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IMPROVING PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS THROUGH CHILDREN'S STORIES IN A TURKISH SCHOOL

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IMPROVING PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS THROUGH CHILDREN'S STORIES IN A TURKISH SCHOOL

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I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

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Signature

ABSTRACT

IMPROVING PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS THROUGH CHILDREN'S STORIES IN A TURKISH SCHOOL

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The present study was carried out to examine the changes in phonological awareness skills among Turkish-speaking 1st and 2nd grade EFL learners following a children's literature-based intervention program. The study adopted a pre-posttest quasi experimental study design to examine the efficacy of the phonological awareness instruction. A total of 145 Turkish 1st and 2nd grade English language learners at a private school participated in the study. The phonological awareness skills of the learners were evaluated through phonological awareness and skills test based on 14 different aspects of phonological awareness before and after the intervention program. Students received phonological awareness instruction twice a week for 40 minutes lessons for two months based on a phonological awareness curriculum. The study results showed that both 1st and 2nd grade EFL learners improved their EFL phonological awareness skills following the intervention. It was also found that 1stgraders showed more progress than the 2ndgraders. Finally, students across grade levels the highest achievement was in rhyme production. The results granted promising instructional implications for future uses for the phonics-based story books to improve English phonological awareness of young language learners.

Keywords: Phonological awareness, foreign language teaching, young learners, storybook reading, rhyme

ÖZET

BİR TÜRK OKULUNDA ÇOCUK HİKAYELERİ YOLUYLA FONOLOJİK FARKINDALIĞIN GELİŞTİRİLMESİ

Şebnem CENGİZ
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Tez Yöneticisi: Melike ÜNAL GEZER

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Bu çalışma, çocuk edebiyatına dayalı bir müdahale programını takiben ana dili Türkçe olan 1. ve 2. sınıf İngilizce öğrencilerinin fonolojik farkındalık becerilerindeki değişiklikleri incelemek için yapılmıştır. Bu çalışmada, fonolojik farkındalık öğretiminin etkililiğini incelemek için bir ön-son test yarı deneysel çalışma tasarımı uygulanmıştır. Araştırmaya özel bir okulda Türkçe 1. sınıf ve 2. sınıf İngilizce öğrencisi olan toplam 145 kişi katılmıştır. Öğrencilerin fonolojik farkındalık becerileri müdahale programı öncesi ve sonrasında sesbilgisel farkındalığın 14 farklı yönünü içeren fonolojik farkındalık ve beceri testi ile test edilmiştir. Öğrenciler, fonolojik farkındalık müfredatına dayalı olarak iki ay boyunca haftada iki kez 40 dakikalık derslerde fonolojik farkındalık eğitimi almışlardır. Sonuçlar, hem 1. hem de 2. sınıf İngilizce öğrencilerinin müdahalenin ardından İngilizce fonolojik farkındalık becerilerini geliştirdiğini göstermiştir. Ayrıca 1. sınıf öğrencilerinin 2. sınıf öğrencilerine göre daha fazla ilerleme gösterdiği tespit edilmiştir. Son olarak, öğrenciler en çok kafiye üretme becerilerini geliştirmişlerdir. Sonuçlar, yabancı dil öğrenen çocukların İngilizce fonolojik farkındalığını geliştirmek için fonetik temelli hikâye kitaplarının gelecekteki kullanımına teşvik etmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Fonolojik farkındalık, yabancı dil öğretimi, çocuk öğrenciler, hikâye kitabı okuma, kafiye.

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To the precious lives lost in the devastating earthquake that struck in February 2023… May their memory serve as a reminder of the importance of preparedness in the face of natural disasters …

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

PA:	Phonological Awareness
CEFR:	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
ELT:	English Language Teaching
ESL:	English as a Second Language
L1:	First Language
L2:	Second Language
P.A.S.T.:	Phonological Awareness Skills Test
ELL:	English language learner
MoNE:	Ministry of National Education

CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

The skill of literacy permeates our world, and it has an impact on all aspects of our lives. Literacy refers to the ability to read and write. Reading involves interpreting written texts. It is an intricate process requiring both perception and cognition (Pang et al., 2003). Reading is one of the first and most basic skills that a child acquires at school. If a child cannot learn to decode effectively, he or she cannot obtain the information from the sources. Thus, reading is a critical part of students' academic achievement. It has also been demonstrated that children who start out reading well usually continue to be successful readers, and children who begin school with poor reading skills tend to remain poor readers throughout their education (Moats, 1999). Competent readers read more and improve their reading skills, whereas poor readers read less and fall further behind their classmates. When learners with poor reading skills realize their insufficiency, they start to dislike reading and avoid it whereas skilled readers feel motivated and read more. The gap in reading might eventually become noticeable and the quantity of reading start to affect other aspects of learning, such as vocabulary growth, comprehension, speaking and writing skills, which are critical for academic achievement (Franklin, 2018).

Anderson (1985) compared reading skill to the performance of a symphony orchestra as reading requires many capacities to work in harmony. A vast number of studies have been conducted to uncover how this intricate task is learnt across languages such as Turkish (Razon; 1982; Karakelle, 1998; Babayiğit & Stainthorp, 2007; Memiş & Sivri, 2016; Korkmaz et al., 2020); English (Glushko, 1979; Rayner & Pollatsek, 1989; Adams, 1994a; Adams, 1994b; Ehri, 1995, 2005; Burgess & Lonigan, 1998; McBride-Chang, 1999; Scarborough, 2001; Ziegler & Goswami, 2005; Goldstein, 2011; Clayton et al., 2020; Levesque, 2021); French (Mann & Wimmer, 2002); Landerl & Wimmer, 2008; German (Hasenäcker, & Schroeder, 2017; Marie-France et al., 2021); Greek (Georgiou et al., 2008); Spanish (Grimm et al., 2017;

Pratt et al., 2020; Míguez-Álvarez, et al., 2021); Arabic (Zakiyah et al., 2022) and Chinese (Yan et al., 2021) and Finnish (Lerkkanen, 2019).

Word recognition and comprehension are two connected reading processes (Hoover & Gough, 1990; Pang et al., 2003). Absence of any of these skills will hinder successful reading (Hoover & Gough, 1990). According to Nagy, (2007) the stages for the development of academic reading abilities can be listed as, awareness of word reading abilities, awareness of syntactic structuring and awareness of discourse organization. Word recognition is the process of recognizing how one's spoken language and written symbols match up (Pang et al., 2003). Accomplishment of word reading necessitates decoding skills (Besser et al., 2004). Decoding refers to "the ability to rapidly derive a representation from printed input that allows access to the appropriate entry in the mental lexicon, and thus, the retrieval of semantic information on the word level" (Hoover & Gough, 1990, p. 130). Although effective decoding skills are only one aspect of becoming a good reader, it is undeniable that insufficient decoding will prevent the development of adequate comprehension (Hulme & Snowling, 2013). In order for pupils to correctly decode words when reading, PA has come to be recognized as a crucial literacy skill that should be mastered at a young age (Goldsworthy, 2021).

PA is a metalinguistic skill, which refers to the recognition of the sounds in spoken language and the ability to manipulate these sounds. It is a broad term, which encompasses a variety of skills. Children with PA can identify individual words, blend, segment, delete and manipulate the sounds, recognize syllables in words, detect and produce rhyme and alliteration. PA has two different aspects: size of the sound unit and type of manipulation of the sound. Based on the developmental models, PA develops from holistic and basic forms to more sophisticated forms (Yopp & Yopp, 2009). It progresses from relatively large sound units to smaller sound units (Goswami & Bryant, 1990; Treiman & Zukowski, 1991, 1996; Goswami, 2002a; Anthony et al., 2003; Hempenstall, 2003; Phillips et al., 2008; Yopp & Yopp, 2009).

The substantial relationship between children's PA abilities and their reading progress is one of the most frequent findings of reading research both in L1 (First language) and L2 (second language). There is a vast amount of educational and psychological research to suggest that students who have a good level of PA are more

likely to be successful readers and students with lower levels of PA tend to be poor readers. Additionally, reading research has provided compelling evidence that PA is a major cause of reading difficulties. Torgesen and Mathes (2002) describe three key categories of evidence that highlight the significance of the role PA plays in reading development. The studies that demonstrate that PA in kindergarten is a very reliable predictor of kids' success in learning to read and serve as one sort of supporting evidence (Wagner et al., 1994; Wagner et al., 1997; Bishop, 2003). Studies demonstrating that poor PA is one of the most reliable diagnostic indicators of serious reading difficulties are another source of evidence in this area (Stanovich, 2000; Hulme & Snowling, 2009). The final sort of evidence comes from intervention studies demonstrating how PA raising instruction contributes to the development of reading. Most of those studies were conducted with kindergarten children (Torgesen & Davis, 1996; Brennan & Ireson, 1997; Bowyer-Crane et al., 2008; Ziolkowski & Goldstein, 2008; Callcott et al., 2014). There are also studies aimed to investigate the effect of PA instruction on the reading skills of elementary school children (Savage & Carless, 2005; Hulme et al., 2012; Robinson, 2018; Partanen et al., 2019; Dussling, 2020). Much work has been carried out in the context of L1 (Torgesen & Davis, 1996; Brennan & Ireson, 1997; Bowyer-Crane et al., 2008; Ziolkowski & Goldstein, 2008; Callcott et al., 2014), yet there are fewer examples of research conducted with foreign language learners. (Li & Chen, 2016; Robinson, 2018; Dussling, 2020).

Having reviewed all of the research into how children learn to read and describing 52 controlled experimental studies published in peer-reviewed journals as part of a meta-analysis, The National Reading Panel (2000) concluded that PA instruction improves reading and spelling abilities moderately and statistically significantly. In addition, explicit instruction benefits children who are typically developing, children with reading difficulties, and those with low reading abilities. Thus, providing children with effective PA training is crucial in terms of reducing their risk of encountering academic difficulties (Storch, & Whitehurst, 2002).

Variety of tools can support teachers in their PA instruction. These tools can be listed as songs, nursery rhymes, storybooks, poems and games. PA can be enhanced with a literature-enhanced curriculum (Yopp, 2000; Cameron, 2001; Ünal Gezer, 2021). There have been numerous examples of it from France (Bianco, 2010); Egypt

(Elmonayer, 2013); Israel (Shamir, 2012); Canada (McBreen & Savage, 2020); New Zealand (Gillon et al., 2019) and America (Ziolkowski & Goldstein, 2008). It is revealed that rhyme is the most basic PA skill. This is why the development of rhyme leads to more advanced levels of PA. Thus, it is suggested that providing learners storybooks that are rich in terms of rhymes and alliterations is an effective way to boost PA (Ünal Gezer, 2021).

The training planned for the development of PA skill should be carried out with activities in accordance with the PA abilities of the children. Accurate assessment of PA skills of the learners is important in terms of planning and evaluating PA instruction. PA can be evaluated through a variety of tasks. These tasks include recognition and production of rhymes, segmentation of sentences, syllables and phonemes, blending of syllables and phonemes, and deletion and substitution of phonemes.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Over the past several decades, the science of PA has been relevant to classroom reading (Brown et al., 2021). It is crucial to enhance primary level students' PA skills regardless of L1 or L2.

Children's development in reading English shows a slower rate as English is proven to be one of the deepest orthographies and studies to date have clearly documented that it is more difficult to learn reading in opaque orthographies (Aro &Wimmer 2003; Seymour & Erskine, 2003; Aro, 2004). It is more demanding for a child whose L1 is not English to read in English as a second or foreign language. It was found that, compared to English-speaking children, the majority of EFL students show lower phonological and/or phonemic awareness and delayed word recognition development (Huo & Wang, 2017). Hence, foreign language learners should be supported well at school. However, this crucial skill is often overlooked in foreign language education in Türkiye, and it has been confirmed that the primary English curriculum in Türkiye does not include a developmentally appropriate framework for literacy development and skills acquisition (Ünal Gezer, 2021). In this regard, this particular study which investigates the potential effects of a children's literature-

enhanced early English curriculum on their English PA development plays a critical role.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this research is to explore the potential effects of literature-enhanced early English curriculum on English PA skills of the 1st and 2nd grade English language learners at a primary school in Türkiye. Within this study framework, the current study aims to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference in the firstgraders' pre and post intervention scores of phonological awareness?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference in the secondgraders' pre and post intervention scores of phonological awareness?
3. Is there a statistically significant difference in the post intervention scores of the participating first and secondgraders' phonological awareness?
4. Which aspect of phonological awareness did first and secondgraders improve the most?

On the basis of the research questions presented above, the hypotheses were generated and listed below:

First hypothesis (H0)1: It is hypothesized that 1stgraders will show improvement in their Engish PA skills after the PA intervention.

Second hypothesis (H0)2: It is hypothesized that 2ndgraders will show improvement in their Engish PA skills after the PA intervention.

Third hypothesis (HO)3: It is hypothesized that 1stgraders will exhibit greater progress in PA skills than 2ndgraders.

Fourth hypothesis (HO)4: It is hypothesized that the PA skill that 1st and 2ndgraders improve most will be rhyme awareness or rhyme production skill.

CHAPTER 2

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter consists of three parts. The first section draws a picture of literacy, specifically reading. The second section provides information about PA. The last section presents information about rhyme. Each section includes associated literature.

2.1 Literacy

In the information age, literacy is considered to be one of the most essential skills. This is because it plays an influential role in every facet of daily life, including work, education and even home-based practices. Despite broadening its scope in recent decades, literacy is generally defined as the ability to read and write alphabetical texts (Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998). Razon (1982) describes reading as the vocalization of written or printed signs by following certain rules. However, Demirel (2021) states that vocalization is not enough for reading. If a person cannot make sense of a text when he reads it, it is not reading. In order to comprehend the content, one needs to perceive writing, recognize and distinguish letters and recombine them as words. Thus, it requires many capacities to work together and in coordination, such as attention, perception, memory, comprehension, reasoning, and problem solving (Karakelle, 1998).

Learning to read is one of the most influential events in a child's school career (National Reading Panel, 2000). A child's path to acquiring knowledge is blocked if they cannot read effectively. If a child is unable to understand the basics of reading at an early age, he probably will not learn them at all. It will not be easy for him to improve other necessary skills and knowledge, and he is not likely to succeed in life or in school in the future (Moats, 1999). Therefore, in order for children to read to learn, they must first learn to read well. This is also emphasized by the well-known expression, *"Learn to read, read to learn."* Schools are tasked with establishing reading skills in learners and scaffolding them during their critical journey of transitioning from learning to read to reading to learn.

"It is only because these (reading) processes have become automatic and unconscious, thanks to the years of practice, that we are under the illusion that reading is simple and effortless." (Dehaene, 2009, p. 8). Learning to read, however, is an intricate process, which makes teachers' task of teaching reading challenging. This is why the duty of providing effective literacy instruction is described as rocket science by Moats (2020).

Professionals working with children must therefore have a thorough understanding of the language basis of reading and the full spectrum of reading instruction. This will enable them to support learners by planning and implementing effective literacy education. It is fortunate that this topic is one of the most extensively researched aspects of child education. Examining the popular literacy topics in research and practice, Cassidy et al. (2021) found out that the Science of Teaching Reading (STR) was the hottest topic of 2021.

The science of teaching reading guides teachers effectively in this regard, offering plenty of helpful suggestions. The extensive body of research from a variety of fields, including education, psychology, neuroscience, history, philosophy, and interdisciplinary work demonstrates the value that cultures place on children learning to read (Wyse & Bradbury; 2022). It is critical to shed light on why reading is seen as an extremely valuable skill and a milestone for a student's educational career. It has been widely recognized that reading skill plays a critical role in preparing children for success in school. Students who are unable to demonstrate the required reading skills for their grade level tend to fall behind their peers (McNamara et al., 2005; Lesnick et al., 2010; Pfost et al., 2014). Without intensive intervention, they will find it difficult to catch up with their classmates (Lesnick et al., 2010). It is because those who fail will display declining performance while children who succeed in their tasks will perform better over time (Stanovich, 2009). This phenomenon is explained with the Matthew effect in literacy-based literature.

Having positive and negative sides, Matthew effect refers to learners with both weak and strong reading skills. If a child fails to show expected improvement in the initial stages of learning to read, he will not be able to increase his vocabulary and progress sufficiently, thereby failing to accomplish the task of reading to learn at school. On the other hand, favorable things continue to happen to those who start out

well. In addition to enhancing their vocabulary, the skilled readers will also be able to expand their knowledge of the subject, which will facilitate their further development of reading skills. Since students who read well in the beginning practice more and develop their reading skills, they are usually more likely to be proficient at reading (Stanovich, 2009).

This vicious cycle of Matthew effect appeared evident in a longitudinal study conducted with 54 children during their journey of education from 1st through 4th grades. It was found that having poor reading skills in 1st grade disheartened students and they started to dislike reading both inside and outside of school. On the other hand, good readers felt encouraged and read a lot more than poor readers, which appears to have helped the good readers improve their writing and reading abilities. Thus, the strong reader from 1st grade continued to be strong through the end of 4th grade whereas the weak reader in the 1st grade was almost always still a weak reader by the end of the 4th grade. This, in turn, has contributed to the steadily widening gap between the good and poor readers (Juel, 1988). This can be summed as 'the poor get poorer; the rich get richer.'

The Matthew effect can be seen with the students diagnosed with learning difficulties. Aaron et al. (2008) aimed to compare the effectiveness of two different reading comprehension programs on the students with learning difficulties from grades two to five. Comparison group received the remedial program for three years and the experimental group was provided with the training for one term. Comprehension skills of the learners were tested before and after the intervention of the training. While the posttest results of the 46 students in the treatment group were higher than their pretest scores, the 97 learners in the comparison group lost comprehension scores. There was a marginally significant decline in the comprehension scores of the comparison group and there was a significant increase in the test results of the experimental group.

The existence of such a huge gap is a threat whether reading is learnt in L1 or L2. Learners need to be instructed and assisted during the dynamic process of reading and writing whether in L1 or L2. Reading and writing should include three cueing systems: graphophonic cues, semantic cues and syntactic cues. The goal for students is to be able to access all three information sources while reading independently (Shin & Crandall, 2018).

Graphophonic cues can be seen as a prerequisite. As a means of supporting semantic and syntactic cues, graphophonic cues are employed to assist readers. Learners are able to determine whether a word is sensible based on graphophonic cues. They link speech sounds to letters and letters to speech sounds. This process is called decoding. Decoding can be defined as “the ability to recognize printed words accurately and quickly to efficiently gain access to the appropriate word meanings contained in the internal mental lexicon” (Hoover & Tunmer, 2020, p.26). What sets the stage for decoding is PA. The National Early Literacy Panel found evidence suggesting that PA is one of the most significant indicators of literacy development in terms of predicting later achievement in reading and spelling (NELP, 2008). Other predictors included oral language, print awareness, alphabet knowledge and emergent writing (National Early Literacy Panel, 2008).

Schools are responsible for learners' reading development. As PA is closely linked to reading ability (Muter et al., 2004), "one needs to make sure the school reading program adopts a comprehensive, systematic, and integral PA agenda for young ones." (Ünal Gezer, 2021, p.2691). Before moving on to the topic of PA, to better understand its relationship with reading, the science of reading will be discussed in the next part.

2.1.1 The Science of Reading

Reading is a pivotal element of a child’s education. Children’s learning to read and write is as important as learning to walk or talk. Including vision, hearing functions and mental abilities, the whole organism is activated during this process (Karakelle, 1998). “Skillful reading is not a unitary skill”, states Adams (1994b), and continues, “it is a whole complex system of skills and knowledge.” (p.3). It is important to be conversant with the elements of this complex system (Perfetti et al., 1987).

2.1.1.1 How do Children Learn to Read

The study of how children accomplish the intricate task of reading has been one of the main interests of researchers and numerous investigations have been carried out to comprehend how reading is acquired (Ziegler & Goswami, 2005).

Unlike speaking, reading does not take place automatically. It requires conscious effort and following a number of steps. In order to read, children must possess phonemic awareness, and the knowledge of the alphabetic principle, apply these skills in a quick and fluent manner, develop strong vocabularies and syntactical and grammatical skills, and relate reading to their own experiences (Lyon, 1998). There are two different metaphors used commonly to explain this intricate process and demonstrate the skills that are necessary for reading: The car metaphor (Adams, 1994b), and strands of rope metaphor (Scarborough, 2001).

Car is like the system that supports our ability to read. Print is like gas. The perceptual and conceptual skills activate the reading system just like the engine and mechanics of the car make the car go. Without print, no reading can take place and without gas one cannot drive (Adams, 1994b).

Another simple metaphor, *strand*s of rope, divides the reading skills into two groups (see Figure 2.1). What makes up the reading rope are lower and upper strands: word recognition and language comprehension, respectively. Lower strands, word recognition, include PA, decoding, and sight recognition whereas the upper strands, language comprehension, include background knowledge, vocabulary, language structures, verbal reasoning, and literacy knowledge. It is stated that when each of these elements works in harmony, fluent, accurate reading with good comprehension is the result. However, this requires training and practice over time; it does not happen instantly (Scarborough, 2001).

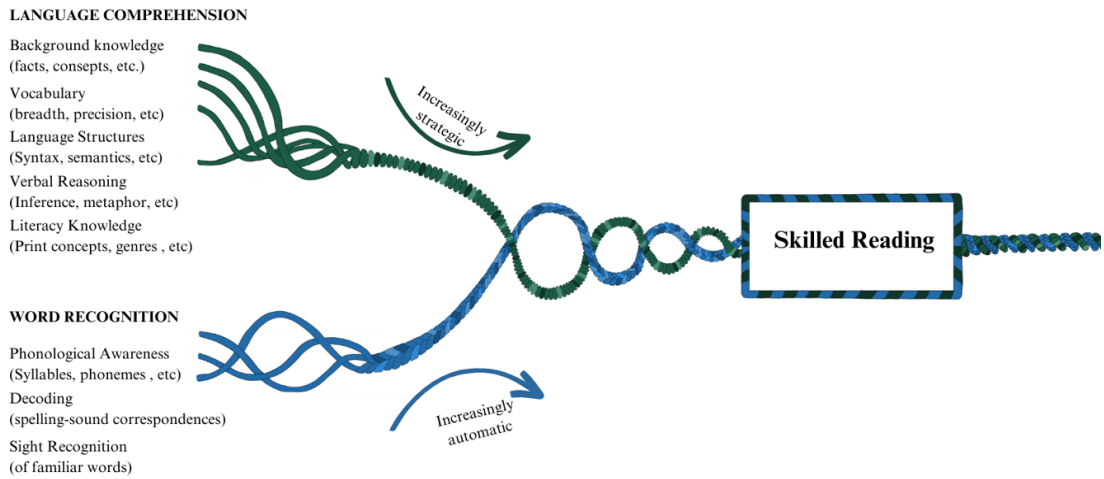


Figure 2.1. The Reading Rope Model of Literacy Development, Adopted from Scarborough (2001).

In order to accomplish skilled reading, the coordination of language comprehension and word recognition is crucial. The mechanisms involved in individual word recognition, which makes up the lower strand of Scarborough's rope model, must run smoothly in order for the rest of the reading acquisition system to work (Adams, 1994b). Thus, understanding how readers learn to recognize words accurately and automatically will help clarify how reading competence improves (Ehri, 2005). Among the three kinds of units that interact with readers' linguistic knowledge (letters, words, and sentences) (Rayner & Pollatsek, 1989), the first unit that the reader's eyes detect is the words, which help readers to create meaning out of print (Ehri, 2005).

In order to read words, readers use four different ways: decoding, analogy, prediction and reading words by memory or sight. To decode, the reader works with larger groups of letters to blend syllabic units into recognizable words, or he sounds out and blends graphemes into phonemes (Goldstein, 2011).

Readers need to be aware of the relationship between letters and sounds in order to decode unfamiliar words. Studies, to date, have clearly documented that sound knowledge is a factor that affects the process of learning how to read. Many studies revealed that knowledge of the sound representations of letters or groups of letters is a strong predictor of reading development (Burgess & Lonigan, 1998; McBride- Chang, 1999; Clayton et al., 2020). Another important factor that has an impact on the process of learning to read is found to be the orthographic characteristics of the target language (Durgunoğlu & Öney, 1999).

2.1.1.2 Beginning to Read in English: A Deep Orthography

The complexity of the phonological system of the languages may differ with respect to their word formation rules, phonemic and syllabic structure and orthography (Chiappe et al., 2002). The orthography of each language is distinctive (Miller, 2019). Orthography refers to the combination of a set of graphemes, such as an alphabet, and a set of rules that govern how they are used. The linguistic level at which forms are expressed orthographically is referred to as the *depth* of an orthography (Frost & Katz, 1992; Seifart, 2006). Based on their depth or how easily a word's pronunciation can be inferred from its spelling, alphabetical orthographies fall into two different categories:

Shallow (transparent) orthographies and deep (opaque) orthographies. This categorization is created based on the grapheme-phoneme correspondences of the writing systems. In shallow orthographies, the correspondence between letters (graphemes) and sounds (phonemes) are close to one to one, and the spelling of words is highly consistent. Languages such as Finnish, Spanish, Turkish and Korean are examples for shallow orthographies (Frost & Katz, 1992). In the writing systems that have deep (opaque) orthographies, there is no one-to-one relationship between sounds (phonemes) and letters (graphemes), thus the spelling of words is less consistent. French, Danish and English are labeled to have a deep orthography (Seifart, 2006; Ziegler & Goswami, 2006; Elbro, 2013).

The orthographic features of a particular language that children are learning to master may have an impact on the processes of PA formation and learning to read (Waters & Seidenberg, 1985; Frith et al., 1998; Durgunoğlu & Öney, 1999; Goswami, 2002c; Seymour & Erskine, 2003; Seymour et al., 2003; Aro, 2004; Aro & Wimmer 2003). This is called orthographic depth hypothesis (Katz & Frost, 1992). Understanding the effect of the nature of the language on the development of PA is crucial in order to better comprehend how various language contexts affect the PA development and have a deeper understanding of the process of PA acquisition (Durgunoğlu & Öney, 1999). Learning to read in any language involves recognizing graphemes (printed letters), decoding their sounds, and combining those sounds into words (Miller, 2019), and thus it requires the analysis of the link between graphemes and phonemes (Ziegler et al., 1997; Piasecka, 2011). For example, when one comes across with the word *cup*, in order to decode the word, he should know that the grapheme *c* corresponds to the /k/ sound, *u* corresponds to the /ʌ/ sound and *p* corresponds to the sound /p/ (Miller, 2019).

This task is not as easy as it seems. The English alphabet has an uneven number of letters and sounds (Khalilzadeh, 2014), comprising 26 letters and 44 sounds. However, there are at least 500 ways to spell them (Moats, 2010). It was revealed that there are more than 4000 common English words that are unpredictable in their spelling. Some words have really exceptional and little-used spelling patterns. To illustrate, while reading the frequently used words <be>, <he>, <me>, <she>, <we> the final letter *e* is uttered as a long /ee/. However, the same letter *e* is pronounced

differently in the word *the* which is the most frequently used English word (Bell, 2008). The same sort of problem occurs in the reading of *weather* and idea. After learning to decode the word *weather*, when a beginner reader comes across with the word *idea* he/she assumes that the digraph */ea/* ought to be pronounced similarly (Wells, 2008).

