

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND RELATED RESEARCH

This chapter reviews related literature and studies on using games in teaching and learning grammar. The five main sections of this chapter include:

1. Teaching and learning grammar
2. Communicative activities
3. Roles of games in teaching and learning grammar
4. Roles of attitudes and motivation in learning a language
5. Previous studies on games

1. Teaching and Learning Grammar

1.1 Importance of Grammar

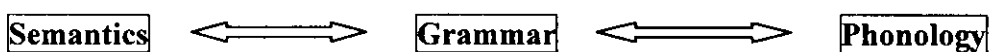
When we say that someone “knows a language,” we mean that the person has the ability to generate grammatically acceptable sentences in the target language, together with an ability to use these forms correctly (Dickins and Woods, 1988: 624). This is in accordance with Hymes’s notion of communicative competence (1977), that to be able to communicate effectively in a language, speakers need not only the rules of grammar , but also the rules of language use . However; in communication it is important that one not only knows the rules of the language, but also is able to use the language. The ultimate aim of communication is that the message has been conveyed

and interpreted effectively and efficiently. To achieve communication, the messages must contain signals to guide listeners to proper interpretation and to avoid any misunderstanding or ambiguity. Grammar is a means speakers use to send these signals. In other words, grammar provides receivers with signals to interpret possibly proper messages. Its role is to convey and interpret meanings (Dickins and Woods, 1988: 630). Fuller (1987: 70) has expressed a similar view that grammatical rules are basically designed to help people get their meaning across clearly and accurately. Grammar helps speakers put together the words in order to produce sentences.

Lock (1996: 267) claims that grammar lies at the very heart of communication, not an optional add-on to communication. He posits that language is a resource for communication. Within this perspective, grammar is seen as a network of interrelated systems. Each system contains a set of options from which a speaker selects according to the meaning he or she wishes to make. The selections the speaker makes from a number of systems are realized simultaneously by grammatical items organized into structures.

Leech, et al. (1982: 4) has expressed a similar view that grammar is a central part of language which relates sound (phonology) to meaning (semantics). The meaning of a message has to be converted into words, then these words are put together according to grammatical rules, and finally all the words are conveyed by sound. Figure 1 shows the relationship between the three components.

Figure 1 Relationship between Semantics, Grammar and Phonology



In addition, Larsen-Freeman (1991; cited in Brown, 1994: 348) has drawn attention to the fact that grammar is one of three interconnected dimensions of language which include grammar, semantics and pragmatics. Grammar gives us the

forms or the structures; semantics gives us the meanings; and pragmatics gives us which of the several meanings to assign in the particular context of a sentence.

Harmer (1991: 23) claims that knowledge of grammar is essential for competent users of a language. For example, they need to know that verbs in the third person singular have an 's' ending in the present simple tense so that they don't make mistakes like 'she sing or they makes'. They also need to know that modal auxiliaries are followed by bare infinitives so that they can avoid making mistakes like 'they should to go' or 'it will being'.

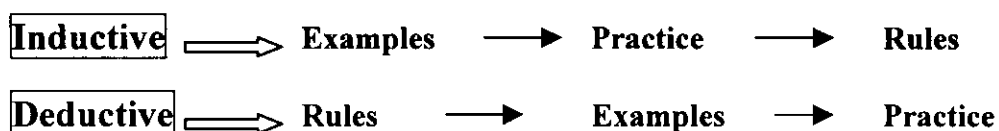
It is clear that grammar plays an important role in language teaching and learning. Teaching students a language for communication means teaching them to communicate through the language, and mastering the grammatical structure is necessary to achieve that end. The significance of grammar is widely recognized. No one can say that grammar is irrelevant to language learning.

