CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter explains about the reviw literature. They are definition of the natural speaking, types of spoken, criteria of good speaking, problem in speaking, teaching, the definition of board games, the benefit of board games, the material of board games, the priparing board games.

A. Speaking

1. The definition of speaking

Speaking is the production skill that is included in two main categories: accuracy and fluency. Accuracy consists of using vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation through some activities, fluency take into account "the ability to keep going when speaking spontaneously"⁵. Bygate identified two elements: production skill and interaction skill. In production skill, speaking ability take place without time limit environment and in interaction skill, there is a negotiation between learners. Both skills help learners to improve their speaking ability easier.⁶

Johnson and Morrow say that speaking which is popular with term 'oral communication', is an activity involving two or more people in

⁵ P hillips, D, Gower, R..,& Walters, S. (1995). *Teaching practice handbook*. Oxford: MacMillan Education.

⁶M, Bygate. (1987). Speaking: The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other Language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

which hearers and speakers have to react to what they hear and make their contributions at a speed of a high level.⁷

Richards states that the mastery of speaking skills in English is a priority for many second language or foreign language learners. Consequently learners often evaluate their success in language learning as well as the effectiveness of their English course based on how much they feel they have improved in their spoken language proficiency.⁸

Cameron says that speaking is the active use of language to express meanings so that other people can make sense of them. Moreover, it is recognized as an interactive, social and contextualized communicative event. Speaking requires learners to be possession of knowledge about how to produce not only linguistically connect but also pragmatically appropriate utterances. In brief, learners need to know how to use the language in context.⁹

Finnochiaro and Brumfit propose that speaking means giving oral expression to thoughts, opinions and feelings in terms of talk or conversation.¹⁰

To be able to do this, language learners should have sufficient knowledge of the sound, structure, vocabulary and cultural system of

⁷ K, Johnson. and Morrow, K.E. 1981. Communication in The Classroom: Handbooks for Teachers' series. London: Longman.

⁸ Jack C, Richards. 2008. *Teaching Listening and Speaking: From Theory to Practice*: Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

⁹ Deborah, Cameron. 2001. Working with Spoken Discourse. Oxford: SAGE Publications, Ltd.

¹⁰ M, Finocchiaro. & Brumfit, C. 1983. *The Functional-Notional Approach from Theory toPractice*. Oxford: Oxford University Pers, Inc.

English language. The learners also have to think about the ideas they wish to express. They have to be able to articulate English sound well by changing the positions of lips, jaws, and tongue. Besides, the learners should be consciously aware of the appropriate functional expression as well as grammatical, lexical and cultural features needed to express the idea, be sensitive to the change of register or style necessitated by the person to whom they speak and also the situation in which the conversation takes place. Lastly, the learners must have the abilities to change their direction of their thoughts on the basis of the persons' responses.

2. Types of Spoken Language

Nunan in Brown suggests types of spoken language shown in the following figure:

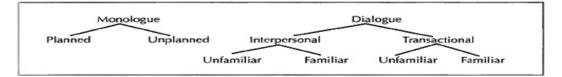


Figure 1: Types of Spoken Language

In monologues, when one speaker uses spoken language for any length of time, as in speeches, lectures, readings, news broadcasts, and the like, the hearer must process long stretches of speech without

interruption – the stream of speech will go on whether or not the hearer comprehends. Planned, as opposed to unplanned, monologues differ considerably in their discourse structures. Planned monologues (such as speeches and other prewritten material) usually manifest little redundancy and are therefore relatively difficult to comprehend. Unplanned monologues (impromptu lectures and long "stories" in conversations, for example) exhibit more redundancy, which makes for ease in comprehension, but the presence of more performance variables and other hesitations can either help or hinder comprehension.

Dialogues involve two or more speakers and can be subdivided into those exchanges that promote social relationships (interpersonal) and those for whose purpose is to convey propositional or factual information (transactional). In each case, participants may have a good deal of shared knowledge (background information, schemata); therefore, the familiarity of the interlocutors will produce conversations with more assumptions, implications, and other meanings hidden between the lines. In conversations between or among participants who are unfamiliar with each other, references and meanings have to be made more explicit to

assure effective comprehension. When such references are not explicit, misunderstandings can easily follow.

One could also have subdivided dialogues between those in which the hearer is a participant and those in which the hearer is an "eavesdropper". In both cases, the above conversational descriptions apply, but the major – and highly significant – difference is that in the latter the hearer is, as in monologues, unable to interrupt or otherwise participate vocally in the negotiation of meaning.

