THE EFFECT OF USING DIFFERENT KINDS OF ICE- BREAKERS ON UPPER-INTERMEDIATE TURKISH EFL STUDENTS' SPEAKING ABILITY

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FARKLI TÜRDE KAYNAŞTIRMA ETKİNLİKLERİ KULLANIMININ TÜRK İLERİ-ORTA DÜZEY İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN KONUŞMA BECERİLERİNE ETKİSİ

(The effect of using different kinds of ice-breakers on upper-intermediate Turkish EFL students' speaking ability)

DOKTORA TEZİ

Parisa YEGANEHPOUR

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Prof. Dr. Mehmet TAKKAÇ danışmanlığında, Parisa YEGANEHPOUR tarafından hazırlanan "FARKLI TÜRDE KAYNAŞTIRMA ETKİNLİKLERİ KULLANIMININ TÜRK İLERİ-ORTA DÜZEY İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN KONUŞMA BECERİLERİNE ETKİSİ" başlıklı çalışma ….. /08/ 2014 tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda başarılı bulunarak jürimiz tarafından. Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda Doktora Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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ÖZET

DOKTORA TEZİ

FARKLI TÜRDE KAYNAŞTIRMA ETKİNLİKLERİ KULLANIMININ TÜRK İLERİ-ORTA DÜZEY İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN KONUŞMA BECERİLERİNE ETKİSİ

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Bu çalışma, yabancı dil konuşma üretiminde bir sınıf aktivitesi olarak kaynaştırma tekniklerinin etkisini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu etkileri göstermek için IELTS sınavı müteakip Türkiye, Erzurum Amerikan Kültür Derneği'nden İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen yüz Türk öğrenci seçilmiştir. Daha sonra bu öğrenciler kaynaştırma tekniklerinin uygulamasını alan deney grubu ve plasebo alan kontrol grubu olarak rastgele ikiye bölünmüştür. Her iki grup kendileri için ön test ve art test olarak düşünülen bazı konular hakkında konuşmak zorundaydılar. Puanlar; normallik testi, homojenlik testi, bağımsız t-testi, ANOVA testi, korelasyon testi ve bağımsız örnek test uygulanarak SPSS aracılığıyla analiz edildi. Bulgular kaynaştırma teknikleri uygulamaları alan deney grubu katılımcılarının konuşma testinde önemli derecede daha iyi performans sergilediğini göstermiştir. Nicel verilerin analizinde, araştırmacı ayrıca kelime bilgisi, gramer, telaffuz ve akıcılık olmak üzere dört faktörde kaynaştırıma tekniklerinin etkilerini ölçmüştür. Betimsel faktör analizi dört faktörün gelişiminde kaynaştırma tekniklerinin pozitif etkisini göstermiş, telaffuz ve akıcılık üzerindeki etkisinin kelime bilgisi ve gramerin üzerindeki etkiden daha fazla oldüğü saptanmıştır. Ayrıca, kaynaştırma aktiviteleri uygulanarak, erkekler ve bayanlar için gelişim seviyesinin tamamen aynı olduğu kanıtlanmıştır. Nihai sonuç olarak, çalışmaya katılan öğretmenleri ile yapılan görüşmede, bir iletişim stratejisi olarak kaynaştırma tekniklerinin kullanımının öğrenciler arasındaki sözel iletişimi daha kolaylaştırdığını ve dil engellerinin çözümünde iyi bir yol olduğunu kanıtlamıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Konuşma Becerisi, Kaynaştırma Tekniği, Plasebo

ABSTRACT

DOCTORAL DESSERTATION (Ph.D)

THE EFFECT OF USING DIFFERENT KINDS OF ICE- BREAKERS ON UPPER-INTERMEDIATE TURKISH EFL STUDENTS' SPEAKING ABILITY

Parisa YEGANEHPOUR

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This study aims to investigate the effects of ice- breakers as a classroom activity on foreign language speaking production. For showing these effects, one hundred Turkish EFL students from the American Culture Institute, Erzurum, Turkey were selected after following the English standard speaking test (IELTS). Then, they were randomly divided into two groups; the experimental group who received the treatments on ice-breakers, and the control group who received a placebo. Both groups had to speak about some topics that were considered as their pre-tests and post-tests. The scores were analyzed through SPSS by applying normality test, homogeneity test, independent t-test, ANOVA, correlation test, and independent sample test. The findings revealed that participants in the experimental group, who had received the treatments on ice- breakers, significantly enhanced better performance in a speaking test. In quantitative data analysis the researcher also measured the effect of ice-breakers on four factors of vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and fluency. Descriptive factor analysis showed positive effect of ice-breakers in improving all four factors, the effect on pronunciation and fluency were more than vocabulary and grammar. Also, it was proved that by applying ice-breaker activities, the degree of improvement for males and females were exactly the same. As a last result, interview with teachers of the study proved that as a communication strategy, use of ice-breakers makes oral communication between learners easier and it is a good way to eliminate language barriers.

Key Words: Speaking skill, Ice-breaker, Placebo.

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Erzurum-2014 Parisa YEGANEHPOUR

DEDICATION

To

My Dear Supportive and Exceptional Parents

and

My Kind Brothers

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ABBREVIATIONS

EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
IELTS	: International English Language Testing System

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Speaking is the most demanding skill among English learners and over the past decades, increasing interest in different aspects of improving speaking ability has triggered a variety of investigations and theoretical discussions that have shed light on improving this ability. Ice-breakers will be used in this study to improve speaking ability of adult upper-intermediate EFL learners. Ice breaking means breaking the ice among learners and using ice- breakers encourages students to interact all together.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Recently the speaking skill has been considered to be the most important one for foreign learners; however, as studies clarify, generally, there are not enough useful speaking activities for adult upper- intermediate EFL learners to improve their oral ability. While trying to speak English, most of the learners try to translate from their mother tongue to the target language. Others try to avoid speaking and find it stressful. To solve these kinds of problems in fluent speaking, teachers can apply ice-breaking strategies to stay away from major part of problem in oral communication, even among adult and advanced EFL learners and avoid translation and encourage students to speak spontaneously without translation.

This research study anticipates finding valuable information with applying ice-breaker activities that will contribute to overcome the problems adult EFL students of upper-intermediate level confront while trying to speak fluently in the target language.

1.3. Theoretical Framework

Shumin (1997) states that all skills have the same degree of importance and speaking is as important as other skills. He says that for speaking a foreign language,

learning its grammar and vocabulary is not enough. He mentioned "interaction" as a crucial requirement in acquisition of speaking a foreign language. He also added that classroom environment, because of its limited practical usage, is not enough for learning speaking.

Dover (2004) considers ice- breakers as "discussion questions" or "interaction activities" that can be used to help learners to learn to speak easily and enjoyably. He believes that developing an environment which decreases students' anxiety, "breaks the ice" between learners and learning with fun activities is the primary goal of ice-breakers.

Pillai (2007) mentions the purpose of ice- breakers as helping new and shy students to strike a conversation by developing communication skills and team building, breaking cultural barriers among students, promoting a sense of trust and friendship among them, encouraging, and preparing them to learn by stimulating their minds and/or their bodies.

Forbes-Greene (1984) defines ice-breakers as "tools" that can be used in fostering the interaction among learners, encouraging "creative thinking", discussing about important assumptions, explaining new topics, and explaining particular information. According to Varvel (2002) ice- breaker is an activity used to help individual ease into the group setting. Also, Wright (1999) defines ice- breaker as opening communication among students as between teacher and students.

Jenkins (2001) argues that ice- breaker should be dynamic and simple so as to satisfy students' need to establish an appropriate social relationship with other students and teachers and also preview the style and content of the classroom event.

According to Sapp (2007), principles of successful ice- breakers are as follows:

1- Simple
2- Non-threatening
3- Open ended
4- Relevant
5- Energizing

Witkowski (2000) states that some elements should be considered in designing an appropriate ice- breaker in the classroom. He listed these elements as follow:

1- Objective
2- Audience
3- Time management
4- Control

In reality, students' success in class depends mostly on how well the teacher breaks the ice among them. From this point of view, English teachers should take more attention about the methodology they can claim in their classes and try to improve their teaching ability.

1.4. Purpose of the Study

From skills point of view, speaking coherently and fluently is perhaps the most important thing for EFL learners. This study investigates ice breaking tasks as activities that are likely to play an important role in improving speaking ability of EFL learners. The primary question this study tries to answer is whether or not providing students with ice breaking tasks as their class activities can exert any impact on their speaking skill. Peterson (2010), states that if teachers start their lesson plan with a five-minute ice- breaker activity, it will cause students to focus on the topic, start "creative thinking" and try learning in a new way. Leblanc (2011) confirms that by doing ice breaking activities students will lose their interest for the outside world and will focus on the lesson. So, after doing an ice breaking activity each student is going to be able to concentrate on their language lesson issue and as the result, learning will be more useful. Finally, it will be easier for the teacher to reach each student and in this way the teacher can facilitate the way that students will attain their language learning goals.

Generally, in every classroom, there are students who are silent most of the time and they prefer to let others participate and do the activities. By encouraging students to participate in enjoyable and low risk ice breaking activities, they will be more successful in learning process.

Based on the problems and purpose of study, the following research questions were proposed:

1- Does providing students with ice- breaking tasks have any effect on their speaking ability?

2- To what do extent ice-breakers improve speaking?

3- What factors can be considered in testing speaking ability of EFL learners?

4- What is the effect of using ice-breakers in improving every factor considered in testing learners' speaking ability?

5- What is the variance between using ice-breaker activities and students' gender?

6- When do teachers use ice- breaking as a strategy to improve oral ability in English classrooms?

1.5. Significance of the Study

It is the time of internet and information technology, so speaking English has become so important and many EFL instructors and supervisors understand the essence of the speaking process. Learning to speak English fluently is important to most of the students. Thus, there are lots of demands from teachers to help students in developing speaking ability. Using an appropriate ice- breaker is important to an English language lesson because it organizes the students for being successful on many different levels.

According to Flanigan (2011), performing ice breaking activities in English class will direct students to the good mood of learning. Also appropriate kind of ice breaking activities will make students sure to get the most from their lesson and also, they will have fun.

This study will highlight different positive dimensions of using ice-breaker activities and their effects in improving adult Turkish EFL learners' oral ability. It also will consider positive contributions of ice-breakers in fluency, pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. Besides, this study will compare the amount of interest between male and female learners for using ice-breakers.

1.6. Research Design and Methodology

1.6.1. Research Design

Since real random selection of the subjects is impossible, the researcher made use of intact groups based on the results of students' previous general English test scores. Therefore, the design which can fit this research is the quasi-experimental design, besides pre-test and post-test pattern.

In the current study, ice- breakers are independent variables and speaking is the dependent variable. Thus, the ice- breakers' effectiveness, the amount of improvement, factors that can be considered in testing speaking ability, and effect of using ice-breakers in each factor will be analyzed quantitatively by data analysis of pre-test and post-test, and qualitatively by analyzing teachers' view points about the usefulness of ice-breakers.

1.6.2. Setting and Participants

After administering the sample speaking IELTS test, on the basis of the result, 100 students, whose homogeneity was confirmed-were selected and divided into two groups, one of which was the control group and the other one was the experimental group. Coming from different departments such as Science, History, Literature, Computer Science and Civil Engineering, both groups would attend English classes two times a week throughout the semester (about 18 sessions, 3 hours each session).

1.6.3. Data Collection Instruments

For collecting data, two instruments had been used in this study. The first one consisted of different kinds of ice- breakers that had been gathered from related standard sources. The second instrument was interview with teachers. As it will be explained later, it elaborates in order to identify some aspects about the teachers’ points of view related to the usefulness of ice-breakers in upper-mediate level, and the students' reaction to these kinds of activities.

1.6.4. Data Analysis

As it was mentioned earlier, there is a six- fold purpose that will promote the present study. The main reason of this study is (a) to examine the probable effect of ice-breakers on the speaking ability of EFL students at upper-intermediate language proficiency level, (b) to investigate the amount of ice- breakers' effect, (c) to investigate factors that are considered in testing speaking (d) to study the effect of using ice-breakers in improving every factor; vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and fluency (e) to measure the variance between using ice-breaker activities and students' gender, and (f) to study the conditions in which the teachers use ice- breakers to cope with reticence in oral English language classrooms.

Data for this study was obtained from pre-test, post-test, and interview with teachers. Then in order to do statistical analysis, the SPSS software was used.

1.7. Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

1.7.1. Limitations

As several other studies, this study also suffers from some limitations, "those conditions beyond the control of the investigator that may place restrictions on the conclusions of the study and their application to other situations" (Best & Kahn, 1989, p.38). It seems that the subsequent factors have limited this study in one way or another:

1. Actually, for giving each person in a population a similar likelihood to be included in the sample, "random sampling" is needed. Yet the type of sampling, which was employed in this study, was the available group selection, i.e. instead of individual subject selection, there was group selection.

2. Subjects' social classes were certainly unheeded as well.

3. Teachers' age, gender, and social class were unheeded, too.

4. The number of the subjects was restricted to one hundred and also the extension of the experiment was limited to one term.

5. The generalizability to other language proficiency levels desires further research and analysis.

1.7.2. Delimitations

In order to meet the criterion of manageability and to permit a satisfactory analysis of the results, narrowing down and delimiting the problems in any study have proved to be inevitable. This study is no exception; therefore, through a number of delimitations, the researcher tried to set the boundaries of this study:

1. What this study tries to find out is the effect of "ice-breakers" on speaking skill of EFL Turkish students, not on any other aspect of their proficiency.

2. The participants were chosen from amongst the male and female undergraduate Turkish learners who are improving their English level in the American Culture Institute in Erzurum.

3. To reduce the subject anxiety during the speaking, the examiner was the students' own teacher.

1.8. Outline of the Study

Chapter one provides a general introduction to the study. In this chapter, the problem and the purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the study, research design, participants, instructions, limitations and delimitations of the study were mentioned and key terms were outlined. In chapter two, the investigator reviews the literature associated with the theoretical and empirical background to speaking, ice-breakers, and their effects and functions. Chapter three deals with methodological issues like participants, data collection, procedures, and research questions, etc. Chapter four involves data analysis and discussion of the results. Within the final chapter, the researcher draws some conclusions from her analysis, discusses conclusive results, and supplies implications for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

Several topics should be addressed to preface the study undertaken in this thesis. In this chapter, the researcher reviews the relevant literature from two perspectives. Since the focus of the study was on the impact of ice-breaker activities on Turkish EFL learners' speaking skill, the literature review will concern it with the relevance of learners' speaking ability and using useful activities. In between, theoretical foundations of ice-breakers will be followed by empirical background to the study.

2.2. Background

Ellis (2005) believes that language acquisition is a very young field of study and most of the researchers yet have controversies about the kind of instruction in effective language learning. Some of the researchers prefer focus- on- forms methods, which is traditional way of teaching by grammar and, some others prefer focus- on- form which, is learning new language by communication activities. Ellis claims that he does not agree with simultaneous use of explicit and implicit teaching or learning. He agrees with Lantolf's (1996) computational model but, explains that it has some limitations because it does not consider social context and relations in language learning. He added some psycholinguistic principles for internalizing and restructuring new linguistic forms. Nunan (2005) also, demonstrates the popularity of task based learning and its accelerating effect on learning. He mentions that researchers must think about borrowing or adopting useful techniques and experiences to their own region. Schmit (2010) enforces noticing hypothesis and claims that generalization of explicit and implicit learning is possible. In his hypothesis, individual differences are important factors in second and foreign language learning. Schmit also discusses that with

attention to internal and external factors appropriate tasks must be chosen for different learners in different levels (2010).

2.2.1. Language Proficiency

Language proficiency from Richards, Schmidt, Schmidt and Plat's (1992) point of view, can be a person's talent in employing a language for a particular purpose. Stern (1991) asserts that native speakers use an internal system, structure, a network schema, or first language proficiency and by this means convey meaning through utterances.