1.2 Approaches of Teaching and Learning Grammar

Allen and Valette (1977: 85-90), Brown (1994: 351), Cross (1991: 27-28), Cunningsworth (1984: 32-33), Dixson (1975: 24-26), Gower (1995: 135), Harmer (1997: 3-4), Nunan (1998: 149-150), Richards et al. (1985: 98-99), and Scarcella and Oxford (1992: 177-178) categorize two approaches for presenting and practicing grammar. One is to provide students with the grammatical information covertly, implicitly or inductively, and the other overtly, explicitly or deductively. They explain that in an inductive approach, a teacher first gives students examples of the grammatical structure to be learned. After the examples have been practiced, the students are guided in forming a generalization about the grammatical principle they have been working with. Whereas in a deductive approach, rules, patterns, or generalizations are presented to students overtly, and they are then given ample

opportunity to practice the new feature of grammar. The distinction between inductive and deductive approaches is summarized in Figure 2.

Figure 2 Difference between Inductive and Deductive Approaches in Teaching Grammar



Nevertheless, in a typical language classroom, it is impossible for a teacher to fix on one certain approach because of differences in the students' language abilities, learning activities, purposes of the lessons or contexts of the learning. An advisable way is that the teacher uses both approaches alternatively when appropriate (Scarcella and Oxford, 1992: 178). Harmer (1997: 7) suggests that at the beginning level, the inductive approach is likely to be appropriate, as the main aim is to have students practice and use the language as much as possible through reading and listening. They are expected to be exposed to a lot of language structures and functions. The students practice using the language in less really free communicative activities. At the intermediate and more advanced levels, grammar teaching would probably be more overt because students involve in more communicative activities and have less grammar teaching. This is in accordance with Cunningsworth's view (1984: 33). He suggests that children learn inductively better than adults while adults learn deductively better because they have better developed analytical capacities, and can better understand and use abstract rules. Furthermore, Cross (1991: 28) suggests that it might be better for a teacher to use a deductive method when a difficult grammatical item must be presented or explained within a short time.

On the other hand, an inductive method is introduced when the grammatical item can be easily perceived, understood and applied and the teacher wants to get

students engaged more in learning activities (Cross, 1991: 28). Allen and Valette (1977: 90) mention that the inductive approach works best with regular grammatical patterns . Learning through the inductive approach is more challenging for students as they discover the rules themselves rather than being told in advance what the rules are. According to Borge' s findings (1998: 28), he suggests that students enjoy the intellectual challenge inductive grammar work provides. This inductive approach to grammar teaching and learning also enhances students' sense of achievement. Brown (1994: 351) states that the inductive approach builds more intrinsic motivation getting students to disclose rules. It provides more natural language acquisition as rules are absorbed subconsciously with little or no conscious focus. It also enables students to get a communicative feel because they are exposed to some aspects of the language before grammatical rules are explained.

The combination of both inductive and deductive approaches of grammar teaching is suggested. Cunningsworth (1984: 33) suggests that the most effective way is to have students induce the language rules from language use first. A teacher then reinforces them with the deductive approach. Eisenstein (1987: 288) proposes that a compromise would be to first present a structure in context without grammatical explanation (inductive), then the rule is stated and finally a substantial amount of time is allowed for manipulation of the structure by the learners (deductive).

1.3 Stages of Teaching and Learning Grammar

Cunningsworth (1984: 34), Harmer (1991: 40-41 and 50-51), Richards et al. (1985: 349), Rixon (1981: 69-79), and Ur (1988: 7) state that language teaching procedure can be organized into three stages: presentation, practice and production. These **Three Ps** teaching stages are well applicable to teaching grammar.

1.3.1 Presentation is a stage where a model of the new grammar item is introduced to students through various materials e.g. a reading text, a conversation from a cassette tape. This can be done both inductively and deductively. Its meaning is explained or demonstrated and other necessary information is presented. The students concentrate on understanding the new grammatical item and internalizing it. The teacher may work with controlled techniques; he/she presents language items the students are to use and asks for the accurate reproduction of the new language items. At this stage, the teacher insists on accuracy; he/she corrects where the students make mistakes. The teacher acts as a controller or judge. By doing this students can absorb both the meaning and form of the new language item into their short-term memory. They are mentally active to understand and internalize the new rule which is being presented.

