NEAR EAST UNIVERSITY

Faculty of Arts & Sciences

Dept. of English Language & Literature

TEACHING ENGLISH

THROUGH GAMES

Undergraduate Thesis

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PREFACE

During the four years that I have been a student at the Near East University in the department of English language and literature, I have learnt a lot and am thoroughly grateful to the people who have been responsible for my education. Assoc. Prof. Dr. Gül Çelkan has been a very important person for me during my years of education at the Near East University. In addition to my Chairperson, I would like to thank all the other teachers who I have had the benefit of being taught by.

The topic which I have been assigned to is "Teaching English through Games". This is a topic which I have found easy, because I enjoy working with young children and helping them in whatever way I can. I have spent months preparing my undergraduate thesis and have taken special care in preparation and detail. My topic was assigned to me by my chairperson, and for her once again.

As I am coming to the end of my degree course I would just like to say that it has been a good experience and one that I am very proud to have experienced.

Finally, I would like to thank the Near East University for having given me the chance to improve myself as a person and to get prepared for life after my university education.

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INTRODUCTION

Attempting to teach children the English Language a difficult task. It requires endless amounts of patient, dedication, concentration and above all a smiling face. The use of text books and lectures carry no weight with children between the ages of six and twelve. Perhaps the older student would appreciate these intense lectures and information pack text books. However the younger generation would far more appreciate leaning the English Lang. through games.

Due to the fact that young children do not possess fully developed analytical learning skills they depend largely upon games from which they are likely to learn more then if they were given a textbook to read. So it seems that young children who lack the ability and in fact have not being thought now to appreciate learning through textbooks are to appreciate learning through textbooks are solely depended upon two things : the classroom and games.

A young mind can be compared to a sponge. It absorbs information from the environment consider how a young child spontaneously acquires his native language. Acquiring information in this way all his /her senses to investigate his / her interesting surroundings. Especially for the six to seven years olds there must be concentration from the student by fixing his / her attention on a task performed with his / her hands. All the equipment in the classroom invives a child to use his hands to learning.

It is true children between the ages of six and twelve start off with great expectations when first trying to grasp the English Lang. like most new things there is plenty of excitement on behalf of the young learners. Entering the corridor of education via the primary school is the first step taken by the young learners in their quest to learn English language. At first (six years of age) it is difficult for the young learners to settle in to the way of school life and to adjust to their being a 'TEACHER' standing before you and talking with a mouth that produces nothing but a confusing jumble of words.

Before any teaching can take place and in fact before the school year begins a syllabus must be drawn up which will be suitable to the requirements of the young learners. The teachers must prepare their methods, and practices.

It is vitally important that when the English Lang. or in fact any Language is being taught, the young learners must have confidence, comfortability, energy and be given the necessary attention required. The more love and attention a teacher gives to his / her pupils, the more feed back their likely to get. A fine

line must be drawn so that the child doesn't take advantage of the teachers kindness.

Returning to the aspect of games, especially for the young learners. It's imperative that the young learners, it's imperative that the young learners are shown how to play the correctly, then as times goes by they will be able to benefit from the lesson that is hidden within the games. To every game or every child's song there is underlining theme - the learning theme. From " old MacDonald" to " Simon Says", a whole range of aspects are at hand and are all ready to be taught.

What must be remembered is that children must be handled with great sensitivity and given all the attention they need. The whole range of learning via games is instrumental and is how the early learners will benefit learning the English language

Chapter 1

The Early Childhood education

Why children find school learning difficult ?

Children find school learning difficult

1. First, he actively tries to make sense of the world from a very early point in his life: he asks questions, he wants to know. (This is evidently so as soon as verbal questions can be formulated. It is probably true even before lang. appears). Also from a very early stage, the child has purposes and intentions he wants to do. These-questionings and these strivings imply some primitive sense of possibility which reaches beyond a realisation of how things are to a realisation of how they might be.

2. The sense of the possible which arises in conjunction with *wanting to know* involves, first, a simple realisation of ignorance ("There might be a tiger round the corner, I haven't look") and then an attempt to use considerations of compatibility and incompatibility to extend the field of the known and reduce uncertainty. That which is possible then and reduce uncertainty. That which is possible then becomes that which does not lead to conflict with anything accepted as real or actual. Whatever does lead to such conflict is *impossible.* This is deductive inference. But note that it does not become what is normally called *formal* deductive inference until attention centres not on conflict with the real in the known world, but on conflict with what we are accustomed to call "the given", that is, with something merely postulated, something which you *decide* to accept as the premise on which you will base your reasoning.

3. The sense of the possible which arises in conjunction with *wanting to do* involves, on the one hand, some apprehension of the goal, of the state of affairs which might be brought into being and on the other hand some apprehension of the means, of the actions which one might take in order to reach the goal. However, it seems most probable that in the early stages of life, awareness of the goal is dominate and that consideration of possible action - especially systematic consideration - comes later. There is a distinction to be drawn between trying different actions to achieve a goal and reflecting on these as a possible set of actions before performing them. This

latter activity - the planning kind - involves the temporary suspension of event action and a turning of attention inwards upon mental acts instead. Developmentally, the course of events is from an awareness of what is without to an awareness of what is within.

4. This is true also when we turn to the growth of linguistic skills. The child acquires these skills before he becomes aware of them. The child's awareness of what he talks about - the things out there to which the lang. refers - normally takes precedures over his awareness of what he talks with - the actual words - before he is at all aware of the rules which determine their sequencing - the rules which control his own production of them. Indeed, a thoughtful adult has a very limited awareness of such processes in his own mind.

In the early stages, before the child has developed a full awareness of language, language is embedded for him in the flow of the events which accompany it. So long as this is the case, the child does not interpret words in isolation - he interprets situations. He is more concerned to make sense of what people do when they talk and act than to decide what words mean. After all he may not be ware of language, but he is kneely aware of other people. But, at the same time, he is given to structuring, or making sense of situations even when no words are uttered, and sometimes it seems that, when words are uttered, the child's interpretation of the utterance is strongly influenced by his own independent structuring of the context. If there is one feature of a situation which is silent for him - If it is the feature on which he himself would be most likely to comment - then this feature can exert a "pull" on the interpretation of the words he hears. Just how powerful this pull may be is not yet entirely clear.

5. A child who is trying to figure out what other people mean must be capable of recognising intentions in others, as well as having them himself. And such a child is by no means wholly unable to decentre. While, he may certainly like the rest of us, fail sometimes to appreciate the relativity of his own point of view, he is capable of escaping from it. Thus he is not debarred by egocentrism from communicating with us and relating to us in a personal way. Indeed personal relations appear to form the matrix within which his learning takes place.

If the picture which has just been sketched is accurate as to its main lines, the normal child comes to school with well-established skills as a thinker. But his thinking is *directed outwards* on to the real, meaningful, shifting, distracting world. What is going to be required for success in our educational system is that he should learn to turn language and thought in upon themselves. He

must become able to direct his own thought processes in a thoughtful manner. He must become able not just to talk but to choose what he will say, not just to interpret but to weigh possible interpretations. His conceptual system must expand in the direction of increasing ability to represent itself. He must become capable of manipulating symbols. Now the principal symbolic system to which the pre-school child has access is oral long. So the first step of conceptualising long - becoming aware of it as a separate structure, freeing it from its embeddedness in events.

Some children come to school with this step already taken - or at least with the moment already begin. They come with an enormous initial advantage.

Starting to learn another language

After mentioning the difficulties of school learning, there are also difficulties in learning a language. When a child starts to learn a language he has many expectations.

" We become interested in what we are good at to quote Bruner (in *1 Donaldson 1978.124) This simple truth about attitudes also applies to learning English. How often adults say 'I like English. I was good at it', or - conversely when excusing their poor English add, 'I was never any good at it at school'.

Young children, if they are nominal, want to learn. 'At no other time in life does the human being display such enthusiasm for learning for living, for finding out *2 (pluckrose 1979:27). Lifelong attitudes appear to be formed early. If teachers can manage to capture children's enthusiasm and keep it by presenting well planned lessons, right for their needs and development level, the children they teach should make progress and find that they are good at English. It is at this first stage of learning English that foundations for what may be a life-long interest in English language and culture can be laid.

*1 (pluckrose 1978:27)
*2 (in Donaldson 1978:124).

Children's expectations

Children come to English lessons with expectations about what they are going to do and achieve. These expectations are influenced by what the family, friends and society in general expect and what they have heard from other children. *ı Children are creatures of the moment. They work best and most successfully when the objectives are clear, comprehensilde immediate.
(Pluckrose 1979 : 27). Children want to please : they care about what others think about them. They want immediate results. They expect to go home after the first lesson able to speak some English, so that they can be praised by their parents and show off to their friends. They long to be able to talk a lot of English quickly, in a grown-up manner. Children are used to communicating in language 1, and as soon as possible they want to do the same in English. They expect to use English in real experiences. They want to be able to talk about things that interest them, that are vital to them. Only as they grow older are they interested in things outside their immediate surroundings.

If children do not get what they have expected in the English lesson, they are disappointed. If parents do not get what they have expected and cannot see progress they are disappointed too. Parents' enthusiasm can motivate; their disappointment can reflect on their children, causing them to lose interest starting to learn another language.

Acquire or learn a language :

The debate as to how young children learn another language continues, and is likely to continue, as the number of young children learning English increases and more research becomes available.