Proficiency in two languages, maybe best described as what Cummins (1980) has with competence, referred to as "dual iceberg" phenomenon, which shows underlying common and language specific element of every individual.

One of the best known rating scales for language proficiency is that of the American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) (1970).

"It distinguishes four categories of proficiency: novice, intermediate, upper-intermediate, and superior. These levels are characterized generally in the following way;

Novice: a non-survivor; depends on memorized materials; only reacts, does not initiate.

Intermediate: a survivor; can produce own language, although with several errors; can ask and answer questions; discuss daily events.

Upper-intermediate: limited professional competence; can narrate, describe, and compare in any time frame; can state opinions.

Superior: full professional competence; can go outside limited areas of competence and discuss a wide range of topics; can hypothesize and deal with abstract topics.

(In this study learners are at upper-intermediate level of language proficiency.)

2.2.2. Speaking

There are several empirical studies related to the beneficial effects of effective classroom activities on language acquisition (Busch, 1982; Day, 1984; Ely, 1986; Spada, 1986; Ellis, 1993; Pica, Lincoln- Porter, Paninos, and Linnell, 1996) and all of them proved the existence of a definite direct relationship between language learning and activities which result in successful oral interactions. Elly (1986) also, confirmed the direct relation between class participation and oral correctness.

A major problem that language teachers face in the classroom is the difficulty in encouraging students to join the conversation (Beeb, 1983; White and Lightbown, 1984; Katz, 1996; Tsui, 1996). Research studies that have been done (Satto, 1982; Pica, Young, and Daughty, 1987; Chaudron, 1988; Tomizawa, 1990; Song, 1994; Flowerdew and Miller, 1995) pointed out that the problem of students' reticence in East Asian countries was more serious than their western counterparts. John and Hymes, 1972, Sato, 1982) confirmed cultural parameters as a factor in students' passiveness. Peregoy and Boyle (2001), by considering these problems, stated that speaking like the other language skills has the same importance. They said that despite traditional methods that each skill was taught separately, now all four skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) appear simultaneously in every English class and EFL context.

Shumin (1997) explained that knowing grammar and vocabulary of a language is not enough for being able to speak that language. He claimed that language acquisition will be possible if learners interact with each other in a class environment. However, English has limited use in learners' real life and, it is difficult for them to speak English in the classroom appropriately. So, it is the task of language teachers to persuade students to use English for social interaction in classroom. For creating motivation in EFL context, teacher should maintain different kinds of strategies and activities for attracting students' attention and making them interested in the lesson. By this way, s/he can support and help language learners. Krashen and Terrel (as cited in Lightbown & Spada, 1999) mentioned that through interaction, students will be able to make their own easy and meaningful conversation. Then, communication and interaction lead students to use the language instead of focusing on talking about its grammar.

On the other hand, Celce-Murcia (2001) stated that activities must be student-centered and communication should be authentic, that means students must do an activity because it is interesting for them, not because teacher asks them to do. In addition, Peck (1978) summarized some factors that teachers must take into consideration. When the teacher chooses the communication activities, s/he must focus on meaning, collaboration and social interaction. An effective teacher encourages students to speak English inside and outside of the classroom.

Krashen and Terrel (1983) emphasized that rather than teaching and talking about the structure of language, we should focus on language use. Therefore, topics and activities in the classroom should capture students' attention and encourage them for making meaning and more interaction with each other. Brown (1994) confirmed that if interaction strategies play important role in intrinsic motivation of students and when they are closely connected to students' goals and interests, they would have a positive effect on students' speaking ability.

2.2.2.1. Teaching speaking in EFL classroom

Learning English as a foreign language is difficult, because it cannot be learned naturally as learners' mother tongue. Although learning a foreign language means developing all language skills about the target language, usually nowadays developing the ability of real communication in English is the main goal of English language courses. Thornbury (1997) stated that in people's daily life, speaking is pretty important and any average person produces thousands of words per day. He said that the process of arranging vocabulary and grammar often is not automatic. Learners first formulate the utterances in their L1 and then interpret it into the target language. In addition, pressure to be accurate causes overuses of self-monitoring, which will have a negative effect in fluency. So, teaching speaking needs students' continuous practice. In teaching, speaking teacher has to be able to control the classroom in a way to avoid students' boredom. Therefore, teacher needs to be creative in choosing appropriate speaking activities and establishing a fun and interesting environment in learning process. Harmer (2004) considers some major roles for teachers in teaching speaking. Teacher can play such roles as prompter, participant, and feedback provider. As a prompter, teacher can help students who lost fluency and also they do not know what to say next (Harmer,

2004). Harmer also mentions that as a participant, teacher can participate in activities, and encourage students to continue engagement and maintain creative atmosphere. However, in such conditions teacher has to be careful not to do over-participation in activities. As a feedback provider, teacher can help students to avoid misunderstanding and hesitation in speaking activities. Harmer (2004) emphasizes that for being effective in teaching speaking teacher must use good techniques and/or strategies.

Interesting activities will make students more active and enthusiastic. Brown (2001) takes some principles into consideration in choosing techniques for teaching speaking. He believes techniques must cover:

- The spectrum of learner needs, based on accuracy and fluency.

- Encourage the use of language in meaningful contexts.

- Provide intrinsically motivating techniques. For this purpose they must consider ultimate goals and interests, and also their need and knowledge.

- Provide appropriate feedback and correction for ESL situation.

- Give students opportunities to start oral communication and interaction.

- Encourage students to develop their own speaking strategies.

According to Linse (2005) the most important feature of learning speaking is to provide an authentic opportunity for students to get knowledge and apply it in their daily life. Linse considers four techniques that can be applied in speaking class (2005):

a. Audio-lingual method (ALM)
b. Using puppets for dialogues introduction.
c. Fishbowl techniques.
d. Games

There are also many other activities that can be applied for teaching speaking. Those activities are as: role-plays, group discussions, acting from a script, communication games, prepared talks, songs, tongue twisters, and a lot of other ice-breaking activities.

2.2.2.2. Evaluation of speaking

Researchers (Burns & Joyce, 1997; Kayi, 2006; Richards & Renandya, 2002) believe that speaking is an interactive process of making meaning and, for speaking successfully, learner must be successful in linguistic and sociolinguistic competence. Henning (1987), Brown (2004), Farhadi (2003), Kitao and Kitao (1996), Spolsky (1992), Nambiar and Goon (1993), Upshur and Turner (1995), Messerklinger (1997), and MacGregor (2000) said that assessing oral ability of learners is difficult and time-consuming. They also agreed that reliability of subjective measure is very low. They all considered grammar, pronunciation, fluency, and vocabulary as evaluation scale.

Another group of researchers Harris (1997), Rolheiser and Ross (1998), Brindley and Scoffield (1989), Saito (2003), Nunan (1988), Benson (2001), Rolheiser and Ross (1998), Blue (1994), Coombe and Canning (2002), Cassidy (2007), Chamot and O'Malley (1994), Bachman and Palmer, (1989), Ariafar and Fatemipour (2013), thought that this formal kind of assessment is traditional and students cannot monitor their progress critically, so they suggested that learners' self-assessment is much better than that kind of linguistic assessment. Learners will be trained for self-assessment for this condition. This kind of assessment is carried out by learners. When students are able to assess themselves accurately then, they would be able to inform teachers about their own needs. Figure 1 was adopted from Rolheiser and Ross (1998) theory about self-assessment.

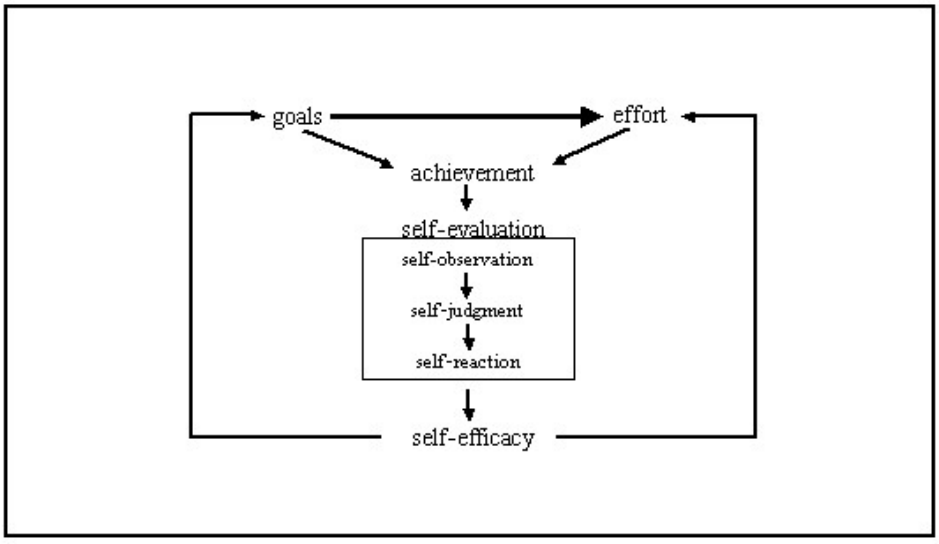


Figure 2.1. How Self-Evaluation Contributes to Learning

According to Rolheiser and Ross' (1998) theoretical model, students set higher goals and as a result commit more personal efforts. Blue (1994) believed that when learners would like more independence and autonomous learning, then they will be interested in self-assessments.

Another kind of assessment which was considered by some researchers is peer-assessment (Johnson & Rose, 1997; O'Malley & Pierce, 1996; Brown, 1998; Yurdabakan, 2011; Anderson, 1998; Yoshida, 2001; Stefanakis, 2002). In this kind of assessment, students judge the language performance of other student or students. All mentioned researchers agree that the most important advantage of this assessment is that students learn to collaborate with each other. Anderson (1998) said that providing different perspectives for students is the most striking advantage of peer-assessment. Brown (1998), Johnson & Rose (1997), O'Malley & Pierce (1996), and Özdemir (2012) pointed out that peer-assessment causes development of metacognitive abilities, communication skills, student's confidence, and collaborative environment. O'Malley and Pierce (1996), and Yoshida (2001) claimed that application of this method also will create some problems such as unreliability and subjectivity. But, teachers should set criteria with students so that they could be more involved in activities. According to Stefanakis (2002), teachers must draw students' attention in multiple intelligence. Then students by promoting collaboration between themselves will be able to understand potential differences among themselves. Yurdabakan (2011) also noted a very important point. He said that students for doing peer-judgment at first must be able to do self-judgment.

In this study sample IELTS test questions were used, so the researcher used formal assessment but, it does not mean that she does not agree with other kinds of assessment.

2.2.2.3. Students' gender and their speaking ability

At the early stages of language studies, there are just a few studies about the relationship between language learning and gender. As Oxford and Nyikos (1989) mentioned in their study, there is a straight relation between learners' gender and the strategy that they choose for learning English. Studies of Lan and Oxford (2003) and

Liu (2004) showed that female students use more strategies than male students. Green and Oxford (1995) claimed that female learners' quality of strategy use also is better than male learners.

Wharton (2000) and Radwan (2011) studied the effect of gender on strategy use among English learners but their results were different. They concluded that male learners use more strategies than female learners. Green and Oxford (1995) discovered that in watching TV or film as a strategy for improving English learning, male learners surpassed female learners.

Ehrman and Oxford (1990), Dadour and Robbins (1996), and Riazi and Khodadadi (2007), in their studies proved that there were not significant variations between male and female strategy use.

2.2.3. Ice-breakers

Motivating students in a course is essential to the success of the course. It is important to break the ice of students in a positive way by making sure that all of the participants feel comfortable. The activities the teacher uses at the suitable time to bring about more motivation among the participants are considered as ice-breakers. Ice-breakers clear the way for learning by encouraging learners and making them more comfortable.

Forbes- Greene (1982) defined ice- breakers as the reception of corrective or evaluative information from the original sources, and as a secret means for sharing personal thoughts and/or feelings. Furthermore, Preziosi (1989) stated that ice-breaker activities involving the use of media, physical activity and other brain teaser activities,

can be perfect ways of breaking the ice. Rodrigues (1982) believes that ice-breakers must create an environment that is not only fun, but allows the students to be energized and motivated at the same time. Varel (2002) defined ice-breakers as activities or modes of discussion used to help individuals ease into the group setting. According to Wright (1999), ice-breakers are structured activities which are designed to "relax learners, introduce them to each other, and energize them in formal atmosphere or situation".

In addition, ice-breakers are defined as tools that enable the group leader to make interaction quicker, encourage creative thinking, challenge fundamental assumptions, illustrate new ideas, and introduce new material. There are different kinds of ice-breakers and when designing an ice- breaker, the teacher ought to think about the "ice" that needs to be broken.

Some of the researchers and teachers such as Siegenthaler (2007) consider warm-up and ice-breaker the same. On the other hand, some other ones such as Clark (1998) believe that ice-breaker is not related to the subject matter, whereas "openers" are related to the subject matter. Ice- breakers can be used as openers to motivate learners toward lesson. They can be used in the middle of a session to refresh the situation and get the concentration back. And they can also be used at the end of the lesson to confirm or review the material (Kanu, 2011).

2.2.3.1. Principles of ice-breaker activity

Following are principles of a successful ice-breaker according to Witkowski (2000):

1. Objectives : An ice-breaker must be in line with the material given.
2. Audience : Ages and abilities of participants must be considered as an important factor.
3. Time Management : An ice-breaker may take 20 minutes with a group of eight but could end up being over an hour with a group of 20.
4. Control : Control the ice-breaker. Ice-breakers are short, fun activities to liven up and relax students not create a carnival-type atmosphere.

A good ice-breaker is specifically focused on objectives of students involved. Jenkins (2001) argues that the ice-breakers should be dynamic and simple. He states that at the beginning of a program, every student is insecure about other students and his or her place in the group. By using a good ice-breaker, a teacher provides students an opportunity to start communication. Jenkins (2001) believes that ice-breakers have to be simple, i.e. the length of the ice-breaker should not be too long or too short. Sapp (2007) further states the principles of ice-breakers as:

1. Simple : The simpler, the better.

2. Non- threatening : Ice- breakers should not make people feel uncomfortable.

3. Open ended : The uniqueness of students must be allowed to be expressed.

4. Relevant : The needs of the group and purpose of the lesson must be taken into account in choosing the types of ice-breakers.

5. Energizing : Ice-breakers should excite students according to their level of activity.

2.2.3.2. Ice-breaker activities in practice

Every act that teachers apply in the classroom to make the students get interested in the lesson is considered to be an ice-breaker activity. According to Forbes- Greene (1982), there are several different categories of ice- breakers, as follow:

1. Openers

They warmed up the group by challenging and motivating students. They could be used to begin a session or a discussion, or to introduce a new topic.

2. Energizers

They are used when students feel stressed, more relaxed, or when the group is flat.

3. Feedback and disclosure

They are used to demonstrate communication variables rather than as a means for developing ongoing interpersonal relationship among students.

Zhang (2000) categorized the ice- breaker activities used by teachers into several groups:

1. Reading stories

It was a good technique to make the students speak- up. It improved both listening and speaking ability of learners.

2. Question and Answer

It demanded students' participation and immediate feedback that caused interest and motivation. In "question time" activity students could build on their prior knowledge and at the same time, used vocabulary and structures that were connected with a particular function.

3. Using pictures

They had the advantages of being easy to prepare and organize, being interesting, meaningful and authentic. Pictures were also useful in developing students' motivation and provided a general background and context.

Yusuf (2009) states that ice- breakers could help teachers to create a joyful learning but the joy should not lead into an uncontrolled and noisy classroom. They increased motivation, comprehension, and fully involvement from the students.

2.2.3.3. Ice- breakers in teaching English

Ice-breaker activities provide students the opportunity to interact with each other, share and discuss their perspectives about every lesson, but also take them a step further, helping them to learn what it means to be successful and happy at school. Rodrigues (1982) believes that teachers need an activity to break the ice – turn up the temperature and ensure that they will create an environment that is not only fun, but allows the students to be energized and motivated at the same time. She clarifies that ice-breaker and warm-up activities are similar to each other and can be used at any time to get the brain going. Rodrigues (1982) states that when thinking about ice-breaker or warm-up, the key to be successful is to make sure that it will suit the environment students are in and meet their objectives.