1.3.2 Practice is a repetition or controlled stage where a new language item is practiced, either individually, in pairs or in groups. This stage consists of a series of exercises. The aim is to cause students to absorb the structure (form and meaning) thoroughly and transfer what they know from short-term to long-term memory. A teacher elicits an imitation of the model from students and gives the students the opportunity to start producing the language by themselves. Practice activities usually move from controlled to less controlled activities. During the practice stage, the teacher acts as a conductor; he/she may intervene slightly to guide and to spot an inaccuracy. The teacher corrects as necessary.

1.3.3 Production is a transfer or free practice stage where students produce the newly learned language in a freer and more flexible way with confidence. They are provided with opportunities to use the language in uncontrolled activities which are modeled on those of real life e.g. give instructions, solve a problem. At this stage, the students are ready to try using the language more independently. They interact individually, in pairs or in small groups. The teacher is an adviser and a language informant. He/she monitors groups and guides the students when needed.

2. Communicative Activities

In any language learning and teaching, the aim is to enable students to communicate in the target language. To reach that goal, a teacher has to provide communicative activities for students to practice and develop their capability of communication. Harmer (1991: 49-50) suggests six criteria to evaluate whether the learning activities are communicative or not. Firstly, students must have a desire to communicate. Secondly, there must be some communicative purposes. Thirdly, the focus of the activity should be on the negotiation of meaning rather than on the perfection of form. Fourthly, students must have a chance to use a wide variety of the language. Fifthly, the teacher will not intervene. Lastly, the materials used should not dictate students to use a particular item of grammar.

Nolasco and Arthur (1988: 95-96) describe the six characteristics of communicative activities. Firstly, communicative activities should involve students to use the language for a purpose. Secondly, they should create a desire to communicate. Thirdly, they must encourage students to be creative and to contribute their ideas. Fourthly, they focus students on the message and concentrate them on what to say rather than how to say it. Fifthly, they must promote students to work independently of the teacher. Lastly, they should encourage students to determine what they want to say or write.

Littlewood (1981: 86) characterizes communicative activities into two categories. One is functional communication activities where learners are placed in a situation to perform a task as effectively as they can, using whatever resources available. The other is social communication activities where learners are required to get meanings across to develop greater social acceptability in the language they use. He points out that in these two subcategories of communicative activities, learners are engaged in practicing the language skills of communication. They have to activate and integrate their linguistic knowledge and skills in order to communicate.

Games are generally categorized as communicative activities because of their meaningful nature. Through games students are trained to use their knowledge of the foreign language flexibly; students must gradually become more creative with the language they have acquired; and games can especially be used to foster students' grammatical development. In this study the investigator intends to use games on the basis of belief that they promote students' language learning and provide communication.

3. Roles of Games in Learning and Teaching Grammar

3.1 Definitions of Games

The Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics (1985: 153) defines a game in language teaching as “an organized activity that usually has the following properties: a) a particular task or objective, b) a set of rules, c) competition between players, and d) communication between players by spoken or written language.”

Cortez (1978: 204) defines a language game as “an activity designed to stimulate and to sustain interest while affording the learner practice in listening and/or speaking for purposes of language acquisition. Such an activity is not necessarily competitive but attempts primarily to associate the language-learning process with enjoyment for the pupil.”

Gibbs (1974) cited in Byrne and Rixon (1982: vii) calls a game as “an activity carried out by cooperating or competing decision-makers, seeking to achieve, within the rules, their objectives.” In addition, Danesi (1989: 3) defines language games as problem-solving activities involving interaction among learners.

The above definitions of a game reflect various characteristics of games.

3.2 Characteristics of Games

Games in language learning and teaching have the following five characteristics.

3.2.1 They are **rule-governed** (Hadfield, 1990: V; Kerr, 1977: 5; Lee, 1979: 3, Richards et al., 1985: 153; Rodgers, 1981: 2). Rodgers quotes that “ there are a limited number of specific and well-defined rules that all participants know about and understand. These rules cover every possible play, define play acceptability or non-acceptability and grade plays in terms of same game values.” This means that limited and clear rules are framed for players to perform a task. The one who breaks the rules will be the loser.

