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Epstein's Model of Parental Involvement: Parent Perceptions in Urban Schools

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Epstein's model of parental involvement: Parent perceptions in urban schools

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in parents' perceptions of frequency and effectiveness regarding parental involvement among various demographic groups (ethnicity, education level, socio-economic status, number of children in the home) based on Epstein's (2007) six typologies of parental involvement. Parents were asked to reflect on the degree to which their child's school carried out the activities informed by the six parental involvement typologies of Epstein's Model of Parental Involvement (i.e., parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning at home, decision-making, and collaborating with the community). Findings indicated that parents in this study had significantly different views regarding the implementation of effective parental involvement behaviors by schools. Results from the study will provide districts with knowledge on how to better serve parents as well as close the gap in communication between home and school.

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Epstein'in ebeveyn katılımı modeli: Kentsel okullarda ebeveyn algıları

Öz

Bu çalışmanın amacı, Epstein'in (2007) altı ebeveyn katılımı tipolojisine (etnisite, eğitim düzeyi, sosyo-ekonomik durum, evdeki çocuk sayısı) dayanarak çeşitli demografik gruplar arasında ebeveynlerin ebeveyn katılımına ilişkin sıklık ve etkinlik algıları bakımından istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığını tespit etmektir. Ebeveynlerden, çocuklarının okulunun, Epstein'in Ebeveyn Katılımı Modelinin altı ebeveyn katılımı tipolojisi tarafından bildirilen faaliyetleri (ebeveynlik, iletişim, gönüllülük, evde öğrenme, karar verme ve işbirliği yapma gibi.) gerçekleştirme derecesini ifade etmeleri istenmiştir. Bulgular, bu çalışmadaki ebeveynlerin etkili ebeveyn katılımı davranışlarının okullar tarafından uygulanmasına ilişkin olarak oldukça farklı görüşlere sahip olduğunu göstermiştir. Çalışmadan elde edilen sonuçlar bölgelere, ailelere nasıl daha iyi hizmet edeceklerinin yanı sıra ev ve okul arasındaki iletişimdeki boşluğu kapatmak konusunda bilgi sağlayacaktır.

Introduction

There is robust research about the different factors that influence student achievement. While teacher skill and communication is important, there are a number of influential factors for student success that happen outside of school. In fact, research shows that supportive behavior from parents or guardians correlates with student achievement (Scharton, 2019). However, not all researchers agree with this theory as not all parental ethnic groups, nor all parental socio-economic groups, have reported that they feel welcomed by school. The challenge to engage parents remains for most school districts in the United States (Hayes, 2013).

Although researchers disagree on the benefits of parental involvement for all age groups (Ferrara, 2015; Rogers, Theule, Ryan, Adams, & Keating, 2009), most researchers agree that parental involvement is academically beneficial for children (Gonzalez-DeHass, Willems, & Doan Holbein, 2005; Greenwood & Hickman, 1991). The educational needs of students have increased along with testing standards, state expectations, and graduation requirements (Allen & Mintron, 2010; Fan & Chen, 2001; Hill & Craft, 2003). Jeynes (2007) noticed, "When families, community groups, and schools work together to support learning, children tend to stay in school longer, do better in school, and like school more" (p. 85). Jeynes, along with Epstein (2007), Garrett (2008), Gordon and Louis (2009), and Hornby (2011) reported that students who had regular parental involvement earned higher grades and test scores, enrolled in higher-level programs, attended school more regularly, earned credits to be promoted, had better social skills, showed improved behavior, and adapted well to school resulting in graduation. With these facts in mind, research was warranted on the benefits of parents' perceptions of parental involvement.

Most research on parental involvment suggests that it will positively affect student attendance, behavior, and success (Jeyne, 2007). Other researchers, such as Comer (2005), Desimone (1999), Epstein (2001), Garrett (2008), and Zellman and Waterman (1998), studied parental involvement and its effects on the educational process and concluded that parental involvement was the core of a successful adolescent. Although research shows the importance of having parents involved, many families are overwhelmingly faced with unpredictable schedules such as juggling school, sports, family, and other responsibilities, which allows minimal time to provide support to anyone given area (Swap, 1993). When parents are absent in the academic process of their children, the gap of communication becomes more significant between the school and the home. However, much remains unknown regarding the perceptions parents concerning parental involvement (Barge & Loges, 2003). The need for further research on parental involvement derived from a rising acknowledgment of the important role of parents and the home-school partnership. When this partnership is formed, improved levels of achievement and a higher overall quality of the educational experience can be attained (Barnyak & McNelly, 2009). Most parents perceive a distinct boundary between the role of the home and that of the school. Therefore, parents expect the school to be the principal educator of their children while they play a relatively minor, but crucial, supporting role (Russell & Granville, 2005).

The significance of this study is surrounded by the assumption that if perceptions of the parents can be ascertained and the data used to inform the positive practices of schools, the

academic achievement of students could potentially be increased (Allen & Mintrom, 2010). The purpose of this study was to explore parent perceptions regarding school efforts to increase parental involvment and to investigate those perceptions as they relate to various demographic groups (i.e. ethnicity, education level, socio-economic status, and number of children in the home).

Statement of the problem

Growing national concern over failing schools and the fear that American students continue to lag behind students in other industrialized nations have generated strong interest in parental educational involvement among researchers and school reformists (O'Bryan, Braddock, & Dawkins, 2006). Research suggests that parental engagement practices go together with many positive child outcomes, such as an increase in academic performance, social competence, and student motivation (Epstein, 2005; Fan & Chen, 2001; Henderson & Berla, 1994; Jeynes, 2005). Though the definition of practices that constitute parental engagement remains an area of debate, studies of parental engagement practices within the home and school settings consistently produce positive relationships between involvement, academic, and behavioral outcomes (Crosnoe, 2009; Finn, 1998; Jeynes, 2005).

As a result of the positive implications of these practices, schools are finding and creating more ways to support home-school partnerships (Allen & Mintrom, 2010; Blatz, 2014; Catsambis, 2001). These types of partnerships allow for encouraging messages regarding the value of schooling and prosocial behavior to be echoed in multiple environments, which strengthen their influence. Partnerships such as these encompass parents and school staff working together to foster similar goals, behavioral norms, and expectations for children. Staff members within school districts, teachers, and administrators utilize a variety of efforts to increase these partnerships (Comer, 2005; Davis, 2016; Epstein, 2007; Epstein & Sheldon, 2002; Jeynes 2010). Approaches include school-to-home communication practices such as newsletters that inform parents of upcoming school events as well as psychoeducational programs that provide training on parenting strategies that support academic learning and promote problem-solving skills (Epstein, 1995; Jones, 2010; Boser, 2014).

School districts use several methods to support parental engagement although not all these strategies are met with success (Amatea, 2007; Barnyak & McNelly, 2009; Clay, 2005). According to research, that has looked at parental involvement in education, there are many possible barriers suggested for involvement (Allen & Mintrom, 2010; El Nokali, Bachman, & Votruba-Drzal, 2010; Jones, 2010). Parents' perceptions of contextual factors shape their belief about their role in their child's schooling. Included in these are limited skill sets or knowledge base to assist their child or contribute to their learning, access to certain activities, lack of time, and perceptions of the invitations they receive that are designed to encourage their involvement (Addi-Raccah & Arviv-Elyashiv, 2008; Ferlazzo & Hammond, 2009; Epstein, 2005). As it relates to home and school, each of these perceptions may impede their involvement. Some parents possess alternative ways and unconventional views of how they should engage in their child's education (Benson & Martin, 2003; Jacobson, 2005). Cognitions such as these may, in turn, influence the number of forms of behaviors or practices ultimately chosen by parents to engage in (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005).

Parents who represent lower socioeconomic classes may view schools as institutions that "fix" their children, creating a safe place for children to learn behavioral expectations and appropriate academic expectations that will mold them into productive members of society (Bernard, 2008). At the same time, parents may perceive their ability to assist in their child's behavioral development and academic performance as minimal and unhelpful. This leads to decreased interest and limited participation in activities that require contact with their child's school (Herrell, 2011; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005; Mannie, 2016; Mapp & Henderson, 2012).

Although many of these perceptions may not be communicated specifically to school staff, these varied experiences and connotations related to schools may be held by parents regarding parental engagement practices which differ from those currently held by school staff. On the other hand, this may be expressed through minimal engagement in activities promoted by the school as adequate engagement practices (Comer, 2005; Gutman & McLoyd, 2000; Lawson, 2013; O'Bryan, Braddock & Dawkins, 2006).

Some researchers argue that studies indicating that parents from low-income households have limited engagement in schools present a narrow perspective on the definition of parent engagement rather than the inability or disinterest in parent participation (Boser, 2014; Eccles & Harold, 1996; Epstein, 1995; Lawson, 2003). Parents from low-income communities are often viewed from a deficit perspective regarding parental engagement and middle-class values (Barnyak & McNelly, 2009; Drummond & Stripek, 2004; Jacobson, 2002).

As it relates to studies that adhere to a rigid definition of parental engagement, parents who reside within low-income environments are more likely to be perceived as uninvolved or disengaged, as they are less likely to participate in practices that are performed and promoted by parents from middle-class communities (Rothstein, 2014). In spite of the NCLB mandate, the challenges of closing the school-parent partnership still exist to a degree (Epstein, Coates, Salinas, Sanders, & Simon, 1997). It was not until 2015, when key lawmakers decided that a change had to come.

Not all of the problems with parental involvement stem from the parents themselves. Sometimes issues arise as a result of obstacles or school-related factors (Loop, 2018). While schools might provide plenty of opportunities to volunteer in the early years, as students reach upper elementary and middle school, those types of opportunities often dissipate (Loop, 2018). According to a study done by Hill (1998), nearly one-third of students say their parents have no idea how they are doing in school. Not only do students feel like their parents have no idea, but also about one-sixth of those students report that their parents do not care whether they make good grades in school or not, and more than 40% of those students never make the appropriate grades to be promoted to the next grade level (Gentry, 2011).

Purpose of the study

Research suggests that parental involvement fosters positive attitudes towards school, improves homework habits, reduces absenteeism, decreases students' risk of dropping out of school, and enhances academic achievement (Allen & Mintrom, 2010; Bandt, 1989; Comer, 2005; Epstein, 2005; Garrett, 2008). Thus, developing strategies to increase parental involvement is seen as a vital component in building not only academic success, but the overall child (Barnyak & McNelly, 2009; Ferlazzo & Hammond, 2009; Epstein, 1983; Fan, 2001).

Research has identified a number of factors that have been consistently demonstrated to influence levels of parental involvement, including the gender of parents, race/ethnicity, family socioeconomic status (SES), and parent's educational attainment. Earlier theories present family and school responsibilities as distinctly separate, shared, or sequential. The separate perspective basically portrays schools and families as separate entities that achieve their goal independent of one another (Epstein & Sheldon, 2002; Zhou, 2014). The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine if there was a statistically significant difference in parents' perceptions of (a) frequency and (b) effectiveness of parental involvement among various demographic groups (i.e. ethnicity, education level, socio-economic status, number of children in the home).

Conceptual frameworks

The family systems theory by Von Bertalanffy (1969) describes the way school staff interact with parents, which in turn, affect children's academic achievement. Von Bertalanffy (1901-1972), discussed the ways parts of a system interrelated to form a whole, which offered the world of the mid-twentieth century a different way of viewing science. Instead of the mechanistic models of the time, Von Bertalanffy's general systems theory argued that organisms are complex, organized, and interactive. Von Bertalanffy (1969) stressed that all organisms, from machinery to simple plants, were complex, and each individual part of the whole should be considered when analyzing the unit. Components of this theory guided the researcher who looked at how school staff members communicated with parents to impart news of their children's school activities.

In addition, this study explored how the children relayed correspondence from the school staff to their parents as well as how parents communicated with the school staff. It is important to consider parts of the whole, which consisted of other elements unrelated to communication, such as the income level, native language, and education level of the parents; whether the parent group was intact or not; and how many hours each week the parents worked, among other variables. Various researchers have used Von Bertalanffy's (1969) family system theory to explain the interplay within groups of people. Titelman (2014) used this theory in his work with school counselors and parents. Sexton and Alexander (2015) used the Von Bertalanffy's family system theory with their work with social workers to explain the interplay between and among different family members. In a study on the psychosocial approach to the family, Hess and Handel (1959) used this theory. Hess and Handel sensitively explore the dynamics of family life in five narrative case studies. By simultaneously studying each family as a small group and as a set of individual personalities, the authors were able to capture the interplay between personality and family as each group worked out its own special way of coping with its problems. Benishek et al., (2016) used the family system theory as the framework for research on school-based training and development for school staff to help them work with parents.

Epstein (2007) created a framework that focused on the family, the school, and the community, with the child being at the core. In 1995, Epstein established the National Network for Partnership Schools to assist in connecting research, policy, and practices in education (Epstein et al., 2007). Epstein et al. (2007) created a framework of six typologies of involvement that included different challenges, practices, a redefinition of terms, and possible

results for parents, students, and schools for each type. Since many schools may use the six typologies of parental involvement as a guide, each one of the schools must choose which practices they would benefit from in student achievement as well as meeting the goals within the school and families (Epstein et al., 2007). Epstein listed the six typologies of involvement as:

- Parenting: Helping and assisting families with parenting and child-rearing skills, understanding child and adolescent development, and setting home conditions that support children as students at each age and grade level.

- Communicating: Communicating with families about school programs and student progress through effective school-to-home and home-to-school communications.

- Volunteering: Improving recruitment, training, work, and schedules to involve families as volunteers and audiences at the school or in other locations to support students and school programs.

- Learning at home: Involving families with their children's learning activities at home, including homework and other curriculum-linked activities and decisions.

- Decision making: Including families as participants in school decisions, governance, and advocacy through PTA/PTO, school councils, committees, and other parent organizations.

- Collaborating with the community: Coordinating resources and services for families, students, and the school with businesses, agencies, in other groups, and providing services to the community. (Epstein et al., 1997, p. 23)

Methodology

This quantitative study utilized a perception survey designed to seek answers to the following question: *Is there a statistically significant difference in parents' perceptions of frequency and effectiveness of parental involvement efforts of schools among various demographic groups (ethnicity, education level, socio-economic status, number of children in the home)?* The study was designed by the researcher based on the six previously mentioned typologies of Epstein's model of parental involvement and captured data from parents. The *School Effectiveness Survey* was specifically adapted from the School-Family-Community Partnership survey created by Epstein (2002) to be taken by parents. The same items were utilized from the original survey; however, the verbiage was adjusted so that the items related to perceptions of parents regarding the frequency and effectiveness of behaviors carried out by schools. Data were collected regarding attitudes, opinions, beliefs, and behaviors as exhibited by school as they relate to increasing parental involvement. The survey incorporated a 5-point Likert-scale in which participants were asked to rank items with a score of 5 (Always) to 1 (Never), based on their perceptions of effectiveness and frequency. Regarding perceptions of value, participants were asked to score on a range from 5 (Very Much) to 1 (Not At All). The researcher determined internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha. The reliability coefficients for the teacher and parent surveys range from questionable 0.70 to 0.86.

Target population and sample

The target population for this study was comprised of parents from public elementary, middle, and high schools in an urban school system located in the southeast United States during the 2016-2017 academic school year. Availability sampling was used in this research study, which is considered a non-probability sampling method that relies on data collection

from population members who are conveniently available to participate in the study (Creswell, 2008). Three elementary schools, two middle schools, and two high schools within a Mississippi school district, which served 3,021 students in kindergarten through 12th grade. The target population consisted of all parents and guardians associated with the students served in the district. The final sample consisted of 670 parents. Little research has determined the exact sample size required for non-parametric tests such as the Kruskal-Wallis *H* used in this study. However, Lehmann (2006) determined that non-parametric tests never require more than 15% additional subjects, thus researchers should compute the sample size required for a parametric test and add 15%. Power analysis for an ANOVA with 2 groups was conducted in G*Power to determine a sufficient sample size using an alpha of 0.05, a power of 0.80, and a large effect size (*f* = 0.40) (Faul et al., 2013). Based on the aforementioned assumptions, the desired sample size is 52. This study consisted of a final sample size of 670 participants, significantly higher than the suggested sample size of 60. Tables 1 provides the demographics of the final parent parent.

Table 1. Parent demographics

Variable		Frequency	%
Gender			
	Male	222	33%
	Female	448	67%
Ethnicity			
	Black	440	65.70%
	Caucasian	204	30.40%
	Hispanic	21	3.10%
	Other	5	0.80%
Education Level			
	GED/Some H.S.	83	12.30%
	High School Diploma	80	11.90%
	Some College	161	24%
	AA	179	26.70%
	BA	58	8.70%
	Masters+	109	16.40%
Children in the Home			
	1-2	285	42.50%
	3-4	275	41.10%
	5+	110	16.40%
Income Level			
	$0-20,000	130	19.50%
	$21,000-50,000	326	48.60%
	$51, 000+	214	31.90%

Procedures for data collection and analyses

Before data collect began, approval from the IRB at the researcher's university was granted. The researcher then mailed a letter to the associated superintendent for the school system involved requesting permission to conduct research within that system. Permission was obtained from the district to conduct the research from August until mid-September of the 2016-2017 school year. The parent questionnaires were mailed to the schools and sent home

with the students. Each questionnaire was delivered in a sealed envelope along with a consent form explaining the intent of the study and the importance of completing the questionnaire. Parents were asked to complete the questionnaire between August 22nd and September 19th. A collection box was placed in the office at each school for parents to return the completed questionnaire. Parents were also asked to return their questionnaires during the first district open house event. The building principals collected the sealed envelopes and returned them to the researcher. The researcher then typed all of the data from the surveys into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and coded data numerically for data analyses using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

The research question sought to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in parents' perceptions of frequency and effectiveness of parental involvement efforts of schools among various demographic groups (ethnicity, education level, socio-economic status, number of children in the home). Data were analyzed using the Kruskal-Wallis *H* test which is the nonparametric equivalent to the ANOVA and appropriate for between subjects' design when the data are not normally distributed (Bordens & Abbott, 2011; Jackson, 2012).

Findings

Effectiveness based on race

The Kruskal-Wallis *H* test indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in parents' perception based on race ($x^2(2) = 4.903$; $p = .086$). Table 2 presents the results for the Kruskal-Wallis *H* test.

Table 2. Kruskal-Wallis H results of parents' perceptions of effectiveness based on race

Race	*N*	Mean Rank
African Am.	445	339.21
Caucasian	204	319.93
Hispanic	21	408.11
Total	670	

	Test Statistics Effectiveness of Race	
Chi-Square		4.903
Df		2
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		0.086

Effectiveness based on educational levels

The Kruskal-Wallis *H* test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in parents' perception based on educational level ($x^2(5) = 24.851$; $p = .000$). Table 3 presents the results of the Kruskal-Wallis *H* test.

Table 3. Kruskal-Wallis H results of parents' perceptions of effectiveness based on educational level

Ed. Level	*N*	Mean Rank
GED	83	393.44
High School	79	372.22
Some College	161	293.54
A.A.	179	351.43
B.A	58	326.90
M.A+	109	302.11
Total	670	

	Test Statistics Effectiveness Educational Level
Chi-Square	24.851
Df	5
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000

Effectiveness based on socio-economic levels

The Kruskal-Wallis H test indicated that there were statistically significant differences in parents' perceptions based on socio-economic levels ($x^2(2) = 21.532$; $p = .000$). Table 4 presents the results of the Kruskal-Wallis H test.

Table 4. Kruskal-Wallis H results of parents' perceptions of effectiveness based on income

Income	*n*	Mean Rank
$0-20,000 (low SEC)	130	269.80
$21,000-$50,000 (middle SEC)	326	357.72
$51,000+ (high SEC)	21	341.56
Total	670	

	Test Statistics Effectiveness Income
Chi-Square	21.532
Df	2
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000

Effectiveness based on children in the home

The Kruskal-Wallis H test indicated that there were statistically significant differences in parents' perceptions based on the number of children in the home ($x^2(2) = 95.912$; $p = .000$). Table 5 presents the results for the Kruskal-Wallis H test.

Table 5. Kruskal-Wallis H results of parents' perceptions of effectiveness based on children in the home

Children in the home	n	Mean Rank
1-2	285	271.00
3-4	275	348.10
5+	110	471.10
Total	670	

	Test Statistics Effectiveness Children in the Home
Chi-Square	95.912
Df	2
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000

Frequency based on race

The Kruskal-Wallis H test indicated that there was not a statistically significant difference in parents' perception based on race ($x^2(2) = 2.346$; $p = .310$). Table 6 presents the results for the Kruskal-Wallis H test.

Table 6. Kruskal-Wallis H results of parents' perceptions of frequency based on race

Race	n	Mean Rank
African American	445	330.10
Caucasian	204	341.91
Hispanic	21	387.71
Total	670	
	Test Statistics Frequency of Race	
Chi-Square	2.346	
Df	2	
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.310	

Frequency based on educational levels

The Kruskal-Wallis *H* test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in parents' perception based on educational level ($x^2(5) = 56.931$; $p = .000$). Table 7 presents the results of the Kruskal-Wallis *H* test.

Table 7. Kruskal-Wallis H results of parents' perceptions of frequency based on educational levels

Educational Level	*N*	Mean Rank
GED	83	450.80
High School	79	303.94
Some College	161	299.09
A.A.	179	366.91
B.A	58	277.03
M.A+	109	300.82
Total	670	

	Test Statistics Frequency Educational Level
Chi-Square	56.931
Df	5
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000

Frequency based on socio-economic levels

The Kruskal-Wallis *H* test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in parents' perception based on socio-economic levels ($x^2(2) = 56.931$; $p = .000$). Table 8 presents the results for the Kruskal-Wallis *H* test.

Table 8. Kruskal-Wallis H results of parents' perceptions of frequency based on income

Income	*n*	Mean Rank
$0-20,000 (low SEC)	130	330.10
$21,000-$50,000 (middle SEC)	326	341.91
$51,000+ (high SEC)	21	387.71
Total	670	

	Test Statistics Frequency Income
Chi-Square	2.346
Df	2

Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.310

Frequency based on children in the home

The Kruskal-Wallis *H* test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in parents' perception based on children in the home ($x^2(2)$ = 103.079; *p* = .000). Table 9 presents the results for the Kruskal-Wallis *H* test.

Table 9. Kruskal-Wallis H results of parents' perceptions of frequency based on children in the home

Children in the Home	*n*	Mean Rank
1-2	285	304.15
3-4	275	303.18
5+	110	497.51
Total	670	

	Test Statistics Frequency Children in the Home
Chi-Square	103.079
Df	2
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000

Discussion

Frequency and effectiveness based on race

The findings revealed there were no statistically significant differences in the perceptions of African American, Caucasian, or Hispanic parents in regard to how frequently and how effectively schools incorporated Epstein's six typologies. This finding contradicts research conducted by Banerjee, Harrell, and Johnson (2010) which stated that Caucasian parents perceived schools were doing a better job at providing a well-rounded platform where parents felt welcomed and a part of the school operations, whereas African American parents perceived schools were doing a subpar job of providing parents with the basic necessity to play a major part in their students' academic success (Bernard, 2008). The mean rank for frequency was high for all surveyed races, which indicated that all parents perceived that schools communicated well, allowed for volunteering, assisted with parenting, assisted with learning at home, provided decision-making platform for parents, and established collaboration with the community. Additionally, the mean rank for effectiveness was between 319-408, which represented the mid-range and indicated that parents perceived that schools were implementing the six typologies but they were not being implemented to the highest degree.

Frequency and effectiveness based on educational level

Findings revealed there were statistically significant differences in the perceptions of parents in regard to how they perceived how frequently schools incorporated Epstein's six

typologies based on educational level. Furthermore, parents who held a GED had the highest mean rank, which indicated they perceived schools were implementing Epstein's six typologies more effectively than any other group. A study conducted by Noel et al (2013) indicated that parents with higher levels of education are more likely to be involved in their children's schools. Additionally, this study reflected on the fact that parents, with a high school diploma, often viewed schools as a safe haven for their students thus believing that schools were doing a great job of keeping them informed on a regular basis. Noel et al's study suggested that parents with a high school diploma felt this way because they were frequently absent from most school events; therefore, were unaware when and if things were changing. In their opinion, the mere fact that some information was provided served as confirmation to the parent.

Frequency and effectiveness based on socio-economic level

Findings suggested there were significant differences in the perception of parents in regard to how they perceived the frequency at which schools incorporated Epstein's six typologies based on the parent's socio-economic level. These findings suggested that parents with high socio-economic levels perceived schools incorporated Epstein's six typologies more frequently than parents with a middle socioeconomic level and low socio-economic level. This contradicts previous research findings which indicated that parents who had a higher education did not necessarily perceive that schools were doing better. However, a recent study conducted by Houle (2014) indicated that parents, who have chosen pathways, not including four-year degrees but technical backgrounds, can make just as much money as a parents with Master's degree. Additionally, research conducted by Noel et al (2013) indicated that parents of students living in a household with income above the poverty level are more likely to establish a positive home-to-school connection than parents of children living in a household at or below the poverty line.

