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DIDACTIC GAMES AS MOTIVATION TO LEARN ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Diplomová práce

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Prohlašuji, že jsem závěrečnou písemnou práci zpracovala samostatně a použila pouze uvedených pramenů, literatury a elektronických zdrojů.

V Olomouci 26. 4. 2021

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vlastnoruční podpis

Abstract

This diploma thesis deals with the topic of didactic games in the English lessons and their motivational effect. Motivation and learning are introduced in the theoretical part as well as the relation of motivation and foreign language learning, and didactic games and activities with competitive elements. The research focused on the lower secondary school learners' opinions on didactic games in English lessons. In the practical part there are the research results acquired from an online questionnaire presented.

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List of Abbreviations

DG   didactic games

DMC directed motivational current

L2   foreign language

Introduction

I do not remember playing a lot of games in my English lessons when I was in the lower secondary school. However, during my teaching practise I have encountered didactic games in the English lessons and I would like to use this teaching method in my future career as an English teacher. As my experience with this method is rather positive, I have decided to research whether lower secondary school learners enjoy and value it as well.

The research aim of the quantitative research is to find out the learners' opinions on this teaching method. The opinions are compared according to the age, and didactic games and competitions the learners experience in their English lessons are listed. The research questions will be specified in the practical part of the thesis. The research tool was an online questionnaire, which was due to the Covid-19 situation in the Czech Republic the most appropriate tool.

The theoretical part of the diploma thesis focuses on introducing motivation, learning, the characteristic of a lower secondary school learner, the relation of motivation and foreign language learning, and didactic games and activities with competitive elements. The practical part presents the research questions and relating research results which can be valuable both for me as a future English teacher and hopefully other teachers as well.

THEORETICAL PART

1 Motivation

The term motivation emanates from the Latin verb *movere* which means *to move* (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996, p. 4; Beck, 2004, p. 3; Dörnyei in Liontas, 2018, p. 4293). Dörnyei (in Liontas, 2018, p. 4293) mentions the Latin adjective *motivus* as the English word motivation derived through it. This chapter of the thesis offers several authors' view on motivation and its definition.

Pintrich and Schunk's view

Pintrich and Schunk (1996, p. 4) see motivation as something that gets one going, keeps one moving and helps one get a job done. On the contrary, when one cannot get out of bed, he or she is not motivated. The authors define motivation as 'the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained' (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996, p. 4).

Boggiano and Pittman's view

Boggiano and Pittman (1992, p. 2) state that for humans the basic source of motivation is physical need. For example, hunger motivates people to eat. However, when the basic physical needs are satisfied, the motivation stays. In the 1950s, goal-oriented behaviour was researched. Some authors (Berlyne, 1960 in Boggiano and Pittman, 1992) saw curiosity as a source of motivation and some (White, 1959 in Boggiano and Pittman, 1992, p. 2) as 'the desire for effective commerce with and control over the environment'. McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell (in Boggiano and Pittman, 1992) suggested in 1958 that one is moved to action by a need to achieve or to be successful, which was the foundation for the achievement motivation theory.

Logan and Gordon's view

Logan and Gordon (1981, p. 166) offer the definition of motivational factors, which are '*relatively temporary and reversible states that tend to energize or activate the behaviour of organisms*'. More detail to their view of motivation can be found in the chapter 2.2 of this thesis.

Beck's view

Beck (2004, p. 3) gives similar explanation of motivation, he sees it as a broad theoretical concept used to explain why one engages in specific actions at specific times. Returning to the Latin verb movere, motivation concerns human movement, actions, and their determinations. Nevertheless, it is not assumed that the organism is motionless unless supported by a motive. The nervous system is constantly active on its own. However, the fluctuations in the choices that are possible are affected by motivation (Beck, 2004, p. 3).

McClelland's view

The subject matter of motivation is how behaviour gets started, is energised, sustained, directed, and stopped (Jones, 1955 in McClelland, 1987, p. 4). It explains the *why* of a behaviour, as contrasted with the *how* and *what* of behaviour. On one hand, motivation refers to inner thoughts such as *I want to play a piano*. On the other hand, it refers to interferences about such thoughts that one makes from observing behaviours. That is, when one sees a girl opening a piano and starting to play, he/she believes that she wants to play it. And when she stops playing, one believes that she does not want to play it anymore (McClelland, 1987, p. 4).

Dörnyei's view

Dörnyei (in Liontas, 2018, p. 4293; in Beaven, 2009, p. 16) states that motivation is a technical term in psychology designed to answer why people think and behave in the way they do. It deals with direction and magnitude of that behaviour and explains the choice of a specific action (Dörnyei in Liontas, 2018, p. 4293).

Atkinson and Feather's view

The principle of motivation is offered by Atkinson and Feather (1966, p. 13). Mathematically expressed, motivation's strength is a multiplicative function of the strength of the motive, the expectancy, and the incentive: *motivation = f (motive x expectancy x incentive)*. When the motivation to approach and the motivation to avoid are roused at the same time, the resultant motivation is the summation of the approach and the avoidance: *motivation = approach + avoidance*. One's performance corresponds with the strength of a motive. When the only reason for acting is to satisfy the motive, it is the ideal moment to detect the relationship between them (Atkinson and Feather, 1966, pp. 13-14).

1.1 Types of Motivation

This chapter focuses on the various types of motivation. Its structure is based on Boggiano and Pittman (1992), Logan and Gordon (1981), Pintrich and Schunk (1996), and Beck's (2004) classifications.

1.1.1 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

People engage in activities for two different reasons. One is to satisfy curiosity or to achieve effectance and control. These kinds of activities are regarded as ends themselves and constitute an individual's intrinsically motivated behaviour. The second reason is to get reward or recognition. These activities are seen as means to an end and are individual's extrinsically motivated behaviours. A shift in an individual's motivational orientation, from intrinsic to extrinsic because of a given reward, is called the overjustification effect (Boggiano and Pittman, 1992, p. 3). According to Dörnyei (in Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Snow, 2014, p. 520), it was Noels in 2001 who adapted the self-determination theory to language learning context and highlighted the two dimensions – intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Boggiano and Pittman (1992, p. 39) further indicate that even the interactions between people can be seen from the point of view of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientation. In friendships or romantic relationships, rewards are part of the interaction itself, which means that they are intrinsically motivating. On the other hand, in job interviews or sales transactions, the rewards mediate the interactions but are not inherent. In these extrinsically motivating interactions, there is the main focus on the reward. The authors suggest that most of the people's interactions can be approached with either an intrinsic or extrinsic motivation (Boggiano and Pittman, 1992, p. 39). Furthermore, they (p. 51) state that the overjustification effect may affect human interactions as well. Apparently, children who are offered external rewards tend to lose interest to continue interaction with a partner after those rewards are no longer given (Boggiano and Pittman, 1992, p. 51).

Chapter 3 of this thesis offers more detail to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation related to education according to Zhang, Lin, Zhang, and Choi (2017).

1.1.2 Drive and Incentive Motivation

Logan and Gordon (1981, p. 172) differentiate between two sources of motivation which are equally important. They are drive motivation and incentive motivation. What drives an organism to do something, is an internal source of psychological energy called drive motivation. Usually, these drives come from biological needs and people are forced to reduce the drives.

When the organism expects a reward for making a particular response, the motivation is incentive. Although the terms *goal* and *incentive* are commonly intermingled in the everyday language, it is crucial to understand that incentive motivation is the force pulling an individual towards a goal, not the goal itself (Logan and Gordon, 1981, p. 172). The words *want* and *expect* refer respectively to the drive and incentive motivation (Logan and Gordon, 1981, p. 173).

It may be difficult to differentiate between drive and incentive motivation in everyday life, however, it is essential. Learning, more specifically a learner who is unmotivated to learn, may serve as an example. There are two options of why one is unmotivated to do so. Drive motivation is first, the learner does not want to learn and/or is not interested in that subject. Whereas, incentive motivation is the second option, the learner does want to learn but in unable to do so because of the used teaching program. When drive motivation is low, giving rewards or threats can help. However, when incentive motivation is low, rewards or threats could worsen the situation. A better program would be the only solution (Logan and Gordon, 1981, p. 173).

Anselme and Robinson (2018, p. 164) argue that there are two types of interpretations of incentive motivation. The first one comes from the drive theory (Hull, 1943; Spence, 1956) and was described above. The modern one was introduced by Bolles, Bindra, and Toates in the 1970s and 1980s. Anselme and Robinson (2018, p. 164) describe incentive motivation as a psychological process which 'transforms the 'cold' memory of stimuli into appetizing incentives or (rewards)'. It is accountable for the attraction towards rewards, also referred to as wanting. Moreover, motivation originates in pleasure anticipation, not in the drive induction (Anselme and Robinson, 2018, p. 164).

1.1.3 Primary and Secondary Motivation

Primary motivation refers to motivational disposition which are yet to be learned. They prompt the organism with no previous experience. The main dispositions are pain, hunger, thirst, and sex. From the point of view of learning, breathing, and eliminating wastes from the body are less important primary dispositions. For example, pain stimulates organism to act as the drive coming from pain leads to unlearned reflexes or automatic responses (Logan and Gordon, 1981, p. 179).

On the other hand, there are situations when drives do not come naturally from stimuli but are learned. These drives are called secondary, hence secondary motivation. It is essential to state that the name secondary does not imply that these drives are less important than primary ones, on the contrary. In the contemporary society where food is easily accessible, an individual is

more likely to attend an event with food served because of a fear of loneliness than because of hunger. Besides the fear of loneliness, frustration, and the need to avoid failure are good examples of secondary drives (Logan and Gordon, 1981, p. 198).

Sutter et al. (2018, p. 16) agree that when one shows indifference between choices, primary motivation is no longer relevant, but the secondary motivation is. Studium psychologie (2020) divides motives into primary and secondary as well. The primary motives are physiological needs, such as for oxygen. The secondary motives are signs of the cerebral activity (Studium psychologie, 2020).

1.1.4 Biological Needs and Psychological Drives

Biological needs represent the conditions which organisms need for survival. They are, for example, the need to eat food, drink, eliminate wastes, and breathe. Most biological needs activate psychological drives which force the organism to react. For example, the need for food creates the drive of hunger which forces the organism to look for food. There are some biological needs which do not activate any psychological needs, for example the need for oxygen is different from the need to breathe. The need for oxygen does not activate any psychological drive when an individual is breathing nontoxic air, even with no oxygen in it. Similarly, there are some psychological drives which do not come from any biological need. It is, for example, curiosity. Curiosity on its own motivates an individual to act. Therefore, it is crucial to differentiate between biological needs and psychological drives (Logan and Gordon, 1981, pp. 167-168).

Sosteric (2019) includes biological needs in his Seven Essential Needs system based on the Maslow's motivational theory, the hierarchy of needs (1943). The Seven Essential Needs classification includes physiological (=biological) needs, safety and stability needs, love and belonging needs, truth and understanding needs, esteem and power, alignment with self, and connection with the highest self (Sosteric, 2019).

1.1.5 Social Motivation

Motivation affects the behaviour of individuals and because of their interactions the whole society. Therefore, social motivation is introduced. Pintrich and Schunk (1996, p. 187) present social facilitation, social loafing, group motivation, conformity, and compliance. They are discussed in the following paragraphs.

One's behaviour can be affected by the presence of others; the positive influence is called social facilitation. This behaviour can be motivated when others perform the same action or when

others watch the one performing it. These effects are called coaction effect and audience effect, respectively. There is one condition, the presence of others motivates an individual only when his/her responses to arousal are dominant and well learned. When the response learning is still happening, the presence of others could harm it. Social facilitation is the motivation for social approval (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996, pp. 187-188).

On the other hand, the presence of others can have negative influence on the performance of an individual. Some have a higher standard of performance when working alone that in a group. This is called social loafing, it is very important to consider this in education as groups are common in schools (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996, pp. 188-189).

The same principles are applied to both group and individual motivation. The factors optimizing the group motivation are: 'having a goal to attain; feeling efficacious about performing well; holding positive outcome expectations; attributing success to such factors as ability, effort, and strategy use; and receiving feedback indicating goal progress' (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996, p.189). The difference between group and individual motivation is how the work is divided between the learners in a group and how they are rewarded for its completion. The term cooperative learning is used when two or more learners work on a task together. Task specialization and group study are two types of task structures used in cooperative learning. When each learner of the group has his/her own part that he/she is responsible for, it is the task specialization. On the other hand, when the learners work together on the whole task and do not have parts separated, it is the group study. Rewards may be given for the overall group work or for the individual's performance (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996, pp. 189-190).

Slavin (in Pintrich and Schunk, 1996, p. 190) researched the group motivation and pointed out the following:

- cooperative learning is usually effective, and learners often work better in groups than alone,
- an incentive structure should be in effect; in case of its absence, the group study can result in lower motivation or learning compared with working alone,
- individual accountability is a necessity; best efforts of each learner must be a priority for the group's success and the contribution of each learner must be identifiable,
- cooperative structures should increase helping and encouraging one learner another to work (Slavin in Pintrich and Schunk, 1996, p. 190).

