise their puppet play. Learners were allowed to say the words for every character together if they wanted to. Lessons four and five were more challenging than the first three lessons because learners were faced with higher linguistic demands and higher interaction demands (Cameron, 2001). There was more speaking involved and learners had to work together.

Lessons four or five always included a making activity so that learners could make something to use in the sketch or short play at the end of each unit. Examples of things that the learners made were a stick puppet, a head band, a mask and a post card. These items were intended to be a visual and physical aid to help learners enter the "as if" (Andersen, 2004) world where they spoke through their character.

The second story unit (lessons 5-10) was always more challenging than the first unit (lessons 1-5) because the story was slightly more challenging and the second unit included more

drama activities that involved speaking. This was important because the intervention aimed to advance learners. Therefore, it had to become gradually more challenging. The units also became gradually more communicative. In addition, by the second book, learners had been introduced to the new format. They were more used to it and more confident.

As was the case in story one (*The Enormous Turnip*), the speaking activities in stories two (*Goldilocks and the Three Bears*), three (*Monkey Puzzle*) and four (*Hey Grandude!*) were designed to gradually extend or expand to become more demanding, either in terms of the language required, the amount of talk or in terms of interaction or emotion (Cameron, 2001). For example, activities started just with listening and movements, then moved onto optional speaking (answering a question, joining in with repeated language), speaking to your partner (role play/a dialogue/question and response), interacting in a larger group (scaffolded choice of language/performance in front of the group). Within this framework, learners still had a choice as to how much they wanted to participate because there were larger and smaller parts available (Bland, 2007). Learners could also participate and speak together so that two learners played one character.

In stories two, three and four, learners were given a choice of what to say in the dramatisations. Scaffolding was provided that offered learners suggestions to choose from to allow them to design their own dramatisation based on the story. Learners discussed together and decided who would say what and how they would act out the scene. The dramatisation was based on part of the story and either used language from the book or the language was adapted slightly. Every group's dramatisation was different because they were given a choice of language or characters. Although the situations for the dramatisations were based on an imaginary situation (the story), the language was "down-to-earth" (Maley & Duff, 1982, p. 2), meaningful, communicative language which could be used or adapted in the future in a real-world situation.

Each picturebook was read aloud to the learners at least three times during the five-lesson program to provide a reminder of the story plot. This was also so that spaced repetition of the story was included during each unit of work (Elley, 1989). This was helpful in allowing learners not just to develop their understanding and pronunciation skills (Böttger, 2020a) but also to acquire vocabulary and chunks of language from the story (Richards, 2005; Webb et al., 2023).

Before learners were given a prompt sheet or short script for speaking practice, the teacher went through the words on the sheet. The scripts, role plays and prompts used during

the intervention provided language models for learners (Legutke et al., 2014). In addition, the prompts contained chunks of language which are memorable to young learners when presented in context (Cameron, 2001).

First the teacher read the sheet aloud for learners to listen to (Bland, 2015a). The teacher made sure the meaning of the language was clear and explained how the play or sketch could be organised. Learners had the support of having already heard the story that the dramatisation was based upon, before being asked to participate. It was already very familiar to them. Then the teacher read the words again line by line and the learners repeated them altogether after the teacher to practise the correct pronunciation. This was repeated several times using different expression or varying the volume to give the learners examples of how the words could be said and the pronunciation was clear. The learners then read the words together as they were projected onto the board. Learners were then given the chance to practise the script or prompts with a partner. Afterwards suggestions for movements to go with the words were also discussed as a whole class and examples were given either by the teacher, or learners volunteered to demonstrate their ideas.

Learners were sent to their small groups to organise and practise their play or sketch as group work. The learners could decide who played each role. In some cases, the teacher helped learners to decide. Learners were allowed to play the same role as another learner if they wanted to or if they did not feel ready to speak English on their own. There were a mixture of roles, some with more words to say and some with only a few words to say. The learners were asked to practise saying the words and to choose actions to act out the words and then to decide who would stand where and when. Learners could move around talking to different people. They could agree, disagree, organize and follow instructions (Maley & Duff, 1982). They had a goal and could create something together. Towards the end of the fifth and final lesson on each book, the learners were invited to show their dramatisation to the rest of the class in the classroom. The learners used the item that they had made during the fourth lesson to help them to get into role (Phillips, 1999).

After every group had shown what they had prepared there was a reflection (Tselikas, 1999). The teacher asked learners for verbal feedback on what the group had collectively done well in the fourth and fifth lessons when they were preparing their plays or sketches and what they thought could be better the next time. The teacher moderated this part of the reflection which could be done in German or English. For a reflection in English, learners needed

scaffolded phrases on the blackboard. The teacher then explained the learner self-assessment form. The forms were given out by the class monitors and the learners filled in the forms according to how they felt they had done. Every learner was given a self-assessment form, but the researcher only collected in the forms from the learners who had returned the parental permission slip. Learners who had not returned the slip kept their self-assessment form for their own folder.

The researcher was always available to give guidance and answer questions. However, the teachers did not have time to attend long meetings before or after the sessions to discuss the lessons. The lesson plans had to be clear and understandable for someone else to use. The plans were provided as guidance and included suggestions of what could be said in English at various points in the lessons. However, there was a lot of flexibility which allowed for the teacher to adapt the lesson to their own style or class. These small changes were often discussed in the minutes before the start of the lesson. An example of each lesson plan is provided in the Appendix at the end of the work. Each lesson was slightly different each time it was used.

Due to the limited time available and the fact that the teachers were not trained drama specialists, the researcher took the same approach as some other drama researchers and provided drama lesson plans and materials (Demircioğlu, 2010; Kalogirou et al., 2019). Therefore, the project was organised in the following way:

Table 6

Summary of the Researcher and Teacher's Tasks during the Intervention

The Researcher's Tasks	The Teacher's Tasks
Wrote and re-wrote the 20 lesson plans (if they needed to be adapted for the intervention class). Wrote short explanations of the drama activities for the teacher. Prepared the materials for the lessons and organised them into lesson packs (everything needed for a lesson in one envelope).	Read through the picturebook and lesson plan before the lesson. Looked at the materials. Taught the lesson.

Due to time constraints, the teachers were not interviewed during the study. However, feedback about the project was given briefly verbally before the sessions or at the end of the

sessions by the teachers. The feedback was incorporated into the lesson plans and written up by the researcher in the Research Journal.

Each picturebook had a medium-term plan which showed the curriculum goals, the materials for the lesson, the picturebook activities and the drama activities (see the Appendix). The medium-term plan gave an overview of the whole unit. The following section provides an overview of the pilot study and the main study.

The Pilot Study and the Main Study

A pilot study was planned to test out the intervention and research tools for reliability and validity (Winterbottom, 2017). It took place in the Autumn term of the 2023/24 school year before the interventions in the Test Schools 2, 3 and 4. Once the intervention had been tested and some results on oral skills had been collected, the researcher tested the analysis. The rating scales were used to analyse the results of the oral pre and post assessments (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019; Luoma, 2004). The learner dialogues from the oral assessments were also analysed with CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023), to find out what kinds of words the learners had used and how many words learners had said in total. The quantitative results, including the results from the learner feedback forms and the structured classroom observations were analysed using SPSS. The qualitative observations were written up in a Research Journal and then analysed to find out what the data showed about oral skills development (Evans, 2017a). MAXQDA was used and codes were chosen in line with the oral sub-skills that had been defined in the theory section. Once this was done, both types of data were integrated together to provide information on the development of a range of oral sub-skills. Together the data contributed to the "interpretation of the overall results" (Wilson, 2017, p. 177) and provided a fuller picture on the development of learners' oral skills in the pilot school. As the results of the pilot study were promising, it was hoped that similar results could be replicated in the main participating schools.

The pilot study revealed that it was difficult for learners who had not done drama before to do several different drama activities in one lesson at the start of the intervention. For this reason, the researcher removed some content from the lesson plans before the Test schools participated in the intervention.

The main study collected data from three further schools. The same process was followed as had been in the Pilot School. However, the picturebooks, drama activities and lesson plans were adapted for each class because each class was slightly different. Table 7 shows a

summary of the four schools that participated in the study, the number of learners that returned the permission slip in each class and the picturebooks that were dramatised in each school.

Table 7

The Intervention Schools

Research Phase	School	Intervention class	Control group
Pilot study School 1 Autumn term 2023/24	A school in a small town in Baden-Württemberg Two parallel fourth classes. Two English teachers	14 children had permission for data collection. 10 drama lessons 2 picturebooks	18 children had permission for data collection Continued to follow the English curriculum
Main project School 2 Spring term 2024 January – April 24	A school in a small town in Baden-Württemberg. Two English teachers	16 children had permission for data collection. 15 drama lessons 3 picture books	10 children had permission for data collection Continued to follow the English curriculum
Main project School 3 Spring term 2024 February – April 24	A school in a small town in Baden-Württemberg. One English teacher	17 children had permission for data collection. 15 drama lessons 3 picturebooks	No control group
Main project School 4 Summer term 2024 April – June 24	A school in a small town in Baden-Württemberg One English teacher	15 children had permission for data collection. 10 drama lessons	No control group

This section described the development of the research design and explained why a mixed method study was chosen for this project. The practical stages in the design of the research tools were explained. In addition, the method for identifying picturebooks for the project and the lesson plan design was explained. The next chapter presents the quantitative and qualitative results of the study.

Results of the Study

This chapter presents the results of this study. The first section presents the results of the picturebook analysis which helped the researcher to choose suitable picturebooks for use with young EFL learners and to subsequently group them into categories of difficulty. This is followed by a small selection of the results obtained from the analysis of the picturebook texts obtained by using CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023), the POS tagger used in the project. Only a sample of that analysis is included here due to limitations of space. This information was used to help group the picturebooks into categories of difficulty through the analysis of vocabulary and subsequent comparison to Pre A1 and A1 word lists. The information on the picturebook vocabulary obtained from the POS tagger was also used in the oral skills analysis to find out if learners had used vocabulary from the picturebooks in their speech in the post assessment.

In the second section, all the quantitative results on oral skills obtained in the pilot school (School 1), and in the three intervention schools, (Schools 2, 3 and 4) are presented. In conclusion in this section, all the results from all the schools were analysed together to provide an overall statistical result on learners' oral skills development.

This is followed by a presentation of the qualitative results which are presented in table form. These results are initially presented for all four schools together and are grouped according to oral skill. Finally, a joint display which integrates the quantitative and qualitative results for each school is presented.

The Results of the Picturebook Analysis

This section provides an example of the initial analysis of the picturebooks. First the results of the four picturebooks which were used in the study is shown. Only four are included here due to space limitations. The criteria chosen for analysis were chosen from *Tell it again!* (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014) which provides guidance on suitable stories for use with young learners in EFL classrooms. Then a sample of the analysis carried out on the picturebooks with the POS tagger are shown.

Analysis of the Features of the Story

Table 8

Analysis of the Chosen Picturebooks used in the Study

	The Enormous Turnip	**Goldilocks and the Three Bears**	**Monkey Puzzle**	**Hey Grandude!**
Topic	Helping people Growing food	At home Furniture The forest	Wild animals Animal features Metamorphosis	Travel The World Adventure Animals Wishing
A clear story line	√	√	√	√
Fantasy elements	√	√	√	√
Fairy tale	√	√	-	-
Narrative & dialogue	√	√	√	√
Questions/answers	√	√	√	√
Repeating structures/cumulative story content	√	√	√	√
Rhyme	-	-	√	√
Tenses	Present Future with will	Present Present perfect Future with will	Present Present perfect Past	Present Past
Humour	√	-	-	√
Moral	√	√	-	-
Opportunities to discuss feelings	√	√	√	√
Illustrations support the meaning of the text and are attractive	√	√	√	√
May extend knowledge of the world	-	-	√	√

Continuation of Table 8

	The Enormous Turnip	Goldilocks and the Three Bears	Monkey Puzzle	Hey Grandude!
Can be fitted to the Baden-Württemberg curriculum	√	√	√	√
Cross curricular potential	√	√	√	√

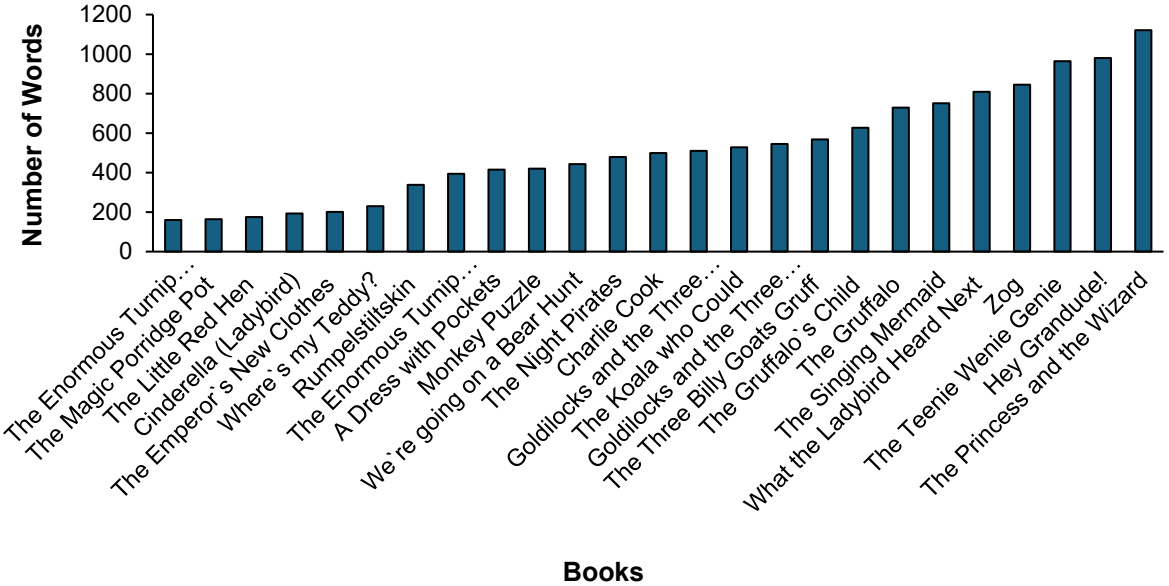
Note. The table shows the initial analysis performed on the picturebooks selected for this study. It is based on the guidance on choosing suitable storybooks for the EFL classroom contained in *Tell it again!* (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014, pp. 4–13). The table is adapted from the information contained in those pages. This analysis was carried out on all the books that were identified as potential choices for the project. However, the whole analysis was not included here due to space limitations. This analysis was carried out on the picturebooks before the word analysis with a POS tagger was carried out.

Analysis with a POS Tagger

The picturebook text was typed up in a Word document and analysed with the POS tagger CLAWS (UCREL, Lancaster University) which tagged the parts of speech. The formatting was removed using the text editor Microsoft Notepad and the data was entered into an Excel spreadsheet.

Figure 10

The Length of the Picturebooks Obtained Through a Word Count Performed by a POS Tagger

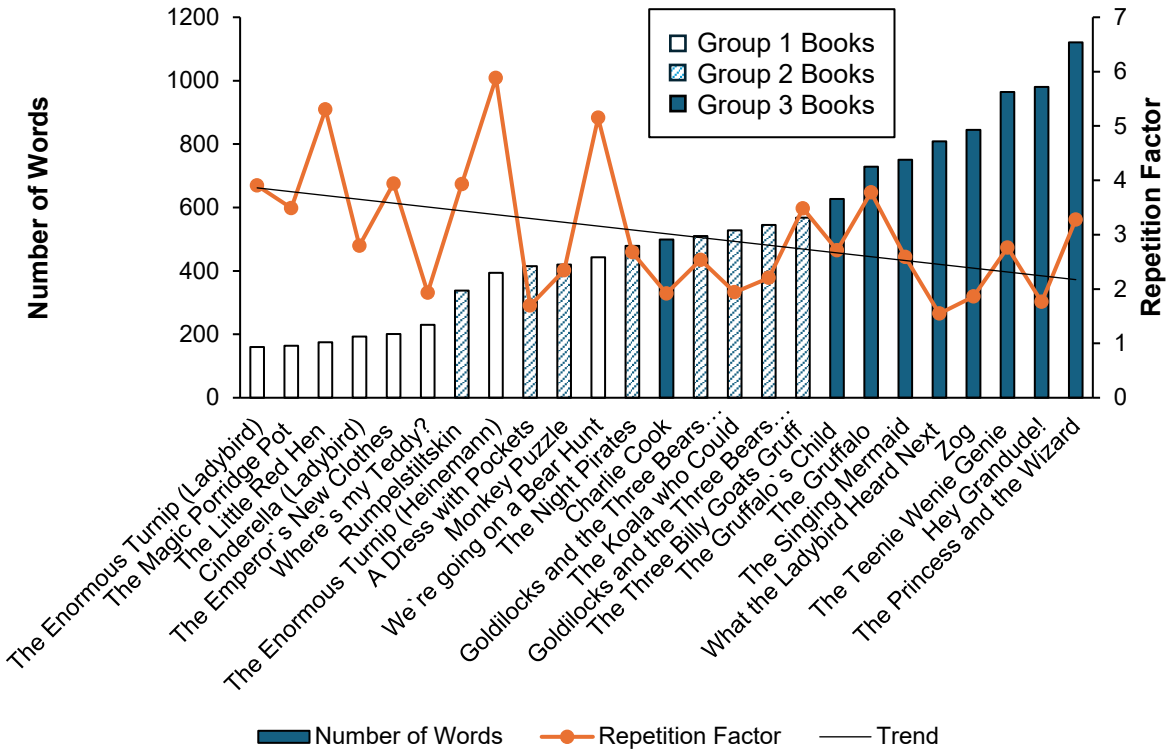


Note. Figure 10 shows the results for the number of words in each book. The Ladybird book *The Enormous Turnip* contained the fewest words and *The Princess and the Wizard* by Julia Donaldson contained the most words. Some books were also included for comparison purposes e.g. *Where's my Teddy?* which was considered too simple for primary school learners. This was due to the content of the story.

The words in each book were then analysed for repetition of vocabulary.

Figure 11

Book Level Analysis Taking Account of Language Repetition



Note. The graph in Figure 11 shows the total number of words in each book as bars. The jagged line indicates the repetition factor which indicates how much language repetition the book contained compared to the total number of words. The black line is a trend line which indicates a downward trend in the amount of repetition in the books as the word count increased. The amount of repetition in each book was considered in the categorization process of the books into categories of difficulty.

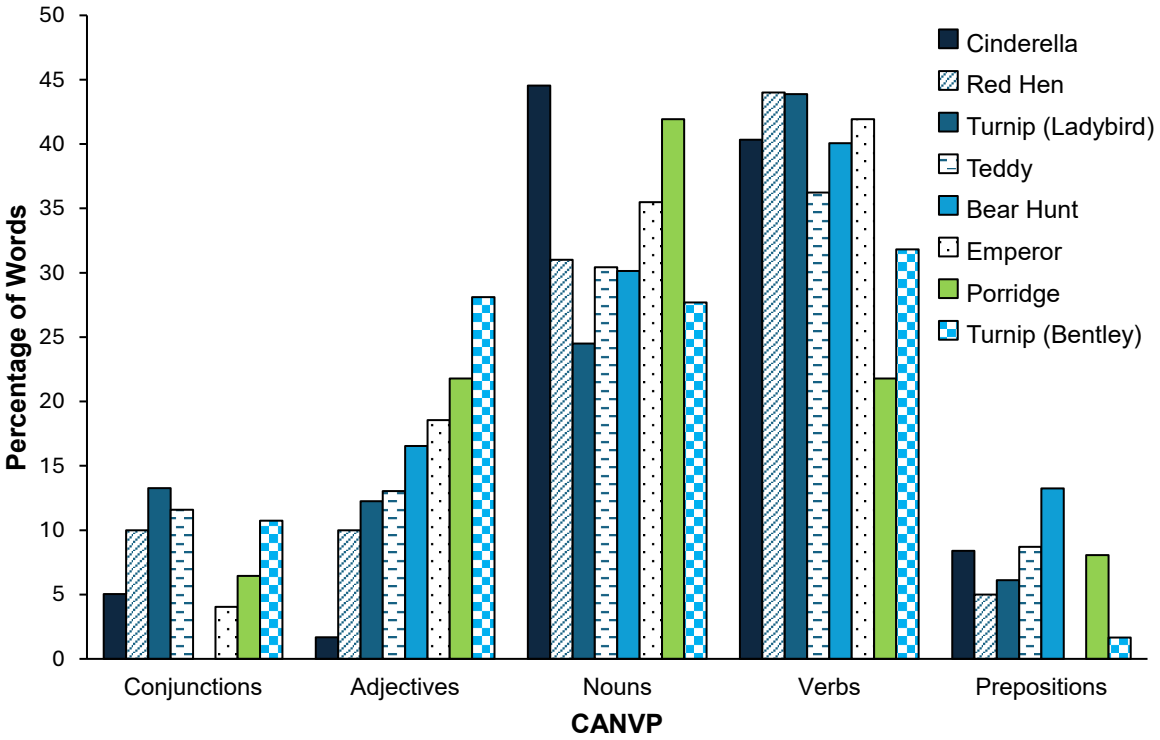
Consideration was also made of the amount of vocabulary in each book which was Pre A1 and A1 level according to the lists produced by Cambridge University Press and Assessment for young learners (Cambridge Assessment English, 2018). These word lists were added to the

Excel document so that the data from the picturebooks could be compared to the Pre A1 and A1 word lists to find out how many of these words were contained in the books. In addition, the conjunctions, adjectives, nouns, verbs and prepositions (CANVP) contained in the books were counted, as these were the types of words which were also identified and evaluated as being useful for learners in the PEAK 1 (2019) test in Germany (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019). The information from the POS tagger was also used to identify these words in the picturebook texts.

The graph below shows the results of vocabulary analysis for group 1 books. Group 1 books were judged to be the easiest linguistically because of their length, the Pre A1/A1 vocabulary and the amount of repetition that they contained. The analysis of group 1 books is included as an example of the analysis that was done to investigate the language in the picturebooks.

Figure 12

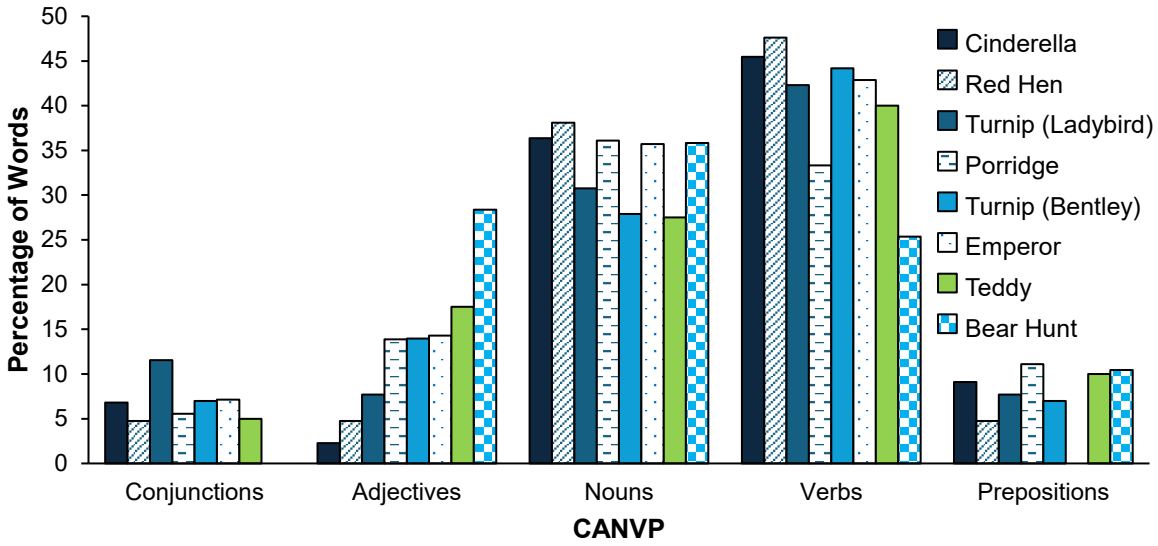
Results of the CANVP A1 Level Word Analysis on Group 1 Books Including Repeated Words



Note. The percentage of A1 words is calculated to include repeated words. That means that if the same word appeared in the text more than once, it was counted more than once. The highest percentage of words in the books were nouns and verbs.

Figure 13

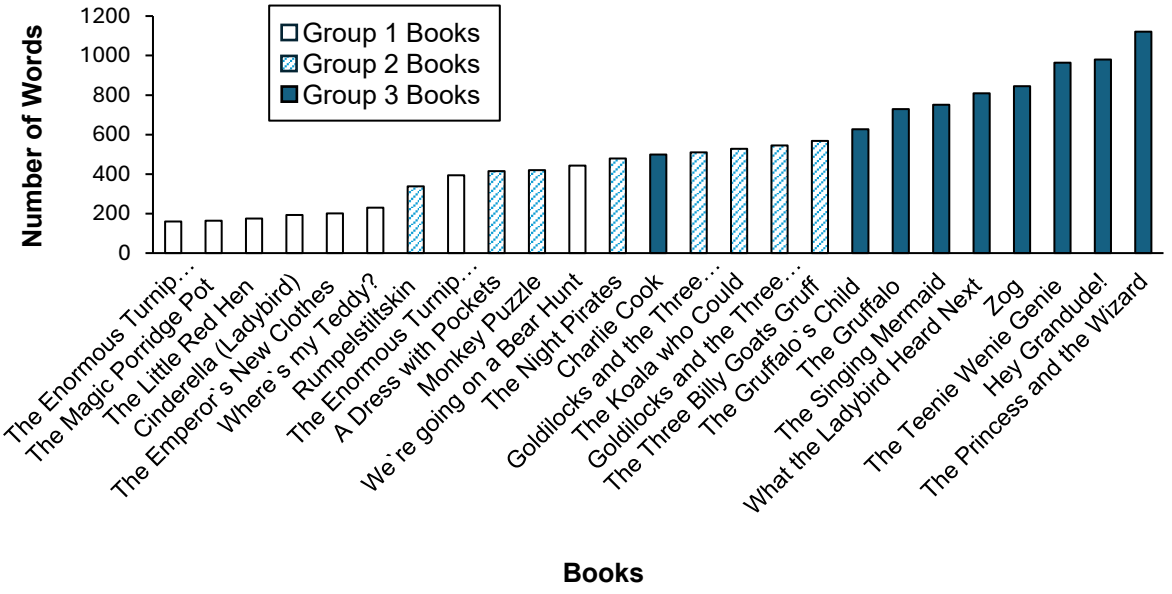
Results of the CANVP A1 level Word Analysis of Different Words in Group 1 Books



Note. Figure 13 shows the results of the CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) analysis on different CANVP words the group 1 books. The percentage of A1 level words is calculated here without repetition of words. That means that each different conjunction, adjective, noun, verb and proposition found in the text was only counted once.

Figure 14

The Categorisation of the Picturebooks



Note. The graph shows the division of the picturebooks into categories as a result of the analysis that was carried out. Group 1 books were the simplest and group 3 books the most challenging.

Group 1 books were judged to be the simplest because they contained the highest percentage of A1 level vocabulary. These books were also the shortest and contained the most repetition of the same vocabulary. Group 3 books were generally longer, contained fewer A1 level words and less repetition.

The Quantitative Results from the Intervention Schools

In this section the quantitative results on oral skills collected from the rating scale or speaking descriptor analysis of learners' speech in the pre and post assessments are presented for each school. This is followed by a presentation of the results from the POS tagger CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) on vocabulary use by learners, the results from the structured classroom observations and learner self-assessment forms. After each set of quantitative results for each school have been presented, there is an overall statistical result on learners' oral skills development.

The Results from the Pilot Study (School 1)

The following section presents the results collected during the pilot study in School 1. The results of the quantitative analysis of the learners' transcripts from the pre and post assessments using the speaking descriptors is presented first. These results are followed by the presentation of the word class analysis performed on the transcripts using CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023). The results of the learner self-assessments and the quantitative results of the structured observation carried out in the classroom, follow.

The Speaking Descriptor Analysis in School 1

Table 9

Average Total Point Score and Language Ability Classifications in the Control and Test Groups in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 1

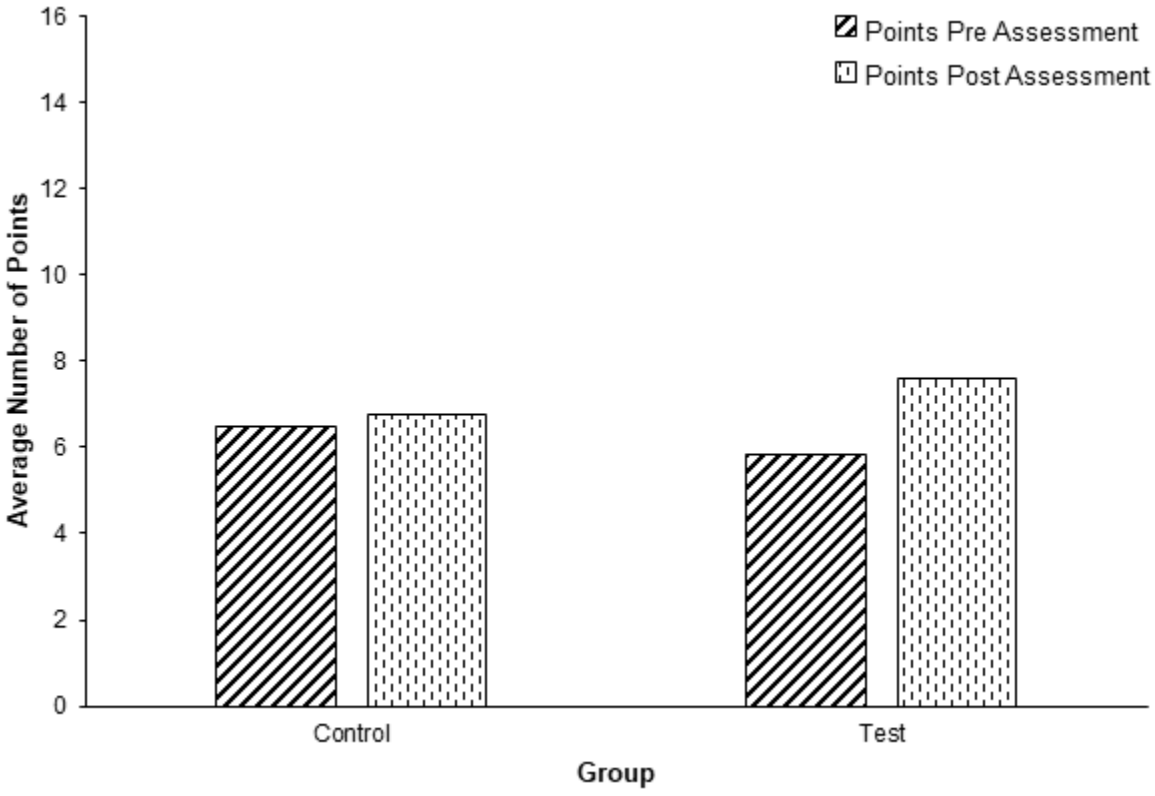
		Total Points Score		**Ability Classification**	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Control	Mean	6.50	6.75	1.94	1.94
	N	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	2.94	3.11	0.68	0.77
Test	Mean	5.85	7.62	1.62	2.15
	N	13	13	13	13
	Std. Deviation	4.08	4.29	0.96	1.07

Note. Table 9 shows the average Point Scores out of 16 and the average Language Ability Classifications (1=lowest 4=highest) for learners in the Control Group (N=16) and the Test Group (N=13) in the pre and post assessment phases before and after the intervention. Twenty-nine learners participated in the pilot study in total. The results show that the Control Group were on average a stronger group in the pre assessment than the Test Group. The SD in the Control Group was also lower than in the Test Group.

The results for the Control Group show that on average an increase of 0.25 additional Total Points were awarded in the post assessment. However, the average Ability Classification remained the same. The Test Group gained 1.77 additional points in the post assessment and the average language Ability Classification increased by 0.53. Figures 15 and 16 below depict the results displayed in Table 9.

Figure 15

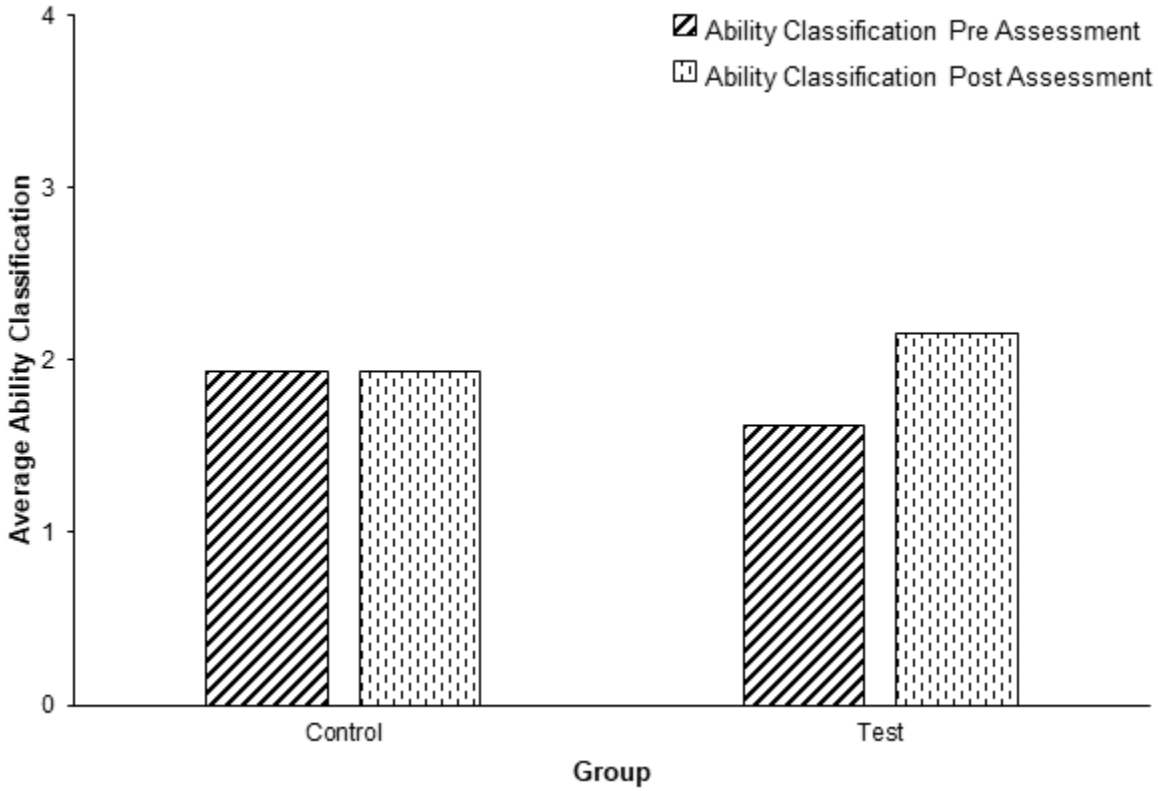
Average Point Score in the Control and Test Groups in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 1



Note. The bar chart shows the average Point Score in the Control Group and Test Group in the pre and post assessments in the pilot study. The pre and post results are displayed next to each other for each group e.g. first the pre assessment result and then the post assessment results.

Figure 16

Average Language Ability Classifications in the Control and Test Groups in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 1



Note. The bar chart shows the average language Ability Classification in the Control Group and Test Group in the pre and post assessments in the pilot study. The pre and post results are displayed next to each other for each group.

Table 10 shows the average point scores for Vocabulary Use and Structure and Coherence in the Control Group and the Test Group in the pre and post assessments in School 1. The results were obtained from the speaking descriptor analysis of learners' transcripts. The maximum point score in each category was four points.

Table 10

Average Point Scores for Vocabulary Use and Structure and Coherence in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 1

Group		Vocabulary Use Score		Structure and Coherence Score	
		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Control	Mean	1.88	1.81	1.50	1.62
	N	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	0.62	0.66	0.82	0.81
Test	Mean	1.62	1.92	1.46	1.85
	N	13	13	13	13
	Std. Deviation	0.96	1.04	1.13	0.99

Note. The results show that the Control Group were slightly stronger than the Test Group in Vocabulary Use and Structure and Coherence in the pre assessment. The average Vocabulary Use Score awarded to the Control Group fell slightly by 0.07 in the post assessment. However, the average mark for Structure and Coherence in the Control Group increased by 0.12 in the post assessment. The average Vocabulary Use Score in the Test Group increased by 0.30 and the average Structure and Coherence Score increased by 0.39 in the post assessment.

Table 11 below shows the average point scores for Communication and Task Achievement in the Control Group and the Test Group in the pre and post assessments in School 1. The results were obtained from the speaking descriptor analysis of learners' transcripts. The maximum point score in each category was four points.

Table 11

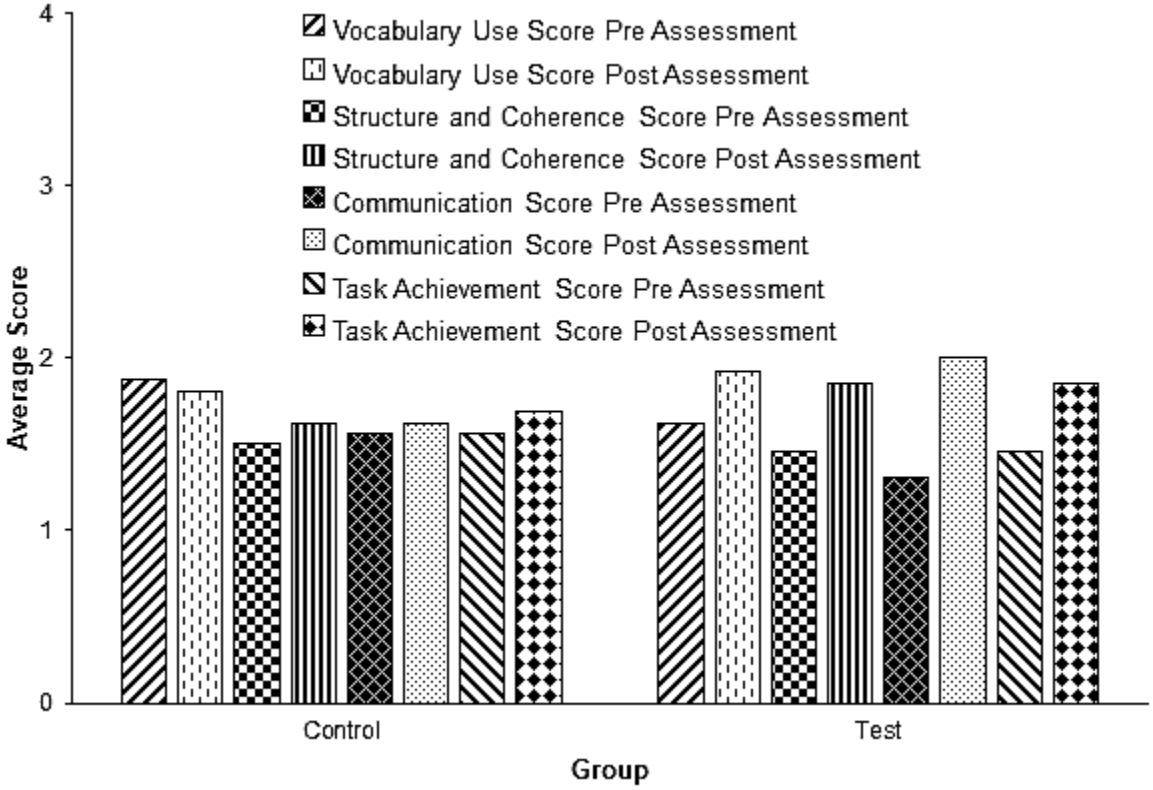
Average Point Scores for Communication and Task Achievement in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 1

Group		Communication Score		Task Achievement Score	
		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Control	Mean	1.56	1.62	1.56	1.69
	N	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	0.89	0.81	0.81	1.01
Test	Mean	1.31	2.00	1.46	1.85
	N	13	13	13	13
	Std. Deviation	0.95	1.23	1.13	1.21

Note. The results show that the Control Group obtained a higher score in Communication and Task Achievement than the Test Group in the pre assessment. The Control Group improved on average by 0.06 points in Communication and 0.13 points in Task Achievement in the post assessment. The Test Group improved on average by 0.69 points in Communication and 0.39 points in Task Achievement. Figure 17 below depicts the results for Vocabulary Use, Structure and Coherence, Communication and Task Achievement in the pre and post assessment in the pilot study using the speaking descriptors. The bar chart below depicts the information displayed in tables 10 and 11.

Figure 17

Average Point Scores for Vocabulary Use, Structure and Coherence, Communication and Task Achievement in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 1



Note. Figure 17 depicts the average scores in the pre and post assessment for Vocabulary Use, Structure and Coherence, Communication and Task Achievement in the Control and Test groups. Each category's pre and post assessment scores in each group are shown next to each other e.g. Vocabulary Use score pre assessment, post assessment, Structure and Coherence Score pre, post assessment. Both groups scored a higher average score in every category except for the Control Group for Vocabulary Use. This score was on average slightly lower.

The frequency chart (Table 12) below shows the language Ability Classifications in the Control Group (1=lowest 4=highest) before the start of the intervention in School 1. There were 16 pupils in the Control Group. The language Ability Classification was based on the total scores (out of a total of 16 points) achieved by pupils for Vocabulary Use, Structure and Coherence, Communication and Task Achievement. Figure 18 depicts the results.

Table 12

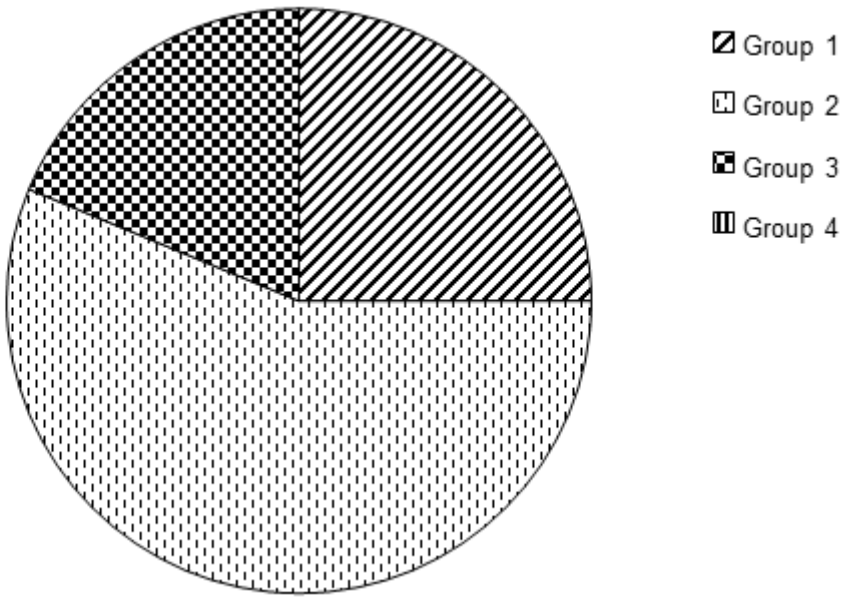
Language Ability Classification in the Control Group in the Pre Assessment in School 1

	Frequency	**Percent**
Group 1	4	25
Group 2	9	56.25
Group 3	3	18.75
Group 4	0	0
Total	16	100

Note. Table 12 shows that the majority of pupils in the Control Group in School 1 were in Ability Classification group 2 before the intervention. There were no pupils in group 4, the highest ability group.

Figure 18

Language Ability Classification Group Distribution in School 1 in the Control Group Before the Intervention



Note. Figure 18 depicts the information shown in the Table 12.

The frequency chart (Table 13) below shows the language Ability Classifications (1=lowest 4=highest) in the Control Group after the intervention period in School 1.

Table 13

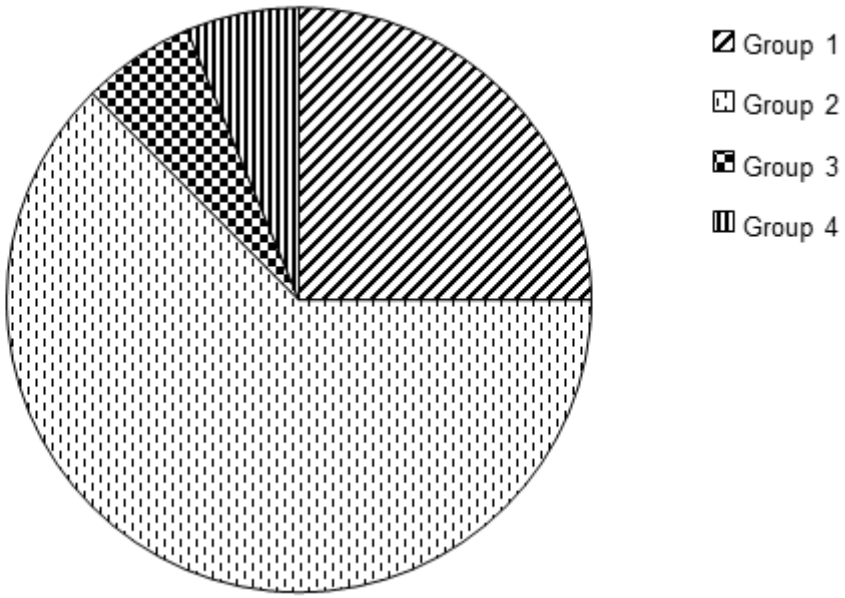
Language Ability Classification in the Control Group in the Post Assessment in School 1

	Frequency	Percent
Group 1	4	25
Group 2	10	62.50
Group 3	1	6.25
Group 4	1	6.25
Total	16	100

Note. Table 13 shows the majority of pupils in the Control Group in School 1 were in Ability Classification group 2 after the intervention phase had ended.

Figure 19

Language Ability Classification Group Distribution in School 1 in the Control Group After the Intervention



Note. Figure 19 depicts the information shown in the Table 13.

The frequency chart (Table 14) below shows the language Ability Classifications (1=lowest 4=highest) in the Test Group before the start of the intervention in School 1.

Table 14

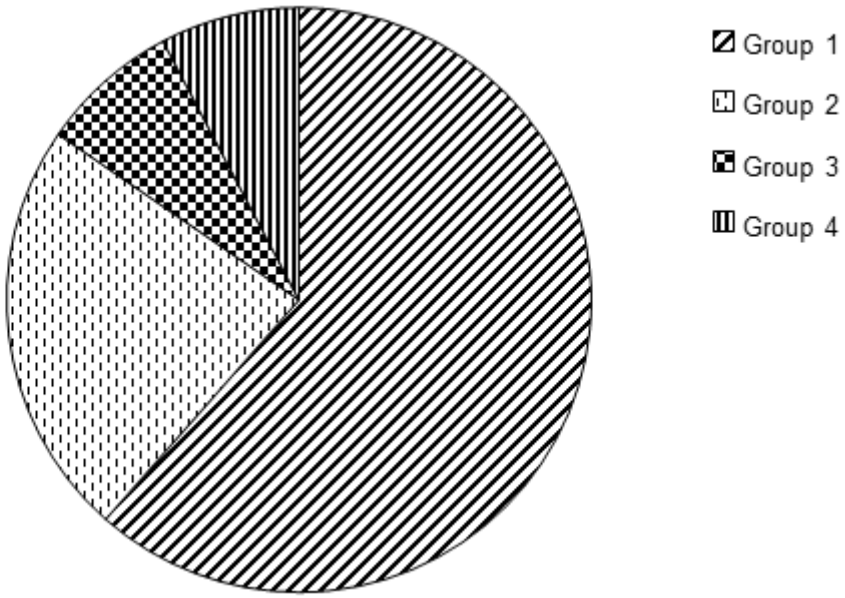
Language Ability Classification in the Test Group in the Pre Assessment in School 1

	Frequency	Percent
Group 1	8	61.5
Group 2	3	23.1
Group 3	1	7.7
Group 4	1	7.7
Total	13	100

Note. Table 14 shows that the majority of pupils in the Test Group in School 1 were in Ability Classification group 1 before the intervention.

Figure 20

Language Ability Classification Group Distribution in School 1 in the Test Group Before the Intervention



Note. Figure 20 depicts the information shown in Table 14.

The frequency chart (Table 15) below shows the language Ability Classifications in the Test Group after the intervention in the post assessment in School 1.

Table 15

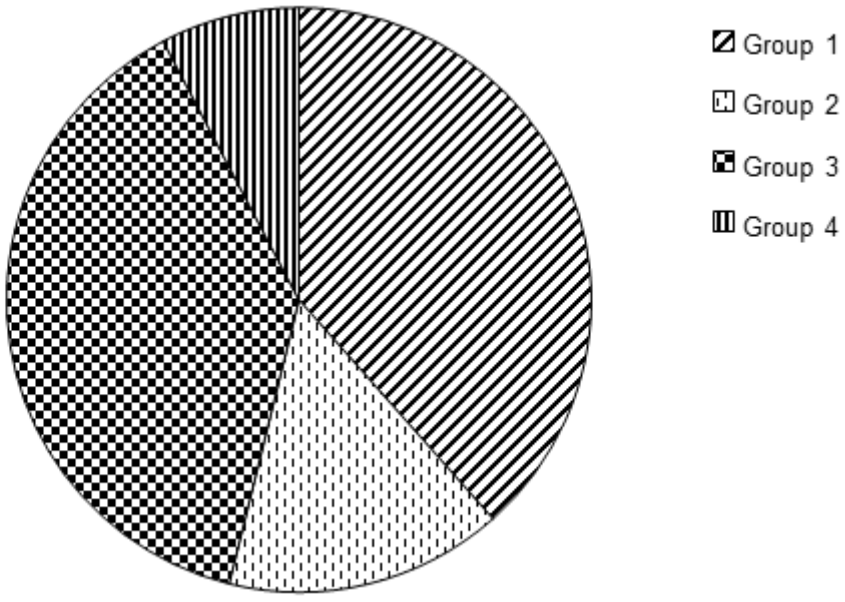
Language Ability Classification in the Test Group in the Post Assessment in School 1

	Frequency	Percent
Group 1	5	38.5
Group 2	2	15.4
Group 3	5	38.5
Group 4	1	7.7
Total	13	100

Note. Table 15 shows the language Ability Classification (1=lowest 4=highest) of the 13 learners in the Test Group in the post assessment after the intervention. There were a lower percentage of learners in group 1 after the intervention than before and a higher percentage of learners in group 3 after the intervention.

Figure 21

Language Ability Classification Group Distribution in School 1 After the Intervention



Note. Figure 21 depicts the information in Table 15.

Table 16

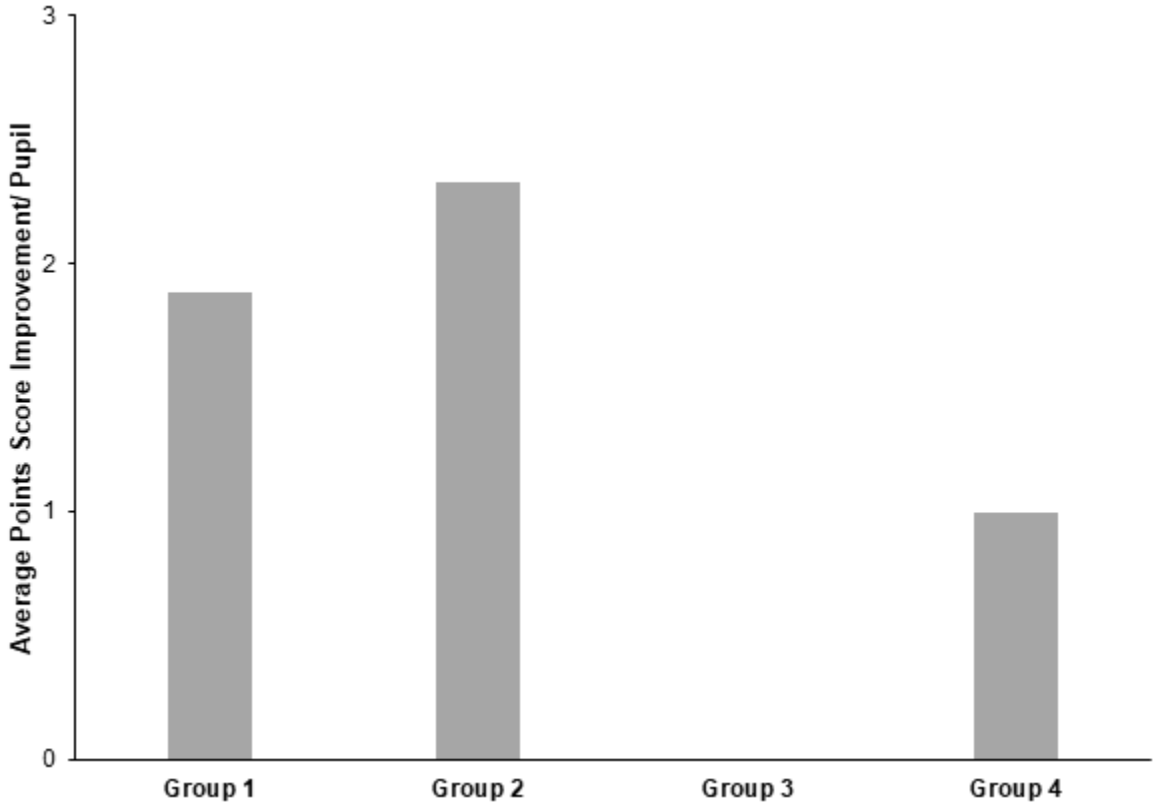
Average Point Score Improvement/ Pupil in each Ability Group in the Test Group in the Post Assessment in School 1

Ability Group	Pupil Frequency	Total Additional Points Gained in the Group	Average Point Score Improvement/Pupil
Group 1	8	15	1.88
Group 2	3	7	2.33
Group 3	1	0	0
Group 4	1	1	1
Total	13		

Note. The table shows the average point score improvement/ pupil after the intervention in each ability group (1-4) in the Test Group (N=13). Pupils in group 2 improved their point score on average by 2.33 points, the most/ pupil.

Figure 22

Average Points Score Improvement/ Pupil in each Ability Group in the Test Group in the Post Assessment in School 1



Note. The bar chart in Figure 22 depicts the information in Table 16. It shows the average improvement in point score/ pupil after the intervention in each of the ability groups within the Test Group. Group 2 improved their point score on average the most.

Word Class Analysis Results in School 1

The following results on the types of words used by learners were obtained through analysis of the language used by learners in the pre and post assessments. First repeated words were counted. Then only different words were counted. The language in each transcript was analysed using CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) and Excel. The data obtained from the initial analysis was further statistically analysed using SPSS.

Table 17

Average Number of English Words Produced by Learners With and Without Repeated Words in the Pre and Post Assessments in the Pilot Study

		English Words with Repetition		**English Words without Repetition**	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Control	Mean	66.38	65.50	36.88	30.62
	N	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	31.67	36.49	14.41	13.45
Test	Mean	52.77	75.38	33.15	36.92
	N	13	13	13	13
	Std. Deviation	49.97	47.05	21.66	19.34

Note. Table 17 shows the average number of English words used by learners in the pre and post assessments. The first two columns of results show results for English words used in the pre and post assessments and includes words that were used more than once by learners (repeated words). The second two columns of results show the results for different English words produced (without repetition). In the pre assessment, the Control Group produced on average more English words with (66.38) and without repetition (36.88) than the Test Group (52.77 and 33.15). However, in the post assessment, the Test Group produced on average more English words with (75.38) and without repetition (36.92) than the Control Group (65.50 and 30.62). The average number of repeated words and different words decreased slightly in the Control Group in the post assessment. The average number of repeated words and words without repetition in the Test Group increased in the post assessment.

The average number of German words used by learners in the Control and Test Groups in School 1 were also counted.

Table 18

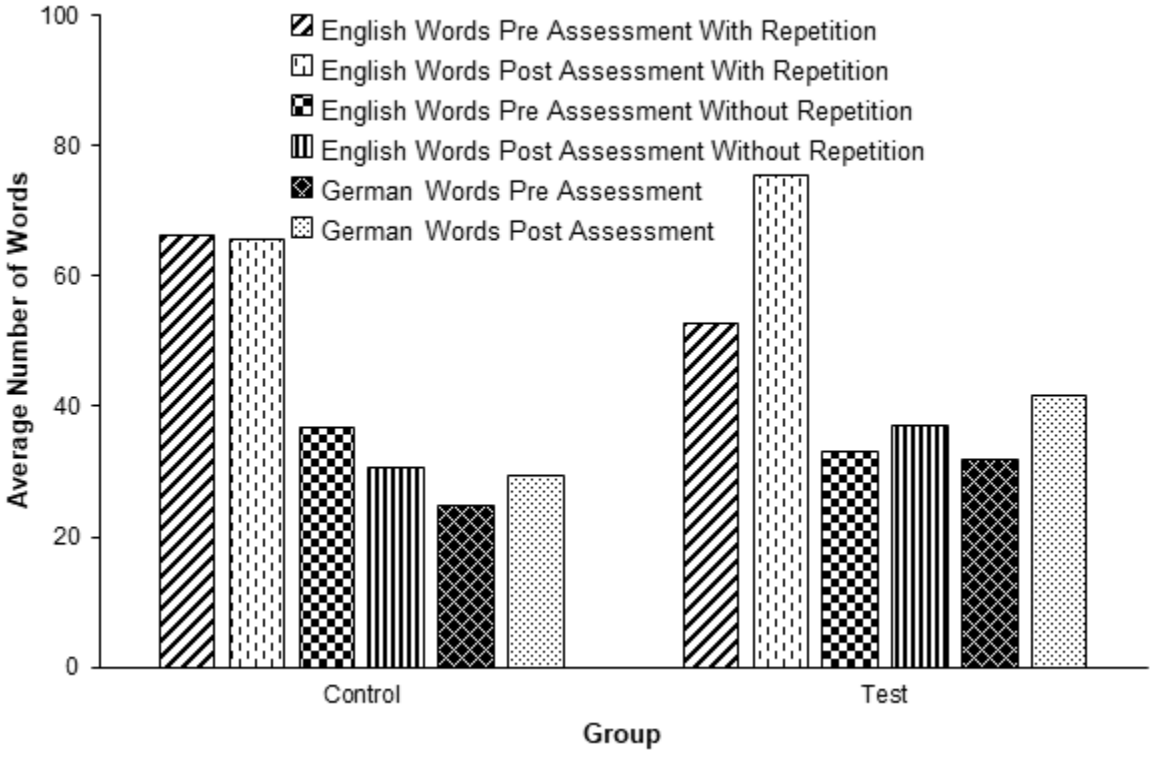
Average Number of German Words Produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments

		Number of German Words	
Group		Pre	Post
Control	Mean	24.88	29.44
	N	16	16
	Std. Deviation	15.83	25.90
Test	Mean	31.92	41.69
	N	13	13
	Std. Deviation	45.39	53.67

Note. Table 18 shows the average number of German words (including repeated words) used by learners in the pre and post assessments. In both groups the average number of German words used increased in the post assessment.

Figure 23

Average Number of English and German Words used in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 1



Note. Figure 23 depicts learners' use of English and German words displayed in Tables 17 and 18. The Control Group used fewer English words and more German words in the post assessment. The Test Group used more English words and more German words in the post assessment. Each category's pre and post assessment scores are shown next to each other on the bar chart e.g. Repeated English words pre assessment, post assessment.

Tables 19 and 20 show the results of the CANVP word analysis for the Control and Test Groups in the pre and post assessments in School 1. The word use was initially analysed with the inclusion of words that were repeated by learners.

Table 19

Average Percentage of Repeated Conjunctions, Adjectives and Nouns produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 1 in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken

		Conjunctions		**Adjectives**		**Nouns**	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Control	Mean	17.12	19.56	13.81	8.94	45.31	42.94
	N	16	16	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	9.08	13.40	6.64	4.57	7.67	10.88
Test	Mean	10.92	18.46	12.54	9.54	61.46	51.54
	N	13	13	13	13	13	13
	Std. Deviation	7.41	8.41	9.33	5.13	18.25	11.40

Note. Table 19 shows the average percentage of conjunctions, adjectives and nouns produced by learners in the Control and Test Groups in the pre and post assessments. The analysis includes words which were used more than once. The Control Group produced on average a higher percentage of repeated conjunctions (17.12) and adjectives (13.81), and a lower percentage of nouns (45.31) than the Test Group (10.92, 12.54 and 61.46) in the pre assessment. Both groups produced on average a higher percentage of conjunctions and a lower percentage of adjectives and nouns in the post assessment than in the pre assessment. SD was high in both groups.

Table 20

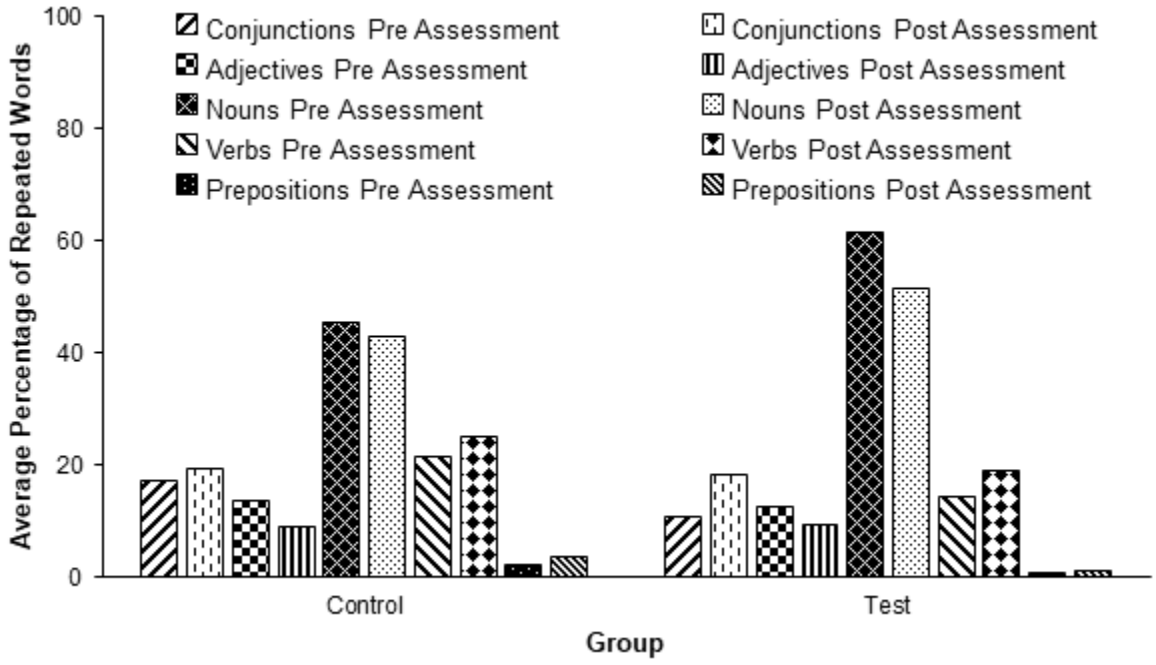
Average Percentage of Repeated Verbs and Prepositions Produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 1 in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken

		Verbs		Prepositions	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Control	Mean	21.44	25.19	2.25	3.62
	N	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	9.18	9.13	3.02	3.70
Test	Mean	14.23	19.00	0.77	1.31
	N	13	13	13	13
	Std. Deviation	11.89	10.18	1.36	1.93

Note. Table 20 shows the average percentage of verbs and prepositions used in the Test and Control Groups including repetition of the same words. The Control Group produced on average a higher percentage of verbs (21.44) and prepositions (2.25) in the pre assessment than the Test Group (14.23 and 0.77). Both groups produced on average a higher percentage of verbs and prepositions in relation to the total number of words spoken in the post assessment than in the pre assessment.

Figure 24

Average Percentage of Repeated CANVP Words Produced by Learners in School 1 in the Pre and Post Assessments in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken



Note. Figure 24 depicts the average percentage of repeated conjunctions, adjectives, nouns, verbs and prepositions produced by learners in the Control and Test Groups in the pre and post assessments. Pre and post assessment results are shown next to each other for each group e.g. conjunction pre assessment, post assessment, adjective pre and post assessment etc.

Tables 21 and 22 show the results of the CANVP word analysis for the Control and Test Groups in the pre and post assessments in School 1. In this analysis only different words used were analysed.

Table 21

Average Percentage of Different Conjunctions, Adjectives and Nouns produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 1 in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken

		Different Conjunctions		**Different Adjectives**		**Different Nouns**	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Control	Mean	4.81	5.81	20.25	12.94	56.94	58.19
	N	16	16	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	2.56	5.28	8.85	6.94	6.98	7.47
Test	Mean	4.62	4.92	14.31	15.46	67.38	63.31
	N	13	13	13	13	13	13
	Std. Deviation	3.18	2.35	11.04	8.62	16.62	9.59

Note. The table shows the average percentage of different conjunctions, adjectives and nouns used in the Control and Test Groups. Repeated words were excluded from the analysis. The Control Group produced on average a higher percentage of different conjunctions (4.81) and adjectives (20.25), and a lower percentage of nouns (56.94) than the Test Group in the pre assessment (4.62, 14.31 and 67.38).

In the post assessment both groups produced a higher percentage of different conjunctions. However, the Control Group produced a lower percentage of adjectives in the post assessment whilst the Test Group produced a higher percentage of different adjectives in the post assessment than they had in the pre assessment. The percentage of different nouns produced in the Control Group increased in the post assessment whilst in the Test Group the percentage decreased.