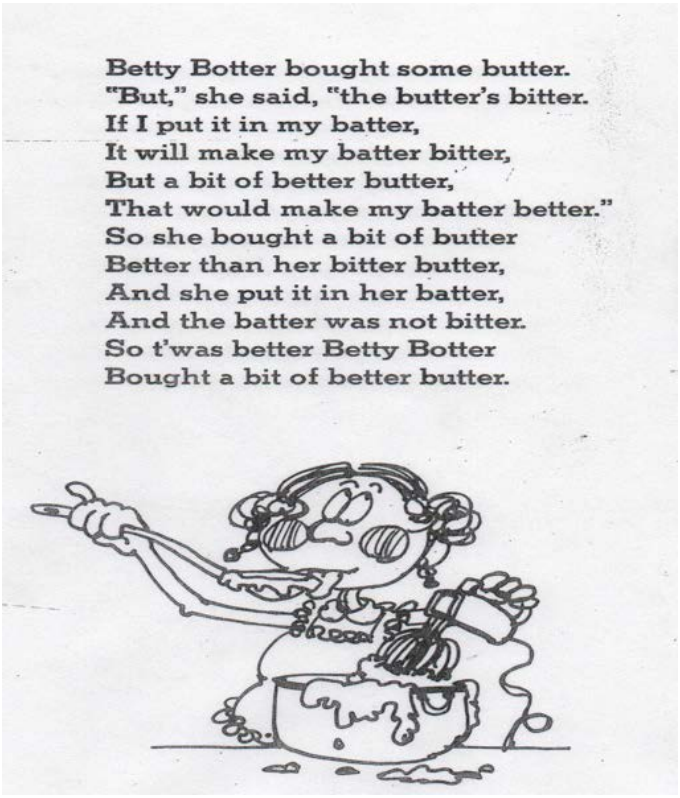
Teachers, who organize and conduct the tasks and evaluate students' performance, have the main role in reducing speaking anxiety of learners (Hilleson, 1996; Riasiti, 2011; Subasi, 2010). According to Richards and Rogers (2001), using implementations of humanistic approaches such as "silent way, total physical response, suggestopedia, and community language teaching may have positive effects in improving students' speaking ability" (p.16).

There are several studies that have shown there is a direct relationship between students' participation and their tutorial accomplishment (Lim, 1992; Wudong, 1994; Zhou, 1991). Krupa-Kwiatowski (1998) also, proved in her study that ice-breaking activities cause participation, personal encouragement, and also trigger cognitive processes in language learning.

Tsou (2005) mentioned in his article that a number of the researchers (Hanania and Gradman, 1977; Krashen, 1982; Dulay, Burt, and Krashen, 1982; Rodriguez, 1982) agree about the existence of a natural silent period in language acquisition that may be helpful in the learning process, however some others (Ellis, 1999; Gibbons, 1985) afflict with the beneficial result of the silent period. Tsou (2005) also found plenty of studies within the field of acquisition (Elis, 1988, 1993, 1999; Ely, 1986; Gomez, 1995; King, 1993; Seliger, 1977; Spada, 1986; Long, 1981; Swain, 1985, Tsui, 1992; Wagner-Gough and Hatch, 1975) which specialize in students' oral participation in the classroom. He mentioned Swains' "output hypothesis" (1985) as an instance and claimed that learners need some activities and tasks for significant use of their linguistic resources.

The conduction and selection of activities according to students' interests and level of proficiency is pretty important (Abdullah & Abdulrahman, 2010). Keeping in mind that each learning situation is unique and the problems faced may differ from one situation to another, different kinds of ice- breaking activities should be offered by different researchers. Here the researcher gives short information about some kinds of ice-breakers which were used in this study.

2.2.3.3.1. Tongue- twisters



Words are everywhere. They have the power to hurt us or make us happy. Tongue twisters are excellent for sharpening pronunciation. They exercise lips, jaw, and tongue, and increase ability of articulation.

1. Shy Shely says she shall sew sheets.
2. Sam's shop stocks short spotted socks.
3. Mrs. Smith's fish sauce shop.

Stuckeys (2009) defines tongue twisters as words, phrases, or sentences that are tough to mention because there are varied mixture of similar sounds in most of them. He says that although they can be very challenging, are motivating and fun to learn as well. Tongue twisters reinforce newly acquired articulation skills and also improve self-monitoring skill. Stuckys also uses tongue twisters in speech therapy (2009). He says that tongue twisters can offer a variety of opportunities to practice a speech or language goals such as "auditory discrimination, fluency and voice".

Hanson, Goodell, and Perfetti (1991) studied the effects of tongue twisters on deaf and hearing college students. They proved that deaf students' speech productions that use tongue twisters are faster but less accurate than control hearing students. Their research study provided sturdy support for theories that assign phonological processing an important role in reading and oral production.

Professor Lynch (1996) stated that students need to speak because they want to ask questions, share information, give instructions and orders, to express emotions and ideas, and to entertain. He considered different activities for developing speaking skill and said that tongue twisters are a kind of vocal warm-up language games or classroom energizers that as a tool create a sense of ensemble and teamwork among students. He said that by using tongue twisters students could warm-up their mouth (lip, tongue, and teeth) and learn to pronounce and speak clearly. He also claimed that tongue twisters are kinds of useful memory games. Pokrivčáková (2013) studied teaching techniques for modern teachers of English and put the use of tongue-twisters in her list.

Keller, Carpenter, and Just (2001) studied the effect of tongue-twisters in sentence comprehension. They included working memory processes and articulatory processes in their study and result of their study extended the generality of visual effect of tongue-twisters on comprehension performance. Gollan (2012) compared the effect of tongue twisters on bilinguals and monolinguals. Her study results proved a clear bilingual disadvantage in lexical representation of sound structure and tongue twister production. The results also provided strong hints about processing differences between monolinguals and bilinguals. According to the results, the reason of bilinguals errors was not the effect of their late English acquisition or their insufficient knowledge of English sounds. The result proved that bilinguals' weakness is on production of non-lexical twisters and they did not have any problem in lexical retrieval.

Spectives (2011) accepted that initially he thought that using tongue-twisters was just wasting valuable class time, because tongue-twister sentences make little meaning and they are not communicatively useful. He confessed that after an interview with Swain and Walter (2001) and Keddiye (2011) who made language learning similar to music practice, changed his mind. According to Swain, Walter, and Keddiye (2011), as mentioned in Scruton (2011) "Musicians need to practice scales and difficult musical

phrases over and over again until they become second nature. Our learners need to be doing the same" (p.2). Scruton also said that Underhill's (2007) point of view affected his opinion. Underhill (2007) as mentioned in Scruton (2011) considered mouth a muscle that like other muscles will work better by more practice.

Scruton (2011) claimed that he never considers special time for using tongue twisters. Occasionally when the lesson came up to be boring, he as the teacher chose a tongue twister and sometimes students continued with another one in their mother tongue and then after a short chuckle they came back to lesson. He claimed that, for long time, pronunciation was a major problem for students and said that tongue twisters are a kind of controlled activities for sound practice included in the list of popular communicative activities. Tongue twisters are fun activities for all levels, from beginners to native speakers with no scaffolding or concept checking.

2.2.3.3.2. English games as the ice-breaker

According to Chastain (1976), teachers' the most realistic opportunity for demonstrating students' practical use of language for communication is the use of language as a communication medium in their daily life. If students use foreign language in class to express themselves, then class becomes an example of functional use of language in social situations. For gaining this purpose, teacher needs to use

enjoyable and interesting activities as a speaking strategy. Brown (1994) mentioned that if strategies intrinsically motivate students toward their goals, then they can have positive effects in improving their speaking skill.

Generally, most of the teachers consider English games as a waste of time, but there are evidences that they are very useful. For example, Piaget (1962) believed that plays and technology-based games have a crucial role in learning new skills. Deesri (2002) stated that games contain factors as rules, completion and fun relaxation which result in improving students' speaking ability. He mentioned that games encourage students to have a friendly competition and real communication. Using games as a teaching tool for teaching new vocabulary and grammar decreases students' stress and fosters communication practice.

Aslanabadi and Rasouli (2013) studied the effect of online English games for young learners. She confirmed that games brought fun to the class and motivated students and additionally engineered their confidence. Her study indicated that there was a major distinction between vocabulary improvement of students who used language games and those who did not use them.

McCallum (1980) highlighted that games mechanically stimulate student' interest, and a correctly situated game may be a perfect motivating approach. Crookal (1990) said that games clear stress from language acquisition setting because they cut back anxiety, and strengthen positive feeling of self-assurance.

According to Bradley, Lindstrm and Rystedt (2010), language games lead to team working, so that students are working on a common goal and they do not realize the learning process. He said that games are a means of collaboration and cooperation. In this way, games as a first step provide an enjoyable learning experience and as an effective strategy facilitate learning. Cheerful environment facilitates learning and causes unconscious fun language learning. Richard-Amato (1998) said that games decrease the anxiety and increases input acquisition. Hansen (1994) added that games are useful for shy students and give them more opportunity to express themselves and their feelings and opinions.

Mohammadi Gaskari and Azari (2013) studied the effect of games in improving speaking ability of intermediate learners in Iran. Their study showed that there was a

considerable distinction between students who used games as an effective strategy in their speaking class and those who did not have the opportunity to use them. They concluded that games provided a fun environment for students to flourish. They also confirmed the remarks of Deesri (2002) that "the strategies the teacher should focus on should be interesting and should capture students' attention. In the young learners' classroom, these activities are usually centered on songs, poems, chants, drama, stories, games and Total Physical Response (TPR) activities" (p.112).

Sorayaie Azar (2012) said that Iranian learners usually feel bored in class because of traditional passive methods of learning. He had done an action research by applying games in his own classes and concluded that they are beneficial in improving students' vocabulary learning. Lee (1996) as mentioned in Sorayaie Azar (2012) listed several main advantages when games are used in the classroom, including "a welcome break from the usual routine of the language class", "motivation and challenge", "effort of learning", and "language practice in the various skills" (p.253). Ersoz (2000) also (in Sorayaie Azar, 2012) said that "games are very welcomed because of their amusement and interest" (p.253).

Vahdat and Rasti Behbahani (2013) proved stronger and positive effect of video games on intermediate students' new vocabulary learning. Their study confirmed Schlimme (2002) and Turgut and Irgin's (2009) prediction. They all agreed that using video games in learning new vocabulary was more useful than traditional approaches. Shaffer et al. (2005) considered video games a powerful tool because the virtual world is simulation of social context and makes an authentic context for effective learning. Gass and Selinker (as cited in Turgut and Irgin, 2009) explained that continuous and natural repetition in games exposes students to target language and as a result more useful acquisition occurs. Johnson et al. (2004) used language training software for teaching Arabic. They conclude that software integrated teaching culture and language at the same time, so it enhanced risk taking ability and communicative competence of Arabic learners.

2.2.3.3.3. Code-switching or code-mixing as the ice-breaker

According to Yeganehpour (2012), over the past decades, increasing interest in different aspects of code-switching has triggered a variety of investigations, and theoretical discussions have added new information to our understanding of bilingual speech behavior. English language teachers who use monolingual strategy in their teaching methods have been insisted on reducing or even rooting out students' mother tongue in the classroom. The justification for this can be maximizing the amount of time for using the target code, and thus improving efficiency of language acquisition. But, it seems that there is still no empirical evidence to support the notion that utterly limiting the utilization of mother tongue would essentially improve learning efficiency (Yeganehpour, 2012).

Generally, changing the languages during the class time is a pervasive phenomenon in foreign language classrooms. Nunan and Carter (2001) briefly define the term as "a phenomenon of switching from one language to another in the same discourse" (p. 93). According to Grosjean (1982), speakers use code-switching as a strategy in the classroom to make better interaction with their classmates. Auer (1991) completely accepts Grosjeans' point of view about this issue and believe that using code- switching can be profiteering in organizing conversation among speakers (1982). Trudgill (2000, as cited in Sert, 2005) accepted that the speakers' purpose of switching to another language can be manipulating, influencing or defining the situation, according to their wishes, and also conveying nuances and distinctions of "meaning and personal intention". Drawing upon this claim, it may be recommended that code-switching can be used for "self-expression" and is a style of modifying language for telling and improving of personal intentions.

Monolinguals' perspective about code-switching is a combination of languages without considering their grammar, and according to Grosjean, (1982) those people that often make "hybrid sentences are termed semilingual or nonlingual"(p.157). Grosjean (1982) lists the following reasons for code switching:

1. Code-switching fills a linguistic need for "lexical item, set of phrase/discourse marker or sentence filler"(p.152).

2. It triggers students to continue with the last used language.

3. By using code-switching students can repeat exactly what someone else said.

4. Learners can elaborate address.

5. Learners in applying code-switching can scrape through the message: explain, specify or emphasize with more information.

6. Code-switching causes more speaker involvement and the speaker can go into in-depth detail.

7. Usage of code-switchers helps students to communicate as they keep secrecy, or when they are angry or annoyed by somebody else in the group.

8. Code-switching helps speakers to deliberately do not include someone in the conversation.

9. Code-switching changes the role of speakers: raises their status, adds to their authority, and shows their knowledge.

In some instances, bilinguals of community resort to code-switching when a particular topic is discussed. Grosjean (1982) holds that Mexican-Americans in the south-west often switch to English when talking about money. This is because most buying and selling is done in English. Some researchers believe that code-switching is meaningful in the same way that the lexical choice is meaningful. According to this school of thought, code-switching can be considered as an important tool upon which linguistic and social information can be conveyed.

According to Woolford (1983), understanding underlying linguistic rules of every language clarifies that code-switching is a natural process and without understanding linguistic rules the phenomenon of code-switching cannot be considered as a normal procedure. Crystal (1987) defines bilingual people as people who are able to communicate in a second language in different rates. He also includes these people who are sometimes dormant in using second language or who have some problems in using it. Crystal (1987) explains that when bilinguals consecutively use both languages during their speech with other bilinguals, language switching or code-switching happens. Crystal added that this kind of language change or code-switching is very common among bilingual communities, although it takes different formats, i.e. bilinguals would alternate vocabularies, phrases, or sentences (1987).

Bonvillain (1993) mentions some other interactional and conversational functions of Code-Switching. Bilinguals code-switch for emphasis, to express emotions, to convey meaning effectively, and to signal a shift in topic when conversing.

Huerta-Macias (1983) studied the functions of code-switching in different conversations between students and teacher in the classroom and categorized the functions of code-switching into several parts. She considered some functions as elaboration, emphasis, address specification and clarification for code-switching. Huerta-Macias (1983) claimed that when a speaker needs to express additional information s/he uses code-switching for elaborating the issue. She said that for underscoring or stressing an issue teachers or students alternate the language. They also use voice tone alteration or different levels of pitch to emphasize a topic. Huerta-Macias (1983) however said that when teacher or students want to direct their speech to different listener, they should use code-switching. She also added that when they want to repeat or paraphrase something they change the language. The studies of McClure (1981) and Silva-Corvalan (1983) are in line with Huerta- Macias (1983). Despite this, Huerta-Macias (1983) said code-switching is a complex behavior and in different levels of acquisition, categorizing its function is not an easy process. But generally by considering its effective communication application in social and psychological environments, code-switching enhances effective communication in different pragmatic contexts (Huerta- Macias, 1983).

According to Duran (1994), code-switching is being appreciated by linguists, psychologists, and sociolinguists as a part of total, natural language development, and acquisition process. Duran proposes that code-switching can be used for filling a linguistic or conceptual disparity or for different kinds of communication processes (1994).

Code-switching can also be exploited to cope with several tasks related to the organization of conversation. In other words, it can be used for self-repair, per closing, story-telling, topic change, and setting off a quotation.

Surveys of code-switching in many societies shows that code-switching also, may be a signal for joking. Sociolinguistic studies show that it may lead to humor. According to the release theory noted by Sigel (1995), humor is the result of relief and

freedom from the conventions by which we are bound. This theory can account for the humor in some of the code-switching cases.