Dörnyei's findings (in Celce-Murcia et al., 2014; in Liontas, 2018) on group motivation will be presented in the chapter 3.4 of this thesis.

Conformity and compliance are sometimes used interchangeably with the meaning of obedience, however, Pintrich and Schunk (1996, p. 192) state that there is a difference between the two. Conformity means that members consciously obey according to a group's norms while the status of members is equal. Asch in 1955 and 1958 examined the behaviour of group members. He showed an example line to the group and then three other lines (two different and one the same as the example), then he asked the group to point at the line which is the same as the example line. When the majority of the group pointed at a wrong line, individuals tended to do the same (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996, pp. 192-193).

In the case of compliance, there is a difference in the members' status and the one with greater power influences the behaviour of others. In 1963, there was a famous experiment realized by Milgram. He appointed learners and teachers when only the teachers were subjects of the experiments. He told them to ask the learners questions and when their answer is wrong the teachers should give them electric shocks, with every wrong answer increasing its power. The experiment was safe, and the shocks were pretended, however, it showed that people have tendencies to act as the authority wishes (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996, pp. 192-194).

1.1.6 Regulatory and Purposive Approach

There are two approaches to motivation. The regulatory approach is based on homeostasis; the body's responses to internal forces, for example hunger or pain, and how the body restores internal equilibrium. The sequence of a biologically adaptive act is the internal need, then drive, then activity, then goal, and then inaction. In other words, the need of food drives the organism to find the food, when the goal is achieved, the organism can rest (Beck, 2004, p. 25).

The base of the purposive approach is a goal-directed behaviour. It is not as concerned with the physiology of regulation as the regulatory approach; its orientation is on the future. It deals with the choices, for example, which person is a more fitting choice as a future husband/wife for an individual. The individual thinks of the potential outcomes of the options and then chooses the option which could have the best result. In this approach, internal need and drive are unnecessary (Beck, 2004, pp. 25-26).

2 Learning

After the introduction of motivation in the previous chapter, this chapter focuses on introducing learning. Learning is not easy to define because one cannot see it isolated, one can study it through behaviour study. Although Logan and Gordon (1981, pp. 4-5) admit that, they also offer the following definition of learning: '*Learning is a relatively permanent process resulting from experience with some task and reflected in a change in performance under appropriate circumstances.*' The word *process* in this definition suggests a change as the organism is changed after the process of learning. One must practice a task or at least observe it, to which the phrase *experience with some task* refers. The *change in performance* refers to a decreasing or increasing occurrence of a learned behaviour. For a behaviour to be learned, it must be permanent or at least occur for a (not too short) period of time (Logan and Gordon, 1981, pp. 4-5).

Pintrich and Schunk (1996, p. 163) describe enactive and vicarious learning. A learner's learning is enactive when he/she performs and experiences the actions. The learning is vicarious when one observes live or symbolic models but does not perform the action him/herself. This quickens the process of learning as it is not always necessary to try and perform it. However, complex learning is usually both enactive and vicarious (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996, p. 163). Cooperative learning was dealt with in the chapter 1.1.5.

The term learning is extensive. Therefore, a basic terminology is explained in this chapter. For the purposes of this thesis, the terms foreign and English language learning are important. As the official language in the Czech Republic is Czech, English is a foreign language for the Czechs and is taught in schools as a *Foreign Language* or *Another Foreign Language* (Rámcový vzdělávací program pro základní vzdělávání, 2021, p. 16). Šebesta (2014, p. 20) explains foreign language as a language which is neither the mother tongue for a particular group of people nor another official language. Foreign languages are usually taught to enable the communication with foreigners (Šebesta, 2014, p. 20). Foreign language learning also enables learners to perceive the differences in the way of life of foreigners and their culture. It helps to deepen the knowledge of the importance of international understanding and tolerance. *Foreign Language* is taught in primary schools which are divided into two periods and in lower secondary schools where there is only one period. *Another Foreign Language* is taught in lower secondary schools (Rámcový vzdělávací program pro základní vzdělávání, 2021, pp. 16-17, 25-29). The usual foreign languages taught in the Czech lower secondary schools are English,

German, French, Spanish and Russian (Základní škola Ostrava, 2021; Základní škola, Brno, Novolíšeňská 10, 2016).

Mother tongue or a native language is a language acquired by a child in the early childhood because it is used in the family. A native speaker is someone who speaks the language fluently, preferably, and grammatically correctly. Usually, it is the first language as well, therefore, the terms are sometimes interchangeable. The first language is the first language that a child acquires. In some cases, it can be a different language then the native one – for instance, when the person taking care of a child speaks a different language (Šebesta, 2014, pp. 64, 69).

Second language is another important term to be explained. In a broader conception it is any language learned after the native or first one. However, in relation to foreign language there is a difference between them. The second language is, for example, English to Hispanic people in the USA as they need it in everyday life. The second language is a language of great importance to people but is neither their native one nor foreign one. Language transfer is the influence of one language on another. Mother tongue usually influences the learning process of foreign language, but a foreign language can influence the learning process of another foreign language as well (Šebesta, 2014, pp. 26, 40-41). Choděra (2013, pp. 58-59) differentiates language acquisition and language learning according to Krashen (1981). Acquisition is unconscious and people usually acquire first language. Learning is conscious and a foreign language is learned usually (Choděra, 2013, pp. 58-59).

The term foreign language will be used further in this thesis as well as English language. For the theoretical part it is not necessary to differentiate English from other foreign languages.

As the pandemic situation due to Covid-19 in the Czech Republic in spring 2021 does not allow the school to be opened and the education is online, it is appropriate to introduce the online learning and its advantages and disadvantages. Online learning or distant learning means that the learners learn from home through computers with internet connection. Gautam (2020) offers five advantages and five disadvantages of online learning. She presents efficiency, accessibility of time and place, affordability, improved student attendance, and suiting to variety of learning styles as the advantages. Different tools such as videos, PDFs, or podcasts can enrich the lessons and make them more efficient. A learner can attend the lessons from any place he/she chooses and when the lessons are recorded at any time he/she chooses. When the learner stays at home, the expenses on the transportation to school or meals in schools are reduced. The attendance should be improved as the online lessons can be attended from any desired place with the

internet connection. According to Gautam, the online learning can be easily personalised to each learner's needs (2020).

On the other hand, inability to focus on screen, technology issues, sense of isolation, teacher training, or managed screen time are seen as disadvantages of the online learning. Learners can be easily distracted by social media or have trouble focusing on the computer screen for a long time. A weak internet connection has devastating effect on the online lessons. As there are no physical interaction between the learners, they can feel isolated sometimes. The teachers need to be trained to use the online school platforms and sometimes the parents do not want their children to sit in front of a computer for a long time (Gautam, 2020). Pappas (2015) adds the requirement of self-discipline and lack of teacher's control as disadvantages of online learning. The teacher cannot see if the learners do what they are supposed to do or if they pay proper attention (Pappas, 2015). According to Fox (2020), distant education is not efficient for the development of communication skills and there is lack of the practical knowledge.

2.1 Lower Secondary School Learner

This chapter focuses on a brief characteristic of a lower secondary school learner and his/her typical development. The age of a lower secondary school learner in the Czech Republic is usually 11-15. Langmeier and Krejčířová (2006, p. 143) classify this age period as a period of pubescence and partially adolescence. The period of pubescence has two phases – prepuberty and puberty. Girls' prepuberty lasts from 11-13, boys' physical development is one or two years belated. Puberty usually lasts from 13-15. Adolescence starts at the age of 15. The difference between the 11 years old child and the 15 years old adolescent is vast (Langmeier and Krejčířová, 2006, p. 143). Sobotková (2014, p. 76) offers another classification of this age – early adolescence from 10-13 years, middle adolescence from 14-16 and late adolescence from 17-20.

For the description of cognitive development, Piaget's theory of cognitive development from the 1950s is still relevant nowadays. There are four stages of cognitive development – sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete operational, formal operational. A lower secondary school learner belongs to two of them. At the stage of concrete operations (age 7-12) learners can think logically about concrete events but cannot think abstractly. They are able to do so at the stage of formal operations from the age of 12 (Sobotková, 2014, pp. 85, 87).

Lower secondary school learners experience numerous changes, for example, physical, emotional, their role in the family and among their peers changes. Emotional instability is

typical (Sobotková, 2014, pp. 85, 87), the vocabulary and the complexity of sentences grows at this age. The lower secondary school learners can work with abstract and general terms; find more than one solution to a problem, find alternatives; create assumptions that are not based on the reality and compare the two; and think about thinking (Langmeier and Krejčířová, 2006, pp. 148-151).

A few changes come with the transition from primary to lower secondary school. They are both quantitative and qualitative as there is both more to learn and it is more difficult. The collective of learners changes as some learners leave for gymnasiums (in this case a combination of lower and upper secondary school) and some come from smaller primary schools. There is no longer one main teacher but a specialist for each subject. The learner needs to be more independent, and it is usual that individuals stand against parental and pedagogical authorities at this age (Fakultní Základní Škola Olomouc, Tererovo náměstí 1, 2021).

Sobotková (2014, p. 97) presents Havighurst's developmental tasks to fulfil in adolescence:

- To achieve new and more mature relationships with peers of both sexes – their evaluation and opinion is valuable,
- To achieve male and female social roles,
- To accept one's physique,
- To achieve emotional independence from parents and other adults,
- To prepare for marriage and family life,
- To prepare for economic independence,
- To accept moral and etic values of the society,
- To achieve socially responsible behaviour (Sobotková, 2014, p. 97).

Schaffer (2002, p. 371) offers important milestones in a learner's language development. From the age of six through adolescence:

- learner's pronunciation becomes adultlike,
- the vocabulary expands dramatically, learners start to use abstract words in adolescence,
- semantic integrations appear and refine,
- morphological knowledge is acquired,
- learners correct their earlier grammatical errors,
- complex syntactic rules are acquired,

- learner's referential communication improves, he/she is able to detect and repair uninformative messages sent or received,

- metalinguistic awareness burgeons with age (Schaffer, 2002, p. 371).

Although the language developmental milestones are related to the first language, it affects L2 learning as well. Schaffer (2002, p. 374) adds that learners learn subtle exceptions to grammatical rules at the age of the lower secondary school.

There are 4 grades in the lower secondary school in the Czech Republic – sixth, seventh, eighth, and nineth. The learners are addressed as sixth grade learners or learners in the sixth grade for the purposes of this thesis. Addressing of the learners of the remaining grades follow the same pattern.

2.2 Learning and Motivation

Learning and motivation work together; it is essential to both differentiate between the two and see how they influence each other. Logan and Gordon (1981, p. 166) say that when one asks *why* someone did something, it is about the motivation. On the other hand, when one asks *how* someone did something, he/she asks about learning. The authors further explain that one is excited that someone has learned to do that something which he/she cannot do him/herself, therefore asks how. Whereas, in the case of motivation, the knowledge of how is not sufficient (Logan and Gordon, 1981, p. 166).

Motivation influences learning and performance; social cognitive theory sees an important difference between learning and a performance of previously learned actions. At the time of the learning process, acquired knowledge or skills may not be shown. Individuals need to be motivated in order to show them. They show the learned knowledge or skills when they feel the situation is appropriate (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996, pp. 162-163). Bandura (1986, p. 51 in Pintrich and Schunk, 1996, p. 163) defines learning according to social cognitive theory as 'an information-processing activity in which information about the structure of behavior and about environmental events is transformed into symbolic representations that serve as guides for action'. The term motivated learning refers to motivation to obtain skills and strategies, not to perform a task (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996, p. 177).

3 Motivation and Foreign Language Learning

The previous chapters dealt with the themes of motivation and learning separately. This chapter describes motivation in relation to learning a foreign language (henceforth L2). The reader can read this chapter with the knowledge that for the purposes of this thesis, English is the L2.

Zoltán Dörnyei defines motivation, in relation with L2 learning, as a term used by both teachers and learners when discussing success and failure in language learning. Motivation firstly initiates L2 learning, then provides the driving force to sustain the long process of learning. Without it, no individual is able to achieve the long-term goals (2001, p. 2; in Beaven, 2009, p. 16; in Celce-Muria et al., 2014, p. 518; in Liontas, 2018, p. 4293). As Dörnyei (2001, p. 2) puts it, motivation corresponds with conative functions, that is, what one wants or desires. Cognitive and affective functions mean what one rationally thinks and feels and are not of as importance for motivation (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 2).

Ushioda, in her chapter Motivation, autonomy and metacognition (in Lasagabaster, Doiz and Sierra, 2014, pp. 31-32), sees motivation as the reasons why one learns a language, and how far he/she persists and succeeds in the effort. The author further states that what is important for initial engagement in L2 learning, are reasons and goals. For sustaining motivation, it is the short-term targets, efforts, persistence, and self-regulation. These factors secure long-term success in L2 learning as well (Ushioda in Lasagabaster et al., 2014, pp. 31-32).