Table 22

Average Percentage of Different Verbs and Prepositions produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 1 in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken

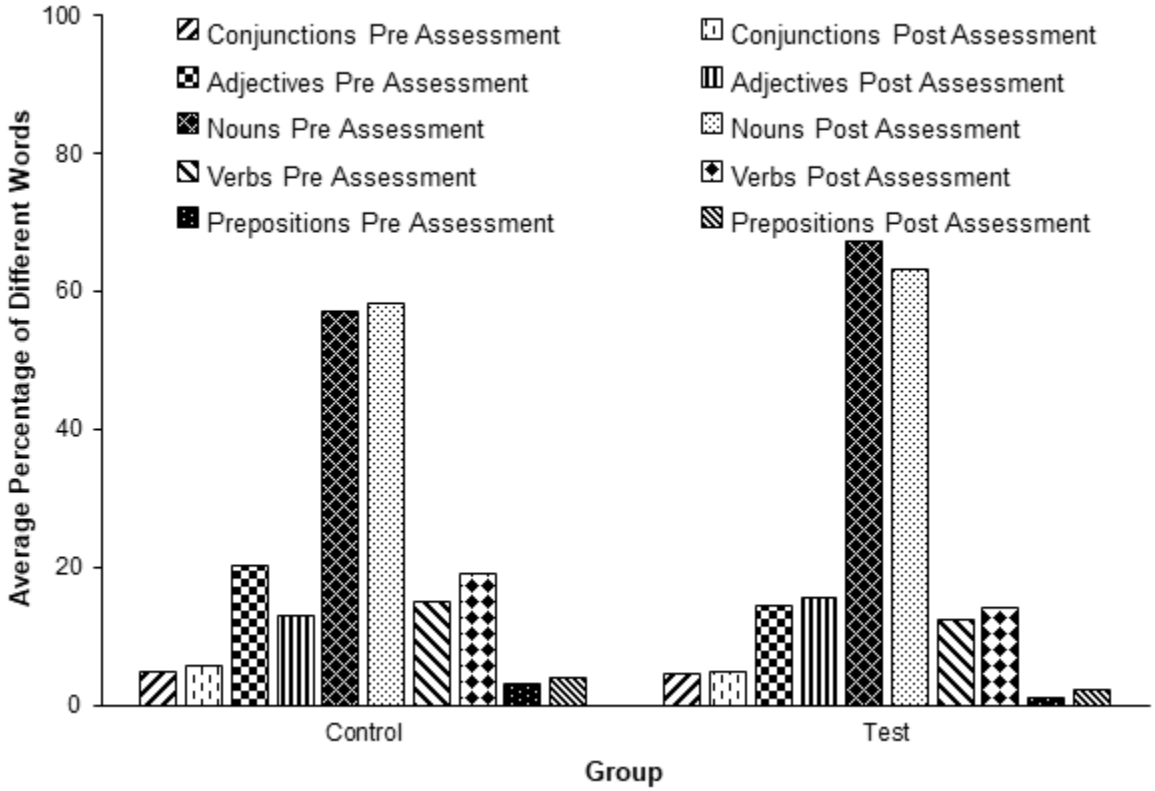
		Different Verbs		**Different Prepositions**	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Control	Mean	14.88	19.13	3.06	4.06
	N	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	4.13	9.71	4.49	3.97
Test	Mean	12.38	14.23	1.00	2.08
	N	13	13	13	13
	Std. Deviation	11.44	10.17	1.63	3.04

Note. The table shows the average percentage of different verbs and prepositions used in the Control and Test Groups. Repeated words were excluded from the analysis. The Control Group produced on average a higher percentage of different verbs (14.88) and different prepositions (3.06) in the pre assessment than the Test Group did (12.38 and 1.00). The Control Group produced on average a higher percentage of different verbs (19.13) and prepositions (4.06) in the post assessment than the Test Group. They also produced a higher percentage of different verbs and prepositions than they had done in the pre assessment. The Test Group produced on average a higher percentage of different verbs (14.23) and prepositions (2.08) in the post assessment than they had done in the pre assessment.

The results of the data in Tables 21 and 22 are depicted in Figure 25 on the following page.

Figure 25

Average Percentage of Different CANVP Words Produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 1 in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken



Note. Figure 25 shows the average percentage of different conjunctions, adjectives, nouns, verbs and prepositions produced by learners in the pre and post assessments in relation to the total number of words spoken.

The Structured Classroom Observations in the Test Group in School 1

Learners in the Test Group were observed by the researcher during the group work phases when the picturebooks were dramatised. Learners were divided into colour groups and eight different aspects of their work were observed. During the observation in the classroom the symbols – (no), 0 (sometimes/some) and + (yes) were used. For analysis purposes these symbols were given values. "-" equates to 0 points, "0" equates to 1 point and "+" equates to 2 points. There was a maximum total of 8 points available for each category because there were four different colour groups.

Table 23

Results of the Groupwork Observations in the Test Group for The Enormous Turnip

Group	Learners started the task straight away	Learners could organise their own group	Every group member participated	Learners used classroom English
Blue	2	2	0	0
Yellow	2	1	0	0
Red	2	2	2	0
Pink	2	1	1	0
Category Total	8	6	3	0

Group	Learners spoke German	Learners used story language	Learners were on-task	Learners completed the task successfully
Blue	2	2	1	2
Yellow	2	2	1	2
Red	2	2	2	2
Pink	2	2	2	2
Category Total	8	8	6	8

Note. The results show that every group started the task straight away. Not every group was able to organise their group without support. Not every member of every group was involved in the work. Learners also spoke German together rather than classroom English during the group work discussions. However, every group used language from the story in their discussion. Learners were mostly on-task during the group work phase and every group completed the task successfully.

Table 24

Results of the First Groupwork Observations for Goldilocks and the Three Bears in the Test Group in School 1

Group	Learners started the task straight away	Learners could organise their own group	Every group member participated	Learners used classroom English
Blue	0	0	0	0
Yellow	0	0	2	0
Red	0	0	0	0
Pink	0	1	2	0
Category Total	0	1	4	0

Group	Learners spoke German	Learners used story language	Learners were on-task	Learners completed the task successfully
Blue	2	0	0	N/A
Yellow	2	0	0	N/A
Red	2	0	0	N/A
Pink	2	0	0	N/A
Category Total	8	0	0	

Note. Learners in the Test Group did not start the task straight away. They didn't use classroom English to organise their groups, they didn't use language from the story, and they were not on task. Not every learner participated and learners spoke German together.

In the first observation of the dramatisation of *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*, the learners struggled to understand the task and to organise their groups. It was decided that a second attempt would be made in the following lesson. Table 25 shows the results for the second observation.

Table 25

Results of the Second Groupwork Observations for Goldilocks and the Three Bears in School 1

Group	Learners started the task straight away	Learners could organise their own group	Every group member participated	Learners used classroom English
Blue	0	2	2	0
Yellow	2	2	2	0
Red	2	2	2	0
Pink	2	2	2	0
Category Total	6	8	8	0

Group	Learners spoke German	Learners used story language	Learners were on-task	Learners completed the task successfully
Blue	2	2	2	2
Yellow	2	2	2	2
Red	2	2	2	2
Pink	2	2	2	2
Category Total	8	8	8	8

Note. In the second observation of the dramatisation of *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*, not every group started immediately. However, every group was able to organise the group work independently. Learners spoke German together rather than classroom English. However, every group used language from the story in their discussion. Every group was on-task during the group work phase, and every group completed the task successfully. The organisation of the groups and learner participation were better than in the first work unit on *The Enormous Turnip*. The learners were also more on-task in the second work unit on *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*.

Pupil Self-assessment of the Picturebook Dramatisation in the Test Group in School 1

The following section presents the results of the pupil self-assessment of the units of work on the stories *The Enormous Turnip* and *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*.

Table 26 below shows the average score given by pupils (N=13) in the self-assessment questionnaire on the story *The Enormous Turnip*. Five was the maximum score and one was the minimum score that could be given for each of the six statements. The story *The Enormous Turnip* was studied first in the pilot study in School 1.

Table 26

Average Score Given by Pupils in School 1 in the Self-Assessment for the Story The Enormous Turnip

Question		**The Enormous Turnip**					
		I understood the story	I liked the story	I joined in with the storytelling	I spoke English with my group	I enjoyed the drama activities	I felt confident speaking English
Test	Mean	4.38	4.31	4.23	3.38	4.38	3.69
	N	13	13	13	13	13	13
	Std. Deviation	0.65	0.86	1.01	1.19	1.04	1.55

Note. Pupils reported that they understood the story 4.38/5, they liked the story 4.31/5, they joined in with the storytelling 4.23/5 and they enjoyed the drama activities 4.38/5. They rated their confidence in speaking English in front of their peers at 3.69/5.

Table 27 below shows the average score given by pupils (N=13) in the self-assessment questionnaire on the story *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*. Five was the maximum score and one was the minimum score that could be given for each of the six statements. The story *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* was studied second in the pilot study in School 1.

Table 27

Average Score Given by Pupils in School 1 in the Self-Assessment for the Story Goldilocks and the Three Bears

Question		Goldilocks and the Three Bears					
		I understood the story	I liked the story	I joined in with the storytelling	I spoke English with my group	I enjoyed the drama activities	I felt confident speaking English
Test	Mean	4.54	4.62	4.31	4.15	4.46	4.38
	N	13	13	13	13	13	13
	Std. Deviation	0.88	1.12	1.11	0.99	1.13	0.96

Note. Table 27 shows the average score given by pupils in the self-assessment questionnaire on the story *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*. Five was the maximum score and one was the minimum score that could be given for each of the six statements. Pupils reported that they understood the story 4.54/5, they liked the story 4.62/5, they joined in with the storytelling 4.31/5 and they enjoyed the drama activities 4.46/5. They rated their confidence in speaking English in front of their peers at 4.38/5.

Figure 26 below depicts the feedback scores given by pupils in School 1 to both stories.

Figure 26

Average Scores Given by Test Group Pupils in the Pupil Self-Assessment for the Stories The Enormous Turnip (ET) and Goldilocks and the Three Bears (GB) in School 1



Note. Figure 26 shows the average scores given by Test Group pupils in the pupil self-assessment for the stories *The Enormous Turnip* (ET) and *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* (GB). The average scores for each statement on the feedback form for each story are shown next to each other. Pupil feedback demonstrates an average increase in the self-assessment score for each of the six statements for the second story *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*.

Results from the Test Schools

Quantitative results were also collected in three test schools. These schools were called "School 2", "School 3" and "School 4" to avoid confusion with the Pilot Test School which was labelled "School 1". School 2 had a small control group. Schools 3 and 4 only had test groups. The same analysis that was used in the pilot study was used in the test Schools 2, 3 and 4.

The Results from School 2

The following section displays the results obtained in School 2. There was a Test Group (N=16) and a small Control Group (N=10). Twenty-six learners participated in School 2 in total. The learners in the Test Group completed three drama units on the stories *The Enormous Turnip*, *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* and *Monkey Puzzle*. The presentation of the results follows the same order as the presentation of results for the Pilot School 1 in the previous section.

The Speaking Descriptor Analysis in School 2

Table 28

Average Total Point Score and Language Ability Classifications Awarded in the Control and Test Groups in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 2

			Points		**Ability Classification**	
School	Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
2	Control	Mean	7.50	8.00	2.10	2.20
		N	10	10	10	10
		Std. Deviation	3.14	2.79	0.88	0.63
	Test	Mean	5.31	8.56	1.44	2.19
		N	16	16	16	16
		Std. Deviation	3.65	3.48	0.81	0.91

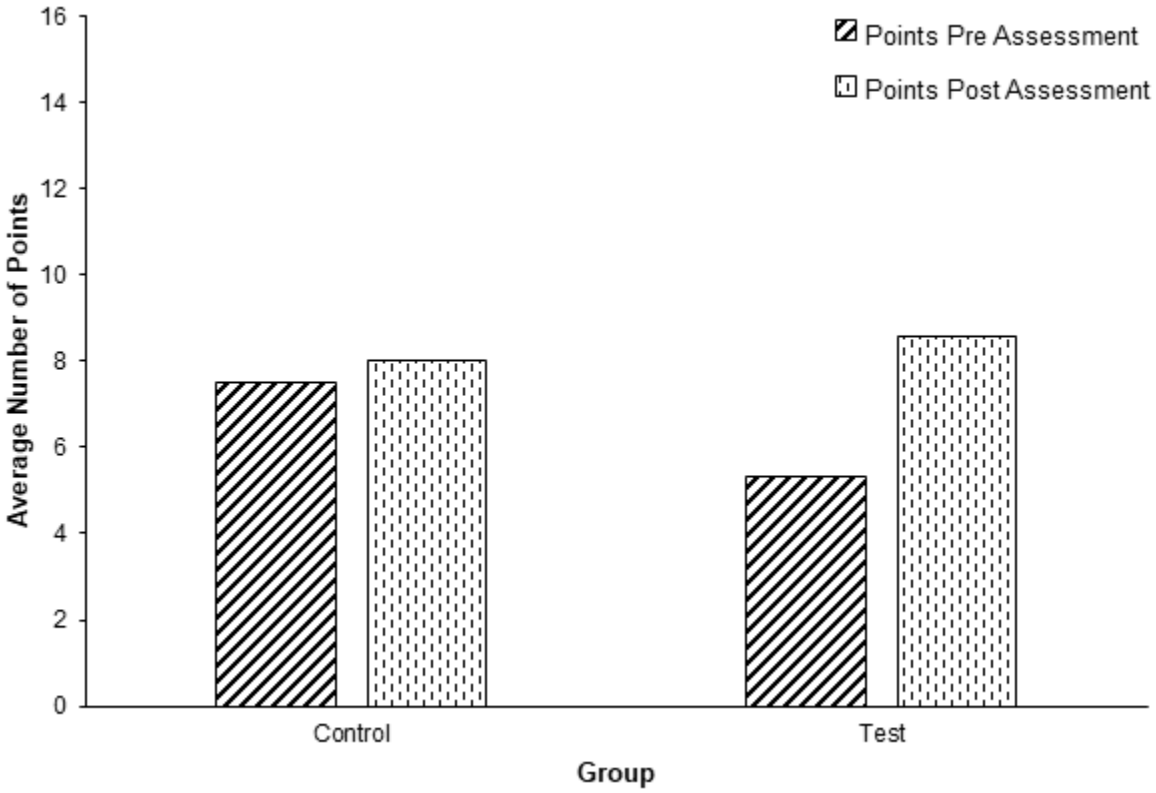
Note. Table 28 shows the average Point Scores out of 16 and the average language Ability Classifications (1 = lowest 4 = highest) for learners in the Control Group and the Test Group in the pre and post assessments in School 2. The results show that the Control Group was on average a stronger group (7.5 points and classification 2.1) in the pre assessment than the Test Group (5.31 points and classification 1.44). The standard deviation in the Control Group was lower (SD = 3.14) than in the Test Group (SD = 3.65). The results for the Control Group show that on average an increase of 0.5 additional Total Points were awarded in the post assessment. The average Ability Classification increased by 0.1. The Test Group were awarded on average an

increase of 3.25 additional points in the post assessment and the average language Ability Classification increased by 0.75.

Figures 27 and 28 below depict the results in Table 28.

Figure 27

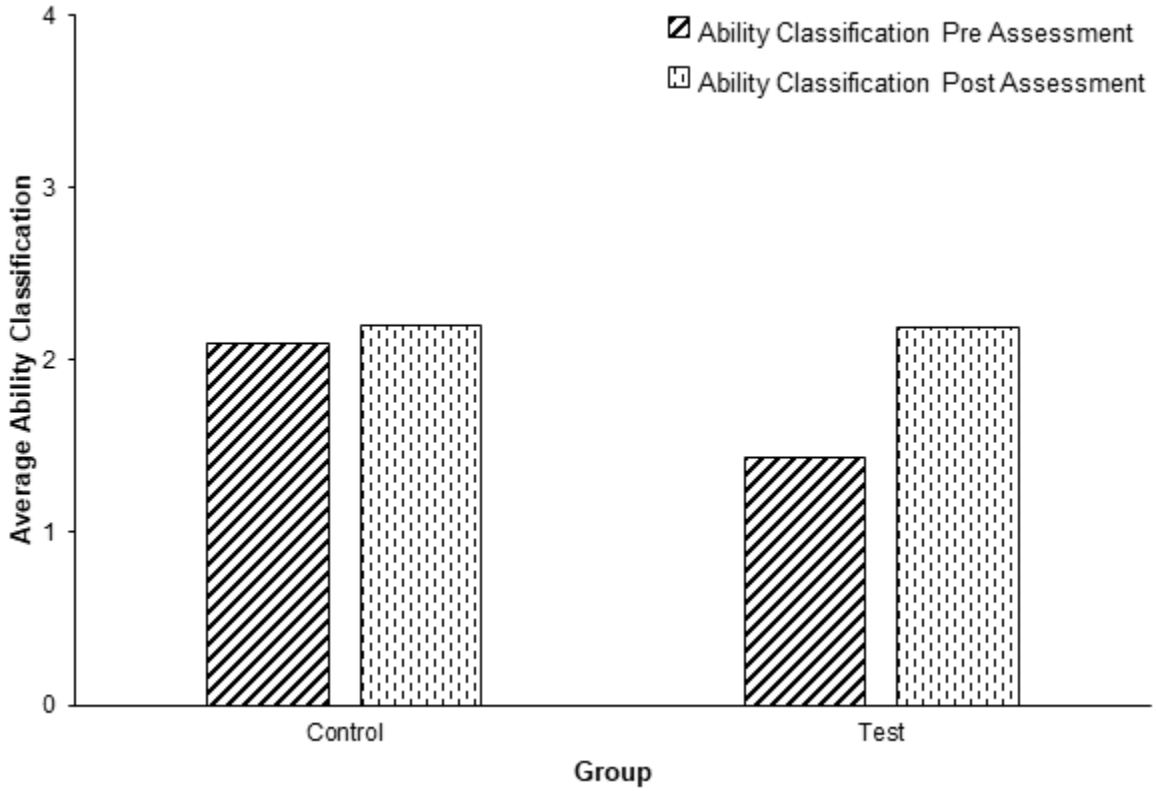
Average Point Score Awarded in the Control and Test Groups in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 2



Note. The bar chart shows the average Point Score in the Control Group and the Test Group in the pre and post assessments in School 2. The pre and post results are displayed next to each other for each group.

Figure 28

Average Language Ability Classifications Awarded in the Control and Test Groups in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 2



Note. The bar chart shows the average language Ability Classifications in the Control Group and Test Group in the pre and post assessments in School 2. The pre and post results are displayed next to each other for each group.

Table 29 below shows the average point scores for Vocabulary Use and Structure and Coherence awarded to learners in the Control Group and the Test Group in the pre and post assessment phases before and after the intervention in School 2. Each category had a maximum of four points available.

Table 29

Average Point Scores Awarded for Vocabulary Use and Structure and Coherence in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 2

		Vocabulary Use		Structure and Coherence	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Control	Mean	2.00	2.10	1.80	1.90
	N	10	10	10	10
	Std. Deviation	0.82	0.57	0.79	0.74
Test	Mean	1.44	2.13	1.25	2.06
	N	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	0.81	0.89	1.00	0.85

Note. The results show that the Control Group were slightly stronger than the Test Group in Vocabulary Use (2.0 and 1.44) and Structure and Coherence (1.8 and 1.25) in the pre assessment. The average Vocabulary Use Score and the average mark for Structure and Coherence awarded to the Control Group increased by 0.1 in the post assessment. The average Vocabulary Use Score in the Test Group increased by 0.69 and the average Structure and Coherence Score increased by 0.81 in the post assessment.

Table 30 below shows the average point scores for Communication and Task Achievement in the Control and Test Group in the pre and post assessments in School 2. The maximum point score in each category was four points.

Table 30

Average Point Scores Awarded for Communication and Task Achievement in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 2

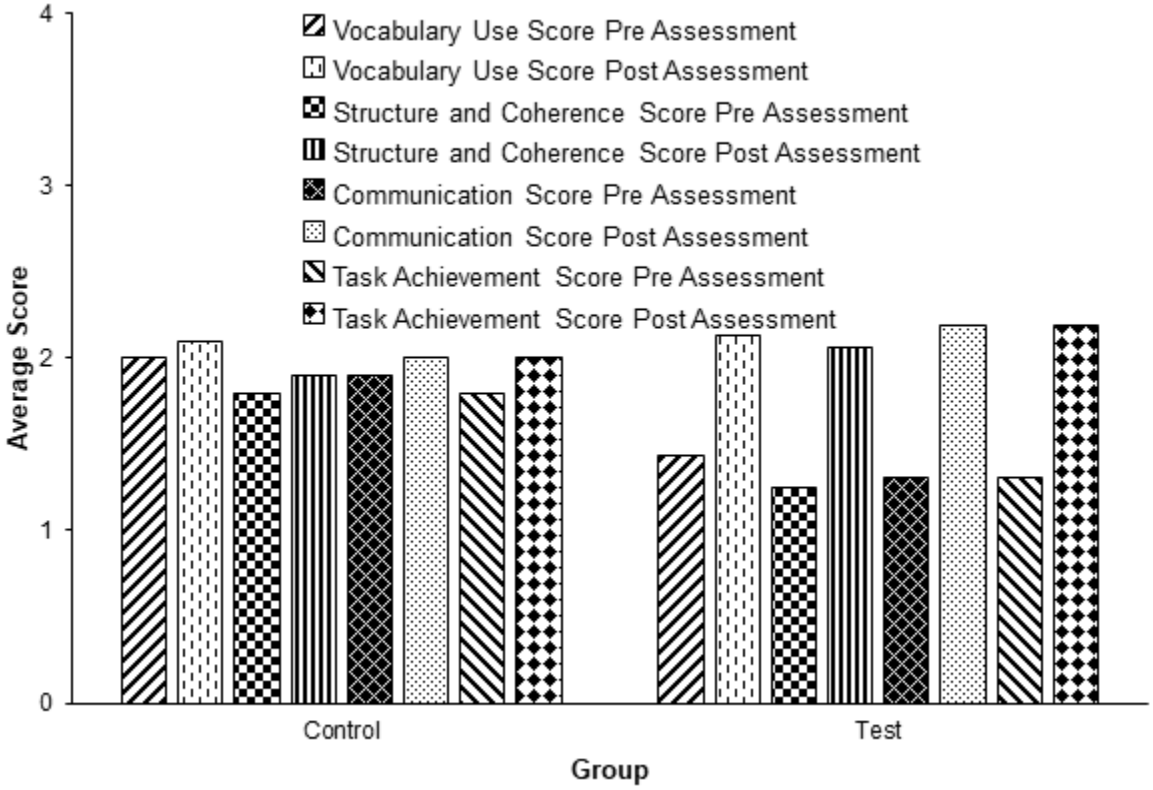
		Communication		Task Achievement	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Control	Mean	1.90	2.00	1.80	2.00
	N	10	10	10	10
	Std. Deviation	0.88	0.81	0.79	0.82
Test	Mean	1.31	2.19	1.31	2.19
	N	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	0.95	0.91	0.95	0.91

Note. The results show that the Control Group scored higher in Communication and Task Achievement (1.9 and 1.8) than the Test Group (1.31 and 1.31) in the pre assessment. The

Control Group improved on average by 0.1 points in Communication and 0.2 points in Task Achievement in the post assessment. The Test Group improved on average by 0.88 points in Communication and 0.88 points in Task Achievement. Figure 29 below depicts the information displayed in Tables 29 and 30.

Figure 29

Average Point Scores for Vocabulary Use, Structure and Coherence, Communication and Task Achievement in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 2



Note. Figure 29 depicts the average scores in the pre and post assessment for Vocabulary Use, Structure and Coherence, Communication and Task Achievement in the Control and Test Groups. Both groups scored a higher average score in every category. Each category's pre and post assessment scores are shown next to each other e.g. Vocabulary Use score pre assessment, post assessment, Structure and Coherence Score pre assessment, post assessment etc.

The frequency chart (Table 31) below shows the language Ability Classifications in the Control Group (1=lowest 4=highest) before the start of the intervention in School 2. There were 10 pupils in the Control Group. The language Ability Classification was awarded based on the

total scores achieved by pupils for Vocabulary Use, Structure and Coherence, Communication and Task Achievement.

Table 31

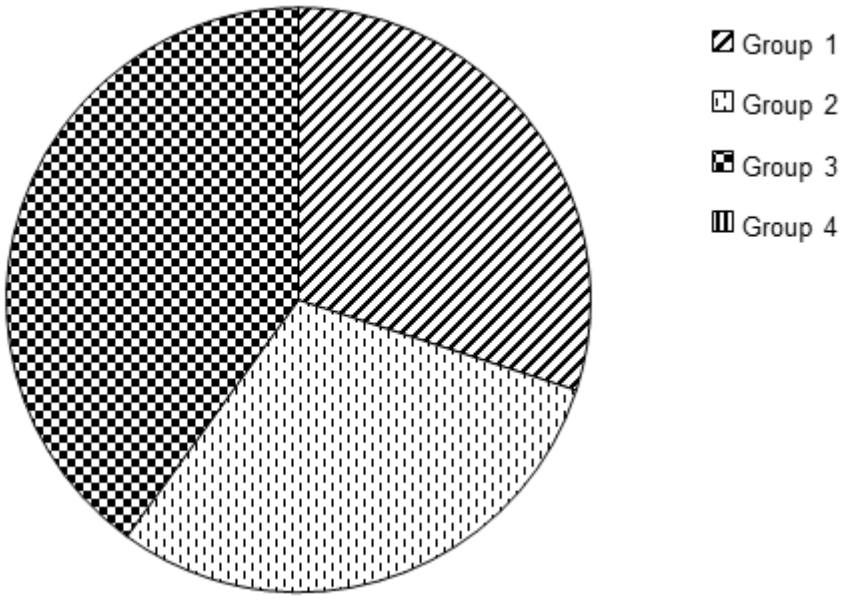
Language Ability Classification in the Control Group in the Pre Assessment in School 2

	Frequency	Percent
Group 1	3	30
Group 2	3	30
Group 3	4	40
Group 4	0	0
Total	10	100

Note. Table 31 shows Ability Classification Group 3 contained the greatest number of pupils in the Control Group before the start of the intervention. There were no pupils in group 4.

Figure 30

Language Ability Group Distribution in the Control Group in the Pre Assessment in School 2



Note. Figure 30 depicts the information shown in Table 31. There were no pupils in group 4.

The frequency chart (Table 32) below shows the language Ability Classifications (1=lowest 4=highest) in the Control Group after the intervention period in School 2.

Table 32

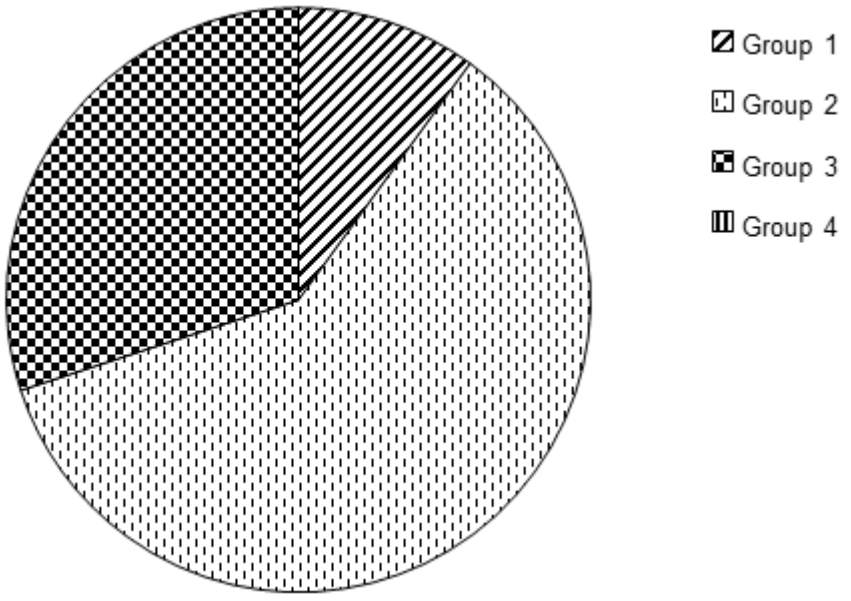
Language Ability Classification in the Control Group in the Post Assessment in School 2

	Frequency	Percent
Group 1	1	10
Group 2	6	60
Group 3	3	30
Group 4	0	0
Total	10	100

Note. Table 32 shows that the majority of pupils in the Control Group in School 2 were in Ability Classification 2 after the intervention phase had ended. No pupils were in Group 4.

Figure 31

Language Ability Group Distribution in the Control Group in the Post Assessment in School 2



Note. Figure 31 depicts the information shown in Table 32. There were no pupils in group 4.

The frequency chart (Table 33) below shows the language Ability Classifications in the Test Group (N=16) before the start of the intervention in School 2.

Table 33

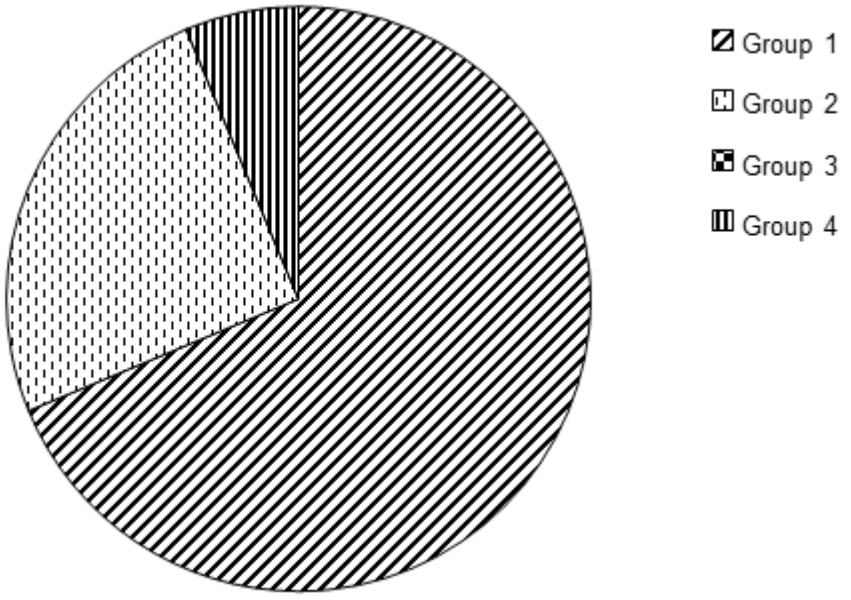
Language Ability Classification in the Test Group in the Pre Assessment in School 2

	Frequency	Percent
Group 1	11	68.88
Group 2	4	25
Group 3	0	0
Group 4	1	6.3
Total	16	100

Note. Table 33 shows that the majority of pupils in the Test Group in School 2 were in Ability Classification group 1 before the intervention (68.88%). There were no pupils in group 3.

Figure 32

Language Ability Group Distribution in the Test Group in the Pre Assessment in School 2



Note. Figure 32 depicts the information in Table 33.

The frequency chart (Table 34) below shows the language Ability Classification in the Test Group after the intervention in School 2.

Table 34

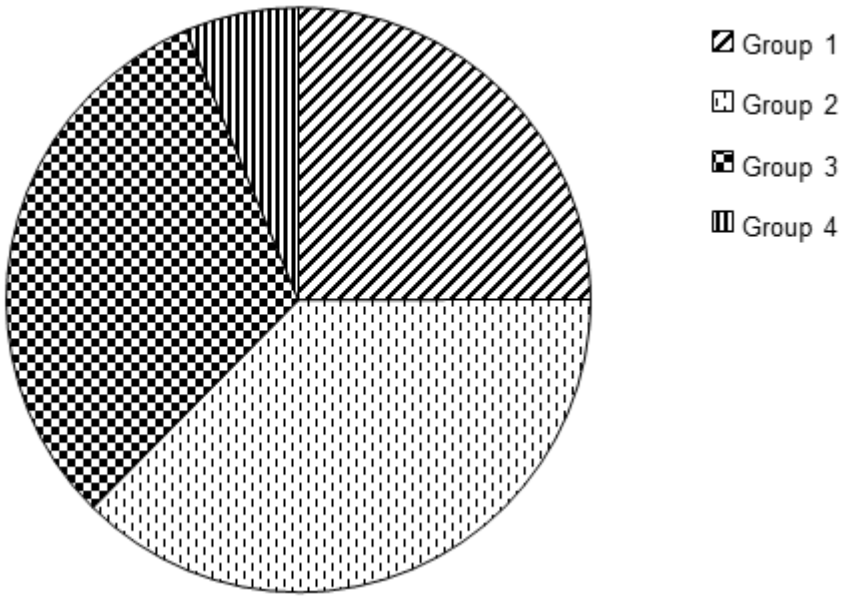
Language Ability Classification in the Test Group in the Post Assessment in School 2

	Frequency	Percent
Group 1	4	25
Group 2	6	37.5
Group 3	5	31.3
Group 4	1	6.3
Total	16	100

Note. Table 34 shows the language Ability Classification (1=lowest 4=highest) in the Test Group (N=16) in the post assessment after the intervention. There were fewer learners in group 1 after the intervention than before and a higher percentage of learners in groups 2 and 3 after the intervention.

Figure 33

Language Ability Group Distribution in the Test Group in the Post Assessment in School 2



Note. Figure 33 depicts the information in Table 34.

Table 35 shows the average point score improvement/ pupil after the intervention in each ability group (1-4) in the Test Group (N=16).

Table 35

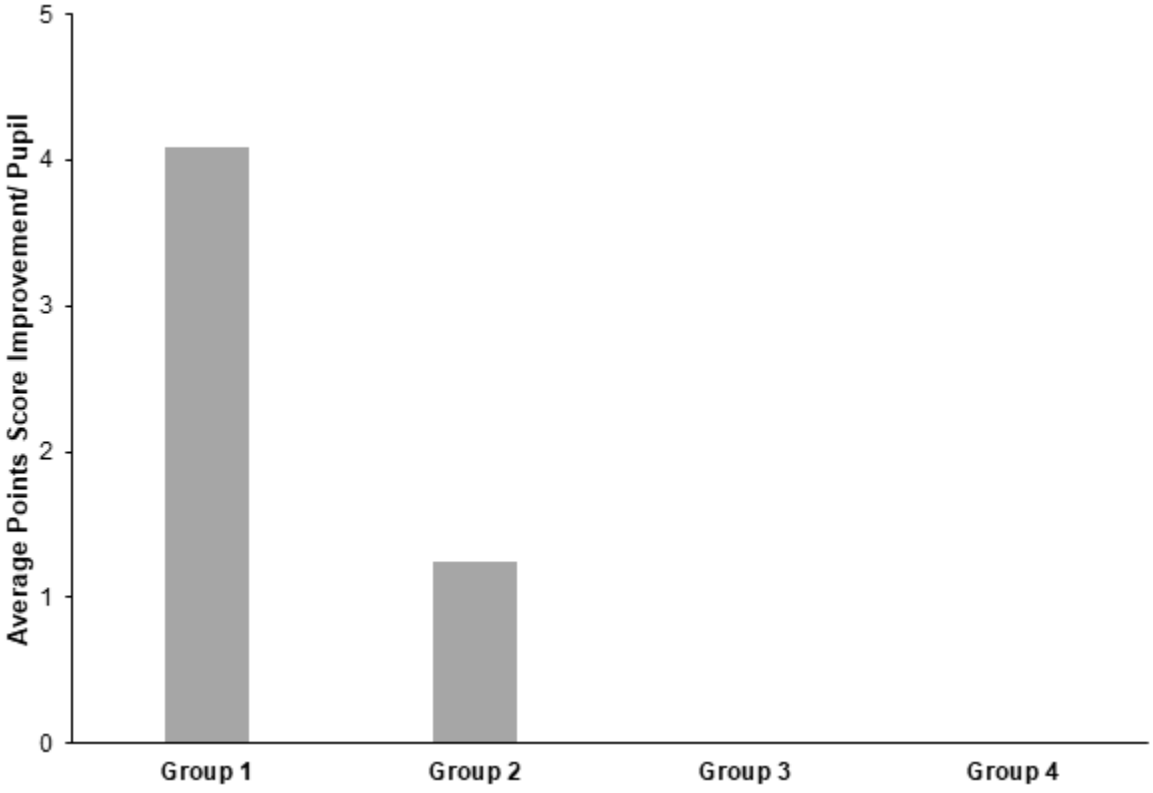
Average Point Score Improvement/ Pupil in each Ability Group in the Intervention Group in the Post Assessment in School 2

Ability Group	Pupil Frequency	Total Additional Points Gained in the Group	Average Point Score Improvement/pupil
Group 1	11	45	4.09
Group 2	4	5	1.25
Group 3	0	0	0
Group 4	1	0	0
Total	16		

Note. Pupils in group 1 improved their point score on average by 4.09 points, the most/ pupil.

Figure 34

Average Poins Score Improvement/Pupil in Each Ability group in the Test Group in the Post Assessment After the Intervention in School 2



Note. Figure 34 shows that pupils in group 1 improved their point score on average the most.

Word Class Analysis Results in School 2

The following results on the types of words used by learners were obtained through analysis of the language used by learners in the pre and post assessments. The language in each transcript was analysed using CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023), and organised in Excel. The data was further analysed with SPSS.

Table 36

Average Number of English Words Produced by Learners With and Without Repeated Words in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 2

		Number of English words with Repetition		**Number of English Words without Repetition**	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Control	Mean	82.10	96.40	38.90	46.40
	N	10	10	10	10
	Std. Deviation	33.79	27.31	12.37	7.43
Test	Mean	51.50	95.25	28.87	44.31
	N	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	33.55	51.10	17.99	19.30

Note. Table 36 shows the average number of English words used by learners in the pre and post assessments. The standard deviation (SD) was high in both groups. However, in the pre assessment, the Control Group produced on average more English words with and without repetition than the Test Group. However, in the post assessment, the Test Group produced on average nearly as many English words with and without repetition as the Control Group.

Table 37

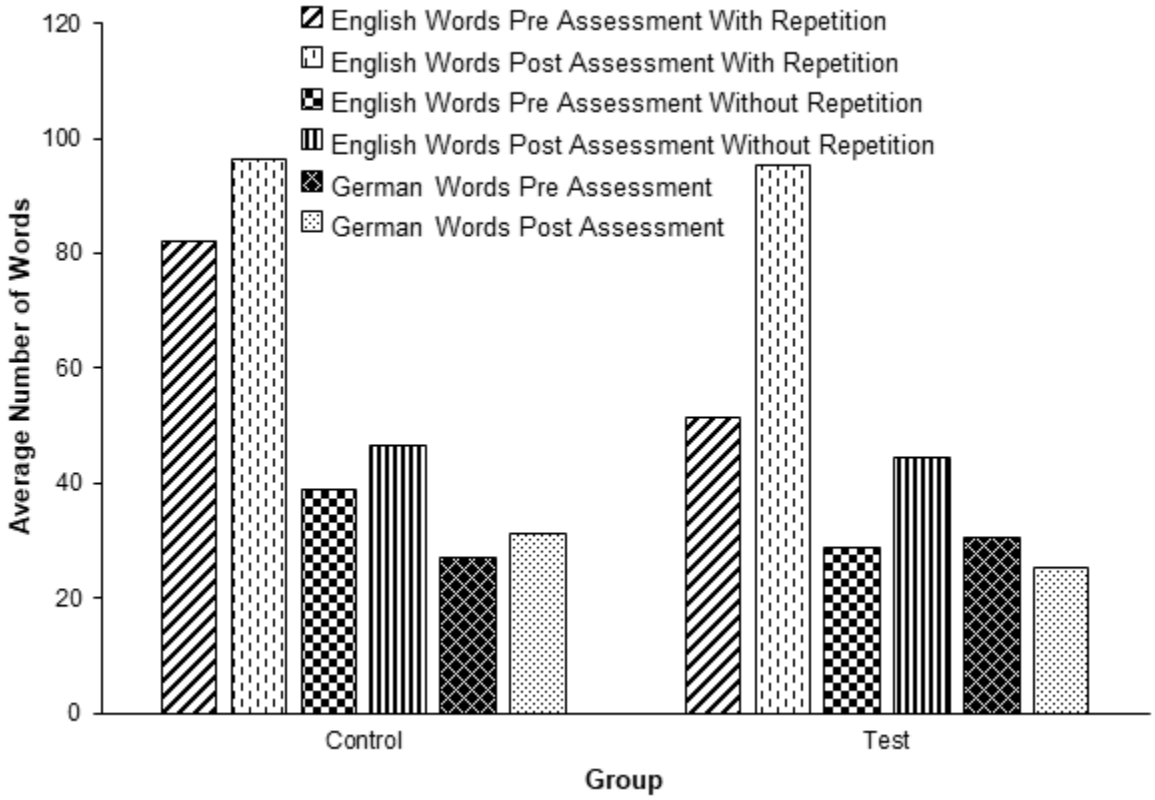
Average Number of German Words Produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 2

		Number of German Words	
Group		Pre	Post
Control	Mean	27.10	31.30
	N	10	10
	Std. Deviation	22.97	27.05
Test	Mean	30.63	25.37
	N	16	16
	Std. Deviation	44.32	31.29

Note. Table 37 shows the average number of German words (including repeated words) used by learners in the pre and post assessments in School 2. The Control Group produced on average more German words in the post assessment than they did in the pre assessment. The Test Group produced on average fewer German words than they did in the pre assessment.

Figure 35

Average Number of English and German Words used in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 2



Note. Figure 35 depicts the data in Tables 36 and 37. Both groups produced more English words in the post assessment than in the pre assessment. The Control Group produced on average more German words in the post assessment than they did in the pre assessment. The Test Group produced on average fewer German words than they did in the pre assessment. Each category's pre and post scores are shown next to each other on the bar chart e.g. Repeated English words pre assessment, post assessment etc.

Tables 38 and 39 show the results of the CANVP word analysis for the Control and the Test Groups in the pre and post assessments in School 2. The word use was initially analysed with the inclusion of words that were repeated by learners.

Table 38

Average Percentage of Repeated Conjunctions, Adjectives and Nouns produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 2 in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken

Group		Repeated Conjunctions		Repeated Adjectives		Repeated Nouns	
		Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Control	Mean	15.80	20.80	8.80	6.40	46.60	40.80
	N	10	10	10	10	10	10
	Std. Deviation	6.94	6.53	4.19	3.53	12.35	5.51
Test	Mean	13.37	14.50	6.88	6.75	54.56	46.44
	N	16	16	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	23.68	7.78	4.70	4.44	26.25	11.11

Note. Table 38 shows the average percentage of conjunctions, adjectives and nouns produced by learners in the Control and Test Groups in the pre and post assessments in School 2. The analysis includes words which were used more than once. The Control Group produced on average a higher percentage of repeated conjunctions (15.80) and adjectives (8.80), and a lower percentage of nouns (46.60) than the Test Group (13.37, 6.88 and 54.56) in the pre assessment. Both groups produced on average a higher percentage of conjunctions and a lower percentage of adjectives and nouns in the post assessment than they did in the pre assessment.

Table 39

Average Percentage of Repeated Verbs and Prepositions Produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 2 in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken

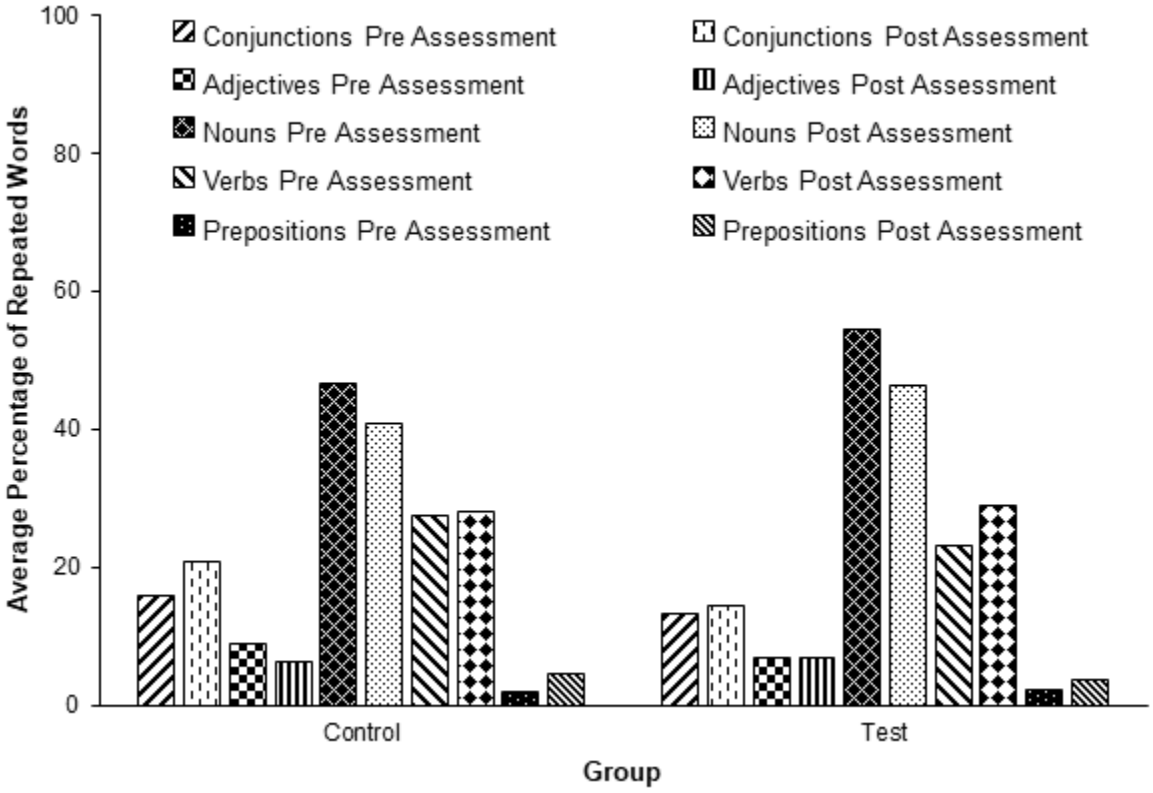
Group		Repeated Verbs		Repeated Prepositions	
		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Control	Mean	27.40	27.90	1.90	4.40
	N	10	10	10	10
	Std. Deviation	10.21	5.90	2.85	3.57
Test	Mean	23.19	28.94	2.06	3.56
	N	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	18.20	10.22	3.91	2.68

Note. Table 39 shows the average percentage of verbs and prepositions used in the Test and Control groups including repetition of the same words. The Control Group produced on average a higher percentage of verbs (27.40) and a lower percentage of prepositions (1.90) in the pre

assessment than the Test Group (23.19 and 2.06). Both groups produced on average a higher percentage of verbs and prepositions in relation to the total number of words spoken in the post assessment.

Figure 36

Average Percentage of Repeated CANVP Words Produced by Learners in School 2 in the Pre and Post Assessments in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken



Note. Figure 36 depicts the average percentage of repeated conjunctions, adjectives, nouns, verbs and prepositions produced by learners in the Control and Test Groups in the pre and post assessments. These results were displayed in Tables 38 and 39. Pre and post assessment results are shown next to each other for each group e.g. conjunction pre assessment, post assessment.

Tables 40 and 41 show the results of the CANVP word analysis for the Control and Test Groups in the pre and post assessments in School 2. In the analysis only different words were analysed.

Table 40

Average Percentage of Different Conjunctions, Adjectives and Nouns produced by Learners in School 2 in the Pre and Post Assessments in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken

		Different Conjunctions		**Different Adjectives**		**Different Nouns**	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Con-trol	Mean	4.50	4.00	13.10	9.80	60.50	56.70
	N	10	10	10	10	10	10
	Std. Deviation	1.51	1.70	6.01	4.00	7.09	3.92
Test	Mean	10.25	4.00	10.13	9.87	62.31	59.19
	N	16	16	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	24.09	2.10	7.54	5.76	24.09	10.45

Note. Table 40 shows the average percentage of different conjunctions, adjectives and nouns (without repetition) used in the Control and Test Groups. Repeated words were excluded from the analysis. The Test Group produced on average a higher percentage of different conjunctions (10.25) than the Control Group (4.50) in the pre assessment. The Test Group produced a lower percentage of different conjunctions, adjectives and nouns in the post assessment than in the pre assessment. The SD was high in the Test Group.

Table 41

Average Percentage of Different Verbs and Prepositions produced by Learners in School 2 in the Pre and Post Assessments in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken

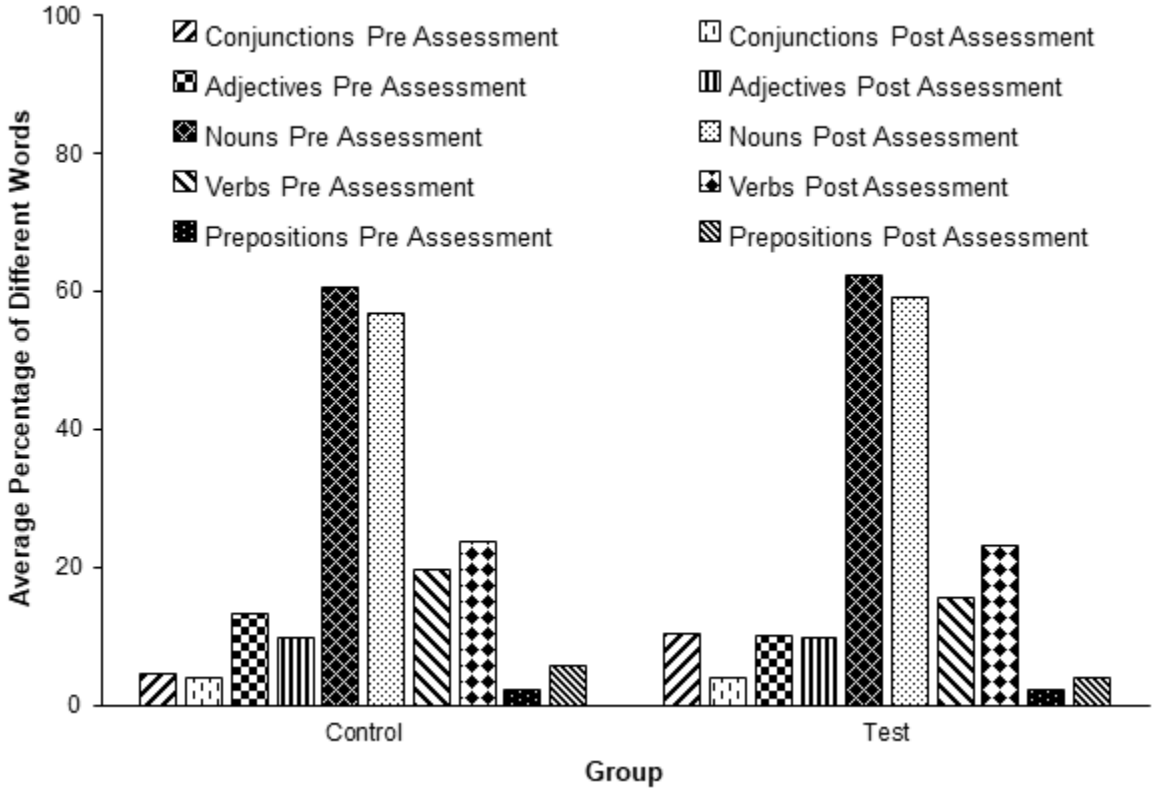
		Different Verbs		**Different Prepositions**	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Control	Mean	19.60	23.70	2.20	5.60
	N	10	10	10	10
	Std. Deviation	5.08	3.47	3.23	4.03
Test	Mean	15.44	23.00	2.13	4.00
	N	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	13.84	9.50	3.65	2.85

Note. Table 41 shows the average percentage of different verbs and prepositions (without repetition) used in the Control and Test Groups. Repeated words were excluded from the analysis. The Control Group produced on average a higher percentage of different verbs (19.60) and different prepositions (2.20) in the pre assessment than the Test Group did (15.44 and 2.13). In

the post assessment both groups produced on average almost the same percentage of different verbs (23.7 and 23.0). The results are depicted in Figure 37 below.

Figure 37

Average Percentage of Different CANVP Words Produced by Learners in School 2 in the Pre and Post Assessments in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken



Note. Figure 37 shows the average percentage of different conjunctions, adjectives, nouns, verbs and prepositions produced by learners in the pre and post assessments in relation to the total number of words spoken. These results are displayed in Tables 40 and 41.

The Structured Classroom Observations in the Test Group in School 2

Learners in the Test Group were observed by the researcher during the group work phases when the three picturebooks were dramatised. Learners were divided into colour groups and eight different aspects of their work were observed. During the observation in the classroom the symbols – (no), 0 (sometimes/some) and + (yes) were used. For analysis purposes these symbols were given values. "-" equates to 0 points, "0" equates to 1 point and "+" equates to 2 points. There was a maximum total of 8 points available for each category because there were four different colour groups.

Table 42

Results of the First Groupwork Observations for The Enormous Turnip in School 2

Group	Learners started the task straight away	Learners could organise their own group	Every group member participated	Learners used classroom English
Yellow	2	2	2	0
Red	0	0	0	0
Green	2	0	2	0
Orange	0	0	0	0
Category Total	4	2	4	0

Group	Learners spoke German	Learners used story language	Learners were on-task	Learners completed the task successfully
Yellow	2	2	2	N/A
Red	2	2	0	N/A
Green	2	0	0	N/A
Orange	2	2	2	N/A
Category Total	8	6	4	

Note. In the first observation of the group work dramatisation phase on the story *The Enormous Turnip*, two groups started immediately. The other two groups needed help to organise the group work and not every learner was able to participate. Learners spoke German together rather than using classroom English during the group work discussions. However, most groups used language from the story in their discussion. Some groups were on-task during the group work phase. It was decided to allow learners more time in the following lesson to organise and practise their dramatisations. Therefore, a second observation was carried out in the following lesson. A second attempt at the dramatisation was made in the following lesson.

Table 43

Results of the Second Groupwork Observations for The Enormous Turnip in School 2

Group	Learners started the task straight away	Learners could organise their own group	Every group member participated	Learners used classroom English
Yellow	2	2	2	0
Red	2	2	0	0
Green	2	2	2	0
Orange	2	2	2	0
Category Total	8	8	6	0

Group	Learners spoke German	Learners used story language	Learners were on-task	Learners completed the task successfully
Yellow	2	2	2	2
Red	2	2	0	2
Green	2	2	2	2
Orange	2	2	2	2
Category Total	8	8	6	8

Note. In the second observation of the group work phase for *The Enormous Turnip*, the learners started work straight away and could organise their own groups, more learners participated, and learners were more on task. Every group used language from the story, and every group produced a short dramatisation to show the class at the end of the group work phase.

Table 44

Results of the Groupwork Observations for Goldilocks and the Three Bears in School 2

Group	Learners started the task straight away	Learners could organise their own group	Every group member participated	Learners used classroom English
Yellow	2	2	2	0
Red	0	0	0	0
Green	0	2	2	0
Orange	0	2	2	0
Category Total	2	6	6	0

Group	Learners spoke German	Learners used story language	Learners were on-task	Learners completed the task successfully
Yellow	2	0	2	2
Red	2	0	1	2
Green	2	2	2	2
Orange	2	0	1	2
Category Total	8	2	6	8

Note. In the group work phase of *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*, not every group started immediately. However, most groups were able to organise the group work independently. Again, as was the case in the previous unit, learners spoke German together rather than classroom English during the group work discussions. Every group completed the task successfully.

Table 45

Results of the Groupwork Observations for Monkey Puzzle in School 2

Group	Learners started the task straight away	Learners could organise their own group	Every group member participated	Learners used classroom English
Yellow	2	2	2	0
Red	2	2	2	0
Green	2	2	2	0
Orange	2	2	2	0
Category Total	8	8	8	0

Group	Learners spoke German	Learners used story language	Learners were on-task	Learners completed the task successfully
Yellow	2	2	2	2
Red	2	2	2	2
Green	2	2	2	2
Orange	2	2	2	2
Category Total	8	8	8	8

Note. During the group work on *Monkey Puzzle* every group started the group work immediately and every group was able to organise themselves independently. Every group member participated. As was the case in the previous two units, learners spoke German together during the group work discussions. However, every group used language from the story in their discussions. Every group was on-task during the group work phase, and every group completed the task successfully. The scores for each category had improved since the first group work session. The only score that did not change was the score for the category "Learners spoke German".

Pupil Self-assessment of the Picturebook Dramatisation in School 2

The following section presents the results of the pupil self-assessment of the units of work on the stories *The Enormous Turnip* and *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* and *Monkey Puzzle*.

Table 46 below shows the average score given by pupils (N=16) in the self-assessment questionnaire on the story *The Enormous Turnip*. Five was the maximum score and one was the minimum score that could be given for each of the six questions. The story *The Enormous Turnip* was studied first in School 2.

Table 46

Average Score Given by Pupils in School 2 in the Self-Assessment for the Story The Enormous Turnip

Question		**The Enormous Turnip**					
		I understood the story	I liked the story	I joined in with the storytelling	I spoke English with my group	I enjoyed the drama activities	I felt confident speaking English
Test	Mean	4.81	4.13	3.50	2.63	4.37	3.87
	N	16	16	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	0.40	1.09	1.37	1.63	1.15	1.41

Note. Table 46 shows the average score given by pupils in the self-assessment questionnaire on the story *The Enormous Turnip*. Five was the maximum score and one was the minimum score that could be given for each of the six statements. Pupils reported that they understood the story 4.81/5, they liked the story 4.13/5, they joined in with the storytelling 3.5/5 and they enjoyed the drama activities 4.37/5. They rated their confidence in speaking English in front of their peers at 3.87/5.

Table 47

Average Score Given by Pupils in School 2 in the Self-Assessment for the Story Goldilocks and The Three Bears

Question		**Goldilocks and the Three Bears**					
		I understood the story	I liked the story	I joined in with the storytelling	I spoke English with my group	I enjoyed the drama activities	I felt confident speaking English
Test	Mean	4.62	4.06	4.37	3.37	4.19	4.38
	N	16	16	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	0.72	1.18	0.81	1.75	1.17	1.20

Note. Table 47 shows the average score given by pupils in the self-assessment questionnaire on the story *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*. Five was the maximum score and one was the minimum score that could be given for each of the six statements. Pupils reported that they understood the story 4.62/5, they liked the story 4.06/5, they joined in with the storytelling 4.37/5 and they enjoyed the drama activities 4.19/5. They rated their confidence in speaking English in front of their peers at 4.38/5.

Table 48

Average Score Given by Pupils in School 2 in the Self-Assessment for the Story Monkey Puzzle

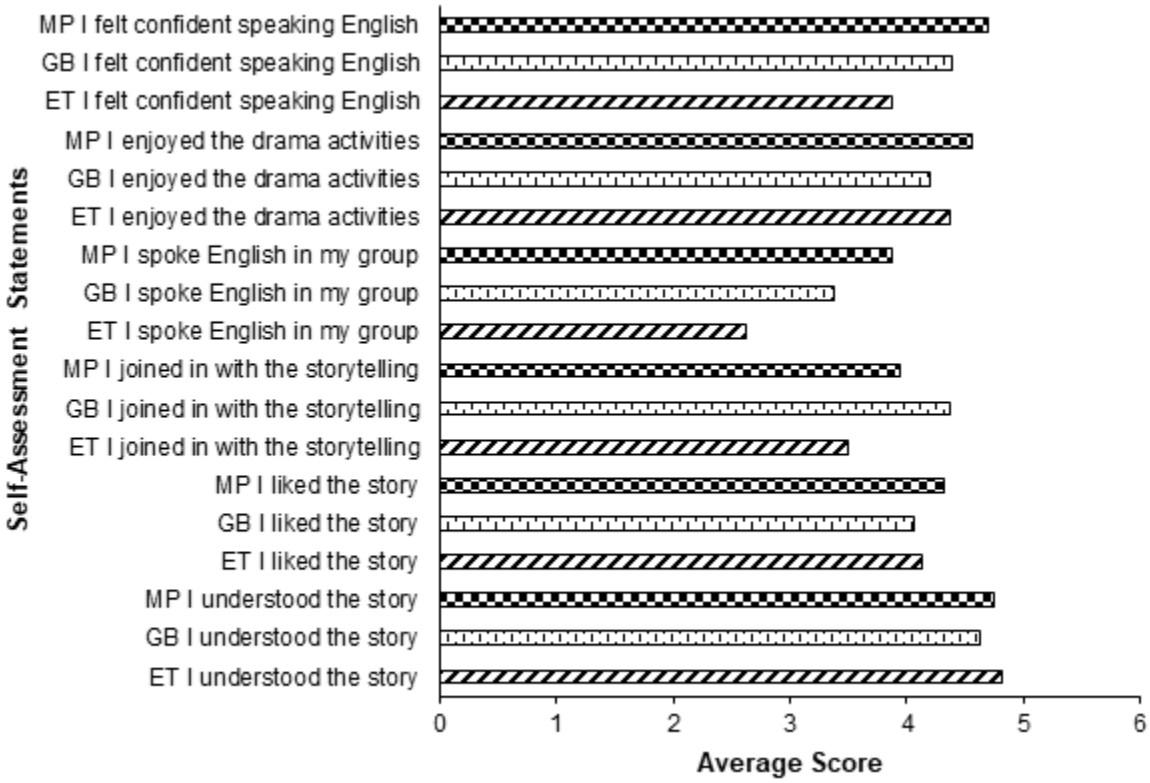
Question		**Monkey Puzzle**					
		I understood the story	I liked the story	I joined in with the storytelling	I spoke English with my group	I enjoyed the drama activities	I felt confident speaking English
Test	Mean	4.75	4.31	3.94	3.87	4.56	4.69
	N	16	16	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	0.45	0.70	1.39	1.26	0.63	0.60

Note. Table 48 shows the average score given by pupils in the self-assessment questionnaire on the story *Monkey Puzzle*. Five was the maximum score and one was the minimum score that could be given for each of the six statements. Pupils reported that they understood the story 4.75/5, they liked the story 4.31/5, they joined in with the storytelling 3.94/5 and they enjoyed the drama activities 4.56/5. They rated their confidence in speaking English in front of their peers at 4.69/5.

Figure 38 depicts the feedback scores from Tables 46, 47 and 48.

Figure 38

Average Scores Given by Test Group Pupils in the Pupil Self-Assessment for the Stories The Enormous Turnip, Goldilocks and the Three Bears and Monkey Puzzle in School 2



Note. Figure 38 shows the average scores given by Test Group pupils in the pupil self-assessment for the stories *The Enormous Turnip* (ET), *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* (GB) and *Monkey Puzzle* (MP). Pupil feedback shows that pupils thought that on average they had understood each of the stories well and that they liked them. They thought that they had joined in best during the storytelling in *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*. Learners' self-assessment of how much English they had spoken in the group work phases increased in each story. Learners' felt that their confidence at speaking English in front of their peers and teacher also increased in each story. Their confidence in speaking English was the highest in the story that they enjoyed the most.

The Results from School 3

The following section presents the results obtained during the study in School 3. The results are presented in the same order as for Schools 1 and 2. In School 3 there was a Test Group (N=16) but no control group. The learners in the Test Group completed three drama units on the stories *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*, *Monkey Puzzle* and *Hey Grandude!* The

presentation of the results follows in the same order as the presentation of results for the Pilot School and School 2 in the previous sections.

The Speaking Descriptor Analysis in School 3

Table 49

Average Total Point Score and Language Ability Classifications Awarded in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 3

			Points		**Ability Classification**	
School	Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
3	Test	Mean	9.94	12.13	2.56	3.06
		N	16	16	16	16
		Std. Deviation	2.89	2.66	0.72	0.68

Note. Table 49 shows the average Point Scores out of 16 and the average language Ability Classifications (1=lowest 4=highest) of the learners in the Test Group in the pre and post assessment phases before and after the intervention. The results show that on average an increase of 2.19 additional Total Points were gained in the post assessment. The average Ability Classification increased by 0.5. Figures 39 and 40 below depict the results in Table 49.

Figure 39

Average Point Score Awarded in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 3

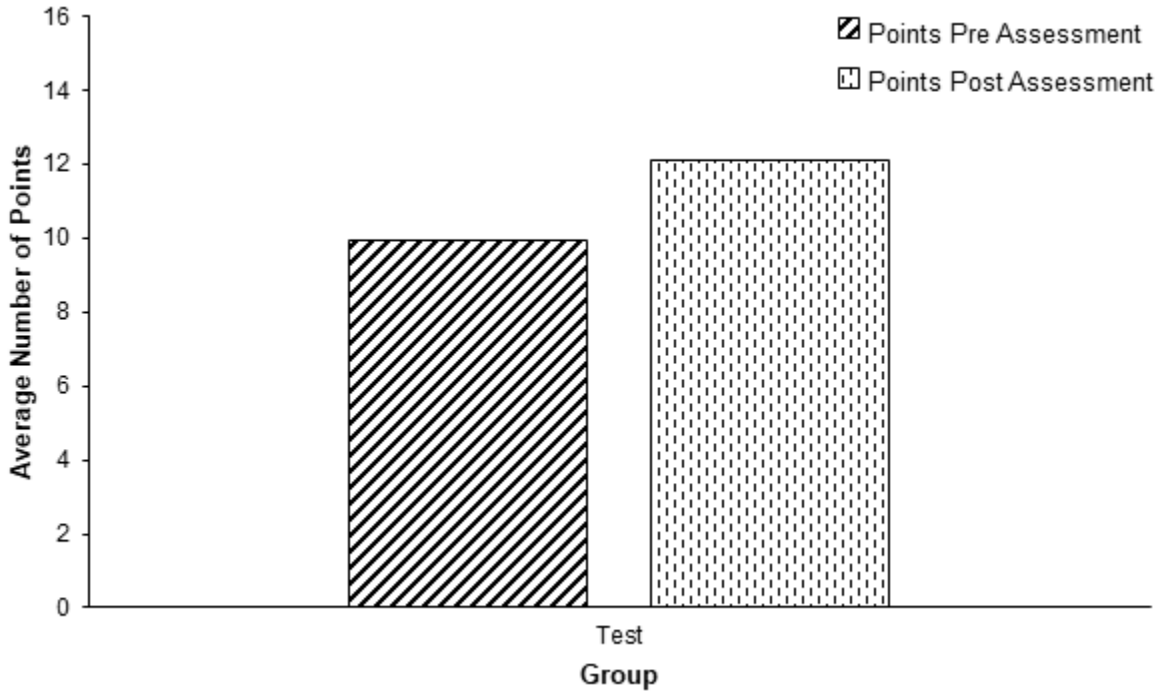


Figure 40

Average Language Ability Classifications Awarded in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 3

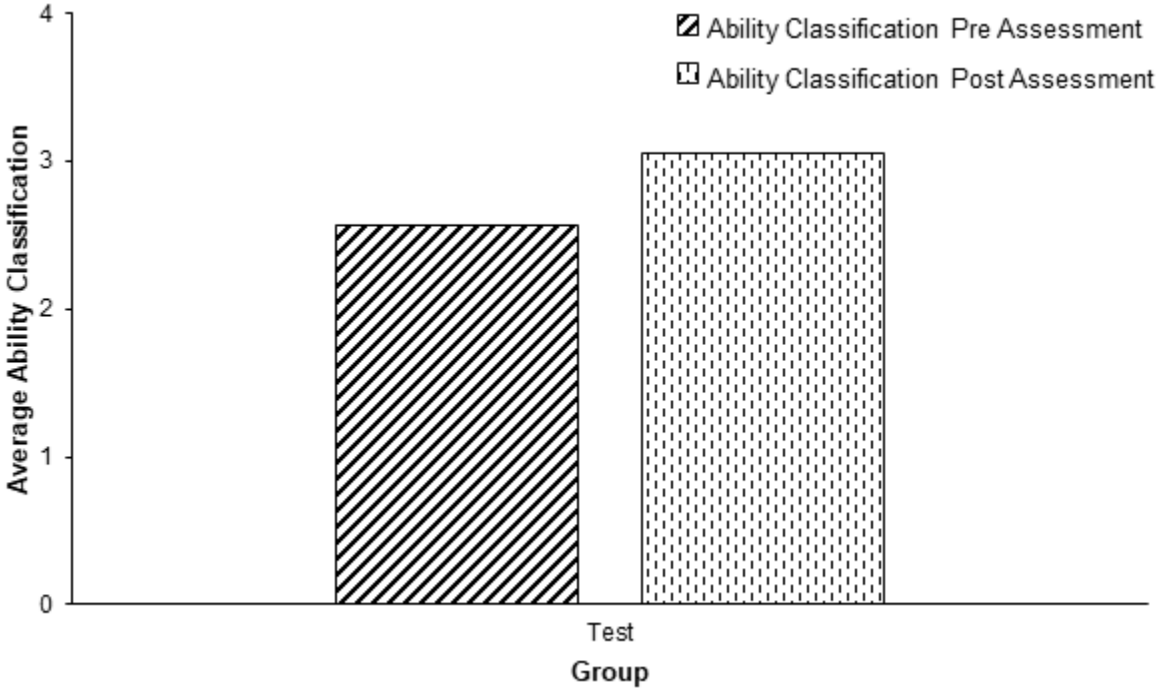


Table 50 below shows the average point scores for Vocabulary Use and Structure and Coherence obtained from analysis of the transcripts with the speaking descriptors in the pre assessment and post assessment before and after the intervention in School 3. There was a maximum of four points available for Vocabulary Use and four points for Structure and Coherence.

