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TEACHING ENGLISH TO PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS THROUGH GAMES (İLKÖĞRETİM OKULU ÖĞRENCİLERİNE İNGİLİZCEYİ OYUNLARLA ÖĞRETME)

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

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KONYA 2008

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BİLİMSEL ETİK SAYFASI

Bu tezin proje safhasından sonuçlanmasına kadarki bütün süreçlerde bilimsel etiğe ve akademik kurallara özenle riayet edildiğini, tez içindeki bütün bilgilerin etik davranış ve akademik kurallar çerçevesinde elde edilerek sunulduğunu, ayrıca tez yazım kurallarına uygun olarak hazırlanan bu çalışmada başkalarının eserlerinden yararlanılması durumunda bilimsel kurallara uygun olarak atıf yapıldığını bildiririm.

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YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ KABUL FORMU

Ece Cimcim tarafından hazırlanan Teaching English To Primary School Students Through Games (İngilizceyi İlköğretim Okulu Öğrencilerine Oyunlarla Öğretme) başlıklı bu çalışma 04/11/2008 tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda oybirliği ile başarılı bulunarak, jürimiz tarafından yüksek lisans tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my thanks to all those who have helped and contributed to the preparation of my thesis.

First I am grateful to my advisor Assoc. Professor Dr. Hasan Çakır for his guidance during the preparation of this study.

I am also grateful to Assistant Professor Dr. Ece Sarıgül, at the ELT programme for encouraging me and making considerable contributions to my studies. I am grateful to Assistant Professor Dr. Abdülhamit Çakır and Abdülkadir Çakır.

I have a special thanks to my best friends Ayşegül İşgin and Tuba Ayyürek. They always support me during the whole process. Ayşegül is there whenever and wherever I needed her. Tuba always comforts me when I become pessimistic with her encouragement and smile.

I owe special thanks to my friend Nihat Sarıalioğlu who trusted me.

I also would like to send my thanks to my colleague Hüseyin Korkmaz for his suggestions and assistance with statistical procedures carried out for this study.

My thanks also go to my pretty students who joined this study.

My greatest thanks is for my wonderful grandmother and grandfather, İsmet Edalı and Nüzhet Edalı. I can not be the person I am today if you have not stood by me throughout my life. I am forever grateful to you.

ÖZET

Bu çalışma, ilköğretim okullarında, ingilizceyi iletişimsel yöntemi kullanarak öğretirken, ingilizce dil oyunlarının ne derece önemli olduğunu ortaya çıkarmak amacıyla sürdürülmektedir.

Çalışma kontrol ve deney grubu olmak üzere iki grup ve seksen öğrenciyi kapsamaktadır. Bu öğrenciler Dumlupınar Mah. Ahmet Haşhaş İlköğretim okulu öğrencileridir. Çalışma süresince deney grubuna vücudumuzun parçaları oyunlar ve iletişimsel yöntemle öğretilmiştir. Kontrol grubuna ise sadece iletişimsel yöntem kullanılmıştır. Çalışmanın birinci bölümünde, çalışmanın zemini, amacı, problemin tanıtılması, çalışmanın yöntemi ve çalışmada kullanılan sınırlılıklar belirtilmiştir.

Çalışmanın ikinci bölümünde ingilizce öğretimi, iletişimsel dil öğretiminde kullanılan metotlar, dört beceri, dil bilgisi, kelime bilgisi ve telaffuz konularının öğretimi üzerinde durulmuştur.

Üçüncü bölümde ise ingilizce öğretiminde kullanılan oyunlar ele alınmıştır. Dördüncü bölüm ise çalışmanın deneysel sonuçlarını, ön test ve son test sonuçlarını ve sonucu kapsamaktadır.

SUMMARY

This study is carried out for the purpose of discussing the significant function of the language games in teaching English by using communicative approach in primary schools.

The study has been carried out on two groups, experimental and control, consisting of eighty students. These students are students of Dumlupınar Mah. Ahmet Haşhaş Primary School. During the study, the experimental group has been taught the parts of the body by using games and communicative approach. The control group has been taught by using only communicative approach.

The first chapter aims to present the background to the study as well as the purpose of the study, statement of the problem, method of the study and limitations.

The second chapter concerned with teaching English, approaches and methods in language teaching, teaching four skills, teaching grammar, teaching vocabulary and teaching pronunciation.

Chapter three is concerned with games. Chapter four shows the evaluations results of my experimental study. The pre-test and post-test results have been explained.

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CHAPTER 1

1.INTRODUCTION

1.1. General Background to the Study

Today there are various ways to teach a foreign language. As the importance of being a bilingual person has been understood, many theories have been developed. Teachers, as the director of the lesson should be careful about choosing the true way of teaching the target language. If the way is chosen correctly, it will most probably result in a great success for students and the teacher, himself or herself. In developing world, teaching ways are developing and changing according to the new world. Old techniques are disappearing and leaving their place to the new and approvable techniques.

English has become the worldwide second language for all the nations around the world. This increasing importance in learning English led people to design and apply new techniques in teaching. Especially everyone realized that it is vital for children to start learning language at a very early age. Of course, it is clear that children cannot learn in the same way like adults. Teacher should follow different ways while engaging with lessons for children.

Level and age are the main elements which are shaping the lesson. Teachers teach according to the level, age and interest of the students. In order to be successful, every teacher and learner should obey certain rules related to the level, age and interest issue as much as they allot some time to recreational techniques about teaching target language.

Language is acquired by the help of application of different and effective theories which are suitable to the learners. If the teacher wants to teach communication in second language, he/she should recognize the importance of alternative techniques for teaching writing, speaking, listening, reading, grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. All these should be combined in activities aiming at teaching the target language more effectively.

In our study, one of the most effective and appropriate ways of teaching language is analyzed in detailed. Teaching English to primary school students

through games are elaborated and its significant part in learning the language is given in detail.

1.2. The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to reveal the vital effect of games on teaching language to primary school students. Primary school learners need special care, they cannot pay their attention on the subject during the lesson. They can get bored easily so recreational activities should be introduced in the class by the teacher so that the young learners can refresh again and start to listen to the lesson again.

As the students ages are not appropriate for theoretical lessons, they should learn the language in a funnier and more enjoyable way. When the teacher adds different and funny games to the lesson process, the young learners become not only more willingly to learn the new language even they do not want to quit to lesson but also they want to take part in the lesson more than ever. In our study we prove that without games, teaching language in primary schools would not be so enjoyable and sufficient as young learners need refreshment and motivating lesson so that they can love to learn second language and become enthusiastic about learning new subjects of English.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

Although primary school students need colorful and funny games, foreign language teachers try to teach the language in a more theoretical way. This attitude of teachers results in unsuccessful and unwilling young learners who hate English lesson and never want to take foreign language courses. They get bored during the lessons because they cannot always pay their attention to what teacher tells. At one point, they lose their attention and as the pedagogical theorists urged that they do not attend the courses in which they feel themselves insufficient and bored. So the teachers should find interesting games to add their activities. When applying different and funny games in teaching a specific subject, teacher will realize that the subject can be comprehended much more easily and the lesson goes on without any obstacle as the learners never think about stopping the lesson and having a break. Thanks to games, the lesson which is very efficient and enjoyable can be treated.

1.4. Method of the Study

First of all, some sources about teaching English and games are searched and read. After that two 5th grade class whose age and levels are the same from Dumlupınar Mah. Ahmet Haşhaş Primary School will be chosen. One of them will be experimental group and the other will be the control group, and they will be applied a pre-test separately.

Control group will be treated in the same way as the experimental group except for game application. Control group will be taught parts of the body with communicative approach but no game will be used during the lesson. On the other hand, experimental group will be taught parts the body with communicative approach, too, but they will play a language game and sign song about parts of the body to practice what they have just learnt. Game application is supposed to make the students pay their attention to the lesson again and practice the parts of the body in a motivating and funny way. When the subject is taught totally, the same classes will be applied a post-test formed by the same questions to understand the effect of game using in teaching English.

The measurement in this study will be shown on charts.

1.5. Limitations

This study will be carried out in Dumlupınar Mah. Ahmet Haşhaş Primary School. There are two 5th classes; 5-A and 5-B. This study will be carried out on these two 5th classes. Each class has nearly 40 students, and the total will be 80. 5-A will be chosen as control group and 5-B will be chosen as experimental group.

Communicative approach will be used for both two classes during the research. The students will be taught the parts of the body by the researcher. The experimental group will make practice through games and songs.

Another thing is that the data collected from these students may not reflect the students at other primary schools since the subjects of this study are all from Dumlupınar Mah. Ahmet Haşhaş Primary School.

CHAPTER II

2 REWIEV OF LITERATURE

2.1. What is language?

Language is a very complex thing, and it cannot yet be fully accounted for by anyone within one wholly consistent and comprehensive theory. Certainly linguists have found it so. For this reason, when asked the question What is language? the linguist is likely to reply by asking another question Why do you want to know? If we teach language, the way we approach our task will be influenced, or even determined, by what we believe language to be. There are some definitions about what language is:

Language is a system of arbitrary, vocal symbols which permit all people in a given culture, other people who have learned the system of that culture, to communicate or to interact (Finoncchiaro 1964:8).

Language is a system of communication by sound, operating through the organs of speech and hearing, among members of a given community, and using vocal symbols possessing arbitrary conventional meanings (Pei 1966:141).

Language is any set or system of linguistic symbols as used in a more or less uniform fashion by a number of people who are thus enabled to communicate intelligibly with one another (Random House Dictionary of the English Language 1966:806).

Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication (Wardhaugh 1972:3).

Language is any means, vocal or other, of expressing or communicating feeling or thought…. a system of conventionalized signs, especially words, or gestures having fixed meanings (Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language 1934:1390).

Language is a systematic means of communicating ideas or feelings by the use of conventionalized signs, sounds, gestures, or marks having understood meanings (Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language 1961:1270).

A consolidation of the definitions of language yields the following composited definition.

1. Language is systematic and generative.
2. Language is a set of arbitrary symbols.
3. Those symbols are primarily vocal, but may also be visual.
4. The symbols have conventionalized meanings to which they refer.
5. Language is used for communication.
6. Language operates in speech community or culture.
7. Language is essentially human, although possibly not limited to humans.
8. Language is acquired by all people in much the same way (Brown 1994:5).

Corder (1973: 19-21) states that there is generally a close connection between the way we talk about something and the way we regard it. If we want to know what someone believes language is, we must listen to the language he uses to talk about it. For example, we regularly hear people talking about 'using language': He used some awful language; He used a word I didn't understand; What use is French? This suggests that language is an object like a tool, which we can pick up, use for some purpose and put down again. People sometimes even actually call language a tool. We also talk about people 'possessing' a language. Shakespeare was reported by Jonson as having 'small Latin and less Greek'. Children are said to 'acquire' language. Apparently we sometimes 'lose' it: I can't find the right word.

Linguists, especially, often talk about how language works, as if it were an object like an alarm clock, whose functioning could be understood from a study of its internal structure of springs and cogwheels. We speak about the 'birth' of a language, of its 'growth', 'development' and 'decline'. Languages have periods of 'blossoming' and 'flowering' (always in the past); they are 'related' to each other in 'families', or 'descended' from each other. They are 'living' or 'dead'. They also have physical and moral qualities: they are 'beautiful', 'ugly'…

We also find people talking about language as an 'event'. A conversation 'takes place', words 'crop up' in a discussion. We even speak about someone's speech as 'the event of the evening'.

Language is something we 'know'. We ask someone if he 'knows' French or German, or if he 'knows' some word or other. It is also something we 'do'. We write, read, speak well or badly.

We just have to admit that language is such a complex phenomenon that no one viewpoint can see it as a whole. The question we really need to ask is not which view is 'right', but which view is useful, which view is relevant to language teaching. Teaching cannot be apart from learning. Nathan Gage (1964:269) noted that "to satisfy the practical demands of education, theories of learning must be 'stood on their head' so as to yield theories of teaching." Teaching sets the conditions for learning.

2.2. How People Learn

*Work out objectives in advance

*Work from the known to the unknown

*Work in short, simple, logical steps

*Success

*Give feedback

*Give practice and reinforcement

*Encourage learning by activity: let learners learn at their own pace.

Roger (1976: 25-28) states that It is surprising how much education of all sorts still trundles along on the 'hole-in-the-head' theory. This is the one where teachers behave as if they thought students had a space in their heads which could be filled simply by pouring knowledge inside. Such teachers may teach energetically away without their students learning anything. Most of us have experienced the results of this method when we sit through lectures with politely interested expressions on our faces while our minds are busily engaged elsewhere. Learning is not a passive process. For students are to learn, they must be actively engaged in doing, not just listening but comprehending.

In language classes, this will mean each student spending a maximum of time using new vocabulary, speaking, listening to and reading the language.

Most students will make much greater progress if they work individually, in groups or pairs on materials the teacher has already prepared.

Students often relish working through a 'problem-solving' but the majority respond to opportunities for working out basic principles, doing projects and research and other similar activities which fully engage their intelligence and interest.

2.3. Language Acquisition and Language Learning

Yule (2001:191) states that the primary difficulty for most people can be captured in terms of a distinction between acquisition and learning. The term "acquisition", when used of language, refers to the gradual development of ability in a language by using it naturally in communicative situations. The term "learning", however, applies to a conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the vocabulary and grammar of a language.

We can say that the first language is acquired and the second language is learned. Language acquisition takes place in a constantly stimulating environment: children are exposed to their first language from the very beginning and they are literally bombarded with language all the time (House 1997:7). If we consider the child's acquisition of language between the ages of about twelve months and five years, the first thing we might observe is that quantity of language involved is enormous. The child may well be in contact with language for most of his waking hours. The contact will take different forms. Some of it will be language directed at the child by other people, particularly parents. A strong effort will be made to ensure that this language is meaningful to the child. This may be done by demonstrating relevant objects and actions in the surroundings, by an intuitive attempt at simplification of the language, or, in the later stages, by actual explanations.

There will be other language that the child is exposed to, in the sense that it is produced in his presence, but which will not be addressed to him and most of which will not be meaningful to him, at least in the early stages of his language acquisition.

Finally, there will be language that the child himself produces. Part of this will be addressed to other people, but it would be a mistake to think that such language represents all or even most of the child's language production. At a certain stage in his language development he is likely to spend many hours in monologue and imaginative dialogue, regardless of whether there is anyone else present to stimulate him.

There are some other significant factors about the language that the child is exposed to. In the first place it is, of course, spoken language. Secondly, what the child hears is also linguistically-uncontrolled language. By this is meant that there is nothing like the isolation and repetition of a single sentence structure that is

characteristic of much language teaching. The child acquires his language without having it predigested for him in this way. Adults do often make the attempt to simplify their language for the benefit of the child, but what they produce remains structurally varied and, it is sometimes suggested, even makes things more complicated for the child. One observation that has been made is that the child may play language games with himself which involve repeating the same type of sentence perhaps with minimal alterations, and that this does resemble some productive exercise in language teaching.

The language in the child's environment is also uncontrolled in the sense that it is not made up of perfect samples of grammatical speech. It is never a direct reflection of the somewhat idealized form of language that is described in grammars. In spite of this the child has the capacity to learn from it and to learn to understand it.

More interesting perhaps than the language to which the child is exposed is his reaction to it. We have already seen that when he is adequately exposed to language he will produce language himself. In part, what he produces is an imitation of what he has heard and this is a process which adults often try to stimulate, but, contrary to what has generally been thought, a good deal of his language production is not imitative at all. Not only does he have the ability to take words and phrases that he has heard and use them in new combinations; he also actually produces pieces of language that he could not have heard from the other people in his environment.

The feedback that is provided by other people does more than simply inform the child whether or not his message is correctly formed. It also demonstrates to him that his language has an effect on the behaviour of others. Rather than being at the mercy of the environment under his own control. It would be fairly meaningless to say that this motivates him to learn the language. What it does mean is that he is becoming aware of the regulatory function of language. Through language, he learns, his needs can be met. At first the needs will be material, but later they may include the need for information, advice, permission and so on.

As long as adequate exposure to language is provided, the process of language acquisition that has just been described will be followed by all children who do not suffer some physiological or psychological defect. The rates of learning will not be identical, but they will not be wildly different either. By the age of five a substantial

proportion of the grammatical system of the language will have been mastered by all children. Given that children may have very different intellectual endowments, it is similarities not the dissimilarities in their linguistic development that are so striking.

Although we cannot reproduce these circumstances, we should try to provide our students with at least some of the stimuli which are present in language acquisition in order to facilitate language learning such as games. As House (1997:7) mentioned for young children, learning is still a question of experiencing rather than committing information to memory so we need to provide our students with the possibility of experiencing to ensure successful learning. Because children learn from experience, they do not distinguish learning situations from non-learning ones. We have to remember this and see the fact that every moment of our time with them, learning time. Moreover Yule (2001:192) says that the optimum age may be during the years from ten to sixteen when the "flexibility" of the language faculty has not been completely lost, and the maturation of cognitive skills allows a more effective working out of the regular features of the L2 encountered. As English teacher we should take the advantages of this. We can apply this by using language games in our courses. By this way our students learn the language unconsciously. They are not aware of the fact that they are getting something new. The process seems them just a game that is not boring opposite the situations in which they get really bored and learn consciously. To summarize, the term "second language acquisition" refers to the subconscious or conscious processes by which a language other than the mother tongue is learned in a natural or a tutored setting. It covers the development of phonology, lexis, grammar, and pragmatic knowledge. The study of SLA is directed at accounting for the learner's competence. (Ellis 1985:6). In relatively simple terms, there has been a change of emphasis from presenting language as a set of forms which have to learned and practiced, to presenting language as a functional system which is used to fulfill a range of communicative purposes. The ability to use a language should be described as communicative competence (Yule 1989:17). Key components of communicative competence, as presented by Canale and Swain (1980) and later in Canale's (1983) definition, four different components, or subcategories, make up the construct of communicative competence. The first two subcategories reflect the use of the linguistic system itself.

The first one is grammatical competence which encompasses "knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology (Canale and Swain 1980: 29). It is also the linguistic competence Hymes and Paulston referred to. The second subcategory is discourse competence, the complement of grammatical competence in many ways. It is the ability we have to connect sentences in stretches of discourse and to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances (Brown 1994:228). Discourse competence concerns mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text in different genres (Richards&Schmidt 1986:9).

The last two subcategories define the more functional aspects of communication. Sociolinguistic competence is the knowledge of the socio-cultural rules of language and of discourse. It requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the roles of participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction (Brown 1994: 228). Sociolinguistic competence, allows the language user to select which utterance form, from any number of possible correct forms, is considered appropriate within a language community on a particular interactive occasion (Yule 1989:19). This component included both socio-cultural rules of use and rules of discourse (Richards&Schmidt 1986:7).

The fourth subcategory is strategic competence which is the ability to successfully get one's message across (Yule 1989:19).

Terrel (1977: 334) argues strongly that communication strategies are crucial at the beginning stages of second language learning. In teaching a second language learners should be given more opportunities to use this competences in order to learn more effectively and communicate better.

2.4. Learners Motivation and Interest

Motivation is important to language learning because it helps determine the extent of involvement in learning. One comprehensive definition of language learning motivation is that of Crookes and Schmidt (1991), who state that such motivation consists of seven elements: 1) interest, 2) relevance, 3) expectancy of success or failure, 4) belief in forthcoming rewards, 5) decision to be involved, 6) persistence, and 7) high activity level.

Psychologists have distinguished two major attitudinal factors which play an important role in determining how willing the learner is to persevere with the task. On the one hand, there are foreign language learners who view the language as a key to social and cultural enrichment through the opportunities it provides for association with members of a different culture. This type of integrative motivation is characteristic of many successful language learners. On the other hand, the learner may simply be studying the language for an immediate short-term goal which does not involve his wanting to be accepted by and integrated into a target culture group. Simply learning a language to acquire course credits, or to carry out a limited range of tasks that do not involve the learner in close face-to-face interaction as an equal does not generally lead to a high degree of accomplishment in learning. Foreign language or second language learning in such cases is typically poor, characterised by acquisition of only the rudiments of grammar and by tolerance of a relatively low standard of achievement.

The abstract term ‘motivation’ on its own is rather difficult to define. Ur (1976:274) claims that it is easier and more useful to think in terms of the ‘motivated’ learner: one who is willing or even eager to invest effort in learning activities and to progress. Learner motivation makes teaching and learning immeasurably easier and more pleasant, as well as more productive: hence the importance of the topic for teachers.

Harmer (1993: 154) states that motivation is some kind of internal drive that encourage somebody to pursue a course of action. There are two types of motivation. The first one is extrinsic motivation, which is concerned with factors outside the classroom, and intrinsic motivation, which is concerned with what takes place inside the classroom.

2.4.1. Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation is that which derives from the influence of some kind of external incentive, as distinct from the wish to learn for its own sake or interest in tasks. Many sources of extrinsic motivation are inaccessible to the influence of the teacher: for example, the desire of students to please some other authority figure such as parents, their wish to succeed in an external exam, or peer-group influences. There

are two main types of this motivation which are integrative and instrumental motivation. In the first one students need to be attracted by the culture of the target language community. On the other hand in the latter a student believes that mastery of the target language will be instrumental in getting them a better job, position or status. In other words the language is an instrument in their attainment of such a goal.

2.4.2. Intrinsic Motivation and Interest

Global intrinsic motivation – the generalized desire to invest effort in the learning for its own sake – is largely rooted in the previous attitudes of the learners: whether they see the learning as worthwhile, whether they like the language and its cultural, political and ethnic associations.

Such global motivation is important when the course is beginning, and as general underlying orientation during it; but for real-time classroom learning a more significant factor is whether the task in hand is seen as interesting. It is in the arousing of interest, perhaps, that teachers invest most effort, and get most immediate and noticeable pay-off in terms of learner motivation (Ur: 1996).

Some students do not bring extrinsic motivation to the classroom. They might have negative feelings about the language. Because of this reason what will happen in the classroom is of vital importance in order to change their attitudes to the language. There are four factors affecting intrinsic motivation the first one is physical condition that have a big effect on learning language. The second one is the method which affects the learners' motivation. If they confidence in it, he will de-motivated. On the other hand if they find it interesting, they will find it motivating, too. The teacher is among the most important factors that affects the students' motivation. His personality, his appearance, his knowledge of the subject are the factors that affect the students' attitude to the language. The last one is success. Not only success but also lack of it plays an important part in the motivation of the students.

Harmer (1993) states that there are motivational differences between a child and an adult. Children are curious and its motivating in itself whereas their concentration is less than adults. They need changes of activity. By playing different kind of games, a teacher can motivate them easily because they need activities which

are interesting and funny; they need to be appreciated by their teacher; they need to be involved something active and be successful.