Zhang et al. (2017, p. 59) mention Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory which defines motivation as 'the degree of autonomy that individuals exhibit during learning activity' and divides it into intrinsic and extrinsic. Vallerand (1992 in Zhang et al., 2017, p. 59) classifies intrinsic motivation in L2 learning as follows:

- Intrinsic motivation-knowledge – exploring and/or understanding information is the source of the learner's satisfaction,
- Intrinsic motivation-accomplishment – specific learning goals' achievement,
- Intrinsic motivation-stimulation – sensations coming from learning activities, including mental buzz (Vallerand, 1992 in Zhang et al., 2017, p. 59).

Deci and Ryan (1985 in Zhang et al., 2017, p. 59) classify extrinsic motivation in L2 learning as follows:

- External regulation – the least autonomous form; learning is regulated through external rewards and punishments,

- Introjected regulation – the autonomy is moderate; the learner has learning behaviours partially internalized, however, neither truly nor fully self-determined,
- Identified regulation – the internalisation; the learner identifies with the importance and value of the task (Deci and Ryan, 1985 in Zhang et al., 2017, p. 59).

Teacher motivation is not as widely discussed as learner motivation, although it surely affects classroom motivational environment. The teacher is the leader of classroom activities and his/her own enthusiasm and desire can affect the learners' motivation hugely. As motivation is highly contagious, there is the assumption that if the teacher is motivated, the learners are likely to follow. Teachers' natural aptitude for teaching and communication is advantageous but motivational skills can be learned in a training program (Dörnyei in Liontas, 2018, pp. 4293-4294).

Dörnyei (in Beaven, 2009, pp. 16-17) describes three periods of L2 motivational research. First, the social psychological period lasting from 1959 to 1990. The most characteristic personality of this period is Robert Gardner; the important concepts from it are integrative and instrumental orientation (the desire to learn L2 because of a community and concrete profits of the language proficiency). Second, the cognitive-situated period in the 1990s. The important concepts from this period are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, attributions, self-confidence and efficacy, and situation-specific motives connected to learning environment. Third, the new approaches in the beginning of the 21st century. The important concepts coming from this period are process-oriented conceptualisation of motivation, motivation as investment, and the L2 motivational self-system (Dörnyei in Beaven, 2009, pp. 16-17).

3.1 L2 Motivational Self-System

Zoltán Dörnyei introduced his L2 Motivational Self-System in 2005. It is based on the fact that L2 is more than a communication code which one can learn as other subjects, and that it is a part of one's personal core. This approach links the human self with human action, it sees motivation from a whole-person perspective. Possible selves carry in themselves how a learner imagines him/herself in the future which energises his/her present learning behaviour. The possible selves symbolise what a learner might or would like to become or what he/she is afraid of becoming. It is crucial to highlight that they are not only long-term goals as they involve images and senses. A learner can see and hear clearly his/her possible future self if it is well developed. The possible selves are like dreams and visions (Dörnyei in Beaven, 2009, p. 17; Dörnyei in Liontas, 2018, pp. 4294-4295).

As Dörnyei (in Beaven, 2009, pp. 17-18; in Celce-Murcia et al., 2014, p. 521; in Liontas, 2018, p. 4295) states, there are three parts of the L2 Motivational Self-System:

- Ideal L2 self – what one would like to be in the future; as one desires to lower the difference between the actual and ideal self, it serves as a motivator or a self-guide to learn L2 when the person one would like to become speaks the L2,
- Ought-to L2 self – what one holds that are the qualities one ought to possess in order to circumvent possible negative circumstances; there may be similarities with what one wishes,
- L2 learning experience – real, present state of the learner; situation-specific motives associated with the current learning environment such as teacher's impact, curriculum, peer group, and success experience (Dörnyei in Beaven, 2009, pp. 17-18; Dörnyei in Celce-Murcia et al., 2014, p. 521; Dörnyei in Liontas, 2018, p. 4295).

The motivating factor of the ideal and ought-to selves is not automatic. They provide incentive, direction, and impetus only if and when certain conditions are met. The conditions are the following: The learner must have an elaborated and vivid future self-image which is different from the current one and is plausible and congenial to the learner's social environment. The future self-image must be regularly activated and accompanied by such procedural strategies that lead the learner towards the goal. The learner must be aware of the negative consequences of not achieving the future self and must believe that he/she must endeavour to reach it, that is, it does not happen automatically (Dörnyei in Beaven, 2009, p. 18; Dörnyei in Celce-Murcia et al., 2014, p. 522).

3.2 Language Learning Vision

Following the L2 motivational self-system, language learning vision must be introduced as the two correspond with each other closely. An effectual manner to motivate learners is to create an attractive vision of their ideal L2 self in them. It is essential to increase the elaborateness and vividness of the ideal L2 self in order to promote the learners' motivation (Dörnyei in Beaven, 2009, p. 19).

The L2 motivational self-system indicates that there are practical motivational techniques to raise learners' motivation classified into two categories. First, techniques concerning the learner's vision, second, concerning the improvement of the learning experience. The second category can be subdivided into two subcategories concerning individual learner and learner group (Dörnyei in Celce-Murcia et al., 2014, p. 525). However, Dörnyei later put the three

categories on the same level – techniques concerning learner's vision, individual learning experience and group experience (in Liontas, 2018, p. 4295).

The learner's future vision serves as a self-guide and motivates the learner, but it is not automatic. Dörnyei (in Beaven, 2009, pp. 19-20; in Celce-Murcia et al., 2014, pp. 525-526; in Liontas, 2018, p. 4296) describes six components or parts of the motivational effect of the vision. First, *Creating the vision* – It is the first step in the motivational intervention. Teacher helps the learner to construct his/her ideal L2 self, however, it cannot be constructed out of nothing. The process should raise awareness about and include guided selection from multiple aspirations, dreams and desires from the learner's past and strong role models should be presented (Dörnyei in Beaven, 2009, p. 19; Dörnyei in Celce-Murcia et al., 2014, p. 525; Dörnyei in Liontas, 2018, p. 4296).

Strengthening the vision – A simple existence of a vision is not enough, in order to act as a motivator, it must be of adequate elaborateness and vividness. The teacher helps the learner to see his/her ideal L2 self with more clarity and later resolution for action. For that, different methods of imagery enhancement have been researched and techniques such as creative and guided imagery or visualisation are being used (Dörnyei in Beaven, 2009, p. 19; Dörnyei in Celce-Murcia et al., 2014, p. 525; Dörnyei in Liontas, 2018, p. 4296).

Substantiating the vision – The possible L2 selves can be effective only when the learners see them as plausible, possible. Effectual visions consist of imagination and reality; thus, the learners must have realistic expectations. This phase contains honest, down-to-earth reality checks and a consideration of possible obstacles or difficulties. The teacher can invite successful role models for the learners to see that although difficult it is feasible to achieve the ideal L2 self (Dörnyei in Beaven, 2009, p. 20; Dörnyei in Celce-Murcia et al., 2014, p. 525; Dörnyei in Liontas, 2018, p. 4296).

Operationalizing the vision/Transforming the vision into action – There needs to be an action plan. The ideal L2 self must consist an imagery component and a collection of suitable plans and strategies serving as a pathway leading toward the future self. An effectual action plan consists of goal setting part and an individualised study plan or instructions. This is where L2 motivation meets the language teaching methodology (Dörnyei in Beaven, 2009, p. 20; Dörnyei in Celce-Murcia et al., 2014, p. 525; Dörnyei in Liontas, 2018, p. 4296).

Keeping the vision alive – It is important to activate and reactivate the ideal L2 self from time to time, so it does not vanish. Classroom activities such as warmers and ice-brakers can serve

as effectual manners to keep the vision alive. Watching a film, listening to music or engaging in a cultural event can be powerful reminders of the ideal L2 self. Usually, good teachers do not have problems with helping learners to keep the vision alive as they have natural talent for it. They motivate the devotees to carry on and others to think (Dörnyei in Beaven, 2009, p. 20; Dörnyei in Celce-Murcia et al., 2014, p. 525; Dörnyei in Liontas, 2018, p. 4296).

Counterbalancing the vision – The desired future self should be counterbalanced by the feared self. One does something because one wants to do it but also because not doing it could have negative undesired consequences. In the L2 environment it means to remind the learners of the limitations of not knowing the L2 and to accentuate the duties and obligations to which they have committed themselves (Dörnyei in Beaven, 2009, p. 20; Dörnyei in Celce-Murcia et al., 2014, pp. 525-526; Dörnyei in Liontas, 2018, p. 4296).

3.3 Directed Motivational Currents

Dörnyei, Muir, and Ibrahim (in Lasagabaster et al., 2014, pp. 9-10) depict directed motivational current (henceforth DMC) as an intense motivational drive which stimulates and supports learning a L2 or other long-term behaviours. DMCs both organise a motivational impetus and act as a specific tool to motivate learners when learning the L2, that is, the learners are both in pursuit of and fuelled by a goal or a vision. They excite L2 learners to perform beyond expectations, across a number of levels, even in long-term situations. DMC follows this pattern – 'a clearly visualised goal combined with a concrete pathway of motivated action brings a new lease of life and burst of passion to an otherwise dormant situation' (Dörnyei, Muir, and Ibrahim in Lasagabaster et al., 2014, p. 10).

DMC is a strong motivational drive unfolding over time and significantly affecting its participants who achieve more than expected. This flow of energy transports learners forward and they get caught up even in situations where hope of progress had been disappearing. DMC is so unique and temporary that learners become unrecognisable to others. For example, when one has a difficult and important exam to pass, one can start studying instead of eating dinner with one's family, even if it is their long precious tradition. The family can have trouble recognising the one but when he/she passes the exam, he/she comes back to the tradition. Although it stimulates and supports long-term behaviours, DMC itself is relatively short-term as it is clear from the example. DMC works as an injection of motivation into the organism, over and on top of the steady motivation one feels ordinarily (Dörnyei, Muir, and Ibrahim in Lasagabaster et al., 2014, pp. 11-12).

Dörnyei, Muir, and Ibrahim (in Lasagabaster et al., 2014, pp. 12-16) mention necessary conditions which all have to be present and balanced. They are:

- Orientation towards a goal/vision,
- Salient and facilitative structure,
- Participant ownership and perceived behavioural control,
- Clear perception of progress,
- Positive emotional loading (Dörnyei, Muir, and Ibrahim in Lasagabaster et al., 2014, pp. 12-16).

DMC is always directional; learners go towards a goal or better yet a vision. Such strong motivational drive needs the goal or a vision to emerge as it provides cohesion and allows the learner to focus on the finish line. It is what differentiates DMC from performing action of a hobby. People do not have hobbies to fulfil a goal or a vision but because they enjoy the hobby. Goals and visions are similar, however, there is a difference between the two. Visions include strong sensory element – images related towards achieving the goal. For example, one has a goal to get a medical degree, but has a vision to become a doctor, as the vision implies the experience of being the doctor. Therefore, a vision can be seen as a goal to which a learner has added an imagined future reality (Dörnyei, Muir, and Ibrahim in Lasagabaster et al., 2014, p. 13).

DMC always follows certain structure which both frames the process and facilitates the unfolding action. It must have a clear starting point from which the stream of motivation comes. Then the learner achieves a state which could be described as 'motivational autopilot'. The learner tackles various steps towards the vision which becomes a routine. That is a key factor of a DMC, routines do not need any extra motivation, they work by themselves because they are a part of the structure. There are two options of how a DMC comes to existence. First, an upward spiral where the energy grows gradually as the learner comes closer to the vision's accomplishment. Second, a plateauing spiral where an initial rush of energy forms effectual behavioural routines and then slowly decreases (Dörnyei, Muir, and Ibrahim in Lasagabaster et al., 2014, pp. 13-15).

Other people might initiate a DMC; however, it must be the learner who excepts the vision as his/her own and who believes that he/she has adequate capabilities to perform the stated actions. The learner must believe in the necessity and importance of the project and in the probability of achieving his/her vision (Dörnyei, Muir, and Ibrahim in Lasagabaster et al., 2014, p. 15).

A learner will continue in a DMC only if he/she has a clear and continuing perception that he/she is on the path towards the vision reaching. Noticeable feedback will provide that. Progress, signs of achieving the vision, need to be visible (Dörnyei, Muir, and Ibrahim in Lasagabaster et al., 2014, pp. 15-16). The authors (ibid.) offer an example, a growing bibliography shows progress in a diploma thesis.

It is common that learners feel positive and supportive emotions in a DMC as anything which helps reaching the vision is rewarding. Positive feedback in each step of the process promotes energy for next steps. One does not enjoy the activities themselves intrinsically but the fact that he/she comes closer to accomplish the vision (Dörnyei, Muir, and Ibrahim in Lasagabaster et al., 2014, p. 16). For instance, learning irregular verbs by heart is not enjoyable but the fact that it helps one to reach one's vision is.