Remember that in all cases these categories are really not discrete, mutually exclusive domains; rather, each dichotomy, as usual, represents a continuum of possibilities. For example, everyday social conversations can easily contain elements of transactional dialogues, and vice versa. Similarity, "familiar" participants may share very little common knowledge on a particular topic. If each category, then, is viewed as an end point, you can aim your teaching at appropriate ranges in between.

3. Criteria of Good Speaking Skill

Speaking is not simply expressing something orally. However, the students need to acquire some speaking aspects to have a good speaking

skill. As proposed by Brown, those aspects are pronunciation, fluency, vocabulary, and accuracy.¹¹

1. Pronunciation

Based on Longman Dictionary pronunciation is the way a certain sound or sounds are produced. It covers they way for speakers to produce clear language when they speak. To make a successful communication happens, the speakers need to be able to deliver clear message for listeners. In speaking, teaching pronunciation including stress, rhythm, and intonation is very important.

2. Fluency

As proposed by Harris and Hodges fluency is an ability to speak quickly and automatically. It means that fluent speaker should be able to speak quickly and automatically.

3. Vocabulary

Based on Longman Dictionary, vocabulary is a set of lexemes, consisting single words, compound words, and idioms that are typically used when talking something. To be able to speak fluently and accurately, speaker of foreign language should master enough vocabulary and has capability to use it accurately.

¹¹ H, Brown. Douglas. 2001. Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Langua Pedagogy. San Francisco: Longman

4. Accuracy

Accuracy is an ability to produce sentences or utterance with correct grammar as stated in Longman Dictionary. The speakers need to follow the rules of the language such as grammar and structure to be able to speak accurately.

4. Problems in Speaking

Brown suggests some causes that make speaking difficult as follows:

1) Clustering

Fluent speech is phrasal, not word by word. Learners can organize their output both cognitively and physically (in breath groups) through such clustering.

2) Redundancy

The speaker has an opportunity to make meaning clearer through the redundancy of language. Learners can capitalize on this feature of spoken language.

3) Reduced Forms

Contractions, elisions, reduced vowels, etc., all form special problems teaching spoken English. Students who don't learn colloquial contractions can sometimes develop a stilted, bookish quality of speaking that in turn stigmatizes them.

4) Performance Variables

One of the advantages of spoken language is that the process of thinking as you speak allows you to manifest a certain number of performance hesitation, pauses, backtracking, and corrections. Learners can actually be taught how to pause and hesitate. For example, in English our 'thinking time' is not silent; we insert certain "fillers" such as *ub*, *um*, *well*, *you know*, *I mean*, *like*, etc. one of the most salient differences between native and nonnative speakers of a language is in their hesitation phenomena.

5) Colloquial Language

Make sure your students are reasonably well acquainted with the words, idioms, and phrases of colloquial language and that they get practice in producing these forms.

6) Rate of Delivery

Another salient characteristic of fluency is rate of delivery. One of your tasks in teaching spoken English is to help learners achieve an acceptable speed along with other attributes of fluency.

7) Stress, Rhythm, and Intonation

This is the most important characteristic of English pronunciation.

The stress-timed rhythm of spoken English and its intonation patterns convey important messages.

8) Interaction

Learning to produce waves of language in a vacuum – without interlocutors – would rob speaking skill of its richest component: the creativity of conversational negotiation.

5. Teaching Speaking

According to Harmer, it can sometimes be easy to get students to speak in the classroom if the atmosphere of the class is good such as students who get on with each other and whose English is in an appropriate level. However, he added that it will be difficult for the teacher to make the students to speak if they are reluctant to speak, the topic chosen is not appropriate, the organization of teaching plan is at fault, and if there is an unpredicted event happened. Therefore, the roles of the teacher and the techniques the teacher used are essential.¹²

a. Principles for Designing Speaking Techniques

Brown suggests some principles for designing speaking techniques as follows:

- Use techniques that cover spectrum of learner needs, from languagebased focus on accuracy to message-based focus on interaction, meaning, and fluency.
- 2) Provide intrinsically motivating techniques.
- 3) Encourage the use of authentic language in meaningful contexts.
- 4) Provide appropriate feedback and correction

¹² Harmer, Jeremy. 2002. The Practice of English Language Teaching. London: Longman.