Furthermore, findings suggested there were significant differences in the perception of parents in regard to how effectively schools incorporated Epstein's six typologies based on the parents' socio-economic level. These findings suggested that parents, who were in the middle socio-economic level, perceived schools were effectively implementing Epstein's six typologies more than lower and higher socio-economic parents perceived. Research conducted by Ipatenco (2016) indicated that most parents from a middle-class socio-economic level have students that are normally high performing and have less behavioral issues, meaning they do not normally spend much time at the school outside of volunteering. This fact may have been a factor that resulted in these particular parents perceiving that schools were effectively implementing the six typologies of Epstein's model as they were visually observing the success of their child, which normally results in a perception that everything is ok.

Frequency and effectiveness based on children in the home

Data revealed there was a statistically significant difference in the perception of parents in regard to how frequently schools incorporated Epstein's six typologies based on the number of children in the home. This finding indicated that parents, with five or more children in the home, perceived that schools were frequently implementing Epstein's six typologies at a higher rate than parents who had 1-2 and 3-4 children. This aligns with a study Hutchings (2013)

conducted that looked at the demographics of children in the home with regard to parental involvement. The findings of Hutchings' study suggested that one of the biggest reasons that parents with multiple children are so involved is that they have a support system with teachers that stems from the youngest child to the oldest.

Additionally, data from this study revealed there was a significant difference in the perception of parents in regard to how effectively schools incorporated Epstein's six typologies based on the number children in the home. These findings indicated a significant difference between the three groups, which, according to research by Epstein (2005), can be a direct reflection as to why parents did not volunteer often and had a lack of communication with schools. A study by Epstein (2005) suggested that parents who have less than three children in school at the same time normally rely on schools to provide them with information about upcoming events and activities whereas parents with more than three children in school rely more on the siblings to provide information on what may be going on in the school setting.

Conclusion

Epstein et al. (1997) referred to the school-family-community partnership model, and emphasized how the school, the family, and the community could work collaboratively to influence the development and learning of children as overlapping spheres of influence. This theory suggested that educators provide family-like schools, families create school-like homes, and communities encourage school-like opportunities and family-like services. When schools, families, and communities work collaboratively to promote student academic success, they are conveying the importance of education and informing students of the importance of their success not only within their school and their family but also within their community.

The failure of one party to meet the expectations of the other is a source of tension between schools and parents (Hourani, Stringer, & Baker, 2012). Schools cannot provide all the support that students need to be successful without a sound partnership with parents. The purpose of this study was to measure parent perceptions of the effectiveness and frequency of how schools incorporated Epstein's six typologies of parental involvement based on various demographics. Parents that had higher degrees, such as Masters and above, had low perceptions of schools in regard to how frequently and effectively they implemented Epstein's six typologies. Additionally, those parents with five or more children in the home and those with higher socio-economic status also had low perceptions of schools in regard to how frequently and effectively Epstein's six typologies were being implemented. By being made aware of the differing and similar views among parents, the school district surveyed and other surrounding districts may develop more effective parental involvement practices, increasing effective communication between the home and school to improve overall student achievement.

Barriers such as lack of time, education, and economic status have created a need to examine possible solutions to assist parents with becoming more involved in their children's educational journey. To assist with these barriers, further research should be conducted to address how to deal with these barriers. This study also provided a snapshot of the viewpoints of urban parents from one district across all grades, however, a similar study including a different urban settings as well as a mixed-methods approach to include interviews with students, parents, teachers, and administrators would provide a broader understanding of parental involvement to address positive change.

This study along with future students are vital because, despite stringent state standards, urban district students are still falling behind the rest of the nation, standing last in a school performance evaluation (Wright, 2014). Knowing that there is a significant lack of parental involvement and a gap between what parents perceive and school efforts, this study and others may provide (a) a platform for conversations and actions to ensure students are getting support not only at school but also at home and (b) information for school districts when planning partnership programs. Data such as this may potentially improve communication between parents and educators to ultimately increase student success.

Suggestions

Regarding the data from this study, it is noted that educational success should be emphasized throughout schools, homes, and communities. To ensure effective parental involvement, schools may have partnership programs in place that continually develop, implement, evaluate, and improve plans and practices encouraging family and community involvement. Based on the findings, the following are recommendations for education stakeholders regarding future practice:

1. The study suggested that Hispanic parents had the highest perceptions of how effectively Epstein's model of parental involvement was being implemented. In contrast, research has shown that schools, unknowingly or knowingly, can marginalize parents from different cultures by creating involvement opportunities around specific customs and knowledge or by sending out important memos in English to parents who speak little or no English. Knowing this, schools should look to equity and access to involve parents from other cultures. Schools must work to involve parents of other cultures in equal ways, and must ensure non-English speaking parents have the access they need to relevant materials.

2. According to this study's findings, parents with higher degrees and more children had lower perceptions in regard to how effectively strategies connected to Epstein's model of parental involvement were being implemented by schools. To increase visibility of these strategies to these parents, schools should provide monthly curriculum meetings where personnel (a) address what the school is offering, (b) reflect on current data, and (c) explore an overall view of the current state of the school. Additionally, schools should offer flexible opportunities for involvement for parents that have multiple children in the home by offering meetings multiple times of the day and providing a resource community room that is open to the public or bi-weekly community service projects for parents and scholars.

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Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary Size of CLIL and Non-CLIL Students: A Comparative Study

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Reading comprehension and vocabulary size of CLIL and non-CLIL students: A comparative study

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Abstract

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has a dual focus both on content and language teaching in which students learn through and about language and provides contextualized and meaningful situations. Although studies on the impact of CLIL on learners' vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension have mostly positive results, related research is highly limited in Turkish context. Thus, this study aims to examine to what extent CLIL students differ from non-CLIL students in terms of their reading comprehension and vocabulary size (i.e. receptive and productive). Data were collected from 124 fifth-grade students by means of the reading parts of the Cambridge Key English Test, the 2,000-word frequency-band of the Vocabulary Levels Test (Schmitt, Schmitt, & Clapham, 2001), and the adapted version of the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (Paribakht & Wesche, 1997). Results of the study showed that the CLIL students significantly outperformed their non-CLIL counterparts in reading comprehension, receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge.

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İçerik ve dil entegreli öğrenme metodunun uygulandığı ve uygulanmadığı ortamlardaki öğrencilerin okuma becerileri ve kelime dağarcıkları: Bir karşılaştırma çalışması

Öz

İçerik ve Dil Entegreli Öğrenme metodu, dilin ve içeriğin dil aracılığıyla öğrenildiği, öğrencilere kendi bağlamında anlamlı öğrenme deneyimi sunarak çift odaklı bir dil ve içerik öğrenimi sağlar. Yapılan çalışmalar her ne kadar İçerik ve Dil Entegreli Öğrenme metodunun öğrencilerin kelime bilgisi ve okuma becerileri üzerinde olumlu etkileri olduğunu gösterse de, Türkiye bağlamında bu alandaki çalışmalar yetersizdir. Bu nedenle, bu çalışma İçerik ve Dil Entegreli Öğrenme metodunun uygulandığı ortamlarda eğitim alan öğrencilerin okuma becerileri ve kelime bilgilerinin bu ortamda eğitim almayan öğrencilerden ne kadar farklılık gösterdiğini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Veriler 124 tane beşinci sınıf öğrencisinden İngilizce testi (Cambridge KET), 2.000 kelime sıklık bandındaki Kelime Seviye Testi (Schmitt, Schmitt, & Clapham, 2001), ve Kelime Bilgisi Ölçeği'nin (Paribakht & Wesche, 1997) uyarlanmış versiyonu ile toplanmıştır. Sonuçlar, İçerik ve Dil Entegreli Öğrenme metodunun uygulandığı ortamlarda eğitim alan öğrencilerin bu ortamda eğitim almayan akranlarından okuma becerisi, algısal ve üretimsel kelime bilgisi açısından anlamlı bir şekilde daha iyi olduklarını göstermiştir.

Introduction

The global role of English has increased the need for a more profound way of language teaching, and interest in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has grown correspondingly (Cenoz, Genesee, & Gorter, 2014; Ioannou Georgiou, 2012; Moate, 2010; Wolff, 2012). Even if the importance of CLIL has been recognized, a consensus on its definition has not been reached. In some cases, it is viewed as a broader concept defining a whole educational program while in others; it implies lessons and teaching tasks with different subject areas implemented in target language. CLIL, which is defined as an approach in which content and the language itself are mingled and valued equally with joint roles in instruction to make students learn through and about language (see Coyle, 2010; Marsh, 2002; Ting, 2010), was applied to the present study.

As CLIL provides contextualized and meaningful situations for language input (Muñoz, 2007; Pérez-Vidal, 2009) and focuses on the quality of classroom discourse (Canga-Alonso, 2015a), it has become popular worldwide. There has been some research conducted in CLIL settings to evaluate its impact both on general language proficiency (e.g. Rumlich, 2013; Yang, 2015) and on specific language skills: listening (e.g. Liubinienė, 2009; Papaja, 2014); writing (Jihad, 2017; Roquet & Pérez, 2015); and speaking (e.g. Belenkova, 2014; Delliou & Zafiri, 2016). There are also CLIL studies focusing on reading skill (e.g. Gomez-Patino, 2017; Sanad & Ahmed) and vocabulary knowledge (e.g. Brown, 2013; Carloni, 2012) but they are mostly single-group studies including only CLIL contexts. To our best knowledge, research addressing reading comprehension or vocabulary knowledge of learners in CLIL and non-CLIL contexts in a comparative fashion is fewer, though. Thus, the present study fills these gaps in the literature in terms of both investigated constructs and research methodology. For the purposes of the present study, related comparative studies have been specifically viewed, after making sure that each study has the same definition of CLIL as a dual approach.

Literature review

There were studies investigating impact of CLIL instruction on learners' reading comprehension. For example, Skogen (2013) compared CLIL and traditional EFL (English as Foreign Language) instruction for tenth grade students with regards to their reading comprehension and analyzed data collected through IELTS (International English Language Testing System) test, questionnaires and interviews with teachers and students. The results indicated that students in CLIL group achieved higher scores in IELTS and the teachers found to challenge their students in CLIL group with higher level of difficulty text in classroom instruction, which may also have contributed to findings. In a similar fashion, Hamidavi, Amiz, and Gorjian (2016) worked with Iranian junior high school students in a ten week-long treatment. The results revealed that experimental CLIL group outperformed their non-CLIL peers significantly in terms of reading comprehension.

On the base of CLIL instruction in vocabulary knowledge, both receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge were taken into consideration. For example, Catalán and De Zarobe (2009) studied the receptive vocabulary size of the CLIL and non-CLIL primary students with sixth-grade students. Data were collected by means of the 1000-word receptive test (Nation, 1993), the 2000-word frequency band of the Vocabulary Levels Test (Schmitt,

Schmitt, & Clapham, 2001), and a cloze test (Corporate Author Cambridge ESOL, 2004). The results showed that the CLIL students significantly outperformed the non-CLIL group in all three tests. The finding was echoed in the study of Sylvén and Ohlander (2015), Canga-Alonso (2015b), and Castellano-Risco (2015). However, there are also studies whose findings are inconclusive. In on such study, Arribas (2016) reported the higher receptive vocabulary scores of CLIL fourth-year secondary students than their non-CLIL peers in his study, the difference between the groups was not significant, though.

There were also vocabulary studies which specifically examined the effect of CLIL instruction on productive vocabulary knowledge. For example, Canga-Alonso and Arribas (2015) collected data from tenth-grade students by means of the 2000-word frequency band version of the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test (Laufer & Nation, 1999; Laufer & Nation, 1995). The results indicated that the CLIL group significantly outperformed their non-CLIL counterparts. In the same line, Olsson (2016) took a step further and conducted a longitudinal study and concluded that CLIL students used more vocabulary items than their non-CLIL counterparts at the beginning of the study but they did not progress more and the gap between the groups did not widen over time. Unlike the previously-cited comparison studies for productive vocabulary size, Tragant, Marsol, Serrano, and Llanes (2016) benefited from a different methodological design and worked with a single group of third-year primary students who underwent one-semester-long non- CLIL instruction followed by one-semester-long CLIL instruction. The results of indicated that there were significant improvements in students' productive vocabulary gains in both contexts. In addition, the comparison of the gains between the contexts showed that students made significantly more progress in non-CLIL instruction than in CLIL instruction.

As can be seen in the related literature, CLIL instruction has become more popular and implemented at educational institutions at different levels. However, in Turkish context, CLIL studies, with different CLIL definitions, have been observed to be very limited in number and to approach the issue from the point of learner perception (e.g. Bozdoğan & Karlıdağ, 2013; Yılmaz & Şeker, 2013) and motivation (e.g. Altınkamış, 2009), only one study focusing on the effect of CLIL instruction on vocabulary knowledge has been detected, though. In his MA thesis, Nebioğlugil (2015) worked with 48 fifth-grade students to examine effect of CLIL instruction on students' vocabulary knowledge. Data were collected by means of the adapted version of the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (Paribakht & Wesche, 1997), which was linguistically simplified and had some visually aided, administered once every two weeks for a period of three months. Each test was enlarged to include the new vocabulary items. Results indicated significant improvement in the students' vocabulary scores.

To our best knowledge, there is no comparative study examining reading comprehension and vocabulary size of CLIL and non-CLIL students in Turkish context. The present study considers CLIL as a dual approach focusing both on content and language teaching which are equally valued and aims to fill the gap in the literature through the following research questions:

1. Is there a significant difference between CLIL and non-CLIL students in terms of their reading comprehension?

2. What is the receptive vocabulary size of the students (i.e. CLIL and non-CLIL) in the sample?

3. Is there a significant difference between CLIL and non-CLIL students in terms of their:

    a. receptive vocabulary size?

    b. productive vocabulary knowledge?

Method

Setting

The study took place at two private secondary schools both located in İstanbul, Turkey. In both schools, fifth grade instruction involves extensive English teaching with 20 class hours weekly. The schools have similar profiles in terms of students' socio-economic background and employing non-native teachers for fifth graders. In both contexts, students have started learning English at second grade with two hours of instruction and weekly class hours increased respectively as they moved to higher grades. Until fifth grade, both groups have received traditional English language instruction (non-CLIL). The students in both contexts receive two hours of extensive reading activities each week during which they read A2 level readers and completed tasks requiring character and plot analysis, and comprehension check questions. The both groups also have in-class activities and extra worksheets to prepare for Cambridge KET exam.

In CLIL group content and the language are mingled and valued equally in instruction; the course book "Change" (Broomhead, 2017) used in this group was specifically designed for CLIL instruction and included units with subject matters: history, geography, math, science, sports, art, and technology with equal weight on language and content matter tasks. As it was officially declared in the Preface section, the book was piloted by a group of experts and changes were made according to the data collected by means of classroom observations, teacher and students interviews, and reflective surveys from both teachers and students. To ensure effective use of the book and CLIL instruction, in-service teacher trainings were provided. In these courses English teachers' conceptual understanding related to CLIL is built and concrete instructional activities were provided. The English teachers were also encouraged to collaborate with other subject teachers to compensate the lack of knowledge in related to content areas.

Non-CLIL group used Project 3 (Hutchinson, 2017) which consists of grammar, vocabulary, skills, culture and English across the Curriculum parts in each unit. Although the book uses CLIL as a synonym for English Across the Curriculum part in its official web page, it is limited to one-page long for each unit and do not include in-depth information related to the topics compared to the ones in the CLIL group. Moreover, informal interviews with the English teachers showed that the implementation of these parts did not reflect our operational definition of CLIL as only language focused instruction was available. Additionally, it was concluded from the interviews that the teachers were clueless about the concept and implementation of CLIL.

To understand the difference between the instructional designs of the CLIL and non-CLIL groups, it is better to examine the implementation of similar topics covered in the groups' coursebooks: "Our Planet" in CLIL group and "The Solar System" in non-CLIL group.

In CLIL group, "Our Planet" is the name of the whole unit and detailed information related to the topic was presented and elaborated by means of the following activities cognitively organized ranging from remember to create : Listening and labelling the layers of the Earth; reading about the characteristics of each layer of the Earth; looking at the illustration and completing the missing information related to the place of the planets in the Solar System considering their distance from the Sun; listening and organizing the planets according to the temperature, color, surface, and calendar year; interpreting statistics and graphs on different variables of the planets; demonstrating the movement of the Earth around the Sun (shading activity); diagnosing how the Sun's angle affects the temperature of the Earth (science experiment); comparing different landscapes and classifying as natural or human; and producing a travel brochure for visitors to Earth.

On the other hand, in non-CLIL group, "The Solar System" is just a part of the unit under the name of English Across the Curriculum and it was organized around a reading material including eight short paragraphs describing each planet in separate boxes with some missing information. More specifically, the activities, limited to remembering and understanding information, were as follows: listening and completing the text with missing figures, reading the text again and finding the planets described in the activity such as "the largest in our solar system" and "the nearest to Sun"; and finally answering some comprehension questions.

Participants

A total of 124 fifth-grade students (n=62 in CLIL, n=62 in non-CLIL) from two different private secondary schools participate in the study. Students are from three different classes in both schools and their English proficiency level is A2 according to Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. To be able to conduct a comparative study, the following variables are constant: (i) onset of formal exposure to English and (ii) current weekly-English class hours.

Data collection instruments
Cambridge Key English Test (KET)

To find out whether there is a significant difference between CLIL and non-CLIL students in terms of their reading comprehension, reading parts of KET were used. KET is a standardized exam that consists of different parts measuring English language skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) in A2 level under the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The reading parts are as follows: signs and sentence matching (5 questions), sentences with multiple choice gaps (5 questions), conversation completion with multiple choice questions (5 questions), conversation completion with matching (5 questions), text with multiple choice questions (7 questions), and text with multiple choice gaps (8 questions). This test was chosen since it matched students' proficiency level and also students

in both schools were familiar with related tasks as they had previously taken tests in similar format.

Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT)

To measure students' receptive vocabulary knowledge, the 2,000-word frequency-band of the Vocabulary Levels Test (2K VLT) (Schmitt, Schmitt, & Clapham, 2001, version 2) is used. In the test, there are 10 sets each consisting six words and three definitions to be matched, which means there are three extra words in each set.

Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS)

To measure students' productive vocabulary knowledge, VKS (Paribakht & Wesche, 1997) was adapted as a two-point scale instead of six-points, since the students in this study are young learners. The VKS includes 20 target words, which are randomly selected from the KET Vocabulary List developed by Cambridge ESOL. For each item, the students are required to indicate whether they know the meaning of the word or not. If so, they are expected to write down the meaning either in their native language (i.e. Turkish) or foreign language (i.e. English) and form a sentence using the word.

Data collection process

All instruments were administered to both CLIL and non-CLIL groups during class time on separate days. The participants were first given the KET exam, to be completed in 40 minutes as suggested by Cambridge ESOL. On the other day, students had 30 minutes to complete the VLT as suggested by Schmitt et. al. (2001). Lastly, they were given the VKS to complete in 45 minutes considering the productive nature of the task and the previous related studies. At the beginning of each test, clear instructions were given both orally and in written form in the students' mother tongue to clarify what they were supposed to do.

Data analysis

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 20.0 was used for data obtained from the KET, VLT, and VKS. To decide on the data analysis methods to be used, the normality of distribution of scores was assessed by means of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The results indicated that the data followed a normal distribution for all instruments: KET ($z=1.114$; $p=.167$), VLT ($z=1.482; p=.076$), and VKS ($z=.799; p=.545$).

In order to find out the differences between the groups regarding their reading comprehension (research question 1), an independent samples t-test was applied to the overall scores of the students coming from the KET, which included equally-weighted 35 questions scored out of 100 points. To identify the receptive vocabulary size of the students in both groups (research question 2), Nation's formula "Vocabulary size = N correct answers multiplied by total N words in dictionary (the relevant word list) divided by N items in test" (Nation, 1990, p.78) was applied. Finally, in order to compare the groups in terms of their receptive vocabulary size and productive vocabulary knowledge (research question 3), an independent sample samples t-test was applied respectively to the overall scores of the VLT, in which a student received maximum 30 points if s/he matched all the words with corresponding

definitions, and of the VKS, for which the scoring was done as follows: 1 point for the choice of "I do not know the meaning of the word", 2 points for incorrect translation of the word, 3 points for correct translation but no sentence, 4 points for correct translation but semantically and grammatically inappropriate sentence, 5 points for correct translation and semantically appropriate but ungrammatical sentence, and 6 points for correct translation and both semantically and grammatically appropriate sentence. The significance level was set at p<.05.

To measure the extent to which the proportion of variance of the dependent variables (reading comprehension and vocabulary size) explained by the independent variable (the type of instruction, CLIL and non-CLIL), effect size was calculated by means of eta squared. In order to interpret the eta squared values, the guideline by Cohen (1988) was followed: .01=small effect, .06=moderate effect, and .14=large effect.

Findings

Comparison of reading comprehension

In order to examine whether there was any significant difference between the CLIL and non- CLIL groups in terms of their L2 reading comprehension, an independent samples t-test was applied to the overall KET reading scores of students in both groups. The following table illustrates the difference values between the groups.

Table 1. Difference between the groups in terms of their reading comprehension

Test	Group	N	M	SD	t-value	DF	p	η^2
Reading	CLIL	62	63.82	22.50	-2.22	122	.028*	.042
	Non-CLIL	62	55.46	19.22				

*p<.05, η^2=Eta squared

The result of the t-test showed that the CLIL group significantly outperformed the control group in terms of their overall L2 reading comprehension scores (p<.05). As the eta squared value indicated, the magnitude of the differences in the means obtained from the KET was small.

Descriptive of receptive vocabulary size

To calculate the students' word estimates, Nation's formula "Vocabulary size = N correct answers multiplied by total N words in dictionary (the relevant word list) divided by N items in test" (Nation, 1990, p. 78) was applied.

Table 2. Vocabulary size of the groups

Group	M	Size
CLIL	15.91	1.061
Non-CLIL	12.12	808

As can be seen in the table, both groups' overall sizes were considerably lower than 2.000 words, the CLIL students (M=1.061) were better than the non-CLIL students (M=808) in terms of their overall receptive vocabulary size, though.

Comparison of receptive vocabulary size

To see whether there were any significant differences between the CLIL and non-CLIL groups in terms of their L2 receptive vocabulary size, an independent samples t-test was applied to the overall scores of students in both groups. The following table illustrates the difference values between the groups.

Table 3. Difference between the groups in terms of their receptive vocabulary size

Test	Group	N	M	SD	t-value	DF	p	ŋ²
Receptive	CLIL	62	15.91	7.62	-3.25	106.34	.002*	.094
Vocabulary	Non-CLIL	62	12.12	5.08				

*p<.05, ŋ²=Eta squared

It was concluded that L2 receptive vocabulary size of the CLIL students was significantly higher than the non-CLIL students (p<.05). The eta squared statistic indicated a moderate effect size.

Comparison of productive vocabulary knowledge

In an attempt to investigate whether there was any significant difference between the CLIL and non-CLIL groups in terms of their L2 productive vocabulary size, an independent samples t-test was applied to the overall scores of students in both groups. The following table illustrates the difference values between the groups.

Table 4. Difference between the groups in terms of their productive vocabulary size

Test	Group	N	M	SD	t-value	DF	p	ŋ²
Productive	CLIL	62	74.43	24.20	-2.69	122	.008*	.063
vocabulary	Non-CLIL	62	62.53	25.04				

*p<.05, ŋ²=Eta squared

As can be seen in Table 4, the result of the t-tests indicated significant differences between the CLIL and non-CLIL students in terms of their L2 productive vocabulary size, in favor of the CLIL group (p<.05). The eta squared statistic indicated a moderate effect size.

Discussion

The present study investigated the differences between CLIL and non-CLIL secondary school contexts with regards to students' reading comprehension level, and receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge. Data collection tools were the reading parts of the Cambridge Key English Test, the 2,000-word frequency-band of the Vocabulary Levels Test (Schmitt, Schmitt, & Clapham, 2001, version 2), and the adapted version of the Vocabulary

Knowledge Scale (Paribakht & Wesche, 1997). The results were mostly parallel to previous research, but differing at some aspects.

The results regarding reading comprehension part of this study revealed that CLIL students significantly performed better than non-CLIL students in KET test. This result was in line with previous studies (Admiraal, Westhoff & de Bot, 2006; Hamidavi, Amiz & Gorjian, 2016; Skogen, 2013) claiming that CLIL instruction enhances students reading proficiency as CLIL students are exposed to different reading texts with various subject matter in class. This finding may imply that content driven nature of CLIL instruction contributes to learners' reading comprehension.

The results concerning the receptive vocabulary size of the participants showed that although the CLIL students were better than the non-CLIL students, both groups' overall sizes were considerably lower than 2.000 words. This result contradicts with previous studies (Canga-Alonso, 2015a; Canga-Alonso, 2015b; Catalán & De Zarobe, 2009; Fernández-Fontecha, 2014) in which the participants' receptive vocabulary sizes were found to be below 1.000 words regardless of the type of instruction (i.e. CLIL and non-CLIL) even if 2.000-word frequency band of the Vocabulary Levels Test was administered. This finding might imply that all the participants in the present study may have some difficulties in certain tasks in spoken discourse in English since mastery of 2.000 words is needed to be able to understand around 90% and 94% of spoken discourse in different contexts (Adolphs & Schmitt, 2004).