In English, there are also a vast number of words that are written exactly the same way but pronounced differently. These are called homographs, e.g. read [ri:d] and read [red]. Moreover, some words are spelled differently, but pronounced the same way (Khalilzadeh, 2014). These are named as homophones, e.g., 'niece' and 'knees' [niːs]; 'eight' and 'ate'[eɪt]; 'here' and 'hear'[hɪər] are examples for homophones.

There are also different ways to pronounce some letters in the English alphabet as they correspond to more than one sound. The letter *c* is, for instance, potentially misleading. While it corresponds to the sound [s] in the city, it is pronounced as [k] in *cut*. Yet, many English sounds can be represented by more than one letter. This complication can be exemplified by the sound [k], which can be represented by *c*, *k*, or *q* (Miller, 2019).

Another source of difficulty for ELLs is both consonant digraphs (sh, ch, th, wh, ph, and gh) and vowel digraphs (e.g., oo, ou, oa, and aw), and silent letters (e.g., e in cake, gh in light, and g in sign) in English which may not exist in learners' native language (Barone & Xu, 2018). Highlighting the complexity of English language orthography, Mesmer and Griffith (2006) define three layers in English language spellings: "a straight sound layer (e.g., bit, got); a pattern layer that varies in complexity (e.g., chick, lake, straight); and a meaning layer, which maintains unusual and irregular sound symbol spellings due to morphemes (e.g., hymn, hymnal)" (p.367). The given examples show that there is no dependable formula for determining which to use when.The baffling orthographic system of English can mislead the reader (Sipra, 2013), as the words may be pronounced differently from what one might anticipate based on how they look. As a result, the learner may find himself frustrated and bewildered. English has extremely deep orthography. This explains why reading abilities of children who are learning to read in English improve at a slower rate during the early years of reading instruction at school. English has such a variety of

inconsistencies (Aro & Wimmer, 2003; Hanley et al., 2004; Bell, 2008; Hanley, 2010; Caravolas et al., 2013; Seidenberg, 2013).

Learning the functional relationship between orthography and phonology is essential for improving reading ability and language learning (Ziegler et al., 1997). However, English as a second language (ESL) learners will face some challenges while cracking the code of the English language system, especially those who come from backgrounds with dissimilar orthographies. It is suggested that, the closer the orthographies of L1 and L2, the greater the likelihood that transfer of PA skills will be favorable (Bialystok, 2002). A Turkish student, who tries to master reading in the English language will probably attempt to transfer his L1 phonological knowledge to the L2 reading. As the reading and spelling system of Turkish displays transparency (Oney & Durgunoğlu, 1997), the reader will assume that the same applies in English, in which letter and sound correspondences are not as clear-cut as in Turkish. Such an attempt to infer the pronunciation of unknown words based on L1 knowledge may result in 'orthographic reading' which means reading what you see (Piasecka, 2011). This negative transfer (Ford, 2005) may cause undesired outcomes such as inappropriate pronunciation, demotivation (Piasecka, 2011), confusion and anxiety.

It is important to support learners to overcome the problems they have with such irregularities of English. It is suggested that children who are learning to read in English need more comprehensive phonics instruction than is required for children learning to read in transparent orthographies (Hanley, 2010). Children should be encouraged to realize that English has different letter-sound correspondences than their L1 (Piasecka, 2011). Orthographic knowledge is considered to stem directly from phonological knowledge (Kaefer, 2016). As phonological and orthographic operations are interrelated and interdependent (Goswami, 1994), phonics instruction plays a huge role in preventing any kind of frustration that children may have as a result of the complicated English language system. It is suggested that teaching children how to decode words by presenting the strategy of transforming letters into sounds helps them to better comprehend and memorize the graphic representations of the words (Dlugosz, 2000).

2.2 Phonological Awareness

2.2.1 Definition of Phonological Awareness

Linguistics, dealing with speech sounds in any language, focuses on two main branches; phonology and phonetics. Coming from the Greek root, phon-, they are both concerned with how human speech is recognized, produced, used, transmitted, and received. Phonetics is seen as a prerequisite for phonological analysis, just as phonology is a prerequisite for phonetic analysis (Odden, 2005). As several aspects of these two terminologies overlap, blurring the distinctions between them (Odden, 2005), they are often confused and used interchangeably by the researchers and practitioners (Lewkowicz, 1980; Scarborough & Brady, 2002; Pufpaff, 2009). If one wants to read about or add to the literature of reading, he must be knowledgeable about phonological terminology (Scarborough & Brady, 2002). As this study aims to contribute to the field of literacy, it is important to understand the nature of phonology and phonetics, and how these two related fields differ from each other.

Phonology examines how languages use sounds to distinguish words from each other. Phonetics, on the other hand, is a system for objectively defining and recording the sounds of language. In other words, phonology is concerned with how the sounds are perceived and organized, whereas phonetics is concerned with the physical properties of spoken sounds or signs (Kelly, 2000). In addition to that, phonetics studies the function of sounds in a particular language, while PA examines this without being tied to a specific language (Martinet, 1985). Thus, ‘it would be wrong to assume that phonology is always monolingual.’ (Kelly, 2000, p.9).

Related to this, the concepts of PA and phonemic awareness are characterized as the acquisition of abilities that require paying attention to, identifying, differentiating, and utilizing spoken language when there is no print present (Pufpaff, 2009). However, they have different meanings. PA is "the awareness of the phonological structure of spoken words" (Haddad, 2019, p.18) and the ability to distinguish and manipulate various units of speech sounds while phonemic awareness, which is one of the subsets of PA, is the particular ability to distinguish and manipulate phonemes (Piasta & Hudson, 2022). PA can also be defined as recognizing that syllables are made of sounds, words are made of syllables and sentences are made up of words (Allor, 2002).

When a speaker is phonologically aware, they may perform mental operations on the individual syllables and sounds that make up each word (Denton et al., 2000). It is important to mention another related term, phonics, which is also often confused with PA. Phonics focuses on the written form of the spoken language and refers to the understanding that letter symbols can be used to represent sounds (Schuele & Boudreau, 2008).

PA includes a range of abilities. Some of the cognitive skills that learners have who manifest mastery of PA are identifying and producing rhymes, alliteration, recognizing words in a sentence or syllables in a word, noticing the same initial, medial, and final sounds and manipulating individual spoken sounds (Ünal Gezer, 2021), and counting the number of phonemes in spoken words (Stahl & Murray, 1994). The following section will describe the development of PA.

2.2.2 Development of Phonological Awareness

PA is characterized as a metalinguistic ability that emerges relatively late, after a child finishes the majority of her language development (Snowling & Hulme, 1994). Two overlapping patterns of this development are evident. There is a consensus that 'PA is a single, unified ability during the preschool and early elementary school years that manifests itself in different skills throughout a person's development.' (Anthony & Francis, 2005, p.256) Thus, PA is heterotypic (Anthony et al., 2003).

Awareness of the developmental, psycholinguistic conceptualization of PA is crucial for educators as it plays an influential role in setting PA achievement goals, identifying the scope of PA instruction procedures both for typical children and children with reading disabilities, the evaluation of PA, diagnosis of the deficiencies in education and early intervention which aims to prevent dyslexia (Anthony, 2003; Anthony et al., 2003; Anthony & Francis, 2005; Schuele & Boudreau, 2008). Variety of PA measures have been administered to people of different ages, reading proficiencies, family backgrounds and languages in order to discover the sequence of PA development. Developmental models of PA propose a stage-like acquisition of the skills (see Frith, 1985; Goswami & Bryant, 1990; Treiman & Zukowski, 1996; Anthony et al., 2003; Lonigan et al., 2003; Anthony & Francis, 2005; Phillips et al., 2008; Pfost, 2015; Goswami, 2019;). Differences among individuals' skills occur in

the measurements of both linguistic complexity and cognitive skills (Anthony et al., 2003).

In terms of linguistic complexity, the development of PA occurs in steps, starting with the recognition of "big" units (coarse) and ending with the recognition of "small" units which are phonemes (fine-grained) at all sequential points in the word (see Anthony et al., 2003; Goswami & Bryant, 1990; Goswami, 2002; Hempenstall, 2003; Phillips et al., 2008; Treiman & Zukowski, 1991, 1996). This sequence seems to be language-universal, at least for all languages studied so far (Goswami, 2002). Goswami (2002), describes the PA development based on the structural level. According to him, PA develops over a four-stage process. The stages are as follows (Goswami, 2002):

- Word awareness
- Syllable awareness
- Onset-rime awareness
- Phonemic awareness

The simplest and coarsest level of phonological sensitivity is word recognition. In addition to knowing that phrases and sentences are composed of individual words, someone with word awareness is able to manipulate words within phrases and sentences. Syllable awareness is another component of PA. Having understood that sentences consist of words and words are of different lengths, students next understand that words are divided into syllables, or word parts. "Because syllables are finer-grained linguistic units compared to words, they might be harder to pin down for young learners." (Ünal Gezer, 2021, p.2686). As a further refined layer of syllable awareness, the “onset” is the initial consonant or consonant cluster of any word and the term “rime” refers to the rest of the letters that follow. (For example, in the word 'hat', *h* is the onset, *at* is the rime). When children understand the onset and rimes, they are able to decode new words. The final and the finest-grained subcategory of PA is phonemic awareness. Children who have conscious awareness of phonemes can recognize and work with the smallest units of sound in a spoken word. Blending the speech sounds to make a word, segmenting the word into its separate speech sounds, finding the words in a sentence that start with the same sound, distinguishing and saying the first or last sound in a word are some of the abilities that children display with phonemic

awareness (Goswami, 2002). It should be noted that phonemes are different from spelling or the letters of a word (Rief & Stern, 2010). The word ‘but’, for instance, has three phonemes or distinct sounds: /b/ /ʌ/ /t/.

In a similar vein, Anthony et al. (2003) provide the following description of PA development: The first skill that children exhibit is the ability to detect large phonological units such as words and syllables. Then, they start to manipulate phonemes. When they reach the final stage, they demonstrate rudimentary or shallow phonological sensitivity such as awareness of syllables and rhymes. It is also found that children learned to perform certain cognitive operations on phonological information before other cognitive operations, controlling for linguistic complexity. The children learned to detect manipulations of phonological information before they were able to perform manipulations of phonological information and that children learned to blend phonological information before they learned to elide phonological information (Anthony et al., 2003).

Development of PA may differ across orthographies. Developmental differences exist in the grain size of lexical representations and reading strategies in different orthographies. Children who learn orthographically consistent languages with a simple syllabic (CV) structure, like Finnish and Italian, advance their phoneme-level skills the quickest. However, to successfully acquire literacy in English, both "large" and "small" units are crucial (Goswami, 2002).

2.2.3 The Role of Phonological Awareness in Reading Acquisition

As previously mentioned, PA and reading have a strong relationship. There exists a considerable body of literature on this relationship. The link between PA and reading has been tested across different languages such as Turkish (Durgunoğlu & Öney, 2002; Karakelle, 2004; Durgunoğlu, 2006; Babayiğit & Stainthorp, 2007; Erdoğan, 2011; Ergül et al., 2021; Örge et al., 2021); English (Zifcak, 1981; Blaiklock, 2004; Ruan et al., 2018; Powell & Atkinson, 2021) Portuguese (Cardoso-Martins, 1995); Italian (Cossu et al., 1988); Spanish (Carillo, 1994; Denton et al., 2000; Míguez-Álvarez et al., 2021); Chinese (Ruan et al., 2018); French (Ecalle & Magnan, 2007); Arabic (Makhoul, 2017); Lithuanian (Sprugevica & Høien, 2004); and Finnish

(Lerkkanen et al., 2004). However, it is difficult to determine to what extent PA is a cause or consequence of success in beginning reading (Stahl & Murray, 1994).

There are three hypotheses explaining how PA and reading are related. The first one argues that PA is a cause of reading success (Zifcak, 1981; Bradley & Bryant, 1983; Bradley & Bryant, 1991; Stanovich, 1993; Chaney, 1998; Huo et al., 2005). The second belief supports the opposite: PA is a consequence of reading success (Ehri, 1989; Stahl & Murray, 1994). The third belief asserts that the interaction between PA and reading acquisition is a two-way street, in other words, it is a reciprocal relationship. It is believed that awareness of phonology improves reading, which in turn facilitates PA (Bentin & Leshem, 1993; Torgesen & Wagner, 1994; Wagner et al., 1994; Denton et al., 2000; Rayner et al., 2001).

The first adequate empirical evidence of the causal relationship between PA and reading was shown by a study conducted by Bradley and Bryant (1983). Their study included two different methods and Bradley and Bryant (1983) claimed that no study has combined these two methods in the field of developmental research. The first method was the longitudinal study, in which they assessed sound categorization skills of 403 children prior to the acquisition of reading. They related their scores to their progress both in reading and spelling during the next four years of time at the end of which they had 368 learners. There was a strong relationship between the scores of the learners in initial sound categorization and their performance in reading and spelling three years later.

The second method was an intensive sound categorization instruction, or other types of categorization training which was provided to a subgroup of the larger one that consisted of 65 learners. Considering the ages, verbal intelligences and their scores in the sound categorization test, students were divided into four groups. During 40 individual sessions over two years, two groups received intensive training in sound categorization. Both groups were taught that words can be categorized based on their beginning (talk, tall), middle (hit, sit) and ending sounds (man, hen). In addition to this, group two was taught the written forms of these sounds. The other two groups served as controls. During the same number of sessions and periods, the third group learns to categorize words as well, but based on their meaning. For instance, sharks and whales belong to the same category as they both are sea animals, and cows and

chickens are both farm animals. Group four didn't receive any instruction. At the end of the year, all of the students took the spelling and reading tests. The most successful group was the one which received sound categorization and alphabetic letters instruction. The group which was trained on sound categorization had higher scores than the group that received only conceptual categorization. Group three and four scored the same.

Similarly, Hulme et al. (2012) found a causal relationship between PA and the development of students' reading skills in English as L1. The study was conducted with 152 children who had the poorest verbal abilities in 19 different schools in the UK. They were five years old at the beginning of the study. Their skills in spoken language, phonological skills, and literacy were tested through a broad battery of tests before receiving 20 weeks of intervention, after ten weeks of intervention, at the end of the intervention and five months after the intervention was over. The intervention program included training of letter-sound and oral phoneme awareness with book reading. Based on the test results, it was concluded that levels of the letter-sound and phoneme awareness fully explain the effects of the intervention on literacy scores. At the end of the intervention, students showed great progress in prose-reading accuracy, nonword reading, phoneme segmentation and blending, spelling, letter-sound knowledge. Five months after the intervention ended, the children's word-level literacy skills continued to improve, totally affected by the improvement in PA and letter-sound knowledge.

It was also revealed that there was a stronger correlation between kindergarten letter identification and 2nd grade PA than between kindergarten PA and 2nd grade word reading. The correlation between 2nd grade PA and 4th grade word reading was significant. However, the correlation between 2nd grade PA and 4th grade word reading was not significant (Hogan et al., 2005).

PA in L1 is also shown to be linked with reading in L2. Attempting to uncover the relationship between phonological abilities in L1 and reading development in L2, Christina Ng (2006) compared two groups of 159 Chinese students who are the learners of the English language. These groups differed in terms of former experience in the process of learning to read in their L1. The first group did not receive any instruction that aimed to raise PA in their L1, while the latter did. The results showed

that the group with PA training experience in their L1 developed their reading skills better in comparison with controls. This showed that the transfer of phonological knowledge to second language learning allowed the second group to build more effective L2 decoding abilities and speed up the development of their second language reading skills. Limited phonological knowledge impeded the development of L2 decoding and reading (Ng, 2006).

Ng (2006), conducted two more studies to see the contribution of PA instruction on reading performance and determine the appropriate level or age for receiving the training through a pretest - training - posttest control group design. Her first study consisted of 63 secondary one school Chinese learners of English in Hong Kong. While the control group did not get any phonological instruction, the experimental group did what during a 12 weeks period during the first term of the school year with a one-hour session. The participants of her second study were 118 grade one Chinese learners of English. She applied the same procedure to this group, providing PA instruction to the experimental group which lasted 15 weeks and not teaching anything about PA to the control group. Measuring primary and secondary level students' phonological skills, decoding skills, reading comprehension and spelling before and after the training period, it was concluded that training at primary level was much more effective than training at secondary level. Students at primary school showed greater improvement than the secondary level students. It was also proved that the causal link between phonological skills and reading development can be seen in L2 as well (Ng, 2006).

Perfetti et al. (1987) on the other hand claimed that this relationship was reciprocal. They conducted a study which had 82 1st grader learners as a sample. They found that learning to read helped 1stgraders to accomplish the deletion tasks, which is one of the PA activities. This was because reading increases sensitivity to constituents (Perfetti et al., 1987). What is more, earlier phonemic success predicted later reading success, and reading success predicted later phonemic awareness. However, the first one predicted more.

Another study proved a bidirectional relationship between reading and PA was conducted by Clayton et al. (2020). Longitudinal conclusions were obtained based on the results of the study conducted on a sample of 191 children during their first year

of school in Greater London. The aim of this recent study was to analyze the relationship between a variety of essential phonological language abilities and the development of early reading. During the first year of formal reading instruction, students were evaluated four times in terms of phoneme awareness, letter-sound knowledge and alphanumeric RAN (rapid automatized naming), which is a feature of phonological processing that makes it possible to recall the names and sounds of letters, symbols, words, word chunks, phrases, and rhymes without conscious effort. Results showed that phoneme awareness, letter-sound knowledge and alphanumeric RAN served as reliable independent predictors of reading development. They also found that as children showed progress in reading, their level of phoneme awareness and RAN increased, which is the evidence of them having a reciprocal relationship with reading.

Children's PA in kindergarten is a highly reliable predictor of their ability to read in the future. Examining the relationship between the PA skills of 133 kindergarten students and their word reading skills in the 1st grade of primary school, Sogancı (2017), found out that word reading performance of readers with good PA skills was significantly higher than those with poor PA skills as they decoded words more accurately and faster.

Phonological processing and spoken language skills must both be taken into account in language-based theories of reading and reading difficulties. Stanovich (2000) stated, *"I have hypothesized that if there is a specific cause of reading disability at all, it resides in the area of PA."* (p. 200). Grouping 604 2ndgraders based on their reading performance, Catts et al. (1999) found that over 70% of the participants, who had a hard time in reading had linguistic difficulties in kindergarten in the past. The majority of these kids struggled with oral language as well as phonological processing.

Aiming to clarify which linguistic and cognitive skills affect reading fluency, Orge et al. (2021), obtained results that are parallel with the presented study. The sample was 65 good and poor 2nd grader Turkish readers. Regression analysis showed that the most important criterion predicting reading skill of low-progress readers was PA, while morphological awareness was the most effective factor for good readers.

PA training contributes to reading development. Başaran and Yeşilyurt (2020) aimed to investigate if receiving PA instruction benefitted the reading performance of

1st graders at a public school. Experimental group had PA lessons once a week during one term period while the control group did not. Both control and experimental groups took pre- and posttest to determine their reading performance. It was revealed that PA instruction affected and improved the reading performance of the experimental group, as this group showed greater progress than the control group during the second term of the school year (Başaran & Yeşilyurt, 2020).

Training in PA is proven to benefit children at preschool level as well. Byrne and Fielding-Barnsley (1991) aimed to evaluate the effectiveness of a program called Sound Foundations, which emphasized phoneme identification across words. The experimental group of 64 children exhibited higher phonemic awareness skills than the control group of 62 kids at the end of the 12 weeks intervention period than they showed before the training.

Byrne and Fielding-Barnsley (1991) conducted another study with the same participants toward the end of their 1st year in elementary school. As some of the students had left the school during the year, there were 63 experimental children and 56 controls for this one-year follow-up study. To understand the literacy skills of the students, a test which included word identification, pseudoword identification, letter-sound knowledge, and spelling of both real words and pseudowords was applied. The results were not surprising, as the experimental group had higher scores, which was the evidence that PA leads to higher reading development.

Lundberg et al. (1988) developed a program which aimed to improve the PA of six-year-olds who are unable to read. The program included games, nursery rhymes, and rhyming stories. 235 Danish children were instructed over a period of eight months. Based on the results of pre and posttests of the experimental group and 155 learners of the control group, it was concluded that the program helped students in rhyming tasks and tasks that involved word and syllable manipulation. To see the long-term effects of the training, authors assessed the children's performance in reading and spelling in 1st and 2nd grade. They found that PA instruction in preschool can facilitate later reading and spelling learning.

A study in Beirut, Lebanon, emphasizes the value of the preschool years in developing proficient readers. The posttest results of two experimental and two control groups revealed that children in the experimental group improved their PA skills in

English significantly after receiving a 12-week systematic PA instruction where English is taught as a second language (Bdeir et al., 2022).

PA instruction does not only contribute to the PA of typically developing children, but also benefits students with Down syndrome (Kennedy & Flynn, 2003), learning disabilities (Bhat et al., 2003) and severe dyslexia (Alexander et al., 1991). PA training appears to benefit adolescents, who struggle reading, as well.A group of 9th grade learners (n: 15) in a literacy class at a high school received 20 minutes of PA instruction. Over the course of the semester students significantly improved their reading skills (Harris, 2007).

Similar results as those reported so far may well be found in writing. Examining the relationship between PA and writing skills of 297 Singaporean kindergarteners most of whom were bilinguals, Dixon (2011) confirmed that PA influences children's writing development. What was surprising in her study was that although the instruction that children received was based on whole-word memorization, there was a statistically significant correlation between PA and English writing scores.

2.2.4 Phonological Awareness Instruction

The literature is replete with documentation that PA is a skill that can be taught and improved (Cunningham, 1990; Ball & Blachman, 1991; Torgesen et al., 1992; Yopp, 1995; Brennan & Ireson, 1997; Chard and Dickson, 1999; Giambo & McKinney, 2004; Bowyer-Crane et al., 2008; Schuele & Boudreau, 2008; Ziolkowski & Goldstein, 2008; O'Leary et al., 2010; Callcott et al., 2014; Partanen et al., 2019). Child-initiated PA activities and assistance of more experienced peers and adults benefit children (Torgesen & Davis, 1996; Bredekamp & Copple, 1997).

It might be arduous for a child, who lacks PA to rhyme, syllabicate, or spell a new word by its sound. Thus, teachers should spare some time teaching phonetics and pronunciation to improve young learners' PA (Yopp, 1992). Children should be supported through their journey of PA acquisition whether they are learning to read in L1 or L2. The following two chapters draw a picture of how students in Türkiye are supported in the PA development in L1 and L2.

2.2.4.1 Phonological Awareness Instruction in L1 in Türkiye

While learning to read in a transparent language, readers use a phonological pathway (Özdemir et al., 2012). Thus, the phonics approach is found to be the most appropriate one for Turkish students as it draws attention to the similarities between graphemes and sounds (MEB, 2005).

The curriculum in Türkiye has adopted a phoneme-based sentence approach since 2005. In this approach the introduction of the sounds is the first step. Students are taught the letters in a specific order as it is believed that it enables them to learn the correct spelling of words during the writing process (MEB, 2005). A set of features are considered while determining the sequence of the introduction of the sounds: the phonetic structure of Turkish, the ease of writing the letters, the possibility of producing meaningful syllables and words by combining these letters (Sağırlı, 2019). The stages of the teaching of letters is as follows:

Group One (Ee, Ll, Aa, Tt)

Group Two (İi, Nn, Oo, Rr, Mm)

Group Three (Uu, Kk, Iı, Yy, Ss, Dd)

Group Four (Öö, Bb, Üü, Şş, Zz, Çç)

Group Five (Gg, Cc, Pp, Hh)

Group Six (Ğğ, Vv, Ff, Jj) (MEB, 2005).

After gaining an understanding of the sounds, children learn how to blend these sounds to make meaningful syllables. Then they are expected to combine the syllables to reach at the word level. Finally, they learn to make sentences. Students are not introduced to more challenging tasks before they master the simple ones. There is a coherent sequence in the instruction based on less complex to more complex structures.

Through phoneme-based sentence instruction, the aim is to to develop the following skills: distinguishing the sounds, matching the visuals with the sounds, sounding out the sound, writing the sounds he hears, forming syllables from sounds, reading syllables, writing syllables, building words from syllables, reading words, writing words, matching words with images, making sentences, reading sentences, writing sentences, expressing sentences with visuals and creating text (MEB, 2005).

2.2.4.2 Phonological Awareness Instruction in EFL Classrooms in Türkiye

Öney and Durgunoğlu, (1997) note that Turkish, having a transparent orthography, offers a clear advantage to the learners. On the other hand, English is not a transparent language like Turkish. As a consequence, EFL (English as a foreign language) learners in Türkiye need extra support when they learn English.

One argument was that primary school students do not receive sufficient PA instruction in English lessons at public schools in Türkiye (Ünal Gezer, 2021). She claims that while the communicative competence of the learners is prioritized, their ability to read in English is overlooked. She states that there is a visible need to create a developmentally appropriate framework in the primary English curriculum for the introduction and practice of literacy skills in English.

The situation is the same at private schools in Türkiye. Although students have at least eight-hour-long classes of English weekly at four well-known private schools in Ankara, they do not benefit from PA instruction. Information obtained from English language teachers working at these private schools show that the importance of enhancing PA skills of foreign language students is often disregarded in English instruction. The private schools do not have any appropriate framework to improve PA skills.

2.2.4.3 Phonics Method

Analyzing the content and context of eight articles which focused on the relationship between reading and PA across language settings, Jamaludin et al. (2018) concluded that phonics instruction benefited both the native readers, and they further added that ESL readers who had phonics lessons had a solid reading foundation and they learnt reading more rapidly than their peers. They also read more fluently and accurately. Thus, structured literacy or explicit phonics instruction should be part of the curriculum to build foundational skills for reading and writing (Byrne & Fielding-Barnsley, 1991; Hatcher et al., 1994; Moats, 2019). Convergent evidence from training studies has shown that systematic PA instruction that is paired with sound-letter training is more effective than instruction of PA alone as it improved the early reading and spelling skills of the students (Bradley & Bryant, 1985; Cunningham, 1990; Ball & Blachmann, 1991, 1998; Hatcher, 2000; Ehri et al., 2001; Suggate, 2011).

Systematic phonics refers to the teaching of sounds in accordance with a defined plan or program (Shanahan, 2005). There are a variety of systematic phonics programs that are created to help children build reading and spelling skills. Two major phonics methods are 'analytic' (implicit) phonics and 'synthetic phonics.' Both of them provide methods that teach decoding skills while including meaning, like word family analysis and decodable text. Another feature they have in common is that they both teach predetermined sets of phonic elements progressively (de Graff et al., 2009). These two methods differ in terms of the sequence they follow.

In the analytic phonics approach, students are encouraged to analyze a particular sound of a word. First, the entire word is the focus, and only then are its various parts individually examined (Huo & Wang, 2017). Following tasks are examples of analytic activities: "Tell me the first sound in the word car", "Say hop without the sound /h/", "Name a word that begins with the same sound as tall".

