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"Teachers' Beliefs Regarding Games in English and Russian as a Foreign Language Classrooms"

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Table of contents

List of figures

List of tables

1. Introduction

In the course of history, foreign language teaching has gone through various transformations and has seen quite a number of different approaches. Similarly, today, experts from different fields continuously explore innovative methods and devise new exercises to ensure that the students experience a successful learning process.

One approach, which has been continuously investigated in regard to its effectiveness in the foreign language classroom, revolves around teaching through games. Due to the apparent similarities between learning and playing, it has often been proposed that teachers should regularly employ games as a tool for foreign language teaching. It can be argued, for instance, that integrating such activities into the lessons could nurture students' natural and intrinsic motivation to learn and transform the often quite tedious classroom atmosphere into an enjoyable learning-friendly environment. Moreover, it can be claimed that games play an important role in a child's development and therefore constitute an integral part of childhood. However, due to the fact that incorporating games into foreign language teaching also entails several drawbacks, both inside and beyond teachers' control, the majority of foreign language teachers in secondary schools does not employ games in their lessons on a regular basis.

This thesis aims to investigate secondary school teachers' beliefs regarding the use of games in the English and Russian foreign language classrooms in order to determine why this highly profitable approach remains uncommon for the most part. More specifically, the goal is to analyse foreign language teachers' employment of games in their teaching as well as their beliefs on the matter and finally to compare the findings with the existing theory on games as well as previous studies on teachers' beliefs on this matter. In order to conduct this specialised research, there are several questions that need to be addressed first.

As to the use of games in context of foreign language teaching, for example, it is crucial to, first of all, discuss what actually constitutes a game in contrast to other forms of play and also which features distinguish educational games from games in general. Moreover, it is important to consider the varying terminology that exists in the English and German literature, since both of these languages are used in the research study. Besides these aspects, there is also the question of how to successfully incorporate games into the foreign language classroom and of course the necessity to address the common advantages and disadvantages teachers face when choosing this approach in their lessons.

As far as the goal of investigating foreign language teachers' beliefs is concerned, this topic also raises a series of questions that need to be acknowledged. These questions, first and foremost, include making sense of the complex terminology of this field and discussing the

potential insights gained from investigating language teacher cognition as well as their implications on the teaching profession as a whole. Furthermore, it also involves determining the various categories of language teacher cognition; in other words, what aspects foreign language teachers actually hold beliefs about. It also encompasses the fact that teachers' beliefs do not remain constant, but rather continuously change, depending on different experiences that teachers go through both before and after they enter their teaching profession. Finally, aiming to analyse secondary school teachers' beliefs inevitably also entails determining which research tool is both the most appropriate and also most convenient for the purpose of this study.

In light of these theoretical and practical considerations outlined above, the thesis was divided into the following two main parts: the theoretical background on both the topic of games and language teacher cognition research and the detailed account of the empirical study.

2. Games as a tool in foreign language teaching

2.1. What is a game?

In order to discuss the use of games as an educational tool in foreign language teaching, it is necessary to undertake the task of defining the term *game* in general. In addition to that, this section presents several theories about games and some terminological deliberations about the differences between the terms *game* and *play* as well as between the terms used in English and German literature.

2.1.1. Theories and definitions

The task of formulating hypotheses about the nature of games has been undertaken by a great number of theorists from a variety of fields. As will become apparent in this section, there are distinct differences between these theories, which can often be discerned by simply looking at the diverging uses of the term in the literature (Scheuerl 1979: 69). As stated by Klippel (1980: 11), several game theorists of the nineteenth century, such as Spencer (1855) and Groos (1899), have developed universal theories about games, which mainly investigate the function of games. For Spencer, for instance, games function as a trigger to release the surplus of energy that people, particularly children, have stored in them (Scheuerl 1975: 55). Groos, on the other hand, sees games as a way of practicing and learning the skills that are needed for coping with adulthood (Klippel 1980: 11). In contrast to that, theorist of the twentieth century, which among others include Huizinga (1998 [1949]) and Caillois (2001 [1961]), concentrate their investigation on the complexity of this phenomenon (Klippel 1980: 11). Since both of these

theorists, however, use the term *play* instead of *game* in their works, their statements will be discussed in a separate section that focuses on the difference between these two terms.

Later research on games focuses on describing the distinct aspects of games as well as determining the function and value of games as an educational tool at school (Klippel 1980: 11-12). Developmental psychologists, such as Piaget, and play theorists, such as Sutton-Smith, have investigated games in connection with the cognitive development of children, concluding that play, particularly in early childhood, can be considered to promote cognitive growth (Klippel 1980: 12). According to Salen and Zimmermann (2004: 78), Sutton-Smith can be considered "the most prolific and important scholar of play and games in the twentieth century". Klippel (1980: 12) adds that these research efforts have increasingly focused less on describing the effects and uses of games and more on the task of defining them. All in all, as claimed by Scheuerl (1979: 69), it is possible to detect a coherence between the manifold conceptualisations of the notion of games. Nevertheless, as will become apparent below, there is no single prevalent definition of this term, but rather an array of quite a number of descriptions, each focusing on different aspects of this complex phenomenon.

In his work *Serious Games*, Abt (1987 [1970]: 6-7) proposes to define a game as "an *activity* among two or more independent *decision-makers* seeking to achieve their *objectives* in some *limiting context* [...] with rules among adversaries trying to win objectives". He also notes, however, that players may sometimes need to cooperate rather than compete to reach the desired objective (Abt 1987 [1970]: 7). Gibbs describes games very similarly, namely as "[a]n activity carried out by cooperating or competing decision makers, seeking to achieve, within a set of rules, their objectives" (Gibbs 1987: 60, quoted in Rixon 1981: 3). As Bush (2015: 18) explains, however, this definition could also apply to marriage and therefore activities that are not commonly seen as games. In addition, he notes that the distinction between games and sports is not always clear cut (Bush 2015: 18). For instance, while the Oxford English Dictionary defines a game as "[a]n activity that one engages in for amusement or fun", it also provides another definition which is worded as follows: "[a] form of competitive activity or sport played according to rules" (www.oed.com/). Consequently, it can be argued that there is considerable overlap between the two terms. In the end, it can be claimed that sports can be differentiated from games in general by the level of physical activity required to perform them (Bush 2015: 18).

Taking a more behaviourist approach, Betrus and Botturi (2010: 34) define games as "specific forms of playing that often develop out of human beings' natural tendency to play[, …] a set of rigid structures—namely, rules and rules embodied by toys—that define a limited

action space". Cook (2000: 127) also views games from a behaviourist perspective; however, his definition focuses more on the cultural aspect of games. He (2000: 127) describes games as "intricate, rule-governed, and culturally variable competitive activities […] [which] generally involve a substantial role for chance; […] are used as instruments of competition; and […] express and create cultural value and identity". The former definition can be regarded as taking an evolutionary perspective on games, while the latter can be rather described as adopting a cultural perspective (Cook 2000: 97).

Another way of defining games is by determining the characteristic features that are common to all games. One such key element, addressed by El-Shamy (2001: 7), is the aspect of competition. Rixon (1981: 5) also identifies competition as a characteristic feature of games. Moreover, similarly to Abt's (1987 [1970]: 7) comment in the previous section, he (1981: 5) also points out that "there are some [games] in which cooperation is the main thing". Another frequently mentioned feature is that of closedness. In fact, according to Rixon (1981: 4), "[g]ames are closed activities. In other words they have a very clearly marked beginning and end". Scheuerl, drawing on different game theories, also addresses the aspect of closedness by stating that games are closed in nature not only due to restrictions of time but also since they are isolated from their surroundings by their specific purpose and rules (Scheuerl 1979: 94-96). This statement addresses three further features of games, namely time constraints, a clear aim, and rules. The feature of being restricted in time is closely related to the game's aim, meaning that once it is reached the game naturally comes to an end. In order to achieve the goal of the game, the participants need to adhere to a set of rules. Parlett summarises these aspects as the "ends" and "means" of a game (Parlett 1999: 3, quoted in Salen & Zimmerman 2004: 74). Taking all of this into consideration, the characteristic features of a game are its competitive or cooperative nature, its closedness, its time constraints, and its purpose and rules.

2.1.3. Play versus game

As mentioned in the introduction to this section, there are two differing, yet quite similar, terms found in the English language, namely *play* and *game*. As will become apparent here, both are equally as difficult to define. Moreover, there is a terminological overlap and problematic relationship between the two terms (Cook 2000: 127). The main contributions to outlining the distinction between them are presented below.

Two early often-cited experts on play are Huizinga (1998 [1949]) and Caillois (2001 [1961]). According to Huizinga, play can be described as follows:

> Summing up the formal characteristics of play we might call it a free activity
> standing quite consciously outside "ordinary" life as being "not serious," but at the

same time absorbing the player intensely and utterly. It is an activity connected with no material interest, and no profit can be gained by it. It proceeds within its own proper boundaries of time and space according to fixed rules and in an orderly manner. (Huizinga 1998 [1949]: 13)

Moreover, Huizinga (1998 [1949]: 57) emphasises the relationship between play and culture, explaining that "culture arises in the form of play", which entails that play can be seen as a cultural phenomenon. He (1998 [1949]: 46), further, notes that "this […] do[es] not mean that play turns into culture, rather that in its earliest phases culture has the play-character". This perspective can be linked to the aforementioned behaviourist views of games presented in section 2.1.2. Caillois acknowledges but also advances Huizinga's theory since it does not, in his opinion, cover all instances of play (Cook 2000: 114). In fact, he (2001 [1961]: 4) deems it "at the same time too broad and too narrow". His own description of the notion of play is that of a make-believe activity that is free, separate, uncertain, unproductive, and governed by rules (Caillois 2001 [1961]: 9-10). Looking at this definition, there are two features that can be considered to distinguish *play* from *game*. Firstly, this concerns the aspect of uncertainty which is described by Caillois (2001 [1961]: 7) as follows: "[a]n outcome known in advance, with no possibility of error or surprise, clearly leading to an inescapable result, is incompatible with the nature of play". In contrast to this statement, games always involve a clear objective, which means that their outcome is prescribed in advance. Secondly, *play* and *game* can be distinguished by the aspect of rules. Caillois (2001 [1961]: 8), in fact, highlights that not all play necessarily implies rules and refers to examples, such as playing with dolls or playing different characters. He terms these activities as "games […] which presuppose free improvisation" (Caillois (2001 [1961]: 8). Similarly, Rixon (1981: 3) refers to the activity of playing around with a ball in the park, suggesting that "[a] game consists of play governed by rules". He concludes that "adding rules about how and where you can kick the ball and giving your efforts an objective […] turn this play into a game" (Rixon 1981: 3). Consequently, the term *play* can be seen as a hypernym of *game*, in other words, a type of play that is governed by rules and has a clear objective.

Ultimately, it can be argued that even though this distinction may be a unique phenomenon of the English language, it does seem to offer a valuable opportunity for terminological deliberations. Nevertheless, even in the English literature on games and play, these terms are still often used interchangeably.

2.1.4. English versus German terms

In addition to the distinction between *play* and *game*, it is necessary to mention that while English contains these two different terms, in German both are translated with the word *Spiel*. Hence, when coming across the term *Spiel* in German literature, it is not always determinable whether it refers to a game or play.

In order to solve this terminological issue, several theorists have come up with more specialised terms to distinguish between games that do not share the same features. Klippel (1980: 13), for instance, translates the English term *play* as *freies Spiel*, and uses the term *Regelspiel* to refer to games. She adds, however, that due to the vast number of different types of games, it is likely that there are some intermediate forms (Klippel 1980: 17). When it comes to educational games, which are the topic of the next section, Klippel (1980: 19) terms them *Lernspiele*. According to Schiffler (1982: 112), however, there is no overall consensus on the interpretation of this term. Kleppin (2003: 263) follows Klippel's scheme and distinguishes between *Sprachlernspiel* and *Sprachspiel*, which can be translated into English using the terms *language game* and *language play*, respectively. But she also remarks that the existing literature mostly disregards this differentiation (Kleppin 2003: 263). Having investigated both English and German literature, it becomes apparent that authors often simply use the most common terms, namely *game* or *Spiel*, and do not always clearly indicate which type they refer to.

2.2. Games for didactic purposes

2.2.1. Historical background of using games in education

The idea of using games in education is not at all a new concept. In fact, it can be traced back to Roman times, as stated by Betrus and Botturi (2010: 35). While the education system at that time was far from what it is today, ideas from those times bear great similarities to modern ones, especially when it comes to highlighting the connection between playing and learning, or as Betrus and Botturi put it, "amusement and learning" (2010: 35). This aspect is discussed in more detail later in section 2.3.1.

Besides this, the possibly strongest proponent of using games in teaching is the progressive education movement which emerged at the turn of the twentieth century (Betrus & Botturi 2010: 37, Döring 1997: 40). According to the philosophies and teaching methods of this movement, formal education should nurture children's intrinsic motivation and curiosity to learn and should, therefore, include games and game-like activities (Betrus & Botturi 2010: 37). Moreover, progressive education highlights the versatility and productivity of employing games in classroom instruction (Döring 1997: 40). Despite this strong endorsement of learning through

games, these ideas only remained an unconventional alternative to the common teaching methods for many years. According to Döring (1997: 45), it was only in the 1970s, when the effects of this movement finally became apparent and started influencing classroom practice. This s also linked to the spread of new learning theories in the second half of the twentieth century, at which point approaches to language teaching began to transform from being rigid and teacher-centred to placing special emphasis on the learner (Wang & Ha 2012: 261-262). These new theories brought along new curriculum requirements, causing an increasing number of teachers to use games as a teaching tool (Yolageldili & Arikan 2011: 219, Wang, Shang & Briody 2011: 128, Alpar 2013: 1249).

When it comes to studies on using games in the foreign language classroom, a growing number of experts have been undertaking this endeavour over the past decades. While many of these studies focus on determining the general effects of using games in this context[1], some investigate their effectiveness in regard to more specific aspects, such as teaching vocabulary or grammar.[2] The overall conclusion of these studies is in favour of using games in foreign language teaching. Despite this advocacy, experts, such as Bush (2015: 19), claim that teachers often choose not to use games in their lessons, either "because of classroom management concerns, strict test-based curriculums, administrators who do not allow such activities, or other reasons". These and further disadvantages as well as the common advantages of using games in foreign language teaching will be addressed in more detail in sections 2.4. and 2.3., respectively.

2.2.2. Definitions of games in educational settings

Besides the array of definitions of the term *game* in general, different experts have also engaged in specifying the subcategory of educational games, particularly those used at schools. Fitzgerald (1997, quoted in Bush 2015: 18) defines games used for didactic purposes as "an instructional method requiring the learner to participate in a competitive activity with preset rules". Bush remarks, however, that "this definition […] lacks a specific reference to educational objectives" (Bush 2015: 18). This discerning feature of educational games is also highlighted by Betrus and Botturi, who make the following statement:

> Like any instructional method or tool, the most important thing for teachers is to match their goals and objectives with the appropriate means to achieve them. […] [Consequently,] games should be used appropriately and with specific educational purposes. (Betrus & Botturi 2010: 44)

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[1] See Wang, Shang and Briody (2011), see Guillén-Nieto and Aleson-Carbonell (2012), see Alpar (2013).
[2] See Yolageldili and Arikan (2011), see Chou (2014), see Bush (2015).

It can be concluded that a game constitutes an educational game if its objectives teach the participants something rather than simply entertaining them.

Since a great number of researchers specifically focus on games as an educational tool for language teaching, some experts have theorised about the characteristics of this specific type of game. Rixon (1981: 3) explains, for instance, that "[f]or language-teaching purposes [teachers] need to make sure that the skills needed in any game are heavily enough weighted on the language side". He adds that the aspect of luck also needs to be taken into consideration when employing games in the language classroom, since games that involve too much luck may not foster the students' language learning process and therefore waste their time (Rixon 1981: 4). In addition, it is relevant to point out that, as claimed by Lee (1985: 3), "[t]here is no clear-cut line of division in language teaching between games and non-games". He argues that a reason for that may be the fact that "[g]ames in the strict sense […] shade off into game-like activities which have a less formal design (Lee 1985: 3). This statement can be compared with Klippel's aforementioned comment on possible intermediate forms between games and play.

2.2.3. General classifications

Already in the mid-nineteenth century, Grasberger (1864: 23, quoted in Steinhilber 1979: 76) pointed out that no expert has yet been able to provide a satisfactory classification of games. Despite this bleak prospect, quite a number of experts have pursued the task of classifying games into different categories; however, without a consensus in sight. Kleppin (1980: 35) explains that this is so due to the arbitrariness of the organisation of game compilations, which is most likely implemented for practical reasons rather than to provide a systematic classification. She, moreover, states that it is essentially impossible to clearly demarcate different games (Kleppin 1980: 37). Rixon (1981: 4) and Klippel (1980: 112) elaborate this claim by pointing to the overlap between the categories, which consequently deems categorisations based on a single criterion insufficient. Despite this discord, some of the most common classifications are summarised in the following list, including examples of games in the brackets:

1. utilised materials (card games, picture games, dice games),
2. type of activity performed by the students (ordering, matching, ranking),
3. topic (numbers, school objects, animals),
4. underlying principle (guessing, question and answer, true and false),
5. age group of the target audience (young learners, teenage students, adults),
6. proficiency level of the learners (beginners, intermediate, advanced),

7. number of participants (group games, pair games, individual games).

2.2.4. Classification of language games

Having addressed the various approaches to classifying games in general, it is also relevant to discuss the classification of language games in particular. In Rixon's opinion, for instance, "[t]he most obvious way of classifying games from a language teacher's point of view is according to the language they practise: listening games, spelling games, games to help students build vocabulary, games that bring in a structure or a function, and so on" (Rixon 1981: 1). On that basis, he proposes to distinguish between games that aim at linguistic correctness and those that focus on communicative effectiveness (Rixon 1981: 8). To games, in which the main objective is that the students use and understand specific chunks of language correctly, he refers to as "code-control games" (Rixon 1981: 22). They are characterised by their focus on form rather than content, their similarity to drills because of their repetitive nature and the usually limited length of the practiced chunks (Rixon 1981: 22). Games that focus on communicative effectiveness, on the other hand, are commonly termed "communication games" (Rixon 1981: 27, Lee 1985: 2). In contrast to code-control games, their focus lies mainly on the content, more specifically on the achievement of a specific communicative goal and therefore usually entails exchanging information with one or several other people (Rixon 1981: 27, Lee 1985: 2). In case of unsuccessful communication "the game falls flat and comes to an end" (Lee 1985: 2).

In contrast to Rixon's proposition, Löffler suggests classifying language games according to communicative possibilities involved in games (Löffler 1979: 35, quoted in Kilp 2010: 101). Kilp describes Löffler's approach as follows:

> Löfflers Typologisierung der SLS [(Sprachlernspiele)] beruht auf den kommunikativen Möglichkeiten. Sie findet daher eine Dreiteilung in Lernen, Darstellen und Interagieren. Jedes Spiel verfügt über alle drei Komponenten. Die Einteilung wird nach den Schwerpunkten vorgenommen. (Kilp 2010: 101)

The category with the emphasis on learning (Lernspiele) includes games that aim at acquiring and enhancing the four language skills as well as practicing language structures and forms (Kilp 2010: 101). Games in the second category (darstellende Spiele) are focused on practicing speaking freely, for instance, through dialogues, skits and drama (Kilp 2010: 101-102). The third category (Interaktionsspiele) is determined by the role of the participants and the interaction between them (Kilp 2010: 101). Once the communicative emphasis of different games is established, they can be allocated to one of the three categories.

As with the definitions, teachers also do not always apply clear distinctions when it comes to the categories of games. Hence, the classification used for the practical part of this thesis

consists of Rixon's proposed classification and some widely known game categories. It includes the following types of games: vocabulary/grammar games, communicative games, role play, kinetic games, board games, computer games and pronunciation games. The reasons behind the selection process as well as the wording of the types of games are outlined in section 4.4.

2.2.5. Didactic considerations

In order to effectively and appropriately use games in language teaching, teachers need to first answer several interrelated questions. These include: when, for what purpose, for whom and how a game should be used in the classroom. Since the last question strongly relates to organisational concerns, it will be addressed in the subsequent section.

Regarding the question of when it is most appropriate to utilise games in language teaching, Rixon (1981: 71) suggests that teachers should base their decision on whether a game fits the particular stage of the lesson. In other words, certain types of games can be argued to be very effective at a certain stage but rather fruitless at a different point in the lesson. For instance, while a pair game would be quite ineffective when a new item of language is presented to the class, "a game in which the teacher acts as master of ceremonies and as judge […] would fit this stage much better" (Rixon 1981: 71). In addition, it is relevant to mention a common use of games, namely to fill leftover minutes at the end of a lesson. While both Rixon (1981: 69) and Lee (1985: 3) generally do not criticise this usage, they stress that the overall aim of using games in the language classroom should be to integrate them into the lesson and make them a central part of the course.

This takes us to the next point, namely the purpose of language games. While so-called fillers usually only serve to fill a gap in the lesson, most other games have a specific purpose, which can typically be deduced from their classification. Thus, as mentioned in section 2.2.2., code-control games usually aim at practicing the use of a linguistic or grammatical item, while communicative games intend to improve the students' communicative skills. In addition, several other purposes can be distinguished, such as leading or delving deeper into a topic, serving as a tool for gaining the students' attention or for loosening up after a tense exercise. What is important to consider here is the fact that teachers need to adapt how they administer a game depending on the chosen purpose. For instance, teachers may need to move at a slow pace during a game that introduces a new topic, since it may be frequently interrupted by students' questions. Fillers and games for unwinding, on the other hand, will need a much faster pace.

Finally, before playing games in the language classroom, teachers need to concern themselves with the question about the target audience. Rixon (1981: 34) provides detailed

guidelines for choosing a suitable game dependent on the target audience's age, level of proficiency and attitude to learning. For instance, he suggests that "[i]n a mixed-ability class […] it [is] far more productive to have groups of students working together than to have individual students struggling without much hope of being among the winners" (Rixon 1981: 37). Similarly, it can be argued that for a class of male students, competitive games would be a suitable choice due to the fact that they may have a positive effect on the motivation of such learners.

On top of that, teachers also need to consider other aspects in order to ensure the success of a game. For example, certain games may require the students to have specific knowledge on a topic, which means, that the teachers need to make sure they provide that knowledge in advance. According to Betrus and Botturi (2010: 50), "[s]tudents who lack proper content knowledge may be quickly overwhelmed, which will hinder their learning during the game". Thus, Paul and Paul (1981: 59) express that simply following the age statement on games is not always a sufficient reference point for classroom use. Another aspect concerns the participation of the class. It is suggested, for instance, that teachers should aim to ideally involve all the students in a game (Kurzreiter 1981: 21). This can be achieved either by employing group games that involve all learners at the same time or by structuring games in a way that the active students rotate during the game.

In conclusion, it can be stated that knowing many different games is not enough to successfully employ them in teaching. In fact, Rixon (1981: 1) claims that "[a]n effective user of games in the language classroom is […] someone who has really thought about them and knows their ingredients and how they can be varied to call forth different activities and skills from the players". Consequently, to make the most of games in foreign language teaching, it may be wise to devise a checklist of the aforementioned questions and answer them before the lesson.

2.2.6. Organisational guidelines

Besides the list of didactic considerations, the employment of games also requires certain organisational guidelines, relating to how best to utilise games for educational purposes. These specifications can be divided regarding what to pay attention to before, during and after playing a game in class.