Stipek (1988: 124,125) focuses on the advantages of intrinsic motivation. The first one is learning activities outside of school. Intrinsically motivated achievements behaviour is desirable partly because external reinforcement is not always available. The second one is preference for challenge. Studies have shown that individuals are more likely to select challenging tasks when intrinsically motivated than when motivated to obtain an extrinsic reward. The third one is conceptual understanding. Students read the text that interests them and this process help them to remember better. The forth one is creativity. Studies have found that conditions supporting intrinsic motivation also foster greater creativity. The last one is pleasure and involvement. Intrinsic interest or motivation also is associated with greater pleasure and more active involvement than extrinsic motivation.

2.4.3. Ways of Arousing Interest in Tasks

Ur (1976: 280-281) shows us some ways of arousing interest in task. These are:

1. Clear goals

Learners should be aware of the objectives of the task – both language-learning and content. For example, a guessing-game may have the language-learning goal of practising questions, and the content goal of guessing answers.

2. Varied topics and tasks

Topics and tasks should be selected carefully to be as interesting as possible.

3. Visuals

It is important for learners to have something to look at that is eye-catching and relevant to the task in hand.

4. Tension and challenge: games

Game-like activities provide pleasurable tension and challenge through the process of attaining some ‘fun’ goal while limited by rules. The introduction of such rules can add spice to almost any goal-oriented task.

5. Entertainment

Entertainment produces enjoyment, which in its turn adds motivation. Entertainment can be teacher-produced (jokes, stories, perhaps songs, dramatic presentations) or recorded (movies, video clips, television documentaries.)

6. Play-acting

Role play and simulations that use the imagination and take learners out of themselves can be excellent; though some people are inhibited and may find such activities intimidating at first.

7. Information gap

A particularly interesting type of task is that based on the need to understand or transmit information.

8. Personalization

Learners are more likely to be interested in tasks that have to do with them .

9. Open-ended cues

A cue which invites a number of possible responses is usually much more stimulating than one with only one right answer.

2.5. Multiple Intelligence Effects on Learning

According to Gardener intelligence is not a single construct, nor is it considered static. Gardener's MI theory is very important to ESL/EFL teachers because we work with such diverse learners. MI theory helps educators create and individualized learning environment (Reid 1998:4). Conceived by Howard Gardner Multiple Intelligences are seven different ways to demonstrate intellectual activity.

* Linguistic-Verbal Intelligence: The ability the use words effectively, both orally and in writing. Sample skills are remembering, convincing others to help, and talking about language itself (Reid 1998:4).

Their skills include: Listening, speaking, writing, story telling, explaining, teaching, using humour, understanding the syntax and meaning of words, remembering information, convincing someone of their point of view, analyzing language usage.(Kurt, Sayıner, Sarandal, Çoban, Buldur and Tekin 2008:52)

* Musical-Rhythmic Intelligence: Sensivity to rhythm, pitch and melody. Sample skills are recognizing simple songs and being able to vary speed, tempo and rhythm in sample melodies. (Reid 1998:4).

Their skills include: Singing, whistling, playing musical instruments, recognizing tonal patterns, composing music, remembering melodies, understanding the structure and rhythm of music. (Kurt, Sayıner, Sarandal, Çoban, Buldur and Tekin 2008:53).

* Logical-Mathematical Intelligence: The ability to use numbers affectively and reason well. Sample skills are understanding the basic properties of numbers, the principle of cause and effect, and the ability to predict (Reid 1998:4).

Their skills include: Problem solving, classifying and categorizing information, working with abstract concepts to figure out the relationship of each to the other, handling long chains of reason to make logical progression, doing controlled experiments, questioning and wondering about natural events, performing complex mathematical calculations, working with geometric shapes (Kurt, Sayıner, Sarandal, Çoban, Buldur and Tekin 2008:53).

* Spatial-Visual Intelligence: Sensitivity to form, space, colour, line and shape. Sample skills include the ability to represent visual or spatial ideas graphically. (Reid 1998:4).

Their skills include: Puzzle building, reading, writing, understanding charts and grabs, a good sense of direction, sketching, painting, creating visual metaphors and analogies, manipulating images, constructing, fixing, designing practical objects, interpreting visual images (Kurt, Sayıner, Sarandal, Çoban, Buldur and Tekin 2008:52).

* Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence: The ability to use the body to express ideas and feelings and to solve the problems. Sample skills are coordination, flexibility, speed, balance (Reid 1998:4).

Their skills include: Dancing, physical co-ordination, sports, hands on experimentation, using body language, crafts, acting, miming, using their hands to create or build, expressing emotions through the body (Kurt, Sayıner, Sarandal, Çoban, Buldur and Tekin 2008:52).

* Interpersonal Intelligence: The ability to understand another person's moods, feelings, motivations, and intentions. Sample skills are responding effectively to other people, problem solving and resolving conflict (Reid 1998:4).

Their skills include: Saying things from other perspectives, listening, using empathy, understanding other people's feelings, counselling, co-operating with groups, noticing people's moods, motivations and intensions, communication both verbal and non-verbally, building trust (Kurt, Sayıner, Sarandal, Çoban, Buldur and Tekin 2008:53).

* Intrapersonal Intelligence: The ability to understand yourself, your strengths, weaknesses, moods, desires and intensions. Sample skills are understanding how one is similar to or different from others, reminding oneself to do something, knowing about oneself as a language learner, and knowing how to handle one's feelings (Reid 1998:4).

Their skills include: Recognizing their own strengths and weaknesses, reflecting and analyzing themselves, awareness of their inner feelings, desires and dreams, evaluation their thinking patterns, reasoning with themselves, understanding their role in relationship to others (Kurt, Sayıner, Sarandal, Çoban, Buldur and Tekin 2008:53).

* Naturalist Intelligence: The ability to recognize species of plants or animals in one's environment. (Reid 1998:4) MI has great potential for helping to revolutionize our concept of student language-learning capabilities in the ESL classroom. As language teachers we know that our students learn differently. IM theory can help us develop language learning materials to address these differences. For example if your student has kinaesthetic intelligence, games are indispensable for teaching English.

2.6. Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching

2.6.1. Grammar Translation Method

Whether traditional or not, language teaching methods have their own way for teaching English. It is useful to look over these methods in a general way in order to decide and use the right method for teaching English through games.

In the nineteenth century the Classical Method came to be known as the Grammar Translation Method. There was little to distinguish Grammar Translation from what had gone on in foreign language classrooms for centuries beyond a focus on grammatical rules as the basis for translating from the second to the native

language. (Brown, 2001:18) Prator and Celce-Murcia listed the major characteristics of Grammar Translation:

1-Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language.

2- Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words.

3- Long, elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given.

4- Grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words.

5- Reading of difficult classical texts is begun early.

6- Little attention is paid to the content of texts, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis.

7- Often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue.

8- Little or no attention is given to pronunciation.

This method was so popular because it requires few specialized skills on the part of teachers. Richards and Rodgers (1986: 5) pointed out, "it has no advocates. It is a method for which there is no theory. There is no literature that offers a rationale or justification for it or that attempts to relate it to issues in linguistics, psychology, or educational theory."

In a grammar-translation class, students study the grammar and the vocabulary. The goal is to develop the ability to translate between the target language and the students' primary language (Freeman&Freeman 1998:7). Therefore it is not a method that teachers prefer nowadays. There is no real language. There is only translation from one language to another. This method is not an appropriate method to teach English permanently, funny and easily.

2.6.2. Direct Method

The Direct Method gets its name from the fact that students are encouraged to make direct associations between objects or concepts and the corresponding words in the target language (Freeman&Freeman 1998:9).

In the 1920s, the Direct Method of teaching foreign language became popular in the United States as an alternative to the previous century's reliance on grammar-translation techniques to teach classical languages.

Today's classrooms teachers can benefit from this method by seeing how to use of English is a part of our culture. Even the words are determined, to a great extend, by the cultural constructions of our world (Kottler 1994:38).

The basic premise of Direct Method is second language learning should be more like first language learning – lots of oral interaction, spontaneous use of the language, no translation between first and second language, and little or no analysis of grammatical rules.

In practice it stood for the following principles and procedures:

1-Classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language.

2- Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught.

3- Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progression organized around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive classes

4- Grammar was taught inductively.

5- New teaching points were introduced orally.

6- Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, and pictures; abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas.

7- Both speech and listening comprehension were taught.

8- Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasized (Richards Rodgers 1986:8).

The Direct Method did not take well in public education, where the constraints of budget, classroom size, time, and teacher background made such a method difficult to use. Moreover, the Direct Method was criticized for its weak theoretical foundations. Its success may have been more a factor of the skill and personality of the teacher than of the methodology itself.

2.6.3. Audio-Lingual Method

Rivers(1964: 19-22) states the features of ALM as:

1-Foreign language learning is basically a process of mechanical habit formation. Good habits are formed by giving correct responses rather than by making mistakes. By memorizing dialogues and performing pattern drills the chances of producing mistakes are minimized. Language is verbal behaviour – that is, the automatic production and comprehension of utterances – and can be learned by inducing the students to do likewise.

2- Language skills are learned more effectively if the items to be learned in the target language are presented in spoken form before they are seen in written form. Aural-oral training is needed to provide the foundation for the development of other language skills.

3- Analogy provides a better foundation for language learning than analysis. Analogy involves the processes of generalization and discrimination. Explanations of rules are therefore not given until students have practiced a pattern in a variety of contexts and are taught to have acquired a perception of the analogies involved. Drills can enable learners to form correct analogies. Hence the approach to the teaching of grammar is essentially inductive rather than deductive.

4- The meanings that the words of a language have for the native speaker can be learned only in linguistic and cultural context and not in isolation. Teaching a language thus involves teaching aspects of the cultural system of the people who speak the language.

Prator and Celce-Murcia (1979) summed up the characteristics of the ALM as:

1- New material is presented in dialogue form.

2- There is dependence on mimicry, memorization of set phrases, and over learning.

3- Structures are sequenced by means of.

4- Structural patterns are taught using repetitive drills.

5- There is little or no grammatical explanation. Grammar is taught by inductive analogy rather than by deductive explanation, contrastive analysis and taught one at a time.

6- Vocabulary is strictly limited and learned in context.
7- There is much use of tapes, language labs, and visual aids.
8- Great importance is attached to pronunciation.
9- Very little use of the mother tongue by teachers is permitted.
10- Successful responses are immediately reinforced.
11- There is a great effort to get students to produce error-free utterances.
12- There is a tendency to manipulate language and disregard content.

The ALM was firmly rooted in respectable theoretical perspectives of the time. Materials were carefully prepared, tested, and disseminated to educational institutions. "Success" could be overtly experienced by students as they practiced their dialogues in off-hours. But the popularity was not to last forever. Challenged by Wilga Rivers's (1964) eloquent criticism of the misconceptions of the ALM and by its ultimate failure to teach long-term communicative proficiency, ALM's popularity waned. We discovered that language was not really acquired through a process of habit formation and overlearning, that errors were not necessarily to be avoided at all costs, and that structural linguistics did not tell us everything about language that we needed to know.

2.6.4. Silent Way

The Silent Way is the name of a method of language teaching devised by Caleb Gattegno's. The Silent Way represents Gattegno's venture into the field of foreign language teaching. It is based on the premise that the teacher should be encouraged to produce as much language as possible. Elements of the Silent Way, particularly the use of colour charts and the coloured Cuisenaire rods, grew out of Gattegno's previous experience as an educational designer of reading and mathematics programs.

The Silent Way shares a great deal with other learning theories and educational philosophies. Very broadly put, the learning hypotheses underlying Gattegno's work could be stated as follows:

1- Learning is facilitated if the learner discovers or creates rather remembers and repeats what is to be learned.
2- Learning is facilitated by accompanying physical objects.

3- Learning is facilitated by problem solving involving the material to be learned.

The Silent Way has had its share of criticism. In one sense, it was too harsh a method, and the teacher too distant, to encourage a communicative atmosphere. Students often need more guidance and overt correction than the Silent Way permitted.

As English language teachers we can find games to play in the classroom by using this method.

2.6.5. Total Physical Response

Total Physical Response is a language teaching method built around the coordination of speech and action; it attempts to teach language through physical (motor) activity. Developed by James Asher, a professor of psychology at San Jose State University, California, it draws on several traditions, including developmental psychology, learning theory, and humanistic pedagogy, as well as on language teaching procedures by Harold and Dorothy Palmer in 1925. He actually began experimenting with TPR in the 1960s, but it was almost a decade before the method was widely discussed in professional circles.

Total Physical Response is linked to the “trace theory” of memory in psychology, which holds that the more often or the more intensively a memory connection is traced, the stronger the memory association will be and the more likely it will be recalled. Retracing can be done verbally and/or in association with motor activity. Combined tracing activities, such as verbal rehearsal accompanied by motor activity, hence increase the probability of successful recall.

In a developmental sense, Asher sees successful adult second language learning as a parallel process to child first language acquisition. He claims that speech directed to young children consists primarily of commands, which children respond to physically before they begin to produce verbal responses. Asher feels adults should recapitulate the processes by which children acquire their mother tongue.

Asher's emphasis on developing comprehension skills before the learner is taught to speak links him to a movement in foreign language teaching sometimes

referred to as the Comprehension Approach (Winitz 1981). This refers to several different comprehension-based language teaching proposals, which share the belief that (a) comprehension abilities precede productive skills in learning a language; (b) the teaching of speaking should be delayed until comprehension skills are established; (c) skills acquired through listening transfer to other skills; (d) teaching should emphasize meaning rather than form; and (e) teaching should minimize learner stress.

Asher (1977: 43) noted that children, in learning their first language, appear to do a lot of listening before they speak, and that their listening is accompanied by physical responses. He also gave some attention to right-brain learning. According to Asher, motor activity is a right-brain function that should precede left-brain language processing. Asher was also convinced that language classes were often the locus of too much anxiety, so he wished to devise a method that was as stress-free as possible, where learners would not feel overly self-conscious and defensive. The TPR classroom, then, was one in which students did a great deal of listening and acting. The teacher was very directive in orchestrating a performance: "The instructor is the director of a stage play in which the students are the actors"

In TPR, students listen and respond to a series of comments. At the beginning are given simple comments such as "Raise your right hand." Students than indicate their comprehension by raising their hands. As students progress through TPR lessons, the comments become more complex (Freeman&Freeman 1998: 17).

As English language teachers, we can take the advantage of this method during the game process.

2.6.6. Community Language Learning

This method advises teachers to consider their students as "whole persons." Whole-person learning mean that teachers consider not only their students' feelings and intellect but also have some understanding of the relationship among students physical reactions, their instinctive protective reactions and their desire to learn. The Community Language Learning Method takes its principle from the more general Counseling Learning approach developed by Charles A. Curran. Curran studied adult learning for many years. He discovered that adults often feel threatened by a new

learning situation. They are threatened by the change inherent in learning and by the fear that they will appear foolish. By understanding students' fears and being sensitive to them, the teacher can help students overcome their negative feelings and turn then into positive energy to further their learning. (Larsen-Freeman, 1986)

The primary aim of CLL is to create a genuinely warm and supportive community among the learners and gradually to move them from complete dependence on the teacher to complete autonomy (Nunan 1998:236).

In a typical CLL lesson, students who have previously come to know each other sit in a small circle. The teacher facilitator stands behind one of the students. This student makes a statement or asks a question in his or her native language. In a gentle, supportive voice the teacher translates what the student said from the student's native language to the language being learned. The student repeats what the teacher says until he or she is comfortable enough to record the new phrase or sentence on a tape recorder. This procedure is repeated with others in the circle until a short conversation has been recorded. Then students listen to their conversation, and the teacher writes it on the board. The textbook actually becomes what the students say in their recorded conversation. Students often copy the written conversation from the board to take home and study. As time goes on students use more complex language and eventually come to need the teacher- facilitator less and less (Freeman&Freeman 1998:17).

2.6.7. Natural Approach

One of the most widely-used methods of teaching a second or a foreign language is The Natural Approach, developed by Krashen and Terrell (1983). The method puts into practice the theory of second language acquisition Krashen (1982) developed. A central tenet of his theory is that we acquire rather than learn a second language. Acquisition occurs in a natural order when students receive comprehensible input, messages they understand (Freeman&Freeman 1998:19).

Krashen and Terrell see communication as the primary function of language, and since their approach focuses on teaching communicative abilities, they refer to the Natural Approach as an example of communicative approach. The Natural Approach "is similar to other communicative approaches being developed today"

(Krashen and Terrell 1983:17) They reject earlier methods of language teaching, such as the Audiolingual Method, which viewed grammar as the central component of language. According to Krashen and Terrell, the major problem with these methods was that they were built not around "actual theories of language acquisition, but theories of something else; for example, the structure of language". Language is viewed as a vehicle for communicating meanings and messages. Hence Krashen and Terrell state that "acquisition can take place only when people understand messages in the target language (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 19).

In the Natural Approach, learners presumably move through what Krashen and Terrell defined as three stages: (a) The preproduction stage is the development of listening comprehension skills. (b) The early production stage is usually marked with errors as the student struggles with the language. The teacher focuses on meaning her, not on form, and therefore the teacher does not make a point of correcting errors during this stage (unless they are gross errors that block or hinder meaning entirely). (c) The last stage is one of extending production into longer stretches of discourse involving more complex games, role-plays, open-ended dialogues, discussions, and extended small-group work. Since the objective in this stage is to promote fluency, teachers are asked to be very sparse in their correction of errors.

Games are in the Natural Approach not a frill but an important element in the acquisition process. They qualify as an acquisition activity because of their value in providing comprehensible input. It is simple in many games to focus on particular words. One common technique is to make up illogical combinations and ask the students to figure out what is wrong with the combination (Nunan 1998:243).

2.6.8. Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia was a method that was derived from Bulgarian psychologist Georgi Lozanov's (1979) contention that the human brain could process great quantities of material if given the right conditions for learning, among which are a state of relaxation and giving over of control to the teacher.

Several characteristics of Suggestopedia distinguish it from other second language teaching methods. First, the physical settings is extremely important. Classes are small and students sit in comfortable armchairs in a semicircle. On the

walls of the room hang posters from countries where the target language is spoken as well as posters with grammatical information such as verb conjugations (Freeman&Freeman 1998:13).

In applications of Suggestopedia to foreign language learning, Lozanov and his followers experimented with the presentation of vocabulary, readings, dialogs, role-plays, drama, and a variety of other typical classroom activities. Students were encouraged to be as "childlike" as possible, yielding all authority to the teacher and sometimes assuming the roles (and names) of native speakers of the foreign language. Students thus became "suggestible". Lazanov (1979: 272) described the concert session portion of a Suggestopedia language class:

At the beginning of the session, all conversation stops for a minute or two, and the teacher listens to the music coming from a tape-recorder. He waits and listens to several passages in order to enter into the mood of the music and then begins to read or recite the new text, his voice modulated in harmony with the musical phrases. The students follow the text in their textbooks where each lesson is translated into the mother tongue. Between the first and second part of the concert, there are several minutes of solemn silence. In some cases, even longer pauses can be given to permit the students to stir a little. Before the beginning of the second part of the concert, there are again several minutes of silence and some phrases of the music are heard again before the teacher begins to read the text. Now the students close their textbooks and listen to the teacher's reading. At the end, the students silently leave the room. They are not told to do any homework on the lesson they have just had except for reading it cursorily once before going to bed and again before getting up in the morning.

This is an humanistic approach so we can also take the advantage of this method during the teaching process.

2.6.9. Communicative Approach

For a long time the learning of language was seen as the mastery of a set of structures. The then current theories of learning linked well with his notion and the learning of language became that of linguistic habits. This had given way in the late 1960s to a concern with rule-learning and what, following Chomsky (1965), became

known as transformational rules of syntax. A poorly linguistic concept of language had become psycholinguistic. But still there was the notion of language as a set of something to be learnt. It is important to remember too that the rules were those of form or grammar. There was no concern as yet with the purposes to which people put language and the divorce patterns of performance or use.

Then in 1970s begun to move towards language as communication. People became interested in the individual utterances. Discussions on the nature of language, its acquisition, development, pedagogy and techniques. The salient notions of the Communicative Approach:

1- Focus on message rather than medium.
2- The information gap
3- Focus on process rather than product
4- Emphasis on negotiation rather than pre-determination
5- Use of the learner's own resources (Garvie 1990: 3,4,5)

When we communicate, we use the language to accomplish some function, such as arguing, persuading, or promising. Moreover, we carry out these functions within a social context. A speaker will choose a particular way to express his argument not only based upon his intent and his level of emotion, but also on whom he is addressing and what his relationship with that person is.

Furthermore, since communication is a process, it is insufficient for students to simply have knowledge of target language forms, meanings, and functions. Students must be able to apply this knowledge in negotiating meaning. It is through the interaction between speaker and listener that meaning becomes clear. The listener gives the speaker feedback as to whether or not he understands what the speaker has said. In this way, the speaker can revise what he has said and try to communicate his intended meaning again, if necessary. (Larsen-Freeman, 1986)

Brown (2001: 43) offers the following six interconnected characteristics as a description of CLT:

1- Classroom goals are focused on all of the components (grammatical, discourse, functional, sociolinguistic, and strategic) of communicative competence.

2- Language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes. Organizational language forms are not the central focus, but rather aspects of language that enable the learner to accomplish those purposes.

3- Fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques. At times fluency may have to take on more importance than accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use.

4- Students in a communicative class ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts outside the classroom. Classroom tasks must therefore equip students with the skills necessary for communication in those contexts.

5- Students are given opportunities to focus on their own learning process through an understanding of their own styles of learning and through the development of appropriate strategies for autonomous learning.

6- The role of the teacher is that of facilitator and guide, not an all-knowing bestower of knowledge. Students are therefore encouraged to construct meaning through genuine linguistic interaction with others.

According to Larsen-Freeman there are some principles of this method. Whenever possible, “authentic language” – language as it is used in a real context – should be introduced. Being able to figure out the speaker’s or writer’s intention is part of being communicatively competent. The target language is a vehicle for classroom communication, not just the object of the study. One function can have many different linguistic forms. Since the focus of the course is on real language use, a variety of linguistic forms are presented together. Students should work with language at the discourse or suprasentential (above the sentence) level. They must learn about cohesion and coherence, those properties of language which bind the sentences together. Games are important because they have certain features in common with real communicative events – there is a purpose to the exchange. Also, the speaker receives immediate feedback from the listener on whether or not she has successfully communicated. Having students work in small groups maximizes the amount of communicative practice they receive. Students should be given an opportunity to express their ideas and opinions. Errors are tolerated and seen as a

natural outcome of the development of communication skills. Students' success is determined as much by their fluency as it is by their accuracy. One of the teacher's major responsibilities is to establish situation like to promote communication. Communicative interaction encourages cooperative relationships among students. It gives students an opportunity to work on negotiating meaning. The social context of the communicative event is essential in giving meaning to the utterances. Learning to use language forms appropriately is an important part of communicative competence. The teacher acts as an advisor during communicative activities. In communicating activities, a speaker has a choice not only about what to say, but also how to say it. The grammar and vocabulary that the students learn follow from the function, situational context, and the roles of the interlocutors. Students should be given opportunities to develop strategies for interpreting language as it is actually used by native speakers (Littlewood, 1981).