The acquisition and learning distinction is not new. It suggests that adults have two independent but interrelated systems for gaining ability in another *ı (Pluckrose 1979 :27) language: acquisition and learning. The view of Krashen is that 'The good language leaner is an acquirer; he may or may not be a conscious learner'. Young children are acquirers. Acquisition takes place subconsciously in situations where speakers are more concerned with the use of language to convey meaning than with correct usage. They want to say something, and without thinking to communicate with the language they know (use) rather than analyse it in order to find out the correct 'usage' or way to use it. Teaching the rules of usage is not necessary for acquirers.

The other system. 'learning' takes place consciously *1 It is helped greatly by error correction and the presentation of explicit rules (Krashen and Seliger 1975. quoted in Kashen 1981 :2). In short, it appears that fluency comes unconsciously from what a learner has acquired in interpersonal communication, whilst the formal knowledge or rules has to be learned consciously.

Many young children are still acquiring language 1. In their desire to communicate (if the circumstances permit), they create situations in which language can be acquired. They are willing to use language and to experiment with sounds, without worrying about mistakes. They rarely have the inhibitions typical of adolescents and adults. When young a child learns another language, he approaches it in the same way as when he learns language 1: *2 his awareness of what he talks about normally takes precedence over his awareness of what he talks with - the words that he uses. (Donaldson 1978 :88) Thus for the maximum language acquisition in the classroom, young children need to be exposed to a programme rich in meaningful, real-life activities in which communication takes place naturally.

Recent research suggests that language 1 acquisition can be identified on one hand as gestalt and on the other as analytic or creative. Gestalt psychology stresses the importance of learning by wholes. Gestalt language consists of prefabricated routines or patterns which are memorised as whole utterances. By contrast, analytic or creative language develops word by word and utterances are consciously constructed by the speaker. In the initial stages of learning. Prefabricated language is more used ; however, all learners develop use of creative language which eventually dominates. Research indicates that for many language 2 learners, especially children, Gestalt speech (prefabricated language) severs as a short cut to allow social interaction and interpersonal communication with a minimum of linguistic competence. The analytic of creative mode begins to predominate as learners attempt to express specific and possibly individual ideas. The linguistic environment of the classroom is conductive to learning prefabricated patterns and routine. A programme which follows the same framework, with familiar add new activities slotted into it. gives children an opportunity to predict the meaning of the language used, since much of it, for example the organisation language, will be the same with regular repetition of the same prefabricated language. Children quickly understand

*1 (Krashen and Seliger 1975, quoted in Krashen 1981 :2)
*2 (Donaldson 1978 :88)

situations and memorise the language involved. It appears that children learning another language have a great capacity to imitate and memorise long utterances as they have already had to do this when learning language 1. Once a child has memorised some prefabricated language he has a feeling he can speak 'a lot of English' and as soon as he has understood how to transfer language he seems to have an ability to use the little language he knows in difference situations for maximum communication when he can communicate with others, he can acquire more language and gradually develop more fluency where children are not exposed to planned opportunities to acquire prefabricated language, acquisition is slower. Reliance on prefabricated language is only possible in the repdicatable situation of a classroom, it is a very helpful tool in fulfilling the children's expectations.

Skills learned in one language are not only applicable, to that language. Teachers will have noticed when teaching children to count in English that children who already know how to use numbers in language 1 lean quickly in English. In fact they are transferring their concepts of number from language 1 and merely learning a new linguistic label in English. The same applies to literacy skills. Children who can already read in language 1, once introduced to reading in English, learn quite quickly. This is partly due to the fact that they are more mature, but also because they already have the literacy skill of reading which they transfer.

Some teachers trying to teach new concepts in English to children who have not already learned them in language 1 are often left in doubt as to whether the children have really understood. Swain points out that 'instruction in the first language can be benefit second language'. Where children have not sufficient oral ability in language 2, it is a good idea for teachers to wait to teach a new concept in language 2 until it has been taught in language 1. Once it has been taught in language 1, it may be quickly transferred to language 2.

Some teachers feel that to continue explaining in language 1 will retard language development in English. Providing the explanation is not given as direct translation or in a way that interferes with language acquisition experiences in language 2. *1 'Spending time learning in one language benefits both languages equally with respect to developing those language - related skills essential to academic success' (Swain 1981 : 5)

Children of primary school age are learning to cope with school life, learning to read and write, reinforcing simple concepts. Such as number and shape, as well as developing more complex concepts. Such as classifying or magnetism. An increasing number of them are also learning English. This

presents a special and exciting challenge to teachers in primary schools, many of whom are wondering how they can create the most effective learning environment for the pupils learning English. To provide an answer, it is necessary to discover ways of promoting learning activities which are motivating, interesting, and fun, which at the same time support English language learning.

Why teach a foreign language in primary school

It is supposed that teaching a foreign language should begin in primary school. The reason for this lies in the fact that the importance which modern societies place on proficiency in one or more foreign languages, as part of the knowledge and skills which can help in the attainment of a satisfactory professional life later on. A knowledge of foreign language is also seen as contributing to as well-balanced and culturally complete on education as possible, without pretending to encyclopaedic knowledge.

As far as secondary schooling is concerned, most countries consider that learning a first foreign language should start straight away at the beginning of the first year when the pupils are generally eleven or twelve years old.

One reason for starting to learn a foreign language two or three years earlier (at 7 or 8 instead of 11 or 12) might be simply to increase the total number of years spent learning the language in the belief that such an approach cannot but be of benefit, no matter what the circumstances. This fails to take into account two important considerations.

Firstly, the time factor, i.e. the total length of the period of study, must be assessed in relation to the frequency and regulating of the teaching. Experience has shown that relatively concentrated teaching effort (sufficient hours timetable each week) is better than a little teaching spread over a long period. All other things being equal, relatively intensive teaching programme (several hours a week) is better likely to be more effective than one hour a week spread out over far or give school years.

The second factor which should be borne in mind is that teaching in primary school is, of necessity, not as structured and rigid as in secondary school. The way in which the foreign language is taught will take account of the methods and the pace of primary school cannot be equated with a year in secondary school.

The reason most commonly put forward for starting to teach a foreign language early is the indisputable fact that young children have a greater

facility for understanding and imitating what they hear than adolesents, not to mention adults. They are less distanced from the golden age when they acquired their mother tongue naturally. It seems a reasonable strategy to try to take advantage of such favourable circumstances provided not too may illusions are entertained as to the possibility of bilingualism which, as has been already discussed, is entirely reliant upon exceptional circumstances

Chapter 2

Junior School Teachers Their Methods and Practices

Junior Teachers:

The general aims of early foreign long learning should appear attractive to children, parents, teachers and administrators whilst avoiding being over ambitions and unrealistic. This points, made in the official text accompanying the *1 controlled trails in teaching modern languages in elementary school which began in France in September 1989. It states, for example, that the objective is not " the early training of bilingual children " but, more reasonably, " to prepare children linguistically, psychologically and culturally for long learning (Boen 1989). Neither is it a question of duplicating or mimicking the teaching which the children will receive them to benefit from the latter to the maximum, without wasting time.

Language teachers in primary schools may be of at least two types. The first consists of those who are trained to teach young children and are therefore skilled at determining and meeting their educational needs but are without specialist English - teaching skills. The second type is made up of teachers who are specialists in teaching English but who are less familiar with the educational needs of primary school children. There is now a general belief that it is important that teachers should have skills both these areas.*1 A perfect lang. teacher should planned every lesson and make it interesting with activities, games etc. 1 by using simple English.

Fitting The Syllabus To The Child :

When preparing a syllabus for young beginners. It is important to have a clear idea of what the programme aims to achieve . In the words Howkes, *2 age, cultural context and general educational priorities influence content more than purely linguistic considerations " (Hawkes 1981: 33) ". Many experienced teachers of yang children have been aware for along time that beginners and have supplemented course with their own material which caters more closely for the child's developmental level, needs and interests. On the other hand, programmers which are based entries on the needs and interests

of the child, without any linguistic considerations underlying the syllabus design, tend to be haphazard and less effective than those which have the guidance of a linguistic programme designed for tang beginners.

Planning Lessons :

Children appear to learn more easily when they know what to expect in a lesson and what the teacher expects of them. Apart from making them feel more secure, it gives them confidence. It also enables them to predict situations and the lang. likely to be used in them.

For this reason, teachers often find it helpful to use the some lesson framework for each lesson. This framework is the basis of a routine which is followed in each lesson, the activities being slotted into the framework. After a few lessons children get to know the routine and often feel so 'at home' that they more on to the next stage of a lesson, making the preparations them sales even before the teacher has given any instructions. The security of knowing what comes next enables young children to conceivable on the activity in which they are involved, free from the worry that they will not understand what to do next. The camases of a class that is used to a routine is quite noticeable, especially when compared with a class haphazardly planned with little or no regular routine. Activities have also great significant in early childhood English learning. Within a lesson there

should be a variety of activities. According to the size of the class, activities can be for all the class. boys / girls, groups / pairs / individuals, younger and older, readers / non-reader, writers / non - writers. Teachers should no

expect lang. acquisitions activities to take place spontaneously in the classroom. Activities have to be planned before the lesson to fit with children's developmental needs + interests. It is important that they should lead on from previous activities and should give ample opportunity for repetition and transfer of old and new lang. items. See the following examples of how to plan a senses of activities.