Merritt, Cleghorn, Abagi, and Bunyi (1992), studied the influence of teacher code-switching in three primary schools. They concluded that teachers for having social behavior, for repeating something, for completing linguistic competence, and also for being sure about students' understanding take the advantage of code-switching.

Jones (1995) reviewed the education schedules about code-switching in the classroom. She said that teachers' purpose of using code-switching consists of five communicative functions. Teachers switch code for translation, to give some information, to explain directions and procedures, to clarify an issue, and finally to check the students' understanding (Jones, 1995).

Guthrie (1984) studied about the effect of code-switching when the teacher is a monolingual English speaker. He concluded that when the teacher is monolingual, code-switching is useless. Jacobson (1997) has considered code-switching in the bilingual programs as part of teaching methods. He analyzed students' attitude about code-switching and conclude that it has a positive effect on students' acquisition and application of teachers' teaching method. Giauque and Ely (1990) also had a prolonged study of this method in teaching English as a foreign language and proved its usefulness.

Macaro (2001) studied 6 student teachers who taught in comprehensive schools in the south of England. The student teachers taught French (L2) while English was the mother tongue of the pupils. Macaro videotaped the lessons and interviewed the student teachers using the videos as the basis for the interviews. He wanted to find out how much the student teachers used the mother tongue (L1) and thus his analysis was a quantitative one on that part. Furthermore, he asked the student teachers’ reasons for using L1 and what influenced their decision of using L1. He found that very little L1 was used, on average, 5 % of the L1 was used in the lessons. When he interviewed two of the student teachers, he found that their views of code-switching were somewhat different. One of them said that she felt guilty about using L1 and could not justify it; furthermore, she used it in order to get understood and for reprimanding the pupils. The other one saw no conflict in using L1 in the classroom, she felt that no individual

learner should be left in confusion because of not understanding (Macaro, 2001). This study partly shows that code-switching is not perceived as good practice, as one of the informants feels guilty when she uses L1. As the informants were student teachers, their training may partly be the reason for these opinions. The student teachers partly used the National Curriculum or the training program as the basis for their decisions since they had not got a lot of experience in teaching a foreign language.

Söderberg, Arnfast, and Jørgensen (2003) studied students when they were trying to understand by code-switching. Participants of the study were two groups of people who were studying Danish for the first year: one of the groups was American exchange students and the other group was Polish students learning Danish in Poland. The data consisted of interviews, which were recorded and transcribed, but the participants were not observed otherwise. The interviews were done several times during one year of study to see whether there was a change in the students' use of code-switching during that period of time. The researchers' aim was to find out whether learners developed their code-switching practices while learning a second language, and whether they used code-switching as an acquisition policy. Their results showed that code-switching strategy results in developments in the learning of a second language and that code-switching is used as a learning strategy. They found out that as the American English learners advanced in their study of Danish, their use of code-switching became more confident in the interviews, they did not hesitate, although at the beginning, code-switching was used to keep the conversation flowing but as they advanced in their studies code-switching was used for self- styling. At the end of their first year, Americans had a fluent conversational style in Danish talk with English words in it. The Polish learners showed similar results to American ones.

Söderberg, Arnfast, and Jørgensen's study satisfies new and refreshing information to the field of code-switching research (2003). They state that the discrepancy between the acquisition view of code-switching of learners as L1-based communication strategy and the bilingualism view of code-switching as a part of communicative competence should be eliminated since, first of all, no bilinguals gain training in code-switching. Secondly, if bilinguals use code-switching for rather advanced goals, there is no reason to expect monolinguals and other learners to use code-switching only when they are hopeless in learning foreign language. Thirdly, as

code-switching is something that learners do almost automatically, they could benefit from being taught how and when to use code-switching more consciously (Söderberg, Arnfast, & Jørgensen, 2003). All in all, these results suggest that code-switching is a skill mastered by students.

Myyryläinen and Pietikäinen (1988, as sited in Reini, 2008) studied teachers' opinions about the use of the mother tongue and the target language in foreign language classrooms in Finland and the teachers' reasons for the choice of language. They used a questionnaire and recorded and transcribed lessons as data. However, their focus was not on code-switching that occurs in the classroom, they wanted to find out how much foreign language, there was in the foreign language classroom; in addition, what the teachers think of this situation. Their results showed that foreign language was used quite a lot in foreign language classrooms; Finnish was reserved for grammar teaching and matters not relate to the lesson. However, Finnish could be used other times as well, for instance, when ensuring comprehension or when maintaining discipline.

Sundelin (2001) studied code-switching and especially the reasons for the teachers who were switching from one language to the other. Furthermore, she wanted to know which issues have impact on the teacher's choice of language i.e. the students, the content and the context, and/or attitudes and beliefs of the individual teacher. Her data consisted of questionnaires to teachers. Her results showed that in a foreign language classroom, a lot of mother tongue was still used even in situations where the foreign language could be used. When resorting to the mother tongue, the teacher takes away the opportunity for the students to communicate naturally in the foreign language.

Most of the traditional studies did not consider educational situations and only considered code-switching in natural discourse that is completely different from the usual conversation situation. These studies differ from the present study in that they did not take into account the effect of code-switching in a special skill in the classroom. However, we might expect classroom code-switching to differ in several important respects from code-switching in natural discourse. In this sense, the present study will bring new information to the issue of effects of code-switching in improving speaking skill in English as a foreign language classroom.

2.2.3.6. English songs as the ice-breaker

Ellis (1999) mentioned that students for focusing in their learning tasks and to feel secure and free of stress, need fun and useful activities, and this is up to teacher to provide different tools for encouraging and also involving students in learning process. Gardner (1983) in his famous multiple intelligence theory introduced music as an intelligence and said that teachers by using songs through the curriculum can greatly develop musical intelligence.

There are lots of research studies all of which them proved that songs are very useful in retention of learners' acquired knowledge in their long term memory (Finacchiaro & Bonomo, 1973; Krashen and Terrell, 1983; Oxford, 1990; Chazin & Neuschatz, 1990; Yalch, 1991; Griffee, 1992; McElhinney, Annet, and Wallace, 1996; Widdoson, 1998). But according to Falioni (1993), the value of song decreased and it is often considered as entertainment and recreation. Hasani, Rahmani, and Afsharfard (2014) studied the effect of songs on upper-intermediate Iranian EFL learners. The results showed that performance of the students who used songs in their learning materials are much better than the other group who received spoken text. They measured the amount of improvement for grammar and reading skill and concluded that retention and recall of experimental group was significantly better than control group.

According to their findings, most of the EFL learners showed positive attitude toward using songs and mentioned that it facilitated their learning. These findings are in line with Falioni (1993), Chastain (1998), Carter (1998), and Finacchiaro and Bonomo (1973) .

Rafiee, Kassaian, and Dastjerdi (2010) have done another research about effect of songs on Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension. Their study showed that the performance of the students that used songs, outperformed the other students, but there was not any difference in their immediate and delayed recall test scores. They considered songs as humor and a positive tool and said that by using those, students get rid of their psychological barriers and it can be accomplished by frequent use. According to implications of their study, by creating an enjoyable setting, students' motivation for learning English would increase and their anxiety and stress would decrease. They also mentioned that by applying these kinds of tools, EFL teachers would be more successful in their teaching process.

Rahbar and Khodabakhsh (2013) investigated the effectiveness of songs and lyrics in EFL adult learners' listening and concluded that it could bring about enjoyment, authenticity and new insights to the classroom atmosphere. Shen (2009) by considering factors such as psychological implications, stimulation of affective learning, and promoting language awareness explained the effectiveness of using songs in EFL classes. Alipour , Gorjian, and Zafari (2012) proved songs as a useful pedagogical material in teaching vocabulary. Ulate (2007) said that students of all ages are strongly interested in music and by using it they can understand and produce different sounds and suprasegmental features. He concluded that music as an effective means improves students' English pronunciation and also familiarizes them with connected speech. According to Ulate (2007) "there are many different advantages of using songs: establishing a positive learning state, energizing learning activities, increasing attention, improving memory, releasing tension, enhancing imagination, developing inspiration and motivation, and adding an element of fun" (p.95). Ulate (2007) mentioned that "songs tend to have simplified, colloquial language, use natural rhythm, stress, intonation, contractions, slang, expressions, idioms, authentic material and communicative repetition, all of which help to build vocabulary and other language structures in way that is stress-free for many" (p.95).

Ulate (2007) by considering Krashen's input hypothesis that believes we acquire language instead of learning it, mentioned music as a helpful comprehensible input for better understanding and acquiring second language. He claimed that English songs in learning environment decreases affective filter and by considering extrinsic and intrinsic motivation said that songs can provide a good way for being a successful learner.

Martin (1983) and MC Carthey (1985) pointed out that music can help in acquiring all linguistic skills (Writing, Speaking, Reading, and Listening). Horwitz (1986) claimed that it may be easier for learners to learn skills of language but while learning speaking they have mental block against it. So, teachers must use useful tools for removing this mental block. They said that music by decreasing anxiety breaks this mental block. Quast (1999) examined the affective use of music in classroom and argued that it even have positive effect in passive use i.e. using background music in teaching curriculum.

2.3. Conclusion

The only thing that researcher would like to mention is that this study is in line with what was done by most of the researchers she mentioned in this chapter but this study is different from above mentioned studies in one way, because any of them did not consider different kinds of ice-breaker activities in their study at the same time. Also, it is originality of this study that as we know it is the only research study that was done about using ice-breaker activities in upper-intermediate adult learners' speaking skill. In this sense, the present study will bring new information to the issue of effect and functions of ice-breaker activities, considering learners' proficiency level, age, and gender.

CHAPTER THREE

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter composes the framework of the study. Before presenting forthcoming topics, the aim of this study will be considered. As it was mentioned earlier, there were some purposes that promoted the study. This research was mainly an attempt to (a) apply predictable activities as an ice-breaking tool for developing speaking ability of learners (b) study the extent of ice-breakers' effects on students' motivation to speak (c) improve and facilitate speaking ability among upper-intermediate English learners (d) study factors which can be considered in testing speaking ability of EFL learners (E) measure the amount of students' speaking ability by considering their gender (F) consider the time that teachers use ice-breakers as a strategy to improve oral ability in English language classroom.

At this point, the steps taken to that end are specified. The participants section details the population from which the sample was selected. The instrumentation section deals with the instruments or data gathering devices used to describe and measure aspects of subjects using ice-breaking activities and its effects on speaking as well as factors which can be considered in testing speaking. The procedure section outlines the research plan. Next, there is the design section that delineates the design of the study.

3.2. Restatement of Research Questions

As mentioned earlier in chapter one, this study aimed at answering the following questions:

1- Does providing students with ice- breaking tasks have any effect on their speaking ability?

2- To what extent do ice-breakers improve speaking?

3- What factors can be considered in testing speaking ability of EFL learners?

4- What is the effect of using ice-breakers in improving every factor, (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and fluency) that considered in testing learners' speaking ability?

5- Is there any significant difference in using ice- breaking activities in relation to students' gender?

6- When do teachers use ice- breaking as a strategy to improve oral ability in English classrooms?

3.3. Research Setting

This research was conducted at American Culture Institute of Erzurum branch, Turkey in 2013-2014. Students' age range was of 20-27, and their average age was about 22 years and 2 months. They were both male and female and all of them were foreign language learners of English. Following sample speaking tests of International English Language Testing System (IELTS), upper-intermediate level learners were chosen for the study.

The data were collected through some steps. These steps included preliminary visit, visiting the headmaster and asking the data about the students as participants, visiting the teachers, giving the pre-test, giving the treatment, giving the post-test, and interview with teachers.

1. Preliminary visit. As the first step in gathering data, the researcher visited the institute for having some general information about participants. She explained the purpose of the study and asked whether or not the institute could be used as the research setting.

2. Visiting the headmaster. In the first visit, also an appointment was arranged for visiting the head of the institute. The permission letter for research was taken in this contact (Appendix).

3. Visiting the teachers: In this contact, researcher met the teachers who would take part in the study and gave some general information about the research procedure.

4. Giving the pre-test. In this session, a speaking pre-test was administered to both of experimental and control group to ensure that both groups were in the same

speaking level. Speaking test was chosen from IELTS sample questions.

5. Giving the treatment. In this session, the experimental group was given the treatment and taught by using "Ice- breakers". The control group was taught by the same material without using "Ice- breakers".

6. Giving the post-test. The post-test of speaking was done at the end of the term. This test was done for both the experimental and the control group. It was given to measure students' achievement in speaking skill after giving the treatment. Also, test questions again were chosen from IELTS sample questions.

7. Interview with the teachers. Through interview with teachers who were teaching in the experimental and control groups and also two other experienced teachers, their opinions about the use of ice-breaking activities as a motivating strategy were learnt.

3.4. Participants

The type of sampling employed in this study was the available group sampling. That is, the unit of selection was not an individual, but two groups of individuals being randomized from several groups, i.e. from all the upper-intermediate language proficiency EFL learners' classes at American Culture Institute of Erzurum Branch, Turkey, in academic year of 2013-2014. Our target sample of learners consisted of one hundred participants.

They were divided into ten classes and the resultant sample comprised of classes with ten students in each, which means all groups were at upper-intermediate language proficiency level with one hundred male and female students (50 male and 50 female).

3.4.1. Experimental Group

Participants in the experimental group were fifty advanced students of an English training program from American Culture Institute of Erzurum Branch, Turkey. After the sample speaking IELTS test, they were chosen. All the students in the experimental group were given treatment on ice-breaking activities. Around fifteen minutes of per course time was granted to working on such ice-breaking tasks.

3.4.2. Control Group

Control group participants were fifty upper-intermediate students of English training program from American Culture Institute of Erzurum Branch, Turkey. They were also chosen after the sample speaking IELTS test. The participants in the control group were given no ice-breaking treatment.

3.5. Variables and Indicators of the Research

Generally there are two kinds of variables in most of the experimental research studies: dependent and independent variable (Kerlinger, 1986). According to Payne and Payne (2004), variables are the objects of the study that become research focus. Independent variable is considered as the cause, whereas dependent variable is considered as the effect. So, in this study, we considered two variables: independent and dependent. Independent variable refers to using ice- breaking activities. Dependent variable refers to the achievement of the students in speaking fluently.

3.6. Technique of Data Collection

In gaining the data, following techniques were employed.

1. Documentation. Researcher investigated the written objects such as books, magazines, documents, diaries, websites and etc., which included information about different kinds of ice-breakers. Also, the documents related to the object of research such as students name list, their proficiency levels, and English scores in previous tests were examined.

2. Test: The sample questions of IELTS were used to know the difference

of learning result between the experimental group that was taught by "ice-breakers" and the control group that was taught without using " ice-breakers ", in order to determine if the use of the strategy was effective or not.

But, before testing hypotheses and comparing students' academic achievement levels, a normality and homogeneity test were done for determining the legality of samples. Students' previous scores were used for these tests.

a. Normality Test: It was used to analyze the normal distribution of learners in both groups, considering their age and gender.

b. Homogeneity Test: It was done to show the variance of the population in both experimental and control groups.

2.1. Pre-test. This test was given before the experiment was run. It was used to see the starting point of speaking ability of the two groups.

2.2. Post-test. The test was done for the purpose of determining the amount of improvement in participants' speaking skill. It was done for both the experimental group and control group.

The experimental group was trained by "Ice-Breakers ", and the control group was trained without using "Ice-Breakers".

3.7. Scoring Technique

The sample IELTS speaking test was given to the students to analyze their abilities on pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and fluency. Analytical scoring of speaking which was based on "*Language Assessment: Principles and Classroom Practices*", (Brown, 2004) can be seen in table 3.1.

Table 3.1.

