T.C.
BAHÇEŞEHİR UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
THE DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION

EXPLORING TEACHER'S MOTIVATIONAL PRACTICES AND STUDENT MOTIVATION IN THE BLENDED LEARNING MODEL

PhD THESIS

ERGUVAN URAS EREN

ISTANBUL 2023

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ABSTRACT

EXPLORING TEACHER'S MOTIVATIONAL PRACTICES AND STUDENT MOTIVATION IN THE BLENDED LEARNING MODEL

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Education in the 21st century requires an instructional approach that can meet the demands of the new generation who is growing up in technologically advanced environments. Being a model of the 21st century 'Blended learning' offers an integrated learning experience with incorporated learning modalities, and is considered to be an improvement to face-to-face teaching methods rather than fully online distance learning. The motivational affordances that can be employed by instructors in online settings have attracted a great deal of attention, however, there is very limited information on teachers' crucial role in facilitating their students' motivation and how it helps to form the process of motivation in blended learning environments in an actual classroom context. With the aim of addressing this gap, the research employed a mixed method to investigate the link between the motivational practices of teachers and students' motivation in the blended learning context. Adopting the current 'motivation in context' perspective this study seeks empirical data obtained through classroom observations- both in face-to-face and online modalities involving 11 teachers and 352 students. By utilizing the two most dominant theories in motivation; namely the L2

Motivational Self System and Self-Determination theory, the research equally highlights the difference in the accommodation of teachers’ motivational practices between online and face-to-face modalities and how these strategies satisfy the basic phycological needs of the students. Understanding teachers' crucial role in facilitating their students’ motivation and how it helps to form the process of motivation has key implications for classroom practice.

Keywords: Blended Learning, Teacher’s Motivational Practices, Students’ motivated behavior, SDT, L2MSS, Motivation in Contex

ÖZ

BAHÇEŞEHIR ÜNIVERSITESI YABANCI DILLER YÜKSEKOKULU'NDAKI ÖĞRENCILERIN İNGILIZCE ÖĞRENME MOTIVASYONLARI ILE ÖĞRETMENIN KULLANDIĞI MOTIVASYON STRATEJILERI ARASINDAKI İLIŞKININ BELIRLENMESI

Uras Eren, Erguvan

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Doktora Programı

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21. yüzyılda eğitim, teknolojik olarak gelişmiş ortamlarda yetişen yeni neslin taleplerini karşılayabilecek bir öğretim yaklaşımını gerektirmektedir. 21. yüzyılın bir modeli olan 'Harmanlanmış öğrenme', birleştirilmiş öğrenme yöntemleriyle bütünleşik bir öğrenme deneyimi sunar ve tamamen çevrimiçi uzaktan eğitim yerine yüz yüze öğretim yöntemlerinde bir gelişme olarak kabul edilir ve dünya çapında yüksek öğretim kurumları arasında giderek daha çok talep görmektedir. Eğitmenlerin çevrimiçi ortamlarda kullanabilecekleri motivasyonel stratejiler büyük ilgi çekmiştir, ancak öğretmenlerin öğrencilerinin motivasyonunu arttırmadaki kritik rolü ve karma ortamlarda motivasyon sürecini oluşturmaya nasıl yardımcı olduğu hakkında sınıfiçi gözleme dayalı sınırlı bilgi vardır. Araştırma, bu boşluğu gidermek amacıyla öğretmenlerin motivasyonel uygulamaları ile öğrencilerin motivasyonu arasındaki bağlantıyı harmanlanmış öğrenme modelinde araştırmak için nitel ve nicel yöntem kullanmıştır. Mevcut 'bağlam içinde motivasyon' perspektifini benimseyen bu çalışma, 11 öğretmen ve 352 öğrenciyi içeren hem yüz yüze hem de çevrimiçi sınıf gözlemlerinden elde edilen ampirik verileri araştırmaktadır. Bu araştırma, motivasyon teorileri arasında en yaygın olan iki teoriden yararlanarak; L2 Motivasyonel Kendilik Sistemi (L2MSS) (Dörnyei, 2005) ve Öz-belirleme teorisi (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985),

öğretmenlerin çevrimiçi ve yüz yüze derslerdeki motivasyon stratejilerini uygulama farkını ve bu stratejilerin öğrencilerin temel psikolojik ihtiyaçlarını (özerklik, yeterlilik ve ilgililik) nasıl karşıladığını da vurgulamaktadır. Öğretmenlerin, öğrencilerinin motivasyonunu sağlamadaki önemli rolünü ve bunun motivasyon sürecini nasıl etkilediğini anlamak, sınıf uygulamaları için önemli çıkarımlara sahiptir. Ek olarak, sınıf için uygulamalarda önemli ve belirgin bir rol oynayan pedagojik seçimlerin bağlamsal düzeyde motivasyonu nasıl etkilediğini aydınla tan araştırma, eğitimciler için pratik çıkarımlar sağlayacaktır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Harmanlanmış Öğrenme, Öğretmenlerin Motivasyon Stratejileri, Öğrencileci Motivasyonu, SDT, L2MSS, Bağlamsal Motivasyon

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

L2MSS	The L2 Motivational Self System
MOLT	The Motivational Orientation of Language Teaching
PLTE	The Post-Lesson Teacher Evaluation scale
SDT	Self-Determination Theory
SIMS	Situation Motivation Scale

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Theoretical Framework

Towards the end of the 20th century, following the shift from a behaviorist to a cognitivist view in educational psychology, the focus of motivation studies was placed on conscious cognitive processes. This cognitive shift, starting from the 90s was characterized by a change from a macro-perspective to a micro-perspective analysis of motivation as it is highly related to learners' immediate classroom environment (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) and takes place in the contexts of learning. With this shift, motivation is viewed as a dynamic entity rather than a static construct, and motivation research started to become more process-oriented (Ryan & Moller, 2017). Two of the most prominent and influential theories developed around this period are SDT (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) (Dörnyei, 2009). This study utilized these two prominent theories that focus on the current paradigm of motivation and, have been repeatedly conducted and validated in significantly diverse contexts (Lamb, 2017).

The blended learning model which is considered to be the education of 21 st century, offers teachers the opportunity to conduct the lessons with the affordances provided by both face-to-face and online lessons. Blended learning can not be considered as merely reproducing traditional classroom activities in the online version of the same lessons instead it should be designed thoughtfully to enhance the learning experience and attain the desired outcomes. Therefore it is particularly crucial for teachers to apply effective and appropriate motivational strategies in blended learning contexts, where students have more freedom to learn independently and receive less teacher and peer interaction.

The strategies that are considered to be effective in face-to-face classes might not accommodate online or blended learning contexts. With the rapid growth of technology, how motivational affordances can be employed by instructors in online settings has attracted a great deal of attention, yet there is a scarcity of research on how these strategies can be used effectively to motivate students in an actual classroom context. Understanding teachers' crucial role in facilitating their students' motivation and how it helps to form the process of motivation has key implications for classroom practice. Raising teachers' awareness of their crucial role can enhance the classroom environment and context-based classroom research is necessary to comprehend how teachers can contribute to the motivational processes in online settings. Additionally, this research will shed light on motivation challenges associated with technology-enhanced environments and how these can be addressed by the teachers' in-class practices within the SDT framework. To the author's knowledge no article, investigating the link between the motivational practices of teachers and students' motivation neither in the blended nor online learning context has been published.

In blended learning, where students have more freedom to learn independently and receive less instructor regulation or face-to-face human support and interaction, motivation is particularly crucial. Given the effects of motivational practices applied by teachers on students' motivation as well as the effects of motivation on language learning outcomes, an understanding of learner motivation that demonstrates the connections between pedagogical decisions and motivation at a contextual level where the influences of interventions can easily be observed can be beneficial for educators (Stolk , Gross & Zastavker, 2021). Enhancing the understanding of motivation in blended learning environments by taking 's L2 Motivational Self System and Deci and Ryan's Self-Determination theory as theoretical backgrounds this study will provide valuable practical implications for the educators.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Currently, blended learning is popular in higher education institutions and continues to expand all over the world but being a relatively new phenomenon there is a scarcity of research in the literature and even less in terms of motivation and motivational practices. The strategies that are considered to be effective in face-to-face classes might not accommodate in online or blended learning contexts and as blended learning is expanding in higher education, it is an area to be explored. Furthermore, raising teachers' awareness of their crucial role in facilitating their students' motivation has significant implications for classroom practice. Understanding how this role contributes to shaping processes of motivation calls for contextually grounded classroom research.

1.3 Purpose of the study

This study aims to investigate the link between the motivational practices of teachers and students' motivation in the blended learning context. Adopting the current 'motivation in context' perspective this study seeks empirical data obtained through classroom observations by utilizing the two most dominant theories in motivation; namely the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) (Dörnyei, 2005) and Self-Determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

The other purpose of the research is to explore the differences in the accommodation of teachers' motivational practices between online and face-to-face modalities and how these practices satisfy the basic phycological needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness) of the students.

1.4 Research Questions

In line with the aim of the study discussed above, the research questions of this study are as follows:

RQ 1. What is the nature of the relationship between the teachers' motivational practices, the students' motivated behavior, and their self-reported level of motivation?

RQ 2: Is there a significant difference between students' motivated learning behaviors in the modes of delivery? And if yes is there any relationship between the teachers' motivational practices and the motivational behavior of students in face-to-face and online modalities?

RQ 3: Are there any differences in the use of teachers' motivational practices between the modes of delivery?

RQ 4: What are the students' insights into the teachers' motivational practices in a blended learning model? What are the associations of these strategies with autonomy, competence, and relatedness regarding the differences between face-to-face and online modalities?

1.5 Significance of the Study

This research contributes to the literature by observing teachers' actual use of motivational practices in online and face-to-face classroom settings, contrary to the usual data collection of surveys and questionnaires, the research involved observations of the teachers' use of motivational strategies in an actual classroom context, in line with the recent 'motivation in context paradigm' and explored the aspects of motivation related to the learning environment. Adding a novel feature by not relying only on self-report scales and instead using a classroom observation scheme, the study will present a detailed perspective on students' motivation that is affected by the use of teachers' motivational strategies. Additionally, by illuminating how pedagogical choices influence motivation at the contextual level where interventions play a significant and apparent role, the research aims to be beneficial for practitioners.

The distinctive feature of this research is that no research has been conducted in an online setting based on classroom-oriented investigation. Additionally, the study sought the experiences of students and their interpretation of the teachers' motivational practices in class with the SDT framework in relation to three basic psychological needs.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Can teachers motivate their students with motivational strategies in online learning environments?

On one hand, the advances in technology and on the other hand the increasing demand and necessity for online learning, oblige teachers to use technology as a tool for learning. Getting students' attention and constructing a learning environment that is motivating for students is one of the major challenges facing contemporary education and the difficulty is even more in online settings. Motivation studies predate SLA studies and it is one of the most researched constructs in L2 learning. The current paradigm acknowledges second language learning motivation as a dynamic process in real classroom settings that is subject to fluctuations and imposes teachers a vital role as they are the ‘principal orchestrators of the learning context’ (Ushioda, 2012, p.70).

On the other hand, the new generation is growing up in technologically advanced environments and is thought to have sophisticated skills in using technology. The needs and demands of this new generation of students are changing, and recently it is started to be questioned whether the current educational system is prepared to meet those needs. Future teaching models are expected to involve technology even more than today and blended learning, combining the best aspects of online and traditional instruction, is becoming popular, especially in higher education institutions around the world.

This study aims to investigate the link between the motivational practices of teachers and students’ motivation in the blended learning context. Adopting the current ‘motivation in context’ perspective this study seeks empirical data obtained through classroom observations by utilizing the two most dominant theories in motivation; namely the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) (Dörnyei, 2005) and Self-Determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

2.2 Blended Learning

Technological advances and their utilization in our daily lives proved that learning is not bound by space or time anymore. Additionally, the new generation is growing up in technologically advanced environments and is thought to have sophisticated skills in using technology (Margaryan, Littlejohn & Vojt, 2011; Prensky, 2001). The needs and demands of this new generation of students are changing, and recently it is started to be questioned whether the current educational system is prepared to meet those needs. The latest OECD 'Building the Future of Education 2023' report (2022), indicating the importance of institutionalized settings in providing spaces and opportunities for learning will remain, states that 'the value proposition of traditional educational institutions is under increasing scrutiny and there are questions as to whether they deliver education that is aligned with real-world needs' (p.4). The current educational trend is already towards multi-choice learning environments that supplement traditional classroom learning and increase learning based on personal preference, independent of time and location (Singh & Kaurt, 2016). Furthermore, it is pointed out that technology-enriched learning will pervade even more in the future in education (OECD, 2022).