Table 50

Average Point Scores Awarded for Vocabulary Use and Structure and Coherence in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 3

		Vocabulary Use Score		**Structure and Coherence Score**	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Test	Mean	2.56	3.06	2.50	2.94
	N	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	0.73	0.68	0.82	0.68

Note. The average Vocabulary Use Score awarded increased by 0.5 points in the post assessment. The average Structure and Coherence Score increased by 0.44 points in the post assessment.

Table 51 below shows the average point scores for Communication and Task Achievement obtained from the analysis of transcripts using the speaking descriptors in the pre and post assessments in School 3. The maximum point scores for each category were four points.

Table 51

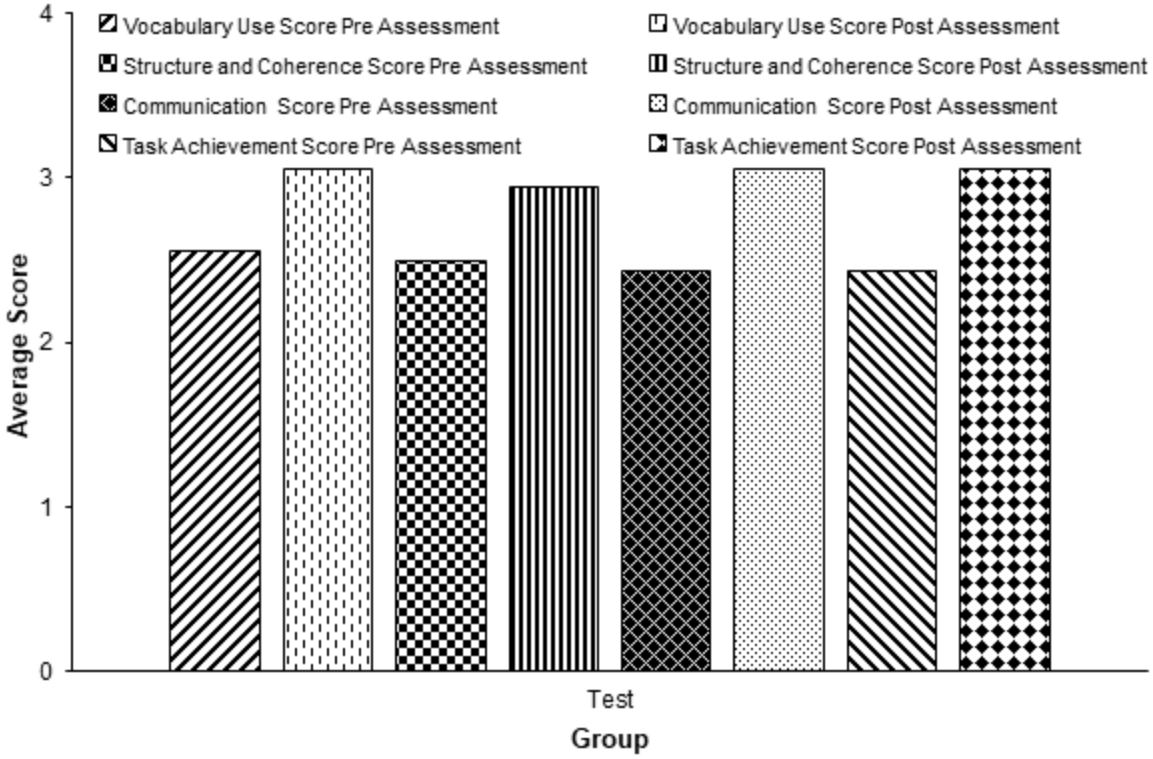
Average Point Scores Awarded for Communication and Task Achievement in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 3

		Communication Score		Task Achievement Score	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Test	Mean	2.44	3.06	2.44	3.06
	N	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	0.73	0.68	0.73	0.68

Note. On average learners' scores for Communication and Task Achievement increased by 0.62 points in the post assessment. Figure 41 below depicts the results presented in Tables 50 and 51.

Figure 41

Average Point Scores for Vocabulary Use, Structure and Coherence, Communication and Task Achievement in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 3



Note. The pre and post results for each category are shown next to each other. Learners scored on average higher in every category.

The frequency chart (Table 52) below shows the language Ability Classifications before the start of the intervention in School 3 (N=16). The language Ability Classification was based on the total scores achieved by pupils for Vocabulary Use, Structure and Coherence, Communication and Task Achievement.

Table 52

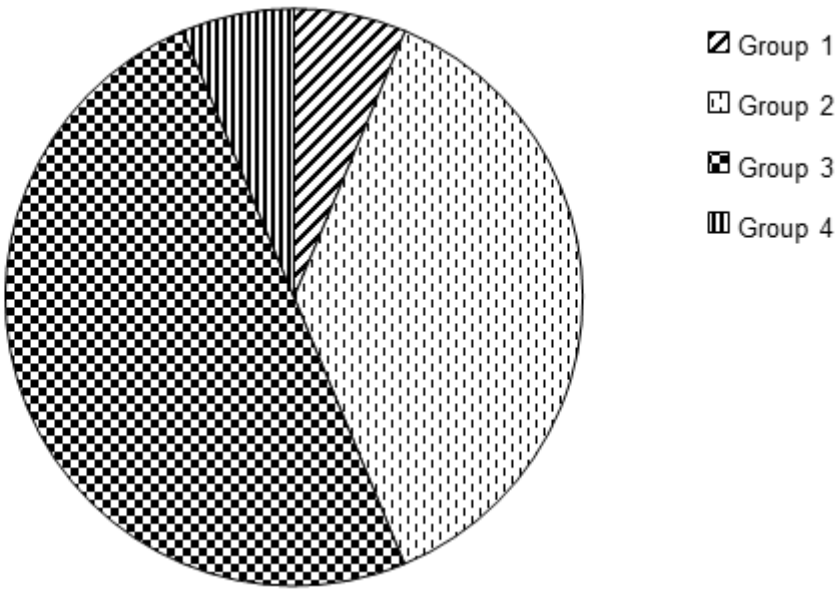
Language Ability Classification in the Test Group in the Pre Assessment in School 3

	Frequency	**Percent**
Group 1	1	6.3
Group 2	6	37.5
Group 3	8	50.0
Group 4	1	6.3
Total	16	100

Note. Table 52 shows the language Ability Classification (1=lowest 4=highest) given to the 16 learners in the Test Group in the pre assessment before the intervention. Fifty percent of learners were in group 3 before the start of the intervention.

Figure 42

Language Ability Group Distribution in the Test Group in the Pre Assessment in School 3



Note. Figure 42 depicts the information shown in the Table 52.

The frequency chart (Table 53) below shows the language Ability Classifications after the intervention in School 3.

Table 53

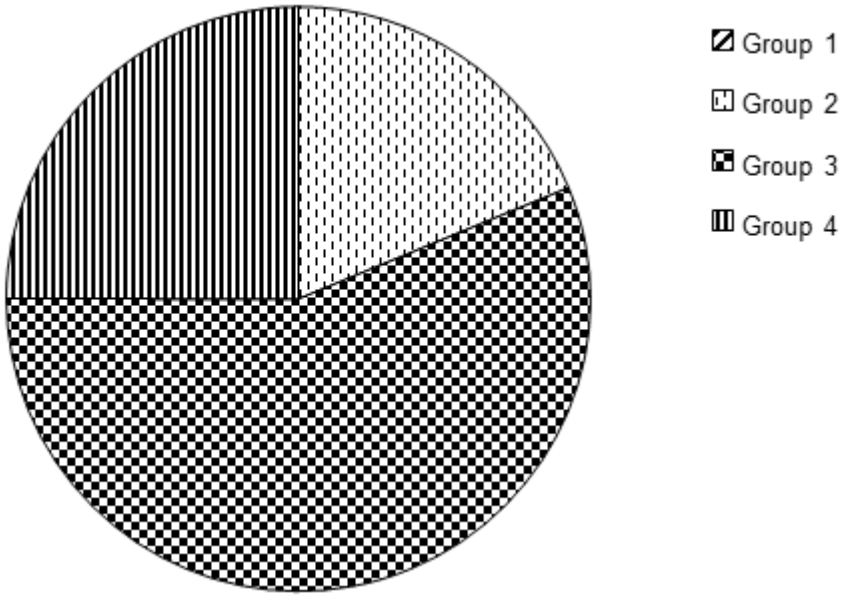
Language Ability Classification in the Test Group in the Post Assessment in School 3

	Frequency	Percent
Group 1	0	0
Group 2	3	18.8
Group 3	9	56.3
Group 4	4	25.0
Total	16	100

Note. There were no learners in group 1 after the intervention. There were more learners in groups 3 and 4 after the intervention.

Figure 43

Language Ability Group Distribution in the Test Group in the Post Assessment in School 3



Note. Figure 43 depicts the information shown in Table 53. There were no learners in group 1.

The table below shows the average point score improvement/ pupil (N=16) after the intervention in each ability group (1-4).

Table 54

Average Point Score Improvement/ Pupil in each Ability Group in the Test Group in the Post Assessment in School 3

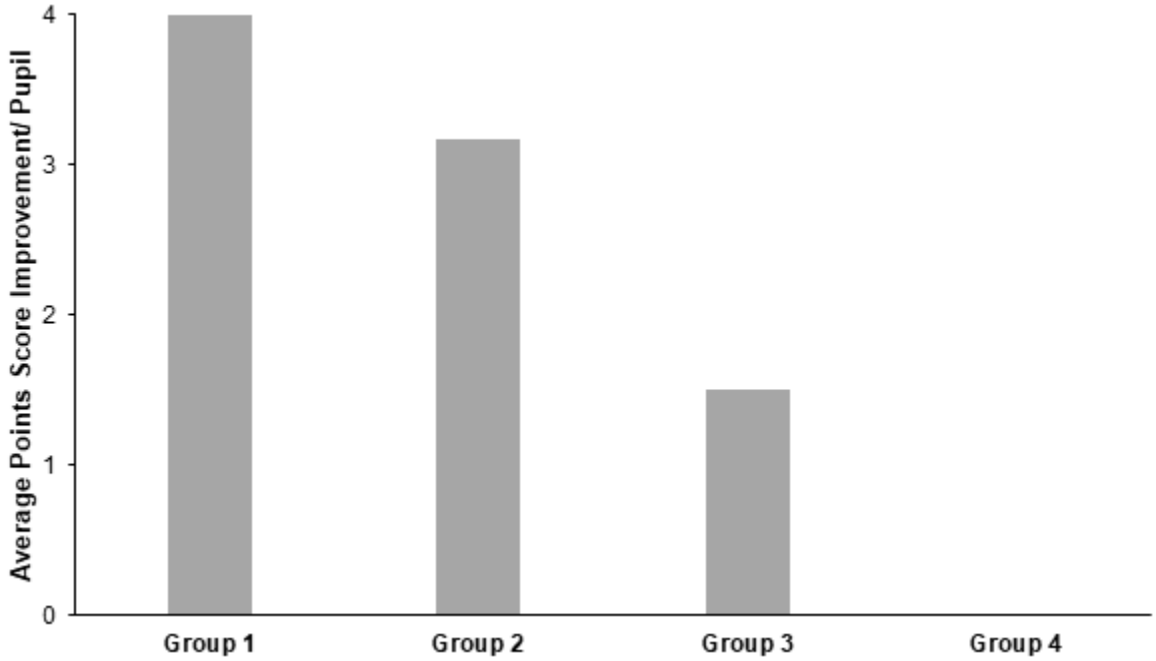
Ability Group	Pupil Frequency	Total Additional Points Gained in the Group	Average point score improvement/pupil
Group 1	1	4	4
Group 2	6	19	3.17
Group 3	8	12	1.5
Group 4	1	0	0
Total	16		

Note. Pupils in group 1 improved their point score on average by 4 points, the most/ pupil. Group 2 learners improved their point score on average by 3.17 points/pupil.

The bar chart in Figure 44 depicts the results.

Figure 44

Average Points Score Improvement after the Intervention in School 3



Note. The bar chart shows that group 1 improved their point score on average the most after the intervention, followed by group 2 and then group 3.

Word Class Analysis Results in School 3

The following results on the types of words used by learners were obtained through analysis of the language used by learners in the pre and post assessments. The language in each transcript was analysed using CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) and Excel. The data obtained from the initial analysis was further statistically analysed using SPSS.

Table 55

Average Number of English Words Produced by Learners With and Without Repeated Words in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 3

		English Words with Repetition		**English Words without Repetition**	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Test	Mean	98.38	136.00	46.94	58.56
	N	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	37.99	39.82	14.10	14.09

Note. Table 55 shows the average number of English words used by learners in the pre and post assessments in School 3. The first two columns of results show English words used in the pre and post assessments and includes repeated words. The second two columns of results show the results for different English words produced. Averages for both categories increased in the post assessments. Learners used more words and more different words in English in the post assessment.

Table 56

Average Number of German Words Produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 3

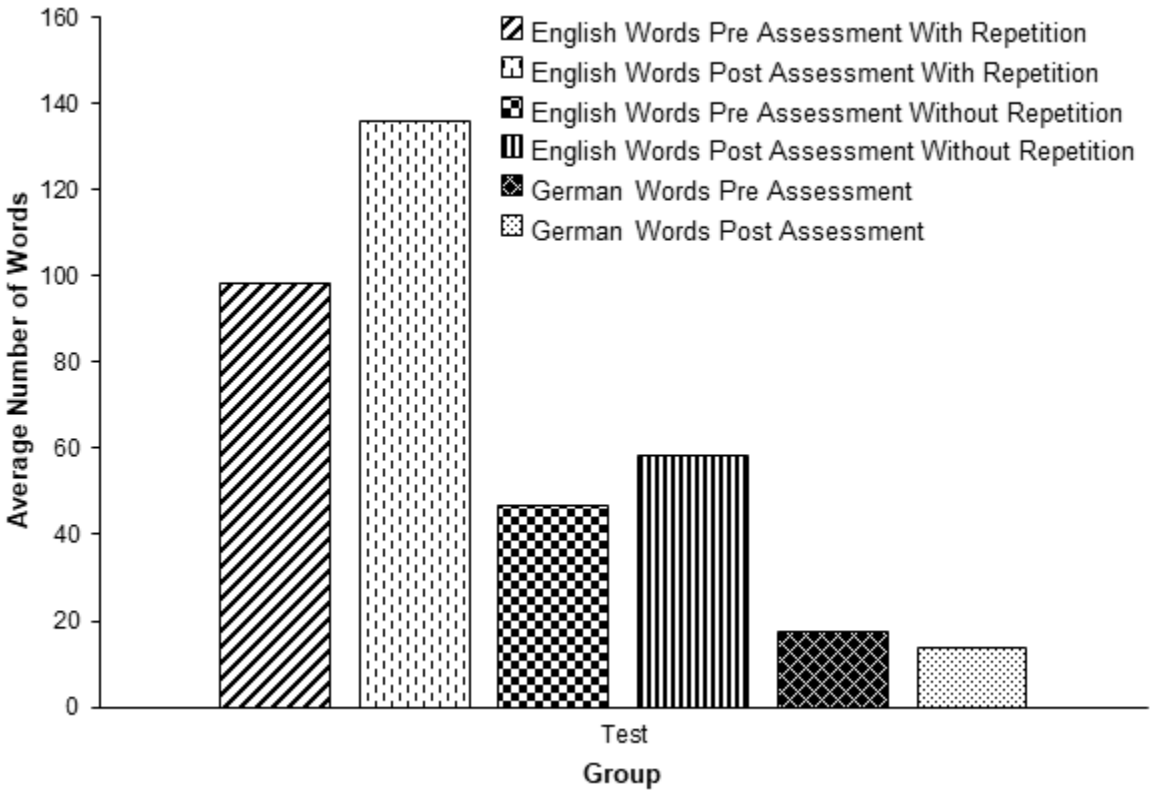
		Number of German Words	
Group		Pre	Post
Test	Mean	17.31	13.87
	N	16	16
	Std. Deviation	16.68	13.47

Note. Table 56 shows the average number of German words (including repeated words) used by learners in the pre and post assessments. The average number of German words used by learners decreased in the post assessment.

Figure 45 below depicts the results from Tables 55 and 56.

Figure 45

Average Number of English and German Words used in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 3



Note. Learners' use of English increased in the post assessment in School 3. There was also an increased use of different types of words. Learners' use of German decreased. Each category's pre and post assessment scores are shown next to each other on the bar chart e.g. Repeated English words pre assessment, post assessment etc.

Tables 57 and 58 show the results of the CANVP word analysis for the pre and post assessments in School 3. Table 57 shows the average percentage of conjunctions, adjectives and nouns produced by learners in School 3. The analysis includes repeated words.

Table 57

Average Percentage of Repeated Conjunctions, Adjectives and Nouns produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken

Group		Conjunctions		Adjectives		Nouns	
		Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Test	Mean	16.63	17.00	8.31	7.25	45.31	41.75
	N	16	16	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	4.40	4.44	3.96	3.11	9.21	7.22

Note. The results show that learners produced on average a higher percentage of conjunctions but a lower percentage of adjectives and nouns in the post assessment.

Table 58

Average Percentage of Repeated Verbs and Prepositions Produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken

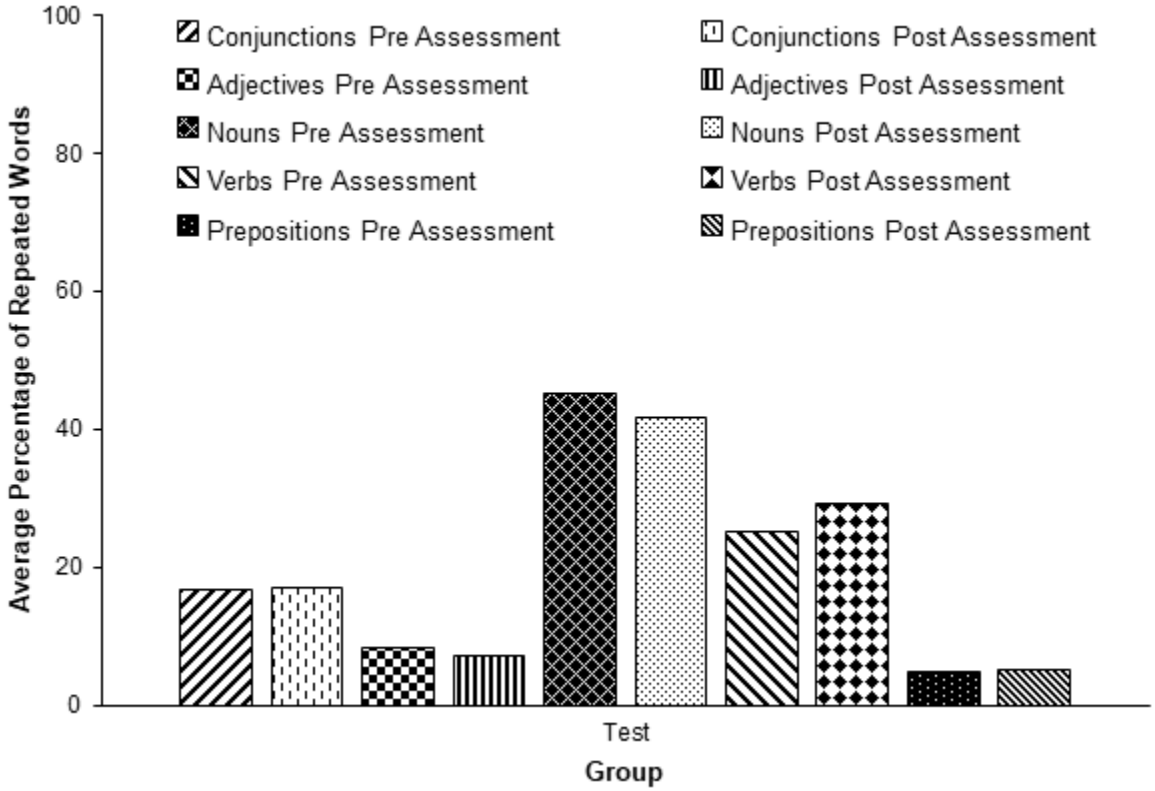
Group		Verbs		Prepositions	
		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Test	Mean	25.13	29.25	4.69	5.00
	N	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	8.19	7.79	3.50	3.14

Note. Table 58 shows the average percentage of verbs and prepositions used by learners in the post assessment on average increased. Repetition of the same words were included in these results.

Figure 46 below depicts the results from Tables 57 and 58.

Figure 46

Average Percentage of Repeated CANVP Words Produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken in School 3



Tables 59 and 60 below show the results of the CANVP word analysis for learners in School 3. In this analysis only different words were analysed. Table 59 below shows the average percentage of different conjunctions, adjectives and nouns (without repetition) used by learners in School 3.

Table 59

Average Percentage of Different Conjunctions, Adjectives and Nouns produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken

		Different Conjunctions		**Different Adjectives**		**Different Nouns**	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Test	Mean	3.63	3.25	12.44	11.25	55.25	57.88
	N	16	16	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	1.50	1.29	4.98	4.04	8.47	6.99

Note. The results show that on average learners produced a lower percentage of different conjunctions and adjectives but a higher percentage of different nouns in the post assessment.

Table 60 below shows the average percentage of different verbs and prepositions (without repetition) used by learners in School 3.

Table 60

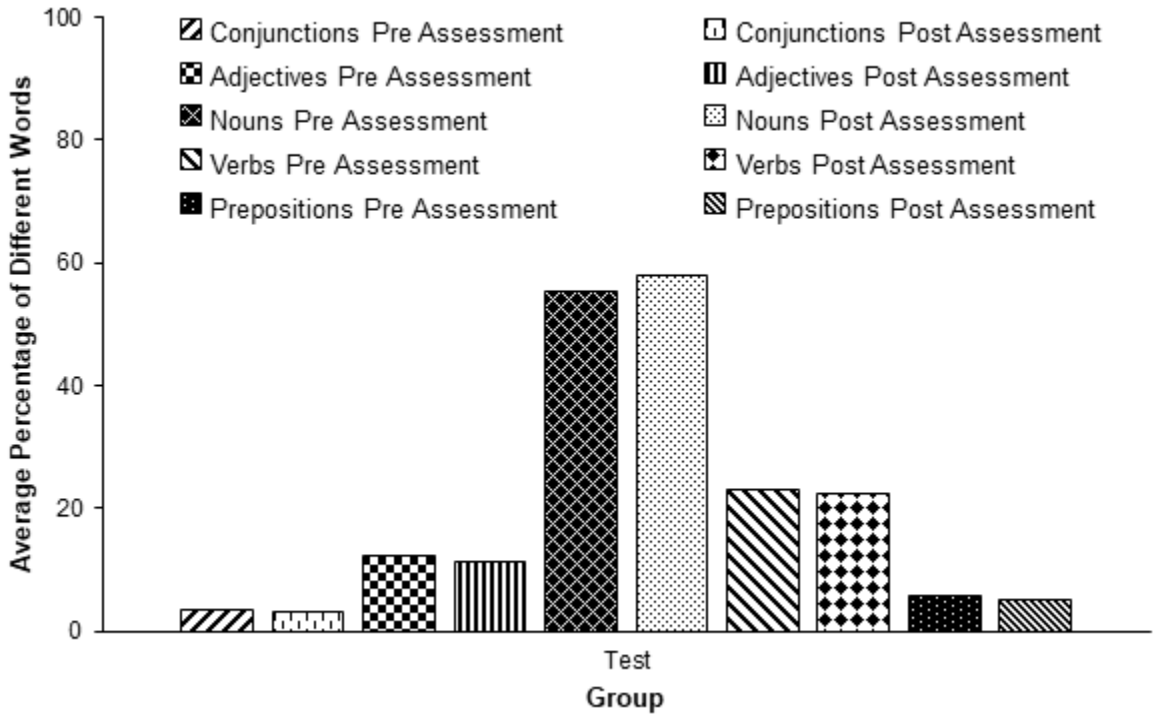
Average Percentage of Different Verbs and Prepositions produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken

		Different Verbs		**Different Prepositions**	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Test	Mean	23.06	22.50	5.69	5.19
	N	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	7.43	6.08	4.13	2.71

Note. On average learners produced a lower percentage of different verbs and prepositions in the post assessment. The results are depicted in Figure 47 below.

Figure 47

Average Percentage of Different CANVP Words Produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken in School 3



Note. Figure 47 shows the average percentage of different conjunctions, adjectives, nouns, verbs and prepositions produced by learners in the pre and post assessments in relation to the total number of spoken words.

The Structured Classroom Observations in School 3

Learners in the Test Group were observed by the researcher during the group work phases when the three picturebooks were dramatised. Learners were divided into colour groups and eight different aspects of their work were observed. During the observation in the classroom the symbols – (no), 0 (sometimes/some) and + (yes) were used. For analysis purposes these symbols were given values. "-" equates to 0 points, "0" equates to 1 point and "+" equates to 2 points. There was a maximum total of 8 points available for each category because there were four different colour groups.

Table 61

Results of the Groupwork Observations for Goldilocks and the Three Bears in School 3

Group	Learners started the task straight away	Learners could organise their own group	Every group member participated	Learners used classroom English
Blue	0	2	2	0
Yellow	2	2	2	2
Red	2	2	0	0
Green	0	2	2	0
Category Total	4	8	6	2

Group	Learners spoke German	Learners used story language	Learners were on-task	Learners completed the task successfully
Blue	2	0	2	2
Yellow	2	0	2	2
Red	2	0	2	2
Green	2	0	1	2
Category Total	8	0	7	8

Note. Two groups started the group work immediately. Every group was able to organise themselves independently and most groups were able to involve every group member. Learners spoke mostly German together rather than classroom English during the group work discussions. However, one group spoke some English during the group work. This time learners did not use language from the story. The groups were mostly on-task during the group work phase, and every group completed the task successfully.

Table 62

Results of the Groupwork Observations for Monkey Puzzle in School 3

Group	Learners started the task straight away	Learners could organise their own group	Every group member participated	Learners used classroom English
Blue	2	2	2	0
Yellow	2	2	2	0
Red	2	2	2	0
Green	2	2	0	0
Category Total	8	8	6	0

Group	Learners spoke German	Learners used story language	Learners were on-task	Learners completed the task successfully
Blue	2	2	2	2
Yellow	2	2	2	2
Red	2	2	2	2
Green	2	2	2	2
Category Total	8	8	8	8

Note. Every group started the group work immediately and every group was able to organise themselves independently. Most groups involved every group member. Again, learners spoke German together rather than classroom English during the group work discussions. However, every group used language from the story in their discussion. Every group was on-task during the group work phase, and every group completed the task successfully. The scores for starting straight away and being on-task were better than in the first group work phase.

Table 63

Results of the Groupwork Observations for Hey Grandude! in School 3

Group	Learners started the task straight away	Learners could organise their own group	Every group member participated	Learners used classroom English
Blue	2	2	2	0
Yellow	2	2	2	0
Red	2	0	0	0
Green	2	2	0	0
Category Total	8	6	4	0

Group	Learners spoke German	Learners used story language	Learners were on-task	Learners completed the task successfully
Blue	2	2	2	2
Yellow	2	2	2	2
Red	2	2	2	2
Green	2	2	2	2
Category Total	8	8	8	8

Note. Every group started the group work immediately and most groups were able to organise themselves independently. Not every group member of every group participated in the group work. Again, learners spoke German together rather than classroom English during the group work discussions. However, every group used language from the story in their discussion. Every group was on-task during the group work phase, and every group completed the task successfully. Scores for group organisation and participation were slightly lower than in the previous group work phase on *Monkey Puzzle*.

Pupil Self-assessment of the Picturebook Dramatisation in School 3

The following section presents the results of the pupil self-assessment of the units of work on the stories *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* and *Monkey Puzzle* and *Hey Grandude!*

Table 64 below shows the average score given by pupils (N=12) in the self-assessment questionnaire on the story *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*. Only twelve sets of results were collected. Five was the maximum score and one was the minimum score that could be given for each of the six statements.

Table 64

Average Score Given by Pupils in School 3 in the Self-Assessment for the Story Goldilocks and The Three Bears

Question		Goldilocks and the Three Bears					
		I understood the story	I liked the story	I joined in with the storytelling	I spoke English with my group	I enjoyed the drama activities	I felt confident speaking English
Test	Mean	4.83	3.58	4.58	3.58	4.17	3.67
	N	12	12	12	12	12	12
	Std. Deviation	0.39	1.31	0.67	1.17	0.94	1.16

Note. Table 64 shows the average score given by pupils in the self-assessment questionnaire on the story *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*. Pupils reported that they understood the story 4.83/5, they liked the story 3.58/5, they joined in with the storytelling 4.58/5 and they enjoyed the drama activities 4.17/5. They rated their confidence in speaking English in front of their peers at 3.67/5.

Table 65

Average Score Given by Pupils in School 3 in the Self-Assessment for the Story Monkey Puzzle

Question		Monkey Puzzle					
		I understood the story	I liked the story	I joined in with the storytelling	I spoke English with my group	I enjoyed the drama activities	I felt confident speaking English
Test	Mean	4.42	4.17	4.67	4.50	4.83	4.33
	N	12	12	12	12	12	12
	Std. Deviation	0.67	0.94	0.49	0.67	0.58	0.78

Note. Table 65 shows the average score given by pupils in the self-assessment questionnaire on the story *Monkey Puzzle*. Five was the maximum score and one was the minimum score that could be given for each of the six statements. Pupils reported that they understood the story 4.42/5, they liked the story 4.17/5, they joined in with the storytelling 4.67/5 and they enjoyed the drama activities 4.83/5. They rated their confidence in speaking English in front of their peers at 4.33/5.

Table 66

Average Score Given by Pupils in School 3 in the Self-Assessment for the Hey Grandude!

Question		Hey Grandude!					
		I understood the story	I liked the story	I joined in with the storytelling	I spoke English with my group	I enjoyed the drama activities	I felt confident speaking English
Test	Mean	4.50	3.92	4.00	3.58	4.25	4.17
	N	12	12	12	12	12	12
	Std. Deviation	0.52	0.97	1.21	1.24	0.97	0.72

Note. Table 66 shows the average score given by pupils in the self-assessment questionnaire on the story *Hey Grandude!* Five was the maximum score and one was the minimum score that could be given for each of the six statements. Pupils reported that they understood the story 4.50/5, they liked the story 3.92/5, they joined in with the storytelling 4/5 and they enjoyed the drama activities 4.25/5. They rated their confidence in speaking English in front of their peers at 4.17/5.

Figure 48 below depicts the feedback scores given by pupils in School 3 for all stories.

Figure 48

Average Scores Given by Test Group Pupils in the Pupil Self-Assessment for the Stories Goldilocks and the Three Bears, Monkey Puzzle and Hey Grandude! in School 3



Note. Figure 48 shows the average scores given by Test Group pupils in the pupil self-assessment for the stories *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* (GB) and *Monkey Puzzle* (MP) and *Hey Grandude!* (HG) in School 3. Pupil feedback shows that pupils thought that on average they had understood *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* the best of the three stories. However, learners enjoyed the story *Monkey Puzzle* the most. They also thought that they had joined in best during the storytelling of *Monkey Puzzle*. Learners' self-assessment of the amount of English that they had spoken in the group work phase for the *Monkey Puzzle* story was highest. Learners also reported that they had enjoyed the drama activities during *Monkey Puzzle* the most and felt the most confident speaking English in front of their peers and the teacher during that unit of work.

The Results from School 4

The following section presents the results obtained during the study in School 4. The results are presented in the same order as for Schools 1, 2 and 3. In School 4 there was a Test Group (N=15) but no Control Group. The learners in the Test Group completed two drama units on the stories and *Monkey Puzzle* and *Hey Grandude!*

The Speaking Descriptor Analysis in School 4

Table 67

Average Total Point Score and Language Ability Classifications Awarded in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 4

School	Group		Points		Ability Classification	
			Pre	Post	Pre	Post
4	Test	Mean	6.73	9.40	2.00	2.40
		N	15	15	15	15
		Std. Deviation	3.60	3.04	0.93	0.83

Note. Table 67 shows the average point scores out of 16 and the average language Ability Classifications (1=lowest 4=highest) of the learners in the Test Group in the pre and post assessment phases before and after the intervention (N=15). The results show that on average an increase of 2.67 additional total points were gained in the post assessment. The average Ability Classification increased by 0.4.

Figures 49 and 50 below depict the results in Table 67.

Figure 49

Average Point Score Awarded in the Test Group in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 4

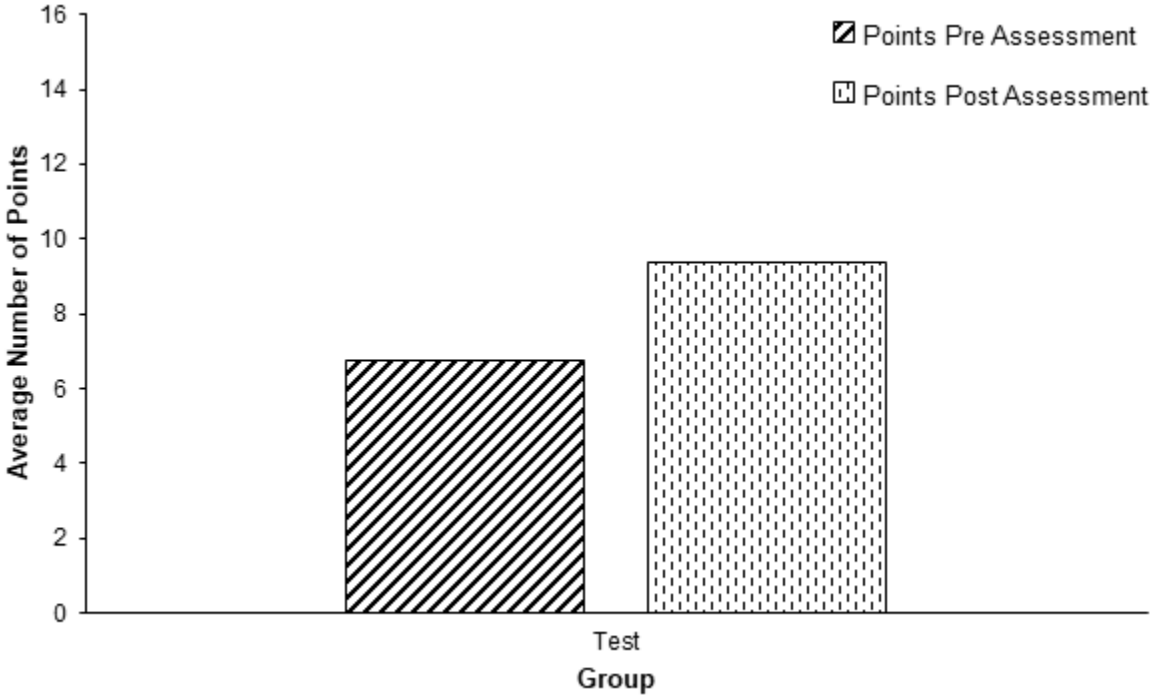


Figure 50

Average Language Ability Classification Awarded in the Test Group in the Pre and Post Assessments School 4

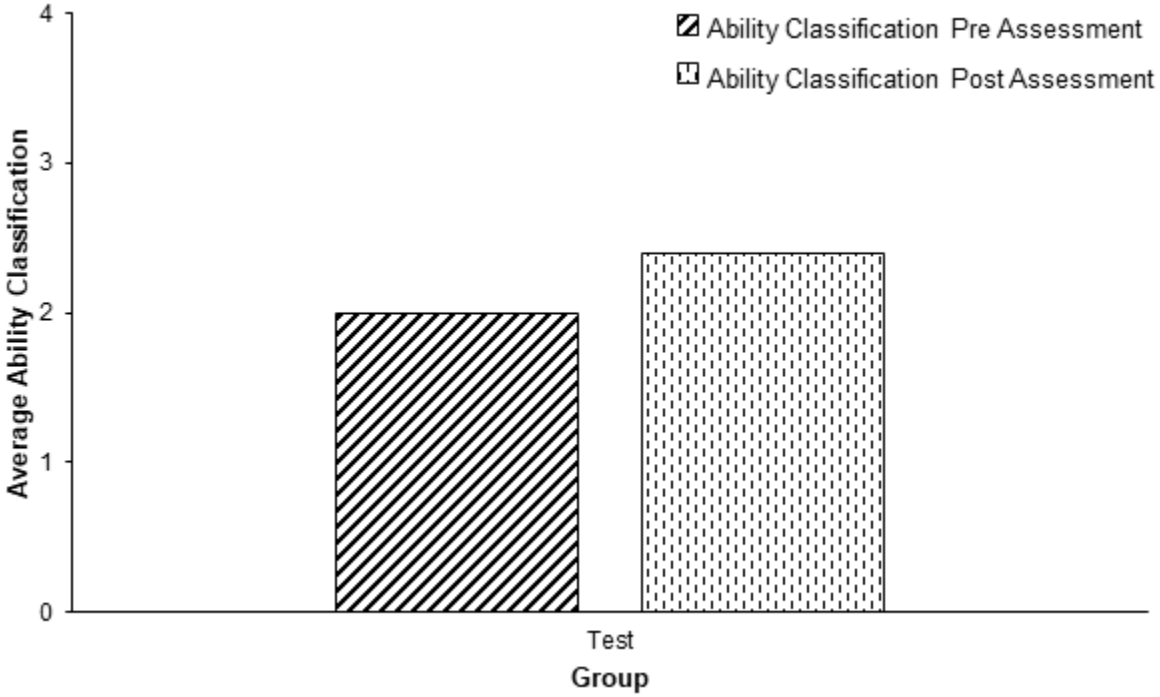


Table 68 shows the average point scores for Vocabulary Use and Structure and Coherence obtained by learners (N=15) in the Test Group in the pre assessment and post assessment in School 4. There was a maximum of four points available for Vocabulary Use and four points for Structure and Coherence.

Table 68

Average Point Scores Awarded for Vocabulary Use and Structure and Coherence in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 4

		Vocabulary Use Score		**Structure and Coherence Score**	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Test	Mean	2.00	2.47	1.60	2.20
	N	15	15	15	15
	Std. Deviation	0.93	0.83	0.91	0.78

Note. The average Vocabulary Use Score awarded increased by 0.47 points in the post assessment. The average Structure and Coherence Score increased by 0.6 points in the post assessment.

Table 69 shows the average point scores for Communication and Task Achievement obtained by learners in the pre and post assessments in School 4. The maximum point score for Communication and for Task Achievement was four points.

Table 69

Average Point Scores Awarded for Communication and Task Achievement in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 4

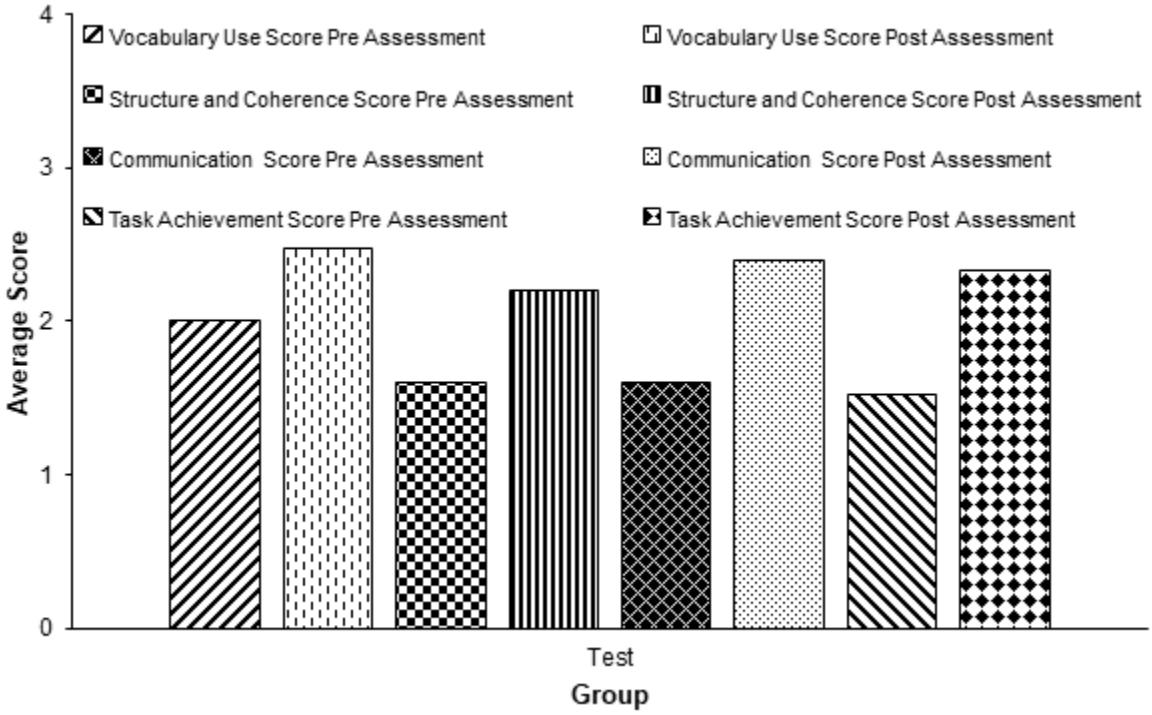
		Communication Score		Task Achievement Score	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Test	Mean	1.60	2.40	1.53	2.33
	N	15	15	15	15
	Std. Deviation	0.99	0.83	0.92	0.72

Test. On average learners' scores for Communication increased by 0.8 points in the post assessment. The average score for Task Achievement increased on average by 0.8 points.

Figure 51 below depicts the results in Tables 68 and 69.

Figure 51

Average Point Scores for Vocabulary Use, Structure and Coherence, Communication and Task Achievement in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 4



Note. Each category's pre and post assessment scores are shown next to each other e.g. Vocabulary Use score pre assessment, post assessment etc.

The frequency chart (Table 70) shows the language Ability Classifications before the start of the intervention in School 4. The classifications were based on total scores achieved by pupils for Vocabulary Use, Structure and Coherence, Communication and Task Achievement.

Table 70

Language Ability Classification in the Test Group in the Pre Assessment in School 4

	Frequency	Percent
Group 1	5	33.3
Group 2	6	40
Group 3	3	20
Group 4	1	6.7
Total	15	100

Note. The majority of pupils were in groups 1 and 2 before the intervention.

Figure 52 depicts the information shown in Table 70.

Figure 52

Language Ability Group Distribution in the Test Group in the Pre Assessment in School 4

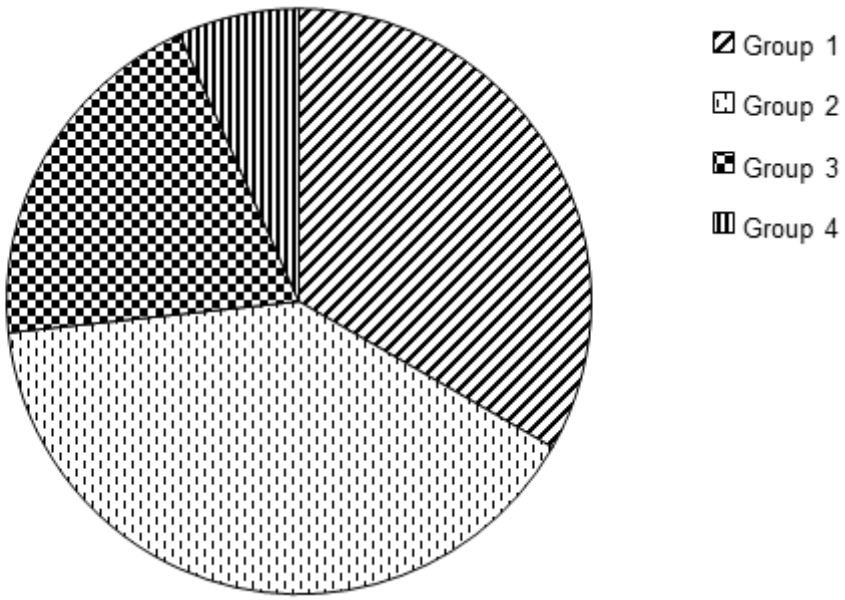


Table 71 shows the language Ability Classifications in School 4 after the intervention.

Table 71

Language Ability Classification in the Test Group in the Post Assessment in School 4

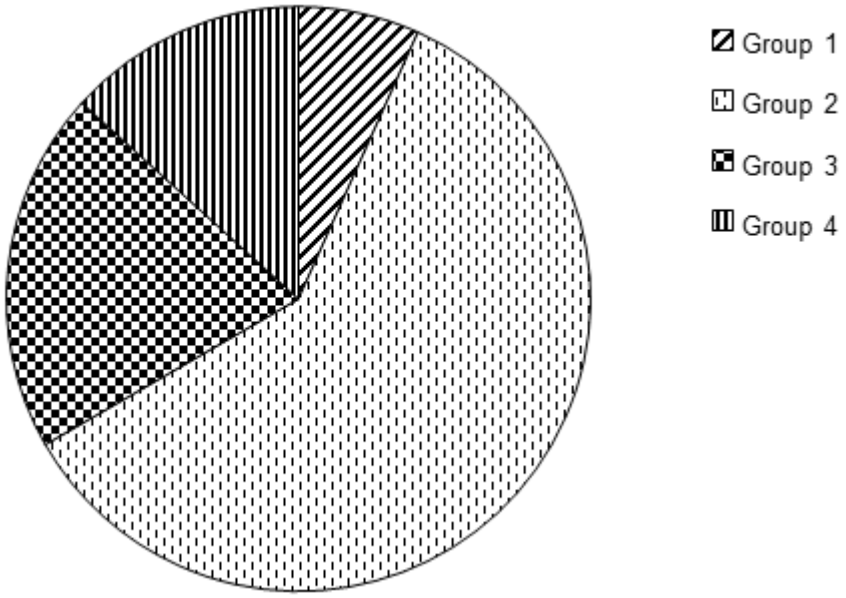
	Frequency	Percent
Group 1	1	6.7
Group 2	9	60.0
Group 3	3	20.0
Group 4	2	13.3
Total	15	100

Note. After the intervention the majority of pupils were in language Ability Classification 2.

Figure 53 depicts the information shown in Table 71.

Figure 53

Language Ability Group Distribution in the Test Group in the Post Assessment in School 4



The following table shows the average point score improvement/ pupil (N=15) after the intervention in each ability group (1-4).

Table 72

Average Point Score Improvement/ Pupil in each Ability Group in the Intervention Group in the Post Assessment in School 4

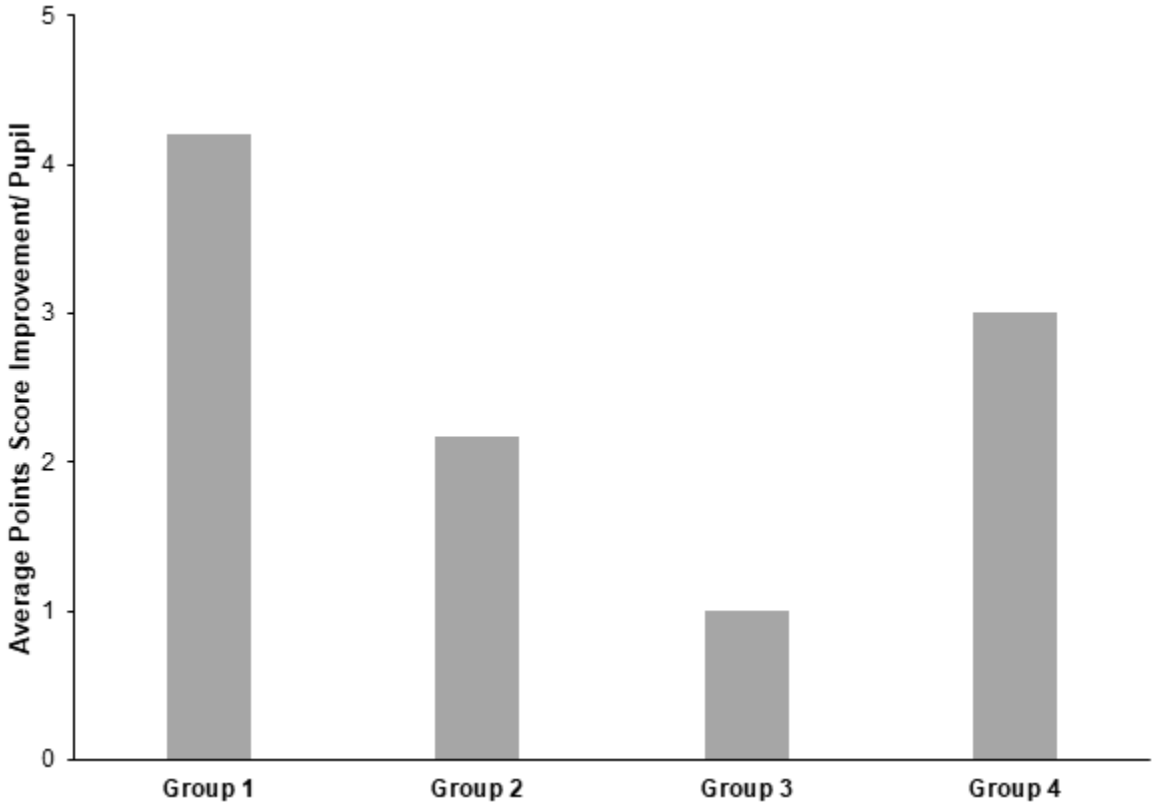
Ability Group	Pupil Frequency (Pre Assessment)	Total Additional Points Gained in each Group	Average point Score Improvement/Pupil
Group 1	5	21	4.2
Group 2	6	13	2.17
Group 3	3	3	1
Group 4	1	3	3
Total	15		

Note. Pupils in group 1 improved their point score on average by 4.2 points, the most/ pupil.

Figure 54 depicts the results.

Figure 54

Average Points Score Improvement after the Intervention in School 4



Note. The bar chart shows that Group 1 improved their point score on average the most after the intervention, followed by Group 4, although there was only one pupil in Group 4.

Word Class Analysis Results in School 4

The following results on the types of words used by learners were obtained through analysis of the language used by learners in the pre and post assessments. The language in each transcript was analysed using CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) and Excel. The data obtained from the initial analysis was further statistically analysed using SPSS.

Table 73

Average Number of English Words Produced by Learners With and Without Repeated Words in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 4

		English Words with Repetition		**English Words without Repetition**	
		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Group					
Test	Mean	77.13	104.80	38.67	49.47
	N	15	15	15	15
	Std. Deviation	55.62	49.08	19.97	17.94

Note. Table 73 shows the average number of English words used by learners in the pre and post assessments in School 4. The first two columns of results show results for English words used in the pre and post assessments and includes repeated words. The second two columns of results show the results for different English words produced. The average number of words in both categories increased in the post assessment. SD was high.

Table 74

Average Number of German Words Produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 4

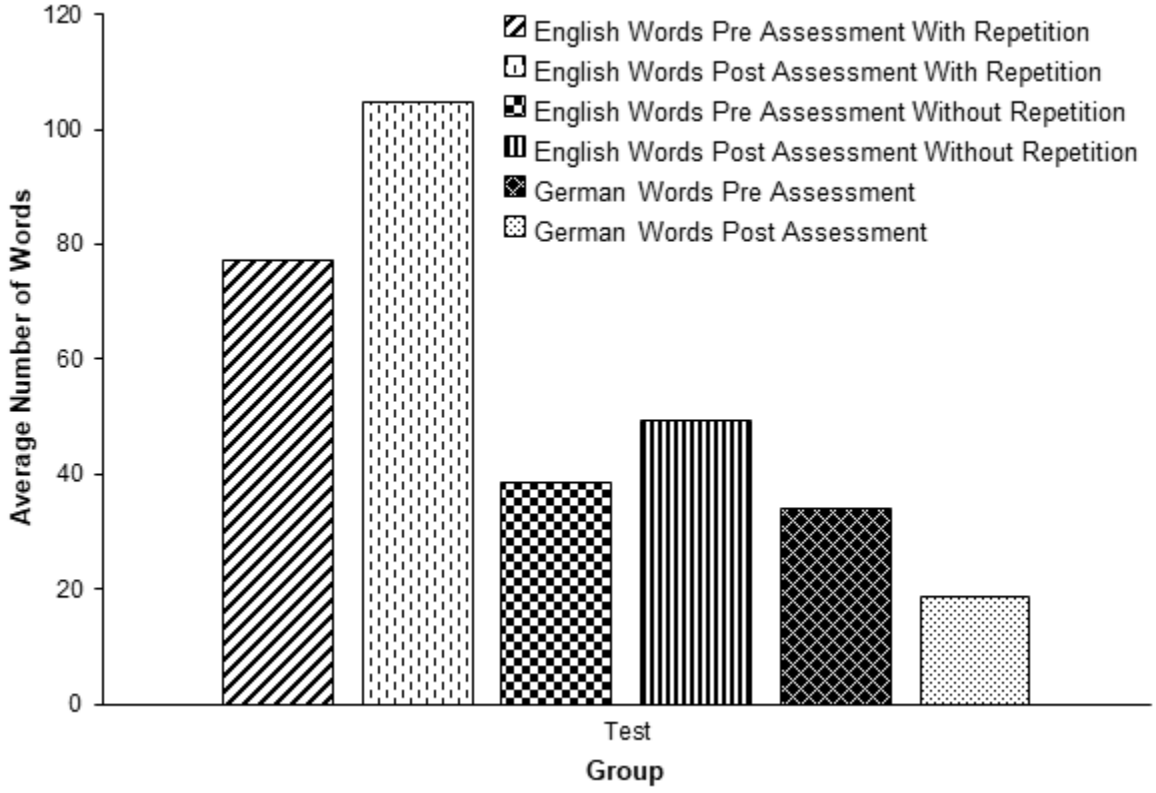
		Number of German Words	
Group		Pre	Post
Test	Mean	34.13	18.53
	N	15	15
	Std. Deviation	31.57	21.23

Note. Table 74 shows the average number of German words (including repeated words) used by learners in the pre and post assessments. The average number of German words used decreased in the post assessment.

Figure 55 below depicts the results from Tables 73 and 74.

Figure 55

Average Number of English and German Words Used in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 4



Note. Each category's pre and post assessment scores are shown next to each other on the bar chart.

Tables 75 and 76 below show the results of the CANVP word analysis in School 4. The word use was initially analysed with the inclusion of words that were repeated by learners.

Table 75

Average Percentage of Repeated Conjunctions, Adjectives and Nouns produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken

		Conjunctions		**Adjectives**		**Nouns**	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Test	Mean	13.07	15.47	7.60	7.47	55.73	45.67
	N	15	15	15	15	15	15
	Std. Deviation	7.33	6.20	3.76	3.96	15.77	11.22

Table 75 shows the average percentage of conjunctions, adjectives and nouns produced by learners in School 4. The analysis includes repeated words. The results show that learners produced on average a higher percentage of conjunctions but a lower percentage of adjectives and nouns in the post assessment.

Table 76

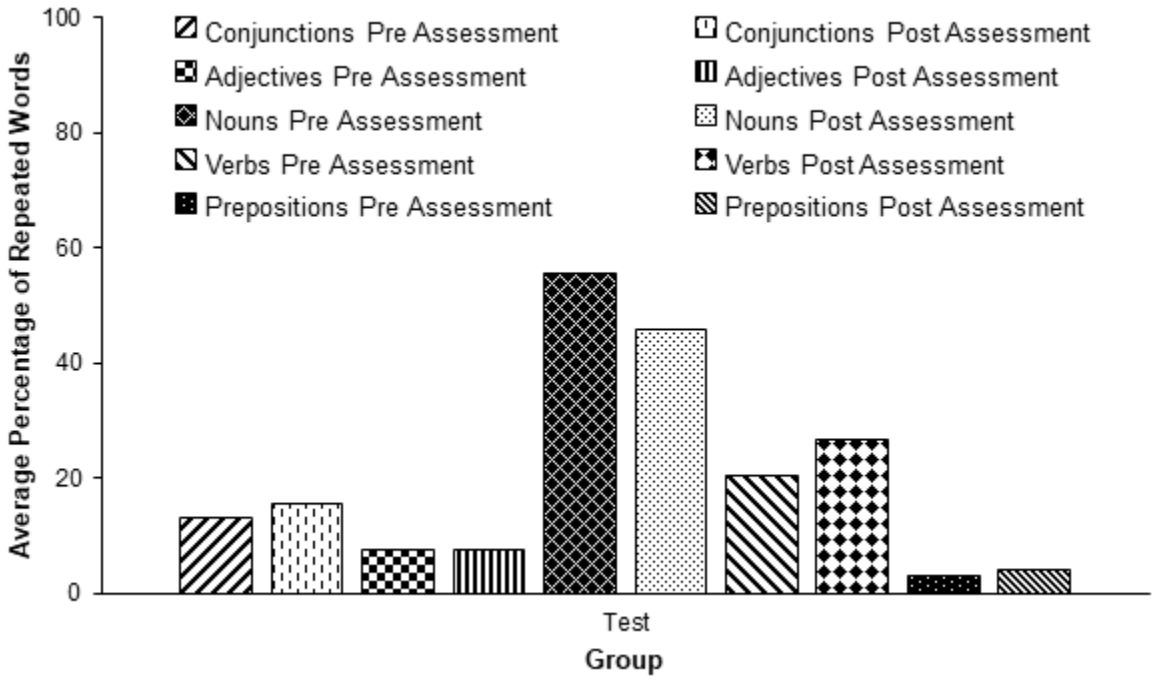
Average Percentage of Repeated Verbs and Prepositions Produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken

		Verbs		Prepositions	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Test	Mean	20.53	26.87	3.13	4.27
	N	15	15	15	15
	Std. Deviation	11.21	9.74	3.27	3.62

Note. Table 76 shows the average percentage of verbs and prepositions used by learners in the post assessment on average increased. Repetition of the same words were included in these results. Figure 56 below depicts the results from Tables 75 and 76.

Figure 56

Average Percentage of Repeated CANVP Words Produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 4 in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken



Note. Pre and post assessment results are shown next to each other e.g. conjunction pre and post assessment, adjective pre, post etc.

Tables 77 and 78 show the results of the CANVP word analysis in the pre and post assessments in School 4. In this analysis only different words were analysed.

Table 77

Average Percentage of Different Conjunctions, Adjectives and Nouns produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken

		Different Conjunctions		**Different Adjectives**		**Different Nouns**	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Test	Mean	4.27	3.67	11.47	11.40	63.87	61.07
	N	15	15	15	15	15	15
	Std. Deviation	2.76	2.19	5.82	5.37	11.70	9.47

Note. The results show that on average learners produced a lower percentage of different conjunctions, adjectives and nouns in the post assessment.

Table 78

Average Percentage of Different Verbs and Prepositions Produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken

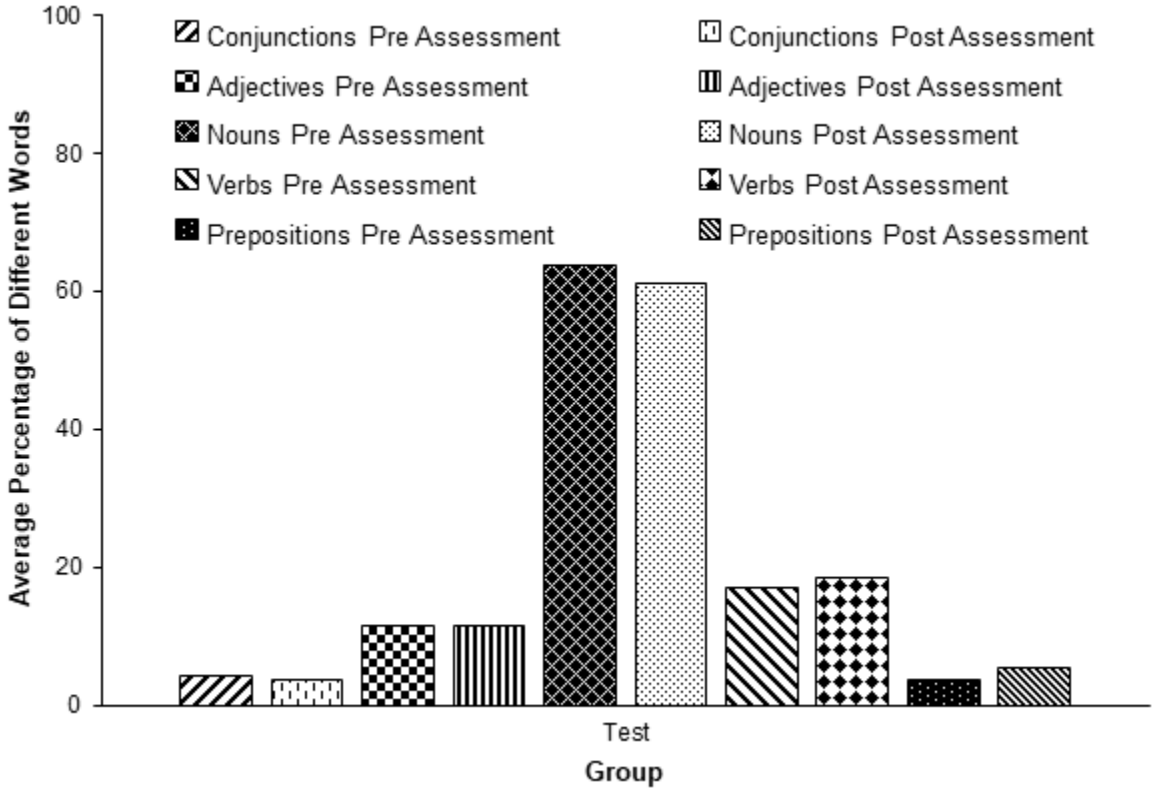
		Different Verbs		**Different Prepositions**	
Group		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Test	Mean	16.93	18.40	3.80	5.40
	N	15	15	15	15
	Std. Deviation	9.24	6.87	3.84	3.98

Note. Table 78 shows the average percentage of different verbs and prepositions (without repetition) used by learners in School 4. On average learners produced a higher percentage of different verbs and prepositions in the post assessment.

The results are depicted in Figure 57.

Figure 57

Average Percentage of Different CANVP Words Produced by Learners in the Pre and Post Assessments in School 4 in Relation to the Total Number of Words Spoken



Note. Pre and post assessment results are shown next to each other e.g. conjunction pre and post assessment, adjective pre, post etc.

The Structured Classroom Observations in School 4

Learners in the Test Group were observed by the researcher during the group work phases when the two picturebooks were dramatised. Learners were divided into colour groups and eight different aspects of their work were observed. During the observation in the classroom the symbols – (no), 0 (sometimes/some) and + (yes) were used. For analysis purposes these symbols were given values. "-" equates to 0 points, "0" equates to 1 point and "+" equates to 2 points. School 4 had six work groups. There was a maximum total of 12 points available for each category. Each category had a maximum of two points.

Table 79

Results of the Groupwork Observations for Monkey Puzzle! in School 4

Group	Learners started the task straight away	Learners could organise their own group	Every group member participated	Learners used classroom English
Blue	2	2	2	0
Yellow	2	2	2	0
Red	2	2	2	0
Green	2	2	2	0
Orange	2	2	2	0
Pink	2	2	2	0
Category Total	12	12	12	0

Group	Learners spoke German	Learners used story language	Learners were on-task	Learners completed the task successfully
Blue	2	2	2	2
Yellow	2	2	2	2
Red	2	2	2	2
Green	2	2	2	2
Orange	2	2	2	2
Pink	2	2	2	2
Category Total	12	12	12	12

Note. Every group of learners worked well together. German was spoken for organisation purposes in the groups. However, learners also used language from the story.