Language Assessment

Aspects	Score	Description
Vocabulary	1	Speaking vocabulary inadequate to express anything but the most elementary needs.
	2	Has speaking vocabulary sufficient to express him/ herself simply with some circumlocutions.
	3	Able to speak language with sufficient vocabulary.
	4	Can understand and participate with a high degree of precision of vocabulary.
	5	Speech on all levels is fully accepted.
Grammar	1	Errors in grammar are frequent but can be understood
	2	Can usually handle elementary construction quite accurately but does not have through or confident control of grammar
	3	Control of grammar is good
	4	Able to use language accurately and errors in grammar are quite rare.
	5	Equivalent.

Table 3.1. *(Continued)*

Pronunciation	1	Errors in pronunciation are frequent but can be understood.
	2	Accent is intelligible though often quite faulty.
	3	Errors never interfere with understanding and rarely disturb.
	4	Errors in pronunciation are rare.
	5	Equivalent to and fully accepted.
Fluency	1	No specific fluency description.
	2	Can handle with confidence but not with social situation.
	3	Rarely has to group words.
	4	Able to use the language fluently on all levels.
	5	Has complete fluency in the language.

Analytical scoring of speaking has four items and per item scores 5. So, the final maximum score can be 100.

3.8. Interview

According to Merriam (1998), main purpose of an interview is obtaining information that was not observed during the observation.

There were four interviews, two with the teachers of the experimental and control groups and two with the teachers who did not take part in this study. The interviews were in English and Turkish. Due to the fact that English was not teachers' mother tongue, researcher, sometimes during the interview, switched code from English to Turkish and in fact used code-switching as an ice-breaker while questioning. These interviews were useful. Because they allowed the researcher to get important input about teachers and also the techniques and approaches which they were applying before this study and the methods that they will use in their future teaching experiences. Data obtained from these interviews, answered last question of this research.

3.9. Researcher's Role

According to Nagy, Berninger, and Abbott (2006), in a study researcher may have two roles: participant role and observer role. In this study, the researcher did not play a participant role but, she acted as an observer and also as a facilitator. Similar to Perry's (2012) case study, researcher as a facilitator, concerned the direction of the

instruction session, helped in doing activities as a motivator while students were developing the tasks.

She also gave feedback elicited information from the student. Furthermore, the researcher observed teachers' strategies and behaviors during the class, and gathered information by means of note taking.

3.10. Procedure

Firstly, it should be mentioned that a pilot study was conducted to determine whether or not the items and the scales demand any modifications. The results of pilot test proved the positive effect of using ice-breaker activities in improving adult Turkish EFL learners" speaking skills. Then, on the basis of the result, one hundred students, whose homogeneities were confirmed beforehand, were selected and divided into two groups of fifty (members each), one of the groups was considered as the control group and the other one was considered as the experimental group. As a next step, the pre-test of speaking test was taken of both the experimental and control group to ensure that both groups were in the same speaking level. Speaking test was chosen from IELTS sample questions.

During the study both groups attended English classes two times a week throughout the term (about 9 weeks, 3 hours per day). The teachers were different, but both of them used the same book in teaching (Travelers, B2, 2012). Each unit started with a topic page, including the topic of the unit and related pictures. This page gives useful hints to teacher to choose the appropriate kind of brainstorming and ice-breaking activities. In the experimental group, the teacher gave the participants ice-breaking to motivate them for participation, however, participants of control group just used activities which were given in their books.

After seventeen sessions, a similar IELTS sample speaking test was given as a post test. The collected data were carefully examined and contrasted using the ANOVA, independent-sample-T-test, and paired sample t-test to notice whether there has been any considerable difference between two groups. The results are reported, and discussed in chapter four. In order to accomplish the other purpose of the study, i.e. verifying teachers’ ideas about using ice-breakers as a strategy to improve oral ability in English

language classroom, the researcher developed and administered an interview with teachers at the end of the sessions. Prior to that, the teachers were briefed on the concept of ice-breakers and unknown points were clarified by the researcher (mostly by giving an example). The last part of this study deals with qualitative analysis of teachers' answers.

3.11. Design

Since real random selection of the subjects was impossible, the researcher made use of intact groups based on the students' previous general English test scores. The collected data underwent quantitative and qualitative analyses. Therefore the design which could fit this study was quasi-experimental design and included the pre-test, post-test pattern. The diagram of such a design is as follows:

Table 3.2.

Design of the Study

G1(experimental)	pre-test	X	post-test
G2(control)	pre-test		post-test

In this study, ice-breaking was the independent variable and speaking skill was the dependent variable. Thus the effectiveness of ice-breaking was analyzed quantitatively by the analysis of students' previous general English test scores, pre-test, and post-test scores. To do quantitative analysis, statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18 was used in which normality and homogeneity test, independent T-test, Pearson correlation test, and Paired t-test were run. To do qualitative data analysis, teachers' answers in interviews were analyzed descriptively.

In this chapter, attempts were made to demonstrate how the study was conducted. For any interested reader, especially those who may probably intend to replicate the research, a thorough explanation of the foregoing analyses is submitted in chapter four.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

The first class of data in this research comprised of one group of scores which were got from two groups of fifty who took part in the study. These scores showed their general English proficiency level and were used for calculating normality and homogeneity of data. Second set of data comprised of two groups of scores which showed speaking ability of learners. In order to do statistical analysis, the researcher used the SPSS 18 statistical software. Scores of pre-test exposed that students in the control and experimental groups statistically were almost in the same level and they had homogenous language proficiency.

Next the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test were found by statistical procedure of an independent T-test which was run by SPSS. It was done to find about any significant difference between the control and the experimental groups.

Then paired t-test showed the correlation between four factors considered in testing speaking ability (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and fluency). Another paired t-test also showed the variance between experimental group's scores and learners' gender after treatment.

Last part of data for this investigation consisted of four interviews that clarified teachers' points of view about usage of ice- breakers.

4.2. First Analysis

4.2.1. Normality Test

At the first step, normality test was used to check whether both groups were normally distributed. As mentioned before, in many statistical analyses there are "dependent and independent variables". Dependent variable may depend on other

factors. The main depending variable in this study was the achievement of the students in speaking fluently. In this case, exam scores also, as a variable, may change depending on students' level, age, and gender. Independent variable does not depend on other factors. The main independent variable of this study was the use of ice-breaker activities. Students' group, age and gender also do not change depending on exam scores.

In most of statistical methods such as " Discriminant analysis"," Linear regression", "Pearson correlation", and "f-test, t-test", the dependent variable need to be approximately normally distributed for each category of the independent variables (Löfgren, 2013). The normal curve is "bell shape" curve and in this study, the exam scores need to be approximately normally distributed for both experimental and control group, depending on age and gender.

According to Löfgren (2013), for testing normality of data, following numerical and visual outputs had been investigated:

- "The Skewness and Kurtosis z-values (should be somewhere in the span of -1.96 to + 1.96)

- The Shapiro- Wilk test p-value (should be above 0.05)

- Histograms, Normal Q-Q plots and Box plots" (should visually show that our data are approximately normally distributed) (Löfgren, 2013).

Löfgren (2013) pointed out that the important matter about normality test is that the data do not have to be completely normally distributed. They should approximately normally distribute.

The researcher checked each category of independent variables, i.e., the distribution of students in experimental and control group by considering their gender and age.

Table 4.1.

Case Processing Summary of Groups

Group		Cases					
		Valid		Missing		Total	
		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Previous test scores	**Experimental group**	50	100.0%	0	0.0%	50	100.0%
	Control group	50	100.0%	0	0.0%	50	100.0%

Table 4.2.

Statistical Descriptive of Groups

	GROUP			Statistic	Std. Error
Previous test scores	**Experimental group**	Mean		79.3000	1.02827
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	77.2336	
			Upper Bound	81.3664	
		5% Trimmed Mean		79.4222	
		Median		80.0000	
		Variance		52.867	
		Std. Deviation		7.27099	
		Minimum		65.00	
		Maximum		92.00	
		Range		27.00	
		Interquartile Range		12.25	
		Skewness		-.189	.337
		Kurtosis		-.983	.662
	Control group	Mean		77.6600	.95772
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	75.7354	
			Upper Bound	79.5846	
		5% Trimmed Mean		77.6444	
		Median		78.0000	
		Variance		45.862	
		Std. Deviation		6.77212	
		Minimum		65.00	
		Maximum		90.00	
		Range		25.00	
		Interquartile Range		10.00	
		Skewness		.137	.337
		Kurtosis		-.610	.662

Table 4.1. and 4.2. show the general view of two groups before treatment. Table 4.1. shows numbers and percentages of participants in both experimental and control groups. In Table 4.2., first focus is on Skewness and Kurtosis. The numbers in the left column are measures and standard deviations are in the right column. As Löfgren

(2013) indicates, in SPSS, "Skewness and Kurtosis measures should be as close to zero as possible. In fact, most of the times data are skewed and kurtotic, but a small departure from zero does not make problem, as long as the measures are not too large compared to their standard errors" (Löfgren, 2013). As a consequence the researcher divided the measure by its standard errors in each case and results showed z-values which should be between -1.96 and +1.96.

Skewness for experimental group = -0.560

Kurtosis for experimental group = -1.41

Skewness for control group = 0.406

Kurtosis for control group = -0.921

These values are neither below -1. 96 nor above +1. 96. So, regarding skewness and kurtosis, data are a little skewed and kurtotic in both experimental and control group but their normality is acceptable. The researcher can assume that the data are normally distributed in terms of skewness and kurtosis.

The Table 4.3. represents Shapiro-Wilk's statistics:

Table 4.3.

Tests of Normality for Groups

	Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Previous test score	**Experimental group**	.101	50	.200*	.960	50	.088
	Control group	.091	50	.200*	.964	50	.132

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

According the test of normality, the data must be normally distributed. So, if the p-value is below 0.05, the data are not distributed normally. In SPSS the p-value is labeled as "sig". According to Table 4.3., in this case, p-value for experimental group is 0.088 and for control group it is 0.132. Both of them are above 0.05. So, we can conclude that the data are approximately normally distributed.

Next graphical analysis of data in box plot showed that although they are not perfectly symmetrical but they are approximately normally distributed.

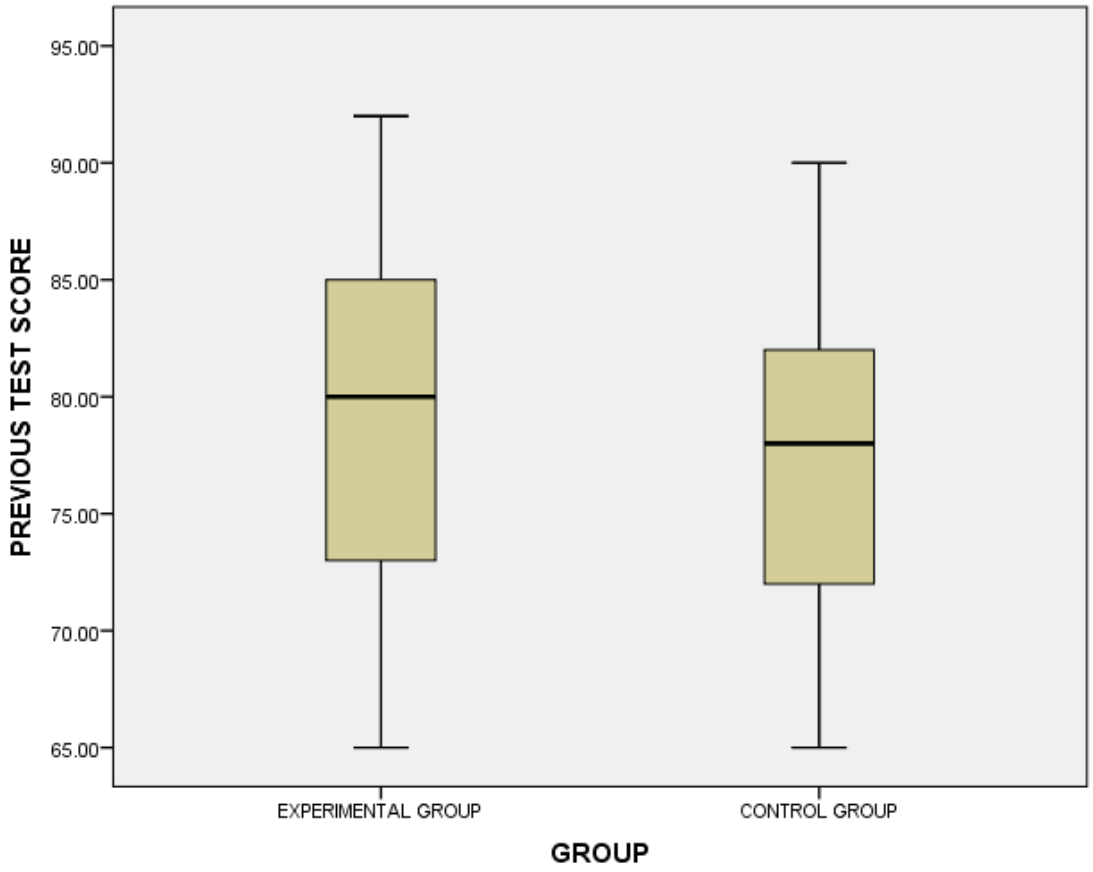


Figure 4.1. Boxplot : Normal Q-Q plots for normality of experimental group

The same procedure was done for measuring normality of gender and age of participants of both groups. As the tables show below:

Table 4.4.

GENDER: Case Processing Summary of Participants' Gender

	Gender	Cases					
		Valid		Missing		Total	
		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Previous test score	**Female**	50	100.0%	0	0.0%	50	100.0%
	Male	50	100.0%	0	0.0%	50	100.0%

Table 4.5.

Descriptives Statistics of Participants' Gender

	GENDER			Statistic	Std. Error
Previous test score	**Female**	Mean		79.0800	.97931
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	77.1120	
			Upper Bound	81.0480	
		5% Trimmed Mean		79.1556	
		Median		79.5000	
		Variance		47.953	
		Std. Deviation		6.92479	
		Minimum		65.00	
		Maximum		90.00	
		Range		25.00	
		Interquartile Range		11.25	
		Skewness		-.045	.337
		Kurtosis		-.957	.662
	Male	Mean		77.8800	1.01404
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	75.8422	
			Upper Bound	79.9178	
		5% Trimmed Mean		77.8778	
		Median		78.0000	
		Variance		51.414	
		Std. Deviation		7.17035	
		Minimum		65.00	
		Maximum		92.00	
		Range		27.00	
		Interquartile Range		12.50	
		Skewness		.025	.337
		Kurtosis		-.798	.662

Skewness for Female = -0.133

Kurtosis for Female = -1.44

Skewness for Male = - 0.074

Kurtosis for Male = -1.20

According to statistics of Table 4.4. and 4.5. values are neither below -1.96 nor above +1.96. So, regarding skewness and kurtosis, data are a little skewed and kurtotic in both female and male but they do not differ significantly from normality.

In this step Shapiro-Wilk's statistics is considered for male and female participants:

Table 4.6.

Tests of Normality for Participants' Gender

	GENDER	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Previous test score	**Female**	.085	50	.200*	.961	50	.094
	Male	.104	50	.200*	.969	50	.209

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

In this case p-value for female is 0.094 and for male it is 0.209. Both of them are above 0.05. So, the data are approximately normally distributed according their age.