The communicative approach in language teaching starts from a theory of language as communication. The goal of language teaching is to develop what Hymes (1972) referred to as "Communicative Competence." Communicative competence is the ability not only to apply to grammatical rules of a language in order to from grammatically correct sentences but also to know when and where to use these sentences and to whom. Hymes coined this term in order to contrast a communicative view of language and Chomsky's theory of competence. Chomsky held that linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitation, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance (Chomsky, 1965:3).

Dell Hymes (1967) who was convinced that Chomsky's notion of competence was too limited coined the term communicative competence.

Hymes's theory of communicative competence was a definition of what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community. In Hymes's view, a person who acquires communicative competence acquires both knowledge and ability for language use with respect to

1- whether something is formally possible;

2- whether something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;

3- whether something is appropriate in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;

4- whether something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails (Hymes: 1972, 281).

According to Brown (2000: 246,247) communicative competence is divided four sections. The first one is grammatical competence, the second one is discourse competence, the third one is sociolinguistic competence and the last one is strategic competence.

The grammatical competence is the aspect of communicative competence that encompasses the knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence grammar semantics, and phonology. The discourse competence is the ability of understand and create forms of the language that are longer than sentences or in other word it emphasis the connection of sentences and the forming meaningful series of utterances. The sociolinguistic competence is the knowledge of the socio-cultural rules of language and discourse. Sociolinguistic competence requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the roles of the participant, the information they share, and the function of interaction. Finally strategic competence is to know how to recognize and repair communication breakdowns, how to work around gaps in one's knowledge of the language, and how to learn more about the language and in the context.

According to Gebhard (2006: 74) to have grammatical competency means to be able to recognize sentence-level grammatical forms, including lexical items (vocabulary/words), morphological items (smallest units of meaning), syntactic features (word order), and phonological features (consonant and vowel sounds, and other aspects of the sound system. Communicative competence also includes discourse competency, or the ability to interconnect a series of utterances to form a meaningful text. According to Sandra Savignon (2001:17) discourse competency also includes text coherence and cohesion. The third component of communicative competence is socio-cultural competency, which is the ability to use English in social contexts in culturally appropriate ways. Finally, communicative competence includes

strategic competency or the ability to cope with breakdown in communication, the problem-solve in unfamiliar contexts when communication fails and to draw on strategies that help restore communication.

In this study, we will take the advantage of Communicative Approach. Especially "communicative games" will be chosen.

2.7. Teaching Four Skills

Speaking and writing involve language production and therefore they are often referred to as productive skills while listening and reading involve receiving messages and therefore they are often referred to as receptive skills. Harmer summaries the four major language skills in the following way:

SKILL	SPEECH	WRITTEN WORD
RECEPTIVE	Listening and understanding	Reading and understanding
PRODUCTIVE	Speaking	Writing

We can teach this four skills through games. The games can be categorized as four skill games such as speaking games, writing games, reading games and listening games. An example for speaking games is "Tell Me About" which teaches self-expression, connects cognitive, affective, and physical domains and relevance to events in children's lives. An example for writing games can be "Show Me the Letter" which teaches the latter recognition and the ability to physically replicate what the eyes see. An example for reading games can be "Happy Endings" which teaches word comprehension, self-expression and an introduction to suffixes. An example for listening games can be "Listen Up" which teaches auditory discrimination and deal with the memory (Pica 2007).

2.7.1. Teaching Speaking

Of all the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), speaking seems intuitively the most important: people who know a language are referred to as 'speakers' of that language, as if speaking included all other kinds of knowing; and many if not most foreign language learners primarily interested in learning to speak.

Classroom activities that develop learners' ability to express themselves through speech would therefore seem an important component of a language course. Yet it is difficult to design and administer such activities; more so, in many ways, than to do so for listening, reading or writing. We shall come on to what the problems are presently, but first let us try to define what is meant by 'an effective speaking activity'.

There are three basic reasons why it is a good idea to give students speaking tasks which provoke them to use all and any language at their command.

Rehearsal: getting students to have a free discussion gives them a chance to rehearse having discussions outside the classroom. Having them take part in a role-play at an airport check-in desk allows them to rehearse such a real-life event in the safety of the classroom.

Feedback: speaking tasks where students are trying to use all and any language they know provides feedback for both teacher and students. Teachers can see how well their class is doing and what language problems they are having. By playing games students will have a lot of opportunities to speak in English.

Engagement: good speaking activities can and should be highly motivating. If all the students are participating fully – and if the teacher has set up the activity properly and can then give sympathetic and useful feedback – they will get tremendous satisfaction from it. Many speaking tasks (role- playing, discussion, problem-solving and also games etc.) are intrinsically enjoyable in themselves.

There are seven principles for designing speaking techniques. These are provide intrinsically motivating techniques, encourage the use of authentic language in meaningful context, provide appropriate feedback and correction, capitalize on the natural link between speaking and listening, give students opportunities to initiate oral communication, encourage the development of speaking strategies, use techniques that cover the spectrum of learner needs, from language based focus on accuracy to message-based focus on interaction, meaning, and fluency. (Brown, 2001: 275).

2.7.1.1. Characteristics of a successful speaking activity

1- Learners talk a lot: As much as possible of the period of time allotted to the activity is in fact occupied by learner talk. This may seem obvious, but often most time is taken up with teacher talk or pauses.
2- Participation is even: Classroom discussion is not dominated by a minority of talkative participants: all get a chance to speak, and contributions are fairly evenly distributed.
3- Motivation is high: Learners are eager to speak: because they are interested in the topic and have something new to say about it, or because they want to contribute to achieving a task objective.
4- Language is of an acceptable level: Learners express themselves in utterances that are relevant, easily comprehensible to each other, and of an acceptable level of language accuracy.

2.7.1.2. Problems with Speaking Activities

1- Inhibition: Unlike reading, writing and listening activities, speaking requires some degree of real-time exposure to an audience. Learners are often inhibited about trying to say things in a foreign language in the classroom: worried about making mistakes, fearful of criticism or losing face, or simply shy of the attention that their speech attracts.
2- Nothing to say: Even if they are not inhibited, you often hear learners complain that they cannot think of anything to say: they have no motive to express themselves beyond the guilty feeling that they should be speaking.
3- Low or uneven participation: Only one participant can talk at a time if he or she is to be heard; and in a large group this means that each one will have only very little talking time. This problem is compounded by the tendency of some learners to dominate, while others speak very little or not at all.
4- Mother-tongue use: In classes where all, or a number of, the learners share the same mother tongue, they may tend to use it: because it is easier, because it feels unnatural to speak to one another in a foreign language,

and because they fell less exposed if they are speaking their mother tongue. If they are talking in small groups it can be quite difficult to get some classes – particularly the less disciplined or motivated ones – to keep to the target language.

2.7.1.3. Solutions for Some of the Problems for the Teachers

1- Use group work: This increases the sheer amount of learner talk going on in a limited period of time and also lowers the inhibitions of learners who are unwilling to speak in front of the full class. It is true that group work means the teacher cannot supervise all learner speech, so that not all utterances will be correct, and learners may occasionally slip into their native language; nevertheless, even taking into consideration occasional mistakes and mother-tongue use, the amount of time remaining for positive, useful oral practice is still likely to be far more than in the full-class set-up.

2- Base the activity on easy language: In general, the level of language needed for a discussion should be lower than that used in intensive language-learning activities in the same class: it should be easily recalled and produced by the participants, so that they can speak fluently with the minimum of hesitation. It is a good idea to teach or review essential vocabulary before the activity starts.

3- Make a careful choice of topic and task to stimulate interest

4- Give some instruction or training in discussion skills

5- Keep students speaking the target language: You might appoint one of the group as monitor, whose job it is to remind participants to use the target language, and perhaps report later to the teacher how well the group managed to keep to it. Even if there is no actual penalty attached, the very awareness that someone is monitoring such lapses helps participants to be more careful.

2.7.1.4. Types of Oral Fluency Activities

We want to show two kinds of activity to focus on the effect of the game using during the teaching speaking process.

Activity 1: Discuss the following conflicting opinions.

Opinion 1: Children should be taught in heterogeneous classes: setting them into ability groupings puts a ‘failure’ label onto members of the lower groups, whereas putting more and less able learners together encourages the slower ones to progress faster, without penalizing the more able.

Opinion 2: Children should be divided into ability groupings for most subjects: this enables the less ones to be taught at a pace suitable for them, while the better students do not need to wait for the slower ones to catch up.

Activity 2:

A good school teacher should have the following qualities. Can your group agree together in what order of priority you would put them?

Sense of humour
Honesty
Love of children
Knowledge of subject
Flexibility
Clear speaking voice
Enthusiasm for teaching
Pleasant appearance
Fairness
Ability to create interest
Ability to keep order
Intelligence

The main difference between the two activities is that the first is topic-based and the second task-based. In other words, the first simply asks participants to talk about a subject, the main objective being clearly the discussion process itself; the second asks them actually to perform something, where the discussion process is a means to an end.

When she has done experiment with teachers the task-centred activity scores higher with most groups on all criteria: there is more talk, more even participation, more motivation and enjoyment. When asked why, participants say things like: 'I knew where I was going, there was some purpose in speaking'; 'It was a challenge – we were aware that time was running out and we had to get a result'; ' It was more like a game, we enjoyed it'. (Ur, Penny, 1976: 120-122).

There are some broad functions of visual materials used for speaking activities such as to motivate the student to want to speak; to create a context within which his speech will have meaning; to provide the student with information to use in speech, including objects, actions, events, relationships; to provide the student with non-verbal cues for manipulating work; to provide non-verbal prompts to dialogue reproduction or to dialogue invention (Wright 1986: 14)

Speaking activities based on communication games are often a useful way of giving students valuable practice, especially, although by no means exclusively, where younger learners are involved. Game-based activities can involve practice of oral strategies such as describing, predicting, simplifying, asking for feedback, through activities such as filling in questionnaires and guessing unknown information (McDonough&Shaw 1993: 163).

2.7.2. Teaching Reading

Reading is the ability to understand written language. It is a process of interpreting and understanding the text.

If a reading text is interesting and engaging for the students, language acquisition is likely to be more successful. As Harmer states (1998: 68) reading texts also provide opportunities to study language vocabulary, grammar, punctuation, and the way we construct sentences, paragraphs and texts. Lastly, good reading texts can introduce interesting topics, stimulate discussion, excite imaginative responses and be the springboard for well-rounded, fascinating lessons.

2.7.2.1. The Principles behind the Teaching of Reading

Principle 1: Reading is not a passive skill.

Reading is an incredibly active occupation. To do it successfully, we have to understand what the words mean, see the pictures the words are painting, understand the arguments, and work out if we agree with them. By playing games we can make this skill active.

Principle 2: Students need to be engaged with what they are reading.

Students who are not engaged with the reading text – not actively interested in what they are doing – are less likely to benefit from it. When they engaged with the reading text they get much more of it.

Principle 3: Students should be encouraged to respond to content of a reading text, not just to the language.

The meaning, the message of the text, is just as important and we must give students a chance to respond to that message in some way.

Principle 4: Prediction is a major factor in reading.

The book cover, the headline, the word-processed page give an idea about what we are going to read. Our brains start predicting about the topic. Expectations are set up and the active process of reading is ready to begin. Teachers should give students 'hints' so that they can predict what's coming to.

Principle 5: Match the task to the topic.

Once a decision has been taken about what reading text the students are going to read, we need to choose good reading tasks – the right kind of questions, engaging, useful puzzles and games etc. the most interesting text can be undermined by asking boring and inappropriate questions; the most commonplace passage can be made really exciting with imaginative and challenging tasks.

Principle 6: Good teachers exploit reading text to the full.

Any reading text is full of sentences, words, ideas, descriptions etc. It doesn't make sense just to get students to read it and then drop it to move on to something else. Good teachers integrate the reading text into interesting class sequences, using the topic for discussion and further task, using the language for Study and later Activation.

2.7.2.2. Reasons for Teaching Reading

There are many reasons why getting students to read English texts is an important part of the teacher's job. In the first place many of them want to be able to read texts in English either for their carriers, for study purposes or simply for pleasure. Anything we can do to make reading easier for them must be a good idea.

Reading is useful for other purposes too: any exposure to English is a good thing for language students. At the very least, some of the language sticks in their minds as part of the process of language acquisition, and, if the reading text is especially interesting and engaging, acquisition is likely to be even more successful.

Reading texts also provide opportunities to study language: vocabulary, grammar, punctuation, and the way we construct sentences, paragraphs, and texts.

In many countries foreign languages are learned by numbers of students who will never have the opportunity of conversing with native speakers, but who will have access to the literature and periodicals, or scientific and technical journals, written in the language they are learning. Many will need these publications to assist them with further studies or in their work; other will wish to enjoy reading in another language in their leisure time to keep them in touch with the wider world.

The reading skill, once developed is the one which can be most easily maintained at a high level by the students themselves without further help from a teacher. Through it they can increase their knowledge and understanding of the culture of the speakers of the language, their ways of thinking, their contemporary activities, and their contributions to many fields of artistic and intellectual endeavour (Rivers 1981:260).

2.7.2.3. The Reading Skills That Students Acquire

There are three types of reading which are oral reading, intensive reading and extensive reading.

Students need to be able to scan the text for particular bits of information they are searching for. This skill means that do not have to read every word and line; on the contrary, such an approach would stop them skinning successfully.

Students need to be able to skim a text – as if they were casting their eyes over its surface to get a general idea of what it is about.

Reading for detailed comprehension, whether looking for detailed information or language, must be seen by students as something very different from the reading skills mentioned above.

One of the teacher's main functions when training students to read is not only to persuade them of the advantages of skimming and scanning, but also to make them see that the way they read is vitally important.

There are some broad functions of visual materials used for reading activities for example to motivate the student to want to read; to make him feel that what he is reading and the way he is reading it relate to the way in which written text is used in real life; to provide a clue to the meaning of detail, either introducing him to the meaning for first time or remanding him of it; to provide a clue to the gist of the passage or text, either introducing it to him for the first time or reminding him of a theme previously met; to provide him with material by which he may indicate non-verbally that he has understood to provide him with a symbolic analysis of the relationship between written language and spoken sounds (Wright 1986:31).

2.7.3. Teaching Writing

How is writing like swimming? The psycholinguist Eric Lenneberg (1967) once noted, in a discussion of "species specific" human behaviour, that human beings universally learn to walk and to talk, but that swimming and writing are culturally specific learned behaviours. We learn to swim if there is a body of water available and usually only if someone teaches us. We learn to write if we are members of a literate society, and usually only if someone teaches us.

The reasons for teaching writing to students of English as a foreign language include reinforcement, language development, learning style and, most importantly, writing as a skill in its own right.

What kind of writing should students do?

Like many other aspects of English language teaching, the type of writing we get students to do will depend on their age, interest and level. In general, however, we will try to get students writing in a number of common everyday styles. These will include writing postcards, letters of various kinds, filling in forms such as job applications, writing narrative compositions, reports, newspaper and magazine

articles etc. Another factor which can determine our choice of writing task is the students' interest.

There is no limit to the kinds of text we can ask students to write. Our decisions, though, will be based on how much language the students know, what their interests are and what we think we will not only be useful for them but also motivate them as well.

The introduction and practice of some form of writing enables us to provide for different learning styles and needs. Some learners, especially those who do not learn easily through oral practice alone, feel more secure if they are allowed to read and write in the language. For such students writing is likely to be an aid to retention if only because they feel more ease and relaxed. Written works serves to provide the learners with some tangible evidence that they are making progress in the language. It is not likely to be a true index of their attainment, but once again it satisfies psychological need. Exposure to the foreign language through more than one medium, especially if skills are properly integrated, the pairs to be more effective than relying on a single medium alone. Even at on elementary level there are many opportunities for activities that effectively integrate skills. Writing provides variety in classroom activities, serving as a break from oral work. At the same time, it increases amount of language contact through work that can be set out of class (Byrne 1988: 6).

2.7.3.1. Advantages of Writing

1- Permanence: Written discourse is fixed and stable so the reading can be done at whatever time, speed and level of thoroughness the individual reader wishes.
2- Explicitness: The written text is explicit: it has to make clear the context and all references.
3- Density: The content is presented much more densely in writing.
4- Detachment: The writing of a text is detached in time and space from its reading; the writer normally works alone, and may not be acquainted with his or her readers.

5- Organization: A written text is usually organized and carefully formulated, since its composer has time and opportunity to edit it before making it available for reading.
6- Standard language: Writing normally uses a generally acceptable standard variety of the language, whereas speech may sometimes been a regional or other limited-context dialect.

There are six principles for designing writing techniques. These are incorporate practices of "good" writers, balance process and product, account for cultural/literary backgrounds, connect reading and writing, provide as much authentic writing as possible, frame your techniques in terms of prewriting, drafting, and revising stages.

2.7.4. Teaching Listening

Listening as a major component in language learning and teaching first hit the spotlight in the late 1970s with James Asher's (1977) work on Total Physical Response. In TPR the role of comprehension was given prominence as learners were given great quantities of language to listen to before they were encouraged to respond orally. Similarly, the Natural Approach recommended a significant "silent period" during which learners were allowed security of listening without being forced to go through anxiety of speaking before they were "ready" to do so. Such approaches were an outgrowth of a variety of research studies that showed evidence of the importance of input in second language acquisition. Stephen Krashen (1985), for example, borrowing insight from first language acquisition stressed the significance of comprehensible input, or the aural reception of language that is just a little beyond the learner's present ability. About the same time, researchers were also stressing the crucial importance of whatever mental processes were brought to bear on the learner's converting input into intake, or that which is actually stored in learner's competence. The conversation of input into intake is absolutely crucial in considering the role of listening in language learning. (Brown, 2001: 247,248)

2.7.4.1. Reasons for Teaching Listening

One of the main reasons for getting students to listen to spoken English is to let them hear different varieties and accents – rather than just the voice of their teacher.

The main method of exposing students to spoken English of course after the teacher is through the use of taped material which can exemplify a wide range of topics such as advertisements, news broadcasts, poetry reading, plays, songs with lyrics, speeches, telephone conversations and all manner of spoken exchanges.

The second major reason for teaching listening is because it helps students to acquire language subconsciously even if teachers do not draw attention to its special features. Exposure to language is a fundamental requirement for anyone wanting to learn it. Listening to appropriate tapes provides such exposure and students get vital information not only about grammar and vocabulary but also about pronunciation, rhythm, intonation, pitch and stress.

There are some broad functions of visual materials used for listening activities for example to motivate the student to want to find out more by listening; to make him feel that what he is listening to relates to real people, and a real way of life; to provide him with a clue to the meaning of detail; to provide him with a clue to the meaning of gist; to provide him with material by which he can indicate non-verbal that he has understood; to provide him with a graphic analyses of the sound features of the spoken language, for example, by diagrams of intonation patterns (Wright 1986: 2).

2.7.4.2. Types of Listening Students should do

The debate about the use of authentic listening material is just as fierce in listening as it is in reading. If, for example, we play a tape of a political speech to complete beginners, they won't understand a word. You could argue that such a tape would at least give them a feel for the sound of the language, but beyond that it is difficult to see what they would get out of it.

Everything depends on level, and the kind of tasks that go with a tape. Long tapes on subjects which students are not interested in at all will not only be demotivating, but students might well 'switch off'. There may well be some authentic material which is usable such as pre-recorded announcements, telephone messages etc.

There are six principles behind the teaching of listening. These are the tape recorder is just as important as the tape, preparation is vital, once will not be enough,

students should be encouraged to respond to the content of a listening, not just to the language, different listening stages demand different listening tasks, good teachers exploit listening texts to the full.

Students cannot actually listen in pairs but they can collaborate on a task which follows on from listening. For example, they can agree an answer or compare their answers. Even if the coursebook does not suggest this, you should try it if you think it will make the activity more interesting for the students. (Byrne, 1987: 81). The teacher can achieve this through games.

There are six principles for designing listening techniques. These are use techniques that are intrinsically motivating; utilize authentic language and context; carefully consider the form of listeners' responses; encourage the development of listening strategies; include both bottom-up and top-down listening techniques; in an interactive, four-skills curriculum, make sure that you don't overlook the importance of techniques that specifically develop listening comprehension competence.

2.8. Teaching Grammar

2.8.1. What Is Grammar?

There are various definitions about grammar. Some of them: a description of the structure of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language (Richards, Platte and Weber, 1985); one possible definition might be: grammar is a set of rules that define how words are combined or changed to form acceptable units of meaning within a language.

Grammar is sometimes defined as 'the way words are put together to make correct sentences'. This is, as we shall see presently, an over-simplification, but is a good starting-point (and an easy way to explain the term to young learners). Thus in English *I am a teacher* is grammatical, **I a teacher*, and **I are a teacher* are not.

We can, however, apply the term 'grammatical' to units smaller than sentences. A brief phrase said or written on its own can be grammatically acceptable or unacceptable in its own right: *a tall woman* sounds right; **a woman tall* does not. The same may be true of single words: compare *went* with **goed.* (Ur, 1976 75).

In 1962 a certain Joseph Webbe, schoolmaster and textbook writer, wrote: 'No man can run speedily to the mark of language that is shackled… with grammar precepts.' He maintained that grammar could be picked up through simply communicating: 'By exercise of reading, writing and speaking… all things belonging to Grammar, will without labour, and whether we will or no, trust themselves upon us.'