3.2.2 They are either **co-operative or competitive** (Hadfield, 1990: V; Kerr, 1981: 5; Rodger, 1981: 2; Richards et al., 1985: 153; Wright et al., 1983: 4). Co-operative games are games in which players work together to complete a learning task, solve a problem, share information or get a feedback on performance, while competitive games are the ones in which players race against another participant, time, a best performance, or a specific goal to be the winner.

3.2.3 They are **goal-defined** (Hadfield, 1990: v; Kerr, 1981: 5; Richards et al., 1985: 153; Rodgers, 1981: 3). Rodgers pinpoints that there is a limited number of specific and well-defined objectives for gaming which participants recognize and agree upon. The goal of games is closely related to the rules defined and seemingly depends on these rules as well.

3.2.4 They have a **closure** (Byrne and Rixon, 1982: viii; Lee, 1979: 3; Rodgers, 1981: 3). This means a game has a predetermined and definite end point. Games are closed activities; the players must know when they have won or completed the game. In other words games have a very clearly marked beginning and end.

3.2.5 They are **engaging**. Games engage and challenge participants. Sometimes a game is fun; sometimes it is motivating; sometimes it is merely attention-focusing. A game is like an automotive transmission; it requires participants to engage their mental and physical gears (Rodgers, 1981: 3).

The above five basic elements are the typical features of games in this study. And whether or not games would maximize the students' grammatical competence is worth investigating.

3.3 Types of Games

Different types of games serve different purposes of language learning (Rixon, 1981: 1, 22). It is necessary for language teachers to select the most appropriate games for the language-learning purposes and learners' ability. In a classroom, language learning activities and practices for each lesson usually range from a more controlled to the freer ones. Similarly, types of games vary from production of more controlled to less controlled language.

Byrne and Rixon (1982: vii-viii), Hadfield (1990: v), Kerr (1977: 5) and Rixon (1981: 22-23) classify games into two major types: linguistic and communication games.

3.3.1 Linguistic Game

Linguistic games are accuracy-focused. Correct repetition of a limited range of language forms or contents is the important characteristics of them. Players are encouraged to concentrate on the correct use of language. The teacher's role is a judge who has sufficient command of the target language. He/she awards credits for the correct answers and rejects the incorrect ones. To win the game, players must

perform language items correctly. This kind of game is more rule-bound. It uses predictable language formulae in which the language-practice elements are limited to a few syntactical patterns, and a number of lexical sets of fixed formulae. Good examples of linguistic games are “Ship or Sheep” (a sound-discrimination game), “Hangman” (a spelling game), and “I Went Shopping” (a list game).

3.3.2 Communication Game

Communication games are fluency-focused. They emphasize the overall message being conveyed. In other words, to accomplish in a certain game, players are to get a message over to other players or to react appropriately to the message they have received. This sort of game generates an unpredictably wide range of language functions and uses while the players interact. Success is judged by the communication outcome rather than by language form. The degree of success or failure depends on the effectiveness of the player’s command of communication rather than on the control over a number of identifiable syntactical or lexical items. Players can see the practical results of their use of the language, so they can recognize their own success. In playing this kind of games, students must stretch themselves and experiment with the language use to get the message across. They are often less self-conscious because they are concentrating on the message rather than the language. Successful completion of a game will involve the carrying out of a task. Examples of communication games are those that require participants to follow instructions to build a model or draw a picture, to persuade other players to allow them to do something, to draw a route on a map, to fill in a chart, and to find two matching pictures.

3.4 Advantages of Games

Games have been frequently used in language learning and teaching especially in the communicative approach for a long time as they promote communicative competence. Maley (1981: 137) claims that games and game-like activities have an obvious and important place in the theory of language learning based on the development of communicative competence. They are especially useful for practicing various grammatical items. The following advantages of games are summarized from Carrier (1980: 6), Cross (1991: 153), Hadfield (1990: v), Haycraft (1978: 92), Krashen and Terrell (1988: 121), Lee (1979: 1-4), McCallum (1980: ix-x), Schultz and Fisher (1988: vii-viii), Williams (1985: 7), and Wright et al. (1983: 1-2).