- 5) Capitalize on the natural link between speaking and listening
- 6) Give students opportunities to initiate oral communication
- 7) Encourage the development of speaking strategies.

b. Types of Classroom Speaking Performance

Brown suggests some types of classroom speaking performance as follows:

1) Imitative

A very limited portion of classroom speaking time may legitimately be spent generating "human recorder" speech, where, for example, learners practice an intonation contour or try to pinpoint a certain vowel sound. Imitation of this kind is carried out not for the purpose of meaningful interaction, but for focusing on some particular element of language form.

2) Intensive

Intensive speaking goes one step beyond imitative to include any speaking performance that is designed to practice some phonological or grammatical aspect of language. Intensive speaking can be self-initiated or it can even form part of some pair work activity, where learners are "going over" certain forms of language.

3) Responsive

A good deal of student speech in the classroom is responsive: short replies to teacher-or student-initiated questions or comments.

These replies are usually sufficient and do not extend into dialogues.

4) Transactional (dialogue)

Transactional language, carried out for purpose of conveying or exchanging specific information, is an extended form of responsive language.

5) Interpersonal (dialogue)

The other form of conversation was interpersonal dialogue, carried out more for the purpose of maintaining social relationships than for the transmission of facts and information.

6) Extensive (monologue)

Finally, students at intermediate to advance levels are called on to give extended monologues in the form of oral reports, summaries, or perhaps short speeches. Here the register is more formal and deliberative. These monologues can be planned or impromptu.

c. Types of Classroom Speaking Activities

Harmer explains a number of classroom speaking activities as follows:

1) Acting from a script

This type of activity allows the teacher to ask the students to act out scenes from plays, course books or dialogues written by themselves. Sometimes it can be\ followed by filming the result. By giving students practice in these things before they gave their performances, it means that acting out is both learning and language producing activity.

2) Playing communication games

This type of activity makes use of games which are designed to provoke communication between students. It frequently depends on an information gap, so that one student has to talk to the partner in order to do the required tasks.

3) Discussions

This activity need to be encouraged by the teacher in order to provide productive speaking in language classes. It can be achieved by providing activities which force students to reach a decision as a result of choosing between specific alternatives in the discussion.

4) Prepared talk

This activity allows a student (or group of students) make a presentation on a topic of their own choice. The talks are not designed for informal spontaneous conversation. This activity represents a defined and useful speaking genre and can be extremely interesting for both speaker and listener if properly organized.

5) Questionnaires

This type of activity allows the students to design questionnaires of any appropriate topic. The questioner and respondent have something to say each other using the natural use of certain repetitive language patterns and thus are situated in the middle of our communication continuum. The results obtained from questionnaire can form the basic of written work, discussions, or prepared talks.

6) Simulation and role play

This type of activities can be used to encourage the general oral fluency or to train students for specific situations by simulating a real-life world. They are suitable for students of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). It has three distinct advantages. First, they can be good fun and motivating activities. Second, it allows hesitant students to be more confident in speaking since they do not have to take responsibility for about they are saying. Third, they allow the students to use a much wide range of language.

d. The Roles of Teacher

During speaking activities, the teachers need to play a number of different roles. Harmer points out three roles of teachers in teaching speaking.

1) Prompter

Students are sometimes confused, cannot think of what to say next which make lose the fluency we expect of them. The teacher as a prompter has a rule to help them by offering discrete suggestions. It can be done supportively (without disrupting the discussion) or ask them to go out of their roles.

2) Participant

Teachers should be a good animator when asking students to produce language. Sometimes this can be achieved by setting up an activity clearly and with enthusiasm. The teachers also may participate in discussions or role-plays themselves to help the activity along, ensure continuing students' engagement or maintain creative atmosphere.

3) Feedback provider

It is vital that the teacher allows the students to assess what they have done, owever, it is important to think about possibility that overcorrection may inhibit the students in the middle of a speaking activity.

e. Assessing Speaking

Brown suggests assessment tasks for interactive speaking (interpersonal and transactional):¹³

1) Interview

When "oral production assessment" is mentioned, the first thing that comes to mind is an oral interview: a test administrator and a test-taker sit down in a direct face-to-face exchange and proceed through a protocol of questions and directives. Interview can vary in length from perhaps five to forty-five minutes, depending on their purpose and context.

2) Role Play

Role playing is a popular pedagogical activity in communicative language teaching classes. In some version, role play allows some rehearsal time so that students can map out what they are going to say.

¹³ H, Brown. Douglas. 2003. *Language Assessment: Principles and Classroom Practice*. San Francisco: Longman.

As an assessment device, role play opens some windows of opportunity for test takers to use discourse that might otherwise be difficult to elicit.