Webbe was one of the earliest educators to question the value of grammar instruction, but certainly not the last. In fact, no other issue has so preoccupied theorists and practitioners as the grammar debate, and the history of language teaching is essentially the history of the claims and counterclaims for and against the teaching of grammar. Differences in attitude to the role of grammar underpin differences between methods, between teachers, and between learners. It is a subject that everyone involved in language teaching and learning has an opinion on. And these opinions are often strongly and uncompromisingly stated. Here, for example are a number of recent statements on the subject:

'There is no doubt that a knowledge – implicit or explicit – of grammatical rules is essential for the mastery of a language.' (Penny Ur, a teacher trainer, an author of Grammar Practice Activities)

'The effects of grammar teaching… appear to be peripheral and fragile.' (Stephen Krashen, an influential, if controversial, applied linguist)

'A sound knowledge of grammar is essential if pupils are going to use English creatively.' (Tom Hutchinson, a coursebook writer)

'Grammar is not very important: The majority of languages have a very complex grammar. English has little grammar and consequently it is not very important to understand it.' (From the publicity of a London Language School)

'Grammar is not the basis of language acquisition, and the balance of linguistic research clearly invalidates any view to the contrary.' (Michael Lewis, a popular writer on teaching methods)

The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English defines grammar as 'the rules of which words change their forms and are combined into sentences'. Grammar is the way in which words change themselves and group together to make sentences (Harmer 1989;1)

2.8.2. How To Teach Grammar

There are a number of techniques for representing and practising grammar. The most important techniques of them are cover and overt techniques. Covert grammar teaching is where grammatical facts are hidden from the students- even though they are learning the language. With cover grammar, teachers help the students to acquire and/or practice the language, but they do not draw conscious attention to any of the grammatical facts of the language. Overt grammatical teaching means that the teacher actually provides the students with grammatically rules and explanations- the information is openly presented. So, with overt techniques teaching we are explicit and open about the grammar of the language, but with covert teaching we simply get student's to work with new language and hope that they will more or less subconsciously absorb grammatical information which will help them to acquire the language as a whole.

In recent years emphasis has shifted away from the teaching of grammar. Teachers have concentrated on other issues, such as how people learn languages and what they want to say. Many teachers and writers discussed these questions and gradually created a new way of looking at teaching called the communicative approach. Two of the main issues in the communicative approach were the teaching of language functions, and the use of communicative activities. Together with these issues, a distinction has been made between acquisition and learning. The first one is language functions: Some people felt that teaching the grammar of the language did not necessarily help people to use the language. There is now a general feeling that students do need to learn how to perform the functions of language, but that they need a grammatical base as well. The second one is communicative activities: There must be occasions when students in the classroom use the language to communicate ideas, not just to practice language. There are now many books about activities like role-playing, problem-solving, discussions, games and project work which encourage students to communicate (Harmer 1989: 3,4,5).

We can also teach grammar through games. Murcia&Hilles (1988: 132) suggest that when ESL students are engaged in games, their use of language is task-oriented and has a purpose beyond the production of correct speech. This makes these activities ideal for communication practice of grammar if, in fact, the activities

can be structured to focus learners' attention on a few specific forms before the communicative practice. When this is successfully achieved, games help reinforce a for-discourse match, since the form targeted for attention occur naturally within the larger discourse context created by the game.

2.8.3. Grammar and Methods

Grammar-Translation, as its name suggests, took grammar as the starting point for instruction. Grammar-Translation courses followed a grammar syllabus and lessons typically began with an explicit statement of the rule, followed by exercises involving translation into and out of the mother tongue. In the Direct Method, the learners, it was supposed, picked up the grammar in much the same way as children pick up the grammar of their mother tongue, simply by being immersed in language. Audio-lingualism derived its theoretical base from behaviourist psychology, which considered language as simply a form of behaviour to be learned through the formation of correct habit. Habit formation was a process in which the application of rules played no part. The Audiolingual syllabus consisted of a graded list of sentence patterns, which, although not necessary labelled as such were grammatical in origin. Noam Chomsky's claim, in the late 1950s, that language ability is not habituated behaviour but an innate human capacity prompted a reassessment of drill-and-repeat type teaching practices. The development in the 1970s, of Communicative Language Teaching was motivated by developments in the new science of sociolinguists. And they believe that communicative competence consist of more than simply the knowledge of the rules of grammar. The actual form of the syllabus different considerably from method the method, but, until such organizing categories as functions or tasks were proposed, syllabuses were essentially grammar-based.

If the teacher uses techniques that direct the learner's attention to form, and if the teacher provides activities that promote awareness of grammar, learning seems to result. We need, therefore, to add to the pro-grammar position the arguments for a focus of form and for conscious-rising means presentation. Learning seems to be enhanced when the learner's attention is directed to getting the forms right and when learner's attention is directed to features of the grammatical system. This doesn't mean that grammar should be the goal of teaching, nor that a focus on form alone is

sufficient. The goal of the communicative movement 'communicative competence' embraces more than just grammar, and implies a focus on meaning as well. It may be that communicative competence is the best achieved through communicating, through making meanings, and that grammar is a way of tidying these meanings up. If so, the teacher's energies should be directed mainly at providing opportunities for authentic language use, employing grammar as a source rather than as an end itself (Thornbury, 2000: 14,15,21,22,24,25).

2.9. Teaching Pronunciation

Views on teaching pronunciation change dramatically over the last half of the twentieth century. In the heyday of audiolingualism and it is various behavioristic methodological variants, the pronunciation component of a course or program was a mainstay. In 1970s as language-teaching profession began to experience a revelation of source, explicit pedagogical focus on anything that smacked of linguistic nuts and bolts was under siege by proponents of the various non-directive "let-it-just-happen" approaches to language teaching. Pronunciation instruction became somewhat incidental to a course of study. By the mid-1980s, with greater attention to grammatical structures as important element in pedagogical tasks that a learner should accomplish, it became clear that pronunciation was a key to gaining full communicative competence.

Current approaches to pronunciation contrast starkly with the early approaches. Rather than attempting only to build a learner's articulatory competence from the bottom up, and simply as the mastery of a list of phonemes and allo-phones, a top-down approach is taken in which the most relevant features of pronunciation are given in high priority. Instead of teaching only the role of articulation within words, or at best, phrases, we teach its role in a whole stream of discourse (Nunan).

Most ESL teacher now agree that explicit pronunciation teaching is an essential part of language courses.

The concept of 'pronunciation' may be said to include: the sounds of the language, or phonology; stress and rhythm; intonation.

In foreign language teaching, pronunciation is the one area where it is generally agreed that imitation is the essence of the learning process. Some people

are better at imitation than others, but one thing is clear: in order to imitate correctly one must have heard correctly what is to be imitated. Unfortunately there is not so much the teacher can do to help his students to hear accurately. He can direct their attention to sound differences, give them plenty of opportunity to listen, but he cannot give them the ability to hear them. On occasion he can make the task easier by separating out the items to be heard.

As far as actual pronunciation is concerned, the teacher cannot rely upon explanations of tongue position or even diagrams and the use of mirrors. Apart from a few items such as lip or front of tongue positions, the sensory-motor skills involved are normally well below the level of consciousness and are not easy to deal with consciously. Some kind of intuitive mimicry is necessary. It is sometimes found, incidentally, that when the classroom pronunciation demanded by the teacher does not accord with that which the students hear around them outside the school, they can often mimic the required accent effectively in order to mock it, and their apparent inability to produce it in class is psychological rather than physical. Another source of help may be some noise used by the students when speaking their own language, i.e. noises for sounds of birds, the wind, trains, etc.

In a few cases these might constitute an English phoneme, as the sounds for the buzzing of the bee or for requesting silence do in English.

For successful imitation, students need to listen to themselves. Most people cannot readily monitor their own speech, and help from tape recorders can be invaluable. Hearing himself on tape in contrast with the speech model not only convinces the student that he has, or has not, achieved success, but gives him clues for further improvement.

As with all learning, motivation is a highly significant fact or in pronunciation. The more it can be made necessary for the student to improve his speech, the more rewarding will the teaching be. Motivation can be real or simulated. Where it is possible, actual contact with speakers outside the class in real communicative contexts (shops, etc) is of course ideal. Where this is not possible, games in the classroom which are so designated that either hearing correctly or speaking correctly are built in as an essential part of the game provide a context where communication is felt to depend on accurate speech. For example, a class can be divided into teams,

standing or sitting in rows. The first person in each row is given an instruction to whisper to the next person, who whispers it to the next, and so on down the line. When the last student has received the instruction he must obey it quickly. If it is worded to highlight a pronunciation point so that an error in speech or recognition at any point along the row might occur, students will in fact be engaged in pronunciation practice in a meaningful context. Thus, if the instruction were 'Draw a ship on the blackboard', and the students had difficulty distinguishing /i:/ and /ɪ/, the row which produced the drawing of a sheep would not be the winner! (Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1978: 58-61).

There are some main factors that effect pronunciation such as native language, age, exposure, innate phonetic activity, identity and language, and motivation and concern for good pronunciation. There are some techniques in teaching pronunciation, too such as set pronunciation in a communicative context, take a learner-centred approach.

We can take the advantage of the "Pronunciation Games". These games practice both pronunciation and sound discrimination in a simple and light-hearted way. The advantage of them is that they can be adapted by the teacher to practice the sounds that students need most revision in using.

2.10. Teaching Vocabulary

2.10.1. What Is Vocabulary?

Ur (1996: 60) vocabulary can be defined, roughly, as the words we teach in the foreign language. However, a new item of vocabulary may be more than a single word: for example, post office and mother-in-law, which are made up of two or three words but express a single idea. There are also multi-word idioms such as call it a day, where the meaning of the phrase cannot be deduced from an analysis of the component words. A useful convention is to cover all such cases by talking about vocabulary items rather than words.

2.10.2. Presenting New Vocabulary

According to Haycraft (1978:47-50) before presenting vocabulary in class, it is helpful to remember the following:

1- Teach the words in spoken form first, and only when your students can pronounce them well, introduce the written form. Otherwise, your students will always try and pronounce English words as if they were written in their own language, and it will be difficult for you to break this.

2- Try to present new vocabulary in new context.

3- Revision is essential. Blend words you have presented into later practice.

If you introduce new words which are not in the textbook you are using, jot them down in a notebook so that you can bring them up again. There are many ways of presenting new vocabulary. Here are some of them:

- In context
- Create a context
- Descriptions or definition
- Outside the classroom
- Objects
- Drawings
- Mime
- Opposites
- Synonyms
- Translation
- Pictures/flashcards
- Wall charts
- Word games: There are a large variety of these and they are useful for practising and revising vocabulary after it has been introduced. Crossword puzzles are useful particularly for group work, or as homework. So is Scrabble with a very small advanced class. ‘Animal-Mineral-Vegetable’ can also be lively, although it is best to define your type of question here: ‘Is it blue etc.?’ ‘Can you find it in the country/town/sea etc.? ‘Do you wear/smoke/drink it, etc.?’ If you define the stages, you both suggest questions to students who cannot think of any, and ensure the practice of the structures you want.

  There are also a number of word games that approximate more to exercises:

  e.g. Pair off related words:

corn		pencil
mouse	army	
money	road	
cup		cigarettes
street		cat
matches		bread
pen		saucer
general	bank	

Or: Relative colours with nouns:

silver	a London taxi
blue	London buses
green	grass

Most of these games, or puzzles, revise vocabulary that the students already know. However, they also point out areas of ignorance which students then want to fill. As a teacher, it is important to ask yourself why you are using these games and then fulfil your teaching objectives, as efficiently as possible.

Here are ways in which we can help the learner understand the meaning of a word by using different approaches:

Demonstration * by showing an object or a cut-out figure
* by gestures
* by performing an action

Pictures * by using photographs, blackboard drawings, illustrations cut from magazines

Explanation * by description
*by giving synonyms or opposites
* by translating

We can help the learner connect the form of a word with its meaning by presenting the form and meaning together, so that the learner knows they are

connected to each other – and this knowledge is firmly implanted in his automatic responses.

2.10.2.1. Techniques for creating interest

Unless there is some challenge, the learner may not be interested enough in learning new vocabulary to give his full attention and enthusiasm to the task. Without interest, he will not pay attention to the teaching. We can add challenge and interest to the teaching by:

1 Making it difficult for the learner to get the form of the word.

2 Making it difficult for the learner to get the meaning of the word.

3 Making it difficult for the learner to connect the meaning and the form.

Making it difficult means that the teacher does not give the 'answer' directly to the learner. He forces the learner to guess, or to follow clues by the teacher or found in his own previous knowledge. Thus he must use his reasoning and interpretative abilities to find the answer. In other words, the teacher and the learners play games. The teacher must be careful to see that he makes the job difficult enough to challenge the learners but not so difficult that they give up. Instead, he should help them towards a sense of achievement – a feeling of having won the game.

Let's consider ways to make the three aspects of learning a word difficult for the learners – provide challenges that are real but are not so difficult as to discourage the learners:

1- We can add interest and challenge to the teaching of the form of a word by:

a) Altering the arrangement of a word – for example, by scrambling the letters or writing the word upside down or right to left. When the teacher uses scrambled letters, he can write the letters (out of order) on the blackboard and ask the learners in turn to guess the first letter by pointing to it, then the second letter, and so on. Or he can say the word and ask the learners to put the letters written on the board in the right order by using the pronunciation as a guide.

b) Making it difficult for the learner to identify the parts of a word – for example, by writing them in code, or by teaching the form tactilely without allowing the learner to look, or by saying the word without letting the learner see the teacher's mouth.

c) Making it necessary for the learner to choose the form from among other possible choices. The most common example of this match the set of meanings given at the end of the passage the teacher can make this exercise easier by putting the meanings in the same order as the words appear in the passage – or harder by mixing up the order. He can make it easier by providing a dash for each letter in the word, right by the meaning. Or easier still by gibing the first letter of the word and a dash for each remaining letter. Another way is to write many words on the blackboard. Then as the teacher quickly says one of the words written on the board, a learner must point to the proper word to be most effective, this procedure must be carried out with rapid-fire speed.

2- We can add interest and challenge to the teaching of the meaning of a word by making it difficult for the learner to identify the meaning. For example, when the teacher uses real objects, he can wrap them in tissue paper or cover them with a cloth and let the learner guess what the object is by feeling it or simply by contemplating its disguised appearance. Or the teacher can have the learners close their eyes while he taps the object or hits it against the desk, and the students guess what the object is by listening to the sound it makes. If the form of the word is also new, the teacher should repeat it many times during the activities, with the learners indicating what they think the meaning is by pointing, drawing, or translating (I S P Nation Techniques for Teaching Vocabulary in English Teaching Forum XII.3: 1974, 18-20 in Teaching Perspectives by Donn Byrne).

We can teach vocabulary through games. Jones (1993: v) groups “Vocabulary Games” into nine sections: Ice-breaker activities, Bingo activities, Matching pairs activities, Crossword and word square activities, Word grouping activities, Pair-work and board games, Teacher-led activities, 20-square activities, and miscellaneous activities.

Wallace (1988: 105) focuses on vocabulary which is a teaching topic which lends itself very easily to the games approach, and there are literally hundreds of vocabulary games ranging from elementary to advanced level.

CHAPTER III

III GAMES

The games should be used as teaching devices in school settings. Games fit the life style of children, and they engage children in learning experiences. These learning styles differ from those usually required of them at school, since ordinarily children are free to engage in games for their own private reasons. Furthermore, games can absorb the participants for extended periods without their seeming to be aware of the passage of time. All these observations point to the fact that for children games are fun and constitute potentially powerful educational tools (Thomas 1972: ix, x).

3.1. Definition and characteristics of the game

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2005: 662) defines game as an activity in which people compete with each other according to agreed rules.

Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2003: 513) defines game as an entertaining activity or sport, especially one played by children, or the equipment needed for such an activity or a particular competition, match or occasion when people play a game.

But when we use a game in the classroom as a teaching tool for teaching English or an interactive classroom technique its definition changes as a form of play governed by rules (Byrne: 1995), an activity with rules, a goal and an element of fun (Hadfield: 1990).

A game is a simplified, operational model of real life situation that provides students with participation in a variety of roles and events.

According to Wright a game is an activity which is entertaining an engaging, often challenging, and an activity in which the learners play and usually interact with others. A testing question might be: "Would the learners be happy to do this activity in their own language?" We would like all our games to pass this test. Competition against others is not an essential ingredient of games, but challenge often is. In selecting and describing our games we have tried to minimise competition, with winners and losers, and to maximise challenge, where everyone feels inspired to 'have a go' and do their best. Competition may be stimulating for some, but it can

also be destructive, making players anxious, with losers categorising themselves as ‘no good’ and the winners categorising themselves as ‘very good’. Neither of these things may be true, and neither helps learning.

One useful way to encourage language acquisition is using language games during the teaching process. When using games in the classroom, it is beneficial for teachers to have a complete understanding of the definitions of the game which usually is defined as a form of play concerning rules, competition, and an element of fun. Teachers should also consider not only consider the advantages of the games: the ability to capture students’ attention, lower students’ stress, and give students the chance for real communication but also the disadvantages in order to reduce their effect.

Some teachers think that language games are a waste of time and prefer not to use them in their classroom since games sometimes have been considered only its one element, that is fun. In fact, games can provide students more than that, When the student plays a game in the classroom he assumes a role and participates in the decision making process. Games and game like activities have an obvious and important place in the theory of language learning based on the development of COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE. What the game provides is genuine language behaviour. Students speak spontaneously. They do not wait for arrange speech. They are not pre-programmed. Such kind of game activities facilitate the acquisition of the foreign language rather than its learning. Because students answer unconsciously. It is peripheral, effortless and long-lasting. Learning is consciously involving effort.

3.2. The properties game include

Language games are not activities mainly aimed to break the ice between students or to kill time. Games involve many factors such as a small fixed set of players striving to reach goal, rules which define the legitimate actions of the players, a basic sequence and structure within which the actions take place, competition, relaxing, a time limit, fun and learning. The main focus of using game in class is to help students learn and during this learning process have fun. However, to use games in classrooms, it is equally important that before playing the rules of the games are clearly explained and well understood by the students. There should be only a few,

well-explained rules. Demonstrations also can be very helpful because it can help students understand the game and help them follow the rules. Otherwise, they will misunderstand the purpose of the game and they may not get the benefits they should from the game. For example, if students do not understand the rules of the game called “Dictation Game in which students work in pairs and one has to run and read the article posted and tell his partner who has to write down what his partner tells him and just write without following accuracy, pronunciation, or spelling at all. When playing games, competition is very important because it can stimulate and encourage students to participate in the activity since naturally they want to beat the other teams or students. As it happens, in the dictation game students run as fast as possible, remember as much as they can and speak as loudly and clearly as they can. They run quickly back and forth, trying to memorize the content as much as possible. While playing, students have fun, relax, exercise, and tease their friends. Apart from having fun, students learn at the same time. They acquire new vocabulary along with its spelling and pronunciation. Students begin to realize that they have to speak or pronounce the words clearly if they want others to understand what they are saying.

Games are puzzles to solve, just like everything else we encounter in life. They are on the same order as learning to drive a car etc. The only difference between games and reality is that the stakes are lower with games. Games are something special and unique. They are concentrated chunks ready for our brains to chew on. In other words, games serve as very fundamental and powerful learning tools (Koster 2005: 34, 36).

3.3 Advantages of Games

The remarkable power of games to engage our attention is evident all around us. Basic principles of psychology tell us that anything done so often, by so many, must be motivating in its own right. There are all sorts of interesting theories about why games are motivating, but the bottom line is that there is something rewarding about games and that something is very powerful. Games are fun and fun is motivating. Along with the food and the shelter fun is one of the basic of life people will seek. We will do something fun over and over again, just to have the experience. The fact is that most people willingly engage in difficult and even arduous tasks if

those tasks are in the context of a game. This is the rationale for taking school skills and wrapping them up in some fun to harness the power of games for learning. Each game is an opportunity to bring playfulness to skill practice in a way that increases the "fun quotient" and fuels the desire to engage in the game again and again (Ludewig& Swan 2007: xi).

Games and simulations permit students to experience life-like situation in which there is a social interaction and observable outcome. Games contribute more to the development of social process than the acquisition of information or basic learning context.

There is a common perception that all learning should be serious and solemn in nature, and that if one is having fun and there is hilarity and laughter, then it is not really learning. This is a misconception. It is possible to learn a language as well as enjoy oneself at the same time. One of the best ways of doing this is through games. There are many advantages of using games in the classroom:

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

*They are motivating and challenging.

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

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

*They encourage students to interact and communicate.

*They create a meaningful context for language use. Language learning is hard work. One must make an effort to understand, to repeat accurately, to adapt and to use newly understood language in conversation and in written composition. Effort is required at every moment and must be maintained over a long period of time. Games help and encourage many learners to sustain their interest and work.

Games also help to the teacher to create contexts in which the language is useful and meaningful. The learners want to take part, and in order to do so must understand what others are saying or have written, and they must speak or write in order to express their own point of view or give information. Games provide one way of helping the learners to experience language rather than merely study it.

Many games cause as much use of particular language items as more conventional drill exercises; some games do not. What matters, however, is the quality of practice.

The contribution of drill exercises lies in the concentration on a language form and its frequent occurrence during a limited period of time. Many games similarly provide repeated occurrence and use of a particular language form. By making language convey information and opinion, games provide the key features 'drill' with the added opportunity to sense the working of language as living communication. Games involve the emotions, and the meaning of the language is thus more vividly experienced. It is, for this reason, probably better absorbed than learning based on mechanical drills.

If it is accepted that games can provide intense and meaningful practice of language, then they must be regarded as central to a language teacher's repertoire and not merely a way of passing time.

According to Richard-Amato (1996), even though games are often associated with fun, we should not lose sight of their pedagogical values, particularly in second language teaching. Games are effective because they provide motivation, lower students' stress, and gives them the opportunity for real communication.

The main reason why games are considered effective learning aids is that "they spur motivation and students get very absorbed in the competitive aspects of the games; moreover, they try harder at games than in other courses" (Avedon, 1971). Naturally when playing games, students are trying to win or to beat other teams for themselves or on the behalf of their team. They are so competitive while playing because they want to have a turn to play, to score points and to win. In the class, students will definitely participate in the activities willingly. Therefore, it is possible for a teacher to introduce students to new ideas, grammar, knowledge and so on. As in the dictation game, students are so competitive that they want to finish first and win. It can be clearly seen that games can capture students' attention and participation. They can motivate students to want to learn more. Moreover, they can transform a boring class into a challenging one.

Another reason why games are often used during the teaching process is that they lower students' stress in the classroom. In conventional classrooms, there is a lot

of stress put on students trying to master the target language. Schultz (1988) states that stress is a major hindrance in language learning process. This process (Learning language in traditional way) is by its nature time consuming and stress provoking…. raise the stress level to a point at which it interferes with the student attention and efficiency and undermines motivation… one method has been developed to make students forget that they are in class… relax students by engaging them in stress-reducing task (games). There is a high level of stress in the classroom because students have to face unfamiliar or unknown grammatical structures, words, texts and so forth. Therefore, students often feel uncomfortable and insecure in class, which inevitably affects their ability to learn more. It is believed that when students play games, they relax and have fun. Since students know that they are playing games and want to communicate efficiently. They do not worry about making mistakes and do not try to correct themselves in every single sentence. When students are free from worry and stress, they can improve their fluency and natural speaking styles.