Concerning the pre-playing stage, several experts highlight the importance of properly introducing games to the class. Betrus and Botturi (2010: 49) refer to this as a "briefing" and explain that it serves to stipulate the game's rules, its aim and learning outcomes as well as the

expectations. In regard to giving instructions, Rixon (1981: 57) adds that "[i]t is not enough simply to read out the rules of a new game, or to hand out a written copy of the rules". A proper introduction, in his opinion, includes both an explanation of the rules and a demonstration of how to play the game and should be, if possible or necessary, stated in the students' native language in order to ensure their full comprehension (Rixon 1981: 57). Wright, Betteridge and Buckby (1992: 6) even propose carrying out a "trial by a group in front of the class" in order to eliminate the students' uncertainties. In addition, Rixon (1981: 57) states that teachers should also use the pre-playing stage to group the students and provide them with the required material as well as explanations on how to use it. Regarding the former point, Lee (1985: 4) suggests that, especially with young learners, groups should ideally not be reorganised each time; on the one hand, because it is time consuming, on the other hand, as "it disturbs a child's sense of 'belonging'". With older learners, however, swapping groups might be more acceptable and could be performed by using so-called group formation games, in which the students find their partners by matching words or pictures or similar exercises.

As to organisational aspects during the game, there are several points to consider. Firstly, teachers should, as explained by Betrus and Botturi (2010: 50), observe their learners' actions during the game in order to be able to support their learning process. Moreover, these observations can help teachers notice which students may require additional support during the game (Lee 1985: 10). In such cases, the next step would be to identify ways to ensure that all students, especially the shy ones, participate in the game. Possible measures, as suggested by Lee (1985: 11), are to either "whisper suggestions to those who do not know what to say" or to encourage the stronger students to support the weaker ones by promoting "[m]utual help within the class, […] team or group". Secondly, it is important to consider how to correct student errors during games. As with any other activity in the language classroom, games also lead to errors in the students' performances. However, additional considerations need to be made if they occur while the learners are playing a game. Regarding errors in general, Rixon (1981: 64) argues that they are a fundamental feature of the language learning process; however, they cannot be disregarded during a lesson. When it comes to error correction during games, it is advised to base the decision on whether the game is aimed at linguistic correctness or communicative effectiveness. In the case of communication games, for instance, it would not be reasonable to stop a game in order to review the use of a specific linguistic feature since it may ruin the flow of the game (Rixon 1981: 64). Consequently, error correction during such games should mainly focus on errors which "lead to breakdowns in communication" (Rixon 1981: 64). Code-control games, on the other hand, require a different approach. In fact, during such games immediate

correction is often imperative since the learners might otherwise incorrectly learn the new language form or grammatical structure. However, error correction, nonetheless, needs to be administered tactfully, since its poor usage or overuse can cause learners to view games as tasks "set to trap them into mistakes, and if this happens, they may become too self-conscious to get anything […] out of the activities" (Rixon 1981: 64). As for errors that require a detailed explanation, it is advisable to take note of them during the game and address them afterwards (Rixon 1981: 65). All in all, Rixon (1981: 65) suggests that teachers should try to correct their students indirectly and "use [their own] judgement about whether intervening will disrupt the game too much [or not]". The third organisational consideration has to do with scoring, which needs to be well thought out before playing a game in class. Both Lee (1985: 7) and Rixon (1981: 61) recommend that teachers should use different scoring methods in their lessons. Regarding the point system, Lee favours methods that award points for correct answers over those that deduct points for wrong answers (Lee 1985: 7). In any case, the scoring method should not only be clear to the teacher but also to the students. Moreover, any inconsistencies in it should be avoided since they can cause students to get the feeling of being treated unfairly. And finally, Rixon (1981: 58) addresses the benefits of teachers' regular comments during a game. For instance, he argues that such comments can demonstrate the teacher's interest in the students' actions and encourage them to continue participating (Rixon 1981: 58). He (1981: 58) adds that teachers should be careful when expressing negative comments during a game, explaining that while "[p]ositive comments can be made about individuals […,] negative comments should be kept more general".

Beside these organisational guidelines for the pre-playing and while-playing stages, the follow-up after the game is also decisive when it comes to reaching the desired learning outcomes. One way of ensuring that is by debriefing the class after the game, which Betrus and Botturi (2010: 49) describe as a time in which "students […] reflect on their complete experience while playing the game". Without such a debriefing session, the students are left with undeliberated impressions of their playing experience and uncertain learning outcomes (Betrus & Botturi 2010: 49). Of course, there are some games, such as the aforementioned group formation games, that do not require a follow-up; however, with most elaborate games it is essential to allot some extra time after the game is finished to discuss the experience.

Finally, when it comes to incorporating games into foreign language lessons, teachers need to reconsider their role during the activities, since it often deviates from that in traditional classroom exercises. When employing code-control games, for example, teachers may be required to assume the role of the master of ceremonies or the quizmaster, which entails putting

questions or other challenges to the learners (Rixon 1981: 59). They can even, if the situation permits it, take on the role of a participant during the game; however, this is only rarely possible (Klippel 1980: 101). Another important role during code-control games is that of an evaluator or assessor, which requires the teacher to judge the correctness of the students' responses during the game (Rixon 1981: 60, Kilp 2010: 98). Finally, as quite a number of games, particularly those that aim at correctness, involve a scoring system, another noteworthy role is that of a scorer (Rixon 1981: 61, Klippel 1980: 101). When it comes to communication games, teachers may have to recede into the background and take on the role of an observer, in which case the teacher only intervenes in the game if it is absolutely necessary (Rixon 1981: 63, Kurzreiter 1981: 19). Moreover, the teacher can act as a consultant, involving the task of being available to help students when they struggle to find the best way to express themselves (Rixon 1981: Kilp 2010: 98). As with having the responsibility of judging the correctness of students' utterances in code-control games, teachers may also be required to be a corrector in communication games (Rixon 1981: 64). However, as it is inadvisable to correct every minor issue in such games, Rixon (1981: 65) suggests acting as a monitor instead, which involves using a monitoring sheet to take note of issues during the game in order to address them afterwards. Finally, since games, in this case both code-control and communicative ones, are often competitive in nature, they may require the teacher to be a referee (Rixon 1981: 67).

2.3. Advantages of using games in foreign language teaching

When it comes to using games in foreign language teaching and in the language classroom in general, it is clear that there are several favourable effects at work. On the one hand, this can be attributed to the fact that, as will be discussed below, playing games and learning have noticeable similarities. On the other hand, using games to teach foreign languages entail several advantages that can be collectively referred to as positive side-effects.

2.3.1. Similarities between playing games and learning

The overlap between playing and learning has been a long-debated topic among educators. According to Walter (1993: 88-90, quoted in Döring 1997: 24), the relationship between learning and playing is described from three different perspectives, namely as either congruent, structurally diverging or from the standpoint of seeing the latter as an accompanying process of the former. While he himself is a proponent of the third position, Döring (1997: 25) proposes that the relation between playing and learning is contingent on the specific situation and context, which is why she claims that learning can be located on a continuum somewhere between being

a by-product of playing and complete congruence between the two aspects. Scheuerl (1979: 180) also reviews the likeness between playing and learning by stating that as long as a game requires the players to accomplish a specific goal, it can be argued to involve learning. Moreover, the amount of learning resulting from playing a game depends on its relation to the performance level of the player (Scheuerl 1979: 180). In other words, the more challenging the game is, the more learning takes place during it.

In addition to discussing the relation between playing and learning, it is also relevant to address the more specific relation between playing games and learning at school. Kurzreiter, for instance, makes the following statement:

> Die Schule steht zwischen der Kleinkindphase, für die das Spiel bestimmend ist, und der Erwachsenenwelt, in der das Spiel als Freizeitbetätigung oder als Hobby einen festen Platz im persönlichen Leben des Menschen gefunden hat. (Kurzreiter 1981: 12)

He continues by saying that when children enter school, playing is increasingly and often undesirably replaced by working, wherefore he suggests that by employing educational games it is possible to mitigate this severance and utilise the natural play instinct of children (Kurzreiter 1981: 12). Thus, it can be argued that games fulfil the purpose of linking natural learning to learning at school. Similarly, Schiffler (1982: 16-18) also sees games as a means to an end since, in his opinion, playing is both an important form of learning and a function in the learning process. He then proceeds to list several central functions of using games at school, which, since they can be characterised as advantages of this approach, are discussed in the subsequent section.

2.3.2. Positive side-effects

The perhaps most prominent benefit of using games in the foreign language classroom is their motivational potential. For instance, both Schiffler (1982: 16) and Kleppin (1980: 32) claim that learning through games can be motivating for the students. Kleppin (1980: 32), moreover, states that this motivation can further the students' prospective use of the target language and may even positively influence their attitude towards it. Betrus and Botturi (2010: 44) also name the increase in motivation as one of the advantages of playing games in the classroom, explaining that enjoyment during the lesson usually leads to significant and enduring learning experiences. In addition, they point out that while "[g]ames are surely not the only method to motivate learners, […] they are certainly one of the best" (Betrus & Botturi 2010: 44).

Another positive side-effect is linked to the framework created by games. Firstly, this has to do with the fact that games can provide a pleasant language learning environment (Klippel

1980: 75). In fact, Klippel (1980: 75) claims that playing games may take away students' fear of failure since teachers usually apply less pressure and fewer disciplinary measures during such activities. Lee (1985: 2-3) adds that games may help to shift the students' focus from constantly concentrating on the correct use of a language to simply using it, thus **"**helping the learners to experience language rather than to merely study it" (Wright, Betteridge & Buckby 1992: 2). Secondly, the created framework also concerns the relationship patterns between the teacher and the students as well as among the students. It can be argued, for example, that "[p]layers can become so engrossed in a game that they forget to act in the classic classroom patterns" (Rixon 1981: 5). Consequently, games may be used as a tool to provide learners the chance to free themselves from possible role constrictions at school (Kurzreiter 1981: 14). In addition, Lee (1985: 12) suggests that they can improve the relationship between teacher and students and thereby facilitate the learning process. Kurzreiter (1981: 14) even claims that games offer more insight into the student-student relationships than other exercises, which is why, as stated by Rixon (1981: 5), they can help solve issues among learners or break their habits by generating new classroom patterns.

As foreign language teachers strive to employ exercises that increase the students' speaking time, many of them turn to games since they can facilitate that. In fact, not only do games, as stated by Kurzreiter (1981: 14), effectively foster communication in general, they can also be said to multiply the verbal exchanges between the students in contrast to other activities (Kleppin 1980: 31). Moreover, due to their similarity to drills, at least when it comes to activities that aim at correctness, games provide a useful tool for the repetition of linguistic forms (El-Shamy 2001: 10). Lee (1985: 3) even suggest that games are a more suitable form of practice than common drills since they involve "repetition of *successful and interesting* communication which […] has the most encouraging, 'language advancing', and motivating effect". Consequently, it is no surprise that teachers seem to favour games over drills.

A further advantage of teaching a foreign language through games is the fact that it not only facilitates the learners' cognitive development, but also the appropriation of other skills and abilities. For instance, Kurzreiter (1981: 16) states that "[i]m Spiel werden […] auch Gefühl, Motorik, Spontaneität und Kreativität angesprochen". Thus, games can be seen as a compensatory and complementary activity in the classroom (Kurzreiter 1981: 16). Betrus and Botturi (2010: 44-46) also voice such additional benefits, namely the advancement of complex understanding, reflective learning, feedback and self-regulation.[3] Finally, it can also be claimed

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[3] For a detailed description of these benefits see Betrus and Botturi (2010: 44-46).

that games per se hold educational value for learners. With regard to that Kurzreiter (1981: 18) states that while playing, students learn various rules and their importance for a successful game, and thus gain valuable insights that can be transferred onto other situations. Therefore, games may help learners to better manage their social life.

Considering these various advantages, it can be argued that, as Lee (1985: 3) puts it, "on the whole […] games […] should be central to the language teaching programme". However, despite these benefits, games also entail several noteworthy challenges, which are discussed in the subsequent section.

2.4. Drawbacks of using games in foreign language teaching

Despite the aforementioned propositions for employing games in teaching, some experts, such as Bush (2015: 19), claim that teachers often do not do so. This is likely so due to the aforementioned extensive list of didactic considerations teachers have to pay attention to when using games as well as the fact that it requires a different approach to language teaching than traditional methods. According to Rixon (1981: 53), for example, a common obstacle teachers face when employing games in their classroom is the size of the class. For instance, he explains that "[p]roviding materials for pair games in a class of fifty is obviously beyond a hard-pressed teacher's capacity" (Rixon 1981: 53). One way of solving this problem is by buying materials or entire games. However, this highlights another drawback, namely the monetary cost of game-based teaching, since most games require specific materials for their employment.

The limited duration of the lesson as well as the lack of time to assemble or find suitable games can also present a challenge for using games in the foreign language classroom. In fact, as pointed out by Betrus and Botturi (2010: 47) games are quite time-consuming, both in terms of their preparation and their implementation. On this topic, Macedonia (2005: 140) states that with an average length of approximately 30 minutes, most games take up quite a substantial portion of the lessons, often not leaving enough time for other exercises. Consequently, when choosing a game, teachers need to consider whether its employment is realistic and feasible.

Another challenge of employing games in foreign language teaching is the fact it can generate too much noise in the classroom. Of course, the noise level of a class also generally indicates that the students are practicing the target language; however, it is down to the teacher to regulate that level. Rixon (1981: 57), for instance, suggests that "[s]tudents must be trained to play at a necessary rather than a deafening volume". Moreover, he advises, if necessary, to call upon less noisy games, such as "silent 'mass-response' […or] pencil-and-paper games"

(Rixon 1981: 57). In the end, the teachers' choice will have to depend on the group dynamics and thus will vary from class to class.

In addition to the disrupting clamour of the class, certain games can lead to problems in regard to classroom management, which were previously addressed in section 2.2.1. (see Bush 2015: 19). In fact, communicative games often require teachers to step out of their role of controlling a class (see section 2.2.6, Rixon 1981: 63). What's more, when games involve competition, they may induce students to cheat in order to win, which may also disturb the flow of the lesson. Betrus and Botturi (2010: 46-47) describe this disadvantage as the "[s]ubversion of [r]ules" and explain that the students' use of winning tactics "can have detrimental effects during the game". In other words, such behaviour may lead to the point that students, especially those that do follow the rules, cannot enjoy the game and are left with a negative impression (Betrus & Botturi 2010: 47). Furthermore, competitive games may also lead those that end up losing the game to obtain adverse feelings about their playing experience (Betrus & Botturi 2010: 51). Losing a game can even cause students to lose their temper, which is why Betrus and Botturi (2010: 51) suggest using competitive games with caution.

Finally, it is worth to mention that it is not easy to find or create a game that engages the whole class. And even when a suitable game is found, it is vital not to overuse it, since that can actually demotivate the students (Kleppin 2003: 266). Betrus and Botturi (2010: 48), for instance, point out that it becomes increasingly difficult to impress and stimulate young people because of the vast extent of media and highly sophisticated games they can access. Thus, teachers' endeavours to generate an engaging and motivating classroom environment through games may not satisfy today's often quite apathetic young students (Betrus & Botturi 2010: 48). Consequently, it may be reasonable to collect feedback from peers and learners before deciding to administer a game in class.

3. Language teacher cognition research

The following section of the thesis investigates the topic of language teacher cognition research. It aims to provide an overview of the historical development of this research area as well as to introduce its terminology and major complexities. Moreover, this section explores language teacher cognition both in terms of what types of beliefs teachers hold and in regard to the experiences by which these beliefs are influenced. Finally, it presents a synopsis of the current situation of language teacher cognition research.

3.1. Historical development

Language teacher cognition research is a relatively young field of study, forming a part of the larger field of teacher cognition in general. It builds on the established practice of educational research and draws on different areas of study, primarily on the field of cognitive psychology (Borg 2006: 5, Crookes 2015: 486). Since this thesis investigates language teachers' beliefs, this section only shortly touches on the historical background of teacher cognition research and mainly aims to outline the development of language teacher cognition research.

The origins of the tradition of researching teacher cognition date back to the 1970s and are linked to the progression in the perspectives on the notion of the mind in teacher thinking (Freeman 2002: 2, Borg 2006: 5, Burns, Edwards & Freeman 2015: 586). Over the course of the subsequent decades, an increasing number of alternative approaches to the study of teachers and teaching emerged, resulting in a series of innovative publications[4] on teacher thinking and ultimately causing experts to acknowledge the complexity of teachers' cognitive processes (Borg 2006: 6). According to Borg (2006: 8), especially the 1980s, which Freeman (2002: 5) calls "a full decade of change and reconceptualization", saw a strong increase in articles and studies on teacher cognition. By the 1990s, teacher cognition research had established itself as a relatively broad discipline, prompting experts to investigate more specialised topics, such as subject-specific teacher cognition, which lead to an upsurge of studies into language teacher cognition (Borg 2006: 27). In fact, Borg's review article (2003: 82) illustrates a growing number of studies on this topic from the mid-1990s. In his later work published in 2006, Borg analysed more than 180 studies into language teacher cognition, of which most were conducted in the context of English teaching (Borg 2006: 45). In addition to his analysis, Borg (2006: 45) explains that during this fast-growing period of ten years language teacher cognition research has become a firmly established but also largely fragmented domain.

With regard to language teacher cognition research from the mid-1990s onwards, Borg (2012: 11) sees the domain as continuing to grow as rapidly as before. Concerning literature reviews in this field, Burns, Edwards and Freeman (2015: 588) propose to divide them into several ontological generations, each with a different focus. The first period is titled individualist because the main attention was directed at examining individual teachers (Burns, Edwards & Freeman 2015: 589). During the second period, experts started to emphasise the influence of sociocultural contexts on the language teaching mind, which is why the authors identify this generation as the social ontology in language teacher cognition research (2015:

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[4] See Shulman and Elstein (1975), see Clark and Yinger (1977).

591). In the next period, headed the sociohistorical ontology, the research focus broadened to the point of viewing language teaching expertise as a developing process contingent on time and place (Burns, Edwards & Freeman 2015: 592). Finally, according to Burns, Edwards and Freeman, the focus of the fourth generation lies on considering language teacher cognition as a complex system, dependent on prior and present experiences, and viewing it as dynamic, unpredictable and chaotic, consequently being titled the complex, chaotic systems ontology (2015: 593).

Regarding the current situation of language teacher cognition research, Burns, Edwards and Freeman (2015: 594) claim that there is "a decided shift away from the early individualist ontology that characterized the field". They state that more recent articles mostly "incorporate more holistic, ecological, and situated positions on cognition", thereby broadening the core constructs of this research area (Burns, Edwards & Freeman 2015: 595). On the one hand, it can be argued that language teacher cognition research has developed into a well-established field of study (Borg 2003: 105). On the other hand, it appears that the current developments in this discipline are facing several challenges, particularly regarding the social relevance of this domain (Kubanyiova & Feryok 2015: 441). These challenges will be discussed in more detail in section 3.6.

3.2. Terminology

This section aims to dissect the multifaceted terminology of language teacher cognition, which, since it draws upon ideas from several different fields, including educational research, cognitive psychology and educational philosophy, is unsurprisingly comprehensive.

One of the current experts in the field of language teacher cognition is Borg, the author of the elaborate work *Teacher Cognition and Language Education. Research and Practice* (2006). He introduced the concept of teacher cognition as an umbrella term in an attempt to describe the large scope of this discipline with one single definition. According to Borg, teacher cognition "refer[s] to the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe, and think" (Borg 2003: 81). More recently, he has expanded this definition to include "attitudes, identities and emotions" in order to encompass more facets of this broad concept (Borg 2012: 11). This meaning extension indicates the problematic nature of this terminological synthesis. In fact, Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015: 437) have criticised Borg's term to fall short of being able to subsume the whole scope of teachers' cognitive processes. Looking at the literature in this field, it quickly becomes clear that researchers employ a whole array of terms to describe these mental processes, of which the most commonly used ones are discussed below.

One of the earliest terms used in teacher cognition research is the notion of beliefs. As stated by Kalaja et al. (2016: 12), this concept was first applied by Lortie in her now well-known sociological study on mathematics teachers in 1975, after which it appeared in a great number of papers and studies. Concerning the notion of beliefs in general, most experts refer to Richardson, who describes them as "psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true" (Richardson 1996: 103). The more specific notion of teacher beliefs can be described "as a set of conceptual representations which store general knowledge of objects, people and events, and their characteristic relationships" (Zheng 2009: 74). With regard to language teacher education, Borg (2011: 371) states that "beliefs are seen to be a key element in teacher learning" and Kagan (1992: 85) claims they "may be the clearest measure of a teacher's professional growth". Presumably, these claims are the reason why this concept is most frequently used in the literature. However, despite these affirmative statements about beliefs, this notion has been critically scrutinised by some researchers. For instance, Pajares, who incidentally carried out one of the most extensive reviews of the existing literature on teachers' beliefs, argues that "[a]s a global construct, belief does not lend itself easily to empirical investigation" (Pajares 1992: 308). He (1992: 309) also states that defining this concept is very troublesome and further complicated by the fact that it "travel[s] in disguise and often under alias".[5] All this illustrates that even when it comes to a discrete concept, there is no consensus among the expert community.

Another term that can be frequently found in articles and studies on language teacher cognition is the concept of teachers' attitudes. This notion can be described as "a mental and neural state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related" (Allport 1967: 8, quoted in Zheng 2013: 56). Another suggested definition has been proposed by Pennington who defines attitude as "a personal theory or philosophy of instruction" (Pennington 1989: 96, quoted in Burns 1992: 58). According to Burns (1992: 58), Pennington employed this notion in order to denote "the crucial relationship between teacher beliefs and effective practice". However, while some experts advocate distinguishing between beliefs and attitudes, Zheng (2013: 56) claims that "[t]he boundaries of the extensions of teachers' attitudes and

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[5] Pajares (1992: 309) names the following aliases in his article: "attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertories of understanding, and social strategy". Due to the scope of this thesis, it would be inexpedient to discuss each individual term.

beliefs […] are not as clear-cut as these definitions may suggest", displaying another discordance among the experts.

To further complicate the matter, researchers in language teacher cognition also use the term teacher knowledge to describe the cognitive processes at work in a language teacher's mind. In most cases, this term is either discussed in relation or in opposition to teacher beliefs. In connection with that, Zheng (2009: 74) states that there is apparent indistinguishability between what teachers refer to as their knowledge and what they perceive as their beliefs. Similarly, Grossman, Wilson and Shulman (1989: 31) allude to the blurriness of this distinction. It can even be argued that "in the mind of the teacher, components of knowledge [and] beliefs […] are inextricably intertwined" (Verloop, Van Driel & Meijer 2001: 446). Nevertheless, researchers, such as Nespor (1985: 10) and Pajares (1992: 313), have tried to illuminate the differences between knowledge and beliefs. Pajares (1992: 309), drawing on Nespor (1987), claims that "beliefs have stronger affective and evaluative components than knowledge and that affect typically operates independently of the cognition associated with knowledge". He (1992: 313) differentiates between these two terms by stating that "[b]elief is based on evaluation and judgement; knowledge is based on objective fact". Ultimately, it can be argued that researchers seem to prefer the notion of teacher beliefs over teacher knowledge since the former appears more frequently in reviews and articles.

Having recognised these overlaps and the ambiguity between the terms, it is no surprise that experts have attempted to generate umbrella terms to avoid using a singular notion. Besides Borg's previously mentioned superordinate teacher cognition, several experts have proposed other ideas to encompass the whole complexity of teachers' mental lives. For instance, Denscombe (1982: 251) describes them as the "hidden pedagogy", aiming to highlight the fact that teachers have tacit assumptions about teaching, even before starting their teacher training, which strongly influence their teaching practice. Another suggested umbrella term is proposed by Crookes (2015: 386), who adopts the old term "philosophy of teaching" from the field of educational philosophy and claims that it is "broader, more encompassing, and more institutionally and historically located" than the popular notion of beliefs. In contrast to these two propositions, Woods takes on another path by grouping three terms together, namely beliefs, attitudes and knowledge, to create the acronym BAK (Woods 1996: 196). He explains that "by doing so [he did] not wish to add to the distinctions that have been made, but rather to reduce them" (Woods 1996: 195). Taking all of these notions into consideration, it becomes apparent that researchers in the field of language teacher cognition still struggle with differentiating between distinct concepts due to the blurry boundaries between them. In this

paper, all the aspects encompassed in teachers' cognitive processes will be collectively referred to as teachers' beliefs.