With regard to the type of instruction, the findings also revealed that the CLIL students significantly outperformed their non-CLIL counterparts in terms of L2 receptive and productive vocabulary size. While this result is in line with previous studies (Canga-Alonso, 2015b ; Canga-Alonso & Arribas, 2015; Castellano-Risco, 2015; Catalán & De Zarobe, 2009; Sylvén & Ohlander, 2015), The nature of formal exposure to the foreign language might account for this difference as CLIL instruction provides more meaningful and contextual content instruction through L2 than traditional non-CLIL EFL instruction (Xanthou, 2011). However, the kind of vocabulary input to which students were exposed to in their course materials, classroom interaction (see Tragant, Marsol, Serrano, & Llanes, 2016), and extramural English activities (see Olsson, 2016) might be related to this finding since they can influence the students' performances in the administered tests.

Conclusion

The present study adds to the growing field of CLIL instruction. Furthermore, it confirms the similar studies by presenting evidence for students' higher reading comprehension and vocabulary size. Based on the findings of the study, we can make the following recommendations for different parties. With appropriate methods and materials, CLIL instruction was proved to be effective for instructional outcomes. In teacher education programs, introducing the concept of CLIL makes pre-service teachers familiar with its nature and increases the possibility of future implementations. In that point, professional support is also needed to help in-service teachers while selecting/using CLIL resources and adapt their teaching practices accordingly. Finally, instructional material designers are expected to analyze different levels of CLIL implementation in order to offer appropriate and various CLIL-aware resources.

Further research can be conducted in different contexts, meanly in primary and high school, in order to get more in-depth data for the comparison of CLIL and non-CLIL instruction. Moreover, longitudinal studies would be helpful both to determine the students' growth in the assessed areas within group and to compare this growth across settings (i.e. CLIL and non- CLIL) with the help of a pre- and post- test research design, which is not applied in the present study. Another limitation is using single, in that sense limited, instrument to measure the students' performances in each area.

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Language Teaching and Educational Research

Teaching and Learning Vocabulary as L2: Approaches in Spanish Textbooks

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Research Article

Teaching and learning vocabulary as L2: Approaches in Spanish textbooks[1]

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Abstract

This study examines the common pedagogical approaches of L2 Spanish textbooks that are currently used at the college-level in the United States, and investigates whether they embrace the notion of input as a key concept in aiding L2 learners in learning new vocabulary words through activities that guide them from input/comprehension to output/production in a meaningful way. The analysis revealed that the textbooks surveyed in this study overall exhibited the common organization and presentation of the new vocabulary words. Despite these apparent similarities of organization in presenting new vocabulary, the surveyed textbooks differed in the manner in which the input-based instruction and the output-based instruction were employed. More specifically, the activities found in the surveyed textbooks exhibited varying degrees of manipulation involved in both input and output-based tasks, and they also differed in the number of input-based and output-based activities as well as in the logical progression between the two types of activities. The findings of this study suggest that the surveyed textbooks showed a predominant tendency towards the output-based instruction of vocabulary, putting an emphasis on the production of new L2 vocabulary. This study provides further evidence that the input-based instruction, despite its effectiveness of teaching and learning L2 as demonstrated in many previous studies, is not systematically incorporated into most L2 textbooks, thus implying a gap between theory and practice.

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İkinci dil öğretiminde kelime öğretimi ve öğrenimi: İspanyolca ders kitaplarında yaklaşımlar

Öz

Bu çalışma, şu anda Amerika Birleşik Devletleri'nde üniversite düzeyinde kullanılan ikinci dil (L2) olarak İspanyolca ders kitaplarının ortak pedagojik yaklaşımlarını incelemektedir. Bu çalışma L2 İspanyolca kitaplarının öğrenme sürecinin başından sonuna kadar anlamlı bir şekilde rehberlik eden etkinlikler yoluyla yeni sözcükler öğrenme sürecinde L2 öğrencilerine yardımcı olmada girdi kavramını anahtar bir öge olarak benimseyip benimsemediklerini araştırmaktadır. Yapılan analizler sonucunda bu çalışmada incelenen ders kitaplarının genel olarak yeni kelimeleri ortak düzen içerisinde sunduğu sonucuna varılmıştır. Yeni kelimelerin sunulma düzenindeki bu belirgin benzerliklerine rağmen, ankete katılan ders kitaplarının girdi-temelli öğretme ve çıktı-temelli öğretim uygulamalarında farklılık gösterdikleri belirlenmiştir. Daha spesifik olarak, ankete katılan ders kitaplarında bulunan faaliyetler hem girdi hem de çıktı temelli görevlerde çeşitli derecelerde değişiklik göstermişlerdir. Bunlar aynı zamanda girdi tabanlı ve çıktı tabanlı faaliyetlerin sayısı ve iki tip faaliyet arasındaki mantıksal ilerleme bakımından da farklılık göstermiştir. Bu çalışmanın bulguları, incelenen ders kitaplarının, yeni L2 kelime hazinesinin üretilmesine önem vererek, çıktı temelli kelime öğretimi yönündeki eğilimi gösterdiğini ortaya koymaktadır. Bu çalışma, daha önceki çalışmalarda gösterildiği gibi, L2 öğretme ve öğrenmenin etkinliğine rağmen, girdi tabanlı öğretimin çoğu L2 ders kitabına sistematik olarak dahil edilmediğine ve dolayısıyla teori ile pratik arasında bir boşluğa işaret ettiğine dair daha fazla kanıt sunmaktadır.

Introduction

Vocabulary teaching and learning has drawn a growing number of researchers' attention as one of the most popular topics in language acquisition research (Ellis, 2009; López-Jiménez, 2013; Schmitt, 2019). Knowing words is an important and essential part of learning a language in order to understand others and communicate fluently, which Lewis (1993: 89) aptly puts as being "lexis is the core or heart of language". Previous research on second language (L2) vocabulary acquisition has suggested that learning words is a complex process (Schmitt, 2008) and requires mastery of different components of vocabulary knowledge (e.g., spelling, word parts, meaning, grammatical functions, collocation) (Nation, 2013). With the growing interest in finding a better way to teach vocabulary, researchers as well as educators have been searching for a means to teach and learn L2 vocabulary effectively, particularly when dealing with textbooks. From a pedagogical point of view, the activities and presentation of L2 vocabulary in textbooks are reflections of the methodological approach adopted in them; therefore, employing a certain textbook as a main resource of L2 teaching and learning will inevitably lead to both instructors and students teaching and learning a second/foreign language based on the overarching pedagogical principle of the textbook. Therefore, the role of the textbook in teaching vocabulary cannot be underestimated.

There has been an increase of interest in investigating vocabulary in L2 textbooks despite the limited availability of previous studies dealing with Spanish as L2. Studies on vocabulary in L2 textbooks have been manifested in sub-areas of topics such as reading materials as a main source of vocabulary learning (Gablasova, 2014; Matsuoka & Hirsh, 2010; Paribakht & Wesche, 1996; Schumm, 1991), frequency and vocabulary size to examine whether high-frequency vocabulary is most beneficial for L2 learners (Alsaif & Milton, 2012; Chujo, 2004; Mármol, 2011; Matsuoka & Hirsh, 2010; O'Loughlin, 2012; Sakata, 2019), descriptions of multiword units (Coxhead at al., 2017; Koprowski, 2005; López-Jiménez, 2013), and an examination of vocabulary and other components in more specialized textbooks (for example, medical Spanish textbooks in Hardin, 2012; Spanish legal textbooks in Ramos, 2015; business English textbooks in Tajeddin & Rahimi, 2017, among others). Vocabulary activities and presentations themselves in textbooks, however, have not received much attention thus far as noted in Neary-Sundquist (2015). One of the few studies is found in López-Jiménez (2014), which examines the various ways Spanish L2 textbooks present new vocabulary (e.g., visual, list, definitions, translation, etc.) and also what types of activities are included in the textbooks (e.g., mechanical, communicative, and closed or open).

Approaches to L2 vocabulary acquisition: input-based and output-based instruction

While there may be different ways of carrying out the analysis of the activities and the presentation of the new vocabulary words presented in textbooks, the criteria for analysis would naturally reflect what researchers wish to look into, that is, whether or not the textbooks employ a desirable pedagogical approach that can enhance language learners' ability to communicate and understand the target language.

Input-based instruction

One of the pedagogical approaches that has been prevalent is the Input Hypothesis, beginning with the works of Krashen (1982, 1985), in which it is argued that L2 learners acquire vocabulary most efficiently by receiving enriched 'comprehensible input' so that they can make association between the meaning and the form of the word in context. For example, Krashen (1989) claims that L2 learners acquire vocabulary most efficiently by receiving comprehensible input while reading. The notion of comprehensible input, according to Krashen's input hypothesis, is understood as one level above the L2 learner's actual proficiency level, which is commonly known as "i + 1" in which "i" represents a learner's interlanguage and "+1" indicates the next level of language proficiency. Its focus on the role of input has had important implications since then for teaching and learning vocabulary as L2, and consequently, for designing L2 textbooks according to this proposition (Azizi, 2016).

The notion of the comprehensible input has evolved to specify that textbooks should not only be comprehensible, but also be structured and manipulated so that L2 learners can pay attention to the target form and meaning that they are learning. One of the most widely adopted input-based instructions that reflects this notion of 'structured and manipulated input' is VanPatten's model of input processing, or Processing Instruction (Lee & VanPatten, 2003; VanPatten, 1993, 1996, 2002). Lee and VanPatten (2003: 142) define structured input as "input that is manipulated in particular ways to push learners to become dependent on form and structure to get meaning". In this model, learners are exposed to written and/or aural input in which they are pushed to pay attention to the target grammar structure or new vocabulary in order to process them meaningfully in context and successfully complete the given activities. During this process, students are not required to produce any new vocabulary words or target structures as they are asked to show that they have simply understood the meaning of the target form. For example, choosing between two selections (e.g., appropriate vs. inappropriate) while they listen to the simple descriptions of clothing and the occasions in which they wear them (e.g., John wears shorts at an interview) is a comprehension activity in which learners have to understand the meaning of the target vocabulary (i.e., 'shorts' in this example). The key concepts that are involved in this model are "the manipulation' of the input" and also the fact that L2 learners are "required to process" (Ellis 2012: 285).

Output-based instruction

While the notion of input has been gaining an important role in implementing better pedagogical models, there has been an opposing trend, namely the output-based instruction which emphasizes the role of the production in developing L2 proficiency (Krashen, 1985; Schwarts, 1993; Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Toth 2006). This approach does not necessarily reject the crucial role of input in the development of the L2 system. Yet, what is underscored in this proposition is the fact that input alone is not sufficient to help language learners to develop the linguistic system in order to ultimately attain the proficiency level they desire to reach (Rassaei, 2012). The underlying viewpoint of this output-based approach is similar to the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1980), which highlights the importance of the L2 learners' efforts in finding meaning in authentic interactions of the target language while attempting to find what is lacking in their L2 abilities (e.g., vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and so on). It is precisely this process of negotiating meaning and checking with the persons whom they

have interactions with that allows L2 learners to realize the gap in their knowledge, thus allowing them to produce L2 output. The crucial role of output has been laid out in the concept of 'pushed output' or Output Hypothesis proposed in Swain (1985, 2000, 2005), which claims that when 'pushed' to produce the language, language learners notice a gap between what they want to convey in their utterances and what they are actually able to say. This process can then force them to use the language and develop proficiency in the target language.

Importantly, some researches have shown that both approaches are equally valid and effective (Farley 2001, among others); however, other studies have also provided evidence for the effectiveness of input-based over output-based instruction (Benati, 2001; Benati & Tanja, 2015; Lee & Benati, 2007; Morgan-Short & Bowden, 2006; see Benati, 2016 for a detailed overview). Even if the purpose of the present study is not to evaluate the effectiveness of either approach in teaching and learning vocabulary as L2, this study aims at exploring the presentations and activities of the L2 vocabulary in Spanish textbooks to investigate the common trend and approach. More specifically, this study examines the common pedagogical approaches of L2 Spanish textbooks that are currently used at the college-level in the United States, and investigates whether they embrace the notion of input (more precisely, structured input) as a key concept in aiding L2 learners to learn new vocabulary words through activities that guide them from input/comprehension to output/production in a meaningful way (that is, the processing instruction which I will occasionally refer to the 'instruction from input to output' following VanPattern, 2002).

The research questions of this study are as follows:

1. What are the approaches to vocabulary instruction in college-level beginner Spanish textbooks for English L2 learners?
2. What are the common trends of the vocabulary activities in the textbooks that are based on the instruction from input to output and how do they differ from each other?

Methodology

Data and procedures

A total of 11 beginner-level college Spanish textbooks were initially selected among many others to determine the overarching pedagogical approaches adopted in each textbook (indicated in the preface of each textbook). While the selection of these textbooks was done through random sampling, there were two factors that were taken into account when selecting them: the number of the edition and the publishers of the textbooks. First, this study attempted to examine about an equal number of textbooks that were published for the first time (i.e., first edition), the second or third time (i.e., second or third edition), and more than three times (i.e., fourth edition and beyond). Out of the 11 beginner Spanish textbooks, four were published as first editions, three were published as either second or third editions, and four were published as the fifth, seventh, and ninth (2 books) editions. Some of them were the most recent editions while others were not due to the limited availability of the most current editions. In addition, as mentioned, there were textbooks that had been used for a long time with multiple editions as well as relatively new textbooks that came to market for the first time, thus allowing the

author to examine both types of textbooks equally. The reason for including different editions was that textbooks with multiple editions, for example, typically show their popularity and wide adoption in Spanish L2 classrooms, and thus are good indicators of what kinds of textbooks many Spanish L2 classes use. At the same time, textbooks that came to market for the first time can also show the pedagogical approaches that are employed in more recent textbooks. Therefore, examining both types of textbooks would provide better insight into the overall pedagogical trend of presenting vocabulary activities. On the other hand, this study also attempted to include a variety of textbook publishers in order to examine the overall trend of the pedagogical approaches adopted by different publishers and editorial teams. The 11 textbooks selected for this study were published by major textbook publishers in the United States such as McGraw-Hill (3 textbooks), Wiley (2 textbooks), Cengage Learning (2 textbooks), Pearson (2 textbooks), and Vista Higher Learning (2 textbooks) between 2012 and 2019.

The textbooks analyzed were all commonly used college textbooks designed for L1 English learners of L2 Spanish in the United States, and the level of all the textbooks examined was for beginning-level (1st year) Spanish which is typically covered throughout a year (i.e., two semesters). The beginning-level was chosen in order to examine the common approaches to teach new vocabulary to students who have not yet mastered a high level of vocabulary. The list of the beginning-level textbooks surveyed in this study is provided in Appendix. The names of the individual textbooks, however, will not be identified in the analysis and the discussion of this study since the purpose of this study is to examine the common pedagogical approaches to L2 vocabulary teaching, not to evaluate specific textbooks for their pedagogical effectiveness. Not all the beginning-level Spanish textbooks that are widely and popularly used in U.S. were included in the analysis since not all of them were available to the author.

Analysis

The analysis of the current study focused on the presentation of the vocabulary as well as the activities aiming at enhancing the vocabulary learning, and did not concern itself with the vocabulary-related activities presented in the grammar section that appeared within the same chapter. Even if some textbooks clearly used the grammar sections as an opportunity to incorporate the new vocabulary into their structure-oriented activities for reinforcement purposes, this was not uniformly the case for all the textbooks surveyed in this study. Therefore, this study left out the activities presented under the grammar section from the analysis so that the analysis of each textbook could be more comparable. Out of the 11 beginning-level textbooks that I initially examined, 6 textbooks remained for the detailed analysis of the input-based vs. output-based activities. The detailed procedures and the steps are explained below.

- The preface of each textbook was examined in order to find the overarching pedagogical approach employed in the textbook. The initial screening was aimed at narrowing down the textbooks that specifically mentioned the input-based approach or the instruction from input-to-output in the preface. Textbooks that mentioned a 'communicative approach' only without mentioning the input-to-output approach were included in the analysis of the general features of the presentation and activities (the 1st part of analysis), but they were excluded from the analysis of input-based and

output-based activities (the 2nd part of analysis). As the term 'communicative approach' could cover a broad range of approaches not necessarily limited to the processing instruction (i.e., instruction from input to output), this study separated 11 textbooks into two groups: i) the ones that specifically mentioned the term 'input' or an equivalent in the preface, and ii) the ones that did not mention it anywhere in the preface. This initial screening left 6 textbooks for further analyses for the second phase of analysis of input vs. output-based instructions while the remaining 5 textbooks out of the initial 11 textbooks were excluded from the second phase.

- As a second step, the table of contents for each of the 6 textbooks that was chosen was scrutinized to find the common topic ("clothing and purchase") that is typically presented in the first-year Spanish textbooks. All of the 6 textbooks contained this topic as a theme of a chapter topic so that the comparison of the vocabulary presentation and activities could be more comparable.

- The chapter of each textbook dealing with the topic of "clothing and purchase" (or something similar) was analyzed for i) the presentation of the new vocabulary (i.e., the format such as pictures, list of Spanish words translated in English, vocabulary in reading passages) and ii) the activities (i.e., input-based and output-based).

- Input- and output-based activities were further analyzed for their formats (i.e., reading, conversation/speaking, writing, simple selections such as true/false, fill-in-the blank, among others) to examine the overall trend of activity types.

- The logical transition from input to output activities was also examined to find out if the progression of the activities was natural and helpful in exposing students to the new vocabulary and being able to use it eventually.

- The input and output activities were also quantified for the purpose of identifying the number of activities for either type. This kind of analysis is to examine whether there was a balance between two types of activities in terms of quantity.

- If a textbook provides different steps (*pasos* in Spanish) for one main activity, each step was coded and counted as if it were one independent activity. This consideration is important as many textbooks explicitly indicated several steps for one major activity in order to guide students from simple tasks (which are typically comprehension-based) to more complex ones (which are typically production-oriented).

- In order to increase the reliability of the analysis, each activity (or step) was manually marked and indicated as either input-based ("I") or output-based ("O"), then the classification of both types was rechecked after a week.

- The new vocabulary embedded in the cultural reading, cultural video, speaking and writing activities, and final activities synthesizing what students have learned was not included in the analysis and the quantification of the input and output-based activities due to the inconsistent nature of those components in each textbook. Since not all the books under analysis recycled the new vocabulary in these cultural activities but many of them used new sets of words in relation to the theme ("clothing"), these cultural parts were excluded from the analysis for comparison purposes.

<div align="center">Results</div>

Approaches to vocabulary instruction in college-level beginner Spanish textbooks for English L2 learners

As for the first research question addressed earlier, the initial screening of the prefaces of the 11 college-level beginning Spanish textbooks revealed that all of the 11 textbooks (in Appendix) mentioned or implied that the pedagogical approaches adopted in the textbooks are communicative approaches or approaches that enhance 'communication' and 'communication skills' (see Table 1, column #1), but the term adopted in each textbook did not necessarily mean the exact same notion of 'communicative approaches'. Some adopted a rather broad term of communicative approaches to refer to the fact that the textbook highlights 'communication' (which actually could mean 'production'); others used this term more narrowly in order to refer to the Processing Instruction, which guides language learners to move from sufficient input to produce output.

Six of them more specifically mentioned (or implied) the instruction from input to output, or at least the concept of 'input' that was adopted in teaching vocabulary as well as grammar (see Table 1, textbooks anonymously coded as 'I-1', 'I-2', etc., the 'I' representing 'input'). Those textbooks were *¡Claro que sí!* (2015), *Dicho y hecho* (2012), *Exploraciones* (2019), *Gente* (2015), *Pura vida* (2014), and *Tu mundo: español sin fronteras* (2014) (in alphabetical order), and their activities will be analyzed in more detail below when discussing the second research question.

The prefaces of all of the remaining 5 textbooks that did not specifically mention the instruction from input to output or the role of 'input' in L2 learning (coded as 'NI-1', 'NI-2', etc., the 'NI' representing 'no input') still highlighted the notion of 'communication' in varying degrees: they emphasized "communicative activities", "communication skills", "communicative proficiency", and "communicative objectives', which L2 leaners should eventually attain. The concept of communication, however, was not necessarily supported by the notion of negotiation of meanings laid out in the Processing Instruction (Lee & VanPatten, 2003; VanPatten, 1993, 1996, 2002); instead, in 3 of these 5 textbooks (coded as NI-1, NI-2, and NI-3 in Table 1), communicative proficiency was described as an ultimate goal and achievement that comes at the end rather than as a part of the learning process itself (see Table 1, column #2). For instance, it was mentioned in one textbook that "practice begins with mechanical exercises" and progress through more meaningful activities to "end with communicative activities" in which students can produce personalized responses creatively. The similar point of view was expressed in two other textbooks, describing that the end result that should be achieved is "communication" and the vocabulary practice "wraps-up" with communicative activities as a "final set" of activities in which students can use vocabulary creatively.

On the other hand, a closer look at the vocabulary activities themselves in these 5 textbooks revealed that even if their prefaces did not specifically mention the notion of input, two of them (NI-3 and NI-4) actually appeared to follow the input-to-output progression in presenting vocabulary activities (see Table 1, column #3). This means that the notion of communication delineated in the prefaces of these two books could indeed refer to the structural input-to-output approach adopted in the activities; however, since this pedagogical approach was not clearly pointed out in the prefaces, this study excluded them from the

analysis of the second research question. It was also surprising to observe that many textbooks that mentioned the notion of input in the prefaces actually did not logically follow the order from input to output in the activities (see Table 1, column #3; textbooks I-1, I-2, I-4, I-6). Only two of those 6 textbooks followed through the progression from input to output when presenting vocabulary activities (see Table 1, column #3; textbooks I-3 and I-5). This will be discussed in more detail below when answering the second research question.

It should be noted that the most common methods in presenting new vocabulary in all of the 11 textbooks were based on pictures with Spanish captions below them (see Table 1, column #4) and lists of Spanish words translated in English (Table 1, column #5) at the beginning of each chapter. The end of each chapter in most textbooks (except textbooks I-1 and I-3) typically provided the summary of all the new vocabulary of the chapter as a list of Spanish words translated in English again (Table 1, column #6). Table 1 summarizes the findings thus far.

Table 1. Pedagogical approaches to vocabulary teaching and layout of the vocabulary presentation in L2 beginning-level Spanish textbooks (textbooks coded by a random order)

Textbook	#1	#2	#3	#4	#5	#6
Input mentioned in the preface						
I-1	√			√	√	
I-2	√			√	√	√
I-3	√		√	√	√	
I-4	√			√	√	√
I-5	√		√	√	√	√
I-6	√			√	√	√
Input not mentioned in the preface						
NI-1	√	√		√	√	√
NI-2	√	√		√	√	√
NI-3	√	√	√	√	√	√
NI-4	√		√	√	√	√
NI-5	√			√	√	√

Note: Textbooks coded as "I" (input) indicate that the concept of input was mentioned in the preface.
Textbooks coded as "NI" (no input) indicate that the concept of input was not mentioned in the preface.

Keys:
#1: Notion of communication (preface)
#2: Communication as an end product and achievement (preface)
#3: Input to output vocabulary activities
#4: Picture presentation
#5: Word lists of Spanish-English at the beginning of each chapter
#6: Summary of new vocabulary list at the end of each chapter

Input-based activities and production activities

In order to answer the second research question of this study ("What are the common trends of the vocabulary activities in the textbooks that are based on the instruction from input to output and how do they differ from each other?"), this study focused on the 6 textbooks that emphasized the importance of input in the preface and closely examined the activities included in the chapter dealing with a theme of clothing and purchase (or something similar). Those textbooks that are repeated here –*¡Claro que sí!* (2015), *Dicho y hecho* (2012), *Exploraciones* (2019), *Gente* (2015), *Pura vida* (2014), and *Tu mundo: español sin fronteras* (2014) (in alphabetical order)– were published relatively recently between 2012 and 2019, and included 2 textbooks that appeared for the first time (i.e., 1st edition), 2 textbooks in their 3rd edition, and 2 textbooks which have been published numerous times (7th and 9th edition, respectively).

In the preface of all the surveyed textbooks stressed the crucial role of input in one way or another. In Andrade et al. (2014: vi), it is mentioned that "the grammar and vocabulary are taught through comprehensible input as well as communicative activities". Likewise, Potowski et al. (2012: xii) state that "numerous and varied input activities are required before asking students to produce output using a new structure or new vocabulary". Blitt and Casas (2019: xiv) express a similar view as in "[vocabulary activities] will require you to speak minimally at first and then progress to more open-ended communicative activities". The concept of the input is also refined in one of the surveyed textbooks: input can be defined as "meaningful, comprehensible input" based on "real-life events" which are introduced through meaningful stories (López-Burton et al., 2014: xxii).

All 6 textbooks (except one, I-4, in Table 2) included both input (comprehension) and output (production) activities in the chapter or sub-section of a chapter dealing with the theme of clothing even if they differed in i) type of activities, ii) the amount of input vs. output-based activities, and iii) the logical progression from input to output activities.