With this current paradigm in education blended learning, a combination of online and traditional classroom forms which involve the physical presence of teachers and learners, is becoming more popular in education and particularly at universities and colleges (Johnson et al., 2016; Lu et al., 2018).

Blended learning is traditionally defined as a combination of traditional face-to-face classrooms and online technology-mediated learning (Bonk & Graham, 2012; Horn & Staker, 2014). Blended learning involves technology-enhanced methods but the key difference between purely online and blended learning environments is that there is an interdependent relationship between face-to-face and online modalities in the blended model. Offering an integrated learning experience with incorporated learning modalities, blended learning is considered to be an improvement to face-to-face teaching methods rather than fully online distance learning and it is trending among higher education institutions (HEIs) around the globe (Cheung & Hew, 2011; Garrison & Vaughan, 2008; Graham, Woodfield & Harrison, 2013; Ibrahim & Nat, 2019). Similarly, Norberg and his colleagues (2011) stated that blended learning is the "new normal" in education (p. 207) as technology is already a part of our life. Many institutions shift from traditional education forms to blended learning and this transition can be largely attributed to the rapid technical and socioeconomic advancements that caused the educators to reconsider their instructional practices (Garrison & Vaughan, 2008). Another reason why blended learning is becoming popular in HEIs is that in addition to giving students more flexibility, blended learning provides students with a wider variety of high-quality learning opportunities than traditional face-to-face instructions (George-Walker & Keeffe, 2010; Wittmann & Olivier, 2021). Blended models not only promote active collaborative learning but also by allowing the physical presence of teachers and students it offers a solution to overcome the engagement problems in fully online education (Hew & Cheung, 2014). Recent studies indicated that blended learning helps students to improve their language learning skills and increase their learning outcomes (Marsh, 2012; Ghazizadeh & Fatemipour, 2017; Islam, Baharun, Muali, Ghufron, el Iq Bali, Wijaya & Marzuki, 2018). An experimental study conducted by Adas and Bakir (2013) in a higher education context presented that blended learning has facilitated writing abilities in learning English as a foreign language and the participants of experimental group performed better than the students in the control group. In another study, Ghazizadeh and Fatemipour (2017), investigated the impact of blended learning in an Iranian context. The study concluded that blended learning has improved the English language learning students' reading skills and suggested that blended learning can be adapted to improve language learning environments. Furthermore, a recent study found out that proper implementation of blended learning can lead to enhanced student autonomy and motivation constructs compared to conventional learning methods (Wong, Hwang, Choo Goh & Mohd Arrif, 2020).

Blended learning offers students opportunities to study collaboratively, and conduct meaningful projects both in online and face-to-face spaces each of which has particular benefits to create an effective learning environment (Riel, Lawless & Brown, 2016). It also gives the teachers the opportunity to conduct the lessons with the affordances provided by both face-to-face and online lessons. According to Garrison and Vaughan (2008), 'blended learning is the thoughtful fusion of face-to-face and online learning experiences' which addresses the inevitable change that is required in higher education in order to meet the requirements of the twenty-first century (p. 5).

Blended learning helps to avoid the disadvantages of face-to-face and online learning and challenges in both conventional learning and online methods (Welker & Berardino, 2005). The perceived remoteness and isolation of online lessons can also be avoided by adopting carefully designed blended learning courses which can improve the learning experiences of the students (Garrison & Vaughan, 2008). Therefore, blended learning can not be considered as merely reproducing traditional classroom activities in the online version of the same lessons instead it should be designed thoughtfully to enhance the learning experience and attain the desired outcomes. Additionally, teaching in the 21st century requires competencies related to both technology and pedagogy and continuous improvement in the knowledge and skills to meet the learning requirements of the students (Greene & Hale, 2017). Effective blended courses that facilitate learning and meet the requirements of the 21st century can only be attained by educational programs that are based on relevant theoretical methodologies which involve pedagogical planning along with the aid of committed and supporting school staff (Johnson et al., 2016; Sari et al, 2018). Being still a relatively new concept in many educational institutions, there is a scarcity of research on blended learning and no research has been conducted on the effectiveness of teachers' motivational practices. The current study set out to investigate how teachers' motivational strategies affect students in a blended learning model in second language education.

2.3 Motivation in Language learning

Ellis (2008), indicated that motivation is the most researched individual construct and is claimed to be the most influential one in second language learning (Gardner, 1985).

The early research on motivation, under the influence of behaviorist psychology, focused on stimuli and reinforcement constructs to explain motivation (Dörnyei, 1998). The research conducted in laboratory and clinical settings tended to explain motivation with concepts such as reward and incentive (Weiner, 1990; Woolfolk, Winne & Perry, 2006).

Towards the end of the 20th century, following the shift from a behaviorist to a cognitivist view in educational psychology, the focus of motivation studies was placed on conscious cognitive processes. In their pioneering study Gardner and Lambert (1972), investigated the motivation of successful language learners and why, there are discrepancies in their attainment. According to the results of the study, the researchers claimed that second language learning motivation should be separated from the other types kinds of learning motivation as it is not only learning a language but also as ‘elements of another culture into one’s own lifespace’ (Gardner, 1979, p. 193; Ushioda, 2012).

On the foundation of Gardner and Lambert’s (1959, 1972) landmark studies, motivation became a prominent area for research in studies on language learning (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Ushioda, 2013). The most influential theory which marked this period was ‘The Socio-Educational Model of Second Language Acquisition’ (MacIntyre, 2007; Atay & Kurt, 2010; Ushioda, 2012). Starting the empirical research/investigation in the 1960s, Gardner presented the basic model of socio-educational model of SLA in 1979. Gardner associated the model with Lambert’s research on the development of bilingualism (1955,1963) in which it is suggested that attitudes and motivation have an impact on second language acquisition (Gardner et al., 1983). His initial model was revised several times until recently however the main constructs have remained more or less the same. With this model, Gardner introduced the concept of integrativeness variable and stated that learners’ attitudes toward the learning language have an influence on motivation which affects second language attainment (Gardner et al., 1983). The socio-educational model attracted considerable attention in investigating the role that motivation plays in second language learning throughout the second half of the 20th century, and a large body of research was instigated from this framework (Gardner & Smythe, 1981). Gardner also devised the Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) to quantitatively assess students’ motivation and attitudes toward learning a second language. Focusing on integrative motivation to assess the major affective components of learning a second language, the test battery was originally proposed in a Canadian school concept and has been revised several times (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Goharimehr, 2019). AMTB is widely used to assess students’ integrative motivation in second language learning and has been validated in various domains.

The socio-educational model was the dominant motivation model for three decades (Dörnyei, 2005), until the beginning of the 90s when the second mainstream of research was initiated. The following phase in motivation research suggested that motivation is a multifaceted construct that can not be limited only to the social-psychological perspective but also needs to be explored in a broader context that involves other components of motivation (Dörnyei, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Ushioda, 2012). Several researchers suggested a need for a change and to link motivation research more to classroom practice and consider the concept of motivation in the immediate context (Crookes & Schmidt 1991; Skehan, 1991). This cognitive shift, starting from the 90s was characterized by a change from a macro-perspective to a micro-perspective analysis of motivation as it is highly related to learners' immediate classroom environment (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) and takes place in the contexts of learning. With this shift, motivation is viewed as a dynamic entity rather than a static construct, and motivation research started to become more situated and adopted a process based approach (Ryan & Moller, 2017). The two influential theories developed around this period are SDT (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and Dörnyei's (2009) L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS). These two are the most dominant theories that focus on the current paradigm of motivation and, have been repeatedly conducted and validated in significantly diverse contexts (Lamb, 2017).

2.4 Self-determination Theory (SDT)

Self-determination theory (SDT) is an established and well-known motivation theory that has been used and validated by a global community of researchers in various domains and settings (Ahn, Patrick, Chiu & Levesque-Bristol, 2019; Ryan & Deci, 2019). Unlike some other main theories of motivation which concentrated on objectives and the processes that result in that desired outcomes (e.g., Bandura, 1977; Eccles, Adler, Futterman, Goff, Kaczala, Meece, & Midgley, 1983), SDT focused on also why certain outcomes are desired (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991). SDT, comprised of six "mini-theories", explains the concepts of motivation and basic psychological needs. Ryan and Deci (2002) indicate that all these theories share organismic and dialectical assumptions which collectively cover all varieties of human behavior in different domains. These sub-theories are (1) Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET), (2) Organismic Integration Theory (OIT), (3) Causality Orientations

Theory (COT), (4) Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT), (5) Goal Content Theory (GCT), and (6) Relationships Motivation Theory (RMT). Each of these theories represents an expansion of the knowledge that has previously been built up within SDT and developed from interconnected and growing networks of empirical findings (Ryan & Deci, 2019). This macro-theory distinguishes three types of motivation on a continuum: amotivation, extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation involves the natural inclination toward the activity and performing it to experience pleasure and satisfaction. Extrinsic motivation concerns acts taken for reasons rather than enjoyment such as obtaining some rewards (e.g. good grades) or avoiding punishment. Amotivation is when the individual perceives no relation between the action and the outcome of those actions (Ryan & Deci, 2020). SDT categorizes individuals' motivation on a continuum between fully autonomous intrinsic motivation, and then the extrinsic (controlled) motivation to amotivation. A self-determined, autonomous person chooses to engage in an activity volitionally and with their own endorsement (Ryan & Deci, 2019), therefore intrinsic motivation is considered to be the most self-determined form of motivation.

Initially starting as a theory of intrinsic motivation, SDT developed into a more general theory of human motivation, personality development, and wellness and provided a framework to investigate motivation in classroom settings including second language learning contexts (McEown & Oga-Baldwin, 2019).

Noels and her colleagues were the first to apply SDT to language learning (Noels et al., 1999) and since then a significant number of research has been conducted to research motivation in various second language learning contexts and cultures within the SDT framework (e.g., Jang, Reeve, R. Ryan, & Kim, 2009). Exploring the link between the perceptions of teachers' communicative style and the motivation of the students in a French immersion program, Noels et al. (1999) concluded that 'perceptions of the teacher's communicative style were related to intrinsic motivation, such that the more controlling and the less informative students perceived the teacher to be, the lower students' intrinsic motivation was' (p.23). Additionally, the study found a positive correlation between intrinsic motivation and language learning outcomes which are both considered to be supported by autonomy and competence-provided environments with the aid of teachers.

Emphasizing the universal aspects of motivation, SDT has been empirically validated in diverse cultural contexts numerous times proving that the assumptions and principles of the theory apply across cultures (McEown & Oga-Baldwin, 2019). SDT based motivation research consistently presented that intrinsic motivation has a significant positive effect on language learning (McEown & Oga-Baldwin, 2019). However, it should be noted that SDT does not have a uniform application, therefore how to apply the universal principles of SDT to improve motivation may differ depending on the educational setting (McEown & Oga-Baldwin, 2019). To that end, blended learning should be explored in its own unique context. What is more the strategies that work in face-to-face environments may not be effective in online environments since teaching and learning in a blended environment needs distinct features.