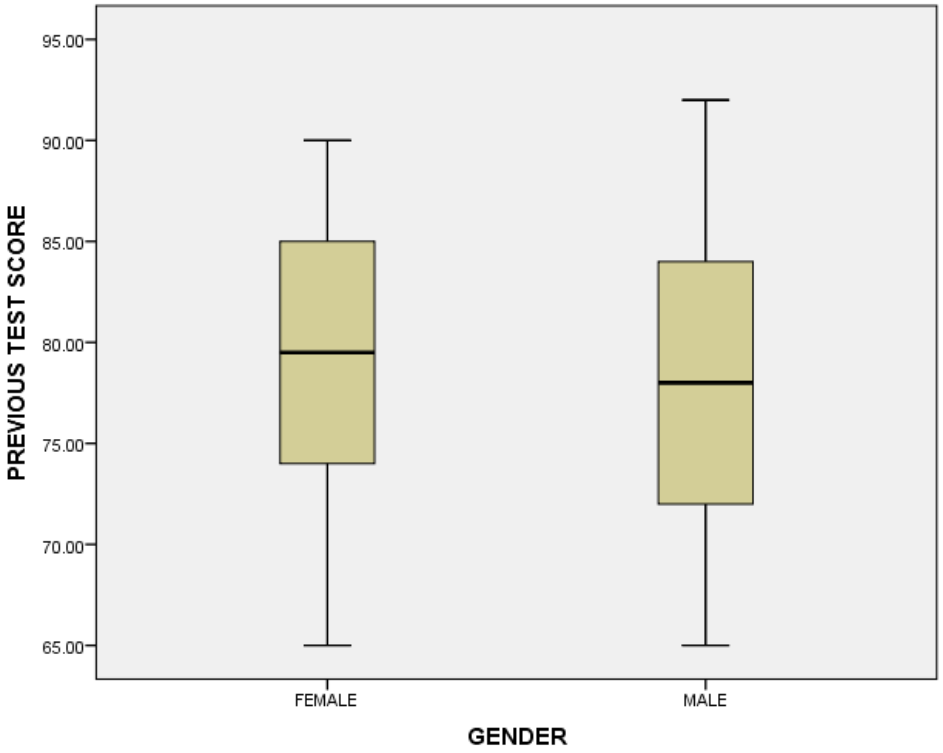


Figure 4.2. Boxplot: Normal Q-Q plots for normality for gender of participants

Graphical analysis of data in box plots in Figure 4.2. showed that although they are not perfectly symmetrical, they are approximately normally distributed.

Table 4.7.

Age: Case Processing Summary

	AGE	Cases					
		Valid		Missing		Total	
		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Previous test score	20.00	12	100.0%	0	0.0%	12	100.0%
	21.00	14	100.0%	0	0.0%	14	100.0%
	22.00	17	100.0%	0	0.0%	17	100.0%
	23.00	23	100.0%	0	0.0%	23	100.0%
	24.00	18	100.0%	0	0.0%	18	100.0%
	25.00	9	100.0%	0	0.0%	9	100.0%
	26.00	7	100.0%	0	0.0%	7	100.0%

Table 4.8.

Descriptive statistics of Participants' Age

	AGE			Statistic	Std. Error
Previous test score	20.00	Mean		80.9167	2.16885
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	76.1431	
			Upper Bound	85.6903	
		5% Trimmed Mean		81.0185	
		Median		81.0000	
		Variance		56.447	
		Std. Deviation		7.51312	
		Minimum		68.00	
		Maximum		92.00	
		Range		24.00	
		Interquartile Range		12.25	
		Skewness		-.252	.637
		Kurtosis		-.582	1.232
	21.00	Mean		76.9286	1.88535
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	72.8555	
			Upper Bound	81.0016	
		5% Trimmed Mean		76.8651	
		Median		77.0000	
		Variance		49.764	
		Std. Deviation		7.05434	
		Minimum		65.00	
		Maximum		90.00	
		Range		25.00	
		Interquartile Range		12.50	
		Skewness		.123	.597
		Kurtosis		-.651	1.154
	22.00	Mean		78.3529	1.78214
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	74.5750	
			Upper Bound	82.1309	
		5% Trimmed Mean		78.4477	
		Median		79.0000	
		Variance		53.993	
		Std. Deviation		7.34797	
		Minimum		65.00	

Table 4.8. *(Continued)*

Previous test score		Maximum		90.00	
		Range		25.00	
		Interquartile Range		14.50	
		Skewness		-.373	.550
		Kurtosis		-.925	1.063
	23.00	Mean		76.5652	1.29735
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	73.8747	
			Upper Bound	79.2557	
		5% Trimmed Mean		76.6836	
		Median		78.0000	
		Variance		38.711	
		Std. Deviation		6.22185	
		Minimum		65.00	
		Maximum		86.00	
		Range		21.00	
		Interquartile Range		9.00	
		Skewness		-.236	.481
		Kurtosis		-.647	.935
	24.00	Mean		78.2778	1.53565
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	75.0378	
			Upper Bound	81.5177	
		5% Trimmed Mean		78.0864	
		Median		76.0000	
		Variance		42.448	
		Std. Deviation		6.51519	
		Minimum		70.00	
		Maximum		90.00	
		Range		20.00	
		Interquartile Range		9.75	
		Skewness		.485	.536
		Kurtosis		-.848	1.038
	25.00	Mean		82.0000	1.80278
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	77.8428	
			Upper Bound	86.1572	
		5% Trimmed Mean		81.9444	
		Median		80.0000	
		Variance		29.250	
		Std. Deviation		5.40833	
		Minimum		75.00	
		Maximum		90.00	
		Range		15.00	
		Interquartile Range		10.00	
		Skewness		.183	.717
		Kurtosis		-1.530	1.400
	26.00	Mean		80.0000	3.92792
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	70.3887	
			Upper Bound	89.6113	
		5% Trimmed Mean		80.1111	
		Median		82.0000	
		Variance		108.000	
		Std. Deviation		10.39230	
		Minimum		68.00	
		Maximum		90.00	
		Range		22.00	

Table 4.8. *(Continued)*

Previous test score	Interquartile Range	20.00	
	Skewness	-.150	.794
	Kurtosis	-2.569	1.587

Skewness for age 20= -0.395
Kurtosis for age 20 = -0.472
Skewness for age 21 = 0.206
Kurtosis for age 21 = -0.564
Skewness for age 22= -0.678
Kurtosis for age 22= -0.870
Skewness for age 23= -0.49
Kurtosis for age 23 = -0.691
Skewness for age 24= 0.90
Kurtosis for age 24 = -0.81
Skewness for age 25= 0.255
Kurtosis for age 25 = -1.09
Skewness for age 26= -0.188
Kurtosis for age 26 = -1.618

As statistics of Tables 4.7. and 4.8. show, values of ages are neither below -1.96 nor above +1.96. So, regarding skewness and kurtosis, data do not differ significantly from normality.

According to Shapiro-Wilk's statistics:

Table 4.9.

Tests of Normality for Age of Participants

	Age	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Previous test score	20.00	.118	12	.200*	.961	12	.802
	21.00	.123	14	.200*	.975	14	.934
	22.00	.187	17	.118	.939	17	.305
	23.00	.113	23	.200*	.962	23	.508
	24.00	.193	18	.076	.915	18	.108
	25.00	.200	9	.200*	.934	9	.519
	26.00	.261	7	.164	.788	7	.031

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

According to results of Shapiro-Wilk's statistics in Table 4.9., P-value for all age groups is above 0.05. So, therefore, considering participants' age, they are approximately normally distributed in two groups.

Also, graphical analysis of data on below box plot proves this:

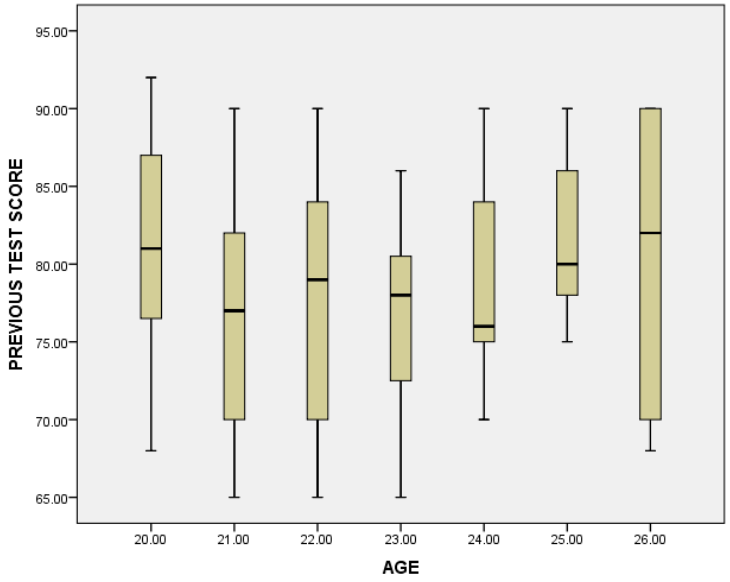


Figure 4.3. Boxplot : Normal Q-Q plots for age normality of participants

4.2.2. Homogeneity Test

Homogeneity test is a test for equality of variances and in SPSS it can be measured by Levene's test. Löfgren (2013), pointed out that equality of variances can be computed for parametric and nonparametric statistical methods: Analysis of variance, ANOVA can be used for a parametric method and, Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis can be used for a nonparametric method.

Data of this study are normally distributed; therefore parametric Levene's test was applied for testing equality of variances.

In SPSS, the parametric Levene's test (for normally distributed data) is built into the ANOVA procedure. So, the researcher ran the ANOVA. Tables 4.10 and 4.11 show the results of one way ANOVA test.

Table 4.10.

Oneway:Test of Homogeneity of Variance between Groups

PREVIOUS TEST SCORE			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.790	1	98	.376

Table 4.11.

ANOVA: Previous Test Scores of Groups

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	67.240	1	67.240	1.362	.246
Within Groups	4837.720	98	49.364		
Total	4904.960	99			

According to the parametric Levene's test, there must be an equality of variance. In this case, if the p-value was below 0.05, we could say that there is not equality of variances between groups, but according to Table 4.11, the p-value or sig is 0.246> 0.05. So, there is equality of variances between groups.

As a result, a Levene's test verified the equality of variances in the samples of this study (homogeneity of variance) (p>0.05) (Martin and Bridgmon, 2012).

4.3. Second Analysis

As already mentioned, in the beginning of the semester a pre-test that consisted of sample IELTS speaking questions, was given to participants to measure their speaking ability. Then a similar test was given as a post-test at the end of semester to measure the amount of progress in both experimental and control groups.

Because scores of pre-test and post-test were given by two raters, estimating the inter-rater reliability was necessary for determining reliability of scores. Pearson correlation test was used for this purpose. Table 4.12 and 4.13 show that correlations between the scores of the raters are significant at levels below 0.01 which, obviously, means the raters were in agreement over the achievements of the participants.

Table 4.12.

Correlations of Inter-Rater Reliability (Pre-Test)

		PRE-TEST	PRE-TEST-2ND RATER
Pre-test	Pearson Correlation	1	1.000**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	100	100
Pre-test-2nd rater	Pearson Correlation	1.000**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	100	188

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.13.

Correlations of Inter-Rater Reliability (Post-Test)

		POST-TEST	POST-TEST-2ND RATER
Post-test	Pearson Correlation	1	1.000**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	100	100
Post-test-2nd rater	Pearson Correlation	1.000**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	100	100

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As the tables 4.12 and 4.13 show, correlation between the scores of both raters is almost 0.000, that are less than 0.01. it and it means that there was no significant difference between two groups of scores.

In the next step, the test scores of the pre-test were used to compute the independent –samples T-test analysis for examining initial homogeneity of the groups in speaking ability. Table 4.14 and 4.15 show the descriptive statistics of independent T-test:

Table 4.14.

T-Test: Group Statistics: Initial Homogeneity of Groups

	GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	**Experimental group**	50	44.7000	6.88165	.97321
	Control group	50	44.2000	6.57453	.92978

Table 4.15.

Independent Samples Test: Equality of Means

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pre-test	Equal variances assumed	.208	.650	.371	98	.711	.50000	1.34597	-2.17103	3.17103
	Equal variances not assumed			.371	97.796	.711	.50000	1.34597	-2.17110	3.17110

According to statistical data of Tables 4.14 and 4.15, the mean score of the experimental group is 44.7000+_ 6.88165, and for the control group is 44.2000+_ 6.57453. The computed value of T-test is .371 (i.e., t98=.371, p=.711), degree of freedom is 98, and the amount of significance is .711, which is more than 0.05. Thus it can be concluded that the difference between control and experimental groups is not statistically significant and two groups are homogenous in their language proficiency.

4.4. The Post-Test Data Analysis

After 8 weeks and 17 sessions, for computing the amount of progress for all participants of the study, i.e. control and experimental group, a post-test was given to them. There was only one distinction between experimental and control group. Teacher applied ice-breaker activities in the experimental group for improving students' speaking ability but this treatment was not used for the control group. The post-test questions as pre-test questions were chosen from sample IELTS speaking test questions.

An independent-samples T-test was run in SPSS to compute the significance of distinction between post-test means of both groups. Tables 4.16 and 4.17 represent the results of the experimental and control groups in post-tests.

Table 4.16.

T-test: Group Statistics: Post-Test Means of Groups

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post-test	**Experimental group**	50	69.7000	11.96977	1.69278
	Control group	50	54.8000	5.79937	.82015

Table 4.17.

Independent Samples Test for Equality of Means

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Post-test	Equal variances assumed	4.532	.036	7.921	98	.000	14.90000	1.88100	11.16722	18.63278
	Equal variances not assumed			7.921	70.803	.000	14.90000	1.88100	11.14921	18.65079

According to Table 4.16 and 4.17, the mean score of the experimental group's students who used ice-breakers in speaking activities is 69.7000 and the mean of the control group is 54.8000. So the results of this part of analysis can be summarized as: t= 7.921, df= 98, and p= .000. P-value is below 0.05. So, it can be concluded that the difference between the means of experimental and control groups' post-tests is considerably significant.

This part of data analysis answers the first and second research questions and state that there is significant difference between the levels of speaking proficiency of the language learners who use ice- breakers and those who do not. So, the researcher can put a step up and suggest that using ice- breakers in speaking classes at upper-intermediate level has positive effect on EFL learners' speaking ability.

4.5. Factor Analysis: Vocabulary, Grammar, Pronunciation, and Fluency

Previous part of data analysis answered the first and second research questions. This part of data analysis will answer the third and fourth questions. For measuring speaking ability, different factors have been considered by different researchers, but as test questions in this study were chosen from sample IELTS speaking test questions, the researcher applied four factors of vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and fluency for scoring which was based on "*Language Assessment: Principles and Classroom*

Practices", (Brown, 2004).

In this part, researcher used paired sample t-test to measure the effect of using ice-breakers on each factor, before and after treatment. It is used to detect the difference between four dependent variables. So, Table 4.16 shows the correlation of each factor for experimental group in pre-test and post-test.

Table 4.18.

Paired Samples Statistics: Difference between Four Dependent Variables

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	**Pre-test-vocabulary**	10.7000	50	2.02283	.28607
	Post-test-vocabulary	16.6000	50	2.35606	.33320
Pair 2	**Pre-test-grammar**	12.3000	50	2.51729	.35600
	Post-test-grammar	16.8000	50	2.42437	.34286
Pair 3	**Pre-test-pronunciation**	11.9000	50	2.45157	.34670
	Post-test-pronunciation	20.0000	50	3.35030	.47380
Pair 4	**Pre-test-fluency**	9.8000	50	2.66497	.37688
	Post-test-fluency	17.7000	50	3.06561	.43354
Pair 5	**Pre-test**	44.7000	50	6.88165	.97321
	Post-tests	71.1000	50	7.51122	1.06225

Table 4.19.

Paired Samples Test of Four Dependent Variables

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	**Pre-test-vocabulary-post-test-vocabulary**	-5.90000	3.45378	.48844	-6.88155	-4.91845	-12.079	49	.000
Pair 2	**Pre-test-grammar-post-test-grammar**	-4.50000	1.82108	.25754	-5.01754	-3.98246	-17.473	49	.000
Pair 3	**Pre-test- pronunciation - post-test-pronunciation**	-8.10000	2.65153	.37498	-8.85356	-7.34644	-21.601	49	.000
Pair 4	**Pre-test- fluency -post-test-fluency**	-7.90000	2.49285	.35254	-8.60846	-7.19154	-22.409	49	.000
Pair 5	**Pre-test-post-test**	-26.40000	5.89361	.83348	-28.07495	-24.72505	-31.674	49	.000

According to the result of mean scores on Table 4.18 and 4.19, using ice-breaker activities had positive effect in improving all four factors, but the amount of improved scores for pronunciation and fluency were more than vocabulary and grammar. According to the results the most improved factor was pronunciation and the less improved factor was grammar.