Table 80

Results of the Groupwork Observations for Hey Grandude! in School 4

Group	Learners started the task straight away	Learners could organise their own group	Every group member participated	Learners used classroom English
Blue	2	2	2	0
Yellow	2	2	2	0
Red	2	2	2	0
Green	2	2	2	0
Orange	2	2	2	0
Pink	2	2	2	0
Category Total	12	12	12	0

Group	Learners spoke German	Learners used story language	Learners were on-task	Learners completed the task successfully
Blue	2	2	2	2
Yellow	2	2	2	2
Red	2	2	2	2
Green	2	2	2	2
Orange	2	2	2	2
Pink	2	2	2	2
Category Total	12	12	12	12

Note. Every group worked very well together. German was spoken for the purposes of organisation in the groups. However, learners used language from the story.

Pupil Self-assessment of the Picturebook Dramatisation in School 4

The following section presents the results of the pupil self-assessment of the units of work on the stories *Monkey Puzzle* and *Hey Grandude!*

Table 81 shows the average score given by pupils (N=15) in the self-assessment questionnaire on the story *Monkey Puzzle*. Five was the maximum score and one was the minimum score that could be given for each of the six statements. The story *Monkey Puzzle* was studied first in School 4.

Table 81

Average Score Given by Pupils in School 4 in the Self-Assessment for the Story Monkey Puzzle

Question		Monkey Puzzle					
		I understood the story	I liked the story	I joined in with the storytelling	I spoke English with my group	I enjoyed the drama activities	I felt confident speaking English
Test	Mean	4.53	4.00	4.20	3.40	4.60	4.60
	N	15	15	15	15	15	15
	Std. Deviation	0.64	0.78	1.21	1.45	0.51	0.74

Note. Table 81 shows the average score given by pupils in the self-assessment questionnaire on the story *Monkey Puzzle*. Pupils reported that they understood the story 4.53/5, they liked the story 4/5, they joined in with the storytelling 4.20/5 and they enjoyed the drama activities 4.60/5. They rated their confidence in speaking English in front of their peers at 4.60/5.

Table 82

Average Score Given by Pupils in School 4 in the Self-Assessment for the Hey Grandude!

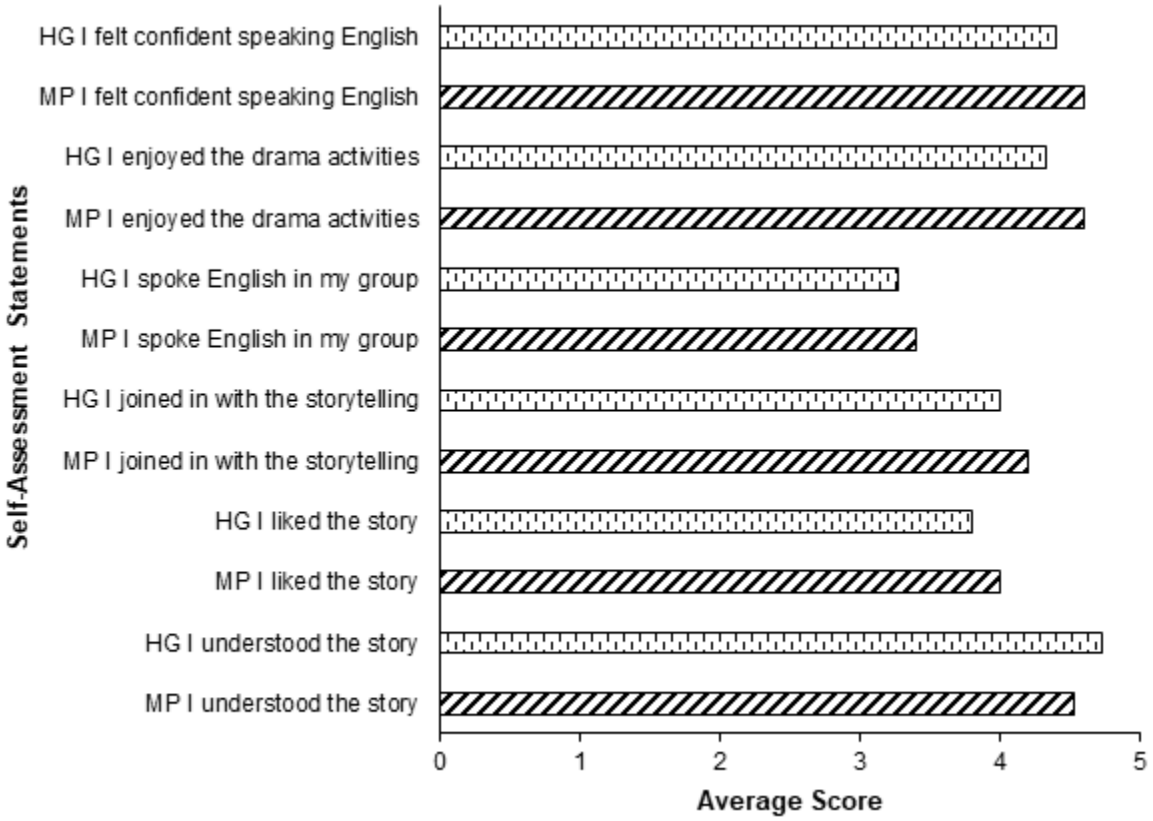
Question		Hey Grandude					
		I understood the story	I liked the story	I joined in with the storytelling	I spoke English with my group	I enjoyed the drama activities	I felt confident speaking English
Test	Mean	4.73	3.80	4.00	3.27	4.33	4.40
	N	15	15	15	15	15	15
	Std. Deviation	0.46	1.21	1.13	1.16	0.62	0.74

Note. Table 82 shows the average score given by pupils in the self-assessment questionnaire on the story *Hey Grandude!* Five was the maximum score and one was the minimum score that could be given for each of the six statements. Pupils reported that they understood the story 4.73/5, they liked the story 3.8/5, they joined in with the storytelling 4/5 and they enjoyed the drama activities 4.33/5. They rated their confidence in speaking English in front of their peers at 4.40/5.

Figure 58 depicts the feedback scores given by pupils in School 4 to both stories.

Figure 58

Average Scores Given by Test Group Pupils in School 4 in the Pupil Self-assessment for the Stories Monkey Puzzle and Hey Grandude!



Note. Figure 58 shows the average scores given by Test Group pupils in the pupil self-assessment for the stories *Monkey Puzzle* (MP) and *Hey Grandude!* (HG) in School 4. Pupil feedback shows that pupils rated their participation and confidence more highly for the story that they had enjoyed the most. *Monkey Puzzle* was also rated by the researcher as an easier story than *Hey Grandude!*

The Quantitative Results for the Test Groups Overall

This section presents the results for all four schools combined. There were sixty test group pupils in total. The analysis begins with a summary of the language Ability Classification distribution in the Test Groups (Schools 1, 2, 3 and 4) before and after the intervention.

Table 83

Language Ability Classification in the Test Groups in the Pre Assessment in All Test Groups (Schools 1-4)

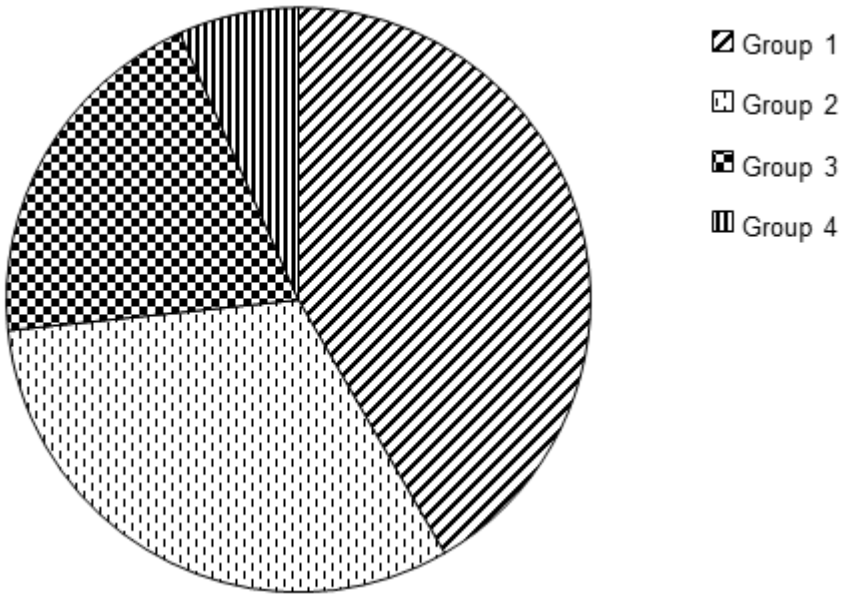
	Frequency	Percent
Group 1	25	41.66
Group 2	19	31.66
Group 3	12	20
Group 4	4	6.66
Total	60	100

Note. Table 83 shows the language Ability Classification (1=lowest 4=highest) in the Test Groups in the pre assessment before the intervention in all schools. Most learners were in Groups 1 and 2.

Figure 59 below depicts the results in Table 83.

Figure 59

Ability Group Distribution in All Test Groups in All Schools Before the Intervention



Note. Figure 59 shows that 42% of learners from all four Test Groups were in Group 1 before the start of the intervention. The second largest group was Group 2 (32%), followed by Group 3 (20%). Group 4 contained the least pupils (7%).

Table 84

Language Ability Classification in the Test Groups in the Post Assessment in All Test Groups (Schools 1-4)

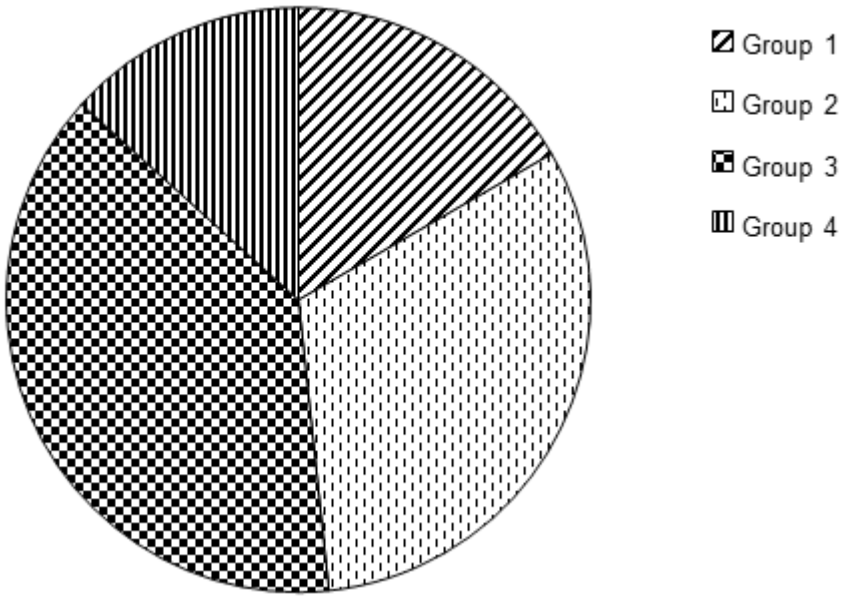
	Frequency	Percent
Group 1	10	16.67
Group 2	19	31.67
Group 3	23	38.33
Group 4	8	13.33
Total	60	100

Note. Table 84 shows the language Ability Classification (1=lowest 4=highest) in the Test Groups in the post assessment after the intervention in all schools. After the intervention a lower percentage of learners were in Group 1 (17%). A greater percentage of learners were in Groups 3 (38%) and 4 (13%).

Figure 60 depicts the information in Table 84.

Figure 60

Ability Group Distribution in All Test Groups in All Schools After the Intervention



Note. Figure 60 displays the information in Table 84.

Table 85 shows the average point score improvement/pupil (N=60) in each language Ability Group after the intervention in the Test Schools.

Table 85

Average Point Score Improvement/ Pupil in each Language Ability Group in the Intervention Groups in the Post Assessment in All Schools

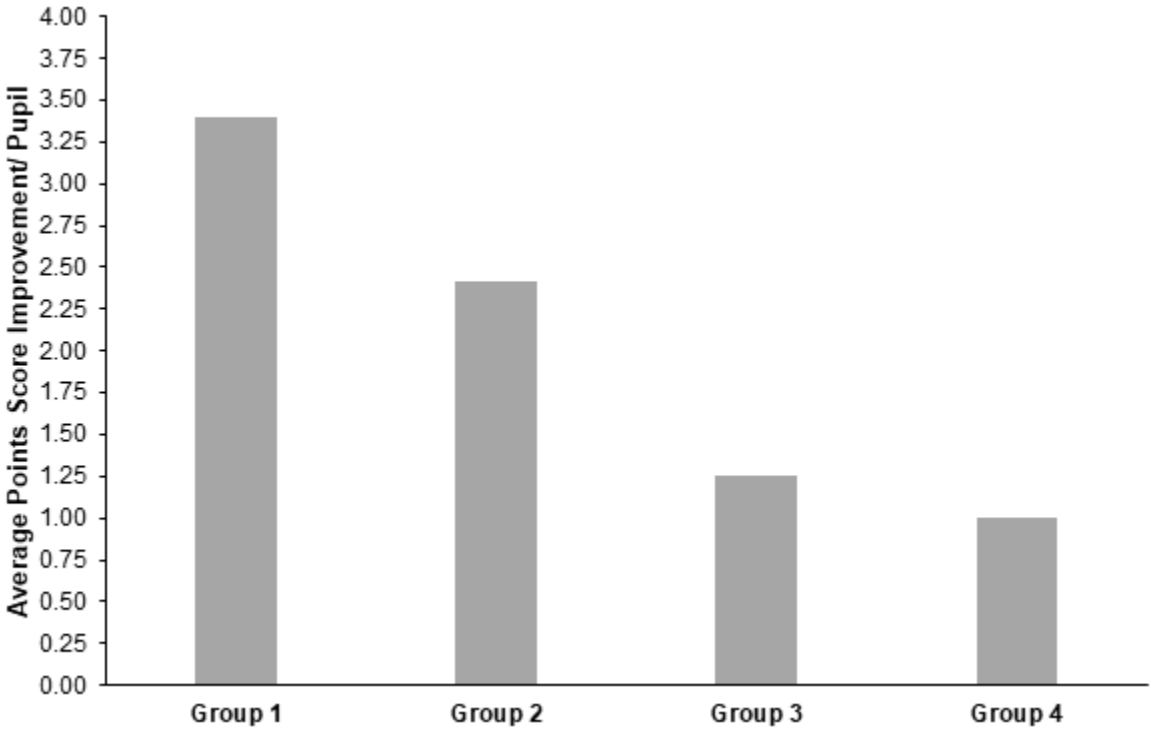
Ability Group	Pupil Frequency	Total Additional Points Gained in the Group	Average point Score Improvement/Pupil
Group 1	25	85	3.4
Group 2	19	46	2.42
Group 3	12	15	1.25
Group 4	4	4	1
Total	60		

Note. Pupils in Group 1 improved their point score on average by 3.4 points, the most/ pupil.

Figure 61 depicts the results from Table 85.

Figure 61

Average Points Score Improvement/ Pupil after the Intervention across all Intervention Schools



Note. Figure 61 shows that Group 1 improved their point score per pupil on average the most after the intervention, followed by Group 2 and then Group 3. Group 4 improved their average point score per pupil on average the least. However, Group 4 contained the fewest pupils.

Paired Samples Statistics in the Test Groups

A series of paired samples t-tests were carried out on the results from the Test Groups (N=60). The first t-test was carried out on the pre and post assessment results obtained from the speaking descriptor analysis in which the pupils obtained a points total.

Table 86

Paired Samples Statistics for the Pre and Post Assessment Points

		Mean	**N**	**Std. Deviation**	**Std. Error Mean**
Pair 1	Points Pre	7.02	60	3.921	.506
	Points Post	9.52	60	3.703	.478

Paired Samples – Paired Differences

					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper
Pair 1	Points Pre – Points Post	-2.500	2.340	.302	-3.104	-1.896

Paired Samples – Significance

				Significance	
		t	df	One-Sided p	Two-Sided p
Pair 1	Points Pre – Points Post	-8.276	59	<.001	<.001

Note. The table shows that there was a statistically significant difference in the scores for the pre assessment points (M=7.02, SD=3.92) and post assessment points (M=9.52, SD=3.70) condition; t (59) = -8.28, p = <.001. These results suggest that there was a significant difference between the mean pre and post assessment points obtained by learners in the Test Groups (N=60). Learners in the Test Groups got significantly more points in the post assessment than they did in the pre assessment, indicating an overall improvement in oral skills.

The second test was carried out on the pre and post assessment results obtained from the speaking descriptor analysis for Vocabulary Use, Structure and Coherence, Communication and Task Achievement separately. SPSS was used for the statistical analysis.

Table 87

Paired Samples Statistics for Vocabulary Use, Structure and Coherence, Communication and Task Achievement Scores

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Vocabulary Use Score Pre	1.92	60	.944	.122
	Vocabulary Use Score Post	2.42	60	.944	.122
Pair 2	Structure and Coherence Score Pre	1.72	60	1.059	.137
	Structure and Coherence Score Post	2.28	60	.904	.117
Pair 3	Communication Score Pre	1.68	60	1.000	.129
	Communication Score Post	2.43	60	.981	.127
Pair 4	Task Achievement Score Pre	1.70	60	1.013	.131
	Task Achievement Score Post	2.38	60	.976	.126

Continuation of Table 87

Paired Samples – Paired Differences

					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper
Pair 1	Vocabulary Use Score Pre - Post Assessment	-.500	.651	.084	-.668	-.332
Pair 2	Structure and Coherence Score Pre - Post Assessment	-.567	.621	.080	-.727	-.406
Pair 3	Communication Score Pre - Post Assessment	-.750	.680	.088	-.926	-.574
Pair 4	Task Achievement Score Pre - Post Assessment	-.683	.676	.087	-.858	-.509

Paired Samples – Significance

				Significance	
		t	df	One-Sided p	Two-Sided p
Pair 1	Vocabulary Use Score Pre - Post Assessment	-5.950	59	<.001	<.001
Pair 2	Structure and Coherence Score Pre - Post Assessment	-7.071	59	<.001	<.001
Pair 3	Communication Score Pre - Post Assessment	-8.548	59	<.001	<.001
Pair 4	Task Achievement Score Pre - Post Assessment	-7.827	59	<.001	<.001

Note. The results show that there was a significant difference in the scores for Vocabulary Use in the pre assessment points (M=1.92, SD=.944) and post assessment points (M=2.42,

SD=.944) condition; t (59) = -5.95, p = <.001. These results suggest that there was a significant difference between the mean pre and post scores for Vocabulary Use. Learners in the Test Groups (N=60) got significantly more points for Vocabulary Use in the post assessment than they did in the pre assessment, indicating a significant improvement in vocabulary use.

There was also a significant difference in the scores for Structure and Coherence in the pre assessment points (M=1.72, SD=1.059) and post assessment points (M=2.28, SD=.904) condition; t (59) = -7.071, p = <.001. These results suggest that there was a significant difference between the mean pre and post scores for Structure and Coherence. Learners in the Test Groups (N=60) got significantly more points for Structure and Coherence in the post assessment than they did in the pre assessment, indicating a significant improvement in structure and coherence.

There was a significant difference in the scores for Communication in the pre assessment points (M=1.68, SD=1.000) and post assessment points (M=2.43, SD=.981) condition; t (59) = -8.548, p = <.001. These results suggest that there was a significant difference between the mean pre and post scores for Communication. Learners in the Test Groups (N=60) got significantly more points for Communication in the post assessment than they did in the pre assessment, indicating a significant improvement in Communication.

There was a significant difference in the scores for Task Achievement in the pre assessment points (M=1.70, SD=1.013) and post assessment points (M=2.38, SD=.976) condition; t (59) = -7.827, p = <.001. These results suggest that there was a significant difference between the mean pre and post scores for Task Achievement. Learners in the Test Groups (N=60) got significantly more points for Task Achievement in the post assessment than they did in the pre assessment, indicating a significant improvement in Task Achievement.

The third paired sample test was carried out on the pre and post assessment results on English and German words used in the pre and post assessments by learners in the Test Groups (N=60). The information on English words was gained by using a POS tagger. The German words were counted by sight and included repeated words. SPSS was used for the statistical analysis.

Table 88

Paired Samples Statistics for English and German Words Used in the Test Groups

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Number of English words pre assessment with repetition	70.68	60	47.792	6.170
	Number of English words post assessment with repetition	104.20	60	50.673	6.542
Pair 2	Number of English words pre assessment without repetition	37.07	60	19.274	2.488
	Number of English words post assessment without repetition	47.80	60	18.951	2.447
Pair 3	Number of German words pre assessment	28.23	60	35.660	4.604
	Number of German words post assessment	24.13	60	33.055	4.267

Continuation of Table 88

Paired Samples – Paired Differences

					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper
Pair 1	Number of English words with repetition – pre - post assessment	-33.517	33.297	4.299	-42.118	-24.915
Pair 2	Number of English words without repetition – pre - post assessment	-10.733	12.342	1.593	-13.922	-7.545
Pair 3	Number of German words pre - post assessment	4.100	24.262	3.132	-2.167	10.367

Paired Samples – Significance

				Significance	
		t	df	One-Sided p	Two-Sided p
Pair 1	Number of English words pre assessment with repetition – post assessment	-7.797	59	<.001	<.001
Pair 2	Number of English words pre assessment without repetition – post assessment	-6.736	59	<.001	<.001
Pair 3	Number of German words pre assessment – post assessment	1.309	59	.098	.196

There was a significant difference in the scores for the average number of English words, including repeated words used by pupils in the pre assessment (M=70.68, SD=47.792) and post assessment points (M=104.20, SD=50.673) condition; t (59) = -7.797, p = <.001. These results suggest that there was a significant difference between the average number of English words (including repeated words) used by pupils before and after the intervention. Learners in the Test Groups (N=60) used on average significantly more English words (including repeated words) in the post assessment than they did in the pre assessment.

There was also a significant difference in the scores for the average number of different English words, used by pupils in the pre assessment (M=37.07, SD=19.274) and post assessment points (M=47.80, SD=18.951) condition; t (59) = -6.736, p = <.001. These results suggest that there was a significant difference between the average number of different English words used by pupils before and after the intervention. Learners in the Test Groups used on average significantly more different English words in the post assessment than they did in the pre assessment.

There was no significant difference in the scores for the average number of German words, used by pupils in the pre assessment (M=28.23, SD=35.660) and post assessment points (M=24.13, SD=33.055) condition; t (59) = 1.309, p = .098 and .196. However, the results show that on average the number of German words used by Test Group pupils (N=60) fell.

Analysis of the Vocabulary Used in the Post Assessment

An analysis of the vocabulary used by pupils in the post assessments was carried out to search for changes and patterns in vocabulary use. The vocabulary used by pupils in the post assessment was compared to the vocabulary in the picturebooks and the vocabulary used by pupils in the pre assessment to find out if learners had used vocabulary from the picturebooks in the post assessment. The vocabulary listed here was in the picturebooks, had not been used by pupils in the pre assessment and was also not used by pupils in the Control Group.

Tables 89 and 90 show vocabulary which was used in the picturebooks that learners heard in School 1 and that was only produced by learners in the Test Group in the post assessment in the same school.

In each table the column on the left shows a word which was in the picturebook. The second column shows what type of word that word is. The column on the right shows how many occurrences of that word there were present in the post assessment transcripts.

Table 89

School 1 - New Words Used in the Post Assessment by Pupils in the Test Group - Book 1

The Enormous Turnip	**Type of Word**	**Number of Learners who used the Word in the Post Assessment**
big	adjective	1
so	adverb	2
up	adverb	2
and	conjunction	2
was	verb	1
had	verb	1
put	verb	1
Total	4	10

Note. The table shows that words from the picturebook were used ten times by learners in the post assessment.

Table 90

School 1 - New Words Used in the Post Assessment by Pupils in the Test Group - Book 2

Goldilocks and the Three Bears	Type of Word	Number of Learners who used the Word in the Post assessment
full	adjective	1
small	adjective	1
her	possessive determiner	1
father	noun	5
forest	noun	1
mother	noun	6
porridge	noun	2
walk	noun	2
do	verb	1
walking	verb	1
Total	4	21

Note. The table shows that words from the picturebook were used 21 times by learners in the post assessment.

Tables 91, 92 and 93 show vocabulary which was used in the picturebooks in School 2 and that was only produced by learners in the Test Group in the post assessment.

Table 91

School 2 - New Words Used in the Post Assessment by Pupils in the Test Group - Book 1

The Enormous Turnip	Type of Word	Number of Learners who used the Word in the Post Assessment
up	adverb	1
and	conjunction	2
yum	interjection	1
Total	3	4

Note. The table shows that words from the picturebook were used four times by learners in the post assessment.

Table 92

School 2 - New Words Used in the Post Assessment by Pupils in the Test Group - Book 2

Goldilocks and the Three Bears	Type of Word	Number of Learners who used the Word in the Post Assessment
other	adjective	1
right	adjective	1
just	adjective	1
more	adverb	1
only	adverb	1
right	adverb	1
after	conjunction	1
that	conjunction	3
their	possessive determiner	2
bed	noun	1
father	noun	5
mother	noun	4
porridge	noun	2
third	ordinal	2
do	verb	1
walking	verb	2
Total	7	29

Note. The table shows that words from the picturebook were used 29 times by learners.

Table 93

School 2 - New Words Used in the Post Assessment by Pupils in the Test Group - Book 3

Monkey Puzzle	Type of Word	Number of Learners who used the Word in the Post Assessment
about	adverb	1
why	adverb	1
eggs	Plural noun	1
us	personal pronoun	1
like	verb	1
does	verb (third person)	1

Continuation of Table 93

Monkey Puzzle	Type of Word	Number of Learners who used the Word in the Post Assessment
know	Verb	1
let	Verb	1
say	Verb	1
look	Verb	1
got	past participle	1
Total	5	11

Note. The table shows that words from the picturebook were used 11 times by learners in the post assessment.

Tables 94, 95 and 96 show vocabulary which was used in the picturebooks that learners heard in School 3 and that was only produced by learners in the TG in the post assessment.

Table 94

School 3 - New Words Used in the Post Assessment by Pupils in the Test Group - Book 1

Goldilocks and the Three Bears	Type of Word	Number of Learners who used the Word in the Post Assessment
other	adjective	4
right	adjective	1
right	adverb	1
down	Adverb participle	1
up	Adverb participle	2
that	conjunction	4
her	possessive determiner	6
their	possessive determiner	1
that	general determiner	4
father	noun	8
mother	noun	6
walk	noun	1
first	ordinal	1
do	verb	1

Continuation of Table 94

Goldilocks and the Three Bears	Type of Word	Number of Learners who used the Word in the Post Assessment
smashed	past participle	1
Total	10	42

Note. The table shows that words from the picturebook were used 42 times by learners in the post assessment.

Table 95

School 3 - New Words Used in the Post Assessment by Pupils in the Test Group - Book 2

Monkey Puzzle	Type of Word	Number of Learners who used the Word in the Post Assessment
black	adjective	2
brown	adjective	2
now	adverb	1
down	adverb	1
that	determiner	4
fly	noun	1
parrot	noun	1
eggs	plural noun	1
wings	plural noun	1
do	verb	1
does	verb in third person	1
having	verb in -ing form	1
got	past participle	1
Total	9	18

Note. The table shows that words from the picturebook were used 18 times by learners in the post assessment.

Table 96

School 3 - New Words Used in the Post Assessment by Pupils in the Test Group - Book 3

Hey Grandude!	Type of Word	Number of Learners who used the Word in the Post Assessment
ready	adjective	2
now	adjective	1
right	adverb	1
another	general determiner	1
some	general determiner	3
that	conjunction	4
picture	noun	2
room	noun	1
sea	noun	1
Grandude	noun	2
cheer	verb	1
wash	verb	1
Total	6	20

Note. The table shows that words from the picturebook were used 20 times by learners in the post assessment.

Tables 97 and 98 show vocabulary which was used in the picturebooks that learners heard in School 4 and that was only produced by learners in the Test Group in the post assessment in the same school.

Table 97

School 4 - New Words Used in the Post Assessment by Pupils in the Test Group - Book 1

Monkey Puzzle	Type of Word	Number of Learners who used the Word in the Post Assessment
all	adverb	1
nearly	adverb	1
now	adverb	1
over	adverb	1
and	conjunction	1
all	general determiner	1

Continuation of Table 97

Monkey Puzzle	**Type of Word**	**Number of Learners who used the Word in the Post Assessment**
that	general determiner	1
these	general determiner	1
mummy	noun	1
as	preposition	1
do	verb	2
Total	6	12

Note. The table shows that words from the picturebook were used twelve times by learners in the post assessment.

Table 98

School 4 - New Words Used in the Post Assessment by Pupils in the Test Group - Book 2

Hey Grandude!	**Type of Word**	**Number of Learners who used the Word in the Post Assessment**
ready	adjective	2
right	adverb	1
back	adverb	1
over	adverb	1
ground	noun	1
picture	noun	2
sea	noun	2
horses	plural noun	1
Grandude	noun	2
nothing	indefinite pronoun	1
Total	5	14

Note. The table shows that words from the picturebook were used fourteen times by learners in the post assessment.

Table 99 shows a summary of the number and average number of new words used by learners in the post assessment in the Control Groups (N=26) and Test Groups (N=60). “New

words" were classified as words that learners had not used in the pre assessment but used in the post assessment. The information was gained with the POS tagger and a series of linked Excel spreadsheets. The spreadsheet compared vocabulary used by learners in the pre assessment with vocabulary used in the post assessment transcripts.

Table 99

Summary of the Average Number of "New" Words Used by Learners in the Post Assessment

Group	Total Number of Learners	Total Number of "new" Words Used in the Post Assessment and not in the Pre Assessment	Average Number of "new" Words Used/ Learner in the Post Assessment
Control	26	45 (words used only by the Control Groups)	1.73
Test	60	293 (words used only by the Test Groups)	4.88
Both groups	86	160 (common words used in both groups)	1.86

Note. Learners in the Control Group (N=26) used on average 1.73 "new words" in the post assessment. The Test Group (N=60) used on average 4.88 "new words". One hundred and sixty common "new words" were found that both groups used. These words may have been words that learners knew but didn't need to use in the pre assessment.

The Use of Listed CEFR A1 Level Connectors

The occurrence of the connectors "and" and "then" in learners' speech was counted in the post assessment transcripts. Tables 100 and 101 show the occurrence of the use of connectors in learners' speech in the pre and post assessments. The only connectors specifically listed by the CEFR at A1 level are "and" and "then". The results were obtained by tagging learners' speech, entering it into an Excel spreadsheet and counting the occurrence of the words "and" and "then".

Table 100

Use of Listed A1 Level (CEFR) Connectors in the Test Groups

Word	Occurrence of Word Use in the Pre Assessment	Occurrence of Word Use in the Post assessment	Increase/Decrease in the Occurrence of the Word in the Whole Group
and	54 (average 0.9 words/learner)	58 (average 0.97 words/learner)	+4
then	13 (average 0.22 words/learner)	26 (average 0.43 words/learner)	+13

Note. The results show that on average learners in the Test Group (N=60) used “and” and “then” more in the post assessment than in the pre assessment.

Table 101

Use of listed A1 level (CEFR) Connectors in the Control Groups

Word	Occurrence of Word Use in the Pre Assessment	Occurrence of Word Use in the Post assessment	Increase/Decrease in the Occurrence of the Word in the Whole Group
and	26 (average 0.43 words/learner)	25 (average 0.42 words/learner)	-1
then	3 (average 0.11 words/learner)	5 (average 0.19 words/learner)	+2

The results show that on average learners in the Control Group (N=26) used “and” slightly less often and “then” slightly more often.

Results from the Research Journal

The following section presents the findings from the analysis of the qualitative data collected during the intervention. Field notes taken by the researcher during unstructured classroom observations were written up in a Research Journal after each intervention lesson. The Research Journal was subsequently analysed using MAXQDA. The codes chosen were taken from the sub-categories of the four categories of oral skills (Linguistic, Cognitive, Physical, Social and Emotional) defined in the theory section. In the table below "P:" stands for pupil and "T:" stands for teacher

Use of Vocabulary and Chunks in English

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
This example is taken from the beginning of the story *The Enormous Turnip*. Learners used English during storytelling phases with the teacher when they knew the vocabulary or how to say something in English. However, they could not always use English if asked for a longer explanation. This happened when the language had not been recently discussed or introduced. In this case they either had to answer just in German or a mixture of English and German. There was quite a big difference between learners. Some could answer in full sentences in English, and some didn't answer in English at all. Others answered in a mixture of English and German.	*The teacher asked why the characters in the story were tired.* *P: Weil sie hart gearbeitet haben.* *T: Why are they happy?* *P: It is a family. They are happy and they pulled up the turnip.* *P: Sie haben zusammengearbeitet.* *P: Happy and sad, weil sie auf dem Boden gefallen sind. Das ist sehr lustig!* *P: Weil sie ein leckeres Essen haben.* *P: Weil es anstrengend war* *The teacher gave the learners the language in English after each contribution in German.* Research Journal: line number 55 - 63
Both the story and the script provided input for the learners which they could also use to support speaking activities.	*Learners used the language from the story when they were reading the script. The script seemed to give good support to the learners when they were acting out the story, and it encouraged them to use English.* Research Journal: 79
This example is from the story *Hey Grandude!* Learners often asked to borrow the picturebook when creating their dramatisations in their groups. They wanted to look for sentences from the story that they could use to help them to add more things to say.	*They added "Zing, bang, sizzle everything changed!"* Research Journal: 946

Continuation of ***Use of Vocabulary and Chunks in English***

Background and Significance	**Excerpt from the Research Journal**
Learners didn't always participate in speaking activities in the way that was planned. Even if they were given the opportunity to speak to a partner, there was no guarantee that they would speak English or do the activity in the way that it was intended to be done. The teacher wandered around the classroom during pair work activities to check what learners were doing and to help them to get back on track if necessary.	*I noticed that even if we set up speaking practice with the learners, we couldn't be sure that they would use the language that we wanted them to use or that they would participate in the activity in a meaningful way. We couldn't be sure that they would speak English at all.* Research Journal: 87
This is an example from the story *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*. When discussing the story with the teacher, learners were asked to imagine who might live in the house in the picture. In this situation, learners drew on their knowledge of other stories. The answers that they gave were in a mixture of English and German.	*P: A dog* *P: A Schlumpf* *P: A cat* *P: Die 7 Zwerge oder Hänsel und Gretel* *P: Rotkäppchen* *P: A happy family lives there*. Research Journal: 104 – 110
In the post-listening discussions or re-cap of the story some learners contributed. However, not all learners did, which meant that they didn't all practise speaking during these group discussion phases. So, it was also good to have a variation in types of speaking activities. In the group work phases every learner had the opportunity to speak. They could also speak in their group without being observed by a large group of people.	*Of course, not all the learners contributed which also meant that not all the learners practised speaking English, but a lot of learners did contribute to the discussion.* Research Journal: 122
In the seventh session of the picturebook dramatisation intervention the researcher noticed that learners had become more willing to answer in English. More learners were raising their hands during group discussions, and more learners were starting to answer with more than just one word in English. When learners were creating their sketches, they often asked the teacher for additional phrases which they could use. This required a certain amount of flexibility from the teacher in his/her language use.	*The learners certainly seemed to be more confident about speaking English and more willing to answer in English. A lot of learners were raising their hands during the lesson to volunteer to say something. Their answers also tended to be in English.* Research Journal: 184 - 185 *Every group used language from the story in the group work phase. Some examples that I heard were:* *P: Where is my porridge?* *P: Who sits in my chair?* *P: I'm hungry*

Continuation of ***Use of Vocabulary and Chunks in English***

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
	The learners used language from the story in addition to the phrases that the teacher had given them to use. Research Journal: 208 - 211
There were also examples of learners adding language to their sketches which they had thought of themselves. This example was said to Goldilocks at the end of the sketch in which the learners changed the ending of the story.	*P: Tidy up the living room* *P: "Ok, you can go stop"* *P: "You can come the next day"* *Everyone in this group spoke except for Goldilocks. This group used a lot of language and also added their own ideas to the script.* Research Journal: 215 – 228
In this example, learners were on the beach in *Hey Grandude!* and added their own ideas about the waves.	*However, this group used words from the prompt sheet and added some phrases of their own e.g. "These are very big waves". They did matching actions and then at the end they said the magic words "See the magic needle ..."* Research Journal: 881 - 881
Occasionally a group of learners was able to make up their own script. This is an example from the sketch on the story *Hey Grandude!* Learners could visit one of the locations in the story, either the beach, the desert or the mountains. This group of learners wanted to visit a jungle instead. They used language and ideas from the previous story *Monkey Puzzle* and language from the picturebook *Hey Grandude!* to create their own sketch.	*P: What can we do?* *P: Look at this! I have postcards.* *P: Look! A jungle. Let's go to the jungle.* *P: Zing bang sizzle. Look a monkey!* *P: This is a monkey* *P: I'm XXXX. Come with me.* *P: Oh no! There is a tiger!* *P: See the magic needle spin ...* *P: Zing bang sizzle. Everything changed.* *P: We are home. Goodnight.* Research Journal: 871 - 880
The learners found it challenging to speak in English with expression and to act at the same time. This needed a lot of concentration. It was helpful to practise the elements in stages and then try putting them altogether	*Half the class asked the question, and the other half gave the answer. It was difficult to do this with expression. There was a lot to think about at once and it was enough to just practise saying the words first of all. So, the learners said the words several times and then the feelings were added in gradually as well.* Research Journal: 293 - 293

The Use of German

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
Learners used the German language to organise their groups during group work to create the dramatisations. They didn't use classroom English.	*Discussion was all in German for the organisational matters.* Research Journal: 79
If the teacher asked a question during the storytelling session and learners answered in German, the teacher recast what learners had said in English after they had finished speaking.	*The teacher gave the learners the language if they were not sure or if they had answered in German*. Research Journal: 103 – 103
Learners had to answer some questions in German when questioning required vocabulary that they did not know in English.	*The learners participated well but it was hard for them to give a response to the story in English. The teacher however, continued in English with extra pointing and used the picture book for assistance. The learners answered in German.* *T: What happened to the chair?* *P: Sachbeschädigung* *P: Einbrechen* *P: Crack* *P: Sie rennt weg.* Research Journal: 194 - 199
Activities which required learners to consider hypothetical situations were attempted in English. However, the activity at the end of *Goldilocks* in which learners changed the ending of the story was explained in English. Then it had to be explained in German before the language for use in the activity was introduced in English.	*The question about what Goldilocks could do to make things better for the bears had to be done in German because the learners didn't understand it well enough to do it in English.* Research Journal: 200 - 200
Learners gave their reflections on the drama activities in the reflection phase in German. The comments were mostly positive, but there were also some critical reflections.	*P: Ich habe die ganze Geschichte verstanden* *P: Voll cool* *P: Ich bin die Charaktere* *P: Voll lustig, in einen Charakter zu schlüpfen.* *P: Lustig, in eine andere Rolle zu schlüpfen* *P: Es macht voll Spaß* *P: Ich war so wie ein Hund.* Research Journal: 258 – 26

Continuation of ***The Use of German***

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
	In the feedback session, which was in German, learners said: *P: Es war lustig und cool* *P: Mehr Auswahl geben (für die Tiere). It was relatively easy to work out which animals a learner was pretending to be.* *P: Schauspiel war gut* *P: Wir könnten die Aussprache mehr üben.* Research Journal: 439 – 443

Use of Structure/Grammar

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
The learners were invited to join in with repeated language in the story in full sentences. This had been practised before the story was told for the second time.	*The learners all joined in well with "Yes, I will help you".* Research Journal: 46
Learners used language from the story to answer the teacher's questions and could also manipulate the language e.g. using "can" instead of "will" appropriately. Learners added adjectives to describe the characters which were included in the chunks of language from the story.	*T: Who can help me pull the turnip out?* *P: The grandma* *P: The little old woman* *T: What does the little old woman say?* *P: I can help you (this was a spontaneous use of can instead of will)* *T: What does the dog say?* *P: Yes, I will help you* *T: Who did they ask next?* *P: "The little mouse" (spontaneous use of "little")* *T: What happens at the end?* *P: The turnip pulls up* *P: They cook* *T: They cook soup and they say yum yum!*

Continuation of ***Use of Structure/Grammar***

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
	P: Yum yum yum! Research Journal: 31 – 45
Learners could answer in a full sentence in English if they were provided with verbal scaffolding or written scaffolding on the board by the teacher.	*T: Which is your favourite animal in the story? Can you answer in a sentence? My favourite animal is….* *P: My favourite animal is a spider* *P: My favourite animal is a butterfly* *P: My favourite animal is a parrot* Research Journal: 429 - 435

Use of Phonology

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
There were no notes made on phonology from the classroom observations in the researcher journal.	

Pronunciation

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
There were opportunities to practise pronunciation altogether before learners went to their groups to prepare their sketch or drama. "Echo" was an effective strategy used to practise pronunciation before allowing learners to use the language freely in their groups.	*Then the teacher pointed to each of the animal cards and said the name of the animal. The learners echoed her.* Research Journal: 419
There were some words that learners found difficult to pronounce which needed to be clearly modelled and practised together before learners started to use them in the group work phases.	*The pronunciation of "does" wasn't quite right. The teacher corrected the learners after they had finished by giving the correct pronunciation of the word for everyone.* Research Journal: 384
Once learners had started working together it was more difficult to correct mistakes in pronunciation because everyone was talking in their groups. However, it was not always clear beforehand which words learners would find particularly difficult to pronounce.	*There was a slight mispronunciation of the word snake -> sneek … More practise of the pronunciation would have been good at the beginning of the lesson. The pronunciation needs to be clearly and correctly modelled several times first of all and then echoed by learners altogether. Difficult pronunciation needs to have attention drawn to it and needs extra practise before being used in a drama activity. The drama activity can then be used to*

Continuation of ***Pronunciation***

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
	practise the correct pronunciation after it has been introduced and practised altogether. Research Journal: 438
	There were some words that were difficult to pronounce like for example "can't" and "fur". These were not corrected. Research Journal: 487
	Words that were difficult to pronounce were "climb" and "fur". Research Journal: 824
	Again, the pronunciation of the word "don't" was difficult. Research Journal: 614
	The pronunciation of the word "find" was difficult. Research Journal: 910
	The pronunciation of "sand" was tricky. It sounded like "zand". Research Journal: 953
The teacher went around the classroom and listened to the pronunciation whilst learners were working in pairs. It was easier to do this when learners were in pairs than during the group work phases when learners were asking the teacher for language suggestions.	*The learners then had some time with their partner to ask each other questions and answer them. The learners took it in turns to ask and answer.* Research Journal: 384
There were examples of excellent pronunciation when learners were showing their sketches to the class.	*Some groups just prepared their own ending to the story. In each of those groups each of the three bears who spoke said the phrase with good clear pronunciation.* Research Journal: 411

Thinking

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
Speaking in English required learners to think hard. It helped to say phrases altogether several times or to divide the class into two groups to practise in turns with a listen and then speak routine. Subsequently, it was easier for learners to add some expression once they had said the words or phrases several times.	*Half the class asked the question, and the other half gave the answer. It was difficult to do this with expression. There was a lot to think about at once and it was enough to just practise saying the words first of all. So, the learners said the words several times and then the feelings were added in gradually*. Research Journal: 293 - 293

Continuation of ***Thinking***

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
Having several tasks to do at once required hard thinking. This worked best when each task was practised separately step-by-step and then the whole thing was put together.	*It was enough for learners just to operate the puppet and tell the story. Somehow it seemed to be too much to think about how to add expression as well.* Research Journal: 305
Some groups divided speech and movement between their group members so that they initially divided the tasks between themselves.	*This time it was also difficult for learners to show expression. They were focused on what to say and where to move or on the actions. In some groups I noticed that Goldilocks did the actions but didn't say anything. The learners had divided the speaking and movement activities between themselves. Goldilocks did the actions (e.g. cooking, sweeping) and the other learners said a phrase each. Some groups just prepared their own ending to the story.* Research Journal: 411
There were some groups that were able to extend the dramatisation activity and did much more than they had been asked to do. Some groups told the whole Goldilocks story by changing the activity into a "Story Whoosh". One very able learner read from the picturebook aloud and their group did the actions and joined in by saying the repetitive phases.	*One group prepared the whole story and changed the ending too. Goldilocks began by reading the story from the picturebook. Her group did the actions of the three bears.* Research Journal: 412

Planning Simple Speech

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
This is an example from a lesson on *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*. Learners had a lot of opportunities to plan simple speech during discussions about the story. This revision session at the beginning of one lesson where learners speculated about a picture, allowed them to use vocabulary and phrases that they already knew in a new context. The teacher asked what they could see in the picture.	*P: There are birds on the flowers* *P: There are a house mitten in the forest* *P: It is snowy* *T: What else can you see?* *P: I can see a tree* *P: I can see three trees* *T: Yes, there are three trees* *P: I see three flowers* *T: What colours are the flowers?* *P: Pink* *T: Do you know what this is called?* *P: A Weg* *T: Yes, a path. Let's imagine: Who do you think lives in this house?* *P: Super Mario* *P: The mushroom man* *P: It's maybe a witch* *P: A Smerf* *P: A wizard*

Continuation of ***Planning Simple Speech***

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
	P: A Fee *T: Yes, a fairy* *P: A grandma* *P: A family* *P: A mother and her daughter* *P: Sieben Zwerge* *P: Perhaps animal.* *T: What animals can you think of?* *P: A wolf, a fox, a cat, a bear, a dog, a rabbit* Research Journal: 500 – 526
Many opportunities were provided to learners to practise planning simple speech when they were working in their groups to create a dramatisation. Learners added their own phrases or comments to the script or prompt cards. Sometimes learners recast language for other learners.	*P: I smell trouble* *P: Someone eat my porridge* *P: Someone is eating my porridge* *P: Someone is sitting on my chair* *P: Someone's been sleeping in my bed* *P: Say sorry!* *P: Fix the chair!* *P: Tidy up the kitchen!* *P: Tidy up the bedroom!* *P: Tidy up the living room!* *P: Ok, you can go. Stop!* *P: You can come the next day.* Research Journal: 216 - 227
Another group said:	*P: OK, go home* *P: You can make all these things good* *P: Stay for some cake* *P: Go to home.* Research Journal: 657

Paying Attention

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
Sometimes learners played a drama game. With practice, the learners got quicker at stopping, showing a character or object from the story and starting again. The teacher did not have to wait as long for learners to be ready to start again.	*The class played the game making the poses for each of the characters e.g. They pretended to be the little old man. They did very well and less time was needed for pauses after each turn to get ready to start again*. Research Journal: 64
Learners listened carefully to the story and wanted to participate by asking questions about it. Sitting still was sometimes difficult particularly during a second reading of the same story which followed the first reading. However, being allowed to ask questions during the story reading helped learners to continue to pay attention.	*There were lots of interruptions in the story because learners wanted to comment. However, everyone wanted to continue to the end. No one wanted to be sent out by the teacher.* Research Journal: 127

Continuation of *Paying Attention*

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
	The learners were a little fidgety during the second reading of the story but wanted to ask questions about it. The questions were all in German. L: Warum hat die Katze die Maus nicht gegessen? Research Journal: 253 - 254
It was easier for learners to pay attention when they were interested in the story. Learners found the topic "animals" particularly interesting.	*This section went well with the learners engaged and participating. They were interested in talking about the animals.* Research Journal: 462

Concentration

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
At the beginning of the project, this group of learners were not accustomed to listening to stories. The group found it hard to sit still and listen for more than ten minutes. This improved throughout the intervention period.	*Towards the end of the story (after about 10 minutes) some of the learners were getting restless in the circle and were finding it hard to concentrate.* Research Journal: 11
Sometimes learners had to concentrate very hard to say their words. Reading from a sheet sometimes needed a lot of concentration. It was easier for learners who could remember the lines.	The learner seemed to be reading from the sheet and not doing the actions at this point. This could have been because they needed time for the phrases on the sheet and would have more capacity for interpreting their character next time. Research Journal: 941
Some learners found it difficult to concentrate when they were free to practice with a partner and were not being closely supervised by the teacher.	When the teacher was not near them, some learners were off task and were not practising with their partner. So not all the learners were speaking or practising all the time. Research Journal: 384
Some groups had very good concentration already at the start of the intervention.	*This class has very good levels of concentration. The learners can concentrate for a really long time, listen and contribute.* Research Journal: 572
Not having an outdoor break affected concentration in some groups. Sometimes the weather was bad or the playground wasn't available.	*Start 11.51am - today the learners had not had an outdoor break before the lesson started. They had had it inside the classroom because something else was happening on the playground. There was therefore, no clear break between the break time and the English lesson starting, except that the English teacher came into the room. Everything took longer than I had expected. The learners were noisy and poorly concentrated.* Research Journal: 68

Continuation of *Concentration*

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
Sometimes the day of the lesson also made a difference to learners' concentration. Learners were tired on Fridays and seemed to find it harder to concentrate.	*Friday sessions are always more difficult than Wednesday sessions.* Research Journal: 445 *It was like this last week on Monday as well. The time of day of the lesson seems to make a big difference to the learners' concentration levels. The teacher had to wait a lot for quiet.* Research Journal: 68

Memorizing

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
Learners found it easy to remember and join in with repeated phrases from the picturebooks which they heard many times.	*Once the teacher got to the mouse, some of the learners had learned the response already "yes I will help you" due to the repetition in the story.* Research Journal: 11
It was relatively easy for learners to remember who the characters in the stories were and they could also name them. This also sometimes involved improvisation. In this example the teacher asked the learners if they could remember what the characters in the story were called.	*P: A dog* *P: A cat* *P: A mouse* *P: A grandma* *T: Yes, it could be a grandma but she is called the little old woman* *P: The chicken or the hen* *P: The little old man* *P: Somebody else?* Research Journal: 22 - 30
Rhyming language was easy for learners to remember.	They could remember the rhyme even though they hadn't done it for a while. Research Journal: 85
Long breaks between lessons did not seem to interfere with memory.	*The learners could remember the story quite well even though there had been a two-week break for Easter.* Research Journal: 812 *The teacher asked the learners if they could remember the magic words from before the holidays. One learner raised their hand and said them off by heart.* Research Journal: 939
Drama activities involving movement helped learners to remember items from the story.	*They could remember what the objects were and what the action was for each object.* Research Journal: 145

Continuation of ***Memorizing***

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
On occasions, the teacher removed scaffolding to challenge learners to recall. Learners managed to remember without the help of scaffolding.	The teacher closed the blackboard so that learners had to remember the order of the characters and the task wasn't too easy. Research Journal: 279
Pictures helped learners to remember. In this example, the session began with revision of the feelings. The teacher used the smiley faces provided to help but also made the faces herself.	*T: What is this feeling? Can you remember?* *P: Tired* *T: What is this feeling?* *P: Happy* *T: It is a little bit more than happy* *P: Exit* *T: Yes, excited. What is this feeling?* *P: Happy* Research Journal: 284 – 292
Some learners came up with creative ways to hide their prompt sheet so that they could glance at it during the short performance that they gave to the class after the practise time, in case they couldn't remember their lines.	*Some learners stuck their words on the back of their mask which was on a lolly stick, and others did it totally without the words. They could remember them without looking at the sheet.* Research Journal: 820

Interaction

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
Learners found it hard to stay on task sometimes when they were working with a partner.	*The learners were asked to read the script with a partner and practise together. They were on task for some of the time but then started to do other things and talk about other things.* Research Journal: 77
If learners had to do a task together which involved organisation, they tended to revert to speaking in German and didn't use classroom English. However, often they supported each other with challenging tasks. In this case, learners pointed to parts of the script for each other which needed to be underlined.	*Discussion was all in German for the organisational matters. The underlining of the different parts on the scripts so that each character knew what to say was challenging. However, the learners managed to do it very well by helping each other. Every group member was involved because every group member had a puppet.* Research Journal: 79
On the whole, groups worked well together. There were a few occasions however, when a group found it hard to work together. It was helpful for the teacher to plan the groups carefully in advance and put learners together in a group who could work well together usually.	*Three out of four groups got on very well, organised themselves, practised the script with the puppets and agreed everything. There was a team atmosphere. The teacher had told the learners that they should prepare for a little performance for the rest of the class. This seemed to motivate them to try hard and the groups worked well together. They were on task.*

Continuation of ***Interaction***

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
	Only one group had slight difficulty organising themselves and the teacher had to help. One learner was not happy with the group that they were in because they didn't get on very well with the other learners. This prevented the group work from working well. Research Journal: 83
Learners sometimes found group activities that were more abstract difficult. In one activity, learners changed the end of the story. Two attempts were made at this activity in two consecutive lessons. It was hard for learners to understand that the story could have a different ending to the real ending that they had heard. In the second lesson the activity worked better.	*The group work phase where the learners were supposed to create an alternative ending was difficult.*
Learners needed more scaffolding with the activity to change the ending of the story. This was one aspect of this activity which was changed after the pilot study. Activities that were too open were difficult for learners.	*Perhaps a sheet with some phrases that the learners could choose from would help with this activity. This time the activity was just too open and the introduction to the activity was too abstract. Next time the roles could be given to the learners.*
Some groups of learners in the pilot study found it difficult to decide who would be each character in each group. They were not used to this kind of activity where negotiation was needed. As the pilot study took place at the beginning of the school year, there were many learners in language Ability Classification Group 1 taking part in the activity.	*The learners couldn't remember who was in their group last time. It was also difficult for them to pick their own character. The teacher didn't give them roles like she had last time.* Research Journal: 202 – 203
Learners who had found the group work difficult, gave the unit a lower rating on the learner self-assessment form. In this example the learners completed the self-evaluation form for the story *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*.	*As expected, the learners who had found the group work difficult in the first group work session recorded that they didn't like the story or activities. The experience in the group phase seems to affect the feedback that the learners give about their enjoyment of the unit as a whole.* Research Journal: 251
Groups had the option to leave the classroom and work outside in the corridor during dramatisation activities so that they had more space. Learners enjoyed the opportunity to work independently. Some groups found it easier than others to organise their group in this situation. Learners who were more used to doing group work found it easier than learners who had never done group work.	*The yellow group went outside the classroom and organised themselves to retell the story. This group organised themselves independently. The learners had to discuss and negotiate, solve problems and reach agreements to organise their puppet show. The other groups found it difficult to organise themselves. The class were not used to group work. They didn't do group work usually according to the teacher.* Research Journal: 296

Continuation of ***Interaction***

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
When the learners were doing group work it was noisier in the classroom than it normally was. Sometimes it took some groups a few minutes to get into their group and to start the preparation of the sketch.	*It was noisy in the classroom and the learners found it difficult to get into their groups.* Research Journal: 304
Generally, once they had begun, they worked hard in their groups. It was easier for learners to organise themselves when the drama allowed for there to be more than one of each character. Then learners could choose to be their favourite character or play a character with a friend for moral support.	*The learners had to decide in their groups who would be which character. This was tricky, but the learners managed. They had to discuss, negotiate and decide together who would play which character. However, more than one learner could be each character. So, in the end there were no problems deciding*. Research Journal: 405
Teacher pre-organisation of a dramatisation activity was very helpful in enabling group work to start smoothly.	*The teacher had already divided the headbands into the colour groups to make it easier and quicker to begin the preparation for the dramatisation. The groups went to different areas of the classroom and the corridor outside. It was quite noisy as learners prepared.* Research Journal: 409
The groups were mixed ability to allow opportunities for peer tutoring. This worked well usually. However, occasionally more able learners wanted to add new language elements that deviated from the prompts that learners had been given on the board or on their card. These learners had very creative ideas. However, sometimes what they wanted to do was too difficult for other learners in their group. In these cases, it was difficult for learners to work together. Sometimes the teacher helped the group to create a sketch which was manageable for everyone. However, this meant that the teacher was very occupied with one group. However, the teacher's support helped learners to be successful.	*The groups were mixed ability. I noticed that this was difficult for some groups because more able learners wanted other learners to do or say things that they were not yet able to do or say. Again, some negotiation was needed between learners in the group.* Research Journal: 410 *However, there were also examples of peer tutoring where learners helped each other to say their lines and to decide where or how to move.* Research Journal: 414
Sometimes it was necessary to limit a drama task just to the options that had been explained by the teacher so that learners would manage the task and feel successful. There was one occasion during the *Hey Grandude!* unit of work where learners had been given three destination options: the beach, the desert and the mountains. Learners asked if they could choose another destination instead. In the interests of the group, the teacher decided that it would be better if they stuck to the three destinations that had already	*Choosing the groups carefully and limiting the task are important to the success of the dramatisation activities. However, some learners really wanted to stretch themselves. As it was, most groups managed the task very well.* Research Journal: 894

Continuation of ***Interaction***

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
been discussed because all the learners knew some vocabulary related to these destinations.	
There was a marked improvement in group work during the intervention phases. During the group work phases in a second or subsequent unit of work, learners seemed to have a better idea of what was expected of them. They were able to organise themselves more efficiently and with fewer problems.	*There was a marked improvement in the group work from last time. Learners seem to have got better at discussing, negotiating and deciding who would say what and when. Everyone spoke and everyone joined in. There were no problems choosing the roles.* *Learners practised well and it wasn't as noisy.* Research Journal: 487
Group work was sometimes difficult if several quieter learners had ended up in the same group. Having a mixture of learners with different personalities seemed to help the group to work well together.	*Group work was difficult in one group. The group contained four learners who were all quite quiet. They found it hard to work together. Nevertheless, the group managed to produce a little performance using some of the phrases.* Research Journal: 662
Some learners needed longer to get used to doing the drama games altogether in class. A reminder was given about staying in your own space before playing a game.	*However, there were still some people who could not play the game without touching other people.* Research Journal: 758
Learners who found it hard to participate in group work in normal school lessons also found it hard to join in with group work in drama.	*Learners were doing more actions and directing their own drama than they had in the previous sketch on Goldilocks and the Three Bears. There was only one person who didn't feel able to participate at all. However, this learner could not participate in many activities at school.* Research Journal: 820
Learners' participation improved between the first and second units of work. Learners became more confident.	*The learner who could not usually join in with activities joined in this time.* Research Journal: 869
Activities where learners were allowed to move around and talk to each other were very effective in allowing everybody the opportunity to speak. In these phases more learners spoke than in the whole class question and answer phases with the teacher.	*Learners had time to mingle and talk using the phrases they had written. There was lots of talk in English using the sheet for help. Everyone enjoyed the activity and spoke English.* Research Journal: 810
In the second group work phase the teacher allowed learners more freedom to choose their own groups than they had had in the first group work phase. This worked well because the groups were used to group work and had also practised working in groups in the first unit of work.	*This time the learners had to form their own groups. This was ok and still worked well. There were no problems in the groups. Last time the teacher had specifically chosen mixed ability groups. This time she let learners choose their own groups.* Research Journal: 940

Continuation of ***Interaction***

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
During the group work phases, the work sometimes appeared to be less organized than when learners were sitting still at their desks. During the practice phases it was sometimes hard to imagine how the learners' dramatisations would turn out. However, when learners showed the class what they had created, it was always enjoyable, creative, imaginative and very successful.	*The lesson was noisier and there was more movement than in a normal English lesson, but learners were on task. They discussed and decided who was going to do what, say what and stand where, and if they would use the props. The cactus in the desert put a green jumper on back to front and zipped it up. The practice of the sketches, as in every other case, seemed a little chaotic. However, the performance turned out very well.* Research Journal: 943
One intervention group was very good at group work at the start of the intervention. The teacher said that the class were used to group work and had done a lot of group work together in the past.	*In this case the performances turned out well, even though the learners had chosen their own groups. The class was very good at group work.* Research Journal: 954

Confidence

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
There were always volunteers who wanted to show the class what they had created or practised during group work phases. Not everyone volunteered but most learners wanted to show what they had created. Because of the limited time available, not everyone could always show what they had done but the teacher tried to allow different learners to show throughout the course of the intervention.	*Some volunteers showed their dialogue at the front. One asked the question and the other answered. There were plenty of volunteers who wanted to show what they had prepared at the end in the mini plenary for this activity.* Research Journal: 71
Learners gained confidence as the intervention advanced. It seemed that regular input and opportunities to practise speaking in class were helping learners to become more confident and willing to contribute.	*I think that the learners' willingness to have a go at answering in English is improving or increasing. I think that they are beginning to answer more in English. Some learners are even answering in full sentences in English.* Research Journal:166
Some learners were naturally more outgoing and confident than others. This was visible in their performances.	*This group had lots of energy for running across the room away from the avalanche. It was a performance, and they appeared to be enjoying themselves. They were not shy or afraid but enjoyed showing what they had created.* Research Journal: lines 949

This section presented qualitative results on oral skills obtained from analysis of the Research Journal. The following section contains some excerpts from the Research Journal

which were recorded after teachers and learners gave verbal feedback in passing during the project. The researcher recorded these comments in the journal. The researcher's observations are also included in these excerpts.

Teacher Feedback

The following section provides some information on teachers' opinions and suggestions for improving the project which they kindly gave the researcher during the intervention. The teachers were not formally interviewed due to time limitations in the project.

Table 102

Teacher Feedback School 1

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
At the beginning of the project in the pilot school, the teacher asked me to add some suggestions of language in English. This was just so that there was a written suggestion available of what one might expect to hear at certain points in the lesson. The sentences added to the lesson plan in English were just suggestions. The teacher knew that they did not have to be stuck to exactly. The teacher was very keen to make a good job of teaching the intervention lessons. The teacher had never read a picture-book to the class or done drama with them before. It was a little nerve-wracking to do something so different, but the teacher did an excellent job.	*The teacher requested that I add examples of classroom language to the lesson plans, just as suggestions of what to say (what I had imagined that one might say at particular points in the lesson).* Research Journal: 7
The learners found it difficult to calm down after break time and to be ready to start the lesson. Sometimes the teacher had to wait a long time for them to be calm before she could start. This meant that often the lessons were shorter than they were planned to be. The researcher altered the intervention from its original form to remove the introductory drama activities and put them after the story-telling phases until learners got used to the format. Often the drama activities in the first couple of lessons in a series of lessons were quite short and were done just before the end of the lesson.	*At the end of the lesson the teacher said that the learners needed to be more contained. She suggested fewer introductory drama activities at the beginning of the lesson because she felt the learners had got too excited and then they had had to sit still afterwards and listen to the story. She also suggested including less content in the lessons because we had not got on to the post listening activity after the story reading.* Research Journal: 13
The teacher asked if some worksheets could be added to the intervention lessons because these were familiar and calming activities. Worksheets could also be taken in and looked at by the teacher and could be marked. This was a concern of the teacher that it would not be possible to give learners a mark for English during the intervention. The researcher changed the initial plans to include some worksheets.	*The teacher requested that part of the session include calm activities where the learners fill in some sort of worksheet. I will add this to the coming plans.* Research Journal: 14

Continuation of Table 102

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
The teacher was teaching English to a class that was not her own class. She thought that an intervention like this one would work very well with a calm group of learners like her own class. She said that she would consider doing the intervention lessons with her own class later in the school year.	*The teacher told me that this class is much livelier than her own class and that she needs twice as much energy for this class. She thought that the project would work very well with her own class in the future.* Research Journal: 73
The teacher told the researcher that doing the "Story Whoosh" for the first time was nerve wracking because she did not know how the learners would react to it or if it would go well.	*Afterwards the teacher told me that she had been nervous to try the "Story Whoosh" because of the movements involved and the difficulty of taking on other roles. However, she admitted that the learners had done the lesson very well.* Research Journal: 186

Table 103

Teacher Feedback School 2

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
In this school the teacher had never used picturebooks or drama in English lessons with learners due to time constraints. It was a new format for both the teacher and the learners. However, the teacher was keen to try it.	*The teacher also thought that acting out needed more practice because the learners had never done anything like that before. It was a new activity for them.* Research Journal: 391
The teacher noticed that learners did not always do what they had been told to do when they were not directly being observed. They might not be using the language that they had been asked to use for a particular activity.	*The teacher also reported that some groups were not really on task during the five-minute practice phase at the end of the lesson.* Research Journal: 405
On one occasion when learners were showing their dramatisations to the class, one group had a story reader who read the picturebook aloud for the group so that the sketch had structure and learners joined in, did the actions and said their lines. The teacher and researcher were surprised how much learners were able to do and how some learners could read the whole picturebook in English aloud.	*The teacher was very impressed by what the learners had produced when they showed their dramatisations to the class.* Research Journal: 416

Table 104

Teacher Feedback School 3

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
It was challenging to follow a lesson plan written by someone else. The teacher reported that she did not usually write down her lesson plans but had them in her head.	*It is hard to follow one (a lesson plan) and to remember how the lesson goes.*
The teacher liked the book *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*.	*The teacher liked the picturebook and thought that it was just right for the learners' ability. Initially she thought that perhaps it would be too easy. However, after using the book she thought the difficulty level was fine.* Research Journal: 615
The teacher was initially sceptical of using repetition in the dramatisation work units. She thought that learners might get bored if they had five lessons on the same picturebook. However, every lesson was different and approached a different aspect of the story so that the learners did not get bored. Learners benefitted from hearing the story read more than once and from doing different activities on the same story.	*Afterwards the teacher told me that she thought the learners enjoyed the activity and that she was beginning to realise how important repetition is. Beforehand she was worried that learners would find it boring to hear the story more than once, but they didn't seem to be getting bored. Also, things that she thought they knew, they could not recall when asked.* Research Journal: 622
Learners had never done drama before. It was a new activity for them. The teacher commented on the need to practise drama activities so that learners got used to doing them and learnt how to do them. However, it could not be taken for granted that learners would know what to do even if it had been explained and demonstrated. Although explaining and demonstrating helped.	*Afterwards the teacher said that she was learning from the lesson plans and should do more things like this in the future. However, she thought it wasn't very easy to be dramatic. She was going to ask parents at the parents evening if the learners were using any of the English at home.* Research Journal: 663
There were no complaints from parents at the parents' evening about the intervention. This was a concern that had been expressed to the researcher by headteachers in some of the project schools and was one reason given for sticking to the curriculum topics. Parents reported that learners were using language from the drama at home.	*Parents had reported that the learners had been saying the phrases from the Goldilocks drama at home. There were no negative feedback or complaints from the parents. Everybody was happy*. Research Journal: 756
The teacher enjoyed some project lessons more than others. Some drama activities were easier to manage and so, more enjoyable because they worked very well.	*At the end of the lesson the teacher said that she had enjoyed the lesson and "felt very well".* Research Journal: 810
The teacher was reluctant to do reflection sessions after the dramatisations in case a learner said anything negative about another learner and she	*This school didn't do any reflections after the drama activities. The teacher was concerned that a learner might say something negative*

Continuation of Table 104

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
wanted to avoid that. She was very conscious of keeping everything positive in English to encourage learners to join in and develop positive feelings towards the language.	*about another learner, and she wanted everything to be very positive and encouraging in the English lesson.* Research Journal: 838
The teacher thought that learners' speaking skills had improved by the end of the project and that learners were able to say more in English at the end.	*The teacher said that she thought that the learners could perhaps talk a bit more by the end of the project.* Research Journal: 894

Table 105

Teacher Feedback School 4

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
The teacher commented that it was difficult to follow someone else's lesson plans.	*Feedback from the teacher on the project was that she found it difficult sometimes to follow the plans because it was not the way she normally teaches. She does not usually use a plan. However, she said that she also learned a lot of new things.*
The teacher commented on the benefits of repetition that she had noticed.	*One of the points she mentioned was that she realised that repetition doesn't have to be boring. It is necessary or helpful to revise or revisit vocabulary again as a reminder. Sometimes she thought that learners had already got something, but then when it was repeated, they didn't seem to know it.* Research Journal: 896
The teacher told the researcher that the learners had very much enjoyed the lessons at the beginning of the intervention. The researcher had not been able to observe these lessons. It was the story *Monkey Puzzle* which she felt was very decisive in the learners' enjoyment levels.	*The teacher said that the learners were very motivated by the story. She had enjoyed the other lessons very much as well.* Research Journal: 903
After the groups had shown the class their dramatisations, the teacher did the reflection activity with learners. After learners had given their opinions, the teacher also gave learners constructive group feedback on their work. She praised them for working well together and joining in very well with the activity. However, she also gave a target for everyone to work on.	*The teacher told the class that when a group shows what they have done, learners need to be quiet afterwards so that we can move on to the next group.* Research Journal: 921

Continuation of Table 105

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
The teacher gave feedback on the project at the end.	*The teacher said that she had enjoyed the project. It was good to see the learners in a different light, doing a different type of activity. Often in the lesson they didn't get the opportunity to do that much speaking practice. The teacher said that it would be difficult for the teacher to organise this herself in the general school day.* Research Journal: 955

This section provided some examples of verbal feedback given to the researcher by the project teachers during the intervention. The researcher was grateful to the teachers for sharing their impressions, which also enabled the researcher to learn new things about teaching young EFL learners through the dramatisation of picturebooks.