3.3. Complexities in the field

Besides the complex terminology outlined in the previous section, several other complex matters need to be addressed. For instance, the whole process of eliciting teachers' beliefs, attitudes, theories, in other words, the empirical research on language teacher cognition, is intricate in itself. Williams and Burden (1997: 56), for instance, claim that "[b]eliefs are notoriously difficult to define and evaluate". One reason for this methodological issue is the fact that teachers may often not be fully aware of their personal beliefs or simply unable to adequately describe them. In this respect, Borg (2003: 98) states that studies cannot indicate with absolute certainty that the teachers' accounts of their decision making represent their thought processes during the lesson. Donaghue (2003: 345) explains that one reason for this is the subconscious nature of such beliefs. In other words, it is not uncommon to find teachers who declare that they uphold certain beliefs or theories in a survey; however, when observed, do not act correspondingly.

This bridges well to the next complexity of language teacher cognition research, namely the link between teachers' beliefs about language teaching and their actual classroom practices. This relation is actually one of the most researched yet ambivalent aspects in the field of teacher cognition. For instance, some experts suppose "that a match between stated beliefs and practices is desirable and should therefore be facilitated" (Kubanyiova & Feryok 2015: 437). Others base their reviews and studies on the perspective that a divergence between teachers' beliefs and practices is acceptable (Basturkmen 2012: 283). On the one hand, there is general agreement that teachers' beliefs form the basis for their actions (Borg 2011: 370-371). On the other hand, experts, such as Pajares (1992: 326), highlight the unreliability of viewing beliefs as always directly impacting classroom practice. Similarly, studies into the correlation of beliefs and practices arrive at contradictory findings, ranging between strong and little to even no correspondence between the two (Basturkmen 2012: 283). Hence, this link represents yet another aspect of this discipline in which there is little consensus among researchers.

A possible reason for this discrepancy, as suggested by several experts, is the fact that teachers practices and not only influenced by teachers' beliefs but also affected by various other factors, here collectively referred to as contextual factors (Freeman 2002: 11, Borg 2003: 98, Burns, Edwards & Freeman 2015: 590). According to Borg (2003: 94), these factors include "parents, principal's requirements, the school society, curriculum mandates, classroom and

school layout, school policies, colleagues, standardised tests and the availability of resources". He explains that they "may […] hinder language teachers' ability to adopt practices which reflect their beliefs" (Borg 2003: 94). In addition to these aspects, the inconsistency of beliefs and practices may also be caused by individual factors, such as the teachers' personal private life and their beliefs about the world (Zheng 2013: 57, Williams & Burden 1997: 56). Consequently, when researching language teachers' beliefs in connection with their practices it is essential not to overlook these factors.

As a consequence of this evident inconsistency, some experts, such as Basturkmen (2012: 283) and Li (2013: 177), advocate the adoption of an interactionist view of teachers' beliefs and suggest that teachers' decision-making should be investigated in a moment by moment fashion. Basturkmen (2012) even conducted an interpretative synthesis of several studies, deducing that situational constraints have strong implications on the correspondence between teachers' beliefs and their practices. Besides the aforementioned complexities, language teacher cognition research currently faces several newly developed challenges, which will be discussed in section 3.6.

3.4. Categories of language teachers' beliefs

Language teachers can hold beliefs and theories about various aspects, such as the language they teach, language learning and language teaching, their learners and themselves as teachers. In the second half of the 1990s, several experts, such as Calderhead (1996), Woods (1996) and Williams and Burden (1997), have produced different categorisations of teachers' beliefs. This section aims to provide a synthesised outline of these categories which, as will become apparent below, are closely interconnected (Zheng 2009: 77). Moreover, it is important to be aware of the implications these belief categories can have on teachers' practices, while keeping in mind that, as stated by Zheng, the distinct "beliefs do not necessarily have the same impact on teachers' behaviour" (Zheng 2009: 77). It is also relevant to mention that these beliefs are very susceptible to change and therefore also linked to the development of language teachers' beliefs, which will be addressed in section 3.5. Finally, since this thesis focuses on exploring teachers' beliefs regarding the use of games in the foreign language classroom, it is important to mention previous studies that have been conducted on this matter. As they fit best into the category of beliefs about language learning and teaching, they are outlined in section 3.4.2.

3.4.1. Beliefs about language

First and foremost, language teachers hold certain beliefs about the language they teach. Regarding this category, Woods makes the following statement:

> Assumptions about language play an important role in a language course, where language is both the means by which the subject matter is taught […] and the subject matter itself. People unconsciously internalize beliefs about language throughout their lives, and so the beliefs about what language is, what 'proper' language is, and so on, vary from individual to individual and are often deeply held. (Woods 1996: 186)

Moreover, he asserts that these assumptions can be influenced by the theoretical claims about language found in the literature (Woods 1996: 186). In other words, teachers' concepts about the nature of language are heavily affected by both their everyday interaction with opinions and their exposure to theories about language during their professional training. It is relevant to add that, as pointed out by Calderhead (1996: 720), "[s]tudies of teachers' beliefs about their subject […] have demonstrated that teachers can have very limited to very eclectic views of their subject" and that they are context-specific. Consequently, teachers' beliefs about language can be seen as a process of gradually making sense of what language consists of by negotiating both personal and professional experiences and opinions.

3.4.2. Beliefs about language learning and language teaching

Besides making assumptions about language as a subject matter, teachers also hold diverse beliefs about language learning and language teaching (Calderhead 1996: 719-720). Regarding the former aspect, Williams and Burden (1997: 60) claim that "[w]e can only be really effective teachers if we are clear in our minds what we mean by learning because only then can we know what kinds of learning outcomes we want our learners to achieve". However, teachers may have quite contrasting concepts about how languages should be or are most effectively learned. Moreover, these diverse assumptions "are likely to affect their way of teaching" and are thus inextricably intertwined with their beliefs about language teaching (Zheng 2009: 76). For example, some teachers believe that foreign language learning mainly revolves around learning the vocabulary of that language and will therefore centre their attention on teaching vocabulary to their students. Other teachers see the process of learning a foreign language in broader terms, to also involve the knowledge of and ability to utilise grammatical structures as well as an understanding of the cultural facets of that language.

As to assumptions about language teaching itself, there is a common belief among teachers regarding classroom management, namely that it can be facilitated by establishing teaching routines (Leinhardt, Weidman & Hammond 1987: 135, Emmer & Stough 2001: 106).

Many studies on this matter specifically investigate the differences in novice and expert teachers' approaches to classroom routines.[6] According to Emmer and Stough (2001: 106), the research reveals that novice teachers often struggle to effectively routinise their lessons and only acquire the skills to do so over time. They also state that once routines are established, less experienced teachers are not as flexible in dealing with unexpected or difficult classroom situations as expert teachers (Emmer & Stough 2001: 106). Considering these insights, it can be argued that when it comes to classroom routines teachers seem to progress through similar stages during their teaching experience.

As addressed above, teachers' beliefs about the employment of games in language teaching have been investigated before. Noteworthy examples focusing on the use of both traditional and digital games include Uzun, Ekin and Kartal (2013), Sobhani and Bagheri (2014) and Djahimo (2015), of which all not only examine teachers' beliefs but also those of students. Other studies, such as Beaves et al. (2014), Hsu, Tsai, Chang and Liang (2017), McColgan, Colesante and Andrade (2018), and Blume (2019), solely aim their attention at digital games, which appears to be the focus of the majority of recent studies. Moreover, the last two specify their investigation specifically on pre-service teachers' beliefs. As to the insights gained from these studies, they all address several reasons why teachers believe it to be advantageous to employ games in the foreign language classroom. Most of them also discuss why teachers are hesitant to use games and why their practice therefore often does not match up with their beliefs. All in all, however, the studies are in favour using games in the foreign language classroom, highlighting their beneficial effects on language learning.

3.4.3. Beliefs about learners

In addition to assumptions about language, language learning and language teaching, teachers also form opinions about their learners, particularly the role their learners should assume in the language classroom (Zheng 2009: 76). As stated by Williams and Burden (1997: 57), "[t]eachers may hold any one or a combination of beliefs about those whom they teach". In addition, they refer to Meighan and Meighan (1990), who list several notions of how teachers can view their learners. Depending on how the teachers construe their learners, they make different decisions about their classroom practice (Meighan & Meighan 1990, quoted in Williams & Burden 1997: 57). For instance, some teachers consider language learning to be most effective when students are actively involved in and responsible for facilitating their own leaning, commonly known as learner autonomy (Holec 1981: 3). Thus, such teachers probably

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[6] See Berliner (1988), see Livingston and Borko (1989), see Westerman (1991).

have quite a different view of what a student's role is in contrast to teachers who see their students as passive intakers of knowledge. As suggested by Williams and Burden (1997: 60), it is favourable for teachers to elucidate their beliefs about learners, since it can aid them in their "search for ways of bridging the inevitable gap between their espoused theories and their theories in action". In other words, it is essential for teachers to reflect and become aware of their beliefs about learners, as it can help them grasp the reasons behind their decision-making.

3.4.4. Beliefs about themselves

Finally, teachers also make various assumptions about themselves as teachers (Calderhead 1996: 720). According to Calderhead (1996: 720-721), studies on teachers' beliefs about themselves indicate that such conceptions are "significant factors in affecting the teaching roles and practices that teachers adopt". These studies include Johnston (1992), Bullough and Baughman (1993), and Richards, Ho and Giblin (1996). Especially relevant, as stated by Calderhead, are teachers' beliefs about their role in the classroom since the practice of teaching requires teachers to take on particular roles to create a successful learning environment (Calderhead 1996: 720). Beijaard, Verloop and Vermunt (2000: 751) list the following as the three main teacher roles: "subject matter experts, pedagogical experts, and didactical experts". In addition, they suggest that teachers mostly see themselves as a combination of these roles and that these roles form the basis for the teachers' professional identity (Beijaard, Verloop & Vermunt 2000: 751). Depending on which role they believe to be most effective, teachers adjust their classroom practice accordingly.

3.5. Development of a language teacher's beliefs

Having discussed the different categories of language teacher cognition, it is important to note that these cognitions are not static in nature. In fact, several experts describe them as rather complex and dynamic, and contingent on influences from different experiences (Feryok 2010: 274, Ruohotie-Lythy 2016: 150). Moreover, various studies have been conducted to determine how teacher cognition develops.[7] According to Feryok (2010: 274), "[t]he dynamics of language teacher cognitions is related to development, which may arise from education or experience, and may change the state of the system". So, in other words, as language teachers go through different stages until they actually practice teaching at a school, their beliefs also develop, depending on their experiences along the way.

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[7] See Freeman (1993), Woods (1996), Kalaja et al. (2016).

Regarding the diverse influential factors, experts have proposed different ways of classifying them. For instance, as stated by Richardson (1996: 105), it is possible to discriminate "personal experience, experience with schooling and instruction, and experience with professional knowledge" as having an impact on teachers' beliefs. However, most researchers adhere to the more common distinction between pre-service and in-service experience, of which the former can be further subdivided into experiences gained as a language learner and those gathered during teacher training (Borg 2003: 81, Zheng 2009: 78, Kubanyiova & Feryok 2015: 435). Although language learning can be regarded as a life-long process, here, the category of a teacher's own language learning experience refers to those experiences made during language acquisition at school, prior to any teaching experience. Moreover, it should be stated that there is an overlap between the experience gained during teacher education and in-service experience since teacher training courses typically include some form of teaching practice.

3.5.1. Pre-service beliefs

3.5.1.1. Beliefs based on language learning experiences

As mentioned above, prospective language teachers start their teacher education program with a great amount of prior language learning experience and thus with a lot of beliefs on the matter. In 1975, Lortie coined the term "apprenticeship of observation" to describe these pre-service experiences and emphasises the necessity to consider them due to their highly influential nature. Farrell (2006: 236-237), drawing on Richards (1998a: 71), even asserts "that the influence of these prior beliefs, which are usually held tacitly, can be so strong that they 'often serve as a lens through which they view both the content of the teacher development program and their language teacher experiences'". Similarly, Freeman (1992: 4, quoted in Borg 2003: 88) states that they serve as manuals for teachers, according to which they approach their lessons. In addition, it can be claimed that when prospective teachers enter their training program, their previously acquired experiences and formed beliefs most likely exert dominance over what they learn in their teacher training (Johnson 1994: 450, quoted in Borg 2003: 88). Hence, as argued by Joram and Gabriele (1998: 176, quoted in Farrell 2006: 237), all the information teachers encounter during their training "will have to compete with, replace or otherwise modify the folk theories that already guide both teachers and pupils".

Besides being dominant, it has been suggested that teachers' pre-service beliefs can be detrimental for their professional development due to their simplicity and inaccuracy (Stuart & Thurlow 2000: 114). Borg (2006: 54), for instance, claims that, according to educational research, "students may have inappropriate, unrealistic or naive understandings of teaching and

learning". With that said, for teacher education programs to be successful, teachers' pre-service beliefs need to be challenged and, if necessary, altered during teacher training. This endeavour is, however, neither simple nor straightforward. This is so not only because of the aforementioned dominance of prior language learning experiences, but also because it can be argued that "detrimental beliefs […] are probably […] more resistant to change" (Peacock 2001: 187). On top of that, the sheer sum of hours of teachers' language learning experience already clearly outnumbers the hours of their experience during teacher education, which is why teacher training plays a crucial role in cultivating and often correcting teachers' beliefs about language learning.

Since investigating teachers' pre-service experiences clearly has importance, many researchers have administered studies on this matter. One of the earliest studies of this kind was conducted by Horwitz in 1985. For this project, she designed a questionnaire with the title Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI). Following her pioneering study, several other experts employed this tool or a modified version of it. Examples include Horwitz (1988), Kern (1995) and Mantle-Bromley (1995), which, according to Peacock (2001: 178), all revealed that the participants held "incorrect beliefs about how foreign languages are learned", confirming the previously stated detrimental nature of pre-service beliefs. In addition, it is necessary to state that studies on teachers' pre-service beliefs, including some of those mentioned above, are often conducted in the context of teacher education to determine whether the examined beliefs undergo any changes during the course. The impact of teacher education on teachers' beliefs is analysed in the subsequent section.

3.5.1.2. Beliefs based on experiences during teacher education

Aside from being influenced by the extensive experience gained from language learning, teachers' beliefs are also shaped by their experience during teacher education. Regarding the question of whether and how strongly the experiences during teacher training influence teachers' beliefs, experts have arrived at diverging conclusions. To illustrate the complexity of this matter, Richardson (1996: 111) states that "[s]ome programs affect change and others do not; some programs affect certain types of students and not others; some beliefs are more difficult to change than others". In other words, the changes in teachers' beliefs vary strongly case-by-case.

On the one hand, some researchers have concluded that teacher education only has little or no influence on the established beliefs of student teachers (Kavanoz, Yüksel & Varol 2017: 121). For instance, Peacock's longitudinal study suggests that several key beliefs remained

almost unchanged during the three-year-long investigation (Peacock 2001: 186). Similarly, Borg's analysis of one teacher trainee during a four-week period indicated that there was only a "limited change, some elaboration and, in other areas, little development of her beliefs" (Borg 2005: 25). On the other hand, several studies present different findings, namely that pre-service teachers' beliefs are, in fact, changeable over time and can be influenced by teacher training (Kavanoz, Yüksel & Varol 2017: 121). These include longitudinal studies by Cabaroğlu and Roberts (2000), Mattheoudakis (2007) and Busch (2010). All three of them demonstrate significant changes in pre-service teachers' beliefs during the course of the investigation. Due to the dominant nature of the beliefs that were formed during the years of language learning, however, some changes in beliefs affected by teacher education may also be reversed again afterwards. For instance, Calderhead (1996: 720) reports that student teachers often start their training "with control-oriented belief systems […] during training, becom[e] more liberal and child centred" and eventually return to their original stance when they enter their profession. Considering these varying results, the necessity for teacher training seems clear, however, its impact on teachers' beliefs does not.

3.5.2. In-service beliefs

Finally, on top of the numerous experiences before actually starting to teach, teachers' beliefs can also be influenced by experiences gained from their daily practice in the classroom, referred to as in-service experience. In order to determine the changes in teachers' beliefs during the years of practicing their professions, researchers usually focus on examining differences between novice and more experienced teachers. As stated by Borg (2003: 95), such investigations can not only identify the differences in their beliefs but "also shed light on the transformations in teacher cognition which may occur over time". Some short-term studies that fall under this category include Nunan (1992) and Richards (1998b). Both of them identify distinct differences between novice and experienced teachers, such as a higher degree of attention paid to language issues and classroom management in the former and stronger likelihood of resorting to improvisation in the classroom in the latter (Borg 2003: 95). In addition, there are also some longitudinal studies on this topic. A project of this sort was undertaken by Woods, in which he analysed eight teachers of English as a second language over periods ranging between six and thirteen weeks (Woods 1996: 26). He accompanied his study with extensive theoretical work on the study of language teachers, jointly published in his book *Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching* in 1996.

3.6. Current situation

3.6.1. Recent shifts in the field

As already mentioned in section 3.1.2., language teacher cognition research is going through some distinct changes at present. In the introduction to a special issue dealing with the current situation of language teacher cognition research, Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015: 445) list three recent shifts that took place in the conceptualisation of this field. First, they address the widening of the domain's boundaries by "viewing teacher cognition through an alternative lens as *emergent sense making in action*" (2015: 436). They explain that this social turn can provide better ways of grasping the link between teachers' beliefs and practices and students' language learning experience (2015: 436). Second, they mention the shift towards the use of bottom-up approaches in researching language teacher cognition by "identify[ing] the common element over a wider range of studies" (2015: 439). Third, they readdress the role of context in language teacher cognition, which, according to the authors, is crucial in this research area (Kubanyiova & Feryok 2015: 445). Hence, it can be argued that language teacher cognition research is heading in new directions.

3.6.2. Challenges and proposed solutions

Despite the aforementioned shifts, this field still faces several obstacles. According to Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015: 441), one of the main challenges facing contemporary language teacher cognition research is the fact that its purpose and relevance need to be reconsidered. They stress the necessity to ask questions, such as "'Why?' and 'To what end?'", when studying teachers' beliefs and claim that only thereby this field can reach its desired relevance for all the participants involved (Kubanyiova & Feryok 2015: 441). In connection with that, they (2015: 441) propose a larger vision for this field, namely one that should follow "an ethically grounded research agenda". In other words, it is not enough to continue researching various aspects of language teacher cognition, but rather to do so with a clear objective in mind.

Another obstacle concerns the conceptual scope of language teacher cognition. Ever since the mid-1990s, it has been growing very rapidly, resulting in a convoluted field that, as stated by Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015: 441), "cannot be fully determined in advance, but needs to be allowed to emerge […] through the research process". However, due to the conceptual variation in language teacher cognition research, some researchers have criticised this field of having "developed into a sprawling, productive, and at times somewhat ad hoc enterprise" (Burns, Edwards & Freeman 2015: 586). This is why, Burns, Edwards and Freeman (2015: 597) advocate the progression towards the so-called fourth ontological generation. However,

despite constituting a conceptually attractive shift by embracing the complex and chaotic nature of teachers' inner lives, this new ontological generation faces methodological challenges (Burns, Edwards & Freeman 2015: 597). For example, a new conceptualisation of the language-teaching mind will presumably generate the necessity for new research methods, broader approaches to data analysis and other methodological advancements (Burns, Edwards & Freeman 2015: 597). The authors add (2015: 597), that "[t]he present challenge is how to think beyond [the] current empirical structures and categories to capture this mental work". Hence, as mentioned above, simply continuing as before is not enough anymore.

Finally, language teacher cognition research has to deal with the difficulty of considering the implications this large body of research has on teacher education. Borg (2003: 106), for instance, emphasises the necessity for teacher educators to consider the results of language teacher cognition research as well as the deliberation of how to best provide access to these results to both practicing teachers and teacher trainees. Similarly, Burns (1992: 63-64) addresses the fact that studies in this field have "important implications for teacher education programs, in providing opportunities for teachers to raise to consciousness the nature of the personalised theories which inform their practice". Nevertheless, as stated by Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015: 436), most of the recommendations resulting from the research have yet to be adopted into teacher education programs. Consequently, this task remains an important goal to be accomplished by language teacher cognition research in the future.

4. Empirical study

This section presents the relevant background of the empirical study that was conducted in the form of an online questionnaire. First of all, it includes an outline of the research questions that were posed in this project. Secondly, this section provides a detailed account of the methodology employed for this study. Finally, it specifies the participants of the project and discusses the structure of the questionnaire.

4.1. Research questions

This research project aims to answer two main research questions as well as two sub-questions. The first research question intends to ascertain the employment of games in secondary schools by teachers of English and/or Russian as a foreign language. In other words, its goal is to determine how often teachers use games as a tool for foreign language teaching. The research question for this part is worded as follows:

➢ **What can be said about secondary school teachers' employment of games in foreign language teaching?**

The follow-up question for this first research focus aims to obtain a deeper insight into this topic by comparing the results that display differences in one of four factors. They include the participants' sex, the languages they teach, the length of their work experience and the grades they teach. Thus, this sub-question is formulated in the following way:

➢ **What are some discernible differences regarding the employment of games in the foreign language classroom between teachers of English and Russian as a foreign language, between novice and more long-term teachers, between male and female teachers, between teachers of middle and high school grades?**

The second goal of the study was to discern secondary school teachers' beliefs regarding games in foreign language teaching and how these beliefs are influenced by prior language learning experiences, experiences during teacher training and teaching experience itself. Hence, the second research question and its sub-question are phrased as follows:

➢ **What are secondary school teachers' beliefs regarding the use of games in foreign language teaching?**

➢ **How are secondary school teachers' beliefs regarding the use of games influences by their own language learning experience, by their experiences during teacher education and by their teaching experience?**

4.2. Methodology

This section provides a step by step outline of the methodology employed during the project. It includes information regarding the decisions taken while designing the questionnaire, details about the pilot study and a summary of how the study was administered.

4.2.1. Questionnaire design

Before going into detail about the different steps taken during the questionnaire design, it is necessary to address why it was decided to use a survey as the research instrument in this study. This is mainly because the purpose of this project is to compile a large amount of data that can allow conclusions about an even larger population. Survey research presents a convenient tool to achieve this goal since it "often focuses on a snapshot of a particular topic of interest […] with a large sample size" (Phakiti 2016: 29). Similarly, Brown (2001: 6) argues that "[q]uestionnaires are particularly efficient for gathering data on a large-scale basis". Furthermore, the administration of questionnaires is highly advantageous when it comes to the

necessary time and costs on the part of the researcher (Dörnyei 2010: 6, Gillham 2008: 5), which worked in favour of this project.

Having established why this study is based on survey research, it is now time to discuss the significant task of designing the questionnaire. This involved devising a suitable survey structure as well as choosing appropriate question types, item types, and response formats. Moreover, this process entailed continuous alterations to the wording of the items to make them both clear and concise. The following paragraphs cover all decisions made about the abovementioned aspects, except for the structure, which is addressed separately in section 4.4.