DMC works as something beyond regular L2 motivation and it can be used on three levels in the L2 classroom – lesson level, term level, and course level. On the lesson level, DMC can occur as a task. An effectual task has a structure, consists of a few smaller parts which work as proximal sub-goals, has a clear starting point and a pathway framing progression towards a specific goal. The goal has to correspond with the learner's vision, and the learner must have control over the performance and perception of his/her progress. On the term level, DMC can occur as a project work. It has a clear starting and finishing point, the learner has autonomy, there usually are subgoals and they mark progress and give feedback. DMC must be emphasized and again, the project work's goal must correspond with the learner's vision. Finally, on the course level, stronger visions and greater commitment are needed. For some learners, hope of having the L2 as a university subject can ignite a DMC (Dörnyei, Muir, and Ibrahim in Lasagabaster et al., 2014, pp. 25-27).

3.4 Motivational Strategies

Motivational strategies promote learner's goal-related behaviour – motivation. Dörnyei (2001, p. 28) defines them as '*motivational influences that are consciously exerted to achieve some systematic and enduring positive effect*'. He offers a few ways of organising the strategies with the focus on:

- Structure of the L2 class – strategies to present materials, give feedback, assign homework,
- Trouble-shooting guide – strategies to deal with learners' lethargy, with lack of learners' participation, with antilearning influence of deviant learners,

- Key motivational concepts – for instance, intrinsic interest, self-confidence, and learner's autonomy; the utilisation of these as organising units,

- Main types of teacher behaviour – strategies of showing a good example, communication, raising consciousness about self-regulation strategies,

- Process model of learning motivation – from the initial to the completion and evaluation of motivation (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 28). This classification will be discussed in more detail in the chapter 3.4.1 below.

Dörnyei (in Liontas, 2018, pp. 4295-4296) offers a sixth type of the motivational strategies' organisation, he divides them into three categories, concentrating on learners' vision, individual learning experience, and group experience. The first category was discussed in the chapter 3.2 Language Learning Vision. The category concentrating on the individual learning experience includes whetting the learners' appetite, increasing their expectancy of success, making the materials relevant to them, breaking the monotony of lessons, making the learning tasks interesting, increasing learners' self-confidence, increasing their satisfaction by celebrating success, and offering grades in a motivational way (Dörnyei in Liontas, 2018, pp. 4295-4296). Dörnyei (in Celce-Murcia et al., 2014, pp. 526-527) adds allowing learners to maintain a positive social image and creating learner autonomy.

The third category, concentrating on the group experience, can be divided into two subcategories – group cohesiveness and group norms (Dörnyei in Liontas, 2018, pp. 4296-4297). Group cohesiveness includes strategies such as learning about each other; proximity, contact, and interaction; shared group history; rewarding nature of group activities; group legend; public commitment to the group; investing in the group; extracurricular activities; cooperation toward common goals; intergroup competition; defining the group against another one; joint hardship and common thread; and teacher as role model. As for the group norms, the teacher should build them by formulating potential norms, justifying their purpose, discussing them with the whole group, eliciting further potential norms from the learners, addressing unproductive norms and changing them by consensus, and agreeing on them as a group (Dörnyei in Celce-Murcia et al., 2014, pp. 528-529).

3.4.1 Process Model of Learning Motivation

The process model of learning motivation in the L2 environment focuses on four parts of the progression of motivation, from its initial arousal to the completion and evaluation of the motivated actions. The four part are creating the basic motivational conditions, generating

initial motivation, maintaining and protecting it, and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation (Dörnyei, 2001, pp. 28-30; Dörnyei in Celce-Murcia et al., 2014, p. 524).

As Dörnyei (2001, pp. 137-144) puts it, there are 35 motivational strategies divided into the four parts of the process model. Eight of them belong to the part creating the basic motivational conditions:

1. Demonstrate and talk about your (teacher's) own enthusiasm for the course material, and how it affects you personally,
2. Take the learners' learning seriously,
3. Develop a personal relationship with the learners,
4. Develop a collaborative relationship with the learners' parents,
5. Create a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom,
6. Promote the development of group cohesiveness,
7. Formulate group norms explicitly and have them discussed and accepted by the learners,
8. Have the group norms consistently observed (Dörnyei, 2001, pp. 137-139).

Eight motivational strategies belong to the category of generating initial motivation:

9. Promote the learners' language related values by presenting peer role models,
10. Raise the learners' intrinsic interest in the L2 learning process,
11. Promote integrative values by encouraging a positive and open-minded disposition towards the L2 and its speakers and towards foreignness in general,
12. Promote the learners' awareness of the instrumental values associated with the knowledge of a L2,
13. Increase the learners' expectancy of success in particular tasks and in learning in general,
14. Increase the learner's 'goal-orientedness' (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 140) by formulating explicit class goals accepted by them,
15. Make the curriculum and the teaching materials relevant to the learners,
16. Help to create realistic learner beliefs (Dörnyei, 2001, pp. 139-140).

Fourteen of the motivational strategies belong to the category of maintaining and protecting motivation:

17. Make learning more stimulating and enjoyable by breaking the monotony,

18. Make learning stimulating and enjoyable for the learner by increasing the attractiveness of the tasks,

19. Make learning stimulating and enjoyable by enlisting the learners as active task participants,

20. Present and administer tasks in a motivating way,

21. Use goal-setting methods in the classroom,

22. Use contracting methods with the learners to formalise their goal commitment,

23. Provide learners with regular experiences of success,

24. Build the learners' confidence by providing regular encouragement,

25. Help diminish language anxiety by removing and/or reducing the anxiety provoking elements,

26. Build the learners' confidence in their learning abilities by teaching them various learner strategies,

27. Allow learners to maintain a positive social image while engaged in the learning tasks,

28. Increase learner motivation by promoting cooperation among the learners,

29. Increase learner motivation by actively promoting learner autonomy,

30. Increase the learners' self-motivating capacity (Dörnyei, 2001, pp. 141-143).

Finally, five of the motivational strategies belong to the category of encouraging positive self-evaluation:

31. Promote effort attributions in the learners,

32. Provide learners with positive information feedback,

33. Increase learner satisfaction,

34. Offer rewards in a motivational manner,

35. Use grades in a motivating manner, reducing as much as possible their demotivating impact (Dörnyei, 2001, pp. 143-144).

To conclude both the topic and the chapter of the motivational strategies, it is appropriate to present Dörnyei's three motivational principles. First, there is more to motivational strategies than simply offering rewards and punishments. Second, generating learner motivation is not enough, it also needs to be maintained and protected. Third, it is the quality, not quantity, of the used motivational strategies that counts (Dörnyei in Celce-Murcia et al., 2014, p. 523).

4 Didactic Games and Activities with Competitive Elements

This chapter focuses on didactic games and activities with competitive elements as the chosen teaching methods for this thesis. They are divided into two separate subchapters, 4.1 and 4.2. For the purposes of this thesis, an abbreviation of a didactic game was stated as DG with the plural form DGs.

4.1 Didactic Games

Maňák and Švec (2003, p. 127) define didactic games as self-realizing activities which adapt learners' free will, interest direction, spontaneity, and relaxation to the pedagogical aim. Zormanová (2012, p. 228) defines the didactic game (DG) as voluntarily chosen activity designed to help the learners learn what they are supposed to learn, to make them active, to help develop their thinking and cognitive functions, and to help them remember what they have learned. An important factor of DGs is stimulation as the learner's interest, motivation and involvement arise from them. DGs stimulate learner's creativity, cooperation, competitiveness, usage of his/her knowledge and experience. Some DGs are similar to model life situations (Zormanová, 2012, p. 228).

Čapek (2015, pp. 820, 823) does not use the term didactic games but educational game. He states that a game in education is always didactic as it leads towards the pedagogical aim. Therefore, it is not necessary to call it didactic; it is in his view semantically tying the term up. A game should be used when educating learners of all ages, not only the youngest, as everyone enjoys playing a game and it makes them more energetic. The learner should be engaged in the activity and not realise that he/she is learning as well (Čapek, 2015, pp. 820, 823).

Playing a game is, with working and learning, one of the basic forms of activity. It is a voluntarily chosen activity with no particular purpose and has its aim and value in itself. A DG loses a part of its spontaneity, freedom, and detachment on a particular aim. However, when a DG is well constructed and used, learners do not realise its limitations (Maňák and Švec, 2003, pp. 126-127).

According to Polívková (1963, pp. 7-8), DGs help learners to prepare for conversation, to think in the L2 and not to translate from the mother tongue. The majority of DGs are based on competition where the learners have to answer a question quickly. DGs may seem childish to older learners resulting in their making fun of the games, therefore, competitions are more suitable for these learners (Polívková, 1963, pp. 7-8).

Maňák and Švec (2003, p. 129) and Zormanová (2012, p. 231) agree on the procedure of implementing DGs into the educational process. First, the aim of the game must be specified; then the learners' readiness diagnosed; the game's rules specified and understood; the game's leader determined; the method of evaluation specified; materials and room prepared; the time limit set; and the variants thought of (Maňák and Švec, 2003, p. 129; Zormanová. 2012, p. 231).

4.1.1 Classification of Didactic Games

There are numerous ways to classify DG, this subchapter offers the most used classifications with examples of some less known or used classifications. Polívková (1963, p. 10) divides DG according to what is exercised through them – single words, sentence formation, conversation, or narration. Furthermore, she differentiates games constructed for error correction and correctness evaluation, racing games, and writing games (Polívková, 1963, pp. 11-12).

Maňák and Švec (2003, p. 128), Zormanová (2012, pp. 236, 258) and Čapek (2015, p. 823) offer Meyer's classification from 2000 which is the most used and cited classification of DGs:

- Interactive games – based on the interaction of learners,
- Simulation games – based on the simulation of situations from real world,
- Scenic games – connected to theatre plays (Maňák and Švec, 2003, p. 12; Zormanová, 2012, pp. 236, 258; Čapek, 2015, p. 823).

Jankovcová's division of DG is according to duration of the game, the place where it takes place, the main activity, or evaluation. The DGs can be short-term or long-term; they can take place in a classroom, on a playground, or outside of the school; DGs can be based on the knowledge acquisition, or physical activity; they can be oriented on quantity, quality, time, or assessor (Maňák and Švec, 2003, p. 128; Zormanová, 2012, p. 277).

Hladík (2013) lists games which make learners active, get-to-know games, conversational games, and grammatical games. Games *Say it in a different way*, *That's me*, *Report of the day*, and *What if* are examples of the mentioned categories respectively (Hladík, 2013).

Games developing language and communication skills have a special place in L2 learning environment. They make learners want to speak the L2 and engage in the activities. The learners usually do not realise that they are learning while having fun (Maňák and Švec, 2003, p. 130).

Felicia (2009, pp. 16-18) presents a taxonomy of digital games which can be used in schools. They are shooters, bat and ball games, platformers, puzzles, mazes, sport games, racing games, real time strategy, role playing games, first person shooters, massive multiple online role-

playing games, educational versions of existing board or tv games, and adventure games. The author further gives examples of particular games' usage and learning benefits. For instance, the game Timez Attack helps the learners improve their algebra skills, Bioscopia can be used in biology as its theme is zoology and human biology (Felicia, 2009, pp. 16-20).

As the schools are currently closed in the Czech Republic due to the pandemic situation, the learners are at home and learn distantly on their computers. Teachers can use various platforms on the internet to diversify the lessons, for instance, Kahoot! (2021) on www.kahoot.com.

4.2 Activities with Competitive Elements

Although the subchapter is called Activities with Competitive Elements, the term competition is used as well as they are interchangeable for the purposes of this thesis. It seems that individuals have an innate desire to compare themselves with others. On one hand, it is natural for them to compete, on the other hand, competition is sometimes seen as very important in adulthood, so learners need to be educated to compete. There are theories highlighting the necessity of implementing competitions into education for the learners to get used to them. However, there are theories which see competition as an opposition to cooperation, which say that competitions should be avoided in education (Verhoeff, 1997, pp. 3-5).

Boggiano and Pittman (1992, pp. 18-19) state that competitions are quite complex from the motivational point of view. They provide challenge and feedback facilitating competence through a win or even in the case of loss through good performance. Therefore, it can support intrinsic motivation. However, competitions can be controlling. When concentrating on defeating the others, one's motivation is extrinsic. The authors describe a research where half of the subjects was instructed to defeat the opponent and half was instructed to perform as good as possible. The results of this research are that the ones who tried to win showed less intrinsic motivation than the others. The competition controlled them. Moreover, losers are usually less intrinsically motivated than the winners. The authors state that controlling events may motivate learners, but extrinsically not intrinsically (Boggiano and Pittman, 1992, pp. 18-19).

At school, learners tend to be compared quite often – who has better grades, who won what, etc. Therefore, there is a risk that they lose their intrinsic motivation and self-determination for learning. When they gain positive feedback (for example, from the win of a competition), their extrinsic motivation can increase. But in the case of a negative feedback (for instance, loss) the learners can lose motivation generally (Boggiano and Pittman, 1992, p. 19). Therefore, it is

crucial for the teacher to choose competitions wisely and observe them. No learner should lose in every competition, that would be very dangerous for their L2 learning motivation.

As it was stated in the chapter 4.1, Polívková (1963, pp. 7-8) recommends using activities with competitive elements with older learners instead of didactic games. The majority of DGs are based on competition where the learners have to answer a question quickly (Polívková, 1963, pp. 7-8).