SDT posits that all human beings possess inherent dispositions to fit into both external (especially social and cultural) and internal (drives, emotions, needs) environments (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). Further, the theory maintains that people are active, growth-oriented organisms, and also there is a dialectic relationship with regard to 'the interaction between an active, integrating human nature and social contexts that either nurture or impede the organism's active nature' (Ryan & Deci, 2004, p. 6). In other words, the environment is shaped by the active organism and which also shapes the individual. Even though the theory accepts that this natural tendency is an essential aspect of humans, there are distinct and specifiable social-contextual factors that facilitate or hinder this fundamental natural process of individuals. Innate psychological and social growth of human beings doesn't occur automatically, however, its existence should also be acknowledged as well as the significant role that the environment plays in promoting or impeding this inherited nature (Reeve, Deci & Ryan, 2004). This significant aspect of the theory in the context of education suggests that teachers can intentionally design the learning environment in a way that may endorse or hinder their students' motivation. The theory indicates that the environment can support or thwart the healthy natural functioning of human growth depending on the fulfillment of basic psychological needs (Ryan & Deci, 2002). These three inherent fundamental psychological needs are the need for competence, relatedness, and autonomy. SDT posits that satisfaction of these needs within the social environment enhances students' motivation and they can internalize their motivation to learn and to be more autonomously engaged in their studies when these needs are met (Niemiec & Ryan 2009). With regard to the basic needs maintained by SDT, the practices that the instructors adopt can be classified as autonomy-supportive, competence-supportive, and relatedness-supportive. The degree to which an individual expresses self-determined forms of motivation depends on how much these needs are met in their environment (Ryan & Deci, 2000). When the educational environment supports the satisfaction of these fundamental needs of students they will try to achieve harder tasks and their motivation will be enhanced. Teachers are thought to play a key role in affecting the students' motivation and 'successful teachers make students feel welcome and part of the language learning classroom community (relatedness), capable of successfully using the new language (competence), and that engaging with the language aligns with students' sense of self (autonomy)' (McEown and Oga-Baldwin, 2019, p.7). The next section explains the three inherent psychological needs and how these needs are related to the educational environments in detail.

2.4.1 Autonomy. Ryan and Deci (2002) refer to autonomy as the source of an individual's own behavior. Autonomy indicates the level of ownership that students have over their learning, including the choice they make on when and how to conduct the behavior (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). In classroom environments, teachers can allow their students to make their own choices and decisions within the set of classroom rules to support learner autonomy (Hsu, Wang & Levesque-Bristol, 2019). Autonomy is facilitated when the teachers offer students different possibilities that enable them to learn in their own unique manner. Additionally, teachers who refrain from controlling behavior in the class help the students to feel in charge of their own actions which fosters autonomy (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). The literature repeatedly shows the positive impact of teachers' behavior on learner autonomy and the benefits of autonomy-supportive teaching (Ahn et al., 2019; Jones, Llacer-Arrastia & Newbill, 2009; Dincer, Yesilyurt & Takkac, 2012). For example, in one of the earliest studies on autonomy, exploring the perceptions of language learners, Noels and her colleagues (2003), found that students' opinions of autonomy and competence are affected by the teacher's behavior. How the teachers conduct activities and behave in the classroom can either foster or impede student autonomy which is directly linked to autonomous motivation (Chiu, 2021a). In a recent study, Núñez and León (2019), concluded that higher perceptions of autonomy support enhanced classroom engagement. By recognizing and fostering students' needs, the instructors can establish good interpersonal relationships and create a classroom environment that supports autonomy (Chiu, 2021a). Such results show the significant role of an autonomy-supportive environment in educational settings and the impact it has on students' motivation. As stated by Reeve and Cheon (2021), adopting autonomy-supportive teaching can significantly enhance both present and prospective educational practice and allows the instructor to take the students' point of view in education (Jang, Reeve, & Halusic, 2016).

2.4.2 Competence. Competence can be defined as effectiveness of individuals interpersonal relationships and 'experiencing opportunities to exercise and express one's capacities' (Ryan & Deci, 2002, p. 7). Involving effectiveness and mastery, the need for competence can be fullfilled when an individual successfully completes tasks and encounter chances to put their skills and knowledge to use (Vansteenkiste, Ryan & Soenens, 2020). Along with autonomy need, satisfying the need for competence is considered to be prominent in the creation and maintenance of intrinsic motivation which has a direct connection with enhancing student performance and creating a facilitative learning improvement (Niemiec & Ryan 2009). In an educational context, competence support can be best provided through well-constructed settings that offer optimal challenges and improvement opportunities (Ryan & Deci, 2020). Competence refers to the idea that students volitionally participate in activities that they fully comprehend and possibly master. Teachers can support learners' competence by stating clear expectations and allowing them to improve their academic abilities (Reeve, 2016). Teachers can give clear instructions, define the parameters of learning tasks, and demonstrate trust in students' capacities in order to support their competence (Chiu, 2021a). Additionally, competence support can be operationalized by the provision of positive feedback, however, the studies suggest that it should be assisted by autonomy support to promote intrinsic motivation (Jones et al., 2009). The educational research indicates that the satisfaction of the need for competence by the instructors enhances learners' performance as well as their motivation (Reeve, 2016; Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013) yet it should be provided in an approach that supports autonomy.

2.4.3 Relatedness. SDT maintains that along with competence and autonomy, relatedness need should also be supported to facilitate intrinsic motivation. Relatedness involves an interpersonal dimension, and relates to how much an individual feels a sense of community, and ‘a sense of belongingness’ (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Within SDT literature in education, instructors can satisfy the need of relatedness by showing interest in students’ experiences in a caring and respectful manner, creating varied opportunities for collaboration and opening space for interactional practices for students (Akbari, Pilot & Simons, 2015; Davis & Printer, 2022; Reeve & Cheon, 2021). When students are provided with relatedness-support they engage in classroom activities more willingly and value their academic tasks (Niemiec & Ryan 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2002). Teachers play a crucial role in supporting the need of relatedness in classroom settings which, in turn, has a significant effect on learners’ intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2002; Niemiec & Ryan 2009). These psychological needs, are demonstrated in Figure 1.

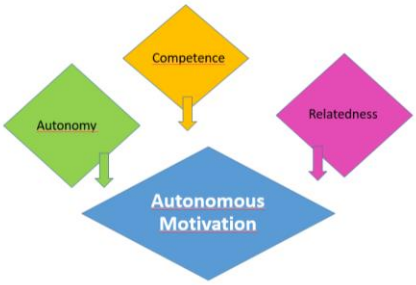

Figure 1. SDT Psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Given that language learning is primarily an interpersonal and interactive process, the SDT can provide educators with opportunities to increase student motivation by fulfilling universal psychological needs. Employing strategies suggested by SDT can help satisfy students' needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness which in return will nurture intrinsic motivation and bring the ultimate outcome in language learning. ‘Nurturing environments matter in learning a language, and self-determination theory can improve teachers' instruction, peers' support, and individuals’ well-being when engaged in language education (McEown & Oga-Baldwin, 2019, p.9). SDT emphasizes the quality rather than the quantity of motivation focusing on building a more autonomous type of motivation so that students can learn the language without the need for teachers’ constant attempts. Educators can construct the learning environment in a way that supports the innate psychological needs of the students which in return facilitates their autonomous motivation (Jones et al., 2009). SDT provided a framework to investigate motivation in traditional classroom settings extensively whereas there have only been limited attempts to investigate its use in the context of online or blended learning environments (Hsu et al., 2019; Chiu 2020). Given the extensive SDT research and its applications, recent call made by Ryan and Deci (2020), suggests that future SDT research should focus on the implementation of technology and its interpretation of it to construct environments that can facilitate motivation in online classrooms, further adding that ‘technology as a tool for learning will become an even more active area of research’ (p.8).

On one hand, the advances in technology and on the other hand the increasing demand and necessity for online learning oblige teachers to use technology as a tool for learning. Getting students' attention and facilitating motivation is one of the major challenges facing contemporary education and there has not been any research to answer what are the insights into the teachers’ technology-involved practices concerning students’ perception and whether and how it satisfies the basic psychological needs of the students (Ryan & Deci, 2020).

Furthermore, L2 teachers can benefit from the most recent research which will help increasing learner motivation by hearing the students’ voice and recognizing their rapidly changing learning environment. In addition, contemplating how students perceive and presently express their motivational directions will assist the teachers to support their language attainment and enhance the learning environment. However, in order to assess student experiences in new settings a variety of theoretical perspectives should be adapted in order to successfully create interventions that address underlying causation and facilitate motivation (Lamb, 2019).

2.5 L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS)

Another influential theory affected by the cognitive shift and aimed to explore L2 motivation from a more process-based approach as well as a situated perspective is L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005). Reflecting the shift towards the need for a situated approach, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) devised a motivation model which has a process-oriented approach.

Based on Action Control Theory (Heckhausen & Kuhl, 1985), the model aimed to develop a process-oriented approach of motivation as an alternative to the product-oriented perspective. The process-oriented model of motivation focuses on both how motivation is created and how it develops and changes over time in an actual classroom setting (Dörnyei, 2000). According to the process-orientated model of motivation, there are three main sequential stages. The first stage is the “preactional stage,” which is the stage that motivation is generated and it is followed by the “actional stage” and the “postactional stage.” The preactional phase is the starting point of motivated behavior, when goals are set, the intention is formed, and initiation of action is enacted. The actional phase specifically deals with the actual implementation of action. In this stage, learning subtasks are generated and implemented, a learner’s progress toward the intended outcome of the action is continuously appraised, and self-regulatory mechanisms are called into force to enhance, scaffold, or protect learning-specific action. The postactional phase begins after the attainment of the goal or the termination (or long interruption) of the action, and it entails the evaluation of the outcome of the accomplished action and the contemplation of possible inferences to be drawn for future actions. Figure 2.2 presents an updated version of the model.

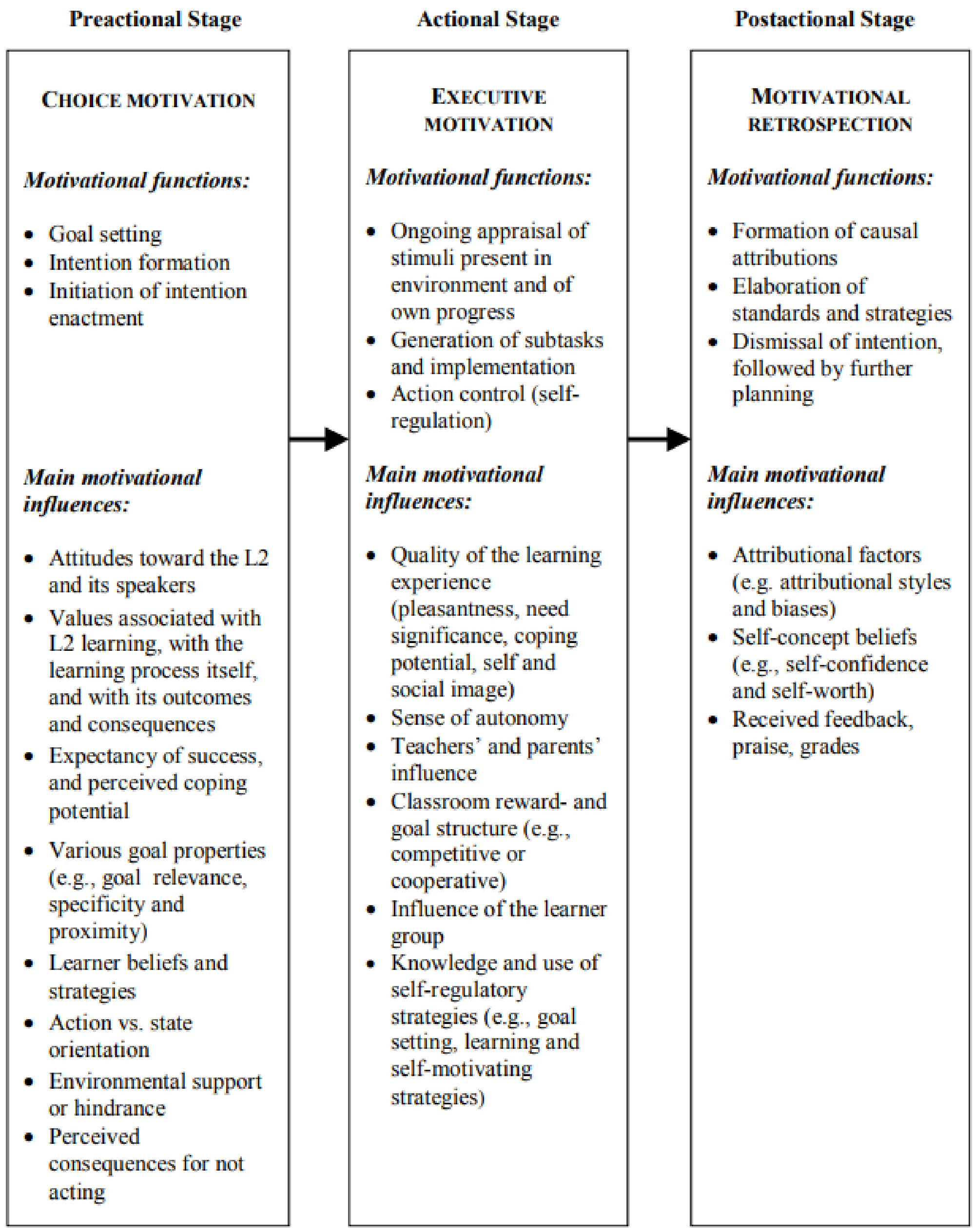

Figure 2. A process model of L2 learning motivation (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 85).