Since games are immensely enjoyable and relatively stress-free, they can greatly improve the classroom atmosphere. Games remove the inhibitions of students who feel intimidated by formal classroom situations. When playing games, students forget that they are in class. This is because games relax students by engaging them in pleasant, joyful, informal and stress-reducing tasks. So games are often favorable to language learning (Carrier, 1980: 6; Hadfield, 1990: vii; Haycraft, 1978: 92; Lee, 1979: 1; McCallum, 1980: ix; Schultz and Fisher, 1988: vii).

Games are valuable and admirable for communicative language practice because they can provide extensive, intense and meaningful practice of all language skills. Therefore, students can vividly experience the density of grammar practice with meaningfulness, which results in long-term memory and success in classroom learning (Hadfield, 1990: viii; Hill and Fielden, 1978: v; Lee, 1979: 4; Schultz and Fisher, 1988: vii; Wright et al., 1983: 1-2).

At the same time, games can increase student-student communication, and so reduce the classroom domination by the teacher. Games change the role of the teacher from the formal instructor to the manager or organizer of activities that

students enjoy participating in. This is useful in diminishing teacher-student distance or conflict (Carrier, 1980: 6).

Moreover, games greatly heighten students' motivation, participation and self-confidence in using the language with each other because of the non-threatening nature of the activities. They also overcome students' anxiety. As students play games, they employ the language in a spontaneous and natural manner, and as their concentration is on the message, they stop thinking about the language rules. Therefore, they are exposed to the target language naturally and unconsciously in the same way when they acquire their mother tongue (Danesi, 1989: 6; Haycraft, 1978:92; Lee, 1979: 2-3; MaCallum, 1980: ix; Schultz and Fisher, 1988: vii; Williams, 1985: 7).

Most language games allow a variety of lesson planning. They can be played in large or small groups or in pairs and used in any language teaching situations and with all language skills: reading, writing, speaking or listening. They can also be used to change the pace of a lesson and fashioned around miming, role play, drama, discussion, and pictures or other visual aids. Thus, they can banish students' boredom and be an entertaining way to reinforce the use of text materials (Carrier, 1980: 6; Chamberlain, 1981: 29; Lee, 1979: 1; Hadfield, 1990: vii; MaCallum, 1980: ix; Schultz and Fisher, 1988: viii; Wright et al., 1983: i).

Furthermore, games provide open-ended opportunities. Players can make decisions on their own and determine solutions in various situations. In studying through games, students can develop their decision-making and problem-solving skills (Chamberlain, 1981: 29; Danesi, 1989: 49).

Finally, games can function as reinforcement, review, and enrichment for foreign language learning and teaching. They act as a testing mechanism or diagnostic tool for a teacher to use for an assessment of students' knowledge or remedial work when students have concepts and skills which need consolidation and reinforcement

**Central Library
Prince of Songkla University**

(Carrier, 1980: 6; Hadfill, 1990: vii; McCallum, 1980: ix; Wardell, 1981: 60; Williams, 1985: 7).

3.5 Disadvantages of Games

Despite the numerous advantages of using games in language teaching, there are some disadvantages for teachers to bear in mind.

Wardell (1981: 60) has illustrated two serious drawbacks of using games in EFL classroom. Firstly, games take time which is already a commodity in short supply for most language programs. In a typical language classroom, there are several activities e.g. giving the prescribed textbook, exercise materials and evaluation exams. A teacher may find that there is little free time left to indulge in playing games. Secondly, games frequently need special equipment which schools or individual teachers may be unable to provide because of economic considerations. Moreover, facilities may not exist to store and safeguard game materials.

Wright et al. (1983: 3) acknowledge that many students who learn English in order to pass examinations or to improve their employment prospects will look on games as unnecessary. Thus, a teacher has to justify the use of games in terms of the density and meaningfulness of practice they provides.