AGE 6 - 8 years

GROUP SIZE 10

BACKGROUND 2 children language 1 = English

*1 (Boen 1989)

*2 (Mawkens 1981: 33)

8 children language 1 = French
SCHOOL   French lang. primary school

Private EFL class outside school hours. The teacher began by revising the names of the colours by showing demonstration cards. Using the same cards she then played what's this (See Donn 1984). The teacher then gone each child a card with a shape outlined on it, which the children were asked to colour on it, which the children were asked to colour red. As each child finished colouring the card, he brought it up to the teacher who asked him 'what's this ? '. The colarit blue. The activity continued until each child had a red, blue, green and brown card. The teacher then divided the children into pairs to play *Matching* or *What's ?* using their own words.

For maximum acquisition the some activity needs to take place at least twice on two different occasions. It seems that the first time on activity takes place, children do not acquire the maximum input. even if they are familiar with a similar type of activity in language. 1,, as they are partially occupied in working out what is going on. The second time the same activity takes place they are already familiar with it and can concentrate more on talking about it. This is very noticeable in handwork activities. Some activities may stretch over several lessons. In these cases lang. input needs to be carefully planned to make sure the children gain the maximum benefit from the activity. Familiar activities give opportunities to revise, consolidate and expand on language items. New activities should after a challenge and require some effort. Without on effort, children have no feeling of satisfaction, but where on activity is too difficult they quickly be interest and feel they have failed. No lesson should consist of more new experiences than familiar ones as this would be too confusing for children who seem to thrive on the security of knowing what to expect next. It is necessary to plan more activities than may be needed in any one lesson, just in case children are not in a mood to work individually at some quieter activity or do not seem in the mood to do one of the planned activities. Teachers will find it useful to record any new ideas for activities or games in a book to which They can refer when looking for new ideas.

About Games : to give practice in all the skills (ready, writing, listening + speaking), in all the stages of the teaching/ learning sequence (presentation, repeating, recombination and free use of long) and for many types of communication (e.g. encouraging, criticising, agreeing, explaining). A game is on activity with rules, a goal and on element of fun. There are two kinds of games : competitive games, in which players or teams race to be the first to reach the goal and co-operative games, in which players or teams work together towards a common goal. The activities we are going to concenstrate on are many of the latter kind, as the competitive element or then need for speed often distorts the long used . Suggestions have, however, been given for introducing a competitive element into certain games, as the teacher may find this useful on occasions. The activities we are going to mention are communicative games, as distend from linguistic gaoler aim. Successful completion of the game will involve the carrying out of a task such as drawing in a route on a map, filing in a chart, or finding two matching pictures, rather than the correct production of a structure. However, in order to carry out this took it will be necessary to use lang. and be careful construction of the task it will be possible to specify in advance exactly what lang. will be required. The emphasis in the games is on successful communication rather than on comectress of lang. Games, therefore, are to be found at the fluency end of the fluency - accuracy spectrum. This raises the question of how and where they should be used in class. Games should be regarded as on integral part of the lang. syllabus, not as on amusing activity for Friday afternoon or for the end of term. They provide, in many cases, as much concentrated practice as a traditional drill and. More importantly, they provide on opportunity for real communication, albert within artificially defined limits, and this constitutive a bridge between the classroom and the world. This suggests that the most useful place for these games is at the free stage of the traditional progression from presentation through practice to free communication, to be used as a culmination of the lesson, as a chance for students to use the lang. they have learnt freely and as a means to an end rather than an end in itself. They can also serves as a diagnostic tool for the teacher, who can rate areas of difficulty and take appropriate remedial action.

Chapter 3

Games in Language Learning

The role of games in the language programme :

Games have an important role in the language programme as the inclusion of games as an in legal part of any language. Syllabus provides an opportunity for intensive language practice, offers a context in which language is used meaningfully and as a means to an end, and acts as a diagnostic tool for the teacher, highlighting areas of difficulty. Last, but certainly no least, one of the most important reasons for using games is simply that they are immensely enjoyable for both teacher and student.

Theories separating work and play

Recreation theory and excess energy theory lead us to think of work and, play as separate activities. This polarisation of work and play has caused great difficult over the last two hundred years.

Recreation theory : This proposes that children should be given a balance between the 'academics' and the 'non-academics' in the curriculum. Play replenishes the energy expended in doing so called academic work, usually perceived as the three Rs (Spodek 1983 p.181, smilansky, 1969 p. 48, Almy etal in Katz, 1984 p.2). It is sometimes used as a reward to children who have 'worked hard' doing things it is imagined they don't like doing. e.g. writing (the 'when you have finished your work, you can play syndrome).

OMEP, the International Organisation for Children, has recently been involved in the setting up of an International Children's Charter. UNICEF (1989), since many children in the world do not experience childhood as a time when they have opportunities to learn and develop appropriately. Tina Bruce mentioned 'The child's right to play' in his book 'Time To Play'. Margaret Roberts (opening speech, 1989, Reford House Nursery Frochbel College, RIHE) makes the distinction between the child's right to recreation and the child's right to play.

There is often confusion between them, and this caused much debate in setting up the charter. Throughout the world, it is common to find play and recreation regarded as one and the same.

In Britain, Joyce Watt (1988) points out that parents are doubtful about the value teachers place on giving children opportunities to play during school time, except as a set play time when they can 'let off steam' and relax. Typically, parents ritualise the start of formal schooling by sending the child off in a uniform and holding a satchel, which preferably contains a reading book. Play is seen as recreation, and surely children are not sent to school for that. Understandably, parents want their children to go to school so that they can learn. This demonstrates that we need to develop shared meanings - simply finding another work for play won't help (Bruce, BPW Conference, 1990).

We know that it is of great importance for children to develop shared meanings as they play together (Göncü, 1987). Adults also need to develop shared meanings about play. At the moment, typically, parents do not want 'play' in infant junior schools except at break time, because that is seen as recreation, and not learning. They are prepared to tolerate it until the child is about four years old because their children meet other children and adults beyond the family circle - However, if it is offered, they tend to leap at the opportunity for a place in an infant class at that age where they hope that 'real work' and little play takes place.

HMI (1988) suggests 62 per cent of four year olds are now in infant classes. Pascal (1990) suggests the figure may be as high as 80 per cent, with the prevailing tendency 'To get them in and get them on' (Cleave and Brown. NFER, 1989 ; Clark, 1988).

Excess energy theory :

This derives from Spencer (1872) and was influenced by the 'letting off steam' concept of industrial machinery. Play is seen as an acceptable way for children to do this, e.g. rough - and - tumble play.

Both recreation theory and excess energy theory lead to 'playtime', as separated from 'worktime'. In contrast the following theories see play as central part of education.

1. *Recapitulation theory:*

This derives from Stanley Hall (1884-1924). Play reflects the culture, and the individual child works through the development of the species, e.g. in play, the child reproduces prehistoric periods of the human race (wandering tribes, hunting, war, the fight for existence, building shelters).

2. *Learning through play-practice theory or preparation theory :*

Gross (1922) believed that play helps children to prepare for adult life by letting them, in a natural way. Practise and explore what they will need to be able to do as adults. More recently, Bruner (1983 p.43) has seen play as 'preparation for the technical and social life that constitutes human culture'. This approach usually leads into what is often called 'guided play', 'structured play' or 'learning the play way'; all of which are adult dominated.

3. *Pleasure play:*

Charlotte Buhler (1937) emphasised the pleasure of playing: [1] 'Activity in itself, that is the pure motor activity involved in merely activating the moving parts of the body, is a source of pleasure, and is in no way dependent upon the anticipated results of this activity'. Although the theories discussed so far are all old theories, they have by no means disappeared, as we have seen. Indeed, the preparation for life theory dominates today.

4. *Affective theories of play:*

The period 1930s - 60s is probably most significant for the development of what may be termed. 'child-centred' theories of play. Piaget (Swiss) wrote Play, Dreams and Imitation in 1945 and this was translated in to English in 1951, but was difficult to understand fully in translation: Vygotsky (Russian) writing on play in the 1930s was not translated into English until 978. Susan

Isaacs, although she met Piaget (Eardener, p.68, 1969) when he visited her school in the 1930s was more in accord with Freud and, later, Melaine Klein. Indeed, it was the psycholdynamic theories which had most influence during this period.

These are child-centred theories, in that children are seen to gain control of their lives and to become integrated people through play. Adults and other children act as catalysts to the play.

a. *Freudian Theories:*

Freud believed play to be a cathartic experience for children. It took them *into and out of reality and helped them to feel mastery and control, so that they* coped with anxieties and conflicts and also reflected on positive experiences. In this way, play interpreted experience and amid the child whole.

Klein believed children could be helped through analysis at a very young age, where as Ama Freud believed it necessary to wait until the oedipal stage (four to six years), which followed the oral (up to two years) and oral stages (two to four years).

b. *Erikson:*

According to Erikson, individuals are always partners with their futures (maier H.,1978. p.132). During the third of Erikson's eight stages of development, the child (four to six years) 'makes life' and he describes this as the 'play age'. Children need to play both alone and with others. Through play they develop initiative, and become equipped to overcome disappointments failures, unfulfilled goals, and to approach life with a sense of increasingly focused purpose.