3) Discussion and Conversation

As formal assessment devices, discussions and conversations with and among students are difficult to specify and even more difficult to score. But as *informal* techniques to assess learners, they offer a level of authenticity and spontaneity that others assessments techniques may not provide.

B. Games

Among informal assessment devices are a variety of games that directly involve language production.

1. Definition of Games

Hadfield says: a game is an activity with rules, a goal and element of fun. Furthermore, Martin in Brewster and Ellis explains a game in language teaching is any fun activity which gives young learners the opportunity to practice the foreign language in a relaxed and enjoyable way.¹⁴

2. Who are Games for?

Wright, et al states that enjoyment of games is not restricted by age. Some individuals, regardless of age, may be less fond of games than others. But so much depends on the appropriateness of the games and the role of the player. ¹⁵

Jill, Hadfield. 1999. Intermediate Vocabulary Games. Harlow, Essex: Longman.

¹⁵ Andrew, Wright., David Betteridge and Michael Buckby. 1994. *Games for Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

It is generally accepted that young learners and adults are very willing to play games. This partly depends on the learners' socio-cultural background. Early teenagers tend to be more self-conscious and one must take into account their reticence when selecting games for them. Games which can be played in pairs or groups may be particularly useful in this case. It is clear to all observers of classroom practice that the teacher's own belief in the usefulness and appropriateness of a game affects the learners' responses. Wright et al have observed games and materials normally used in primary schools being accepted by businessmen owing to the conviction of the teacher.

3. Advantages of Using Games

Wright, et al state that games help and encourage many learners to sustain their interest and work. Games also help the teacher to create contexts in which the language is useful and meaningful. The learners want to take part and in order to do so must understand what others are saying or have written, and they must speak or write in order to express their own point of view or give information.

Moreover Wright et al state that many games cause as much density of practice as more conventional drill exercises; some do not. What matters, however, is the quality of practice. Games can also be found to give practice in all the skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking), in all the stages of the teaching/learning sequence (presentation, repetition, recombination and

tree use of language) and for many types of communication (e.g. encouraging, criticizing, agreeing, explaining).

Games are motivating and challenging. Learning a language requires a great deal of effort and games help students to make and sustain the effort and learning. They will not feel bored, because games are a welcome break from the usual routine of the language class. According to Ersoz games are highly motivating because they are amusing and motivating. In line with the theory, Lewis in Mei and Yu-jing: games add variation to a lesson and increase motivation by providing and plausible incentive to use the target language. ¹⁶

Moreover Lewis states that games can create a meaningful context in which language use. According to Hadfield, games offer a context in which language is used meaningfully as a tool to reach a particular goal. Games bring real world context into the classroom, and enhance student's use of English in a flexible communicative way. Huyen and Thu Nga: games usually involve friendly competition and they keep learners interested and participate actively in the learning activities. Games provide language practice in the four language skills.¹⁷

Furthermore, Kim: games encourage students to interact and communicate. They can be used to give practice in all language skills and be used to practice many types of communication. Besides providing language practice, games can also be used to present materials and to assess learned

¹⁶ Gordon, Lewis and Gunther Bedson. 2008. *Games for Children*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

¹⁷ Thu Nga, Huyen and 2003. Learning Vocabulary through Games: The Effectiveness of Learning Vocabulary through Games. The Asian EFL Journal, vol. 5, article 6..

materials in a way that appeal the students. Games have an ability to introduce new or difficult material to the students. Because the game format is playful, the natural challenge of new or difficult material is much less threatening than it is ordinarily. ¹⁸ In addition, games can be applied as a tool for the teacher to find out the area of difficulties.

4. Types of Games

Teachers should know kinds of language games before deciding which games are suitable with the lessons. It is important to know the types of games that are available in order to plan a lesson with a balanced pace. It will help teachers to choose the right games. Language games can be classified according to the kinds of language focus they have, the kinds of resources, classroom management and the organization they need.

However, Brewster and Ellis classify many different games into two main types: accuracy-focused games and fluency-focused games. Accuracyfocused or language control games aim to score more points than others, usually to find a winner. This kind of games tends to focus on comprehension (listening and reading) as well as production (speaking and writing). Brewster and Ellis categorize games by the resources required to play them. There are eight types of games under this categorization no resources e.g. guessing games and listening games, simple pencil & paper/blackboard games (spelling games, consequences), picture games, word

¹⁸ Steve, Sugar and Kim K. Sugar. 2002. *Primary Games: Experiential Learning Activities for Teaching Children K-8*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

cards, game using sentence cards, dice games, board games, and games using chart or matrices. ¹⁹

Toth divides games into two kinds. The first one is competitive games, in which players or teams race to be first to reach the goal. The second one is cooperative games, in which players or teams work together towards a common goal.