4. Role of Attitudes and Motivation in Language Learning

Of particular relevance to the study of second language learning is an interesting and popular issue about roles of attitudes and motivation. These two affective factors play an important role in language learning; they influence students' success or failure. Positive attitudes and high motivation are related to success in language learning (Gardner, 1985; cited in Lightbrown and Spada, 1993: 39). Therefore, language teachers need to have a clear understanding of their learners' attitudes and

motivation for studying the second language so as to apply these factors in the classroom.

4.1 Attitudes

Attitude in language learning is defined as a set of beliefs that the learner holds towards the community and people who speak the target language, learning the language concerned, and languages and language learning in general (Stern, 1983: 386). Stern's view of the importance of positive attitudes towards language learning, is that learners who have positive attitudes learn more, at the same time learners who learn well acquire positive attitudes. Additionally, the affective filter hypothesis proposed by Krashen (1983; cited in Krashen and Terrell, 1988) recommends that successful second language acquisition depends on learners' feeling. Negative attitudes are said to act as a filter, preventing the learners from making use of language input, and thus hindering success in language learning. In reversal, positive attitudes represent the low filter. The learners easily perceive language input, then they can make use of it and finally they are successful in language learning because they have positive attitudes towards the language or language learning.

Kuhlemeier et. al (1996) studied the relationship between students' attitudes towards the subject of German, the course material, and the teacher and students' achievements in German as a foreign language. Attitudes and achievements were measured at the beginning and end of the first year of German. They found that students who had a positive attitude rated higher in achievement than those having negative attitudes, both at the beginning and at the end of the school year. Students enrolled in a communicative course had a more positive attitude towards their course material than those studying in a grammatically oriented course.

Oller and his colleagues (1977-1978; cited in Brown, 2000) conducted several large-scale studies of the relationship between attitudes and success in language learning. They looked at the relationship between Chinese, Japanese, and Mexican students' achievements in English and their attitudes towards self, the native language group, the target language group, their reasons for learning English, and their reasons for traveling to the United States. The researchers were able to identify a few meaningful clusters of attitudinal variables that correlated positively with attained language proficiency. They found that positive attitudes towards self, the native language group, and the target language group enhanced language proficiency.

Gardner and Lambert (1972; cited in Brown, 2000: 181) examined the effect of the interrelationships of a number of different types of attitudes on language learning. It was found group-specific, the attitude learners had towards the members of the cultural group whose language they were learning was the most important type. Thus, according to Gardner and Lambert's model, an English-speaking Canadian's positive attitude towards French-Canadians - a desire to understand them and to empathize with them - will lead to an integrative orientation to learn French.

It can be concluded that second language learners benefit from positive attitudes and that negative attitudes may lead to decreased motivation on account of decreased input and interaction to unsuccessful acquirement of proficiency.

4.2 Motivation

Motivation is the biggest single factor in success or failure in language learning (Cunningsworth, 1984: 59; Harmer, 1991: 3). It is a key to learning (Edge, 1993: 15). A well-motivated student although badly taught will probably do better than a poorly-motivated student well taught (Cunningsworth, 1984: 59). Motivation involves the attitudes and affective states that influence the degree of effort learners make to learn a second language (Ellis, 1997: 75). Gardner and Lambert (1972; cited

in Brown, 2000: 181) assert that motivation is a construct made up of certain attitudes. In relation to this idea, Gardner (1985: 10) defines motivation to learn a second language as “the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes towards learning the language”. This definition includes three components of motivation: (a) effort expended to achieve a goal, (b) a desire to attain the goal, and (c) positive attitudes towards language learning.

Motivation generally embraces four attitudinal factors: interest, relevance, expectancy and satisfaction (Keller, 1983; cited in Jacob, 1996; Scarcella and Oxford, 1992: 52). Firstly, interest involves whether the activity relates to what students are curious about. Students will be more motivated when they study something that interests them. Secondly, relevance concerns whether the activity relates to what students find is necessary for them to do. Thirdly, expectancy refers to whether students expect to succeed or fail in doing the activity. Students are more motivated to take part in activities in which they expect to succeed. Finally, satisfaction is whether the outcome is positive or negative.