Learner Feedback

The following section provides some examples of verbal feedback given by learners during the project. Learners were not formally interviewed due to time limitations in the project. However, learners who had returned the parental permission slip were invited to fill out a learner self-assessment form at the end of each picturebook dramatisation work unit. Some excerpts on learner feedback collected orally are provided in Tables 106-109.

Table 106

Learner Feedback School 1

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
Learners gave verbal feedback to the English teachers of both the Test and Control Groups. They said that they had really enjoyed looking at and talking about the pictures in the pre-assessment. They were keen to have another go at talking about some more pictures.	P: *Es hat sehr viel Spaß gemacht. Können wir das nochmal machen?* Research Journal: 16
After each group work phase in which learners had prepared a dramatisation and shown it to the class, there was a group reflection phase.	*The teacher asked in English how do you feel? The learners could respond in English or German.* *P: It was really fun and funny!* *P: Ich fand es auch lustig!* *P: It's cool!* *P: Es war witzig!* Research Journal: 274 - 278

Table 107

Learner Feedback School 2

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
Learners enjoyed the making activities because they did not usually do any making during lessons.	*The learners gave the making activity thumbs up to show that they had enjoyed it very much.* Research Journal: 282
Although scaffolding wasn't provided to learners on giving feedback, one learner was able to use language introduced in the lesson in a new context to describe how they felt.	*P: I feel happy and tired. This learner used vocabulary from the lesson.* *P: Dass wir in einer Gruppe gearbeitet haben* *P: Es war schön.* Research Journal: 299 - 302
Learners gave feedback in a short reflection after a "Story Whoosh". Some learners were able to express their opinions in English and give constructive suggestions for next time.	*T: How was the Story Whoosh?* *P: Cold as I was lying on the floor.* *P: Cool und lustig!* *P: Perhaps the people playing the roles could say a sentence from the story. I think it needs practice.* Research Journal: 386 - 390
Learners noticed that some of the pronunciation during the dramatisation was not quite right and that it would benefit from more practice at the start of the session.	P: *Wir könnten die Aussprache mehr üben.* Research Journal: 439 - 443
This feedback was given in a reflection phase after a dramatisation. Although learners appeared to be confident in the drama activities their feedback shows how some learners felt about showing their dramatisation to the class.	*P: Man muss sich trauen, um Theateraktivitäten mitzumachen.* *P: Ich bin immer noch aufgeregt.* Research Journal: 477 - 479

Table 108

Learner Feedback School 3

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
When the teacher told the class that they were going to start a new story in the lesson, one learner raised their hand and expressed their concern that they would not be able to understand the whole story.	*P: I don't understand.* *T: It is ok if you don't understand every word. It is just to hear the language. What is this?* Research Journal: 670 - 672
The teacher kept the reflection phase after the drama activity short. Learners indicated that they had enjoyed the activity. Learners were always allowed to just use their thumbs to give feedback. In this case there were a lot of thumbs up.	*In response to the reflection question how do you feel after the drama game? The learners answered "happy".* Research Journal: 699

Table 109

Learner Feedback School 4

Background and Significance	Excerpt from the Research Journal
Reflecting on the teamwork during the preparation of the dramatisation was an effective way to organise the verbal feedback session after the drama. Learners were able to respond in English using vocabulary that they already knew. The group was good at reflection. The teacher said that they had practised it.	*P: It was good.* *P: It was perfect.* *P: It was wonderful.* Research Journal: 906 - 909
The group could also make suggestions of what they could do differently next time. The example here shows that learners thought that they could have been quieter more quickly when it was time for the groups to switch over and show what they had prepared. Being quicker would have meant that the class did not have to wait so long for the next dramatisation to begin.	*The teacher asked "What went well? How was the teamwork?"* *P: Very nice.* *P: Cool, die* Buffalo *nachzumachen.* *P: Die Lernenden müssen leise sein.* Research Journal: 917 - 920
At the end of the ten sessions, the learners gave the researcher feedback.	*The learners said that they had had a lot of fun in the project and enjoyed it.* Research Journal: 955

This section provided some results from the qualitative classroom observations in the four intervention schools that were written up in the Research Journal. In the following section the quantitative and qualitative results are merged to draw conclusions on each of the aspects of oral skills assessed during the project.

Merging the Quantitative and Qualitative Results

This section merges the quantitative and qualitative data collected on oral skills during the project. The results are merged in a joint display (Johnson et al., 2019) for each school. The quantitative data is seen on the left-hand side of the display. The qualitative data is seen on the right-hand side of the display. In the middle of the table is the "Pillar Building Column" (Johnson et al., 2019, p. 305) where the quantitative and qualitative data is merged. This column in this project shows if the data converge or diverge and describes relevant themes. The display is designed to be read starting from the outsides on both sides, working in towards the middle. The pillar building column in the centre is designed to be read last. Each display shows results for Linguistic, Cognitive, Physical, and Social and Emotional aspects of oral skills.

Joint Display for Test Group Learners in School 1

Linguistic Aspects – School 1

Table 110

Use of Vocabulary and Chunks – School 1

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Pre and post assessment speaking descriptors for Vocabulary	The average Vocabulary Use Score increased by 0.3 points.	Data shows evidence of a development in vocabulary use.	Learners could recall vocabulary and phrases from the story to answer simple questions about it in re-cap phases (Journal 23-30).
Vocabulary analysis with CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023)	The average number of repeated and different English words produced by learners in the Test Group increased by 22.61 and 3.77. The average number of conjunctions and verbs used increased in the post assessment. The average number of nouns decreased.		
Structured classroom observations	Learners did not use classroom English to organise their dramatisations in the groupwork phases. In both dramatisations they scored 0/8 for use of classroom English. However, they did use story language in both groupwork phases. They scored 8/8 indicating that every group had used English from the story.	Divergent – Data suggests that learners did not show a development in vocabulary use in certain circumstances.	If learners were asked to give answers to questions in class which required language that had not been introduced yet, they used German or a mixture of German and English e.g. why the characters feel the way they do in the story (Journal 55-63).

Table 111

Use of Linking Words/Conjunctions – School 1

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Vocabulary analysis with CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) and Excel	Use of conjunctions in the Test Group increased in the post assessment.	Quantitative data shows evidence of a development in the use of conjunctions.	No qualitative data recorded for this item.

Table 112

Grammar/Structure/Chunks – School 1

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Pre and post assessment speaking descriptors for Structure and Coherence	The average score for Structure and Coherence increased by 0.39 points indicating that utterances had become more structured and contained more chunks.	Convergent - Data shows evidence of a development in the use of structure in speech.	Learners asked the teacher for extra phrases to use in their dramatisations. They looked in the picture-book for extra phrases. They added language to the phrases that they had already been given as scaffolding for the dramatisations (Journal lines 206-211)
Structured Classroom Observations	Learners used language from the story in their groupwork and dramatisations. In both groupwork phases learners scored 8/8 indicating that every colour group had used story language.		

Table 113

Phonology – School 1

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
	Phonological development was not measured in this project.	No conclusions could be drawn.	No qualitative data recorded for this item.

Cognitive Aspects – School 1

Table 114

Thinking – School 1

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Pre and post assessment of Total Points Scores and Ability Classifications	The average total number of points/learner increased by 1.77 in the post assessment. The average language Ability Classification increased by 0.53. The increase in scores suggests evidence of thinking.	Convergent - Data shows evidence of a development in thinking skills.	Learners showed evidence of thinking when they answered the teacher's questions, joined in with the games, remembered the appropriate actions and planned and practised their dramatisation together (Journal 11, 64, 84).

Table 115

Planning Simple Speech – School 1

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Analysis of the speaking descriptors on Communication and Task Achievement	The average score for Communication increased by 0.69 points in the post assessment. This descriptor considered the length of contributions and how much support was needed. There was an average improvement of 0.39 points	Convergent – Data shows evidence of a development in the planning of simple speech.	Some learners were able to add their own phrases to their dramatisations (Journal 216-228).

Continuation of Table 115

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
	for Task Achievement in the post assessment. This score assessed how well pupils managed tasks which involved planning simple speech.		

Table 116

Paying Attention – School 1

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
	No quantitative data was collected on paying attention.	Qualitative data show evidence for a development in learners' ability to pay attention.	Learners got quicker at stopping and starting during a drama game because their ability to pay attention during the game improved (Journal 64)

Table 117

Concentrating – School 1

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Structured classroom observations. Score for being on task.	In the first groupwork phase learners scored 6/8. In the second groupwork phase they scored 8/8 for being on task. Every group was working on their dramatisation.	Divergent – evidence suggests that in certain circumstances, learners found concentrating challenging to maintain.	Learners were able to concentrate on the story telling for only 10 minutes initially. This was long enough (Journal 12). External factors such as wet weather and indoor play affected learners' ability to concentrate (Journal 68).

Table 118

Memorizing – School 1

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Vocabulary analysis with CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) and Excel	Learners could remember, recall and use words from the books in the post assessment. The Test Group used 31 "new words"* in the post assessment.	Convergent – data shows evidence for memorization.	Learners learnt repeated responses off by heart (Journal 11).

Note. *"New words" were words that were not used by learners in the Test Group in the pre assessment, were introduced in the picturebooks and were then produced by Test Group learners in the post assessment, but not by Control Group learners in the post assessment.

Table 119

Repair of Utterances – School 1

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Analysis of speaking descriptors for Task Achievement	There was an average improvement of 0.39 points for Task Achievement in the post assessment. This score included repair strategies. However, this aspect was not the only aspect assessed with this descriptor.	Divergent – data shows evidence of peer correction in the classroom but not self-correction. A very small amount of what could be interpreted as self-correction occurred in the post assessment.	Sometimes learners knew if another learner in their group had said something incorrectly and they were able to recast it for them. In this case the language was from the story and learners were using it in their dramatisation (Journal 215-228).

Physical Aspects – School 1

Table 120

Pronunciation – School 1

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
	No quantitative data was collected on pronunciation.	No conclusion can be drawn.	No observations were recorded on pronunciation.

Social and Emotional Aspects – School 1

Table 121

Basic Social Contact – School 1

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Pre and post assessment speaking descriptors for Communication	The average point score improvement for Communication was 0.69 points in the post assessment which included basic interaction and maintaining a conversation in a basic way. However, this aspect was not the only aspect assessed by this descriptor.	Quantitative data convergent - Data suggests evidence for basic social contact	No qualitative data was collected on this aspect.
Structured classroom observations. Score for learner participation in group work	The group member participation score increased from 3/8 to 4/8.		

Table 122

Interaction with Partner or Small Group – School 1

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Structured classroom observations	Group member participation improved over the two units. Learners completed the dramatisations successfully together on both occasions. Learners' ability to organise their own group improved slightly from 6/8 to 8/8.	Convergent - data shows evidence of a development in the ability to interact with a partner or small group.	Some learners experienced some difficulties in working in a small group. This improved over time and with help from the teacher. (Journal 83, 206)
Learner self-assessment	The learners thought that they had spoken more English with their group in the second dramatisation. Their self-assessment point score increased from 3.38 to 4.15 points out of 5.		

Table 123

Confidence in Speaking – School 1

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Learner self-assessment	Learners thought that their confidence had increased at speaking English in front of the group during the intervention. Learners rated their confidence level on average at 3.69 points out of 5 at the end of the first story unit. This increased to 4.28 points at the end of the second story unit.	Convergent – data shows evidence for a development in confidence when speaking.	Learners seemed to be increasing in confidence and were becoming more willing to answer in English. More learners were also starting to answer in sentences (Journal 184-5). More learners seemed to be raising their hands to volunteer answers, as the project progressed (Journal 186).

Joint Display for Test Group Learners in School 2

Linguistic Aspects – School 2

Table 124

Use of Vocabulary and Chunks – School 2

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Pre and post assessment speaking descriptors for Vocabulary	The average Vocabulary Use Score increased by 0.69 points.	Data shows evidence of a development in vocabulary use.	Learners could remember vocabulary from previous sessions (Journal 451-461).
Vocabulary analysis with CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023)	The average number of repeated and different English words produced by learners in the Test Group increased in the post assessment by 43.75 and 15.44. The average number of conjunctions, verbs and prepositions used increased in the post assessment. The average number of nouns decreased.		

Continuation of Table 124

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Structured classroom observations	Learners did not use classroom English to organise their dramatisations in the groupwork phases. In all three dramatisations they scored 0/8 indicating that none of the groups had used English to organise their group. However, they did use story language. In the groupwork phases they scored 8/8, 2/8 and 8/8.	Divergent – Data suggests that learners did not show a development in vocabulary use in certain circumstances e.g. group work.	However, learners used German to discuss and organize their groups for the dramatisations and in verbal feedback sessions on the drama (Journal 439-443).

Table 125

Use of Linking Words/Conjunctions – School 2

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Vocabulary analysis with CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) and Excel	Use of conjunctions in the Test Group increased.	Quantitative data shows evidence of a development in the use of linking words.	No qualitative data for this item.

Table 126

Grammar/Structure/Chunks – School 2

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Pre and post assessment speaking descriptors for Structure and Coherence	The average score for Structure and Coherence increased by 0.81, indicating that utterances had become more structured and contained more chunks.	Convergent - Data shows evidence of a development in the use of structure in speech.	Learners could use chunks of language that had been practised altogether correctly e.g. Yes, I do/ No, I don't (Journal 281).
Structured Classroom Observations	Learners used language from the story in their groupwork and dramatisations. In the three		Learners were more likely to answer in a sentence if they are provided with

Continuation of Table 126

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
	group work phases learners scored 8/8, 2/8 and then 8/8.		scaffolding and were encouraged to use it. (Journal 383-384) e.g. "My favourite animal is…" (Journal 429-435).

Table 127

Phonology – School 2

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
	Phonological development was not measured in this project.	No conclusions could be drawn.	The researcher did not notice anything about phonological development from observation in the classroom.

Cognitive Aspects – School 2

Table 128

Thinking – School 2

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Pre and post assessment of Total Points Scores and Ability Classifications	The average total number of points increased by 3.25 in the post assessment. The average language Ability Classification increased by 0.75. The improvement in scores suggests evidence of thinking.	Convergent - Data shows evidence of a development in thinking skills.	One group prepared the whole story instead of just the ending. One learner read the picture book aloud so that the group could act along with the story. Then the learners swapped roles and another learner continued with the reading (Journal 412).

Table 129

Planning Simple Speech – School 2

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Analysis of the speaking descriptors on Communication and Task Achievement	The average score for Communication increased by 0.88 points in the post assessment. This descriptor considered the length of contributions and how much support was needed. There was an average improvement of 0.88 points for Task Achievement in the post assessment. This score assessed how well pupils managed tasks.	Convergent – Data shows evidence of a development in the planning of simple speech.	The planning of simple speech in this class involved mainly two-word phrases e.g. "a monkey" (Journal 420-427) or using the chunk "I see…" (Journal 311-320). Phrases from the story were used "She eats porridge" (Journal 394).

Table 130

Paying Attention – School 2

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
	No quantitative data was collected on paying attention.	Qualitative data show that learners found it easier to pay attention in certain situations.	Learners found it challenging to sit still for more than 10 minutes at the start of the project. If an activity was too slow moving, then fidgeting began (Journal 386). Learners found it easier to pay attention to a story that they were very interested in e.g. on animals (Journal 428).

Table 131

Concentrating – School 2

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Structured classroom observations. Score for being on task.	Some learners were on task working on their dramatisations in the group work phases. In the first group-work phase learners scored 4/8. In the second group-work phase they scored 6/8 and 6/8 in the third dramatisation.	Divergent – evidence suggests that in certain circumstances, learners found concentrating challenging to maintain.	Some learners found it difficult to concentrate when they were not being directly observed by the teacher and were doing pair work (Journal 384). It was also more difficult to concentrate on Fridays than on other days of the week (Journal 445).

Table 132

Memorizing – School 2

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Vocabulary analysis with CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) and Excel	The results of the word analysis showed that learners could remember, recall and use words in another situation. The Test group used 44 “new words”* in the post assessment.	Convergent – data shows evidence for memorization.	Revision from previous sessions revealed that learners could remember a lot from the previous sessions including language (Journal 284-292) Some learners could memorize their line/s in a very short time (Journal 492).

Note. *“New words” were words that were not used by learners in the test group in the pre assessment, were introduced in the picturebooks and were then produced by test group learners in the post assessment, but not by control group learners in the post assessment.

Table 133

Repair of Utterances – School 2

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Analysis of speaking descriptors for Task Achievement	There was an average improvement of 0.88 points for Task Achievement in the post assessment. This score included repair strategies. However, this aspect was not the only aspect being assessed with this descriptor.	Divergent – the data show evidence of peer correction but not self-correction in the classroom. Only very limited self-correction occurred in the pre/post assessment.	Some learners noticed if other learners were pronouncing words incorrectly. Practise of giving each other feedforward gently or kindly needs practice (Journal 438).

Physical Aspects – School 2

Table 134

Pronunciation – School 2

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
	No quantitative data was collected on pronunciation.	No conclusion can be drawn on whether pronunciation developed. Learners were able to help each other with pronunciation.	The teacher was able to give learners help with pronunciation if they needed it. "Does" was a difficult word to pronounce (Journal 384). Some learners were able to notice when another learner had pronounced a word incorrectly e.g. snake (Journal 438). It is helpful if words that are difficult to pronounce are clearly introduced at the beginning and practised before learners go to their groups and use the words (Journal 438).

Social and Emotional Aspects – School 2

Table 135

Basic Social Contact – School 2

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Pre and post assessment speaking descriptors for Communication	The average point Score Improvement for Communication was 0.88 points in the post assessment which included basic interaction and maintaining a conversation in a basic way. However, this aspect was not the only aspect being assessed by this descriptor.	Quantitative data convergent – data suggests evidence for basic social contact.	No qualitative data was collected on basic social contact.
Structured classroom observations. Score for learner participation in group work	The group member participation score increased from 4/8, to 6/8 and 8/8 over the three dramatisations.		

Table 136

Interaction with a Partner or Small Group – School 2

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Structured classroom observations	Group member participation improved over the two units. Learners completed the dramatisations successfully together on both occasions. Learners' ability to organise their own group improved slightly from to 6/8 to 8/8.	Convergent - data shows evidence of a development in the ability to interact with a partner or small group.	In the first dramatisation, some groups found it challenging to organise themselves because the learners were not used to doing groupwork (Journal 296)
Learner self-assessment	The learners thought that they had spoken more English with their group in the second (3.37/5) and third (3.87/5) dramatisations. Their average self-assessment point score increased in each work unit.		Organisation and working together in groups improved and was good during the third dramatisation. Learners got better at discussing and negotiating (Journal 487).

Table 137

Confidence in Speaking – School 2

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Learner self-assessment	Learners thought that their confidence had increased over the course of the 15 sessions. Learners rated their confidence level on average at 3.87 points out of 5 at the end of the first story unit. This increased in the second unit to 4.38 points and even further to 4.69 in the third unit.	Convergent – data shows evidence for a development in confidence when speaking.	In a verbal feedback session, a learner said that one must have courage to do drama activities (Journal 478). Learners had the courage to show what they had prepared.

Joint Display for Test Group Learners in School 3

Linguistic Aspects – School 3

Table 138

Use of Vocabulary and Chunks – School 3

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Pre and post assessment speaking descriptors for Vocabulary Use	The average Vocabulary Use Score increased by 0.5 points.	Data shows evidence of a development in vocabulary use.	The questions that learners were asked by the teacher related to areas of vocabulary that learners were familiar with, and learners could answer the questions in English (Journal 527-554).
Vocabulary analysis with CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023)	The average number of repeated and different English words produced by learners in the Test Group increased by 37.62 and 11.62. The average number of conjunctions, verbs and prepositions used increased in the post assessment. The average number of different nouns used increased.		Learners produced a lot of vocabulary and phrases related to animals, a topic which was interesting for them and which they had covered at a more basic level previously. The unit provided opportunities for repetition or revision (Journal 788- 808).

Continuation of Table 138

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Structured classroom observations	Learners did not use classroom English to organise their dramatisations in the groupwork phases. In all three dramatisations they scored 2/8, 0/8 and 0/8. However, they did use story language in English in dramatisations 2 and 3.	Divergent – Data suggests that learners did not show a development in vocabulary use in group work discussions. Language use was situation dependent.	One group used jungle vocabulary to go to the jungle in the third dramatisation on the story *Hey Grandude!* They invented their own script using a mixture of vocabulary and phrases from the second and third picturebooks (Journal 870-880).

Table 139

Use of Linking Words/Conjunctions – School 3

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Vocabulary analysis with CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) and Excel	Use of conjunctions in the test group increased slightly.	Quantitative data shows evidence of a development in the use of linking words.	No qualitative data for this item.

Table 140

Grammar/Structure/Chunks – School 3

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Pre and post assessment speaking descriptors for Structure and Coherence	The average score for Structure and Coherence increased by 0.44 indicating that utterances had become more structured and contained more chunks.	Convergent - Data shows evidence of a development in the use of structure in speech.	In many cases, learners were already able to answer the teacher's questions in an English sentence. Some learners answered with 1-2 words (Journal 500-508).
Structured Classroom Observations	In the first unit learners did not use story language in the group work phase.		

Continuation of Table 140

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
	They used language from the story in their groupwork in the second and third dramatisations. In the groupwork phases learners scored 8/8 and 8/8.		

Table 141

Phonology – School 3

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
	Phonological development was not measured in this project.	No conclusions could be drawn.	No data could be collected on this aspect from classroom observation.

Cognitive Aspects – School 3

Table 142

Thinking – School 3

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Pre and post assessment of Total Points Scores and Ability Classifications	The average total number of points/pupil increased by 2.19 in the post assessment. The average language Ability Classification increased by 0.5. The improvement in scores could be viewed as evidence of thinking.	Convergent - Data shows evidence of a development in thinking skills.	There was evidence of thinking when learners speculated about who might live in the house in the forest (Research Journal 513-526). Inventing their own script using vocabulary and phrases from the second and third picturebooks also shows evidence of thought (Journal 870- 880).

Table 143

Planning Simple Speech – School 3

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Analysis of the speaking descriptors on Communication and Task Achievement	The average score for Communication increased by 0.62 points in the post assessment. This descriptor considered the length of contributions and how much support was needed. There was an average improvement of 0.62 points for Task Achievement in the post assessment. This score assessed how well pupils managed tasks.	Convergent – Data shows evidence of a development in the planning of simple speech.	Learners in School 3 seemed to want to write their own scripts (Journal 656).

Table 144

Paying Attention – School 3

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
	No quantitative data was collected on paying attention.	Qualitative data shows that learners could already pay attention very well.	The learners in this class could pay attention for a long time. They were able to listen and contribute to storytelling phases for an extended amount of time (Journal 572).

Table 145

Concentrating – School 3

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Structured classroom observations. Score for being on task.	Learners were mostly on task in the group work phases. In the first group-work phase learners scored 7/8, and	Convergent – data shows evidence of concentration.	Concentration was demonstrated by learners when they made up their own scripts.

Continuation of Table 145

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
	subsequently in the second and third group work phases 8/8 and 8/8 for being on task. The scores indicate that every group was working on their dramatisation.		

Table 146

Memorizing – School 3

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Vocabulary analysis with CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) and Excel	The results of the word analysis showed that learners could remember, recall and use words in another situation. The group used 80 "new words" in the post assessment.	Convergent – data shows evidence for memorization.	Most learners could remember their lines from the script/prompts off by heart after a short practice phase (Journal 661). Learners could remember vocabulary and phrases from previous session (Journal 841-849). Learners could remember magic words from the story which were repeated off by heart (Journal 864).

Table 147

Repair of Utterances – School 3

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Analysis of speaking descriptors for Task Achievement	There was an average improvement of 0.62 points for Task Achievement in the post assessment. This score included repair strategies.	Divergent – Limited self-correction occurred in the post assessments.	When learners had trouble with pronunciation, the teacher modelled the correct pronunciation

Continuation of Table 147

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
	However, this aspect was not the only aspect being assessed by this descriptor.		again for learners. Then the learners repeated it correctly (Journal 618). There was no evidence of self-correction.

Physical Aspects – School 3

Table 148

Pronunciation – School 3

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
	No quantitative data was collected on pronunciation.	No conclusion can be drawn on whether pronunciation developed during the project. Certain words were difficult for learners to pronounce.	The pronunciation of "don't" was difficult (Journal 614). "Climb" and "fur" (Journal 824).

Social and Emotional Aspects – School 3

Table 149

Basic Social Contact – School 3

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Pre and post assessment speaking descriptors for Communication	The average point Score Improvement for Communication was 0.62 points in the post assessment which included basic interaction and maintaining a conversation in a basic way. However, this aspect was not the only aspect being assessed by this descriptor.	Quantitative data convergent – data suggests evidence for basic social contact.	Qualitative data was not collected for this aspect.

Continuation of Table 149

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Structured classroom observations.	The score for group member participation was 6/8, 6/8 and 4/8.		

Table 150

Interaction with a Partner or Small Group – School 3

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Structured classroom observations	Learners completed the dramatisations successfully together on all three occasions. Learners' ability to organise their own group was good. They scored 8/8 for the first two dramatisations. The third dramatisation was the most challenging and learners scored 6/8.	Divergent - data shows evidence of the ability to interact with a partner or small group when the activity is in the ZPD. Activities that are too challenging negatively affect the ability to work in a group.	One group wanted to go to the Olympic Games to do a triathlon. This was quite challenging for some of the group members. They couldn't use the phrases from the sheet for this destination. The group asked the teacher for other phrases (Journal 868). The group were successful.
Learner self-assessment	The learners thought that they had spoken the most English with their group in the second story (4.5/5) which was also the story that they indicated that they liked the most.		

Table 151

Confidence in Speaking – School 3

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Learner self-assessment.	Learners thought that their confidence had increased during the intervention. Learners rated their confidence level on average at 3.67 points out of 5 at the	Divergent – data shows some evidence for a development in confidence when speaking. Activities	There was evidence that learners became more confident during the intervention phase. One learner who could not participate

Continuation of Table 151

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
	end of the first story unit. This increased to 4.33/5 points at the end of the second story unit and declined slightly to 4.17/5 in the most challenging story.	that are too challenging may negatively affect confidence.	at all in the first dramatisation, gradually became able to join in and to speak during drama activities (Journal 869).

Joint Display for Test Group Learners in School 4

Linguistic Aspects – School 4

Table 152

Use of Vocabulary and Chunks – School 4

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Pre and post assessment speaking descriptors for Vocabulary Use	The average Vocabulary Use Score increased by 0.47 points.	Data shows evidence of a development in vocabulary use.	Learners added language from the picturebook to their dramas (Journal 946).
Vocabulary analysis with CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023)	The average number of repeated and different English words produced by learners in the Test Group increased by 27.67 and 10.80. The average number of conjunctions, verbs and prepositions used, increased in the post assessment. The average number of different verbs and prepositions used, increased.		
Structured classroom observations	Learners did not use classroom English to organise their dramatisations in the groupwork phases. In both dramatisations they scored 0/12. However, every group used story language in both dramatisations.	Divergent – Data suggests that learners did not show a development in vocabulary use in group work discussions.	

Table 153

Use of Linking Words/Conjunctions – School 4

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Vocabulary analysis with CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) and Excel	Use of conjunctions in the Test Group increased.	Quantitative data shows evidence of a development in the use of linking words.	No qualitative data for this item.

Table 154

Grammar/Structure/Chunks – School 4

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Pre and post assessment speaking descriptors for Structure and Coherence	The average score for Structure and Coherence increased by 0.6 indicating that utterances had become more structured and contained more chunks.	Convergent - Data shows evidence of a development in the use of structure in speech.	Chunks of language were taught to learners relating to the story e.g.: On the beach you can … swim in the sea (Journal 913).
Structured Classroom Observations	Learners used language from the story in their groupwork in both dramatisations.		Learners played games with actions and said, "It's a tortoise" or "It's a cowboy" (Journal 916.

Table 155

Phonology – School 4

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
	Phonological development was not measured in this project.	No conclusions could be drawn.	The researcher did not record anything specific about phonological development from observation in the classroom.

Cognitive Aspects – School 4

Table 156

Thinking – School 4

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Pre and post assessment of Total Points Scores and Ability Classifications	The average total number of points/pupil increased by 2.67 in the post assessment. The average language Ability Classification increased by 0.4. The improvement in scores suggests evidence of thinking.	Convergent - Data shows evidence of a development in thinking skills.	When learners added extra lines to their script/prompts they showed evidence of thinking (Journal 944).

Table 157

Planning Simple Speech – School 4

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Analysis of the speaking descriptors on Communication and Task Achievement	The average score for Communication increased by 0.8 points in the post assessment. This descriptor considered the length of contributions and how much support was needed. There was an average improvement of 0.8 points for Task Achievement in the post assessment. This score assessed how well pupils managed tasks.	Convergent – Data shows evidence of a development in the planning of simple speech.	Learners asked and were permitted to add lines to the script from the story (Journal 944).

Table 158

Paying Attention – School 4

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
	No quantitative data was collected on paying attention.	The qualitative data shows that learners could already pay attention very well.	Learners noticed that they needed to be quicker at being quiet again after one group had shown their sketch so that the next group could show what they had created (Journal 920).

Table 159

Concentrating – School 4

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Structured classroom observations	Learners were on task in the group work phases. In both dramatisations the learners scored 12/12 for being on task. The scores indicate that every group was on task.	Convergence – evidence suggests that learners concentrated on the tasks.	Learners concentrated on their lines (Journal 941).

Table 160

Memorizing – School 4

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Vocabulary analysis with CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) and Excel	The results of the word analysis showed that learners could remember, recall and use words in another situation. The group used 26 “new words” in the post assessment.	Convergent – data shows evidence for memorization.	Some learners had no trouble memorizing their lines in a very short amount of time. Some others used their sheet for support (Journal 910).

Table 161

Repair of Utterances – School 4

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Analysis of speaking descriptors for Task Achievement	There was an average improvement of 0.8 points for Task Achievement in the post assessment. This score included repair strategies. However, this aspect was not the only aspect being assessed by this descriptor.	Divergent – Only very limited self-correction occurred in the pre/post assessments.	There were no entries in the Journal where the researcher had recorded that learners had self-corrected themselves.

Physical Aspects – School 4

Table 162

Pronunciation – School 4

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
	No quantitative data was collected on pronunciation.	No conclusion can be drawn on whether pronunciation developed. Certain words were difficult for learners to pronounce.	The pronunciation in the class was very good. Just "find" was difficult to say (Journal 910). The teacher gave feedback on pronunciation by asking "Who can help with this word?" (Journal 922). "Sand" was a difficult word to pronounce (Journal 953).

Social and Emotional Aspects – School 4

Table 163

Basic Social Contact – School 4

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Pre and post assessment speaking descriptors for Communication	The average point Score Improvement for Communication was 0.8 points in the post assessment which included basic interaction and maintaining a conversation in a basic way. However, this aspect was not the only aspect being assessed by this descriptor.	Quantitative data convergent - Data suggests evidence for basic social contact.	Qualitative data was not collected for this aspect.
Structured classroom observations.	The score for group member participation was 12/12 and 12/12.		

Table 164

Interaction with a Partner or Small Group – School 4

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
Structured classroom observations	Group member participation was very good during both dramatisations. On both occasions learners scored 12/12.		The teacher had predecided the groups. Learners worked very well together and there were no difficulties (Research Journal 903).
Learner self-assessment	The learners thought that they had spoken the most English with their group in the first story (3.4/5). This story was also the story that they liked the most (4/5) and was the simplest of the two stories.	Divergent - Activities that are too challenging negatively affect the ability to work in a group.	In the second dramatisation, the teacher allowed the learners to choose their own groups. This turned out well, and learners worked well together (Research Journal 940).

Table 165

Confidence in Speaking – School 4

Quantitative Data Source	Quantitative Data	Pillar Building Themes	Qualitative Data from the Research Journal
SUS self-assessment	Learners rated their confidence levels on average higher during the first dramatisation unit at 4.6/5. For the second unit they rated their confidence level on average at 4.4/5. Both ratings were high ratings.	Divergent – some data shows evidence for a development in confidence when speaking. Confidence levels were higher for the dramatisation of the simpler book which learners also said that they liked more. Activities that are too challenging may negatively affect confidence.	Some groups were confident enough to really enjoy the performing. They were not shy or afraid to show what they had created. They performed the actions with a lot of expression (Research Journal 949). In every group, every member spoke a little English during the performance (Research Journal 949-953).

In all four schools, quantitative and qualitative data were convergent in the categories grammar, structure and chunks, thinking, planning simple speech, memorizing and basic social contact. Data on vocabulary use diverged depending on the situation. Data on repair of speech also diverged. Only quantitative data was collected on the use of linking words or conjunctions and the results showed an average increase in use. Only qualitative data was collected on paying attention and the results varied between schools. The results on concentration, interaction and confidence also varied between schools. For pronunciation, the data did not show if this aspect had developed. No data was collected on phonology.

This chapter presented the quantitative and qualitative results and then merged the results for each school in joint display tables. The following section discusses these findings in detail so that conclusions can be drawn.

Discussion and Interpretation

In this section the results of the study are discussed in relation to the research question and sub-question that were posed in the introduction section of the work. The results are also discussed in relation to existing theories to determine to what extent they support those theories. The methodological difficulties encountered, and limitations of the study are discussed at the end of the chapter before recommendations for further research in this area are presented.

The study aimed to research the potential of picturebook dramatisation on young learners' oral skills. Empirical studies of learners in the fourth class in Germany revealed several issues with the teaching of speaking to young EFL learners. Firstly, learners are mixed-ability (Barucki et al., 2015) and there is a need for differentiation. Secondly, in a further study in 2019, it was found that some learners produced only single word utterances and struggled to find the vocabulary needed to communicate (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019, p. 83).

Literature on second language education with young learners revealed that learners found it difficult to develop EFL speaking skills in educational settings where there was limited time (Read, 2020). In addition, speaking is a skill which is demanding for learners because several cognitive processes need to happen in parallel (Levelt, 1989). Therefore, young learners need support for speaking (Cameron, 2001). They also need to build up knowledge for communication.

Research on drama and oral skills with young EFL learners indicated that interventions with drama had the potential to develop young learners' oral skills in several ways. For example, through the development of vocabulary (Demircioğlu, 2010; Kalogirou et al., 2019; Sambanis, 2011), chunks of language (Elis, 2023), through improved learner interaction (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020), memory (Bland, 2014b; Elis, 2023) and confidence (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014). However, little empirical data was available on the potential of drama with young learners (Belliveau & Kim, 2013; Elis, 2023). Even less empirical evidence was available on drama and young learners' literature (Chang, 2009; Elis, 2023; Papadopoulos, 2014; Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014). Consequently, a research question presented itself which was:

> Does picturebook dramatisation have the potential to develop young learners' oral skills?

This was the main research question guiding this project. The following section provides an answer to this question. Quantitative data from the pre and post assessments, collected during the four intervention phases was used to answer the question.

The Potential of Picturebook Dramatisation

The quantitative results for Vocabulary Use, Structure and Coherence, Communication, Task Achievement, Total Point Score and the amount of English produced by learners, indicated a rising score. Although the quantitative results from each of the four schools differed slightly, they all indicated an increase in scores across the aspects of oral skills that were assessed in this manner. This indicated a development in learners' oral skills in the Test Groups of each of the four intervention groups. The pattern also indicated that the results had been replicated through the repetition of the study in four intervention schools (Thomas, 2009). This was an indication of the validity of the results.

However, the results for Structure and Coherence, Communication, Task Achievement, Total Point Score also showed a small increase in the Control Groups which had been set up to provide a baseline for the study (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014). The increase in score in the Control Group showed that learners' oral skills were developing there as well. This was the expected result. Learners are expected to change over time (Thomas, 2009) and if they are receiving English teaching, their English should be improving. The type of English teaching that they received was different to the Test Group however, because their lessons did not include picture-books or drama activities. Therefore, the Control Group helped the researcher to isolate and test the intervention, to identify the effects of it more exactly. The Control Groups were not designed to provide a comparison to the Test Group because the Test Groups most likely did more speaking activities than the learners in the Control Groups. Rather, the Control Group increased the validity of the intervention because it allowed observed changes in the Test Group to be tied to the intervention with a higher level of likelihood (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014). The data collected from the Test Groups showed a greater increase in score than the increase in the Control Groups, suggesting that this effect was a result of the picturebook dramatisation intervention.

The average score for Vocabulary Use in the Control Group in School 1 showed a very slight decrease (-0.07). The slight decrease in Control Group 1 may have been caused because an average score was calculated. If one or two learners were having an "off day" on the day of the post assessment and didn't say much, this might have brought the average score down

slightly. This could be an explanation for the slight decrease in score for Vocabulary Use in the Control Group in School 1.

A limitation of the Control Group results was that the researcher could not observe these groups in class due to time restrictions. Therefore, the results obtained from the Control Groups only provided a "snapshot" of those learners on one occasion. It is always better to observe young learners on several occasions to build up a more complete picture of what they are able to do (Papp, 2022). This was not possible in the Control Groups in this intervention.

The Control Group participants in Schools 1 and 2 and the Test Group participants in Schools 1 and 2 were assessed before the start of the intervention to find out if they were of a similar language ability before the start of the intervention or if either group were on average stronger (Wirag, 2019). To measure change, the researcher must know where the starting point for measuring is. The results showed that the Control Groups contained on average more participants in a higher language Ability Classification group before the start of the intervention than the Test Groups. The Control Groups achieved on average a higher pre assessment score than the Test Groups in both Schools 1 and 2. Therefore, the Control Groups and Test Groups were on average not equivalent at the start of the intervention.

However, when the quantitative results in Schools 1 and 2 for Vocabulary Use, Structure and Coherence, Communication, Task Achievement, Total Point Score and CANVP vocabulary are considered, the results showed that although learners in the Test Groups were on average weaker than the learners in the Control Groups before the intervention, after the intervention they had on average caught up and overtaken learners in the Control Groups. Therefore, these results suggest that the intervention had the potential to develop learners' oral skills because learners scores in the Test Group increased on average more than in the Control Groups.

It is unknown why the Control Groups contained more advanced learners than the Test Groups at the start of the intervention. However, there may be several possible explanations for the on average stronger Control Groups. In School 1, the Control Group were reported by the teacher to be calm and able to concentrate very well, an important factor in the advancement of skills (Moran, 2012). They always worked well in the English lessons. These factors may have enabled them to advance more quickly in English. In School 2, only ten parents gave permission for their children to form a Control Group. These learners may have been purposefully selected to form the Control Group. Alternatively, perhaps only parents that believed their child to be able in English gave their permission. In addition, the assessment times for the Control Group

were more favourable than the assessment times for the Test Group. The Control Group spoke to the researcher at the start of the day when they were not tired and the Test Group spoke to the researcher before lunch when they were ready for a break. Differences in the time of day when teaching or assessment occurs can make a difference to outcomes (Winterbottom, 2017) due to learners' concentration levels.

In the Test Groups in Schools 1 and 2, a greater percentage of learners were classified in a higher language Ability Classification group after the intervention period than in the Control Groups. This was also interpreted as a sign that the oral skills of the Test Group participants had developed as a result of the intervention.

The overall results for all Test Groups that were presented at the end of the quantitative results section indicated that before the start of the intervention, most learners in the four test groups (42%) were classified in Group 1, the lowest language Ability Classification group. After the intervention, only 17% of Test Group learners were classified in Group 1. The largest group of Test Group learners were classified in language Ability Classification Group 3 after the intervention. There was also an increase in learners categorised in Group 4 (13%) after the intervention, suggesting that the intervention had developed learners' oral skills.

Two-tailed paired samples T-tests performed on the pre and post assessment results for total Point Score, Vocabulary Use, Structure and Coherence, Communication and Task Achievement for the 60 learners in the Test Groups revealed that the results obtained by the Test Group were highly statistically significant (greater than 99%). The significant difference in pre and post assessment scores in the Test Group suggest that the intervention had a positive effect on these aspects of oral skills.

To triangulate the quantitative results obtained from the assessment carried out with the speaking descriptors on Vocabulary Use, Structure and Coherence, Communication and Task Achievement, the language from learners' transcripts in the pre and post assessments in the Test and Control Groups were also tagged with a POS Tagger to find out if learners had used more English words in the post assessment than in the pre assessment and if the word classes that they had used had changed as a result of the intervention. The analysis provided an objective analysis of the number and type of words produced by the learners which could also be used to look for signs of development in oral skills in Vocabulary Use. If learners used more English or an increase in different English words in the post assessment, this could also be considered a sign of development in oral skills because learners were able and willing to say more in English.

A paired samples two-tailed t-test on the number of English words spoken on average by the sixty learners in the Test Group before and after the intervention was statistically significant at more than 99% in the Test Group. The same test carried out on the number of different English words spoken by learners was also statistically significant in the Test Group at more than 99%. The significant difference in pre and post assessment scores in the Test Group suggests that the intervention had a positive effect on the total number of English words spoken by the Test Group and on the number of different words used by learners in the Test Group. This suggests that the picturebook dramatisation intervention was effective in helping Test Group learners to acquire and use new vocabulary in other contexts and that learners said more in English overall after the intervention. Previous drama studies on young EFL learners indicated developments in learners memorization of vocabulary through drama (Demircioğlu, 2010; Hille et al., 2010; Kalogirou et al., 2019; Sambanis, 2011) and learners' ability to reproduce some of the vocabulary (Kalogirou et al., 2019). In addition, literature on learners' vocabulary acquisition when picturebooks were read aloud, also found evidence for learner vocabulary acquisition (Elley, 1989). Therefore, it was expected by the researcher that combining drama and picturebooks would lead to even greater vocabulary acquisition. This intervention went further than previous drama interventions that investigated vocabulary development through drama because it identified changes in the types of words used by learners. This point is discussed and explained in more depth a little further on in the discussion.

Overall, both sets of quantitative results from the analysis of the speaking descriptors and the POS tagger suggest that picturebook dramatisation has the potential to develop young learners' oral skills. Learners achieved on average higher scores after the intervention than before the intervention and experienced a greater increase in scores on average than Control Group learners. For this reason, the main research question can be answered positively. Picturebook dramatisation has the potential to develop young learners' oral skills.

It is important to note that overall, there were very few learners who were categorised into language Ability Classification Group 4, the most able group of learners, and none in the Control Group. Therefore, Group 4 learners were not well represented in this study and very few results were collected for this group. Due to this, the project results cannot reliably say very much about the effects of picturebook dramatisation on the oral skills of the most advanced learners, as the sample was so small.

In addition, the project also aimed to find out about the development of different aspects of oral skills. Therefore, a further research sub-question was posed.

The Ways in Which Oral Skills Developed

To find out about the development of different aspects of oral skills at A1 level, a sub-research question was posed:

In what ways do learners' oral skills develop?

The sub-question required the researcher to investigate the effects of the intervention on different aspects of oral skills to find out in what ways oral skills were developing. To do this, the researcher defined "oral skills" under four different categories: linguistic, cognitive, physical and social and emotional skills (Mercer et al., 2017). The categorisation was based on Mercer and colleagues' (2017) oracy skills framework (Mercer et al., 2017, p. 54) and the A1 level descriptors of the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2020). Each category contained sub-skills which were investigated quantitatively and qualitatively. The linguistic sub-skills were defined as the use of basic vocabulary, chunks/expressions, linking words, grammar/structure and phonology. Cognitive sub-skills were defined as thinking, planning simple speech, paying attention, concentrating, memorizing basic expressions and limited repair of utterances. Physical skills included pronunciation, and Social and Emotional skills included basic social contact, simple interaction with a partner or group and confidence in speaking.

Although the intervention schools were similar because each school was situated in a small town in Baden-Württemberg, each group contained fourth-class learners and each class had two 45-minute English lessons per week, each class also had a different character. Each class had a different teacher and contained different learners. In addition, the pre assessment data showed that learners had reached different stages in their learning in English in each of the schools. Therefore, each class had its own distinctive character. For this reason, the intervention varied slightly each time. Each class was also at a different point in the school year when the intervention was carried out. Each intervention was fitted to the class. Due to this, the ways in which oral skills developed are first discussed in relation to each school and then interpreted. In addition, the results in the schools are compared and reflected upon. Explanations for differences in results are offered. After the discussion of the results for each school, conclusions on the ways that oral skills developed are drawn in the section entitled "The Effects of the Intervention on Linguistic, Cognitive, Physical, Social and Emotional Skills".

The Development of Oral Skills in the Pilot School

The intervention was carried out first in a pilot school and results on oral skills were collected. The Test Group in the pilot school contained 14 learners who had returned the parental permission slip. In total 13 complete sets of results were obtained from learners. The class contained a total of 19 learners. The teacher taught English to the class but was not the general class teacher. Because of this, the teacher only saw the class twice during the week. The English lessons were timetabled so that the teacher could teach English to the Test Group and the other subjects to another parallel fourth class. Therefore, there was no flexibility in the time when the English lessons could be taught during the week. The intervention took place near the start of the school year in the autumn term from October to December, over a period of 10 lessons.

The character of the class was lively, friendly and inquisitive. The learners were keen to join in and participate but sometimes found it difficult to concentrate in lessons (Research Journal). Consequently, the teacher often had to wait for quiet before she could continue with the lesson. This cost time, including time for the drama activities which were often planned for later in the lesson once learners were calm and had listened to the story. The class had never heard a picturebook in the English lesson and they had never done drama before the intervention. Therefore, a new teaching format had to be introduced to the class.

The pre assessment language Ability Classification results for the Test Group in School 1 showed that the majority of learners 62% (8 pupils) were in language Ability Classification group 1 at the start of the intervention. Classification group 1 learner characteristics are described by the speaking descriptors used in this project as comprising learners who can for example, “produce limited vocabulary, use mainly isolated words, use limited grammatical structures and chunks, produce utterances which are limitedly coherent, make a few contributions or interact in a limited way with many pauses and with a lot of support, partly achieve some tasks” (Speaking Descriptor used in this project. See the Methodology section). There were three learners in group 2 (23%), one learner in group 3 and one learner in group 4. Therefore, it was decided that as it was the start of the school year, the majority of learners were in group 1, the topics to be covered in that term were “Thanks Giving”, “comparisons with too big, too small and just right” and “rooms of the house” that the stories *The Enormous Turnip* from group 1 books and *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* from group 2 books would be used for the intervention. The intervention started with the easier story first, *The Enormous Turnip* and moved onto the more challenging story *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*. The learners did not know the stories before the intervention.

In the Pilot School there was also a Control Group in a parallel fourth class. There were 16 learners in the Control Group who had returned the parental permission slip. The class had a different English teacher to the intervention class. The pre assessment showed that the majority of learners (56%) were in group 2 (9 pupils). Learners in group 2 can use "some appropriate vocabulary and short phrases, a few structures and language chunks, can maintain a brief conversation with prompting, convey short messages, use a few repair strategies and partly achieve tasks" (Speaking Descriptor used in this project. See the Methodology section). Three learners were in group 3 (19%), meaning that the Control Group was on average stronger than the Test Group at the start of the intervention period.

The post assessment results revealed that at the end of the intervention, the Test Group had improved on average more than the Control Group. The results also showed that learners in the Test Group had changed language Ability Classification groups. After the intervention there were fewer learners in the Test Group in group 1 (39%) and group 2 (15%) and more learners in group 3 (39%). The results suggested that the intervention had helped learners to develop their oral skills.

In every area assessed by the speaking descriptors, learners gained on average a higher score. The greatest improvement was in learners' average score for Communication which increased on average by 0.69 points. The POS tagger analysis also showed that the amount of English produced by learners increased on average which supports the results obtained through the analysis with the speaking descriptors. The average score for Communication may have increased the most because learners practised communicating often over the course of the ten sessions. Evidence from the Research Journal showed that learners were very willing to join in with activities and to communicate, enabling them to practise their English. The researcher noted that by the seventh intervention session, learners were attempting to answer questions about the story in full English sentences. Most learners in the class chose to say lines in English during the dramatisations. During the dramatisations, learners were also keen to add their own ideas in English to elaborate upon the text that they had been given.

The least improvement on average in the Test Group was found in the speaking descriptor score for Vocabulary Use which increased on average by 0.3 points. The analysis of the vocabulary used by learners with the POS tagger supported this result as it showed that learners in the Test Group used on average 23 more English words/ pupil in the post assessment than in the pre assessment. This was the least increase in the average number of English words used in

post assessments in any of the four schools. On average learners gained 1.77 additional total points after the intervention. This was also the least average increase in point score of the four schools.

There could be several possible explanations for these smaller increases. The Test Group in School 1 took the longest to be ready to start after breaks had ended, they were the noisiest class, and they were tired towards the end of the morning when English lessons often took place (Research Journal). Many of the lessons during the intervention were after a break or before learners went home. Learners found it hard to concentrate and the teacher had to keep stopping to wait for learners to be ready. According to the Research Journal, this group received the least input from the teacher and had the least time to practise of the four intervention groups because the lessons were shorter. Time may have been a contributing factor to the lower increase in point score in the post assessment in School 1. It may also have contributed to the lower increase in vocabulary. High language input (Krashen, 1982) and language output (Swain, 1985) are both important for acquiring a foreign language. Therefore, if learners receive less input or have fewer output opportunities, then their acquisition may be slower. However, learners in the Test Group still got more points than they had done in the pre assessment, indicating that the intervention had helped.

The average point score improvement for each language Ability Classification group in the Test Group in the post assessment after the intervention showed that on average group 2 had improved the most. On average group 2 obtained 2.33 more points/pupil in the post assessment. However, group 2 only contained 3 pupils. Group 1 contained 8 pupils and improved on average by 1.88 points/pupil. Groups 1 and 2 also improved the most in the speaking descriptor assessment carried out by the researcher. This was perhaps because the intervention had been directed mostly towards their language ability level when the picturebooks were chosen. Groups 3 and 4 included far fewer pupils and the results showed that they did not improve as much as the lower-level groups. This was perhaps because the input in the intervention was not as closely tailored to their ability level, although there were many opportunities for pupils to answer in class and to extend the drama activities if they wanted to. Learners were allowed to add their own ideas.

Analysis showed that learners in the Test Group also used on average a slightly greater number of different words in the post assessment (4 more words/learner), which supported the results for Vocabulary Use. The analysis of the CANVP word use (repeated conjunctions,

adjectives, nouns, verbs and prepositions) showed that learners in both the Test and Control Groups followed the same pattern in word usage. Both groups used more conjunctions, verbs and prepositions and fewer adjectives and nouns in the post assessment. This pattern may have been caused by the pictures that learners were shown in the post assessment. Both groups were shown the same set of pictures. Perhaps particular types of words were needed for talking about the pictures in the post assessment, caused by the content of the pictures. This could help to explain why learners used the same types of words in both groups.

No pattern could be detected in the change of word use through the analysis of different CANVP words in learners' transcripts in School 1 though. This analysis counted each different word used only once. The Control Group used far fewer different adjectives in the post assessment but more different conjunctions, nouns, verbs and prepositions. The Test Group used more different conjunctions, adjectives, verbs and prepositions and fewer different nouns. This may just show how learners naturally choose to use different vocabulary or noticed different items in the pictures because they were interested in them. Although the Test Group used fewer adjectives in total in the post assessment, they used more different adjectives. This could perhaps indicate that they had acquired new adjectives during the intervention that they could also recall and use.

Analysis of all the vocabulary produced by Test Group learners in the post assessment was compared to the vocabulary contained in the two picturebooks that the learners had listened to and dramatised during the intervention. The results were then compared to the vocabulary that learners in the Control Group produced in the post assessment. The analysis revealed 31 instances of words which were not used in the pre assessment by Test Group learners, appeared in the picturebooks and were not used by Control Group learners in the post assessment. Although learners were not tested on a specific list of words before and after the intervention, it is possible that learners in the Test Group acquired these "new" words from the picturebooks during the intervention. Some of these e.g. porridge and forest were used in the stories (*Goldilocks and the Three Bears*). This suggests that during the intervention learners in the Test Group acquired and could subsequently use some vocabulary in a different context. This can be surmised because learners in the Control Group did not know these words or did not think of them when they saw the pictures in the post assessment. Learners in the Test and Control Groups were shown the same pictures, and the pictures were not related to the story. The pictures were related to the topics which all the learners had covered in the class textbook.

Analysis of the use of linking words or conjunctions revealed a large average increase in use by learners in the Test Group. However, the increase in average percentage of different conjunctions used in the post assessment was small. This result suggests that perhaps the story language encountered by the Test Group encouraged the acquisition of a few new linking words which were used repeatedly in the post assessment.

Observation in the classroom revealed many instances of learners recalling and using vocabulary and phrases from previous lessons during recap phases when talking about the story. This was also particularly noticeable with repeated phrases from the stories such as “They pulled and they pulled but they could not pull up the Enormous Turnip” and “Will you help me…”, “Yes, I will help you” which some learners were also able to substitute with “can”, demonstrating language awareness. The repeated phrases in the story also meant that learners were already familiar with all the language on the script in the first story. During question and answer in the post listening phases after learners had listened to the story, some learners showed that they were increasingly able to answer with longer phrases in English as the intervention progressed. However, during these phases the Research Journal showed that not every learner contributed to these post listening discussions. Stronger learners tended to contribute but many learners did not say anything. This may help to explain why some learners showed more development in oral skills than other learners. It is also a reason why it was helpful to have the group work dramatisation phases so that all learners had the opportunity to speak English in a small group. During drama activities, learners have more opportunities and time to speak because they can all talk to their partners or group at once (Elis, 2023). During classroom discussions only one learner can speak at a time which reduces the time that each learner can spend speaking and therefore, the amount of practice that they get.

The post assessment results for use of German in School 1 showed that the average number of German words used by both the Test and Control Groups increased in the post assessment. This result in the Test Group was different to School 2, 3 and 4 where the use of German decreased in the post assessment. However, on inspection of individual learners’ results in School 1, there was one learner who spoke a lot more than other learners and the learner spoke mostly in German. He had many things that he wanted to tell the researcher in German. Therefore, the data showed that this learner produced an outlying result which when averaged together with the other Test Group results, produced a high average. The standard deviation was high.

The Research Journal showed that instances of learners answering in German instead of English happened when the teacher asked a question which required language from learners that had not been introduced during the lesson or during previous lessons. In this case, either learners said nothing at all, they answered in German or in a mixture of English and German. Learners drew on all their linguistic resources to answer. These learner responses are documented in literature on the subject (Böttger, 2020a; L. Meyer, 2022). Because learners did not have enough English available to answer these questions, they could not take the opportunity to practise answering in English. Therefore, it was difficult for them to participate in a conversation because they were lacking the vocabulary that they needed in English (Diehr & Frisch, 2008).

German was also used during group work to organise, negotiate, suggest, agree and disagree when learners were preparing their dramatisations together. This was not surprising. Literature on the subject says that learners who have the same mother tongue often revert to communicating with each other during group work in their first language (Al Hosni, 2014; L. Meyer, 2022). However, although learners were not yet able to organise their group dramatisation in English, they did use language from the story during these phases. This was language which had been thoroughly introduced during the preceding lessons. The first dramatisation on *The Enormous Turnip* had a script which was very closely based on the story, but shorter. Learners were very familiar with the language, having heard the story read several times over the course of the previous lessons and having done other activities based on the story. Therefore, most of the learners were able to read the script because they knew the language and they knew the story. In addition, the lines were divided between the characters so that each learner did not have too much responsibility, but the responsibility was spread between learners when putting on the puppet play. Learners helped each other to underline their lines on the script. Most learners could pronounce the words correctly because they had heard them so many times already.

Classroom observations of the learners did not reveal anything that the researcher could observe on phonological development. However, there were occasions when learners knew that a member of their group had said something which was incorrectly pronounced or grammatically incorrect. Sometimes learners were able to recast incorrect language for other learners or to point out a mistake in pronunciation. However, there were no instances where the researcher observed a learner repairing their own speech in the classroom. This was similar in Schools 2, 3 and 4. This observation is discussed later in this section in more depth.

The structured observations of the group work in School 1 showed that the participation of group members increased during the intervention, that learners were increasingly on task and used language from the story. Learners worked hard on their dramatisations and seemed to be very motivated by the activities. Reviews of literature about drama also describe how drama leads to increased motivation amongst participants (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020; Dragovic, 2019; Elis, 2023; Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014; Stinson, 2009). Therefore, this effect was expected during this intervention.

In addition, some groups were able to add their own phrases in English to their dramatisations to extend them. Before the intervention, the researcher had been unsure whether to expect this because the learners had not been learning English for very long. However, because the groups for the dramatisations were mixed ability groups, the stronger learners were spread between the groups. The additional phrases were often suggested by the stronger learners (Research Journal). Maley and Duff (1982) describe how in drama activities, the teacher can never be sure of the language that will be needed. They say that even if learners are working with a script, new ideas will almost certainly be generated during drama activities, particularly during group work and so the language demands are unpredictable. Drama offers learners the opportunity to access "imagination, spontaneous creation and chance discovery" (Maley & Duff, 1982, p. 13) during group work.

Some learners created their own scaffolding to help them to add further language to the dramatisations. The researcher observed and recorded in the Research Journal that some learners asked the teacher to provide additional phrases in English. This strategy was also described by Maley and Duff (1982) and was an expected possibility in the project. In addition, learners also asked to borrow the picturebook so that they could find extra language from the story to add to their dramatisations (Research Journal).

The second dramatisation in School 1 on the story *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* was more difficult than the puppet play that learners prepared for *The Enormous Turnip*. This was designed this way so that both the picturebook and the drama activities gradually became more challenging, to stretch learners and help them to develop their skills. The task was to change the ending of the story so that Goldilocks made amends for the damage that she had caused in the Three Bear's house. Although language was discussed and practised with learners and an example with volunteers was demonstrated before learners went to their groups to work on the dramatisation, some learners found this activity very difficult. This was because the task

required learners to imagine a different ending to the story, one which was not in the story that they had heard. Learners had to imagine a "what if" situation. The first group work session on this dramatisation did not go well because some learners were uncertain about what to do. The teacher decided that it would be a good idea to have a second go at this dramatisation in the next lesson. The task was explained to learners again, the language for the dramatisation was re-introduced and practised again together with demonstrations from volunteers. Then learners went to their groups again and worked on their dramatisations. The second attempt at this activity was much more successful and learners seemed to have understood the task. Every group managed the dramatisation successfully. It was worth having another attempt at the dramatisation.

Some groups also added their own ideas. One group decided to tell the whole story and to change the ending. Several other groups added their own phrases. For example:

L: "OK go home"

L: "You can make all these things, good"

L: "Stay for some cake" (Researcher Journal)

Learners seemed to have entered another world (Even, 2008) and taken on the persona of their characters (Phillips, 1999), enabling them to speak on behalf of their character.

The feedback from learners in the learner self-assessment completed at the end of each dramatisation unit, showed that on average the learners understood both stories, liked both stories and liked the drama activities in both units. The second book was preferred by learners, and every feedback statement was given on average a higher rating. This may have been because learners had got used to the new lesson format involving drama and picturebooks and had learned what to do and what the teacher's expectations were. Therefore, perhaps they could enjoy the second work unit more than the first. The researcher had included the statement asking for feedback on the books because it was important for learners to understand and enjoy the story. Positive language learning experiences are the best type of motivation for learners (Böttger, 2016). The researcher believed that the learners would learn effectively if they were enjoying the story and activities because

> positive emotions such as joy, hope, pride, [and] enjoyment tend[s] to broaden individual's momentary repertoires of thoughts and actions and build their psychological

> resiliency and personal resources, thereby facilitating academic achievement and language acquisition (Z. Zhang et al., 2024, 1).

Although the second story had been placed in the group 2 difficulty category and was linguistically more difficult than the first story, learners indicated that they understood the second story on average better than the first story. This may have been because learners found the story funny (Research Journal). Learners had noticed details that the researcher had not noticed about the books. For example, one learner said that he really liked the story because Goldilocks got into bed with her shoes on and that was really funny. This idea came from one of the pictures in the book.

Learners thought that they had participated well in the storytelling phases when the teacher was telling the story. They realised however, that they had not spoken much English with their group in the first group work phase. However, they thought that they had improved in the second group work phase. These findings supported the researcher's observations in the classroom. The researcher had noticed that learners had gradually begun to speak more English.

In addition, learner feedback showed that the learners felt that they had increased in confidence in speaking English in front of their peers. This was also supported by the researcher's observations in the classroom. The findings in the Research Journal confirmed that learners became gradually more willing to try answering in English during the storytelling phases. In addition, learners were keen to say a line in English in the dramatisations. This finding on increasing confidence through drama activities was also mentioned in several other drama studies (Gill, 2016; Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014; Sirisrimangkorn, 2019; Stinson & Freebody, 2009). An explanation for this effect may be that learners were able to take on another persona during the dramatisations (Phillips, 1999). In the first dramatisation for example, learners made lolly stick puppets that they used to do the actions. Learners took on the persona of the puppet characters and said the words for them to tell the story. This may have helped learners to feel more relaxed when they were speaking because "the language becomes one step removed" (Phillips, 1999, p. 51).

The Development of Oral Skills in School 2

The Test Group in School 2 contained 19 learners who had returned the parental permission slip which allowed the researcher to collect data from them. In total 16 complete sets of results were obtained from learners. The class contained a total of 26 learners. The teacher who taught English to the class was also the general class teacher. Due to this, the teacher knew

the learners well. The intervention took place after the Christmas holidays until the Easter break, over a period of 15 lessons. The class studied three different picturebooks, one from the group 1 difficulty band, and two from group 2.

The pre assessment language Ability Classification results showed that the majority of learners in the Test Group (69%) were in Ability Classification group 1. There were 25% of learners in group 2, no learners in group 3 and 6% of learners in group 4. The class had also never heard a picturebook in the English lesson and had never done drama. A new teaching and learning format also had to be introduced in School 2. The stories *The Enormous Turnip* and *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* were chosen as these stories were enjoyed by learners in School 1 and it had been possible to introduce drama with these stories. In addition, learners in School 2 did a unit of work on *Monkey Puzzle* by Julia Donaldson, a second group 2 book. The intervention started with *The Enormous Turnip* from the group 1 books and ended with the most challenging story *Money Puzzle*. *Monkey Puzzle* was the most challenging because it contained rhyming language. The sentence word order was sometimes unusual so that the story would rhyme. The learners did not know any of the stories before the intervention.

In School 2 there was also a small Control Group in a parallel fourth class. There were 10 learners who had returned the parental permission slip. The class had a different English teacher to the Test Group. The pre assessment showed that the majority of learners in the Control Group were in group 3 (40%). Learners in group 3 can "use some appropriate vocabulary to form short coherent phrases and sentences. They can use a range of structures and language chunks appropriately. They can interact mostly appropriately and maintain the conversation most of the time. They can mostly achieve tasks". Thirty percent of learners were in group 2 and thirty percent of learners were in group 1, meaning that the Control Group was on average stronger than the Test Group at the start of the intervention period, as was also the case in School 1. The groups were not the same at the start of the intervention.

As was the case in the Test Group in School 1, there were fewer learners in language Ability Classification group 1 (25%), and more learners in groups 2 (38%) and 3 (31%) at the end of the intervention. These results indicated that Test Group learners had gained on average a higher point score from the speaking descriptors at the end of the intervention, indicating that their oral skills had developed. On average learners gained 3.25 additional points after the intervention. The greatest improvement in point score was for Communication and Task Achievement. As was the case in School 1, the Test Group's average point score for Use of Vocabulary,

Structure and Coherence, Communication and Task Achievement increased more than the Control Group's points on average, in every area of skill assessed by the speaking descriptors.

Learners in the Test Group in School 2 improved more than learners in the Test group in School 1. A possible explanation for this could be that learners in School 2 studied three stories and learners in School 1 only studied two. Learners in School 2 had five more lessons than learners in School 1. This may indicate that a longer drama intervention has a greater effect on learners' oral skills than a shorter intervention. However, no clear guidance is provided by drama studies on the effect differences created by the length of interventions. It is currently unknown if a longer drama intervention yields greater effects than a shorter intervention. However, there is another possible explanation for the greater increase in score in the Test Group in School 2. It could be attributable to learners' ability to concentrate. Learners in School 2 found it easier to concentrate than learners in School 1. Higher levels of concentration may have contributed to the additional development seen in the Test Group in School 2 (Moran, 2012).