Types and nature of input vs. output activities

The most common input-based activity types included simple selection (e.g., logical/illogical, formal/informal, true/false), matching by relating columns (e.g., between logical conversation order, questions and situations, pictures and cloth descriptions, appropriate colors and clothing types), and reading short paragraphs or a list of simple sentences that served to guide L2 learners to a series of production-based activities in the next step. On the other hand, the common output/production-based activities found in these 6 textbooks included fill-in-the blank (to 'complete conversations' using the new vocabulary, for example), supplying words/making a list of words, question and answer, picture description, story narration/creations (between a customer and a store employee, for instance) which could be written activities as well as oral ones such as simulations or role-plays, uncontrolled spoken activities without prompts, and a guessing game involving the whole class, among others.

Overall, most of the 6 textbooks combined a variety of activities in terms of complexity, oral vs. written skills, and work done alone, in pairs, and in groups. Nevertheless, they somewhat differed in the nature of the input and output activities since some were more meaningful than others in the sense that students were to negotiate meaning when interacting and exchanging authentic information with other students, while other activities were less communicative, such as mechanical drills and writing a list of words for a given question.

For example, in textbook I-5, students are asked to indicate their preferences in regards to the selection of clothing and accessories as a structured input activity. For instance, students see *para los ojos* 'for your eyes' with two possible selections (*gafas* 'glasses' and *lentes de contacto* 'contact lenses'), and they simply need to mark which accessories they prefer. This process guides students in connecting the meaning and the form (i.e., vocabulary) while exposing them to the meaningful, manipulated input of words (glasses and contact lenses). The following step would be comparing their preferences with classmates in groups, thus allowing the meaningful communications to occur through exchanges of authentic information (which is guided output). This kind of communicative activity differs from a more traditional, mechanical fill-in-blank type of activity in which students do not necessarily receive structured input; rather, they have to supply the target vocabulary words by recalling them rather than recognizing them.

Amount and logical progression of input-based and output-based activities

While the activities found in 6 textbooks exhibited varying degrees of manipulation involved in both input and output-based tasks, they also differed in the amount of input-based and output-based activities as well as in the logical progression between input and output activities as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Number of input and output tasks and logical progression from input to output in vocabulary activities for a chapter/section of clothing (textbooks coded by a random order)

Textbook	Input-based activities	Output-based activities	Logical progression from input to output
I-1	2	4	no
I-2	2	7	no
I-3	6	6	yes
I-4	0	7	no
I-5	11	14	yes
I-6	1	7	no
Range	0-11	4-14	
Average	3.7	7.5	

The amount of the input activities and the output activities ranged from 0 to 11 and 4 to 14, respectively, which shows a tendency to emphasize the production activities rather than input-based activities in L2 textbooks. As shown in Table 2, one textbook, for example, did not have any input activity (textbook I-4) and another had only one input activity (textbook I-6) in the surveyed vocabulary section (related to clothing and purchase) while there was a textbook (I-5) which contained notably abundant 11 input activities. The textbooks that did not offer any input activity or offered just one input activity, in contrast, provided much more production activities (7 activity in both textbooks). All 6 textbooks consistently had more output-oriented activities than input activities, except one (textbook I-3) which had an equal number of input and output activities. The average number of input-based activities was 3.7

while for output-based activities, it was 7.5, being approximately double the amount. It is notable that 2 textbooks (I-3 and I-5) offered a more balanced number of activities between input and output (6-6 and 11-14, respectively); however, the overall tendency observed in all other textbooks was geared toward production activities. This is contradictory in a sense since all of these textbooks suggested the input-based approaches in the preface, but the activities presented in 4 out of 6 textbooks did not necessarily reflect such approaches.

On the other hand, the amount of input vs. output-based activities itself seemed to show only a partial picture of how the vocabulary activities were structured and organized. In order to examine whether the textbooks reflected L2 learners' acquisition process, this study further analyzed the logical progression from input to output activities. A closer look at all the vocabulary activities, including their steps (often called *pasos*) within each activity, revealed that only 2 textbooks (I-3 and I-5) faithfully followed through the input-to-output progression while other 4 textbooks did not always follow this order. In fact, in both textbooks (I-3 and I-5), the importance of following this progression of input-to-out is highlighted in the prefaces, as shown in these examples: "Over 30 years of research in second language acquisition indicate that numerous and varied input activities are required *before* asking students to produce output using a new structure or new vocabulary" (I-5), and "When we learn any new skill, we need lots of structured input at the beginning as we begin to try out our fledgling abilities. As we become better at it, we produce more (output) and benefit from continued input (but less of it) as we refine our ability to do the task at hand" (I-3).

For example, smooth transition from input to output was found in textbook I-5 which presents a vocabulary activity "*¿Qué puedes ponerte?* (What can you wear?)". It includes various steps to guide students from input/comprehension to guided output/production. In the first step (input activity), students are to select the appropriate occasions and places in which each of the given cloth items could be worn (e.g., *sandalias* "sandals", *pantalones cortos* "shorts", etc. as examples of clothing/accessories and *la oficina* "the office", *una fiesta* "a party", etc. as examples of occasions/places). In this step, students are forced to comprehend the meanings of the new vocabulary words (i.e., clothing/accessories) in order to logically connect them with their associated places and occasions in which these items can be worn, thus encouraging them to learn the new vocabulary within cultural norms. Students do not need to recall or produce any new words at the beginning of the activity, so this first step serves as a structured input activity. In step 2, students are to compare their choices from step 1 in small groups in order to find similarities and differences. This step serves as an immediate output activity that can induce negotiation of meaning while communicating with peers about their choices. It also serves as a transition from input to output nicely because students need to listen to and comprehend the list and choices of their classmates (i.e., input) while they are also to produce words and simple sentences to explain their choices (i.e., output). Step 3, which is the final step of this activity, then asks students in the same groups to write the list of clothing/accessories and the appropriate occasions in which these items can be worn. This is a written output activity that reinforces the previous step (i.e., oral) in which students again can negotiate the meaning of the communication. All three steps in this activity are well connected and logically progress from comprehension to guided production activities that invite meaningful communication with classmates.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study investigated the pedagogical approaches that are reflected in vocabulary instruction in college-level beginner Spanish textbooks for English L2 learners. As for the first research question, this study found that the surveyed textbooks overall exhibited the common organization and presentation of the new vocabulary words, which consisted of both traditional/mechanical tasks and structured-input activities. It was common to find a similar way of presenting new vocabulary through chapter-opening pictures with Spanish captions, a list of new vocabulary in Spanish translated in English at the beginning of each chapter or section, and the final section of the vocabulary summary provided at the end of each chapter or subj-section of the chapter. Despite these apparent similarities of the organization in presenting new vocabulary, the surveyed textbooks differed in the manner in which they presented new vocabulary in the activities themselves. A closer look at the preface of each textbook revealed two diverging pedagogical philosophies about teaching and learning L2 vocabulary: 6 textbooks that intended to adopt the input-based approach (or the instruction from input to output) and 5 textbooks that only mentioned the importance of the communication, communication skills, or communication proficiency in rather broad terms without mentioning the role of the input. This appears to indicate that one of the most prevailing pedagogical approaches to L2 acquisition (that is, the Processing Instruction, the input-based instruction, and the instruction from input to output, all of which more or less denote the same concept), is not systematically incorporated into many current L2 Spanish textbooks that were surveyed in the current study.

This was even more apparent when closely examining the 6 textbooks that mentioned the role of input and/or the importance of gradual progression from input to output in developing L2 system (which constitutes the second research question of this study). Only 2 textbooks actually offered vocabulary activities that were based on the instruction from input to output with a balanced number of input and output activities. One of them in particular had abundant input as well as output activities that were thoughtfully designed with the Processing Instruction in mind. When quantified the activities in all the 6 textbooks that mentioned the role of input in the prefaces, it also revealed that there was no uniformity regarding the number of vocabulary activities that were included to help L2 learners master new words related to clothing. The abundant vocabulary activities presented in that chapter (or section) would definitely give instructors and students more options when choosing appropriate tasks while reinforcing what they have learned in various input-based and output-based activities. Nevertheless, this would not be the case for the textbooks that had a limited number of vocabulary activities (even counting both input and output-oriented activities), which might burden instructors to resort to other resources to 'borrow' materials or even create their own. In addition, the majority of the textbooks surveyed had vocabulary activities heavily based on production types, sometimes without including context, reminiscent of typical and traditional methods of teaching L2 vocabulary. The analysis of the logical transition from comprehension/input-based activities to production/output-based activities also revealed the similar trend: only very few textbooks followed a more natural progression without requiring students to recall and produce new words from the very beginning. Furthermore, the surveyed textbooks exhibited varying degrees of manipulation involved in both input and output-based

tasks: some activities were more meaningful than others while in most textbooks one can still find activities that were less communicative and more mechanical.

In spite of this general trend of approaches found in the current study (against the Processing Instruction), it should be noted that some instructors and students alike would actually prefer the pedagogical approaches that are based on traditional methodologies that emphasize production. It is partially because one prefers to learn and teach the way she/he has learned; in addition, the compounding factor is that there would be limited class contact hours and time for instructors to cover so much and they would want students to just learn new vocabulary words in a rush and sometimes on their own (through quizzes and tests).

A question must be raised as to whether it is the recognition (i.e., comprehension) or the recall (i.e., production) that poses more difficulty for L2 learners when mastering new vocabulary. Schmitt (2019), in discussing the key descriptor of vocabulary knowledge, pointed out that more research should be carried out in order to determine where the most teaching effort need to be placed: in moving "vocabulary knowledge from $\varnothing \rightarrow$ RECEPTIVE" (which is a stage of receiving input for the current study), or "from RECEPTIVE $\rightarrow$ PRODUCTIVE" (which more or less corresponds to a production stage of applying more output than input in the current study) (Schmitt, 2019: 263). Schmitt (2019: 264) suggests that the research indicates that learning words to "receptive mastery" is relatively easier than increasing and strengthening that knowledge to "productive mastery," which presents a greater challenge to language learners. For example, producing right words and using them appropriately in context when writing and speaking L2 (i.e., stage of production/output) would certainly be more challenging than simply comprehending a word when reading and listening (i.e., stage of input; receptive stage). This proposal seems to lead us again to reflect upon the old debate regarding the input-based instruction vs. the output-based instruction. While it seems true that output aids L2 learners to attain fluency of language (Rassaei, 2012; Swain, 2005) and enhance the grammatical accuracy of L2 in a more advanced level (Izumi & Bigelow, 2000), it is beyond the scope of this study to determine whether the role of output is secondary to the role of input, or the other way around.

At the same time, the analysis of the current beginning-level Spanish textbooks for L2 English learners has indicated a predominant tendency towards the output-based instruction of vocabulary. This very likely reflects the observations and research done regarding the essential role of output, which is to coexist alongside the enriched input that makes acquiring L2 vocabulary possible.

Implications and suggestions for further research

Textbooks are essential tools for foreign/second language instructors who heavily rely on their content, so that they do not have to invest their own time to teach new vocabulary properly. Therefore, it seems imperative to adopt a sound pedagogical approach in L2 textbooks in order to teach and learn vocabulary most effectively. At the same time, as stated in Demir (2013), one should admit that textbooks alone may not be enough "to equip students with necessary vocabulary knowledge" beyond a superficial level and also for the long term. The current study showed the current tendency of the L2 Spanish textbooks widely used in the United States, and it hopefully suggests to language educators to revisit the overarching pedagogical approach adopted in textbooks in order to teach L2 vocabulary more effectively. As

Schmitt (2019) accurately pointed out, "there are still large gaps in our knowledge of key aspects of vocabulary". While the current study did not carry out the fine-grained analysis of the degree of manipulation exercised on the input-based activities, more studies in the future that examine the vocabulary activities of the L2 textbooks will be able to help researchers and educators gain a clearer perspective on the common pedagogical approaches adopted in L2 textbooks.

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Appendix: List of beginner Spanish textbooks analyzed

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Andrade, M., Egasse, J., Muñoz, E. M., & Cabrera Puche, M. J. (2014). *Tu mundo: Español sin fronteras* (1st edition). McGraw-Hill.

Blanco, J., & Donley, P. R. L., (2018). *Aventuras: Primer curso de lengua española* (5th edition). Vista Higher Learning.

Blitt, M. A., & Casas, M. (2019). *Exploraciones* (3rd edition). Cengage Learning.

Cuadrado, C., Melero, P., Sacristán, E., & Underwood, J. (2012). *Protagonistas: A communicative approach* (1st dition). Vista Higher Learning.

De la Fuente, M. J., Martín Peris, E. J., & Sans, N. J. (2015). *Gente: Nivel básico* (3rd edition). Pearson Education, Inc.

Dorwick, T., Pérez-Gironés, A. M., Becher, A., & Isabelli, C. A. (2012). *Puntos de partida* (9th edition). McGraw-Hill.

Garner, L. C., Rusch, D., & Domínguez, M. (2015). *¡Claro que sí! An integrated skills approach* (7th edition). Cengage Learning.

Heining-Boynton, A. L. & Cowell, G. S. (2013). *¡Anda!* (2nd edition). Pearson Education, Inc.

Potowski, K., Sobral, S., & Dawson, L. M. (2012). *Dicho y hecho* (9th edition). John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

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Investigation of Teacher Views on Digital Addiction and Suggestions for Solution

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Investigation of teacher views on digital addiction and suggestions for solution[1]

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Abstract

Technological advances that took place in the 21st century have caused great changes in our lives. Today, children are growing up in an environment where internet and interactive technologies are widely used since infancy. Therefore, it is not possible to remove children from this world who are introduced to the digital world from a very young age and live a life intertwined with this world. In this case, it is the duty of parents and teachers to ensure that children are present in a safe and informed way in digital environments. The aim of the research was to determine the knowledge of teachers about digital addiction and to find out the solutions proposed for the students who developed digital addiction. This research is based on qualitative research type and basic research design. In the research, snowball / chain sampling method was used to determine the group of participants. The participants of the study consist of pre-school teachers and classroom teachers working in different provinces of our country. In the study, semi-structured interview form was used as data collection tool. Interviews were made face to face, phone calls or online. Within the scope of the research, the data obtained at the end of the data collection process on the internet were analyzed and interpreted using content analysis technique. Data were analyzed in detail, systematized by thematization and coding and interpreted and evaluated. According to the findings of the data analysis, while the highest frequency is (f = 16) "not to be separated from technological devices", the analysis of teachers thoughts about digital dependence, problem behaviours teachers observed in their students developing digital dependence "Aggressive and offensive behaviors" is (f = 8). The highest frequency of the solution suggestions put forward by the teachers in the fight against digital addiction in their students is setting boundary (f = 11).

See extended abstract

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[1] This study was presented at the International Multidisciplinary Digital Addiction Congress (IMDAC) on 14 November, 2018.
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Dijital bağımlılığa ilişkin öğretmen görüşlerinin incelenmesi ve çözüm önerileri

Öz

21. yüzyılda meydana gelen teknolojik ilerlemeler hayatımızda çok büyük değişikliklere neden olmuştur. Günümüz çocukları, bebeklik dönemlerinden itibaren internet ve etkileşimli teknolojilerin yaygın biçimde kullanıldığı bir ortamda büyümektedirler. Dolayısıyla çok küçük yaşlardan itibaren dijital dünyayla tanışan ve bu dünya ile iç içe bir yaşam süren çocukları bu dünyadan uzaklaştırmak mümkün değildir. Bu durumda aile ve öğretmenlere düşen görev çocukların dijital ortamlarda güvenli ve bilinçli bir şekilde bulunmalarını sağlamaktır. Araştırma ile öğretmenlerin dijital bağımlılık hakkındaki bilgilerinin tespit edilmesi ve dijital bağımlılık geliştiren öğrencilerine ilişkin önerdikleri çözüm yollarının ortaya çıkarılması amaçlanmıştır. Bu araştırma, nitel araştırma türünde ve temel araştırma desenine dayalı olarak gerçekleştirilmiştir. Araştırmada katılımcı grubunun belirlenmesinde kartopu/zincirleme örnekleme yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Araştırmanın katılımcı grubunu, ülkemizin farklı illerinde görev yapan okul öncesi eğitim öğretmenleri ve sınıf öğretmenleri oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmada veri toplama aracı olarak yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme formu kullanılmıştır. Görüşmeler yüzyüze, telefon görüşmesi ya da online olarak yapılmıştır. Araştırma kapsamında internet ortamında veri toplama sürecinin sonunda elde edilen veriler, içerik analizi tekniği kullanılarak çözümlenmiş ve yorumlanmıştır. Veriler ayrıntılı olarak analiz edilmiş, temalaştırma ve kodlama yoluyla sistematize edilerek yorumlanmış ve değerlendirilmiştir.Verilerin analizi sonucunda ortaya çıkan bulgulara bakıldığında, araştırmada öğretmenlerinin dijital bağımlılığına ilişkin düşünceleri analizi ile frekansı en yüksek çıkan kod (f=16) "Teknolojik cihazlardan ayrı kalamamak" olurken, öğretmenlerin dijital bağımlılık geliştiren öğrencilerinde gözlemledikleri problem davranışlar "Agresif ve saldırgan davranışlar"dır (f=8). Öğretmenlerin öğrencilerinde gelişen dijital bağımlılık ile mücadele konusunda ortaya koyduğu çözüm önerilerinden en yüksek frekansa sahip olan görüş ise "Sınır koymak"tır (f=11).

Giriş

Yeni dijital çağ ile birlikte teknolojide olağanüstü gelişmeler yaşanmakta, insan yaşamı hızla değişime uğramaktadır. Geçmişte hayal olarak görülen pek çok durum günümüzde gerçek yaşamın bir parçası olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Her yaştan bireyin hayatına giren teknoloji ve internet, toplumu farklı yönlerden etkisi altına almaktadır. Bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerindeki gelişmelerin sonucunda artık tüm dünyada giderek daha fazla birey, dijital içerikler, ürünler ve materyallerle karşılaşmaktadır. Artık hayatımızın her anında ve her alanında dijital ekranlar karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Nitekim bu araştırma da bir ekran karşısında yazılmaktadır. Dolayısıyla hayatımızı bu denli çevreleyen teknolojik araçlar hayatımızın vazgeçilmez bir parçası haline gelmiştir. Dijital medyanın modern dünyada teşkil ettiği ekonomik, sosyal ve kültürel öneminin göz ardı edilmesi elbette ki mümkün değildir. Dijital medya aracılığı ile yapılan e-satışlar ile büyük kâr ve istihdam rakamlarına ulaşılabilmekte, bireyler sahip oldukları bilgilerin birçoğuna dijital medya araçları yardımıyla erişmekte ve bu araçlar sayesinde düşüncelerinin şekillenmesini sağlayan yeni fikirlere, yeni imgelere, gerçek ve kurgusal simgelere ulaşılabilmektedirler (Özmen, 2012). Bu nitelikleri doğrultusunda artık dijital medya, dünya genelinde yeni bir kültürel ifade ve iletişim şekli olarak kendisini ortaya koymaktadır.

Dijitalleşme kişilere kendilerini ifade etme, onay görme ve dijital dünya içerisinde sosyalleşme imkânı tanımakta ve insanlar üzerinde önemli bir etki payına sahip olmaktadır. Ayrıca çok çeşitli konularda zengin içerikler sunarak öğrenmenin daha eğlenceli, ilgi çekici hale gelmesini ve öğrenilenlerin pekiştirilmesini sağlamaktadır. Ancak her birey dijital medya araçlarının kullanımı konusunda ortak bir tutuma sahip değildir. Bazı bireyler dijital araçların kullanımına sınır getiremeyerek yoğun olarak kullanmaktadırlar. Bu sorunlu kullanımın sonucunda, bağımlılıkla birlikte sosyal yaşamdan uzaklaşma, akademik başarıda düşme ve beslenme bozukluklarına sebep olacak risklerle karşılaşmakta ve çaresiz kalmaktadırlar (Horzum, 2011; Günüç ve Kayri, 2010; Beyatlı, 2012). Özellikle ülkemizde çocuk yetişen evlerin çoğunda kitaplık olmaması, mahallelerde kütüphane bulunmaması ve okul öncesi eğitimin zorunlu olmaması, çocukların okul öncesi eğitime katılmaması onları ekran bağımlılığına mahkûm etmektedir (Şirin, 2019).

Seferoğlu ve Yıldız' a göre (2013) bağımlılık, kişilerin belirli bir madde, ürün ve/veya hizmeti uzun süre kullanmaları sonucunda kendilerini geçici olarak iyi hissetmeleri durumunun ortaya çıkması olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Dijital bağımlılık ise en basit tanımıyla kişinin dijital medya araçlarının aşırı kullanımıyla birlikte, zamanla bu durumdan zarar görür ve gündelik yaşamla ilgili görevlerini yerini getiremez hale gelmesi olarak tanımlanabilir. Her ne kadar dijital bağımlılık tanımındaki *bağımlılık* terimi farklı araştırmacılar tarafından eleştirilse de (Pezoa-Jares ve Espinoza-Luna 2013), pek çok araştırmacılarca, kamu kuruluşları ve kamuoyu tarafından da benimsenmektedir (Yeşilay, 2019).

Dijital bağımlılık kavramı, son zamanlarda dijital medya araçlarındaki çeşitlenme ile birlikte, internet bağımlılığı, akıllı telefon bağımlılığı, dijital oyun bağımlılığı, sosyal medya bağımlılığı ve televizyon bağımlılığı gibi dijital medya bağımlılığının alt boyutları olarak değerlendirilen birbirinden farklı bağımlılık türlerini bünyesine alan şemsiye bir kavram haline gelmiştir. Dijital araç gereçlerin sürekli olarak yenilenmesi ve yaşanan teknolojik gelişmeler sonucunda dijital medya bağımlılığı güncel bir konu olup, gittikçe artan oranda da gündeme

gelmekte, özellikte dijital oyun bağımlılığı medyada sık sık gündeme gelmektedir. Bu bağlamda dijital medya bağımlılığı konulu araştırmaların önemi artmakta, bu konuda kamuoyunun bilinçlenmesi gerekmektedir. Bu noktada akademik araştırmalar önemli bir görev üstlenmektedir.

Dijital bağımlılık yaşı olmayan bir bağımlılık türü olup, oldukça da yaygın bir bağımlılık türü olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır (Horzum, 2011). Dijital bağımlılık geliştiren bir birey, internette sürekli vakit geçirmekte ve böylelikle yapması gereken işleri ihmal etmektedir. Dolayısıyla bu ihmaller hayatını olumsuz etkileyecek pek çok sorun ile yüzleşmesine neden olmaktadır. İnternet bağımlılığı alanında değerli çalışmaları bulunan Young'ın (1998) araştırmasıyla gündeme gelen ve bir rahatsızlık olarak kabul edilen "İnternet Bağımlılık Rahatsızlığı" terimi ise şu şekilde tanımlanmaktadır: "internetin takıntılı bir biçimde aşırı kullanımı ve internetten yoksun bırakıldığında sinir bozucu ya da huysuz davranış durumu" şeklindedir (Mitchell, 2000). Dolayısıyla "İnternet Bağımlılığı" bireyin internet kullanımına yönelik kontrolünü kaybederek, hayatında problemli sonuçlar doğuracak kadar yoğun bir kullanımı ifade etmektedir (Young ve Abreu, 2011).

Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu'nun verilerine göre 16-74 yaş aralığındaki internet kullanıcı yüzdesi %68,8'dir. Ayrıca erkeklerin %75,1'i, kadınların ise %58,7'si internet kullanmaktadır. Evlerin ise %80,7'sinde internet erişimi bulunmaktadır (TÜİK, 2017). Dijital bağımlılık, internet bağımlılığı konusunda özellikle ilköğretim, lise ve üniversite çağındaki öğrenciler ile yapılan pek çok ulusal ve uluslararası araştırma bulunmaktadır (Beyatlı, 2012; Cao & Su 2006; Çavuş, Ayhan ve Tuncer, 2016; Gentile 2009, Rideout, Foehr ve Roberts, 2010; Ghassemzadeh, Shahraray ve Moradi 2008; Horzum, 2011; Livingstone, Nandi, Banaji ve Stoilova, 2017; Seferoğlu ve Yıldız, 2013; Öncel ve Tekin, 2015). Ayrıca sadece gençlerin değil aynı zamanda yetişkinlerin de, maillerine bakamadıklarında, telefonlarından kısa bir süre bile olsa uzak kaldıklarında rahatsızlık duymaya başladıklarını ve sosyal medyada paylaşımında bulunmadıklarında kendilerini kötü hissettiklerini belirttikleri, araştırmalarda ortaya çıkmıştır (Kaya, 2013, Laura ve Richard, 2004; Mossbarger, 2008). Erişti ve Avcı'nın (2018), yapmış oldukları araştırmada farklı bir bakış açısı benimsenmiş, anne babaların internet bağımlılıklarının okul öncesi dönemdeki çocuklar üzerinde etkisi irdelenmiş ve araştırma ile çocukların anne babalarının internet bağımlılığı sorunundan olumsuz etkilendikleri ortaya çıkmıştır. İngiltere'de iki bin ebeveynle yapılan bir araştırmada ise, sosyal medya kullanıcısı olan anne baba tarafından yetiştirilen çocukların 5 yaşına geldiklerinde bine yakın sosyal medya içeriğine konu oldukları ortaya çıkarılmıştır (Şirin, 2019). Dolayısıyla ebeveynlerin yoğun dijital medya araçlarını kullanmaları çocukları da etkisi altına almaktadır. Ebeveynlerin tutumları çocukların teknolojik araçlarla etkileşiminde belirleyici olmalıdır. Çünkü karşılarında çocukları bağımlılığa sürükleyecek içerikleri geliştirmek için çabalayan profesyonel bir ordu bulunmaktadır. Çocukların mutlu olabilecekleri, zamanlarının büyük bir bölümünü ekran karşılarında geçirmelerine teşvik edici içerikler, oyunlar tasarlamak için devasa bir sektör iş başındadır. Hal böyle olunca ebeveynlere, eğitimcilere fazlasıyla sorumluluk düşmektedir. Çocukların sorumluluğunu üstlenen yetişkinlerin süzgecinden geçmeyen hiçbir içeriğin, çocuklarla buluşturulmaması gereklidir. Çünkü zihin dijital oyunlarla mutluluğa alıştırıldığında bu sahte mutluluğu sürekli aramakta ve bağımlılığa adım adım ilerlemektedir. Gerçek yaşam içindeki oyunlara alternatif olarak görülen dijital oyunlar, çocukları ekranlara hapsetmekte,

çok kıymetli yıllar olan çocukluk yıllarını saatlerce koltukta, ekran karşısında harcatmaktadır (Şakiroğlu ve Poyraz Akyol, 2018).

Avrupa Çevrim içi Çocuklar (EU Kids Online) projesi kapsamında yapılan araştırmalar sonucunda, 2010 yılından 2015 yılına kadar, Türkiye'de çevrim içi çocukların sayısının 2 kat arttığını ve interneti ilk kullanım yaşının beş yaştan da iki yaşa indiğini ortaya çıkarmıştır (Aslan, 2016). Z kuşağı ve peşinden gelen Alfa kuşağının mensubu çocuk ve gençlerin dijital cihazlar ve internetle çok küçük yaşlarda tanışması nedeniyle bu cihazlara bağımlılık oluşturma olasılıklarının yüksek olduğu da araştırmalarda ifade edilmektedir (Ertemel ve Aydın, 2018). Böylesi önemli bir sorun karşısında çözüme ulaşma yolları sunması bağlamında araştırma oldukça değerlidir. Öğretmenler okul çağındaki çocuklar ile uzun saatlerce ve derinlemesine etkileşime girmektedir. Özellikle okul öncesi ve ilkokul döneminde öğretmenler öğrencileri çok etkileyebilmektedir. Bu anlamda öğretmenin öğrencisinde ortaya çıkan sorunların gözlemi, farkındalığı, geliştirdiği bilinç, ortaya koyduğu tepki, tavır ve davranışları önemlidir. Araştırma bu fikre dayanarak ortaya çıkmış, öğretmenlerin dijital bağımlılık konusundaki farkındalığını, geliştirdiği ve bu farkındalık üzerinden ortaya koyarak çözüme ulaştıracağına inandığı yolları açığa çıkarmayı amaçlamıştır. Araştırma öğretmenlerin gözünden dijital bağımlılığı ortaya koymasından dolayı da değerlidir ve benzer araştırmalara yol gösterebilecektir.

Araştırmanın amacı

Çağımızın en önemli bağımlılık türlerinden biri olarak görülen dijital bağımlılıkla mücadele de gerek ebeveynlere gerekse eğitimcilere önemli görevler düşmektedir. Karşılaşılan davranış problemlerinde ortak bir tavır ortaya koymak, problem davranışların düzeltilmesinde kolaylaştırıcı bir rol üstlenilmesi gerekmektedir. Dijital ortamlarda görsel uzamsal zekânın gelişimi (Green ve Bavelier, 2003), bazı sosyal becerilerin gelişimi (Anderson, Gentile ve Dill, 2012), dijital okuryazarlık becerisinin gelişimi (Gentile ve Anderson, 2006) gibi pek çok alanda faydalı olduğu araştırmalarda ortaya koyulmaktadır. Ancak araştırmalar, dijital araçların aşırı kullanımının çocuklarda depresyon ve kaygıya, dikkat ve davranış bozukluklarına sebep olduğundan çocuğun akademik başarısında düşüş gözlemlendiğinden de bahsetmektedirler (Bianchi ve Philips, 2005; Ceyhan, 2011; Gentile, 2009; Horzum, 2011; Keikhayfarzaneh ve Jenabadi, 2011; Rooji, 2011).

Dolayısıyla dijital ortamların çocuklar için hem olumlu hem de olumsuz etkilerinin olduğu açıktır. Bu etkilerin odağındaki çocukların dijital ortamları etkili kullanabilmeleri için ailelerin ve öğretmenlerin bilgi, tutum ve yaklaşımları oldukça önemlidir. Çünkü bağımlılık tek başına bir bireyle açıklanabilecek bir durum değildir. Bağımlılık aynı zamanda bireyin içinde bulunduğu koşullarla ilgilidir. Kısacası bağımlılık bir ortam meselesidir ve bu ortamı inşa edecek ebeveyn ve öğretmenlere ciddi iş düşmektedir (Şirin, 2019). Dijital teknolojilerin sunduğu imkânlardan ve olası tehlikelerinden aileler ve eğitimcilerin haberdar olması, özellikle de topluma yön veren eğitimcilerin dijital dünyanın etkileri hakkında fikir sahibi olmaları ve gerekmektedir. Bu bağlamda bu araştırma, öğretmenlerin dijital bağımlılık hakkındaki bilgilerini tespit etmek ve dijital bağımlılık geliştiren öğrencilerine ilişkin önerdikleri çözüm yollarını ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamaktadır.

Yöntem

Bu araştırma, nitel araştırma türünde ve bütüncül tek durum desenine dayalı olarak gerçekleştirilmiştir. Nitel araştırma tümevarım yaklaşımıyla katılımcıların bakış açılarını anlamaya ve yansıtmaya odaklanan olay ve olguyu doğal ortam içinde betimleyen bir yaklaşım olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Çokluk, Yılmaz ve Oğuz 2011; Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2012). Dolayısıyla bu araştırmada "dijital bağımlılık geliştiren öğrencileri olan öğretmenlerin görüşlerinin incelenmesi ve ulaştıkları, ürettikleri çözümlerin betimlenerek ortaya çıkarılması" bir durum olarak ele alınmış ve araştırmanın amacı nispetinde sonuçlara ulaşılmaya çalışılmıştır.

Katılımcılar

Araştırmanın öğretmenlerden oluşan katılımcı grubunun belirlenmesinde Kartopu/Zincirleme örnekleme yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Kartopu/Zincirleme örnekleme yönteminde araştırmacının problemine ilişkin zengin bilgi kaynağı olabilecek birey veya durumların saptanması önemlidir (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2012). Yani araştırmaya katılan katılımcıların incelenen problem durumu konusunda deneyimli olmaları gerekir. Bu araştırmada da, sınıfında dijital bağımlılık geliştiren çocuklar bulunan öğretmenlere ulaşılmaya çalışılmıştır. Araştırmanın katılımcı grubunu, ülkemizin farklı şehirlerinde görev yapan, okul öncesi eğitim ve sınıf eğitimi branşlarından, deneyimleri ve kademeleri farklı 30 öğretmen oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmada iki farklı branştan öğretmenlere ulaşılmasındaki amaç, daha farklı bakış açılarına ortaya koyabilmektir. Dijital bağımlılık geliştiren ve okul öncesi, ilkokul düzeyinde öğrenim görmekte olan çocukların her biri farklı öykülere sahip olabilir ve bulundukları çağın gelişimsel özelliklerine göre dijital bağımlılık konusunda farklı bulgular ortaya çıkabilir. Dolayısıyla öğretmenlerinin ortaya koyduğu çözüm önerileri daha bütüncül olarak değerlendirilebilir.

Tablo 1. Görüşülen öğretmenlere ilişkin demografik bilgiler

Değişkenler	Demografik Özellikler	f
Mesleki Kıdem	0-5 Yıl	10
	6-10 Yıl	5
	11-15 Yıl	10
	16-20 Yıl	4
	21 ve üzeri	1
Yaş	20-25	2
	26-30	11
	31-35	3
	36-40	6
	41 ve üzeri	10
Cinsiyet	Kadın	25
	Erkek	5

Branş	Okul Öncesi Eğitim	20
	Sınıf Eğitimi	10
Eğitim Durumu	Lisans	24
	Yüksek Lisans	5
	Doktora	1

Tablo 1'de yer alan veriler incelendiğinde, öğretmenlerin yirmi beşi kadın ve beşi erkektir. Öğretmenlerin yirmi dördü lisans, beşi yüksek lisans ve bir tanesi de doktora derecesine sahiptir. Ayrıca yirmi tanesi okul öncesi öğretmeni, on tanesi de ilkokul bünyesinde sınıf öğretmeni olarak görev yapmaktadır.

Veri toplama araçları
Alanyazın taraması
Araştırmada görüşme formu hazırlanmadan önce, detaylı bir literatür taramasına gidilmiş, bu bağlamda gerek ulusal gerekse uluslararası literatür taranmıştır. Dijital bağımlılığa ilişkin tez, makale, kitap bölümü ve basında çıkan haberler irdelenmiştir. Bu bağlamda kırk altı makaleye ulaşılmıştır. Ulaşılan bu makalelerin yirmi yedi tanesi yabancı dergilerde yayınlanan makalelerdir. Dijital bağımlılık konulu 10 kitap taranmış, Yeşilay'ın sitesi ziyaret edilmiş, dijital bağımlılık konusunda küresel çapta gerçekleştirilen çalışmalara ve raporlara bakılmıştır.

Görüşme formu
Araştırmada detaylı bir şekilde alan yazın taraması (Bilgiç, Duman, ve Seferoğlu, 2011; Ceyhan, 2011; Charlton & Danforth, 2007; Çetin ve Özgiden, 2013; Çubukçu ve Bayzan, 2013; Erişti ve Avcı, 2018; Horzum, 2011; Gentile, 2006; Green ve Bavelier, 2003; Griffiths, 1999; Günüç, 2009; Günüç ve Kayri, 2010; Higgins, Xiao ve Katsipataki, 2012; Kırık, 2014; Kuzu, 2011; Livingstone, Nandi, Banaji ve Stoilova, 2017; Ögel, 2012; Plailogou, 2016; Young, 1998, Yeşilay, 2017; Williams, 2010) yapılmış ve ardından görüşme formunun soruları oluşturulmuştur. Oluşturulan bu sorular, nitel araştırma alanında bir uzman görüşüne sunulmuş, problem durumuna uygunluğu, anlaşılırlığı yönünden incelenmiş ve uygun olduğuna karar verilmiştir. Form iki kısımdan oluşmaktadır. Birinci kısımda katılımcı öğretmenlerin branş, çalıştıkları okul türü, kıdem, yaş gibi kişisel bilgileri alınmış, ardından da araştırmanın konusunu oluşturan dijital bağımlılığı tanımlamaları ve karşılaştıkları dijital bağımlılık vakaları ve nasıl çözüm yolları ürettikleri ile ilgili görüşleri alınmıştır. Öğretmenlere sunulan bu formda araştırmanın amacı formun üst kısmında detaylı olarak açıklanmış ve gönüllü katılım sağlandıktan sonra ise öğretmenlere toplamda üç açık uçlu soru yöneltilmiş ve bu sorularıcevaplamaları istenmiştir. Böylelikle öğretmenlerin düşünceleri ve deneyimleri ortaya çıkarılmaya çalışılmış, derinlemesine bilgi alınmaya çalışılmıştır. Araştırmanın katılımcı grubundaki öğretmenlere yöneltilen görüşme soruları ise sırasıyla şöyledir;

1. Sizce dijital bağımlılık nedir?
2. Dijital bağımlılık geliştiren öğrencinizle ilgili gözlemleriniz nelerdir? Ne gibi güçlükler ve problem davranışlarla karşılaştınız?

3. Dijital bağımlılıkla mücadelede deneyimlerinize dayanarak geliştirdiğiniz çözüm önerileri nelerdir?

Görüşmeler yüz yüze, telefonla ve online görüşmeler şeklinde yapılmıştır. Veriler 2018 yılı Eylül ve Ekim aylarında toplanmıştır. Benzer cevaplara ulaşılmaya başlandığında görüşülen kişi sayısı yeterli görülerek görüşmelere son verilmiştir. Veri toplama aşamasında görüşme formunda katılımcılardan isimleri istenmeyerek rahatlıkla görüşlerini ifade etmeleri sağlanmaya çalışılmıştır.

Verilerin analizi

Araştırmada veri analiz yöntemi olarak, betimsel analiz kullanılmıştır. Nitel araştırmalarda, veri analizi kısmında elde edilen verilerin betimlenmesi, açıklanması ve temalaştırılması ve yorumlanması söz konusudur. Betimsel analiz yoluyla analiz edilen veriler araştırma soruları ile uyumlu temalar çerçevesinde düzenlenip yorumlanmıştır. Raporlaştırma kısmında ise olgunun kavramlar ve temalar çerçevesinde tanımlanması, doğrudan alıntılar yapılması olağandır ve araştırmada da doğrudan alıntılara yer verilmiştir (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2016).

Araştırmanın katılımcı grubunda yer alan öğretmenler tarafından yanıtlanan demografik veriler ile dijital bağımlılığa ilişkin görüşlerin yer aldığı bölümde yer alan sorulara verilen cevaplar, kategori ve sayı (f) olarak tablolaştırılmıştır. Elde edilen veri setinin farklı bölgelerinde benzer anlama gelebilecek kavramlar sınıflandırılma yoluna gidilerek anlamlı bütünler elde edilmiştir. Araştırmacılar tarafından sınıflandırılan ve aynı anlamı ifade eden cümleler/paragraflar arasında ortak yönler bulunarak temalar oluşturulmuştur. Ayrıca görüşme formunu cevaplandıran öğretmenlerin konu ile ilgili dikkat çekici ifadelerinden doğrudan alıntılara da yer verilmiştir (Creswell, 2013; Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2012).

Bulgular

Tablo 2. Öğretmenlerin dijital bağımlılığa ilişkin düşüncelerine yönelik bulgular

Kategori	f	İfadeler
Teknolojik Cihazlardan Ayrı Kalamamak (Ö1, Ö2, Ö3, Ö4, Ö5, Ö8, Ö11, Ö13, Ö18, Ö19, Ö20, Ö25, Ö27, Ö28, Ö29, Ö30)	16	**Ö3:** '*Sürekli telefon, tablet veya bilgisayar kullanmak istemek bunları yapamam durumu.*' **Ö8:** '*Her türlü şeyden vazgeçerek dijital ortama bağımlı kalmak. Kendisine zarar verdiğini bilse dahi vazgeçememek. Madde bağımlılığından farksız bir alışkanlık.*' **Ö18:** 'Dijital araçları elden bırakamama yokluğunda kendini eksik hissetme.' **Ö25:** '*Teknolojik aletleri 6. duyu organı gibi kullanmaktır.*' **Ö29:** '*Kontrolsüzce ekrana bağlanmak, akış içerisinde kendini kaybetmek saatler geçmesine rağmen başından ayrılamamaktır.*'

Teknolojik Cihazları Gereğinden Fazla Kullanma (Ö7, Ö8, Ö10, Ö14, Ö15, Ö16, Ö17, Ö22, Ö24, Ö26, Ö28, Ö29)	12	**Ö7**: *'İhtiyaç dışında telefon bilgisayar vs. sürekli kullanılması.'* **Ö10**: *'Teknolojinin bize sunduğu olanakların ihtiyaçtan fazla kullanılması.'* **Ö26**: *'Teknolojinin gereğinden fazla ve gereksiz kullanımı.'* **Ö28**: *'Tablet ve telefon kullanımının ihtiyaç dışında olması, bunlarla geçirilen sürenin fazla olması.'*
Sanal Ortamda Sürekli Çevrimiçi Olma İsteği (Ö2, Ö6, Ö9, Ö12, Ö30)	5	**Ö2**: *'İnternet ortamından kopamama.'* **Ö12**: *'Biriyle konuşurken dahi bildirimlere bakmak. Aynı evin içinde Whatsapp ile haberleşmek.'* **Ö30**: *'Sürekli sanal dünyada var olma isteği.'* **Ö6**: *'Sürekli sanal ortamda yaşamını sürdürmek.'*
Gerçek Hayattan Soyutlanma (Ö24, Ö27, Ö29, Ö30)	4	**Ö27**: *'Dijital bağımlılık kişilerin çevreleriyle iletişimi kesip tamamen dijital ortamlara yönelmesidir.'* **Ö29**: *'Bu aletleri kullanırken dış dünyayla iletişimi kesmesi.'* **Ö24**: *'İnsanları var olan gerçek doğadan alıp sanal yapılmış hayata atmaktır.'* **Ö30**: *'Gerçek dünyanın artık yavaş ve sıkıcı gelmesi.'*
Problem Davranışların Sebebi (Ö9, Ö13, Ö24, Ö23)	4	**Ö9**: *'Odaklanma zorluğu yaşama her türlü işi erteleme.'* **Ö13**: *'Biriyle konuşurken dahi bildirimlere bakmak. Aynı evin içinde Whatsapp ile haberleşmek.'* **Ö24**: *'Kişinin ayrı kaldığı sürece yokluğunu hissetmesi ulaşamadığı durumlarda problemli davranış sergilemesi.'* **Ö23**: *'Çocuklara bu aletlerin küçük yaşlarda verilmesi, çocukların tablet ya da telefon verilmediğinde tutturması ve kendini hırpalayarak elde etmeye çalışması, bu aletleri kullanırken dış dünyayla iletişimi kesmesi, kendini kapatması.'*
Teknolojik Cihazların Kullanımından Aşırı Haz Duyulması (Ö19, Ö21)	2	**Ö19**: *'Her konuda elinin altındaki bilgiye ulaşma zevkinin, zaman ve mekân tanımamasıdır.'* **Ö21**: *'Teknolojik tüm aletlerden kendini kontrol edemeyecek kadar haz duyulması.'*
Hastalık (Ö23, Ö14)	2	**Ö23**: *'21 yy. hastalığı.'* **Ö14**: *'Tedavi gerektiren amansız bir hastalıktır.'*
Yeni Çıkan Teknolojik Cihazları Sürekli Takip Edip Alma İsteği (Ö2)	1	**Ö2**: *'Yeni çıkan teknolojik ürünlerin takip edip alma isteği.'*

Tablo 2 incelendiğinde sekiz kategori olduğu görülmektedir. Bu kategoriler teknolojik cihazlardan ayrı kalamamak, teknolojik cihazları gereğinden fazla kullanmak, sanal ortamda sürekli çevrimiçi olma isteği, gerçek hayattan soyutlanma, problem davranışların sebebi, teknolojik cihazların kullanımında aşırı haz duyulması, hastalık ve yeni teknolojik cihazları sürekli takip edip alma isteği olarak belirlenmiştir. Öğretmenlerden bazıları dijital bağımlılığı teknolojik cihazlardan ayrı kalamamak olarak ifade etmektedirler. Bu konuda sekiz ve yirmi dokuz numaralı katılımcının *'Her türlü şeyden vazgeçerek dijital ortama bağımlı kalmak. Kendisine zarar verdiğini bilse dahi vazgeçememek. Madde bağımlılığından farksız bir alışkanlık'*(8*), 'Kontrolsüzce ekrana bağlanmak, akış içerisinde kendini kaybetmek saatler geçmesine rağmen başından ayrılamamaktır.'* (29) şeklindeki ifadeleri dikkat çekmektedir. Ayrıca dijital bağımlılığı teknolojik cihazları gereğinden fazla kullanmak olarak gören öğretmenlerde vardır. Bu konuda yirmi alı ve yirmi sekiz numaralı katılımcıların ifadeleri şu şekildedir: '*Teknolojinin gereğinden fazla ve gereksiz kullanımı*' (26), '*Tablet ve telefon kullanımının ihtiyaç dışında olması, bunlarla geçirilen sürenin fazla olması*' (28). Öğretmenlerin bir bölümü sürekli sanal ortamda çevrim içi olma isteğini dijital bağımlılık olarak görmektedirler. Bu konuda on iki ve otuz numaralı katılımcıların *'Biriyle konuşurken dahi bildirimlere bakmak. Aynı evin içinde Whatsapp ile haberleşmek'* (12), '*Sürekli sanal dünyada var olma isteği'* (30) şeklindeki ifadeleri dikkat çekmektedir.

Dijital bağımlılığı gerçek hayattan soyutlanma olarak gören öğretmenlerden yirmi dört ve yirmi yedi numaralı katılımcılar *'İnsanları var olan gerçek doğadan alıp sanal yapılmış hayata atmaktır'*(24), *'Dijital bağımlılık kişilerin çevreleriyle iletişimi kesip tamamen dijital ortamlara yönelmesidir'*(27) şeklinde ifade etmişlerdir. Dijital bağımlılık bazı öğretmenler tarafından problem davranışların sebebi olarak görülmektedir. Bununla ilgili yirmi üç numaralı katılımcı '*Çocuklara bu aletlerin küçük yaşlarda verilmesi, çocukların tablet ya da telefon verilmediğinde tutturması ve kendini hırpalayarak elde etmeye çalışması, bu aletleri kullanırken dış dünyayla iletişimi kesmesi, kendini kapatması.'* şeklinde ifade etmiştir. Ayrıca dijital bağımlılık öğretmenler tarafından teknolojik cihazların kullanımından aşırı haz duyulması, bir hastalık ve yeni çıkan teknolojik cihazları takip edip alma isteği olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Bu konuda öğretmenlerin ifadeleri şu şekildedir: '*Her konuda elinin altındaki bilgiye ulaşma zevkinin, zaman ve mekân tanımamasıdır'*(19), '*Tedavi gerektiren amansız bir hastalıktır'*(14), '*Yeni çıkan teknolojik ürünlerin takip edip alma isteği'*(2).