Next, students learn without realizing that they are learning (Schultz, 1988). For instance, when playing a game called "What would you do if a lion came into this classroom?" students will have to pick one hypothetical question from those that have written before. The answer they get may be "I would be a fly." Usually the question and the answer they get do not match each other, so students have to use their own imagination to explain their bizarre answer, and everyone has fun listening to it. The explanation might be "If a lion came into this classroom, I would be a fly because I am a good person, so an angel would come and rescue me by turning me into a fly." While trying to explain, students do not worry too much about grammar mistakes because they want to communicate and to explain why it can happen. Apart from having fun, students do not worry about errors and punishment: moreover, they will learn a grammatical rule and have a chance to use it. Thus, they learn unconsciously-learn without realizing they are learning. Students stop thinking about language and begin using it in a spontaneous and natural manner within the classroom (Schutz, 1988).

Classroom can enormously increase students' ability in using language because students have a chance to use language with a purpose in the situations provided. Hadfield (1990) confirms that " games provide as much concentrated practice as a

traditional drill and more importantly, they provide an opportunity for real communication, albeit within artificially defined limits, and thus constitute a bridge between classroom and the real world. “Like in a traditional classroom, students have an opportunity to drill and practice using grammatical rules and other functions. For example, look at the “Find Someone Who” game in which students have to ask classmates the questions implied by the chart such as: “Can you swim?” , “Do you have a pet?” etc.

Find Someone Who

Likes rock music.	Loves watching movies.	Likes to cook.	Has a pet.
Can sew.	Cannot swim.	Is reading a novel.	Loves chocolate
Has a big family.	Likes green.	Hates orange.	Loves English
Watches TV every day.	Is having a good time.	Has visited three countries.	Can speak two languages.

Students have to mingle around the classroom to find whoever these statements apply to and then write their names in the appropriate places. Whoever can fill their page first will be the winner. While playing, students practice asking and answering questions. They may have to repeat the same questions several times until they get to the right person. This provides the opportunity to drill and repeat as in a conventional classroom, but with playing games it is more communicative and meaningful. Moreover, it will link students to the real world because they can actually speak like this outside the classroom. Therefore, playing games in classroom does not only give students a chance to use English, but it can also connect them to the real usage of language outside to the classroom.

Many experienced textbook and methodology manuals writers have argued that games are not just time-filling activities but have a great educational value. W. R. Lee (1979: 2) holds that most language games make learners use the language instead of thinking about learning the correct forms. He also says that games should be treated as central not peripheral to the foreign language teaching programme. A

similar opinion is expressed by Richard-Amato (1988: 147), who believes games to be fun but warns against overlooking their pedagogical value, particularly in foreign language teaching. There are other advantages of using games. Games can lower anxiety, thus making the acquisition of input more likely (Richard-Amato 1988: 147). They are highly motivating and entertaining and they can give shy students more opportunity to express their opinions and feelings (Hansen, 1994: 118). They also enable learners to acquire new experiences within a foreign language which are not always possible during a typical lesson. Furthermore, to quote Richard-Amato, they not only add diversion to the regular classroom activities, break the ice, but also they are used to introduce new ideas (1988: 147). In the easy, relaxed atmosphere regular which is created by using games, students remember things faster and better (Wierus, 1994: 218). Further support comes from Zdybiewska, who believes games to be a good way of practising language, for they provide a model of what learners will use the language for in real life in the future (1994: 6). Games encourage, entertain, teach, and promote fluency. If not for any of these reasons, they should be used just because they help students see the beauty of a foreign language and not just problems that at times seem overwhelming.

Games also help the teacher to create context in which the language is useful and meaningful. The learners want to take part and in order to understand what others are saying or have written, and they must speak or write in order to express their own point of view or give information.

The need for meaningfulness in language learning has been accepted for some years. A useful interpretation of ‘meaningfulness’ is that the learners respond to the content in a definite way. If they are amused, angered, intrigued or surprised the content is clearly meaningful to them. Thus the meaning of the language they listen to, read, speak and write will be more vividly experienced and, therefore, better remembered. If it is accepted that games can provide intense and meaningful practice of language, then they must be regarded as central to a teacher’s repertoire. They are thus not for use solely on wet days and at the end of term (Wright, Betteridge, Bucky, 1984: i).

Since language learning is a hard task which can sometimes be frustrating and constant effort is required to understand, produce and manipulate the target language,

well-chosen games are invaluable as they give students a break and at the same time allow students to practice language skills. They can be used give practice in all language skills and be used to practice many types of communication games are highly motivating since they are amusing and at the same time challenging. Furthermore, they employ meaningful and useful language in real context. They also encourage and increase cooperation (Ersöz, 2000: VI).

There are also some other reasons why teachers should prefer using games in their lesson

1-The student seeks to solve problems in which he is intimately involved.

2-They are motivating and challenging.

3-The student is satisfied when he senses a new insight as new ideas and concepts are formulated.

4-Games provide language practise in the various skills.

5-The student is place a more realistic environment than in any other form of learning.

6-They encourage students to interact and communicate.

7-A full range of audio-visual media can be used to create realistic simulated environments. Audio tape, films, television and other media offer opportunities to capture and distribute useful stimuli.

8-A high degree of interest is generated through realistic participants.

9-They create a meaningful context for language use.

Lewis (1999) states some advantages of games:

*Games are fun and children like to play them. Through games children experiment, discover, and interact with their environment.

*Games add variation to a lesson and increase motivation by providing a plausible incentive to use the target language. For many children between four and twelve years old, especially the youngest, language learning will not be the key motivational factor. Games can provide this stimulus.

*The game context makes the foreign language immediately useful to the children. It brings the target language to life.

*The game makes the reasons for speaking plausible even to reluctant children.

*Through playing games, students can learn English the way children learn their mother tongue without being aware they are studying; thus without stress, they can learn a lot.

*Even shy students can participate positively.

The advantages of using games are summarized by Michael Carrier (1980: 6) as:

1- Games add variety to the range of learning situations.

2- Games can be used to change the pace of a lesson and so maintain motivation.

3- Games can be used to punctuate long form of teaching units and renew students' energy before returning to more formal learning.

4- Games can give "hidden" practice of specific language points without students being aware of this.

5- Games encourage student participation and can remove the inhibitions of those who feel intimidated by formal classroom situations.

6- Games can change the role of the teacher from that of formal instructor to that of manager or organizer of activities that students enjoy participating in. This can be useful in reducing teacher-student distance or conflict.

7- Games can increase student-student communication, and so reduce the domination of the classroom by the teacher.

8- Games can act as a testing mechanism, in the sense that they will expose areas of weakness and the need for the remedial work.

Rinvolucri (1990: 4) categorized four advantages of grammar games. These are;

1- The students have to take individual responsibility for what they think the grammar is about.

2- The teacher is free to find out what the students actually know, without being the focus of their attention.

3- Serious work is taking place in the context of a game. The dice-throwing and arguing lightens and enlivens the classroom atmosphere in a way that most people do not associate with the grammar part of a course. The game locomotive pulls the grammar train along.

4- Everybody is working at once.

3.4. Limitations of Games

1-Games often distort the social situation they are attempting to stimulate. In an attempt to simplify the social context students gain false confidence.

2-Since games are fabricated by people, the assumptions of game's designer often distort reality

3-Most games require only a few people to play. Should the same game be played by several groups? Should one game rotate throughout the class from time to time?

3.5. Types of games

We can categorized games in some ways. First we can categorized them as:

1-Based on observation.

2-Based on interpretation.

3 Based on individual/group interaction.

4-Board games.

5-Card games.

6-Pencil and paper games.

Another way of categorizing them is to say there are two kinds of games that are competitive games, in which players or teams race to be the first to reach the goal, and cooperative games, in which players or teams work together towards a common goal.

We can also say that there are two types of games which are linguistic games and communicative games. In linguistic games, the goal of the game is linguistic accuracy, i.e. producing a correct structure. Communicative games, however, are activities with a goal or an aim that is not linguistic. Successful completion of the game will involve the carrying out of a task such as drawing in a route on a map, filling in a chart, or finding two matching pictures, rather than the correct production of a structure. However, in order to carry out this task it will be necessary to use language, and by careful construction of the task it will be possible to specify in advance what language will be required.

The emphasis in linguistic games is on accuracy, in communicative games the emphasis falls on fluency, on successful communication rather than on correctness of language.

The games make use of a variety of techniques. Variety is important in language teaching, and a succession of games based on the same principles, though exciting and novel at first, would soon become boring. Techniques used include information gap, guessing, search, matching, exchanging, collecting, combining, arranging, and card games, board games, puzzles and role-play.

The simplest activities are based on the information gap principle. In these activities Student A has Access to some information which is not held by Student B. Student B must acquire this information to complete a task successfully. This type of game may be one-sided, as in the above example, or reciprocal, where both players have information which they must pool to solve a common problem. The games may be played in pairs or small groups, where all the members of the group have some information.

Guessing games are a familiar variant on this principle. The player with the information deliberately withholds it, while others guess what it might be.

Search games are another variant, involving the whole class. In these games everyone in the class has one piece of information. Player must obtain all or large amount of the information available to fill in a questionnaire or to solve a problem. Each student is thus simultaneously a giver and a collector of information.

Matching games are based on a different principle, but also involve a transfer of information. These games involve matching corresponding pairs of cards or pictures, may be played as a whole class activity, where everyone must circulate until they find a partner with a corresponding card or picture; or as a pair work or small group activity, where players must choose pictures or cards from a selection to match those chosen by their partner from the same selection; or as a card game on the ‘snap’ principle.

Matching-up games are based on a jigsaw or “fitting together’ principle. Each player in a group has a list of opinions, preferences, wants or possibilities. Through discussion and compromise the group must reach an agreement.

Exchanging games are based on the ‘barter’ principle. Players have certain articles, cards or ideas which they wish to Exchange for others. The aim of the game is to make an Exchange which is satisfactory to both sides.

In collecting games, players need to collect cards in order to complete a set. These may be played as a whole class activity, where players circulate freely, exchanging articles or cards at random, or as an ordinary card game.

Combining activities are those in which the players must act on certain information in order to arrange themselves in groups such as families or people spending holidays together.

Arranging games are also sometimes called sequencing or ordering games. These are games where the players must acquire information and act on it in order to arrange items in a specific order. Items to be arranged can be picture cards, events in a narrative, or even the players themselves!

According to Games and Activities for the Learner there are 7 type of games. The first one is “Language Points Game” which provides the teacher most major English structures. This type of game aims to give extensive practice in that structure as well as providing welcome relief for the student from more rigorous methods of learning. Although many of the games are in fact hidden types of drill, they need not be perceived as such by the learners as long as the teacher stresses the game aspect in his introduction to the activity. It may be important that the students are not told that they are going to practice structure X in a game, as this might destroy their motivation. For other students, however, it might actually provide a necessary incentive to participating.

One problem with games which practice specific language points is how to handle students who use (correct) forms other than the target structure. Here, students should never be told they are wrong, but should be encouraged to try an alternative – the ‘right’ structure.

The second one is “Production Games”. This type of games practise language points, giving students an opportunity to produce more imaginative language, less carefully predicted and controlled by the nature of the game. They are thus most appropriate for the production or post-practice phase of a lesson or teaching unit, where students are anxious to get away from teacher-guided language and express

themselves more creatively. Those games suggested for Elementary students will, of course, still be relatively restricted in the range of language required.

The third one is “Word Games”. The games in this type are divided into three categories: 1- Word games, 2- Letter and spelling games, 3- Crosswords. Most of the games are concerned primarily with developing reading and writing skills, but some of them are more actively oral and hence will be suited to situations where the teacher wishes to provide light relief. The quieter reading and writing games can be effectively used to break up a long lesson without causing the problems of noise or reorganization that oral games can involve. Crosswords practice spelling and vocabulary. They involve both reading and writing skills. An overhead projector or prepared handouts are useful aids to presentation so that all the students tackle the same crossword.

The forth one is “Pronunciation Games”. These games practice both pronunciation and sound discrimination in a simple and light-hearted way. The advantage of them is that they can be adapted by the teacher to practice the sounds that students need most revision in using.

The fifth one is “Fillers”. These games are divided into three groups: 1- Quizzes 2- Puzzles and riddles 3- Filler games.

The overall aim is to provide short, stimulating activities to break up or finish off long lessons or teaching sessions. Language skills are practiced and developed through these games but, on the whole, there is no specific language point associated with the games. The fillers provide variety and a change of pace.

The main skills practiced in quizzes are listening and speaking. They can be used at Intermediate or Advanced level with no adaptation. Lexically simplified versions can be used with Elementary classes. Quizzes can be used in two ways. They can be presented as a class activity where any student can answer or be chosen to answer. This is obviously a very quick way of exploiting a quiz and could be useful as an end-of-lesson activity. Alternatively, the quiz or quizzes can be tackled in small groups or teams where the students may discuss and agree on a set of answers that they will present in competition with other groups.

The puzzles and riddles generally practice intensive listening and speaking skills. Students are required to listen carefully, think logically about the problem set

them, ask the teacher questions for clarification if necessary, discuss the problem in pairs or small groups, and report back their answers in oral or written form. The important point is that the task is on the whole non-linguistic and therefore perhaps more novel and motivating to the students. At the same time it provides useful listening and speaking (questioning/discussing) practice. In this sense these games are similar to the Communicative games.

The filler games are either extended puzzles or entertaining filler activities aimed at enlivening more traditional lessons.

In each case, time taken for the Filler varies according to the class and the teacher's purpose. But generally 5 to 10 minutes should be sufficient to give a quiz, set a puzzle or play a filler game.

The sixth one is "Projects and Activities". These activities are very varied in scope and in the linguistic demands made upon students. Some are extended games, others role-playing activities that need up to a full lesson to develop properly, and others long-term activities or projects that could be developed over a number of weeks, filling a regular slot in the teaching programme. In each case the emphasis should be on the students taking over as much of the organization of the activity as possible. Although the method descriptions refer to the teacher presenting topics and activity plans, it is important that wherever possible the teacher passes this responsibility for choice and planning to the students as individuals or groups.

The role playing situations are particularly important as they enable students to adopt a fictitious character and thus express themselves more forcefully than they would otherwise have the confidence to do. Also, the group work involved in preparing roles and then acting them out leads to better student-student cooperation.

The last one is "Communication Games". They are intended to develop and practice students' skills in communication, rather than specific language skills. In each case there is a non-linguistic task to be performed, which entails the use of language as a means of communicating information about the task. For this reason, the language used cannot be easily predicted or controlled, as is the case with many traditional games.

Communication games are designed to give students an opportunity to use language in more realistic situations. They have no specific language aim in the

sense of teaching a particular structure or providing vocabulary practice. Instead, they are designed to develop general communicative skills: the students are given a non-linguistic task to complete, and their success will depend on their ability to communicate instructions, directions, descriptions, and so on. The emphasis is on students working together to achieve something through the use of language, with the hope that this will encourage positive transfer to real-life communicative needs. Communication games include 1- 'Information gap' games where one student has information which the other student does not have. This information has to be transmitted in some way. 2- Discussion games where students exchange viewpoints and may reach decisions. Here the aim is for students to become so involved in the topic or the game that their communication is totally natural. Apart from general discussion activities, many commercial board and card games can be adapted to stimulate this kind of communication. Again, the primary aim is to win the game: students' full language resources are called upon to achieve this end. Because most of these games require pair interaction it would be advisable where possible to pair students who come from different mother tongue backgrounds, so that the communicative need is a real and not merely a pedagogical one. (Carrier, 1980) Being aware of the essential character of a type of game and the way in which it engages the learner can be helpful in the adaptation of games or the creation of new games.

The games in the Games for Language Learning are grouped according to their family type within each of the eight sections. The family name is always a verb. This verb summarises the most important way in which the learners are engaged in the game, for example, IDENTIFY or CREATE. In every case this verb refers to the mental engagement on the part of the learners. The use of language arises our of the way the learner is engaged.

CARE AND SHARE

'Caring and sharing' games include all those games in which the learner fells comfortable while sharing personal information with other learners. These games relate more to invitation than to challenge. The striving implied by challenge is incompatible with the notion of 'caring and sharing'.

DO: MOVE, MIME, DRAW, OBEY

The learner is expected to do something non-verbally in response to a read or a heard text.

IDENTIFY: DISCRIMINATE, GUESS, SPECULATE

The learner is challenged to identify something which is difficult to identify or to hypothesise about something which is then compared with the facts.

DESCRIBE:

The learner is challenged to describe something to another learner, by speaking or writing, so well that the other learner can do something, for example, draw a picture. The learner may describe something objectively or subjectively, communicating his or her own feelings and associations.

CONNECT: COMPARE, MATCH, GROUP

The learner is challenged to connect, compare, match or group various items of information, perhaps pictures or texts, objectively or subjectively. He or she uses language to describe or comment on the pairs or groups of information.

ORDER:

The learner is challenged to put various bits of information into an order of quality and importance, subjectively or objectively, or to put texts, pictures, objects, into a developmental sequence, also subjectively or objectively.

REMEMBER:

The learner tries to remember something and then communicate what he or she has remembered.

CREATE:

The learner is challenged or invited to make a story, write a poem or produce some other kind of material using their imagination. Here the distinction between ‘challenged’ and ‘invited’ is worth making. ‘Challenged’ might include those story-making starters in which you stipulate certain features: for example, you stipulate that a certain tense form must occur very often, or that the story must be exactly 50 words long. ‘Invited’, because sometimes the best way to stir the creative forces is to ‘invite’, ‘encourage’, ‘show interest’, and so on.

Rinvolucri&Davis (2000 x-xv) divide the grammar games into nine section:

1- Competitive Games: Competitive activities that pit pairs against pairs and threes against threes are excellent for fostering collaboration and mutual help within each team. In this heightened atmosphere a lot of learning takes place without the students noticing they are studying.

2- Cognitive Games (Silent Way): By these games, you will find out about grammar thinking. They may learn as much from wrong transformation as they do from being right first time. This kind of games are based on Caleb Gattegno's Silent Way approach in which the students discover the regularities of the language by tightly teacher-guided trial and error work. Gattegno gives the students a narrow frame and then complete creative freedom within the frame.

3- Feeling and Grammar: While the competitive and cognitive games sections focus the students' attention on the grammar, in feelings and grammar games student concentrate on expressing real things about themselves and people round them. They do this using prescribed structures. They absorb the grammar, as it were, through peripheral vision. With some types of learners this is much more affective than direct, primary focus on the grammar.

4- Listening to people (Grammar in a counselling frame): The grammar is being practiced in a person-centred atmosphere of concentration on meaning. People are very much in each other's presence and often the speakers are saying important things about themselves. If you have the right class atmosphere, this counselling section maybe just right for your group.

5- Movement and Grammar: All language students need to be asked get up and do things in the course of their learning. A percentage of people of any age cannot be comfortable unless their periods of stillness are broken up by regular oases of moment.

6- Meaning and Translations: This games allows the intermediate to advanced students to play in this area of translation and meaning.

7- Problem Solving: In these games students are asked to find multiple solutions to technical, human and cultural problem and to express themselves within a given a set of grammar structures. The kind of thinking involved is the divergent variety, popularised by the Bono.

8- Correction: In this games, you have a mixed bag of correction techniques that you need to select from carefully. Our feelings is that a great deal of correction in language classes flows past the student without having any affect whatsoever. It is part of the teacher's traditional job to correct and if she doesn't correct some students will complain.

9- Presentation: In these games intermediate and advanced students can pick useful bits of language from a stream of native speaking speech and then present these patterns to each other. The presentation can then be filled out a bit by the teacher.

Jones (1993: v) groups "Vocabulary Games" into nine sections: Ice-breaker activities, Bingo activities, Matching pairs activities, Crossword and word square activities, Word grouping activities, Pair-work and board games, Teacher-led activities, 20-square activities, and miscellaneous activities.

Rooyackers (1998) divides "Drama Games" into ten sections, each based on a certain theme or use of materials. The first one is "Introductory games" which help to put people at ease in a group when they don't know each other very well. The second one is "Sensory games" which help members use their senses and develop their concentration. The third one is "Pantomime games" in which emotions, actions, and situations are portrayed without talking, sound effects, or props. The next one is "Story games" which explain the elements of a story and how to put them together to act out its different parts. The fifth one is "Sound games" which makes players more aware of the sounds around them. The sixth one is "Games with props". Props are aids that players sometimes need when performing a play. The seventh one is "Games with masks" whose advantage is that you are invisible; no one will notice if you blush or make the wrong expression. The eighth one is "Games with puppets". A puppet is an inanimate object into which a puppeteer breathes life. The ninth one is "Games with costumes" which many children enjoy. The last one is "Character choices" in which groups discuss different types of people and the different clothes and accessories they wear.

In a drama game, you inhabit a world different from the one in which you live. You use your imagination to dramatize something. There are some reasons for playing drama games such as they are relaxing, they develop your creativity and

personality, they contribute to social and emotional development, they improve your composition skills and finally they develop oral and physical expression.

There is also another game which is called simulation games. They are detailed models intended to reflect a situation found in the real world. They have winners and losers, and the roles are usually more structured than in role-playing. In addition, a simulation sets the number of participants, time, place, equipment, and rules. Often simulation games are divided into two types: one dealing with the way man operates in his social environment; the other with the way he operates in his physical environment.

The use of either social or physical simulation games in classrooms is based on the idea that meaningful learning can come about by participating in an instructional environment. The learning that takes place in such a situation might be called "active" learning. Simulations are children playing with particular aspects of reality. Since they are self-motivating, they are ideally suited to motivating students when the topic being considered is too remote from their interests to be studied by other means. Games have the capacity to interest students in a field of study and to arouse their curiosity while at the same time introducing them to some of the terms and concepts of a particular subject.

One of the most important characteristics of simulation is fun. Games can be active or even fairly quiet, emotional or involve all five senses. But all games are, or at least should be, fun. Helping students to have fun in the classroom is a solid approach to learning and has all kind of results. One result is that children will be more motivated; another is that the classroom atmosphere is less anxious and less fearful. Anyone can make mistakes without fear of a negative repercussion. As a result of enjoying what he is doing and involvement the student is able to experiment more intensely and assimilate what he learns in a more complete way. He has opened himself up (Adams 1973: 4- 10).

The games can be categorized as four skill games such as speaking games, writing games, reading games and listening games. An example for speaking games is "Tell Me About" which teaches self-expression, connects cognitive, affective, and physical domains and relevance to events in children's lives. An example for writing games can be "Show Me the Letter" which teaches the latter recognition and the

ability to physically replicate what the eyes see. An example for reading games can be “Happy Endings” which teaches word comprehension, self-expression and an introduction to suffixes. An example for listening games can be “Listen Up” which teaches auditory discrimination and deal with the memory (Pica 2007).

We can also teach grammar through games. Murcia&Hilles (1988: 132) suggest that when ESL students are engaged in games, their use of language is task-oriented and has a purpose beyond the production of correct speech. This makes these activities ideal for communication practice of grammar if, in fact, the activities can be structured to focus learners’ attention on a few specific forms before the communicative practice. When this is successfully achieved, games help reinforce a for-discourse match, since the form targeted for attention occur naturally within the larger discourse context created by the game.