Additionally, Lightbrown and Spada (1993: 40) define motivation in a second language learning in terms of two factors: learners’ communicative needs and their attitudes towards the second language community. They further explain that if learners need to speak the second language in a wide range of social situations or to fulfil professional ambitions, they will perceive the communicative value of the second language and will therefore be motivated to acquire proficiency in it. Likewise, if learners have favorable attitudes towards the speakers of the language, they will desire more contact with them.

Gardner and Lambert (1972: 209-210) categorize motivation into two general orientations: integrative and instrumental. *Integrative* motivation refers to motivation that comes from a desire to integrate with the target language community. Learners want to integrate the culture of proficient speakers of the target language. For example, Thai students want to learn English because they are interested in English

people and culture represented by the target language group. *Instrumental* motivation comes from the rewards that might come from learning. It occurs when learner's goals for learning second language are functional reasons. They want to learn a language because it will be useful for certain instrument goals, for example, to pass an examination, to get a better job, to get a place at university, to read a foreign newspaper, or to study mathematics in an English-speaking university.

The perspective on motivation in second language acquisition suggested by the Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1983; cited in Krashen and Terrell, 1988) and supported by the interactionist perspective (Long, 1985; cited in Jacob, 1996) is that the more motivated learners are, the more likely they are to seek comprehensible input and to take part in interaction to negotiate for meaning. The overall research findings report a circular cause and effect relationship between motivation and success in second language learning. This high correlation is taken as evidence that the more one succeeds, the greater one's motivation; the greater one's motivation, the more one succeeds (Nunan and Lamb, 1996: 209; Lightbrown and Spada, 1993: 112).

As motivation plays an important role in achieving proficiency in second language learning (Baker, 1992; Gardner, 1985; cited in Sung and Padilla, 1998), a teacher should try to build up motivation in order to make students' progress in learning. Willis (1982: 187) notes, "If a student wishes to learn, if he is motivated, he will make progress. If, however, he lacks motivation, if he has no desire to learn, he will probably not make progress." Learning through games is one way to motivate students to develop their English progress. Dornyei (1994: 281) suggests:

Increase students' interest and involvement in the tasks by designing or selecting varied and challenging activities; adapting tasks to the students' interests; making sure that something about each activity is new or different; including game-like features, such as puzzles, problem-solving, avoiding traps, overcoming obstacles, elements of suspense, hidden information, etc. ...

This is in accordance with Cunningsworth's notion (1984: 63) that a teacher should look for material that has variety and pace, is of genuine interest to the learners and contains learning activities that will appeal to them. Activities which encourage personal involvement tend to increase motivation. An involved student is a willing student and willingness facilitates teaching and learning. Games create students' interest towards language learning because they encourage students to involve in learning activities.

Through the use of games, students are motivated to do something for fun, pleasure or feelings of satisfaction that they receive from doing it. By means of games' characteristics students are motivated to learn a language on the grounds that they take part in activities in which they expect to succeed. Students enjoy studying when they feel that they are succeeding.

In conclusion, attitudes and motivation are primary factors in language learning success; therefore, language teachers must pay special attention to students' attitudes and motivation for the reason that this awareness helps teachers to design and tailor the instructional activities and materials (Scarcella and Oxford, 1992: 51). In a language classroom, games may help a teacher reduce students' negative attitudes, implant positive attitudes, and increase students' motivation.

5. Previous Studies on Games

To the researcher's knowledge, there exist four studies on using games with foreign students and six studies with Thai learners:

Dickerson (1976) compared the use of games with traditional language activities as a means of reinforcing recognition of selected sight vocabulary words with the first graders. The results showed that games were a better aid in reinforcing vocabulary recognition than traditional learning activities. He also found that games

gave children the opportunity to interact with each other in positive ways in competitive and co-operative situations.