The average point score improvement for each language Ability Classification group in the Test Group in the post assessment after the intervention, showed that on average group 1 improved the most. Group 1 learners obtained on average 4 more points/pupil in the post assessment. Learners in group 2 improved on average by 1.25 points/pupil. Groups 3 and 4 did not show any improvement. However, groups 3 and 4 included far fewer pupils as was the case in School 1. The difference in increased point scores was perhaps because the input in the intervention was, as it was in School 1, tailored more to the lower language ability level pupils because there were more of them.

The analysis of the vocabulary used by learners with the POS Tagger showed that learners in the Test Group used on average 44 more English words/ pupil in the post assessment than in the pre assessment. The amount of English produced by learners increased, which supports the results on the development found in the Communication and Task Achievement scores (+0.88). Learners in the Test Groups communicated more in English after the intervention. This was also the case in School 1.

Learners in the Test Group in School 2 also used on average a greater number of different words in the post assessment (15 more words/learner) which supports the results obtained by pupils for Vocabulary Use (+0.69 points). The analysis of the CANVP word use (repeated conjunctions, adjectives, nouns, verbs and prepositions) showed that this time the pattern of word use in the Control and Test Groups was not the same. What was particularly noticeable

about the results was that the Test Group used on average more verbs/pupil in the post assessment than the Control Group. The Test Group also used on average more different verbs in the post assessment. This may be because the story *Monkey Puzzle* used for the intervention in School 2 contained a high number of repeated verbs according to the POS tagger analysis.

The analysis of "new words" used by learners in the Test Group in School 2 revealed 44 instances of new words, not used in the pre assessment by Test Group learners, but which appeared in the picturebooks and were not used by Control Group learners in the post assessment. Some of the words which were produced in the post assessment e.g. porridge, suggest that learners in the Test Group may have acquired some vocabulary from the picturebooks which they subsequently used in the post assessment.

Analysis of the use of linking words or conjunctions revealed a small average increase in use by learners in the Test Group. However, the average percentage of different conjunctions decreased. The average increase in the use of conjunctions was greater in the Control Group than it was in the Test Group in School 2. It is difficult to say why this was. The Control Group was a stronger group than the Test Group on average at the start of the intervention. Perhaps they were more easily able to acquire conjunctions because they were more advanced than the Test Group and could more easily build on prior knowledge (Böttger, 2016). The Control Group was not observed during the intervention phase so it was not possible to say whether they had had lessons on conjunctions during the intervention period, which could also explain why they produced more than the Test Group in the post assessment.

Observation in the classroom revealed that learners in the Test Group in School 2 could recall and use vocabulary and phrases from previous lessons during recap phases, just as they did in School 1. Learners also showed a genuine interest in the language during the project. They took the opportunity to ask for extra vocabulary that they wanted to use. For example, one learner asked, "How do you say *interessiert*" (interested) in English?" or "I have *geübt* (practised). How do you say that in English?" (Research Journal 297-298).

When asked what they could see in a picture related to the second story, learners used vocabulary and phrases that they knew from other stories or from other topics in English e.g. "I see flowers. I see pink flowers" (Journal 314). "I see a door; oh, I see windows" (Journal 319). When asked who they thought lived in the house, learners replied "a witch" "maybe a family" (Journal 322-323), "*Die Zwerge*. These little Dwarfs" (Journal 325).

Learners were more likely to answer in a sentence in English if they could recycle language from the story. For example, the teacher asked what Goldilocks does in the story and the learner replied, “She eats the porridge”. In addition, learners were also more likely to answer in a sentence in English if scaffolding was provided and they were encouraged to answer in sentence form. In this example the teacher asked a question and also provided scaffolding so that learners could answer in a sentence.

T: “What is your favourite animal? My favourite animal is…”

L: “My favourite animal is a spider.”

As was observed in School 1, learners in School 2 were also not yet able to organise their group dramatisation in English. This was expected and is documented in literature on primary school English teaching (Al Hosni, 2014; L. Meyer, 2022). However, learners did use language from the story during these phases. In the first dramatisation which was the puppet show to tell the story of *The Enormous Turnip*, most groups had a narrator who wanted to read the part. Learners did not have to do this as the narrator part was relatively long. The teacher was prepared to read the part of the narrator for them. However, learners were very motivated to read it themselves and could also manage to do it successfully.

Most learners could pronounce words correctly. There were just a few words which were difficult to pronounce. For example, “don’t” and “snake” were challenging to pronounce. Learners were often aware if another learner was pronouncing a word incorrectly. Sometimes learners spontaneously commented on this. Sometimes the comments could have been more constructive. Training learners on how to give constructive feedforward to their peers would be beneficial. The teacher went over any words that were tricky to pronounce at the end of a section or lesson. It was difficult for the researcher to say how drama was affecting pronunciation though as the same words were not always needed by learners. Sometimes the words that were difficult to pronounce were not needed again and the researcher did not have the chance to hear them again. As in School 1, the researcher did not observe any instances of learners repairing their own pronunciation in class. A possible explanation for this could be that learners could not monitor their own language production because they had not been learning English very long. Perhaps they were not able to clearly hear the difference between the sounds and therefore, could not produce them correctly (Brown, 1977; Ur, 1984).

However, introducing vocabulary correctly at the beginning of the sessions and whilst reading the stories to re-enforce the correct learning of pronunciation, practising it together after

listening (Böttger, 2016) and before sending learners to use the vocabulary, was found to be very helpful.

The structured observations of the group work showed that the participation of group members improved during the intervention, that learners were increasingly on task and they used the language from the story. This was the same as in School 1. Learners asked to borrow the picturebook so that they could find extra language from the story to add to their dramatisations. In the first dramatisation learners did not really add their own ideas. The behaviour of learners in School 2 was in line with what the researcher had expected to see during the group work phases. The learners relied on the language prompts provided. Learners in School 2 needed time to get used to doing drama.

In the second dramatisation on the story *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*, learners added their own ideas much more than in the first dramatisation. Learners seemed more confident. One group re-told the whole story. One very able learner read the picturebook aloud as the teacher had done during the "Story Whoosh" (Winston, 2022) activity. The members of the learner's group acted out the parts. When it was time for the learner to play her part, another able learner took over reading the story aloud so that she could act. At the end, the group also changed the ending. The dramatization that this group created without help was very advanced. The teacher and the researcher were impressed with what learners had created. It was clear in that moment how drama creates opportunities for learners to think about, plan and create something of their own (Wessels, 1987) and that make believe activities encourage creativity and help to develop imagination (Phillips, 1999).

Some groups found it challenging to act and speak at the same time. There was a lot to think about at once and so sometimes not much expression or interpretation was used by learners. It was helpful to learners to build up to the acting out in steps, to practise each step separately and then to put them together (Bland, 2015a). This was often done altogether before learners went to their groups to prepare and practise. Some learners preferred to separate the acting and speaking so that some members of the group acted and others spoke. As was the case in School 1, some learners could remember their words off by heart after the 20 minutes preparation time and some were not quite able to remember them. These learners used their prompt sheet for backup. The learners were very different to each other in terms of ability. However, the activity was very effective in providing differentiation opportunities. Learners could fit the

task to their own abilities by just using the language provided or by adding extra language from the book.

Sometimes the group work was difficult because some mixed ability groups contained able learners who had imaginative or ambitious ideas which were too difficult for other less able learners to manage. In this case, the teacher had to help with the group organisation or learners helped each other through peer tutoring (Research Journal).

The feedback from learners in the learner self-assessment completed at the end of each dramatisation unit, showed that on average learners understood all three stories very well. They liked all three stories, but they liked *Monkey Puzzle* the most. The learners showed great interest in the animals and enjoyed talking about their features and pretending to be them. They enjoyed joining in with the repeated phrases during the storytelling and reported that they liked the drama activities that had been chosen for *Monkey Puzzle* the most. Learners thought that the amount of English that they spoke in their work group increased steadily during the intervention, as did their confidence in speaking English. They felt the most confident in the final dramatisation on *Monkey Puzzle* at the end of the intervention. The researcher's classroom observations confirmed that the learners had become more confident at speaking by the end of the intervention.

The Development of Oral Skills in School 3

The Test Group in School 3 contained 16 learners who had returned the parental permission slip. In total 16 complete sets of results were collected. The class contained a total of 17 learners. The teacher who taught English also taught two other subjects to the same class. The intervention took place between February and the end of April, over a period of 15 lessons. The class studied three different picturebooks, two books from picturebook classification group 2 and one book from group 3. There was no Control Group in this school. The learners in the Test Group listened well and could concentrate and pay attention for long periods of time if the teacher was explaining something to them or reading a story aloud (Research Journal). The class was already familiar with picturebooks in English lessons and had been read a large number.

The pre assessment language Ability Classification results showed that the majority of learners in School 3 (50%) were in language Ability Classification group 3. There were 38% of learners in group 2, 6% of learners in group 1 and 6% of learners in group 4. The class contained a higher percentage of more advanced language learners than Schools 1 and 2. However, the

researcher visited the school in the second half of the school year. The researcher had expected that the learners would be more advanced in English in School 3 than learners in the first two schools that were visited earlier in the school year.

As the class had heard a lot of picturebooks in the English lesson in the third and fourth classes already, only the drama element had to be introduced in School 3. It was decided that the stories *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*, *Monkey Puzzle* and *Hey Grandude!* would be used in the intervention because the teacher thought that learners would not know them. The intervention started with the easiest story *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*. This was followed by *Monkey Puzzle* and *Hey Grandude!* which was the most challenging story. The learners did not know the stories before the intervention with one exception. One learner had the book *Monkey Puzzle* at home in German.

As was the case in Schools 1 and 2, the results showed that learners in School 3 changed language Ability Classification groups during the intervention. At the end of the intervention, there were no learners in group 1, fewer learners in group 2 (19%) and more learners in group 3 (56%) and group 4 (25%), indicating that oral skills had developed in the Test group because learners had shifted into higher language Ability Classification groups. In every area assessed by the speaking descriptors, learners improved their oral skills on average. This was the same as in Schools 1 and 2. The greatest improvement in School 3 was in Communication and Task Achievement scores.

The average point score improvement for each language Ability Classification group in the Test Group in the post assessment after the intervention, showed that on average groups 1 and 2 had improved the most. This was the same as Schools 1 and 2 where the lower language Ability Classification groups scores increased the most.

On average group 1 had obtained 4 more points/pupil in the post assessment. Learners in group 2 improved on average by about 3 points/pupil. Group 3 improved by an average of 1.5 points/pupil.

Learners also obtained more points in the post assessment. On average learners gained 2.19 additional points after the intervention. They gained on average 0.5 additional points for Vocabulary Use, 0.44 additional points for Structure and Coherence, 0.62 additional points for Communication and 0.62 additional points for Task Achievement.

The analysis of the vocabulary used by learners with the POS Tagger showed that learners in the Test Group used on average 38 more English words/ pupil in the post assessment than in the pre assessment. The number of English words produced by learners increased on average, which supports the results on the improvement in the Communication and Task Achievement score. Learners communicated more in English after the intervention than in the pre assessment.

Learners in the Test Group also used on average a greater number of different words in the post assessment (12 more words/learner) which supports the increased score for Vocabulary use. The analysis of the CANVP word use (repeated conjunctions, adjectives, nouns, verbs and prepositions) showed that learners used slightly fewer nouns and adjectives and slightly more conjunctions, verbs and prepositions in the post assessment than in the pre assessment. There was no dramatic change in the types of words that learners used.

Analysis of the vocabulary produced by learners in the post assessment was compared to the vocabulary contained in the picturebooks that the learners had listened to and dramatised. The analysis revealed 80 instances of words which were not used in the pre assessment by Test Group learners but appeared in the picturebooks. However, because there was no Control Group in School 3, it was not possible to find out if these words were known by another similar group of learners who had followed the same syllabus. Therefore, it is possible that some of the 80 words were already known by learners before the intervention, but they were simply not produced in the pre assessment because learners didn't need to use them. The number of new words was considerably higher than in Schools 1 and 2. This may have been because the picturebooks contained more vocabulary in total than the books used in Schools 1 and 2 or that the learners in School 3 were more advanced.

Analysis of the use of linking words or conjunctions revealed a small increase in use by learners in the post assessment. As was found in School 2, the average percentage of different conjunctions decreased in the post assessment. This is difficult to explain. However, it may have had something to do with the pictures chosen for the post assessment. Perhaps the pictures did not elicit as many conjunctions from learners.

There was a lot of talk about the stories in School 3. The teacher liked stories and went into detail talking about the characters, pictures and vocabulary. Many learners were already able to say a lot in English. Learners enjoyed *Monkey Puzzle* the most and they enjoyed talking about the animals and their features. Pupils were very good at paying attention and

concentrating for longer periods of time (Research Journal). It was clear that they had practised listening to lots of stories before the intervention.

Although pupils were on average stronger than the learners in Schools 1 and 2, some learners were reluctant to speak in School 3 during storytelling phases because they did not think that they knew how to say what they wanted to say in English. The teacher encouraged them to try, and often they managed or partly managed with the teacher's assistance. One pupil also said at the beginning of a new story that they were worried that they would not understand the whole story (Research Journal). The learner felt that the story would be too difficult. It seemed that they thought they needed to understand every word of the story to be able to understand the meaning. The teacher offered reassurance, but the incidence showed how learners' perspectives are often different to adults' perspectives and learners may feel worried if they don't understand everything in a text that they are listening to (Ur, 1984).

In the group work phases, learners in School 3 were very ambitious. They were given prompts to help them which had been introduced and practised together, just as learners in Schools 1 and 2 had. However, very often groups in School 3 wanted to develop their own dramatisations with their own ideas. Then they wanted to write their own scripts. They had not been asked to do this. However, they wanted to because they were very motivated by the activities. Motivation was noted by Maley and Duff in relation to drama activities (Maley & Duff, 1982). However, writing their own scripts was too challenging because learners did not know how to write in English. In this situation, the teacher had to help a lot by providing additional phrases and spellings. On some occasions, if what learners wanted to do was too difficult for them, they were asked to stick to one of the options that they had already been provided with on the prompt sheets. They were asked to consider expanding these ideas further instead of creating a completely new situation. Learners were also allowed to borrow the picturebook to find additional language from the story to use.

On one occasion in the *Hey Grandude!* dramatisation, groups were allowed to go on an adventure in one of the locations from the story. They could either visit the beach, the desert or the mountains. One group decided to go to the jungle instead. On this occasion, the group were allowed to develop their own ideas. They were successful because the previous story that they had read was *Monkey Puzzle* which is set in a jungle. Learners were able to combine vocabulary and phrases that they knew from *Monkey Puzzle* with the phrases that they had been given on

the prompt sheet for *Hey Grandude!* Learners planned what they wanted to say. This is what they said:

L: “What can we do?”

L: “Look at this! I have postcards.”

L: “Look! A jungle. Let’s go to the jungle.”

L: “Zing, bang, sizzle. Look a monkey!”

L: “This is a monkey.”

L: “I’m XXX. Come with me.”

L: “Oh no! There is a tiger!”

L: “See the magic needle spin…”

L: “Zing, bang, sizzle. Everything changed.”

L: “We are home. Goodnight.”

Another group of learners decided that they wanted to go to the Olympic games and participate in a triathlon. This was very challenging for some of the group members because the group was mixed ability. In addition, the group could not use very many prompts from the sheet they had been given because they didn’t fit very well to the situation. Therefore, the group needed some help from the teacher with organisation. They found it more difficult than the group that had used the jungle setting because the vocabulary and phrases that they needed had not been covered in class. However, the learners could use vocabulary related to sport that they already knew to create the dialogue. This is what they said:

L: “I’m bored!”

L: “Let’s go to the triathlon.”

L: “See the magic needle spin…” (McCartney, 2019)

L: “Let’s ride a bike”

L: “Yeah, you *gewin* (win)!”

L: “Let’s swim”

L: “Yeah, you *gewin* (win)!”

L: “Let’s run”

L: “Yeah, you *gewin* (win)!”

L: “Let’s go home.”

Instances such as these demonstrated how learners could concentrate and plan their own simple speech. It also shows how learners used chunks of language like “I’m bored” or “Let’s …” in their own speech.

As was observed in Schools 1 and 2, learners in School 3 were also not yet able to organise their group dramatisation using classroom English. They spoke German together during the group work phases. In the first dramatisation, they did not use language from the story during group work. However, this changed in the second and third dramatisations. Although learners still did not discuss or organise in English, every group used language from the story.

Most learners could pronounce the words that they wanted to say correctly. Learners were also aware of pronunciation because sometimes, they asked how to pronounce a word if they were unsure. There were just a few words which were difficult to pronounce for example, “don’t”, “climb” and “fur”. The pronunciation of these was not always corrected if learners had gone to their groups and were using them incorrectly. This was because often the teacher did not hear everything that was being mispronounced. It was impossible to listen to everything said in every group.

The structured observations of the group work showed that the participation of group members was not quite as good during the dramatisation on the story *Hey Grandude!* as it was in *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* and *Monkey Puzzle*. Some groups found it more difficult to organise themselves for this story. This was perhaps because the story contained the most challenging language, was the longest story and some groups chose to do quite a challenging dramatisation. The structured classroom observation showed that learners were increasingly on task during the group work phases though.

The feedback from learners in the learner self-assessment completed at the end of each dramatisation unit, showed that on average learners understood all three stories very well. They understood the easiest story *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* the best. As was the case in School 2, learners indicated that they enjoyed *Monkey Puzzle* on average the most. Learners also enjoyed the drama activities most in this story, thought that they had spoken the most English with their group and felt the most confident speaking English in the dramatisation of that story. The

feedback indicated that learners' confidence levels dropped a little in *Hey Grandude!* the final story, perhaps because the language in the story was more challenging and the story was longer.

Learners' oral skills did not develop as much as learners in School 2. There could be several reasons for this. Learners reported that they did not enjoy the first book *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* as much as the learners in School 2. The book was perhaps a little easy and not as good for introducing drama as a new format as *The Enormous Turnip* was. The teacher in School 3 was a very competent story reader and enjoyed reading stories to the class. For this reason, the teacher sometimes took longer for the story reading, leaving less time for the drama activities. This meant that learners received high input (Krashen, 1982) but perhaps did not have quite as much time for output (Swain, 1985) as learners in School 2 did. Therefore, perhaps they did not practise their speaking as much in context as learners in School 2, although they had the same number of lessons. O'Toole and Stinson (2015) argue that role and dramatic context also contribute to learning. Learners did not have as many opportunities to use the "whole language in context" (Bland, 2015a, p. 222).

The Development of Oral Skills in School 4

The Test Group in School 4 contained 15 learners who had returned the parental permission slip. In total 15 complete sets of results were obtained from learners. The class contained a total of 26 learners. The teacher who taught English to the class was also the class teacher. The intervention took place between the end of April and June, over a period of 10 lessons. The class studied two different picturebooks, one book from picturebook group 2 and one book from group 3. There was no Control Group in this school. At the start of the intervention the learners in the Test Group were already good at listening and worked very well together during group work. Therefore, the group work was very good right from the beginning of the project and learners did not really show an improvement in group work.

The pre assessment language Ability Classification results showed that the majority of learners in the Test Group (40%) were in language Ability Classification group 2 at the beginning of the intervention. There were 33% of learners in group 1, 20% of learners in group 3 and 7% of learners in group 4. This class had not heard any picturebooks in the English lesson before and they had never done drama before. Drama had to be introduced as a new learning format. It was decided that the stories *Monkey Puzzle* by Julia Donaldson and *Hey Grandude!* by Paul McCartney would be used in the intervention because the subjects of the stories were relevant in the curriculum at this point in the school year. *Monkey Puzzle* replaced the topic on

wild animals from the curriculum and *Hey Grandude!* replaced the topic on holidays. The intervention began with *Monkey Puzzle* and continued with *Hey Grandude!* which was a more challenging story. The learners did not know the stories before the intervention.

At the end of the intervention, only 7% of learners were in group 1, 60% of learners were in group 2, 20% of learners were in group 3 and 13% of learners were in group 4, indicating that the Test Group learners had moved into higher language Ability Classification groups during the intervention. This indicated that learners' oral skills had developed. Learners also obtained more points in the post assessment. The greatest improvement was in Communication and Task Achievement. These results mirrored the results in Schools 1, 2 and 3.

The average point score improvement for each language Ability Classification group in the Test Group in the post assessment after the intervention, showed that on average oral skills in group 1 developed the most. This was also the case in School 2. This may have been because the group 1 learners had the most potential for improvement.

The analysis of the vocabulary used by learners with the POS Tagger showed that learners in the Test Group used on average 28 more English words/ pupil in the post assessment than in the pre assessment. The average number of English words spoken by learners increased, which supports the results on the improvement in the Communication and Task Achievement score. Both scores assessed how well learners maintained the conversation and how far they communicated in short phrases or sentences. Learners communicated more in English after the intervention than before. This was also the case in Schools 1, 2 and 3.

Learners in the Test Group also used on average a greater number of different words in the post assessment (11 more words/learner) which supports the score increase for Vocabulary Use. The analysis of the CANVP word use (repeated conjunctions, adjectives, nouns, verbs and prepositions) showed that learners used slightly fewer nouns and adjectives and slightly more conjunctions, verbs and prepositions in the post assessment than in the pre assessment. This was the same result as was obtained in School 3. This was perhaps because two of the picturebooks used were the same in both schools. Learners also used more different verbs and prepositions on average in the post assessment.

Analysis of the vocabulary produced by learners in the post assessment was compared to the vocabulary contained in the picturebooks that the learners had listened to and dramatised. The analysis revealed 26 instances of words which were not used in the pre assessment by Test Group learners but appeared in the picturebooks. Analysis of the use of linking words or

conjunctions revealed a small increase in use by learners in the post assessment. As found in Schools 2 and 3, the average percentage of different conjunctions used in the post assessment decreased. It is difficult to say why that was. It may have had something to do with the pictures chosen for the post assessment.

The teacher reported that the learners in School 4 were extremely motivated by the stories and drama activities. On one occasion, chunks of language were introduced to learners and then they were asked to make up an action to match the language. The groups of learners then showed their actions to the class, and everyone said the phrase together e.g. “What is it? It’s a cactus”. For the action, learners had put green jumpers on back to front and zipped them up. They made spiky shaped arms and hands to represent the spikes of the cactus. Other learners touched the spiky arms and hands with the tips of their fingers and said “ow!”. For “What is it?”, “It’s a tortoise”, the learners put on their backpacks, made themselves very small and moved very slowly around the floor. Learners enjoyed watching the groups show what they had created and joining in to say the phrases altogether.

Many phrases were introduced to learners related to the stories which they then practised and completed with information about themselves. For example, “Which place do you like?” “I like the beach because I like ice cream”. The teacher stuck closely to the lesson plans in School 4 and the lesson pacing was very good so that usually the whole lesson plan was covered during the English lesson.

Most learners could pronounce the words that they wanted to say correctly. The pronunciation in the group was very good. There were just a few words which were difficult to pronounce for example, “find” which instead of having an /aɪ/ vowel sound contained an /ɪ/ sound. Also, the word “sand” was difficult for learners to say. It sounded like it began with a /z/ sound like “zand” instead of a /s/ sound. If the teacher noticed that a word had been mispronounced, she asked “Who can help with this word?” The learners were allowed to raise their hands and say the word. The teacher confirmed correct pronunciation. Often another learner in the class knew the correct pronunciation and volunteered it when asked. The correct pronunciation could be elicited from the learners sometimes. Activities such as this may help to develop phonological awareness as it is important for learners to be able to hear sounds correctly (Papp, 2020).

However, the researcher did not notice any learners repairing their own speech during the classroom observations. Neither self-correction of pronunciation or grammar were observed in the classroom. This was also the case in Schools 1, 2 and 3. Levelt (1989) says that self-

monitoring happens at several different levels (Levelt, 1989). It is unlikely that an adult L1 speaker can monitor all the different levels in the short amount of time available to formulate the message and to articulate it before forming the next message. It is therefore, even more unlikely that a child speaking a foreign language, who does not have a complete awareness of pragmatics and much less experience of the language than an adult, would be able to monitor their own speech at this language learning level (Field, 2018, p. 184).

The structured observations of the group work showed that the participation of group members was very good during both dramatisations. Learners had already practised group work before the intervention and could do it very well. There were no problems at all in any of the groups. Learners started straight away and were on task in the group work phases. In addition, every group member participated. As in the other schools, learners spoke German together in their groups when they were organising their dramatisations. There were no instances of classroom English use during the group work. However, learners used language from the story in their groups just as they did in the other intervention groups.

Learners asked to borrow the picturebook when they were creating their dramatisations. Learners in School 4 also asked if they were allowed to add their own ideas and phrases to the dramatisations. This demonstrated thinking by learners and provided scaffolding to help them to plan simple speech. Allowing learners space to include their own ideas and interpretations led to more interesting dramatisations in which every group had created something different and also said something different. The learners were allowed to choose their own props from the things in the classroom which encouraged creative thinking. Learners went round the classroom collecting objects to use as props e.g. school bags for tortoises' shells, cushions for beach towels on the beach, the classroom broom for shooing the crabs away etc.

In School 4 some learners could remember their lines off by heart and others needed to use their prompt sheet. Most of the learners could remember language like the magic words from the story *Hey Grandude!* and repeated phrases from *Monkey Puzzle*. The ability to memorize language seemed to depend on the learner. Some learners seemed to find it easier than others. Repeated language from the stories seemed to be easier to remember than varied language in the prompts. This was perhaps because learners had heard the repeated language and said it many times. Repetitive, "meaningful language patterns" (Bland, 2023, p. 62) are essential for language acquisition. Repetition of language was also found to be significant in language acquisition during storytelling by Elley (1989).

The feedback from learners in the learner self-assessment completed at the end of each dramatisation unit, showed that on average learners understood the stories very well. As was the case in Schools 2 and 3, learners indicated that they enjoyed *Monkey Puzzle* on average the most. This was the story that learners also thought that they had joined in with best, and that got the most positive feedback from learners, perhaps because learners enjoyed that story the most.

Although the second story *Hey Grandude!* was a book from picturebook group 3 and linguistically more challenging for learners than *Monkey Puzzle*, learners said that they understood the story on average better than *Monkey Puzzle*. However, learners' confidence levels in speaking were not quite as high in the *Hey Grandude!* dramatisation as they were during the *Monkey Puzzle* dramatisation. Perhaps the linguistic difficulty of the picturebook text or the length of the story made the dramatisation more challenging for learners. The length meant that learners had a longer story plot to remember, which increased the cognitive challenge of the story. The researcher tried to help by dividing the story into three and handling it over three sessions. As learners were not interviewed, the reason for their feedback was unclear. Observations in the classroom revealed that learners were very interested in the subject of animals and so perhaps the subject of the story influenced learners' opinions and their perception of confidence in speaking.

Observations from the classroom suggested that learners were confident when performing what they had created in their groups for both stories. The fact that learners were having fun performing and had some props to shield them from the audience when they spoke was helpful (Phillips, 1999). The props helped learners to take on the persona of the character that they were playing and to enter the imaginary world of the story. Learners were very proud to show what they had created and seemed to be swept away in the performance sometimes.

It seemed that many of the learners were not afraid to speak English in front of the class. However, there were some learners who chose to say less and spoke quietly. The teacher was careful that there was always a positive and encouraging atmosphere in the classroom. Peer feedback from learners was always given in a positive and encouraging way. This was encouraged by the teacher who was a role model. Any aspects which could be improved were directed to the whole class and not to individual learners. Nothing negative was said about the learners' language or acting abilities. This helped to encourage a positive attitude in the class. Literature

on feedback in drama showed that negative feedback can discourage pupils (Wirag & Surkamp, 2020).

In this section the results for each intervention school were discussed and similarities and differences in the results were considered. Expectations were discussed and parallels were drawn to the existing literature. In the following section the effects of the intervention on linguistic, cognitive, physical, social and emotional skills are considered.

The Effects of the Intervention on Linguistic, Cognitive, Physical, Social and Emotional Skills

In this section the results from the four interventions are summarised in relation to aspects of linguistic, cognitive, physical, social and emotional skills. The sub research question is answered and conclusions on the five hypotheses are reached. The results for each Test Group were similar for each skill which was investigated.

The results for linguistic aspects are discussed first. The analysis of vocabulary use showed positive development in some respects. However, the results diverged because in some situations learners continued to speak only in German.

The analysis of the speaking descriptor results on Vocabulary Use and the analysis with the POS tagger showed that learners used a broader vocabulary after the intervention. The results from the classroom observations supported these results.

The results obtained in this intervention went further than the existing results produced by drama studies on vocabulary acquisition through drama because this intervention investigated the types of words that learners used after the intervention. The results produced by the POS tagger analysis showed that learners used fewer nouns in their speech in the post assessment. Although there was no clear pattern in use overall in the Test Groups of the four schools for the other words, the results suggested a rising trend in the use of conjunctions, adjectives, verbs and prepositions. The difference in results for each word type may have been because learners chose to use different vocabulary to describe the pictures (Cameron, 2001). However, the rise in use of each word type was on average greater in the Test Groups than it was in the Control Groups, indicating that the higher level of vocabulary acquisition may be attributable to the intervention.

In addition, the POS tagger analysis showed that learners could recall and use conjunctions, adjectives, nouns, verbs, prepositions, and some other types of words in the post assessments (e.g. adverbs). The words were in the picturebooks, were not used in the pre assessments

by learners and were not used by the Control Group learners in the post assessment, suggesting that these words may have been acquired by Test Group learners during the intervention.

Vocabulary acquisition is important at the beginner level so that learners can fill gaps in chunks (Koska, 2020) and can begin to communicate. They may lack vocabulary or phrases needed to express themselves in English (Al Hosni, 2014; Diehr & Frisch, 2008). A lack of vocabulary means that learners can only "point" and "grunt" (Nunan, 2015, p. 105) to make themselves understood. Therefore, these results are encouraging because they suggest that picturebook dramatisation has the potential to help learners to broaden the vocabulary that they can use to communicate. The fact that the vocabulary was introduced and used in context may have helped learners to acquire it (Böttger, 2016).

However, it should be noted that learners use of English for organisational purposes during the group work phases of the dramatisation activities did not appear to develop in any of the schools during the intervention. In addition, learners reverted to using German to answer questions in the post listening phases during the storytelling when they lacked the vocabulary that they needed in English to say what they wanted to say.

The use of conjunctions or linking words in learners' speech increased on average slightly. On average learners in the Test Groups used a greater percentage of conjunctions in the post assessment than in the pre assessment and there was a greater increase in use than in the Control Groups. This may have been because the learners in the Test Groups were listening to input from stories that contained conjunctions. This may have enabled them to acquire them because they were presented in the context of a story (A. Hughes, 2006). Although the evidence did not show that learners in the Test Groups used a greater percentage of different conjunctions in the post assessment. Overall, the evidence on vocabulary use suggested that it broadened during the intervention. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 "Learners' use of vocabulary in speech broadens" was accepted.

In addition, the results from Schools 2, 3 and 4 suggested that the amount of German that learners used decreased because of the intervention. Only the results in the Pilot School (School 1) contradicted that finding. However, in School 1 there was a relatively small group of learners in the Test Group (N=13). One learner spoke a lot in German in the post assessment. This may have affected the results in the Pilot School, causing the difference in results between schools for use of German.

This is also an observation which other authors have noticed and documented. Specific strategies must be implemented to encourage the use of classroom English during group work e.g. the use of an object such as a bean bag as a reminder (L. Meyer, 2022, p. 186). During this project, learners were only given verbal reminders to speak English together in their groups. This aspect was not stressed too heavily because putting together a dramatisation in a group was a challenging activity for learners at this level.

Learners in the Test Groups on average improved their score for structure which included the assessment of the use of chunks of language. Inspection of the transcripts however, showed that the chunks that learners used were often the same ones used repeatedly. For example, learners used “this is”, “here is”, “here are”, “it is a” repeatedly. However, learners used chunks of language from the picturebooks and repeated phrases and vocabulary during post listening phases and dramatisations. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 “Learners’ use of chunks of language in speech increases”, was accepted.

In the development of grammar or structure of speech, it was concluded that learners’ grammar showed development because of the intervention. Test Group learners’ scores for Structure and Coherence increased on average in every test school. The descriptor score was awarded based on the range of structures that learners used and how coherent learners’ speech was. In addition, observations in the classroom showed that increasingly more learners were able to answer the teacher’s questions with English phrases or sentences (Research Journal). Literature found on the effects of drama on grammar either concluded that drama helped the development of grammar (Even, 2011) or produced divergent results (Dragovic, 2019). The results obtained in this intervention support the idea that drama helped the development of grammar.

There were two aspects from the oral skills categories defined for this project which could not be effectively assessed in the project. The first was phonology and the second was pronunciation. In the CEFR phonology and pronunciation are closely related and described together under the heading “phonological control” (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 135). It is difficult to separate phonology and pronunciation from each other in the CEFR at A1 level. The statement which relates most specifically to phonology in this section is that pupils

> Can reproduce correctly a limited range of sounds as well as stress for simple, familiar words and phrases (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 135).

> However, "phonology" is also "the study of certain sorts of mental organization" (Carr, 2020, p. 29).
>
> In particular it is the study of certain types of mental category, mentally stored representations, and generalizations concerning those categories and representations. (…) phonology is not just the study of human speech sounds per se (Carr, 2020, p. 29).

Because phonology is internally stored and not visible to the researcher just through observation, and the researcher thought that young learners would not be aware of it or able to discuss it, the development of phonology could not be assessed in this project. No conclusions could be drawn on the effects of picturebook dramatisation on the development of phonology. This aspect could be further investigated in the future.

No clear conclusions could be drawn on the development of pronunciation during the project. As people have different ideas about what good pronunciation is (Harmer, 2015) and the researcher did not have a co-rater (Galante & Thomson, 2017), it was decided that pronunciation would be assessed through observation in the classroom. In every school, learners demonstrated that they could do more than just "[pronounce] a very limited repertoire of learnt words" (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 135) required by the CEFR at A1 level.

It was unclear how learners' pronunciation developed during the intervention. Each class kept their usual teacher who did not receive additional pronunciation training before or during the intervention. Consequently, the source of pronunciation for the learners remained the same. Learners at this age acquire pronunciation from listening mainly to their teacher speaking (Pinter, 2012). It was unclear how the drama intervention could have helped learners to improve their pronunciation when the teacher was the same. However, drama studies with adolescent learners found that drama did help the participants to improve their pronunciation (Hille et al., 2010) when specific practice of pronunciation was carried out. In this intervention, learners were exposed to pronunciation of new vocabulary through listening to the stories read by the class teacher and by doing the drama activities. Words that were difficult for learners to pronounce were noticed by the researcher. However, no occasions were observed when learners corrected their own pronunciation mistakes (discussed above).

It was helpful to know which words learners would find difficult to pronounce at the beginning of the lesson, to introduce these and practise them with learners altogether before learners started to use the words during group work. It was more difficult to correct pronunciation mistakes once learners had gone to their groups because it was impossible to observe every

group simultaneously. Some teachers were also reluctant to make negative comments about learners' pronunciation or to provide any correction in front of the class in case pupils were discouraged.

Often learners were aware if another learner pronounced something incorrectly. Sometimes they made a comment about it which was not always positively received by the person who had mispronounced a word. The best approach to correcting pronunciation mistakes seemed to be to make a note of them and re-introduce and re-practise the mispronounced words together before the end of the lesson. In this way everybody had the opportunity to hear the correct pronunciation again and to re-practise it correctly. In addition, this strategy did not single out any learner. Although pronunciation was not directly assessed during this intervention, it is likely that this intervention also had a positive effect on pronunciation. However, further research could be carried out on the effects of drama on pronunciation.

It can be concluded that learners employed their cognitive abilities such as thinking during the intervention. The researcher looked for examples of the development of cognitive aspects during classroom observation of the intervention lessons. As with the assessment of the development of phonology; thinking, planning simple speech, paying attention, concentrating and memorizing basic speech are all internal processes, they are hidden from the researcher. However, evidence of thinking could be seen in the actions of pupils and in the work that they produced. In addition, learners scores increased in every school in the post assessment. The quantitative data collected provided evidence for the occurrence of internal cognitive processes. For example, in every Test Group there was an improvement in the average total number of points in the post assessment, in the language Ability Classifications, the average Communication and Task Achievement scores. In addition, learners were observed during group work. They planned simple speech, used phrases or chunks of language from the story or asked the teacher to provide phrases. These activities involved thinking and planning.

Story reading phases helped learners to pay attention, think and concentrate. The researcher observed that overall, learners' ability to pay attention and concentrate during the storytelling phases improved over the course of the intervention. As paying attention and concentrating during particular activities can be practised, it was expected that when learners did this, they would improve their skills (Haith & Krakauer, 2018). The effect was clearest in School 1 where learners found it particularly difficult to pay attention and concentrate at the start of the intervention. The Research Journal showed that their attention improved in whole class

storytelling phases during the intervention. Concentration was found to be affected by learner interest in an activity and the weather or the time of day that the lesson took place. Consequently, concentration varied from lesson to lesson and between schools. In Schools 3 and 4 learners were already very good at concentrating and paying attention. As a result, in these schools it was not as easy to see an improvement in these aspects.

In every school there were examples of learners who memorized language from the stories, prompts and scripts very quickly and could say what they had remembered without looking at any prompts. This may have been a result of the natural repetition, multisensory experience (Baldwin, 2024) and meaningful movement (Macedonia & Klimesch, 2014) involved in doing drama and preparing a short performance. The stories and the language prepared for the dramatisation activities had been carefully chosen in the hope that it would be approximately the right level for learners to enable them to understand the story, use the language themselves and remember it. Some of the language in the picturebooks was A1 level according to the word analysis of the picturebook text and some of the language was more advanced. The language had been chosen to be relevant and interesting for young learners but also to be at the level of i+1 (citation). The language was meaningful and communicative (Maley & Duff, 1982). The stories contained repetition, and learners heard the stories more than once over several lessons. Therefore, spaced repetition was used to help learners to remember the story.

Although not every learner was able to memorize what they wanted to say in the dramatisation in a short time (only 20 minutes), many were able to. Learners could remember and join in with repeated language from the stories. The analysis of the vocabulary used showed that some learners used vocabulary from the stories in the post assessment. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 “Learners memorize short phrases from the picturebooks and drama activities” was accepted.

No examples of learners correcting their own language errors (e.g. errors in grammar) in the classroom were observed during the intervention. This may have been because learners were not yet able to monitor their own language yet (Field, 2018). They are also not yet aware of language rules. The rules are not explicitly taught in primary school English lessons (Cameron, 2001). Learners have a limited ability to monitor their own speech at this stage which makes repairing their own speech unlikely. In addition, there are many processes happening simultaneously when learners speak which makes it unlikely that a young beginner learner

would have free capacity to be able to monitor their own speech (Field, 2018). Consequently, it was not expected that learners would repair their own speech very much.

Learners demonstrated that they could establish basic social contact. For example, every Test Group showed an improvement in the average score for Communication, indicating that learners were increasingly able to form basic social contacts. However, the improvement in Communication score also indicated that learners were able to make more contributions during simple interaction. In the post assessment, learners had basic social contact with the researcher when they talked about the pictures.

Some groups found group work easier than others. This was influenced by how much learners had already practised group work before the intervention (Research Journal). For example, learners in School 4 were already very good at working in groups because they had practised before the intervention. School 1, 2 and 3 showed an improvement in group work over the course of the intervention which suggests a practice effect (Haith & Krakauer, 2018). Consideration and planning of the groups by the teacher who knew the learners well, seemed to help the group work to be more successful. There were a small number of learners in Schools 1, 2 and 3 who found social interaction and working with peers challenging. However, the teachers mentioned that these learners often found participating in class difficult and they found group work particularly difficult. The difficulty did not seem to relate specifically to drama but was also an issue in lessons where no drama happened. Negotiating and agreeing on decisions with a group of peers was a particularly challenging aspect of group work. During the intervention however, the researcher observed a clear improvement in these learners' participation during group work phases, suggesting a practice effect (Haith & Krakauer, 2018).

The results for interaction were mixed. In Schools 1 and 2 all results showed that interaction between learners increased. However, in School 3 the interaction was better between learners during the dramatisations of the simpler stories. In School 4 the learners were already very efficient at interaction. Therefore, the researcher's scale for measuring interaction was not sensitive enough to determine further development. Consequently, Hypothesis 4 "Interaction between learners during group work increases" was only partly accepted because it was only true under certain conditions. The results suggested that the difficulty of the task and learners' previous experience with group work affected the level of interaction. Learners that were already very good at group work did not show further improvement. However, learners that were not experienced at interacting during group work who did activities that were in the Zone of

Proximal development (Vygotskiĭ, 1962, 1978), did improve their levels of interaction. Therefore, drama does have the potential to increase interaction between learners under certain conditions.

In every Test Group there was evidence that learners increased in confidence when they were speaking English with their peers. In Schools 1 and 2 all the data converged to indicate that the picturebook dramatisation intervention helped learners to improve their confidence levels in speaking English. However, in Schools 3 and 4 the data on confidence diverged. Classroom observations showed that learners felt confident speaking English. However, the learner self-assessments showed that learners on average felt less confident during the dramatisation of the more difficult story. Therefore, the difficulty of the task may affect confidence levels when speaking English. Hypothesis 5 "Learners become more confident in speaking" was only partly accepted because the data indicated that confidence was dependent on the activities. Therefore, although confidence did appear to increase in all the schools over the interventions, Schools 3 and 4 showed a slight drop in confidence levels in the group 3 picturebook work unit according to the self-assessment provided by learners. This may have been because *Hey Grandude!* was a more linguistically and cognitively challenging story. This may have affected learners' confidence in speaking about the story.

These results were similar to the results obtained by Bland (2014) in her Interactive Theatre Project. She found that most of the participants expressed feelings of confidence, but learners from the lower secondary school did not feel confident to read their lines (Bland, 2014b). This may also have been because the task was slightly too challenging for them at that point and that affected their confidence.

As discussed during the introduction, there is much theoretical literature on drama and picturebooks and their positive effects on language learners but relatively few empirical studies (Belliveau & Kim, 2013). The goal of this study was to find empirical evidence to support or challenge those theories. As discussed in this section, there was evidence found in the study to support the theories that an intervention involving drama and picturebooks can contribute to the development of young learners' linguistic, cognitive, social and emotional skills.

Linguistic skills developed because learners' use of vocabulary in speech broadened, and learners used more English after the intervention. They also used more chunks of language in their speech. Assessment of cognitive skills showed evidence in the development of thinking skills, planning simple speech, the ability to pay attention, concentrate, and memorize repeated

phrases and vocabulary. However, very little evidence of self-repair of utterances was found. No improvement could be confirmed in pronunciation skills. All the learners who participated in the intervention established basic social contact. There was evidence for an increase in interaction within group work situations and confidence in speaking if the picturebooks and drama activities were not too linguistically or cognitively challenging.

Many positive results were found in the quantitative and qualitative data that were collected on oral skills during the intervention. The following section considers the limitations of the intervention and discusses how the researcher handled the threats to validity.

Limitations of this Research

Every research project has some limitations. One of the challenges of the research design chosen for this intervention was that the researcher was responsible for controlling the threats to validity (Creswell, 2022; Dörnyei, 2007). This section discusses the limitations of the methodology employed in this study, the challenges that were encountered and the steps that were taken by the researcher to try to ensure the validity of the results.

The research design sought to answer the research question and sub-question through a mixed method approach (Creswell, 2022). There are many benefits to using a mixed method research design. Not only does mixed method research allow the researcher to collect different kinds of evidence to develop a fuller picture of what happened (Thomas, 2009), it also allows the researcher to view the research question "from different angles" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 164). The collection of qualitative data can help to explain the quantitative results (Creswell, 2022). When carrying out research with young learners, a mixed method approach can allow some flexibility if restrictions due to time, access to people or information are encountered (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017). In the present study, the collection of data that had been planned was granted permission by the education authorities and had the agreement of the schools involved. Consequently, no alterations to the planned collection of data were necessary. Only alterations to the choice of picturebook were made so that the selected picturebooks matched the curriculum.

A difficulty of using mixed method research is that it can be very time-consuming, particularly for a researcher working on their own (Creswell, 2022). This was the case in this study as both qualitative and quantitative data were collected in four different primary schools. The time required for the researcher to collect and analyse the quantitative data and to observe and write-up the lesson observations from four intervention groups was very high. However, repeating the intervention with different groups of learners showed that similar results were produced

by the intervention each time (Denscombe, 2021). It also revealed that levels of interaction and confidence levels in speaking seemed to be affected by the difficulty of the task presented to learners.

As the experimental part of the study was a quasi-experiment, control groups were formed to improve the validity of the results. Test and control groups participated in a pre assessment. The principle behind this measure is that if learners are the same before the intervention but differ after the intervention, then the difference is caused by the intervention (Wirag, 2019). Pre assessment results showed that the Test and Control Groups were not similar in terms of language ability before the start of the intervention. To limit the effect of the groups being different, the researcher compared the difference between the before and after assessment results for each group, to see how much each group had changed during the intervention time (Wirag, 2019), rather than just comparing the groups at the end to see which was better.

It was not possible to randomise learners in the Test and Control Groups (Dörnyei, 2007). However, the researcher attempted to control the risks to validity caused by the non-randomisation of participants in the Test and Control Groups, through replication of the intervention to find out if similar results would be obtained each time (Thomas, 2009). The results obtained in each group were similar because each Test Group showed a similar development in their oral skills. Each Control Group also produced similar results. Similar results obtained through replication or a "test re-test approach" (Denscombe, 2021, p. 325) improved the reliability of the quasi-experimental design.

A speaking assessment situation with young learners is not completely reliable (Papp, 2022). When assessing young learners orally in a formal setting, learners need to be reassured and encouraged so that they have the feeling of success (McKay, 2005). The assessment should be a wholly positive experience even if learners are at a very early stage in their learning. Learners in the test schools all reported to their teachers and the other learners that they found participating in the activities in the pre and post speaking assessment with the researcher fun. They asked to have another go. This was fortunate because it meant that when learners returned to the classroom after the speaking assessment, they gave very positive feedback, which encouraged the next pair of learners to participate. It is unclear how this affected the results. However, the effect was the same in the Test and Control Groups. So, the researcher felt that conditions for a fair test had been created because the conditions were the same in each group.

Oral assessments of young learners are not as accurate as assessments carried out with adolescents or adults. It is helpful to have flexibility with young learners (Hasselgreen & Caudwell, 2016). Learners were not stopped immediately if the time was up, but they wanted to say something more. The time allowance for each learner was the same within a time range. Despite this, the researcher ensured that the same instructions with the same wording were given to every learner, and every learner had the same number and type of questions. In addition, several research tools were used to find out about learners' oral skills, allowing the researcher to build up an overall picture of learners' progress.

In addition, there was only one rater of the oral assessments, the researcher. Therefore, there was no possibility of comparison of ratings between raters (Galante & Thomson, 2017). The researcher attempted to combat this risk to reliability by rating the transcripts and recordings using only the pseudonym numbers of the participants. This meant that the researcher did not know the name of the learner that was being rated. The learners had been given pseudonyms by the researcher to ensure their anonymity (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017). All the pre assessments in a group were rated after they had been collected. This ensured that the researcher knew the abilities of the learners before the start of the intervention. However, the post assessments were completed separately after the intervention when the researcher had forgotten the results of the pre assessments. In this manner, the researcher tried to remain as unbiased as possible. Each transcript was rated with the learners' identity kept anonymous.

In addition, the researcher triangulated the results for vocabulary with a second layer of analysis of the transcripts using a POS tagger tool. This was to try to "corroborate (the) findings" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 165) obtained through analysis using speaking descriptors. The results of this analysis supported the results obtained using the speaking descriptors. Both sets of data showed that learners' vocabulary usage had developed during the intervention. In addition, classroom observations were made, and learners were asked to fill in a self-assessment form at the end of each unit. These results were also used to improve the validity of the research (Evans, 2017b) because they investigated oral skills from different perspectives.

Another threat to the validity of the oral assessments was that there was a possible "practice effect" (Nunan & Bailey, 2009, p. 85) in the speaking assessment. The assessment was unknown to learners before the intervention. After the intervention a second similar oral assessment was given. The post assessment was similar because the types of questions were the same as in the pre assessment. It was necessary to have the same test format in the post assessment

as in the pre assessment so that the results could be compared to each other to look for areas of potential development in oral skills. The researcher attempted to limit the threat to validity of a practice effect by changing the pictures in the post assessment tasks. The researcher also changed the order of the warm-up questions in the post assessment. In addition, the researcher set up two Control Groups in Schools 1 and 2. Conditions in the pre and post assessments were the same for both the Test and Control Groups. Therefore, both groups were subject to the same conditions and potentially both experienced the same "practice effect" (Nunan & Bailey, 2009, p. 85). Therefore, the effect on the results was potentially the same in both groups, meaning that conditions for a fair test had been achieved in this respect (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014).

Similarly, one could argue that the learners knew the researcher much better in the post assessment than in the pre assessment. This could have had a similar effect to the "practice effect" (Nunan & Bailey, 2009, p. 85) discussed above. The only way to avoid this potential problem was to employ trained assessors for the pre and post assessments that the learners didn't know (Warwick & Chaplain, 2017). This was not possible in this project due to time constraints and financial considerations. Therefore, the researcher who was a qualified speaking assessor spoke to the learners. As the Control and Test Groups received the same treatment, the effect on both groups was likely to be the same, meaning that conditions for a fair test had been achieved in this respect as well (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014).

In addition to the randomisation of learners, ideally every other factor should be controlled and kept equal in each group (Darsow & Felbrich, 2014). The only aspect which should change is the treatment that is being tested. However, in social research this is very difficult to achieve (Thomas, 2009). There are many factors which can't be controlled e.g. the weather which could cause a change that is unaccounted for. In this study, it was not possible for the same teacher to teach both the Test and Control Groups in each school, due to timetabling issues. Therefore, the Test and Control Groups had different English teachers. This could have had an influence on the results because the teachers may not have possessed the same competences in English (Barucki et al., 2015) and the groups may have received different levels of input. To try to manage this threat to validity, the researcher replicated the study (Thomas, 2009). The intervention was carried out in four different test schools to find out if similar results could be obtained repeatedly with different English teachers, teaching the intervention lessons.

In addition, the researcher attempted to manage the possible effects of having different English teachers by preparing and providing the intervention materials with short-term daily

plans in German. Included in the daily plans were suggestions of classroom language in English. The materials for the lessons were also provided. The researcher hoped that by providing all the materials, the input from the teachers would be similar in each Test Group.

This method was also chosen because the project teachers had limited time available for the project and had never done drama before. The teachers did not have time to participate in training sessions on picturebooks and drama. The researcher did not want to place a further burden upon their time. Asking a teacher to plan a scheme of work using an unfamiliar approach without training seemed impractical and unrealistic. Therefore, the researcher decided to divide the workload so that the researcher planned the drama lessons and provided guidance and materials, and the teacher led the lessons. In addition, using this method was successful in enabling the usual English teacher to teach the lesson and in addition, to acquire a new teaching approach.

Although the chosen method was successful in allowing the teacher to deliver the lessons themselves, initially the teachers found it challenging to use lesson plans written by someone else. Some teachers said that they were not used to having a lesson plan on paper. They usually had the plan in their head (Research Journal). The researcher thought that this was perhaps due to a cultural difference. In the British education system, where the researcher was previously employed, teachers often used team planning and teaching strategies with other teachers from parallel classes. Such practices allowed teachers to manage their workload through the sharing of lesson planning responsibilities, and also to acquire new ideas from colleagues. Teachers in that context were accustomed to using and adapting other teachers' plans. The lesson plans had to be written down so that they could be shared or swapped. In some schools, lesson plans also had to be submitted to the headteacher for approval before they were used in class. Therefore, the practice of writing a lesson plan for every lesson was required. The benefit of sharing lesson plans is that teachers save time, learn new teaching strategies from colleagues and develop their own practice through sharing ideas and seeing how other teachers organise their lessons.

Although following a lesson plan written by someone else was initially challenging for the Test Group teachers during the intervention, it became easier as they began to realise that they did not have to follow the plan word-for-word, but could adapt it to suit their own teaching style and class. Some teachers found it easier to adapt to this method than others (Research Journal).

Verbal feedback from several of the teachers on the project lessons was that they liked teaching with picturebooks and drama and would use it more often in the future. However, they would not want to use it all the time because it was tiring, a factor which was also supported by existing literature on the subject (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014). In addition, several of the teachers commented that they initially thought that the intervention lessons would be too repetitive for the learners because the stories were read aloud more than once. However, having used spaced listening (S. K. Kim & Webb, 2022) in the project lessons, they concluded that this was not the case. They were surprised that repeating language again in a different way, or in the form of a different activity with learners, was not boring for them. Learners did not always know what was being repeated or they could not actively reproduce the language as expected (Research Journal). This observation confirms the idea that input is not the same as intake (Schmidt, 1990). Noticing is important for intake to occur from input. Learners don't always remember things the first time they hear them but need to hear them more than once to acquire them. Kim and Webb (2022) found that learning over time with repeated exposures to words at intervals increased the retention of the vocabulary acquired (S. K. Kim & Webb, 2022). Spaced out repeated encounters with vocabulary lead to a greater learning effect than one long session where vocabulary was encountered.

A further limitation in the project was that it was not possible to hold the project lessons at the same time of day or on the same days in the Test and Control Groups. This was due to timetabling constraints. It was clear to the researcher from the classroom observations that the time of day and the day of the week when the lessons were held influenced learners' ability to concentrate. The researcher thought that the Control Groups had slightly better lesson times than the Test Groups. Consequently, the Control Group learners had slightly advantageous conditions. There was nothing that the researcher could do about this.

However, holding the intervention lessons at the perfect time of day with optimum learner concentration levels would not be a realistic test. The researcher felt that holding the lessons at the normal time created realistic classroom conditions for the intervention to be tested. Often lessons take place when learners are tired or hungry, and their concentration levels are not optimum. If the lessons took place at the normal time and learners' oral skills still showed development, despite diverse conditions affecting concentration, then it could be expected that even better results would be acquired under more optimal classroom conditions.

The qualitative data collected during the project also has some limitations. The researcher was the only observer in the classroom during the intervention lessons. Due to this, there was no triangulation of observer, and every observer is biased (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). Without a second set of observations to compare to the first set, there is no way to check the validity of the observations. However, the unstructured qualitative observations were part of a broader plan to triangulate the results collected from the structured classroom observations, the learner self-assessment and the quantitative speaking assessments. The aim was to control the limitations of the unstructured classroom observations through triangulation with the other data collected.

In addition, classroom observation has the effect of changing people's natural behaviour (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). This is known as the "Observer's Paradox" (Nunan & Bailey, 2009, p. 281). To try to combat this as far as possible, the researcher aimed to keep a low profile when observing in the classroom and tried not to participate unless it was necessary. In addition, the project was conducted over ten to fifteen sessions in each intervention school. The researcher observed in each session. Due to this, the learners got used to seeing the researcher in the classroom and the situation became more normal for the learners. The longevity of the observation period allowed the researcher the chance to try to build up a clear picture of the effects of the intervention on learners' oral skills. The researcher observed each Test Group on numerous occasions to build up a fuller picture of learners speaking skills (McKay, 2005).

One issue that the researcher had expected to encounter with the use of drama with young EFL learners and which is reported in related literature, is teachers' reluctance to use drama with their language classes because they must leave their comfort zone. They may have to move "away from familiar approaches" (Zafeiriadou, 2009, p. 5). The researcher did not find that teachers were reluctant to volunteer to participate in the study. There was a high level of interest in the project amongst primary school English teachers. An unexpected number of responses were received from teachers willing to participate in the project with their classes. At the beginning of each intervention phase, some teachers did express a certain level of nervousness about starting with drama as they did not know how the learners would react to it. Nervousness amongst teachers was also reported by other drama researchers (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014). This was the reason for starting gradually with the drama activities because when any new learning format is introduced, the teacher and learners need to try it out and get used to it. The gradual introduction of drama activities with one short activity in each of the first three sessions of a unit helped to allow time for the teacher and learners to become

accustomed to it. Tselikas (1999) says that drama activities can be introduced in this way to new groups. The teachers became less nervous and more confident about doing the drama activities with the learners throughout the intervention. One teacher commented that it had been nice to see a different side of learners when they were doing drama, a side that she did not usually see in lessons.

Drama allows and encourages pupils to be active and move more than they would in a traditional lesson. It is "learning by doing" (Sambanis, 2013, p. 116). This can lead to higher noise levels, a fact noted by other drama researchers (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020). However, the noise in the classrooms during this study was "working noise" and noise because learners were having fun learning. Most of the time, learners were on task during the drama activities, listening, concentrating, planning and creating something new together. They had to communicate and interact, and extra noise was a natural result. There were a few behaviour issues related to remembering to stay in our own space whilst moving around the room. Behaviour issues were also noted by other drama researchers (Chang, 2009). Some learners needed more drama sessions to get used to the new teaching format than other learners. However, an improvement in these pupils' participation in drama activities was witnessed during classroom observations (Research Journal).

Learning should be enjoyable. Learners learn more effectively when they are enjoying learning and experience positive emotions (Z. Zhang et al., 2024). Much literature on drama states that learners find it fun to do drama (Phillips, 1999). There were many occasions where the researcher observed positive emotions in the classroom during drama activities. This was the case most of the time during the intervention. However, there were a few learners who found this type of learning challenging, due mostly to the interactional demands. These learners reported that they didn't like the drama activities at first. However, the researcher's observations revealed that learners who found interacting with other learners difficult, showed a clear improvement in their interactional skills during the intervention (Research Journal). The enjoyment experienced by most learners could have been a contributing factor to the overall development in learners' oral skills found during the project. The next section elaborates on aspects of the project which could be further investigated in future projects.

Future Directions

This project investigated the potential of picturebook dramatisation on the oral skills of young learners approaching A1 level (CEFR). As there were a large group of learners in language Ability Classification groups 1 and 2 (the lower language ability groups), the intervention began with simpler picturebooks which were used to help learners get used to doing drama and to build confidence at speaking English. The results suggested that these stories contributed to the development of these learners' oral skills. This may have been because the books contained language that was in the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotskiĭ, 1962, 1978) of these learners.

However, the results showed that the stronger learners in language Ability Classification groups 3 and 4 did not improve as much as the weaker learners. This could just be because there was a very small sample of learners in these groups and not enough data could be collected to thoroughly investigate what was happening. Future research could investigate this phenomenon further with a larger group of stronger learners so that a more reliable set of data can be collected on the effects of picturebook dramatisation on more able learners.

In addition, this project could not investigate the effects of picturebook dramatisation on learners' phonology or pronunciation skills satisfactorily. Although it is known that drama enabled secondary school aged learners to improve their pronunciation skills (Hille et al., 2010), similar research has not been carried out with primary school learners using drama as far as this author is aware. Similarly, nothing is known about the effects of this intervention on learners' phonology.

This project placed a heavier emphasis on the investigation of the development of vocabulary use than on the development of grammar. At the beginner level vocabulary and grammar are hard to separate because they are closely related (Cameron, 2001). Cameron argues that "learning words can take students a long way into grammar" (Cameron, 2001, p. 72). Due to time constraints, a detailed grammatical analysis of the sentence structure used by learners was not carried out. Learners' grammar development was assessed using speaking descriptors and classroom observation. In the future, researchers could analyse learners' sentence structure before and after a picturebook dramatisation intervention to look for changes.

Some aspects of the development of oral skills were difficult for the researcher to observe. For example, the cognitive aspects of oral skills such as "thinking" were assessed principally through classroom observation and looking at the results of learners' work. This method

was chosen because thinking processes are hidden from the observer. Thought related to speech involves a process of "conceptualisation", "formulation", "articulation" and "self-monitoring" (Bygate, 2010, p. 16). This thought process had to be observed by looking at the results of the process. This was done through observing learners' oral answers or the work that they produced as well as their assessment scores. The thinking process could not be easily assessed by the researcher before articulation had occurred. There are still gaps in our knowledge about "how utterances are produced in real-life contexts" (A. S. Meyer et al., 2019, p. 1081). Therefore, in the future research could investigate alternative ways to assess cognitive processes in speech.

In addition, to find out about the types of interaction that occurred during group work to prepare a dramatisation, learners could be video-recorded and the recordings analysed by a team of researchers (Kao & O'Neill, 1998; Leslie, 2025). The analysis of interaction in this project only assessed if the amount of interaction between learners increased. It did not identify different types of interaction such as those mentioned by Leslie (2025). A future project could investigate the types of interaction that learners engage in during the group work phases to create and prepare a dramatisation.

The ways in which linguistic, cognitive, physical and social and emotional skills interact or affect each other in the development of oral skills is not known. The diagram depicting those skills for the purposes of this project in the theory section is a linear diagram for that reason. Further research into how the aspects affect each other either positively or negatively, and how interaction affects oral skill development, would be valuable as guidance for teachers on the optimal set up of speaking activities with learners.

As the results of the intervention indicated that it had the potential to develop young learners' oral skills, a training course could be developed to teach pre-service primary English teachers how to choose suitable picturebooks and to develop their own picturebook dramatisation lessons. A training course for pre-service teachers might also encourage teachers in the future to use drama more often in their English lessons.

This intervention was developed in line with the Baden-Württemberg primary English curriculum that was in place at the time when the intervention was carried out in the school year 2023/2024 (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016). In September 2025, a new updated English curriculum was published for Baden-Württemberg. Future researchers could use the method developed for this intervention to develop new units of work including picturebook dramatisation units based on the new curriculum.

The curriculum was found to play a central role in the choice of topics of study in the primary schools that were visited during the project. Further identification or development of materials that are in line with the curriculum topics which also allow learners to be actively involved in their learning, would be beneficial.

Conclusion

The conclusion provides an overview of this project and lays out the contributions made by the research.

Young learners have great potential for acquiring foreign languages (Böttger, 2016). There are both linguistic and non-linguistic benefits to learning foreign languages at a young age (Böttger, 2016; R. Kim et al., 2019; Ramírez & Kuhl, 2016; Woll & Wei, 2019). In addition, learning to speak a foreign language is the aim for most language learners (R. Hughes & Szczepek Reed, 2017). Young learners in Baden-Württemberg, Germany are fortunate to begin learning English in primary school (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016).

However, speaking requires many cognitive processes to happen simultaneously (Levelt, 1989). Learning to speak a foreign language is different to acquiring one's mother tongue. Speaking develops over time (Böttger, 2016) and requires practice (Cameron, 2001). In an educational setting in which there is only limited time for English teaching, it is challenging for young learners to develop speaking skills (Read, 2020). Approaches which motivate learners to speak and provide opportunities for mixed ability learners to participate, to meet the goals of the curriculum in a low anxiety learning environment, are needed.

Drama provides concrete learning experiences to young learners and is motivating (Maley & Duff, 1982; Phillips, 1999). It allows learners to take on another persona and to speak in character (Phillips, 1999). Learners can also participate in different ways, either assuming larger speaking roles if they are ready or just by joining in with the actions (Bland, 2007). A lack of existing empirical data on the effects of drama on young EFL learners' oral skills, led to this project to find empirical evidence of drama's effects on learners' speaking skills (Belliveau & Kim, 2013; Klempin & Wirag, 2020). The project aimed to find out if drama could be used as an approach to help young EFL learners in the fourth class develop their speaking skills within a limited time. Between ten and fifteen 45-minute lessons were planned in four intervention groups to find out about the potential of a picturebook dramatisation intervention on young learners' oral skills.

A review of literature on the English primary school curriculum in Baden-Württemberg revealed that learners receive one and a half hours of English teaching each week and should reach A1 level (CEFR) by the end of the fourth class (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016). As the time available must be divided between the four

language skills, learners cannot spend all the time during English lessons just speaking English. Yet, speaking needs to be practised, through the act of speaking itself (Böttger, 2016; Haith & Krakauer, 2018; Newton & Nation, 2021). Learning to speak a foreign language is demanding, takes time and needs support (Cameron, 2001). Therefore, speaking practice which offers mixed-ability learners adequate opportunities and support, are needed.

In addition, a review of the most recent data collected on learners' speaking abilities at the end of the fourth class in Germany revealed that learners had reached different stages at the end of the fourth class (Barucki et al., 2015). The PEAK1 (2019) study also found that some learners who had reached the end of the fourth class could only produce single word utterances and only used mainly nouns when they spoke English (Loumbourdi & Brotzmann, 2019, pp. 82–83). Many learners could also not speak in full sentences. One of the conclusions drawn by the PEAK1 study (2019) was that learners' language development would benefit from storytelling activities. Therefore, an intervention which based drama speaking activities around a story, presented itself as a possibility for developing oral skills.

A wider look at international research on young learners' speaking skills was also taken. A survey of teachers of young EFL learners carried out by Copland and colleagues (2014) found that teachers' most often reported difficulty was teaching speaking to young learners (Copland et al., 2014, p. 745). Teachers found it challenging to get learners to speak English. Learners lacked knowledge of the English language to be able to say what they wanted to say. Teachers also reported difficulty with differentiating lessons for mixed-ability groups (Copland et al., 2014). Setting up appropriate speaking activities was challenging.

A review of drama studies with young EFL learners that focused on the development of oral skills suggested that drama had the potential to help young learners in several ways. Studies suggested that learners became more autonomous, could read a script and felt that their self-esteem had improved (Bland, 2014b) when they did drama. They acquired vocabulary (Demircioğlu, 2010; Kalogirou et al., 2019; Sambanis, 2011) and could also use some of the vocabulary in a new context (Kalogirou et al., 2019). In addition, one study found that learners' oral interactions improved (Alasmari & Alshae'el, 2020).

Drama studies which were based around children's literature or school textbooks were included in the review. Learners were found to have participated more actively in class (Chang, 2009). A further study found that drama based on a picturebook had the potential to develop learners' vocabulary and speaking skills (Elis, 2023). Learners could learn their lines and were

motivated by a drama project based on two picturebooks (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014). The researchers' impression was that learners' speaking skills had improved because of the project. One study assessed speaking quantitatively in sub-categories which included "interaction", "communicative effectiveness", "accuracy", "range and complexity" (Papadopoulos, 2014, pp. 199–201). The study found that learners had improved their score in every category. This conclusion was supported by qualitative data from teachers' journals.