Tablo 3. Öğretmenlerin dijital bağımlık geliştiren öğrencilerinde gözlemledikleri problem davranışlarla ilgili düşüncelerine yönelik bulgular

Kategori	f	İfadeler
Agresif ve Saldırgan Davranışlar (Ö1, Ö10, Ö14, Ö18, Ö19, Ö21, Ö23, Ö28)	8	Ö18: *'Dijital ortamda izlediği şiddet içeriğini sınıfa taşıyor.'* Ö21: *'Agresifleşiyor ve ani öfke patlamaları oluyor.'* Ö28: *'Saldırgan davranışlar.'* Ö23: *'Şiddet eğilimi var.'* Ö1: *'Gergin davranışlar ve kaygı düzeyinde artış.'*
Dikkat Eksikliği ve Odaklanamama (Ö8, Ö16, Ö23, Ö24, Ö27, Ö29, Ö30)	7	Ö8: *'Dikkat eksikliği ve Hiperaktivite.'* Ö16: *'Dikkatini fazla uzun tutamama.'* Ö36: *'Odaklanma sıkıntısı yaşıyor.'*

		Ö4: *'Öğrencimde yoğun dikkat bozukluğu konsantre olamama arkadaşlarıyla arasında sürekli iletişim bozukluğu ve şiddete meyil görüyordum.'* **Ö29:** *'Dikkat eksikliği ve algılamada gecikme.'* **Ö30:** *'Dikkatini toplamakta zorlandığını gözlemledim.'*
İletişim Bozukluğu (Ö11, Ö14, Ö18, Ö20, Ö21, Ö23)	6	**Ö11:** *'İletişim kuramıyor, problemlerini çözemiyor.'* **Ö20:** *'İletişim problemi, göz kontağı kuramama.'* **Ö23:** *'A*rkadaşlarıyla arasında sürekli iletişim bozukluğu görüyordum.'
Motivasyon Eksikliği (Ö1, Ö10, Ö14, Ö18, Ö21, Ö24)	6	**Ö1:** *'Motivasyon eksikliği gözlemledim.'* **Ö14:** *'Derse ilgileri az oluyor, okulda uyuklama modunda olabiliyorlar.'* **Ö18:** *'Okula gelmek istemiyor.'* **Ö24:** *'*Etkinliklere katılımda isteksizlik.'
Sosyal Ortamdan Uzaklaşma (Ö8, Ö10, Ö14, Ö15, Ö18, Ö28)	6	**Ö14:** *'Agresifleşip, Asosyalleşebiliyorlar.'* **Ö18:** *'İzlediği şiddet içeriğini sınıfa taşıyor arkadaşlarıyla iletişim kuramıyor.'* **Ö28:** *'B*ilgisayardan bir şey açıldığında dışarıyla olan bağını kesme, kitlenme.' **Ö10:** *'*Bu durum onlara sosyal iletişim güçlüğü, içine kapanıklık, hırçınlık olarak yansıyor.'
Sürekli Hareket Halinde Olma (Ö8, Ö9, Ö16, Ö17)	4	**Ö8:** *'Dikkatini fazla uzun tutamama, sürekli hareket halinde bulunma.'* **Ö16:** *'Agresiflik ve sürekli bir hareketlilik hali.'* **Ö9:** *'*Anı yaşayamama, sürekli bir hareketlilik istemesi, akış istemesi (telefon ya da tabletteki oyunlardaki gibi), dinlendirici etkinliklere katılmaktan hoşlanmaması.' **Ö17:** *'*Sınıfta çok hareketli olduğunu ve dikkatini toplamakta zorlandığını gözlemledim.'
Algılama Problemi (Ö4, Ö9, Ö15, Ö16,)	4	**Ö4:** *'Söylenileni anlamama ve kural tanımama.'* **Ö9:** *'Anlatılanları algılamada problemler yaşıyor.'* **Ö15:** *'Algılamada gecikme.'* **Ö16:** *'Verilen yönergeleri algılamama.'*
Çabuk Sıkılma ve Doyumsuzluk (Ö2, Ö7, Ö13, Ö24)	4	**Ö2:** *'Çabuk sıkılma ve doyumsuzluk gözlemliyorum.'* **Ö7:** *'Yapılan etkinliklerden keyif almıyorlar.'* **Ö13:** *'*Çabuk sıkılma ve arkadaşları ile oyun kuramama.*'* **Ö24:** *'*Dijital araç gereçlerden uzun süreli uzaklaşmalarda en başta sıkılma gözlemliyorum.'
Dijital Ortamlardaki Karakterleri Model Alma (Ö10, Ö18, Ö19)	3	**Ö10:** *'Bilgisayarda oyunlardaki yaşantıyı gerçek hayatında uygulamaya çalışmakta, şiddet öğesi artmakta.'* **Ö18:** *'İzlediği şiddet içeriğini sınıfa taşıyor.'* **Ö19:** *'İzlediklerini doğru ve gerçek görüp uygulamaya çalışmak.'*
Kural Tanımama (Ö14, Ö18, Ö25)	3	**Ö14:** *'Söylenileni anlamama ve kural tanımama.'* **Ö25:** *'Grup etkinliklerinde ve kurallı oyunlarda uyum sağlayamama ve anlatılanları algılamada problemler yaşıyorum.'*

Bakışlarda Boşluk, İfadesizlik (Ö1, Ö5, Ö7)	3	**Ö1:** *'Boş bakışlar.'* **Ö5:** *'Bakışlarda boşluk ve ifadesizlik.'* **Ö7:** *'Sabit bakmalar.'*
Dil Gelişiminde Gerilik (Ö21, Ö22)	2	**Ö21:** *'Cümle kuramayan bir çocuktu.'* **Ö22:** *'Bazı çocukların dil gelişiminde zayıflık gözlemledim.'*
Yemek Yeme Bozukluğu (Ö11, Ö18)	2	**Ö11:** *'Yemekle ilgili ciddi sıkıntılar yaşıyorduk.'* **Ö18:** *'Ekransız yemek yemiyordu.'*
Hayal Gücünün Körelmesi (Ö9, Ö18)	2	**Ö9:** *'Hayal gücünün körelmesi söz konusuydu.'* **Ö18:** *'Hayal dünyasının çok fazla gelişmediği yaptığı sanat etkinliklerinde ve Türkçe dil etkinliklerinde gözlemlenebiliyordu.'*
Depresif ve Melankolik Davranışlar (Ö6)	1	**Ö6:** *'Öğrencimde depresif haller ve sürekli aşırı melankolik davranışlar gözlemledim.'*
Düşük Akademik Başarı (Ö11, Ö17)	2	**Ö11:** *'Bilgisayar oyunu bağımlısı öğrencilerde akademik başarı azalabiliyor.'*
El-Göz Koordinasyonunda Uyumsuzluk (Ö13)	1	**Ö13:** *'El göz koordinasyonunda uyumsuzluk gözlemledim.'*
Sorumsuzluk (Ö12)	1	**Ö12:** *'Vurdumduymaz, sorumsuz olarak görüyorum.'*
Uykusuzluk (Ö17)	1	**Ö17:** *'Ekran başında uzun süre geçirmeye bağlı olarak uykusuzluk ve aşırı kilo alma oluyor.'*

Tablo 3 incelendiğinde on dokuz kategori olduğu görülmektedir. Bu kategoriler agresif ve saldırgan davranışlar, dikkat eksikliği ve odaklanamama, iletişim bozukluğu, motivasyon eksikliği, sosyal ortamdan uzaklaşma, sürekli hareket halinde olma, algılama problemi, dijital ortamlardaki karakterleri model alma, çabuk sıkılma ve doyumsuzluk, kural tanımama, bakışlarda boşluk, ifadesizlik, dil gelişiminde gerilik, yemek yeme bozukluğu, hayal gücünün körelmesi, depresif ve melankolik davranışlar, düşük akademik başarı, el-göz koordinasyonunda uyumsuzluk, sorumsuzluk, uykusuzluk olarak belirlenmiştir. Öğretmenler dijital bağımlılık geliştiren öğrencilerinde saldırgan davranışlar sergilediklerini belirtmiştir. Bu konuda on sekiz ve yirmi bir numaralı katılımcılar *'Dijital ortamda izlediği şiddet içeriğini sınıfa taşıyor'* (18), *'Agresifleşiyor ve ani öfke patlamaları oluyor'* (21) şeklinde ifade etmişlerdir. Öğretmenlerden bazıları sınıflarındaki dijital bağımlılık geliştiren öğrencilerinde dikkat eksikliği ve odaklanamama gözlemlediğini belirtmiştir. Bu konuda dört ve otuz numaralı katılımcıların *'Öğrencimde yoğun dikkat bozukluğu konsantre olamama arkadaşlarıyla arasında sürekli iletişim bozukluğu ve şiddete meyil görüyordum'* (4), *'Dikkatini toplamakta zorlandığını gözlemledim'* (30) şeklindeki ifadeleri dikkat çekmektedir. Öğrencilerinde iletişim bozukluğu gözlemleyen yirmi ve yirmi üç numaralı öğretmenler, *'İletişim problemi, göz kontağı kuramama'* (20), *'Arkadaşlarıyla arasında sürekli iletişim bozukluğu görüyordum'* (23) şeklinde ifade etmişlerdir. Ayrıca dijital bağımlılığın çocuklarda motivasyon eksikliğine sebep olduğunu belirten öğretmenler olmuştur. On dört ve on sekiz numaralı öğretmenlerin *'Derse ilgileri az oluyor, okulda uyuklama modunda olabiliyorlar'* (14), *'Okula gelmek istemiyor'* (18) şeklindeki ifadeleri dikkat çekmektedir. Öğretmenlerin bazıları bu çocukların sosyal ortamdan

uzaklaştıklarını ifade etmiştir. On ve yirmi sekiz numaralı katılımcıların ifadeleri şu şekildedir: *'Bilgisayardan bir şey açıldığında dışarıyla olan bağını kesme, kitlenme'* (28) *'Bu durum onlara sosyal iletişim güçlüğü, içine kapanıklık, hırçınlık olarak yansıyor'* (10). Dijital bağımlılık geliştiren öğrencilerinde sürekli hareket halinde olma davranışı gözlemleyen öğretmenler olmuştur. Dokuz ve on yedi numaralı katılımcılar *'Anı yaşayamama, sürekli bir hareketlilik istemesi, akış istemesi (telefon ya da tabletteki oyunlardaki gibi), dinlendirici etkinliklere katılmaktan hoşlanmaması'* (9), *'Sınıfta çok hareketli olduğunu ve dikkatini toplamakta zorlandığını gözlemledim'* (17) şeklinde ifade etmişlerdir. Algılama problemi gözlemleyen öğretmenlerde vardır. On altı ve on beş numaralı katılımcıların *'Algılamada gecikme yaşıyor'* (15), *'Verilen yönergeleri algılamıyor,'* (16) ifadeleri dikkat çekmektedir. Dijital bağımlılık geliştiren öğrencilerin dijital ortamlardaki karakterleri model aldıklarını belirten öğretmenler olmuştur. On ve on dokuz numaralı katılımcıların ifadeleri bunu desteklemektedir. *'Bilgisayarda oyunlardaki yaşantıyı gerçek hayatında uygulamaya çalışmakta, şiddet öğesi artmakta'* (10), *'İzlediklerini doğru ve gerçek görüp uygulamaya çalışmak'* (19). Bazı öğretmenler dijital bağımlılık geliştiren öğrencilerinin çabuk sıkıldıklarını ve doyumsuz olduklarını ifade etmişlerdir. İki ve yirmi dört numaralı katılımcıların ifadeleri bunu desteklemektedir. *'Çabuk sıkılma ve doyumsuzluk gözlemliyorum'* (2), *'Dijital araç gereçlerden uzun süreli uzaklaşmalarda en başta sıkılma gözlemliyorum'* (24). Ayrıca öğretmenler bu öğrencilerin kural tanımadıklarını ifade etmişlerdir. *'Grup etkinliklerinde ve kurallı oyunlarda uyum sağlayamama ve anlatılanları algılamada problemler yaşıyorum'* (25). Ayrıca bakışlarında boşluk ifadesizlik gözlemleyen öğretmenler olmuştur. Beş numaralı öğretmenin ifadesi şu şekildedir: *'Bakışlarında boşluk ve ifadesizlik var'* (5). Ayrıca öğretmenler dijital bağımlılık geliştiren öğrencilerinin dil gelişimlerinde gerilik olduğunu, yemek yeme bozuklukları gözlemlediklerini, hayal güçlerinde körelmeler olduğunu, depresif ve melankolik davranışlar gözlemlediklerini, bu öğrencilerin düşük akademik beceriye sahip olduklarını, el göz koordinasyonlarında uyumsuzluklar olduğunu, sorumsuz ve uykusuz olduklarını ifade etmişlerdir. Öğretmenlerin bu görüşlerini destekleyecek ifadeler şu şekildedir: *'Bazı çocukların dil gelişiminde zayıflık gözlemledim'* (22), *'Yemekle ilgili ciddi sıkıntılar yaşıyorduk'* (11), *'Hayal dünyasının çok fazla gelişmediği yaptığı sanat etkinliklerinde ve Türkçe dil etkinliklerinde gözlemlenebiliyordu'* (18), *'Öğrencimde depresif haller ve sürekli aşırı melankolik davranışlar gözlemledim'* (6), *'Bilgisayar oyunu bağımlısı öğrencilerde akademik basari azalabiliyor'* (11), *'El göz koordinasyonunda uyumsuzluk gözlemledim'* (13), *'Vurdumduymaz, sorumsuz olarak görüyorum'* (12), *'Ekran başında uzun süre geçirmeye bağlı olarak uykusuzluk ve aşırı kilo alma oluyor'* (17).

Tablo 4. Öğretmenlerin dijital bağımlılıkla mücadelede mesleki deneyimlerine dayanarak geliştirdikleri çözüm önerilerine ilişkin bulgular

Kategori	f	İfadeler
	11	Ö7: *'Telefon bilgisayar vb. kullanımı gün içinde sadece belli bir süre olmalı ve bu süreye uyulduğu zaman pekiştirilebilir.'* Ö11: *'Ben dijital kullanımına karşı bir öğretmen değilim*

Sınır Koyulmalı (Ö1, Ö3, Ö6, Ö7, Ö11, Ö13, Ö19, Ö21, Ö23, Ö25, Ö29,)		*süresi olmak şartıyla. Velilerimle alarm sistemini başlattık. Her gün 30 dakika alarm çalana kadar oyun oynayabilir video izleyebilir diye. Bu da çocukların hem istediklerini karşılamasını hem de ailenin kontrolünde olmasını sağladı.'* **Ö19:** *'Kesinlikle sınır konulmalı, gözetim şart.'* **Ö1:** *'Tamamen hayattan çıkarmak yerine süreye bağlı kalarak kontrollü kullanımı öneriyorum.'* **Ö29:** *'Velilere bu konuda sınırla koymaları ile ilgili tavsiyede bulunuyorum. Ama çoğu dinlemiyor. Sadece o şekilde çocukların sustuklarını kendilerinin de rahat ettiklerini söylüyorlar.'*
Çocuklar İlgilerine Uygun Farklı Etkinliklere Yönlendirilmeli (Ö3, Ö5, Ö8, Ö12, Ö13, Ö16, Ö17, Ö18, Ö19, Ö20)	10	**Ö5:** *'Çocuklar yapmaktan keyif aldığı yeni aktivitelere yönlendirilebilirler.'* **Ö17:** *'Öğrencileri farklı alanlara yönlendirmek. Özellikle spor ve sanata yönlendirmek bağımlılıklarını azaltacaktır.'* **Ö19:** *'İlgi yetenekleri doğrultusunda etkinlikler düzenlemek.'* **Ö8:** *'Çocuklarımıza bilgisayar ve telefon dışında keyif alabilecekleri oyunlar olduğu gösterilmeli.'*
Aileyle Birlikte Nitelikli Zaman Geçirilmeli (Ö5, Ö8, Ö18, Ö27, Ö30, Ö24, Ö21, Ö27, Ö2)	9	**Ö5:** *'Çocukla beraber ailecek katılımın olacağı aktiviteler yapılabilir.'* **Ö8:** *'Çocuğu sosyal faaliyetlere yönlendirmek ve aileyle kaliteli zaman geçirmek.'* **Ö27:** *'Ailecek keyif alacağı etkinlikler yapmalarını öneriyorum.'* **Ö24:** *'Aileyle sık iletişim halinde olup telefon tabletten uzak tutmalarını birlikte daha çok vakit geçirip etkinlik yapmalarını öneriyorum. Çünkü çocuklar okulda değil evde dijital bağımlılık gösteriyorlar, iş ailede bitiyor aslında.'* **Ö2:** *'Ailelerin çocukları ile daha çok ve verimli, kaliteli zaman geçirmelerini öneriyorum. Her hafta sonu mutlaka değişik bir etkinlik yapmalarını istiyorum (ailecek). Örneğin; büyükleri ziyaret, çocuk esirgeme kurumunu ya da huzur evini ziyaret, park eğlenceleri, kitapçıya gitmek, doğa yürüyüşü, tiyatro, sinema vb....'*
Akranlarıyla Oyun Oynamaları için Provoke Edilmeli (Ö1, Ö9, Ö13, Ö15, Ö20, Ö24)	6	**Ö15:** *'Akranlarla oyun oynatmak.'* **Ö24:** *'Arkadaşları ile oynaması için yönlendiriyorum, teşvik ediyorum.'* **Ö20:** *'Akranları ile daha fazla iletişim ortamı oluşturup, dil ve drama etkinliklerine yoğunluk veriyorum.'* **Ö13:** *'Çocukları daha fazla açık havada ve akranlarıyla vakit geçirmeye yönlendiriyorum.'* **Ö9:** *'Çocuklarımıza bilgisayar ve telefon dışında keyif alabilecekleri oyunlar olduğu gösterilmeli, çocuklarımız*

		gurup aktivitelerine dahil edilmelidir.'
Ebeveynlerle İş birliği Yapılmalı (Ö9, Ö10, Ö14, Ö18, Ö22, Ö30)	6	**Ö30:** *'Velilerle iş birliği yapıp durum anlatılmalı. Dijitalde geçirilen zaman yerine daha kaliteli zaman geçirmeleri sağlanmalı.'* **Ö18:** *'Aileyle sık sık iletişim halinde olup telefon tabletten uzak tutmalarını birlikte daha çok vakit geçirip etkinlik yapmalarını öneriyorum.'* **Ö9:** *'Velilere bu konuda sınırlar koymaları ile ilgili tavsiyede bulunuyorum. Ama çoğu dinlemiyor. Sadece o şekilde çocukların sustuklarını kendilerinin de rahat ettiklerini söylüyorlar.'* **Ö14:** *'Her şeyin temelinde aile bilinci olduğunu görüyorum. Bu olmadan istediğiniz kadar spora akıl oyunlarına başka şeylere yönlendirin; tozu halının altına atmaktan başka bir şey olmayacaktır. Bu çocukların bireysel destek almaları ve ailelerinin de aile danışmanı ile destek alması gerekir.'* **Ö10:** *'Aile ile iş birliği yaparak ekran başında geçirilen sürenin kademeli olarak azaltılmasına yönelik bir yol izledim. Ailenin çocukla geçirdiği nitelikli süreyi arttırmasına katkıda bulundum.'*
Yasaklama (Ö2, Ö4, Ö14, Ö19, Ö26)	5	**Ö26:** *'Kesinlikle sınır konulmalı, gözetim şart, olumlu davranış, öğrenmeye yönelik faaliyetlerde bulunmalarına dikkat edilmeli, gerekirse yasaklanmalı.'*
Sistematik Duyarsızlaştırma (Ö1, Ö23, Ö18, Ö27)	4	**Ö1:** *'Aileyle görüşüp izleme zamanını kademeli kısaltmasını söyledim.'* **Ö27:** *'Kademeli olarak dijital ortamda geçirilen sürenin kısaltılması gerekir.'* **Ö18:** *'Ailesi ile iş birliği halinde kısıtlamalar koyarak dijital ürünlere harcadığı vakti en azami süreye indirmek ve yavaş yavaş unutturmak.'* **Ö23:** *'Aile ile iş birliği yaparak ekran başında geçirilen sürenin kademeli olarak azaltılmasına yönelik bir yol izledim.'*
Çocuklarla Etkili İletişim Kurulmalı (Ö4, Ö14, Ö24, Ö29)	4	**Ö24:** *'İlk işim göz teması kurmaya çalışıyorum, ona dokunarak söylediklerimi tekrarlıyorum.'* **Ö4:** *'Çocukları birey gibi kabul edip onları bilgilendirmek.'* **Ö14:** *'Bence çocukları önce yargılamadan dinlemek sonra da onları bu kaçışa sevk edecek şeyleri ortadan kaldırmak ve devletçe milletçe daha sevgi dolu aileler daha bilinçli aile yapılanmaları oluşturmak gerekiyor.'*
Aile Eğitimleri Verilmeli (Ö12, Ö13, Ö15)	3	**Ö12:** *'En önemli şey aile eğitimi aileler belli bir aralıkta kampa alınarak uygulamalı olarak çocuklarıyla vakit geçirme becerilerini geliştirdikten sonra çocuğa ulaşılabilir.'* **Ö13:** *'Bence çocukları önce yargılamadan dinlemek sonra*

		da onları bu kaçışa sevk edecek şeyleri ortadan kaldırmak ve devletçe milletçe daha sevgi dolu aileler daha bilinçli aile yapılanmaları oluşturmak gerekiyor.' **Ö15:** *'Ailelere temel bilgisayar eğitimleri verilmeli, bilgisayarı tanımayan kullanmayı bilmeyen ebeveyn sanal ortamdaki kontrol ve güvenliği sağlayamayacaktır.'*
Çocuklar Doğayla Bütünleştirilmeli (Ö3, Ö8, Ö17)	3	**Ö3:** *'Çocukları doğa ile iç içe farklı ilgi alanlarına yönlendirmek.'* **Ö17:** *'Çocukları doğal ortamlara yönlendirmek. Çocukların rahatça oyun oynayabilecekleri, kendileri olabilecekleri ortamlar yaratmak.'* **Ö8:** *'Dijital bağımlılığı yenmenin yolu gör dokun hisset yoluyla öğrenmek ve öğretmektir. Teknolojiyi gerektiği kadar kullanıp yaparak yasayarak öğrenmektir.'*
Ebeveynler için Oyun Kitapçıkları Hazırlanmalı (Ö12, Ö22, Ö9)	3	**Ö12:** *'Ebeveynlerin çocuklara iyi örnek olmaları için, evdeki zamanlarını daha etkili kullanmaları konusunda etkinlik önerileri sunmalıyız.'* **Ö22:** *'Sürekli aile ile irtibat halinde olarak bu bağımlılığı en aza indirgemek için aile ve çocuk arasındaki bağları kuvvetlendirmek adına evde yapabilecekleri etkinlikler planlıyorum.'* **Ö9:** *'Aileye çocuğuyla birlikte yapabileceği etkinlik tabloları hazırlıyorum.'*
Uzmanlarla İş birliği Yapılmalı (Ö14, Ö16, Ö24, Ö30)	4	**Ö14:** *'Velilerle ve rehber öğretmeniyle görüşüyorum ortak bir önlem alınabilir mi diye.'* **Ö16:** *'Rehberlik servisiyle görüşüp farklı çözüm yolları denenebilir.'* **Ö24:** *'Bu çocukların bireysel destek ile ve ailelerinin aile danışmanı ile destek alıp bunlarla beraber kademeli olarak uzaklaştırılıp yerine güzel alışkanlıklar koyulabilir.'* **Ö30:** *'Okul bünyesinde bir rehber öğretmenden yardım alarak ailelere seminer verilmesini sağlıyorum.'*
Kitap Okumaya Teşvik (Ö2, Ö18, Ö3)	4	**Ö3:** *'İlgilere göre etkinliklere yönlendirme, bol bol kitap okuma kitap dinleme.'* **Ö2:** *'Kitap okumaya teşvik etmek.'* **Ö18:** *'Aileyle görüşüp kitap okumalarını söyledim.'*
Yetişkin Denetimi (Ö2, Ö9, Ö6)	4	**Ö2:** *'Sınıflarda akıllı tahtaları öğretmen gözetiminde kullandırmak.'* **Ö6:** *'Sürekli uyarı vermek gerekir.'* **Ö9:** *'Oynadıkları oyunların içeriklerinin anne baba tarafından kontrol edilmesi.'*
Her Sokak İçin Güvenli Oyun Alanları Hazırlanmalı (Ö12, Ö17, Ö20)	3	**Ö12:** *'Öğrencilerimizin okul dışında da güvenilir ortamlarda, çocuk oyunları oynamalarını sağlamalıyız.'* **Ö17:** *'Çocukları doğal ortamlara yönlendirmek. Çocukların rahatça oyun oynayabilecekleri, kendileri*

		olabilecekleri ortamlar yaratmak.' **Ö20:** *'Her sokakta geleneksel oyunların güvenle oynanabileceği oyun alanları oluşturulmalı.'*
Model Olma (Ö12, Ö11, Ö4)	3	**Ö12:** *'Açıkçası bunun daha çok evle aileyle ilgili bir durum olduğunu düşünüyorum. Çünkü okula tablet vs. getiremiyorlar. Evde ise süre sınırlaması, kararlılık ve bizim ebeveynler olarak bağımlılıktan vazgeçmemiz gerekiyor. Çocukları şekillendiren bizleriz sonuçta.'* **Ö4:** *'Yetişkinler çocuk yetiştirirken kendilerinin örnek alındığını bilmelidir. Ailesiyle birlikteyken telefon ve bilgisayardan uzak durmalıdır.'*
Tutarlı Olma (Ö23, Ö12)	2	**Ö23:** *'Zaman geçirme süresini kısa tutma bu konuda tutarlı davranma.'* **Ö12:** *'Kararlılıktan vazgeçmemiz gerekiyor.'*
Sorumluluk Verilmeli (Ö1, Ö13)	2	**Ö1:** *'Öğrencilerin diğer olumlu davranışlarını ön plana çıkaracak sorumluluklar vererek kendini keşfetmesini sağlamak.'* **Ö13:** *'Sorumluluk verme.'*
Çocuklar Teknolojik Araçlarla Olabildiğince Geç Tanışmalı (Ö29, Ö18)	2	**Ö29:** *'Çocukların geç tanımasını sağlamak.'* **Ö18:** *'Erken yaşta tablet, telefon çocuklara verilmemeli.'*
Ebeveyn Oyun Atölyeleri Açılmalı (Ö20)	1	**Ö20:** *'Ebeveynlerin çocuklarıyla katılabilecekleri oyun atölyeleri olmalı yaşayarak deneyerek uygulamalı olarak yeni oyunlar öğrenmeliler...'*
Her Mahalleye Bir Kreş (Ö10)	1	**Ö10:** *'Her mahalleye bir kreş olmalı, anneler çocuklarını evde ekran karşısına bırakmak yerine bu kreşlere bırakabilmeli.'*
Kamu Spotları Hazırlanmalı (Ö5)	1	**Ö5:** *'Ekran bağımlılığının zararları tıpkı sigara bağımlılığı gibi kamu spotlarıyla anlatılmalı.'*
Öğretmen Yeterlilikleri Artırılmalıdır (Ö20)	1	**Ö20:** *'Dijital içerik hazırlama konusunda öğretmenlerin yeterlilikleri artırılmalıdır. Çünkü kimlerin hazırladığı bilinmeyen dijital içerikler çocuklara zarar verebilmekte, çocukların gelişimine uygun olmayan ögelere yer verilmektedir. Öğretmenler kendi içeriklerini kendileri geliştirirlerse bu durumun önüne geçilebilir.'*