On the other hand, the synthetic phonics approach "focuses on the explicit instruction of alphabetic principles and applying the knowledge to sounding out novel words." (Huo & Wang, 2017, p.9). In this approach, students start with blending. It makes use of a part-to-whole method in which the sounds connected to the individual letters and letter combinations are first grasped, and then the sounds are blended to form the word. In the synthetic approach, the instructor may ask the following question to the learners: "What word do these sounds make, /s/-/i-/t/?"

To achieve the best results, educators should use both synthetic and analytic phonics approaches, which means including both analytic and synthetic activities adopting a balanced approach to phonics training (Goswami, 1999; Torgesen & Mathes, 2002). This is the combination researchers used in the present study while integrating storybooks to early English instruction.

2.2.4.4 Storybooks to Improve Phonological Awareness

It is suggested that PA instruction should include reading of related text (Ford, 2005; Ünal Gezer, 2021). Helping to create a meaningful context for language acquisition, storybooks serve as teaching tools and provide teachers with abundant support that combine enjoyment, reality, and effective learning (Suhardiana & Lestari, 2020).

Storybooks are also rich in terms of many concepts of literacy such as alliteration, rhymes, and word families which are fundamentals of early literacy development (Cameron, 2001; Suhardiana & Lestari, 2020; Ünal Gezer, 2021). Intentionally including PA instruction into storybook reading can give kids a rich framework for not just appreciating books but also learning about words, syllables, rhyme, onset-rimes, and phonemes (Mihai et al. 2014). Ünal Gezer (2021) claims that Turkish early English training does not adequately incorporate children's literature. Although teachers include books in their teaching, they do not know how to effectively embed it. Moats (2017) asserts that "teaching is not being driven by expert, scientific consensus." (p.16). While teachers are choosing books to use in the lessons, they consider their appeal, their topic, their author, or their readability or level. They disregard the importance of raising learners' awareness of phonemes and teaching them to identify and manipulate sounds in spoken language or to recognize the patterns in the written language (Moats, 2017). What teachers need to do is to highlight the regular patterns while reading a text. They should also emphasize the metalanguage slowly and carefully, provide explanations, making sure that information given does not confuse the learners, rather, make sense for them (Cameron, 2001).

Cameron (2001) shares a plan for doing short, intensive, focused periods of teaching around lower-level literacy features such as sight words, initial consonants, rimes, final consonants, vowels, morphemes, consonant clusters and blends. The 5-stage procedure is adopted from a model by Dechant (1991). The steps are as follows:

1. Create a meaningful context.
2. Draw learners' attention to the target unit.
3. Provide input.
4. Include a variety of activities to practice sounds.
5. Provide students opportunities to use the knowledge they acquired, and skills in diverse situations.

Rhyming story books are found to be fun for young learners. Teachers should emphasize rhymes, which children are often interested in. When provided, rhyme makes linguistic information more appealing to kids, which enhances the amount of attention they give (Hayes et al., 1982). It is also suggested that reading aloud or shared reading helps children understand that there is a print version of the spoken word and

recognize the relationship between letters and sounds (Duursma et al., 2008). It is important to note that reading aloud from picture books has little effect on children's PA when phonological aspects are not introduced explicitly (Justice et al., 2005). In addition to emphasizing the sound patterns, the teacher should read the story in an enthusiastic way demonstrating her enjoyment to the students. Teachers can dramatize the story by acting out and mimicking sounds and voices.

Chera and Wood (2003) investigated the effect of animated talking books on the PA of 60 pre-school students which spanned the ages three to six. The computer was made available to the children and they were observed interacting with it. The study also had a control group which involved 15 students. The controls were matched with the intervention group children based on age, gender, and level of letter sound knowledge at the time of the pretest in order to allow for a precise examination of the quantitative outcomes of the intervention. Before the intervention, all of the students' levels of word reading, visual and auditory letter sound awareness and rhyme awareness were assessed individually. While the control group completed normal taks, the program that the experimental group received included six full-length animated multimedia talking books. In addition to the texts, students did some book-related activities on the computer which aimed to raise the awareness of analogy reading. Each book had two pages of activities. Over the course of four weeks, each kid in the intervention group received ten, ten-minute software treatments. At the end of this period, learners took the same tests. When the pretest and posttest scores of the both groups were compared, it was found that the PA of the experimental group increased higher than the control group's PA (Chera & Wood, 2003).

Giambo and McKinney (2004) aimed to compare the effectiveness of PA instruction and story-book reading. The sample of the study consisted of 60 Spanish-speaking kindergarten children. Most of the children had limited English proficiency. 30 students received PA instruction while the 30 learners were in the story-reading condition. Students' levels of PA were tested before and after the intervention. The PA measure included elision, blending, segmenting and sound matching tasks. The intervention took around 19 weeks. Students received a total of sixty lessons, each lasted approximately 20–25 minutes. PA instruction was systematic. First, children learnt about rhyming. This was followed by segmentation and blending activities.

Then, teachers introduced sound-letter relationships. Finally, making links between sounds and letters, creating and manipulating words by deleting initial and ending letters to make new words, and other PA exercises were used to teach learners how to apply their skills to reading and writing. The group who read story-books did not receive any PA instruction. After reading the storybook, they did follow-up activities that were in line with the school district language arts requirements for their age level. When the pretest and posttest results were compared, it was revealed that both PA instruction and story-book reading instruction raised students' PA awareness, but PA instruction was more effective than story-book reading.

2.2.5 Assessment of Phonological Awareness

Adams (1990b) states that we cannot strictly and categorically define learners as phonemically aware or phonemically unaware. He believes phonemic awareness is not an all-or-nothing skill. Assessment, which is an essential element of the educational process of education, plays a huge role in determining the level of PA of the students. Assessment entails collecting and analyzing data to draw reliable conclusions regarding teaching and learning (Papp, 2018). It is crucial that educators know how much their students are aware of the phonology of the language. Measuring and evaluating PA skills of the students is necessary for identifying children who may have reading difficulties (Chard & Dickson, 1999) and taking the necessary precautions by providing them support which address their needs. Assessment also enables teachers to periodically monitor the students' progress in PA, (Chard & Dickson, 1999) evaluate the efficiency of teaching and learning (Papp, 2018), and plan their lessons accordingly and select the most appropriate teaching materials to be used. However, it is not an easy task to determine the levels of PA of students as it is only possible through skillful assessment. "Skillful assessment", what Landrigan and Mulligan (2013, p. 20) termed as assessment literacy (Landrigan & Mulligan, 2013) necessitates instructors to know, understand and be able to implement suitable diagnostic and technically adequate assessment processes, including the careful selection of assessment tools.' (Carson & Bayetto, 2018).

There are a variety of ways to apply this. To choose the most appropriate method, instructors should consider the number of children to be assessed, the amount of

existing information about the children, and the amount of time available (Lane & Pullen, 2004). In addition to that, teachers should make sure that the tool chosen is valid, reliable, easy to use in the classroom (Yopp, 1995; Torgesen & Mathes, 2002; Büyüktaşkapu, 2012), sensitive to change and has alternate forms (Kaminski & Good, 1996). The validity and reliability can be ensured if the assessment of PA matches with the PA level of the given child (Anthony & Francis, 2005).

The skills of phonological sensitivity are measured with items related to the phoneme elements of the words rather than the meanings of the words (Goswami, 2002), and these tasks vary in terms of the operation demands and the size of the phonological units (Verhoeven, 2011). Tasks used to assess PA fall into three categories: identity tasks (e.g., identifying words that rhyme), synthesis tasks (e.g., blending syllables or phonemes), or analysis tasks (e.g., breaking a sentence into words) (Phillips et al., 2008). It is important to embed a variety of tasks, which differ in terms of difficulty, so as to ensure that a wide range of developmental stages is covered (Knight & Fischer, 1992). Simple sound discrimination, complicated rhyming, manipulating the sounds of the words, both phoneme and syllable segmentation tasks should be the parts of the assessment (Knight & Fischer, 1992). A measure should also have phonemic awareness sensitivity and segmenting tasks (Chard & Dickson, 1999). If educators are aware of the order in which young children gain phonological skills, they are better able to create assessment instruments that fairly and reliably test phonological skills in the right order (Anthony et al., 2003). The following demonstration depicts the continuum of complexity of PA tasks.

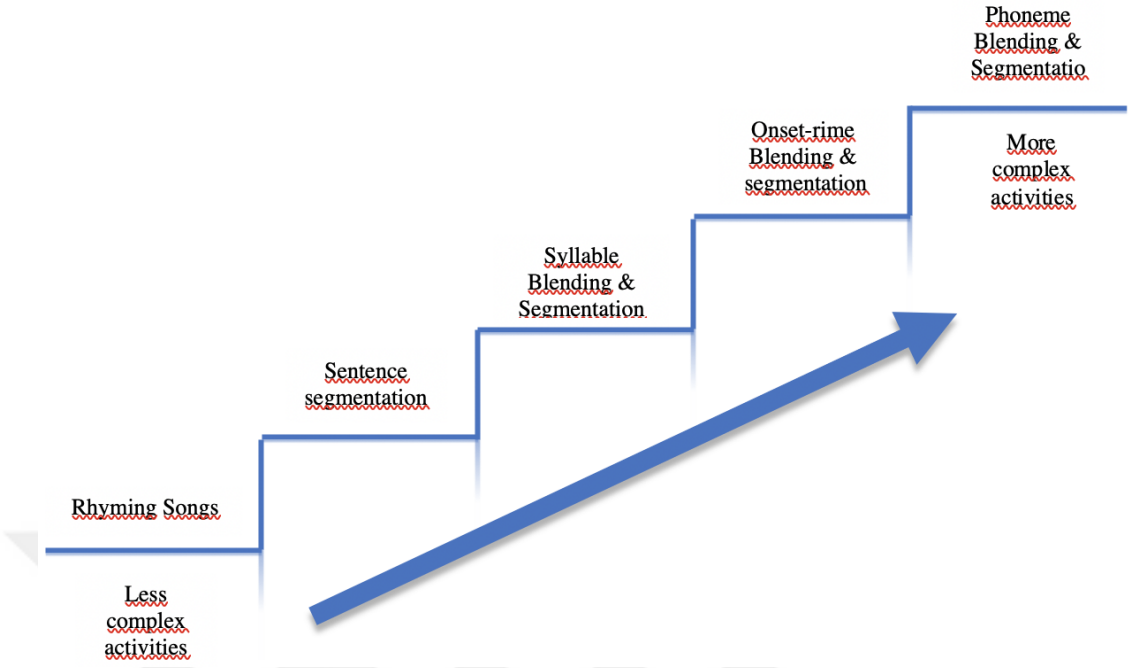


Figure 2.2. The continuum of complexity of PA tasks, adopted from Chard & Dickson (1999).

As Chard & Dickson (1999) suggest:

At the less complex end of the continuum are activities such as initial rhyming and rhyming songs as well as sentence segmentation that demonstrates an awareness that speech can be broken down into individual words. At the center of the continuum are activities related to segmenting words into syllables and blending syllables into words. Next are activities such as segmenting words into onsets and rimes and blending onsets and rimes into words. Finally, the most sophisticated level of PA is phonemic awareness (p.262).

Assessment can be done in the classroom or on a one-to-one basis. In order to obtain the most accurate and informative results, instructors should administer the tests individually rather than conducting it in a group setting (Lane et al., 2002). It is also important to make sure that students do not get frustrated during the assessment process. Teachers can include game-like tasks, to prevent any kind of boredom (Griffith & Olson, 1992). To conclude, both assessment and instruction of PA are crucial for children's reading acquisition, so they should work hand in hand.

2.2.5.1 Tasks to Measure Phonological Awareness

PA is a spectrum of a variety of skills. Aforementioned in the 'Development of PA' section, there are four levels of PA: Word, syllable, onset-rime and phoneme awareness (Goswami, 2002). PA can be measured by many different tasks. In this section, some of the tasks to assess the components of each stage are provided. Such activities also set the basis of the program adopted within this study.

Word Awareness

Word awareness is the ability to recognize that sentences are made up of single words.

Sentence Segmentation

In this task, students are asked to identify the number of the words in a sentence. For example: 'How many words are there in the sentence: '*Where is the cat*?' The answer would be *four.*

Syllable Awareness

Syllable awareness is the ability to recognize that words can be divided into syllables.

Syllable Segmentation

This task requires children to split the words into syllables. For example: 'How many syllables are there in the word television?' The answer would be *four.*

Syllable Blending

In this task, students put the individual syllables together to create words. For example: 'I am going to say the parts of the word and you will tell me what the whole word is: ham-bur-ger.' The answer would be *hamburger.*

Syllable Deletion

To complete this task, students need to omit the syllable in a word and utter the remaining part. For example: 'Say butterfly without fly.' The answer would be *butter.*

Onset-Rime Awareness

Onset-rime awareness is the recognition that words can be separated at the onset and rime level. Onset refers to the initial consonant or cluster (e.g. /p/ in pan), whereas rime refers to the vowel and any following consonant (e.g. /an/ in pan). The most common task to determine the level of onset-rime awareness is rhyming. "Rhyme refers to two words' sharing of a rime structure." (Pullen & Justice, 2003, p.90).

Rhyme Recognition

In this part, learners are provided with two or more words and asked if they rhyme. For example: 'Do cat and mat rhyme?'. The answer would be *yes.*

Rhyme Production

This task is more challenging than the rhyme recognition task. It requires children to generate words that rhyme with the provided word. 'Tell me a word that rhymes with *chair*.' The answer would be *fair*.

Phoneme Awareness

Phoneme awareness refers to the recognition that spoken words are made up of individual phonemes.

Phoneme Isolation of Initial Sounds

In this task, students say what the initial sound of the given word is. For example: 'Tell me the first sound of the word *carry*.' The answer would be /k/.

Phoneme Isolation of Final Sounds

In this task, students are expected to recognize the last sound of the provided word. For example: 'What is the last sound in the word try?'. The answer would be /ai/.

Phoneme Blending

This task requires learners to say the whole word by combining the sounds of a word which are uttered separately. For example: 'Combine the sounds and tell me the whole word *hop*. The answer would be /h/ /o/ /p/.'

Phoneme Segmentation

In this task, students split the words into their sounds. For example: 'Tell me the sounds in the word tiger.' The answer would be /t/ai/g/ə.

Elision (Phoneme Deletion)

In these types of tasks, students are instructed to repeat the provided word. Then, they are asked to utter the same word with the specific phoneme deleted. For example: 'Say *monkey* without the sound m'. The answer would be *onkey*. Similarly, they may be asked to delete the final of a given word: 'Say *car* without the sound r.' The answer would be *ca.*

Phoneme Substitution/ Manipulation

Students are instructed to replace a specific sound in a presented word with a different sound. For example: 'Replace the first sound in tail with the sound s.' The answer would be *sail.*

P.A.S.T., which is one of the phonological assessment tools, includes all of the tasks mentioned above. Thus, it is a comprehensive test measuring both receptive and productive-level English phonological awareness. It is the essential measurement tool of the present study.

2.2.6 Rhyme

Rhyme refers to the repetition of the ending sounds of two or more words. Rhyme is a crucial component of daily life; hence, this intra-syllabic unit has enormous significance. It is possible to see rhymes in songs, commercials, political slogans, and literature. They play a significant role in the lives of young children as well.

Young learner's rhyming skills deserve attention as recent research into the development and acquisition of literacy skills has proved that rhymes hold an important place in improving children's PA (Bradley & Bryant, 1983; Bryant et al., 1990). "Individual differences in sensitivity to the sound structure of oral language, as demonstrated by one's appreciation of rhyme and alliteration, influence the development of subsequent individual differences in reading skills." (Wagner et al., 1997, p.469).

If one does not initially have a decent vocabulary, it's not possible to be a good writer for him. Similarly, if one cannot distinguish between sounds and rhyming patterns, learning phonics and sight words would be quite challenging for him (Ranson, 2016). Understanding the nature of PA would be helpful to explain the relationship between rhyme and more demanding PA skills. There are shallow and deep levels of PA. Rhyme as well as alliteration belong to the shallow levels of PA, because they both involve analyzing words at the level of the onset and rime (h-it, h-ot).

"The ability to recognize and produce rhymes is an early indication that children are developing phonemic awareness." (Konza, 2011, p.2). It is revealed that the first stage of PA improvement is the recognition of rhymes (Maclean et al., 1987; Yopp,

1988; McIntyre & Freppon, 1994; Snider, 1995; Sun et al., 2015). Thus, rhyme might be seen as a prerequisite for subsequent development of deeper levels of PA (Cisero & Royer, 1995; Pullen & Justice, 2003).

Knowledge of rhyme requires simply auditory awareness of the vowel and ending consonant sounds in words (Mitchell & Fox, 2001). Learning to rhyme includes three steps: hearing rhymes (i.e.,after listening to the rhyme, the child repeats it.), recognizing rhymes (i.e., the child detects the common rhyme units across the words), and producing rhymes (i.e., the child can utter a word that ends with the same sound of the given word) (Woldmo, 2018).

Recognizing similar sounds in words is one of the earliest indications of the acquisition of alphabetic knowledge, and using the alphabetic system requires the recognition of rhymes and phonemes (Adams, 1990). Several studies showed that rhyming ability has a strong connection with reading success (Bradley & Bryant, 1983; Cardoso-Martins, 1995). One explanation for the relationship between rhyme and reading is that children's exposure to rhyme enables them to group words into categories based on their shared sounds, and later on, they relate these groups to words based on their shared spelling patterns.

It was found that children could successfully accomplish the odd word out activities which required the detection of the common rimes (MacLean et al., 1987; Bryant et al., 1990). Having the awareness that *sink, think, pink* share the common ending sound, a child can understand not only the fact that words may rhyme, but also they share a common spelling sequence. Similarly, Goswami (1986, 1988) argues that young children in the initial stages of learning to read may use orthographic analogies to decode unknown words, which he believes is a powerful strategy for improvement. Following example explains orthographic analogy: when presented with the unfamiliar word, a youngster who can read words like *cake* will be able to recognize the visual similarities between the two words and infer that if the words appear similar, they will sound similar. Children who are good at rhyme recognition may have an advantage when employing orthographic analogies (Wood, 2002; Goswami & Bryant, 2017). Goswami (1990) notes that rhyming could help with reading since in English rhymes such as light, fight, night; tail, nail, mail are frequently represented by regular spelling patterns.

The findings of (Bryant et al., 1990; MacLean et al., 1987) and Goswami (1986, 1988) together led to the birth of another theory. It is suggested that children use their pre-school knowledge of categorizing words based on the onset and rime of these words and predict the unknown words based on their knowledge with regard to the common rimes (Goswami & Bryant, 1990; Goswami, 1993). This theory has made an impact on education and it constituted a ground for the decision of the National Literacy Framework of the UK about the inclusion of rhyming and analogy in the 1st grade curriculum (Seymour & Duncan, 1999). The more a child is sensitive to rhyme and analogy before starting primary school, the more successful she becomes in reading after years. It was also revealed that explicit instruction of and training in alphabetic concepts, rhyming, word recognition, and alliteration benefit the reading performance of children (Bradley & Bryant, 1983, 1985). Students who are lagging behind in reading are oblivious to rhyme and alliteration. They have a hard time categorizing words based on their common sounds (Bradley & Bryant, 1983; Wood & Terrell, 1998).

Children with language impairments or reading difficulties performed more poorly than typical peers in reading tasks (Bradley & Bryant, 1978; Knight & Fischer, 1992; Boudreau & Hedberg, 1999;). The existing literature agrees that the underlying reason for a child to fail reading or have language difficulties might be due to the lack of the ability to categorize the words based on the common sounds they share. To illustrate, a student's inability to realize although meanings are different, *mat* and *hat* end with the same sound, might be the source of a reading failure or language impairment.

It is stated that children can realize words ending with the same sound is only possible if they are attentive to the form of the words rather than the meaning of it. They do this through building their own grouping systems. In this system, they focus on the similar sounds at the end of the words instead of the meaning. The increasing number of similar-sounding lexicons that one comes across with may lead him to raise his awareness of the subunits of words (De Cara & Goswami, 2003). The rhyme's phonological unit has a special function to perform in the growth of PA (Goswami & Bryant, 1990; De Cara & Goswami, 2003).

Aiming to find which reading strategy is more effective in teaching children reading, Walton and colleagues (Walton et al., 2001a; Walton et al., 2001b; Walton & Walton, 2002) compared the outcomes of the teaching of rhyme analogy and letter recoding. One group learnt how to read by rhyme analogy, while the other one learnt to read by using a grapheme– phoneme recoding strategy. The results of the test they took after three months showed that the students who received rhyme analogy-based instruction could read unknown words which required letter-recoding skills, while the learners who had experience with grapheme-phoneme based instruction could not read them as they required rhyme analogy skills. This shows that rhyme analogy training increased letter recoding skills, but letter recoding instruction did not improve rhyme analogy ability. Their skills in four kinds of words were also assessed. The groups included analogy – irregular patterns, analogy – regular patterns, letter recoding and non-words. The results revealed that the rhyme analogy group had higher results than the grapheme-phoneme group.

Awareness of rhymes affects kids' capacity to build up mental representations for printed words (Wimmer et al., 1994). In a study which had 80 Chinese 1st grade students in a primary school, both the treatment and experimental group took PA tests before the intervention. Over the next ten weeks, the intervention group received PA instruction. At the end of the ten weeks, students were administered the same test used in the pretest. In addition to that, students' levels of nonword reading were tested. The results showed that there was a strong relationship between non-word recognition and PA measures at the rhyme level (Sun et al., 2015). Similarly, in two longitudinal studies, it was found that rhyme awareness helps the learners to recognize the words fast and directly and spell the words accurately both in English and in German (Wimmer, et al., 1994).

Seeking the best ways to improve literacy skills, Savage and Carless (2005) assessed PA, word reading and spelling, non-word reading, and sound knowledge levels of 498 1st grade students in the UK. They selected 108 children who got the lowest results from the tests and defined them as the poorest readers. They divided these students into four groups. All of the groups received four different literacy education during a nine-weeks-long period in the second term of year one. Learners

were trained by the learning support assistant. Each program focused on different aspects of literacy development.

The first group had National Literacy Strategy lessons which taught how to identify individual sounds in a word, how to read and spell consonant clusters, and how to recognize 30 very common words by sight. The other group received phoneme awareness lessons. These lessons were divided into three phases. In the first phase, the students were asked to create words by stacking letter blocks around a vowel which was on the board. They also replaced consonants to make new words. During the next phase, children were encouraged to make consonant-vowel-consonant (CVC) words such as *cat, hat, cup*. Finally, students uttered the single sounds in a word individually. The next approach aimed to increase rhyme awareness of the learners through activities such as writing words, simple word searches, and categorizing words according to their rhymes. The last program was a mixed program, which aimed to increase learners both rhyme and phonemic awareness. Games, which focused on rhymes and individual sounds were integrated into the lessons. At the end of the nine weeks, students' literacy skills were measured again. When the pre-training and post-training measures were compared, it was obvious that, while all the study participants' literacy abilities improved, the students who participated in the rhyme- and phoneme-based programs showed much greater progress than the one who received the traditional instruction.

To conclude, results show that interventions that focus on rhymes improve learners' PA. Moreover, most of the children who enter the classroom with well-developed PA skills have rich prior experience with rhyming chants, jingles, songs and stories at their homes. Thus, the same tools should be a part of every child's day at school (Cunningham, 2011).

CHAPTER 3
3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 3. 1. Introduction

The present study aimed to investigate the potential effects of a children's literature-enhanced early English phonics curriculum in primary English classes on young EFL learners' English PA levels. This chapter presents information about the methodology pursued in the study to reach this aim.

3.2 Research Questions and Hypotheses

1. Is there a statistically significant difference in the firstgraders' pre and post intervention scores of phonological awareness?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference in the secondgraders' pre and post intervention scores of phonological awareness?
3. Is there a statistically significant difference in the post intervention scores of the participating first and secondgraders' phonological awareness?
4. Which aspect of phonological awareness did first and secondgraders improve the most?

On the basis of the research questions presented above, the hypotheses were generated and listed below:

First hypothesis (H0)1: It is hypothesized that 1stgraders will show improvement in their Engish PA skills after the PA intervention.

Second hypothesis (H0)2: It is hypothesized that 2ndgraders will show improvement in their Engish PA skills after the PA intervention.

Third hypothesis (HO)3: It is hypothesized that 1^{stgraders} will exhibit greater progress in PA skills than 2ndgraders.

Fourth hypothesis (HO)4: It is hypothesized that the PA skill that 1st and 2ndgraders improve most will be rhyme awareness or rhyme production skill.

3.3 Research Design

A research design is the "procedures for collecting, analyzing, interpreting and reporting data in research studies'"(Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p.58). Aims, theoretical framework, data sources, and methods determine how the research studies will be conducted (McKay, 2006).

This study is an intervention study. Most of the intervention research questions are quantitative in nature and this causes researchers to use quantitative approaches or to integrate them in mixed methods research (Begun, 2018). Thus, the quantitative study paradigm was used, as it is thought to be the research design that fits this study best. The reason why this study benefits from a quantitative approach is also due to its practicality, accuracy, objectivity, and scientific nature (Gerrish & Lacey, 2010). As quantitative research uses scientific methods, it is usually given more respect and acceptance by the public (Berg, 2004). It is commonly agreed that if the quasi-experimental study is well-planned and carried out properly, it produces reliable results (Dörnyei, 2007). It also allows the researcher to make quantitative predictions through numerical data.

The purpose of this study was to see if there was a causal relationship between dependent and independent variables. According to Marsden and Torgerson (2012), experimental and quasi-experimental methods enable scientists to more clearly determine the causal link between these two variables. Rather than experimental design, the most empirical studies in the field of education are quasi-experimental designs (Cohen et al., 2007). This is probably because conducting experiments for educational research is not a simple process.

This study used a quasi-experimental design, not because of its popularity. There were two reasons for adopting a quasi-experimental design. Firstly, the researcher did not follow a randomized sampling procedure. Secondly, it was difficult for the researcher to arrange a control group. "Because of the practical constraints, working with 'non- equivalent groups' has become an accepted research methodology in field studies where randomization is impossible or impractical." (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 117).

This quasi-experimental method was applied to one group, as there is no requirement for control groups in quasi-experimental designs. The type of quasi-experimental design used in this study was a pre-posttest, which is a form of repeated-

measures design (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012). The purpose of the pretest is to determine the levels of the learners, whereas the aim of the posttest is to see the immediate effects of the treatment on the PA levels of the students.