The model was a step forward in understanding motivational evolution and aligning the L2 motivation research with cognitive and educational psychology. Dörnyei (2005) stated that the model has two main shortcomings. Firstly, the applicability of the stages were not effective in real educational contexts as there is no clear cut where the actional processstart and end; secondly, students are likely to engage in only one actional process at a time (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). Acknowledging language learning as a distinct phenomena which is tightly related to social and cultural dynamic constructs, Dörnyei (2005) develop the L2 Motivational

Self System (L2MSS). A longitudinal study involving Hungarian students had a major contribution to the development of the L2MSS (Csizér & Dörnyei 2005; Dörnyei et al., 2006). The study extended over 12 years and encompassed a large scale of Hungarian student participants. Structural equation modeling analysis of the study showed that integrativeness was a major factor in the motivational disposition of Hungarian learners and it mediated between all the other attitudinal/motivational variables and the criterion measure of intended effort. Embracing Markus and Nurius' (1986) possible selves theory , Higgins's (1987) self-discrepancy theory, and the socio-educational model (Gardner; 1979, 1985) the new L2 motivation framework aimed to explore individual differences in L2 learning with considering contextual and dynamic constructs of motivation. L2MSS has three components that encompass both affective and cognitive dimensions as below;

(1) Ideal L2 Self, which is the L2-specific facet of one's ideal self. The L2-speaking persons attributes that we wish to possess, the Ideal L2 Self, is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves.

(2) Ought-to L2 Self, referring to the attributes that one believes one ought to possess (i.e., various duties, obligations, or responsibilities) in order to avoid possible negative outcomes.

(3) L2 Learning Experience refers to situation-specific motives involving the immediate learning context and learner experience.

The model attracted great attention with "an exceptional wave of interest with literally hundreds of studies appearing worldwide" (Boo, Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 91) and has been validated in diverse settings like Indonesia (Lamb, 2012), Croatia (Martinović, 2013), Asian context (Ryan, 2009; Taguchi et al. 2009), Turkey (Öz & Bursali, 2018), Malaysia (Zulkepli, 2020).

The L2 learning experience dimension in Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System reflects the current perspective on motivation which deals with the ongoing situated processes affecting day-to-day motivation such as the impact of the teacher or immediate learning environment.

Following the cognitive situated period, the key tenant of the process-oriented approach is that motivation is subject to fluctuations which means it is a dynamic aspect of L2 learning that changes over time in the process of the learning period. The foundation of the model is ‘Dörnyei’s 1994 framework of L2 motivation’ which he stated as ‘a good example of the educational approach’ (Dörnyei 2001, p.18) pointing out the conceptualization of the model as encompassing also L2 educational constructs.

The model included three levels, (1) the Language Level, (2) the Learner Level, and (3) the Learning Situation Level all together which make up the components of the L2 learning process (Dörnyei; 1994). (1) The Language Level focuses on the orientations and motives related to various aspects of L2, such as culture and pragmatic values that are traditionally represented in the integrative and instrumental motivation of L2 learning. (2) The Learner Level is associated with individual characteristics encompassing need for achievement and self- confidence components. (3) The Learning Situation Level is concerned with situation-specific motivational factors that are related to intrinsic and extrinsic motivational constructs including (1) Course-specific motivational components (syllabus, the teaching materials, the teaching method, the learning tasks), (2) Teacher- specific motivational components (such as the affiliative drive to please the teacher, authority type, and direct socialization of student motivation (3) Group- specific motivational components (goal-orientedness, norm and reward system, group cohesion, and classroom goal structure).

2.6 Motivating Students in the Language Classrooms

It is acknowledged that motivation plays a vital role in language learning and motivated students become more competent in second language (Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998; Dörnyei 2001; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). The cognitive-situated period of second language motivation research shifted the attention to ‘classroom-specific aspects of motivation and created a fertile ground for educational implications directly relevant to classroom practice” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 111). With the conceptual shift on the focus of ‘L2 learner’ to ‘person’, L2 learner’s theoretical conceptualizations such as integratively/instrumentally motivated learner did not fit in the current perspective of motivation research (Ushioda, 2012). The motivation researchers noticed the influence of the students’ immediate context on motivation which was more effective than it was perceived to be (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011). Recent conceptions in motivation research adopts ‘a holistic perspective on the individual person who is engaged in the L2 learning process, and who is necessarily, situated in a particular temporal, social and physical context’ (Ushioda, 2012, p.64). Since the beginning of the millennium motivational researchers, aside from acknowledging that learning a second language is a highly social event, utilized constructs that embrace multiple perspectives in the investigation of L2 learning motivation (Dörnyei, 2001a). According to the current paradigm, L2 Motivation is regarded as a dynamic process, influenced by the contexts, and subject to fluctuations in the process of learning (Dörnyei, 2001a; 2009; Ushioda, 1996; Williams & Burden, 1997; Järvelä & Niemivirta, 2001).

With the change in perceptions about motivation and its impact of it in natural classroom contexts, the researchers started to focus on more how the findings can be used to motivate learners and the pedagogical implications of the motivational research (Guilloteaux & 2008; Lamb 2017). Partly recognizing the central role teachers play in learner’s motivation and partly due to the paradigm shift in the research that focuses on the pedagogical implications, researchers started to conceptualize motivational strategies (Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997; Bernaus &Gardner, 2008; Dörnyei 2001; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Lamb 2017). By emphasizing the responsibility of motivating students to every teacher ‘who thinks of the long-term development of his/her students’ Dörnyei (2001, p. 27) prepared the most systematic and comprehensive taxonomy that involves practices for the teachers to be applied in the classroom.

2.7 Teacher’s Motivational Teaching Practices

Motivational practices, instructional interventions deployed by the instructors to facilitate student motivation and enhance learning practices, attracted attention in the motivational studies after the mid-1990s and several researchers published different strategies and models that can contribute to learners’ motivation. (Alison, 1993; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997; Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001a). The strategies proposed did not present a systematic and theory-based framework except for the taxonomy prepared by Dörnyei (2001) (Figure 2). Dörnyei (1994), initially introduced to the motivation literature a group of strategies for teachers, which he followingly reconstructed it to a detailed taxonomy. Defining motivational practices as ‘motivational influences that are consciously exerted to achieve some systematic and enduring positive effect’ (Dörnyei 2001, p.28) he proposed a comprehensive and systematic system that includes four macro categories; (1) creating the basic motivational conditions, (2) generating initial motivation, (3) maintaining and protecting motivation, and (4) encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation. The first category concerns creating the basic motivational conditions through adopting appropriate teacher behaviors and providing a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere. The second category concerns generating initial motivation by adopting strategies that facilitate positive attitudes toward language learning in general and increase the learners’ expectancy of success. The third category focuses on maintaining and protecting motivation and involves enhancing situation-specific task motivation such as setting enjoyable and appealing tasks and also improving learners’ autonomy and self-confidence. The final category is about encouraging positive self-evaluation through promoting motivational attributions, providing motivational feedback, and offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner which can contribute to learner satisfaction.

Figure 3 demonstrates the model and the strategies associated with each category. The macro-strategies are further detailed with 100 motivational techniques.

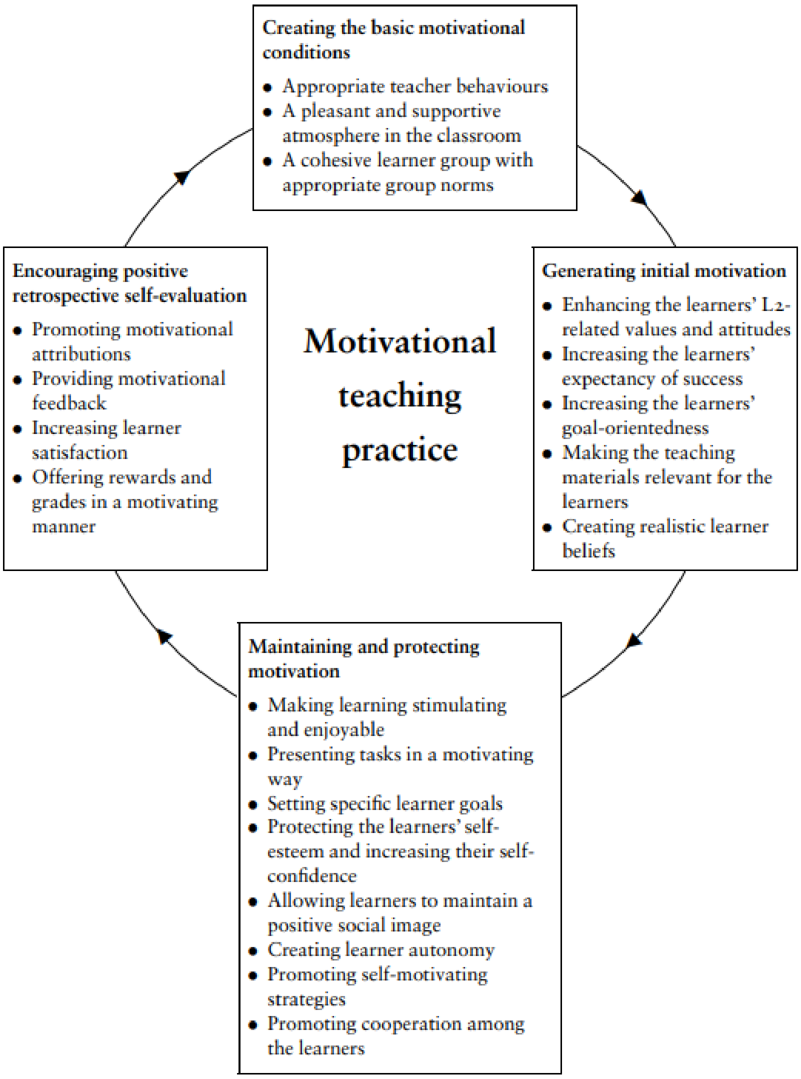

Figure 3. The components of a motivational L2 teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 29)

With the interest in the pedagogical implications, the significance of motivational practices attracted a great deal of interest, however, being a relatively recent area of research, not enough empirical research has been conducted to validate and justify the effectiveness of the actual use of motivational strategies in the classroom contexts up until the end of the first decade of the millennium. In 1994, Gardner and Tremblay indicated the need to provide empirical evidence to support the effects of these motivational strategies in actual language classrooms. Following this call, few studies explored the use and effectiveness of motivational strategies (Cheng & Dörnyei , 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). The studies were mainly based on self-reported studies and perceptions of students and teachers rather than the actual behavior of the participants

(Guilloteaux & Dörnyei; 2008). Addressing this gap Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) conducted observational research on the relationship between teachers' motivational practice and students' language learning motivation with the participation of 27 teachers and 1,300 learners. The researchers developed a classroom observation scale to evaluate teacher's motivational teaching practice, and the level of the students' motivated behavior, the Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT) which uses categories of observable teacher behaviors derived from Dörnyei's (2001) motivational strategies taxonomy for language learning contexts. The tool, allowing the researcher to observe both the teachers' actual motivational teaching practice and the motivational behavior of the learners in context, approaches the motivation paradigm from the current contextual perspective of motivation. The results revealed a strong positive correlation between teachers' motivational practices and students' motivated behavior. Using the same instrument, Papi and Abdollahzadeh (2012) explored also the link between teachers' use of motivational strategies and students' motivated behavior in language classes in the Iranian context and similarly found a strong correlation between these two constructs. Dörnyei's Motivational strategies framework has been used and validated empirically in various and diverse contexts such as Korea (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008), Iran (Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012), Saudi Arabia (Moskovsky et al., 2012), Japan (Sugita McEown & Takeuchi 2014), China (Wong, 2014), and Hungaria (Kouraichi & Lesznyák, 2022).