As to question types, this study contains several different ones. While there are diverse ways of categorising question types (see Patton 1987: 115-119, quoted in Brown 2001: 30), a broader differentiation between factual, behavioural and attitudinal questions was applied here (Gillham 2008: 26, Dörnyei 2010: 5). The survey commences with factual questions, eliciting relevant biographical and historical data from the participants (Brown 2001: 32). As will be addressed in more detail in section 4.4., the questionnaire only encompasses four such questions. The rest of the items fall into the other two categories, of which the attitudinal question type strongly prevails over the other since it "concerns *attitudes*, *opinions*, *beliefs*, *interests*, and *values*" (Dörnyei 2010: 5), the very focus of the thesis.

Regarding the item types, it was decided to offer some variety in order to avoid monotony, though also keep it within reason so as to not overwhelm or confuse the participants. Taking this into consideration, four different types of items were selected, namely multiple-choice items, rank order items, semantic differential scales and open-ended questions (Dörnyei 2007: 105-107). To avoid unclarity regarding the correct way of responding to these different item types, detailed instructions were provided at the beginning of the survey.

It becomes apparent from this list of item types that the predominant response format is closed-ended. The reason for this is the fact that this format is more advantageous for both the researcher and the participants (Brown 2001: 37). Nevertheless, several open-ended items were added either as a follow-up to preceding closed-ended items or to offer participants the opportunity to voice own thoughts and ideas with far less restriction.

At this point it is relevant to point out the thoughts that were put into sequencing the items. Since Dörnyei (2007: 111) advises to start a questionnaire with items that are "simple yet at the same time focused on important and salient aspects", the first section of the questionnaire mainly contains factual closed-ended questions, acting as a lead-in. Most "real open-ended questions", on the other hand, were placed at the end of the survey because such

items are more demanding and more likely to negatively influence participants if placed at the beginning (Dörnyei 2010: 48).

Regarding the wording of the items, several recommendations were considered. For instance, a common advice about item wording is to keep the questions short (Brown 2001: 45, Dörnyei 2007: 108). Therefore, with the exception of the three rank order items, which required lengthier explanations, the items in this survey were worded so as to not exceed 20 words, the suggested maximum length by Brown (2001: 46) and Dörnyei (2007: 108). Moreover, it was also borne in mind to phrase the questions as clearly as possible while also making them easy to understand by using simple language (Brown 2001: 46, Dörnyei 2007: 108). Finally, in order to simplify the completion of the questionnaire, several items that served similar purposes, as for example items 6, 9, and 11 in section 1, were worded very similarly.

Besides the aforementioned considerations during the questionnaire design, two further points played an important role in this process. Firstly, this concerns the language of the questionnaire. In fact, since the questionnaire aimed at secondary school teachers of either or both English and Russian as a foreign language in Austria, it was decided that the study should be administered in German. This could guarantee that all the participants fully understand the questionnaire, thereby avoiding any ambiguity. Secondly, the overall length of the questionnaire also needed to be considered. Dörnyei (2007: 110) recommends that questionnaires should "stay within a four-page limit" and "not […] exceed the 30-minute completion limit" in order not to impose on the participants. Furthermore, the length can also be decisive when it comes to the return rate and is often mentioned as one of the disadvantages of questionnaires (Brown 2001: 77). Hence, the questionnaire was designed to be within these parameters.

4.2.2. Pilot study

Once the final draft of the questionnaire was ready, a small-scale pilot study was carried out in order to identify possible shortcomings. The reason for piloting the study was the fact that it can shed light on aspects of a study that may seem completely straightforward to the researcher; however, may need additional information for the participants (Dörnyei 2010: 53).

And indeed, this pilot test, which was conducted with two participants, revealed two valuable points about the questionnaire. Firstly, owing to the participants' feedback, it became apparent that depending on how the research subjects answer items 12 and 23, it could become redundant for them to answer certain subsequent items. Therefore, in the sections titled "Ihre Erfahrungen als SprachlernerIn" and "Ihr eigener Unterricht" a note was added after the

aforementioned items. It explains that participants can skip the rest of the respective sections, given that they ticked the first option to answer items 12 and/or 23. Secondly, the pilot study helped to establish the average time it takes to complete the survey. This allowed to make sure that the questionnaire would not exceed the half an hour limit, mentioned above (Dörnyei's 2007: 110). In addition, this also made it possible to provide the approximate duration it takes to complete the survey to the research subjects.

4.2.3. Administering the questionnaire

This section provides a step-by-step account of the administration of the research study. It covers when and how the questionnaire was administered and the reasons behind these decisions, including the approaches used for sampling, the timeline of the administration and the aim and outcome of the study in regard to the return rate.

First of all, it is important to discuss how the survey was administered. The questionnaire for this project was self-administered and sent out via mail. The email contained an access link that allowed the participants to complete the survey online. At this point it is essential to address the issue of sampling. Ideally, survey research should be conducted using probability sampling techniques; however, researchers often employ convenience or opportunity sampling, "the most common non-probability sampling type in L2 research" (Dörnyei 2010: 61). While the latter approach has the advantage that the participants are chosen based on their availability and accessibility, its results cannot be generalised to make assumptions about a larger population (Wagner 2013 [2010]: 25). For this project, a mixture of both random and convenience sampling was employed, discussed in detail in the subsequent paragraph.

The administration of the survey can be divided into three consecutive phases. First, the questionnaire was sent out to teachers personally known to the researcher, posted online on social media and several sites to which a large number of teachers have access to. The second phase involved sending the survey to headteachers of schools, requesting them to forward it to their English and Russian teaching staff. And finally, in phase three, teachers of English and Russian as a foreign language were contacted directly, by sending the link to the questionnaire to their school email address. By using all these channels, the questionnaire generated 56 completed responses, which is above Dörnyei's proposed rule of thumb, according to which a survey needs around 50 participants in order to be considered significant (Dörnyei 2010: 63). Besides the 56 completed questionnaires, one response was left unfinished and is therefore not considered in the analysis of the study. For a better visualisation of the timeline of the study, the different phases were summarised in the diagram below (diagram 1).

Phase 1: sent to known teachers, posted on social media, requested to post on online teacher sites

28.11.2017- 4.12.2017

Phase 2: sent to headteachers, requesting to forward the survey

4.12.2017-7.12.2017

Phase 3: sent to teachers directly

21.12.2017-22.12.2017
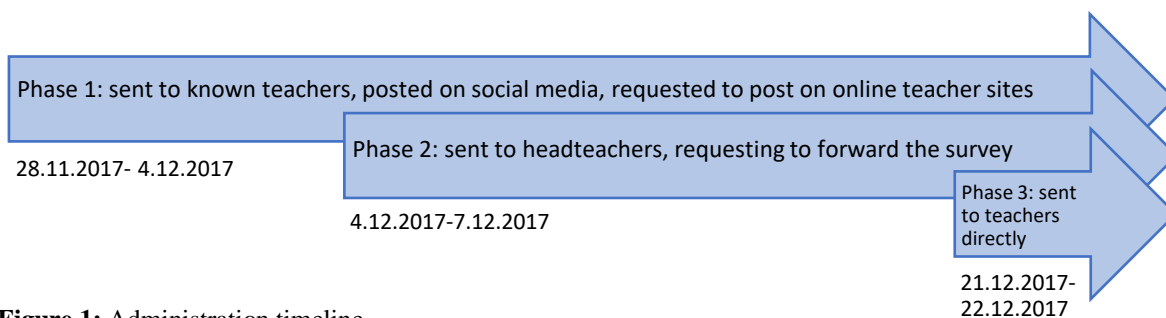
Figure 1: Administration timeline.

In order to graphically illustrate the gradual increase in completed questionnaires, a second timeline was composed and titled response timeline (see diagram 2).
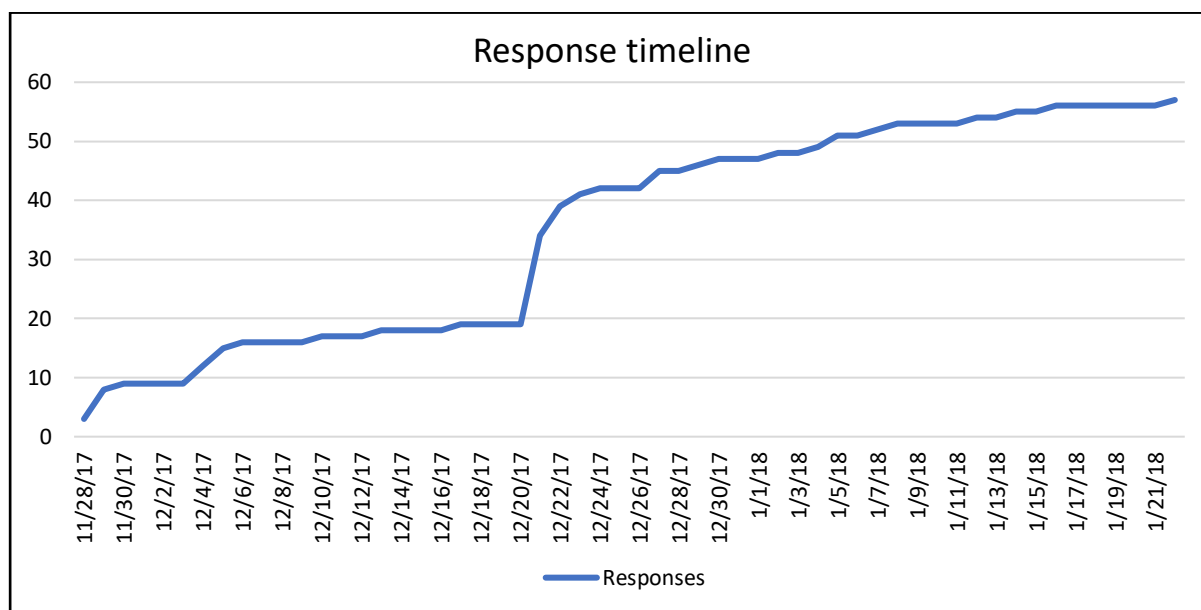
Figure 2: Response timeline.

As becomes apparent when juxtaposing the two timelines, phase two and especially phase three both generated a noticeable increase in responses. Since the biggest spike in the return rate, namely a jump from nineteen to 39 responses, took place during the implementation of phase three, it can be concluded that carrying out this phase was very decisive for achieving the desired return rate.

4.3. Participants

This survey addresses secondary school teachers in Austria, who currently work as a teacher of English and/or Russian as a foreign language. In sections 5 and 6, the participants are assigned a number depending on their timestamp on the online platform of the survey. The first participant to complete the questionnaire is referred to as "participant #1" and so forth. The choice of secondary over primary school teachers mainly has to do with the fact that proper foreign language teaching usually starts at the level of secondary school in Austria. Moreover,

it is also tied to the fact that my teacher training is for a position in a secondary school. Regarding the choice of subjects, there are also personal reasons behind it, namely the fact that my degree is to become a teacher of English and Russian as a foreign language.

4.4. Structure of the questionnaire

As becomes apparent in section 4.2.1., a lot of thought was given to the design of the survey. Similarly, structuring the questionnaire also entailed quite many important decisions. The final draft of the questionnaire consists of five parts and contains 32 items in total. Each part is shortly described below.

The first part of the survey does not consist of any items but rather serves as an introduction, also often referred to as a cover letter. The inclusion of such a letter can be a measure to counteract a commonly known downside of postal or mailed administration, namely the low return rates (Dörnyei 2010: 65, Brown 2001: 85). In fact, a well thought out cover letter can be very decisive in regard to persuading the participants to take part in the project (Dörnyei 2010: 65). Of the several points that are usually addressed in such letters, the following were included in this study: a brief introduction of the writer, a statement of the purpose of the study as well as relevant background information, assurance of anonymity and confidentiality, and an expression of gratitude for participation (Dörnyei 2010: 65). In addition to these points, the cover letter also provides a working definition of games to ensure that all participants have the same point of departure when it comes to their idea of what a game is. The definition used in the questionnaire is worded as follows: "ein Spiel ist eine zielorientierte Handlung, die nach mehr oder weniger expliziten Regeln meist in Kooperation oder Konkurrenz mit anderen auszuführen ist und in der Regel Spaß macht" (Hadfield 1990: 4, Gibbs 1978: 69, Inbar & Stoll 1970: 54). Finally, this introductory part includes a description of the four different types of items used in the questionnaire as well as instructions and examples on how to answer them. Here, it is relevant to mention that, while some of the aforementioned points were stated in the email, the cover letter itself constituted a part of the questionnaire. This helped to avoid the cover letter getting separated from the questionnaire, which apparently happens quite frequently (Gillham 2008: 37, quoted in Dörnyei 2010: 65).

After this introduction, the questionnaire proceeds to four sections containing 32 items altogether. As suggested by Brown (2001: 55), questionnaire items should be ordered rationally to avoid confusion and prevent that certain items negatively affect how subsequent items are answered. A possible way of implementing a rational item order, is by grouping the questions by topic (Brown 2001: 56), which has been done in this project. In addition, the second, third,

and fourth sections are ordered in a temporal succession, starting with questions about the participants' past and moving on to a more recent past and finally the present. The first section with items, titled "Allgemeines", aims to inquire some basic data from the participants, namely their sex, their subjects, the length of their work experience as a secondary school teacher and the grades they teach. These four questions were chosen because they are all crucial for answering one of the research questions. Moreover, the number of items requesting basic data was kept small in order to guarantee the anonymity of the participants. Beside these items, this section contains seven questions that inquire the participants' general opinions about games and their use in the foreign language classroom. One of these items, namely item 6, contains a list of game types, which was already addressed in section 2.2.4. The reason for choosing these categories is the fact that they are most frequently found in the literature. Moreover, it was decided to use the category vocabulary/grammar games instead of Rixon's term code-control games, since the former label is more self-explanatory than the latter.[8] The next section, called "Ihre Erfahrungen als SprachlernerIn", is comprised of six items addressing the participants' language learning experiences at school. The third section with items ("Ihre Ausbildung als Lehrperson") consists of five items revolving around the participants' encounter with the topic of games in foreign language teaching during their teacher education. And finally, the last section, titled "Ihr eigener Unterricht", contains eight questions asking the participants about their use of games in their own foreign language teaching and two concluding items that round off the questionnaire. For the sake of completeness and as a reference point, the full questionnaire is attached in the appendix.

5. Results

This section provides an overview of the results of the study. As mentioned in section 4.2.3., the study yielded 57 responses, of which one was not completed and therefore not taken into consideration. The presentation of the results is done by section. Here, it is necessary to mention that due to the fact that after the first item of the second and fourth sections the participants were given the option to skip ahead until the subsequent section of the questionnaire, depending on their answer to the question in the respective item, the number of responses vary in those sections. Finally, as the survey contained several open-ended questions, of which some yielded a substantial number of responses, those items are only described and summarised in this section, leaving out the irrelevant and incomplete answers. The complete list of responses to those questions can be found in the appendix.

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[8] Section 4 contains a similar item, item 24, listing types of games, according to the same criteria of selection.

5.1. Basic data

The following table (table 1) presents a summary of the participants' basic data (items 1-4), displayed both numerically and in percentage terms. The results show that the majority of the participants were female and that most of them teach English as a foreign language. In regard to years of teaching experience and grades, the data has a more even distribution.

Table 1: Summary of participants' basic data (n = 56).

Item number and description		Σ	%
1. gender	female:	44	78.57
	male:	12	21.43
2. subjects	only English:	42	75.00
	only Russian:	11	19.64
	both:	3	5.36
3. years of teaching experience	1-3 years:	18	32.14
	4-10 years:	18	32.14
	11-20 years:	10	17.86
	over 20 years:	10	17.86
4. grades	only Sekundarstufe I:	9	16.07
	only Sekundarstufe II:	13	23.21
	both:	34	60.71

5.2. Teachers' opinions and knowledge about games and their use

This section displays and briefly describes the results of items 5 to 11. The first table (table 2) shows the participants' ranking of five characteristic features of games from most to least characteristic, enquired in item 5. According to these results, the teachers identified *repeatability* as the least characteristic feature of games. In fact, it was ranked last by 50% of the participants. The *aspect of fun and excitement*, on the other hand, received the highest number of votes for the first rank, with a mean of 2.09. The feature called *underlying rules* was ranked in fourth place by slightly over a third of the participants. The remaining two features, namely *cooperation and/or competition* and *goal orientation*, both have quite scattered results, ranging from five to seventeen votes per rank.

Table 2: Characteristic features of games, ranked from most (1) to least (5) characteristic (n = 56).

	1.		2.		3.		4.		5.		M	SD
	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%		
cooperation and/or competition	11	19.64	17	30.36	10	17.86	9	16.07	9	16.07	2.79	1.37
goal orientation	13	23.21	15	26.79	12	21.43	11	19.64	5	8.93	2.64	1.29
underlying rules	3	5.36	8	14.29	13	23.21	21	37.50	11	19.64	3.52	1.13
aspect of fun and excitement	23	41.07	15	26.79	11	19.64	4	7.14	3	5.36	2.09	1.18
repeatability	6	10.71	1	1.79	10	17.86	11	19.64	28	50.00	3.96	1.32

However, since the mean of the former feature is higher, it can be concluded that it is closer to rank three and the latter feature is therefore in second place. All in all, it appears that none of the features received an absolute majority in any rank, allowing to assume that teachers either have quite different opinions about how characteristic of games these five features are or that it is simply a challenging task to order features of games in this manner.

Table 3 summarises the participants' answers to item 6, which asked them to list any additional characteristic features of games, thereby serving as a follow-up question to item 5. In total, this item yielded eight relevant responses, however, as becomes apparent in the table below the participants did not list actual features of games, but rather aspects that fall under the category of uses and advantages of games. Hence, it can be concluded that the given options of features in item 5 covered all noteworthy characteristic features of games.

Table 3: Further characteristic features of games (n = 8).

Further characteristic features of games	*f*
unconscious learning	2
strengthening the class community	1
motivation	1
pronunciation training	1
taking on other roles	1
loosening up the lesson, lessening inhibitions	1
vocabulary training	1

The next item (item 7) asked the participants to indicate their familiarity with several types of games. According to the results, displayed in table 4, all listed types of games were known to at least some of the participants. The most well-known types, known by more than 90% of the participants, were vocabulary/grammar games, communicative games and role play.

Table 4: Participants' familiarity with specific types of games (n = 56).

	Σ	%	Graphic representation
vocabulary/grammar games	56	100.00	
communicative games	54	96.43	
board games	35	62.50	
role play	52	92.86	
computer games	38	67.86	
pronunciation games	14	25.00	
other	2	3.57	

About two thirds were familiar with computer games and board games and a quarter of the participants appeared to know pronunciation games. Two participants stated additional types of games under "other", namely spelling games and theatre play. It could be claimed, however, that theatre play is a more complex form of role play and spelling games could fall under the category of vocabulary/grammar games.

Item 8 and its follow-up question, item 9, dealt with the participants' opinions on advantages of using games in foreign language teaching. The results of these two items are presented in tables 5 and 6, respectively. Table 5 shows that none of the listed advantages received a majority of the votes for a specific rank.

Table 5: Advantages of games, ranked from most (1) to least (5) advantageous (n = 56).

	1.		2.		3.		4.		5.			
	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	M	SD
increased motivation	14	25.00	28	50.00	7	12.50	3	5.36	4	7.14	2.20	1.10
learning-friendly atmosphere	4	7.14	9	16.07	21	37.50	15	26.79	7	12.50	3.21	1.09
fun factor	28	50.00	8	14.29	11	19.64	6	10.71	3	5.36	2.07	1.28
"natural" learning	7	12.50	5	8.93	3	5.36	21	37.50	20	35.71	3.75	1.37
decreased anxiety	3	5.36	6	10.71	14	25.00	11	19.64	22	39.29	3.77	1.24

The highest number of votes for the first rank, namely 28, equalling 50%, were given to the advantage described as the *fun factor* of games. *Increased motivation* was ranked in second place by the same number of participants. *Learning-friendly atmosphere* and *"natural" learning* received most votes for the third and fourth rank, respectively. And finally, the advantage titled *decreased anxiety* reached a relative majority of votes for the fifth rank. Table 6 displays the relevant responses to item 9, each containing a different suggestion for a further advantage of games. Since this response rate is very low and there is no overlap between the responses, it can be concluded that item 8 appears to have covered all the noteworthy advantages of games.

Table 6: Further advantages of games (n = 4).

Further advantages of games	*f*
combating the students' fatigue in the afternoon	1
loosening up the lesson, moving away from "teaching to the test"	1
diversity	1
involvement of most students	1

Having discussed the participants' beliefs about the benefits of using games, items 10 and 11 focus on the disadvantages. The results of these items are presented in tables 7 and 8,

respectively. As can be seen in table 7, the votes for most aspects are quite scattered across all ranks. The only really clear ranking is that of the *problematic teacher role*, which received 41 votes for the last rank, meaning that the participants believe this aspect to be the least disadvantageous. The aspect of *time constraints (preparation)* received the highest number of votes for the first rank and also has the lowest mean out of all five options. Considering this as well as the fact that the follow-up question, item 11 (see table 8), contains two answers addressing expenditure of time as a disadvantage, it can be concluded that this aspect is seen as the most disadvantageous by the participants.

Table 7: Disadvantages of games, ranked from most (1) to least (5) disadvantageous (n = 56).

	1.		2.		3.		4.		5.			
	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	M	SD
time constraints (preparation)	20	35.71	16	28.57	9	16.07	7	12.50	4	7.14	2.27	1.27
limited possible use of games	5	8.93	16	28.57	24	42.86	10	17.86	1	1.79	2.75	0.92
discipline issues	12	21.43	9	16.07	14	25.00	13	23.21	8	14.29	2.93	1.36
limited conditions at school (space, time, materials)	16	28.57	15	26.79	8	14.29	15	26.79	2	3.57	2.50	1.26
problematic teacher role	3	5.36	-	-	1	1.79	11	19.64	41	73.21	4.55	0.97

As for the remaining three aspects, *limited possible use of games* seems to occupy the third rank, *discipline issue* is slightly closer to rank four and *limited conditions at school* is therefore placed in second rank. However, as mentioned above, these results are quite dispersed, which indicates that the participants found it challenging to rank them. Finally, beside the two abovementioned answers to item 11, the other four responses showed no apparent overlap, allowing to conclude that item 10 covered all the noteworthy disadvantages of games.

Table 8: Further disadvantages of games (n = 6).

Further drawbacks of games	*f*
time constraints	2
boredom, if used too goal-oriented	1
difficulties with explaining the instructions	1
ensuring that students learn from the games	1
no guaranteed use of foreign language	1

5.2. Teachers' experiences with games during language learning

This section deals with the participants' experiences with games during their language learning at school. As mentioned before, the participants' answer to the first item in this section determined whether they needed to respond to the rest of the items or could skip ahead to the

next section. While this meant that participants who chose "none of them" in item 12 could skip questions 13 through 17, five teachers answered them nonetheless, thereby contradicting their answer to item 12. In order to bypass ambiguity, the answers to item 12 were disregarded, while the subsequent responses were taken into consideration.

The first question in this section asked the participants to indicate how many of their foreign language teachers used games in their lessons. Diagram 3 reveals that only 10% of the participants were taught by three or more foreign language teachers that employed games in their classroom. Moreover, around one quarter of them reported that none of their teachers used games for their foreign language teaching. By far the largest proportion of the participants, namely 64%, stated that one or two of their teachers used games to teach foreign languages.
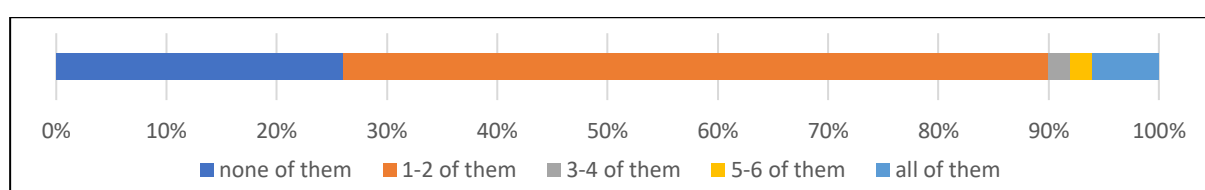
Figure 3: Number of participants' foreign language teachers who used games (n = 50, disregarding 5 ambiguous ones).