Tablo 4 incelendiğinde yirmi üç kategori olduğu görülmektedir. Bu kategoriler aileyle birlikte nitelikli zaman geçirilmeli, çocuklar ilgilerine uygun farklı etkinliklere yönlendirilmeli, sınır koyulmalı, akranlarıyla oynamaları için provoke edilmeli, ebeveynlerle işbirliği yapılmalı, sistematik duyarsızlaştırma, aile eğitimleri verilmeli, çocuklarla etkili iletişim kurulmalı, çocuklar doğayla bütünleştirilmeli, yasaklama, ebeveynler için oyun kitapçıkları hazırlanmalı, uzmanlarla işbirliği yapılmalı, kitap okumaya teşvik, yetişkin denetimi, her sokak için güvenli oyun alanları hazırlanmalı, model olma, tutarlı olma, sorumluluk verilmeli, çocuklar teknolojik araçlarla olabildiğince geç tanışmalı, ebeveyn oyun atölyeleri açılmalı, her mahalleye bir kreş, kamu spotları hazırlanmalı, öğretmen yeterlilikleri artırılmalı olarak belirlenmiştir. Öğretmenlerin dijital bağımlılıkla mücadelede mesleki

deneyimlerine dayanarak geliştirdikleri çözüm önerileri arasında aileyle nitelikli zaman geçirilmeli önerisi yer almaktadır. Yirmi dört ve iki numaralı öğretmen *'Aileyle sık iletişim halinde olup telefon tabletten uzak tutmalarını birlikte daha çok vakit geçirip etkinlik yapmalarını öneriyorum. Çünkü çocuklar okulda değil evde dijital bağımlılık gösteriyorlar, iş ailede bitiyor aslında'* (Ö24), *'Ailelerin çocukları ile daha çok ve verimli, kaliteli zaman geçirmelerini öneriyorum. Her hafta sonu mutlaka değişik bir etkinlik yapmalarını istiyorum (ailecek). Örneğin; büyükleri ziyaret, çocuk esirgeme kurumunu ya da huzur evini ziyaret, park eğlenceleri, kitapçıya gitmek, doğa yürüyüşü, tiyatro, sinema vb....'* (Ö2) şeklinde ifade etmişlerdir. Dijital bağımlılıktan çocukları kurtarmak için öğretmenler çocukların ilgilerine uygun farklı etkinliklere yönlendirilmesi gerektiğini savunmuştur. Bununla ilgili on yedi ve sekiz numaralı öğretmenler; *'Öğrencileri farklı alanlara yönlendirmek. Özellikle spor ve sanata yönlendirmek bağımlılıklarını azaltacaktır'* (Ö17), *'Çocuklarımıza bilgisayar ve telefon dışında keyif alabilecekleri oyunlar olduğu gösterilmeli'* (Ö8) şeklinde ifade etmişlerdir. Dijital bağımlılığın önüne geçmek için çocuklara sınırlar koyulması gerektiğini savunan öğretmenler vardır. On bir ve bir numaralı öğretmenler, *'Ben dijital kullanımına karşı bir öğretmen değilim süresi olmak şartıyla. Velilerimle alarm sistemini başlattık. Her gün 30 dakika alarm çalana kadar oyun oynayabilir video izleyebilir diye. Bu da çocukların hem istediklerini karşılamasını hem de ailenin kontrolünde olmasını sağladı'* (Ö11), *'Tamamen hayattan çıkarmak yerine süreye bağlı kalarak kontrollü kullanımı öneriyorum'* (Ö1) *şeklinde ifade etmişlerdir.* Akranlarıyla oyun oynamaları için provoke edilmelidir önerisini getiren öğretmenler, *'Çocukları daha fazla açık havada ve akranlarıyla vakit geçirmeye yönlendiriyorum.'* (Ö13) *'Çocuklarımıza bilgisayar ve telefon dışında keyif alabilecekleri oyunlar olduğu gösterilmeli, çocuklarımız gurup aktivitelerine dahil edilmelidir'* (Ö9) şeklinde ifade etmişlerdir. Dijital bağımlılıkla mücadele öğretmenler en yakın destekçisi olarak ebeveynleri görmekte ve ebeveynlerle iş birliği yapılması gerektiğini ifade etmektedirler. Bununla ilgili otuz ve on dört numaralı öğretmenlerin *'Velilerle iş birliği yapıp durum anlatılmalı. Dijitalde geçirilen zaman yerine daha kaliteli zaman geçirmeleri sağlanmalı'* (Ö30), *'Her şeyin temelinde aile bilinci olduğunu görüyorum. Bu olmadan istediğiniz kadar spora akıl oyunlarına başka şeylere yönlendirin; tozu halının altına atmaktan başka bir şey olmayacaktır. Bu çocukların bireysel destek almaları ve ailelerinin de aile danışmanı ile destek alması gerekir'* (Ö14) şeklindeki ifadeleri dikkat çekmektedir. Dijital bağımlılıkla ve bağımlılıktan dolayı ortaya çıkan problem davranışların düzeltilmesinde sistematik duyarsızlaştırma kullanılması gerektiğini ifade eden öğretmenler vardır. On sekiz ve yirmi üç numaralı öğretmenleri bu konudaki ifadeleri şu şekildedir: *'Ailesi ile iş birliği halinde kısıtlamalar koyarak dijital ürünlere harcadığı vakti en azami süreye indirmek ve yavaş yavaş unutturmak'* (Ö18) *'Aile ile iş birliği yaparak ekran başında geçirilen sürenin kademeli olarak azaltılmasına yönelik bir yol izledim' (Ö23).* Ailenin vazgeçilmez rolüne inanan öğretmenler dijital bağımlılık konusunda ailelere eğitim verilmesi gerektiğini ifade ermiştir. On iki ve on beş numaralı öğretmenler, *En önemli şey aile eğitimi aileler belli bir aralıkta kampa alınarak uygulamalı olarak çocuklarıyla vakit geçirme becerilerini geliştirdikten sonra çocuğa ulaşılabilir'* (Ö12), *'Ailelere temel bilgisayar eğitimleri verilmeli, bilgisayarı tanımayan kullanmayı bilmeyen ebeveyn sanal ortamdaki kontrol ve güvenliği sağlayamayacaktır'* şeklinde ifade etmişlerdir.

Dijital bağımlılıktan çocukları uzaklaştırmak için onlarla etkili iletişimle kurulması gerektiğini savunan öğretmenler vardır. Dört ve on dört numaralı katılımcılar, '*Çocukları birey gibi kabul edip onları bilgilendirmek*' (Ö4), '*Bence çocukları önce yargılamadan dinlemek sonra da onları bu kaçışa sevk edecek şeyleri ortadan kaldırmak ve devletçe milletçe daha sevgi dolu aileler daha bilinçli aile yapılanmaları oluşturmak gerekiyor*'(14) şeklinde ifade etmişlerdir. Öğretmenlerden bazıları dijital bağımlılıkla mücadelede doğaya vurgu yapmış, çocukların doğayla bütünleştirilmesini önermiştir. On yedi ve sekiz numaralı öğretmenler bu konuda '*Çocukları doğal ortamlara yönlendirmek. Çocukların rahatça oyun oynayabilecekleri, kendileri olabilecekleri ortamlar yaratmak*' (Ö17), '*Dijital bağımlılığı yenmenin yolu gör dokun hisset yoluyla öğrenmek ve öğretmektir.   Teknolojiyi gerektiği kadar kullanıp yaparak yasayarak öğrenmektir*' (Ö8) şeklinde ifade etmiştir. Bağımlılığın önüne engel koyarak yasaklayarak geçilebileceğini söyleyen öğretmenler de olmuştur. Bunula ilgili yirmi altı numaralı öğretmen '*Kesinlikle sınır konulmalı, gözetim şart, olumlu davranış, öğrenmeye yönelik faaliyetlerde bulunmalarına dikkat edilmeli, gerekirse yasaklanmalı*' şeklinde ifade etmiştir. Ailenin desteğinin önemine inanan ve aileler için yapılabilecekleri ortaya koyan öğretmenler ebeveynler için oyun kitapçıklarının hazırlanmasını önermiştir. On iki ve dokuz numaralı öğretmenler şu şekilde ifade etmiştir: '*Ebeveynlerin çocuklara iyi örnek olmaları için, evdeki zamanlarını daha etkili kullanmaları konusunda etkinlik önerileri sunmalıyız*' (Ö12), '*Ailelere etkinlik/oyun önerilerini tavsiye edecek rehber kitapçıklar hazırlanmalı*' (Ö9). Uzmanlarla iş birliği yapılmasını vurgulayan öğretmenler de olmuştur. On altı ve yirmi dört numaralı öğretmenin '*Rehberlik servisiyle görüşüp farklı çözüm yolları denenebilir*' (Ö16) '*Bu çocukların bireysel destek ile ve ailelerinin aile danışmanı ile destek alıp bunlarla beraber kademeli olarak uzaklaştırılıp yerine güzel alışkanlıklar koyulabilir*' (Ö24) şeklindeki görüşleri dikkat çekmektedir. Kitap okumaya teşvik edilmesi gerektiğini öneren öğretmenlerimizden üç numaralı öğretmen '*İlgilere göre etkinliklere yönlendirmeyi, bol bol kitap okumayı ve kitap dinlemeyi öneriyorum.*' Dijital bağımlılıkla mücadelede yetişkin denetimine vurgu yapan öğretmenler olmuştur. Dokuz numaralı öğretmen '*Oynadıkları oyunların içeriklerinin anne baba tarafından kontrol edilmesi*' şeklinde ifade etmiştir. Her sokak için güvenli oyun alanlarının hazırlanmasının dijital bağımlılığı azaltacağı görüşündeki öğretmenler vardır. On yedi ve yirmi numaralı öğretmenler '*Çocukları doğal ortamlara yönlendirmek. Çocukların rahatça oyun oynayabilecekleri, kendileri olabilecekleri ortamlar yaratmak*'(Ö17), '*Her sokakta geleneksel oyunların güvenle oynanabileceği oyun alanları oluşturulmalı*' (Ö20) şeklinde ifade etmişlerdir.

Çocukların duyduklarından ziyade gördüklerini uyguladığı düşüncesiyle model alma önerisinde bulunan öğretmenler vardır. On iki ve dört numaralı öğretmenlerin görüşleri şu şekildedir: '*Açıkçası bunun daha çok evle aileyle ilgili bir durum olduğunu düşünüyorum. Çünkü okula tablet vs. getiremiyorlar. Evde ise süre sınırlaması, kararlılık ve bizim ebeveynler olarak bağımlılıktan vazgeçmemiz gerekiyor. Çocukları şekillendiren bizleriz sonuçta*' (Ö12), '*Yetişkinler çocuk yetiştirirken kendilerinin örnek alındığını bilmelidir. Ailesiyle birlikteyken telefon ve bilgisayardan uzak durmalıdır*' (4). Ayrıca dijital bağımlılıkla mücadelede öğretmenlerin kendi deneyimlerinden yola çıkarak geliştirdikleri çözüm yolları arasında çocuğa karşı tutarlı olmalı, çocuğa sorumluluk verilmeli, çocuklar teknolojik araçlarla olabildiğince geç tanışmalı, ebeveyn oyun atölyeleri açılmalı, her mahalleye bir kreş yapılmalı,

kamu spotları hazırlamalı, öğretmen yeterlilikleri artırılmalıdır şeklinde önerilerde bulunulmuştur. Öğretmenlerin bu görüşlerini destekleyecek ifadeler şu şekildedir: *'Zaman geçirme süresini kısa tutma bu konuda tutarlı davranma.'* (Ö23), *'Öğrencilerin diğer olumlu davranışlarını ön plana çıkaracak sorumluluklar vererek kendini keşfetmesini sağlamak'* (Ö1), *'Erken yaşta tablet, telefon çocuklara verilmemeli'* (Ö18), *'Ebeveynlerin çocuklarıyla katılabilecekleri oyun atölyeleri olmalı yaşayarak deneyerek uygulamalı olarak yeni oyunlar öğrenmeliler...'* (Ö20). *'Her mahalleye bir kreş olmalı, anneler çocuklarını evde ekran karşısına bırakmak yerine bu kreşlere bırakabilmeli* (Ö10). *'Ekran bağımlılığının zararları tıpkı sigara bağımlılığı gibi kamu spotlarıyla anlatılmalı'* (Ö5), *'Dijital içerik hazırlama konusunda öğretmenlerin yeterlilikleri artırılmalıdır. Çünkü kimlerin hazırladığı bilinmeyen dijital içerikler çocuklara zarar verebilmekte, çocukların gelişimine uygun olmayan ögelere yer verilmektedir. Öğretmenler kendi içeriklerini kendileri geliştirirlerse bu durumun önüne geçilebilir'* (Ö20).

Sonuç, Tartışma ve Öneriler

Öğretmenlerin dijital bağımlılık hakkındaki bilgilerinin tespit edilmesi ve dijital bağımlılık geliştiren öğrencilerine ilişkin önerdikleri çözüm yollarının ortaya çıkarmasını amaçlayan bu araştırmada okul öncesi eğitimi ve sınıf eğitimi branşlarından, toplamda 30 öğretmenin katılımıyla veri toplama süreci gerçekleştirilmiştir. Dijital bağımlılık, dijital platformların aşırı ve kontrolsüz kullanımı çok küçük yaşlardan itibaren hem günümüz çocuklarını, hem de ailelerini tehdit etmektedir. Günümüzde gerek medyada çıkan haberlerde gerekse bilimsel araştırmalarda sıklıkla üzerinde çalışılan bir konu olan "dijital bağımlılık" ile ilgili Amerikan Psikiyatri Birliği, konuyla ilgili artan talepler sebebiyle Ruhsal Rahatsızlıkların Teşhis ve Değerlendirme El Kitabı'nın Mayıs 2013'de yayımlanan 5. baskısının (DSM-V) ekinde "İnternet Kullanım Bozukluğu"na yer verilmiştir (APA, 2013; Kuss, Griffiths ve Binder, 2013). Araştırmada, yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme sorularından ilki olan, 'Sizce dijital bağımlılık nedir?' sorusuna yanıt veren katılımcı öğretmenler, "teknolojik cihazlardan ayrı kalamama ve gereğinden fazla kullanma, sürekli çevrim içi olma, toplumdan soyutlanma, problem davranışların nedeni" gibi ifadeeler kullanmışlardır. Katılımcı öğretmenlerin dijital bağımlılık konusundaki tanımlarına bakıldığında, dijital bağımlılığı tanımlayan pek çok çalışma ile örtüştüğü görülmektedir (Abreu, 2011; Beard, 2005; Greenfield, 1999; Griffiths, 1999; Horzum, 2011; Savcı ve Aysan, 2017; Young, Morgan ve Cotten, 2003; Young, 1998). Griffiths'e göre (1999) bağımlı davranış ölçütleri; dikkat çekme (durumun kişinin yaşamında en önemli şey haline gelmesi), duygudurum değişikliği (belirli bir etkinlik ile uğraşma sonucu kişinin belirttiği öznel deneyimlerdir), tolerans (İstenen etkiyi yaşamak için, özel eylemin miktarının arttırılması), yoksunluk eylem devam etmediğinde ya da aniden kesildiğinde ortaya çıkan, hoş olmayan duygusal ya da fiziksel etkiler), çatışma (Bağımlı kişiler ile çevresindekiler arasındaki kişilerarası çatışmalar ya da içsel çatışmalar), ve nüks (bir eylemin tekrar oluşması eğilimi)' tür. Graffiths'in sunmuş olduğu ölçütler çerçevesinde, veri toplama sürecinde öğretmenlere yöneltilen birinci araştırma sorusuna verilen cevaplara bakıldığında öğretmenlerin dijital bağımlılık konusunda bütünsel bir analiz yaptıklarını ve tanı kriterleri konusunda gerçekçi olduklarını doğrulamaktadır.

Araştırmanın katılımcısı öğretmenlere yöneltilen 'Dijital bağımlılık geliştiren öğrencinizle ilgili gözlemleriniz nelerdir? Ne gibi güçlükler ve problem davranışlarla karşılaştınız?' sorusuna verilen cevaplardan ; "agresif ve saldırgan davranışlar, dikkat eksikliği ve odaklanamama, iletişim bozukluğu, motivasyon eksikliği, sosyal ortamdan uzaklaşma, sürekli hareket halinde olma, algılama problemi" gibi davranışların öğretmenlerin öğrencilerinde sıklıkla gözlemlediği görüşmelerde ortaya çıkmıştır. Dijital bağımlılık, Dijital oyun bağımlılığı, internet bağımlılığı gibi bağımlılık türlerini geliştiren çocukların sorunlarını konu alan çalışmalara bakıldığında araştırma ile benzer bulgulara ulaşıldığı görülmektedir. Mustafaoğlu ve Yasacı (2018), dijital oyunların çocukların ruhsal ve fiziksel sağlıklarına olan etkilerini inceledikleri araştırmalarında, Dijital oyun oynamanın çocuklarda, dijital oyun oynama bağımlılığı, anksiyete ve agresif tutum sergileme ve depresyon, asosyalleşme ve aile içi iletişimde azalma gibi ruhsal bozukluklar başta olamk üzere; omurga, omuz el-el bileği gibi vücut bölümlerinde kas-iskelet sistemi problemleri, gözlerde kuruluk, ağrı ve kızarık ve uyku kalitesinde bozulma gibi fiziksel sağlık sorunlarına da neden olduğu sonucuna varmışlardır. Yine alan yazında taranan çeşitli araştırmalarda, kontrolsüz kullanımın; depresyon (Mentzoni ve ark. 2011), saldırganlık (Anderson ve ark. 2008, Bartholow ve ark. 2005, Bilgi 2005, Bluemke ve ark. 2010, Demirtaş Mardan ve Ferligül Çakılcı 2014, Gentile ve ark. 2004, Möller ve Krahé 2009, Olson ve ark. 2009, Polman ve ark. 2008, Wang ve ark. 2009), anksiyete (Gentile ve ark. 2004, Mentzoni ve ark. 2011), şiddet eğilimi (Fischer ve ark. 2010, Williams ve ark. 2011), olumlu sosyal davranışlarda azalma (Greitemeyer ve Müge 2014), dikkat sorunları (Chan ve Rabinowitz 2006, Gentile 2009), günlük işlerin, görevlerin aksatılması (Byun vd., 2009) gibi pek çok soruna yol açtığı üzerinde önemle durulmaktadır.

Sıralanan tüm bu sonuçlar dahilinde, dijital bağımlılık özelliği sergileyen öğrencileri konusunda okul öncesi eğitimi öğretmenleri ve sınıf öğretmenlerinin iyi bir gözlem yaptıkları, öğrencilerinin bu durumlarının farkında oldukları ve karşılaştıkları güçlükleri tanımlayarak öğrencisini dijital bağımlılığa götüren yoldaki faktörler arasında neden sonuç ilişkisi kurmaları ve çeşitli çıkarımlarda bulunmaları bu konuda biliş düzeylerinin belli bir sınırın üstünde olduğunu da ortaya koymaktadır. Öğretmenlerin gözlemleri sonucunda yaptıkları çıkarımlar, bu önemli sorunun sınıfa yansıyan yönünü ortaya koyduklarını göstermektedir. Dolayısıyla bir yönüyle de araştırma ve araştırmanın verileri, öğretmenlerin çoğu zaman çok da farkında olmadıkları, dijital bağımlılığa dair öğrencilerinde karşılaştıkları sorun durumlara karşı farkındalık geliştirmeleri ve çözümler üretmesi açısından önemlidir.

Araştırmada üçüncü araştırma sorusu olan, öğretmenlerin dijital bağımlılık konusunda sundukları çözüm önerilerine bakıldığında ise yirmi üç kategori olduğu görülmektedir. Bu kategoriler sırasıyla; aileyle birlikte nitelikli zaman geçirilmeli, çocuklar ilgilerine uygun farklı etkinliklere yönlendirilmeli, sınır koyulmalı, akranlarıyla oynamaları için provoke edilmeli, ebeveynlerle işbirliği yapılmalı, sistematik duyarsızlaştırma, aile eğitimleri verilmeli, çocuklarla etkili iletişim kurulmalı, çocuklar doğayla bütünleştirilmeli, yasaklama, ebeveynler için oyun kitapçıkları hazırlanmalı, uzmanlarla işbirliği yapılmalı, kitap okumaya teşvik, yetişkin denetimi, her sokak için güvenli oyun alanları hazırlanmalı, model olma, tutarlı olma, sorumluluk verilmeli, çocuklar teknolojik araçlarla olabildiğince geç tanışmalı, ebeveyn oyun atölyeleri açılmalı, her mahalleye bir kreş, kamu spotları hazırlanmalı, öğretmen yeterlilikleri artırılmalı, şeklindedir. Savcı ve Aysan (2017) çalışmalarında, teknolojik bağımlılıkların

çocukların akran, arkadaş ve aile ilişkilerini zedelediğini ve sosyal bağlılık düzeyini düşürdüğünü söylemektedirler. Yine Ögel'e (2008) göre sanal ortamlar gerçek sosyalleşmenin bozulmasına sebep olmaktadır. Sanal ortamda uzun zamanlar geçiren çocuklar gerçek yaşamdan kopmakta, yaşından beklenen şekilde gerçek oyun ortamlarına dahil olamamaktadır. Aslında tehdit sadece çocukluk çağını kapsamamaktadır. Burada ki bağımlılık tehdidi yaşamsaldır ve çocuğun tüm yaşamını etkileyecek, biçimlendirecek roldedir. Araştırmada da, öğretmenler güvenli ve özgür oyun alanlarının oluşturulması, çocuğun aile ile birlikte oyunlar oynayabilmesi konusunda ifadelerde bulunmuşlardır. Ancak ailelerde de hem kaliteli zaman geçirme konusunda hem de sanal oyunlar konusunda, ciddi düzeyde bilinçsizlikler mevcuttur. Coşkun ve Filiz'in (2019), yapmış oldukları araştırmada katılımcı öğretmenlerin teknolojinin aileler tarafından çocukları oyalama aracı olarak kullanıldığını, çocuğa ödül ve ceza uygulamalarında başvurulduğu vurgulanmıştır. Ayrıca ailelerin uzun saatler çocukların teknoloji kullanımına karşı kayıtsız kaldıkları hatta bunu sorumluluktan kaçma noktasında fırsat bildikleri ve dijital araçlar, sanal dünya konusunda eğitimsiz ve bilgisiz oldukları araştırmanın katılımcıları olan okul öncesi eğitimi öğretmenleri tarafından ifade edilmiştir. Sürekli olarak ailesiyle zaman geçiren çocuklar, rol model gördüğü aile bireylerini belli dönemlerde taklit etme çabası içine girmektedir. Bu süreç zarfında özellikle teknoloji kullanımı bakımından yanlış rol model olan aile, çocukların teknoloji kullanım becerilerini de yanlış şekillendirecektir. Çalışmalar internet ve dijital oyun bağımlılığı gibi bozuklukların aile içi çatışmaların olduğu ortamlarda daha çok beslendiğini (Ögel, 2014) aksine ebeveyn-çocuk arasındaki iyi/güçlü ilişkilerin ise problemi azalttığını (Chiu, Lee ve Huang, 2004, Jeong ve Kim 2011) göstermiştir. Türkiye'de genç nüfusun fazla olması, dijital teknolojinin yoğun olarak kullanılması, denetim ve koruyucu önlemlerin yetersiz kalması problemin oluşmasını/artmasını destekleyebilir. Sonuç olarak daha sonra yapılacak çalışmalarda bu araştırmada ortaya çıkan kategorilerin derinleştirilerek, farklı yöntemler ve daha farklı very toplama araçları ile daha fazla branştan öğretmene ulaşılması ve karşılaştırılmalar yapılması sonuçlarının öğretmenlere sunulması, çağımızın önemli bir sorunu olan ve her yaştan insanı ilgilendiren dijital bağımlılık hakkında bilinçlenme noktasında faydalı olabileceği düşünülmektedir. Ayrıca araştırma ile çocuklarında gelişen dijital bağımlılık konusunda daha fazla bilgi ihtiyacı hisseden ebeveynlere de yol gösterilmesi mümkündür.

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Extended abstract

Introduction

For the fight against digital addiction, which is considered one of the most important forms of addiction in our age, both parents and educators have important duties. It is necessary to assume a common attitude in the behavioral problems encountered and to play a facilitating role in correcting the problem behaviors. Families and educators need to be aware of the possibilities and potential dangers of digital technologies, especially educators who shape society and have an idea about the impacts of the digital world. In this context, this research aims to determine the teachers' knowledge about digital addiction and to find out the suggested solutions for their students who develop digital addiction.

Methodology

This research is based on qualitative research type and holistic single case design. Qualitative research is defined as an approach that depicts the events and phenomena in the natural environment that focuses on understanding and reflecting the perspectives of the participants with the induction approach (Çokluk, Yılmaz & Oğuz, 2011; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2012). Therefore, in this research, examining the views of teachers who have students who develop digital addiction and revealing the solutions they have reached and producing is considered as a case and the results have been tried to be reached according to the purpose of the research. The participant group of the research consists of 30 teachers from different branches of pre-school and classroom education who work in different cities of Turkey. In the study, a semi-structured interview form consisting of three questions was created as a data collection tool. Interviews were conducted face-to-face, by phone and online. Data were collected in September and October 2018. Descriptive analysis was used as data analysis method. In qualitative research, the data obtained in the data analysis section is described, explained and thematized, and interpreted. The data analyzed through descriptive analysis were arranged and interpreted within the framework of themes compatible with the research questions. In the reporting section, it is usual to define the case within the framework of concepts and themes and to make direct quotations and direct quotations are included in the research (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2016).