3.6. How to choose a game

There are a great number of language games. So teachers have a variety of choices. However, in deciding which game to use in a particular class and which games will be most appropriate for their students, teachers must take many factors into account.

In using a game as a part of your plan, so you need to think carefully about its selection, students may wish to play games purely for fun. But the teacher should have more convincing reasons. Teachers need to consider which games to use, when to use them, how to link them up with syllabus, text or programme, how more specifically different games will benefit students in different ways.

According to Carrier (1990) teachers should first consider the level of the game to fit their students’ language level. They should choose the game that fits the purpose of that class or the content. Moreover, the teachers should consider students’ characteristics: whether they are old or young, serious-minded or light-hearted, and highly motivated to learn or not. They should also consider when the game should be used because there is a big difference between using the game in the morning or in the afternoon, on Monday or on Friday.

In addition to the factors mentioned, teachers should also be able to play and overact sometimes to help students feel comfortable and want to join the activity.

This means teachers should thoroughly understand the game and its nature and be able to lead the game.

The key to a successful language game is that the rules are clear, the ultimate goal is well-defined and the game must be fun. Although a game must be fun, it must be more than just fun. The most important factor is that games should be used when they can give students both fun and educational meaning otherwise they will be just a waste of time. It is quite difficult to find a game that meets all of the teachers' requirements. Some games must be adapted in order to fit students' language level, natures, and characteristics.

Tyson (2000) emphasizes how to choose games:

*A game must be more than fun

*A game should involve "friendly" competition.

*A game should keep all of the students involved and interested.

*A game should encourage students to focus on the use of language rather than on the language itself.

*A game should give students a chance to learn, practice, or review specific language material.

These are some questions which we might consider;

*Which language does the game target?

*Which skills does it practise? The language skill focus could be any one of the major skills of listening, speaking, reading, writing?

*What type of game is it?

*What the purpose for using it?

*Does it fit the students? How could I simplify or make it more complex if necessary? Many games require modification in use when students' need are taken in to consideration.

*How much interaction and participation is there? Maximum involvement is sth. That we are pursuing.

*Do I like the game myself?

3.6.1. Deciding Which Game to Use

The teacher must take many factors into account when deciding which game would be most appropriate and most successful with his students at any one time. Primarily he will consider the level of the students but also:

1- What is the main aim of having a game? Is it for specific language or skill practice, for general practice, for relaxation or to punctuate a long lesson?

2- What will interest the students? Are they young or old? Serious-minded or light-hearted, highly motivated to learn English or not? Would they prefer an imaginative game or a logical problem solving game?

3- When is the game to be used? Student motivation and interest in a game maybe very different on a Tuesday morning from late on a Friday afternoon, for example. Similarly, students' response to a game after a test or grammar practice session will be different to that after a discussion.

Having considered these factors and initial choice of game should only be confirmed if the teacher is certain it is feasible in the classroom. In other words, the teacher should ensure that the aids and materials are available, students are able cope with the requirements of the game, such as working in groups, and the linguistic demands the game makes are within the students' capabilities (Carrier, 1980: 7).

3.7. When to use games

It is necessary for those who want to use games as a learning aid to be concerned about how to use them. Hadfield (1990) suggests that "games should be regarded an integral part of the language syllabus, not an amusing activity for Friday afternoon or for the end of the term." Games can contribute to students' skills if they are incorporated into the classroom, particularly if they are used to reinforce or introduce a grammatical rule or structure. For example in the games called "What Would You Do?" and "Find Someone Who…" students do not only have fun in class but also they learn about some grammatical rules; they also have a chance to practice and use it with purpose. In "What Would You Do?" students learn about the conditionals. In "Find Someone Who," students learn how to form questions and answers. Therefore, as we have mentioned before, it is quite a good idea to incorporate games in daily classes. For example, if teachers are going to introduce

present tense or conditional, instead of teaching them in a traditional way, (by simply telling them the rules, have them do some written exercises, drilling and answering questions), teachers may help their students understand the forms of grammar by playing games, which can also meet all the requirements of the traditional classes involving learning rules, drilling and repeating. Moreover, students can take this opportunity to use them in real communication.

Games are often used as a short warm-up activities or when there is some time left at the end of a lesson. Yet, as Lee (1973: 3) observes, a game "should not be regarded as a marginal activity filling in odd moments when the teacher and class have nothing better to do." Games ought to be at the heart of teaching foreign languages. They can be used at all stages of the lesson, provided that they are suitable and carefully chosen. Games also lend themselves well to revision exercises helping learners recall material in a pleasant, entertaining way. Even if games resulted in noise and entertained students, they are stil worth paying attention to and implementing in the classroom since they motivate learners, promote communicative competence, and generate fluency.

Games provide quite extensive language practice opportunities for both general and specific language skills and so they should be seen as an integral part of teaching program and their use should be planned and monitored. They can be used to open or close a lesson in a stimulatingly way, to punctuate a lesson, to relieve a tension after a test or concentrated practice session, or at any time that the teacher feels appropriate. It is important they are used positively, to give students enjoyment and useful practice, as well as being used as palliatives in situations where students' interest or motivation is flagging. Similarly, although games should be used regularly, this ought not to become a meaningless habit such as playing Hangman every Friday afternoon. The elements of surprise variety should be carefully maintained.

The use of games must, of course, also be matched to students' reaction and response. Some individuals or classes may not enjoy games and they should not be forced to participate in them. On the other hand, with proper presentation most games can be made attractive and even quite staid adult students will be happy to participate in game-playing. In this, the relationship between teacher and students is

very important and the teacher must judge how to approach the students with a game. Some older students, for example, may wish to be reassured that the game has a linguistic purpose and knowing this may allow them to enjoy it more fully.

The amount of teaching time devoted to games will depend on the individual teaching context, but it will probably be a relatively small proportion of the total teaching time.

3.8. Learning Styles

For some years now the idea that we all have different emphases in the way we perceive and learn has become part of every teacher's life. Learning styles are not considered to be exclusive. For example, the same person may sometimes want to be analytical and at other times may want to be creative. However, each person will probably have preferences. In any one class there can be many different preferences. The teacher is like a gardener responsible for many different types of plant, some requiring a lot of sunshine and others shade, some requiring pruning and others to be left alone. You can treat all your plants in the same way and watch some die while others flourish, or you can try to offer a range of different approaches and give succour to each and all of them. We have attempted to help you to do this by providing games involving a wide variety of learning styles, from 'visual' to 'dramatic'.

Some people respond best of all to information which is seen: pictures, writing, diagrams, etc.

Auditory

Other people might respond to information which is heard: dialogues, songs, rhythm, etc.

Kinaesthetic

Others might need to move and to touch in order to learn efficiently.

Creative

Some people need to use the language creatively even from the beginning.

Analytical

Some people like to analyse language forms, looking for rules. Having understood the ‘bricks’ of the language than they might feel able, tentatively, to use them.

Co-operative

Some people like to work with others.

Individual

Some people prefer to work by themselves.

Serious

Some people can concentrate better if the approach is serious.

Amusing

Some people concentrate better if there is an element of humour and lightness in the experience.

Dramatic

Some people experience and absorb language associated with drama and storytelling.

Real

Some people prefer to deal with real examples from everyday experience.

3.9. Preparation

Having decided which game to use and when to use it, the teacher must prepare the game thoroughly. Games may be good fun but they need to be carefully prepared and organized. Before a game is used with a class the teacher must be sure that the necessary facilities (for example an overhead projector) are available. In some cases this will mean preparing cards in advance as described in the method instructors, preparing overhead projector transparencies, or planning blackboard worked out on paper. If visuals or cards are to be made, these must be clear and legible and attractively presented so that students feel the teacher has put some effort into the work. Sloppy writing or scrappy peaces of card will not motivate the student to take the teacher’s intentions seriously. When materials are used which have been prepared on a previous occasion (including commercial cards or board games), the teacher must make sure the contents are complete. In some cases pens and paper will be

required for students, and spare sets should be available for those students without any.

The teacher must than work out how the game is progress, what students will need to do, and they will be instructed in what to do. In will be important here to try and anticipate logistic or linguistic problems that may occur in order to be able to deal with them effectively (Carrier, 1980 6-7).

3.10. Classroom Management

The teacher must decide in advance how to organise the students and classroom so that the setting up of a game can be carried out as quickly and smoothly as possible.

Many games have an element, often optional of pair or group work, which is described in the method notes. It is advisable to encourage pair and group work where possible as this will increase student participation, and the amount of language practice offered the each student will be much greater. In classes where this has not been done before. The students will need to be introduced to this sort of cooperative work gradually, starting with pairs and reasonably simply tasks. In monolingual classes it will be especially important for students to be aware of the fact that the teacher is monitoring all the pairs and groups during the game so that they are discouraged from using their mother tongue in this situation.

The formation of groups and pairs should initially be based on the students' immediate neighbours, to avoid noise and disruption. Thus in pair-work students choose the student next to them, behind them or in front of them. As a partner in group work, students move their chairs and/or tables to form a circle (of chairs) or a square of tables. It is important that they can maintain face-to-face contact while sitting comfortable (not twisting round in their chairs). After a while, however, students will tire of interacting with the same partners and so a wider more random set of partner choices should be made by the teachers or students. With younger students this itself can become a game, e.g. Every second student should get up and change places with the person sitting three places to the right. Now make a pair with the new person on your right.

Alternatively, group composition can be decided on the basis of students' ability. This can be arranged on an equal ability basis, where able students are grouped with other able students and weak students with weak students. The advantage of this is that students can work at their own pace without feeling they are being overshadowed or held back by the other group members. This arrangement also allows the selection or organization of games to be differentiated on an ability level. So, for example, weak students may play a different version of the same game that able students are playing. Or the more able students may have the opportunity to repeat a game several times, while the weaker group(s), working at its own pace, may go through the game only once.

Alternatively, groups and pairs may be composed on a mixed ability basis; that is, weak students with more able students. The advantage here can be that weaker students are helped to gain confidence by being guided by their fellow students. So, for example, one very good student in a group of average students may be able to correct errors and give guidance that will make the groupwork more successful. If too much guidance is given, however, weaker students may get desponded and de-motivated, as they feel they are not capable of working successfully or alone. Only the individual teacher can decide what working arrangement will best suit the students in any given situation.

Of course, pair and group work is not always advisable. In many games teacher control is essential for feedback on right and wrong answer. Games involving practice of specific language points, for example, often need to be carefully monitored. In any case, it is often usual for the teacher to keep a close eye on groups to help, to correct, or to stimulate less active.

3.11. Choosing a Method

Specific instructions are given in the notes for each game, but several general points can usefully be made.

The teacher must ensure that very clear instructions are given before and during the game so that students, who in any case have language difficulties, do not become confused. It may therefore sometimes be appropriate to give instructions in the mother tongue. Wherever possible, the teacher should give a demonstration of

what is to be done as an expansion of the verbal instructions. This may entail writing sample answers on the board or taking an able student to the front of the class and acting out what pairs of students need to do in the game.

This will be especially important in those games where the students are required to ask questions. Here the teacher should sit with the students and pose questions himself, both as a demonstration and as a prompt when students are unsure of what to do next.

3.12. Timing

It is not easy to predict how long a game may last and so no timings are given in the book. It is, however, important for the teacher to consider these points when preparing for a game:

- What is the minimum amount of time needed to play this game once?
- Is it likely that the class will wish to play the game several times over?
- What is the maximum amount of time available in the lesson?

3.13. Competition and Scoring

A lot of the games in this collection have a competitive or point-scoring element in them. This is not necessarily an integral part of the game but a way of shaping or giving external purpose to the activity of the game. In some classes, especially with younger students, this element of competition can be an important motivating factor. With some older classes, however, it may be a disincentive, and spoil their enjoyment of a game whose linguistic purpose is the central motivating factor for them. Thus it is important to assess the students' interest in this area before deciding to use the games in a competitive way. If points are not to be used it will often be necessary to have a time limit to give an end point to the game.

If games are to be used in a competitive way the teacher must decide in advance whether to divide the students into two or more teams, into small groups, or have each student competing individually.

Similarly, the system of scoring must be decided: how many points for each question? How many penalty point for each mistake? Suggestions are given in the method descriptions, but these can be altered. The method of scoring must also be chosen: is it appropriate to have a student marking points on the board for all to see, is it better to have scorers sitting down and reporting points back, or should the teacher keep the score? This will depend on the situation, but on the whole the first method creates more involvement in the game.

3.14. Correction of Students

It must be left up to individual teachers to decide whether or not students' language errors should be corrected during or after a particular game. It is suggested that this should not be too prominent, as it may reduce student motivation. It would be preferable for the teacher to make a note of major errors. These can then be referred to and explained in a subsequent language lesson. However, at certain times, such as when a small group of students are working together and copying each others' mistakes, a certain amount of correction may be advisable. In less structured situations, such as Role-playing or Communication games, correction should be avoided where it would be over-intrusive on the part of the teacher.

3.15. Class, individual, pair, and group work

Of the four types of grouping, individual, pair, and group work are of especial value in ensuring that each and every learner has optimum opportunity for oral practice in using language, going beyond what is possible in class work.

Pair work: Pair work is easy and fast to organise. It provides opportunities for intensive listening and speaking practice. Pair work is usually better than group work if there are discipline problems. A very wide of experience can be brought into the classroom through role play. Role play also helps many shy students by providing them with a mask. Another reason for using role play is fun (Ladousse 1989: 6, 7).

Group work: Some games require four to six players; in these cases group work is essential. If there is to be competition between groups, they should be of mixed ability. If there is to be no such challenge, the teacher might choose groups according to ability: this is very much a personal choice. Many teachers consider it

advisable to have a group leader. However, it is our experience that groups can operate perfectly well without a group leader. The leader would normally be one of the more able learners. However, there is much to be said for encouraging a reticent learner by giving the responsibility to him or her. The leader's role is to ensure that the game is properly organised, and to act as an intermediary between learners and teacher. There are a lot of advantages of pair-work and some of them:

The learners get a chance to work independently: this is good for motivation and good preparation for group work, when they will have to take a lot of responsibility for what they do.

They can face and talked directly to one another, so it is much closer to the way we use language outside the classroom;

Pair-work provides some variety during the lesson. Two or three short pair-work activities a good way of breaking up the lesson.

Pair-work is divided two parts. The first one is fixed pairs and the second one is flexible pairs.

Fixed pair is when the students work with the same partner in order to complete a task of some kind. This is how the students will practice the short dialogue on page 2, for example. Afterwards they may change partners, either to repeat the activity, or to do something connected with it. For example, for the questionnaire activity on page 2, the students first have to write the questionnaire, then use it to interview someone and finally report back to their original partners. On the other hand, for flexible pairs the students keep changing partners. To give a sample example, each student may have to interview several others in order to find out two or three things about each. For example: Do you like animals? Have you got a pet? What pets would you like to keep? If you are going to do flexible pair-work, you must decide whether you can led the students stand up and move around the classroom freely. This will make the activity more interesting for them because they can then choose the person they want to talk to.

3.16. Mistake

The greatest mistake (if oral ability is an aim) is for the learner not to speak at all! Thus, although some mistakes of grammar or pronunciation or idiom may be

made in pair or group work, the price is worth paying. If the learners are clear about what they have to do and the language is not beyond them, there need be few mistakes.

3.17. The teacher's Role

The teacher's role, once the groups or pairs are in action, is to go from group to group listening in, contributing and, if necessary, correcting.

If you have not organised group work before, then it is advisable to work slowly towards it. First of all, make the learners familiar with work in pairs. Add to this games in which rows of learners (if that is how they are seated) play against you or between themselves. Finally, after perhaps several weeks, ask the rows of learners to group themselves together to play a game between themselves.

To minimise difficulties, it is essential that the learners are very familiar with the games they are asked to play. (It is helpful if they are familiar with the game in their own language.)

Once the learners are familiar with group work, new games are normally introduced in the following way:

- Explanation by the teacher to the class
- Demonstration of parts of the game by the teacher and one or two learners
- Trial by a group in front of the class
- Any key language and/or instructions written on the board
- First 'try out' of the game, by groups
- Key language, etc., removed from the board
- The game continues.

3.18. Hints and suggestions

3.18.1. Suggestions for Organizing Games

3.18.1.1. General Ideas on Using Games

Don't think that the use of the word "game" is a guaranteed way of motivating the students. They are too sceptical. It must be genuinely engaging activity.

Importance Of Making the Game Clear

Find a way of demonstrating the game as well as explaining it, perhaps demonstrating it with the class as a whole or with selected students so that everybody can get the gist of it. It is essential that all the students know what to do before you let them go into pair or group work. Avoid games which need a long introduction and explanation. The students will just turn off.

Mistakes

Normally, don't interrupt a game in order to correct a mistake, but command on it afterwards or just make a note for yourself to do more practice of that point at a future time.

Pair work and group work

Pair work is easier to organise and control than group work. If there is a competition between groups than make sure that each group represent mixed ability.

Success… and particularly how to avoid failure

Find the right level of game for the learners. This makes all the difference between success and failure.

Justify the use of the games

When necessary, be prepared to justify the use the games to the students in terms of their efficiency: the frequency with which the language point occurs, meaningful use of the language, successful consequence if the language is used appropriately memorability.

Discipline

Discipline is important but can not be established by shouting, which, in any case, ruins the whole sprit created by enjoyable games. Here are some approaches which help discipline:

- Establish a set of agreed general class rules at the beginning of the year.
- If you need to stop the class, you the technique of raising your hand rather than trying shout over the hubbub of a game in process. The raised hand spreads peace and the shout raises tension.
- Make the procedure for playing the game very clear to all the students.
- Be seen to be very fair to everyone.

3.18.1.2. Tips to Stay in Control of a Large Class

Teaching English with games is becoming Standard through out ESL classrooms of the world. And this is good news, because children love to learn through games, and become much more motivated students as a result. However games often make children excited, and if you have a large class you need a few things up your sleeve to bring the class into line immediately if things get a little over-heated.

Here are some tips and ideas to help you contain your pupils' enthusiasm and manage your large class. There are three sections. Essential basics, useful tips, and attention grabbers.

1- Some essential basics to manage large class

Together with your pupils define the rules in the first lesson, and post them on the classroom wall reference. Knowing why a rule is in place makes it easier to keep. You must establish the rules one by one and stick to them.

Be consistent in applying your rules. If you are arbitrary about how you dish out your rewards or 'consequences', or punishments you will undermine the rules themselves.

Praise good behaviour to generate love and self-esteem. Whatever you do, avoid being like so many parents who spend their whole time telling their children, "don't do this", and "don't do that". By focusing on the positive in order to draw more attention to it you apply the universal law of "you attract what you focus on".

Start out strict and fair and stay that way. Being strict is not about looking stern and being bossy. It is about making sure the rules are kept, in a firm but fair way. You can still be a really fun, loving teacher and be strict with your class at the same time.

2-Useful tips

Do not break your own rules by raising your voice to be heard. Instead talk quietly or stop and wait. Your class should know that for every minute you are kept waiting they will receive extra English homework, or whatever consequence you have designated.

Children love the sound of their own name more than anything else. So use an individual's name for praise and avoid using it when telling someone off.

Create teams and deduct or reward behaviour points to a team's score during a game. Your class will respond naturally by using peer pressure to keep the naughty children from misbehaving.

Empower your children with choices. For example, ask a naughty child, "Do you want me to speak to your Dad?" By asking a question you give the child the power to choose, whereas if you use a threat such as, "I will call your Dad if you do not behave", you take the initiative away and seem tyrannical.

You can also say things like, "you can either play the game properly or you can sit in the corner". The child will probably choose to play the game properly, and you make them responsible for their behaviour.

Prevention is better than cure, so try giving boisterous children an important task before they start to play up. They may respond well to the responsibility.

It is important, especially with a large class, to hand things out quickly, or use a system to have this done, such as giving the well-behaved children the task as a reward. Sing a song together or do some counting or a quick game to occupy the class while materials are handed out.

Only play games where you know you can keep a handle on the situation. For example there is no point playing a boisterous game with a lot of movement if you have more than around 20 children. With large classes, including classes of up to 60

children, you need special games where the children have limited movement such as standing up or making gestures but while remaining in their seats.

1-Attention grabbers

Start an English song the children know and love. They will all join in with you and at the end you will have their attention.

Clap out a pattern which the class must clap back, or start a rhyme they know with actions.

Use quiet cues such as heads down or lights off. Vary these with other fun quiet cues such as “Give me five”.1—on your bottom, legs crossed; 2—hands folded in your lap; 3—face the speaker; 4—eyes and ears open; 5—mouths closed.

You teach this repeatedly in the first lessons and after a few weeks, you only have to say “Give me five:1,2,3,4,5”, and the children will do it.

You can also use the Magic 1 2 3 idea. When a child does not comply start counting 1, 2, the child knows that if you get to 3 there will be some sort of consequence, such as missing out on the next game. If you use this and you reach 3, you must follow through with an appropriate consequence consistently.

To summarise, establish the rules and consequences for good and bad behaviour, apply them consistently, set a good example, use peer pressure and points, and use attention grabbing cues such as favourite songs. English rhymes with actions and countdowns. Above all play suitable games where you know you can keep in control of your class.

You can be firm and fun at the same time, and if you cannot manage your class, you should realize that, although it sounds harsh to say it, you are wasting their time

(http:www.approvedarticles.com/article.php?id=1438&act=print).

There are many ways to teach second language to students but one of the most exiting and rewarding ways to do it by using English games. English games not only engage the children, but also teach through play and most of the time the students do not even know they are learning until the time comes to show their knowledge! It truly is possible to create a classroom where the students not only learn but also truly enjoy their time there.

Incorporating English games into the classroom can build interest in the class, put language in an interesting and meaningful context, give students a break from the pressures of learning a new language while giving the break a purpose, teach real world skills and, most importantly, build the student/teacher bond.

3.18.1.3. Building Interest in the Class

While many of us might not like to admit it, many student do not necessarily like the idea of being in our classes to learn a new language. Even more, as teachers we all know that even the most attentive student can get bored and lose focus on occasion. Incorporating English games is a great way to get out of the rut of language drills, worksheets, boring repetition and individual study. If you can find ways to keep the students interested in class through fun games, they will also find that they are interested in the topic and will often absorb and retain more knowledge than if they are simply studying to pass a test or complete an assignment.

Friendly competition is also great to keep children interested. It often is the one encourager that they need to actively participate in any classroom activity. The outcome of the game even if it is simply knowing the score at the end of the game gives them a concrete and immediate incentive to use the language as dictated by the game.