Walling (1977) did an experimental study of conditions which affected learning through simulation games in speech communication instruction. It was found that the students reached a high learning achievement.

Palmer (1980) conducted a study on the use of 23 reading communication games in teaching reading. He and his partner taught two groups of fifty-two first year engineering students at Khon Kaen University. The control group was taught using the aural-oral method, and the experimental group was taught using reading communication games. The results indicated that the students who were taught with the reading communication games produced highly significant improvement in general reading comprehension.

Gardner (1987) used the communication games called 'Describe and Arrange' to teach vocabulary related to description and location. The results were not highly satisfactory because of the limitation of the study using only one particular game, played in one context with one group of students.

Tungtarandsri (1986; cited in Tanom Tiensawangchai, 1988) conducted an experimental study to compare technical English achievement learnt through games and simulations of third year Thai students at vocational certificate level. It was found that the technical English achievement test scores of the students learning through simulations were higher than those learning through games

Tanom Tiensawangchai (1988) investigated the effects of using the communication game called 'Discussion Game' with the preparation of feed-in language towards the oral interaction in his English class of the first year engineering students. He conducted an experiment with two groups of 15 first year engineering students within the same class at Institute of Technology and Vocational Education, Dhevet, Bangkok. One played a communication game and the other did tasks without

game elements. The results showed that there were no significant differences between the students' attitudes towards the use of communication games and tasks without game elements. Both groups viewed the process of experimental teaching as a useful way of improving their oral interaction in English. The use of communication game with the preparation of feed-in language enhanced the students' oral interaction in terms of fluency of use, application of feed-in language in group discussion, and motivation to use English as a means of communication during their group discussion.

Somporn Warawittayasri (1996) did an experimental study to compare learning achievement and retention in English vocabulary of 40 M.2 English low achievers through exercises with and without games. The results indicated that the M.2 English low achievers who were taught through exercises with games were significantly higher in achievement and retention than those who were taught through exercises without games at .05 level.

Bangorn Roikrong (1998) investigated learning achievement of 100 Prathom Suksa 1 students at Anuban Lampang School through 10 games for enhancement of English listening-speaking skills. The finding indicated that the learning achievement of the students through the games for enhancement of English listening-speaking skills was significantly higher than those learned without the games at .01 level.

Chantisa Chanprasert (1998) studied the effects of using communication games namely: a *crossword puzzle*, *find the differences*, and the *interview game* to promote six M.2 students' grammatical competence from a mixed ability class. Her findings showed that the students improved their overall grammatical competence. Those games allowed them to better learn, understand and remember grammatical knowledge. In addition, the students had more confidence in applying grammar points correctly. They also had positive attitudes towards learning grammar.

Somjai Petchudkao (1998) investigated the effects of using a code-breaking game as a warm-up activity to raise awareness of English spelling conventions to 51

students of M.4/3 at Isalamic College of Thailand. Her findings indicated that the code-breaking game helped raise the students' awareness of spelling convention. It was found that the students had positive attitudes towards the use of code-breaking game and the game itself. The game helped them understand English spelling conventions. This understanding enabled them to guess the meaning of unknown word spelling with similar conventions correctly. It also made them recognize vocabulary better and faster. The students were able to use spelling conventions in writing English vocabulary as well.

Most of these studies show improvement in the learning achievement of the subjects to a satisfying extent after using games. However, a little attempt has been made to study the direct effect of games on students' grammatical competence in English, except that of Chantisa Chanprasert who suggested that a communication game is most suitable at the production stage of grammar instruction because students will have a chance to practice the grammatical items being learned communicatively. She further suggested that the communication games in teaching grammar should also be used in the reinforcement or revision or consolidating stage because this kind of games focuses on fluency rather than on accuracy.

In my view, it might be practically useful to investigate not only the use of communication games but also linguistic games. While linguistic games which focus on accuracy are used at the controlled practice stage to enable students to have sufficient language to communicate correctly, communication games can be used at the production stage to reinforce and consolidate the use of the grammar points.