Janet Atkin (1988) stresses that the 'as if' element is a central hallmark of the play. In his eight stages of development, Erikson gives 'as if' play a prominent place during childhood. He had asked children to construct exciting scenes based on imaginary movies. He was struck by the way the scenes the children created seemed to serve as metaphors for their lives. Their scenes reflected their chief concerns and interests, their goals and fears and their strengths and weaknesses.

*[1] (Charlotte Buhler, (1937).

When he visited the children may years later, he found that their adult lifestyles had been implicit in the themes of their childhood play. (Erikson. 1977). This led him to the view that in a play children deal with experience by creating moded situations through which they master, plan and experiment. Erikson (1963, p.222) writes that the child *2 relives the past and this relives left-over affects. He anticipates the future from the point of view of a connected and shared past. For example, Anthea (nine years) plays with her dolls house. It is lived in by a family, with father and daughter, flora. Through Flora she expresses and deals with her fears of loss of those she loves and depends upon. She demonstrates her determination that she will survive and make a good life.

c.   *Winnicolt :*

In Bruce (1987, p.71-2) winnicott's theory of the importance of the transitional object in the development of play is explored through the example of Ellen. Winnicott believes that through out our lives we can have important relationships with powerful events, hero figures, pieces of music or paintings, which are akin to a transitional object; and play is the means by which we form these relationships. This is because their importance is created by the person and no-one else. They are given sustenance through being owned by us, and merged with what is important to us (1971,p.36). The continuities between early childhood play, fantasy in adolescence and creativity in adult life are stressed by Jerome and Dorothy Singer (1990).

5. *Cognitive development theories:*

The child -centred theories we have looked at so for are affective theories. In these theories, play strategies are important throughout life. Next, we shall look at some cognitive developmental theories, which are also child-centred in their approach but which do not emphasise the importance of play in adult life.

*2 (Erikson 1963, p.222)

a. *Piaget :*

Piaget, like Erikson and Winnicott saw play as the means by which the child unifies experience, knowledge and understanding. Children control these through play, which generally involves using what is already known (assimilation), rather than adjusting to what is know known (accommodation), through the process he calls 'equilibration'.

The balance (the process of equilibration) is always changing, which is why play is a process and rota steady state. It is a state of becoming, rather than a state of being.

Accommodation   assimilation

----

struggle   practice   play   humour   bored

Unlike Erikson and Winnicott or the Singers, Piaget sees play as something that develops into games with rules, rather than regarding play as developing into drama, literature. dance imagination, creative writing, creative painting, research in science etc., throughout adult life. He does not separate the destination between the creative, innovative strand of symbolic play and the prescribed external rules of a game of chess. If he did, he would see plays and games as two different systems, moving in synchrony. Instead, he sees a linear development which suggests the development of the aspects of play into the rule behaviour of games.

Piaget has been criticised for the 'odd cognition' (Shirley Cohen, 1968) of his theory, and his under valuing of the creative arts (Eardner, 1982). However, he made a great contribution by stressing the importance of play for young children and in demonstrating that children are active in their learning, using play to further their development in cognitive, as well as affective ways.

Through the 1930s, to the 1960s, the theories discussed above were major influences. There was considerable consensus from the moc child. Centred cluster of theories stemming from the psycholonalyic theory and cognitive developmental theory that play is "a good thing" both at school, in care settings and at home.

b. *Bruner :*

During the 1960s, the theories of Bruner become widely known to teachers in Great Britain. In 1983, he wrote that the 'increased dominance of play during immutably among great apes and hominoids serves as a preparation for the technical social life that constitutes human culture. Bruner sees language games such as Ride a Cock Horse as part of this, together with games such as peek-a-boo. Play is seen as games with rule formats, which are preparation for life. He believes that mammals have long childhood's, as there is much for them to prepare for in adult life.

Whereas Piages sees free-play plays a developing in to games with rules (e.g. chess), Bruner sees play as games from the start, and so dels not focus free-flow play, except to express in ease about rough-and-tumble play, sand, clay, water, dough play (which is apparently without aim). He sees these free activities as looking intellectual challenge or purpose (Bruner, 1980), because in his terms they are lacking shared rule formats and not conforming to the conventions of behaviour found in the games which prepare children to take their place in society and culture. e.g. peek-a -boo.

c. *Vygosky :*

Although Vygotsky's theories in relation to language and thought were known in Great Britain in the 1960s, his thinking on play, formulated in the 1930s in Russia, was not translated into English until 1978. Whereas Friable expressed play in terms of it being the most spiritual activity of the child, representing the highest phase of child development, Vygotsky (1978) postulates a "zone of potential development" created by play. In this zone, the children, like Froebel's children, operate at their highest level of functioning, beyond their present-day capabilities, so that they become a !head taller' than themselves. He also believes that play lifts children onto another plane of functioning. Adults and other children can be catalysts in the process.

However, like Piaget. Vygotsky (1978,p.95) sees play as developing into games with rules : 'Just as the imaginary situation has to contain rules of behaviour, so every game with rules contains an imaginary situation (e.g. playing shops or the game of chess) like Piaget, he sees the imaginary situations leading finally into games with rules - chess, tennis, fencing, dance performance (rather than innovation or dance choreography, musical

composition, scientific though, or play writing). However like Bruner, he stresses the social relationships essential to this process.

After the age of eight years, Piaget, Vygotsky and Bruner all value games with rules more than they value games without rules. Piaget and Vygotsky put games with rules at the top of a linear, hierarchical development. Bruner favours games with rules from the start, which he sees developing from the baby's peek-a-boo game, and is uneasy about situations with no clear format of rules. e.g. the stand tray or rough-and-tumble play.

6. *Affective or cognitive :*

Susannah Millar (1968) saw play as the opportunity for children to explore the familiar, practise what is already mastered, or be aggressive in a friendly manner, and to be excited about 'nothing' she taught it gave children the possibility of imitating social behaviour in situations where it had been called for. In essence, she brought together the affective and cognitive child-centred theories.

After mentioning that play is a central part of education the topic of conversation turns to the centre of language learning which is game.

Games in language learning ; ⚡ Cule

Language learning is hard work. One must make an effort to understand, to repeat accurately, to manipulate newly understood language and to use the whole range of known language in conversation or within 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 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.

Many games course as much density of practice as more conventional drill exercises; some do not what matters. However, is the quality of practice.

The contribution of drilling lies in the concentration on a language form and its frequent use during a limited period of time. Many games provide this repeated use of a language form. By making the language convey information

and opinion, games provide the key feature of 'drill' with the opportunity to sense the working of language as living communication.

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, challenged, 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 in tense 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.

About Games:

Games can be found to give practice in all the skills (reading,writing, listening and speaking). In all the stages of the teaching, learning sequence, (presentation, repetition, recombination and free use of language) and for many types of communication (e.g. encouraging, criticising, agreeing, explaining).

A game is an activity with rules, a goal and on element of fun.

These are two kinds of games : competitive games, in which players or terms race to be the first to reach the goal and co-operative games, in which players or teams work together towards a common goal. The activities we are going to concentrate on are mainly of the latter kind, as the competitive element or the need for speed often distorts the long used suggestions have, however, been given for introducing a competitive element into certain games, as the teacher may find this useful on occasions.

The activities we are going to mention are combinative games, as distinct from linguistic games : that is, they are activities with a non-linguistic goal or aim. 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 long, and be careful construction of the task it will be possible to specify in advance exactly what language will be required.

The emphasis in the games is on successful communication rather than on correctness of language. Games, therefore, are to be found at the fluency end of the fluency-accuracy spectrum. This raises the question of how and where

they should be used in class. Games should be regarded as on internal part of the language. Syllabus, not as an amusing activity for Friday attention or for the end of term. They provide in many cases, as much concentrated practice as a traditional drill and, more importantly, they provide on opportunity for real communication, Albert within artificially defined limits, and thus constitute a bridge between the classroom and the real world.

This suggests that the most useful place for these games is at the free stage of the traditional progression from presentation through practice to free communication, to be used as a culmination of the lesson, as a chance for students to use the language they have learnt freely and as a means to an end rather than an end in it self. They can also serve as a diagnostic tool for the teacher, who can rate areas of difficulty and take appropriate remedial action.

Why Use Games With Children ?

Games have clear rule formats, and the understanding of and participation in games helps children to become a part of their particular culture, bridging their personal and action - based rule formats with those of their society. Conversations, formal greetings and partings, parliamentary debates, meetings with Royally are all games with rule formats. Games help children to understand rules that are explicitly structured, precisely communicated, and agreed upon. Through a balance of games, they come to understand how to make up rules and how to adhere to rules decided by others. They see the purpose and function of rules. They see that rules can be created, altered, abandoned or kept. They decentre, and look at the situation from different points of view. The reasons why games are used with children can be listed as follows :

1- Children like them

2- Games offer a natural context for communication between children.

3- It is sometimes difficult to persuade children to say anything at all in a foreign language. Games motivate them to speak.

4- Games provide repeated practice with teaching items. This is important for two reasons : a) Children find it difficult to say a complete sentence in a foreign language, and b) they remember sentences better when they have spoken them in an interesting context.

5- Games have on educational value which goes beyond the foreign lang. lesson. They teach children about the nature of co-operation, since they can

not be played at all without it, and they encourage the development of reasoning processes, since they require a great variety of strategies.

When To Use Games ?