The current contextual focus on motivation emphasizes the vital role of teachers who can have a positive or negative impact on the motivation of students in educational contexts (Ushioda, 2012). The literature on student motivation constantly indicates that teacher's practices in the classroom influence students' motivation as well as their achievement (Deci & Ryan 2000; Dörnyei, 2001; Garcia & Pintrich 1996; Noels et al. 1999; Reeve et al. 2004; Pintrich, 1999; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Stolk et al., 2021), however, the focus of this studies were only in face-to-face learning environments. To the author's knowledge, no studies have been published on the effects of teachers's motivational practices that rely on observational data of the actual practices of teachers and students behaviours in the actual context.

2.8 Motivation in Blended Learning

Motivation in blended learning, which integrates both face-to-face and online delivery modalities (Chew et al., 2010), differ as the level of motivation is not the same as in face-to-face teaching environments (Cespón & Lage, 2022). Online learning, with the enhancements of technology and the affordances it provides as well as the impact of Covid-19, has grown to become an important part of higher education (Otter et al., 2013). Attempts to compare student motivation and academic success between online and face-to-face modalities have produced inconsistent results due to the variety of contexts, disparate conceptualizations, and methodological variations (Tratnik et al., 2017; Tomej, 2022). While some research suggests that the motivation of online students is similar or even stronger than their face-to-face counterparts (Sitzmann et al., 2006; Stewart, Bachman, & Johnson 2010) other studies concluded that students receiving face-to-face intructions has significantly higher level of motivation (Allen et al., 2004; Chyung 2001; Chen & Jang 2010). Despite the indifferent results in motivation that one of the biggest challenges and drawbacks that is emphasized in online learning environments is the lack of student motivation and participation as (Adnan & Anwar, 2020; Alp & Sevilen, 2021; Fong, 2022; Hartnett et al., 2011; Kim & Frick, 2011; Ryan & Deci 2020).

Comparing the motivation and satisfaction of students in a Business English course in a higher education context taught entirely online and face-to-face Tratnik et al., (2017), concluded that although online learning may offer a number of opportunities, the traditional course format is a preferable delivery mode for foreign language instruction and online learners' level of motivation was lower compared to the face-to-face learners. Similarly, Torrado Cespón and Díaz Lage (2022) found out that in general, students taking face-to-face English language courses showed higher levels of motivation and were more satisfied with the course on several dimensions than their online counterparts. Despite the considerable volume of research in online learning, many educators are still concerned about how online learning can be used in an effective way (Tratnik et al., 2017). Digital technologies encourage multitasking, therefore different strategies than face-to-face teaching is likely to be more useful for maintaining motivation in online learning (Torrado Cespón & Díaz Lage, 2022).

Current paradigm considers language learning motivation as a dynamic process in natural classroom contexts which is subject to fluctuations (e.g., Dörnyei, 2000, 2001, 2009; Ushioda, 1996; Williams & Burden, 1997), and impose teachers a vital role as they are the 'principal orchestrators of the learning context' (Ushioda, 2012, p.70). Ushioda (2005) conducted research about the attitudes and motivation of students in an online language learning course in which the students also met once a week with their teacher as a class and individually. According to the results of the study 'teacher-specific motivational components', which are related to creating an enjoyable classroom environment, 'emerged as a crucial factor' (Ushioda, 2005, p.68) in determining students' motivation.

Currently, blended learning is popular in higher education institutions and continues to expand all over the world (Halverson et al., 2017; Lu et al., 2018; Ibrahim & Nat, 2019), but being a relatively new phenomenon there is a scarcity of research in the literature and even less in terms of motivation and motivational practices (Albiladi & Alshareef, 2019). To the author's knowledge no article, investigating the relationship between teachers' motivational teaching practice and students' language learning motivation neither in a blended nor online learning context, has been published. The strategies that are considered to be effective in face-to-face classes might not accommodate in online or blended learning contexts and as blended learning is expanding in higher education, it is an area to be explored. Furthermore, raising teachers' awareness of their crucial role in facilitating their students' motivation has significant implications for classroom practice. Understanding how this role contributes to shaping processes of motivation calls for contextually grounded classroom research.

This study aims to address this gap by adopting current motivation in context perspective and aims to provide empirical data obtained through online and face-to-face classroom observations involving 11 teachers and 352 students. In a blended learning context, the study investigates (1) Turkish university EFL teachers' use of motivational strategies in face-to-face and online modalities and their impact on students' motivated behavior, and their self-reported level of motivation It equally highlights the difference in the teachers' use of motivational strategies in online and face-to-face modalities with an added novel feature by not relying only upon self-report scales instead using a classroom observation scheme. The study will adress the below research questions;

RQ 1. What is the nature of the relationship between the teachers' motivational practices, the students' motivated behavior, and their self-reported level of motivation?

RQ 2: Is there a significant difference between students' motivated learning behaviors in the modes of delivery? And if yes is there any relationship between the teachers' motivational practices and the motivational behavior of students in face-to-face and online modalities?

RQ 3: Are there any differences in the use of teachers' motivational strategies between the modes of delivery?

RQ 4: What are the students' insights into the teachers' motivational practices in a blended learning model? What are the associations of these strategies with autonomy, competence, and relatedness regarding the differences between face-to-face and online modalities?

Chapter 3

Methodology

3.1 Research Design

Until the mid-20th century the quantitative approaches were the dominant form of research in the social sciences, however through the end of the 20th century qualitative research, as well as the mixed methods research have attracted attention (Creswell, 2014).

Quantitative research draws conclusions about the population that are statistically significant by analyzing a representative sample of the population. Quantitative studies use a deductive approach to search for regularities in the population and describe the degree or relationships by using numbered data (Creswell, 2014).

One of the main criticism quantitative approaches faces is that it fails to provide in-depth knowledge and explanations regarding the experience of the participants and additionally, the variables such as perceptions, opinions, and beliefs cannot be meaningfully captured by numbers and statistics or without reference to the context in which the study takes place (Choy, 2014).

Qualitative research conversely adopts an inductive approach in which the researcher generates meaning from the data obtained within the context. In other words, qualitative studies make meaning from the data rather than proving a hypothesis. One of the main advantages of qualitative study is that by using thick descriptions of participants', opinions, perceptions, and experiences the researched phenomena can be studied in-depth which in return provides realistic and richer results (Creswell, 2014; Rahman, 2016). This procedure can add to the validity of the findings.

Under the influence of social psychology, L2 motivation research has historically adhered to the principles of quantitative research methods, making extensive use of various questionnaires and scales. Motivation and its components were traditionally investigated in a quantifiable manner with statistical analysis (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011). However, due to the restrictions attributed to the quantitative approaches, language learning motivation research started to employ qualitative approaches (Boo et al., 2015). Qualitative studies are argued to focus on the exploration of the researched phenomenon and allow the researcher to interpret the aspects from multiple perspectives (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). By the end of 20 th century, qualitative approaches started to be used increasingly along with traditional quantitative studies with the two methods being complementary to each other. Providing rich and detailed data, interpretive methods are considered to be ‘in many ways better suited to explore the internal dynamics of the intricate and multilevel construct of student motivation than quantitative methods’ (Dörnyei, 2001b, p. 49). The paradigm shift in motivation which considers motivation as a situated and dynamic concept gave rise to the qualitative approaches in language motivation research (Ushioda, 2009).

Both the qualitative and quantitative approaches have some biases and weaknesses and combining the two paradigms into one research design is one way to overcome the drawbacks of these approaches and this type of research is called mixed methods research (Creswell, 2014). A combination of qualitative and quantitative data provide an improved understanding of the problem and add to the overall strength of the research (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Ivankova et al., 2006; Creswell, 2003).

This research employed an explanatory sequential mixed method which consisted of both quantitative and qualitative methods. Ivankova et al. (2006) define the ‘explanatory sequential mixed method’ as ‘collecting and analyzing quantitative and then qualitative data in two consecutive phases within one study’ (p.3). This method is considered explanatory because the initial quantitative data results are explained further with the qualitative data. The first part was the quantitative phase and it was complemented by the second part which was the qualitative phase. The quantitative research method is adopted to explore the relationships between L2 teachers’ motivational practice, their students’ motivated behavior, and students’ self-reported level of L2 motivation. Additionally, the differences in the use of teachers’ motivational strategies between face-to-face and online modalities and their impact on students’ motivated behavior are investigated in the quantitative dimension of the research. Specifically, research questions one, two, and three were analyzed with a quantitative approach.

The other aim of the quantitative analysis was to enable the researcher to form groups of students that are high or low-motivated. This differentiation was needed to determine the sample for the quantitative phase of the study.

Creswell (2008), states that the follow-up in-depth exploratory interviews enable the researcher to make inferences across both the quantitative and qualitative data. Qualitative data is used when a theory base is not yet developed and the researcher needs to listen to the participants to understand the researched phenomenon better. Following the first phase of the study, qualitative data is gathered to develop a deeper understanding of the students' insights into the teachers' motivational practices to explore how the instructional strategies influence students in different modalities. The exploratory follow-up to the quantitative results aimed to investigate the effect of teachers' motivational practices on the language learning experiences and motivation of the language learners in order to come up with specific aspects that may enhance students' motivation in L2 learning contexts. Purposive sampling is used in qualitative research to identify the information-rich participants in order to help the researcher explore the research problem better (Bernard, 2002). Students with extreme motivational scores (high and low) and different modalities (face-to-face and online) are purposefully chosen to get an insight into instructions-related motivation dimensions and the strategies that may facilitate or impede motivation across modalities.

Specifically, research question four is investigated by the utilization of qualitative methods with the purposive sampling generated through quantitative analysis (high and low motivated students).

3.2 Participants and setting

Altogether 11 teachers and 352 students from 22 classes (11 face-to-face classes – 11 online classes) participated in the first part (quantitative phase) of the study. The students who participated in the study are all B1 level students in an English language preparatory program at an English medium University in Turkey. The teachers were also members of the same university.

All undergraduate students, enrolled in the university, are required to complete the English Preparatory Program successfully. The preparatory program has a modular system involving 5 eight-week modules in an academic year, and it offers 4 levels (A1, A2, B1, B2) and a Proficiency Exam Preparation Course (PREP-C). Each module consists of intensive blended instruction and is structured to include 45 minutes of integrated (reading, listening, speaking), and academic skills (writing and productive) skills lessons for seven weeks. Students must successfully complete each level before advancing to the next module. Students receive 14 class hours of online lessons, 8 hours of face-to-face lessons (2 days face-to-face & 3 days online), and 4 hours of asynchronous instruction. They also attend 1 class hour of synchronous online feedback sessions a week.

Each class is shared among two instructors. Fourteen hours (14x45) to integrated skills and 8 hours (8x45) to academic and productive skills are allocated each week. One of the integrated skills classes (1x45) is assigned for synchronous online feedback sessions a week. All the students in the B1 level receive 24 hours of instruction in total and attendance is compulsory at this level. B1 module consists of intensive blended instruction and is structured to include 45 minutes of integrated (reading, listening, speaking), and academic skills (writing and productive) skills lessons for seven weeks. Students must successfully complete each level before advancing to the next module.

The teachers receive training about various topics including teaching in online environments and motivational strategies.

All the teachers in the B1 module follow the same curriculum with the same weekly syllabus by using the same materials that are prepared by the faculty's materials development department. The teachers give three days of face-to-face and two days of online instruction.

Participants for the qualitative phase (second part) were purposefully selected from the students who belonged to the classes with the highest and lowest motivation scores. Altogether eight focus group interviews consisting of 64 students were conducted. Written consent is obtained both from the students and teachers. The institution was informed about the study and the ethics council approval has been granted before the initiation of the study.

3.2.1 Student-participants. As demonstrated in Table 1, the quantitative part of the study consisted of 352 students that made up of 187 (53 %) males and 165 (47 %) females all of whom were B1 level students from the preparatory program of the university. Their age ranged from 18 to 26 with an average age of 20 years. While 194 (55%) students were from 11 face-to-face classes, the remaining 158 (45%) were from 11 online classes. The students from face-to-face and online classes included different students in each of the 22 classes since each teacher has one face-to-face and one online class.