3.4 Participants and Setting

The "essential participants," as Richards (2001) refers to them, in an evaluation are the learners because they can demonstrate if a specific program addresses their needs or not by providing evidence of their achievements or failures. The participants of most of the studies which focused on PA instruction were found to be primary school children (Jamaludin et al., 2018). The sample of the present study consisted of 1st and 2nd grade students of a private primary school in Yenimahalle, Ankara. The school was founded in 2018 and provided education for pre-primary, secondary, and high school levels. The sample which was identified for this study was 145 young learners of English attending primary education. 78 firstgraders participating in the study were sampled out of four different classrooms and 67 secondgraders as the participants of this study were sampled out of three different classrooms. 35 of the 1stgraders were girls and 43 of them were boys, whereas 2ndgraders consisted of 36 girls and 31 boys. 1stgraders' age range was between six to seven, whereas the age range of the 2nd graders was seven to eight years. They were all beginner level English language learners. All of the students' L1 was Turkish. While the 2ndgraders had advanced levels of Turkish literacy knowledge, simply the ability to read and write in Turkish, the 1stgraders were just acquiring Turkish literacy. Like the children at other schools in Türkiye, they were taught reading in Turkish through a sentence-based phonics approach as part of the primary curriculum in Türkiye (MEB, 2005). They all spoke Turkish with their family members at home. Most of the children started learning basic English in kindergarten through songs, games and stories. Both 1st and 2ndgraders were exposed to English lessons for 12 hours per week. At both levels, two different English language teachers served: one of the teachers covered content and language integrated lessons-CLIL-covering science and math for four hours per week, and the other one is the main course teacher who taught eight hours a week at both first and second grade classes. The main course teacher mainly aimed to help learners acquire the vocabulary and grammar knowledge. In the CLIL lessons, principles of

content-based approach were followed. The aim of the CLIL lessons were to help students acquire proficiency in English, through subject-based content knowledge presented in English. The CLIL teacher was responsible for the PA instruction of both 1st and 2ndgraders for the present study. The researcher was not the teacher of any class and there was no potential conflict of interest.

English classes were a significant component of the entire school curriculum. The English teaching curriculum was prepared in line with the CEFR principles. The aim of the English program, as the CEFR guidelines laid out, was to develop the four main skills, which were reading, listening, writing and speaking, as well as enhancing their vocabulary and grammar knowledge. Aligned with CEFR, gaining communicative abilities in English was of foremost importance. English grammatical structures were contextually-based as teachers provided students with situations in which they could use the language they learnt. Teachers never used L1 in and outside the classroom. This was a rule mandated by the school administration with the hopes of increasing the exposure to English in an EFL context.

Both in the main course and science classes teachers did not teach the textbook, they taught with the textbook, which means that they could design a lesson free of the textbook. As it is believed that learning outside of the textbook increases students' motivation and success, a variety of extracurricular events were organized at school within the English instruction. These events encompassed events integrating English language and culture via parties, waffle day, space day and shows. Neither of the teachers applied any planned instruction which aimed at developing students' PA.

3.5 Sampling

Participants were recruited using a non-probability sample, which was the population to whom the researcher's access was easy. Procedures of non-randomized sampling were followed. This study aimed to focus on 1st and 2ndgraders because those ages are proved to be critical in terms of both reading acquisition and language acquisition (Long, 1990; Oyama, 1976).

The researcher collected the data at a private primary school where the school administration volunteered to follow the phonics-based instructional model and teachers of the school were willing to receive training in offering their lessons via

phonics instruction. As mentioned earlier, the English language curriculum of the school did not follow any planned PA instruction. However, the administration and English language department were ready to put into action any kind of new ideas that would improve the effectiveness of the English language curriculum and benefit students. As the administration was open to changes, they accepted the implementation of the phonics-based program as a pilot study. They stated that, if students benefit from the program, the program may be adopted in the following years.

3.6 Data Collection Tools

In order to collect quantitative data, the P.A.S.T. test, developed by Yvette Zgonc (2000, 2010), was used as it is useful for diagnostic assessment and progress monitoring (Nielsen et al., 2007). P.A.S.T. was formerly used in many studies to measure PA skills of learners with different profiles. In some, it was administered to the students whose L1 was English (Gammon & Collins, 2016), the participants of another study, which P.A.S.T. was used were students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds (Nielsen et al., 2007), some researchers administered it to the EFL learners (Ko, 2012; Atmaca, 2018; Akca & Atmaca, 2022;), and in their recent study, Bdeir et al. (2022) determined ESL learners' PA levels through this test.

PA has two different aspects: the size of the sound unit and the type of manipulation of the sound. This test includes different sound units and different types of manipulation of the sound. Through this test, students' PA skills were evaluated in coarse to fine-grained linguistic capacity including the levels of word, syllable, onset-rime, and phoneme. P.A.S.T. takers performed their phonological awareness and abilities at receptive and productive levels as in certain parts of the test, students were asked to substitute one sound with another one.

Consisting of 14 parts, P.A.S.T. enables researchers to test each subcomponent of PA (Nielsen et al., 2007). P.A.S.T. includes the tasks of sentence segmentation, rhyme recognition, rhyme production, syllable blending, syllable segmentation, syllable deletion, phoneme isolation of initial sounds, phoneme isolation of final sounds, phoneme blending, phoneme segmentation, phoneme deletion of initial sounds, phoneme deletion of final sounds, phoneme deletion of first sound in

consonant blend, and phoneme substitution. Each part consists of six words or sentences. The score for each accurate response is one.

Before applying the test, the researcher discussed the appropriateness of the P.A.S.T. test with the main course teachers of the 1st and 2ndgraders. Considering the age and proficiency levels of the learners, it was concluded that the participants may not be familiar with some of the items in the P.A.S.T. test. This was also because English was not their native language. After getting the ideas of the English language teachers of the participants it was decided that some items of the P.A.S.T. should be replaced by the vocabulary items that students are familiar with based on the course materials and curricula chosen for the target grade levels. Thus, the researcher adapted the P.A.S.T. test for the 1st (See Appendix A) and 2ndgraders (See Appendix B).

The original test was not different for different grade or proficiency levels. However, in this study, 1st and 2ndgraders received two different adaptations of P.A.S.T. test. What made the 1st and 2nd graders' tests different was the words that existed in each part. Different words were chosen for each grade. To locate the target words, the existing English language programs' materials, which were internationally renowned publishers, were used as a resource. The researcher examined the words in the coursebooks that were part of the English lessons. She selected the most commonly used words in the books and added them in the P.A.S.T. test. As those materials were covered in the main course lessons, students were expected to be familiar with the items placed in the P.A.S.T. The instructions, layout, and the order of the activities were not changed, but the instructions of each part were translated into Turkish to prevent language barrier issues which may lead to confusion and frustration.

3.7 Data Collection Procedures

In this part, the researcher explains some practical considerations of the study and provides a thorough overview of the treatment. First, it was detailed how the study was created and under what circumstances it was processed. Following that, a thorough overview of the treatment's procedures was given.

3.7.1 Ethical Issues

In the academic world, there has been a change from working "on" to working "with" children as child-adult power relations have been acknowledged (Mayall 2002). Flewitt (2005), emphasized that researchers must create a strong and negotiated ethical framework for their study and make sure that these ethical standards are followed at all stages of the research regardless of at what age the participants of the study are. The necessities, rules and procedures for conducting research with children participants are different from focusing on adult learners. "The gaining of informed (or real) consent is an important ethical consideration in social science research." (Murray & Sixsmith, 1998, p. 116). As a result, ethics have been given top priority by the researcher at every level of this research. The study was approved by TED University's ethics commission.

After the approval of TED University's ethics commission (Appendix C), the initial step that the researcher took was to get the official permission from the Ministry of National Education (See Appendix D). Then, she informed the school administration and got permission to use the results of the students' PA tests for the study (See Appendix E). The parental consent form aimed to inform all of the parents about the nature of child performance and participation in the study. With the child assent form and procedures, the researchers sought for the voluntary participation of the children. She prepared a detailed parental consent form following this guide, and got permission from the parents to have their children as participants of the study (See Appendix F). She reached out to Yvette Zgonc, the developer of the P.A.S.T. test, through e-mail and requested approval for including the test as part of the research (See Appendix G). The researcher started conducting her research at the school. As stated earlier, the study employed a quasi-experimental design following pretest – treatment - posttest procedures. The many steps for these processes are shown below.

3.7.2 Teacher Training

First of all, the English language teacher of the learners received a seminar about the rationale of the intervention program by the researcher as the implementation was planned to be completed by the participating primary school instructors. This seminar covered the relationship between PA and reading, the importance of children's

literature, rhyme and storybooks, rhyming storybooks and most importantly, how PA instruction should be. The researcher and the teacher met two more times during the intervention to discuss the progress and any potential issue or problems.

3.7.3 Administration of the Phonological Awareness Skills Test (P.A.S.T.)

In order to evaluate students' PA, the adapted version of P.A.S.T. (Zgonc, 2000) was administered to 1st and 2ndgraders as pre-and posttest individually. Teachers were not responsible for the administration of the P.A.S.T. Test as it had to be applied one-to-one. Such a demanding job would place a burden on teachers who already have a lot of tasks to complete as part of their job. For this reason, the researcher applied this test herself for her study. She scheduled the appointments based on her plan on the calendar showing the times and days that each student would take the test.

She took the students one by one during their supplementary English lessons each day, because during these lessons, teachers do not teach any new topic. They just expect learners to study freely. So, no student missed any topic during the classes and fell behind. The researcher met students individually in the English room to administer the test. After confirming students' names, in order to make them feel relaxed and build rapport, the researcher first chatted with the young learners (She asked about their favorite toys etc.). Students did not know they would be evaluated. In order to create a motivating and stress free atmosphere, the researcher told students that they would play language games. During child assent stages, learners were eager to participate in the process. Instructions were given in Turkish to avoid a potential language barrier with young learners. Students were permitted to stop any time they wanted. Administration of the test took around 20 minutes for each student. The pretest part of the study lasted two weeks. After the intervention was over, P.A.S.T. was administered again, and the same procedures as in the pretest were followed. The researcher calculated the results of the students based on the number of the correct answers and saved them on the same Excel file. She calculated each case's pre and post test results to respond to the research questions.

After the administration of the pretest was over, the results of the learners were calculated based on the number of the correct answers, and recorded on an Excel file on the researchers' computer without revealing students' names. The researcher

assigned a number to each student to be able to de-identify each of them and compare the results of their pretests with their posttests.

3.7.4 Intervention Program

After the administration of the pretest was completed, students started to read rhyming story books each week with their CLIL teacher. The CLIL teacher spared two lessons for two hours weekly for reading rhyming storybooks and doing the related activities with the students. The CLIL teacher was the same person for every class. So, all of the students received PA instruction from the same teacher. Different from the regular classes, to prevent issues related to language barrier, the instructor spoke Turkish when it was needed. Each lesson took 40 minutes. Both 1st and 2nd graders read two rhyming books weekly. As the books were short and simple, they could be read in one lesson. Rhyming books read with the instructor were selected from the Bob books series. The list of the books covered in the lessons (See Appendix H) and a sample lesson plan (See Appendix I) are provided.

The teacher adopted the *To/With/By approach* (Mooney, 1990), which is a guided reading strategy. This strategy is found to be a "simple but effective step-by-step framework for teachers to help young learners become readers and writers in English " (Shin & Crandall, 2018, p. 200). Within this framework, the teacher followed the presented stages consistently while including the rhyming story books in the lesson: the first teacher read the book to the students. The teacher emphasized the rhyming units. Following multiple reading sessions, students shared reading with teacher guidance. Lastly, students did independent reading. Students read to each other and the teacher acted as a coach.

Applying *to/with/by approach* (Mooney, 1990) took around 20 minutes. During the remaining 20 minutes time, students completed the book related activities that their teacher shared with them. These activities aimed to draw learners' attention to the rhyming words. The tasks included rhyme matching, word sorting, picture and word matching, word hunt and word puzzles. The activities were obtained from several websites that provide Bob book printables. They were chosen by the researcher and approved by the advisor, English language teacher trainer of the school and English language teacher of the learners.

At the end of each lesson, the teacher gave students the books they read and asked them to read them to their parents at home. She also informed parents about the books that their kids would read at home. This process repeated for two months. At the end of this process, participating 1st and 2ndgraders have finished 16 books in total and done the book related activities. The chronological order of the steps taken can be seen on the timeline below.

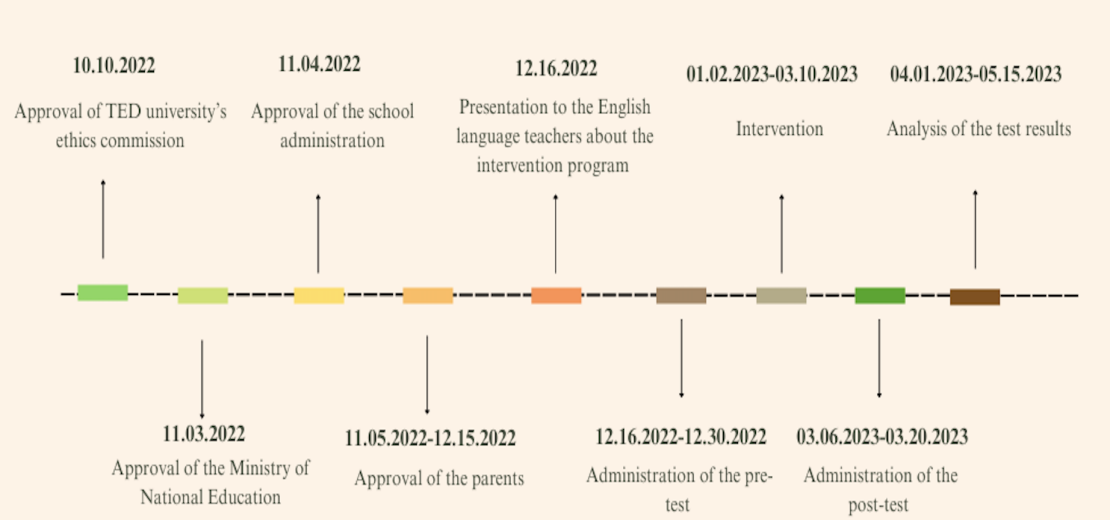


Figure 3.1

3.8 Data analysis

At the Phonological Awareness Skills Test there were six words or phrases in each section. The score for each correct response was one. Therefore, a part's maximum possible score for accurate responses was six. The lowest score was one or zero. The researcher counted the correct responses. The students then received their final total grade. This process was applied both during pretest and posttest of 145 participants of 1st and 2nd grades.

The researcher hid the names of the students and saved the results on an Excel file by giving each student a number. The data were analyzed using the SPSS 29.0 program. Kruskal Wallis, Shapiro Wilk and Skewness, Kurtosis values, histogram, Q-Q plot graphs for each group were examined whether the data came from a normal distribution or not, and it was concluded that the data of the groups were normally distributed. Independent sample t-test was used to analyze the difference between the

two grade levels. Since the data provided the assumption of normality, they were shown with mean and standard deviation values. The significance level was taken as $p<0.05$.

To analyze the intra-group difference between the pre- and posttest for Grade one and Grade two , the paired sample t-test was performed.

Cronbach Alpha internal reliability coefficient of the responses to the P.A.S.T. Test was found to be 0.859. The fact that the present study's Cronbach Alpha coefficient was above 0.70 indicated that the answers given to the test were reliable.

CHAPTER 4

4. FINDINGS

Research Question 1*:* Is there a statistically significant difference in the firstgraders' pre and post intervention scores of phonological awareness?

Table 4.1. Analysis of the Difference Between Pre and Post Test of Firstgraders' PA

1st Grade	PreTest		PostTest		t	Sig.
	Mean	Std.Deviation	Mean	Std.Deviation		
Total	49,06	11,79	64,36	8,44	-14,37	<,001
Sentence Segmentation	2,83	1,351	3,79	1,351	-5,59	<,001
Rhyme Recognition	2,99	1,509	4,34	1,334	-7,66	<,001
Rhyme Production	1,81	1,639	3,57	1,618	-7,85	,019
Syllable Blending	5,21	,817	5,49	,641	-2,92	,003
Syllable Segmentation	4,66	1,231	4,96	,966	-1,66	,923
Syllable Deletion	3,81	1,647	4,94	1,092	-1,17	<,001
Phoneme Isolation of Initial Sounds	5,27	1,096	5,44	1,175	-3,95	<,001
"Phoneme Isolation of Final Sounds	4,43	1,634	5,22	1,253	-7,72	,013
Phoneme Blending	3,31	1,616	4,92	1,511	-7,72	,005
Phoneme Segmentation	3,39	1,640	5,05	1,346	-6,34	,065
Phoneme Deletion of Initial Sounds	2,81	2,195	4,35	1,628	-5,60	<,001
Phoneme Deletion of Final Sounds	3,19	1,821	4,47	1,569	-6,21	,005
Phoneme Deletion of First Sound in Consonant Blend	2,92	2,050	4,38	1,623	-6,69	<,001
Phoneme Substitution	2,06	4,10	3,441	1,773	-6,34	<,001

Paired Sample Test, p<0,05

Overall

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the 1st graders (p<0,001). The overall average and deviation score of students' pretest were 49,06±11,79, while the average and deviation total score of 1st graders' posttest were 64,36±8,44. It was shown that 1st graders' increase in their PA by 15,03 points was a statistically significant one.

Sentence Segmentation

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 1st graders in sentence segmentation task (p<0,001). The average and deviation score of 1st graders' pretest scores in sentence segmentation task were 2,83±1,351, while the average and deviation score of 1st graders posttest scores in sentence segmentation were 3,79±1,351. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in sentence segmentation task by 0,96.

Rhyme Recognition

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 1st graders in rhyme recognition task (p<0,001). The average and deviation score of 1st graders' pretest scores in rhyme recognition task were 2,99±1,509, while the average and deviation score of 1st graders posttest scores in rhyme recognition were 4,34±1,33. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in sentence segmentation task by 1,35.

Rhyme Production

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 1st graders in rhyme production task (,019). The average and deviation score of 1st graders' pretest scores in rhyme production task were 1,81±1,639, while the average and deviation score of 1st graders posttest scores in rhyme production were 3,57±1,618. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in sentence segmentation task by 2,39.

Syllable Blending

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 1st graders in syllable blending task (,003). The average and deviation score of 1st graders' pretest scores in syllable blending task were 5,21±,817 while the average and deviation score of 1st graders posttest scores in syllable blending were 5,49±,641. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in sentence segmentation task by 0,28.

Syllable Segmentation

The results showed that the difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 1st graders in syllable segmentation task was not statistically significant (,923).

Syllable Deletion

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 1st graders in syllable deletion task. The average and deviation score of 1st graders' pretest scores in syllable deletion task were 3,81±1,647, while the average and deviation score of 1st graders posttest scores in syllable deletion were 4,94±1,09. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in sentence segmentation task by 1,13.

Phoneme Isolation of Initial Sounds

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 1st graders in phoneme isolation of initial sounds task ($p<0,001$). The average and deviation score of 1st graders' pretest scores in phoneme isolation of initial sounds task were 5,27±1,096 while the average and deviation score of 1st graders' posttest scores in phoneme isolation of initial sounds were 5,44±1,17. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in phoneme isolation of initial sounds task by 0,17.

Phoneme Isolation of Final Sounds

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 1st graders in phoneme isolation of final sounds task **(,013)**. The average and deviation score of 1st graders' pretest scores in phoneme isolation of final sounds task were 4,43±1,634, while the average and deviation score of 1st graders' posttest scores in phoneme isolation of final sounds were 5,22±1,253. It was shown that 1stgraders increased their average score in phoneme isolation of final sounds task by 0,79.

Phoneme Blending

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 1st graders in phoneme blending task (,005). The average and deviation score of 1stgraders' pretest scores in phoneme blending task were 3,31±,1,616 while the average and deviation score of 1st graders posttest scores in phoneme blending were 4,92±,1,511. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in phoneme segmentation task by 1,61.

Phoneme Segmentation

The results showed that the difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 1st graders in phoneme segmentation task was not statistically significant (,065).

Phoneme Deletion of Initial Sounds

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 1st graders in phoneme deletion of initial sounds task ($p<0,001$). The average and deviation score of 1st graders' pretest scores in phoneme deletion of initial sounds task were 2,81±2,19, while the average and deviation score of 1st graders' posttest scores in phoneme isolation of initial sounds were 4,35±1,62. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in sentence segmentation task by 1.54.

Phoneme Deletion of Final Sounds

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 1st graders in phoneme deletion of final sounds task (,005). The average and deviation score of 1st graders' pretest scores in phoneme deletion of final sounds task are 2,92±2,050, while the average and deviation score of 1st graders' posttest scores in phoneme isolation of initial sounds were 4,38±1,62. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in phoneme deletion of final sounds task by 1.46.

Phoneme Deletion of First Sound in Consonant Blend

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 1st graders in phoneme deletion of first sound in consonant blend task. The average and deviation score of 1st graders' pretest scores in phoneme deletion of initial sounds task were 2,92±2,050, while the average and deviation score of 1st graders' posttest scores in phoneme isolation of initial sounds were 4,38±1,62. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in sentence segmentation task by 1.46.

Phoneme Substitution

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 1st graders in phoneme substitution task. The average and deviation score of 1st graders' pretest scores in phoneme substitution task were 2,06±4,10, while the average and deviation score of 1st graders posttest scores in

phoneme substitution task were 3,44±1,77. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in phoneme substitution task by 1.38.

Research Question 2*:* Is there a statistically significant difference in the secondgraders' pre and post intervention scores of phonological awareness?

Table 4.2. Analysis of the Difference Between Pre and Post Test of Secondgraders' PA

2nd Grade	PreTest		PostTest		t	Sig.
	Mean	Std.Deviation	Mean	Std.Deviation		
Total	62,78	8,374	73,42	5,777	-8,10	<,001
Sentence Segmentation	2,85	1,607	4,66	1,149	-7,38	<,001
Rhyme Recognition	4,09	1,505	5,37	,868	-7,80	<,001
Rhyme Production	2,78	2,066	4,48	1,407	-5,94	<,001
Syllable Blending	5,43	,657	5,63	,546	-1,89	,063
Syllable Segmentation	5,10	,987	5,16	,914	-,36	,720
Syllable Deletion	4,87	1,086	5,43	,891	-2,03	<,001
Phoneme Isolation of Initial Sounds	5,39	,816	5,66	,750	-3,03	,046
Phoneme Isolation of Final Sounds	5,16	1,175	5,66	,686	-3,64	,003
Phoneme Blending	4,30	1,446	5,12	1,274	-4,07	<,001
Phoneme Segmentation	4,64	1,069	5,39	1,072	-3,45	<,001
Phoneme Deletion of Initial Sounds	4,66	1,225	5,33	1,186	-5,94	<,001
Phoneme Deletion of Final Sounds	4,57	1,305	5,64	,732	-5,31	<,001
Phoneme Deletion of First Sound in Consonant Blend	4,49	1,284	5,45	1,049	-2,97	<,001
Phoneme Substitution	4,1045	1,47848	4,4478	1,63562	-8,10	0,169

Paired Sample Test, p<0,05

Overall

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the 2nd graders (p<0,001). The overall average and deviation score of 2ndgraders' pretest were 62,78±8,37, while the average and

deviation total score of 2nd graders were 73,42±5,77. It was shown that 2nd graders increased their overall scores by 10,64.

Sentence Segmentation

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 2nd graders in sentence segmentation task (p<0,001). The average and deviation score of 1st graders' pretest scores in sentence segmentation task were 2,85±1,607, while the average and deviation score of 1stgraders posttest scores in sentence segmentation were 4,66±1,149. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in sentence segmentation task by 1,81.

Rhyme Recognition

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 2ndgraders in rhyme recognition task (<,001). The average and deviation score of 2nd graders' pretest scores in rhyme recognition task were 4,09±1,505, while the average and deviation score of 2nd graders' posttest scores in rhyme recognition were 5,37±,868. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in sentence segmentation task by 1,28.

Rhyme Production

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 2ndgraders in rhyme production task (<,001). The average and deviation score of 2ndgraders' pretest scores in rhyme production task were 2,78 ±2,066, while the average and deviation score of 2nd graders posttest scores in rhyme production were 4,48±1,407. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in sentence segmentation task by 1,7.

Syllable Blending

The results showed that the difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 2nd graders in syllable blending task was not statistically significant (,063).

Syllable Segmentation

The results showed that the difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 2nd graders in syllable segmentation task was not statistically significant (,720).

Syllable Deletion

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 2nd graders in syllable deletion task (<,001). The

average and deviation score of 2nd graders' pretest scores in syllable deletion task are 4,87±1,086, while the average and deviation score of 2nd graders' posttest scores in syllable deletion were 5,43±,891. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in sentence segmentation task by 0,56.

Phoneme Isolation of Initial Sounds

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 2ndgraders in phoneme isolation of initial sounds task (0,46). The average and deviation score of 2nd graders' pretest scores in phoneme isolation of initial sounds task were 5,39±,816, while the average and deviation score of 1st graders posttest scores in phoneme isolation of initial sounds were 5,66±,750. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in sentence segmentation task by 0,27.

Phoneme Isolation of Final Sounds

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 2nd graders in phoneme isolation of final sounds task (,003). The average and deviation score of 2nd graders' pretest scores in phoneme isolation of final sounds task were 5,16±1,175, while the average and deviation score of 2nd graders' posttest scores in phoneme isolation of final sounds were 5,66±,686. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in sentence segmentation task by 0,5.

Phoneme Blending

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 2nd graders in phoneme blending task (<,001). The average and deviation score of 2nd graders' pretest scores in phoneme blending task were 4,30±,1,446 while the average and deviation score of 1st graders posttest scores in phoneme blending were 5,12±,1,274. It was shown that 2nd graders increased their average score in phoneme blending task by 0,42.

Phoneme Segmentation

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 2ndgraders in phoneme blending task (,005). The average and deviation score of 1st graders' pretest scores in phoneme blending task were 3,31±,1,616 while the average and deviation score of 1st graders posttest scores

in phoneme blending were 4,92±,1,511. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in phoneme segmentation task by 0,82.

Phoneme Deletion of Initial Sounds

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 2nd graders in phoneme deletion of initial sounds task (<,001). The average and deviation score of 2nd graders' pretest scores in phoneme deletion of initial sounds task were 4,66±1.225, while the average and deviation score of 2nd graders' posttest scores in phoneme isolation of initial sounds were 5,33±1,186. It was shown that 2nd graders increased their average score in sentence segmentation task by 0,67.

Phoneme Deletion of Final Sounds

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 2ndgraders in phoneme deletion of final sounds task (<,001). The average and deviation score of 2ndgraders' pretest scores in phoneme deletion of final sounds task were 4,57±1.305, while the average and deviation score of 2nd graders' posttest scores in phoneme isolation of initial sounds were 5,64±,732. It was shown that 2ndgraders increased their average score in phoneme deletion of final sounds task by 1.07.

Phoneme Deletion of First Sound in Consonant Blend

The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 2nd graders in phoneme deletion of first sound in consonant blend task (<,001). The average and deviation score of 2nd graders' pretest scores in in phoneme deletion of first sound in consonant blend task were 4,49±1,28, while the average and deviation score of 1st graders posttest scores in phoneme isolation of initial sounds were 5,45±1,04. It was shown that 1st graders increased their average score in sentence segmentation task by 0,96.

Phoneme Substitution

The results showed that the difference between the pretest and posttest scores of 2nd graders in phoneme substitution task was not statistically significant (,169).

Research Question 3: Is there a statistically significant difference in the post intervention scores of the participating first and secondgraders' phonological awareness?

Table 4.3. Analysis of the PA Improvement by Grade

		1st Grade		2nd Grade			
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	P
Total	PreTest	49,06	11,79	62,78	8,37		
	PostTest	64,36	8,92	73,52	7,23		
	PostTest-PreTest	15,29	9,34	10,61	10,74	7,39	0,006

Independent Sample T Test, p<0,05

The improvement of PA skills was significantly different across grade levels. (p=0.006). While the mean and standard deviation values of the 1st grade were 15.29±9.34, the mean and standard deviation values of 2nd grade were 10.61±10.74. The increase in 1st grade was higher than that of 2nd grade.