Games can be used at almost any time. One important factor is the mood of the class : If they are especially restless for any reason, e.g. on windy or rainy days, they may be more interested in games than in their books. Games can also be used to break up periods of work with books. many teachers will be using a course book to present new language, and then using a workbook or ' activities book ' to practise it. In this case, the obvious order is course book - workbook - game, with games used to break up the workbook, activities. Workbooks often have an accompanying tape of language drills, which pupils sometimes find confusing. If this happens, the teacher may prefer to select one of the items in the workbook, and play a game that individuals it. Games are easier to understand, because they area more natural activity. Games can also be used to present new lang. for example to prepare for the next unit in the course book, with the advantage that the class will understand the course book better. Some teachers like to end a lesson with a game . If there is time . This seems to work well : the lesson gets more interesting at a point where the class are getting tired and losing concentration. Other teachers prefer to use Friday as ' games day '. Finally, some teachers use a course book and workbook selectively. and prefer to spend more time on games and dramatic activities, because they feel pupils learn more from them.

Beginnings :

In order for activities to take place in English, even from the first lesson, the teacher needs to rely heavily on prefabricated language for class organisation. Many activities and games, especially if the same or similar ones have taken place in the language 1 classroom, have predictable lang. which can be picked up quickly. This lang. consists mainly of prefabricated routines. teachers, especially many non - native speaker teachers, are often amounted that lessons can be run using only English. They are equally surprised by the ease and speed with which young beginners can pick up and use quite language and complex phrases and sentences. To be able to run an all. English lesson, teachers need to organise and control activities more carefully than they would in a lang. 1 classroom, so that the children have opportunities to use

and repeat prefabricated lang. with constant repetition of the same routines, children soon acquire the lang. involved and can begin to use it themselves to organise activities or games. To start on activity the teacher can 'set the sense ' by ;

a- reviewing related activities done previously.

b- showing examples of work done by the children on previous occasions.

c- capturing the children's interest by explaining the new activity and showing them related material.

Language For The Organisation Of Games :

If has been believed that the general language which can be used to organise and comment on games is as rich in its potential for learning as the specific lang. of any particular game. Now, we are going to list some of the general lang. which, is useful in organising and commenting on games.

1- General commands, instructions, etc. take your time, work, listen, turned round, one at a time. Are you ready ? etc.

2- Organisation : Have you got every thing ? Have you got some scissors ? Put your hand(s) up ! Come and get it

a- Things required for the lesson .

b- Arrangement of the classroom : Move the desk (s) over there, please Put your bag (s) etc.

c- Grouping of learners

would you sit next to & please ?

You be the group leader ! etc.

a- Organisation of the game

First

Then

Next

Finally

Who wants to try ? etc.

3- Praise, blame and evaluation, Good, very good, well done, o.k., fine, not right etc.

4- Interpersonal exchanges

Can I help you ? All right ? etc.

Every primary school teacher will know how much children enjoy games and music. These activities provide click with home and school life and are after

likely and fun. Their usefulness recognised by their adoption as common lang. learning activities which frequently from an integral part of lang. programmes and published ELT materials for children.

Types of Games :

*'Games are play activities that become institutionalised' (Grave 1979 : 101). They are in fact a format play with rules. The rules which govern a game give it a from with a definite beginning and end. The rules ensure that the play takes more or less the same form each time. The consistency and predictability makes understanding easy for children as they know what is going to happens and what lang. is likely to be used. Young children seem to become absorbed in playing games which are appropriate for their stage of development and liquistic level without realising the meaningful and sometime drill-like repetitive use of lang. that games provide. Playing the some game over again seems to give young children a feeling of satisfaction as well as an opportunity to chance their luck and improve their skills, including linguistic skills. However, not all games are suitable for young beginners and not all games give suitable language experience. Those played with no lang. participation are only time - fillers. Games are most useful if they are integrated with teaching, consolidating the use of lang. items. As vygotslay (1978,101) suggests, '*i play is not the predominant feature of childhood, but it is a leading factor in development and because play is a process in the child, teaching language through games, songs has many advantages as follows ;

1- Variety is added to the range of learning situations

2- The pace of a lesson can be changed, thus maintaining pupils' motivation.

3- More formal teaching can be ' lightened ' , thus renewing pupils' energy.

4- Midden practice of specific lang. patterns, vocabulary and pronunciation can be provided.

5- Listening skills, attention span and concentration are improved.

6- pupils participation is encouraged, there by giving confidence to shy pupils.

7- Pupil- pupil communication is increased, which provides fluency practice and reduces the domination of the class by the teacher.

8- Any distance between teacher and pupils can be reduced by the use of more light-hearted and 'fun' activities.

9- Areas of weakness and the need for further long work can be revealed.

Many games are not appropriate for yang children as they require player participation which is too advanced for their stage of development. It is best to select games which have similar cognitive, physical and emotional levels to the games the children already play in language 1. Ashort visit to a local play ground is a quick way of getting this information. Very young children enjoy co-operative games, for example 'what's the time, Mr. wolf ?', which involve the whole class and allow them to participate as much or a little as they feel able. Games which are based on individual competition to see who wins, or who gets the most cards. Seem to be popular with children about seven years old or older. Children under 7 sometimes find it difficult to lose. However children get more experience in playing games and, especially with older children, they seem to grow to accept winning and losing, provided not too much importance is given to this. For many young children having a turn in a game is more important than who actually wins. Chasing games in which there is a small element of fear excite young children know what to expect before it actually happens. In introducing chasing games it is advisable to explain to chase, without actually doing it the first few times for how this can be done :

AGE 6 TO 7 YEARS

GROUP SIZE 15

BACKGROUND Language 1 = French

SCHOOL French language primary school.

English EFL outside school house.

The teacher introduced a new game in which children skipped around Mr. Bear who was in the middle of the circle pretending to look into a mirror to count his teeth. As they skipped they chanted.

How many teeth have you, Mr. Bear ?

How many teeth have you ?

can you tell me, please ?

the children knew that when Mr. Bear replied, 'One tooth' he would chase them and try to catch them before they reached the 'home'. If Mr. Bear said any other number of teeth. For example 'ten teeth', he would not chase them and they would have to ask him again. As this was the first time they played the game, the 'One tooth' until the third time, and then she let them run home without chasing them. However, the next time she chased them and caught a child who become Mr. Bear.

* (Gravie 1979 : 101)

*₁ (Vygotsty 1978 : 101)

Using English From The Start :

Once children have learned to play a game or a type of game, they can concentrate on using the game lang. Some games fit together with others in a series providing a natural sort of grading, for example, what's this ? levels on to memory Game Memory Game to Snop and Bingo. The game you choose may practise certain word families, specific lang. patterns or skills such as listening or spelling. may also relate to a topic you are working on, such as food and shopping. You will therefore have to decide whether the children need to practise this lang. using a code - control game, or whether they are ready to use a communication game. If the latter, they must be familiar with the key vocabulary and lang. patterns and must be able to ask clarification and so on. Whatever the choice of game, it must then be thoroughly preferred. If written or visual resources are required, these need to be collected or mode before hand. You might have the games stored in envelopes in the classroom, in which case setting up the game is easier if they are labelled and colour - or - shape coded. An example of how you might do this is shown as follows.

Organizing + Starting Games

A - Games to practise lang. items.

adj.	green	Circles Describe it
Vebs.	Red	Yesterday, Afternoon

B- Games to practise writing + spelling

Spelling	Blue	Starts Word Pyramids
Wordbulding	Yellow	Word Ladders

Bear in mind that if may be wise to vary the choice of games so that there is not always a competitive element ; communication games fows on co-operation and are more likely to give every child a chance to have a turn to speak in an unthreatening atmosphere.

Three are many games which fows on speaking tenses ; others fows on listening skills, for example, Simon says. Some games, like Hangman are particularly useful for developing spelling. While consequences is good for practising writing simple sentences. Reading skills are practised in games like Synonym Bingo or Jumbled sayings. Where players match or sequence words. When Organising and managing games, the teacher needs to rely heavilyon prefabricated language, especially lang. routines, in the early stages of learning. As simple games have the same basic beginning and ending and have to be sustained in the same sort of way, the same routines can be used for all games played in the first lesson. Also, since many games have more or less the some form, the same routines can be used for all games of the some type. Thus, once the type of game has been learned, it is relatively easy + quick to teach a second game of the some type. In the first lessons, the some few simple routines are sufficient for organising managing games. These routines can be repeated more frequently than in playing the some game in language 1. Once the routines have been established it is then possible to export and introduce new ones.

Introducing the game ' How many ' ?

Management / Organising Lang.

Frequency of game	Starting	Sustaining	Ending Game	Teachers Lang.	Child Lang.
First time	Sit-down look (pointing to cards)	Yes No (shaking head)	Finished ?	How Many ? one two three	All Mangt. and gone lang.	(Listening) one two three
Second time	Sit-down Are you ready look	Yes, good No	Finished ? count(point to cards three etc.	How many? one, two three,four five	All mangt. and gone lang.	(Listening) one, two three,four five
Third time	Sit-down Are you ready? look to yes your turn X.	Yes Good your turn next quickly	Stop finished? count one, two three etc.	How many? one-ten	All mangt. +gone lang.	Yes counting cards in response teachers question 'How many'
Fourth time	As above no new concentrating on building up interaction				Teacher plays child role a child plays teacher's role other children as above.

with help from the teacher (for example, by asking questions to stimulate replies, like 'How many' ? 'Is it your turn' ?) children begin to develop interpersonal communication. As soon as game children know the routines, they can begin to organise the games, taking the role of the teacher. The teacher should then take the role of a player, interacting with the 'new teacher'

and showing the children how to develop long. (see the following check lists).