However, during the literature review no studies were found that based drama solely on several picturebooks in an intervention with A1 level 9–10-year-old learners. None of the studies were directed towards the development of oral skills with mixed-ability learners learning English in an educational context with limited teaching time. In addition, no clear definition of "speaking skills" or "oral skills" was found for young EFL learners at A1 level which provided guidance on what skills learners needed to become an A1 level speaker.

Therefore, the following research question was chosen for this project which aimed to fill a gap in research on drama and the development of speaking skills: "Does picturebook dramatisation have the potential to develop young learners' oral skills?" A sub-question was also formulated related to the main question: "In what ways do learners' oral skills develop?" This question investigated how different aspects of oral skills developed.

The theoretical section was divided into four parts which were pertinent to this project and which all related to oral skills, young learners and drama. The four sections investigated the acquisition of oral skills by young learners, the acquisition of oral skills through drama, the role of picturebooks in the acquisition of oral skills and the assessment of oral skill development through drama.

Part 1 began with a definition of the terms used throughout the project. The terms "young learner" and "EFL learner" were given specific attention because they were key terms relevant to the project. The term young learner for the purposes of this project was defined as a learner in the fourth class (9-10 years old). The term oral skills were also defined as meaning the same as speaking skills. Subsequently, to find out what was expected of young learners at A1 level in terms of speaking skills development, a review of curriculum documents such as the CEFR descriptors and the Baden-Württemberg primary school curriculum were taken. This was so that appropriate and realistic goals could be set for learners in the project. The section on oral skills investigated theoretical models of speech production starting with Levelt's (1989) theoretical model of speech production in adults. Levelt defined the process of speech

production in four stages: “conceptualisation”, “formulation”, “articulation” and “self-monitoring” (Bygate, 2010, p. 16). However, as the model was developed for adult native speakers, in addition models for young second language learners were reviewed to provide an understanding of how young EFL learners’ speech develops. The aim was to define what a young learner has to do to be a speaker at A1 level.

Oral skills were defined for the project in four categories of skills suitable for A1 learners to develop. These were based on Mercer and colleague’s (2017) Oracy Skills Framework and the CEFR descriptors at A1 level combined. The categories chosen were linguistic, cognitive, physical, and social and emotional skills. Each category was further defined with sub-categories. The sub-categories included the use of basic vocabulary, chunks/ expressions, linking words, grammar/ structure, phonology, thinking, planning simple speech, paying attention, concentrating, memorizing basic expressions, limited repair of utterances, pronunciation, basic social contact, simple interaction with a partner or small group and confidence in speaking. These sub-categories guided the researcher in the choice of oral skills to evaluate at A1 level with young learners. Mercer and colleague’s (2017) model was chosen for adaption in this context because the CEFR A1 level descriptors could be closely fitted to it.

Evidence from empirical studies on oral skills supported the choices and showed why the oral skills chosen were important in the development of speaking skills at A1 level. As the intervention was planned for the German context, classroom practice on the teaching of speaking in Germany in primary schools was explained so that it was clear how the intervention fitted to the context. This was followed by some examples of classroom activities to practise speaking. The first theory section concluded with a look at the key skill of listening which is essential for the development of speaking skills. Speaking is based on listening (Read, 2020). The expectations for the development of listening skills at A1 level were investigated and defined (Council of Europe, 2020). The section on listening was then divided into the three ways that listening helps with the development of speaking skills: through comprehension (Richards, 2005), acquisition and incidental listening (Böttger, 2016). Finally appropriate listening activities for the young learner classroom were provided.

The second theory section began by addressing historical perspectives on the use of drama in EFL contexts to promote language learning. Definitions of “drama” and the difference between drama and theatre were explored before different types of drama including process drama, improvisation, creative drama and dramatisation were defined. This was followed by an

explanation of how drama contributes to the acquisition of language through a focus on "learning by doing" (Sambanis, 2013, p. 116) and personal involvement. Literature on how drama can contribute to the development of listening skills and how it provides opportunities for sensory learning followed (Bland, 2015a).

An acknowledgement of the challenges faced by some EFL teachers using drama and suggestions for handling those issues were included, so that a balanced look was taken (Demircioğlu, 2010; Stinson, 2009). Finally, the theory of how drama helps with the development of oral skills was divided into the four categories (linguistic, cognitive, physical, and social and emotional skills) identified in the previous theory section on the development of oral skills. These sections were also supported by evidence found in recent drama studies that suggested that drama had the potential to support the development of these categories of oral skills. As young beginner learners have limited language knowledge and need scaffolding to help them to speak, a suitable basis for the drama activities was sought. Picturebooks were subsequently investigated to find out if they could provide appropriate scaffolding upon which to base drama activities.

Section 3 investigated the theory associated with the use of picturebooks in EFL teaching. Firstly, the reasons for the use of picturebooks were discussed. There is a very wide range of picturebooks available and picturebooks provide learners with rich language (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2002). They are enjoyable for learners (G. Ellis & Brewster, 2014). As the purpose of this project was to investigate the development of oral skills, the ways that picturebooks can be used to develop listening and speaking skills were investigated in this section. Methodologies suitable for the EFL classroom were explained and evaluated. A section on how to choose appropriate picturebooks for the EFL classroom was included to provide practical advice to teachers. The qualities to look for in the choice of picturebooks for the purposes of dramatisation were then explored and explained. Finally, ways in which picturebook texts can be dramatised with young learners to develop oral skills, based on other similar projects were examined.

As the study aimed to find out about the development of learners' oral skills through the dramatisation of picturebooks, section 4 of the theory explored ways to assess oral skills in drama. The purposes of assessment and the assessment of oral skills in educational contexts with young learners was first explained. Methods for assessing young learners' oral skills through classroom-based assessment and formal assessment formats were examined. A recent example of a large-scale speaking test (PEAK1, 2019) carried out in Germany to find out about

learners' oral skills at the end of the fourth class was analysed. This was followed by a detailed discussion of the considerations to be made when assessing young learners to ensure that assessment experiences are positive for learners. The knowledge and experience of other drama researchers who explored the development of young learners' oral skills through drama were examined to find out how these researchers assessed the development of learners' speech. Some of them used assessment methods from applied linguistics such as tests (Demircioğlu, 2010; Sambanis, 2011) and speaking tests (Kalogirou et al., 2019). However, some used questionnaires (Serrurier-Zucker & Gobbé-Mévellec, 2014), interviews (Kalogirou et al., 2019) and classroom observations (Chang, 2009). Finally, an analysis of how the data collected from those assessments was evaluated, was explored. The purpose was to find out how researchers in drama studies evaluated their results to acquire useful information about oral skill development in drama.

To answer the research questions, an intervention was set up which included drama activities based on carefully chosen picturebooks. Suitable picturebooks were identified on which to base the drama intervention with help from several sources. Ellis and Brewster's (2002) framework for selecting appropriate picturebooks for EFL classes was used, an analysis of the vocabulary in the picturebooks was carried out with a POS tagger CLAWS (UCREL Lancaster University, 2023) and the Baden-Württemberg curriculum was consulted (Zentrum für Schulqualität und Lehrerbildung Baden-Württemberg, 2016). A group of suitable picturebooks were identified. The books were categorised according to difficulty and divided into groups.

The research tools were developed to find out about the development of oral skills during the intervention. A pre and post assessment for pairs of learners which included a series of pictures for learners to talk about was created. This was used to collect quantitative data on oral skills. Speaking descriptors for the assessment of this data that assessed Vocabulary Use, Structure and Coherence, Communication and Task Achievement were created. In addition, a structured classroom observation form was created to collect quantitative data on learner interaction and the language used by learners during the group work dramatisation phases. A learner self-assessment form to collect quantitative data on learners' impressions of the project was created so that the researcher could find out about learners' perspectives.

The researcher emailed local primary schools to search for teachers who would be interested to participate in the project in the following school year. Several teachers volunteered to participate. The researcher asked for permission from the local education authority to run the

project in several primary schools during the school year 2023/24. Permission was granted and the researcher visited the teachers. The choice of picturebooks for the project were discussed. The teachers were keen to have picturebooks that matched the topics in the curriculum. Once the picturebooks had been chosen, the researcher dramatised the picturebooks and planned the lessons. A letter was sent home to parents asking for permission for the collection of data. Only learners who had returned the permission slip were included in the data collection part of the project. Each Test Group in each of the intervention schools received ten or fifteen intervention lessons. A pilot study was carried out in one school in the autumn term 2023/24 first to test the validity of the research instruments and intervention.

A complex mixed method experimental research design was chosen to find out about young learners' oral skills. The researcher considered research approaches taken by other researchers of drama with young learners. Several drama studies with young learners to develop oral skills found in the literature review on drama, were experimental or quasi-experimental (Demircioğlu, 2010; Kalogirou et al., 2019; Papadopoulos, 2014; Sambanis, 2011). Mixed method drama studies were also found with young learners (Chang, 2009; Elis, 2023; Papadopoulos, 2014). The research approach taken in this project was appropriate, as it was supported by literature on the subject.

The research tested an intervention involving the dramatisation of picturebooks with four test groups and two control groups in four different schools in Baden-Württemberg. Quantitative results were obtained from pre and post assessments in the form of short picture-based discussions with pairs of learners that were recorded with an audio-device and transcribed. The transcriptions were analysed using written descriptors and a POS tagger tool. In addition, structured classroom observations of group work phases were carried out during the intervention lessons in the test groups and learners were asked to fill out a self-assessment form at the end of each dramatisation unit. The quantitative results were analysed using SPSS.

Qualitative data on learners' oral skills was collected during unstructured classroom observations of the intervention lessons and was written up in a research journal. The journal was analysed using MAXQDA to find out what it revealed about the development of learners' oral skills in the four categories of oral skills that were defined in the theory chapters. The unstructured classroom observations also closely investigated how the intervention was working. The results from the quantitative and qualitative data were compiled in a joint display or mixed-

method table which was used to draw inferences on the effects of the picturebook dramatisation on young learners' oral skills.

In the results section, the quantitative results were presented for each test school first. These included the results from the speaking descriptor analysis on vocabulary use, structure and coherence, communication and task achievement, the word class analysis results obtained with the POS tagger, the results of the structured classroom observations and the pupil self-assessments.

After the quantitative results had been presented, a selection of excerpts from the analysis of the Research Journal which had been analysed with MAXQDA were chosen. The qualitative data were used to assess vocabulary and grammar use in the classroom, phonology, thinking, planning simple speech, paying attention, concentration, memorizing, repair of utterances, pronunciation, interaction in small groups and confidence in speaking. The examples chosen from MAXQDA were chosen to illustrate different aspects related to the development of each oral skill. These extracts were presented in a table with some background information to provide context for each example. The qualitative data was organised according to oral skill and not school.

At the end of this section some verbal feedback provided by the teachers and learners during the project was presented. This provided two further perspectives on the project and served to balance the researcher's perspective.

Finally, a mixed method joint display was prepared for the results of each school. Each joint display presented a reduced summary of all the results collected on each oral skill in each school. It combined the results in a meaningful way so that inferences or conclusions about the potential of picturebook dramatisation on young EFL learners' oral skills could be drawn.

The results were presented in this way to provide a clear overview and easy access to each set of results. The presentation in this manner was intended to provide transparency, but also to enable results for specific schools or specific oral skills to be found easily. The joint display tables provided an overview but also merged the quantitative and qualitative results in a meaningful way as required by a mixed method approach.

The discussion section reflected on the results that had been presented and used them to answer the main research question, the sub research question and to accept or reject the hypotheses. The main research question was "Does picturebook dramatisation have the potential to

develop young learners' oral skills?" and the sub-question was "In what ways do learners' oral skills develop?" The results of the study indicated that picturebook dramatisation has the potential to develop learners' oral skills linguistically, cognitively, and socially and emotionally. However, no conclusions could be drawn from the project on the development of pronunciation.

In answer to the sub-question, the results on linguistic skill development indicated that learners said more in English after the intervention. They also used a broader range of vocabulary, a wider range of grammar including chunks of language and linking words. The qualitative data showed that in situations where the demand on learners' language went beyond the vocabulary or structures that they knew, they used German to express their thoughts. In group work situations, learners also used German to organise, negotiate, agree and disagree. Nothing could be concluded about the development of learners' phonology.

The results on cognitive skills indicated that thinking, planning simple speech and memorizing developed during the intervention. The qualitative results on paying attention showed that learners paid attention. In some schools, learners' ability to pay attention developed further during the intervention and sometimes attention was situation dependent. However, in other schools, learners could already pay attention well, so no further development was found. Concentration was found to be situation dependent. External factors such as the time of day, weather or internal factors such as learners' interest in the story affected learners' concentration. Results on repair of speech showed that learners were sometimes able to repair each other's speech, but no instances were found when learners repaired their own speech in the classroom.

The results on physical skills, which only included the category pronunciation, failed to show that it was developing during the intervention. Pronunciation was practised during the project and assessed through classroom observation. Some words were tricky for learners to pronounce. These words were noticed and re-practised. However, pronunciation was not quantitatively measured to search for development. Therefore, before and after measurements were not taken.

The results on social and emotional skill development indicated that learners could establish basic social contact. There was evidence for an increase in the amount of interaction within group work situations and confidence in speaking. However, interaction and confidence declined slightly with linguistically and cognitively more challenging texts.

The five hypotheses based on theory that were formulated at the beginning of the project were as follows:

HP1 Learners' use of vocabulary in speech broadens.

HP2 Learners use of chunks of language in speech increases.

HP3 Learners memorize short phrases from the picturebook and drama activities.

HP4 Interaction between learners during group work increases.

HP5 Learners become more confident in speaking.

Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3 were accepted and hypotheses 4 and 5 were only partly accepted because the results indicated that these two hypotheses were partially true or true under certain conditions.

This section provided a brief overview of the steps taken to complete the research process. It explained why the research questions for this project were formulated. It then explained how the project was developed to answer the research questions, how the results were collected and analysed, and how the conclusions were drawn. The last paragraphs summarise the implications of the findings.

This study found that a drama intervention based on carefully selected picturebooks has the potential to help learners to measurably develop their oral skills in a short time. Based on this conclusion, practitioners should consider occasionally choosing a curriculum relevant picturebook and dramatising it with young learners during English lessons, to further develop their oral skills. The results indicated that dramatising two books during the school year would be enough to make a noticeable difference to fourth class learners' speaking skills. In an educational context where there is limited time available for English teaching, a drama-based storytelling approach was found to be an enjoyable, motivating way for learners to practise speaking, acquire vocabulary and grammar, develop skills for working together and build confidence.

The project defined the skills needed to become a speaker at A1 level in four categories of sub-skills: linguistic, cognitive, physical, social and emotional skills. This approach was taken because the requirements of a young A1 level EFL speaker are different to a fluent speaker, an adult speaker or an L1 speaker. A targeted intervention based on the dramatisation of carefully chosen picturebooks aimed at young A1 level speakers was planned, implemented and the four skill areas were assessed. The intervention was designed to try to provide a targeted A1 approach which allowed mixed ability learners to participate at different levels and in different ways to develop their oral skills. The researcher had not found a project to develop oral skills with young learners that considered these four skill areas. However, the approach was

supported by theory. The complexity of speech described there indicates that articulation is only one very small part of what is required to speak (Levelt, 1989). Many other skills must also be developed on the way to becoming a fluent speaker of a foreign language.

In the process, additional empirical data on the benefits of drama with young EFL learners to develop oral skills was generated. The literature review of drama's effects on oral skill development amongst young learners showed that there was a lack of empirical data on the effects of drama based on picturebooks.

In addition, a complex experimental mixed method approach was further explored in an educational setting with young learners to investigate different aspects of oral skill development from different angles and perspectives. A meaningful approach for displaying extensive data generated by the approach in a joint display was also explored for a project in an educational setting (Johnson et al., 2019). In the future other researchers in educational settings could further develop this approach for displaying data and drawing inferences in mixed method research.

The literature review at the beginning of the study suggested that teachers around the world found it challenging to encourage learners to speak (Copland et al., 2014). This project suggested ways that suitable picturebooks could be identified for dramatisation purposes and developed examples of lesson plans and materials that followed the curriculum of Baden-Württemberg. These lesson plans could be adapted by other teachers to use with their young EFL learners or used as examples by teachers to assist with the development of their own picturebook dramatisation work units to fit other curricula. It is hoped that both the development of this project and the results obtained will make a positive contribution to knowledge about teaching speaking to young EFL learners through the dramatisation of picturebooks.

It is hoped that the results obtained by this study will encourage other teachers of young EFL learners to feel confident about using drama as an enjoyable way to build learners' confidence in speaking. Teachers can be re-assured by the positive results obtained in four different schools that confirmed that there are benefits for linguistic, cognitive, social and emotional aspects of oral skill development.

The results of this study strongly support the idea discussed in the first section of the introduction, that young learners have great potential for foreign language acquisition (Böttger, 2016). The opportunity to learn a foreign language in primary school can contribute to the development of skills to be used both now and in the future.

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Appendix A – The Enormous Turnip – Lesson Plans

Table A1

The Enormous Turnip – Medium Term Plan

Einheit (45 Min)	Ziele (vom Bildungsplan)	Materialien	Geschichte	Theateraktivitäten
1	• Kurze Texten inhaltlich verstehen. • Körpersprache (Mimik, Gestik), Stimmeinsatz (Artikulation, Intonation und Sprechtempo) und Visualisierungshilfen (Bilder und Realia) zum Verstehen nutzen. • Einzelne Wörter und Satzstrukturen als Basis für einen Grundwortschatz verwenden.	Bilderbuch *The Enormous Turnip* (Bentley, 1996). Tafelbilder	Das Bilderbuch vorlesen.	*Stop, Go, Show me.*
2	• Einfache Fragen beantworten und kurze Fragen formulieren. • Auf Anweisungen, Aufforderungen und Fragen entsprechend reagieren (*classroom-phrases*) – auch nonverbal. • Ausgewählte Präpositionen und Konjunktionen nutzen.	Bilderbuch Tafelbilder Gefühlekarten Arbeitsblatt 1	Geschichte mit dem Buch zusammen erzählen. Wiederholung *behind*. Wiederholung Gefühle (*happy, excited, tired, hungry*). Arbeitsblatt bearbeiten.	*Story Whoosh.*
3	• Einfache Fragen beantworten und kurze Fragen formulieren. • Eigene Vorlieben und Abneigungen nennen. • Einzelne Wörter und Satzstrukturen als Basis für einen Grundwortschatz verwenden.	Bilderbuch Stabpuppen Stabpuppenkonturen Holzstäbchen Kleberfilm Schuhkarton Gemüsebilder	Andere Gemüsesorten besprechen.	Stabpuppen basteln.
4	• Bekannte Wörter, einfache Wendungen und einfache Sätze lesen und verstehen. • Kurze, eingeübte Rollentexte wiedergeben. • In kurze Texte (zum Beispiel Gedichte, Lieder, Geschichten) Wörter oder Satzteile einfügen.	Bilderbuch Beispielstabpuppen Bunte Gruppenkarten SuS Stabpuppen Skript	Gefühle üben. Geschichte mit dem Skript einführen und üben.	Mit den Stabpuppen und Skript üben.
5	• Bekannte Wörter, einfache Wendungen und einfache Sätze lesen und verstehen. • Kurze, eingeübte Rollentexte wiedergeben. • Geschichten, Spiele, Reime, Lieder oder Rollenspiele präsentieren.	Bilderbuch Beispielstabpuppen Bunte Gruppenkarten SuS Stabpuppen Skript Beurteilungsblätter	Selbstbeurteilungsblatt	Die Gruppen erzählen die Geschichte mit ihren Stabpuppen.

Lesson 1

Geschichte: *The Enormous Turnip*, (Bentley, 1996), Lesson 1

Themen: At home, pets

Werte: Helping others

Theateraktivitäten: Stop, Go, Show me

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Tafelbilder

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: little, old, great, big, enormous, strong, turnip, house, pull up, plant, help, cook

Produktiver Wortschatz: little old man, little old woman, dog, cat, mouse, chicken, yes, I can help you

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüler

Unterrichtsziele:

- Kurze Texten inhaltlich verstehen.
- Körpersprache (Mimik, Gestik), Stimmeinsatz (Artikulation, Intonation und Sprechtempo) und Visualisierungshilfen (Bilder und Realia) zum Verstehen nutzen.
- Einzelne Wörter und Satzstrukturen als Basis für einen Grundwortschatz verwenden.

Table A2

The Enormous Turnip – Lesson 1

Zeit (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
1	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder Reim mit der Klasse durch.	Hören der L. zu und führen das Begrüßungslied oder Reim durch.	Plenum		Die SuS sind durch die englische Begrüßung auf den Englischunterricht eingestellt.
2	**Einführung in Theater-aktivitäten**	Einfache Erklärung auf Deutsch, was in den nächsten Unterrichtsstunden passieren wird. (Wir werden an einem Projekt zum Geschichtenerzählen teilnehmen.	SuS hören der L. zu.			Die SuS werden auf das Projekt vorbereitet.

	und das Projekt	Wir werden uns einige Geschichten anhören und einige Aktivitäten zum Geschichtenerzählen durchführen.)				
Transition: in die Erzählung der Geschichte. ***Please come and sit in the circle.*** Die L. hat das little old man Bild und das Bilderbuch dabei. ***Today we are going to listen to a story. Let's meet the main character in our story.***						
5	**Geschichte Pre-listening Activity**	Vorstellung der Hauptfigur und die Rübe in der Geschichte. ***This is the little, old man*** (Die L. macht Gesten für klein und alt). ***He is very old. Does he look strong? No, you are right. He doesn't look very strong*** (L. macht Gesten für stark). ***The little old man has a garden. Here is the garden*** (Die L. zeigt auf der Titelseite des Buches). Die L. zeigt auf die Rübe - *turnip* auf der Titelseite des Buches und fragt: ***What's that? Does anyone know what that is? – It's a turnip! A turnip is a vegetable. You can eat a turnip. Look how big the turnip is. The turnip is really big! It is enormous!*** (Gesten machen) ***The turnip is growing in the little old man's garden. Here is the garden*** (zeigen).	Die SuS antworten, wie sie können und dürfen die Bilder an die Tafel heften.	Sitzkreis	Figurenbild (little old man) (Klebstoff/Magnete für das Bild)	Einführung des Wortschatzes – little old man, strong, turnip, garden, enormous
Transition: ***Let's listen to the story and find out what happens to the little old man.***						
5	**While listening** **1. Erzählung**	Die Lehrkraft liest die Geschichte laut vor und zeigt dabei auf die Personen/Tiere/Rübe in den Bildern. Wenn es passend ist, schneidet sie Grimassen und macht Gesten, um die Bedeutung klar zu machen. Die L. stellt am Ende der Geschichte ein paar Fragen, z.B: ***Who helps the little old man to pull up the turnip?*** **(**Zusatzfragen falls die SuS Unterstützung benötigen: ***Does the little old lady help him? Does the dog help him? Does the cat help him?... Does the mouse help him? Does the chicken help him?)*** Die L. zeigt jedes Mal das passende Bild im Bilderbuch. ***Which is your favourite animal in the story?***	Die SuS hören zu. Die SuS können die Namen der Figuren sagen oder auf sie im Buch zeigen.	Sitzkreis	Bilderbuch	
Transition: ***This time we are going to listen again, but you can help me to tell the story.*** Bevor die Geschichte ein zweites Mal angehört wird, bringt die L. den SuS eine wiederholende Phrase bei, damit die SuS die Geschichte miterzählen können.						
10	**Eine oft vorkommende Phrase aus der**	Die L. zeigt auf das Bild des kleinen alten Mannes und das Bild der kleinen alten Frau und sagt: ***The turnip is so big the little old man is not strong enough to pull up the turnip on his own. He needs help.***	Die SuS können mitmachen. L. ***Can you help me pull up the turnip?*** SuS: ***Yes, I can help you.***	Sitzkreis		Die SuS helfen, die Geschichte zu erzählen.

	Geschichte beibringen	***The little old man asks his family: Can you help me pull up the turnip?*** ***The little old woman answers: Yes, I can help you.*** Die L. wiederholt die Frage und die Antwort. Die L. bittet die Lernenden, bei der Antwort mitzumachen. Alle sagen die Antwort gemeinsam im Chor. Dann stellt die L. die Frage und die SuS antworten ohne die L. ***This time when I read the story, you can join in with: Yes, I can help you.***	Alle sagen die Antwort gemeinsam im Chor. ***Yes, I can help you.***			Die SuS helfen mit der Erzählung der Geschichte.
5	**2. Vorlesung der Geschichte**	Die L. liest die Geschichte noch einmal vor. Dieses Mal können die SuS die wiederholenden Phrasen mitsprechen. Die L. stellt einige Fragen während der 2. Vorlesung der Geschichte z.B: ***Who does the little old man ask to help next?*** ***How many chickens are there in the garden?*** usw. Am Ende fragt die L. in welche Reihenfolge die Figuren in der Geschichte geholfen haben. (Die L. verwendet alle Figurenbilder) ***Who helped the little old man first? (The little old woman) Who helped next? (The dog) Who helped next? (The cat) who helped next? (The mouse)***	Während der Geschichte sagen die SuS: ***Yes, I can help you*** wenn diese Wörter in der Geschichte vorkommen. Die SuS bringen die Bilder in die richtige Reihenfolge.		Figuren Bilder (alle)	Die SuS zeigen, was sie schon verstanden haben.
Transition: ***We are going to play a game.***						
10	**Stop/Go/Show me Spiel**	***We are going to play a game now but there are some rules. When we play the game, we are not going to touch each other. You must stay in your own space. If I say <u>freeze</u>, then you stand really still straight away. Let's practise it once together. Are you ready?*** ***<u>Freeze</u>*** (alle SuS stehen ganz still). ***Well done. Let's play the game now. The game is called: Stop, Go, Show me. You are going to pretend to be the characters in the story.*** Die L. gibt eine Demonstration für jede Figur (siehe Erklärungsblatt). Die Klasse spielt das Spiel.	Alle SuS stehen ganz still, wenn die L. *freeze* sagt. Die SuS ahmen die Bewegungen der L. einmal nach. Die SuS bewegen sich leise im Raum, und wenn die L. S***top, show me the little old man*** sagt**,** müssen die SuS eine Pose einnehmen. (Die SuS dürfen die Tiergeräusche machen, wenn sie möchten).	Aufstehen		Die SuS bereiten sich für das Theateraktivität vor. Die SuS stellen sich vor, dass sie die Figuren aus der Geschichte sind - Entwicklung von Empathie.

2	**Reflektion**	Was hast du heute besonders gut gemacht?				*Warm-down* und zurück zur Realität kehren.
Ple-nary 2	**Übliche Reim oder Lied sagen oder singen**	Der übliche Reim/ das Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde.				

Lesson 2

Geschichte: *The Enormous Turnip*, (Bentley, 1996), Lesson 2

Themen: At home, pets

Werte: Helping others

Theateraktivitäten: Story Whoosh

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Tafelbilder, Gefühlekarten, Arbeitsblatt 1

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: Where is …? The little old man is behind, little, old, great, big, enormous, turnip, house, happy, hungry, tired, excited

Produktiver Wortschatz: little old man, little old woman, dog, cat, mouse, chicken, where is? The little old man is behind, happy, hungry, tired, excited

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüler

Unterrichtsziele:

- Einfache Fragen beantworten und kurze Fragen formulieren.
- Auf Anweisungen, Aufforderungen und Fragen entsprechend reagieren (*classroom-phrases*) – auch nonverbal.
- Ausgewählte Präpositionen und Konjunktionen nutzen.

Table A3

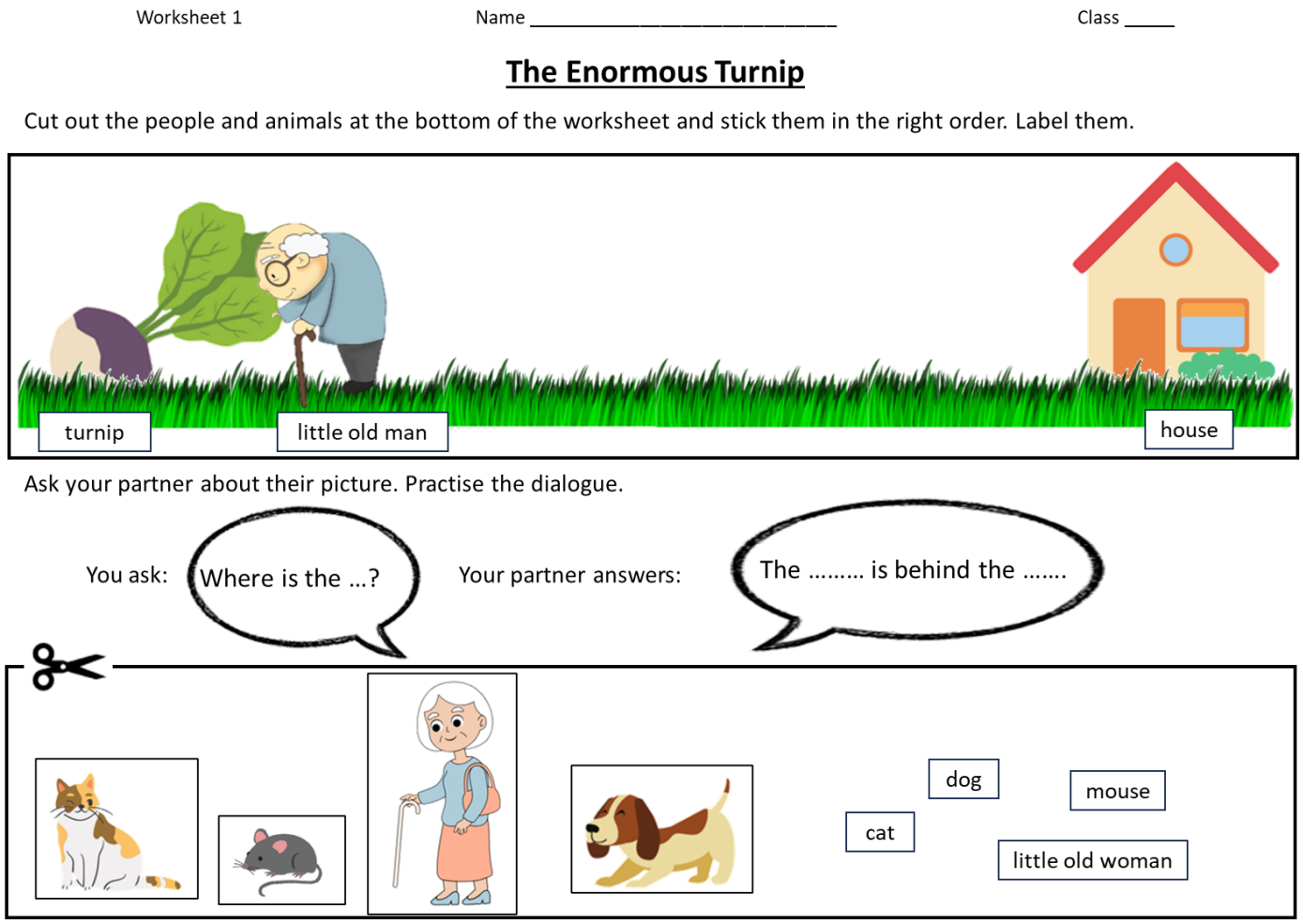
The Enormous Turnip – Lesson 2

Zeit (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
2	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder den Reim mit der Klasse durch.	Hören der L. zu und führen das Begrüßungslied oder den Reim durch.	Plenum		Die SuS sind durch die englische Begrüßung auf den Englischunterricht eingestellt.
5	**Re-introduction of the characters from the story**	***Last time we listened to a story. Can you remember what the story was called? Can you remember who the characters are from the story?*** Die L. stellt einige fragen zur Figuren: z.B. ***What colour are the old man's trousers? What noise does a cat make?*** Usw.	Die SuS dürfen strecken und antworten. Die SuS sagen, wer die Figuren sind z.B. ***That is the little old man.***		Bilder	
5	**Wiederholung von *behind***	***Let's put the characters in order. Who helps the little old man first? Who helps next?*** ***Where is the little old woman?*** ***The little old woman is behind the little old man.*** ***Where is the dog?*** ***The dog is behind the little old woman.*** ***Where is the cat?*** ***The cat is behind the dog, and the mouse is behind the cat.***	Die SuS bringen die Figuren in der richtigen Reihenfolge.			Erinnerung der letzten Stunde und Erinnerung von die Preposition *behind*.
5	**Theater warm-up**	***How do you think the characters in the story feel when they pull up the enormous turnip? Do they feel tired? Do they feel happy? Do they feel excited? Do they feel hungry?*** Die L. macht Bewegungen, um die Bedeutung die Gefühle zu zeigen. Die L. zeigt ein Smiley für jedes Gefühle (und klebt sie an die Tafel).	Die SuS dürfen mitmachen und die Gefühle mit Gesten und Mimik zeigen. Die SuS spielen mit und zeigen die Gefühle der Figuren.		Gefühle smileys Karten	Wiederholung von bereits erarbeitetem Wortschatz über Gefühle (happy, excited, tired und hungry). Die SuS erzählen mit. Die SuS stellen sich vor, dass sie die Figuren aus der Geschichte sind - Entwicklung von Empathie. Wiederholung - Gefühlen.
10	**Story Whoosh**	Für diese Aktivität braucht die Klasse relativ viel Platz. Die L. erklärt wie ein *Whoosh* geht. Die SuS sitzen/stehen im Kreis. Die L. erzählt die Geschichte und die SuS spielen die Figuren (machen passende	Die SuS sagen: ***Yes, I can help you.*** Wenn sie möchten.			

		Bewegungen) vorne im Kreis. Wer möchte, streckt ganz leise und wird von der Lehrkraft genommen. (Mehrere Kinder können zusammen eine Figur spielen). Dann kommt ein SuS in die Mitte, spielt eine Figur und macht die Bewegungen. Wenn die L. *Whoosh* sagt und mit den Armen winkt (wie ein Zauberstab), tauschen die Kinder und jemand anders spielt die Figur. (Dies kann nach einigen Geschichtsseiten passieren). Die L. erzählt die Geschichte dann weiter. Die L. liest die Geschichte vor und die SuS spielen mit.	Die SuS können auch ***pop, help!*** und ***yum yum*** mitsprechen.			
2	**Reflektion**	***How do you feel after the Storywhoosh?***				*Warm-down* und zurück zur Realität kehren.
15	**Arbeitsblatt**	Enormous Turnip Arbeitsblatt. Die L. erklärt das Blatt und zeigt, wie die SuS den Dialog zu zweit machen können. ***Where is the little old man?*** ***The little old man is behind the turnip*** ***The little old woman is behind …*** ***The dog is behind ….*** Die L. lädt die SuS die möchten dazu ein, ihren Dialog der Klasse vorzuzeigen.	Die SuS schneiden die Tiere/Figuren aus und kleben sie in der Reihenfolge auf, in der sie dem kleinen alten Mann geholfen haben. Sie verbinden die Etiketten mit den richtigen Tieren und führen dann einen Dialog mit ihrem Partner: z.B. ***Where is the little old man?*** ***The little old man is behind the turnip*** ***The little old woman is behind …*** ***The dog is behind ….*** Einige SuS dürfen die Klasse ihren Dialog zeigen, wenn sie möchten.		Arbeitsblatt	Where is? The little old man is behind …
2	**Übliche Reim oder Lied sagen oder singen**	Der übliche Reim/ das Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde.				

Figure A1

Arbeitsblatt 1



Note. Prepared with Canva.com

Lesson 3

Geschichte: *The Enormous Turnip*, (Bentley, 1996), Lesson 3

Themen: At home, pets, family

Werte: Helping others

Gefühle: tired, happy, excited, hungry

Theateraktivitäten: Stabpuppen basteln

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Stabpuppen, Stabpuppenkonturen, Holzstäbchen, Kleberfilm, Schuhkarton, Gemüsebilder

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: Do you like …? Carrot, potato, parsnip, radish, onion, cut out, stick, colour in, write your name, lolly stick, cellotape

Produktiver Wortschatz: Yes, I do/ No, I don't

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüler

Unterrichtsziele:

- Einfache Fragen beantworten und kurze Fragen formulieren.
- Eigene Vorlieben und Abneigungen nennen.
- Einzelne Wörter und Satzstrukturen als Basis für einen Grundwortschatz verwenden.

Table A4

The Enormous Turnip – Lesson 3

Time (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
2	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder Reim mit der Klasse durch.	Hören der L. zu und führen das Begrüßungslied oder Reim durch.	Alle Zusammen		Die SuS sind durch die englische Begrüßung auf den Englischunterricht eingestellt.
10	**Einführung von vegetables**	***The turnip is a vegetable. Other vegetables also grow in the garden.*** Die L. zeigt für jedes Gemüse die passende Bildkarte: *carrots, potatoes, parsnips, radishes*			Bildkarten und Wort	

		and onions. ***The little old man likes turnips. What do you like?*** ***Do you like carrots? What colour is the carrot? Yes, the carrot is orange.*** ***Do you like potatoes?*** ***Do you like parsnips?*** ***Do you like radishes?*** ***Do you like onions?*** ***Do you like turnips?*** ***In the story, the turnip grew so big that the little old man needed help to pull it up.*** ***Let's pull up the turnip together: pull... It is really big and hard to pull up. It is really tiring to pull up an enormous turnip.*** ***Let's pull up an enormous carrot now. Can you help me? "pull"*** ***Let's pull up an enormous potato: pull…*** ***Let's pull up an enormous radish: pull…*** ***Let's pull up an enormous onion: pull…*** ***Let's pull up an enormous parsnip: pull…***	Die SuS antworten: ***Yes, I do/ No, I don't.*** Die SuS machen mit.		labels für die Gemüse.	*Carrots, potatoes, parsnips, radishes, onions*
20	**Stabpuppen basteln**	***You are going to tell your own version of the story with puppets. You can decide if you want to have an enormous turnip or another vegetable. You can have an enormous carrot or an enormous potato, an enormous onion an enormous radish or an enormous parsnip.*** Die L. zeigt die (Beispiel) Stabpuppen und erklärt, dass die Kinder ihre eigenen Stabpuppen (in 5er Gruppen) für die nächste Stunde basteln werden. Die Kinder entscheiden sich, wer welche Figur bastelt (oder die L. darf sich entscheiden - The little old man hat am meisten zu sagen). In der nächsten Stunde werden sie die Geschichte mit Puppen erzählen/nachspielen. Jede Gruppe braucht: *a little old man* Puppe, *a little old woman* Puppe, *a dog* Puppe, *a cat* Puppe, *a mouse* Puppe, *a turnip* oder eine andere Gemüse Puppe. ***Cut around your puppet.*** ***colour your puppet if you want to.*** ***Stick your lolly stick to the middle of the back of your puppet with a piece of celotape.***	Die SuS hören sich die Erklärung an. Die Kinder oder L. entscheidet sich, wer welche Figur bastelt (Wir brauchen 6 Puppen – *a little old man, a little old woman, a dog, a cat, a mouse, a turnip, or another vegetable*). Ein SuS muss auch ein Gemüse basteln. Die SuS schneiden die Figuren aus, malen sie und kleben sie auf ihren Holzstäbchen. Die Kinder haben Zeit zum Basteln.		Beispiel Stabpuppen Stabpuppenkonturen, Holzstäbchen, Kleberfilm Schuhkarton	Gemischte (5er) (Leistungs)gruppen

1	**Übliche Reim oder Lied sagen oder singen**	***Write your name on the back of your puppet.*** Die L. gibt den Kindern die Stabpuppenkonturen, Kleberfilm und Holzstäbchen. Lied oder Reim. Der übliche Reim/ das Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde.	Am Ende sammelt einen:e SuS die Stabpuppen in einem Schuhkarton.			

Lesson 4

Geschichte: *The Enormous Turnip*, (Bentley, 1996), Lesson 4

Themen: At home, pets, family

Werte: Helping others

Gefühle: tired, happy, excited, hungry

Theateraktivitäten: Stabpuppenspiel

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Beispielstabpuppen, bunte Gruppenkarten, SuS Stabpuppen, Skript

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüler

Unterrichtsziele:

- Bekannte Wörter, einfache Wendungen und einfache Sätze lesen und verstehen.
- Kurze, eingeübte Rollentexte wiedergeben.
- In kurze Texte (zum Beispiel Gedichte, Lieder, Geschichten) Wörter oder Satzteile einfügen.

Table A5

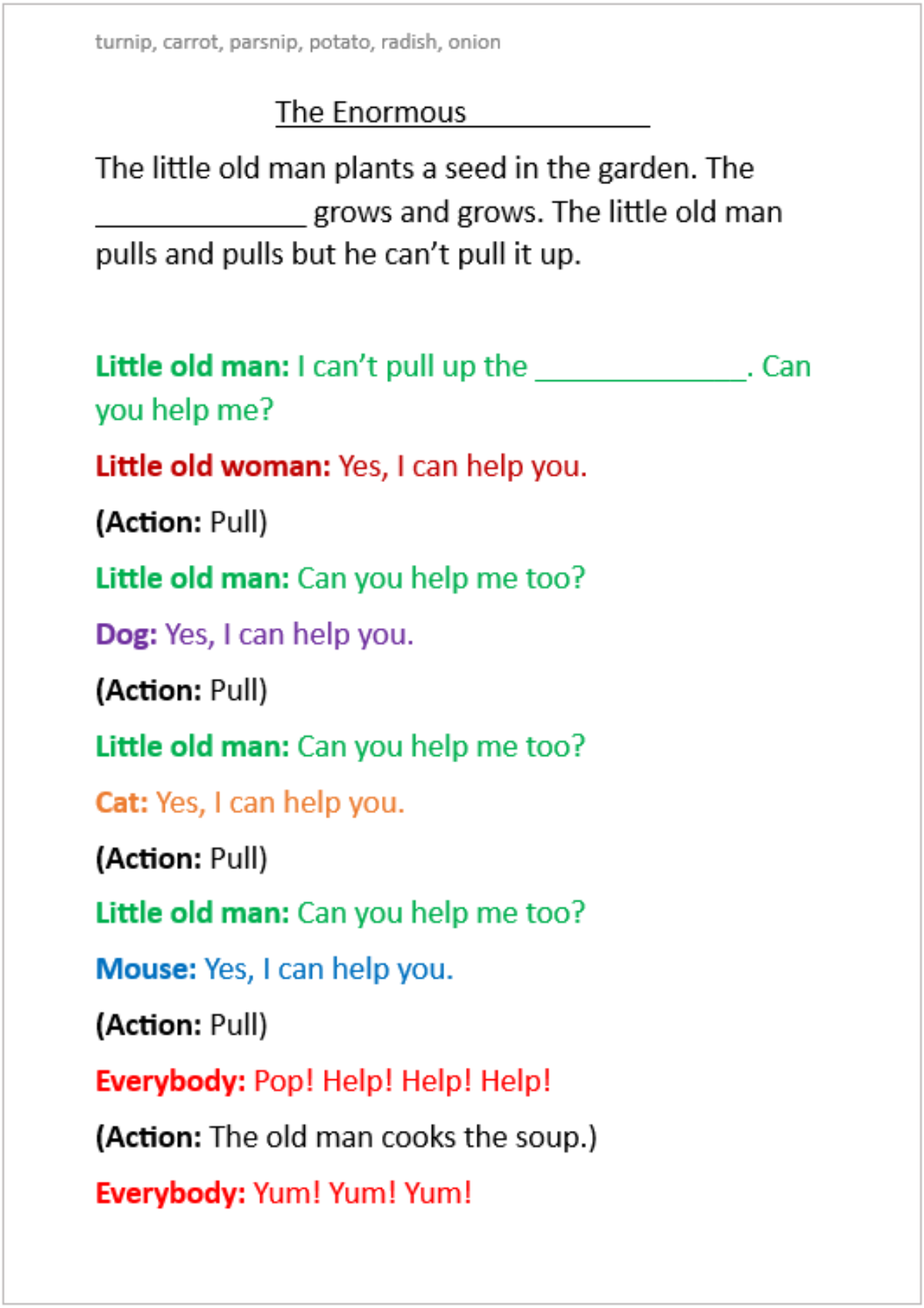
The Enormous Turnip – Lesson 4

Time (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
1	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder Reim mit der Klasse durch.	Hören der L. zu und führen das Begrüßungslied oder Reim durch.	Zusammen		Die SuS sind durch die englische Begrüßung auf den Englischunterricht eingestellt.
5	**Gefühle üben**	Die L. zeigt die Smiley Karten noch einmal und fragt die SuS, ob sie wissen, was für Gefühle sie zeigen. Die L. zeigt, wie die Frage und die Antwort aus der Geschichte mit Gefühlen gesprochen werden können. Die L. sucht eine Smiley Karte aus und spricht die Frage oder Antwort mit Gefühl. ***Can you help me pull up the enormous turnip?*** (als ob müde). ***Yes, I can help you.*** (als ob müde)	Die SuS melden sich und antworten. Die SuS machen mit, wenn sie möchten. Die SuS und L. sprechen die Frage und Antwort mit diesen Gefühlen aus: ***Can you help me pull up the enormous turnip?*** ***Yes, I can help you.***	Tische	Smiley Karten	Happy, excited, tired, hungry
5	**Die Geschichte mit dem Skript und den Puppen erzählen.**	***Today you are going to tell the story of The Enormous Turnip in your groups.*** Die L. wählt freiwillige Kinder aus, die vorne mit den Puppen spielen werden. Die L. erzählt die Geschichte mit dem normalen Skript.	 Einige SuS spielen vorn mit den Puppen. Die anderen SuS schauen die Puppen an und hören die Geschichte in Form eines Skripts.		Skript Stabpuppen	
5	**Das Skript an dem Smartboard zeigen.**	Die L. zeigt den SuS das Skript am Smartboard. Die L. zeigt, wie das Skript funktioniert und unterrichtet den Dialog zeilenweise.	Die SuS hören zu und schauen es an.		Smartboard	Die SuS sehen ein Beispiel für das, was sie in der Unterrichtsstunde machen werden.
5	**Wiederholung**	Die L. liest das Skript noch einmal vor. (Die L. erklärt, dass sie den Teil des Erzählers für die Gruppen am Ende vorlesen kann, wenn die SuS es wünschen. Die SuS müssen die ersten 3 Sätze nicht vorlesen, wenn sie das nicht wollen/können).	 Die SuS machen mit und sprechen im Chor: ***Can you help me… und Yes, I can help you.***			

5	**Schüler Skript erklärung**	Die L. erklärt, dass die SuS ihre Gemüseart für ihre Geschichte auf dem Skript schreiben müssen. Die L. wiederholt schnell die Gemüsearten (*radish, potato…*) Die L. zeigt, wie es mit den Lücken im Skript geht. Die SuS können auch ihren Teil im Skript unterstreichen, damit es klar ist, wann sie sprechen sollen.	Die SuS unterstreichen ihre Rollen auf dem Skript. Sie schreiben die Gemüseart in die Lücken.		Skript mit Lücken Gemüse Bilder und Labels	Die SuS lernen, wie das Skript aussieht und funktioniert.
5	**Skriptverteilung**	Die Skripte werden verteilt.				Die SuS üben lesen und sprechen.
15	**Gruppenarbeit**	Die L. schickt die SuS in ihre Farbgruppen, um die Geschichte mit den Stabpuppen vorzubereiten. Die SuS haben noch Zeit, ihre Puppen fertigzumachen, wenn sie bisher nicht fertig sind. Jede Gruppe erhält eine bunte Karte für ihren Tisch. Dies hilft die Forscherin zu erkennen, welche Gruppe sie gerade beobachtet.	Die SuS arbeiten in Gruppen, lesen das Skript (wenn sie können) und machen die Bewegungen mit den Stabpuppen, um die Geschichte zu erzählen. Die SuS haben Zeit in ihren Gruppen.	Gruppenarbeit	Bunte Karten	Die Forscherin macht eine Gruppenarbeitsbeobachtung.
1	**Übliche Reim oder Lied sagen oder singen.**	Der übliche Reim/ das Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde.				

Figure A2

Script


turnip, carrot, parsnip, potato, radish, onion

The Enormous _____

The little old man plants a seed in the garden. The _____ grows and grows. The little old man pulls and pulls but he can't pull it up.

Little old man: I can't pull up the _____. Can you help me?

Little old woman: Yes, I can help you.

(Action: Pull)

Little old man: Can you help me too?

Dog: Yes, I can help you.

(Action: Pull)

Little old man: Can you help me too?

Cat: Yes, I can help you.

(Action: Pull)

Little old man: Can you help me too?

Mouse: Yes, I can help you.

(Action: Pull)

Everybody: Pop! Help! Help! Help!

(Action: The old man cooks the soup.)

Everybody: Yum! Yum! Yum!

Lesson 5

Geschichte: *The Enormous Turnip*, (Bentley, 1996), Lesson 5

Themen: At home, pets, family

Werte: Helping others

Gefühle: tired, happy, excited, hungry

Theateraktivitäten: Stabpuppenspiel

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Beispielstabpuppen, bunte Gruppenkarten, SuS Stabpuppen, Skript, Beurteilungsblätter

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: great, big, enormous, turnip

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüler

Unterrichtsziele:

- Bekannte Wörter, einfache Wendungen und einfache Sätze lesen und verstehen
- Kurze, eingeübte Rollentexte wiedergeben
- Geschichten, Spiele, Reime, Lieder oder Rollenspiele präsentieren

Table A6

The Enormous Turnip – Lesson 5

Time (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
2	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder Reim mit der Klasse durch.	Hören der L. zu und führen das Begrüßungslied oder Reim durch.	Zusammen		Die SuS sind durch die englische Begrüßung auf den Englischunterricht eingestellt.
1	**Skriptverteilung**	***Today you have a little bit more time to practise telling your story in your groups.*** Die L. verteilt die Skripte.		Tische	Skript Stabpuppen	

10	**Gruppenarbeit**	Die L. schickt die SuS in ihre Farbgruppen, um die Geschichte mit den Stabpuppen vorzubereiten. Die SuS haben noch Zeit zu üben. Jede Gruppe erhält eine bunte Karte für ihren Tisch. Dies hilft der Forscherin zu wissen, welche Gruppe sie gerade beobachtet.	Die SuS arbeiten in Gruppen, lesen das Skript (wenn sie können) und machen die Bewegungen mit den Stabpuppen, um die Geschichte zu erzählen.	Gruppenarbeit	Skripte für die SuS.	Die SuS üben Lesen und Sprechen.
10	**Die Gruppen zeigen der Klasse, was sie vorbereitet haben.**	Die L. erklärt, dass sie nur nette Kommentare hören möchte. Alle haben sehr hart gearbeitet und haben viel geleistet. Das wollen wir loben.	Die SuS erzählen die Klasse ihre Geschichten.		Bunte Karten	
10	**Selbstbeurteilungsblatt**	Die L. erklärt das Beurteilungsblatt.	Die SuS, die die Einverständniserklärung unterschrieben zurückgegeben haben, füllen das Beurteilungsblatt aus.		Beurteilungsblatt	Die SuS machen eine Reflexion. Die Forscherin nimmt die Beurteilungsblätter mit.
1	**Übliche Reim oder Lied sagen oder singen.**	Übliche Reim/Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde.				

Appendix B – Goldilocks and the Three Bears – Lesson Plans

Table B1

Goldilocks and the Three Bears – Medium Term Plan

Einheit (45 Min)	Ziele (vom Bildungsplan)	Materialien	Geschichte	Theateraktivitäten
1	• Kurze Texten inhaltlich verstehen. • Körpersprache (Mimik, Gestik), Stimmeinsatz (Artikulation, Intonation und Sprechtempo) und Visualisierungshilfen (Bilder und Realia) zum Verstehen nutzen. • Geschichten, Bilderbücher, Spiele, Lieder und Reime aus dem zielsprachlichen Kulturraum erkennen.	Bilderbuch *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* (Baxter, 2011) Wald Bild Porridge Bild	Das Bilderbuch vorlesen.	*Let's Imagine* *Stop, Go, Show me*
2	• Einfache Fragen beantworten und kurze Fragen formulieren. • Ausgewählte Präpositionen und Konjunktionen nutzen. • Auf Anweisungen, Aufforderungen und Fragen entsprechend reagieren.	Bilderbuch Wald Bild Bild vom Inneren des Hauses Bilder der Gegenstände Goldilockstabelle und Karten	Wiederholung von Haus Wortschatz *living room, kitchen, bedroom* Wiederholung *in* Das Bilderbuch vorlesen Arbeitsblatt bearbeiten	*Let's Imagine* *Stop, Go, Show me*
3	• Eingeübte Wörter und Redewendungen verständlich aussprechen. • Bekannte Wörter, einfache Wendungen und einfache Sätze lesen und verstehen. • Einfache, geübte Fragen stellen und Antworten formulieren.	Bilderbuch Goldilockstabelle und Karten, Krawatte, Schürze, Teddybär	Dialog	*Pass it on* *Story Whoosh*
4	• Bekannte Wörter, einfache Wendungen und einfache Sätze lesen und verstehen. • Auf Anweisungen, Aufforderungen und Fragen entsprechend reagieren. • Kurze, eingeübte Rollentexte wiedergeben.	Bilderbuch bunte Gruppenkarten Wald Bild, Rollenkarte Stirnband Vorlagen Klebeband	Ende der Geschichte ändern Stirnband basteln	Rollenspiel entwickeln und üben
5	• Bekannte Wörter, einfache Wendungen und einfache Sätze lesen und verstehen. • Kurze, eingeübte Rollentexte wiedergeben. • Geschichten, Spiele, Reime, Lieder oder Rollenspiele präsentieren.	bunte Gruppenkarten Beurteilungsblätter Stirnbänder	Selbstbeurteilungsblatt	Rollenspiel üben und vorspielen

Lesson 1

Geschichte: *Goldilocks and the Three Bears,* (Baxter, 2011), Lesson 1

Themen: At home, rooms and furniture, too big, too small, just right, feelings

Werte: Andere Menschen mit Respekt zu behandeln

Theateraktivitäten: Let's imagine, Stop, Go, Show me

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Waldbild, porridge Bild

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: bear, Goldilocks, porridge, forest track, hot, cold, soft, hard, big, middle-sized, small, naughty, tired, too big, too small, just right

Produktiver Wortschatz: house, tree, bear, rabbit, yes, no, Father Bear, Mother Bear, Baby Bear, Goldilocks

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüler

Unterrichtsziele:

- Kurze Texten inhaltlich verstehen.
- Körpersprache (Mimik, Gestik), Stimmeinsatz (Artikulation, Intonation und Sprechtempo) und Visualisierungshilfen (Bilder und Realia) zum Verstehen nutzen.
- Geschichten, Bilderbücher, Spiele, Lieder und Reime aus dem zielsprachlichen Kulturraum erkennen.

Table B2

Goldilocks and the Three Bears – Lesson 1

Zeit (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
2	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder den Reim mit der Klasse durch.	SuS machen mit.	Alle		Die SuS sind durch die englische Begrüßung auf den Englischunterricht eingestellt.
Transition: An der Tafel ist ein Bild eines kleinen Hauses im Wald. ***Have a look at the board. There is a picture of a forest.***						

5	**Wald vorstellen**	Die L. spricht mit den SuS über das Bild und was im Bild zu sehen ist mit: ***There is/are ….*** ***trees, (tall/green trees) birds, rabbits, (white rabbits) flowers, a track and a house (little house).***	Die SuS können auch andere Dinge, die im Wald zu finden sind, vorschlagen, wenn sie möchten.		Wald Bild	
5	**Let's Imagine**	***Who do you think lives in this house in the forest? Is it a grandma? Is it a little boy? Is it an animal?***	Die SuS dürfen über die Geschichte spekulieren.		Wald Bild	
Transition: ***We are going to listen to a story from England now and find out who lives in the house in the woods. Are you ready? Let's meet the characters in the story.***						
10	**Pre-listening Figuren vorstellen**	Die L. zeigt auf die Titelseite des Buches, auf der die 3 Bären zu sehen sind. Die L. stellt die drei Bären vor. (Die L. macht die Stimmen und verwendet Bewegungen, um die Größen zu zeigen). ***This is Father Bear. Father Bear is a big bear. What colour is he?*** ***Mother Bear is a middle-sized bear and Baby Bear is a tiny little bear. They live in the house in the forest.*** ***The bears have a favourite food for breakfast.*** Die L. zeigt das porridge Bild. ***It's called porridge.*** Porridge is a food that some people eat for breakfast in England. ***Do you have porridge for breakfast? What do you have for breakfast? Do you have cereal? Bread? Cheese? Ham?***	Die SuS schauen es an und hören zu. Die SuS dürfen antworten, wenn sie möchten.		Titel Seite des Buches Wald Bild Porridge Bild	
Transition: ***Let's read the story and find out what happens to the three bears.***						
10	**1st story reading**	Die L. liest die Geschichte mit Mimik und Gestik vor. Sie zeigt den SuS die Bilder und zeigt auf sie.	Die SuS hören zu.		Bilderbuch	
5	**Post Listening**	Die L. fragt: ***How many bears are there in the story? What are their names? Is Father Bear big? Is Mother Bear middle-sized? Is Baby Bear small? There is a little girl in the story too. What is her name?***	Die SuS antworten mit ***yes*** or ***no*** und die Namen der Figuren, wenn sie möchten.		Bilderbuch	
10	**Stop, Go, Show me**	***Today you are a bear in the forest.*** ***Show me your paws.*** ***Show me your big ears.***	Die SuS zeigen ihre Pfoten. Die SuS zeigen ihre Ohren.			

		Are you ready? ***Show me how a bear walks.*** ***Show me how a big bear walks,*** ***Show me how a little bear walks,*** ***Show me how a hungry bear walks,*** ***Show me how a tired bear walks,*** ***Show me how a bear eats porridge.*** ***Show me how a bear sleeps.*** ***Show me how a bear sits.***	Die SuS zeigen, wie ein Bär geht.			
Transition: Reflection and then ***Let's sing the closing song together.***						
1	**Üblicher Reim oder Lied sagen oder singen.**	Der übliche Reim/ das Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde				

Lesson 2

Geschichte: *Goldilocks and the Three Bears,* (Baxter, 2011), Lesson 2

Themen: At home, rooms and furniture, too big, too small, just right, feelings

Werte: Andere Menschen mit Respekt zu behandeln

Theateraktivitäten: Let's imagine, Stop, Go, Show me

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Waldbild, Bild vom Inneren des Hauses, Bilder der Gegenstände, Goldilocks Tabelle und Karten

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: bear, Goldilocks, porridge, middle-sized, path, hot, cold, soft, hard, naughty, tired, too big, too small, just right, Father Bear, Mother Bear, Baby Bear

Produktiver Wortschatz: house, tree, bear, rabbit

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüler

Unterrichtsziele:

- Einfache Fragen beantworten und kurze Fragen formulieren.

- Ausgewählte Präpositionen und Konjunktionen nutzen.
- Auf Anweisungen, Aufforderungen und Fragen entsprechend reagieren

Table B3

Goldilocks and the Three Bears – Lesson 2

Zeit (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
2	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder Reim mit der Klasse durch.	Die SuS machen mit.	Alle		
5	**Stop, Go, Show me**	Wald Spaziergang (metaphorisch). ***We are going to go back down the forest track into the forest now to the bear's house. What can you see in the forest?*** ***I want you to imagine that you are in the forest. When I stay: stop show me a tree. I would like you to stand still, show me a tree with branches and leaves. Use your arms.*** (L. zeigt, wie es geht). ***Then I will say go again.*** ***If I say: Show me a big bird, then show me your wings with your elbows.*** ***If I say: Show me a beautiful flower, show me your petals. Use your arms.*** ***If I say: Show me a house with a roof. Show me your roof. Use your arms.*** ***Please go carefully and very quietly because there are bears in the forest.***	Die SuS wiederholen Waldwortschatz: forest track, trees, leaves, flowers, birds. Die SuS stellen sich vor, dass sie im Wald sind. Sie gehen den Weg entlang. Wenn die L. ***Stop! show me a big bird*** sagt, machen die SuS eine Pose. Die SuS erreichen das Haus der drei Bären.		Wald Bild	Wortschatz Wiederholung
Transition: ***Here we are. Who lives here?*** Die L. zeigt auf das Haus der drei Bären im Bild (im Wald Bild).						
10	**Pre-listen-ing**	Die Lehrkraft zeigt auf das Haus der drei Bären: ***Yes, this is the three bear's house. Shall we see if they are home?*** ***No - they are not there but we can see inside their house.*** Die L. zeigt das Bild vom Inneren des Hauses.	SuS hören zu und zeigen		Wald Bild Bild vom In-neren des Hauses.	*At Home* Wiederholung

		There is the kitchen. In the kitchen the bears eat porridge. ***There is the living room. In the living room the bears sit on the chairs.*** ***There is the bedroom. In the bedroom the bears sleep in the beds.*** Alle Gegenstände kommen dreimal in der Geschichte vor. ***In the story there are three of each thing, one for each bear. Where does the porridge go? There is a big bowl of porridge for Father Bear, a medium-sized bowl of porridge for Mother Bear….*** ***Come and stick the small bowl of porridge on for us. Come and stick the middle-sized bowl of porridge on for us. Come and stick the big bowl of porridge on for us.*** ***There are three chairs. Where do the chairs go? Where does the small chair go? Where does the middle-sized chair go? Where does the big chair go?*** ***There are three beds. Where does the small bed go? Where does the middle-sized bed go? Where does the big bed go?***	***In the kitchen*** Die SuS kleben die Gegenstände in die richtigen Räume. ***In the living room*** ***In the bedroom*** ***She is in the kitchen*** ***It is in the kitchen*** ***It is in the living room***		Bilder der Gegenstände	Preposition *in* üben *At Home* Wiederholung
5	**Story reading**	Die L. liest die Geschichte vor. Während der Erzählung fragt sie den SuS: **z.B.** ***Where is Goldilocks now?*** ***Where is the small bowl?*** ***Where is the big chair?***	Die SuS kleben die Karten richtig auf dem großen Blatt. Die SuS dürfen vorkommen und die passende Karte auf der Tabelle kleben.			Gegenstandsbildkarten und *Goldilocks* Tabelle. Verständnisübung
10	**Post listening**	Nach der Geschichte fragt die L: ***Does Goldilocks like Daddy bear's porridge?*** ***-No, it is too hot.*** ***Does Goldilocks like Mummy bear's porridge?*** ***-No, it is too cold.*** ***Does Goldilocks like Baby Bear's porridge?*** ***-Yes, it is just right (usw).***				
10	**Worksheet**	Die L. erklärt das Arbeitsblatt 2.	Die SuS schneiden und kleben die Karten in die richtige Reihenfolge.		Karten und Goldilocks Blatt	
1	**Reim oder Lied**	Der üblicher Reim/Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde.				

Lesson 3

Geschichte: *Goldilocks and the Three Bears,* (Baxter, 2011), Lesson 3

Themen: At home, rooms and furniture, too big, too small, just right

Werte: Treating other people with respect

Theateraktivitäten: Dialog, Pass it on, Story Whoosh

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Goldilockstabelle und Karten, Krawatte, Schürze, Teddybär für die Kinder, die im Story Whoosh vorspielen, happy Smiley Bild, angry Smiley Bild

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: bear, Goldilocks, porridge, middle-sized, path, hot, cold, soft, hard, naughty, tired, angry, too big, too small, just right

Produktiver Wortschatz: Do you like …? No, it is too hot/cold/soft/hard Yes. It is just right.

L =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüler

Unterrichtsziele:

- Eingeübte Wörter und Redewendungen verständlich aussprechen.
- Bekannte Wörter, einfache Wendungen und einfache Sätze lesen und verstehen.
- Einfache, geübte Fragen stellen und Antworten formulieren.

Table B4

Goldilocks and the Three Bears – Lesson 3

Zeit (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
2	**Opening rhyme or song to begin the lesson**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder Reim mit der Klasse durch.	SuS machen mit.	Alle		
Transition: ***Please get out your Goldilocks Worksheet from last lesson.***						

20	**Dialog** **Zusammen im Chor** **Die SuS sprechen zu Zweit**	Die L. und SuS kontrollieren die Tabelle von der letzten Stunde zusammen. Die L. demonstriert den Dialog und schreibt die Fragen und Antworten an die Tafel. ***Does Goldilocks like…*** ***No, it is too …/yes, it is just right*** Die Klasse spielt ein paar Beispiele vom Dialog alle zusammen im Chor und die L. zeigt auf die Tafel. Die SuS stellen und beantworten Fragen mithilfe der Tabelle.	Die SuS kontrollieren ihre Antworten. L: ***Does Goldilocks like Father Bear's Porridge?*** SuS: ***No, it is too hot.*** (actions) L: ***Does Goldilocks like Mother Bear's porridge?*** SuS: ***No, it is too cold.*** (actions) L: ***Does Goldilocks like Baby Bear's porridge?*** SuS: ***Yes, it is just right.*** (actions) Die SuS fragen und antworten zu zweit. Am Ende dürfen einige SuS-paare der Klasse ihre Dialoge zeigen, wenn sie das möchten.		*Goldilocks* Tabelle an der Tafel	
Transition: ***Now are going to tell the story of Goldilocks and The Three Bears together now. Please come to the front.***						
2 15	**Pass it on – warm-up** **Story Whoosh**	Die L. zeigt das *happy* Bild noch einmal und erzählt, dass die Bären am Anfang der Geschichte glücklich sind. ***How do people look when they are happy?*** Die L. zeigt *happy*. Sie gibt das Gesicht an das nächste Kind weiter, wie eine mexikanische Welle (von einem SuS zum nächsten). Dann zeigt die L. das *angry* Bild und sagt: ***The Bears are angry when they find Goldilocks at the end of the story in Baby Bear's bed.*** ***How do people look when they are angry?*** Die L. zeigt *angry*. Sie gibt das Gesicht an das nächste Kind weiter, wie eine mexikanische Welle (von einem SuS zum nächsten). Für diese Aktivität braucht die Klasse relativ viel Platz.	Die SuS machen mit. Die SuS tauschen die Rollen (und auch die Gegenstände), wenn die L. mit den Armen		*happy* Bild *angry* Bild Krawatte Schürze Teddybär	 Die Objekte bringen Kontinuität in die Erzählung.