Moving on to the frequency of using games in language teaching, diagram 4 shows that none of the participants' foreign language teachers utilised games in their classroom every lesson. Only about 12% claim that their teachers employed games once a week and about a sixth of the participants' teachers used games on a monthly basis. The majority of the participants, namely over 70%, stated that their teachers used games to teach foreign languages once a term or once a year, in other words quite seldomly.
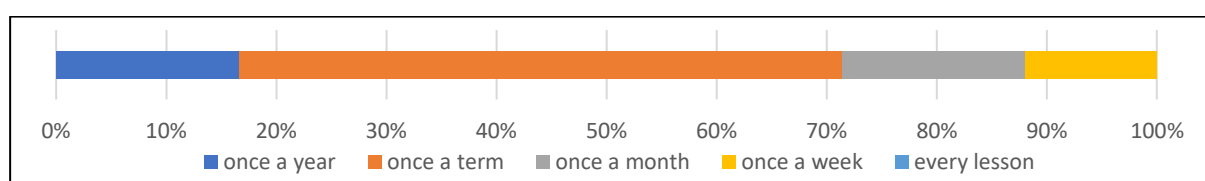
Figure 4: Frequency of participants' foreign language teachers' use of games (n = 42).

The next item enquired about how gladly the participants played the games that were used in their language lessons. According to the results, displayed in table 9, the majority of the participants enjoyed playing said games. In fact, more than half of them chose either "very" or "extremely" in this item.

Table 9: Participants' enjoyment of games played in their foreign language lessons (n = 42).

	"not at all"		"slightly"		"moderately"		"very"		"extremely"		nA		
	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	M	SD
game participation	1	2.38	3	7.14	12	28.57	13	30.95	10	23.81	3	3.72	1.02

44

About 30% stated that they enjoyed games moderately, only 3 participants enjoyed them slightly and just one claimed to not have enjoyed them at all.

In order to gain more insight into the impact of games on language learning, the next item enquired the participants to specify these effects (see table 10). The most commonly mentioned effect is that of motivation or more specifically that of increased motivation. Besides that, some participants stated better retention, having the opportunity to try out the language and decreased inhibition to use the language in their responses. Further effects addressed in this item included the improvement of pronunciation and listening skills and more flexibility in using the language and having fun.

Table 10: Effects of games on language learning (20 responses).

Effects of games on language learning	f
(increased) motivation	9
better retention	3
being able to try out the language	3
decreased inhibition	2
improved of pronunciation and listening skills	1
more flexibility	1
fun	1

Having answered this open-ended question, the participants were asked two additional questions about their views on the beneficial effects of games on language learning. Firstly, item 16 enquired to rate how positive they viewed these effects. Table 11 shows that most participants (24 out of 39) either regarded games to have had a moderately or very positive effect on their language learning.

Table 11: Positive effects on language learning from playing games (n = 39).

	"not at all"		"slightly"		"moderately"		"very"		"extremely"		nA		
	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	M	SD
benefit for language learning	-	-	8	20.51	13	33.33	11	28.21	3	7.69	4	3.26	0.92

Eight teachers decided it only had a slightly positive effect, three claimed it had an extremely beneficial effect and none stated it had no effect at all, respectively. Secondly, item 17 asked the teachers to specify which language skills they feel benefited the most from playing games in their language lessons. As shown in table 12, more than three quarters claimed that it aided their speaking competence, followed by vocabulary chosen by slightly less than 60%. The remaining categories were chosen by seven or less teachers, indicating that the participants believe these language skills did not benefit very strongly from games.

Table 12: Aspects of language competence that profited from playing games (n = 39).

	Σ	%	Graphic representation
vocabulary	23	58.97	
grammar	5	12.82	
speaking	30	76.92	
writing	1	2.56	
listening	7	17.95	
reading	4	10.26	
nA	5	12.82	

5.3. Teachers' experiences with games during teacher training

This section focuses on the participants' experiences during their teacher training. The first item (item 18) enquired the participants to state how often they came into contact with the topic of games during their teacher education. The results in table 13 demonstrate that half of the participants encountered this subject matter 1-5 times. Altogether fifteen teachers claimed that the use of games as a tool for foreign language teaching was mentioned more than six times and twelve declared that they did not encounter this topic at all during their teacher training.

Table 13: Encounters with the topic of games during teacher education (n = 54).

	"not at all"		"1-5 times"		"6-10 times"		"11-15 times"		"over 15 times"			
	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	M	SD
number of references	12	22.22	27	50.00	4	7.41	5	9.26	6	11.11	2.37	1.25

The next item (item 19) asked the teachers to specify what exactly they learned about the use of games in the foreign language classroom. As shown in table 14, the most common answer revolved around learning about the often rather effortful preparation and the necessary considerations regarding the implementation of games.

Table 14: What the participants learned about using games (27 responses).

What the participants learned about using games	*f*
advantages of using games	13
effortful preparation and implementation	7
purposes of employing games	3
importance of clear rules	2
nothing	2

Several participants also mentioned being taught about some of the positive effects of using games, such as the aspect of motivation, the fun factor as well as the versatility and effectiveness of games in teaching languages and involving shy students. Moreover, some stated they learned about the importance of clear rules and about different purposes of employing games. Finally, it should be mentioned that some teachers stated that they did not learn anything about the use of games during their teacher training.

In addition to this qualitative data, the participants were also asked to rate how their encounters with the topic of games in language teaching have impacted their views on the matter (item 20). According to the results in table 15, the participants' views on games either remained the same or improved. In fact, over 50% felt that their encounters with the topic of games during their teacher training had no effect on their views on this matter, while the rest either abstained from answering or claimed that it had a rather or very positive impact.

Table 15: Impact of teacher education on beliefs about using games (n = 56).

	"very positive"		"rather positive"		"unchanged"		"rather negative"		"very negative"		nA		
	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	M	SD
change in attitude	5	8.93	14	25.00	30	53.57	-	-	-	-	7	2.51	0.68

The last two items of this section, items 21 and 22, investigated what the teachers thought about the influence of books and articles on this topic on their beliefs. The results of these items are quite similar to the previous ones, namely that most teachers claim to have only encountered this topic in books and articles rarely (1-5 times) or even not at all, and that their opinions on the matter have not worsened from that (see table 16 and 17).

Table 16: Encounters with the topic of games in books, articles, essays, etc. during teacher education (n = 56).

	"not at all"		"1-5 times"		"6-10 times"		"11-15 times"		"over 15 times"			
	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	M	SD
number of references	22	39.29	28	50.00	4	7.14	1	1.79	1	1.79	1.77	0.81

Table 17: Impact of the encounters with the topic of games in books, articles, essays, etc. during teacher education on beliefs about using games (n = 54).

	"very positive"		"rather positive"		"unchanged"		"rather negative"		"very negative"		nA		
	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	%	Σ	M	SD
change in opinion	2	3.70	20	37.04	16	29.63	-	-	-	-	16	2.37	0.59

5.4. Teachers' experiences with games during their own teaching

The final section of the questionnaire focused on the teachers' own teaching experience. The first item in this section, item 23, enquired how often the participants use games in their own

foreign language teaching. According to the results, displayed in diagram 5, all the participants have at least once used games in their teaching. One teacher claimed to use games once a year and four stated that they employ them once a term. 33 participants, the by far largest proportion, stated that they use games once a month, while sixteen claimed to do so once a week. Finally, two teachers declared to incorporate games into every lesson.
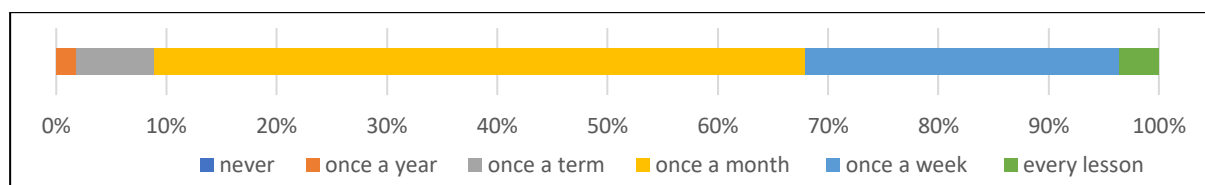
Figure 5: Frequency of participants' use of games in foreign language teaching (n = 56).

Item 24 asked what types of games the participants use in their teaching. Table 18 shows that the most frequently used types of games are *vocabulary/grammar games*, *communicative games* and *role play*. Half of the participants use *computer games* in their teaching, sixteen use *board games* and seven employ *pronunciation games*. 26 participants, representing slightly less than half, stated they use *kinetic games* in their lessons. Finally, participant #17 added a response under "other", namely spelling games.

Table 18: Participants' use of specific types of games (n = 56).

	Σ	%	Graphic representation
vocabulary/grammar games	54	96.43	
communicative games	49	87.50	
board games	16	29.63	
role play	49	87.50	
computer games	27	50.00	
kinetic games	26	48.15	
pronunciation games	7	12.96	
other	1	1.85	

The next three items, items 25 to 27, asked the participants to state from where they obtain the games they use, when they use them during the lesson and what purpose they use them for. Concerning the source for games, 80% of the participants claimed to acquire them from internet platforms or produce them themselves (see table 19). Around 45% stated they use game collections as a resource or use games produced by their colleagues. Finally, four participants added further sources to the list, namely textbooks, seminar materials as well as games they have come to know during their teacher training or during their teaching internship.

Table 19: Participants' sources from where they obtain games for their teaching (n = 55).

	Σ	%	Graphic representation
internet platforms	44	80.00	
game collections in books	25	45.45	
self-produced games	44	80.00	
games produced by colleagues	24	43.64	
other	4	7.27	

In regard to when the teachers use games (see table 20), most of them employ games during the lesson. Around 62% do so at the end of a lesson and about half start their lessons with a game. In addition, four participants specified that they use games at different times during the lesson, depending on when it suits best. One participant claimed to use them specifically in the last lesson of the day and another participant declared to use them during the whole lesson.

Table 20: When the participants use games in their lessons (n = 55).

	Σ	%	Graphic representation
At the beginning of the lesson	28	50.91	
During the lesson	46	83.64	
At the end of the lesson	34	61.82	
other	6	10.91	

Finally, as to the purpose of using games in language teaching, the three top objectives were *to practice vocabulary*, *for loosening up* and *to practice grammatical structures* (see table 21).

Table 21: Purposes for which the participants use games in their teaching (n = 56).

	Σ	%	Graphic representation
To start a lesson	22	39.29	
To introduce a new topic	23	41.07	
To practice grammatical structures	50	89.29	
To practice vocabulary	52	92.86	
For loosening up	52	92.86	
As a performance review	5	8.93	
To end a lesson	31	55.36	
other	2	3.57	

More than half of the teachers employ games *to end a lesson* and around 40% use it *to start a lesson* or *to introduce a new topic*. Only five participants claimed to use games *as a performance review*, indicating that this is quite an uncommon purpose. Lastly, two participants specified additional objectives, namely, *to revise known topics* (participant #41) and *to practice fluency* (participant #46).

Item 28 asked the participants to state which types of games they see as most successful when it comes to foreign language teaching (see table 22). According to the results, the teachers found vocabulary/grammar games and role play most successful. Several teachers mentioned communicative games, two recorded kinetic games and one noted down computer games. The remaining responses, categorised as "other" in table 22, did not contain references to actual types of games, but rather descriptions of games in terms of other characteristics, such as being motivating, flexible in their implementation, easy to explain and fair. Some participants stated that the success of employing a game depends on the group it is played with, the relevancy of its topic and how evident its outcome is. Finally, several participants stated that they found games for pairs or small groups most successful.

Table 22: Types of games participants view as most successful (44 responses).

Most successful types of games	f
vocabulary/grammar games	13
role play	11
communicative games	5
kinetic games	2
computer games	1
other	12

The next item (item 29) enquired the participants to share which difficulties they face when employing games in their own teaching (see table 23).

Table 23: Difficulties participants face when employing games (39 responses).

Difficulties faced when employing games	f
time constraints	16
discipline issues	9
unclear purpose and outcome	4
difficulties with explaining the rules	2
difficulties with motivation	2
group dynamics	1
contextual factors	5

The two most common responses either referred to time constraints in regard to both preparing and implementing games or to problems with the students' discipline. Further stated difficulties included being uncertain about the purpose and outcome of the games, struggling to explain the rules, having difficulties with motivating the learners and group dynamics. In addition, several teachers addressed the following contextual factors (see Borg 2003: 94 in section 3.3.) that made it more difficult for them to employ games in their lessons: group size, curriculum demands, different L1s and restrictions in terms of school facilities.

Question number 30 asked the teachers to specify advantages that come with employing games in their own foreign language teaching. The responses were grouped into several categories in table 24, which also shows how frequently they were mentioned.

Table 24: Participants' perceived advantages of employing games (63 responses).

Advantages of employing games	f
(increased) motivation	13
fun factor	12
more diversity	11
help in loosening up	7
facilitation of language and social skills	6
more active involvement of students	5
decrease of inhibition to speak	3
natural learning	3
positive atmosphere	3

The most commented on advantages were motivation, the aspect of fun and the fact that games entail a more diversified lesson. Other frequently addressed benefits included helping students to loosen up, facilitating their language and social skills and increasing their active involvement in the lesson. Finally, some participants stated that games can lessen the students' inhibition to speak, create a positive atmosphere and allow students to learn subconsciously.

The next item constituted an incomplete sentence to which the participants should provide an ending and was phrased as follows: „Ich würde Spiele öfter in meinem Fremdsprachenunterricht einsetzten, wenn …" (see table 25). The by far most prevailing response addressed time constraints as a reason for not employing games more often. The next most common answer revolved around needing better access to and more suitable resources, which, as in item 29, falls into the category of contextual factors. Moreover, the participants also identified other contextual factors, such as restricted school facilities and technical appliances, high curriculum demands and an inconvenient group size, as obstacles that prevent

them from implementing games in their lessons. Finally, some teachers stated that they would employ games more often if they were more experienced in applying this method of teaching, were more capable in maintaining discipline in class during such activities, had the assurance that their students would benefit from the games and were appreciated for making the effort to play games in class.

Table 25: What prevents participants from employing games in their teaching (37 responses).

"I would employ games more often in my foreign language classroom, if…	f
I had more time.	18
there was assurance of a beneficial outcome.	2
the students showed more appreciation of doing so.	1
I had more experience in doing so.	1
I was more capable in maintaining discipline in class during such activities.	1
it wasn't for this contextual factor.	14

The last question asked the participants whether they wished to add any final remarks and yielded two relevant responses. Participant #10 stated that analogue games are generally better received than digital ones, with the exception of a game called Kahoot. In addition, this teacher specified that games need to be adjustable in order to suit the students' level. The other participant (#26), remarked on some of the difficulties when using games, namely the time investment for the preparation and the spatial restrictions of most classrooms.

6. Discussion

This section contains a detailed discussion of the results of the survey and attempts to answer the research questions outlined in section 4.1. The first two sections tackle the first research question and its sub-question. The final two sections discuss the findings in regard to the two questions of the second research focus.

6.1. Secondary school teachers' use of games

This section aims to answer the first research question that focuses on determining secondary school teachers' use of games in their foreign language teaching. The main item that was drawn on to answer this question is item 23, which enquired how often the participants use games in their own teaching. Moreover, the results of this item were compared to those of items 12 and 13, which dealt with the participants' teachers' use of games, and hence allowed some indirect conclusions about the changes in the employment of games over the past decades.

While more than a quarter of the participants claimed that none of their teachers used games in language teaching (see diagram 3), the teachers' responses in 23 display that they all use games in their teaching. Firstly, this exhibits quite a strong increase in the employment of games among foreign language teachers. Secondly, it also highlights that over the years the use of games in foreign language classrooms has become so common that every teacher has given it a shot at least once in their teaching. Regarding the frequency of using games, more than 90% claimed to do so at least once a month and almost a third stated that they employ games on a weekly basis or more frequently. This also displays a considerable growth in frequency, since, according to the participants' claims, less than 30% of their teachers used games to that extent while the majority only used games once a year or once a term.

There are several reasons as to why it is not very surprising to witness these changes. Firstly, as addressed in section 2.1.1., more recent research on games has placed greater emphasis on their value as an educational tool (Klippel 1980: 11-12). This caused an increase in studies on this matter, which, as stated by Bush (see section 2.2.1.), mostly advocate the use of games in the language classroom (Bush 2015: 19). Hence, it appears likely that the awareness of the benefits of using games in foreign language teaching continuously grew, inspiring more and more teachers to incorporate games into their lessons. Secondly, it could be claimed that the increased use of games for teaching purposes can be linked to the spread of new theories about language learning (see section 2.2.1). In fact, since these new theories, as stated by Wang and Ha (2012: 261), shifted the focus more onto the learner, current teachers are more likely to use games than their predecessors because this approach accommodates this change (see Rixon 1981: 63). Finally, the philosophies put forward by the progressive education movement, addressed in section 2.2.1., may have also been a cause for the increase. As discussed before, the progressive education movement did not exhibit any apparent impact on teachers' views on using games in teaching until several decades after it was introduced (Döring 1997: 45). Consequently, the given increase in the use of games at school could be seen as one of its belated effects.

While there is ground for these arguments, it does need to be added here that they are are solely based on the claims of the participants, without any chance of cross-checking them with statements by the participants' teachers. For example, it is quite possible that those participants' teachers, who, according to them, did not use games, actually did do so but simply did not explicitly state it in class, leading their students to believe that no games were employed. This is possible since, as mentioned by Döring (1997: 25) in section 2.3.1., learning and playing are closely linked and therefore not always easily distinguishable. And finally, considering the fact

that all participants whose teachers did not use games in class, do claim to use such activities themselves, it can be concluded that this change was not influenced by language learning experience, but must have occurred at a later stage. Since this addresses the second research question, it will be discussed later on in section 6.4.

6.2. Discernible differences according to selected variables

The following section revolves around answering the sub-question of the first research question. This sub-question investigates whether there are any discernible differences regarding the employment of games in the foreign language classroom between teachers of English and Russian as a foreign language, between novice and long-term teachers, between male and female teachers and between teachers of middle and high school grades. In order to illustrate the findings, the basic data, outlined in section 5.1.1., is displayed in newly arranged tables in correlation with item 23 and according to the specific variables mentioned above.

6.2.1. According to gender

When it comes to the use of games in the foreign language classroom, it seems as though there are only minor differences between female and male teachers. In fact, both genders seem to employ games mostly once a month (see table 26).

Table 26: The participants' use of games by gender (n = 56).

		female teachers	male teachers
Σ	never	-	-
	once a year	-	1
	once a term	3	1
	once a month	24	9
	once a week	15	1
	every lesson	2	-
	TOTAL	44	12
%	never	-	-
	once a year	-	8.33
	once a term	6.82	8.33
	once a month	54.55	75.00
	once a week	34.09	8.33
	every lesson	4.55	-
	TOTAL	100.00	100.00

It can be claimed, however, that female teacher on the whole use games more frequently than male teachers due to the fact that the only participants that stated that they use games in every lesson were women, while only men are represented in the category titled once a year. Finally, it should be addressed here that among all participants there were only twelve male teachers in

contrast to the 44 female ones, which means that the former category is far less representative than the latter one.

6.2.2. According to subject

Moving on to comparing teachers of English with those of Russian, table 27 below shows that, as with the juxtaposition of female and male teachers, the differences in this regard are also generally insignificant. In fact, in both subjects the majority of teachers appears to employ games once a month in their lessons, followed by the second largest group represented in the category once a week.

Table 27: The participants' use of games by subject (n = 56).

		teaching English	teaching Russian
Σ	never	-	-
	once a year	-	1
	once a term	3	1
	once a month	26	6
	once a week	13	2
	every lesson	-	1
	TOTAL	42	11
%	never	-	-
	once a year	-	9.09
	once a term	7.14	9.09
	once a month	61.90	54.55
	once a week	30.95	18.18
	every lesson	-	9.09
	TOTAL	100.00	100.00

The only difference that can be detected in this comparison is the fact that Russian teachers, despite being less represented in the survey's results, have a more diversified rate of using games in their teaching than English teachers. However, once again one of the two categories, in this case the group of Russian teachers, is non-representative, thereby rendering it hard to draw distinct conclusions on this matter.

6.2.3. According to years of teaching experience

The next aspect, according to which the participants' use of games was compared, is their years of teaching experience, displayed in table 28. On the one hand, the results illustrate that there is a slight decrease in the teachers' frequency of employing games in their teaching as their years of experience grow. On the other hand, highly experienced teachers, namely those with more than 20 years of teaching experience, seem to reverse that tendency and employ games even more frequently than novice teachers.

Table 28: The participants' use of games by years of teaching experience (n = 56).

		1-3 years of teaching experience	4-10 years of teaching experience	11-20 years of teaching experience	over 20 years of teaching experience
Σ	never	-	-	-	-
	once a year	-	-	1	-
	once a term	-	2	2	-
	once a month	13	13	3	4
	once a week	4	3	4	5
	every lesson	1	-	-	1
	TOTAL	18	18	10	10
%	never	-	-	-	-
	once a year	-	-	10.00	-
	once a term	-	11.11	20.00	-
	once a month	72.22	72.22	30.00	40.00
	once a week	22.22	16.67	40.00	50.00
	every lesson	5.56	-	-	10.00
	TOTAL	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

The relatively high frequency of using games among novice teachers does not appear to be in line with the studies on teacher beliefs about language teaching addressed in section 3.4.2 as well as studies on the development of teachers' beliefs mentioned in section 3.5.1.2. In fact, Calderhead (1996: 720) claims that novice teachers usually favour control-oriented approaches to teaching, which would suggest that those teachers would not use games very frequently, since in doing so teachers often relinquish their control over the students (see section 2.4., Rixon 1981: 63). Similarly, the aforementioned studies by Nunan (1992) and Richards (1998b) in section 3.5.2. demonstrate that novice teachers pay great attention to classroom management (Borg 2003: 95). This also implies a lesser use of games among such teachers since playing games can, especially if they are competitive in nature, make it more difficult to manage a class (see section 2.4., Betrus & Botturi 2010: 46-47). In the end, it can be hypothesised that a reason behind the quite frequent employment of games among novice teachers could be the fact that teachers usually start their careers highly motivated to try out all kinds of teaching methods and as many different types of exercises as possible. Hence, it could be argued that novice teachers are more willing to invest the time and effort necessary to prepare and implement games in their lessons in comparison to those who are not new to their job anymore.

As to the lower frequency of using games by teachers with four to 20 years of teaching experience, this tendency can be linked to the aspect of teaching routines, addressed in section 3.4.2. In fact, as suggested by Emmer and Stough (2001: 106), teachers tend to be more inflexible in their methods once they have established certain routines for their lessons. This implies that as teachers gain more teaching experience and slowly settle into a fixed routine,

they are less likely to incorporate new methods into their lessons, especially those that may lead to uncontrollable classroom situations (e.g. games, as suggested by Rixon 1981: 63 in section 2.4.). Emmer and Stough (2001: 106) also state, however, that once teachers become experts in their field, they have the necessary competence to deal with challenging classroom situations, which could suggest that such teachers are more likely to use games in their lessons. This corroborates the higher rate of game employment among expert teachers shown in table 28.