Checklist of language for starting a game

stand here	cross your legs
stand behind this line	do like me
makes a circle	follow me
sit down	are you ready ?
let's start	don't look
shut your eyes	count to 5-10
you're the first	you're the last
you start	look everyone

Checklist of language for sustaining game.

my turn, your turn, it's your turn, who's next ? He's next look ! your card, it's your card, take a card, take them, put them back on the table. Another turn, again, try again, show him, show him what to do.

Checklist of language for ending a game

stop, it's time to stop, have you finished ? count the cards, how many cards have you got ?, you're the winner, put the cards away, put the things away. There are two kinds of possible language practice before the game. Which are practice for pupils who know the item and who do not know the item. If the class are already familiar with the item in the language box, they may not need any practice, but it is worth checking that they can say it acceptably. you should ask them to repeat it a few times. However, if the class have no used the items in the language box before, the game should be demonstrated in the normal way but the following points should be checked:

(i) Understanding :

Children do not always understand a language item, even if the teacher uses mime and gesture. If they do not understand, they lend to dislike the language and become increasingly confused in class. Give them a translation of the item, and ask them to give you one.

(ii) Pronunciation:

Children are often good at pronouncing vowels and consonants, but bad at saying complete sentences. Ask the whole class to repeat the item. If they are having difficulty, back-chaining is very effective. Start at the end of a sentence and work back towards the beginning, taking what comes naturally - e.g. a horse-looking at a horse. I'm looking at a horse.

(iii) The Written word:

Children apparently feel the need of the written form of a word, and if they are not given it they often invest it for themselves, usually incorrectly. Write the item on the board as a model where possible, and practice pronunciation as decried above. To give the class a little writing practice, tell them to copy it.

The teacher must ensure that very clear instructions are given before and during the game you will probably do this in the mother tongue. Always try to give a demonstration, using any necessary resources and one or two of the children. If the game requires whole class, groups or pairs this needs to be organised quickly.   All these activities require some flexibility in the constitution of groups and organisation of the classroom. 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 up 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. If it is not possible to arrange the desks in this way, this need not stop you! The traditional arrangement of front-facing desks can easily be adopted to pair work, with people at adjoining desks working together, while small groups can be formed by two people turning their chairs round to face the two people behind them. Whole class activities present a little more of a problem, but often there is a space big enough for students to move around in at the front of the class, or desks can be pushed back to clear a space in the centre.

Games are best set-up, especially at this level, 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 while 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 probaly 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 games and the techniques used, any initial problems cause by infailiarity will quickly disappear. Where more complicated games are played in small groups, it is suggested that teachers hand out a photocopied rules sheet to each group of students.

The first few times a game is played, the teacher organises and manages it totally. As children gain in oral fluency, take it in turns to play the role of the teacher and direct the game. The teacher should then participate in the game as a player, but be ready to offer a word of advice or act as a referee where the occionarises.

Children need to know exactly how to play a game, they
need to know all the rules. When children are not sure what to do, choose can result, particularly in chasing games, or there can be some confusion where by a child thinks he has was, but in actual fact he has broken the rules inadvertently and been accused by the others of creating. This can hurt a child so much that he refuses to play games for some time.

As children used to playing a game, the speed of playing increases and it is more fun. Then it is possible to extend the length of play. However, it is important to stop play before children get tired as they lose interest; the ideal time to stop is when the children still want another turn.

Games need to be fun. Teachers will often find that, a part from sustaining interest in a game, they will also have to add some fun. This may be done by a well- timed hesitation, or by playing a card slowly, making a quess, changing the tone of voice to be my sterious or even by playing the word card on purpose to raise a loud. teachers may also find that where a game is abit slow they have to speed it up by temporarity intervening. If games get a bit too noisy, teachers can encourage children to use loud whispers and if this does not work often the only solution is to more outside to the playground or change the game.

Some young children do not want to participate in games, especially in chasing games. It is better not to insist but to let them watch or help the teacher until they are at the correct stage of 'readiness' for participation.

Discipline troubles generally arise when a child does not understand the gone and can not participle fully. In these cases it is a good idea for the teacher to play with the child for one or two turns. If its is impossible, a child who is good at the game can be asked to help.

In some games children have to drop out- for example, after being caught. There should be some special place in the classroom where children know

they should stand and wait, watching the game until it is finished. Children appear to learn whilst watching. Most children like watching, but some become restless, these children can go back to their places and get on with colouring a picture, reading a book or finishing some work until the game is over. It is important that they have smt. definite to do otherwise discipline problems can arise.

If some children are not getting sufficient opportunity to use English even though they have a turn, teachers can stimulate use of English by asking children a few questions during the game, for example 'How many cards have you?' 'list your turn?'. Where classes are large, children can work in pairs or in small groups rather than as individuals. An alternative where classes are large is for one group to help the teacher whilst the other groups play. in most games a pair or group can be substituted for the individual.

The first time game of a specific type, for example a card game, is introduced, teachers may find it necessary to explain it in language. However, once one of a type of game has been played. It is usually no longer necessary to use language. When introducing another game of the same type.

Many teachers find it better to introduce a game as the situation arises. At the end of the game the teacher can then explain that it was only a 'trail' and that now they are going to start playing properly. To explain all the rules of a game at the beginning without concrete examples is too confusing for young children.

If the game is described as a team conception for the whole class, it may be sufficient to explain how they win points, and who wins the game e.g. you get one point for each correct answer. the first team to get three points is the winner. If the game is more complicated, play it for a short time without scoring, until they understand.

If a game is described as a game for small groups .

1- Sit the class in a circle, if this is possible

2- Divide the class into 3 or 4 groups and appoint a leader in each group. tell the teachers that they can consult other members of their group. (They will probably do this in the mother talk.

3- start to play the game. take part in it yourself. You will be the leader who shuffles and deals the cards) and player 1 (who starts). Play with the leaders of the various groups. Explain the as you play it : again, this will probably have to be done in the mother tongue.

4- When you see that they understand the game, makes sure that they understand how it ends, and tell them to more into groups of 3 or 4 players. An alternative procedure is simply to carry on and finish the game. This has

the disadvantage that individual children in the class will not have much opportunity to participle but some teachers may prefer it, as it lets them keep control of the whole class.

Teachers will find it a good idea to keep their own book of suitable games. Many games are too advanced linguistically for young children but with some adaptation can be made suitable. The most effective games are often those made by a teacher or adapted to fit the needs and local conditions of the children she teachers. Some teachers are hesitant to make their own games because they think their standard of drawing is most classes there are generally one or two children capable of illustrating games cards and keen to show off their skill.

Once children understand how to make cards and games boards. Snakes and ladders and Bingo for example, they should be encouraged to make their own examples of games which they can play with in the lesson. This can also be meaningful and satisfying as a way of practising hard writing.

Oral Games :

Oral games for young beginners can be divided into three groups :

1- *Starting Games :* The type of game played before another game to find a leader or catcher or to decide who will play first.

2- *Phase One Quick Games :* Played in the first phase of the lesson. These games only last a few minutes and are played to consolidate a point or change the atmosphere.

3- *Phase Three Games :* Longer games played in the third phase of a lesson. They can involve more movement, such as running or hiding, or consolidate a long point taught in phases one and two.

It is important that these games have been selected and in some cases adopted for very young beginners implying ages between 7 and 2 years. The task's have been designed in such away that only a very limited knowledge of the language is necessary to complete them. (see appendix figure 12 (b) (c) (d) (e) (f) (g)).

The games make use of a variety of techniques. Variety is important in long teaching, and a succession of games based on the same principles, though exciting and new at first, would soon pall. Techniques used include information gap, guessing, search, matching, exchanging and collecting, combining, and card games, problems and puzzles, role play and simulation techniques.

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 in 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 with holds 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. Players must obtain all or a 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 involves a transfer of information. These games involve matching identical pairs of cards or pictures and may be played as a whole class activity, where everyone must circulate until they find a partner with the same 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 a selection; or as a card game on the 'snop' principle.

Matching-up games are based on a jigsaw principle. Each player in a group has a list of opinions, preferences or possibilities. Only one of these is shared by everyone in the group. Through discussion the group must decide on a common preference, in order to agree on smt such as a dinner date or choice of afternoon activity.

Exchanging and collecting games are based on the 'barket' principles. Players have certain articles or cards which they are willing to exchange for others in order to complete a set. This may be played as whole class activity, where players circulate freely, exchanging cards or players agree to collect a certain set of articles as a group and then exchange articles between groups; or as a card game on the 'rummy' principles.

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 living in the same flat.

All the above activities may include elements of puzzle-solving, role play or simulation.

Puzzle-solving activities occur when participants in the game share or pool information in order to solve a problem or a mystery.

Many games include on element of role-play. Players are given the name and some characteristics of a fictive character. However, these are not role-plays in the true sense, as the role-play element is always subordinate to the game for the purposes of language use. The role-cards in these games do not require the imaginative projection into character that is necessary in a role-play proper. The outcome of a game is 'closed' once cards are distributed it develops in a certain predetermined way, while role-play proper is open-ended and may develop in any number of ways. The concern was to restrict the language necessary for playing the games, so although it is impossible to make use of the full potentialities of role-play at this level, it is still an indispensable element in those games requiring an exchange of personal information, or social interaction.