PRACTICAL PART

5 Research Design

5.1 Research Aim and Questions

This chapter focuses on the research aim and research questions. The research aim is to find out lower secondary school learners' opinions on didactic games and competitions in their English lessons. The opinions will be compared according to the age of the learners, and didactic games and competitions the learners experience in their English lessons listed. Furthermore, the following six research questions should be answered:

1. Do didactic games motivate learners to learn English?
2. Do learners of the lower secondary school enjoy didactic games in English lessons?
3. Do learners of the lower secondary schools prefer English lessons with didactic games more than the lessons without them?
4. Do learners in the 6th grade prefer didactic games in English lessons more than learners in the 9th grade do?
5. Do learners in the 9th grade find didactic games more childish than the learners in the 6th grade do?
6. Do learners of the lower secondary school enjoy competitions in the English lessons as much as didactic games?

5.2 Research Methodology

This chapter focuses on the research methodology. The research tool, the way of processing the research data, and the respondents are introduced. An online questionnaire (see appendix) served as a research tool to acquire data for the quantitative research. The questionnaire was created through Google forms and the data was processed through Google forms and MS Excel. MS Excel was used to convert the data into percentage and to create tables and figures. Teachers were kindly asked to distribute the online questionnaires to their lower secondary school learners in the Czech Republic. The questionnaire is in the Czech language for the learners' better understanding.

The online questionnaire consists of 25 compulsory questions divided into five parts. There is one extra part with an optional space for extra information or a remark. The first part of the online questionnaire focuses on the general information about the learner, asking for the year/class and the town where he/she goes to the lower secondary school. The second part

focuses on the learners' opinions on their English lessons generally. The third part focuses on games in English lessons, the fourth part on competitions in English lessons. In the fifth part, there are three questions for the learners to write what games and competitions they have in their English lessons, and what they like and dislike about them. The term didactic game is not used in the questionnaire. The reason for that is the presumption that the learners would describe more activities as games, not specifically as didactic games. Therefore, it is simplified to games.

The respondents were lower secondary school learners who learn English at school. The learners were from the sixth, seventh, eighth, and nineth grades. They were from across the whole Czech Republic – Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia. They were namely from Bruntál, Dobříš, Dolní Rožínka, Havířov, Litovel, Odry, Olomouc, Štítina, Veřovice and Znojmo.

The questionnaire was distributed in February and March 2021 when all the schools were closed due to the covid-19 situation in the Czech Republic and the learners were learning distantly from home on their computers. Therefore, some of the teachers warned that the learners might be annoyed from the constant work on computers and hesitate to fill the questionnaire. However, it was filled by 66 learners in the sixth grade, 66 in the seventh grade, 70 in the eighth grade, and 50 in the nineth. Overall, there were 252 filled questionnaires which means that the learners of the sixth grade form 26.19% of all the respondents, the learners in the seventh grade form 26.19% as well, the learners in the eighth grade form 27.78%, and the learners in the nineth grade form 19.84% of the respondents.

6 Research Results

This chapter deals with the research's results. It follows the structure of the online questionnaire (appendix) which was created and used to acquire the data for this quantitative research. The research results of all the lower secondary school learners are introduced first, then the research results of the individual grades. The questions were originally in Czech for the learners' better understanding but were translated into English for the purposes of the thesis.

6.1 English Lessons Generally

The part of the questionnaire about English lessons generally consists of 5 questions, the numbers of particular answers to the questions can be found in Table 1 at the end of this chapter. The questions are numbered according to the whole questionnaire in the table. The first question of this part is the fourth of the whole questionnaire, it is '*4. Do you feel motivated in English lessons?*'. The research results show that 82.94% of all the lower secondary school learners who filled the questionnaire feel motivated in their English lessons. Only 17.06% of the learners do not feel motivated in them. 89.36% of the learners in the sixth grade feel motivated in English lessons and 10.61% do not. When considering the learners in the seventh grade, 81.82% of them feel motivated and 18.18% do not feel motivated in their English lessons. 88.57% of the learners in eighth grade feel motivated and 11.43% do not. 68% of the learners in the nineth grade feel motivated and 32% of them do not feel motivated in their English lessons (Table 1).

The question '*5. Do you like English lessons?*' shows that 88.49% of the lower secondary school learners like their English lessons but 11.51% of them do not like their English lessons. 96.97% of the sixth grade learners like their English lessons while 3.03% do not. 87.88% of the seventh grade learners like their English lessons and 12.12% do not like them. When it comes to the eighth grade learners, 87.14% of them like their English lessons but 12.86% of them do not. 80% of the learners in the nineth grade like their English lessons while 20% of them do not like their English lessons (Table 1).

The question '*6. To what extent do you agree that you like English lessons?*' is a follow-up question to the previous one, the possible answers are – I agree a lot, I rather agree, Neutral, I rather do not agree, I do not agree at all. 22.62% of the lower secondary school learners agree a lot, 52.38% rather agree, 22.62% of them have a neutral opinion, 1.59% rather do not agree and 0.79% do not agree at all. When focusing on the sixth grade learners, 40.91% of them agree a lot that they like English lessons, 50% rather agree and 9.09% have a neutral opinion. 18.18% of the seventh grade learners agree a lot, 54.55% rather agree, 22.73% have a neutral opinion,

1.52% rather do not agree and 3.03% do not agree at all. 15.71% of the eighth grade learners agree a lot that the like their English lessons, 55.71% rather agree and 28.57% have a neutral opinion on that. When considering the nineth grade learners, 14% of them agree a lot that they like their English lessons, 48% rather agree, 32% have a neutral opinion and 6% rather do not agree that they like their English lessons (Table 1).

As the questions 5 and 6 correspond with each other, it is interesting to see the difference in the answers to them. 88.49% of the lower secondary school learners like their English lessons but 75% agree a lot or rather agree that they do. 11.51% do not like their English lessons but only 2.38% rather do not agree or do not agree at all with liking the lessons. 96.97% of the sixth grade learners like their English lessons, 90.91% of them agree a lot or rather agree with liking the lessons. 3.03% do not like English lessons but none of the sixth grade learners disagrees that they do like English lessons. 87.88% of the learners in the seventh grade like their English lessons, 72.73% agree a lot or rather agree with it. 12.12% do not like the lessons but only 4.55% rather do not agree or do not agree at all with liking the lessons. Focusing on the eighth grade learners, 87.14% of them like their English lessons and 71.43% rather agree or agree a lot with it. 12.86% do not like the lessons but none of them disagrees with liking the lessons. 80% of the learners in the nineth grade like English lessons but only 62% rather agree or agree a lot with it. 20% of them do not like the lessons but only 6% rather disagree with liking the lessons. The differences in the answers are caused by the neutral opinion of more than a fifth of the lower secondary school learners (Table 1).

The research results to the question '*7. Do you enjoy English lessons?*' show that 86.11% of the 252 lower secondary school learners enjoy their English lessons but 13.89% do not. 98.48% of the learners in the sixth grade enjoy their English lessons, only 1.52% do not. 83.33% of the seventh grade learners enjoy them, 16.67% do not. When focusing on the eighth grade learners, 81.43% of them enjoy the English lessons, 18.57% do not. 80% of the learners in the nineth grade enjoy English lessons, 20% do not (Table 1).

The question '*8. How often do you enjoy English lessons?*' is a follow-up question to the previous one. The learners had five options of the answer – always, usually, sometimes yes, sometimes no, rarely, never. 9.13% of the lower secondary school learners always enjoy their English lessons. 45.63% of them usually enjoy the lessons, 39.29% sometimes enjoy the lessons and sometimes do not. 3.97% rarely enjoy the English lessons and 1.98% never do. The sixth grade learners enjoy their English lessons, specifically 13.64% always do, 53.03% usually do, 33.33% sometimes do and sometimes do not. 6.06% of the seventh grade learners always and

46.97% usually enjoy their English lessons. 39.39% of them enjoy the lessons only sometimes, 4.55% rarely and 3.03% never. When it comes to the learners in the eighth grade, 11.43% of them always enjoy their English lessons, 41.43% usually and 40% sometimes. Only 5.71% rarely and 1.43% never enjoy the lessons. Focusing on the nineth grade learners, 4% always, 40% usually, 46% sometimes, 6% rarely and 4% never enjoy their English lessons (Table 1).

Questions 7 and 8 show differences in the answers as well as 5 and 6. 86.11% of the lower secondary school learners enjoy their English lessons but only 54.76% always or usually do so. 13.89% stated that they do not enjoy the lessons, but 5.95% stated that they rarely or never enjoy them. 98.48% of the learners in the sixth grade enjoy their English lessons but only 66.67% always or usually do. 83.33% of the seventh grade learners enjoy the lessons, only 53.03% always or usually. 16.67% do not enjoy the lessons but 7.58% rarely or never enjoy them. 81.43% of the learners in the eighth grade enjoy the lessons, 52.86% always or usually. 18.57% do not enjoy English lessons but only 7.14% stated that they rarely or never enjoy them. Focusing on the nineth grade learners, 80% of them enjoy their English lessons, however, only 44% always or usually do. 20% of them do not enjoy their English lessons but only 10% stated that they rarely or never enjoy them. The differences are caused by the neutral option 'sometimes yes, sometimes no' chosen by more than a third of the lower secondary school learners (Table 1).

Question	Answer	Learners' grade				
		6.	7.	8.	9.	All
4.	Yes	59	54	62	34	209
	No	7	12	8	16	43
5.	Yes	64	58	61	40	223
	No	2	8	9	10	29
6.	I agree a lot	27	12	11	7	57
	I rather agree	33	36	39	24	132
	Neutral	6	15	20	16	57
	I rather do not agree	0	1	0	3	4
	I do not agree at all	0	2	0	0	2
7.	Yes	65	55	57	40	217
	No	1	11	13	10	35
8.	Always	9	4	8	2	23
	Usually	35	31	29	20	115
	Sometimes	22	26	28	23	99
	Rarely	0	3	4	3	10
	Never	0	2	1	2	5

Table 1: Numbers of Answers to English Lessons Generally

6.2 Didactic Games

This part of the questionnaire focusing on the didactic games consists of 10 questions, numbered 9-18. The numbers of particular answers to the questions can be found in Table 2 at the end of the chapter.

When considering all the lower secondary school learners' answers to the question '*9. Do you play games in English lessons?*', 80.56% say that they play games in their English lessons, only 19.44% do not play games. 92.42% of the sixth grade learners play games in English lessons, 7.58% do not. 68.18% of the learners in the seventh grade play them, 31.82% do not. 75.71% of the eighth grade learners play the games, 24.29% do not. 88% of the nineth grade learners play games in their English lessons, 12% do not (Table 2).

The second question in this part is a follow-up question to the first one, it is '*10. How often do you play games in English lessons?*'. The possible answers are – every lesson, once a week, once in 14 days, once a month, once in a semester, never. 12.30% of the lower secondary school

learners play games in every English lesson, 34.13% play them once a week, 17.06% once in 14 days, 17.86% once in a month, 10.32% once in a semester and 8.33% never play games in their English lessons. 28.79% of the sixth grade learners play games in every English lesson, 42.42% once a week, 15.15% once in 14 days, 9.09% once a month, 1.52% once in a semester and 3.03% never play games in the lessons. Focusing on the seventh grade learners, 9.09% play games in every lesson, 33.33% once a week, 13.64% once in 14 days, 13.64% once a month, 13.64% once in a semester and 16.67% never. Considering the eighth grade learners, 2.86% of them play games in every English lesson, 28.57% once a week, 21.43% once in 14 days, 22.86% once a month, 14.29% once in a semester and 10% never play games in the English lessons. 8% of the nineth grade learners play games in every English lesson, 32% play them once a week, 18% once in 14 days, 28% once a month, 12% once in a semester and 2% never. There are no significant differences between the answers to the question 9 and 10. The percentage of the learners who play games in their English lessons according to question 9 is very similar to those who play them at least once a month according to question 10. The difference is 3.03% at most (Table 2).

The question '*11. Do you enjoy games in English lessons?*' shows that 91.27% of the lower secondary school learners enjoy games in their English lessons, 8.73% do not. All the learners in the sixth grade enjoy them. 86.36% of the seventh grade learners enjoy games in the lessons and 13.64% do not. 88.57% of the learners in the eighth grade enjoy the games in their English lessons but 11.43% do not. 90% of the nineth grade learners enjoy the games, 10% do not enjoy them (Figure 1; Table 2).

Figure 1: Enjoyment of Games in English Lessons

For the question '*12. To what extant do you agree that you enjoy games in English lessons?*', there are five options to choose from to answer – I agree a lot, I rather agree, Neutral, I rather do not agree, I do not agree at all. 41.27% of the lower secondary school learners agree a lot that they enjoy games in their English lessons, 40.87% rather agree, 14.29% have a neutral opinion on this, 0.79% rather disagree, 2.78% do not agree at all. 59.09% of the sixth grade learners agree a lot, 33.33% rather agree and 7.58% have a neutral opinion. 37.88% of the seventh grade learners agree a lot with enjoying the games in their English lessons, 42.42% rather agree, 12.12% have a neutral opinion, 1.52% rather disagree, 6.06% do not agree at all. Focusing on the learners in the eighth grade, 31.43% agree a lot, 44.29% rather agree, 18.57% have a neutral opinion, 1.43% rather disagree, 4.29% do not agree at all. 36% of the nineth grade learners agree a lot with enjoying the games in their English lessons, 44% rather agree and 20% have a neutral opinion on it (Figure 2; Table 2).