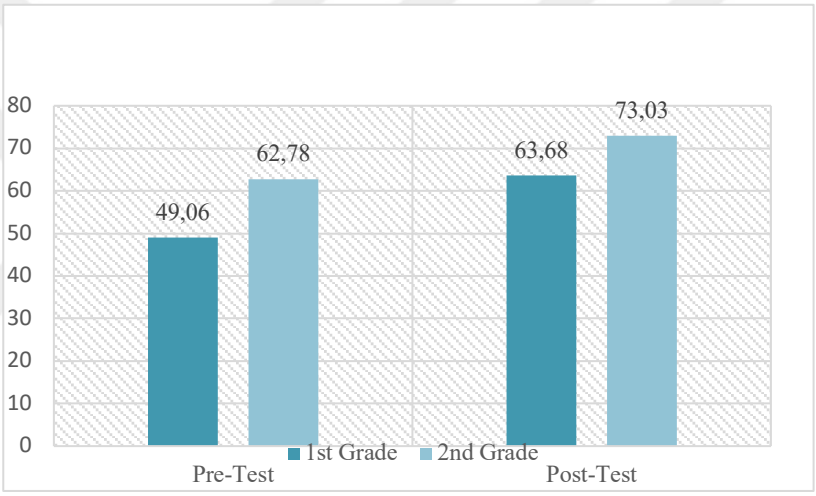


Figure 4.1. Graph of PA Scores of First and Secondgraders

The pretest and posttest PA scores of 1stgraders were 49.06 and 62.78, respectively. The pretest and posttest PA scores of 2ndgraders were 63.68 and 73.03, respectively.

Table 4.4. Analysis of the Sentence Segmentation Improvement by Grade

		1stGrade		2nd Grade			
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	P
Sentence Segmentation	PreTest	2,83	1,35	2,85	1,61		
	PostTest	3,79	1,35	4,66	1,15		
	PostTest-PreTest	0,96	1,51	1,81	2,00	8,30	0,005

Independent Sample T Test, p<0,05

The improvement of sentence segmentation skill was significantly different across grade levels. (p=0.006). While the mean and standard deviation values of the

1stgraders' improvement were 15.29±9.34, the mean and standard deviation values of 2ndgraders' improvement were 10.61±10.74. The increase in 1st grade was higher than that of 2nd grade.

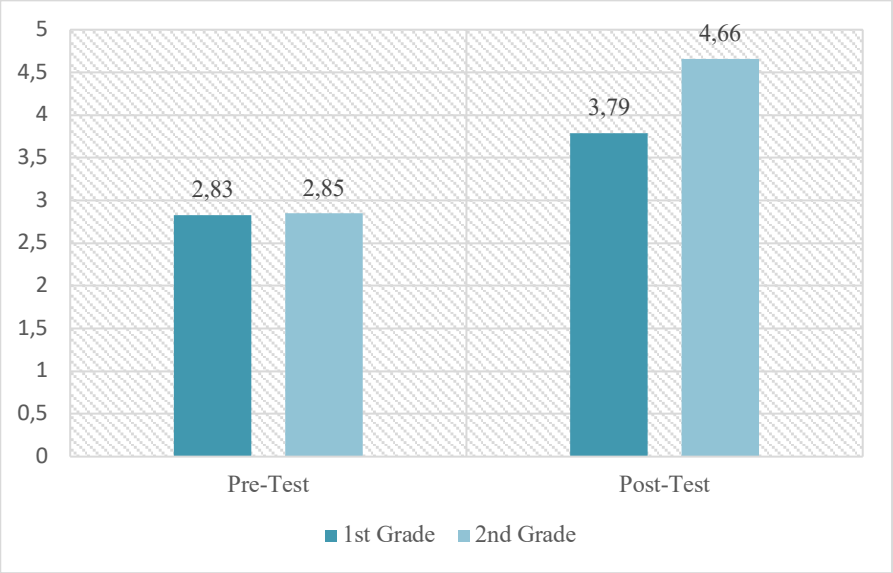


Figure 4.2. Graph of Sentence Segmentation Scores of First and Secondgraders

The pretest and posttest sentence segmentation scores of 1stgraders were 2.83 and 2.85, respectively. The pretest and posttest sentence segmentation scores of 2ndgraders were 3.79 and 4.66, respectively.

Table 4.5. Analysis of the Rhyme Recognition Improvement by Grade

		1st Grade		2nd Grade			
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	P
Rhyme Recognition	PreTest	2,99	1,51	4,09	1,50		
	PostTest	4,34	1,33	5,37	0,87		
	PostTest-PreTest	1,35	1,55	1,28	1,35	7,39	0,783

Independent Sample T Test, p<0,05

The improvement of rhyme recognition was not statistically significant by grades (p=0.783).

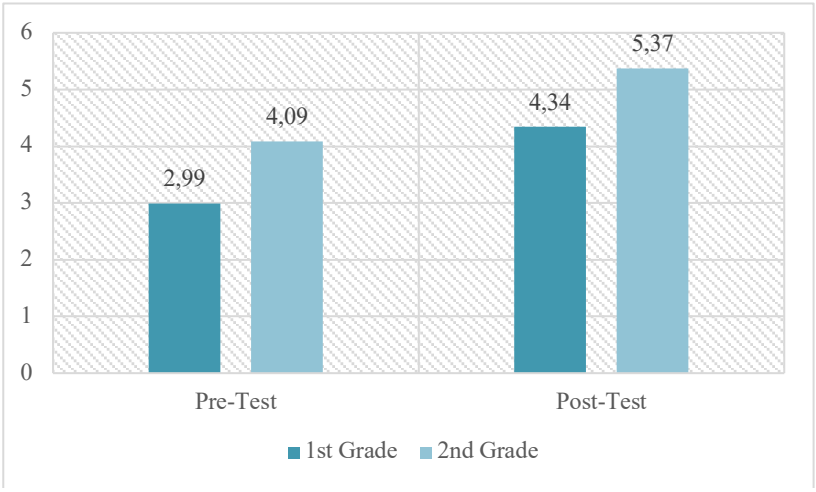


Figure 4.3. Graph of Rhyme Recognition Scores of First and Secondgraders

The pretest and posttest rhyme recognition scores of 1st graders were 2.99 and 4.09, respectively. The pretest and posttest rhyme recognition scores of 2nd graders were 4.34 and 5.37, respectively.

Table 4.6. Analysis of the Rhyme Production Improvement by Grade

		1st Grade		2nd Grade			
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	P
Rhyme Production	PreTest	1,81	1,64	2,78	2,07		
	PostTest	3,57	1,62	4,48	1,41		
	PostTest-PreTest	1,77	1,97	1,70	2,34	0,032	0,857

Independent Sample T Test, p<0,05

The improvement of rhyme production was not statistically significant by grades (p=0.857).

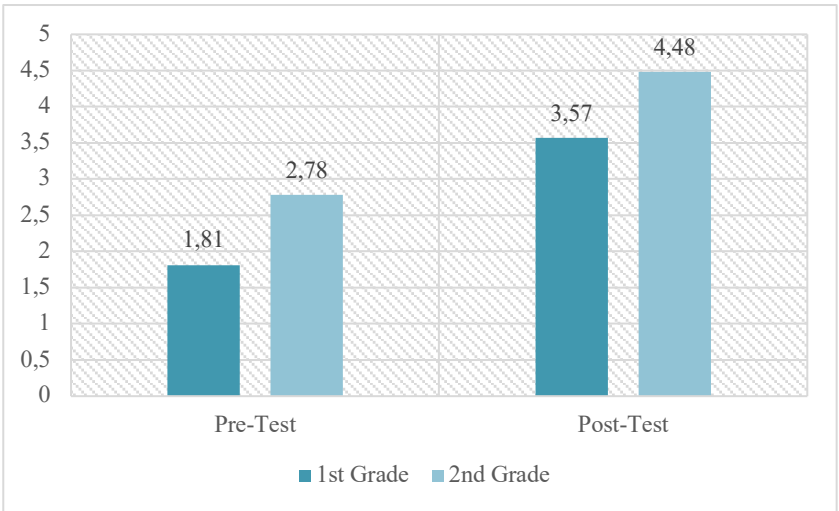


Figure 4.4. Graph of Rhyme Production Scores of First and Secondgraders

The pretest and posttest rhyme production scores of 1stgraders were 1.81 and 2.78, respectively. The pretest and posttest rhyme production scores of 2ndgraders were 3.57 and 4.48, respectively.

Table 4.7. Analysis of the Syllable Blending Improvement by Grade

		1st Grade		2nd Grade			
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	P
Syllable Blending	PreTest	5,21	0,81	5,43	0,65		
	PostTest	5,49	0,64	5,63	0,54		
	PostTest-PreTest	0,28	0,85	0,19	0,83	0,647	0,519

Independent Sample T Test, p<0,05

The improvement of syllable blending was not statistically significant by grades (p=0.519).

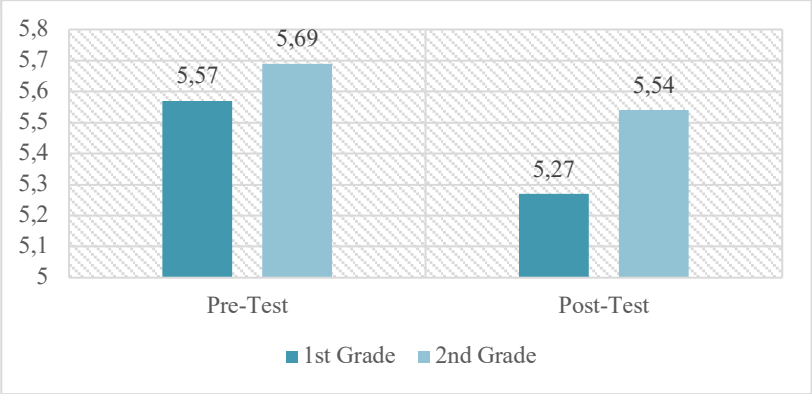


Figure 4.5. Graph of Syllable Blending Scores of First and Secondgraders

The pretest and posttest syllable blending scores of 1stgraders were 5.57 and 5.69, respectively. The pretest and posttest syllable blending scores of 2ndgraders were 5.27 and 5.54, respectively.

Table 4.8. Analysis of the Syllable Segmentation Improvement by Grade

		1st Grade		2nd Grade			
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	P
Syllable Segmentation	PreTest	4,66	1,23	5,10	0,99		
	PostTest	4,96	0,97	5,16	0,91		
	PostTest-PreTest	0,30	1,57	0,06	1,36	0,938	0,335

Independent Sample T Test, p<0,05

The improvement of syllable segmentation task was not statistically significant by grades (p=0.335).

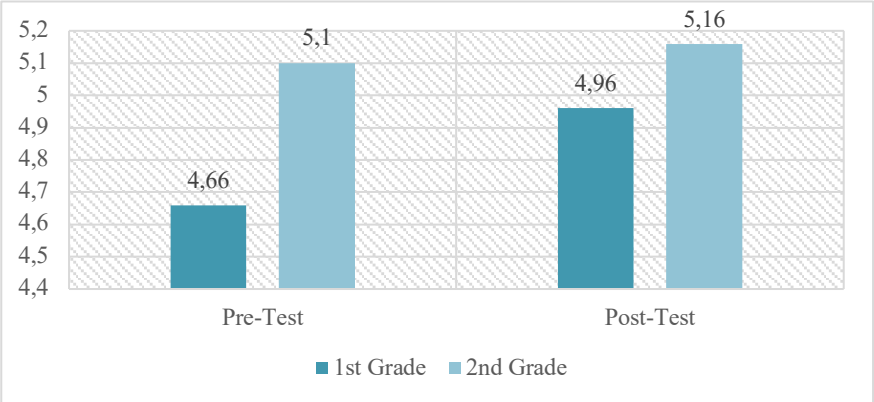


Figure 4.6. Graph of Syllable Segmentation Scores of First and Secondgraders

The pretest and posttest syllable segmentation scores of 1stgraders were 4.66 and 5.1, respectively. The pretest and posttest syllable segmentation scores of 2ndgraders were 4.96 and 5.16, respectively.

Table 4.9. Analysis of the Syllable Deletion Improvement by Grade

		1st Grade		2nd Grade			
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	P
Syllable Deletion	PreTest	3,81	1,65	4,87	1,09		
	PostTest	4,94	1,09	5,43	0,89		
	PostTest-PreTest	1,13	1,48	0,57	1,56	2126,5	0,028

Independent Sample T Test, p<0,05

The improvement of syllable deletion skill was statistically significant by grades (p=0.028). 1st graders showed more improvement than 2nd graders. While the mean and standard deviation values of the 1st graders' improvement were 1.13±1.48, the mean and standard deviation values of 2ndgraders' improvement were 0.57.61±1.56. The increase in 1st grade was higher than in 2nd grade.

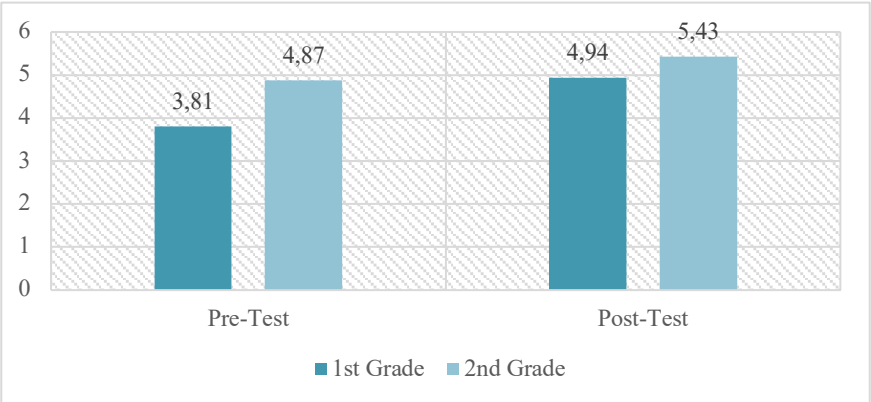


Figure 4.7. Graph of Syllable Deletion Scores of First and Secondgraders

The pretest and posttest syllable deletion scores of 1stgraders were 3.81 and 4.87, respectively. The pretest and posttest syllable deletion scores of 2ndgraders were 4.94 and 5.43, respectively.

Table 4.10. Analysis of the Phoneme Isolation of Initial Sounds Improvement by Grade

		1st Grade		2nd Grade			
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	P
Phoneme Isolation of Initial Sounds	PreTest	5,27	1,10	5,39	0,82		
	PostTest	5,44	1,18	5,66	0,75		
	PostTest-PreTest	0,17	1,26	0,27	1,08	0,256	0,614

Independent Sample T Test, p<0,05

The improvement of Phoneme Isolation of Initial Sounds skill was not statistically significant by grades (p=0.614).

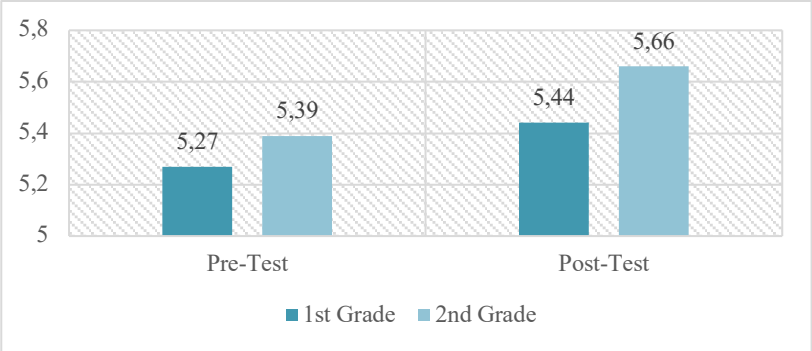


Figure 4.8. Graph of Phoneme Isolation of Initial Sounds Scores of First and Secondgraders

The pretest and posttest phoneme isolation of initial sounds scores of 1stgraders were 5.27 and 5.39, respectively. The pretest and posttest phoneme isolation of initial sounds scores of 2ndgraders were 5.44 and 5.66, respectively.

Table 4.11. Analysis of the Phoneme Isolation of Final Sounds Improvement by Grade

		1st Grade		2nd Grade			
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	P
Phoneme Isolation of Final Sounds	PreTest	4,43	1,63	5,16	1,18		
	PostTest	5,22	1,25	5,66	0,69		
	PostTest-PreTest	0,79	1,76	0,49	1,33	1,30	0,256

Independent Sample T Test, p<0,05

The improvement of phoneme isolation of final sounds skill was not statistically significant (p=0.256) by grades.

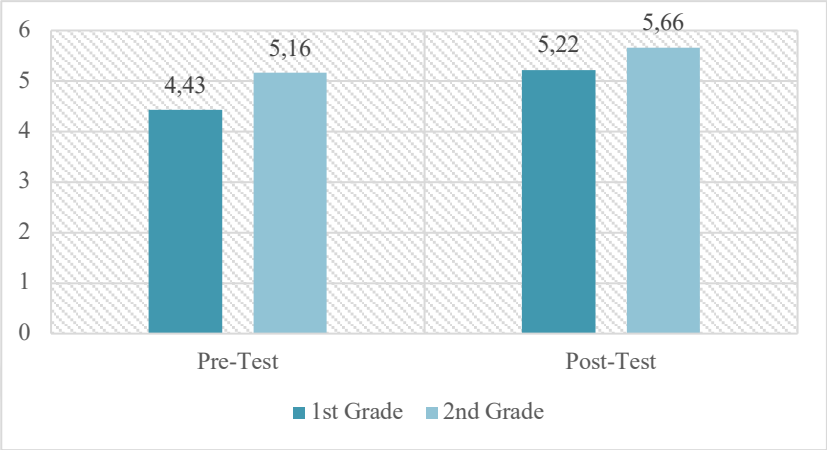


Figure 4.9. Graph of Phoneme Isolation of Final Sounds Scores of First and Secondgraders

The pretest and posttest phoneme isolation of final sounds scores of 1stgraders were 4.43 and 5.16, respectively. The pretest and posttest phoneme isolation of final sounds scores of 2ndgraders were 5.22 and 5.66, respectively.

Table 4.12. Analysis of the Phoneme Blending Improvement by Grade

		1st Grade		2nd Grade			
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	P
Phoneme Blending Task	PreTest	3,31	1,62	4,30	1,45		
	PostTest	4,92	1,51	5,12	1,27		
	PostTest-PreTest	1,61	1,83	0,82	1,84	6,63	0,011

Independent Sample T Test, p<0,05

The improvement of phoneme blending skill is significantly different by grades. (p=0.011). While the mean and standard deviation values of the 1st graders' improvement were 1.61±1.83, the mean and standard deviation values of 2ndgraders' improvement were 0.82±1.84. The increase in 1st grade is higher than in 2nd grade.

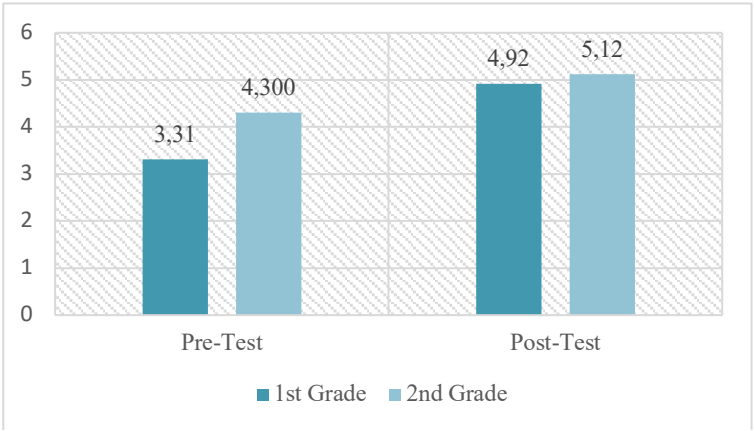


Figure 4.10. Graph of Phoneme Blending Scores of First and Secondgraders

The pretest and posttest phoneme blending scores of 1stgraders were 3.31 and 4.30, respectively. The pretest and posttest phoneme blending scores of 2ndgraders were 4.92 and 5.12, respectively.

Table 4.13. Analysis of the Phoneme Segmentation Improvement by Grade

		1st Grade		2nd Grade			
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	P
Phoneme Segmentation Task	PreTest	3,39	1,64	4,64	1,07		
	PostTest	5,05	1,35	5,39	1,07		
	PostTest-PreTest	1,66	1,89	0,75	1,50	10,16	**0,002**

Independent Sample T Test, p<0,05

The improvement of phoneme segmentation skill was significantly different by grades. (p=0,002). While the mean and standard deviation values of the 1st graders' improvement were 1,66±1,89 the mean and standard deviation values of 2ndgraders' improvement were 0,75±1,50. The increase in 1st grade was higher than in 2nd grade.

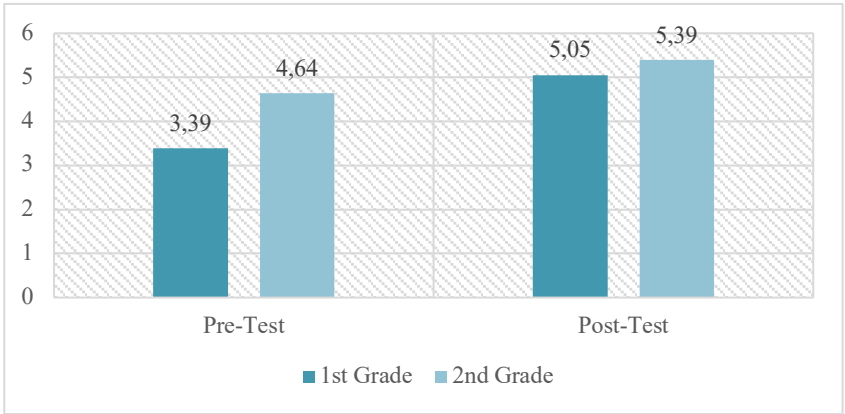


Figure 4.11. Graph of Phoneme Segmentation Scores of First and Secondgraders

The pretest and posttest phoneme segmentation scores of 1stgraders were 3.39 and 4.64, respectively. The pretest and posttest phoneme segmentation scores of 2ndgraders were 5.05 and 5.39, respectively.

Table 4.14. Analysis of the Phoneme Deletion of Initial Sounds Improvement by Grade

		1st Grade		2nd Grade			
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	P
Phoneme Deletion of Initial Sounds	PreTest	2,81	2,19	4,66	1,23		
	PostTest	4,35	1,63	5,33	1,19		
	PostTest-PreTest	1,55	2,14	0,67	1,59	7,55	**0,007**

Independent Sample T Test, p<0,05

The improvement of phoneme deletion of initial sounds skill was significantly different by grades (p=0,007). While the mean and standard deviation values of the 1st graders' improvement were 1,55±2,14, the mean and standard deviation values of 2ndgraders' improvement were 0,67±1,59. The increase in 1st grade was higher than in 2nd grade.

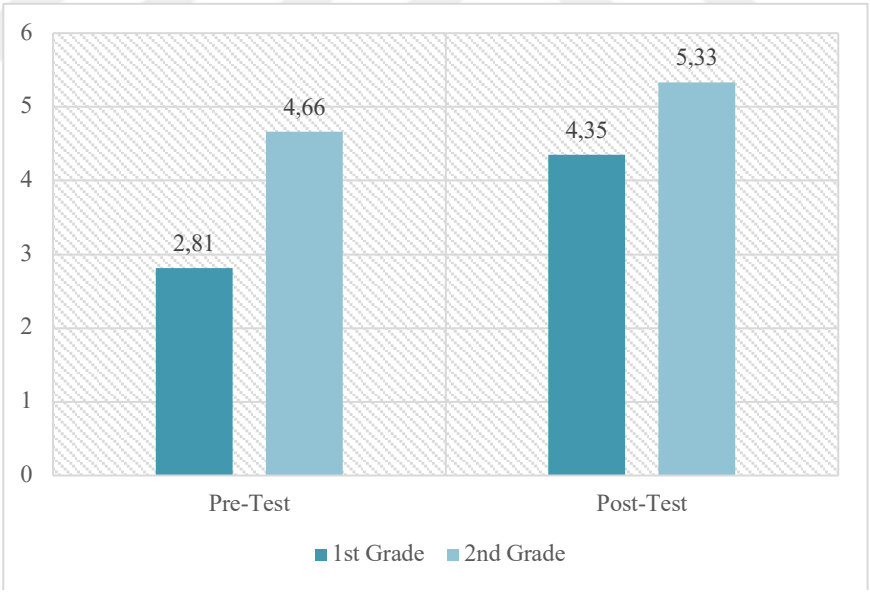


Figure 4.12. Graph of Phoneme Deletion of Initial Sounds Scores of First and Secondgraders

The pretest and posttest phoneme deletion of initial sounds scores of 1stgraders were 2.81 and 4.66, respectively. The pretest and posttest phoneme deletion of initial sounds scores of 2ndgraders were 4.35 and 5.33, respectively.

Table 4.15. Analysis of the Phoneme Deletion of Final Sounds Improvement by Grade

		1st Grade		2nd Grade			
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	P
Phoneme Deletion of Final Sounds	PreTest	3,19	1,82	4,57	1,31		
	PostTest	4,47	1,57	5,64	0,73		
	PostTest-PreTest	1,27	1,99	1,07	1,48	0,448	0,504

Independent Sample T Test, p<0,05

The improvement of phoneme deletion of final sounds skill was not statistically significant (0,504) by grades.

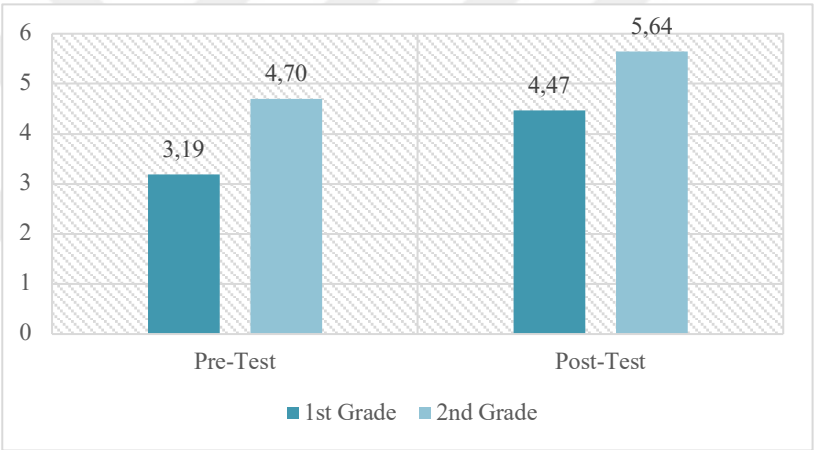


Figure 4.13. Graph of Phoneme Deletion of Final Sounds Scores of First and Secondgraders

The pretest and posttest phoneme deletion of final sounds scores of 1stgraders were 3.19 and 4.70, respectively. The pretest and posttest phoneme deletion of final sounds scores of 2ndgraders were 4.47 and 5.64, respectively.