6.2.4. According to which grades are taught

Finally, the participants' responses were also analysed according to which grades they teach. As shown in table 29 above, it seems as though there are only minor differences between middle and high school teachers' use of games. In fact, that only conclusion that can be made on the basis of this comparison is the fact that high school teachers employ games slightly less than middle school teachers.

Table 29: The participants' use of games by grades taught (n = 22).

		Sekundarstufe I	Sekundarstufe II
Σ	never	-	-
	once a year	-	-
	once a term	-	-
	once a month	4	10
	once a week	4	2
	every lesson	1	1
	TOTAL	9	13
%	never	-	-
	once a year	-	-
	once a term	-	-
	once a month	44.44	76.92
	once a week	44.44	15.38
	every lesson	11.11	7.69
	TOTAL	100.00	100.00

At this point it is relevant to add that out of all the participants' responses only 22 could be used for this comparison, since the rest teach both middle and high school grades and were not asked to specify in which they used games. Hence, a larger sample size would have been necessary in order to reach a significant insight into this comparison.

6.3. Secondary school teachers' beliefs regarding the use of games

Having discussed the first research question, this section aims to answer the second one by outlining the insights gained about secondary school teachers' beliefs regarding the use of games in foreign language teaching. There are three different aspects of interest here: the participants' beliefs about the advantageousness of different types of games, their beliefs about

the advantages and finally also about the disadvantages of using games. Each section draws on several interrelated items from the questionnaire, correlates the responses and finally compares them to previous studies. As the first aspect has not been investigated in that form in previous studies, it is analysed by comparing it to the existing theory on games.

6.3.1. Beliefs about the advantageousness of different types of games

When it comes to the question of which types of games the participants use in their foreign language teaching, the responses to the questionnaire display insightful correlations between items 7 and 24. In item 7 the participants were asked to indicate their familiarity with several types of games and in item 24 they stated which of them they use in their teaching. The results show that the most well-known games appear to be used most frequently, while lesser known ones are employed less. This goes to show that teachers prefer using games that they are familiar with. A possible reason as to why teachers seldomly pick unfamiliar games for their lessons is the fact that using games in language teaching requires teachers to pay attention to quite a substantial number of didactic considerations, as outlined in section 2.2.5. Working through these considerations is likely to be more demanding and time-consuming when introducing new games simply because of the lack of experience with them. Another reason why unfamiliar games are not commonplace in lessons, has to do with time expenditure, which, according to Betrus and Botturi (2010: 47, see section 2.4.), is said to prevent teachers from using games.

In regard to the participants' beliefs about the success rate of different games, the abovementioned item 7 was compared with item 28, which asked the participants to list types of games they find successful. On the one hand, most participants seem to believe that games aiming at correctness, in other words vocabulary and grammar games, are most successful in the context of foreign language teaching. In fact, fourteen out of 32 participants included this type in their response to item 28. Just to recap, this type of game also constitutes the most well-known (by 100%) and most frequently used type (by 96.43%), according to the survey. On the other hand, it seems that the participants do not view communicative games, which are well-known (by 96.43%) as well as frequently used (by 87.5%), as highly successful, since only five out of 32 reported them in their responses in item 28. A possible reason for the popularity of such games, which can be deduced from the results of items 7 and 24, could be the fact that they appear to be an obvious choice in the foreign language classroom, since they increase the learners' speaking time (Kurzreiter 1981: 14, Kleppin 1980: 31, see section 2.3.2.). As to the participants' seemingly not very high regard of communicative games, this may relate to the fact that they are harder to administer due to the lack of control teachers experience when doing

so (see Rixon 1981: 63 in section 2.4). It needs to be noted here, however, that there is overlap between some of the categories listed in items 7 and 24. For instance, role play, which is seen as quite successful by the participants, can be claimed to generally fall into the category of communicative games. Besides being both well-known (by 92.86%) and frequently used (by 87.50%), this game type is mentioned by eleven participants in item 28. Hence, the participants may, in fact, view communicative games as successful, however, the perhaps not well-chosen categories render it difficult to draw definite conclusions about this matter.

6.3.2. Beliefs about the benefits of using games

As to the teachers' beliefs regarding the advantages of using games in foreign language teaching, the participants ranked the *fun factor* the highest and also repeatedly commented on this point in item 30:

> Es macht den SchülerInnen Spass
> Spaßfaktor
> mehr Freude am Lernen

While this benefit was not addressed as a positive side-effect of games in section 2.3.2., the reason why it was ranked so favourably by the participants can be traced back to the nature of games and their similarity to play, as outlined by Huizinga's (1998 [1949]: 13) and Caillois's (2001 [1961]: 8) claims in section 2.1.3. According to this, it can be argued that fun is an integral and profitable part of games, which is why it is not surprising that it received such a high recognition among teachers' beliefs in this as well as in other studies, addressed in section 3.4.2. (see Uzun, Ekin and Kartal 2013, see Beaves et al. 2014).

In second rank and even more frequently addressed in item 30 was the participants' belief that games generate an increase in motivation among the learners:

> Die Schülerinnen sind mehr motiviert die Sprache zu lernen.
> Gute Atmosphäre durch hohe Motivation
> größere Lernbereitschaft

These results reflect the aforementioned claims of Schiffler (1982: 16), Kleppin (1980: 32) and Betrus and Botturi (2010: 44) in section 2.3.2, who all attest that the motivational potential of games is one of their most prominent advantages. Moreover, previous studies also display that teachers believe the increase in motivation to be a highly advantageous aspect of employing games in foreign language teaching (see Uzun, Ekin & Kartal 2013, see Beaves et al. 2014).

The remaining three advantages listed in item 8 were each addressed by only three participants in item 30:

> geringe Sprechhemmung
> Abbau von Sprechhemmungen

Hemmungen werden gesenkt

lernen durch kommunikation, schüler lernen ohne es zu bemerken
natürliches Lernen
unbewusstes Lernen und Üben

positives Erlebnis
positive Stimmung im Unterricht
positive Wirkung auf Gruppe

As for the benefit titled *decreased anxiety*, it is not unsurprising that it was only mentioned by three participants, since it was also ranked least advantageous in item 8. Consistent with these results, Sobhani and Bagheri's study (2014) shows that teachers believe that even when they employ games in their lessons, some students remain anxious to speak in class (see section 3.4.2.). In regard to the other two aspects, namely *"natural" learning* and *learning-friendly atmosphere*, the responses listed above display that teachers have quite different opinions on how to word them. On the one hand, these two beneficial aspects can also be found among the responses of teachers in other studies, such as Uzun, Ekin & Kartal (2013) and Beaves et al. (2014). On the other hand, since there were other advantages that were listed more frequently in item 30, they might not number among the five most advantageous aspects. It can therefore be argued that item 8, contrary to the previously drawn conclusion in section 5.1.2., did not cover all noteworthy advantages of employing games in foreign language teaching. For instance, participant #41 added the fact that the employment of games can ensure a more diversified classroom in item 9:

Abwechslung

This factor can also be found among the advantages of games in Beaves et al.'s study (2014) and was moreover mentioned by eleven participants in item 30:

Abwechslung
Abwechslung im Unterricht
Abwechslung zu anderen Methoden

Similarly, several responses in item 30 as well as one in item 9 addressed the fact that games entail an increase in the active involvement of their students:

Alle SuS spielen gerne und lassen sich mit einem Spiel leicht und schnell „ins Boot holen"!
spricht sonst unbeteiligte SchülerInnen an
spricht andere SuS an als andere Unterrichtsformen

die meisten Schüler nehmen daran teil

This beneficial aspect also appears in the studies by Uzun, Ekin and Kartal (2013) and Djahimo (2015). Hence, it can be said that, according to the participants' beliefs, these two aspects constitute more noteworthy advantages of games than some of the ones listed in item 8.

Finally, there were two further advantages mentioned in item 30. Firstly, concerning the mentioned benefits summarised as facilitation of language and social skills in table 24, it can be claimed that this aspect is not necessarily specific to games but is rather the goal of foreign language teaching in general. Therefore, it does not need to be added to the pool of advantages of using games. And secondly, the participants stated the fact that playing games can help learners loosen up. The reason why this aspect was not included in the list of advantages in item 8 has to do with the fact that not all games necessarily offer students the chance to loosen up because there are many games, especially those that aim at correctness, that require a lot of concentration on the side of the students. Thus, this aspect rather constitutes a purpose for which games can be used during a lesson, which is also why it was classified as such in section 2.2.5. and provided as an option in item 27 in the questionnaire.

6.3.3. Beliefs about the drawbacks of using games

Having discussed the participants' beliefs about the advantages of using games in foreign language teaching, the survey also provided insight into their views on the drawbacks of doing so. When considering the ranking in item 10 and analysing the responses to items 29 and 31, it becomes apparent that the teachers believed time constraints to be the most disadvantageous aspect of employing games in their teaching, as it was not only ranked the highest but also most frequently commented on:

> enormer Zeitaufwand in der Vorbereitung
> hoher Zeitaufwand (überfüllte Lehrpläne, geringe Wochenstundenanzahl)
> Eindeutig den Zeitaufwand, sowohl bei der Vorbereitung als auch während der Einheit
>
> ich mehr Stunden zur Verfügung hätte
> ich noch mehr Zeit zum Vorbereiten hätte
> ich mehr zeitliche Ressourcen hätte - im Unterricht und in der Vorbereitung

This drawback was also addressed by teachers in other studies (see Beaves et al. 2014, see McColgan, Colesante & Andrade 2018), however, these investigations did not disclose whether their participants also believed it to be the most detrimental aspect. Consequently, this discovery is unique to this research project.

Besides time restrictions, quite a few responses in item 29 as well as one in item 31 revolved around discipline issues in class:

> destruktives Schülerverhalten
> Kontrollverlust, disziplinäre schwierigkeiten
> Disziplinlosigkeit der Schüler
>
> die Gruppe in der Lage ist, ein Mindestmaß an Diziplin aufrechtzuerhalten

As addressed in section 5.1.2., the scores of this drawback are very scattered in item 10, displaying strong differences in teachers' beliefs regarding its disadvantageousness. However, considering the frequent comments on it in item 29 as well as the fact that discipline issues are also addressed in Sobhani and Bagheri's study (2014), it appears that it is seen as quite an important disadvantage.

The two drawbacks titled *restricted application possibilities* and *restricted school circumstances* represent superordinate categories of different contextual factors that prevent teachers from employing games in their teaching. As with the previous disadvantage, both of these aspects also exhibit quite dispersed results among the ranks in item 10. A possible reason for that could be the fact that they denote a number of distinct disadvantages, which could be also addressed separately or differently and hence ranked differently too. Here are some examples of how the teachers phrased these drawbacks in items 29 and 31:

> manchmal zu kleine Gruppen (z.B. nur 5 SchülerInnen) - viele Spiele sind dadurch nicht möglich
> überfüllte Lehrpläne, geringe Wochenstundenanzahl
> freie Räumlichkeiten finden (man braucht viel Platz)

> Ich mein eigenes Klassenzimmer hätte und alles schön griffbereit hätte
> ...ich geeignete Materialien zur Hand hätte, die zu meinem Lehrwerk passen.
> ich wenig Druck hätte, den Lehrstoff durchzubringen.

As shown in tables 23 and 25 in section 5.4., these and other contextual factors are very frequently mentioned by the participants in items 29 and 31. Moreover, they are also commented on in previous studies, as for instance the lack of suitable resources and not enough access to them, which is addressed in Sobhani and Bagheri's study (2014). A possible reason, why they come up so often among the participants' concerns, is because they are a common reason for the discrepancy between teachers' beliefs and their practices (see Freeman 2002: 11, see Borg 2003: 98, see Burns, Edwards & Freeman 2015: 590). In other words, they may prevent teachers who believe games to be useful in foreign language teaching from actually employing them in practice (see Borg 2003: 94). While it would go beyond the scope of this study to investigate all of the participants' responses in regard to their references to contextual factors, this point clearly represents an intriguing angle for further investigations.

Regarding the last drawback listed in item 10, namely the problematic teacher role, it can be suggested that the teachers do not identify it as a noteworthy disadvantage of games because it was not only ranked last, but also not mentioned in any of the open-ended questions as well as among teachers' comments in previous studies.

Besides the disadvantages that correspond to the ones in item 10, the participants mentioned several additional drawbacks. The most commonly noted one revolves around the

fact that the purpose and outcome of a game are not always clear. Interestingly, Sobhani and Bagheri (2014) also analysed these aspects, however found that teachers did not view them as very disadvantageous. As for difficulties with motivation, with explaining the rules and with challenging group dynamics, these drawbacks seem to be linked to the didactic considerations and organisational guidelines outlined by Rixon (1981), Lee (1985) as well as other experts (see sections 2.2.5. and 2.2.6.). It can thus be concluded that the use of games in foreign language teaching entails two kinds of drawbacks. On the one hand, there are disadvantages that only occur when the implementation is not done properly, as for instance when using a game at the wrong stage in the lesson (see Rixon 1981: 71) or forgetting to monitor the students during the game (see Lee 1985: 10). On the other hand, using games also entails other kinds of drawbacks, such as time constraints and discipline issues, which may hinder the use of games no matter how well they are administered. Consequently, since the use of games in the foreign language classroom will always entail certain disadvantages, it will always be up to the teachers to make sure that they are outweighed by the benefits.

6.4. Influences upon secondary school teachers' beliefs

After these general insights into secondary school teachers' beliefs regarding games in foreign language teaching, this section attempts to determine how these beliefs were influenced by the teachers' prior language learning experience, by their experiences during teacher education and by their own teaching experience. At this point, it is relevant to consider that it is often very challenging to discern exactly which experiences are the cause of certain changes in teachers' beliefs and practices. Hence, the conclusions made in these sections are not to be taken as fact, but rather as attempts to make sense of the changes that have occurred in the participants' beliefs.

6.4.1. Influences from own language learning experience

As already addressed in section 6.1., the comparison of items 12, 13 and 23 revealed considerable differences between the participants' experiences of playing games as a language learner and their own employment of games in their teaching. For a better visualisation of the results, table 30 below presents the correlated responses of the aforementioned items according to how frequently games were employed. As illustrated by the different colours, none of the participants display a lower frequency in their use of games in comparison to their teachers. In fact, twelve participants use games as often as their teachers did (highlighted in grey) and the remaining 42 participants employ games more frequently (highlighted in green).

Table 30: Correlation between the participants' teachers use of games and the participants' own use of games (n = 55).

participants' teachers use of games		participants' use of games					
		never	once a year	once a term	once a month	once a week	every lesson
Σ	never	-	1	1	6	4	1
	once a year	-	-	-	2	5	-
	once a term	-	-	3	20	-	-
	once a month	-	-	-	4	2	1
	once a week	-	-	-	-	5	-
	every lesson	-	-	-	-	-	-
%	never	-	1.82	1.82	10.91	7.27	1.82
	once a year	-	-	-	3.64	9.09	-
	once a term	-	-	5.45	36.36	-	-
	once a month	-	-	-	7.27	3.64	1.82
	once a week	-	-	-	-	9.09	-
	every lesson	-	-	-	-	-	-

Moreover, the table once again highlights that there were thirteen participants, who, despite the fact that their teachers did not employ games at all, claimed to do so in their own teaching. Hence, a preliminary conclusion can be made about these participants, namely that since they did not have any experience of learning a foreign language through games, their decision to employ games was likely based on beliefs that originated in experiences after graduating from school. Since, as claimed by Zheng (2009: 76) in section 3.4.2., "[t]eachers' assumptions about how the foreign language should be learned are likely to affect their way of teaching", it can be argued that these participants presumably hold quite different beliefs about language learning and teaching in contrast to their former teachers. Such differences in beliefs between teachers are, according to Calderhead (1996: 720), quite commonplace. Furthermore, they are especially likely in this case because it can be assumed that there is a substantial age difference between the participants and their teachers. In any case, in order to determine whether the participants' teacher education or their own teaching experience has led them to teach differently than their teachers did, these participants' responses will be revisited in the subsequent two sections.

Besides that, table 30 illustrates some additional aspects worth discussing. For instance, it shows that in addition to those participants that decided to employ games in their teaching despite not having experienced that during their language learning at school, there are seven participants who made a considerable jump in their frequency of using games in contrast to their teachers. In order to determine how this change might have been influenced by their language learning experiences an additional table (table 31) has been assembled. It displays the

participants' and their teachers' use of games side by side with their answers to items 14 and 16, which asked how much they enjoyed playing games in their language lessons and how beneficial those games were in regard to their language learning. The participants' responses marked with an asterisk in this table are the five ambiguous answers, previously addressed in section 5.2.

Table 31: Outline of several responses from participants who exhibit a considerable jump in frequency of game employment in contrast to their teachers (n = 7).

item number		12	13	14	16	23
participant	#4	none*	once a year	"slightly"	-	once a week
	#8	none*	once a year	nA	nA	once a week
	#10	none*	once a year	nA	-	once a week
	#13	1-2	once a year	"slightly"	"slightly"	once a week
	#29	1-2	once a year	"very"	"moderately"	once a week
	#36	none*	once a year	"extremely"	-	once a week
	#41	none*	once a year	"not at all"	nA	once a week

As becomes apparent here, only the beliefs about games of participants #29 and #36 may have been favourably influenced by their experiences of learning foreign languages at school, thereby causing their highly frequent employment of games. In regard to participants #8 and #10, both of them did not indicate their answers in both items, which thus does not allow to draw any conclusions about how their beliefs on games may have been impacted by their language learning experiences. When it comes to participants #4, #13 and especially #41, the results suggest that these participants' experiences of learning languages through games should have actually had negative effects on their beliefs on this matter and therefore should have not led to a higher frequency of using of games in their teaching. It is quite surprising to see that the findings suggest otherwise, considering the fact that many experts underline the influential nature of prior language learning experiences on teachers' beliefs (Richards 1998a: 71, Freeman 1992, quoted in Borg 2003: 88, Farrell 2006: 236-237). A possible reason why the apparently not very positive experiences of playing games did not seem to have influenced the participants' beliefs and practices negatively is the fact that their teachers only employed games very seldomly, namely once a year. This arguably did not offer these participants very much basis to form strong adverse beliefs on this matter. Here, it is also important to readdress the complex nature of the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their actual practice (see section 3.3.). In fact, according to Pajares (1992: 326), teachers' practices do not necessarily directly reflect the beliefs they hold. Moreover, considering Richardson's (1996: 111) claim that experiences during teacher education may have diverse effects on teachers' beliefs, it could be argued that prior language learning experiences at school may also lead to different changes in teachers'

beliefs. Hence, both positive and negative experiences with games in the foreign language classroom could potentially prompt teachers to frequently employ games in their own teaching.

Taking everything into consideration, these insights allow me to conclude that teachers' enjoyment of games during school and their perception of a language learning benefit from them are not necessarily indicative as to how often they use such activities in their own lessons.

6.4.2. Influences from the teacher education program

Having analysed how the participants' use of games was influenced by their prior language learning experience, it was also insightful to investigate the influences from their teacher education. As with the analysis in the previous section, additional tables were assembled in order to illustrate the correlation between the participants' use of games and their attitudes towards the use of games influenced by encounters with that topic (table 32) or by articles, books, essays, etc. on that topic (table 33) during teacher education.

Table 32: Influences on the participants' attitudes towards games by their encounters with that topic during teacher education in correlation with their use of games (n = 56).

	Participants' use of games	"very positive"	"rather positive"	"unchanged"	"rather negative"	"very negative"	nA
Σ	never	-	-	-	-	-	-
	once a year	-	1	-	-	-	-
	once a term	-	2	2	-	-	-
	once a month	4	8	19	-	-	3
	once a week	1	3	9	-	-	2
	every lesson	-	-	-	-	-	2
	TOTAL	5	14	30	-	-	7
%	never	-	-	-	-	-	-
	once a year	-	7.14	-	-	-	-
	once a term	-	14.29	6.67	-	-	-
	once a month	80.00	57.14	63.33	-	-	42.86
	once a week	20.00	21.43	30.00	-	-	28.57
	every lesson	-	-	-	-	-	28.57
	TOTAL	100.00	100.00	100.00	-	-	100.00

These tables clearly illustrate that, as mentioned before, none of the teachers claim to have perceived a negative change in their attitudes towards games from any encounters with this topic during their teacher training. They also show that, statistically speaking, quite many participants chose not to indicate how the change, that might or might not have occurred in their beliefs during their teacher education, influenced their beliefs. Unfortunately, this also included the two participants (#9 and #39) with the highest frequency of using games, whose answers would have been intriguing to investigate.

Table 33: Influences on the participants' attitudes towards games from articles, books, essays, etc. on that topic during teacher education in correlation with their use of games (n = 54).

Participants' use of games		"very positive"	"rather positive"	"unchanged"	"rather negative"	"very negative"	nA
Σ	never	-	-	-	-	-	-
	once a year	-	1	-	-	-	-
	once a term	-	-	2	-	-	1
	once a month	1	12	10	-	-	10
	once a week	1	6	4	-	-	4
	every lesson	-	1	-	-	-	1
	TOTAL	2	20	16	-	-	16
%	never	-	-	-	-	-	-
	once a year	-	5.00	-	-	-	-
	once a term	-	-	12.50	-	-	6.25
	once a month	50.00	60.00	62.50	-	-	62.50
	once a week	50.00	30.00	25.00	-	-	25.00
	every lesson	-	5.00	-	-	-	6.25
	TOTAL	100.00	100.00	100.00	-	-	100.00

However, while this does not allow to draw conclusions about the influence of teacher education on these participants' beliefs about games, it does illustrate that quite a substantial number of them had difficulties identifying their beliefs, let alone changes that occurred in them. This reflects Donaghue's (2003: 345) claim that "personal theories may be subconscious" (see section 3.3.), which could be the reason for the fact that some teachers are insufficiently aware of their own beliefs. In order to actually determine whether the participants' positively influenced beliefs from teacher training may have been the deciding factor behind their choice to use games in their lessons, the answers of those participants that indicated a very positive change in items 20 and 22 were summarised in another table (table 34) below. Once again, the participants' responses with an asterisk were deemed ambiguous and disregarded.

Table 34: Outline of several responses from participants whose attitudes towards games were very positively influenced by their encounters with the topic of games, both in general and in books, articles, essays, etc. (n = 6).

item number		12	13	20	22	23
participant	#5	none	-	"very positive"	"rather positive"	once a week
	#8	none*	once a year	"rather positive"	"very positive"	once a week
	#35	1-2	once a term	"very positive"	"rather positive"	once a month
	#36	none*	once a year	"very positive"	nA	once a month
	#40	1-2	once a term	"very positive"	"unchanged"	once a month
	#53	5-6	once a month	"very positive"	"very positive"	once a month

First of all, this table includes two participants (#8 and #36) which were already discussed in the previous section. Since participant #8 gave no indication as to being influenced by her language learning experience, it can be concluded that her teacher training was in fact what caused her to employ games much more often than her teacher did. As for participant #36 who

may have been affected by her language learning experience, the results in table 34 indicate that her teacher training also contributed some positive influences. This seems to also apply to participants #35 and #40, who besides being very positively influenced by the encounters with the topic of games, also indicated that they highly enjoyed playing games at school. Perceiving these different influences nicely highlights both the dynamic and complex nature of teachers' beliefs addressed in section 3.5. (Feryok 2010: 274, Ruohotie-Lythy 2016: 150). Furthermore, it also shows that if several influences can be detected, a quantitative study does not allow to pinpoint exactly which experiences were responsible for certain changes. In such cases, an additional qualitative investigation would be necessary to do so. As for participant #5, who evidently could not have been influenced by her language learning experience since none of her foreign language teachers employed games, it can be concluded that her highly frequent use of games was caused by her experiences during teacher training. Lastly, participant #53, who exhibits highly positive influences from both her language learning experience and her teacher training, is the only participant in this group that did not increase her frequency of using games in comparison to her teachers. Hence, these findings are similar to those in the previous section, namely that teachers may not necessarily change their beliefs about games and hence their use of them even if they experience them as an extremely effective tool in both theory and practice. It also, once again, reflects the abovementioned claim by Richardson (1996: 111), according to whom "[s]ome programs affect change and others do not; some programs affect certain types of students and not others; some beliefs are more difficult to change than others" (see section 3.5.1.2.).