Figure 1, Figure 2, and Table 2 show the differences between the research results about enjoyment and agreement to enjoyment of games in the English lessons caused by the neutral option in the question 12. The lower secondary school learners' agreement to enjoyment of games is by 9.13% lower than enjoyment. The sixth grade learners' agreement to enjoyment is by 7.58% lower than enjoyment. The agreement to enjoyment of the seventh grade learners is by 6.06% lower, of the eighth grade learners by 12.86% lower than enjoyment of the games in English lessons. The nineth grade learners' agreement to enjoyment of the games is by 10% lower that the enjoyment (Figure 1; Figure 2; Table 2).

Figure 2: Agreement to Enjoyment of Games in English Lessons

Figure 3 below shows the research results for question '*13. Do you think games in English lessons are childish, that is, inappropriate for your age?*'. Of all the lower secondary school learners, only 13.49% believes that games in English lessons are childish, 86.51% of them do not believe so. 12.12% of both the sixth and seventh grade learners think of the games as childish, while 87.88% of them do not. 15.71% of the learners in the eighth grade think that the games are childish, 84.29% do not. 14% of the nineth grade learners think that the games in their English lessons are childish, while 86% do not think that (Figure 3; Table 2).

Figure 3: Childishness of Games in English Lessons

Figure 4 below shows the research results for question '*14. How much childish do you think games in English lessons are?*', the options of answer are childish a lot, rather childish, neutral, rather not childish, not childish at all. 1.98% of the lower secondary school learners think that the games in their English lessons are childish a lot, 11.51% of them think that the games are rather childish, 36.90% think the games are neutral, 28.97% think that the games are rather not childish, 20.63% think that the games are not childish at all. Focusing on the learners in the sixth grade, 1.52% of them believe that games in English lessons are very childish, 7.58% believe that they are rather childish, 42.42% believe they are neutral, 34.85% believe that the games are rather not childish, 13.64% believe that they are not childish at all. When concentrating on the seventh grade learners, 3.03% think that the games are very childish, 10.61% think they are rather childish, 39.39% think they are neutral, 19.70% think that games are rather not childish, 27.27% think that the games in their English lessons are not childish at all. 1.43% of the eighth grade learners think the games are very childish, 12.86% rather childish, 25.71% think the games are neutral, 35.71% think the games are rather not childish, 24.29%

think the games are not childish at all. Only 2% of the nineth grade learners think the games in their English lessons are very childish, 16% view them as rather childish, 42% as neutral, 24% as rather not childish, 16% as not childish at all (Figure 4; Table 2).

Figure 4: Rate of Childishness of Games in English Lessons

While the same percentage of the lower secondary school learners believe the games are childish in both the question 13 and the question 14 (either childish a lot or rather childish), learners in individual grades changed their opinion in the latter question. By 3.03% less sixth grade learners think that the games are at least rather childish in the question 14 than in the previous one. In the fourteenth question, by 0.52% more seventh grade learners, by 1.42% less eighth grade learners, by 4% more nineth grade learners think the games are at least rather childish. On the other hand, as so many of the learners has chosen the neutral option, it is possible that they understand the term *neutral* as rather positive. When the games are not childish, they are neutral at least. When the answers neutral, rather not childish and not childish at all are summed up, the percentage is similar to the percentage of learners who do not think the games are childish in the question 13 (Figure 3; Figure 4; Table 2).

The question '*15. Do you think you can learn English while playing a game?*' shows that 96.43% of the lower secondary school learners believe they can learn English through games, 3.57% do not believe it. 98.48% of the sixth grade learners think they can learn through games, 1.52% do not. 95.45% of the seventh grade learners believe that they can learn English while playing a game, 4.55% do not. Focusing on the learners in the eighth grade, 97.14% of them think they can learn while playing, 2.86% do not. 94% of the nineth grade learners believe they can learn while playing, 6% do not think so (Table 2).

The research results show that the answers to question '*16. Which English lessons do you prefer?*' are as follows. 79.76% of the lower secondary school learners prefer the English lessons with games in them, 20.24% prefer the lessons without the games. 86.36% of the sixth grade learners prefer the lessons with games, 13.64% prefer them without games. 81.82% of the seventh grade learners prefer games in the English lessons, 18.18% prefer the lessons without games. 74.29% of the learners in the eighth grade prefer lessons with games, 25.71% prefer lessons without the games. Focusing on the learners in the nineth grade, 76% of them prefer English lessons with games, 24% prefer the lessons without the games (Figure 5; Table 2).
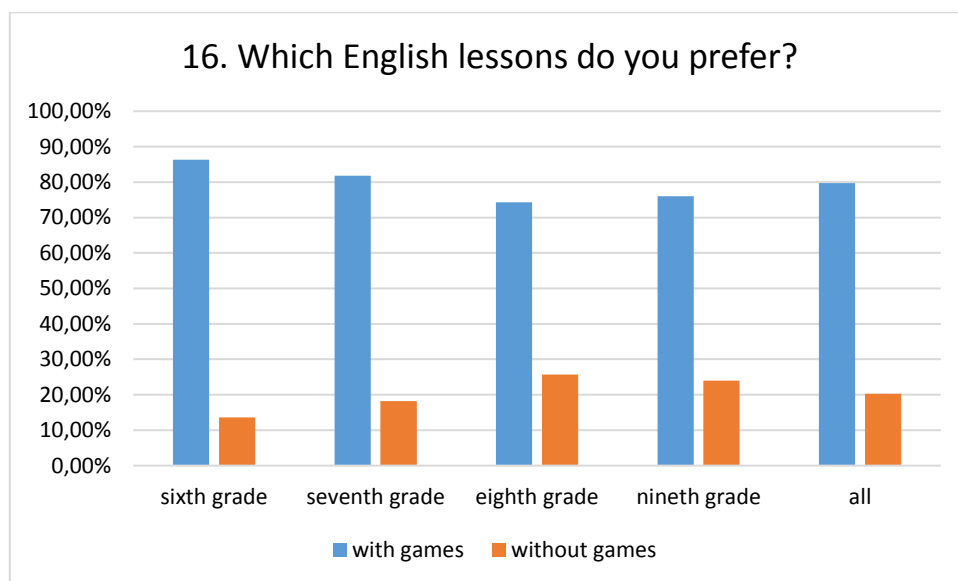
Figure 5: Preference of English Lessons with or without Games

Figure 6 shows the research results concerning the question '*17. Do you think games in English lessons motivate to learn?*'. 86.11% of the lower secondary school learners think that games in English lessons motivate to learn, 13.89% do not. 95.45% of the sixth grade learners believe that games motivate to learn English, 4.55% do not. 86.36% of the learners in the seventh grade think that games motivate to learn, 13.64% do not. 77.14% think that the games motivate to learn, 22.86% do not think so. Focusing on the nineth grade learners, 86% of them believe that games motivate to learn, 14% do not (Figure 6; Table 2).

Figure 6: Motivational Effect of Games in English Lessons

Figure 7 shows the research results concerning the question '*18. Do YOU feel motivated by games in English lessons?*'. 43.25% of all the lower secondary school learners who filled the questionnaire feel motivated by games in English lessons, 47.22% feel partially motivated, 9.52% do not feel motivated by the games. 57.58% of the learners in the sixth grade feel motivated by the games, 40.91% feel partially motivated, 1.52% do not feel motivated by them. 45.45% of the seventh grade learners feel motivated by games in English lessons, 40.91% feel partially motivated, 13.64% do not feel motivated. 34.29% of the eighth grade learners feel motivated by them, 55.71% feel partially motivated, 10% do not feel motivated. Focusing on the nineth grade learners. 34% of them feel motivated by the games in English lessons, 52% feel partially motivated, 14% do not feel motivated by games (Figure 7; Table 2).

What is interesting, is that some learners believe that games cannot motivate to learn but at the same time games motivate them personally to learn English, at least partially. Overall, there is by 4.37% less lower secondary school learners who do not feel motivated by games than the lower secondary school learners who do not believe games can motivate to learn in general. There is by 3.03% less sixth grade learners and by 12.86% less eighth grade learners who do not feel motivated by games than who do not believe games can motivate to learn in general. In the case of seventh and nineth grade learners, the percentage is the same (Figure 6; Figure 7; Table 2).
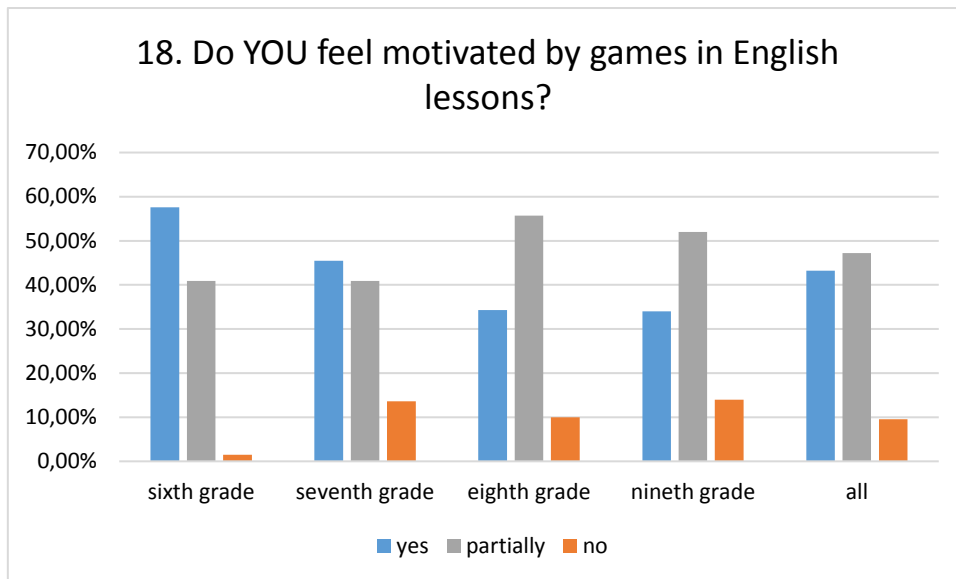
Figure 7: Motivational Effect of Games on the Learners Personally

Question	Answer	Learners' grade				
		6.	7.	8.	9.	All
9.	Yes	61	45	53	44	203
	No	5	21	17	6	49
10.	Every lesson	19	6	2	4	31
	Once a week	28	22	20	16	86
	Once in 14 days	10	9	15	9	43
	Once a month	6	9	16	14	45
	Once in a semester	1	9	10	6	26
	Never	2	11	7	1	21
11.	Yes	66	57	62	45	230
	No	0	9	8	5	22
12.	I agree a lot	39	25	22	18	104
	I rather agree	22	28	31	22	103
	Neutral	5	8	13	10	36
	I rather do not agree	0	1	1	0	2
	I do not agree at all	0	4	3	0	7
13.	Yes	8	8	11	7	34
	No	58	58	59	43	218
14.	Childish a lot	1	2	1	1	5
	Rather childish	5	7	9	8	29
	Neutral	28	26	18	21	93
	Rather not childish	23	13	25	12	73
	Not childish at all	9	18	17	8	52
15.	Yes	65	63	68	47	243
	No	1	3	2	3	9
16.	With games	57	54	52	38	201
	Without games	9	12	18	12	51
17.	Yes	63	57	54	43	217
	No	3	9	16	7	35
18.	Yes	38	30	24	17	109
	Partially	27	27	39	26	119
	No	1	9	7	7	24

Table 2: Numbers of Answers to Didactic Games

6.3 Competitions

The part of the questionnaire focusing on competitions consists of 4 questions, numbered 19-22. The numbers of particular answers to the questions can be found in Table 3 at the end of the chapter. The research results for the question '*19. Do you have competitions in English lessons?*' show that 68.25% of the lower secondary school learners have competitions in their English lessons, 31.75% do not. 88.87% of the sixth grade learners have competitions in their English lessons, 12.12% do not. 71.21% of the seventh grade learners have competitions in the lessons, 28.79% do not. 60% of the learners in the eighth grade have the competitions, 40% do not. Half of the nineth grade learners have competitions in their lessons, half of them do not (Table 3).

The follow-up question '*20. How often do you have competitions in English lessons?*' to the question 19, shows that 2.78% of the lower secondary school learners have competition in every English lesson, 21.83% have them once a week, 18.65% once in 14 days, 21.83% once a month, 11.51% once in a semester, 23.41% never do. 6.06% of the learners in the sixth grade learners have the competitions in every English lesson, 33.33% once a week, 27.27% once in 14 days, 16.67% once a month, 7.58% once in a semester, 9.09% never have competitions in their English lessons. 3.03% of the seventh grade learners have them in every lesson, 19.70% once a week, 18.18% once in 14 days, 22.73% once a month, 15.15% once in a semester, 21.21% never. 21.43% of the eighth grade learners have competitions in English lessons once a week, 12.86% once in 14 days, 27.14% once a month, 8.57% once in a semester, 30% never. Focusing on the nineth grade learners, 2% of them have competitions in every English lesson, 10% once a week, 16% once in 14 days, 20% once a month, 16% once in a semester, 36% never have competitions in English lessons (Table 3).