Table 4.16. Analysis of the Phoneme Deletion of First Sound Improvement by Grade

		1st Grade		2nd Grade			
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	P
M	PreTest	2,92	2,05	4,49	1,28		
	PostTest	4,38	1,62	5,45	1,05		
	PostTest-PreTest	1,45	2,06	0,96	1,47	2,73	0,100

Independent Sample T Test, p<0,05

The improvement of phoneme deletion of first sounds skill was not statistically significant (0.100) by grades.

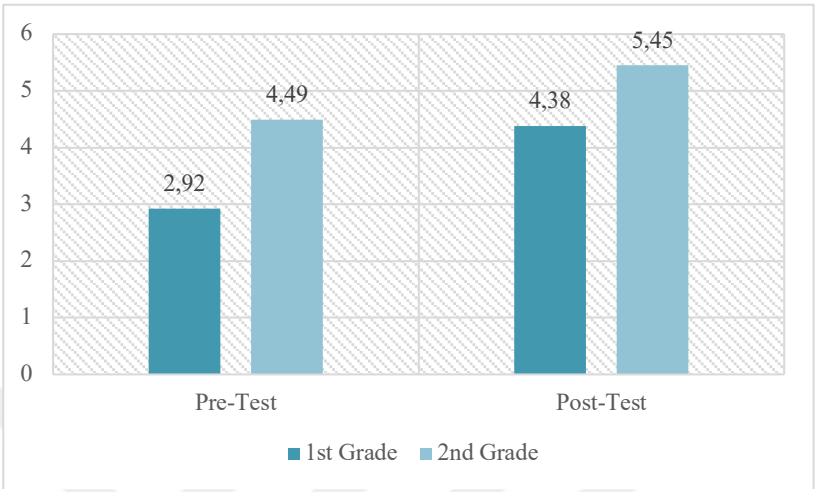


Figure 4.14. Graph of Phoneme Deletion of First Sound in Consonant Blend Scores of First and Secondgraders

The pretest and posttest phoneme deletion of first sounds in consonant blend scores of 1stgraders were 2.92 and 4.49, respectively. The pretest and posttest phoneme deletion of first sounds in consonant blend scores of 2ndgraders were 4.38 and 5.45, respectively.

Table 4.17. Analysis of the Phoneme Substitution Improvement by Grade

		1st Grade		2nd Grade			
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	**F**	**P**
Phoneme Substitution	PreTest	2,06	1,79	4,10	1,48		
	PostTest	1,44	1,77	4,45	1,64		
	PostTest-PreTest	1,38	2,12	0,34	2,02	1991,5	**0,017**

Independent Sample T Test, p<0,05

The improvement of phoneme substitution skill was significantly different by grades (p=0,017). While the mean and standard deviation values of the 1st graders' improvement were 1,38±2,12, the mean and standard deviation values of 2nd graders' improvement were 0,34±2,02. The increase in 1st grade was higher than in 2nd grade.

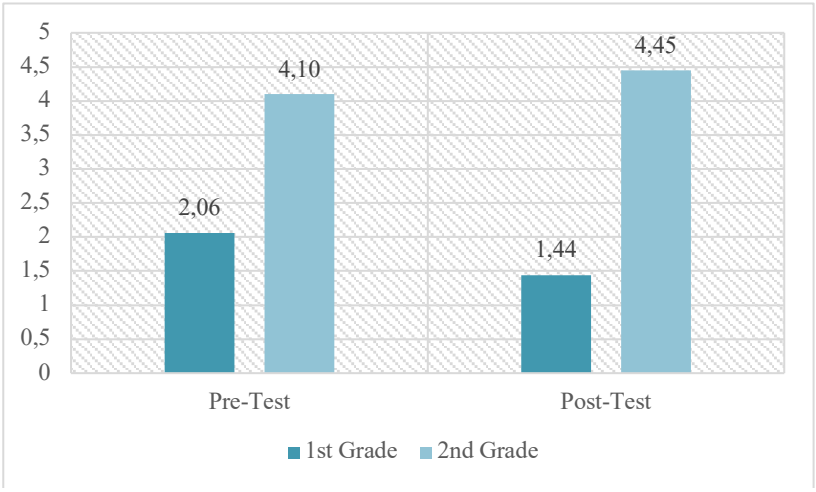


Figure 4.15. Graph of Phoneme Substitution Scores of First and Secondgraders

The pretest and posttest phoneme substitution scores of 1stgraders were 2.06 and 4.10, respectively. The pretest and posttest phoneme substitution scores of 2ndgraders were 1.44 and 4.45, respectively.

Research Question 4: Which aspect of phonological awareness did 1st and 2ndgraders improve the most?

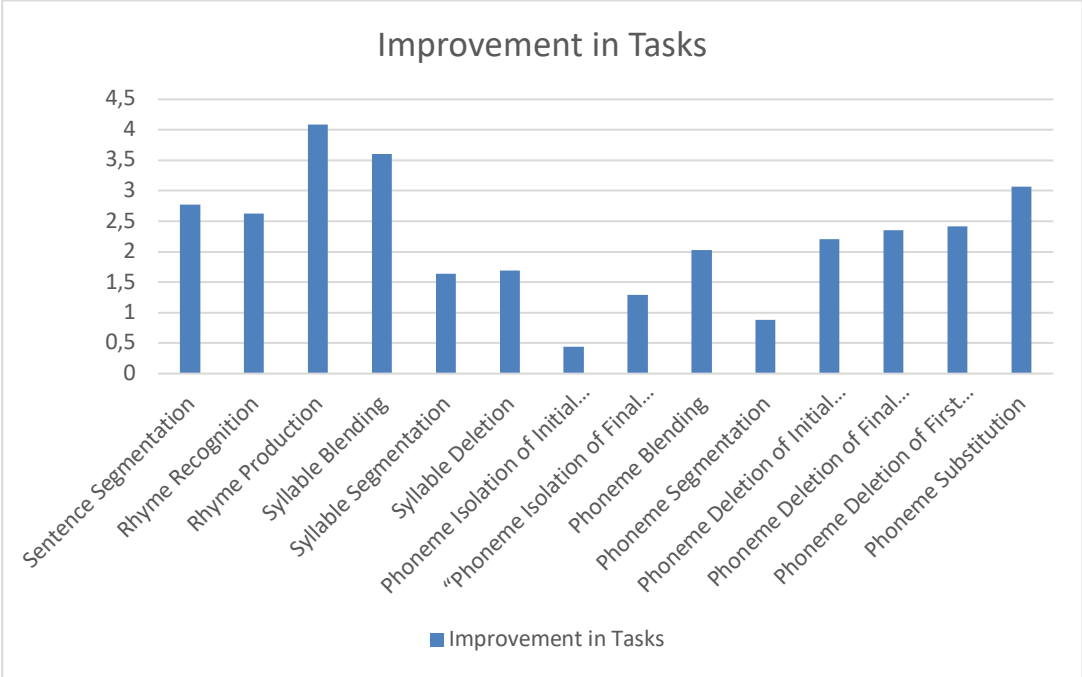


Figure 4.16. Graph of Improvement in Tasks

The standard deviation of 1stgraders' and 2ndgraders' improvement in each task were added and presented on the graph. Students increased their scores in all tasks,

including sentence segmentation (2,77), rhyme recognition (2,63), rhyme production (4,09), syllable blending (3,6), syllable segmentation (1,64), syllable deletion (1,69), phoneme isolation of initial sounds (0,44), phoneme isolation of final sounds (1,29), phoneme blending (2,03), phoneme segmentation (0,88), phoneme deletion of final sounds (2,35), phoneme deletion of initial sounds in consonant blend (2,42), phoneme substitution (3,07).

Participants of the present study exhibited the highest improvement in the 'Rhyme Production' task, corresponding to 4,09. This was followed by syllable blending task. The least progress was in phoneme isolation of the initial sound task. Other phonemic level skills such as phoneme deletion of initial sounds and phoneme deletion of final sounds are also highly achieved.

CHAPTER 5

5. DISCUSSION

The importance of well-planned and structured, systematic and explicit instruction with clear and consistent articulation when helping children in the process of mastering specific PA skills is emphasized in the literature (Kjeldsen et al., 2003; Phillips et al., 2008). The main purpose of the present study was to examine the effect of phonics storybook-based PA instruction on the PA skills of 1st and 2nd grade EFL learners. To reach this aim, participants read two rhyming storybooks following *to/with/by* approach (Mooney, 1990) and completed the book-related follow-up activities in the classroom each week. PA skills were measured by P.A.S.T. that assessed Turkish EFL learners' PA skills in terms of 14 different aspects. The P.A.S.T. included the tasks of sentence segmentation, rhyme awareness, rhyme production, syllable blending, syllable segmentation, syllable deletion, phoneme isolation of initial sounds, phoneme isolation of final sounds, phoneme blending, phoneme segmentation, phoneme deletion of initial sounds, phoneme deletion of final sounds, phoneme deletion of first sound in consonant blend and phoneme substitution. Students took the test before and after the intervention. Pre and post test results were compared and reported in the previous section. The findings will be discussed in this part.

To further elaborate on the results, when the overall pre and post test results were compared, it was found that the intervention program improved PA skills of both grade levels at a statistically significant level. Moreover, it was found that 1st graders benefitted the intervention program more than the 2nd graders. This study also examined which PA skill the participants showed most improvement in. Rhyme production was found to be the skill that both 1st and 2nd graders progressed most.

5.1 Phonological Awareness Improvement of First and Secondgraders

The findings of this intervention study demonstrated the potential positive effects of a children's literature-enhanced early English curriculum on a group of young learners' phonological awareness. Although at different rates, both 1st and 2nd graders improved their PA skills significantly after receiving PA instruction for two months. This lends support to previous findings of the intervention studies in the literature, which suggest that PA can be taught and improved in different languages

such as English (Ball & Blachman, 1991; Chard and Dickson, 1999; Ziolkowski & Goldstein, 2008); Spanish (Porta & Ramirez, 2019) and French (Wise et al., 2016). Further studies demonstrate the effectiveness of a systematic PA training with adult EFL learners (Hentasmaka et al., 2022), adolescents (Lin, 2015) and even younger children (Sun et al., 2015; Agegnehu et al., 2023).

A recent study, aimed to investigate the effects of an explicit rime-based phonics method on the phonological awareness skills of 3rd grade Ethiopian EFL children. After receiving intervention two hours per week for 12 weeks, Ethiopian EFL learners improved their EFL phonological awareness skills significantly as Turkish EFL learners did in the present study (Agegnehu et al., 2023). Ethiopian children's total PA scores increased from 29.62 to 52.60, while in the present study, 1st graders' scores progressed from 49.06 to 64.36 and 2nd graders' scores improved from 62.78 to 73.42. The progress of the learners may be attributed to several factors. These factors will be detailed after the difference between the progress of 1st and 2ndgraders and developmental aspects of the findings are discussed.

5.2 Comparison of Phonological Awareness Improvement of First and Secondgraders

It is interesting to note that the 1stgraders narrowed the achievement gap between themselves and 2ndgraders after receiving the intervention. Although the 1st graders performed more poorly than the 2nd graders in the pre and posttest, they exhibited greater progress in PA skills. Three reasons could be identified regarding the difference between the progress of 1st and 2nd graders: cross-instructional transfer effect., age effect and level effect.

When the intervention started, 1st graders continued to receive literacy instruction in Turkish as part of the Turkish curriculum (MEB, 2005) and they were still excelling in their literacy skills in Turkish. As previously mentioned, 1stgraders were taught to read through phoneme-based sentence instruction in mother tongue education. It is possible that they might have employed transfer of learning and experience from Turkish L1 (first language) to English L2 (second language). Therefore, their knowledge of PA in Turkish might have come into play in PA skills in English. Previous research proved that PA is a skill that can be transferred from

one's L1 to his L2 (Durgunoğlu et al., 1993; Durgunoğlu, 2002; Verhoeven, 2003). To illustrate, Verhoeven (1994) found a transfer effect between two transparent orthographies: Turkish and Dutch. It was reported that 98 six-year-old Turkish children in the Netherlands who spoke Dutch as a second language transferred their PA knowledge in Turkish to Dutch. Similarly, Özata et al. (2016) found cross-language transfer of PA between Turkish and English. In the light of existing literature, it can be concluded cross-linguistic skills and metalinguistic knowledge transfer across shallow to opaque orthographies exist and the current study findings are in alignment with this trend.

Firstgraders' benefitting more than the secondgraders is also consistent with the studies that suggest that younger students benefit PA instruction more than the older students (Korat & Blau, 2010). Korat and Blau (2010) aimed to compare the progress of PA skills of pre-kindergarten (aged four to five year) and kindergarten (aged five to six years) children following an intervention of a specially-designed educational e-book. Children used the program three or five times per week. Each session took around 25 minutes. When the pretest and post test scores of the children were compared, it was found that younger children improved their PA skills more than the older ones. The implication of this, along with current study findings, would be that phonics instruction should be introduced as early as possible before learners advance in the education system for an increase in the effectiveness of their PA knowledge.

It is also argued that students, who have lower scores in pretests of PA are likely to benefit from PA training more (Macaruso and Walker, 2008; Gillon et al., 2019). Macaruso & Walker (2008) aimed to enhance the literacy skills of 83 kindergarten children six of which were classified as English language learners. All of the students received computer-assisted reading instruction every day. So, the children received more intensive instruction than the participants of the present study. The reading program included activities that aimed to enhance PA skills of the students as well. The tasks were recognition of initial and final sounds in words, rhyming words, segmenting words into syllables and sounds, and blending syllables and sounds into words, recognition of initial and final sounds and letter–sound correspondences for consonants, vowels, and consonant digraphs. Longer than the present study, the intervention took around six months. When the pretest and post test results of the

learners were compared, it was seen that low performers improved their PA skills more than the children with higher scores. Thus, in the present study, 1st graders might have progressed more than the 2nd graders as their phonological awareness was lower than the one for 2nd graders. It is also important to note the ceiling effect which seemed to appear in the present study. When the scores of the 2nd graders were observed, it was clear that some tasks were easy for them, leading them to have high scores in the pretest and preventing them from increasing their scores.

5.3 Developmental Phonological Awareness in English

When the development of different aspects of PA were compared, it is clear that the most significant progress appeared in rhyme production tasks. This was not surprising as the instructor drew students' attention mostly on rhyme during the lessons. The result is in parallel with the study by Fälth et al. (2017), which suggests that *'students improve more in the fields that they train' (p. 273).*

Another significant finding was that students increased their scores in other tasks as well, although they were not trained or trained in some of these areas to a very limited extent. The other tasks of the P.A.S.T. included sentence segmentation, syllable blending, syllable segmentation, syllable deletion, phoneme isolation of initial sounds, phoneme isolation of final sounds, phoneme blending, phoneme segmentation, phoneme deletion of initial sounds, phoneme deletion of final sounds, phoneme deletion of first sound in consonant blend, and phoneme substitution. There are likely to be a number of explanations for this situation. Each of them will be discussed separately.

Implementing the first study that explicitly examined whether PA develops in discrete stages or more gradually, Anthony et al. (2003) suggested that PA skills occur in a quasi-parallel manner, which means that as children improve one aspect of PA, they also improve other skills. The result of the study confirms this suggestion as children improved more than one PA skill in two months. To illustrate, learners improved their shallow level skills, like rhyme awareness, as well as deeper level skills such as phoneme substitution.

This finding is also in line with the results of another study which found a transfer effect between explicitly trained letter-sound combinations and other sounds

and letters (Fälth et al., 2017). Similarly, gains in reading and phonological skills generalized to the reading of novel words.

It is also suggested that rhymes play an important role in improving children's PA (Bryant et al., 1990). This confirms the idea that, in order to gain deeper levels of PA, rhyme is seen as a prerequisite (Cisero & Royer, 1995; Pullen & Justice, 2003). It can be inferred from the results that exposure to the rhymes and highlighting the rhymes helped young learners to raise their awareness of rhymes and this in turn aided them to increase their abilities in deeper levels of PA skills such as phoneme substitution.

The outcomes of the present study are similar to Nancollis et al. (2005), who also aimed to enhance PA skills of young learners. The training of his study included rhyme awareness, syllable segmentation, and initial phoneme discrimination skills. Students improved their rhyming skills after 9-weeks-long intervention.

The present study also showed that larger grain size linguistic units improve more than the smaller grain size units. This supports the theory of psycholinguistic grain size (Ziegler & Goswami, 2005), which is the belief that the larger the linguistic element is, the easier it is learnt.

5.4 Literature-Enhanced Language Teaching

Some suggested that the improvement of PA could be accomplished through songs (Bolduc, 2009; Moreno & Bialystok, 2011), some suggested that games were effective to boost PA (Brennan & Ireson, 1997; Vanbecelaere, 2020), some found that kinesthetic activities impacted PA in a positive way (Sila & Lenard, 2020); some claimed that nursery rhymes contributed significantly to the PA development (Dunst, 2011; Zuniga & Moore, 2021), some revealed that technology use was another way to enhance PA (Ramos-Galarza et al., 2020), some obtained positive outcomes from poem-based intervention (Lim & Chew, 2017); and as in the present study, some revealed the influence of storybook exposure on PA skills of the children (Perfetti et al., 1987; Sénéchal & LeFevre, 2002; Giambo & McKinney, 2004; Bowyer Crane et al., 2008; Ziolkowski & Goldstein, 2008).

The studies included storybooks combined reading with PA raising activities as the present study did (Perfetti et al., 1987; Sénéchal & LeFevre, 2002; Bowyer Crane

et al., 2008; Ziolkowski & Goldstein, 2008; Gillon et al., 2019; McBreen & Savage, 2020). It is believed that solely reading the book is not enough to observe significant changes in PA development. Thus, phonological aspects should be further tapped into implicitly and explicitly during reading with the use of games, songs, and other pedagogically-sound activities (Justice et al., 2005).

The major advantage of reading aloud, according to Gibson (2007), is that it helps readers develop their L2 PA by connecting graphemes with phonemes. However, reading aloud from picture books has little effect on children's PA when phonological aspects are not introduced explicitly. In the present study, the instructor emphasized English phonological unit patterns while reading the book and after completing the book students were required to do PA raising book related activities. Thus, the success of the intervention program may be attributed to embedding the PA instruction into storybook reading. It can be said that if the instructors in the present study read the books without drawing attention to the sound patterns, most probably, children would not be able to improve as significantly. It is also important to note that there is always a potential for confusion caused by the mispronunciations by the instructors. Integrating multimedia books into the classroom can be an effective way to prevent these risks.

Additionally, there is evidence to support the hypothesis that PA instruction is more effective than reading instruction (Giambo & McKinney 2004). Giambo and McKinney (2004) aimed to compare the effectiveness of PA instruction and storybook reading. The experimental group received a systematic PA program while the control group read storybooks without any emphasis on PA. When the pretest and posttest results were compared, it was revealed that both PA instruction and storybook reading instruction raised students' PA awareness, but PA instruction was more effective than simply reading-based instruction.

A balanced reading program which includes story reading and PA instruction is suggested to obtain greater changes. As the present study combined these two features, the pretest and posttest results are significantly different. Presumably, if the participants of the present study read the books without any focus on the PA, their gains would have been limited. The success of the intervention program may be

attributed to the to/with/by approach (Mooney, 1990), and the quality of the instruction.

5.4.1 To/with/by approach (Mooney, 1990)

As mentioned in the methodology part, the teacher followed the to/with/by approach (Mooney, 1990) while embedding the storybooks into the lessons. This approach is regarded as a beneficial way to support learners' literacy skills in English (Shin & Crandall, 2018). By looking at the results, it would not be wrong to say that this approach may have played a role in obtaining positive results.To/with/by approach (Mooney, 1990) includes repeated reading and shared reading, which are proved to be effective in other studies as well.

5.4.2 Repeated Reading

To/with/by (Mooney, 1990) approach requires the book to be read three times as in repeated reading, which is an example of the deliberate practice model (Ericsson & Lehmann, 1996). Deliberate Practice is “the individualized training activities specially designed by a coach or teacher to improve specific aspects of an individual's performance through repetition and successive refinement” (Ericsson & Lehmann, 1996, p.278).. Substantial evidence from the reading interventions have shown that repeated reading benefits kids in terms of PA (Ziolkowski & Goldstein; 2008; Korat & Blau, 2010;). Different from the present study, Zilowski and Goldstein (2008) focused on the children with language development problems. They aimed to investigate how repeated shared book reading based PA instruction affected PA skills of 13 preschool students. The mean age of the participants was 4.8 years. Students had similar proficiency in English. Each storybook was read by the interventionists three times each week. In the present study, the books were read three times during each intervention lesson. As in this study, the intervention conditions were designed to promote direct instruction of PA embedded into shared storybook reading. During the readings, instructors drew learners’ attention to rhyme and alliteration. The intervention lasted 13 weeks, which is longer than the present study. Students’ PA skills were assessed through two measures of rhyme ability and two measures of initial sound knowledge. The test included rhyme awareness, rhyme production, alliteration,

and initial sound knowledge tasks. The results showed that all of the participants increased their scores in both alliteration and rhyming tasks. Although the present study did not test the learners' skills in alliteration, it is expected that they would increase their levels in alliteration as well.

5.4.3 Shared Book Reading

During the application of *to/with/by approach* (Mooney, 1990), the instructors did shared book reading by reading aloud, asking for the ideas of the students during and at the end of the reading time and then letting them read. Various studies have depicted that shared book reading improves PA (McBreen & Savage, 2020). Adopting a quasi-experimental pretest/posttest design, a recent study proved to enhance children's PA of 3rd grade learners who were at risk for reading difficulties. Typically developing students (n: 25) were drawn from six primary schools in Canada. Learners received differentiated reading instruction that included explicit, systematic instruction in synthetic and analogic phonics. The teacher followed the simplicity principle, game-based phonics practice, and shared book reading. All students received the intervention between nine to eleven hours of intervention in total for two months as in the present study. Analysis of pretest to posttest gain scores showed that students significantly improved their PA (McBreen & Savage, 2020).

5.5 Quality of Reading Instruction

It is revealed that the quality of instruction is more effective than the quantity of instruction. A certain amount of intervention is enough for the improvement (Kjeldsen, 2003). In the present study,children received PA instruction for two months only. Although it is not a long period of time, children exhibited significant progress in English PA skills. It is assumed that the instruction was fruitful. What made the instruction effective were the books chosen and teachers' carefully implementing the books. The books were chosen from the Bob books series. Those books have illustrations that may attract students' attention. Drawing attention to the sounds, these books are simple and effective to teach children how to read. The books were chosen by the researcher and approved by the English language teacher of the participants. While reading the books, the instructor emphasized the language patterns slowly and

cautiously. She asked learners to utter the items that are rhyming in the text. As mentioned, several times earlier, the teacher followed the To*/With/By approach* (Mooney, 1990) while reading these books to the learners. She used this approach systematically and consistently. Kjeldsden et al. (2003) argues that consistency plays an important role in the success of an intervention program which focuses on PA. The positive outcomes of the present study may be attributed to its consistency. The positive outcomes of another intervention study, which trained children once a week over a nine-week period (Nancollis et al., 2005) is another example for the effectiveness of a short-term intervention study.

CHAPTER 6

6. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Although the present study presents valuable findings which may have important linguistic and pedagogical implications, it has several limitations. It is important to mention these limitations to acknowledge the weaknesses of it and to enlighten future studies in this field.

Firstly, the study was not designed as an experimental-control study design (Fraenkel et al., 2012). To prevent any kind of constraints and biases, a control group was not included in the present study. Thus, potential effects of maturation, which is growing older and gaining further skills, knowledge, and awareness in the English language might have been the case. We cannot come to this conclusion due to not having a control group which did not receive any treatment.

Another limitation is the lack of generalizability to the overall population due to non-randomized sampling design of the study. The participants of the study were not chosen randomly. Thus, the findings of the study based on the study sample cannot be generalized to the overall population, and it cannot be considered as fully representative of the 1st and 2nd grade English language learners.

A significant amount of work has already confirmed the existence of cross-linguistic transfer of PA skills from native language to a second language (Denton et al., 2000; Durgunoğlu, 2002). For this, researchers needed to examine Turkish as L1 phonological awareness and skills. The present study could not cover first language PA skill and awareness due to time limitation. Thus, it should be considered that what they have gained in L1 might have transferred to L2; therefore, this is one recommendation for future studies in this field which is that already existing awareness, knowledge, and abilities should be measured for a potential Matthew effect (Aaron, 2006).

It is a demanding job to design a school program and as it requires expertise, time, and collaboration. The researcher consulted her advisor, English language department coordinator of the school where the study took place and the English language teacher of the participants while deciding on the books, activities, strategies and approaches to be used during the intervention. As this specific school program is

not adopted from another study, it is unique, and it may be a cause of a limitation as such a program may not be applicable to every school system.

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APPENDICES

A. P.A.S.T. for Firstgraders

Phonological Awareness Skills Test (P.A.S.T.) for 1st graders (Adapted)

Ad- Soyad_____Tarih _____

Cinsiyet- Yaş _____ Öğrenci Numarası _____

Öğretmen _____ Sınıf _____

A) İşitilen/ Söylenen Kelimenin Kavramı (Cümle Bölümlendirmesi)

Yönerge: Şimdi seninle bir oyun oynayacağız. ('I love you.' cümlesini söyle. Cümleyi söylerken cümledeki her bir kelime için alkışla). Şimdi sıra sende. Ben cümleyi söyleyeceğim ve sen tekrar edeceksin ve her bir kelime için alkışlayacaksın. 'Hava çok güzel.' de. (Öğrenci beceriyi anladıktan sonra, öğrenciye her bir cümleyi oku ve her kelime için alkışlayarak cümleyi tekrarlamasını iste. Eğer çocuk doğru yaparsa cümlenin sağına bir tik (√) koy).

1. How are you? (3) _____
2. Where is the dog? (4) _____
3. My favourite color is blue. (5) _____
4. How old is Alex? (4) _____
5. I like trains and boats. (5) _____
6. There are two. _____

Date (Sonuç):

B) Kafiye (Uyak) Tanıma

Yönerge: Sonundaki sesleri aynı olan iki kelimeye 'kafiyeli kelimeler' denir; 'hat' ve 'sat' gibi. 'sit' ve 'bit' kafiyeli midir? (Evet) 'chair' ve 'boy' kafiyeli midir? (Hayır) (Eğer çocuk beceriyi anlarsa, aynısını verilen kelime çiftleri için yap. Eğer çocuk doğru bir şekilde yanıtlarsa kelime çiftlerinin sağındaki kutuya bir tik (√) koy).

1. Again---Green (Yes) _____
2. Picture---Chair (Yes) _____

3. Milk---Run (No) _____
4. Eat---Robot (Yes) _____
5. Duck---Donkey (No) _____
6. Pink-----Cake (Yes) _____

Date (Sonuç)

C) Kafiye Üretme

Yönerge: Şimdi sana bir kelime söyleyeceğim ve sendenden bana o kelimeyle kafiyeli bir kelime söylemeni istiyorum. (Cevap, gerçek ya da uydurmaca bir kelime olabilir). Bana 'sit' kelimesi ile kafiyeli bir kelime söyleyebilir misiniz? (Muhtemel cevaplar şunlar olabilir: bit, fit, mit, pit, dit, jit, vb.) (Eğer çocuk doğru bir şekilde yanıtlarsa sağdaki kutuya bir tik (√) koy. Verilen boşluklara cevapları yaz.)