The qualitative part of the study included 64 students made up of 28 (44%) online and 36 (56 %) face-to-face classes. Altogether eight classes that have the two highest and two lowest motivation score from each modality were interviewed (two high motivation face-to-face, two low motivation face-to-face, two high motivation online, and two low motivation online). Each of the face-to-face focus interviews was conducted with 9 students and the online ones with 7 students, each lasting 40-45 minutes and without the presence of their teachers.

The participants for the piloting phase consisted of 14 male and 22 female students with a total number of 36 from two face-to-face and two online classes and with two female teachers. The age of students in the piloting phase aged from 18 to 25 with an average of 21 years.

Table 1

Statistical Data of the Student Participants

Phase	**Online Class**				**Face-to-face Class**			
	Classes (N)	Students (N)	Students' Gender		Classes (N)	Students (N)	Students' Gender	
			Male	Female			Male	Female
Piloting	2	16	8(50 %)	8(50%)	2	20	6 (30 %)	14(70%)
Quantitative	11	158	85 (54%)	73 (46%)	11	194	102(53%)	92(56%)
Qualitative	4	28	12 (43%)	16 (57%)	4	36	20 (56%)	16 (44%)

3.2.2 Teacher-participants. Eleven EFL teachers participated in the study. Their ages ranged from 25 to 42 with an average age of 34 years and teaching experience from 5 to 18 years (M = 8.81; SD = 4.23). All the teachers held a bachelor's degree in English Language Education with five of them holding MA in the same field and all of them have several additional qualifications (i.e., TEFL, CELTA, PDU Certificates) that make them qualified English teachers. All of the teachers regularly participate in the conferences and seminars that are organized by the Professional Development Unit (PDU) of the university on a weekly basis. PDU activities include both professional and personal development training such as 'Improving Online Instruction, 'Motivation on Online Platforms', 'Scaffolding learners to participate in speaking activities', 'Taking the Opportunity to be Happy' and etc.

The same teachers were observed once for face-to-face and once for the online class and altogether 22 classes were observed for the study.

In the piloting phase, two teachers for both modalities each (face-to-face and online) were observed. Together 2 online and 2 face-to-face observations were conducted for the piloting phase.

Table 2

Data of the Teacher Participants (Quantitative and qualitative phase)

Teacher	Gender	Experience (Years)	Qualification in English Education
1	F	5	MA
2	F	7	BA
3	M	7	MA
4	F	5	BA
5	F	9	MA
6	F	18	BA
7	F	6	MA
8	M	5	BA

Table 2 (Cont.)

9	F	9	MA
10	M	14	BA
11	F	12	BA

3.3 Data collection tools

The data collections tools used for this study were (1) the motivational orientation of language teaching classroom observation scheme (MOLT), (2) the post-lesson teacher evaluation scale, (3) SIMS, (4) semi-structured interviews. These tools are explained in detail in the next section and which tool used to answer each research question is presented in Table 4.

3.3.1 The Motivational Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT) classroom observation scheme. L2 teachers' motivational teaching practice and the students' motivated behavior in classroom activities were assessed by a classroom observation scheme, the Motivational Orientation to Language Teaching (MOLT). The instrument was developed by Guilloteaux & Dörnyei (2008) to assess the motivation of students quantitatively in classroom settings. MOLT was developed based on Dörnyei's (2001) taxonomy of motivational strategies' and Spada and Fröhlich's (1995) 'classroom observation scheme', the Communicative Orientation to Language Teaching (COLT). Combining the two established frameworks MOLT enables the researcher to collect organized data from classroom observations by using a time sampling format to continuously record relevant classroom occurrences every minute. The observer records the events that takes place within a one-minute time segment. When two different events belonging to the same category happen within a one-minute time segment, the box is checked for the one that had taken up the greater portion of the one-minute segment.

MOLT consists of two main sections that document students' motivated behavior and the teacher's motivational teaching practice.

The first section, students' motivated behavior, is operationalized as the students' levels of behavioral engagement which are assessed by the observer with regard to the proportion of students who paid attention or actively participated during the class, and who eagerly volunteered during teacher-fronted oral activities. Students' motivated behavior consists of three dimensions namely ‘attention, participation, and volunteering’. Three level-scale is used to record the motivational behaviors of students. Students’ motivated behavior is observed and recorded minute-by-minute. When at least two-thirds of the students look at the teacher, follow the teacher, and do not show any inattentive behavior they are documented as displaying high attention. Similarly, when at least two-thirds of the students actively take part in classroom interaction or work on assigned activities they are considered as showing high participation. As for the volunteering dimension, the students are considered as eagerly volunteering when in a one-minute time segment at least one-third of the students volunteer without any pressure from the teacher (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). The variables and the three-level scale of students’ motivated behavior are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

The variables and the Three Level-Scale of Students’ Motivated Behavior

Variables	Description
Attention	*Students appear to be paying attention, e.g., by looking at the teacher and following his/her movements, by looking at visual stimuli, by turning to watch another student who is contributing to the task, by following the text being read, by making appropriate nonverbal responses, and/or by not displaying any inattentive of disruptive behavior.*
• Very low attention	• A few students pay attention
• Low attention	• 1/3 to 2/3 of the students pay attention
• High attention	• More than 2/3 of the students pay attention
Participation	*Students take an active part in classroom interaction or work on assigned activity.*

Table 3 (Cont.)

• Very low participation	• A few students pay attention
• Low participation	• 1/3 to 2/3 of the students pay attention
• High participation	• More than 2/3 of the students pay attention
Volunteering for teacher-fronted activity	*Students volunteer readily to participate in a teacher-fronted activity without the teacher having to coax them in any way*
• No volunteering	• Students do not volunteer; the teacher has to call on them
• Slow volunteering	• Students need encouragement before a few of them eventually volunteer
• Eager volunteering	• At least one third of the students volunteer readily without the teacher having to coax them in any way.

Extracted from Guilloteaux, 2008 p. 134.

The second major section of MOLT represents teacher's motivational teaching practice and is based on 's (2001) taxonomy of motivational teaching strategies. This part consists of 25 observable motivational strategies that are grouped into four categories; (1) Teacher Discourse, (2) Participation Structure, (3) Encouraging Positive Retrospective Self-Evaluation, and (4) Task Design.

3.3.2 The Post-Lesson Teacher Evaluation scale. The Post-Lesson Teacher Evaluation scale is developed by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) in order to increase the reliability of MOLT. Inspired by Gardner's (1985) "Attitudes toward the L2 teacher" scale, the instrument includes nine bipolar items. The items focus on the motivation-specific features of the teacher's instructional behavior. The scale was used by the researcher after each lesson observation to provide a post-hoc evaluation of the teachers' classroom practices and behavior.

3.3.3 Situation Motivation Scale (SIMS). The Situation Motivation Scale (SIMS) is used to assess students' self-reported level of L2 motivation. The scale, developed by Guay, Vallerand and Blanchard (2000), presents the self-reported measure of situational intrinsic motivation on a continuum of self-determination. The questionnaire consisted of 16 items which are evaluated by a Likert scale, ranging from 1 to 7. The scores for the constructs of motivation are measured by the scale and the scores are used to calculate a single motivation score called the self-determination index (SDI).

The Situation Motivation Scale by Deci and Ryan (1985). It categorized motivation into four types i.e. intrinsic motivation, identified regulations, external regulation and amotivation. The questionnaire consisted of 16 items. Guay et al., (2000) have developed the Situational Motivational Scale (SIMS) which assesses intrinsic motivation (IM), identified regulation (IR), external regulation (ER), and amotivation (AM). The SIMS has demonstrated high validity and reliability in the context of both education and broader contexts (Guay et al., 2000).

3.3.4 Focus group interviews. After analyzing the quantitative data, a qualitative analysis approach was employed with a purposefully selected sample of low and high motivated students. Altogether eight focus group interviews consisting of 64 students were conducted. Two of the classes that have the highest and lowest motivation scores from each modality were interviewed (four face-to-face, and four online classes). The aim of the qualitative phase was to obtain a better insight into students' interpretations of the use of teachers' motivational practices and how these practices affect their motivation in different modalities.

Focus group interviews help researchers to develop a deeper understanding of participants' experiences and generally involve open-ended questions (Creswell, 2008). The semi-structured, open-ended questions in the focus group interviews were developed with reference to current motivation literature and aimed to elicit students' interpretations of their teacher's motivational teaching practice. Peer debriefing which allows a qualified peer researcher to review the interview questions is conducted to enhance the credibility of the research.

Each focus group was asked the following questions:

(1) How did blended education affect your motivation? Please describe.
(2) In what ways do you think online and face-to-face education differ?
(3) In what ways did online classes affect your motivation? How?
(4) Can you describe how you usually feel during your interaction with the instructor in the online sessions? Why?
(5) When you think about your blended language learning experience do you think there is a relationship between your motivation and your teacher's behaviors in the classes?
(6) Think about face-to-face and online classes. Can you compare your experiences; how does it affect your motivation? Please compare your feelings about face-to-face and online classes.
(7) Can you give specific examples that your teacher manifests which can make the lesson more attractive or make you feel motivated during online and face-to-face lessons?
(8) How satisfied are you with your interaction with the other students in the online and face-to-face sessions in general? (think about pair/group works, group and individual games etc.) How did the activities affect your motivation?
(9) When you think about the online lessons can you give examples that you feel motivated or you willingly and actively participated in the lessons?
(10) When you think about the activities, and teacher's practices; can you describe any instances that you enjoyed more during the online classes or any different strategy that made the lesson more interesting?
(11) What do you think the teachers can employ in the online class to help you be more motivated?

3.4 Data Collection and Procedures

Following, piloting the MOLT, The Post-Lesson Teacher Evaluation, and SIMS scales the study included two main phases; phase (1) qualitative part of the study which includes lesson observations, phase (2) qualitative part of the study. Data were collected during the fall semester of the academic year 2022-2023.

3.4.1 Pilot Study. The MOLT, the post-lesson teacher evaluation and SIMS scales were undergone piloting process. The scales were piloted to determine if they were appropriate to the context, and to experience the use of the instruments during the process. Four pilot classroom observations were conducted before the start of the actual study and lasted two weeks. Face-to-face observations conducted by the researcher being phscically in the classroom however online observations were carried out by watcing the recordings of the online classes.

The piloting process showed that the MOLT was appropriate to the context however it was challenging to observe both students' motivational behaviour and teachers' motivational practice, therefore it is decided to record each lesson. This enabled the researcher to go back to the recordings and double-check the time coding which can also contribute to the validity of the study.

The SIMS questionnaire was also piloted to detect and deal with the problems that might arise during the use of it in the actual data collection phase. SIMS questionnaires were administered to the students right before each pilot class observation. It was detected that the guidelines and the purpose of the study should be explained in more detail for the students to understand the idea of the questionnaire and to allow them to express their level of motivation about the their L2 learning experience and lesson in general.

3.4.2 Quantitative part (Phase 1). The quantitative phase of the study aimed to find out (1) the nature of the relationship between the teachers' motivational practices, the students' motivated behavior, and their self-reported level of motivation, (2) if there is any difference between students' motivated learning behaviors according to the modes of delivery and if yes to what extend can it be related to the teachers' motivational practices, and (3) whether there are any differences in the use of teachers' motivational practices between the modes of delivery. Data collection procedures for the quantitative phase of the study comprised the motivational orientation of language teaching (MOLT) classroom observation scheme, the post-lesson teacher evaluation scale, and the situation motivation scale (SIMS) all of which applied for both modalities following the same procedures.

Prior to data collection, approval of the Ethics Committee of the University was obtained to conduct the research (Appendix F). Upon obtaining the approval, initially teacher participants were informed about the process. Before the observations, all the teacher and student participants were briefed about the study and given a consent form that informed the purpose of the study and how the data would be collected and used. The participants were assured that their anonymity and confidentiality would be protected and the data would only serve the purposes of this research. They were reminded that participation is on a voluntary basis.

All class observations were carried out by the researcher. Face-to-face observations were carried out in the actual presence of the researcher, however, the online ones were recorded for the researcher to observe followingly.