Simulations - the imitation in the classroom of a total situation, where the classroom becomes a street, a hotel or a supermarket - are allowed a good deal in the book, particularly in those games which practise interaction between the individual and services such as shops, banks, and stations. However, for reason discussed above, these activities are simulation-games rather than true simulations since the outcome is again 'closed': students have a specific task or series of tasks to complete within the context of the simulation.

Why picture cards:

Throughout games picture cards have significance. They focus children's attention, and give language practice a reality which purely verbal activities do no have. Card games are fun. Holding cards seems to be a pleasure in itself, and often settles children down. In countries where there is a strong adult tradition of card games, part of the fun lies in imitating adult mannerisms, such as the way cards are put down on the table. They also have a wide appeal. They are among the most common adult games in real life, and even those children who find must children's games beneath their dignity are usually happy to play them. Normally many useful language games, such as guessing games, e.g. what animal am I thinking of ? can only be played with the whole class, perhaps as team competitions, since the teacher has to be there to check that there is no cheating, and fix the object of the game (e.g. the first team to get three points wins). Simple games of this kind adopt

easily to card games, and the number of cards held, together with the rules and object of the game, provide the necessary framework of control, The games can then be played in pairs or groups. The question 'what animal am I thinking of ? becomes 'what animal am I looking at ? (showing the back of a card), with the advantage that when the card is turned round the guesser sees immediately if he is right. Another factor which shows the importance of picture cards lies in the fact that children between the ages of about 7 and 12 are fascinated by rules, and seem to accept language practice as part of the rules of the game, in much the same way as adults use fixed phrases because 'that is how the game is played'. In consequence, they are not embarrassed to speak English in card games. Finally, the colour coding of the cards reinforces the child's perception of grammatical categories. A child soon learns, for example, that 'There's some ....' and 'There are some ....' are phrases associated with certain colours.

Songs and rhymes are also important for young learners. They are often one of the most popular parts of the lesson, while providing models of correct rhythm, pronunciation and intonation.

The songs and rhymes should be carefully graded so that the children begin with the easiest and gradually move on to more difficult ones. If the songs and rhymes are quite long, begin by teaching the first verse or part only. The rest can be taught later.

Children learn rhymes easily and quickly and they appear to enjoy learning them and reciting them. Rhymes are prefabricated language most are made up of prefabricated phrases; and ones where new works slotted into the same verse or a different verse, are similar to prefabricated routines.

Songs and Rhymes:

Young beginners seem to feel that when they can say a rhyme, they can speak a lot of English quickly rather like an adult and this is smt. that they appear tow want to do Rhymes are a bonus in language learning. Although they should be integrated within a lesson plan, they can be learned in addition to other language items. Rhymes introduce children naturally and effectively to the complete sounds of English as well as to stress and intonation. They are also a way of giving children a complete text with a complete piece of meaning from the very first lesson. Isolated items of language especially if not linked to situations, are often much more difficult for young beginners to understand, use or remember. If rhymes are specially selected, they can be

used to introduce new language or to consolidate. The example in appendix figure 13 * can be used in both these ways (Dunn 1979:10) This illustration is planned to be on educational aid. The children can count the apples and the figures in it. When the children know the rhyme, it can be used:
(*picture illustrations : Beginning English with young children)

a) for teaching other phrases, e.g. one cat, two cats.
b) as a game. Any child who adds the name of an object after saying far, drops out of the game. Language learned in a rhyme can be transferred to other situations in the classroom.

Goodbye everyone,
"   "
"   "

It's time to say goodbye.
In the above rhyme the word 'everyone' can be transferred to add on to prefabricated phrases like 'sit down' which have already been learned. 'it's time to ......' can be transferred to other situations like, 'it's time to go home'. 'It's time to play a game'.
It's useful to begin every lesson with a special rhyme line when children gather round the teacher. If Rhyme Time takes the same form in each lesson, the children know what to expect. Rhyme Time can begin by running through familiar rhymes, rhyme-games and songs. After this 'warming-up' period children are ready to move on to new and unfamiliar material. Learning is undoubtedly helped if the new rhyme is repeated again once or twice, in chorus with the children, when they come together at the end of the lesson just before saying goodbye. A few songs or singing games should be selected for their suitable language content. (see appendix figure 15).
As games are of fundamental importance in the primary language class, they incorporate all the vital factors necessary for teaching young learners:
. the child as a protagonist
. movement
. repetition and consolidation without boredom
. encouragement of emulation
. participation in group activities
. refection of a child's fantasy world
Some of the games listed below have been chosen for beginning English with young children.

Squeak Piggy Squeak

The children sit in a circle with one blind folded child in the middle. The child in the centre is turned around several times so their sense of direction is lost and it becomes impossible for them to remember who is sitting where then the blindfolded child moves around the circle and sits on the lap of one of the children and says: Squeak, piggy, squeak like a pig. The blind folded child must try to guess the name of the other child, and asks questions like Are you X ? receiving the answer. Yes, I am or No, I'm not. The game continues until the name is correctly quested. Then the child whose name has been guessed is blind folded and the game begins again. If preferred, music can be played and the child must stop and sit on the lap of the nearest child every time the music stops. This game can become very noisy. To play a quieter version the blind folded child stands in front of the class with their back towards the class. The teacher then points to another child who comes forward and touches the first. Then the blind folded child says squeak, piggy squeak ! and the game continues as before.

Later when the children know the names of other animals the game can be adapted to use these words:

> Miss snake, hiss !
> Roar lion, roar !
> Screech parrot, screech !
> Sing bird, sing !
> Chatter monkey, chatter !

The Number Guessing Game:

The children play this game within their own groups or as opposing groups. Each child is given a card with a number on it and the other children takes it in turns to try and guess the number. Is it number three ? Yes, it is, nor No it isn't. The child who guesses a number correctly is given a point and the child (or group) with the highest number of points is the winner.

The Colour Guessing Game:

This is played in the same way as the number guessing game but colour card are used instead of number cards.

The object Guessing Game

For this a series of flash cards representing categories of vocabulary (animals, fruit or food) are used, and the game is played as for the other guessing games. If animals are being used the question can be 'Are you a (monkey) ? Yes, I'm or No I'm not. If other vocabulary is used then the question should be Is it (can orange)? Yes, it is, or No it isn't. Award points as in the other games.

Simon Says

Here a leader stands in front of the class and gives commands which are either of the type Simon Says - stand up, or, simply stand up ! If the command is preceded by Simon says then all the other children obey. If the leader does not say Simon says then the children must not move. Any child who moves is eliminated. The game is played until only one child remains. He or she is then the winner and becomes the next leader. A point can be awarded to the winner's group.

One Potato - Two Potatoes

The children play this in pairs. The first child holds out his hand palm downwards and says: one potato ! The second child then puts his hand on top to the other child's hand and says : Two potatoes ! The first child puts his other hand on top and say: Three potatoes ! the second child puts his hand on top and says far ! The first child pulls his first hand out from underneath the other hands and puts it on top and says: Five potatoes ! The game continues until the rhyme has been completed. The objective is to get faster and faster as the game proceeds.
The complete words are as follows:
One potato, two potatoes! Three potatoes ! Four ! Five potatoes ! Six potatoes ! Seven potatoes ! More! This game usually involves a great deal of hibrity and hand slopping !

What's in the Bag ?

The materials necessary for his game are a bag (which must not be transparent) and real objects, plastic models or flash cards representing the objects in question. The teacher first shows a selection of objects but puts only some of them into the bag. The children must not see which ones are included and which are excluded. Then they take turns to ask, Is there (a banana), in the bag? Yes, there is. No there Isn't. For every correct guess a point is awarded.
The game can be played in groups or between opposing groups.

Bring Me

1. Number.

For this game the children are divided into groups. There will usually be five children in each group, but the number may vary according to the number of words to be practised. Each of the give children is given a card with one of the numbers from one to give written on it. The teacher calls out Number Two ! All the children holding number two cards then run to the teacher. The first to arrive is given a point for his/her group.

2. Colours

This played as above but the children are given colour cards and the command is Bring Me (red) !

3. Numbers and Colours

For this game each child in a group is given a number and the whole group is given colour cards which should be put in the middle in such a way as to be easily accessible to all. The teacher now calls out Number threes - bring me red ! All the children who have the 'three cards then pick up the red colour card and run to the teacher. Again the first to arrive is awarded a point for their team.

Should this game cause too much excitement than holding up the card can be substituted for the running.

Objects, foods, fruits, animals and adjectives can also be used as the children progress through the book.

The Animal Game

Each child in a group is given a card representing an animal, which is not shown to the other children. Then the other members of the group (or an opposing group) ask questions in turn: Are you an elephant ? no, I'm not. Are you a seal ? No, I'm not. Are you a penguin ? Yes, I am. If you wish, when the children reply in the affirmative they can imitate the animal they are pretending to be. This same game can also be played with fruit or other categories of vocabulary.

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APPENDIX

LISTEN AND DO

LEVEL Beginners
AGE Young children
PLAYERS All class
TIMING 5 minutes
LOCATION Inside/Outside
MATERIALS None

Aural/Oral
GAME LANGUAGE
Stand up Clap
Jump Dance
Hop Sit down

DESCRIPTION The teacher chooses a child and says, 'Stand up' and the child stands up. The leader continues giving commands until she says, 'Sit down', which ends the turn. If the player makes a mistake and does not carry out an instruction correctly he has to sit down straight away and the game begins with another player.