3.18.1.4. Putting Language in Useful and Meaningful Context

Repetition is necessary for fluency, yet there is nothing more meaningless than repetition in a void. If you ask your class to keep repeating words back at you they will start to feel like parrots. Also, if you want the students to practice conversation you have a few options. The problem with most options is that the class is either practicing this real life usage in small groups that do not have you there to observe and offer assistance or much of the class is left to on their own while you have a conversation with one or two pupils at a time.

English games solve this because they allow you to engage the entire class in activities that require practical use. When students learning English get this meaningful and contextual practice, the language becomes more vivid in their minds and they are better able to remember what they have learned and used.

Furthermore, English games often encourage pupils to use language spontaneously and to think for themselves and they give children the confidence they need to go out and use the language in real-world settings.

3.18.1.5. Giving students a break

Learning a new language is intense and even sometimes stressful. English games allow pupils to have a break from the rigor of learning a new language. If you find the right kinds of games this break can have purpose and make useful the time spent on the break because they are still practicing their skills. In addition, the students will be totally immersed in the focus of the game and they will be learning before they even realize what is happening.

3.18.1.6. Teaching Real World Skills

Teachers who successfully use English games in their classrooms will tell you there are more benefits than those just related to learning the language. English games give opportunities for shy students to express themselves in a non-threatening environment. The class will learn to together as a whole or as small groups. English games can also promote competition in a healthy, fair manner, if you chose to use them that way.

3.18.1.7. Creating a student/teacher bond

If English teachers want to build a bond with their pupils, playing games does this in so many ways. The teachers should show themselves as a people, not just a teacher, as they encourage their students to do well in the game, or join in with them. Playing games also creates appositive learning environment that allows children to relax and enjoy themselves and those around them.

While some teachers still look at games as “time filters” in a classroom, when used correctly they can actually replace traditional teaching time with activities that give the student and teachers so much more benefits than lectures, worksheets and boring repetition

(http://freearticlesarchive.com/article/HowTeachingEnglishwithGamesHelpChilren Learn/1300270/).

3.1.18.1.8. Some Extra Practical Considerations

There are three main types activities while playing games. The first one is pair work, involving two partners, small group work, involving groups of three or four, and whole class activities, where everyone moves freely around the classroom. All these activities require some flexibility in the constitution of groups and organisation of the classroom.

For group work, divide the class into a combination of groups of three and groups of four. Any number will divide into a combination of threes and fours, for example, thirteen students will make three groups of three and one group of four, twenty-three students will make five groups of four and one group of three.

It is best to have the desks in a U-shape if possible. Students can then work with the person sitting next to them for pair work, and groups of threes and fours can easily be constituted by alternate pairs moving their chairs to the inner side of the U, opposite another pair. Whole class activities, which involve all the students circulating freely, can take place in the empty area in the centre of the U-shape. Simulation activities may involve special arrangements of furniture. If it is not possible to arrange desks, the traditional arrangement of front-facing desks can be easily adapted to pair-work, with people at adjoining desks working together, while small groups can be formed by two people turning their bodies back to face the people behind them. Whole class activities present a little more of a problem, but often there is a space big enough for the students to move around in at the front of the class, or desks can be pushed back to clear a space in the centre.

In most cases, whole class games have been designed so that half the class remains seated and only half is moving around so that teachers who experience a great deal of difficulty with the kind of games that require lots of students to move around, can play these games in a controlled way.

Games are best set up by demonstration rather than by lengthy explanation. The teacher should explain briefly what the game involves, hand out the photocopied cards, giving the students a little time to study them, and then demonstrate the game with one of the students in front of the class. It will be found that the idea of the game is probably easier for students to grasp from seeing the cards than from a verbal explanation, and that as they become more familiar with the idea of the games

and the techniques used, any initial problems caused by unfamiliarity will quickly disappear. Where card games are played in small groups, teachers may like to hand out the appropriate pictorial rules sheets to each group of students together with the card(s). You can than either let students 'read' the rules themselves while you circulate to deal with problems or, with less confident groups, take the whole class through each step of the rules.

Teacher's role while playing games is that of monitor and resource centre, moving from group to group, listening, supplying any necessary language, noting errors, but not interrupting or correcting as this impedes fluency and spoils the atmosphere. It is a good idea to carry paper and pen and to note any persistent errors or areas of difficulty. These can then be dealt with in a feedback session after the game. In many cases the game could then be played again with different partners or with different role cards.

As long as there is not a major tangible prize for just one winner on one play of the game winning or losing is often just an invitation to play a game. And, since everyone get a chance to experience winning or losing sometime, better empathy and sportsmanship can develop through time (Ludewig&Swan 2007: xiv).

Also here are some ways in which boredom might strike, killing the pleasurable learning experience that games are supposed to provide:

- The player might grok how the game works from just the first five minutes, and then the game will be dismissed as trivial. "Too easy," might be the remark the player makes.
- The player might fail to see any patterns whatsoever, and nothing is more boring than noise. "That is too hard."
- The pacing of the unveiling of variations in the pattern might be too slow, in which case the game may be dismissed as trivial too early. "This is too easy now, it is repetitive."
- The game might also unveil the variations too quickly, which then leads to players losing control of the pattern and giving up because it looks like noise again. "This got too hard too fast," they'll say.

- The player might master everything in the pattern. They have exhausted the fun, consumed it all. “I beat it.”

Any of these will result in the player stating that they are bored. In reality, some of this are boredom+frustration, and some are boredom+triumph, and so on. The definition of a good game is therefore “one that teaches everything it has to offer before the player stops playing. Fun is just another word for learning (Koster 2005: 45,46).

CHAPTER IV

4 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION, ANALYSIS, AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS

4.1. Presentation

In this chapter the goal is to present the analysis and interpretation of the data which have been collected from the students by this experiment about the effects of games on teaching English. The explanations, analysis and interpretation will be done by statistical calculations.

4.2. Subjects

The subjects of this study are eighty students of Dumlupınar Mah. Ahmet Haşhaş Primary School. The groups of this study are 5-B, experimental group, consisting of forty students, and 5-A consisting of forty students that has been my study's control group.

4.3. Evaluation Instruments

At first the pre-tests and post-tests are used to measure the knowledge of the students. These test consist of twenty multiple choice questions. Not only the control but also the experimental group have been applied this multiple choice test.

At first the pre-test applied to these groups. The control group was taught by communicative approach but without any games. On the other hand, the experimental group was taught by communicative approach but with games. By doing this we could measure the possible difference which may occur after using games or not using games as a teaching tool. After this, the post-test has been applied to both groups and the results have been analyzer by t-test.

4.4. The Analysis and Interpretation of the Experimental Study

In this part, both the results of pre-tests and post-tests are analyzed in the comparing the control and experimental group.

Table 1. Group Statistics of Pre-test

	Grups	**n**	$\overline{X}$	**Std. Deviation**	**t**	**p**
PRE-TEST	Experimental	40	11,84	4,33	1.96	0,405
	Control	40	10,04	3,82		

The first table shows the pre-test results. By using the t-test before the research, the comparison of the parts of the body levels of the two groups has been tested. As a result of the pre-tests the mean of control group is 3,82 while the experimental's mean is 4,33.

Also the 't' value is just 1,96 which has been proved us there is no difference between the levels of the two groups. According to all of these results, there is no meaningful difference between these groups. The calculated values show us the pre-test results which were taken by each groups are very similar and this also proves that the group levels are close or almost the same.

Table 2. Group Statistics of Post-test

	Grups	**n**	$\overline{X}$	**Std. Deviation**	**t**	**p**
POST-TEST	Experimental	40	16,7	3,48	3,11	0,003
	Control	40	11,3	3,88		

In the table 2, we can see the post-test results of the experimental and control group students. According the table two, the mean of control group is 11,3 whereas the mean of experimental group is 16,7. At the beginning pre-test results are so closer but when we look at the results of the post-test, this situations has been changed in the favour of experimental group. On the other hand, when we think that there are twenty questions, the highest score the students are expected to have is twenty, both of the groups pre-test results were normal whereas post-test results of the experimental group have been increased after the experiment.

Table 3. Group Statistics of Results

Groups	**N**	**PRE-TEST**		**POST-TEST**		**t**	**p**
		$\overline{X}$		**Std. Deviation**			
Experimental	40	1,84	4,33	16,7	3,48	3,11	0.003
Control	40	0,04	3,82	11,3	3,88		

*p<.001

When we look over the table, While the mean of pre-test ($\overline{X}$ =11,84) and post-test ($\overline{X}$ =16,7) of the experimental group students have a difference of five point, the mean of pre-test ($\overline{X}$ =10,04) and post-test ($\overline{X}$ =11,3) of the control group students have a difference of one point.

The comparison has been made between the results of the both experimental and control groups pre and post-tests. In the table 3, we can see the score attained from the test results of the students. This outcome scores have been calculated by subtracting the result points of he each student's pre-test from the post-test scores. The 't' value applied to describe if the difference is meaningful or not. The value which has been found by the comparing the results of the pre and post-tests (t=3,11, p<.005) is meaningful.

This results in that the using of the games during the teaching period is more effective than not using them.

CONCLUSION

Summary and Findings

The aim of this study is to find out whether English can be taught more effectively and permanent through games especially designed with the guiding principle of Communicative Approach. For these purposes of this study, the two 5th grade class in Dumlupınar Mah. Ahmet Haşhaş Primary School were selected. 5-A the control group was taught the parts of the body by Communicative Approach but without any games. On the other hand 5-B the experimental group was taught the parts of the body by Communicative Approach but by using games wherever needed.

There is a saying *"Tell me…. and I forget. Show me… and I remember. Involve me… and I understand!"* This is just a fact. If we just using classical methods which depend on just telling the subject, the learning process will not be so enjoyable, motivated and permanent. After probably one month, the students probably will forget nearly all of the things the teacher has taught. If as English language teachers we use visual materials during the courses, the students will remember easily. But if we use more effective ways to teach English the students not only remember but also understand what has been taught. If a student memorize something like a parrot, he is going to forget it. Because it is meaningless to him. It makes no sense to him. Whereas he involves the teaching and learning process, he is going to understand the subject. How can we involve our students in teaching and learning process? The answer of this question is so easy: "just using language games as an educational tools in our classrooms.

There are a lot of factors which effect success and desire of a learner. One of them is motivation. Games are so motivational. So by using games, our students not only involve the lesson, but also they are motivated. By involving in the games, students learn consciously and also unconsciously. They both learn and acquire the subject. Because they exposure the language. They use the language into the context to communicate. This is so important. By using Communicative Approach in our classrooms, we give opportunities to our students to focus on their own learning process through an understanding of their own styles of learning and through the

development of appropriate strategies for autonomous learning. The Communicative Approach in language teaching starts from a theory of language as communication. Whenever possible “authentic language” which means language as it is used in a real context should be introduced. One of the ways to apply it in our classrooms is teaching English through games.

Although this study has been carried out at Dumlupınar Mah. Ahmet Haşhaş Primary School, this method may be applied to other students who are in other primary schools.

Finally using games when needed during the teaching process help to the students to take a more active place in the class environment. They enjoy the lesson, they involve the lesson, therefore they both learn and acquire the subject more easily and permanently.

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APPENDICES

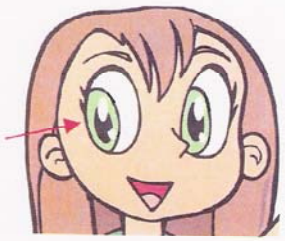
Name Surname:
Class / Number:

DUMLUPINAR MAH. AHMET HAŞHAŞ PRİMARY SCHOOL
PARTS OF THE BODY

I. Look at the pictures and choose the best answer.

1. What is this?

A) eye
B) nose
C) ear
D) mouth



2. This is a ..... .

A) arm
B) finger
C) neck
D) shoulder

3. This is a ..... .

A) elbow
B) mouth
C) tooth
D) hand

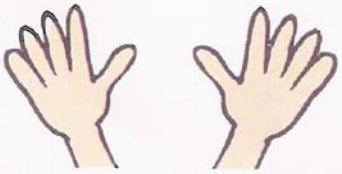
4. What is this?

A) leg
B) knee
C) foot
D) feet

5. She has got long ..... .

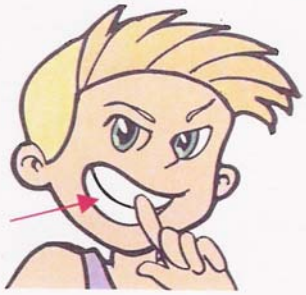
A) head
B) hair
C) face
D) throat

6. I have got ten .....



A) finger
B) fingers
C) hand
D) hands

7. These are my .....



A) teeth
B) hands
C) ears
D) legs

8. What is this?

A) toe
B) arm
C) shoulder
D) elbow

9. What is this?

A) back
B) knee
C) cheek
D) elbow

10. This is an .....

A) eyebrow
B) mouth
C) ear
D) eye

11. Hi! I'm Mary. Look at my .....!

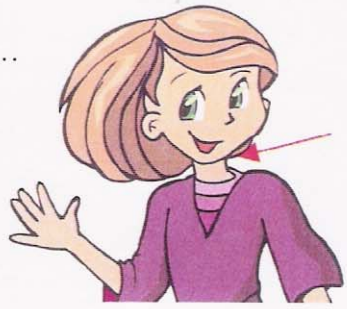
A) nose
B) hair
C) hand
D) face

12. Hello! I'm Sally. This is my .....

A) ear
B) cheeks
C) teeth
D) head

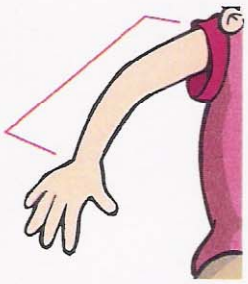
13. She is Jennifer. That is her .....

A) shoulder
B) eyes
C) neck
D) back



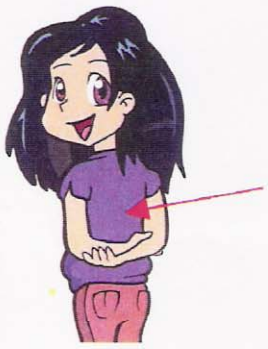
14. He is David. This is his .....

A) arm
B) hand
C) finger
D) toe



15. Hi! I'm Rose. That is my .....

A) neck
B) back
C) cheek
D) chest



16. This is a .....

A) arm
B) stomach
C) leg
D) back

II. Fill in the blanks correctly.

17. My …….. is under my mouth.

A) nose
B) eye
C) hair
D) chin

18. My …….. are on my eyes.

A) cheek
B) nose
C) eyebrows
D) mouth

III. Answer the questions.

19. Which one is different?

A) Eye
B) Ear
C) Nose
D) Toe

20. Which one is different?

A) Finger
B) Hand
C) Arm
D) Eyelashes

GOOD LUCK

Ece CİMCİM
ELT Teacher


body parts
head
hair
face
nose
ear
eye
mo
teeth
neck
hand
finger
elbow
arm
leg
knee
shoulder
back
foot
toe

Connect the dots and write.

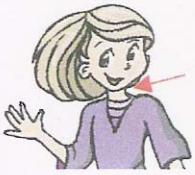
BODY PARTS

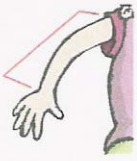











- head
- ear
- teeth
- hair
- mouth
- nose
- eye
- face
- finger
- hand
- shoulder
- arm
- neck
- elbow
- back

Connect the dots and write.

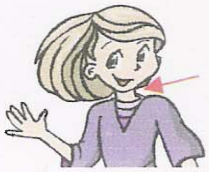
BODY PARTS















- eye
- mouth
- head
- hand
- nose
- hair
- leg
- toe
- face
- teeth
- back
- ear
- neck
- foot
- knee

Connect the dots and write. Fill in the missing letters

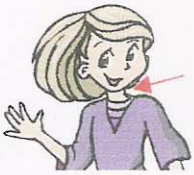
BODY PARTS











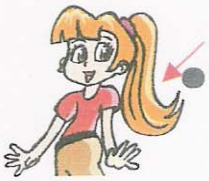




- ead
- ea
- eath
- air
- outh
- no e
- e e
- f ce
- fin er
- and
- shoul er
- ar
- eck
- e bow
- b ck

Connect the dots and write. Fill in the missing letters

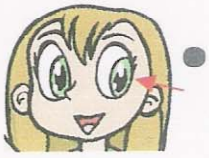
BODY PARTS



ey

outh

hea



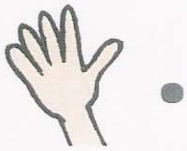
han

n se

hai

l g

oe



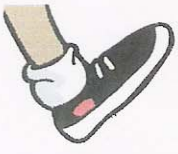
ace

eeth

ack

ea

n ck



foo

nee

UNIT 12

b) Fill in the table.

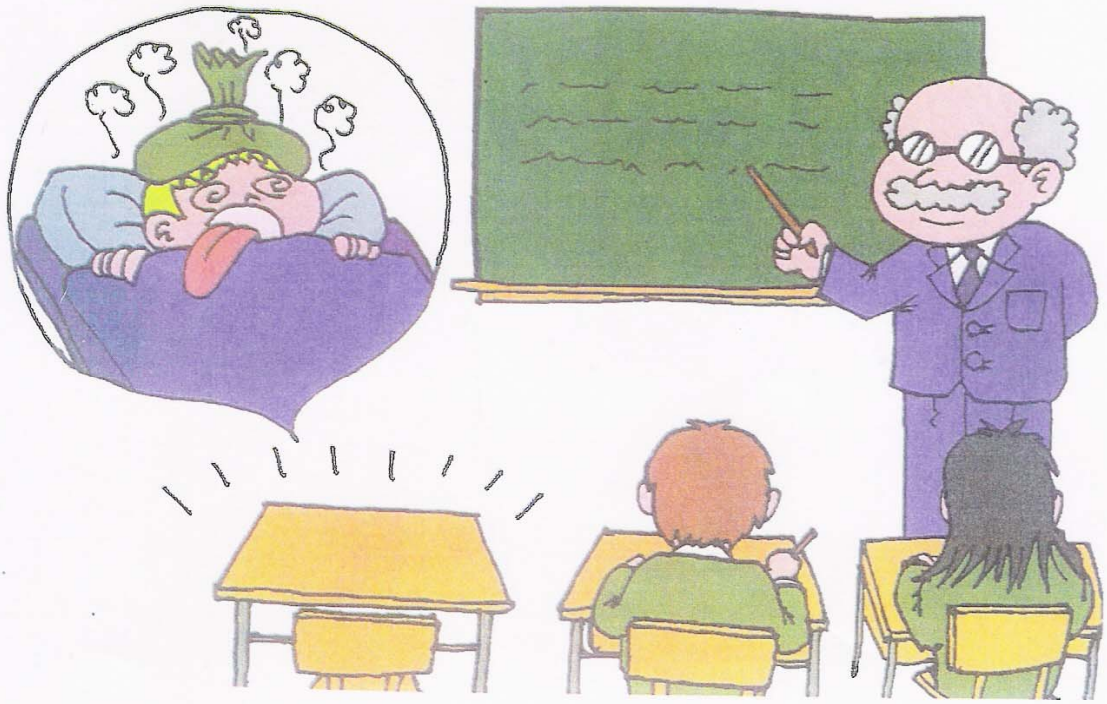
SINGULAR	PLURAL
a head	
	noses
a mouth	
	throats
a chest	
	elbows
a hand	
a back	
	legs
	feet

SINGULAR	PLURAL
	eyes
an ear	
	teeth
a shoulder	
	arms
a finger	
	stomachs
a knee	
a toe	

PART 2 Listening Time – 1

a) Look at the picture. Answer the questions.

1) Who are they?
2) Where are they?
3) Why is one student absent?



UNIT 12

b) Fill in the table.