3.4.2.1 Lesson Observations – MOLT. Before the main study commenced, piloting was undertaken at the beginning of the spring term of 2022. Completing the piloting phase, the 22 class observations were carried out for the first part of the study (quantitative phase). The observations of the quantitative phase took place in the spring term of 2022. Before the observations, all the teachers were informed about the purpose of the study and were briefed to carry out their regular lessons and schedules. Each teacher having four or five hours of lessons every day chose the class hour of the observation within the day. Thmethodsey were reminded that the observation could not be one of the lessons that the teachers and the students were not active such as completing an individual task, worksheet, or conducting an individual reading. The teachers were notified that regardless of what the activities were and how they were conducted not the subject of the observation and they should carry out their regular class and should not prepare special lessons for the observations. They were aware that their students' motivation would be assessed for that particular class at the end of the lesson and the lessons would be recorded for data collection and further analysis. They were additionally informed that the strategies they employed would be recorded as well as the students' observed motivation and all the participants' names would remain anonymous. The teachers were also briefed about the SIMS and how the students would fill out the questionnaire. After the briefing, written consent was obtained from the teachers. Working at the same institution as the teacher participants allowed me to have enhanced collaboration and get the necessary assistance on the observation process.

The student participants were informed right before the observation during their regular class hours. Introducing myself, I informed the students about the study and outlined that the main aim was to improve the motivation of the students in blended learning contexts and distributed the consent form. The observations started upon obtaining the written consent.

During the face-to-face observations, I sat by the door in an unobtrusive position where I can easily see the whole classroom and placed the camera (iPad) that can capture clear visuals and record the audio of the students and the teacher. I noted the practices and the motivational behavior of the students according to the time sampling format of the MOLT.

Online observations followed the same procedure except the information about the study was given to the students by their teacher and I was not present for the observations. The teachers supplied the recordings of the online classes to me. The written consent was taken from the students via Microsoft Teams. All the online student participants signed and sent their consent form to the teacher which the teacher shared with me after class.

3.4.2.2 SIMS. SIMS was administered right before each classroom observation via Microsoft Teams both for the face-to-face and online classes. At the university, online lessons are conducted on Microsoft Teams and students communicate their teacher online via this tool. Microsoft Teams is also used for announcements to students as well as for sharing the necessary information regarding the lessons or faculty. Therefore all the students have access to this tool on their phone and they are thoroughly competent at using it. The researcher was present at the SIMS completion process in the face-to-face classes and conveyed the necessary information to the students herself. However, in the online classes, the teachers operated the SIMS process which they had been briefed before with the rest of the information about the study. SIMS was operationalized to assess the students’ course-level motivation therefore it was appropriate to distribute them before the class.

3.4.2.3 The Post-Lesson Teacher Evaluation scale (**PLTE).** To increase the reliability of the study the post-lesson teacher evaluation scale *(*PLTE) is used. The instrument is filled out after each class observation by the researcher individually. The scale enabled the researcher to catch the personal and professional traits that could not be evaluted by the observation instrument.

Reliability of coding One coder was given 100% of the data to code and an additional coder coded a randomly selected 25% portion of the data. Inter-rater reliability scores were calculated using a simple percentage. Inter-rater reliability was calculated to be 93.5%. The coding of problematic episodes was negotiated until a consensus was reached. In the case of one episode, agreement could not be reached and the data in question were not used.

Table 4

Research Questions, Data Collection Methods and the Instruments

Research question	**Method**	**Instrument**
RQ 1. What is the nature of the relationship between the teachers' motivational practices, the students' motivated behavior, and their self-reported level of motivation?	Quantitative	(a) Teacher's Motivational Practice (MOLT + PLTE) (b) Students' Motivated Behavior, (engagement level + eager volunteering + attention) (c) Students' Self-reported Motivation (SIMS)
RQ 2: Is there a significant difference between students' motivated learning behaviors in the modes of delivery? And if yes is there any relationship between the teachers' motivational practices and the motivational behavior of students in face-to-face and online modalities?	Quantitative	(a) Teacher's Motivational Practice (MOLT + PLTE) (b) Students' Motivated Behavior, (engagement level + eager volunteering + attention)
RQ 3: Are there any differences in the use of teachers' motivational practices between the modes of delivery?	Quantitative	MOLT

Table 4 (Cont.)

RQ 4: What are the students' insights into the teachers' motivational practices in a blended learning model? What are the associations of these practices with autonomy, competence, and relatedness?	Qualitative	Focus Group Interview

3.4.3 Qualitative part (Phase 2). All eight interviews were conducted face-to-face each lasting 40-45 minutes. The classes that have the two highest and two lowest motivation scores from each modality were interviewed (4 face-to-face, 4 online). The students were informed that participation was on a voluntary basis and their names would remain anonymous just like the quantitative part of the study. The interviews were conducted in a friendly atmosphere as a speaking activity only with the researcher's presence. Students were notified that their contribution was significantly valuable for the effectiveness of the study and it was highly important that they shared their genuine feelings and thoughts. The aim of the questions were to have a deeper understanding of the perceptions and experiences of students in a blended learning environment. The students were directed to talk about specific motivational strategies and asked to elaborate on the effects of these strategies employed by the teachers along with making comparisons between face-to-face and online deliveries. Each focus group was conducted with 9-10 students.

3.5 Data analysis

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative analyses were conducted. The analysis conducted for this research is explained in detail in the next section. Table 4 demonstrates the research questions and related data collection method along with the instruments used.

3.5.1 Quantitative Analysis. Three composite scores were computed to obtain measures of (a) the teachers' motivational classroom practice, (b) the students' observed motivated behavior and (c) the students' self-reported motivated behavior for the quantitative analyses. Composite score is a single score derived from multiple resources and enables researcher to reduce multiple data scores into a single data point. In this research the aim was to assess the motivational practices of instructors comprehensively instead of suggesting a specific technique. Therefore, composite scores were used to reflect the general motivational practices of teachers and students' motivation level.

In sum computed composite variables were:

I. (a) Teacher's Motivational Practice (MOLT + PLTE)
II. (b) Students' Motivated Behavior, (engagement level + eager volunteering + attention)
III. (c) Students' Self-reported Motivation (SIMS)

After collecting the quantitative data normality, reliability, and validity tests (one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, Chronbach Alpha, and Factor Analysis, respectively) were conducted to examine the assumptions of statistical procedures and soundness of the analysis. Additionally, to test the normality Shapiro-Wilk test which is especially used for sample sizes smaller than 50 was run.

To assess the normality of distributions of the data for students' motivated behavior, L2 teachers' motivational strategies, post-lesson teacher evaluation, students' self-reported motivation (SIMS) the collected data were subjected to 1-sample K-S tests. An obtained p-value larger than .05 through running this test would point to the normality of the distributions of scores. Otherwise, it should be assumed non-normal distributions and use non-parametric tests where possible. The following table presents the results of the One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Tests. As can be seen in Table 5, all p values are larger than .05, that is, .200, which is the largest value that the test generates, meaning that all distributions have been normal.

Similarly, if the Sig. value of the Shapiro-Wilk Test is greater than 0.05, the data is considered to be normally distributed. Shapiro-Wilk Test results also presented a p-value that was greater than 0.05 meaning that the distribution of data is normal ($p=.400$).

Table 5

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test Results

		Students' motivated behavior	L2 teachers' motivational practices	Post-lesson teacher evaluation	Student self-reported motivation
N		22	22	22	22
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	67.0909	18.4087	4.9167	63.6667
	Std. Deviation	25.23963	9.9047	8.1137	22.69695
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.200[c,d]	.200[c]	.200[c]	.200[c,d]

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

c. Lilliefors Significance Correction.

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

All the quantitative anaysis were computed using the SPSS.

3.5.1.1 The teachers' motivational practice index. The index was the sum of two measures:

(a) The observational data, based on the minute-by-minute record of the teachers' behavior during class time which was obtained through the Motivational Orientation of Language Teaching observation scheme (MOLT).

(b) The retrospective evaluation of the teachers' professional qualities Post-Lesson Teacher Evaluation form that was filled out right after the observation of each session.

Initially, the tally marks representing the minutes of a particular motivational practice that the teachers displayed were added for each class. The variable scores for the time were standardized to take account of late starts. The total of the marks was divided by the actual length of the classes observed and multiplied by 100 to obtain proportionate rates that could be compared.

The 9 post-lesson teacher evaluation scale items, related to the personal qualities of language teachers, were all summed up into one variable by computing the means for every teacher.

Consequently, the teacher's Motivational Practice index was made by summing up the two measures' (observational data and the post-lesson evaluation) standardized values (z scores) to account for differences in their measurement scales. Having created these two composite variables, a Pearson correlational analysis was conducted between them.

3.5.1.2.The Student Motivated Behavior Index. In order to gauge the learners' motivated behavior in terms of alertness, participation, and volunteering, another composite measure was computed using the data obtained through the first part of MOLT. Same as the motivational practice of teachers' measure, the tally marks of the students that represent alertness, participation, and volunteering aspects of the students on a minute-by-minute observation were calculated and standardized to take account of late starts. The students' motivated learning behavior was operationalized as students' levels of behavioral engagement in instructional events.

3.5.1.3 The students' self-reported motivated behavior. The students' self-reported motivated behavior index was computed using the data obtained through SIMS scale. The answers to the items on the scale ranged from 1 (minimum) to 7 (maximum).

To compute an overall self-reported motivated behavior index for students, initially, the four subscale variables associated with each motivation type were calculated for each student. Then, a single index that represented the self-reported motivation score of the student was calculated by the weighted calculation which is called the self-determination index (SDI) Guay, et al., 2000). SDI scores can range from a minimum of -72 to a maximum of +72. SDI is used for the overall motivation of students, while the subscale scores were analyzed as an indicator of various types of motivation at the contextual level for engaging in an activity (Vallerand et al., 2008).

To assess the validity of the SIMS questionnaire (with 16 questions and 4 sub-scales each measured by 4 items) a factor analysis using the Direct-oblimin extraction method (a kind of oblique method) was used. The Direct oblimin assumes that the sub-scales are correlated to some degree, which was the case in this study. The Total Variance explained revealed that the four extracted factors together accounted for more than 93% of the variance, which is very strong evidence supporting the validity of the questionnaire. As the last step in examining the assumptions of the questionnaire, its reliability was measured using the Cronbach Alpha test. The reliability statistic for the SIMS questionnaire was .899. Values above .7 are considered to be large enough to guarantee the reliability of the instrument. It should be noted that to calculate the reliability of the questionnaire, motivation scores calculated for the 22 classes observed were used.

Finally, classroom motivation level means were computed for the data constituting the index, which resulted in another set of composite scores (which included 22 class-level means).

3.5.2 Qualitative analysis. The qualitative data analysis was based on content analysis. Content analysis research approach is used to describe and interpret the textual data using the systematic process of coding. The final product of data analysis is the identification of categories and themes. Content analysis is a commonly used approach for building a deeper understanding of human perceptions and experiences. This research involved both inductive and deductive data analysis processes. The face-to-face conducted interviews were recorded and then transcribed. The analysis of the transcribed interviews started with deductive analysis which helped identify the motivational features that were reflected by the students, associated to autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Casula et al. 2021). Analyzing the experiences of students and their interpretation of the teachers' motivational practices in the class allowed the researcher to align the qualitative data with the SDT framework in relation to three basic psychological needs. In line with SDT, students' perceptions of their teacher's teaching practices were extracted for coding in relation to the constructs of autonomy support, competence, and relatedness. (Lietaert et al., 2015; Sierens et al., 2009; Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013; Vollet et al., 2017). Followingly, the inductive approach allowed us to identify themes representing each one of the satisfaction of basic needs (e.g., autonomy based on participants' perceptions). Finally, taking a deductive approach again, the data was re-examined to determine if more evidence can support each theme or whether additional information is needed. Representative excerpts from participants' answers were presented.

In order to ensure trustworthiness, triangulation is used to attain credibility, and thick descriptions were utilized to improve transferability. The coding process involved another researcher who had an experience in qualitative data processing. Two researchers independently created codes, sub-categories, and the main themes. After the individual coding process, the researchers jointly studied the codes until reaching a common consensus on the final themes. The intercoder agreement was 90% which was higher than the recommended consistency by Miles and Huberman (1994) to increase the reliability of the qualitative results. In order to improve the trustworthiness of the study also debriefing is employed, and the analysis processes were audited by Dikilitaş, thesis adviser and an expert is in the field. Reviewing and interpreting the data with a highly experienced researcher provided an objective assessment of the study (Creswell 2014).