DEVELOPMENT As oral fluency develops, instructions can be extended to 'Jump three times', 'Hop twice', 'Clap four times'. Instructions can be further extended to 'Stand up quickly'. 'Run to the door'. 'Hop to the window'. 'Come here'. 'Sit down slowly'. When children learn to read, written instructions on flash cards can alternate with oral instructions or replace oral instructions.

Figure 12(b)

TOUCH YOUR NOSE

Quick game

LEVEL Beginners
AGE Young children
PLAYERS Individuals
        in group
TIMING 5 minutes
LOCATION Inside/Outside
MATERIALS None

Aural/Oral
GAME LANGUAGE
Touch your (+ part of face)
Don't touch (+ part of face)

DESCRIPTION   The teacher says 'Touch your nose' and all the players touch their nose with one hand or finger. The teacher then says 'Touch your eye,' and the children touch their eye. The game continues until the teacher says, 'Don't touch your ear.' Any player who moves their hand in the direction of their ear or touches their ear is out of the game. The game continues until all or nearly all the players are out. The game then starts again.

DEVELOPMENT   To include parts of the body. To add 'Touch your right ear,' or 'Don't touch your left leg.'

Figure 12(c)

HOW MANY?

LEVEL Beginners
AGE Young children
PLAYERS Individuals
         in group
TIMING 5 minutes
LOCATION Inside/Outside
MATERIALS Cards with
      Arabic numbers
      and words

Aural/Oral
Recognition of Arabic
numerals or words
GAME LANGUAGE
How many?
One to Ten

DESCRIPTION 15 cards with numbers 1,2 or 3 on one side are placed number side down on a table, mat or floor. The teacher points to one card and says 'How many?' looking at a child. Child replies one, two or three. Teacher turns over the card. If the child has guessed correctly, teacher gives the card to the child. If the child guesses incorrectly, the teacher replaces the card. The teacher then asks another child. The child with the most cards wins.

DEVELOPMENT Cards with numbers 4 and 5 are added, then further cards with numbers up to 10. Cards with written numbers can be introduced gradually to replace Arabic numbers.

REMARK This type of game can be played with cards of pictures of thing and word for example picture of a book and word card 'a book'. The question asked is 'What's this?' The same game can be played with colours with question 'What's this?'

Figure 12(d)

WHERE'S THE MONKEY?

LEVEL Beginners
AGE Young children
PLAYERS All class
TIMING 5-10 minutes
LOCATION Outside/Inside
MATERIALS A soft toy
Children like to
take it in turns
to bring one of
their soft toys
to hide

Aural/Oral
GAME LANGUAGE
Where's the monkey?
Here's the monkey
Here it is

DESCRIPTION Players shut their eyes and count to ten, whilst the teacher hides the toy monkey, or some other soft toy, anywhere in the room or garden. The players then open their eyes and the teacher says, 'Where's the monkey?' The players repeat, 'Where's the monkey?' and run to look for the monkey. The player who finds the monkey holds it up and says, 'Here's the monkey'.
The game begins again with the finder hiding the monkey.
DEVELOPMENT Teacher can ask the children 'Is the monkey on the chair?' 'Is the monkey near the door?' etc. Two toys can be hidden and teacher asks, 'Where are the ....
and the ....?' The finder replies
'Here they are'.

Figure 12(e)

WHAT ARE YOU DOING NOW?

LEVEL Beginners
AGE Young children
PLAYERS All class
TIMING 5-10 minutes
LOCATION Outside/Inside
(space required)
MATERIALS None

Aural/Oral
GAME LANGUAGE
What's he doing?
What's he doing now?
He's dancing/singing etc
Yes, I am/No, I'm not

·DESCRIPTION One player stands in the middle of a circle. The teacher whispers to the player an instruction for example, 'Laugh'. The other players walk round the circle saying,

What's he doing?
What's he doing?
What's he doing now?

whilst the player in the middle mimes the instruction. The player continues whilst the teacher asks someone to guess what he is doing. If the guess is correct, the players exchange places. If the guess is incorrect, the game starts again with the players unchanged.

DEVELOPMENT The teacher gives more complex instructions, for example, 'Eat an ice cream'.

Figure 12(f)

WHAT'S THE TIME MR WOLF?

LEVEL Beginners
AGE Young children
PLAYERS All class
TIMING 5-10 minutes
LOCATION Outside/Inside
(space required)

MATERIALS None

Aural/Oral
GAME LANGUAGE
What's the time, Mr Wolf?
One o'clock
Two o'clock etc
Dinner time

DESCRIPTION Mr Wolf stands in his 'house' at one end of the room. The players, the sheep, stand in their 'house' behind a line, at the other end of the room. The sheep ask Mr Wolf, 'What's the time, Mr Wolf?' and Mr Wolf replies, 'One o'clock'. The sheep walk a little closer to Mr Wolf and again ask the question. Mr Wolf replies, 'Two o'clock.' They again walk a little closer and ask. Mr Wolf replies, 'Three o'clock' The game continues until Mr Wolf replies, 'Dinner time', and chases the sheep back to their 'house'. If he catches any before they reach their house, they stay at Mr Wolf's house for a turn. The teacher changes Mr Wolf as she wishes.

DEVELOPMENT 'Half past' and other meal times like 'breakfast time', 'tea time' can be introduced, but Mr Wolf still chases on 'dinner time'.
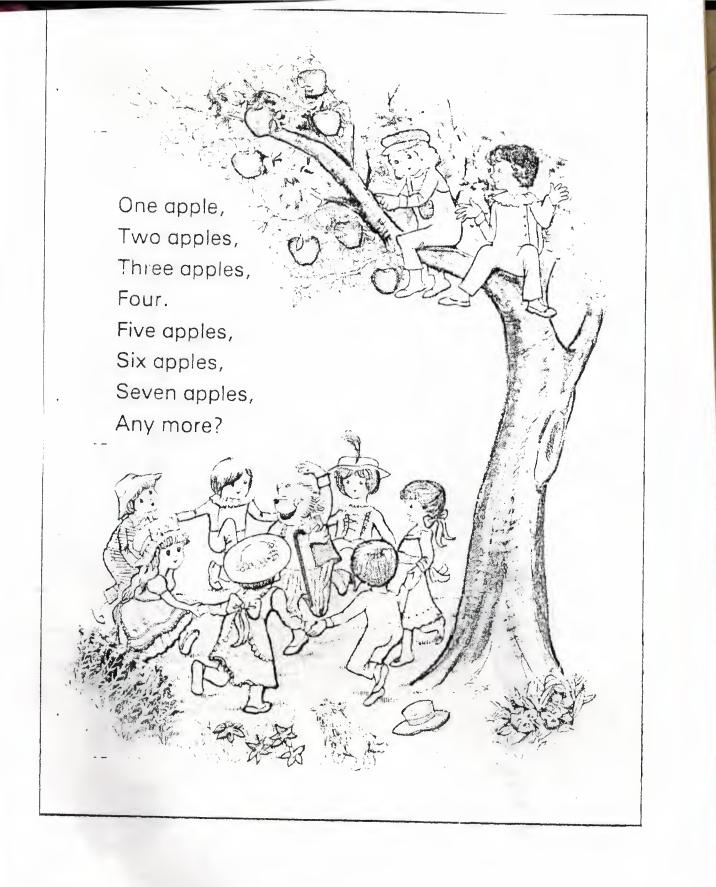
Figure 12(g)

One apple,
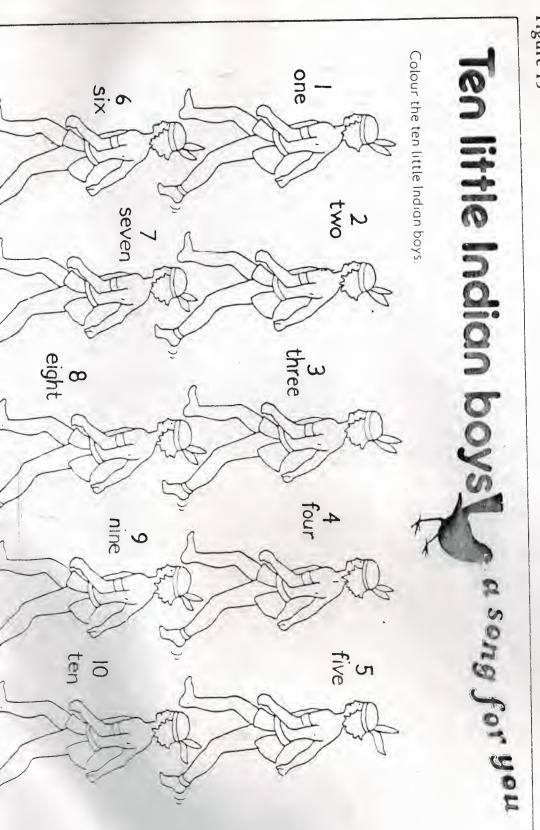Two apples,
Three apples,
Four.
Five apples,
Six apples,
Seven apples,
Any more?

Figure 13

Figure 15

Ten little Indian boys!

Colour the ten little Indian boys.

a song for you

1 one

2 two

3 three

4 four

5 five

6 six

7 seven

8 eight

9 nine

10 ten