The emphasis in the games is on successful communication rather than on correctness of language. Hadfield explains two ways of classifying language games. She divides language games into two types: linguistic games and communicative games. Linguistic games focus on accuracy, such as supplying the correct production of a structure. On the other hand, communicative games focus on successful exchange of information and ideas. In communicative games correct language use is secondary to achieving goal.

In the second categorization, Hadfield differentiates language games based on the techniques used in the games. As with the classification of games as linguistic games as communicative games, some games will contain elements of more than one type:

- 1) Sorting, ordering or arranging games, for example, students have a set of cards with different topics and they sort the cards based on the topics.
- 2) Information gap games where one or more people have information and other people need to complete a task.

¹⁹ Jean, Brewster, Gail Ellis and Dennis Girard. 2002. *The Primary EnglishTeacher's Guide*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

- Guessing games that are a variation on information gap games, for example, "20 Questions Game".
- 4) Search games which are the other variant on two way info gap games, with everyone giving and seeking information.
- 5) Matching games where the participants need to find a match for a word, picture, or card.
- 6) Labeling games which are form of matching, in that participants match labels and pictures.
- 7) Exchanging games where students barter cards, other objects or ideas.
- 8) Role-play games that involve students playing roles that they do not play on real life, such as dentist.
- 9) Board games that are mainly involve moving markers along a path.

Those types of games will help teachers in selecting which ones are appropriate with the lessons. Selecting and setting up games is easier when they are classified into categories. When the teacher knows the classification of games, he or she can properly decide the suitable games for a certain learning objective.

5. Principles of Using Games in Teaching and Learning Activities

In implementing games into the teaching and learning activities, teachers should consider some principles in order to make the games effective. Brown: games involved in language teaching should be designed appropriately based on the class level and considered the learners' interests.

1) Selecting games

Choosing the right game for language lessons is an important step for a successful game experience. Tyson in Mei and Yu-jing proposes some points that should be considered in choosing games. He explains that a game must be more than just fun and able to encourage students to focus on the use of language rather than on the language itself. A game also should involve friendly competition so all of the students keep involved and interested. A game should give students a chance to learn, practice, or review specific language material.

Brewster and Ellis suggest guidelines to help teachers to decide the type of game they like to use:

- a) A game can mostly promote fluency/accuracy.
- b) A game can promote either competition or cooperation.
- c) A game should have an educational aim, i.e. developing concepts, themes, cross-curricular topics, such as citizenship, learning strategies.
- d) Games should be chosen based on the level. Some games are suitable for beginners and the others are for higher level.
- e) Is it a quiet, calming game which settles learners or an active, livening-up game, which stirs pupils?
- f) What materials resources and classroom organization are needed?
- g) Does it focus mostly on practicing pronunciation, words grammar and language functions, language skills or learning to learn skills?

2) Introducing new games

Many teachers assume a game should be explained clearly to the children before playing it. This opinion is not exactly correct since children will be generally involved in a game if they understand it clearly after being attracted toward it. It means that when a teacher introduces a game, she should attract the children's mind towards it first. This can be done, for example, by simply putting an attractive board game on the table and looking at it curiously. It can make the children feel more attracted.

Introducing game procedure to children is not merely explaining the rules. The teacher should explain by showing and doing, using gesture and mime, using the boards, pictures, flashcards or other materials to demonstrate the procedure. It is also useful to invite some students to help demonstrating the game.

3) Playing the game

Brewster and Ellis give suggestion on how to play games. It includes giving instruction, organizing the class, playing the game, and the teacher's role.

Giving instruction is an important stage in playing a game. Instructions in games should be short, clear, and simple. It is better to use a limited number of key phrases. A game should be organized well, since some games are played individually, but the others may requires teams, groups or pairs. Students must be taught the language they need to play each game, including language to organize themselves while playing the game.

Teachers can use the guidelines above to decide what type of games will be appropriate for the lessons, to achieve the learning objects. Sugar and Sugar write that games need to be the materials, the complexity of rules and the playing time. They add that number of players and the size of the class are also required to be considered.