		Die L. Erklärt, wie ein *Whoosh* geht. Die SuS sitzen/stehen im Kreis. Die L. erzählt die Geschichte und die SuS spielen die Figuren (machen passende Bewegungen) vorn im Kreis. Wer möchte, hebt ganz leise und wird von der L. drangenommen. Dann kommt er in die Mitte, spielt eine Figur und macht die Bewegungen. Die Kinder, die die 3 Bären spielen, können eine Krawatte, eine Schürze anziehen oder ein Teddybär halten. Wenn die L *Whoosh* sagt und mit den Armen winkt (wie ein Zauberstab), tauschen die Kinder und jemand anders spielt die Figur. (Dies kann nach einigen Geschichtsseiten passieren). Die L. erzählt die Geschichte dann weiter.	winkt. (Vielleicht zweimal während der Geschichte.)			
2	**Reflektion**	Was hast du heute besonders gut gemacht?				*Warm-down* und zurück zur Realität kehren.
Transition: ***Thank you for helping to tell the story.***						
1	**Reim oder Lied**	Der übliche Reim/ das Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde.				

Lesson 4

Geschichte: *Goldilocks and the Three Bears,* (Baxter, 2011), Lesson 4

Themen: At home, rooms and furniture, too big, too small, just right

Werte: Andere Menschen mit Respekt zu behandeln

Theateraktivitäten: Ende der Geschichte ändern, Rollenspiel entwickeln, üben und vorspielen

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Waldbild, Rollenkarte, Gruppenfarbkarten, Stirnband Vorlagen, Klebeband

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: bear, Goldilocks, porridge, chair, bed, naughty, angry, make a mess, tidy up, say sorry, fix the chair, sleep, eat, break

Produktiver Wortschatz: Goldilocks, bear, tidy up, say sorry, fix the chair

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüle

Unterrichtsziele:

- Bekannte Wörter, einfache Wendungen und einfache Sätze lesen und verstehen.
- Auf Anweisungen, Aufforderungen und Fragen entsprechend reagieren.
- Kurze, eingeübte Rollentexte wiedergeben.

Table B5

Goldilocks and the Three Bears – Lesson 4

Zeit (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
2	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder Reim mit der Klasse durch.	Hören der L. zu und führen das Begrüßungslied oder Reim durch.	Alle		Die SuS sind durch die englische Begrüßung auf den Englischunterricht eingestellt.
Transition: ***Who lives in the house in the woods?***						
1 15	**Einleitung** **Die Ende der Geschichte ändern.**	***Who doesn't live there?*** Die L. zeigt die letzte Seite des Bilderbuches, auf der die 3 Bären eine schlafende Goldilocks zu Hause finden. ***Goldilocks is sleeping in Baby Bear's bed.*** (Seite im Buch zeigen) ***She eats Baby Bear's porridge*** (Seite im Buch zeigen) ***and she breaks his chair*** (Seite im Buch zeigen)***. She makes a mess and she runs away. The bears are angry*** (Mimik und Gestik verwenden). ***Should Goldilocks say sorry and not run away?*** Die L. schreibt an die Tafel: *Say sorry!* ***Should Goldilocks tidy up the house?*** (Bewegungen machen). Die L. schreibt an die Tafel: *Tidy up the kitchen!* *Tidy up the living room!* *Tidy up the bedroom!* ***Should Goldilocks cook the porridge?*** (Bewegungen machen).	*Goldilocks*		Waldbild Bilderbuch *angry smiley* Bild	

		Die L. schreibt an die Tafel: *Cook the porridge!* ***Should Goldilocks fix the chair*?** (Bewegungen machen – übersetzen, wenn nötig). Die L. schreibt an die Tafel: *Fix the chair!*				
	Üben im Chor	Die L. und die SuS üben diese Phrasen zusammen ganz normal, leise, laut, böse, höflich usw…	Zusammen im Chor sprechen.			Die Aussprache üben.
		Die L. bittet drei oder vier Freiwillige, nach vorn zu kommen und Goldilocks zu spielen. Sie nehmen eine ähnliche Pose ein wie auf dem Bild im Bilderbuch. Der Rest der Klasse sind Bären. Die Bären üben, die Anweisungen gemeinsam zu sagen. z.B. ***Say sorry!*** ***Cook the porridge!*** ***Tidy up the kitchen!*** ***Tidy up the living room!*** ***Tidy up the bedroom!*** ***Fix the chair!***	Vier Freiwillige spielen Goldilocks and machen eine Pose. Goldilocks macht die passenden Bewegungen.			
Transition: ***You are going to act out an ending to the story. Goldilocks says sorry, cooks the porridge and tidies up. You are going to make a headband to wear when you act out the ending. You can decide who is Goldilocks and who is a bear. You can have two Goldilocks or four bears if you want to. I am also going to give you the sentences on a sheet of paper to help you to know what you can say.***						
15	**Stirnband basteln**	Die L. erklärt die Aktivität mit dem Stirnband. ***Choose your character, colour the headband, cut out the headband and stick it with celotape.*** Die L. erklärt, dass die SuS ihre eigene Endung mithilfe der Rollenkarte und der Phrasen, die sie gerade geübt haben, entwickeln werden. Sie dürfen die Reihenfolge entscheiden. Die SuS können entscheiden, wer was spielt.	Die SuS basteln einen Stirnband.		Stirnband Vorlagen	
10	**Ende üben**	Die L. schickt die Kinder zu ihren Farbgruppen. Dann üben die SuS ihr neues Ende.	Die SuS üben zusammen und entscheiden, wer was sagt und macht.			Die Forscherin macht eine Gruppenarbeitsbeobachtung.
Transition:						
1	**Reim oder Lied**	Der übliche Reim/ das Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde.	Die SuS zeigen, was sie in ihren Gruppen vorbereitet haben.			

Lesson 5

Geschichte: *Goldilocks and the Three Bears,* (Baxter, 2011), Lesson 5

Themen: At home, rooms and furniture, too big, too small, just right

Werte: Andere Menschen mit Respekt zu behandeln

Theateraktivitäten: Ende der Geschichte ändern, Rollenspiel entwickeln, üben und vorspielen

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Waldbild, Rollenkarte, Gruppenfarbkarten, Selbstbeurteilungsblätter, Stirnbänder

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: bear, Goldilocks, porridge, chair, bed, naughty, make a mess, tidy up, say sorry, fix the chair, sleep, eat, break

Produktiver Wortschatz: Goldilocks, bear, tidy up, say sorry, fix the chair

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüle

Unterrichtsziele:

- Bekannte Wörter, einfache Wendungen und einfache Sätze lesen und verstehen.
- Kurze, eingeübte Rollentexte wiedergeben.
- Geschichten, Spiele, Reime, Lieder oder Rollenspiele präsentieren.

Table B6

Goldilocks and the Three Bears – Lesson 5

Zeit (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
2	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungs-lied oder Reim mit der Klasse durch.	Hören der L. zu und führen das Begrüßungs-lied oder Reim durch.	Alle		Die SuS sind durch die englische Begrüßung auf den Englischunterricht eingestellt.
Transition: ***You have some time now in your groups to finish your headbands and to practise your story ending.***						
15	**Grup-penarbeit**	Die SuS haben noch mehr Zeit zum Üben.	Die SuS gestalten ihr eigenes Ende mithilfe einer Rollenkarte.		Farbkarten Rollenkarte Stirnbände	Die Forscherin macht eine Gruppenbeobachtung.

15	**Die Performance**	Die SuS zeigen der Klasse die neue Endung der Geschichte, die sie entwickelt haben.	Die SuS spielen vor.			Die Forscherin macht eine Gruppenbeobachtung.
10	**Selbstbeurteilungsblatt**	Die L. erklärt das Beurteilungsblatt.	Die SuS, die die Einverständniserklärung unterschrieben zurückgegeben haben, füllen das Beurteilungsblatt aus.			Die Forscherin nimmt die Beurteilungsblätter mit.
1	**Lied sagen oder singen**	Der übliche Reim/ das Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde.				

Appendix C – Monkey Puzzle – Lesson Plans

Table C1

Monkey Puzzle – Medium Term Plan

Einheit (45 Min)	Ziele (vom Bildungsplan)	Materialien	Geschichte	Theateraktivitäten
1	• Kurze Texten inhaltlich verstehen. • Körpersprache (Mimik, Gestik), Stimmeinsatz (Artikulation, Intonation und Sprechtempo) und Visualisierungshilfen (Bilder und Realia) zum Verstehen nutzen. • Fragen stellen und Antworten formulieren.	Bilderbuch *Monkey Puzzle* (Donaldson, 2000) Wildtiere Flashkarten Scharadenkarten	Das Bilderbuch vorlesen	*Charades* (Scharaden)
2	• Einzelne sprachliche Strukturen verstehen. • Wortfelder erweitern. • Das Schriftbild bekannter Wörter Bildern zuordnen.	Bilderbuch Wildtiere Flashkarten Tierbeschriftungen Affenteile AB. Wild Animals	Das Bilderbuch vorlesen AB. Wild Animals	*Stop, Go, Show me*
3	• Einzelne gut bekannte Wörter abschreiben. • Wortfelder erweitern. • Sich mit eingeübten Redemitteln zu Menschen, Tieren, Orten und Zuständen äußern.	Bilderbuch Wildtiere Flashkarten AB. My Favourite Animal	AB. My Favourite Animal Über mein Lieblingstier sprechen	*Simon says*
4	• Bekannte Wörter, einfache Wendungen und einfache Sätze lesen und verstehen. • Auf Anweisungen, Aufforderungen und Fragen entsprechend reagieren. • Sich mit eingeübten Redemitteln zu Menschen, Tieren, Orten und Zuständen äußern.	Bilderbuch Rollenspiel Karten Tiermasken Vorlagen Bunte Gruppenkarten Holzstäbchen	Tier Masken basteln	Rollenspiel entwickeln und üben
5	• Eingeübte Wörter und Redewendungen verständlich aussprechen. • Kurze, eingeübte Rollentexte wiedergeben. • Geschichten, Spiele, Reime, Lieder oder Rollenspiele präsentieren.	Bunte Gruppenkarten Rollenspiel Karten Tier Masken Selbstbeurteilungsblätter	Selbstbeurteilungsblatt	Vorspiel

Lesson 1

Topic: *Monkey Puzzle*, (Donaldson, 2000), Lesson 1

Themen: Wildtiere

Werte: Anderen Menschen helfen

Theateraktivitäten: Scharaden

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Wildtiere Flashkarten, Scharadenkarten

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: elephant, frog, butterfly, parrot, snake, spider, bat, jungle

Produktiver Wortschatz: elephant, frog, butterfly, parrot, snake, spider, Are you…? Yes, I am/No, I'm (I am) not

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüler

Unterrichtsziele:

- Kurze Texten inhaltlich verstehen.
- Körpersprache (Mimik, Gestik), Stimmeinsatz (Artikulation, Intonation und Sprechtempo) und Visualisierungshilfen (Bilder und Realia) zum Verstehen nutzen.
- Fragen stellen und Antworten formulieren

Table C2

Monkey Puzzle – Lesson 1

Zeit (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
2	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder Reim mit der Klasse durch.	SuS machen mit.	Alle		Die SuS sind durch die englische Begrüßung auf den Englischunterricht eingestellt.
Transition: ***Our story today is about wild animals. Let's meet the animals in the story.***						

10	**Wild Tiere vorstellen** **Pre-listening**	Die L. verwendet die Flashcards, um die Wildtiere vorzustellen (*elephant, frog, butterfly, parrot, snake, spider, bat*). ***This animal is an elephant. The elephant is very big. What colour is the elephant?*** ***This is a frog. It is small. What colour is it?*** ***This is a butterfly …*** ***parrot …*** ***snake ….*** ***spider …*** ***bat ….*** Die L. zeigt auf der Titelseite des Buches auf den kleinen Affen. ***This is the little monkey. The little monkey is a baby. What colour is the little monkey?*** Die L. zeigt auf den Flashcards und auf der Titelseite des Buches noch einmal und sagt: ***All the animals live in the jungle. This is the jungle. The jungle has lots of trees and flowers. Where are the trees? Where are the flowers? What is the weather like in the jungle? (hot and wet)*** ***This story is called Monkey Puzzle. The little monkey has a puzzle*** (Bewegung für Rätsel machen). ***He needs to find the answer.***	Die SuS schauen und hören zu. Die SuS dürfen antworten, wenn sie möchten/können. Die SuS können zeigen, wo die Sachen sind.	Im Sitzkreis.	Wild Tiere flash cards	Einführung Wildtier Wortschatz. Wiederholung von Farben, Adjektiven (*big, small*).
Transition: ***Let's read the story and find out what the puzzle is.***						
10	**Geschichte vorlesen**	***While you are listening, see if you can find out what the puzzle is.*** Die L. liest die Geschichte mit Mimik und Gestik und mit den entsprechenden Stimmen vor. Die L. zeigt auf die Tiere, die Farben, den Dschungel usw. im Buch. Die L. fragt die SuS vielleicht ***What animal is this? What animal do you think little monkey will meet next?*** Die L. entscheidet sich, wie sie dies tun möchte.	Die SuS hören zu und machen mit.		Bilderbuch	While listening
Transition:						
5	**Post listening Phase**	Die L. erzählt den SuS: ***The puzzle is that little monkey can't find his mum, but he finds her in the end.*** Dann fragt die L. zum Beispiel: ***Which animal in the story is your favourite animal?*** ***Which animal is monkey's mum?***	Die SuS antworten, wie sie können.		Bilderbuch	

		Andere Fragen sind auch möglich.				
Transition: ***We are going to play a game. The game is called charades.***						
15	**Scharaden**	Die L. erklärt, dass die SuS Tierkarten bekommen werden. Ein:e SuS nimmt eine Karte vom Stapel, zeigt sie den anderen Kindern in der Gruppe nicht. Die Karte bleibt geheim. Er/sie spielt dieses Tier vor. Die anderen SuS raten, was es für ein Tier ist. Sie verwenden: ***Are you a … (monkey, snake, parrot…)?*** ***Yes, I am/ No, I'm not.*** Die L. schreibt die Frage und die Antwort an die Tafel. Dann macht die L. ein Beispiel.	Die SuS schauen und hören zu. Die SuS dürfen raten. ***Are you a …*** ***Yes, I am/ No, I'm not.***		Scha-radenkarten	*Charades warm-up* Gerüst (*Scaffolding*) an der Tafel.
		Die L. nimmt ein freiwilliger SuS, der nach vorn kommen und eine Karte nehmen möchte. Er/sie spielt das Tier auf der Karte vor.	Ein freiwillige SuS kommt nach vorne und macht auch ein Beispiel.			
		Die L. erklärt vorher dass, wenn ein SuS irgendwas zeigt/sagt, sie keinen negativen Kommentar darüber hören möchte. Alle lernen zusammen und Fehler sind erlaubt. Fehler helfen uns, weiterzulernen.	Die SuS dürfen Vorschläge machen, wenn sie möchten.			
	Spielregeln besprechen	Die L. bespricht die Spielregeln mit den SuS.				
	Die SuS spielen Scharaden in ihre Gruppen.	Die L. schickt die SuS in ihren Gruppen (2-3 SuS), um das Spiel zu spielen. Ein SuS fängt an und macht die Bewegungen. Die anderen zwei raten. Danach kommt vielleicht noch jemand nach vorn und spielt ein Tier vor. Die Frage und die Antwort können noch einmal wiederholt und befestigt werden.	Die SuS spielen das Spiel in ihren Gruppen. Die SuS verwenden: ***Are you a …*** ***Yes, I am/ No, I'm not.*** Freiwillige SuS kommen nach vorn und machen ein Beispiel.			Die Frage, die Antwort und der Wortschatz können noch einmal wiederholt und befestigt werden.

	Wiederholung/Plenary	Die L. fragt die Lernenden, welche Art von Feedback sie zu den Bewegungsaktivitäten erhalten möchten. Allgemeine Kommentare über die Klasse im Allgemeinen sind gut, aber nichts Persönliches und nichts Negatives. Dinge, die wir als Klasse gerne verbessern würden, wären auch schön.				
2	**Reflektion**	Hat Ihnen das Spiel gefallen? Was habt ihr heute besonders gut gemacht? Woran müsst ihr noch arbeiten?				*Warm-down* und zurück zur Realität kehren. Selbstreflexion.
1	**Reim**	Der übliche Reim/ das Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde				

Lesson 2

Topic: *Monkey Puzzle*, (Donaldson, 2000), Lesson 2

Themen: Wildtiere

Werte: Anderen Menschen helfen

Theateraktivitäten: Stop, go, show me

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Wildtiere Flashkarten, Tierbeschriftungen, Affenteile, Arbeitsblatt – Wild Animals

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: elephant, frog, butterfly, parrot, snake, spider, bat, jungle, soft fur, body, legs, wings, trunk, ears, nose, tail

Produktiver Wortschatz: elephant, frog, butterfly, parrot, snake, spider

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüler

Unterrichtsziele:

- Einzelne sprachliche Strukturen verstehen.
- Wortfelder erweitern.
- Das Schriftbild bekannter Wörter Bildern zuordnen.

Table C3

Monkey Puzzle – Lesson 2

Zeit (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
2	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder Reim mit der Klasse durch.	SuS machen mit.	Alle		Die SuS sind durch die englische Begrüßung auf den Englischunterricht eingestellt.
Transition: ***Our story is about wild animals. Can you remember the animals?***						
10	**Wild Tiere nochmal vorstellen**	Die L. verwendet die Flashkarten, um die Wildtiere noch einmal vorzustellen (elephant, frog, butterfly, parrot, snake, spider, bat). ***What's this animal called? Can you remember? What colour is it?*** Die L. gibt jedem Tier eine Beschriftung. ***In the story, monkey can't find his mum. Butterfly doesn't know what monkey's mum looks like. Let's help butterfly to find monkey's mum by describing her.*** Die L. nimmt die Monkey Körperteile. ***Monkey's mum has got a head with soft brown ears, black eyes, a nose, a mouth,*** (Die L. zeigt jeden Körperteil) ***a body,*** ***two legs,*** ***two arms*** ***a long tail*** ***and soft fur.*** ***None of the other animals look like monkey.*** ***Butterfly, parrot and bat have got wings. Monkey hasn't got wings.*** (Die L. macht die Bewegungen) Die L. zeigt auf die butterfly und parrot Flashkarten. ***Elephant has got a trunk.*** (Bewegungen machen) Die L. zeigt auf die Flashkarte. ***Monkey hasn't got a trunk.*** ***Snake has got a long body.*** Die L. zeigt auf die Flashkarte. ***Monkey hasn't got a very long body.***	Die SuS dürfen antworten, wenn sie möchten. Die SuS oder die L. stellen die Teile nacheinander zusammen.	Im Sitzkreis	Wildtiere Flashkarten Wildtiere Beschriftungen *Monkey* Bild mit Körperteile. *Butterfly* Flashkarte *Parrot* Flashkarte *Bat* Flashkarte *Elephant* Flashkarte	

		As we read the story, we are going to look at all the animals. I want you to look for animals that have a tail and animals that have wings. If you see an animal with a tail or wings, you can raise your hand and point to it for us and perhaps tell us what it is.	Die SuS machen mit.			
Transition: You can also help me by joining in with ***no, no, no. That's a ….*** And then say the animal.						
10	**Geschichte vorlesen**	Die L. liest die Geschichte mit Mimik und Gestik vor. Die SuS zeigen auf/nennen die Tiere mit einem Schwanz und Flügeln. Die L. pausiert nach ***No, no, no! That's a …….***	Die SuS zeigen auf/nennen die Tiere mit einem Schwanz. Die SuS dürfen das Tier im Chor nennen.		Bilderbuch	
Transition: ***We are going to play a game now***						
10	**Post listening Phase Stop go show me**	***We are going to play a game called "Stop, Go, Show me". You are going to show me how each animal moves. Also show me their tails, wings, arms, legs and trunks. First look at the animals on the board once again and we will remind ourselves. Can someone point to:*** ***the elephant with a long tail and a long trunk,*** ***the green frog with long legs,*** ***the butterfly with beautiful wings,*** ***the red and green parrot with wings,*** ***the long yellow snake*** ***the bat with brown wings*** ***the spider with eight legs.*** Die L. und SuS entscheiden sich, welche Bewegung jedes Tier macht. Jedes Tier wird einmal geübt (alle zusammen). ***You are in the jungle. Go… stop, show me a monkey. Show me the monkey's ears…. Show me the monkey's tail. Go…. stop. Show me a frog with long legs.***	Die SuS schauen und hören zu. Die SuS dürfen Vorschläge machen und die Tiere vorzeigen, wenn sie möchten. Die SuS spielen das Spiel.		Tier Flash-Karten	*Stop, Go, Show me*
Transition: Thank you. Please sit down in your places again.						
2	**Reflexion**	***Would you like to go to the jungle one day?*** ***What animal would you like to see in the jungle?*** ***Wie fühlst du dich nach der Theateraktivität heute?*** ***Was habt ihr heute gut gemacht?*** ***Woran musst ihr noch arbeiten?***	Die SuS können auf Englisch oder Deutsch antworten.			Wir sprechen über uns alle.

5	**Animal worksheet - Tiere beschriften**	***I have a worksheet now for you to do. Please label the animals and their body parts. Fill in the gaps with the correct words. The words are on the sheet to help you.***	AB Dienst verteilen die AB Wild Animals. Die SuS füllen die Lücken auf dem Blatt aus.		AB Wild Animals	Bekannte Wortschatz abschreiben. Wortschatz befestigen.
1	**Reim oder Lied**	Der übliche Reim/ das Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde.				

Lesson 3

Topic: *Monkey Puzzle*, (Donaldson, 2000), Lesson 3

Themen: Wildtiere

Werte: Anderen Menschen helfen

Theateraktivitäten: Simon Says

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Wildtiere Flashkarten, Tierbeschriftungen, AB. My Favourite Animal

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: elephant, frog, butterfly, parrot, snake, spider, bat, jungle, climb, swim, jump, walk, fly, slither

Produktiver Wortschatz: elephant, frog, butterfly, parrot, snake, bat, climb, swim, jump, walk, fly, slither, body, legs, wings, trunk, ears, nose, tail

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüler

Unterrichtsziele:

- Wortfelder erweitern.
- Einzelne gut bekannte Wörter abschreiben.
- Sich mit eingeübten Redemitteln zu Menschen, Tieren, Orten und Zuständen äußern.

Table C4

Monkey Puzzle – Lesson 3

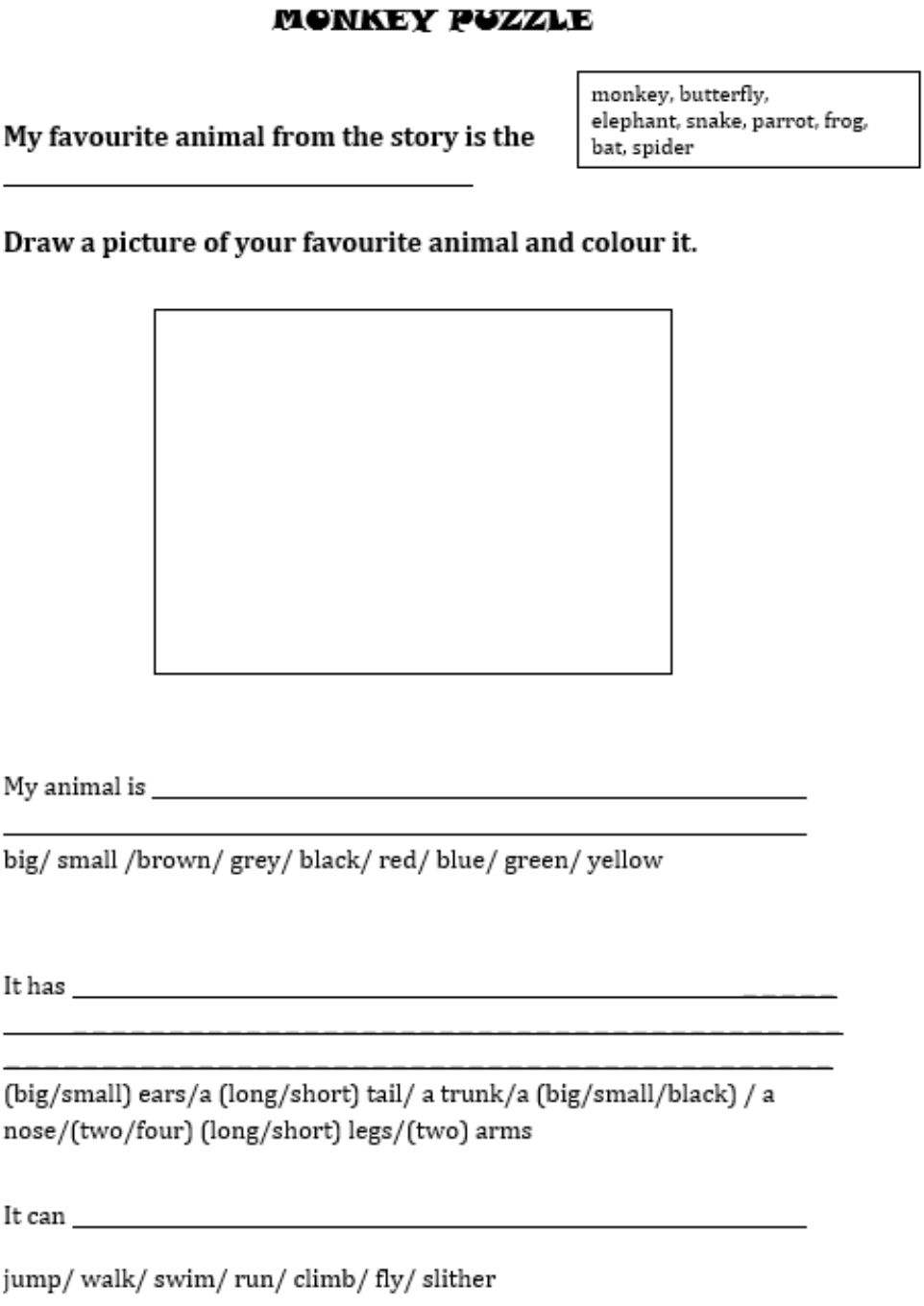
Zeit (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
2	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder Reim mit der Klasse durch.	SuS machen mit.	Alle		Die SuS sind durch die englische Begrüßung auf den Englischunterricht eingestellt.
Transition: ***Let's go back to the jungle.***						
10	**Wortschatz Einführen (verben)**	(Die Tier Flashkarten werden an die Tafel gehängt). ***Here are the animals once more. Can you remember what they are called?*** ***Which animal is this?*** ***This is a monkey. Tell me something about the monkey. What colour is it? How many legs does it have?*** ***It is ….*** (brown) ***It has….*** (ears, a tail, soft fur) ***This is an elephant… usw.*** ***Today we are going to talk about what the animals do.*** Die L. führt die Wörter mit den Bilderkarten und mit Bewegungen ein (*climb, swim, jump, walk, fly, slither*). ***It can climb. Which animal can climb? A monkey can climb.*** ***It can swim. Which animal can swim? A frog can swim.*** ***It can jump. Which animal can jump? A frog can jump.*** ***It can walk. Which animal can walk? An elephant can walk.*** ***It can fly. Which animal can fly? A parrot can fly. A butterfly can fly. A bat can fly.*** ***It can slither. Which animal can slither? A snake can slither.*** Die L. wiederholt die Sätze nochmal: ***A monkey can climb. A frog can swim. A frog can jump. An elephant can walk. A butterfly can fly. A snake can slither.*** Die L. wiederholt die Sätze noch einmal.	Die SuS schauen, hören zu und antworten, wenn sie können. Die SuS verwenden ***It is….*** Und ***It has…*** Die SuS sagen die Sätze gemeinsam (im Chor).			Verben einführen und üben. Die L. erinnert die SuS an den in der letzten Stunde eingeführten und geübten Wortschatz und übt diesen noch einmal mit den SuS. Aussprache üben.
Transition: ***We are going to play a game now to practise the actions.***						

5	**"Simon says"** <

		Die L. macht eine Demonstration und liest die Sätze von ihrem Blatt vor. ***My animal is big and grey. It has big ears, a long tail and four legs. It can walk. What is it?*** ***It's an elephant.***	Die SuS stehen auf, suchen sich einen Partner und beschreiben abwechselnd ihr Tier. Ihr Partner errät, um welches Tier es sich handelt. Danach dürfen freiwillige SuS ihre Sätze vor der Klasse vorlesen oder die L. liest die Sätze vor. Die SuS raten, was für ein Lieblingstier beschrieben wird.			
1	**Übliche Reim oder Lied sagen oder singen**	Der übliche Reim/ das Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde				

Figure C1

Arbeitsblatt My Favourite Animal



MONKEY PUZZLE

My favourite animal from the story is the _____

monkey, butterfly, elephant, snake, parrot, frog, bat, spider

Draw a picture of your favourite animal and colour it.

My animal is _____

_____

big/ small /brown/ grey/ black/ red/ blue/ green/ yellow

It has _____

_____

_____

(big/small) ears/a (long/short) tail/ a trunk/a (big/small/black) / a nose/(two/four) (long/short) legs/(two) arms

It can _____

jump/ walk/ swim/ run/ climb/ fly/ slither

Lesson 4

Topic: *Monkey Puzzle*, (Donaldson, 2000), Lesson 4

Themen: Wildtiere

Werte: Anderen Menschen helfen

Theateraktivitäten: Rollenspiel entwickeln

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Wildtiere Flashkarten, Tierbeschriftungen, Rollenspielkarten, Tiermasken Vorlagen, Holzstäbchen, Bild von Mummy Monkey, Farbkarten

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: elephant, frog, butterfly, parrot, snake, spider, bat, jungle, climb, swim, jump, walk, fly, slither

Produktiver Wortschatz: elephant, frog, butterfly, parrot, snake, bat, climb, swim, jump, walk, fly, slither, body, legs, wings, trunk, ears, nose, tail

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüler

Unterrichtsziele:

- Bekannte Wörter, einfache Wendungen und einfache Sätze lesen und verstehen.
- Auf Anweisungen, Aufforderungen und Fragen entsprechend reagieren.
- Sich mit eingeübten Redemitteln zu Menschen, Tieren, Orten und Zuständen äußern.

Table C5

Monkey Puzzle – Lesson 4

Zeit (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
2	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder Reim mit der Klasse durch.	SuS machen mit.	Alle		Die SuS sind durch die englische Begrüßung auf den Englischunterricht eingestellt.
Transition: ***Let's remind ourselves of the story just quickly.***						
2	**Tiere in die richtige**	***Who do baby monkey and butterfly meet first? Can you remember? Let's put the animals in order.***	Die Lernenden helfen, die Tierkarten in die richtige Reihenfolge zu bringen.		Wildtier Flashkarten	

	Reihenfolge bringen	(Elephant, snake, spider, parrot, frog, bat, mummy monkey) ***First, they meet elephant, then they meet snake….***				
10	**Rollenspiel einführen**	***Today you are going to tell the story in your colour groups.*** ***In your group you need a little monkey, a butterfly and three other animals (either elephant, snake, parrot or frog). You can choose which animal you are*** (oder die L. verteilt die Rollen)***. If two people want to be the same animal, that is ok, but you need a monkey and a butterfly.*** ***You are going to make up a short dialogue together with help from a sheet.*** ***Let's look at it together first and practise it.*** Die L. hängt die Rollenkarten an die Tafel. (Vielleicht nicht alle Rollenkarten auf einmal – sondern mit Butterfly und Monkey anfangen). ***Butterfly and Little Monkey begin.*** Die L. zeigt, wie die Rollenkarten funktionieren und, wie das Rollenspiel klappen könnte, (wer fängt an, wer spricht als nächstes usw.) Die SuS müssen nicht alle Sätze verwenden. Die L. zeigt, wie die SuS Sätze auswählen und den Dialog bauen könnten. Die SuS können einen Satz oder mehrere Sätze sagen, wenn sie üben und vorspielen.	Die SuS schauen und hören zu. Die SuS schauen sich die Rollenkarten an der Tafel an und dürfen Sätze vorschlagen.		Rollenspiel-karten	
Transition: ***Now can I have some volunteers to be the characters please? We are going to do an example together.***						
10	**Rollenspiel vor der Klasse zusammen üben** **Spielregeln Erinnerung**	Die freiwilligen SuS spielen vor (machen die Bewegungen) mithilfe der Klasse/Lehrkraft (z.B. für *I am big* oder *I can fly*). Die L. wählt einen Satz aus und spricht ihn vor. Die Klasse wiederholt den Satz im Chor. Am Ende findet Little Monkey Mummy Monkey. Dafür haben wir ein Bild von Mummy Monkey. ***Now I would like you to practise in your groups. Decide who is which animal. Decide what you are going to say. Use your sheet to help you.*** Die L. erinnert die SuS an die Spielregeln. (Wir arbeiten zusammen und helfen einander, wir fassen niemanden an, wir üben und tun unser Bestes).	Die Klasse spricht die Sätze alle zusammen nach der L. Die freiwilligen SuS machen die Bewegungen nach, damit alle sehen können, wie es geht. Little Monkey sieht traurig oder besorgt aus. Butterfly versucht ihm zu helfen und nimmt ihn mit.		Bild von Mummy Monkey	Die Gruppen dürfen entscheiden, wo Mummy Monkey steht oder sich versteckt hat.

	Farbgruppen verteilung	Die L. entscheidet welche SuS zusammenarbeiten.			Farbkarten	4er/5er Gruppen. Jede Gruppe hat eine Farbe und eine passende Farbkarte.
Transition: ***Now please go to your groups. Take your coloured card and decide who is which character. Then please organise your role play.***						
10	**Gruppenzeit**		Die SuS haben Zeit zum Üben und ihre Geschichte zu entwickeln.		Farbenkarten	Die Forscherin macht eine Gruppenbeobachtung.
10	**Tiermaske basteln (optional)**	Die Gruppen, die ausreichend für heute geübt haben, konnten eine Tiermaske basteln. Dies könnte Hausaufgaben sein, oder wir lassen es einfach weg.			Tiermasken	
1	**Reim oder Lied sagen oder singen**	Der übliche Reim/ das Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde				

Figure C2

Role Play Cards



monkey

I can't find my mum. Can you help me?

No, my mum	is	brown
No, my mum	has	a long tail soft brown fur small ears
No, my mum	can	climb jump
Yes, that's my mum.	-	-



butterfly

Yes, I can help you.

Is this your mum?

Is this your mum?

Here's your mum.



elephant

I	am	big grey
I	have	a long trunk a long tail long legs big ears
I	can	walk

Continuation of Figure C2



snake

I	am	long green
I	have	a long body
I	can	slither hiss



parrot

I	am	red green blue
I	have	wings a beak
I	can	fly



frog

I	am	green yellow slimy small
I	have	long legs
I	can	jump swim

Lesson 5

Topic: *Monkey Puzzle*, (Donaldson, 2000), Lesson 5

Themen: Wildtiere

Werte: Anderen Menschen helfen

Theateraktivitäten: Rollenspiel

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Wildtiere Flashkarten, Mummy Monkey Bild, Rollenspielkarten, Farbkarten, Tiermasken, Beurteilungsblatt

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: elephant, frog, butterfly, parrot, snake, spider, bat, jungle, climb, swim, jump, walk, fly, slither

Produktiver Wortschatz: elephant, frog, butterfly, parrot, snake, bat, climb, swim, jump, walk, fly, slither, body, legs, wings, trunk, ears, nose, tail

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüler

Unterrichtsziele:

- Eingeübte Wörter und Redewendungen verständlich aussprechen.
- Kurze, eingeübte Rollentexte wiedergeben.
- Geschichten, Spiele, Reime, Lieder oder Rollenspiele präsentieren.

Table C6

Monkey Puzzle – Lesson 5

Zeit (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
2	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder Reim mit der Klasse durch.	SuS machen mit.	Alle		Die SuS sind durch die englische Begrüßung auf den Englischunterricht eingestellt.
Transition: ***Today we would like to see your role plays. You have a little bit of time to practise and then you can show us.***						
2	**Aufgabe Erinnerung**	Die L. erinnert die SuS an ihre Aufgabe und die Spielregeln. Die L. könnte den Dialog noch einmal				

		durchgehen, wenn sie meint, dass dies für die SuS hilfreich wäre.				
15	**Grup-penarbeit**	Die SuS haben noch mehr Zeit zum Üben.			Farbkarten Rollenkarten	Die Forscherin macht eine Gruppenbeobachtung.
15	**Die Perfor-mance**	Die SuS zeigen der Klasse die Geschichte, die sie entwickelt haben.	Die SuS spielen vor.			
10	**Selbstbeurtei-lungsblatt**	Die L. erklärt das Beurteilungsblatt.	Die SuS, die die Einverständniserklärung unterschrieben zurückgegeben haben, füllen das Beurteilungsblatt aus.			Die Forscherin nimmt die Beurteilungsblätter mit.
1	**Reim oder Lied**	Der übliche Reim/ das Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde				

Appendix D – Hey Grandude! – Lesson Plans

Table D1

Hey Grandude – Medium Term Plan

Einheit (45 Min)	Ziele (vom Bildungsplan)	Materialien	Geschichte	Theateraktivitäten
1	• Kurze Texten inhaltlich verstehen. • Körpersprache (Mimik, Gestik), Stimmeinsatz (Artikulation, Intonation und Sprechtempo) und Visualisierungshilfen (Bilder und Realia) zum Verstehen nutzen. • Fragen stellen und Antworten formulieren.	Bilderbuch *Hey Grandude!* (McCartney, 2019) Gefühle Smiley Karten Postkarte Strand Flashkarten	Das Bilderbuch vorlesen (bis zum Ende der 4. Doppelseite - Strand).	*Pass the feeling* *At the beach I can see…*
2	• Kurze Texten inhaltlich verstehen. • Wortfelder erweitern. • Fragen stellen und Antworten formulieren.	Bilderbuch Strand Flashkarten Wüste Flashkarten	Das Bilderbuch weitervorlesen (von der 5. Doppelseite bis zum Ende der 8. Doppelseite - Wüste).	*The story says* Spekulieren über die Geschichte. *English classes - teacher role*
3	• Wortfelder erweitern. • Eigene Vorlieben und Abneigungen nennen. • Sich mit eingeübten Redemitteln zu Menschen, Tieren, Orten und Zuständen äußern.	Bilderbuch	Das Bilderbuch (von der 8. Doppelseite zum Ende weitervorlesen - Berge). Magische Wörter sagen.	Spekulieren über die Geschichte. Dialog mit Bewegungen.
4	• Bekannte Wörter, einfache Wendungen und einfache Sätze lesen und verstehen. • Sich mit eingeübten Redemitteln zu Menschen, Tieren, Orten und Zuständen äußern. • Kurze, eingeübte Rollentexte wiedergeben.	Bilderbuch mit dem CD Bunte Gruppenkarten Dialogblatt Kompassvorlage	Die ganze Geschichte mit dem CD hören.	Sketch entwickeln und üben.
5	• Eingeübte Wörter und Redewendungen verständlich aussprechen. • Kurze, eingeübte Rollentexte wiedergeben. • Geschichten, Spiele, Reime, Lieder oder Rollenspiele präsentieren.	Bunte Gruppenkarten Dialogblatt Selbstbeurteilungsblätter	Selbstbeurteilungsblatt	Sketch üben. Vorspiel vor der Klasse.

Lesson 1

Topic: *Hey Grandude!* (Paul McCartney, 2019) Lesson 1

Themen: Abenteuer/ Urlaub

Theateraktivitäten: Pass the feeling, At the beach I can see…

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Gefühlekarten, Postkarte, Strand Flashkarten

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: happy, excited, tired, angry, bored, grumpy, compass, Grandude, Chillers, postcard, a sandcastle, an ice cream, a bucket and spade, a beach towel, a boat

Produktiver Wortschatz: a sandcastle, an ice cream, a bucket and spade, a beach towel, a boat. Is it...? Yes, it is/ No, it isn't

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüler

Unterrichtsziele:

- Kurze Texten inhaltlich verstehen.
- Körpersprache (Mimik, Gestik), Stimmeinsatz (Artikulation, Intonation und Sprechtempo) und Visualisierungshilfen (Bilder und Realia) zum Verstehen nutzen.
- Fragen stellen und Antworten formulieren

Table D2

Hey Grandude – Lesson 1

Zeit (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
2	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder Reim mit der Klasse durch.	SuS machen mit.	Alle		Die SuS sind durch die englische Begrüßung auf den Englischunterricht eingestellt.
Transition: ***This morning, we are going to think about feelings (again) for a few minutes.***						

5 5	**Gefühle einführen/wiederholen** **Pass the feeling.**	Die L. verwendet die Flashcards, um die Gefühle vorzustellen oder zu wiederholen (happy, excited, tired, angry und zwei neue Gefühle – bored und grumpy) ***What is this feeling? Can you remember?*** oder wenn dies neu ist: ***This is happy. What do people look like when they are happy?*** Die L. gibt eine Demonstration. Die L. lädt die SuS ein, mitzumachen. Danach klebt die L. das Bild an die Tafel. Die L. geht jedes Gefühl auf die gleiche Weise durch. ***Please come into the circle we are going to play a game.*** Die L. nimmt die Smileys noch einmal in die Hand. ***How do people look when they are happy?*** Die L. zeigt *happy* als Beispiel. Sie gibt das Gesicht an das nächste Kind weiter. Jedes Kind macht das Gesicht und gibt es weiter. ***How do people look when they are bored?*** Die L. zeigt *bored*. Sie gibt das Gesicht an das nächste Kind weiter. ***How do people look when they are grumpy?*** Die L. zeigt *grumpy*. Sie gibt das Gesicht an das nächste Kind weiter. ***What do you do when you are bored? Do you read a book?*** (Bewegungen machen) ***Put your hand up if you read a book. Do you watch TV? Do you play a game? Do you sleep?***	Die SuS schauen und hören zu. Die SuS dürfen antworten, wenn sie möchten/können. Die SuS machen das Gesicht, wenn sie an der Reihe sind (oder wenn sie das Smiley in der Hand bekommen). Die SuS dürfen auch andere Vorschläge machen, wenn sie möchten.	Tische Kreis	Gefühle Karten - Smileys	Einführung oder Wiederholung von Gefühlen. Wenn die L. es möchte, kann sie das Bild im Kreis herumreichen.
Transition: ***We are going to start reading a story today about some children who are bored. Let's see what happens.***						
10	**Pre-listening**	Die L. zeigt die Familie auf der Titelseite des Bilderbuches und sagt: ***Here is a grandad and his four grandchildren. His name is Grandude that's why the story is called Hey Grandude! He calls his grandchildren Chillers.*** ***What else can you see on the front cover?*** (*books, a suitcase, a globe*) Man könnte die Kleider der Figuren auch diskutieren. ***(What are they wearing?)*** Die L. blättert die Seite um. Auf der ersten Einzelseite ist ein Kompass abgebildet. ***This is a compass. It is***	Die SuS hören zu und machen mit. Die SuS dürfen auch andere Vorschläge machen, wenn sie möchten.		Bilderbuch	Ungewöhnlichen Wortschatz einführen. Vorstellung der Hauptfiguren.

		important in our story. A compass has a needle which shows where north is. Die L. blättert die Seite noch einmal um und zeigt auf dem Kompass. ***Here is the compass again. What can you see here? Yes, here is Grandude and the Chillers. This is a postcard. People send postcards sometimes when they go on holiday.*** Die L. zeigt den SuS eine echte Postkarte vor.			Postkarte	
Transition: ***Let's have a look at the story then. Are you ready? Are you listening carefully?***						
10 5	**Geschichte vorlesen** **Post listening Phase.**	Die L. liest die Geschichte mit Mimik und Gestik und mit den entsprechenden Stimmen vor. Die L. zeigt auf die Chillers, die Lucy, Tom, Bob und Em heißen. Die L. zeigt auf die Postkarten und auf das Wetter auf der ersten Doppelseite der Geschichte (und auch auf andere Gegenstände im Bild). Die L. kann entscheiden, wie (und wie viel) sie dies tun möchte. ***(***z.B. ***What's that? Does anyone know what that is? What else can you see in the picture?)*** Die L. liest bis zum Ende der 4. Geschichtesdoppelseite. ***The compass is magic. Where does it take Grandude and the Chillers?*** Die L. zeigt auf die Strand Seiten des Buches noch einmal und sagt: ***They are on the beach. What can Grandude and the Chillers see at the beach?*** Die L. zeigt noch einmal auf die Bilder im Buch. Für jeden Gegenstand hat sie eine passende Flashkarte und Beschriftung. Die Flashkarten klebt sie an die Tafel. Dann sagt die L. jedes Wort und die SuS sprechen es alle zusammen der Lehrkraft nach (als Echo). Dann kann die Beschriftung hinzugefügt werden.	Die SuS antworten, wie sie können. Die SuS können Vorschläge machen, wenn sie möchten.		Bilderbuch Beach Flashkarten Beschriftungen	Die L. findet heraus, wie viel sie schon wissen. *a sandcastle, an ice cream, a bucket and spade, a beach towel, a boat*
Transition: ***Now we are going to play a game with these words. Please go back to your places.***						
10	**At the beach I can see…**	Die L. erklärt, dass die SuS die Karten an der Tafel noch einmal anschauen müssen. Sie wählen einen Gegenstand geheim (im Kopf) von den Karten aus und machen eine passende Bewegung für ihren Partner vor. Der Partner muss raten, was sie im Kopf haben. Sie verwenden: ***Is it …. (a bucket and spade/ an ice cream…?)*** ***Yes, it is/ No, it isn't.***	Die SuS schauen und hören zu. Die SuS dürfen raten.	Tische		Warm-up Gerüst (*Scaffolding*) an der Tafel.

		Die L. schreibt die Frage und die Antwort an die Tafel. Dann macht die L. ein Beispiel. Die L. fragt die SuS, ob sie Bewegungsvorschläge für die anderen Gegenstände haben. Die L. nimmt einen:e freiwillige:n SuS, der nach vorn kommen möchte und ein Beispiel machen kann.	Die SuS dürfen Bewegungsvorschläge für die Gegenstände machen. ***Is it …. (a bucket and spade/ an ice cream…?)*** ***Yes, it is/ No, it isn't.*** Ein:e SuS kommt nach vorn und macht auch ein Beispiel. Die SuS spielen das Spiel zu zweit. Die SuS verwenden: ***Is it …. (a bucket and spade/ an ice cream…?)*** ***Yes, it is/ No, it isn't.***			Die L. macht ein Beispiel.
	Die SuS spielen das Spiel zu zweit.	Die SuS spielen das Spiel zu zweit. Ein SuS fängt an und macht die Bewegungen. Die anderen SuS raten und dann tauschen sie.		Tische		
2	**Reflektion**	Was hast du heute besonders gut gemacht? Habt ihr gut mitgemacht?				*Warm-down* und zurück zur Realität kehren. Selbstreflexion.
1	**Übliche Reim**	Der übliche Reim/ das Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde.				

Lesson 2

Topic: *Hey Grandude!* (Paul McCartney, 2019) Lesson 2

Themen: Abenteuer/ Urlaub

Theateraktivitäten: The story says, spekulieren über die Geschichte, English classes – teacher role

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Strand Flashkarten, Wüste Flashkarten

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: Eat an ice cream, swim in the sea, paddle in the sea, build a sandcastle, sunbathe on a towel, ride on a flying fish, tortoise, lizard, horse, wild buffalo, spiky cactus, dust, cowboy

Produktiver Wortschatz: tortoise, lizard, horse, wild buffalo, spiky cactus, cowboy, It's a ….

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüler

Unterrichtsziele:

- Kurze Texte inhaltlich verstehen.
- Wortfelder erweitern.
- Fragen stellen und Antworten formulieren.

Table D3

Hey Grandude – Lesson 2

Zeit (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
2	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder Reim mit der Klasse durch.	SuS machen mit.	Alle		Die SuS sind durch die englische Begrüßung auf den Englischunterricht eingestellt.
Transition: ***Where did Grandude and the Chillers go in our story last time?***						
5	**Erinnerung**	***What can you do on the beach?*** Die L. führt jede Aktivität ein und macht eine passende Bewegung dazu. Die L. verwendet die Strand Flashkarten und Bilder im Buch. ***On the beach you can...*** ***eat an ice cream. Let's eat an ice cream together.*** ***swim in the sea. Let's swim in the sea.*** ***paddle in the sea…*** ***build a sandcastle…*** ***sunbathe on a towel…***	Die SuS antworten: ***the beach*** Die SuS schauen und hören zu. Die SuS machen die Bewegungen in ihre Sitzplätzen nach.	Tische	Strand Flash Karten Bilderbuch	Einführung von Strandaktivitäten *Warm-up.*
5	**The story says**	Die L. erinnert die SuS an die Spielregeln – niemand anders darf berührt werden. Wenn die L. *stop/freeze* sagt, die SuS müssen sofort aufhören. Die L. sagt jeden Satz vor und die SuS machen die Bewegungen. ***The story says paddle in the sea. What is it like? The water is cool. Usw.***	Die SuS stehen auf und finden einen Platz im Raum für sich selbst.	Aufstehen		Üben und befestigen die Strandaktivitäten
Transition: ***Let's go back to the beach now and continue with our story. Let's find out what happens next.***						
10	**Geschichte vorlesen**	Die L. zeigt die Bilder im Buch von der letzten Stunde als Erinnerung. Die L. liest die Geschichte weiter mit Mimik und Gestik und mit den entsprechenden Stimmen vor.		Kreis	Bilderbuch	Ungewöhnlichen Wortschatz einführen. Vorstellung der Hauptfiguren.

		Nach den Magischen Wörtern "***See the compass needle spin, let the magic fun begin!"*** pausiert die L. und fragt die SuS, wohin sie glauben, dass die Kinder als nächstes gehen werden.	Die SuS dürfen die magischen Wörter mitsprechen. Die SuS spekulieren über die Geschichte.			
	Spekulieren über die Geschichte.	Die L. blättert um (zur Wüste) und liest die linke Seite vor. ***Where are they? (****in the desert****)*** ***What can you see in the picture?*** Die L. zeigt auf dem Bild im Buch: *hot dry desert, spiky cactus, tortoise, lizard, cowboy, horse* einführen. Dann liest die L. weiter mit Mimik und Gestik und mit den entsprechenden Stimmen vor bis zum *Stampy!* ***Yes, good idea! Said Grandude. And I think I need to cool down!***	Die SuS dürfen Vorschläge machen, wenn sie möchten.			*Hot dry desert, spiky cactus, tortoise, lizard, iguana, cowboy, horse* einführen
Transition: ***What is it like in the desert? (Hot, dusty, dry. There are cacti…)***						
10	**Post listening Phase.**	***Which animals do Grandude and the Chillers see in the desert?*** Die L. zeigt noch einmal auf die Bilder im Buch. Für jeden Gegenstand hat sie eine passende Flashkarte. Die Flashkarten klebt sie an die Tafel. Dann geht die L. noch einmal durch die Karten. ***What else did they see in the desert?***	Die SuS dürfen Vorschläge machen, wenn sie möchten.		Wüste Flashkarten	*tortoise, lizard, horse, wild buffalo* *spiky cactus, cowboy*
Transition: ***Now we are going to play a game with these words.***						
10	**English classes – SuS teacher role**	In einer kleinen Gruppe erhalten die SuS eine Bildkarte mit einem der gennanten Objekte aus der Wüste. In ihrer Gruppe finden sie eine geeignete Bewegung für dieses Tier/Objekt heraus, die sie dann den anderen SuS beibringen. Sie werden die Rolle als L. kurz übernehmen. Die SuS haben zwei Minuten Zeit, zu überlegen und ihre Bewegung zu üben. ***It's a …. (tortoise, lizard, horse, wild buffalo, spiky cactus, cowboy)*** Dann zeigen die SuS in ihre Gruppe ihr Tier oder Gegenstand der Klasse vor.	Die SuS werden Lehrer und unterrichten die anderen SuS eine Bewegung für ihr Wort. Jede Gruppe zeigt ihr Tier oder Gegenstand Bewegung der Klasse vor. Dann machen alle SuS mit und sagen: ***It's a …. (tortoise, lizard, horse, wild buffalo, spiky cactus, cowboy)***		Flashkarten	Gerüst (*Scaffolding*) an der Tafel *Warm-down* und zurück zur Realität kehren.
2	**Reflektion**	Was hast du heute besonders gut gemacht?				Selbstreflexion.
1	**Übliche Reim**	Der übliche Reim/ das Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde				

Lesson 3

Topic: *Hey Grandude!* (Paul McCartney, 2019) Lesson 3

Themen: Abenteuer/ Urlaub

Theateraktivitäten: Spekulieren über die Geschichte, Dialog mit Bewegungen

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Flashkarten

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: *See the compass needle spin, let the magic fun begin* (McCartney, 2019). Which place is your favourite? Is it the beach? Is it the desert or is it the mountains? Why? Because I like… to paddle in the sea, to swim in the sea, to build sandcastles, to sunbathe on a towel, to eat ice cream, to ride a horse, to look at the mountains, to smell the wildflowers, telescope

Produktiver Wortschatz: *See the compass needle spin, let the magic fun begin*. Which place is your favourite? Why? Because I like… to paddle in the sea, to swim in the sea, to build sandcastles, to sunbathe on a towel, to eat ice cream, to ride a horse, to look at the mountains, to smell the wildflowers

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüler

Unterrichtsziele:

- Wortfelder erweitern.
- Eigene Vorlieben und Abneigungen nennen.
- Sich mit eingeübten Redemitteln zu Menschen, Tieren, Orten und Zuständen äußern.

Table D4

Hey Grandude – Lesson 3

Zeit (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
2	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder Reim mit der Klasse durch.	SuS machen mit.	Alle		Die SuS sind durch die englische Begrüßung auf den Englischunterricht eingestellt.
Transition: ***We are going to finish our story today. Can you remember the magic words?***						

5	**Pre-listening**	Die L. unterrichtet die SuS die magischen Wörter. Die L. lädt die SuS ein, mitzusprechen/nachzusprechen im Chor.	Die SuS hören zweimal zu. Die SuS sprechen im Chor.	Tische		*Warm-up*
Transition: ***Please come into the circle.***						
15	**Spekulieren über die Geschichte.** **Geschichte vorlesen**	Die SuS sagen die magischen Wörter. Die L. pausiert am Ende der Seite nach ***And in the blink of an eye…*** und fragt die SuS, wohin sie glauben, dass die Chillers und Grandude als nächstes gehen werden. Die L. blättert um (zur Berge) und liest die linke Seite vor. ***Where are they? (****in the mountains****)*** Die L. liest die Geschichte weiter mit Mimik und Gestik und zeigt auf die Dinge im Bild oder fragt, ob ein SuS es zeigen kann. ***Point to the wildflowers. Let's smell the wildflowers****.* Die L. gibt eine Demonstration. ***How many cows with bells can you see?*** ***Where is the guitar?*** ***What do the children have in their picnic?*** ***Where are the snow-capped mountains?*** ***What can Lucy see through the telescope? Let's look at the mountains with our telescopes.*** Die L. gibt eine Demonstration. ***What is an avalanche? (****a wall of snow which moves very quickly down a mountain****)*** ***Look at the last postcard. Where do you think, the children are going to go now?*** Dann liest die L. zu Ende.	Die SuS sagen die magischen Wörter. Die SuS spekulieren über die Geschichte. Die SuS riechen die wilden Blumen. Die SuS dürfen Vorschläge machen, wenn sie möchten. Die SuS schauen durch ihr Teleskop. ***Home***	Kreis	Bilderbuch	Die Sprache wird später im Unterricht noch einmal verwendet.
Transition: ***I have a question for you.***						
10	**Post listening Phase.**	Die L. zeigt noch einmal auf die Bilder im Buch. ***Which place is your favourite? Is it the beach? Is it the desert or is it the mountains?*** ***I like the beach because …*** Zu jedem Satz macht die L. eine passende Bewegung. ***...to swim in the sea.*** ***...to build sandcastles.*** ***...to sunbathe on a towel.*** ***...to eat ice cream.*** ***I like the desert because I like to ride a horse.***	Die SuS dürfen antworten mit: ***My favourite place is.../ I like the beach, the desert, the mountains.***			Die Sätze kommen an die Tafel als Gerüst.

		I like the mountains because I like to look at the mountains. (Teleskop verwenden) ***…to smell the wildflowers.*** Die L. geht die Sätze noch einmal durch und die SuS machen die Bewegungen für jede Satzendung. Dann sagt die Klasse die Phrasen alle zusammen im Chor. Dann sagt die Klasse die Phrasen und macht die Bewegungen zusammen. Die L. macht den Dialog mit einem:er freiwilligen SuS vor der Klasse.				
Transition: ***Now you are going to ask each other about your favourite place in the story. Use the sentences on the board to help you and do the movements.***						
10	**SuS Dialog**	Die L. geht in der Klasse herum, hört zu und hilft den Lernenden.	Die SuS haben etwas Zeit, um miteinander zu sprechen und sich gegenseitig nach ihren Vorlieben zu fragen. ***Which place is your favourite?*** ***My favourite place is.../ I like the beach because …*** ***I like to paddle in the sea.***			Die Frage, die Antwortsätze und der Wortschatz können noch einmal wiederholt und befestigt werden.
	Wiederholung/Plenary	Danach kommt vielleicht noch ein:e freiwillige:r SuS nach vorn und spielt vor. Die Frage und die Antwort können noch einmal wiederholt und befestigt werden.	Ein/zwei freiwillige SuS kommen nach vorn und machen ein Beispiel.			
1	**Übliche Reim**	Der übliche Reim/ das Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde				

Lesson 4

Topic: *Hey Grandude!* (Paul McCartney, 2019) Lesson 4

Themen: Abenteuer/ Urlaub

Theateraktivitäten: Sketch entwickeln und üben

Materialien: Bilderbuch mit CD, bunte Gruppenkarten, Dialogblatt, Kompassvorlage

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: Wortschatz aus dem Bilderbuch, Klassenzimmer Englisch

Produktiver Wortschatz: *See the compass needle spin, let the magic fun begin* (McCartney, 2019) Wortschatz aus dem Bilderbuch.

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüler

Unterrichtsziele:

- Bekannte Wörter, einfache Wendungen und einfache Sätze lesen und verstehen.
- Sich mit eingeübten Redemitteln zu Menschen, Tieren, Orten und Zuständen äußern.
- Kurze, eingeübte Rollentexte wiedergeben.

Table D5

Hey Grandude – Lesson 4

Zeit (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
2	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder Reim mit der Klasse durch.	SuS machen mit.	Alle		Die SuS sind durch die englische Begrüßung auf den Englischunterricht eingestellt.
Transition: ***We are going listen to the whole story with the CD today/*** Alternativ – die L. liest die ganze Geschichte vor. ***The story is read by the author Paul McCartney. He is a very famous person. He was a popstar in a band called The Beatles.***						
5	**Pre-listening**	***Let's say the magic words together and then you can say them when you hear them.***	Die SuS sprechen im Chor mit.	Tische		*Warm-up*

		Die L. und die SuS sagen die magischen Wörter zusammen. ***See the compass needle spin, let the magic fun begin.*** ***Can you remember where Grandude and the Chillers go on their adventure? They go to three places. Where do they go?***	Die SuS dürfen antworten. ***They go to the beach. Then they go to the desert. Then they go to the mountains. Then they go home.***		Flashkarten verwenden	Erinnerung
Transition: ***Please listen carefully to the story.***						
10	**While listening Aktivitäten** **Geschichte hören**	***While you listen, try to say the magic words and you can do the actions.*** Die L. zeigt den SuS die Bilder und weist auf die Merkmale hin, während die SuS die Geschichte anhören.	Die SuS hören der CD zu und schauen die Bilder im Buch an. Oder alternativ: die L. liest die ganze Geschichte vor. Die SuS sagen die magischen Wörter.	Tische	Bilderbuch	
Transition: ***Now you are going to choose a place from the story and go there with your group.***						
10	**Post listening** **Aufgabe Erklärung**	Die SuS wählen einen Ort aus der Geschichte aus (Strand, Wüste oder Berge). Die L. macht zuerst ein Beispiel mit den Kindern. ***With your group I'd like you to choose one of the places from our story, either the beach, the desert or the mountains and you are going to go there together in your group.*** ***First, we are going to do an example together.*** ***1. The story starts with the Chillers who are really bored and grumpy. Can I have two volunteers to be the Chillers? Please look really bored. Now look grumpy.*** ***Everyone pretend to be really bored with them.*** ***I'm bored.*** ***2. Then Grandude (****or it could be more Chillers****) shows them the postcards and they choose one. Let's have a volunteer for Grandude/more Chillers. Show them the postcards please. Let's choose the beach for our example.*** ***Let's say the magic words together.*** ***3. Where are we? We are on the beach.*** ***What can we do on the beach?***	***See the compass needle spin, let the magic fun begin*** (McCartney, 2019).			1.Die L. klebt oder schreibt die Wörter ***I'm bored*** an die Tafel. 2. Die L. klebt/schreibt ***Let's go to the beach. See the compass needle spin, let the magic fun begin*** an die Tafel. 3. Die L. klebt/schreibt ***Let's swim in the sea.***

		(swim/paddle/eat ice cream) ***If we want to suggest something we can use: Let's…*** ***Let's swim in the sea.***(Bewegungen machen). ***Everyone swim in the sea. Let's swim in the sea.*** Or ***Let's eat ice cream.*** (Bewegungen machen). ***4. Then there is a problem*** *(crabs/ dust/ wild buffalo)* ***Please point to the problem and look worried.*** ***Oh no! Look!*** (Pointing) ***Crabs!*** ***5.Let's go home.*** Go home please. 6. ***Good night! Please get into bed and go to sleep. Let's say Goodnight!*** ***If you want to, you can go to the desert or the mountains in your group*** There is a sheet to help you. Please decide in your group if you want to go to the beach, the desert or the mountains and then take the sheet for that place.	Die SuS dürfen mehrere Sätze sagen, wenn sie möchten. ***Let's go home.***			***Let's eat ice cream.*** 4. Die L. klebt/schreibt ***Oh no! Look! Crabs!*** 5. Die L. klebt/schreibt ***Let's go home*** an die Tafel. 6. Die L. klebt/schreibt ***Goodnight!*** an die Tafel. 4er oder 5er Gruppen (wie letztes Mal) Die SuS müssen nicht alle Sätze verwenden.
	Spielregeln Erinnerung	Die L. erinnert die SuS noch einmal an die Regeln – niemand anders darf berührt werden. Wenn die L. ***Stop/Freeze*** sagt, müssen die SuS sofort aufhören und stillstehen.				Die Forscherin macht eine Gruppenbeobachtung.
15	**Gruppenarbeit**		Die SuS gestalten einen Sketch mithilfe der Sätze auf dem Dialogblatt.Wenn die SuS fertig sind oder ausreichend geübt haben, können sie einen Kompass malen und ausschneiden.		Dialogblatt Farbkarten Dialogblatt-Kompassvorlage	
1	**Übliche Reim**	Der übliche Reim/ das Lied zum Abschluss der Englischstunde.				

Lesson 5

Topic: *Hey Grandude!* (Paul McCartney, 2019) Lesson 5

Themen: Abenteuer/ Urlaub

Theateraktivitäten: Sketch entwickeln, üben und vorspielen

Materialien: Bilderbuch, Kompass, Dialogblatt, Gruppenfarbkarten, Selbstbeurteilungsblatt

Rezeptiver Wortschatz: Wortschatz aus dem Bilderbuch, Klassenzimmer Englisch

Produktiver Wortschatz: *See the compass needle spin, let the magic fun begin* (McCartney, 2019), Wortschatz aus dem Bilderbuch. Let's… (Vorschläge machen) z.B. Let's eat ice cream. Let's swim in the sea, Oh no! Look! There's a …. It's time to go. Let's go home. Goodnight!

L. =Lehrkraft, SuS =Schülerinnen und Schüler

Unterrichtsziele:

- Eingeübte Wörter und Redewendungen verständlich aussprechen.
- Kurze, eingeübte Rollentexte wiedergeben.
- Geschichten, Spiele, Reime, Lieder oder Rollenspiele präsentieren.

Table D6

Hey Grandude – Lesson 5

Zeit (Min.)	Phase	Lehreraktivität	Schüleraktivität	Sozial-Form	Materialien	Didakt. Kommentar
2	**Begrüßung**	Die L. begrüßt die SuS. Die L. führt das Begrüßungslied oder Reim mit der Klasse durch.	SuS machen mit.	Alle		Die SuS sind durch die englische Begrüßung auf den Englischunterricht eingestellt.
Transition: ***Today you are going to work together again in your colour groups.***						
5	**Aufgabe Erinnerung**	Die L. erinnert die SuS an ihre Aufgabe und die Spielregeln. Die L. könnte den Dialog noch einmal				

		durchgehen, wenn sie meint, dass dies für die SuS hilfreich wäre.				
15	**Grup-penarbeit**	Die SuS haben noch mehr Zeit zum Üben.	Die SuS gestalten einen Sketch mithilfe der Sätze auf dem Dialogblatt.		Farbkarten Dialogblatt	Die Forscherin macht eine Gruppenbeobachtung.
10	**Die Perfor-mance**	Die SuS zeigen der Klasse ihren Sketch.	Die SuS spielen vor.			
5	**Selbstbeurtei-lungsblatt**	Die L. erklärt das Beurteilungsblatt.	Die SuS, die die Einverständniserklärung unterschrieben zurückgegeben haben, füllen das Beurteilungsblatt aus.			Die Forscherin nimmt die Beurteilungsblätter mit.
1	**Reim oder Lied**					

Sworn Statement

I, Rachel Suzanne Hall, hereby declare that I wrote this paper independently and have not used any resources other than those listed.

All quotations and paraphrases from other sources are marked as such.

Marbach am Neckar, 11.11.2025



Rachel Suzanne Hall

Eidesstattliche Erklärung

Hiermit versichere ich, Rachel Suzanne Hall, die vorliegende Arbeit selbstständig verfasst und keine anderen als die angegebenen Hilfsmittel verwendet zu haben.

Alle wortgemäßen und sinngemäßen Übernahmen aus anderen Quellen sind als solche gekennzeichnet.

Marbach am Neckar, 11.11.2025



Rachel Suzanne Hall