Finally, it is worth to shortly remark on the thirteen participants who employ games in their lessons despite the fact that their teachers did not do so. Besides participant #5, who was addressed above, only five (#12, #44, #46, #55 and #56) of the remaining twelve teachers belonging to this category described their encounters with the topic of games as rather positive, thereby displaying a somewhat influence on their beliefs about games during their teacher training. In regard to the remaining seven participants, it can be therefore be concluded that their decision to incorporate games in their teaching seems to be neither grounded on beliefs originating from their language learning experiences nor on those that accumulated during teacher training. Hence, they were likely influenced by beliefs formed during their in-service experience.

6.4.3. Influences from own teaching experience

This last section aims to determine whether and how teachers' beliefs and therefore their use of games in foreign language teaching were influenced by their teaching experience. As discussed in section 3.5.2., studies on in-service beliefs usually analyse the differences between novice and expert teachers. Hence, the main focus in this section lay on comparing the teachers with one to three years of teaching experience with those who have been practicing their profession for over 20 years. Moreover, it was decided to specifically investigate those participants that claimed to use games very frequently in their teaching, namely at least once a week. The following two tables (table 35 and 36) present an outline of the responses from the participants that meet all the aforementioned criteria.

Table 35: Outline of several responses from novice teachers who use games at least once a week (n = 5).

item number		12	13	14	16	20	22	23
participant	#8	none*	once a year	nA	nA	"rather positive"	"very positive"	once a week
	#9	1-2	once a month	"moderately"	"moderately"	nA	"rather positive"	every lesson
	#27	1-2	once a week	"very"	"very"	"unchanged"	"unchanged"	once a week
	#29	1-2	once a year	"very"	"moderately"	"unchanged"	nA	once a week
	#41	none	once a year	"not at all"	nA	"unchanged"	"unchanged"	once a week

Table 36: Outline of several responses from participants with more than 20 years of teaching experience who use games at least once a week (n = 6).

item number		12	13	14	16	20	22	23
participant	#11	1-2	once a week	"extremely"	"very"	"unchanged"	"rather positive"	once a week
	#21	1-2	once a week	"very"	"very"	"unchanged"	"unchanged"	once a week
	#28	all	once a week	"slightly"	"slightly"	"unchanged"	"rather positive"	once a week
	#31	1-2	once a week	"very"	"very"	"unchanged"	-	once a week
	#39	none	-	-	-	nA	nA	every lesson
	#47	none	-	-	-	nA	nA	once a week

Firstly, table 35 includes participant #8, who has been already extensively analysed in both previous sections. However, here it adds a new dimension to the discussion, namely the fact that this participant is a novice teacher. Since this participant has therefore not yet accumulated a lot of actual teaching experience that could strongly affect her beliefs on games, the previously drawn conclusion, according to which it was in fact her teacher training that has influenced her beliefs on games, can be corroborated. Similarly, another novice teacher (participant #9) who also displays some influences, albeit not very strong, from different pre-

service experiences, is also more likely influenced by those experiences than by in-service ones. This is supported by Johnson (1994: 450, quoted in Borg 2003: 88) who claims that "preservice ESL teachers' beliefs[, …] in all likelihood, will represent their dominant model of action" (see section 3.5.1.1.).

As for participants #39 and #47, table 36 shows that they both had no teachers that used games in their lesson and also gave no indication as to how their teacher training influenced their beliefs on the use of games. Hence, based on their highly frequent use of games, their presumably quite positive view of employing such activities must have formed during their lengthy teaching experience. Interestingly, there is also one novice teachers (participant #41), displayed in table 35, who exhibits comparable results, indicating that despite having started teaching only a few years ago, her positive beliefs about games also seem to be grounded on her teaching experience. When it comes to previous studies on in-service beliefs, the ones mentioned in section 3.5.2. (see Nunan 1992, see Richards 1998b) seem to be in line with the results of participants #39 and #47, but not with those of participant #41. In fact, Borg (2003: 95) states that they these studies indicate that novice teachers pay great attention to classroom management, which suggest that they would not favour employing activities that complicate this aspect.

Next, there are several participants, both novice (#27 and #29) and expert teachers (#11, #21 and #31), who reported positive influences from their language learning experience, almost no changes originating from their teacher training and no increase in frequency of using games in comparison to their teachers. In the case of participants #27 and #29, their choice to continue using games as often as their teachers is most likely based on the beliefs they formed at school. When it comes to the three aforementioned expert teachers, it is important to acknowledge their extensive teaching experience since it potentially exceeds the large number of hours of their language learning experience, which is mentioned as an argument for the dominance of prior language learning beliefs in section 3.5.1.1. Hence, as far as expert teachers are concerned, this argument will most likely does not hold true for them.

Last but not least, participant #28 indicated that she was not influenced very positively by either her prior language learning at school or by her teacher training. Considering this as well as the fact that she falls into the category of expert teachers, her favourable beliefs about games were most likely formed during her many years of teaching experience.

Finally, regarding the remaining as yet unaddressed participants (#14, #15, #19, #26 and #54) from the category of teachers who did not experience playing games in their foreign language lessons at school, an analysis of their responses showed that neither their language

learning experiences nor their experiences during teacher training seem to have impacted their beliefs on games. Consequently, they must have started to favour the use of games at some point during their in-service experiences.

7. Conclusion

This research study disclosed several noteworthy insights into both the secondary school teachers' use of games in the Russian and English as a foreign language classroom and their beliefs on the matter. Regarding the use of games in foreign language teaching, the study revealed that this type of activity has become very common among secondary school teachers. In fact, in contrast to the participants' teachers, of which more than a quarter did not incorporate games into their lessons, the participants themselves all stated to do so at least once a year in their teaching. This shows that, contrary to some experts' claims (see Bush 2015: 19), the use of games in foreign language teaching appears to have transformed from being merely an innovative method used by a limited number of teachers to constitute a universally accepted and frequently practiced approach to teaching languages.

As to the sub-question of the first research focus, the results of the survey only indicated minor differences between most of the chosen variables. The aspect that allowed the greatest insight was the participants' number of years of teaching experience, which can be compared to the well-established focus among investigations into teachers' beliefs, that is into the differences between novice and expert teachers. While previous studies on this matter mostly indicate that novice teachers pay great attention to classroom management and hence would rather not use games frequently in their lessons, the novice teachers that took part in the survey reported a rather high frequency of game use, almost as high as the group of expert teachers. Besides that, however, the findings did corroborate previous findings about teachers' approaches to classroom routines (see Emmer & Stough 2001: 106).

Moving on to the second research question, which aimed to elicit teachers' general beliefs regarding the use of games in foreign language teaching, the results allowed to draw conclusions on three distinct points of interest. Firstly, the survey enquired the participants to indicate their knowledge and use of specific types of games as well as their beliefs about their advantageousness. Consequently, it was possible to ascertain that there is a strong correlation between how well games are known, how frequently they are used and as how advantageous they are perceived. In fact, it appears that the better known and the more advantageous certain types of games are seen, the more they are employed in teaching. At this point, it would be fitting to address the fact that this study mainly focused on so-called traditional games, with the

exception of computer games. Thus, it for the most part left out digital games, which are currently strongly gaining in popularity in regard to their use in teaching in general as well as specifically in the foreign language classroom. Considering this tendency, it can be suggested that this presents a potentially very insightful focus for further investigations. The remaining two points of interest revolved around analysing the participants' beliefs concerning the advantages and disadvantages of using games in foreign language teaching. As to the benefits, the research study revealed that the five listed benefits in item 8 may not be the five most advantageous aspects of using games. For instance, while the participants did believe the fun factor and increased motivation to be highly advantageous, the remaining three aspects were mentioned less than other aspects in the open-ended items. Hence, according to the participants' beliefs the list should be revised as to include the benefit of creating more diversity in the lesson and the aspect of encouraging students to participate (more) actively. Of course, it must also be kept in mind that the ranking tasks appeared to be quite challenging for the participants, thus suggesting that this item type was perhaps not the ideal way to investigate teachers' beliefs. The five listed disadvantages in item 10 also posed difficulties for the participants, which can be deduced from the dispersed results in the ranking and the very differently worded responses in items 29 and 31. It can therefore be concluded that it would have been more effective to phrase these items as either open-ended questions or as Likert scales. Regarding the drawbacks of teaching through games, it should also be restated that teachers seemed to be strongly influenced in their decision to employ games by various contextual factors. As mentioned in section 6.3.3., it would be very intriguing to analyse how and it what way contextual factors influence teachers' beliefs. Moreover, as claimed by Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015: 445) in section 3.6.1, it is imperative that studies into language teachers' beliefs consider the role of context in this field of study. Consequently, this shows great potential for further investigations.

Finally, the survey provided the chance to draw several conclusions about the way teachers' pre- and in-service experiences affect their beliefs and practices. First and foremost, it must be said that it was sometimes quite challenging to determine which experiences actually cause the change in the teachers' beliefs. As suggested in section 6.4.2., it would have often required additional qualitative analyses to pinpoint the root of the change. This means that in order to gain more conclusive insights into how teachers' beliefs are affected by different experiences, it is advisable to use a mixed-method approach, as for instance a questionnaire with subsequent interviews. Another conclusion that can be made is the fact that no matter how positive or negative teachers experiences during their language learning at school or during their teacher training are, it seems they can both lead to the same results when it comes to these

72

teachers' classroom practice. This not only underlines the complex nature of teachers' beliefs, addressed by experts in section 3.5. (see Feryok 2010: 274, see Ruohotie-Lythy 2016: 150), but also the not very straightforward connection between teachers' beliefs and their practices, discussed in section 3.3. (see Pajares 1992: 326, see Basturkmen 2012: 283). Therefore, it might indeed be wise to investigate teachers' actions in a moment by moment fashion, as suggested by Basturkmen (2012: 283) and Li (2013: 177). While this method was not feasible in this study, it presents a possible angle for a more in-depth investigation. This leads over well to the last noteworthy insight, namely that when it comes to analysing teachers' beliefs, using a cross-sectional study entails quite many difficulties regarding the interpretation of the results. In fact, the results gained from taking a snapshot of teachers' practices, deem it almost impossible to specify cause-and-effect relationships. Thus, conducting a longitudinal study might be more productive here.

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Fragebogen
Verwendung von Spielen im Fremdsprachenunterricht

Allgemeine Information:

Dieser Fragebogen wendet sich an Lehrpersonen der Sekundarstufen I und II, die entweder momentan English und/oder Russisch als Fremdsprache unterrichten oder innerhalb der letzten **drei** Jahre zumindest ein Jahr lang diesen Beruf ausgeübt haben.

Der Zweck des Fragebogens ist, die Verwendung von Spielen im Fremdsprachenunterricht zu ermitteln, sowie die dafür verantwortlichen Gründe festzustellen. Da die Umfrage somit darauf abzielt, Meinungen und Ansichten von Lehrpersonen zu untersuchen, gibt es keine richtigen oder falschen Antworten. Der Inhalt dieser Umfrage wird anonym und vertraulich bleiben.

Für diesen Fragebogen gehen wir von der folgenden Arbeitsdefinition von Spielen aus: **ein Spiel ist eine zielorientierte Handlung, die nach mehr oder weniger expliziten Regeln meist in Kooperation oder Konkurrenz mit anderen auszuführen ist und in der Regel Spaß macht**.

Herzlichen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme.

Natalia Ladstätter

Anleitung:

Der Fragebogen beinhaltet 4 Arten von Items. Die folgenden Beispiele dienen als Veranschaulichung der sachgemäßen Beantwortung der jeweiligen Items.

1. Multiple-Choice-Fragen

Manche Items bieten mehrere Antwortmöglichkeiten. Die meisten davon erfordern die Auswahl **einer** Antwort. Wenn mehrere Antworten ausgewählt werden können, ist dies angegeben („**mehrere Antwortmöglichkeiten**").

2. Ratingskalen

Manche Fragen bedürfen einer Einstufung der Antworten auf einer Skala von 1 bis 5, wobei 1 der höchsten und 5 der niedrigsten Bewertung entspricht.

Batterielaufzeit : _2_   Nutzerfreundlichkeit : _4_   Produktgewicht : _3_
Prozessor : _5_   Kosteneffektivität : _1_

3. Semantisches Differential

Manche Items erfragen die Angabe Ihrer Antwort auf einem Kontinuum. Um diese Fragen zu beantworten, kreuzen Sie bitte die entsprechende Stelle an.

gar nicht / geringfügig / mäßig / sehr / äußerst

◯   ⊗   ◯   ◯   ◯

4. Offene Fragen

Die restlichen Items sind offene Fragen, die mit einem Satz oder Absatz im Ausmaß von nicht mehr als 50 Wörtern beantwortet werden können.

1. Geschlecht   ◯ männlich   ◯ weiblich

2. Fächer (mehrere Antwortmöglichkeiten)
◯ Englisch   ◯ Russisch   ◯ Andere Sprachen:
_____

3. Wie viele Jahre unterrichten sie schon als Lehrperson der Sekundarstufe?
◯ 1-3 Jahre   ◯ 4-10 Jahre   ◯ 10-20 Jahre   ◯ über 20 Jahre

4. Welche Schulstufen unterrichten Sie?
◯ nur Sekundarstufe I   ◯ nur Sekundarstufe II   ◯ beides

5. Merkmale von Spielen für den Fremdsprachenunterricht. Bitte ordnen Sie die folgenden Merkmale auf einer Skala von 1 bis 5 an, wobei 1 der Bewertung „am charakteristischsten" und 5 der Bewertung „am wenigsten charakteristisch" entspricht.

Kooperationsbedarf bzw. Konkurrenzfaktor : ____
Zielorientierung : ____
zugrundeliegende Regeln : ____
Spaß- und Spannungsaspekt : ____
Wiederholbarkeit : ____

6. Fallen Ihnen noch weitere charakteristische Merkmale von Spielen für den Fremdsprachenunterricht ein?

7. Welchen der folgenden Arten von Spielen für den Fremdsprachenunterricht kennen Sie? (mehrere Antwortmöglichkeiten)
◯ Vokabel-/Grammatikspiele (Schwerpunkt liegt auf formal korrekter Verwendung der Sprache)
◯ Kommunikationsspiele (Schwerpunkt liegt auf der Erreichung eines kommunikativen Ziels)
◯ Brettspiele (Strategiespiele, bei denen Spieler Figuren auf einem Brett bewegen)
◯ Rollenspiele (umfassen die Annahme einer fremden Rolle)
◯ Computerspiele (Spiele, die online über das Internet oder offline am Computer gespielt werden)
◯ Aussprachespiele (Schwerpunkt liegt auf der formal korrekten Aussprache der Zielsprache)
◯ Andere: _____

8. Vorteile beim Einsatz von Spielen im Fremdsprachenunterricht. Bitte ordnen Sie die folgenden Aspekte auf einer Skala von 1 bis 5 an, wobei 1 der Bewertung „am nützlichsten" und 5 der Bewertung „am wenigsten nützlich" entspricht.

gesteigerte Motivation : ____
lernfördernde Atmosphäre : ____
Spaß beim Lernen : ____
„natürliches" Lernen : ____
verminderte Sprechhemmung : ____

9. Fallen Ihnen noch weitere Vorteile beim Einsatz von Spielen im Fremdsprachenunterricht ein?

10. Nachteile beim Einsatz von Spielen im Fremdsprachenunterricht. Bitte ordnen Sie die folgenden Aspekte auf einer Skala von 1 bis 5 an, wobei 1 der Bewertung „am abträglichsten" und 5 der Bewertung „am wenigsten abträglich" entspricht.

Zeitaufwand für die Vorbereitung : ___
begrenzte Einsatzmöglichkeiten der Spiele : ___
disziplinäre Probleme : ___
begrenzte schulische Bedingungen (Raum, Zeit, Materialien): ___
Problematische Rolle der Lehrperson : ___

11. Fallen Ihnen noch weitere Nachteile beim Einsatz von Spielen im Fremdsprachenunterricht ein?

Teil 2: Ihre Erfahrung als Sprachlerner/in

12. Wie viele Ihrer FremdsprachenlehrerInnen haben während Ihrer Schulzeit im Unterricht Spiele eingesetzt?

○ keine/r von ihnen   ○ 1-2 von ihnen   ○ 3-4 von ihnen
○ 5-6 von ihnen   ○ alle von ihnen

Wenn Sie bei Frage 12 „keine/r von ihnen" angekreuzt haben, können Sie die Items 13 bis 17 überspringen.

13. Wie oft haben Ihre FremdsprachenlehrerInnen diese Spiele eingesetzt?

○ einmal im Jahr   ○ einmal pro Semester   ○ einmal pro Monat
○ einmal pro Woche   ○ jede Stunde

14. Wie gerne haben Sie an diesen Spielen teilgenommen?

	gar nicht	geringfügig	mäßig	sehr	äußerst	k. A.
Teilnahme an Spielen:	○	○	○	○	○	○

15. Welche Auswirkung hatten diese Spiele auf Ihr Sprachlernen?

16. Im engeren Sinne, inwiefern hat Ihr Sprachlernen von diesen Spielen profitiert?

	gar nicht	geringfügig	mäßig	sehr	äußerst	k. A.
Zugewinn für Ihr Sprachlernen:	○	○	○	○	○	○

17. Welche Aspekte Ihrer Sprachkompetenz haben dabei wesentlich profitiert? (mehrere Antwortmöglichkeiten)

○ Wortschatz   ○ Grammatik   ○ Sprechkompetenz
○ Schreibkompetenz   ○ Hörverstehen   ○ Lesekompetenz
○ k. A.

Teil 3: Ihre Ausbildung zur Lehrperson

18. Wie oft ist das Thema der Verwendung von Spielen im Fremdsprachenunterricht während Ihrer Ausbildung erwähnt worden?

	gar keine	1-5 Mal	6-10 Mal	11-15 Mal	mehr als 15 Mal
Anzahl der Erwähnungen:	○	○	○	○	○

19. Was haben Sie über dieses Thema gelernt?

20. Inwiefern hat Ihre Ausbildung Ihre Einstellung zur Verwendung von Spielen im Fremdsprachenunterricht verändert?

	sehr positiv	eher positiv	unverändert	eher negativ	sehr negativ	k. A.
Veränderung der Einstellung:	○	○	○	○	○	○

21. Wie viele Artikel, Bücher, Aufsätze über die Verwendung von Spielen im Fremdsprachenunterricht haben Sie während Ihrer Ausbildung gelesen?

	gar keine	1-5	6-10	11-15	mehr als 15
Anzahl der Werke:	○	○	○	○	○

22. Inwiefern haben diese Werke Ihre Meinung zu diesem Thema verändert?

	sehr positiv	eher positiv	unverändert	eher negativ	sehr negativ	k. A.
Meinungsveränderung	○	○	○	○	○	○

Teil 4: Ihr eigener Unterricht

23. Wie oft verwenden Sie Spiele in ihrem Fremdsprachenunterricht?

○ nie   ○ einmal im Jahr   ○ einmal pro Semester
○ einmal pro Monat   ○ einmal pro Woche   ○ jede Stunde

Wenn Sie bei Frage 23 „nie" angekreuzt haben, können Sie die Items 24 bis 30 überspringen.

24. Welche Arten von Spielen verwenden Sie? (mehrere Antwortmöglichkeiten)

○ Vokabel-/Grammatikspiele   ○ Kommunikationsspiele   ○ Brettspiele
○ Bewegungsspiele   ○ Rollenspiele   ○ Computerspiele
○ Aussprachespiele   ○ Andere: _____

25. Was ist/sind ihre Quelle/n für Spiele für den Fremdsprachenunterricht? (mehrere Antwortmöglichkeiten)

○ Internetplattformen   ○ Spielesammlungen in Büchern
○ selbsthergestellte Spiele   ○ von KollegInnen hergestellte Spiele
○ Andere: _____

26. Wann verwenden Sie Spiele in Ihrem Fremdsprachenunterricht? (mehrere Antwortmöglichkeiten)

○ am Anfang der Stunde   ○ während der Stunde
○ am Ende der Stunde   ○ Andere: _____

27. Für welchen Zweck verwenden Sie diese Spiele? (mehrere Antwortmöglichkeiten)

○ als Einstieg in die Stunde   ○ zur Einführung eines neuen Themas
○ zur Übung grammatischer Strukturen   ○ als Wortschatzübung
○ zur Auflockerung   ○ zur Leistungsüberprüfung
○ als Abschluss der Stunde   ○ Andere: _____

28. Welche Spielarten betrachten Sie als am erfolgreichsten für den Fremdsprachenunterricht?

29. Welche Schwierigkeiten sehen Sie bei der Verwendung von Spielen in <u>Ihrem eigenen</u> Fremdsprachenunterricht?

30. Welche Vorteile bringt der Einsatz von Spielen in <u>Ihrem eigenen</u> Fremdsprachenunterricht mit sich?

31. Bitte vervollständigen Sie den Satz: „Ich würde Spiele öfter in meinem Fremdsprachenunterricht **einsetzten, wenn …"**

32. Möchten Sie etwas hinzufügen?

Herzlichen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme.

Falls Sie über die Resultate der Umfrage informiert werden möchten, geben Sie Ihre Emailadresse hier an: _____.

9.2. Responses to open-ended questions

Table 37: Results of item 6 (n = 11).

	6. Fallen Ihnen noch weitere charakteristische Merkmale von Spielen für den Fremdsprachenunterricht ein?
participant #3	Lockerung der Unterrichtssituation; Senkung der Hemmschwelle
participant #9	Nein
participant #10	Stärkung der Klassengemeinschaft
participant #20	Motivationsförderung
participant #23	Aussprachetraining
participant #33	in eine andere Rolle schlüpfen
participant #34	Unbewusstes Lernen von neuen Inhalten
participant #36	"verstecktes" Lernen von Inhalten
participant #46	Spiele sind aus meiner Erfahrung dann sinnvoll, wenn sie Vokabel trainieren, Redewendungen, damit die Schüler das schon Gelernte festigen können, der Spaßfaktor ist im Pflichtfach in der Oberstufe nicht relevant, weil das Spielen dazu führen kann, dass die Schüler das Fach nicht ernst nehmen, es muss ein spürbares Resultat vorhanden sein, Spaß allein ist zuwenig im Regelunterricht
participant #49	/
participant #54	Ich habe die Frage 5 ehrlich gesagt nicht verstanden.

Table 38: Results of item 9 (n = 8).

	9. Fallen Ihnen noch weitere Vorteile beim Einsatz von Spielen im Fremdsprachenunterricht ein?
Participant #9	Nein
participant #19	Kampf gegen den Ermüdungseffekt am Nachmittag
participant #23	Auflockerung des Unterrichts, weg vom „Teaching to the Test" (Zentralmatura)
participant #41	Abwechslung
participant #43	die meisten Schüler nehmen daran teil
participant #46	ich wollte S
participant #49	/
participant #54	Auch bei Punkt 8 komm ich nicht ganz mit. Alles trifft zu – und was ist der Unterschied zwischen gesteigerte Motivation und Spaß beim Lernen?

Table 39: Results of item 11 (n = 9).