C. Board Games

1) The definition of board games

Board games are familiar game types for children. This type of games mainly involves moving markers along a path. *Monopoly*, *Snake and Ladders*, and *Ludo* are the examples of popular board games. Almost all board games are the imitations of situations in real life. Board games have also been used to teach children basic fact and information about the world in which they live.²⁰

2) The Benefits of Board Games in Language Teaching

Board games can be used in language classrooms to teach the learners to speak. One of the main goals of language teaching is to equip the students with the ability to communicate in the target language. According to Chang and Cogswell, using board games in the language classroom is an effective, low-anxiety, and fun way for students to learn and practice communication skills as well as develop their communication strategies that can be readily applied to the real world.²¹

²⁰ Lewis, Gordon and Gunther Bedson. 2008. Games for Children. Oxford: Oxford University Press

²¹ Chang, Shelley and Jenny Cogswell, 2008. Using Board Games in the Language Classroom TESOL.

http://www.rtmsd.org/cms/lib/../57/Using_Board_Games_Handout.doc

Using board games in language learning gives a lot of benefits. One of them is that board games are flexible. Chang and Cogswell (2008) state that board games are adaptable asset in the classroom because board games can be used as intended for native speakers, adapted to teach specific language forms and functions, adapted for various ESL/EFL contexts, age groups, proficiency levels, and content and adapted as communicative in the classroom. The games can also be adapted as a concept for making their own educational board game.

The other benefit is that board games can promote language learning through tasks. The tasks are defined here as activities in which:

- a) Meaning is primary
- b) There is a communication problem of some type to solve
- c) The activity has some relationship to real-world activities
- d) Task completion is usually required and
- e) Task performance can be assessed in terms of the outcome (Skehan in Chang and Cogswell).

According to Hadfield, board games have particular aim, such as to be first round the board or to collect the most things. Board games may have any aims but in English lessons for children, the squares on the board are used as stimuli to provoke a communication exchange. By playing board games, context and situation for real communication can be provided.

When using board games, it should be kept in mind how these five characteristics are exemplified in student interaction. Furthermore, it is important that lessons that implement board games should be composed of warm-up activities, formal instruction, tasks, and wrap-up/reflection activities that integrate all language skills to provide learners with a holistic language learning experience (Chang and Cogswell).

3) The Materials in Playing Board Games

In board games, there are some materials needed by the players. At least, there should be counters, dice, game board and, for some board games, cards. The counters or playing pieces are used as markers to be put on the spaces on the board. The pieces can be stones, seeds, buttons, plastic counters or carved wood. The dice is usually a small six-sided cube with one to six dots on its sides. The game board is where the players move the counters. Lewis and Bedson (1999: 10) propose three kinds of tracks on board games, standard snake tracks, never ending track and multi-route track as presented below.

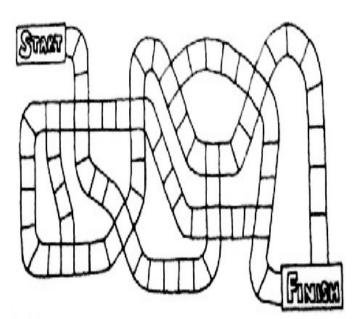


Figure 2: Multi-route track on board games

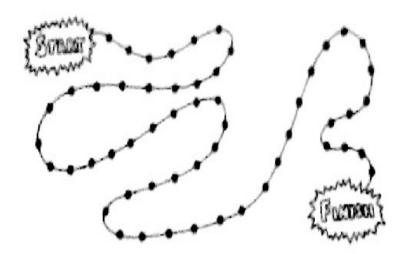


Figure 3: Standard snake track on board games

4) Preparing Board

Many commercial board games are sold in the market, but teachers need to adapt the games so that they fit the needs of the learning activities. Teachers can also make board games of certain topics to be used in the classroom. Buchanan etal proposes some steps to make board games: 1) preparing the materials, 2) planning the trip of the game, 3) determining the beginning and the end of the game, 4) designing the route, 5) designing complication on the game, 6) creating the game board based on the design, and 7) writing down the rules. Board games can be made based on stories or any topics that are appropriate with the lessons.

The following are the guidelines on creating board games to enhance classroom learning adapted from the tips proposed by Chang and Cogswell.

- 1. The board games can be made based on the existing games. The gamecomponents from one or several games can be used, but it is not just to copy the games. The teacher should make the game fun to play.
- 2. The board games should look interesting and professional. Appropriate materials and techniques are used to give a quality look.
- 3. The game rules should be made complete and easy to understand so that the students can get the idea of the game in five minutes. How to set up, play and win the game should be clear.
- 4. The games should be a learning tool. The students are expected to be able to learn by playing the games. The time for playing the games needs to be adjusted. Different options of difficulty can be applied.