1. Sheep _____
2. Sing _____
3. Number _____
4. Brown _____
5. House _____
6. Old _____

Date (Sonuç)

D) Hece Birleştirme

Yönerge: Şimdi bir kelimeyi komik bir şekilde söyleyeceğim. Yapman gereken, parçaları bir araya getirip kelimeyi bir bütün olarak söylemek. (Heceler arasında durarak aşağıdaki örnekleri verin ve öğrencilerin kelimeleri normal bir şekilde söylemesini sağlayın.)

Yönerge: Out-side (outside) (dışarıda), ro-bot (robot) (robot) (Çocuk beceriyi kavrarsa, aşağıdaki kelimeleri yapın ve çocuk kelimeyi doğru bir şekilde söylerse kutuya bir tik (√) koyun.)

1. Pen-cil _____
2. Win-dow _____
3. Gar-den _____
4. Se-ven _____
5. Ta-ble _____

6. Pa-per _____

Date (Sonuç)

E) Hece Bölme

Yönerge: Bir kelime söyleyeceğim ve sonra onu parçalara veya hecelere ayıracağım.

Rainbow (gökkuşağı) deyin. (Normal bir şekilde söyleyin ve rainbow kelimesindeki iki heceyi söylerken ellerinizi çırpın). Ardından Rainbow de. (Bu kez, söylediğin her hece için el çırp.)

Yönerge: Birkaç kelime daha söyleyeceğim ve senden her bir heceyi söylerken alkış yapmanı istiyorum. (Eğer becerinin yeniden kazandırılması gerekmezse heceleri tekrar el çırparak söylemek gerekli değildir. Eğer çocuk doğru bir şekilde söylerse yanına bir tik (√) koy).

1. Wo-man (2) _____
2. Co-lor (2) _____
3. Te-le-vi-sion (4) _____
4. Ba-na-na (3) _____
5. A-part-ment (3) _____
6. A-ni-mal (3) _____

Date (Sonuç)

F) Hece Çıkarma

Yönerge: Bir kısmı çıkarılmış kelimelerle bir oyun oynayacağız. Örneğin, ‘sunshine’ (güneş ışığı) kelimesinden ‘shine’ kaldırırsak ‘sun’ kalır. Şimdi sen ‘airline’ (havayolu) kelimesini ‘air’ olmadan söyle. (Çocuk ‘line’ demeli). Şimdi bu gibi birkaç kelime daha yapacağız. (Aşağıdaki kelimeleri kullanarak çocuğa hangi heceyi çıkartması gerektiğini söyle. Bu cümleyi kullan: ‘downtown’ (şehir merkezi) kelimesini ‘down’ olmadan söyle. ‘inside’(içinde) kelimesini ‘in’ olmadan söyle., vb. (Eğer çocuk doğru heceyi çıkarırsa yanına bir tik (√) koy).

1. Don(key) _____
2. (Mor)ning _____

3. (O)range _____
4. Yel(low) _____
5. Sis(ter) _____
6. (Un)der _____

Date (Sonuç)

G) İlk Seslerin Ayrımı

Yönerge: Ben sana bir kelime söyleyeceğim ve senden söylediğim bu kelimenin ilk sesini bana söylemeni istiyorum. Hazır mısınız? 'top' kelimesindeki ilk ses nedir? (Çocuk /t/ sesini söylemeli. Aynısını aşağıdaki kelimelerle yap ve eğer çocuk ilk sesi doğru bir şekilde söylerse sağ tarafa bir tik (√) koy).

1. Look /L/ _____
2. Grandmother /G/ _____
3. Have /H/ _____
4. Cow /K/ _____
5. Sad /S/ _____
6. Fly /F/ _____

Date (Sonuç)

H) Son Seslerin Ayrımı

Yönerge: Ben sana bir kelime söyleyeceğim ve senden söylediğim bu kelimenin son sesini bana söylemenizi istiyorum. Hazır mısın? 'pot' kelimesindeki son ses nedir? (Çocuk /t/ sesini söylemeli. Aynısını aşağıdaki kelimelerle yap ve eğer çocuk son sesi doğru bir şekilde söylerse sağdaki kutuya bir tik (√) koy).

1. Ask /k/ _____
2. Old /d/ _____
3. Room /m/ _____
4. Radio /o/ _____
5. Sofa /a/ _____
6. Small /l/ _____

Date (Sonuç)

I) Ses Birleştirme

Yönerge: Ben bir kelimenin bütün seslerini ayıracağım ve senden bu kelimeyi tam olarak söylemeni istiyorum. Örneğin, eğer ben /s/ /i/ /t/ seslerini söylersem, tam kelime …… (Çocuk 'sit' demeli). Haydi bunu gibi başka bir örnek daha yapalım. Eğer ben /s/ /t/ /o/ /p/ seslerini söylersem tam kelime …… (Çocuk 'stop' demeli.). Haydi bunun gibi birkaç kelime daha yapalım. (Seslere ayrılmış her kelimeyi oku. Eğer çocuk tam kelimeyi doğru bir şekilde söylerse sağdaki kutuya bir tik (√) koy).

1. c/o/l/o/r _____
2. l/i/s/t/e/n _____
3. f/a/m/i/l/y _____
4. c/a/n _____
5. s/i/n/g _____
6. y/o/u/r _____

Date (Sonuç)

J) Ses Bölünmesi

Yönerge: Kelimelerdeki seslerin tümüyle bir oyun oynayacağız. Çocuğa 'dime' (loş, sönük) kelimesindeki üç sesi göster. Söylediğin her bir ses için el çırp ---- /d/ /i/ /m/)

Yönerge: Şimdi sen dene. 'hat' (şapka) kelimesindeki her bir sesi söylerken el çırp. (Çocuk, 'hat' kelimesini söylerken her bir ses için el çırpmalı--- /h/ /a/ /t/---) Haydi, şimdi bunun gibi daha fazla kelime yapalım. Ben birkaç kelime daha söyleyeceğim ve senden söylediğim kelimedeki her bir ses için el çırpmanı istiyorum. Hazır mısınız?

(Aşağıdaki kelimelerin her birini birer birer oku. Çocuk, her kelimedeki her bir ses için el çırpmalı. Eğer çocuk bunu doğru yaparsa sağdaki kutuya bir tik (√) koy).

1. arm (3) _____
2. no (2) _____
3. sock (3) _____
4. him (3) _____
5. eye (2) _____
6. sit (3) _____

Date (Sonuç)

K) İlk Seslerin Çıkarılması

Yönerge: Kelimenin ilk sesinin çıkarıldığı bir kelime oyunu oynayacağız. Örneğin, ‘bed’ (yatak) kelimesi /b/ sesi silinirse ‘ed’ olur. Şimdi sen dene. ‘can’ (-ebilmek) kelimesi /c/ sesi olmadan ne olur? (Çocuk ‘an’ demeli).

Yönerge: Haydi şimdi bunun gibi daha fazla kelime yapalım. (Her bir kelimeyi oku ve çocuğa kelimenin ilk sesini çıkarmasını söyle) ‘sun’ (güneş) kelimesi /s/ sesi olmadan ne olur? vb. Eğer çocuk doğru bir şekilde cevap verirse sağdaki kutuya bir tik (√) koy).

1. (b)aby _____
2. (f)our _____
3. (l)etter _____
4. (d)og _____
5. (s)ix _____
6. (r)uler _____

Date (Sonuç)

L) Son Seslerin Silinmesi

Yönerge: Bir sonraki kelime oyunumuzda, kelimenin son hecesi çıkartılıyor. Örneğin, ‘goat’ (keçi) kelimesi /t/ sesi olmadan ‘go’ olur. ‘meat’ (et) kelimesi /t/ sesi olmadan ne olur? (Çocuk ‘me’ demeli).

Yönerge: Haydi şimdi bunun gibi daha fazla kelime yapalım. (Her bir kelimeyi oku ve çocuğa kelimenin son sesini çıkarmasını söyle. Şu cümle kalıbını kullan... ‘rose’ (gül) kelimesi /z/ sesi olmadan ne olur? ‘train’ (tren) kelimesi /n/ sesi olmadan ne olur?, vb. Eğer çocuk doğru bir şekilde cevap verirse sağdaki kutuya bir tik (√) koy).

1. Sto(p) _____
2. Fin(d) _____
3. Ha(t) _____
4. Roo(m) _____
5. Ea(t) _____

6. Carro(t) _____

Date (Sonuç)

M) Ünsüz Karışımındaki İlk Sesi Çıkarma

Yönerge: Ünsüz karışımından ilk sesi çıkararak yeni kelimeler bulacağız. Örneğin, ‘crow’ (karga) kelimesini /k/ sesi çıkartılırsa ‘row’ olur. Şimdi ‘still’ kelimesini /s/ sesi olmadan ne olur, de. (Çocuk ‘till’ demeli. Geri kalanları öğrenciyle birlikte yap ve eğer çocuk her birini doğru yaparsa sağdaki kutuya bir tik (√) koy).

1. (s)chool _____
2. (f)riend _____
3. (t)rain _____
4. (f)rom _____
5. (b)read _____
6. (g)randpa _____

Date (Sonuç)

N) Ses Değişimi (Seslerin Birbirinin Yerine Geçmesi)

Yönerge: Şimdi ise, kelimelerin sesleriyle çok farklı bir oyun oynayacağız. Senden

kelimenin ilk sesini çıkartmanızı ve onu başka bir sesle değiştirmenizi isteyeceğim. Örneğin, ‘pail’ (kova) kelimesinin ilk sesini /m/ sesiyle yer değiştir. İşte yeni oluşan kelime ‘mail’ (posta).

Şimdi sıra sende. ‘top’ (üst) kelimesinin ilk sesini /h/ sesiyle yer değiştir. (Çocuk ‘hop’ (atlamak) demeli. Geri kalanları öğrenciyle birlikte yap ve eğer çocuk her birini doğru yaparsa sağdaki kutuya bir tik (√) koy).

1. Replace the first sound of *ten* with /m/ ten _____
2. Replace the first sound of *sad* with /b/ bad _____
3. Replace the first sound of *me* with /h/ he _____
4. Replace the first sound of *hall* with /w/ Wall _____
5. Replace the first sound of *walk* with /t/ Talk _____
6. Replace the first sound of *fun* with /s/ sun _____

Date (Sonuç)

B. P.A.S.T. for Secondgraders

Phonological Awareness Skills Test (P.A.S.T.) for Secondgraders (Adapted)

Ad- Soyad_____Tarih _____

Cinsiyet- Yaş _____ Öğrenci Numarası _____

Öğretmen _____ Sınıf _____

A) İşitilen/ Söylenen Kelimenin Kavramı (Cümle Bölümlendirmesi)

Yönerge: Şimdi seninle bir oyun oynayacağız. ('I love you.' cümlesini söyle. Cümleyi söylerken cümledeki her bir kelime için alkışla). Şimdi sıra sende. Ben cümleyi söyleyeceğim ve sen tekrar edeceksin ve her bir kelime için alkışlayacaksın. 'Hava çok güzel.' de. (Öğrenci beceriyi anladıktan sonra, öğrenciye her bir cümleyi oku ve her kelime için alkışlayarak cümleyi tekrarlamasını iste. Eğer çocuk doğru yaparsa cümlenin sağına bir tik (√) koy).

1. Do you like lemonade? (4) _____
2. When do you have maths? (5) _____
3. I eat breakfast with my parents. (5) _____
4. I wear special shoes. (4) _____
5. Add some salt. (3) _____
6. I don't like playing soccer. (6) _____

Date (Sonuç)

B) Kafiye (Uyak) Tanıma

Yönerge: Sonundaki sesleri aynı olan iki kelimeye 'kafiyeli kelimeler' denir; 'hat' ve 'sat' gibi. 'sit' ve 'bit' kafiyeli midir? (Evet) 'chair' ve 'boy' kafiyeli midir? (Hayır) (Eğer çocuk beceriyi anlarsa, aynısını verilen kelime çiftleri için yap. Eğer çocuk doğru bir şekilde yanıtlarsa kelime çiftlerinin sağındaki kutuya bir tik (√) koy).

1. Butter---Burger (yes) _____
2. Uniform---Lemon (no) _____
3. Clean---Learn (yes) _____
4. Cake---White (no) _____
5. Vegetable---Early (no) _____
6. Map---Up (yes) _____

Date (Sonuç)

C) Kafiye Üretme

Yönerge: Şimdi sana bir kelime söyleyeceğim ve sendenden bana o kelimeyle kafiyeli bir kelime söylemeni istiyorum. (Cevap, gerçek ya da uydurmaca bir kelime olabilir). Bana 'sit' kelimesi ile kafiyeli bir kelime söyleyebilir misiniz? (Muhtemel cevaplar şunlar olabilir: bit, fit, mit, pit, dit, jit, vb.) (Eğer çocuk doğru bir şekilde yanıtlarsa sağdaki kutuya bir tik (√) koy. Verilen boşluklara cevapları yaz).

1. Play _____
2. Watch _____
3. Look _____
4. Sit _____
5. Egg _____
6. Kiwi _____

Date (Sonuç)

D) Hece Birleştirme

Yönerge: Şimdi bir kelimeyi komik bir şekilde söyleyeceğim. Yapman gereken, parçaları bir araya getirip kelimeyi bir bütün olarak söylemek. (Heceler arasında durarak aşağıdaki örnekleri verin ve öğrencilerin kelimeleri normal bir şekilde söylemesini sağlayın).

Yönerge: Out-side (outside) (dışarıda), ro-bot (robot) (robot) (Çocuk beceriyi kavrarsa, aşağıdaki kelimeleri yapın ve çocuk kelimeyi doğru bir şekilde söylerse kutuya bir tik (√) koyun).

1. Sa-lad _____
2. Sho-wer _____
3. Wa-ter _____
4. O-lives _____
5. Sub-ject _____
6. Mon-day _____

Date (Sonuç)

E) Hece Bölme

Yönerge: Bir kelime söyleyeceğim ve sonra onu parçalara veya hecelere ayıracağım.

Rainbow (gökkuşağı) deyin. (Normal bir şekilde söyleyin ve rainbow kelimesindeki iki heceyi söylerken ellerinizi çırpın). Ardından Rainbow de. (Bu kez, söylediğin her hece için el çırp).

Yönerge: Birkaç kelime daha söyleyeceğim ve senden her bir heceyi söylerken alkış yapmanı istiyorum. (Eğer becerinin yeniden kazandırılması gerekmezse heceleri tekrar el çırparak söylemek gerekli değildir. Eğer çocuk doğru bir şekilde söylerse yanına bir tik (√) koy).

1. Basketball (3) _____
2. Thursday (2) _____
3. Supermarket (4) _____
4. Orange (2) _____
5. Computer (3) _____
6. Canteen (2) _____

Date (Sonuç)

F) Hece Çıkarma

Yönerge: Bir kısmı çıkartılmış kelimelerle bir oyun oynayacağız. Örneğin, 'sunshine' (güneş ışığı) kelimesinden 'shine' kaldırırsak 'sun' kalır. Şimdi sen 'airline' (havayolu) kelimesini 'air' olmadan söyle. (Çocuk 'line' demeli). Şimdi bu gibi birkaç kelime daha yapacağız. (Aşağıdaki kelimeleri kullanarak çocuğa hangi heceyi çıkartması gerektiğini söyle. Bu cümleyi kullan: 'downtown' (şehir merkezi) kelimesini 'down' olmadan söyle. 'inside'(içinde) kelimesini 'in' olmadan söyle., vb. (Eğer çocuk doğru heceyi çıkartırsa yanna `bir tik (√) koy).`

1. (Mar)ket _____
2. (Eng)lish _____
3. Al(ways) _____
4. Ti(dy) _____
5. Bo(dy) _____
6. (T)ree _____

Date (Sonuç)

G) İlk Seslerin Ayrımı

Yönerge: Ben sana bir kelime söyleyeceğim ve senden söylediğim bu kelimenin ilk sesini bana söylemeni istiyorum. Hazır mısınız? 'top' kelimesindeki ilk ses nedir? (Çocuk /t/ sesini söylemeli. Aynısını aşağıdaki kelimelerle yap ve eğer çocuk ilk sesi doğru bir şekilde söylerse sağ tarafa bir tik (√) koy).

1. Ocean /O/ _____
2. Wear /W/ _____
3. Brush /B/ _____
4. Fun /F/ _____
5. Rule /R/ _____
6. Plant /P/ _____

Date (Sonuç)

H) Son Seslerin Ayrımı

Yönerge: Ben sana bir kelime söyleyeceğim ve senden söylediğim bu kelimenin son sesini bana söylemenizi istiyorum. Hazır mısın? 'pot' kelimesindeki son ses nedir? (Çocuk /t/ sesini söylemeli. Aynısını aşağıdaki kelimelerle yap ve eğer çocuk son sesi doğru bir şekilde söylerse sağdaki kutuya bir tik (√) koy).

1. Name /m/ _____
2. Week /k/ _____
3. Have /v/ _____
4. Do /u/ _____
5. Bag /g/ _____
6. Sleep /p/ _____

Date (Sonuç)

(I) Ses Birleştirme

Yönerge: Ben bir kelimenin bütün seslerini ayıracağım ve senden bu kelimeyi tam olarak söylemeni istiyorum. Örneğin, eğer ben /s/ /i/ /t/ seslerini söylersem, tam kelime …… (Çocuk 'sit' demeli.). Haydi bunu gibi başka bir örnek daha yapalım. Eğer ben /s/ /t/ /o/ /p/ seslerini söylersem tam kelime …… (Çocuk 'stop' demeli.). Haydi bunun gibi birkaç kelime daha yapalım. (Seslere ayrılmış her kelimeyi oku. Eğer çocuk tam kelimeyi doğru bir şekilde söylerse sağdaki kutuya bir tik (√) koy).

1. F-i-t _____
2. C-o-r-n _____
3. Y-a-r-d _____
4. S-k-i-n _____
5. A-d-d _____
6. H-a-r-d _____

Date (Sonuç)

J) Ses Bölünmesi

Yönerge: Kelimelerdeki seslerin tümüyle bir oyun oynayacağız. Çocuğa 'dime' (loş, sönük) kelimesindeki üç sesi göster. Söylediğin her bir ses için el çırp ---- /d/ /i/ /m/.)

Yönerge: Şimdi sen dene. 'hat' (şapka) kelimesindeki her bir sesi söylerken el çırp. (Çocuk, 'hat' kelimesini söylerken her bir ses için el çırpmalı--- /h/ /a/ /t/---) Haydi, şimdi bunun gibi daha fazla kelime yapalım. Ben birkaç kelime daha söyleyeceğim ve senden söylediğim kelimedeki her bir ses için el çırpmanı istiyorum. Hazır mısınız?

(Aşağıdaki kelimelerin her birini birer birer oku. Çocuk, her kelimedeki her bir ses için el çırpmalı. Eğer çocuk bunu doğru yaparsa sağdaki kutuya bir tik (√) koy).

1. Jump (4) _____
2. Put (3) _____
3. See (2) _____
4. Go (2) _____
5. Toe (2) _____
6. Some (3) _____

Date (Sonuç)

K) İlk Seslerin Çıkartılması

Yönerge: Kelimenin ilk sesinin çıkarıldığı bir kelime oyunu oynayacağız. Örneğin, 'bed' (yatak) kelimesi /b/ sesi silinirse 'ed' olur. Şimdi sen dene. 'can' (-ebilmek) kelimesi /c/ sesi olmadan ne olur? (Çocuk 'an' demeli.)

Yönerge: Haydi şimdi bunun gibi daha fazla kelime yapalım. (Her bir kelimeyi oku ve çocuğa kelimenin ilk sesini çıkarmasını söyle) ‘sun’ (güneş) kelimesi /s/ sesi olmadan ne olur? vb. Eğer çocuk doğru bir şekilde cevap verirse sağdaki kutuya bir tik (√) koy).

1. (f)inger _____
2. (l)ate _____
3. (b)ean _____
4. (t)ooth _____
5. (p)aint _____
6. (m)ap _____

Date (Sonuç)

L) Son Seslerin Silinmesi

Yönerge: Bir sonraki kelime oyunumuzda, kelimenin son hecesi çıkartılıyor. Örneğin, ‘goat’ (keçi) kelimesi /t/ sesi olmadan ‘go’ olur. ‘meat’ (et) kelimesi /t/ sesi olmadan ne olur? (Çocuk ‘me’ demeli.)

Yönerge: Haydi şimdi bunun gibi daha fazla kelime yapalım. (Her bir kelimeyi oku ve çocuğa kelimenin son sesini çıkarmasını söyle. Şu cümle kalıbını kullan... ‘rose’ (gül) kelimesi /z/ sesi olmadan ne olur? ‘train’ (tren) kelimesi /n/ sesi olmadan ne olur?, vb. Eğer çocuk doğru bir şekilde cevap verirse sağdaki kutuya bir tik (√) koy).

1. Past(a) _____
2. Bow(l) _____
3. Bir(d) _____
4. Fas(t) _____
5. Pe(t) _____
6. Goo(d) _____

Date (Sonuç)

M) Ünsüz Karışımındaki İlk Sesi Çıkarma

Yönerge: Ünsüz karışımından ilk sesi çıkararak yeni kelimeler bulacağız. Örneğin, ‘crow’ (karga) kelimesini /k/ sesi çıkartılırsa ‘row’ olur. Şimdi ‘still’

kelimesini /s/ sesi olmadan ne olur, de. (Çocuk ‘till’ demeli. Geri kalanları öğrenciyle birlikte yap ve eğer çocuk her birini doğru yaparsa sağdaki kutuya bir tik (√) koy).

1. (S)nake _____
2. (D)rums _____
3. (C)lean _____
4. (T)ree _____
5. (P)late _____
6. (F)ries _____

Date (Sonuç)

N) Ses Değişimi (Seslerin Birbirinin Yerine Geçmesi)

Yönerge: Şimdi ise, kelimelerin sesleriyle çok farklı bir oyun oynayacağız. Sendenkelimenin ilk sesini çıkarmanızı ve onu başka bir sesle değiştirmenizi isteyeceğim. Örneğin, ‘pail’ (kova) kelimesinin ilk sesini /m/ sesiyle yer değiştir. İşte yeni oluşan kelime ‘mail’ (posta).

Şimdi sıra sende. ‘top’ (üst) kelimesinin ilk sesini /h/ sesiyle yer değiştir. (Çocuk ‘hop’ (atlamak) demeli. Geri kalanları öğrenciyle birlikte yap ve eğer çocuk her birini doğru yaparsa sağdaki kutuya bir tik (√) koy).

1. Replace the first sound of *sit* with /b/ bit _____
2. Replace the first sound of *try* with /c/ cry _____
3. Replace the first sound of *bag* with /t/ tag _____
4. Replace the first sound of *pea* with /s/ see _____
5. Replace the first sound of *blue* with /g/ glue _____
6. Replace the first sound of *back* with /p/ pack _____

Date (Sonuç)

C. Official Permission from the TED University's Ethics Commission

İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu
Etik Kurul Kararları 2022/04

TED ÜNİVERSİTESİ
İNSAN ARAŞTIRMALARI ETİK KURULU
ETİK KURUL KARARLARI

Toplantı Tarihi	23.05.2022
Toplantı Sayısı	2022/04
Toplantı Yeri	Dekanlık Toplantı Odası
Toplantı Saati	10:00
Toplantıya Katılanlar	

Raportör Serkan Karaca İAEK Sekreteri

Gündem : Ted Üniverisetesi İnsan Araştırmları Etik kurulu Toplantıları COVİD-19 salgını nedeni ile online yapılmış olup kararları toplu olarak yazılıp e-imza ile imzaya açılmıştır.

GÖRÜŞME MADDELERİ

G.13 : TED Üniversitesi, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü Öğretim Üyesi Üyesi Melike Ünal Gezer'in " Sesletim Odaklı İngilizce Hikaye Kitaplarının İlkokul 1. ve 2. Sınıf İngilizce Öğrencilerinin İngilizce Fonolojik Farkındalığına Katkısı " başlıklı çalışmasının araştırma etiğine uygunluğu görüşüldü.

Karar 2022-04/13: TED Üniversitesi, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü Öğretim Üyesi [redacted] Melike Ünal Gezer'in " Sesletim Odaklı İngilizce Hikaye Kitaplarının İlkokul 1. ve 2. Sınıf İngilizce Öğrencilerinin İngilizce Fonolojik Farkındalığına Katkısı " başlıklı çalışmasına,

KOŞULLU ONAY KARARI VERİLDİ.

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Veli izni olmayan çocukların çalışmaya dahil edilmeyecekleri bilgisi başvuru formuna eklenmiş gibi görünmektedir. Ancak bu çocukların alternatif olarak ne yapacakları net olarak belirtilmemiştir. Onam formunda ise "Çalışmaya katılım göstermek istemeyen çocuklar da ilgili kitapları dönem içerisinde okuyacak ilgili çalışmalara katılacaklardır dönemin ilerleyen aylarında" gibi bir cümle yer almaktadır. Ayrıca "çocuğunuz çalışmaya dahil edilmeyecek, çocuğunuzdan herhangi bir veri toplanmayacaktır" cümlesi de yer almaktadır. Ancak katılımı onaylanmayan çocukların bu araştırma sürecinde (fonolojik farkındalık testi, okuma dersleri sırasında, vb.) net olarak ne yapacakları da açıklanmalıdır.

Toplantı saat 12:00'de sona erdi.

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(e-imzalıdır)
Ilgın GÖKLER DANIŞMAN
Başkan

(e-imzalıdır)
İbrahim YİĞİT
Üye

(e-imzalıdır)
Çağla ÖNEREN ŞENDİL
Üye

(e-imzalıdır)
Duygu ONAY ÇÖKER
Üye

(e-imzalıdır)
Kıymet Duygu ERDAŞ
Üye

(e-imzalıdır)
Pelin İRGİN
Uye

(KATILMADI)
(e-imzalıdır)
Melike ÜNAL GEZER
Üye

(e-imzalıdır)
Kutluk Bilge ARIKAN
Üye

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D. Official Permission from the Ministry of National Education

TEDÜ Gelen Evrak Tarihi ve Sayısı: 04.11.2022-22021

T.C.
ANKARA VALİLİĞİ
Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : E-14588481-605.99-62722855 03.11.2022
Konu : Araştırma İzni

TED ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi: a) 20.10.2022 tarihli ve 21611 sayılı yazınız.
b) MEB Yenilik ve Eğitim Teknolojileri Genel Müdürlüğünün 2020/2 nolu Genelgesi.

Üniversiteniz Lisansüstü Programlar Enstitüsü Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi Şebnem CENGİZ'in **"Sesletim Odaklı İngilizce Hikâye Kitaplarının İlkokul 1. ve 2. Sınıf İngilizce Öğrencilerinin İngilizce Fonolojik Farkındalığına Katkısı"** konulu tezi kapsamında merkez ilçelere bağlı okullarda uygulanacak olan veri toplama araçları ilgi (b) Genelge çerçevesinde incelenmiştir.