	11. Fallen Ihnen noch weitere Nachteile beim Einsatz von Spielen im Fremdsprachenunterricht ein?
Participant #9	Nein
participant #10	Sie können langweilig werden, falls zu stark zielorientiert oder als getarnte MAK.
Participant #16	Zeitaufwand während des spielens, zB Regeln erklären, Gruppen einteilen etc.
participant #18	Anweisung für manche Schüler_innen schwer verständlich (v.a. wenn Deutsch nicht L1 ist)
participant #23	Ertragssicherung; Schüler nehmen die Wichitgkeit und den Lernfortschritt oft nicht als solchen wahr;
participant #29	Gebrauch der Fremdsprache nicht gewährleistet
participant #43	Zeitaufwand im Unterricht

participant #49	/
participant #54	wieder – die Sortierung ist für mich nicht sinnvoll, ich finde Spiele grundsätzlich sehr gut und kann die Einwände z.T. nicht nachvollziehen.

Table 40: Results of item 15 (n = 20).

	15. Welche Auswirkungen hatten diese Spiele auf Ihr Sprachlernen?
participant #3	In Spanisch immer sehr viel :) Man denkt dabei einfach weniger über die korrekte Verwendung nach als das Ziel, das man dabei hat.
participant #6	Mehr Motivation
participant #18	Kann mich eigentlich nur an Spiele im Zuge von Englisch in Action erinnern, die mir sehr gut gefallen haben und von denen ich mir bis heute bestimmte Redewendungen gemerkt habe.
participant #20	gesteigerte motivation; hemmschwelle geringer
participant #21	Hohe Motivation, die Grammatikstrukturen bis zum nächsten Spiel gut zu lernen; „natürliches" Sprechen während der Rollenspiele - blieb gut im Gedächtnis!
participant #23	sprachliches Ausprobieren können ohne direkte Benotung
participant #24	Motivation
participant #27	Gesteigerte Motivation
participant #28	Meine SchülerInnen spielten die Spiele, ich war anwesend, erklärte die Regeln und griff so selten wie möglich ein
participant #31	Trainieren der Aussprache, Schulung des sprachl. Gehörs
participant #33	Man merkt sich doch einiges!
participant #34	Der spielerische Zugang und ein gewisses Konkurrenzdenken hatte einen motivierenden Faktor - doch noch einmal nachdenken, über seine eigenen Grenzen hinaus gehen usw. --> Der Lerneffekt ist von selbst eingetreten
participant #35	Keine nachhaltigen
participant #37	kann mich zu wenig daran erinnern
participant #38	mehr Spaß und Motivation
participant #43	Verlust von Hemmungen, die Sprache einzusetzen, höhere Flexibiltät, Gefühl für "natürliche" Situationen entwickelt
participant #44	schwierig zu beantworten: Interesse, Lust auf Sprache. Ist allerdings schon lange her (Verklärung?)
participant #50	kaum, da sehr selten eingesetzt
participant #51	gesteigerte Motivation; Erkenntnis wofür die Sprache gelernt wird (=Anwendung; speziell bei Rollenspielen)
participant #53	So gut wie keine, da die Spiele ohne bestimmten Hintergrund zum Zeitvertreib in Einheiten kurz vor den Ferien gespielt wurden.

Table 41: Results of item 19 (n = 29).

	19. Was haben Sie dabei über dieses Thema gelernt?
participant #3	...dass sie sinnvoll eingesetzt sehr viel Effekt haben können. Die Grundregeln müssen klar sein, die SchülerInnen müssen wissen, dass Spielregeln klar vorgegeben und einzuhalten sind und dass sonst nur Mitarbeit und Eingehen von Risiko gefragt ist.
participant #4	Wichtig, macht Spaß, soziale Aspekte des Lernens, Schülerinnen erfinden gerne auch eigene Spiele, steigert Motivation, bei Rollenspielen oft erstaunlich dass plötzlich auch stillere Schülerinnen mitmachen etc (ist aber lange her weshalb ich mir mit Frage 18 schwer tue)
participant #5	unterschiedliche Spiele, Beachtung bei der Umsetzung, für welche Sprachkompetenzen sie eingesetzt werden können

participant #6	Spiele kann man zu jedem Thema durchführen
participant #8	Dramapädagogik
participant #10	Spielen ist eine von vielen Methoden, benötigt klare Regeln, muss Spass machen, kann als Vertiefung und Wiederholung eingesetzt werden.
participant #12	zur Auflockerung, Festigung, Wiederholung
participant #16	ich kann mich ehrlich gesagt nicht merh daran erinnern. Daher kann ich hier keine sinnvolle Antwort geben.
participant #18	Dass man es machen sollte, aber häufig nicht wie. In der Wahl-LV "Drama teaching in ESL" war es zentrales Thema.
participant #19	nichts
participant #21	Kann mich ehrlich gesagt nicht mehr erinnern - sorry!
participant #23	gute Variante für Methodenvielfalt
participant #24	Motivationssteigerung
participant #26	Leider kann ich mich nicht mehr erinnern.
participant #28	die positiven Auswirkungen von Spielen auf den Lernerfolg und die Motivation
participant #31	dass dadurch die Motivation der SchülerInnen steigt
participant #33	??
participant #34	Aufwendige Vorbereitung, Zielorientierung wichtig
participant #35	Wie leicht man mit Spielen Sprache vermitteln kann
participant #36	Siehe Teil 1 des Fragebogens
participant #37	kann mich nicht mehr genau erinnern
participant #42	Mittel zum Zweck, es muss in Ziel dahinter stecken, soll gut vorbereitet und bei Selbsterstellung wiederverwendbar sein.
participant #43	In allen Bereichen des Fremdsprachununterrichts einsetzbar, erfordert gewisse Vorbereitung (diese kann auch gemeinsam mit SuS erfolgen), sind grundsätzlich lernfördernd, sollten aber (wie die meisten Inhalte) dem Niveau der Lernenden angepasst sein (d.h. fordernd, aber nicht unmöglich zu bewältigen)
participant #45	Kann mich nur an Vokabel-Spiele erinnern.
participant #50	verschiedene Spiele kennengelernt; gesteigerte Motivation der SuS
participant #51	nur über Rollenspiele - wurde in Bezug auf Literatur einmal besprochen wie man Rollenspiel durchführen kann im UP wurde ich auf Kahoot aufmerksam gemacht durch meine UP Lehrerin während UP Englisch Fachdidaktik Seminaren haben wir Offenes Lernen im Bezug auf Englisch besprochen und ausprobiert
participant #52	wenig bis gar nichts
participant #53	Es wurden hauptsächlich Rollenspiele behandelt. Dabei darüber gelernt habe ich, dass man bei der Erstellung solcher extrem vorsichtig sein muss und alle unzählige Male überprüfen und durchdenken muss. Außerdem müssen sie immer "pädagogisch wertvoll" sein.
participant #54	von meiner Betreuungslehrerin

Table 42: Results of item 28 (n = 32).

	28. Welche Arten von Spielen betrachten Sie als am erfolgreichsten für den Fremdsprachenunterricht?
participant #3	Spiele, die schon ein wenig Achtsamkeit auf Korrektheit erfordern, aber in Summe wirklich hauptsächlich die Motivation steigern.
participant #5	flexieble Spiele die man immer wieder für verschiedene Themen einsetzen kann - die SuS kennen sie, wissen was zu erwarten ist, es braucht weniger Erklärungsarbeit und die Disziplin ist viel besser

participant #9	Bewegungsspiele, Computerspiele.
participant #10	Kleingruppenorientierte, kreative Spiele wie Taboo oder Activity.
participant #11	Rollenspiele
participant #12	Rollenspiele, Vokabel- und Grammatikspiele, Zahlenspiele
participant #13	einfache, schnelle Wortschatzspiele
participant #15	Kommunikationsspiele
participant #17	Rollenspiele, Vokabelspiele
participant #19	schwer zu sagen - kommt sehr auf die Gruppe an
participant #20	Vokabelspiele, rollenspiele
participant #21	Spiele mit leicht erklärbaren Regeln, die dann auch leicht eingehalten werden können. Spiele, die einen Abschluss = ein gut sichtbares Ergebnis haben, werden von den SuS besser akzeptiert.
participant #23	Rollenspiele
participant #24	Kommunikationsspiele
participant #26	Rollenspiele (aber nur bei motivierten, kreativen Klassen), Theaterstücke/-szenen entwickeln & vorspielen
participant #28	Vokabelspiele, Grammatikspiele, Gedächtnistraining
participant #31	Vokabelspiele, Reimspiele in der Sek. I, Rollenspiele in Sek. II
participant #33	Rollenspiele
participant #34	Kahoot, Bewegungsspiele, Rollenspiele
participant #36	kommunikative Spiele
participant #37	Spiele bei denen grammatikalische Strukturen/Vokabel wiederholt werden
participant #38	Vokabel-/Grammatikspiele, Kommunikationsspiele
participant #41	Lebensnahe Themen, nett gestaltete Unterlagen, Partnerübungen, Stationenbetrieb kommt immer gut an
participant #42	Spiele in Kleingruppen (3-4 Personen), die Wortschatz oder einfache grammatische Strukturen trainieren (z.B. Formen von "Tabu" bzw. "Actvity", Quartette, Würfelspiele)
participant #43	Kahoot, "Sag es schnell" (Скажи быстро), Memory oder Quartett
participant #44	Paare spielen/üben Vokabeln / gram. Strukturen
participant #45	-
participant #46	Rollenspiele
participant #47	alle Spiele, die die Motivation fördern
participant #51	egal welcher Typ die meisten Spiele wirken extrem motivierend auf Grund der Faktoren Spaß, Abwechslung und andere Rahmenbedingungen
participant #52	Rollenspiele, Vokabel- und Grammatikspiele, Kommunikationsspiele
participant #56	Alle, solange die Schülerinnen bereit sind, fair mitzuspielen und sich gut zu benehmen.

Table 43: Results of item 29 (n = 37).

	29. Welche Schwierigkeiten sehen Sie bei der Verwendung von Spielen in Ihrem eigenen Fremdsprachenunterricht?
participant #3	wirklich Spiele zu finden, die nur unter Verwendung des Zielsprachelements zu lösen sind erfolgreich
participant #4	Disziplin - Lautstärke vor allem bei großen Klassen. Beengte Klassenzimmer, kompliziert wenn ich viel Material zu schleppen habe, 50min ist manchmal recht kurz

participant #5	manche SuS sind schwer zu motivieren, es braucht besonders beim Kennenlernen der - Spiele viel Zeit
participant #9	Mann kann später die Schülerinnen zu beruhigen.
participant #10	In meinen Klassen hatten 95% der SchülerInnen Deutsch nicht als Muttersprache, daher war es nicht einfach, Spielregeln zu erklären. Nur sehr einfache und intuitiv erfassbare Spiele waren daher möglich.
participant #11	keine
participant #12	Werden häufig nicht genug ernst genommen; zu geringe Anstrengung wird unternommen, da es ja "nur" ein Spiel ist
participant #13	destruktives Schülerverhalten
participant #15	enormer Zeitaufwand in der Vorbereitung;
participant #19	manchmal zu kleine Gruppen (z.B. nur 5 SchülerInnen) - viele Spiele sind dadurch nicht möglich
participant #20	Kontrollverlust, disziplinäre schwierigkeiten
participant #21	Der Zeitaufwand ist oft schwer einschätzbar, da SuS-Gruppen auch innerhalb einer Klasse sehr unterschiedlich reagieren.
participant #22	Disziplin
participant #23	hoher Zeitaufwand (überfüllte Lehrpläne, geringe Wochenstundenanzahl)
participant #24	Disziplin
participant #26	zu wenig Zeit (zu wenige Englischstunden), Disziplinlosigkeit der Schüler
participant #28	Manche SchülerInnen werden zu übermütig und stören durch ihr Benehmen MitschülerInnen.
participant #31	Zeitmangel
participant #33	Zeitaufwendig, müssen gut vorbereitet werden
participant #34	Vorbereitung, Unsicherheitsfaktor, Gruppendynamik
participant #35	Disziplinäre Probleme, Zu wenig Zeit da zu wenig Unterrichtsstunden, Es gibt viele andere Dinge zu tun
participant #36	Ziel des Spiels muss klar sein - zu lernender Inhalt muss trotzdem im Vordergrund stehen
participant #37	Lautstärke, da die SchülerInnen, vor allem wenn sie motiviert sind, recht laut werden können
participant #38	wenig Zeit im Unterricht
participant #41	Eindeutig den Zeitaufwand, sowohl bei der Vorbereitung als auch während der Einheit.
participant #42	Sie sollen einfach genug sein, damit möglichst schnell losgelegt werden kann und die SuS im Idealfall das Spiel selbst steuern können. Zu komplizierte Regeln führen meistens bei T eilen der Lernenden zu Überfprderung und Frustration. Auch sollten die Spiele so gestaltet sein, dass die erforderten Wörter oder Strukturen benutzt werden müssen, um erfolgreich zu sein.
participant #43	Zeitaufwand im Unterricht
participant #44	Keine.
participant #45	-
participant #46	Schüler müssen erkennen, dass sie das Spiel im Sprachenlernen weiterbringt
participant #47	Technische mehr Aufwand in der Vorbereitung
participant #49	teilweise lange Vorbereitungszeit für das Erstellen von Spielen; wenig Zeit/zuwenige Englischstunden pro Woche
participant #50	Es kommt auf die Klasse an wie gut sie Spiele annehmen bzw. disziplinär die Freiheit ausnutzen um Blödsinn zu machen. V.a. OberstufenschülerInnen machen teilweise während der "Spiele" nichts weil sie es nicht gewohnt sind von früher.
participant #51	zu wenig Zeit

participant #52	Sinnhaftigkeit, Einpassung in das Thema, Zeitaufwand
participant #53	freie Räumlichkeiten finden (man braucht viel Platz)
participant #56	Die Anzahl von Schülerinnen. Am besten spielt man in kleinen Gruppen. Wenn ein Team-teacher dabei ist, wird das Problem natürlich gelöst. Man kann sogar die Klasse trennen.

Table 44: Results of item 30 (n = 38).

	30. Welche Vorteile bringt der Einsatz von Spielen in Ihrem eigenen Fremdsprachenunterricht mit sich?
participant #3	ganz klar: Auflockerung der Stunde; Erlernen/Einüben von Strukturen, ohne dass der Fokus drauf liegt (implizit)
participant #4	Andere Rolle meinerseits, Schülerinnen anders kennenlernen, Übungen und Wiederholung, Abwechslung, Aufmerksamkeit mal weg von mir, echte Sprechanlässe
participant #5	Motivation, Auflockerung, Wiederholung ist gut für den Lerneffekt
participant #9	Die Schülerinnen sind mehr motiviert die Sprache zu lernen.
participant #10	Es macht den SchülerInnen Spass, sie bilden Freundschaft und erhöhen ihre soziale Kompetenz und Kommunikationskompetenz
participant #11	Motivation, Spaß, Auflockerung
participant #12	Abwechslung
participant #13	spricht sonst unbeteiligte SchülerInnen an
participant #15	Spaßfaktor
participant #17	Gute Atmosphäre durch hohe Motivation, geringe Sprechhemmung, alternativer Zugang oder Abschluss eines Themas
participant #19	Schüler sind selber aktiv
participant #20	lernen durch kommunikation, schüler lernen ohne es zu bemerken
participant #21	Alle SuS spielen gerne und lassen sich mit einem Spiel leicht und schnell „ins Boot holen"!
participant #22	Abbau von Sprechhemmungen
participant #23	Abwechslung, Auflockerung
participant #24	Motivation
participant #26	Abwechslung, Freude an der Sprache, positives Erlebnis, zusätzliche Sprachverwendung/zusätzliche Übung
participant #28	Spaß, spielerisches Lernen, positives Wetteifern
participant #31	Motivationsteigerung, Verbesserung der Aussprache, Festigung des Wortschatzes, soziales Lernen
participant #33	Schüler lieben Abwechslung
participant #34	Auflockerung, natürliches Lernen
participant #35	Abwechslung im Unterricht, Spaß am Lernen
participant #36	größere Lernbereitschaft, Hemmungen werden gesenkt
participant #37	Auflockerung und Spaß
participant #38	Motivation, Lernförderung, Spaß
participant #41	Willkommene Abwechslung zum Frontalunterricht, positive Stimmung im Unterricht, Motivation der SuS
participant #42	Abwechslung, aktivierend, spricht andere SuS an als andere Unterrichtsformen
participant #43	Abwechslung zu anderen Methoden
participant #44	Abwechslung.
participant #45	-

participant #46	Förderung der mündlichen Fertigkeit
participant #47	mehr Freude am Lernen
participant #49	Spaß, Auflockerung, Motivation bei SuS
participant #50	starke Motivationssteigerung, unbewusstes Lernen und Üben
participant #51	Spaß, Motivation, positive Wirkung auf Gruppe, Festigung von Strukturen Wortschatz und Grammatik betreffend
participant #52	aufgelockerte Atmosphäre, Spaß am Lernen, Abwechslung
participant #53	gesteigerte Motivation bei den SchülerInnen
participant #56	Auflockerung, Spaß, Einstieg der Motivation.

Table 45: Results of item 31 (n = 35).

	31. Bitte vervollständigen Sie den Satz: „Ich würde Spiele öfter in meinem Fremdsprachenunterricht einsetzten, wenn …"
participant #3	...ich mehr Spiele finden würde, von denen ich überzeugt bin, dass sie die Zeit/den Aufwand Wert sind und dabei effektiv sind.
participant #4	Ich mein eigenes Klassenzimmer hätte und alles schön griffbereit hätte
participant #5	ich mehr Zeit zur Verfügung hätte.
participant #10	... im Unterricht mehr Zeit dafür wäre.
participant #12	mehr Zeit dafür zur Verfügung wäre, es passende Spiele zum Lehrwerk gäbe
participant #13	ich mehr Stunden zur Verfügung hätte.
participant #15	...ich geeignete Materialien zur Hand hätte, die zu meinem Lehrwerk passen.
participant #18	ich sicher wäre, dass alle Schüler_innen einen Nutzen davon haben.
participant #19	ich noch mehr Zeit zum Vorbereiten hätte
participant #20	ich die möglichen technischen mittel hätte, wenn ich gute sinnbringende spiele schon vorbereitet bekommen würde.
participant #21	... ich mehr Zeit zur Verfügung hätte.
participant #22	die Schüler dies zu schätzen wissen würden
participant #23	ich weniger Lehrstoff in so knapp bemessener Zeit unterrichten müsste.
participant #24	Ich mehr zeit und mehr ressourcen hätte
participant #26	ich mehr Englischstunden zur Verfügung hätte.
participant #27	es disziplinär einfacher in der Sekundarstufe I wäre, ich mir Zeit hätte Ideen zu entwickeln, zu recherchieren, ich mehr Spiele kennen würde, wo ein nachhaltiger Lernerfolg garantiert ist
participant #28	ich mehr Zeit hätte und kleinere Gruppen
participant #31	ich mehr Unterrichtszeit zur Verfügung hätte
participant #33	ich damit gute Erfahrungen habe
participant #34	es einen einfachen Zugang zu didaktisch-methodischen Sammlungen geben würde
participant #35	Ich mehr Zeit hätte diese vorzubereiten, Wenn ich mehr Stunden hätte
participant #36	die Gruppe in der Lage ist, ein Mindestmaß an Diziplin aufrechtzuerhalten und der Lerninhalt dabei nicht ins Vergessen gerät.
participant #37	ich mehr zeitliche Ressourcen hätte - im Unterricht und in der Vorbereitung
participant #38	ich mehr Zeit hätte
participant #41	...ich nicht so rasch den Stoff durchbringen müsste. ...ich keinen Zweitjob hätte und mehr Zeit in die Vorbereitung investieren könnte / es mehr brauchbare Materialien im Internet geben würde! Für das Fach Russisch ist die Auswahl leider sehr spärlich.

	...es keine jahrgangsübergreifenden Svhularbeiten gäbe, bei denen der Leistungsstand der unterschiedlichen Klassen verglichen wird.
participant #42	ich wollte.
participant #43	ich mehr Unterichtszeit zur Verfügung hätte
participant #44	... ich mehr Unterrichtsstunden für mein Fach hätte,
participant #45	-
participant #47	einmal/Woche ist für mich ok
participant #50	ich noch mehr Ideen und leichteren Zugang (= Beschaffung) hätte
participant #51	ich mehr Zeit hätte
participant #52	ich wenig Druck hätte, den Lehrstoff durchzubringen.
participant #53	ich mehr Zeit zur Vorbereitung hätte
participant #56	meine Klassen kleiner wären.

Table 46: Results of item 32 (n = 5)

	32. Möchten Sie etwas hinzufügen?
participant #10	Ich nutze digitale und analoge Spiele, und bisweilen kommen die analogen noch besser an, mit der Ausnahme von zB Kahoot, welche für den Unterricht optimiert wurden, ohne langweilig zu werden. Ein gutes Spiel muss anpassbar sein, sonst muss ich es von grund auf selbst gestalten, zb Activity oder Taboo hatten zu viele Wörter, die zu schwer für die SchülerInnen waren.
participant #26	Oft ist es leider auch sehr zeitaufwendig, Spiele vorzubereiten. Bei Rollenspielen, Theaterstücken und szenischem Spiel passen oft die räumlichen Gegebenheiten nicht. Man bräuchte dafür mehr Platz, mehrere Räume etc.
participant #33	Gutes Gelingen bei Ihrer Arbeit!
participant #41	Viel Erfolg im Endspurt des Studiums und alles Gute für die berufliche Zukunft!
participant #45	-

Abstract

This thesis deals with the research study on secondary school teachers' beliefs regarding the use of games in the English and Russian foreign language classrooms and consists of two main parts. The first part contains a literature review on the topic of games in general and their usefulness as an educational tool for teaching foreign languages as well as background information about the field of language teacher cognition research. The second part encompasses an empirical study, conducted in the form of an online questionnaire. The main purpose of the study is to shed light on current secondary school teachers' use of games in foreign language teaching and provide insight into these teachers' beliefs on this matter. Moreover, there are two additional goals. Firstly, the survey aims to determine whether there are any discernible differences in regard to the use of games in foreign language teaching between teachers of English and Russian as a foreign language, between novice and more experienced teachers, between male and female teachers, and between teachers of middle and high school grades. Secondly, it intends to investigate how secondary school teachers' beliefs regarding the use of games are influenced by their own language learning experience, by their experiences during teacher education and by their teaching experience.

Kurzfassung

Diese Diplomarbeit befasst sich mit der Forschungsstudie über die Vorstellungen von Lehrpersonen der Sekundarstufe im Hinblick auf die Verwendung von Spielen im Fremdsprachenunterricht in den Fächern Englisch und Russisch und besteht aus zwei Teilen. Der erste Teil der Arbeit beinhaltet einen Überblick sowohl zum Thema Spiel im allgemeinen Sinne und im engeren Sinne als pädagogisches Mittel zur Vermittlung von Fremdsprachen als auch zum Forschungsgebiet über die Gesamtheit der Vorstellungen von SprachlehrerInnen. Der zweite Teil umfasst eine empirische Studie, die in Form von einem Online-Fragebogen durchgeführt wurde. Der Zweck der Studie ist Aufschluss über die Verwendung von Spielen von derzeitigen Lehrpersonen der Sekundarstufe zu geben und Einblick in deren Vorstellungen zu diesem Thema zu gewähren. Außerdem soll festgestellt werden, ob es erkennbare Unterschiede gibt zwischen dem Einsatz von Spielen von Englisch- und RussischlehrerInnen, zwischen Novizen und Experten, zwischen Lehrern und Lehrerinnen und zwischen Lehrpersonen der Sekundarstufe I und II. Schließlich wird beabsichtigt zu erforschen ob und wie die Vorstellungen der untersuchten Lehrpersonen von ihren Erfahrungen als SprachlernerIn, von ihrer Ausbildung zur Lehrperson und von ihrem eigenen Unterricht beeinflusst wurden.