Vocabulary mean= 5.90

Grammar mean= 4.50

Pronunciation mean= 8.1

Fluency mean= 7.9

The results of paired sample t-test were significant;

$p<0.05$, and

Vocabulary: t=-12.079, df=49, p=.000

Grammar: t=-17.473, df=49, p=.000

Pronunciation: t=-21.601, df=49, p=.000

Fluency: t=-22.409, df=49, p=.000

According to the above mentioned statistical information, it could be concluded that there is significant increase in all four factors of experimental groups' post-test scores. So, in this part again, the positive effect of using ice-breaker activities in improving upper-intermediate level students' speaking ability was proved.

4.6. The Variance between Female and Male Participants in Using Ice-Breaker activities

This section of data analysis answered the fifth research question and proved if there is any relationship between gender of Turkish EFL learners and the effect of using ice-breaker activities in improving their speaking ability. Following tables show the results.

Table 4.20.

Group Statistics: Ice-Breakers and Students' Gender

	GENDER	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post-tests-vocabulary	**Female**	25	16.8000	2.44949	.48990
	Male	25	16.4000	2.29129	.45826
Post-tests-grammar	**Female**	25	17.0000	2.50000	.50000
	Male	25	16.6000	2.38048	.47610
Post-tests-pronunciation	**Female**	25	20.0000	3.22749	.64550
	Male	25	20.0000	3.53553	.70711
Post-tests-fluency	**Female**	25	18.0000	2.88675	.57735
	Male	25	17.4000	3.26599	.65320
Post-test	**Female**	25	71.8000	6.43558	1.28712
	Male	25	70.4000	8.52936	1.70587

Table 4.21.

Independent Samples Test for Equality of Means

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Post-tests-vocabulary	Equal variances assumed	1.395	.243	.596	48	.554	.40000	.67082	-.94877	1.74877
	Equal variances not assumed			.596	47.788	.554	.40000	.67082	-.94893	1.74893
Post-tests-grammar	Equal variances assumed	1.274	.265	.579	48	.565	.40000	.69041	-.98816	1.78816
	Equal variances not assumed			.579	47.885	.565	.40000	.69041	-.98825	1.78825
Post-tests-pronunciation	Equal variances assumed	.314	.578	.000	48	1.000	.00000	.95743	-1.92504	1.92504
	Equal variances not assumed			.000	47.607	1.000	.00000	.95743	-1.92545	1.92545
Post-test-fluency	Equal variances assumed	.545	.464	.688	48	.495	.60000	.87178	-1.15283	2.35283
	Equal variances not assumed			.688	47.287	.495	.60000	.87178	-1.15351	2.35351
Post-test	Equal variances assumed	1.895	.175	.655	48	.516	1.40000	2.13698	-2.89668	5.69668
	Equal variances not assumed			.655	44.638	.516	1.40000	2.13698	-2.90506	5.70506

As tables indicate, after applying ice-breaker activities, Turkish male and female EFL learners had the same amount of improvement in their speaking skill. Because mean scores of males and females were close to each other in all factors. The amount of p-value or sig for all factors was above 0.05. It means that the significance was not meaningful and ice-breakers did not play different role, in improving performance of males and females.

4.7. Teacher's Comments about Using Ice-Breaker Activities as a Strategy

Another objective in the present study was to assess the teachers' points of view about time of using ice-breakers for adults Turkish EFL learners in upper-intermediate level. This part answers the last research question.

The researcher observed the use of language, interviewed with teachers, and transcribed their answers. Before interview, the researcher explained about different kinds of ice-breakers and clarified the purpose of interview. The interview was done with four teachers, experimental group's teacher, control group's teacher and two other experienced teachers who were teaching English for upper-intermediate groups.

Generally, all of teachers said that before treatment they had limited information about usefulness of using ice-breaker activities for young learners and they thought that adult learners will not like doing this kind of activities.

Experimental group's teacher shared his proved information about usefulness of ice-breaker activities among adult learners and said that most of the students found doing these activities interesting. He said that there were some shy students who did not like to join the activities at first but after a few efforts they apparently preferred to join varied activities. It seemed that using this kind of activities completely increases their attention, risk taking ability, and interest. It also encourages them to promote classroom interaction. His opinions are similar to the findings of Pakdel-Estalkhbijari and Khodareza (2012) who studied the effect of warm-up tasks on students' writing ability.

Control group's teacher approved his colleague's viewpoint and said that by adding these activities to lesson plan, classes would be more motivating.

Two other teachers explained that ice-breaker activities can be used as a motivation means in various stages of the lesson, but teachers must be careful in choosing and integration of appropriate activities related to every lesson. Teacher must clearly explain the procedure before doing any activity to avoid ambiguity in learners. Then teacher and students can develop ideas individually and in groups.

So, according to teachers' claims, using ice-breaker activities for improving adult EFL learners' speaking ability is an effective means that has significant effect on oral

participation and gear current teaching methods toward more affective approaches in teaching speaking.

4.8. Discussion

There have been a few studies in Turkey about the effect of some kinds of ice-breakers on learning skills of children. But, there has been no research done, at least in Turkey, to examine the effect of ice-breaker activities on EFL adult learners. The reason, maybe, is related to teachers' or students' character and/or teaching or other local restrictions.

The main objective of this research was to see the effect of ice-breakers on adult EFL learners' speaking ability. On the other hand, the researcher tried to learn the effect of ice-breaking activities on four factors, i.e. vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and fluency. As such, the underlying first research question is whether ice-breakers have a positive effect on EFL learners’ speaking skill or not. To verify this and to answer the submitted research questions, two groups, after homogenization, were selected and ice-breaker activities were applied in the experimental group during the semester. The results indicated considerable difference between the mean scores of the experimental and the control groups. So, according to the results, performance and the amount of improvement of speaking ability of experimental group students are better than control group and it may answer the first and second research questions positively.

According to the result of factor analysis and information gained from a descriptive analysis of each factor in pre-test and post-test, using ice-breaker activities had a positive effect in improving all four factors, but this effect for pronunciation and fluency was more than the effect for vocabulary and grammar. According to the results the most improved factor was pronunciation and the least improved factor was grammar. Also, it was proved that in applying ice-breaker activities as a useful strategy for improving learners' speaking ability, the degree of improvement for males and females was exactly the same. So, ice-breakers are useful for both male and female learners.

Ice-breaker activities were also, used for participants of the experimental group for effective communication and to motivate and encourage them for being more

successful as English speakers. This proves what has been described in the review of literature (Tsou, 2005; Alipour, Gorjian, and Zafari (2012); Aslanabadi, and Rasouli, (2013); Chazin, and Neuschatz, (1990); Clark, (1998); Crookal, (1990); Dover, (2004); Ersoz, (2000); Falioni, (1993); Griffee, (1992); Hanson, Goodell and Perfetti, (1999); Hasani, Rahmani, and Afsharfard, (2014); Jenkins, (2001) Kayi, (2006); Lee, (1996); Martin, (1983); McCallum, (1980); Pillai, (2007); Preziosi, (1980); Quast, (1999); Rafiee, Kassaian, and Dastjerdi, (2010); Rahbar, and Khodabakhsh, (2013); Reini, (2008); Sapp, (2007); Schlimme, (2002); Shen, (2009); Siegenthaler,(2007); Shen, (2009); Siegenthaler, (2007); Silva-Corvalán, (1983); Scruton, (2011); Shaffer, Squire, Halverson, and Gee, (2005); Sorayaie Azar, (2012); Stuckeys, (2009); Turgut, and Irgin, (2009); Ulate, (2007); Vahdat, and Rasti Behbahani, (2013); Varvel, (2002); Witkowski, (2000); Yeganehpour, (2012); Yusuf, (2009); and Zhang, (2000).

According to the results of this study, it can be put forward that using ice-breakers facilitates the communication among learners and is a good way for avoiding from language barriers. As a communication strategy use of ice-breakers makes oral communication among students more easily and by suppressing the problem of linguistic knowledge of silent learners supports their attention and develops the communication among them.

Although the present study is very introductory, it has exposed that applying ice-breakers in foreign language classrooms for adult learners is a relatively interesting field of research. Further studies in this area will provide more useful and rich information on the subject.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1. Conclusion

The main concern of the present study is ice-breakers. They encourage students to join in speaking activities, even by repeating a few simple sentences, singing funny songs, playing simple games, and even playing a short and funny role. Therefore, ice-breakers may be suggested as interactive tools which enhance meaningful learning and fluent speaking to those who are looking for an effective way of language acquisition.

It seems on the foundations and answers of the questions proposed in this study, the difference between the speaking skill of EFL students who used ice-breakers in English classes (experimental group) and those who did not use this strategy (control group) was considerably meaningful.

Statistical analysis shows that the mean speaking score of the experimental group on post-test is 69.70, and the mean speaking score of control group on post-test is only 54.80. The measured t-value in the t-test is 7.921 and as demonstrated in tables 4.16 and 4.17 shows difference at α=0.05. Consequently, for answering the first research question: Does providing students with ice- breaking tasks have any effect on their speaking ability? ", we can conclude that “There is statistically significant difference between the control and experimental group which can be attributed to the ice-breakers”.

Comparing significant difference between the average speaking proficiency of the participants who used ice- breakers and those who did not use them, shows the amount of ice-breaker activities effect and answers the second research question (To what extent do ice-breakers improve speaking?). So, we can again claim that using ice-breakers in speaking classes at upper-intermediate level has a positive effect on EFL learners’ speaking ability.

The findings of this research are in line with studies that suggest ice-breakers as a natural, purposeful, funny and motivating phenomenon which facilitates, and supports communication, pronunciation, and fluency, and increases risk taking among older learners. Researcher believes that ice-breakers in language classroom do not indicate any kind of breakdown in pedagogical purposes (Forbes- Greene, 1982; Preziosi, 1989; Wright, 1999; Witkowski, 2000; Jenkins, 2001; Varel, 2002; Rodrigues, 2011).

The other major purpose is a step to elucidate the factors for measuring speaking ability of Turkish EFL learners. Factors considered in the study are vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and fluency (Brown, 2004). Paired sample t-test was used to measure the effect of ice-breakers on each factor, before and after treatment. According to results, ice-breaker activities have positive effects in improving all four factors, but the amount of improvements decreases respectively for pronunciation, fluency, vocabulary, and grammar. The most improved factor is pronunciation and the least improved factor is grammar. This part of data analysis answers the third and fourth research questions (What factors can be considered in testing speaking ability of EFL learners? What is the effect of using ice-breakers in improving every factor, vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and fluency that considered in testing learners' speaking ability?).

For answering the fifth research question (What is the variance between using ice-breaker activities and students' gender?) that aims to analyze the correlation of four factors and students' gender in the experimental group, independent t-test was used. Results show that Turkish male and female EFL learners have the same amount of improvement in their speaking skill and their mean scores are close to each other in all factors. The p-value or sig for all factors is above 0.05. It means that the significance was not meaningful and ice-breakers do not play different roles, in improving performance of males and females.

Finally, we have seen that according to four teachers' point of view, who participated in the interview, using ice-breaker activities accelerates learners' linguistic development and this kind of acquisition strategies may have a quite positive effect on confidence and motivation and consequently accelerates the improvement. It needs to be

mentioned that additional studies need to be carried out on ice-breakers and their linguistic, social, and cultural functions at different levels.

5.2. Pedagogical Implications

The research findings have several pedagogical implications. In recent teaching methodologies, the active use of language and involvement of the learners in what is taking place in the classroom are considered as two crucial factors in language learning. In order to meet this criterion requirement in the classroom, the application of ice-breaker activities seems to be of great advantage. This technique increases the participation of the learners and their risk taking ability. After or during speaking activities and discussions, conducting ice-breakers as a strategy of communication helps them feel more comfortable in case of stress and being nervous and embarrassed and consequently keeps the interaction going.

On the other hand, English language teachers who teach upper-intermediate level adult learners have for a very long time been dealt with alleviating students' anxiety and stress in the language acquisition environment. The assumed reasons are minimizing the amount of time spent for learning the target language and then improving language efficiency. However, the issue of facilitating English speaking in the classroom methodologically is very important, and it should have lots of implications for practicing language teachers. It is therefore necessary for us to exactly understand the effectiveness of different kinds of ice-breakers, and till that time prevent making quick and censorious judgments on its classroom indications.

The finding of this study may help EFL teachers to let their students make use of these activities at home for more practice. The traditional system of teaching has accepted that using fun activities may decrease the level of language proficiency. In other words, in most of language courses, the higher the level of language proficiency the lower the frequency of ice-breaker instances. While, on the basis of this study, there is a meaningful relationship between the speaking ability of EFL students who use ice-breakers in speaking classes and those who do not use this strategy.

Teachers may help students to use language as a means of communication. By this way, students are encouraged to speak more comfortably, especially in high levels

that most of their attempt is to find the best structure, to have the best choice of words, and to speak fluently.

It is hoped that this research work provides insights for teachers to apply in their own classrooms. It is also hoped that some of the issue may find its way into an enhanced research agenda, because despite the revived interest, the amount of published research into the area remains disappointedly small.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Research

At the end of a research, one may get the feeling that this is just the beginning. This of course, is by no means regrettable, as no research is complete and comprehensive, and no researcher can claim that the results of his/her study can be applied in all the possible relevant cases.

As is quite conventional in scientific experimentation, the conclusions achieved in current study opens a new avenue for investigation and expand the scope of further research on using ice-breakers for adult high level learners. It is only then that the validity of these research findings can be credited and generalized.

Therefore to obtain optimal results, the researcher recommends the following topics for further research:

- Research can be done on the bases of behaviors of EFL teachers in classrooms in order to find out whether it might enhance language learning.

- Replication of the current study with different cultural groups at higher level of English proficiency needs to be carried out to confirm the results of the present research study.

- Research on the comparison of ice-breakers with adults and children is also in need. For example, there is the diachronic dimension of ice-breakers, its relation to language uses in individuals, and in groups, and societies, which has not yet been studied.

- Some studies are recommended to investigate the effects of ice-breakers on the development of other skills e.g. studies on the effect of ice-breakers on vocabulary acquisition are recommended.

Finally, the researcher hopes the results and implications of this research will be useful to administrators and practitioners in similar contexts that are making decisions affecting EFL learners' speaking behavior.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX I. Institute Administration Approval

10.06.2013
Parisa Yeganehpour

Head of American Culture Institute, Erzurum Branch

I am Parisa Yeganehpour, a PHD candidate in Foreign Language Education faculty of English Language Teaching at Ataturk University. I am currently working on my dissertation. My dissertation topic is "The effect of using ice-breakers on EFL learners' speaking skill. The purpose of this study is to apply pridectable activities as an ice-breaking tool for developing speaking ability of upper-intermediate learners. In this study I will investigate the effect of diffrent kinds of ice- breakers in order to improve speaking ability of learners and suggest ways to encourage more active classroom participation on the learner's part.

My intention is to conduct a study through pre-test and post-test, and individual interviews with teachers and students. I would like to ask your permission to allow me to survey students of American Culture Institute, Erzurum branch.

Thank you very much in Advance for your consideration.

Abdullah Kocaman

APPENDIX II. Pre-test and Post-Test ,Sample Speaking IELTS Questions

YOU

Describe yourself.

FAMILY

1. Describe your family?
2. Do you have a large or small family?
3. How much time do you spend with your family?
4. What do you like to do together as a family?
5. Do you get along well with your family?
6. Are people in your country generally close to their families?

WORK

1. What do you do?
2. What are your responsibilities?
3. How many hours do you work each day?
4. Do you enjoy your work?
5. Is there some other kind of work you would rather do?
6. If you could change your job or profession, what would you do?
7. Describe the process of getting a job in your country.
8. Describe the company or organization you work for.
9. What is your position?
10. What do you like about your job?
11. What do you dislike about your job?

EDUCATION

1. Describe your education.
2. What kind of school did you go to as a child?
3. Did you go to a co-educational school?
4. What was your favorite subject as a child?
5. Who was your favorite teacher?
6. What is the education system like in your country?
7. Do you think your country has an effective education system?