Yapılan inceleme sonucunda, söz konusu araştırmanın Müdürlüğümüzde muhafaza edilen ölçme araçlarının; Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Anayasası, Millî Eğitim Temel Kanunu ile Türk Milli Eğitiminin genel amaçlarına uygun olarak, ilgili yasal düzenlemelerde belirtilen ilke, esas ve amaçlara aykırılık teşkil etmeyecek, eğitim-öğretim faaliyetlerini aksatmayacak şekilde okul ve kurum yöneticilerinin sorumluluğunda gönüllülük esasına göre uygulanması Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Harun FATSA
Vali a.
Milli Eğitim Müdürü

Ek:
Uygulama araçları (36 sayfa)
Dağıtım:
Gereği:
TED Üniversitesi
Bilgi:
9 Merkez İlçe MEM

Bu belge güvenli elektronik imza
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E. Official Permission from the School Administration

OKUL MÜDÜRÜ İZİN FORMU

Değerli Okul Müdürüm,

TED Üniversitesi'nde Melike Ünal GEZER danışmanlığında İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Yüksek Lisans Programı tez çalışmam olarak bir araştırma yapmayı planlamaktayım. Araştırmanın amacı sesletim odaklı İngilizce hikâye kitaplarının ilkokul 1. ve 2. sınıf öğrencilerinin ses farkındalıklarına olan katkısının incelenmesidir. Çalışmayı hedeflediğim yaş grubunun okulunuzda mevcut olması ve öğrencilerinizin hazırbulunuşluk düzeylerinin de çalışmanın gerekliliklerini yerine getirmeye uygun olması sebebiyle çalışmamı Açı Koleji ilkokulunda yapmak için izninizi talep ediyorum. Çalışmamın okulunuzca uygulanmakta olan sesletim odakli müfredatın öğrencilerinizin İngilizce ses farkındalıklarının arttırılmasına olan katkısının ortaya konulmasında katkısı olacağını düşünüyorum.

Araştırmamın başında olan 1. ve 2. Sınıf öğrencilerine 20 dakika sürmesi beklenen ve okul müfredatının bir parçası olan fonolojik farkındalık testini (P.A.S.T) uygulayacağım. Sonrasında İngilizce öğretmenleri yine okul müfredatı dahilindeki sesletim odaklı okuma derslerini yapacak. Bu derste öğretmen öğrencilerle o hafta için seçmiş olduğu ses benzerliklerinin zengin olduğu hikâye kitabını okuyacak. Bu kafiyeli kitaplar Bob kitap serisinden seçilecek. Kitabı okuduktan sonra öğretmenleri çocuklara kitap içeriğine uygun olan, öğrencilerin keyifle tamamlayacağı etkinlikler verecek ve bu etkinler sınıfta öğretmenleriyle yapılacak. Öğrencilere okudukları kitaplar verilecek ve evde de okuması istenecek. Dönem sonunda 1. ve 2. Sınıf öğrencilerine bahsi geçen P.A.S.T. testi yeniden uygulanacaktır. İlk ve son test sonuçları tarafımca analiz edilecek.

Katılımcı olacak öğrenciden herhangi bir kimlik bilgisi istenmeyecektir. Çocuklardan elde edilen sonuçlar anonim olarak tarafımca gizli tutulacaktır ve araştırmanın sonuçları sadece bilimsel araştırma amacıyla kullanılacaktır.

Araştırmada yer almak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır. Çocuklar araştırma süresince rahatsızlık hissederse araştırmanın herhangi bir aşamasında ayrılmakta özgürler. Araştırmadan çekilmek öğrenci için olumsuz bir sonuç doğurmayacaktır.

Araştırmacı :
Şebnem
Cengiz
Telefon :

İmza :

Tarihi: 04.11.2022

Uygunluk Veren Okul Müdürü:

İmza:

F. Parental Consent Form

Veli Onam Mektubu

Değerli Anne ve Babalar,

TED Üniversitesi'nde I Melike Ünal GEZER danışmanlığında İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Yüksek Lisans Programı tez çalışmam olarak bir araştırma yürütmekteyim. Araştırmanın amacı sesletim odaklı İngilizce hikaye kitaplarının ilkokul 1. ve 2. sınıf öğrencilerinin ses farkındalıklarına olan katkısının incelenmesidir. Bu amaçla çalışmamıza, okulumuzun 1. ve 2. Sınıf öğrencilerinin katılımı hedeflenmektedir. Araştırma T.C. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'nın ve okul yönetiminin de izni ile gerçekleşmektedir.

Bu araştırmada çocuğunuzun yer alması ya da almamasına karar vermeden önce, araştırmanın ne amaçla yapılmak istendiğini anlamanız ve kararınızı bu bilgilendirme çerçevesinde özgürce vermeniz gerekmektedir. Aşağıdaki bilgileri lütfen dikkatlice okuyunuz, sorularınız olursa sorunuz.

Bu araştırmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Çocukların araştırmaya katılarak bilime yapacağı değerli katkı bizim için çok önemlidir. Okulumuzda halihazırda uygulanan yenilikçi erken yaş yabancı dil öğretimi kapsamında benimsenmiş olan sesletim odaklı modelin katılan çocukların ses farkındalıklarına olan katkısı incelenecektir. Katılımlarının bahsi geçen sesletim odaklı İngilizce hikâye kitaplarının ses farkındalığına olan katkısının daha iyi anlaşılması ve gelecekte bu kitapların ders müfredatına daha uzun vadede dahil edilip edilmemesinin değerlendirilmesi konusunda katkıları olacaktır. Çalışmaya katılımı kabul etmemeniz durumunda öğrencimizin herhangi bir kaybı olmayacaktır. Katılım gösteren diğer öğrencilerle birlikte sesletim odaklı modelin uygulandığı okulda aynı programa dahil olmaya devam edeceklerdir ve okulun uyguladığı testleri kitap okuma uygulaması öncesi ve sonrası çözeceklerdir.

Okulun yürttüğü bu çalışmadan elde edilen verileri araştırma için kullanmak sizin onayınıza bağlıdır. Bunun için IAEK izni sonrasında MEB izni de alınmıştır.

Araştırmanın başında çocuklara okul müfredatında da bulunan, yaklaşık 20 dakika sürmesi beklenen fonolojik farkındalık testini (P.A.S.T) uygulayacağım. Bunu etüt dersi saati içerisinde, ya da Cumartesi günü çocuğunuzu okula getirmenizi rica ederek okulda uygulayacağım. Çocukların testlerini kendi oluşturduğum yazılı randevu sistemini takip ederek uygulayacağım. Sizleri de çocuğunuzu sınava alacağım gün ve saat hakkında öncesinde bilgilendireceğim. Sonrasında İngilizce öğretmenleri her hafta olduğu gibi öğrencilerle haftalık olarak 40 dakika sürecek okuma dersi yapacaktır. Okulumuzun uygulamasını daha ayrıntılı olarak açıklamak gerekirse, bu derste öğretmen öğrencilerle o hafta için seçilecek olan ses benzerliklerinin zengin olduğu hikâye kitabını okuyacaktır. Bu kafiyeli kitaplar Bob kitap serisinden seçilecektir. Kitabı okuduktan sonra öğretmenleri çocuklara kitap içeriğine uygun

olan, öğrencilerin keyifle tamamladığı etkinlikler sunacaktır.

Öğrencilere okuyacakları kitaplar verilecek ve sizlerden de ilgili kaynakları evde okuması istenecektir. Bu uygulamanın 2 ay boyunca sürmesi planlanmaktadır. Bu sürecin sonunda 1. ve 2. sınıflar toplam 8 kitap okuyarak kitapla ilgili etkinlikleri yapmış olacaklar. 2 ayın sonun çocuklara bahsi geçen P.A.S.T. testi yeniden uygulanacaktır. Çalışmaya katılım göstermek istemey çocuklar da ilgili kitapları dönem içerisinde arkadaşlarıyla birlikte okuyacaklardır. Testleri çözeceklerdir. Çünkü bu çalışmalar öğrencilerin fonolojik farkındalıklarını tespit etme geliştirmeye yönelik hazırlanan okul müfredatına dahildir. Fakat veli onayı olmayan çocukla P.A.S.T. sınavından elde ettikleri sonuç, yani onlardan toplanan veriler çalışmaya da edilmeyecektir."

Katılımcı olacak öğrencilerden herhangi bir kimlik bilgisi istenmeyecektir. Teste katılan çocuklara numara verilmesi suretiyle anonimlik sağlanacaktır. Çocuklardan elde edilen sonuçlar anonim olarak tarafımca şahsıma ait kilitli bir dolapta çalışma tamamlanıp yaklaşık iki sene boyunca gizli tutulacaktır ve araştırmanın sonuçları sadece bilimsel araştırma amacıyla kullanılacaktır.

Araştırmada yer almak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır. Çocuklar araştırma süresince rahatsızlık hissederse araştırmanın herhangi bir aşamasında ayrılmakta özgürdürler. Ayrılmaları sonucunda verileri araştırmaya dahil edilmeyecektir. Araştırmaya katılmamama veya araştırmadan ayrılma durumunda öğrencilerin akademik başarıları, okul ve öğretmenleriyle olan ilişkileri etkilemeyecektir.

Araştırmaya katılım ekonomik ya da ders notlarına ekleme şeklinde bir teşvik içermemekle birlikte, özenle seçilen ve uluslararası alanda farklı okullarda birinci ve ikinci sınıf düzeyinde kullanılan Bob Books'un çocuğunuzun İngilizce ses farkındalığına yaptığı katkıyı verilerle somut bir şekilde görmenizi mümkün olacaktır.

Eğer bu çalışmada yer almak isterseniz size gönderilen zarfı açarak onam formunu doldurup yeniden size verilen diğer zarfın içerisine yerleştirip kapatarak çocuğunuz aracılığıyla bize ulaştırınız. Gönderilen zarflar araştırmacı tarafından sınıfta öğrencilerden toplanacaktır.

Öğrencinin bahsi geçen çalışmaya katılımını onaylamamanız durumunda çocuğunuz okul müfredatında yer alan sınıfta kitapları okuma ve etkinliklerini tamamlama sürecine arkadaşlarıyla birlikte dahil olacak, P.A.S.T. sınavını çözecek, fakat çocuğunuzun bu testten aldığı sonuç çalışma için hiçbir şekilde kullanılmayacaktır. Yani çocuğunuz veri sağlama sürecine dahil edilmeyecektir.

Araştırma ile ilgili soru ve görüşlerinizi mail adresine iletebilirsiniz.
Değerli katkılarınızdan dolayı şimdiden teşekkürlerimi sunuyorum.

Velinin Beyanı

Araştırmacı tarafından bu araştırma ile ilgili yeteri kadar bilgilendirildim. Bu çalışma kapsamında velisi bulunduğum……. sınıfı……numaralı öğrencisi……..…… ile ilgili bilgi toplanmasını ve kendisinin çalışmanın bir parçası olmasını velisi olarak onaylıyorum. Çocuğumun vereceği bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayınlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum. Araştırmada çocuğumun verdiği bilgilerin iznim dışında bilimsel makaleler, akademik sunumlar ve çevrimiçi bir eğitim ortamı dışında kesinlikle kullanılmayacağını biliyorum.

Çocuğumun araştırmaya katılımını onaylıyorum Evet /Hayır

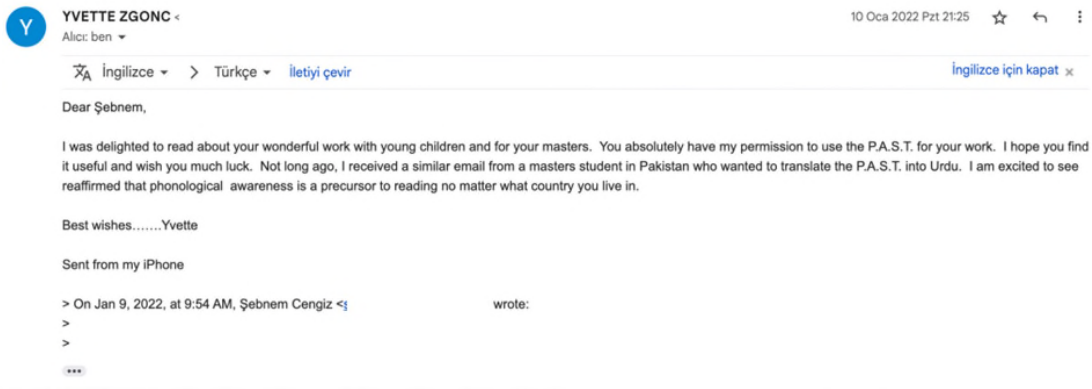
Veli Adı Soyadı:

Telefon Numarası:

İmza: .....

Araştırmaya katılımınız ve haklarınızın korunmasına yönelik sorularınız varsa ya da herhangi bir şekilde risk altında olduğunuza veya strese maruz kalacağına inanıyorsanız TED Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'na (telefon numarasından veya eposta adresinden ulaşabilirsiniz.

G. Permission from the Owner of P.A.S.T.



YVETTE ZGONC <
Alıcı: ben

10 Oca 2022 Pzt 21:25

İngilizce > Türkçe İletiyi çevir

İngilizce için kapat

Dear Şebnem,

I was delighted to read about your wonderful work with young children and for your masters. You absolutely have my permission to use the P.A.S.T. for your work. I hope you find it useful and wish you much luck. Not long ago, I received a similar email from a masters student in Pakistan who wanted to translate the P.A.S.T. into Urdu. I am excited to see reaffirmed that phonological awareness is a precursor to reading no matter what country you live in.

Best wishes.....Yvette

Sent from my iPhone

> On Jan 9, 2022, at 9:54 AM, Şebnem Cengiz <ş wrote:
>
>
>

H. List of the Books

Books Chosen from Bob Book Series

Dan’s Plan
Cam’s Snack
The Hen in the Den
The Red Sled
Drip, Drip, Drip
Bow-Wow
Lin in the Bin
The Dog in the Fog
The Spot
In a Huff
Bug and Pug
Frogs
Up-Pup
Fun in the Sun
Dot and the Dog
Funny Bunny

I. Sample Lesson Plan

LESSON PLAN

AIMS
Main Aim(s): To raise the phonological awareness of the students.

BACKGROUND
Class profile: There are 16 students in the classroom. 10 of them are boys and 6 are girls. Students are 6 or 7 years old.

MATERIALS
Printed version of the Bob Books-'Ruff and Puff', smartboard, book-related activity handouts.

LESSON PROCEDURES

STAGE	AIM	TIME	Interaction Pattern	PROCEDURE
Lead-in	To create a context and make students loosen their lazy tongues by having them speak	4 minutes	T-S S-T	-Teacher greets the students. -Teacher plays the sound of a dog barking and asks learners to guess what animal it is. She elicits the answer 'dog'. -Teacher plays the sound of a cat meowing and asks learners to guess what animal it is. She elicits the answer 'cat'. -Teacher asks which one is their favourite.
Pre-Reading	To prepare learners for the reading text by creating curiosity	5 minutes	S-S T-S S-T	-Teacher tells learners that she has got a book about a dog and a cat. -She displays the cover of the book on the smartboard and asks learners: 'What do you think their names are?' -Teacher elicits the answer 'Muff and Ruff' -Teacher asks, "Do you think they are good friends?' -Teacher gets the answers. -Teacher says 'Let's read and learn. '

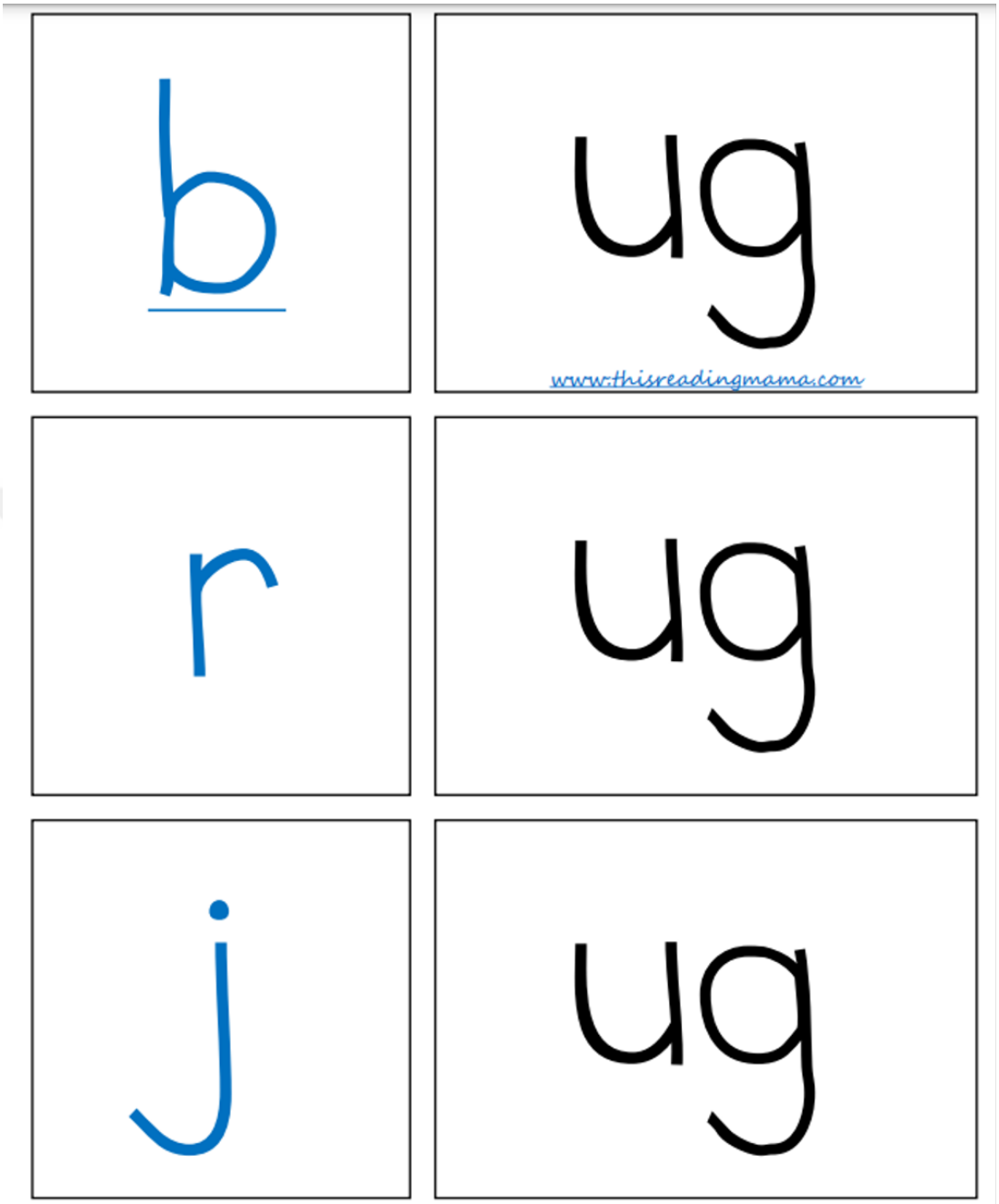
While Reading 1 ('To' step of 'To/With/By Approach')	To provide a model to learners of reading by creating awareness of sounds	7 minutes	T-S S-S	-Teacher starts reading the book. While reading the book, the teacher takes learners' attention to the rhyming words. For example, after she reads the sentence 'Muff and Ruff tag a rag rug.', by using her body language and demonstrating, she asks what do Muff and Ruff tag? -She elicits the answer 'A rag rug'. -Each time she moves on the next page she asks learners about their opinions about the pictures. 'Look at Ruff! 'How does he feel? Happy? Sad? Angry?...'Yes, he feels angry'.
While Reading 2 ('With' step of 'To/With/By Approach')	To give learners more responsibility for reading	4	T-S S-S	-Teacher tells the students that this time they will read the book as a whole class. -Teacher reads the book with the students.

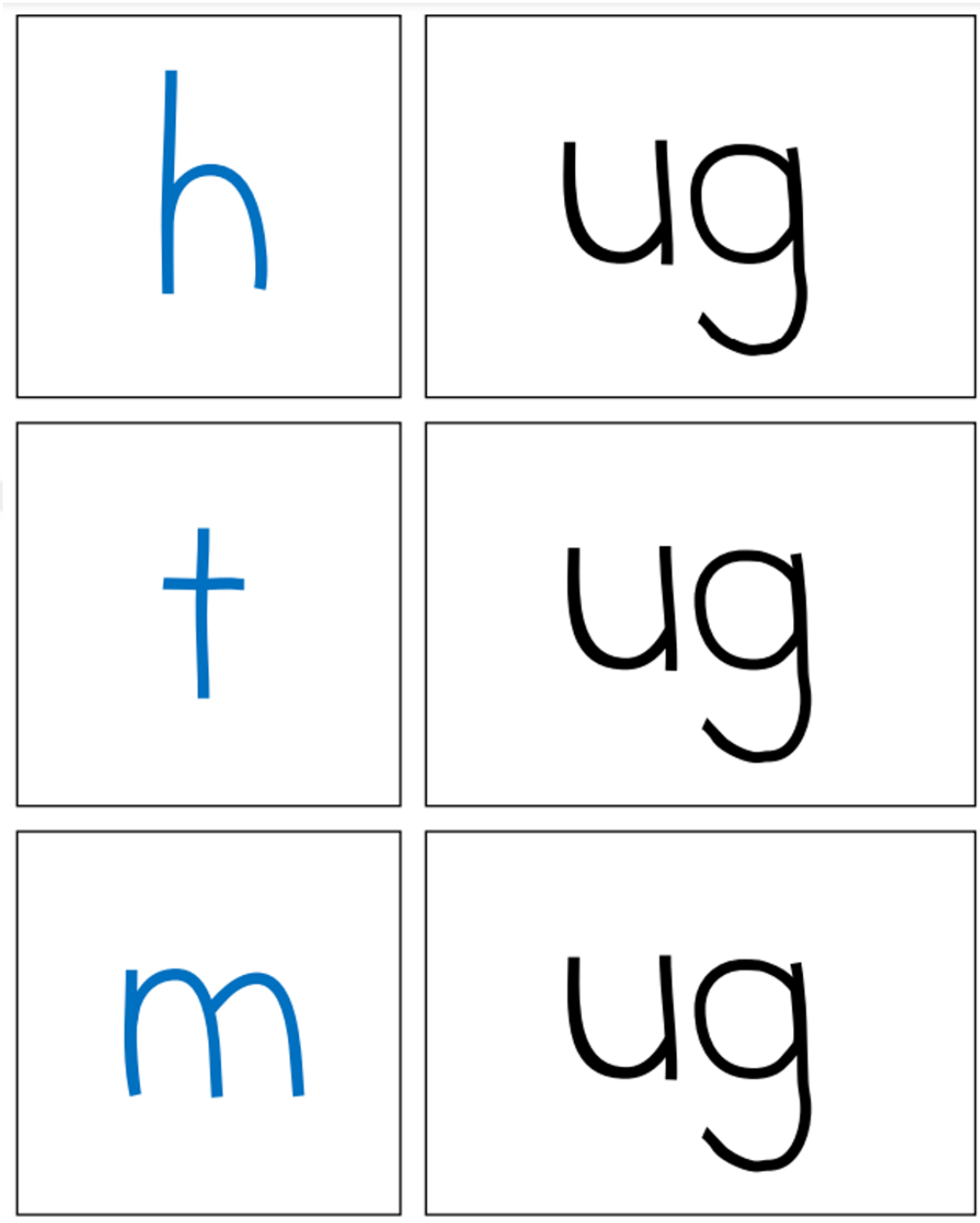
While Reading 3 ('By' step of 'To/With/By Approach')	To enable learners practice reading with their friends	8 minutes	T-S S-S S-S	-By demonstrating, the teacher gives the instruction for the next step. 'This time you will read the story to your partner'. -Teacher pairs the students. -Teacher gives the copy of the book to the learners and asks them to start. -Teacher monitors the students. -When partners finish, the teacher asks them to switch roles.
Post-Reading	To practice sounds	10 minutes	T-S S-T	-Teacher sticks the pictures of bug, rug, jug, hug, tug and mug on one side of the wall and places the phonemes of these words on the other side of the wall (b,ug,j,ug…) -Teacher shows the picture of bug. -She elicits the name of the animal from the students. If students cannot tell, the teacher says the word like this: ' b-ug.' -Showing the group of phonemes, the teacher asks for a volunteer who will find the onset (b) and rime (ug) that matches and creates the word 'bug'. -After the b and ug are brought together, the teacher reads the word with the class.

				-Teacher follows the same procedure for all the remaining words. -After all the words are finished, the teacher reads the words with the students.
Wrap Up	To make learners busy with the book at home	2 minutes	T-S	-Teacher asks learners to read the given book to their parents at home. -Teacher says goodbye to the students.

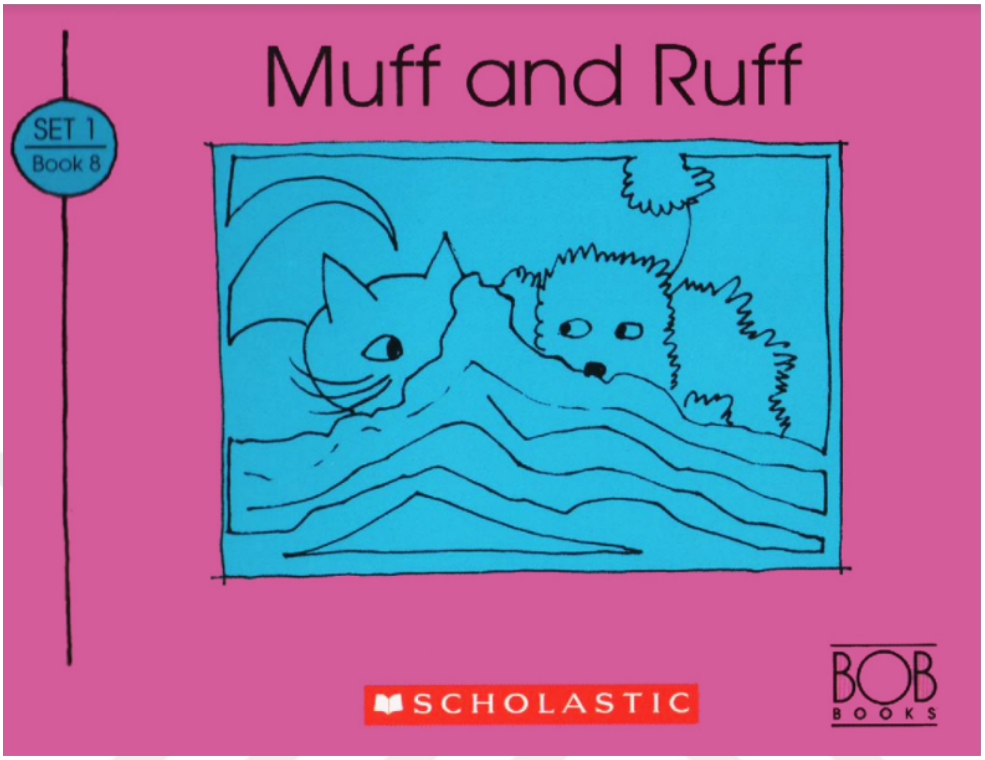
Handouts




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Cover of the book



A sample page from the book