Results

Consistent with the aim of the study, as a result of the answers given to the first question directed to teachers, it is seen that eight codes were reached when the findings of teachers' thoughts about digital addiction were examined. These codes are determined as: not to be separated from technological devices, use technological devices more than necessary, desire to be constantly online in virtual environment, isolation from real life, cause of problem behaviors, excessive pleasure in using technological devices, disease and desire to follow new technological devices continuously. Nineteen codes emerged with the analysis of the findings for the second interview question in which teachers' thoughts about the problem behaviors observed in their students developing digital dependence were obtained. These codes are: aggressive and offensive behaviors, lack of attention and inability to focus, lack of

communication, lack of motivation, distance from the social environment, continuous movement, perception problem, modeling of characters in digital environments, quick boredom and dissatisfaction, lack of rules, glances in expression, lack of expression, language developmental disability, eating disorder, blindness of imagination, depressive and melancholic behaviors, low academic success, hand-eye coordination mismatch, irresponsibility, insomnia. In the findings of the third interview question, which was developed by teachers based on their professional experience in combating digital addiction, it was seen that there were twenty-three codes in total. These codes are determined that it is necessary to spend time with the family, children should be directed to different activities appropriate to their interests, limits should be set, they should be provoked to play with their peers, cooperation should be made with parents, systematic desensitization, family education should be provided, effective communication with children, children should be integrated with nature, prohibition, play booklets for parents prepare, collaborate with experts, encourage reading, adult supervision, safe play areas for each street, model, be consistent, responsibility should be given, children should be introduced to technological tools as late as possible, parent play workshops should be opened, a nursery and public spots should be prepared for each neighborhood, teacher competencies should be increased.

Discussion, conclusion and recommendations

In this study, which aims to determine the knowledge of the teachers about digital addiction and to find out the solutions proposed for the students who develop digital addiction, data collection process has been realized with the participation of 30 teachers from pre-school and classroom education branches. Within the results of the study, pre-school teachers and classroom teachers made good observations about the students who exhibited digital addictive characteristics, they were aware of these situations and they identified the difficulties they faced, and they made some inferences between the factors on the way that led the student to digital addiction, and cognition levels are above a certain limit. The inferences made by the teachers as a result of their observations show that they reveal the part of this important problem reflected in the classroom. Therefore, in one aspect, the data of the study are important for teachers to be aware of and find solutions to the problem situations they encounter in their students about digital addiction, which they are often not very aware of.

The Effect of Graded Readers on Reading Comprehension Skill of EFL Students

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The effect of graded readers on reading comprehension skill of EFL students[1]

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Abstract

This study investigated the effects of reading graded readers on the reading comprehension scores of the prep students at university. 30 EFL students from School of Foreign Languages (SOFL) in Selcuk University participated in the study. Two groups, control and experimental group, each consisting of 15 students were formed at the beginning of the study. Both groups attended traditional language classes of SOFL, and the experimental group was additionally involved in an extensive reading program as an extra-curricular activity. The program was performed in the second semester of the academic year. Reading comprehension development of the groups was assessed by means of reading comprehension tests given as part of the third and fourth mid-term exams set by SOFL. Findings indicated that students in the experimental group scored significantly higher than those in the control group at the end of the extensive reading program. Also, the amount of reading had a significant effect on the reading comprehension scores of the students; students who read more books achieved more reading comprehension development in comparison to those who read less. Consequently, results of the study revealed that extensive reading had a positive effect on the reading development of EFL students.

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Yaygın okumanın yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen öğrencilerin okuduğunu anlama becerilerine etkisi

Öz

Bu çalışma, seviyeli hikâye kitabı okumanın üniversitede hazırlık öğrencilerinin okuduğunu anlama puanları üzerindeki etkilerini araştırmıştır. Çalışmaya Selçuk Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu'ndan (YDYO) 30 öğrenci katılmıştır. Çalışmanın başında her biri 15 öğrenciden oluşan kontrol ve deney grubu olmak üzere iki grup oluşturulmuştur. Her iki grup da geleneksel YDYO sınıflarına devam etmiştir; deney grubu ayrıca müfredat dışı bir etkinlik olarak yaygın okuma programına katılmıştır. Program, akademik yılın ikinci döneminde uygulanmıştır. Grupların okuduğunu anlama gelişimi, YDYO tarafından hazırlanan üçüncü ve dördüncü ara sınavların bir parçası olarak verilen okuduğunu anlama testleri ile değerlendirilmiştir. Bulgular, deney grubundaki öğrencilerin, yaygın okuma programının sonunda kontrol grubundakilerden önemli ölçüde daha yüksek puan aldığını göstermiştir. Ayrıca, okuma miktarının öğrencilerin okuma anlama puanları üzerinde anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olduğu görülmüştür; daha çok kitap okuyan öğrenciler daha az okuyanlara kıyasla okuduğunu anlamada daha fazla gelişim kaydetmişlerdir. Sonuç olarak, çalışma, yaygın okumanın yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen öğrencilerin okuma gelişimi üzerinde olumlu bir etkiye sahip olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Introduction

To be proficient in a foreign language requires commanding every aspect of that language, and reading being an important aspect of language has a great significance for the language development. Reading is an essential skill in all languages, and reading in a foreign language therefore becomes twice as important for the learners to be successful in the target language. The ability to read fast and with full understanding in a foreign language is one of the main criteria of competence in that language.

Extensive reading (ER) is a language teaching approach in which learners read a large quantity of easy materials in the target language (Bay & Damford, 2004, p.1). They select their own reading material and read it independently with no aid from their teachers. They read for information and pleasure as well as overall meaning. They are motivated to quit reading once they find the material uninteresting or if it is too complicated for them to understand. In short, it is much like the way people read for pleasure in their native languages. Extensive reading is by no means a new idea. Although many teachers acknowledge the educational benefits of ER (Krashen, 1993), it is not practiced "extensively" or at all in many schools. It is a means of language development. ER is a reading style for some researchers and also an instructional approach to the learning and teaching of reading in a second language (Day and Bamford, 1998).

The role extensive reading plays in improving reading skills and developing learner language is seen highly valuable. In his book, The Power of Reading, Krashen emphasizes the role of extensive reading as follows; "When [second language learners] read for pleasure, they can continue to improve in their second language without classes, without teachers, without studying and even without people to converse with." (Krashen 1993, p. 84). Extensive reading also plays a significant part in the learning of a second language. Nuttall (1996, p.128) states that "The best way to improve your knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among its speakers. The next best way is to read extensively in it".

Extensive reading programs encourage reading a large range of texts of different genres in the target language. The material chosen should not be beyond the student's level of comprehension and that student should be free to pick what to read. Acording to Brown (1988), extensive reading is done to get an overal understanding of a text. Long and Richards (1987) identify it as "occurring when students read large amounts of high interesting material, usually out of class, concentrating on meaning, reading for gist and skipping unknown words." For that reason, reading is the primary focus of extensive reading programs. There may be after-reading activities or supervision from the teacher, yet these should not restrict the desire to read.

Reading materials utilized in an ER program could be graded readers or authentic texts. Graded readers are fiction and non-fiction books specially written for learners of English as a foreign or second language. They are graded into levels of language difficulty (e.g. Stage 1-6, stage 1 being the lowest level) by means of grammatical features, vocabulary, information load and cultural background. Graded readers are basically simplified materials. They can be simplified and adapted from first language originals or could be original texts written for second language learners (Day and Bamford, 2000). These simplified materials can be graded according to the language in use—higher frequency vocabulary, simplified phrasing and

sentence structure, and the use of illustrations (Waring, 2000). The graded system provides a convenient criterion by which teachers can choose materials suitable for their students' proficiency levels. Readers can move to a higher-level stage by stage as their reading fluency develops; they can also move from higher level to lower level whenever they feel like it. One of the primary functions of graded readers is to provide a basis for foreign language learners to acquire the ability of reading authentic materials comfortably. It is known that beginners cannot deal with authentic materials because of their difficulty, so they need to be supported by the materials of increasing levels of difficulty until they are able to read authentic texts.

One of the issues on which there is no consensus among educators concerning extensive reading is how much reading must be done before it can be called extensive. Based on previous research, Susser and Robb (1990) mention seventeen measures that show the variety of criteria cited by researchers related to extensive reading. These measures include "thirty pages an hour, three pages an hour, an hour per evening, five hours by a specified date, one page per day, thirty minutes per day, a chapter per week, one reader per week, at least two books a week, 60 hours over three months," (p. 165-166). This indicates that while quantity is essential in extensive reading, researchers think differently in the measurement of "extensive." The quantity of reading may change depending on the type of program, level of students, and other variables, rather than the total number of hours or pages (Susser and Rob, 1990: 166).

After reviewing previous research studies concerning extensive reading, it was seen that extensive reading improves not only reading comprehension skills of learners but their overall language proficiency, as well. Nevertheless, extensive reading has been disregarded most of the time by EFL teachers and learners as it is not an integrated part of curriculum. It is seen simply a supplemental activity that is done if there is enough time. Little attention has been drawn to this issue, and even less research was conducted in Turkey to explore the effects of extensive reading programs. As a consequence, this study was aimed at increasing the long-term reading comprehension development of the students via graded readers while the students are taught reading strategies in the Turkish EFL context. Focusing on the effects of extensive reading programs on reading proficiency gains, the study will provide additional evidence for Second Language Acquisition research. Accordingly, the following questions were addressed:

1. Does extensive reading have an effect on the reading development of the students who volunteered to read extensively?

2. Are there significant differences among the reading comprehension scores of the students in experimental group according to the number of the books read by each student?

Methodology

Participants

Thirty students from Selcuk University School of Foreign Languages participated in the study. Being at the same proficiency level (elementary), the subjects of the study can be described as homogeneous. The sample included 22 male and 8 female students between the ages of 18 and 21 years. A two-group pretest-posttest research design was used. 15 students were assigned to each group. Control group followed the school program which was limited to the reading sections of their course book, which means they read intensively. Students in

experimental group were supported with an extensive reading program outside the school curriculum.

Materials

Books from Oxford Bookworms Series were chosen to use in the extensive reading program. Students were asked to get a book from each stage (stage 1, 2 and 3) to establish a kind of classroom library. With the books already available in the class library the total number reached 60 books. When students read their first book, they were asked if they had any problems with the book. The answers were affirmative and encouraging. They had no difficulty reading their first book, and even some stated it was great fun to do such an activity since it took them beyond the monotonous class instructing. The following weeks, students kept reading their books regularly, and at the end of the two weeks they brought their books into the classroom for exchange. Records of the books read by the students were kept by the researcher.

Taking into account their language level at the beginning of the second term, students were asked to read one or two readers of stage 1. Four reading comprehension tests were implemented during the academic year for the collection of data. The reading tests measured students' ability to comprehend short reading passages. The first two tests were given in the first term, and the other two were given in the second term during and after the extensive reading program. In each test was given a reading text. The texts were usually followed by such tasks as answering multiple choice and open-ended questions about the text, deciding whether the statement given is true or false, putting events in the correct order based on the text, matching titles with paragraphs and answering cloze type questions. An internal consistency estimate of reliability computed for the first reading comprehension test with Cronbach's coefficient alpha was 0.69, for the second reading comprehension test 0.71, for the third reading comprehension test 0.77 and for the fourth reading comprehension test 0.67. For the reliability, the reading texts and the questions included to assess reading comprehension performance of the students were sent to the testing committee composed of six ELT experts. Each text and question item was analysed. The reviews and feedback provided by these experts were considered and modifications, if necessary, were done accordingly.

Procedure

A pretest-posttest design was used. Two groups with an equal number of participants (n=15) were formed; control and experimental group. Extensive reading program was carried out at SOFL (School of Foreign Languages), Selcuk University, Konya. Throughout the first semester students in control and experimental groups worked on the course book chosen by the SOFL-within the same language program framework. The program required them to approach the basic language skills; reading, writing, speaking and listening, equally rather than to focus on a certain skill. Students in both groups took an exam every week on Fridays. This exam consisted of questions that measure the structures taught to the students during that week. That is, students normally had to complete a unit from the course book every week and at the end of the week they were tested for that week's subjects. In addition to these exams, they had two mid-term exams and a final exam which included reading tests to evaluate the

reading development skills of the students. These reading sections constituted 20 per cent of the total examination score.

In the second semester, students were divided into two groups as control and experimental group. The control group would continue in the same way as they did during first semester. However, students of experimental group were involved in an extensive reading program at the beginning of the term with the aim of developing their reading skills. This program was performed as an extra-curriculum activity. They were going to read outside the school hours. The language ability levels of the students in this group did not show much difference when their first and second mid-term exams scores were examined.

Because of the students' tight schedule and heavy load of assignments on diverse subjects, the researcher came to an agreement on reading demands; one book every two weeks which were less than the researcher had planned but more realistic. Reading at least one book (graded reader) outside the classroom every two weeks, they would read at least 8 books according the schedule. Language level of students was appropriate for reading stage 2 books given the level that they already reached at the end of the first semester. Yet they were demanded to begin the program with a stage 1 book in order to motivate them to read more. In a way, reading a book from this stage was considered to be a warm-up activity to prepare them for the books of next stages (stage 2 and 3).

During the second term, students took two mid-term exams, which were used to evaluate the reading performance of the participants. The scores of students in both groups were recorded. The score of each participant on reading comprehension sections of the exams was also noted, and these scores were compared to see if there were differences between the reading comprehension levels of control group and those of experimental group.

Data analysis

The first step in data analysis was calculating the scores for each test. The maximum score on the sections of the mid-term examinations used in order to determine the group equivalencies was 80 points. The maximum score on the four reading comprehension tests was 20 points. After getting raw scores, the means and standard deviations were calculated for both groups on the first and second mid-terms and for the four reading comprehension tests. Next, the mean scores of the groups were compared by the application of non-parametric statistics; Mann-Whitney U Test. The Mann-Whitney U test was used for the statistical analysis of the data. All the results were compared at the '0.05' level of significance, as is common in language studies of this type and proportion. It should be noted that two different types of software were used for the data analysis; SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences), version 10.00 and Selcuk Stat 1.09, and the results were compared in order to eliminate possible errors.

Findings

Analyses of treatment group equivalencies

Participants were placed in their respective classes on the basis of their language ability at the beginning of the academic year. As the extensive reading program was implemented in the second term of the year, in order to examine the potential influence of the English instruction given in the first term and other factors on group equivalency, results of the first

and the second mid-term examinations of the two groups were compared prior to the study. The mean scores and the standard deviations of the first mid-term examination for the two groups, which was applied six weeks after the beginning of the first term, are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Mann Whitney U analysis for the first mid-term scores

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mann Whitney U -Z-	p
Experimental	15	57.40	11.218	1.889	0.059
Control	15	51.53	10.144		

The Mann-Whitney U test, which is appropriate to the case of two independent samples of observations measured at least at an ordinal level, was used for the statistical analysis of the data. A Mann-Whitney U test analysis (Table 1) of the first mid-term exam scores was computed, the z value being 1.889 at the 0.05 level of significance. The results of the Mann-Whitney U test show that there was no significant difference between the two groups (P > 0.05) regarding their language levels after a six-week instruction.

As a result, both groups were equal in terms of their language levels after a six-week instruction. It is worth noting here that the mid-term exam included structure, vocabulary, reading and writing tests. However, since the study aimed at developing the students' reading comprehension levels, it was necessary to see whether the two groups were equivalent in terms of their reading comprehension levels at the beginning of the study.

Table 2. Mann Whitney U analysis for the first reading test scores

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mann Whitney U -Z-	p
Experimental	15	11.87	2.47	0.491	0.624
Control	15	12.13	2.58		

The standard deviations of the two groups for the first reading test (2.47 and 2.58) also show the close equivalence of the members of the two groups regarding their reading comprehension levels.

A Mann-Whitney U test conducted on the first reading test scores of both groups revealed no significant differences between the two groups (z = 0.491, p = 0.624) at the 0.05 level of significance. The results of the Mann-Whitney U test, mean reading comprehension scores and standard deviations for both groups are presented in Table 2.

Table 3. Mann Whitney U analysis for the second mid-term scores

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mann Whitney U -Z-	p
Experimental	15	52.27	11.108	0.519	0.604
Control	15	49.6	10.164		

The results of the second mid-term examination would be a better indicator of the equivalence of the two groups as it was given at the end of the first term of the academic year. A Mann-Whitney U test conducted on the second mid-term scores of both groups revealed no significant differences between the two groups (P > 0.05), the z value being 0.519 at the 0.05 level of significance. The mean second mid-term test scores and standard deviations for both groups are presented in Table 3.

A Mann-Whitney U test conducted on the second reading test scores of both groups revealed no significant differences between the two groups (Z= 0.567, p = 0.57) at the 0.05 level of significance. The mean reading comprehension scores and standard deviations for both groups are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Mann Whitney U analysis for the second reading test scores

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mann Whitney U -Z-	p
Experimental	15	10.87	2.55	0.567	0.57
Control	15	11.33	2.33		

The Standard deviations of the two groups for the second reading test (2.55 and 2.33) also show the close equivalence of the members of the two groups regarding their reading comprehension levels. Accordingly, it can be said that the two groups can be defined as homogeneous and the research aimed at and reached an adequate level of control.

Reading comprehension levels during the program

The results of the third reading comprehension test were evaluated to see the effectiveness of the extensive reading program after six weeks.

Table 5. Mann Whitney U analysis for the third reading test scores

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mann Whitney U -Z-	p
Experimental	15	14.60	2.274	1.754	0.079
Control	15	12.87	2.918		

It can be seen in Table 5 that the mean scores of the third reading comprehension test for the two groups, which was applied 6 weeks after the beginning of the extensive reading program, were 14.60 and 12.87.

A Mann-Whitney U test analysis of the third reading comprehension test scores was computed, the z value being 1.754 at the 0.05 level of significance. The results revealed that, although there were statistically no significant differences between the two groups, the group who attended the extensive reading program scored slightly higher than the other group, although they had slightly lower reading comprehension scores in the first two mid-terms.

Reading comprehension levels at the end of the program

Table 6. Mann Whitney U analysis for the fourth reading test scores

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mann Whitney U -Z-	p
Experimental	15	12.13	3.17	3.087	0.002
Control	15	8.33	2.45		

A Mann-Whitney U test conducted on the fourth reading comprehension test scores of both groups revealed significant differences between the two groups (Z = 3.087, p = 0.002) at the 0.05 level of significance. According to the statistical data, extensive reading group scored significantly better than the control group.

Amount of reading and reading comprehension

In order to find the correlation between the amount of reading and reading comprehension development, the numbers of books read by the students who participated in the extensive reading program were compared. As it was given at the end of the extensive reading program, the fourth reading comprehension test scores were used for the evaluation of the effect of the number of books read.

Table 7. Mann Whitney U analysis for the fourth reading test scores depending on the number of the books read

Groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mann Whitney U -Z-	p
Group 1	10.37	2.997	2.209	0.027
Group 2	14.14	2.03		

According to Table 7, the average reading comprehension test scores of the first sub-group were calculated as 10.37, the second sub-group as 14.14. A Mann-Whitney U test conducted on the test scores of the two sub-groups revealed that the students who read more

scored significantly better than the other students, the z value being 2.209 at the 0.05 level of significance.

Discussion

The present study investigated if extensive reading has (positive) effects on reading development. Learners in the extensive reading group achieved significantly better reading comprehension than subjects in the control group, and this is strongly supported by the data; the large and significant differences between the reading comprehension scores of the two groups at the end of the study, the much greater gains in reading comprehension development by the extensive reading group support this conclusion.

Sims (1996) conducted an experimental study with 120 freshmen identified as mid-level proficient in English. One group was instructed through a skill-based approach and the other using extensive reading. The study revealed that students in the extensive reading group scored significantly higher than those in the skill-based group. Similarly, our results showed that reading graded readers extensively and as a complementary reading activity for traditional intensive reading was beneficial to the development of students reading comprehension.

This study on extensive reading is restricted to its effects on reading development. There are studies with positive results which investigated its effects on some other skills such as vocabulary growth, writing development and motivation to reading and effects on linguistic knowledge. Weitz (2003), for example, examined the role of extensive reading program in reading comprehension, vocabulary/language acquisition, and the attitude toward reading among 120 high school students. Half of the students joined classrooms where 15-minute sustained silent reading took place everyday while the other half took part in their regular English curriculum. The results showed significant gains in the extensive reading group in the areas of comprehension, vocabulary, and attitude toward reading. In the control group, some gains were also noted in comprehension and vocabulary, but not in their attitude toward reading.

Whether to use authentic or inauthentic materials in language teaching, particularly in extensive reading, is a controversial issue. Authentic materials can be too cultural-based and might require a good knowledge of cultural background, and challenging language structures can result in comprehension problems for lower-level readers (Martinez 2002). Richards (2001) underlines that unlike simplified materials authentic materials generally include difficult language, redundant vocabulary and complex language structures. As the sample of our study consisted of students with low level of language proficiency, graded readers were selected as reading material because they are more convenient in terms of motivating students to read in L2 and increasing their reading speed and amount.

The students in the current study were free to choose what they want to read, so they were provided with a range of reading materials. When students choose their reading materials according to their reading level and taste, it will likely increase their motivation towards reading in L2. Harmer (2002:210) suggested that readers should be encouraged to decide and pick what they want to read for pleasure and general language improvement. Therefore, teachers are suggested to let their students choose reading materials as they wish. Teachers should consider the value of exposing students to a wide range of interesting English materials.

They also need to be aware of the rich variety and the benefits of different types of materials available for their students, and then, use them wherever and whenever appropriate.

Another conclusion drawn from the current study was that the students who read more books achieved more reading comprehension development in comparison to those who read less. This is evidenced by the previous research, for instance, Walker (1997) reported a positive correlation between the test scores of students and the amount of reading done. For that reason, considering that reading more leads to more reading success teachers should encourage their students to do as much extensive reading as possible.

Conclusion

For language teachers, how to promote proficient reading is an important issue. In the ESL and EFL context, there is a tendency towards the use of skill-building textbooks and procedures. Little attention has been given to extensive reading for pleasure as a means to improve reading comprehension, and the value of extensive reading is overlooked most of the time though many extensive reading studies have shown that extensive reading has a long-term effect on language learners' reading development and also on overall language proficiency. What needs to be done is to incorporate extensive reading into the curriculum. The present study therefore provides further evidence regarding how reading extensively via graded readers contributes to reading development of language learners .

The results of the present study also indicated that the reading program based on graded readers, to which the extensive reading group were exposed, brought about much more satisfying gains in reading comprehension than the traditional close reading techniques applied to the control group. Significant difference on gains in reading comprehension strongly suggests that an extensive reading program based on graded readers is much more beneficial to the development of reading comprehension than traditional reading lessons based on the close study of short texts.

On the other hand, the other research question of the current study was to reveal if the number of books read by the students took part in the experimental group had effect on the reading comprehension development of the students. For this reason, students in the experimental group were divided into two sub-groups, and the numbers of books read by the students who participated in the extensive reading program were compared. This comparison showed that students who read more books scored significantly better than the other students reading less books. Thus, we got a favorable result for the effect of the amount of reading on the reading comprehension development of the students.

We may conclude, therefore, that reading comprehension will develop naturally if learners are motivated to read interesting simplified materials like graded readers. The extensive reading program based on graded readers has led to much greater improvement in learners' reading comprehension than traditional language activities. Although one of the stated objectives of the material used by subjects in the control group was a 'close and detailed understanding of the text', it appears that this approach is much less successful in developing comprehension than providing learners with attractive, high-interest story books, which learners are well-motivated to read and understand.

Given the importance reading plays in language acquisition and the support for the significance of extensive reading for pleasure, it seems logical to consider the use of ER in language classrooms in order to promote language learning and to create more enjoyable environments for acquiring the foreign language.

Recommendations for future research

Considering the findings of this study, several recommendations can be made for future research. This study has focused on a small group of participants (15 students). Another study with a larger group of EFL students is recommended to see if the findings can be generalized to a larger group. Additionally, time allocated to this study is just a semester. Same kind of study is recommended to be carried out in a more extended period; a whole academic year or more.

Since the participants in this study were students of SOFL, they only engaged in English instructing throughout the year. Most of students do not find it essential to keep busy with English after they complete SOFL. It may be considered challenging but such a reading program can be carried over their regular faculties, and it can be observed if continuing reading extensively helps those students maintain or even develop their existing language proficiency. The current study has been organized to see if extensive reading has effects on reading development of EFL students. Further research can be done to see what effects extensive reading might have on other language skills such as vocabulary development, writing development or general language proficiency in general.

This study has been performed with graded readers, that is, with simplified materials. It could be recommended to compare the effect of both types of reading materials on reading comprehension development and on language proficiency in general. Finally, a similar study can also be performed with the use of computers. Thanks to the rapid development on computer assisted language learning students can be guided to do online extensive reading.

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