STUDIES

1. What are you studying now?
2. What is your area of specialization?

HOMETOWN

1. Describe your hometown.
2. What's special about it?
3. Where is your hometown located?
4. Is it easy to travel around your hometown?
5. What is it known for?
6. What do people in your town do?
7. What are the main industries in your hometown?
8. What problems face your hometown?
9. What languages are spoken in your hometown?
10. What are the advantages of living in your hometown?
11. What are some problems faced by your hometown?
12. Compare your hometown with another city.
13. What are some environmental problems faced by your hometown?

WEATHER

1. What's the weather like in your country?
2. Does the weather affect your mood?
3. How do rainy days make you feel?
4. What's your favorite season of the year?
5. What do you like to do when it's hot?
6. What do you usually do in the winter?
7. How many seasons does your country have?

HOME

1. Describe your home.
2. What kind of building do you live in?
3. How long have you lived there?

WEDDING

1. Have you ever been to a wedding?
2. Whose wedding was it?

3. Where was it held?

4. What clothes do people wear?

5. Describe the wedding ceremony.

6. What sort if gifts do people buy for the bridal couple?

7. What kind of clothes did the bride and groom wear?

TRAVEL

1. Do you like to travel?

2. What kind of places have you visited in your life?

3. Which place would you really like to visit? Why?

4. What's the best place you've ever visited?

COMPUTERS

1. Do you think computers help society?

2. Do you think computers are bad for health?

3. How do you think computers have changed the world?

INTERNET

1. Do you use the Internet much during the day?

3. 2. What do you usually do on the Internet?

4. What are some advantages of the Internet?

5. What are some disadvantages?

6. Do people in your country use the Internet a lot?

7. Do you do any shopping on the Internet?

EMAIL

1. Do you send and receive email regularly?

2. Who do you usually communicate with?

3. How often do you check your email?

4. Do you think writing email has strengthened or weakened people's writing skills?

5. What are some disadvantages of email?

FRIEND

1. Describe a friend.

2. How long have you known each other?

3. What do usually do together?

4. What do you like the most about him / her?

5. How often do you see each other?

PLACE

1. Describe a place you like to go.
2. Why is this place special to you?
3. When did you first visit this place?
4. Where is this place located?
5. What language is spoken here? Do you speak this language?

SMOKING

1. What do you feel about smoking in public places?
2. Do you think smoking should be banned in people's homes?

MARRIAGE

1. What is the attitude toward marriage in your country?
2. Do most young people plan on getting married in your country?
3. What are some of the advantages of marriage?
4. What are some of the disadvantages?
5. Is the divorce rate high in your country?
6. Do you think people should be allowed to get divorced?

HOBBIES

1. Do you have any hobbies?
2. What are some of your hobbies?
3. When did you first develop this hobby?
4. What are some of the advantages of having a hobby?
5. How much time do you spend on your hobby?

FILMS

1. Do you enjoy watching movies?
2. What's your favorite film?
3. Who are your favorite actors?
4. How often do you watch films?

SHOPPING

1. Do you enjoy shopping?
2. How do you feel about shopping?
3. Do you like shopping on the Internet?

4. Do you have any favorite stores?

5. What don't you like about shopping?

6. Which is the most popular place to shop in your hometown?

SPORTS

1. Do you like sports?

2. Do you enjoy watching sports?

3. Do you enjoy participating in any sports?

4. Which sports are most popular in your country?

5. What's your favorite sport?

6. When did you first become interested in sports?

7. How often do you participate in sports?

8. What equipment do you need for your favorite sport?

FOOD

1. What are some of your favorite foods?

2. What foods are popular in your country?

3. What are some of the famous dishes of your country?

4. Do you enjoy cooking?

FESTIVAL

1. What's the most important festival in your country?

2. How do people celebrate this festival?

3. What special food is associated with this festival?

4. What special activities are associated with this festival?

5. What do you enjoy most about this festival?

6. Do you think festivals are important for a society?

TELEVISION

1. Do you watch television a lot?

2. What do you usually watch on television?

3. How many hours of television do you usually watch?

4. What are the most popular shows in your country?

5. What kind of shows do you like to watch?

6. What are some advantages of television?

7. What are some of the disadvantages of television?

8. What did you last watch on television?

9. Why do you think certain TV shows are so popular?

TOURISM

Which places would you recommend to a visitor to your country?

1. Do a lot of tourists visit your country?

2. What do they usually do there?

3. How has tourism changed your country?

4. Is your country expensive for most tourists?

5. What are some famous landmarks in your country?

DAILY ROUTINE

1. Describe your daily routine.

2. What do you usually do?

3. What do you do on the weekend?

4. What is your typical weekday like?

5. Does your life change much from week to week?

6. Do you have any free time during the week?

YOUR COUNTRY

1. Which country are you from?

2. Where is this country located?

3. Which part of the country do most people live in?

4. What are the main industries in your country?

5. Is it easy to travel around your country?

CLOTHES

1. What type of clothes do you like to wear?

2. What kind of clothes do people in your country usually wear?

3. How important is fashion to you?

4. What kind of clothes do you dislike?

5. Do you think people behave differently in different kinds of clothes?

6. What kind of clothes do people wear to work in your country?

7. Are clothes expensive in your country?

GOING OUT

1. Do you like going out or staying at home?

2. What do you like to do when you go out?

3. How often do you go out?

4. Do people in your country go out a lot?

5. How and where do people in your country usually socialize?

6. What kind of entertainment is popular in your country?

GAMES

1. Do you enjoy playing any games?

2. What kind of games do you play?

3. Do you think adults should play games?

4. What do children learn from games?

5. What kind of games did you play when you were a child?

6. What games are popular in your country today?

7. What kind of games were popular when you were young?

8. Do you think mental games like chess are good for you?

COLOURS

1. Do you have a favorite color?

2. What are your country's colors?

3. Do you think colors affect our moods?

4. Can you learn anything about a person from the colors he / she likes?

5. Do you like the same colors now as you did when you were a child?

MUSIC

Do you like music?

1. What kind of music do you like?

2. When do you usually listen to music?

3. What kind of music did you like when you were younger?

5. 4. What kind of music is popular in your country?

6. Do you play any musical instruments?

7. Do you wish you could play any musical instruments?

8. Which is your favorite instrument?

Food

Moving to a new topic, I'd like to discuss cooking and meals with you.

1. Do you enjoy cooking? (Why/why not)?
2. What type of things can you cook? (Why)?
3. What kinds of food are popular in your country?
4. Is it an important part of your culture to have dinner parties? (Why)?
5. Do you prefer to eat with other people or on your own? (Why)?

Dreams

I'd now like to discuss your night time dreams with you.

1. Do you dream much at night?
2. Do you often remember your dreams?
3. Do you think we can learn anything from dreams? (Why)?
4. Do people in your country talk about their dreams? (Why)?
5. Do you think that dreams can come true?

Magazines and Newspapers

Okay, let's move to a different topic and discuss magazines and newspapers.

1. Which do you prefer reading, newspapers or magazines? (Why)?
2. What type of stories do you like to read about? (Why)?
3. Do you think reading a magazine or a newspaper can help you learn a language? (Why)?
4. Why do you think some people prefer magazines to newspapers?

Humor

Let's change the topic and talk about comedy and humor.

1. What type of programs do you find funny on TV?
2. Which types of programs are most popular in your country? (Why)?

3. What kind of things make you laugh? (Why)?
4. Do you like to make people laugh? (How)?
5. Do you think it is important to have a sense of humor? (Why)?

Timing

Let's move on and talk about being on time for appointments.

1. Is being late acceptable in your culture? (Why/why not)?
2. Are you ever late for appointments? (Why/why not)?
3. What type of excuses do you think are alright for lateness?
4. How do you feel when someone is late for an appointment with you?

Neighbours

Let's change the topic and talk about your neighbors

1. Do you know the people who live next door to you?
2. How often do you see each other?
3. What kind of relationship do you have?
4. How can neighbors be helpful?
5. What kind of problems can people have with their neighbors in a big city?

APPENDIX III. Sources of Some of Used Interesting Ice-Breakers

1. Scrambled words

https://www.google.com.tr/search?q=scrambled+words&newwindow=1&source=lnms&tbm=isch&sa=X&ei=0j3eU4WlH-GC4gTe3oCwAg&ved=0CAgQ_AUoAQ&biw=1366&bih=677

2.Ice-breaking Games and Activities

http://www.icebreakers.ws/

3. Ice-Breaking Activities

https://www.google.com.tr/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=5&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=0CD8QFjAE&url=http%3A%2F%2Froml700.unc.edu%2Fdocuments%2Fwarmup.pdf&ei=ZEXeU6PgDubgyQPR_4H4BQ&usg=AFQjCNHiSQHYbK7GIpoNKWCFu_ucAxH5PQ&sig2=xVRq6x_6Shp1GpYw0twyIg

4. Speaking Activities

http://www.tefl.net/esl-lesson-plans/esl-worksheets-tp.htm

5. Fun Activities

http://richw2k.hubpages.com/hub/10-Fun-Classroom-Activities-to-Help-Students-Practice-Speaking-English

6. Ice-Breakers

www.cedu.niu.edu/~shumow/itt/Icebreakers.pdf
insight.typepad.co.uk/40_icebreakers_for_small_groups.pdf
www.icebreakers.ws/
www.mindtools.com
www.educationworld.com
www.eslcafe.com/idea/index.cgi?Ice:Breakers

APPENDIX IV. Sources of Some of Used Tongue-Twisters

1. http://www.uebersetzung.at/twister/en.htm
2. http://iteslj.org/links/ESL/Pronunciation/Tongue_Twisters/
3. http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/tongue-twisters
4. http://thinks.com/words/tonguetwisters.htm
5. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tongue-twister
6. http://americanfolklore.net/folklore/tongue-twisters/
7. http://www.alphadictionary.com/fun/tongue-twisters/
8. http://www.alphadictionary.com/fun/tongue-twisters/english_tongue_twisters.html
9. http://www.alphadictionary.com/fun/tongue-twisters/english_tongue_twisters.html
10. http://www.starfall.com/n/level-b/twisters/play.htm?f
11. http://www.indianchild.com/tongue_twisters.htm
12. www.eslmania.com/students/accent_reduction/Tongue_twister_with_audio.htm
13. http://www.factmonster.com/spot/tonguetwister1.html
14. http://www.funenglishgames.com/funstuff/tonguetwisters.html
15. http://www.esl4kids.net/tongue.html

APPENDIX V. Sources of Some of Used Games

1. http://iteslj.org/c/games.html
2. http://esl.about.com/od/teachingadvancedlevel/
3. http://linguapress.com/puzzles/xwd-index.htm
4. http://www.stickyball.net/games-and-activities.html
5. http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/forum-topic/teaching-advanced-students
6. http://www.teflgames.com/games.html
7. http://a4esl.org/a/v5.html
8. http://a4esl.org/
9. http://classroom-aid.com/2012/08/28/25-online-games-for-english-language-learners/
10. http://www.eflclub.com/

APPENDIX VI. Samples of Songs and Lyrics

1. **Song**: Big Big World

   Artist: Emilia

   Source: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HWDupadpaWI

   Lyrics:

   I'm a big big girl
   In a big big world
   It's not a big big thing if you leave me
   But I do do feel
   That I do do will
   Miss you much
   Miss you much

   I can see the first leaves falling

   It's all yellow and nice
   It's so very cold outside
   Like the way I'm feeling inside

2. **Song**: A Thousands years

Artist: Christina Perri

Source: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=q9ayN39xmsI

Lyrics:

Heart beats fast
Colors and promises
How to be brave?
How can I love when I'm afraid to fall?
But watching you stand alone,
All of my doubt suddenly goes away somehow.

One step closer

[Chorus:]
I have died every day waiting for you
Darling, don't be afraid I have loved you
For a thousand years
I'll love you for a thousand more

Time stands still
Beauty in all she is
I will be brave
I will not let anything take away
What's standing in front of me
Every breath
Every hour has come to this

One step closer

[Chorus:]
I have died every day waiting for you

Darling, don't be afraid I have loved you
For a thousand years
I'll love you for a thousand more

And all along I believed I would find you
Time has brought your heart to me
I have loved you for a thousand years
I'll love you for a thousand more

One step closer
One step closer

[Chorus:]
I have died every day waiting for you
Darling don't be afraid I have loved you
For a thousand years
I'll love you for a thousand more

And all along I believed I would find you
Time has brought your heart to me
I have loved you for a thousand years
I'll love you for a thousand more

3. **Song**: Someone like You
Artist: Adele

Source: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AbXnLn5-7MA

Lyrics:

I heard that you're settled down
That you found a girl and you're married now
I heard that your dreams came true
Guess she gave you things I didn't give to you

Old friend, why are you so shy?
Ain't like you to hold back or hide from the light

I hate to turn up out of the blue, uninvited
But I couldn't stay away, I couldn't fight it
I had hoped you'd see my face and that you'd be reminded
That for me, it isn't over

Never mind, I'll find someone like you
I wish nothing but the best for you, too
Don't forget me, I beg, I remember you said
Sometimes it lasts in love, but sometimes it hurts instead
Sometimes it lasts in love, but sometimes it hurts instead

You know how the time flies
Only yesterday was the time of our lives
We were born and raised in a summer haze
Bound by the surprise of our glory days

I hate to turn up out of the blue, uninvited
But I couldn't stay away, I couldn't fight it
I had hoped you'd see my face and that you'd be reminded
That for me, it isn't over

Never mind, I'll find someone like you
I wish nothing but the best for you, too
Don't forget me, I beg, I remember you said
Sometimes it lasts in love, but sometimes it hurts instead, yeah

Nothing compares, no worries or cares
Regrets and mistakes, they're memories made
Who would have known how bittersweet this would taste?

Never mind, I'll find someone like you
I wish nothing but the best for you
Don't forget me, I beg, I remember you said
Sometimes it lasts in love, but sometimes it hurts instead

Never mind, I'll find someone like you
I wish nothing but the best for you, too
Don't forget me, I beg, I remember you said
Sometimes it lasts in love, but sometimes it hurts instead
Sometimes it lasts in love, but sometimes it hurts instead

4. Song: Hush Hush

Artist: Pussycat Dolls

Source: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pK6sJbqjCqI

Lyrics:

I never needed you to be strong
I never needed you for pointing out my wrongs
I never needed pain, I never needed strain
My love for you is strong enough you should have known

I never needed you for judgments
I never needed you to question what I spent
I never ask for help, I take care of myself
I don't know why you think you got a hold on me

And it's a little late for conversations
There isn't anything for you to say
And my eyes hurt, hands shiver
So look at me and listen to me because

I don't want to stay another minute
I don't want you to say a single word
Hush hush, hush hush, there is no other way
I get the final say because

I don't want to do this any longer
I don't want you, there's nothing left to say
Hush hush, hush hush, I've already spoken
Our love is broken, baby, hush hush

I never needed your corrections
On everything from how I act to what I say

I never needed words, I never needed hurts
I never needed you to be there everyday

I'm sorry for the way I let go
From everything I wanted when you came along
But I am never beaten, broken not defeated
I know next to you is not where I belong

And it's a little late for explanations
There isn't anything that you can do
And my eyes hurt, hands shiver
So you will listen when I say, baby

I don't want to stay another minute
I don't want you to say a single word
Hush hush, hush hush, there is no other way
I get the final say because

I don't want to do this any longer
I don't want you, there's nothing left to say
Hush hush, hush hush, I've already spoken
Our love is broken, baby, hush hush

No more words, no more lies
No more crying
No more pain, no more hurt
No more trying because

I don't want to stay another minute
I don't want you to say a single word
Hush hush, hush hush, there is no other way
I get the final say because

I don't want to do this any longer
I don't want you, there's nothing left to say

Hush hush, hush hush, I've already spoken
Our love is broken, baby hush hush

Hush hush, hush hush, I've already spoken
Our love is broken, baby

CURRICULUM VITEA

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