The differences between the research results for question 19 and 20 are the following. There is by 3.17% less lower secondary school learners who have competitions at least once a month in their English lessons than the same learners who answered in the question 19 that they have competitions in their lessons. There is by 4.55% less sixth grade learners, by 7.57% less seventh grade learners, by 1.43% more eighth grade learners, by 2% less nineth grade learners who have competitions at least once a month in their English lessons than the same learners who answered in the question 19 that they have competitions in their lessons (Table 3).

Figure 8 shows the research results for the question '*21. Do you enjoy competitions in English lessons?*'. 75.79% of the lower secondary school learners enjoy competitions in their English

lessons, 24.21% do not. 90.91% of the sixth grade learners enjoy the competitions, 9.09% do not. 77.27% of the seventh grade learners enjoy competitions in the lessons, 22.73% do not enjoy them. 67.14% of the learners in the eighth grade enjoy competitions in their English lessons, 32.86% do not. Focusing on the nineth grade learners, 66% of them enjoy and 34% of them do not enjoy competitions in their English lessons (Figure 8; Table 3).
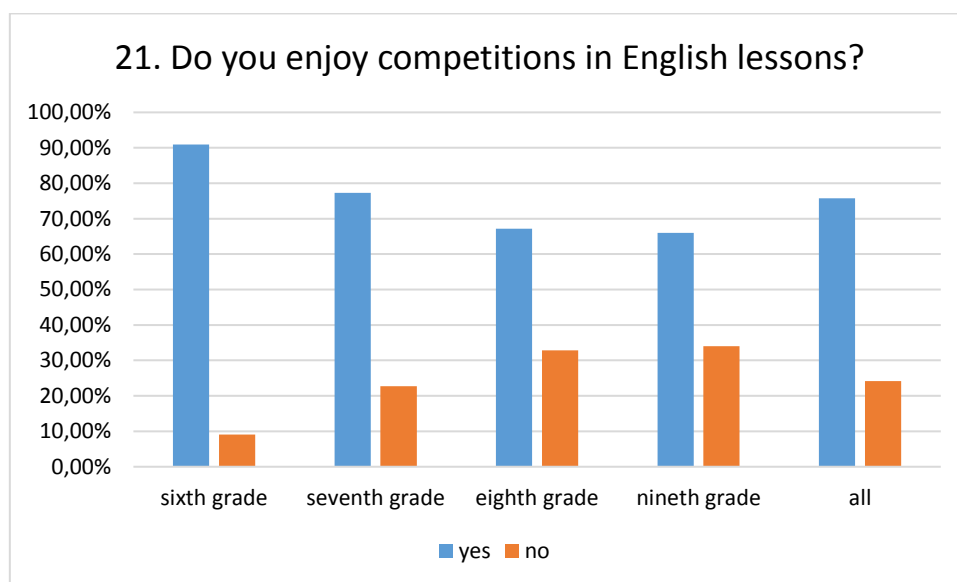

Figure 8: Enjoyment of Competitions in English Lessons

Figure 9 shows the research results for the question '*To what extent do you agree that you enjoy competitions in English lessons?*'. The possible answers are I agree a lot, I rather agree, neutral, I rather do not agree, I do not agree at all. 20.63% of the lower secondary school agree a lot, 40.08% rather agree, 27.38% have a neutral opinion, 3.97% rather disagree, 7.94% do not agree at all. 33.33% of the sixth grade learners agree a lot, 45.45% rather agree, 19.70% have a neutral opinion, 1.52% rather disagree. 15.15% of the seventh grade learners agree a lot, 48.48% rather agree, 27.27% have a neutral opinion, 9.09% do not agree at all. Focusing on the eighth grade learners, 18.57% of them agree a lot, 35.71% rather agree, 27.14% have a neutral opinion, 7.14% rather disagree, 11.43% do not agree at all. 14% of the nineth grade learners agree a lot, 28% rather agree, 38% have a neutral opinion, 8% rather disagree, 12% do not agree at all (Figure 9; Table 3).

Figure 8, Figure 9, and Table 3 show the differences between the learners' enjoyment of competitions in English lessons and their agreement to enjoyment of the competitions. The lower secondary school learners' agreement to enjoyment is by 15.08% lower than the enjoyment. The sixth grade learners' agreement to enjoyment of competitions in their English lessons is by 12.12% lower than the enjoyment. The seventh grade learners' agreement to

enjoyment is by 13.63% lower than the enjoyment. The eighth grade learners' agreement to enjoyment is by 12.85% lower than the enjoyment. Focusing on the nineth grade learners' agreement to enjoyment of the competitions in their English lessons, it is by 24% lower than the enjoyment itself. The differences are caused by the neutral option in the question 22 (Figure 8; Figure 9; Table 3).
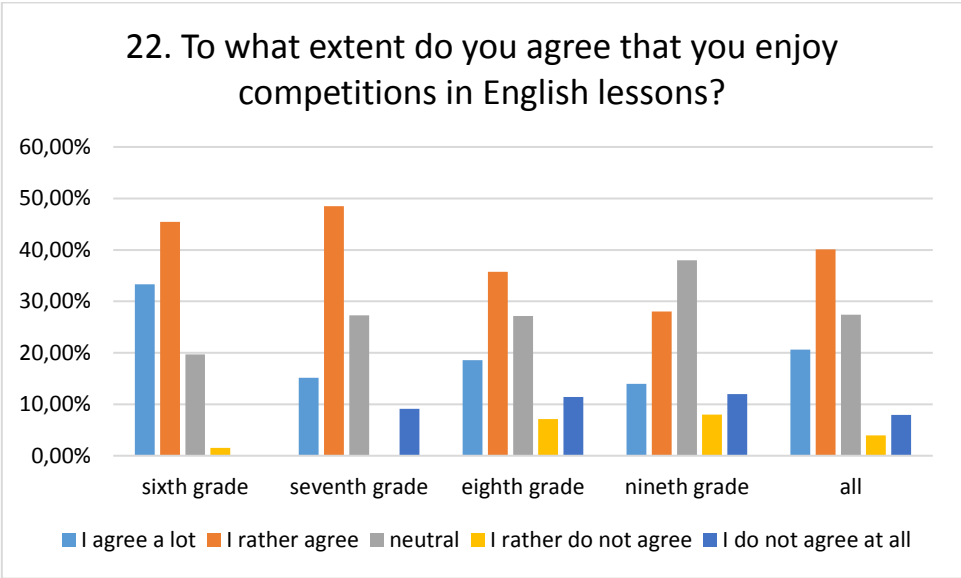

Figure 9: Agreement to Enjoyment of Competition in English Lessons

		Learners' grade				
Question	Answer	6.	7.	8.	9.	All
19.	Yes	58	47	42	25	172
	No	8	19	28	25	80
20.	Every lesson	4	2	0	1	7
	Once a week	22	13	15	5	55
	Once in 14 days	18	12	9	8	47
	Once a month	11	15	19	10	55
	Once in a semester	5	10	6	8	29
	Never	6	14	21	18	59
21.	Yes	60	51	47	33	191
	No	6	15	23	17	61
22.	I agree a lot	22	10	13	7	52
	I rather agree	30	32	25	14	101
	Neutral	13	18	19	19	69
	I rather do not agree	1	0	5	4	10
	I do not agree at all	0	6	8	6	20

Table 3: Numbers of Answers to Competitions

6.4 Open Questions

The part of the questionnaire with the open questions focuses on the games and competitions the learners experience in both their common English lessons at school and the online lessons during the pandemic situation in the Czech Republic. Moreover, the learners were asked what they like and dislike about the games and competitions. This chapter consists of the chosen answers of the learners who filled the questionnaire.

The research results for the question '*23. What games or competitions do you play in English lessons?*' show that Kahoot! is the only game that was mentioned in all grades (by more than one learner), this internet portal was mentioned by 33.73% of all the lower secondary school learners. 25.76% of the sixth grade learners, 36.36% of the seventh grade learners, 35.71% of the eighth grade learners, 38% of the nineth grade learners use Kahoot! in their English lessons. 25.76% of the sixth grade learners play with Scribble.io, 4.55% with Quizlet, 9.09% play Simon Says, 1.52% play Pairs in their English lessons. 21.21% of the seventh grade learners play with Quizlet, 1.52% play Pairs, 1.52% play Criss Cross in their English lessons. Focusing on the

eighth grade learners, 5.71% play with Gartic.io, 2.86% with Scribble.io, 2.86% with Quizlet, 8.57% play Pairs, 4.29% play Bingo in their English lessons. 8% of the nineth grade learners play Criss Cross, 6% play Simon Says, 6% play Pairs (Table 4).

Game	Learners' grade			
	6.	7.	8.	9.
Kahoot!	17	24	25	19
Scribble.io	17	0	2	0
Quizlet	3	14	2	0
Simon Says	6	0	0	3
Gartic.io	0	0	4	0
Bingo	0	0	3	0
Pairs	1	1	6	3
Criss Cross	0	1	0	4

Table 4: Most Played Games and Competitions

Table 4 shows only the most played games and competitions, however, the lower secondary school learners mentioned other games and competitions as well. The sixth grade learners play for example internet games, quizzes, games corresponding with the learned topic, spelling games, competitions in teams or 'Plácačky'. The seventh grade learners play a game called Homes, quizzes, games with vocabulary, comics and competitions in front of the whiteboard. The eighth grade learners play vocabulary games, a game called Suitcase, team competitions and games with cards. The nineth grade learners play games with vocabulary such as Freeze or Vocabulary King, Strudel, or a version of Domino with irregular verbs.

Table 5 shows the research results for the questions '*24. What do you like about games and competitions in English lessons?*' and '*25. What do you dislike about games and competitions in English lessons?*'. 13.10% of all the lower secondary school learners like everything about games and competitions in their English lessons, 28.57% appreciate the attribute of fun in the games and competitions, 5.95% do not know what they like about the games and competitions in English lessons, 26.19% like games as learning method. 21.21% of the sixth grade learners like everything, 28.79% like that games and competition bring fun to their English lessons, 1.52% do not know what they like about the games and competitions, 33.33% like the learning method. 15.15% of the learners in the seventh grade like everything, 22.73% like the attribute of fun, 13.64% do not know what they like about games and competitions in their English

lessons, 18.18% like the learning method. 11.43% of the eighth grade learners like everything, 27.14% like the attribute of fun, 2.29% do not know what they like about games and competitions in the lessons, 25.71% like the learning method. Focusing on the nineth grade learners, 2% of them like everything, 38% like the fun attribute, 4% do not know what they like about games and competitions in their English lessons, 26% like games as the learning method (Table 5).

The research results for the question '25. *What do you dislike about games and competitions in English lessons?*' show that 54.37% of all the lower secondary school learners dislike nothing which means that they like everything about the games and competitions in their English lessons and could not think of any negative attribute. 8.73% do not know what they dislike about the games and competitions. 57.58% of the learners in the sixth grade like everything, 4.55% do not know what they dislike about games and competitions in their English lessons. 51.52% of the seventh grade learners like everything, 15.15% do not know what they dislike about the games and competitions. 54.29% of the eighth grade learners like everything, 11.43% do not know what they dislike about games and competitions in their English lessons. 54% of the nineth grade learners like everything, 2% do not know what they dislike about the games and competitions (Table 5).

What is interesting is that significantly more learners stated that they dislike nothing than that they like everything. In the case of all the lower secondary school learners, the difference is 41.27%. In the case of both the sixth and seventh grade learners it is 36.37%, of the eighth grade learners it is 42.86%, of the nineth grade learners it is 52% (Table 5).

		Learners' grade				
		6.	7.	8.	9.	All
Like	Everything	14	10	8	1	33
	Fun	19	15	19	19	72
	Learning method	23	12	18	13	66
	I do not know	1	9	3	2	15
Dislike	Nothing	38	34	38	27	137
	I do not know	3	10	8	1	22

Table 5: Learners' opinions about Games and Competitions

Beyond the attributes mentioned in Table 5, the sixth grade learners like that they act as a team during games in their English lessons, they see games as motivation and they like when they

get a reward. The seventh grade learners like the feeling of change which games bring to the lessons, they like the pause from learning and the rewards. The eighth grade learners like the team atmosphere and the atmosphere of a competition, they like the rewards and the pause from learning as well. The nineth grade learners like the pause from learning, the atmosphere of a competition and the rewards. On the other hand, the sixth grade learners do not like loosing the games, shouting, technical problems during online games, arguing. The seventh grade learners do not like technical problems during online games, when the games are too complicated or reoccurring too often. The eighth grade learners do not like loosing the games, shouting and arguing, technical problems during online games, when the games are too easy, or that they play games rarely. The nineth grade learners do not like technical problems during online games, loosing, when the games are too easy or too complicated to understand, that they play games rarely in their English lessons.