SINGULAR	PLURAL
a head	
	noses
a mouth	
	throats
a chest	
	elbows
a hand	
a back	
	legs
	feet

SINGULAR	PLURAL
	eyes
an ear	
	teeth
a shoulder	
	arms
a finger	
	stomachs
a knee	
a toe	

PART 2 Listening Time – 1

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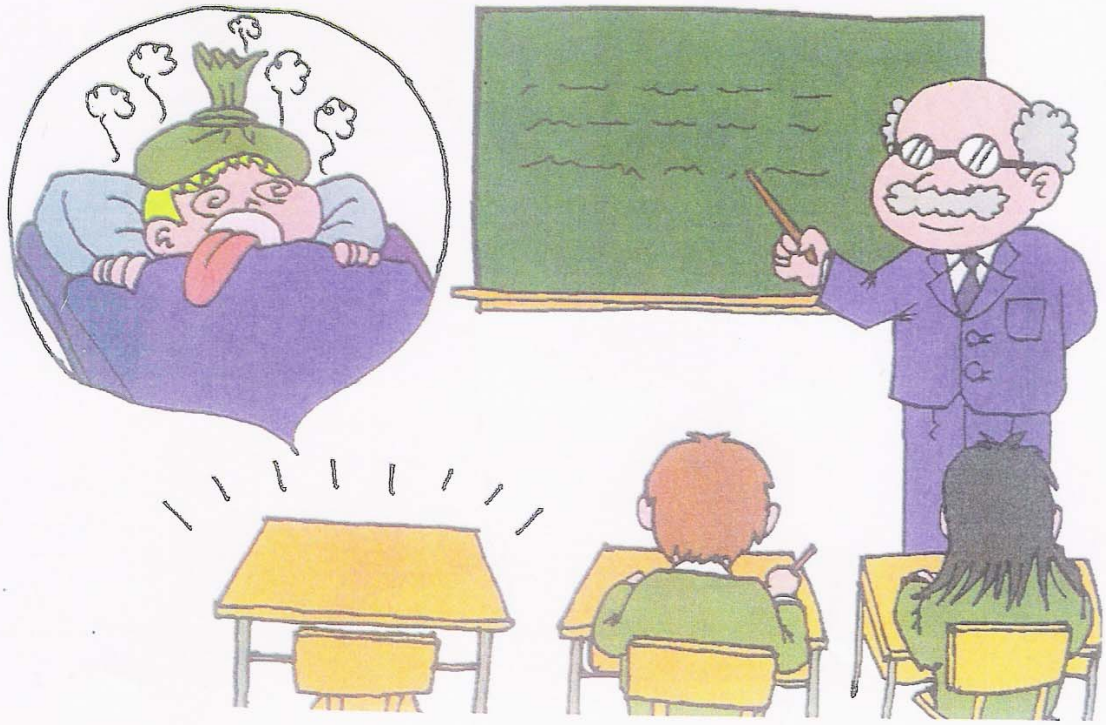
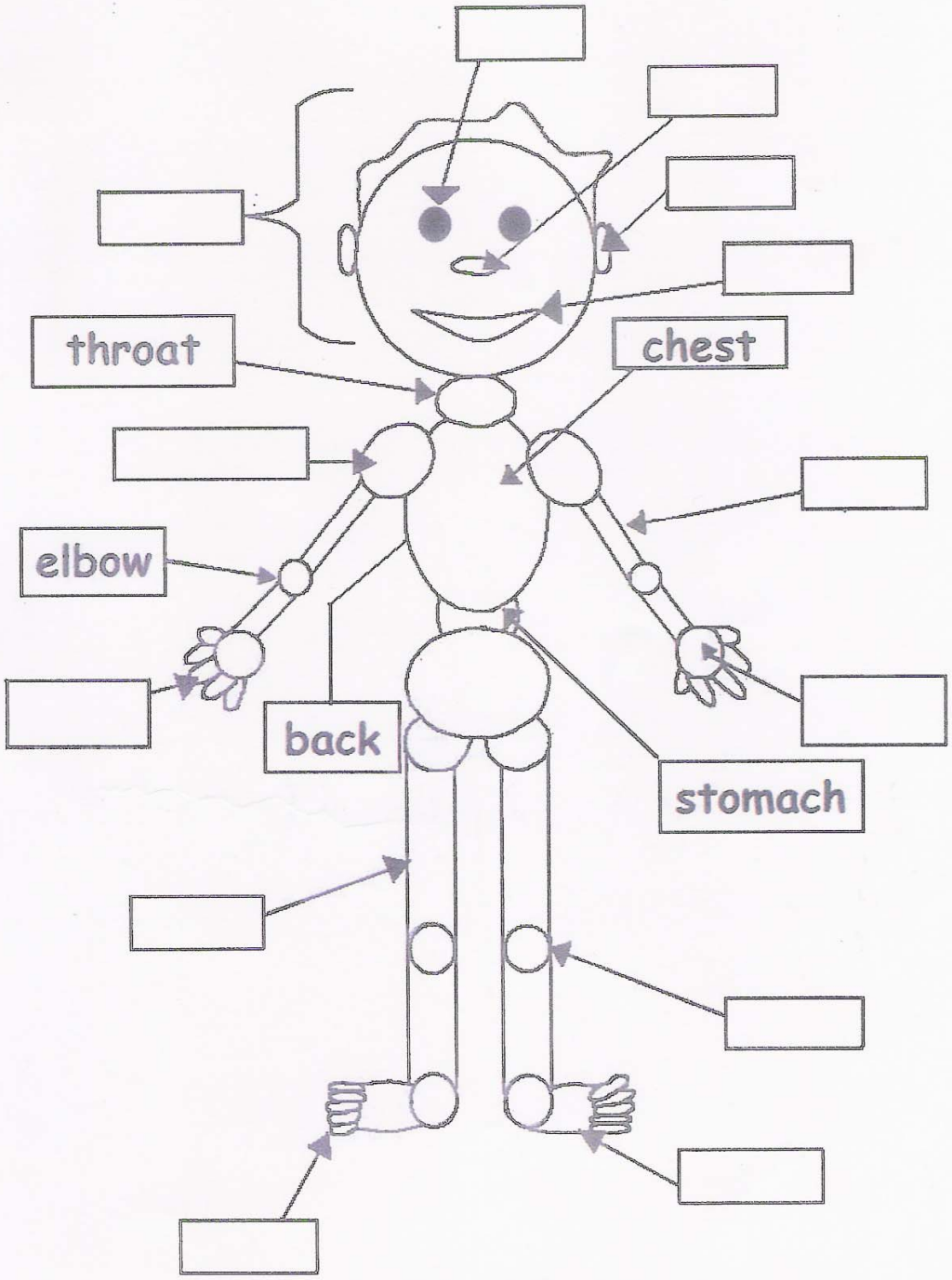
1) Who are they?
2) Where are they?
3) Why is one student absent?



HEALTH PROBLEMS

PART 1 Game Time

a) Do you remember the body parts?



UNIT 5

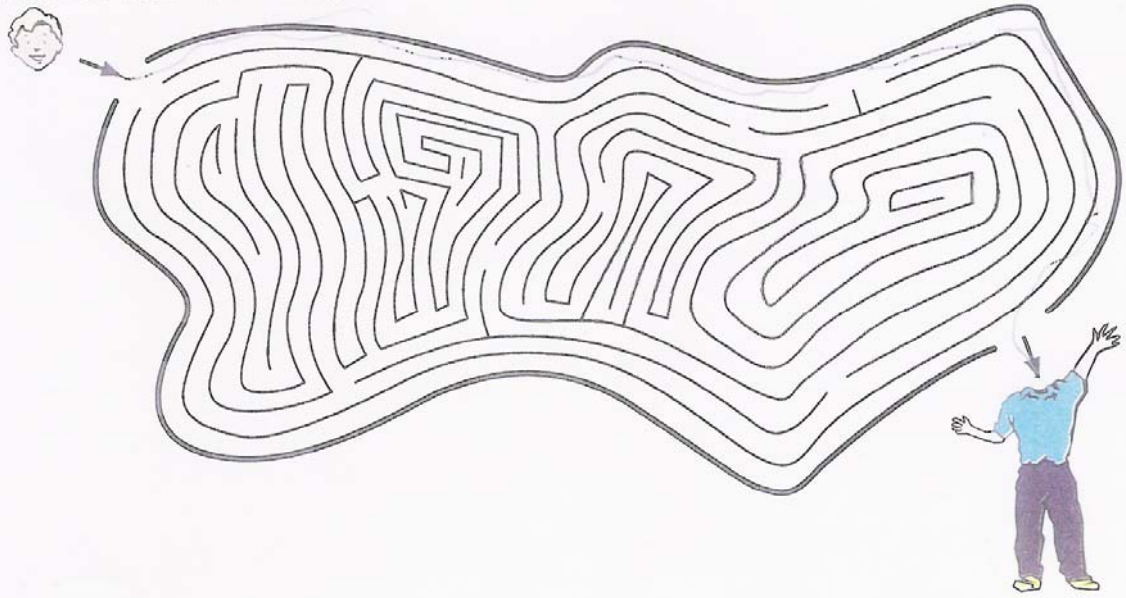
PART 11 Craft and Writing Time

Trace the koala. Then fill in the blanks.

I've got ..... head, ... eyes, ... nose and..... mouth.I've got ..... arms and ..... hands. I've got ..... fingers. I've got ..... legs and ..... knees. I've got ..... toes.

PART 12 Game Time - 5

Take the head to the body.



BODY PARTS

b) Now, look at the following picture. Fill in the blanks.

Mike: I ..... one nose. ..... you ..... one nose?
Ken : No.

Mike : I..... one mouth. ..... you ..... one mouth?
Ken : No.

Mike:I've got one head. ..... you got one head?
Ken : Yes, I ..... got ....

Mike: I've got two hands. ..... you got two hands?
Ken : No, I ..... got two ..... I've ..... only one .....

Mike : I've got two legs. ..... you got two legs?
Ken : No, I ..... got two ..... I've ..... only one.

Mike : I've got two arms. ..... you got two arms?
Ken : Yes, I ..... got ....

UNIT 5

PART 9 Speaking and Writing Time

Work in pairs. Don't show your cards.
Pair A: Read your card.
Pair B: Listen to your friend and fill in the blanks.
Now, change roles.

Card A

Hello! My name's Tinman. I'm a robot. I've got ..... head and one mouth. I've got .....eyes and two ears. I've got six..... and hands but I've got no fingers. I've got ..... legs but one foot. I've got two ..... but no toes.

Card B

Hello! My ..... Tinman. I'm a robot. I've got one head and one ..... I've got four ..... and two ears. I've got ..... arms and hands but I've got no fingers. I've got two ..... but one foot. I've got ..... knees but no toes.

PART 10 Craft Time - 2

a) Colour the following and label the body parts.

BODY PARTS

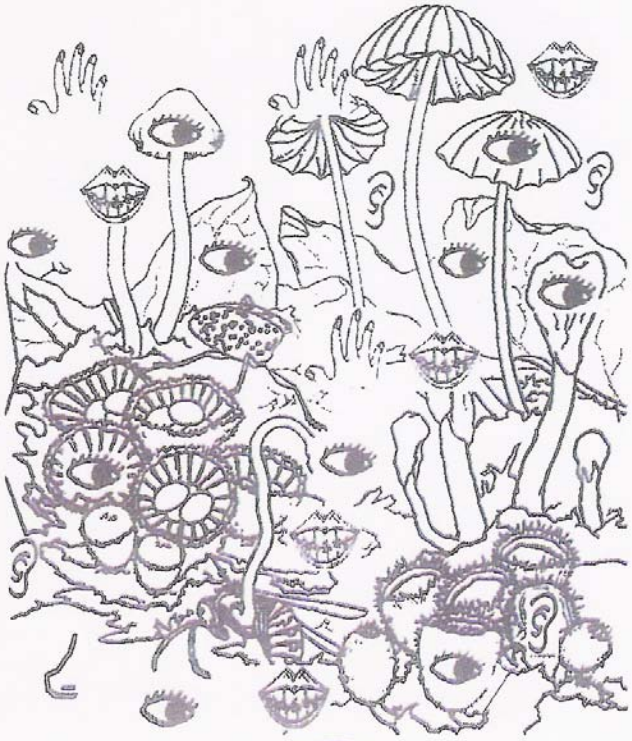
PART 7 Game Time - 3

Listen and follow the commands.

PART 8 Game Time - 4

Find the following in the picture.

Ten eyes, four ears, one nose, five mouths, three hands



UNIT 5

PART 5 Writing Time

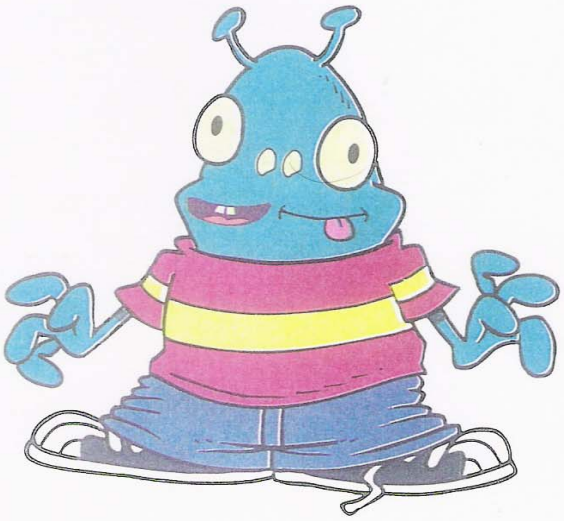
Fill in the blanks.

1. I've got two ..... and two .....
2. I've got two ..... but one .....
3. I've got two ..... and two .....
4. I've got two ..... but one .....
5. I've got two ..... and two .....

PART 6 Reading and Writing Time

a) Read the following. Choose the correct character.

I've got two eyes, noses and mouths. I've got two arms, two hands and four fingers. I've got no ears.



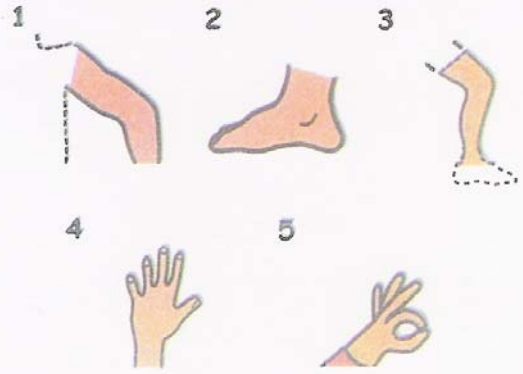
b) Now, you describe the other character.

BODY PARTS

PART 4 Game Time - 2

a) Draw the missing body parts.

b) Now, look at the following. Match the words and the body parts in the picture.



a. Leg
b. Fingers
c. Hand
d. Foot
e. Arm

UNIT 5

PART 2 Game Time

Label the body parts. Find head, shoulders, knees, toes, eyes, ears, mouth and nose.

PART 3 Craft Time

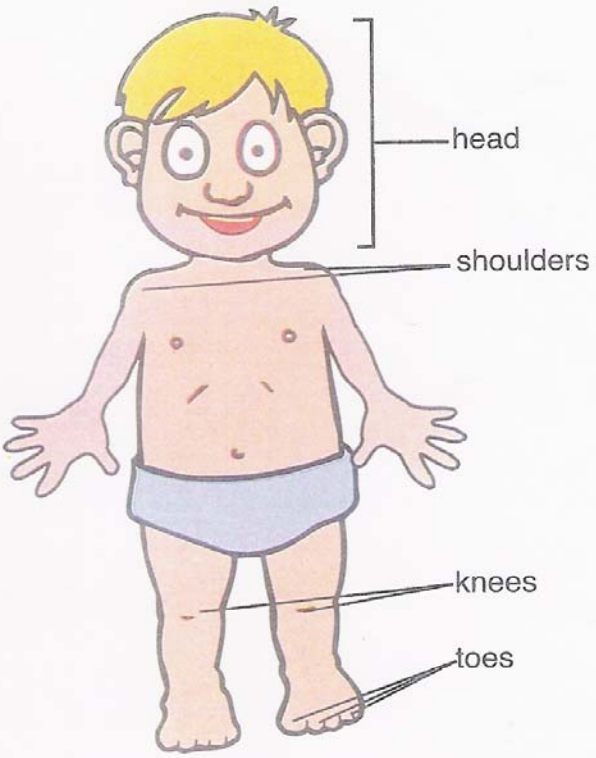
Make dolls. Use the following to draw body parts on a paper. Cut and paste them.

BODY PARTS

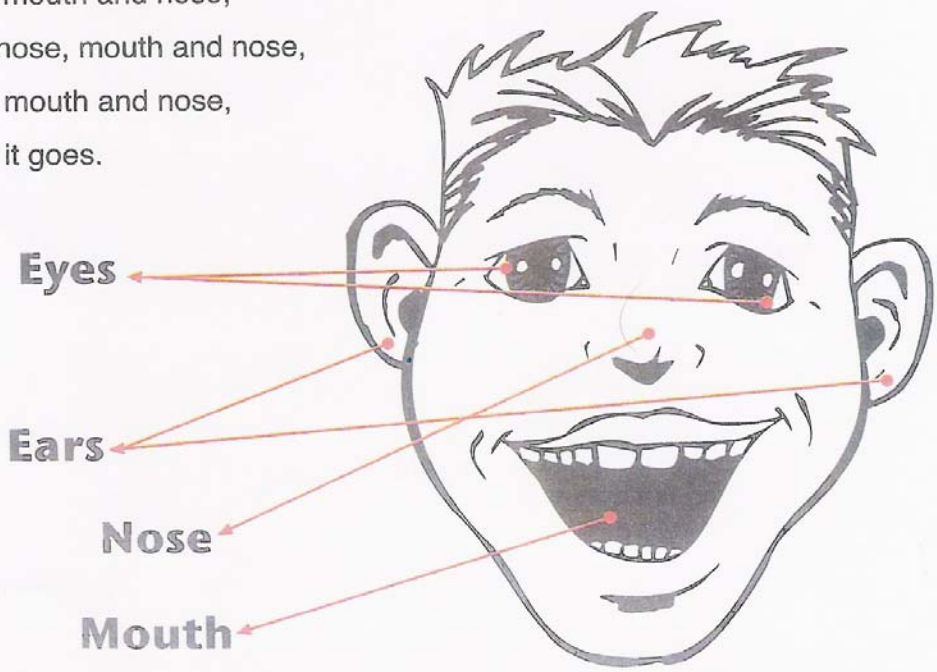
PART 1 Song Time

Listen and sing the song

Head, shoulders, knees and toes
Knees and toes, knees and toes,
This is how it goes.

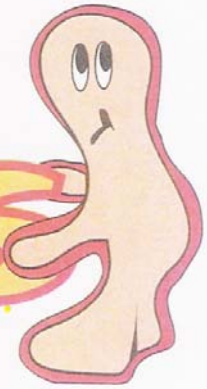


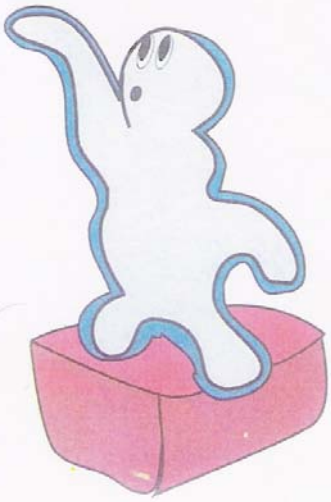
Eyes, ears, mouth and nose,
Mouth and nose, mouth and nose,
Eyes, ears, mouth and nose,
This is how it goes.



UNIT 5

BODY PARTS





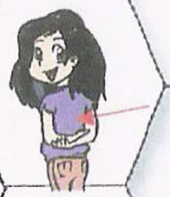
Be the first to the goal and win the honey! Name or talk about items as you go. Good luck!

THE HONEYCOMB CHALLENGE

START

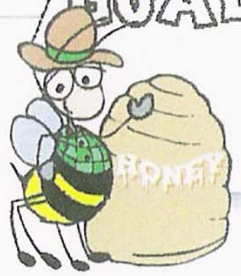
Your honey was stolen! Go back 3.

Ouch! You got stung. Go back 3.



Ouch! You got stung. Go back 3.

GOAL



Be the first to the goal
and win the honey!
Read and talk about items
as you go. Good luck!

THE HONEYCOMB CHALLENGE

START

Your honey was stolen! Go back 3.

teeth

neck

knee

leg

Ouch! You got stung. Go back 3.

head

mouth

shoulder

back

foot

hair

ear

arm

finger

toe

face

nose

elbow

Ouch! You got stung. Go back 3.

GOAL

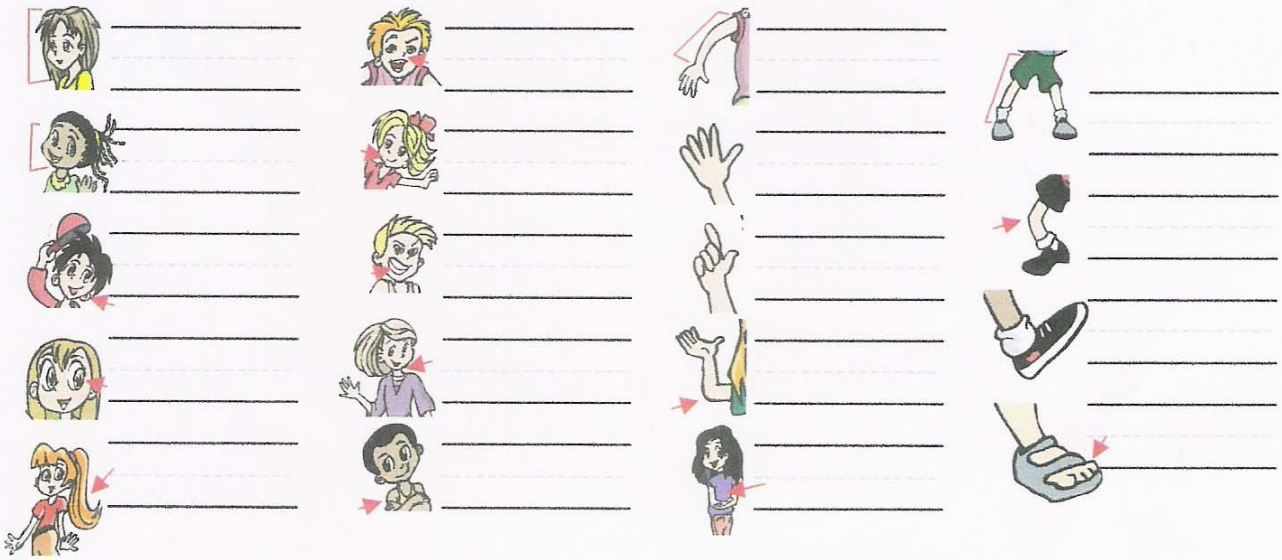
eye

hand

BODY PARTS

S H O U L D E R K L E O
E W O B L E H N B M Y W
E N S E A B E T O O E N
C O G C R E W U E S D I
V M T L M D T O J E E Y
O Z F W I H L H S F T U
Y R I A H S T U Y A O E
C N N Z D O H X P C O C
V H G R O N E Z P E F K
R A E T H E A D A B C N
Z E R B A C K H H E U P
F Q W N Q C S P N F X F

Find all the words below and write them:



BODY PARTS

F B O D Y J M R A L N H
Z I A X K A E Y Z E U T
B E N U O D J B P G F O
H E N G L I S H E P L O
F Q F U E O F L K A A T
G A O K T R B D N A H H
C H C H N O S E E M K S
S A A E W E O T E O C E
B I R D Y N H F J U E E
R W E M C E Y E C T N C
Q N V U D T A J A H N V
H T E E T R U U Z E U X

Find all the words below:

BODY PARTS

H I D W O B L E L U J R
K T E V O L T F Y L A S
E N E S H O U L D E R F
E N H E H N K Y N C Z I
D H G T T N B P G O Q N
H N O L E I O P E U S G
E O A E I M D A L F H E
T O E H O S Y H E A D R
T B M U L P H A K C I I
O M T R I A H C T E Q M
O H R Z V O E B A C K E
F P E A X N I P P T S S

Find all the words below:

head	nose	arm	leg
face	mouth	elbow	knee
hair	teeth	hand	foot
ear	neck	finger	toe
eye	shoulder	back	body

Trace and read.

BODY PARTS

Trace and read.

BODY PARTS


head


hair


face


nose


ear


eye


mouth


teeth


neck


shoulder


arm


elbow


hand


back


leg


knee


foot

Trace and read.

BODY PARTS


head head head head


hair hair hair hair


face face face face


nose nose nose nose


ear ear ear ear


eye eye eye eye


mouth mouth mouth mouth


teeth teeth teeth teeth


neck neck neck neck


shoulder shoulder shoulder shoulder


arm arm arm arm


elbow elbow elbow elbow


hand hand hand hand


back back back back


leg leg leg leg


knee knee knee knee


foot foot foot foot

ÖZGEÇMİŞ

01/10/1982 yılında Konya'da doğan Ece Cimcim Inkılap İlkokulundan 1993 yılında mezun olmuştur. Ortaokulu Anadolu Ticaret Lisesi'nde 1997 senesinde tamamlayıp, 2000 senesinde de Konya Gazi Lisesi'nden mezun olmuştur. 2004 yılında Selçuk Üniversitesi İngilizce Öğretmenliğininden mezun olan Ece Cimcim, yine aynı yıl Merkez Afyonkarahisar Özlem Özyurt İlköğretim Okulu'nda İngilizce öğretmeni olarak göreve başlamıştır. Burada 1,5 yıl görev yaptıktan sonra Konya Merkez Dumlupınar Mahallesi Ahmet Haşhaş İlköğretim Okulu'na 2006 senesinde tayin olmuştur. Halen burada görevine devam etmektedir. 2005 senesinde Selçuk Üniversitesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği bölümünde yüksek lisansa başlamıştır ve 2008 senesinde mezun olmuştur.