Some learners gave extra information on their English lessons or made remarks about the online questionnaire. In conclusion to this chapter, some of the relevant information is presented. One learner repeated that he/she enjoys the games, another one said that he/she does not know English well, but tries to learn it. A learner stated that he/she does not like teamwork, another one wishes for more enjoyable lessons. A learner wishes for more conversations, another for more games, another one finds the lessons boring and repetitive.

7 Discussion

This chapter offers the answers to the six research questions introduced in the chapter 5.1 of the thesis. The answer to the first research question *1. Do didactic games motivate learners to learn English?* Is positive as 86.11% of the lower secondary school learners think that games motivate to learn (Figure 6), 43.25% feel motivated and 47.22% feel partially motivated by them (Figure 7). Moreover, 82.94% of the learners feel motivated in their English lessons (Table 1) and 80.56% play games in the lessons (Table 2). One can assume that the motivation is caused by the presence of the games in the English lessons. The learners probably feel motivated by didactic games because this teaching method is not boring and tiring, fun is its important attribute.

The answer to the research question *2. Do learners of the lower secondary school enjoy didactic games in English lessons?* is positive as 91.27% of them enjoy the games in their English lessons (Figure 1), 41.27% agree a lot to enjoying the games and 40.87% rather agree (Figure 2). Moreover, 80.56% of the learners play games in their English lessons (Table 2) and 86.11% (9.13% always, 45.63% usually) enjoy their English lessons (Table 1). Therefore, one can assume that the enjoyment of the lessons is caused by the presence of games. As well as in the case of the previous research question, the learners probably enjoy didactic games because they are fun and not boring.

The answer to the research question *3. Do learners of the lower secondary school prefer English lessons with didactic games more than the lessons without them?* is positive as 79.76% prefer the English lessons with games in them (Figure 5). Fun can be one of the reasons why the learners prefer the English lessons with didactic games in them. Furthermore, it feels that the time flies quicker when playing a game than when writing something into an exercise book.

The answer to the research question *4. Do learners in the 6th grade prefer didactic games in English lessons more than the learners in the 9th grade do?* is positive as 86.36% of the sixth grade learners prefer English lessons with games in them and by 10.36% less of the nineth grade learners prefer the lessons with games in them. However, there is even less of the eighth grade learners (74.29%) who prefer the lessons with games than the nineth grade learners. Therefore, one cannot say that the younger the learners, the bigger the preference of the English lessons with didactic games is (Figure 5).

The answer to the research question *5. Do learners in the 9th grade find didactic games more childish than the learners in the 6th grade do?* is positive as 14% of the nineth grade learners

think that games in English lessons are childish and by 1.88% less of the sixth grade learners think so. However, the situation is similar as in the answer to the previous research question. There is by 1.71% more of the eighth grade learners who believe that the games are childish than the learners in the nineth grade (Figure 3). Moreover, 1.52% of the sixth grade learners believe that games are very childish, 2% of the nineth grade learners think that the games are very childish and 3.03% of the seventh grade learners think so (Figure 4). Again, one cannot say that the older the learners, the more they think of the games in the English lessons as childish. Nevertheless, the percentage of the learners who think that the games in their English lessons are rather childish grows with the learner's age (Figure 4).

The answer to the final research question *6. Do learners of the lower secondary school enjoy competitions in the English lessons as much as didactic games?* is negative as 91.27% of them enjoy games in their English lessons (Figure 1) and only 75.79% enjoy competitions in the lessons (Figure 8). Moreover, 41.27% of the lower secondary school learners agree a lot and 40.87% rather agree to enjoying the games (Figure 2) while only 20.63% agree a lot and 40.08% rather agree to enjoying the competitions in their English lessons (Figure 9). The answer to this research question can be influenced by the fact that 80.56% of the learners play games in their English lessons (Table 2) while only 68.25% of them have competitions in the lessons (Table 3). One cannot enjoy something which he/she does not do.

Overall, the answer to five of the six research questions is positive while to the sixth one it is negative. In addition to that, a suggestion by Polívková (1963, pp. 7-8) from the chapter 4.1 of this thesis that *competitions are more suitable for older learners that didactic games* has been refuted. Both the learners in the eighth grade and the learners in the nineth grade play more games in their English lessons (Table 2) than have competitions (Table 3). Moreover, there are more learners who enjoy games (Figure 1) than the learners who enjoy competitions in the lessons (Figure 8).

It was mentioned in the chapter 1.1.5 of this thesis that *social loafing is very important to consider in education as groups are common in schools* (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996, pp. 188-189). As some learners stated in the questionnaire that they do not like teamwork, Pintrich and Schunk's suggestion has been confirmed by the learners' opinions.

The title of this diploma thesis *Didactic Games as Motivation to Learn English Language* itself suggests that the didactic games may encourage to learn English. The research results have confirmed that suggestion, as 96.43% of the lower secondary school learners believe that they

can learn through games and 26.19% like games as a learning method. The research results suggest that there could be a hypothesis stating that didactic games motivate learners to learn English. However, the research was not sufficient, and it should be more researched in order to confirm the hypothesis properly.

The research results cannot be seen as a general opinion as there were only 252 respondents and some of them were from the same classes with the same experiences. Moreover, it would be interesting to find out whether there is a difference between the boys' and girls' opinions on the didactic games in English lessons. One learner even suggested this in the online questionnaire.

Conclusion

This diploma thesis focused on the didactic games and activities with competitive elements in the English lessons and their motivational effect on the lower secondary school learners. The main aim of the theoretical part was to introduce the topics of motivation and learning. Furthermore, the characteristic of the learner of the lower secondary school was described, followed by the relation of motivation and foreign language learning and didactic games and activities with competitive elements description.

The practical part of this thesis presented the research design and research results. Six research questions have been introduced, the answer to five of them was positive while to the last one it was negative. The answer to the research questions 1. Do didactic games motivate learners to learn English?, 2. Do learners of the lower secondary school enjoy didactic games in English lessons?, 3. Do learners of the lower secondary school prefer English lessons with didactic games more than the lessons without them?, 4. Do learners in the 6th grade prefer didactic games in English lessons more than the learners in the 9th grade do?, and 5. Do learners in the 9th grade find didactic games more childish than the learners in the 6th grade do? was positive. The answer to the research question 6. Do learners of the lower secondary school enjoy competitions in the English lessons as much as didactic games? was negative.

Overall, one can be pleasantly surprised by the learners' huge awareness of the didactic games' advantages and their enjoyment of the didactic games in all grades of the lower secondary school. Finally, the research results showed that a didactic game is a valuable teaching method which should be used both by the author of this thesis in the future career as an English teacher and other teachers in their English lessons.

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Appendix

Dobrý den,

jmenuji se Kamila Cermanová a ráda bych vás požádala o vyplnění tohoto dotazníku k mé diplomové práci. Tématem mé diplomové práce jsou vyučovací hodiny anglického jazyka (dále AJ) na 2. stupni ZŠ, didaktické hry a soutěže. Pokud jste tedy žákem 2. stupně základní školy, učíte se anglicky a dotazník vyplníte, získané informace pro mě budou velmi cenné.

Dotazník je plně anonymní, obsahuje 25 otázek rozdělených do 5 částí a zabere Vám zhruba 5 minut. Při vyplňování se prosím zamyslete převážně nad hodinami v rámci prezenční výuky ve škole.

Děkuji a přeji mnoho studijních úspěchů nejen v angličtině.

Úvod

1. Učíte se anglický jazyk ve škole?
   a. Ano
   b. Ne
2. Který ročník ZŠ navštěvujete?
   a. 6.
   b. 7.
   c. 8.
   d. 9.
3. V jakém městě základní školu navštěvujete?

Vyučovací hodiny anglického jazyka – obecně

4. Máte pocit, že jste motivováni v hodinách AJ?
   a. Ano
   b. Ne
5. Líbí se Vám hodiny AJ?
   a. Ano
   b. Ne
6. Jak moc souhlasíte, že se Vám líbí hodiny AJ?
   a. Velmi souhlasím
   b. Souhlasím
   c. Neutrální postoj

     d. Nesouhlasím

     e. Velmi nesouhlasím

7. Baví Vás hodiny AJ?

     a. Ano

     b. Ne

8. Jak často Vás baví hodiny AJ?

     a. Vždy

     b. Většinou

     c. Někdy ano, někdy ne (půl na půl)

     d. Zřídka

     e. Nikdy

Hry

9. Hrajete v hodinách AJ hry?

     a. Ano

     b. Ne

10. Jak často hrajete hry v hodinách AJ?

     a. Každou hodinu

     b. Jednou týdně

     c. Jednou za 14 dní

     d. Jednou za měsíc

     e. Jednou za pololetí

     f. Nikdy

11. Baví Vás hry v hodinách AJ?

     a. Ano

     b. Ne

12. Jak moc souhlasíte, že Vás baví hry v hodinách AJ?

     a. Velmi souhlasím

     b. Souhlasím

     c. Neutrální postoj

     d. Nesouhlasím

     e. Velmi nesouhlasím

13. Přijdou Vám hry ve vyučování AJ dětské, tzn. nevhodné pro Váš věk?

     a. Ano

b. Ne

14. Jak moc dětské Vám přijdou hry v hodinách AJ?

    a. Jsou velmi dětské

    b. Spíše jsou dětské

    c. Neutrální

    d. Spíše nejsou dětské

    e. Vůbec nejsou dětské

15. Myslíte si, že při hře se můžete učit anglicky?

    a. Ano

    b. Ne

16. Které hodiny AJ Vám více vyhovují?

    a. S hrami

    b. Bez her

17. Myslíte si, že hry v hodinách AJ motivují k učení?

    a. Ano

    b. Ne

18. Motivují **VÁS** hry v hodinách AJ?

    a. Ano

    b. Částečně

    c. Ne

Soutěže

19. Máte někdy soutěže v hodinách AJ?

    a. Ano

    b. Ne

20. Jak často máte soutěže v hodinách AJ?

    a. Každou hodinu

    b. Jednou týdně

    c. Jednou za 14 dní

    d. Jednou za měsíc

    e. Jednou za pololetí

    f. Nikdy

21. Baví Vás soutěže v hodinách AJ?

    a. Ano

b. Ne

22. Jak moc souhlasíte, že Vás baví soutěže v hodinách AJ?

    a. Velmi souhlasím

    b. Souhlasím

    c. Neutrální postoj

    d. Nesouhlasím

    e. Velmi nesouhlasím

Otevřené otázky

V této části se prosím zamyslete, jaké hry nebo soutěže hrajete v hodinách AJ – ať už v rámci prezenční výuky ve škole nebo i nyní v rámci distanční výuky a své odpovědi prosím co nejvíce rozepište.

23. Jaké hry nebo soutěže hrajete v hodinách AJ?

24. Co se Vám líbí na hrách a soutěžích v hodinách AJ?

25. Co se Vám nelíbí na hrách a soutěžích v hodinách AJ?

Závěr

Děkuji Vám za vyplnění dotazníku. Pokud máte nějaké doplňující informace, které byste mi chtěli sdělit, můžete zde. Pokud nemáte, klikněte na "ODESLAT".

    Prostor pro doplňující informace a připomínky:

Résumé

Tato diplomová práce se věnuje didaktickým hrám jako motivaci učení anglického jazyka. V teoretické části jsou představena témata motivace a učení, žák druhého stupně základní školy je zde charakterizován, dále je ujasněn vztah motivace a učení cizího jazyka, didaktické hry a soutěže popsány. Výzkum byl zaměřen na názory žáků na didaktické hry v jejich vyučovacích hodinách anglického jazyka. Výsledky výzkumu jsou prezentovány v praktické části této diplomové práce.

Anotace

Jméno a příjmení:	Bc. Kamila Cermanová
Katedra nebo ústav:	Ústav cizích jazyků
Vedoucí práce:	Mgr. Ondřej Duda
Rok obhajoby:	2021

Název práce:	Didaktické hry jako motivace učení anglického jazyka
Název v angličtině:	Didactic Games as Motivation to Learn English Language
Anotace práce:	Diplomová práce se zabývá didaktickými hrami a jejich motivačním faktorem při učení anglického jazyka. Teoretická část představuje nejprve motivaci a učení obecně, poté konkretizuje vztah motivace a učení cizího jazyka. Dále jsou popsány didaktické hry a soutěže. V praktické části jsou prezentovány výsledky výzkumu, který byl zaměřen na názory žáků druhého stupně ZŠ na didaktické hry ve vyučovacích hodinách anglického jazyka.
Klíčová slova:	Didaktické hry, soutěže, motivace, učení anglického jazyka, názory žáků
Anotace v angličtině:	The diploma thesis focuses on didactic games and their motivational effect on English language learning. The theoretical part deals with motivation, learning, motivation and foreign language learning, didactic games and activities with competitive elements. The practical part presents the research results about the learners' opinions on didactic games in the English lessons.
Klíčová slova v angličtině:	Didactic games, competitions, motivation, English language learning, learners' opinions
Přílohy vázané v práci:	1 příloha (dotazník, 4 strany)
Rozsah práce:	69 s.
Jazyk práce:	Anglický jazyk