3.6 Researcher's Role

Embracing an immediate relationship between the researcher and the participants being explored this research has posed some challenges. First of all, being a part rather than separate from the research topics it was thoroughly important to remain completely objective to the phenomena that was under investigation.

Another challenge is that qualitative research exerts a responsibility to the researcher to report data in a manner that does not rely solely on statistical methods for presenting or justifying their findings. The credibility and reliability of the findings or results of a given research project will depend on the researcher's capacity to present a sound argumentation for their findings, while ensuring an unbiased representation of the data (Fink, 2000).

For the current research, I have recruited the participants, collected questionnaire data, conducted actual observations, videotaped the observed online and face-to-face classes, took classroom observation field notes, completed post-observation reflections, conducted the interviews, translated and transcribed the interview data, and finally, analyzed, interpreted and reported the results. Conducting the resarch on the site that I am recruited, and collecting the data from a source that I was familiar with facilitated the data collection process in areas such as getting permissions or approvals and recruiting participants and also allowed for better interpretation of specific context-related data.

Chapter 4

Findings

In the following chapter, the results of the study will be presented under two distinct sections. The first part will focus on the presentation of the findings for the results of the quantitative phase. The second section will present the findings of the qualitative phase. The results of the study will be presented in relation to each research question.

4.1 Findings of the Quantitative Phase

In this chapter, the results of the study will be presented in relation to each research questions.

4.1.1 Nature of the relationship between the teachers' motivational practices, the students' motivated behavior, and their self-reported level of motivation. The relationship between the teachers' motivational practices, the students' motivated behavior, and their self-reported level of motivation was investigated by computing three composite measures. A Pearson correlational analysis was conducted between these measures. As it can be seen from the results, a high positive correlation existed between teachers' motivational practices and students' motivated learning behavior with $r = .63$, $p = .001 < .05$ (Table 6). A positive correlation would imply that as the observed teachers engaged more in motivational practices, the students' demonstrated more motivated learning behavior. The findings for the relationship between students' motivated learning behavior and their self-reported motivation demonstrated a moderate positive correlation ($r = .34$, $p = .001 < .05$). A higher moderate positive correlation ($r = .42$, $p = .001<.05$) between teachers' Motivational practices and students' Self-reported Motivation was found.

Table 6

Correlations Among the Three Composite Motivational Measures

		Students' motivated behavior	Teachers' motivational practices
Students' motivated behavior	Pearson Correlation	-	.63**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.001
	N	22	
Students' Self-reported Motivation	Pearson Correlation	.34**	.42**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.001
	N	22	

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

To reiterate, the computed composite variables were:

(a) Teacher's Motivational Practice (MOLT + PLTE)

(b) Learners' Motivated Behavior, (engagement level + eager volunteering + attention)

4.1.2 The differences in students' motivated learning behavior between the modes of delivery and the relationship between the teachers' motivational practices and the motivational behavior of students in face-to-face and online modalities. Firstly, an independent-samples t-test was run to answer the first part of this double-barrelled question which was to determine if there was a significant difference in students' motivated learning behaviors between face-to-face and online modes of delivery. After this test, the second part of the question is examined by running separate correlations for face-to-face and online groups. The results of the tests are given in the following tables.

The group statistics table shows that the mean for the face-to-face group is much higher than the mean for the online group, 87.60 and 50, 00, respectively (Table 7). The group statistics table provides us with the means, standard deviations, and standard errors of means. The standard error is an estimate of the possible difference between the means of the sample and the population from which it is taken.

Table 7

Group Statistics of Students' Motivated Learning Behavior

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Students' motivated learning behavior	face-to-face	11	87.6	16.83	5.32
	Online	11	50	12.83	4.86

An independent-samples t-test was run to determine if there a significant difference in students' motivated learning behaviors between face-to-face and online deliveries. The results showed that the students in the face-to-face group (M = 87,6, SD = 16.83) showed higher levels of motivated learning behaviors than the online group (M =50, SD = 12.83). This difference was significant (t = 5.217, df= 20, p = .001 < .05). The Leven's test showed that the two groups are homogeneous in terms of variance which met the assumptions for the Independent Samples t Test for these groups.

Table 8

Independent Samples Test Results

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
students' motivational learning behavior	Equal variances assumed	.000	**.991**	5.217	20	**.000**	37.60	7.21	22.55	52.63
	Equal variances not assumed			5.217	19.289	.000	37.60	7.21	22.53	52.67

To answer the second part of the second research question, that is, whether there is any relationship between L2 teachers' motivational practices and the motivational learning behavior of students in face-to-face and online modes of delivery, separate correlations were computed. Table 9 is indicative of a positive relationship between teachers' motivational practices and students' motivated behavior in face-to-face classes, but this correlation does not reach a significant level ($r = .544$, $p = .08 > .05$). This might be due to the limited number of classes observed. In contrast, as it is demonstrated in Table 10 there was a very strong negative correlation between students' motivated behavior and teachers' motivational practices in online classes ($r = -.917$, $p < .05$). The connotation of this finding is that, in the online classes observed, contrary to what teachers might have expected, their motivational endeavors have backfired and the students have lost in their motivational intensity.

Table 9

Correlations between the teachers' motivational practices and the Students' motivated behaviour in face-to-face classes

		Students' motivated learning behavior	Teachers' motivational practices
Students' motivated learning behavior	Pearson Correlation	1	.544
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.084
	N	11	11

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

Table 10

Correlations Between the Teachers' Motivational Practices and the Students' Motivated Behaviour in Online Classes

		Students' motivated Learning behavior	Teachers' motivational practices
Students' motivated learning behavior	Pearson Correlation	1	-.917**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	11	11

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

4.1.3 The differences in the use of teachers' motivational practices between the modes of delivery. Elicitation of self/peer correction session, scaffolding, personalization, group work, and promoting cooperation was the first five motivational practices that the teachers employed in face-to-face settings; whereas scaffolding, neutral feedback session, signposting personalization, and referential questions were the top five strategies that the teachers utilized in the online classes respectively.

Scaffolding and personalization are the two common strategies that are used in both modalities, which are both teacher-directed in nature and involve teacher-student interaction. However, in face-to-face classes, teachers adopted motivational practices that also include student-student interaction as well as student-directed ones. The descriptive statistics of the teachers' use of the top 5 motivational strategies are presented in Table 11. Contrary to face-to-face classes no activities that involve student-student interaction was prioritized in the online settings.

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics of the Teachers' Use of top 5 Motivational Practices

Face-to-face	Mean	SD	Online	Mean	SD
Elicitation of self/peer correction session	3	7,1	***Scaffolding***	2,67	0,8
Scaffolding	2,5	5,5	Neutral feedback session	1,17	0,5
Personalization	2,17	5,4	Signposting	1,17	0,4
Group work	2	4,9	***Personalization***	0,92	0,8
Promoting cooperation	1,83	5,7	Referential Questions	0,83	0,5

Two out of the 25 observed motivational strategies were not employed at all by the teachers in the face-to-face classes, however, this number increased to nine in the online settings. The two mutual strategies, namely 'tangible reward and promoting integrative values' were not adopted by the teachers in either of the modalities. Along with those two, (1) pair work, (2) promoting cooperation, (3) arousing curiosity or attention, (4) tangible task product, (5) intellectual challenge, (6) creative/interesting/fantasy element, (7) class applause were the other strategies that the teachers did not prefer to use in the online classes.

The five strategies that were utilized the least in the face-to-face delivery respectively were: (1) Tangible task product, (2) intellectual challenge, (3) arousing curiosity or attention, (4) promoting instrumental values, and (5) establishing relevance, whereas it was (1) group work, (2) team competition, (3) stating communicative purpose/utility of activity, (4) promoting instrumental values, and (5) establishing relevance in the online mode of delivery (see Appendix D for the descriptive statistics of the teachers' motivational strategies).

4.2 Findings of the Qualitative Phase

This section will present the teachers' motivational practices between face-to-face and online modalities and the student's perceptions of these practices in an actual classroom context in line with the SDT framework. The fourth research question focused on the students' perceptions and insights into the teachers' motivational practices in a blended learning model regarding the associations of these practices with autonomy, competence, and relatedness in order to comprehend how these strategies affect the fulfillment of the basic psychological needs of the students. Quantitative analysis revealed that although the teachers employed motivational strategies that support all three basic psychological needs in face-to-face classes, the strategies utilized in the online classes prioritized competence support such as scaffolding and neutral feedback. Although all the teachers in the online classes adopted motivational strategies that provide competence support, only a few of the teachers made use of the practices that support autonomy and relatedness. Additionally, the teachers who employed autonomy and relatedness supportive practices allocated considerably less time for these practices compared to the ones that are allocated for competence support. Focusing on both the differences in the use of teachers' motivational practices between face-to-face and online modalities and the student's perceptions of these practices in an authentic context the qualitative phase explored how teachers utilize the needs supportive practices for relatedness and autonomy.

It should be firstly mentioned that as expected, almost all of the students stated that they do not feel as motivated as they are in the online classes in general. Therefore, how the need supportive strategies were employed and what were the students' perceptions of these motivational strategies were the constituents of this phase. To gain a deeper understanding of the perceptions of the students they were asked direct questions such as to give specific examples about which practice affected their motivation, how they felt during the online classes, and in what way it affected them and how their experience differs between the modes of delivery. The results indicated that depending on the attitude and strategies of the teacher or the activity they were involved in, the students could be engaged in the lesson more and they can feel more motivated compared to some other online classes. The next section will give a detailed picture of the teachers' strategies that are perceived to support relatedness and the autonomy of the students in online environments.

4.2.1 Theme 1. Implementation of relatedness-supportive practices. Most of the students mentioned that it is more difficult for them to feel connected during the online lessons which negatively affects their motivation. Almost all of the students indicated that they miss being with their friends and they do not like the feeling of being alone in online classes. The overwhelming majority of the students mentioned that they can not interact with their friends and it makes the online lessons less attractive compared to the face-to-face lessons. The majority of the students also mentioned that the lack of teacher presence is also a factor that impedes their engagement in online lessons as well as the distracting home environment. Despite the above-mentioned drawbacks of online lessons, there are teachers' practices that students perceived as relatedness-supportive and motivation booster.

4.2.1.1 Social Chat

The students mentioned that it is important to have conversations that are not related to the lesson. One of the students demonstrated how social chat was used as a motivational strategy in one of the online sessions as follows:

> 'I like it when the teacher starts the lesson with a chat. It is more motivating. For example one of our teachers starts the lesson every Monday by talking about how our weekend was or how we feel that day. It is better than just starting the lesson. And Monday's first lesson is the most difficult one so social chat helps'.

Social chat also helps the students to feel connected and valued. It helps to create a bond between the teacher and the student in an online environment. The students feel valued when some special time is allocated for them rather than just delivering the lesson or giving directions on how to complete the activities. The majority of the students stated that in online environments, one of the most valued characteristics of an instructor is being a caring and understanding teacher. How social chat could help teachers build rapport with their students in an online environment is given in the following quote of a student participant:

> 'When the teacher tells us what to do and opens a worksheet to complete, or just make a presentation it is extremely boring. But it is more enjoyable when she makes some jokes or tells us something that shows she is really interested in what we learn. It is like she cares about us, she really wants us to learn'.

The students also valued the social chat that is constructed between students and perceive this practice as stimulating as well as motivating. One of the students elaborated on this experience as below:

> 'Sometimes one of our friends asks a question or just makes a comment on something that is not necessarily related to the lesson, then a discussion starts. The teacher lets us discuss or enjoy talking to each other about that issue. And it is like a break for us or time to catch up. As we don't see each other during the breaks like in face-to-face class it makes the lesson more fun'.

Some students further mentioned that social chat with the teacher makes the teacher more approachable and when needed they could seek assistance from the teacher with whom they had a small talk previously during the lessons. The following quote illustrates how social chat provides emotional and motivational support to students:

> 'One of our teachers is very approachable, each lesson we chat for a few minutes, she talks about what we want to do, how our studies are going, etc. and when I need to ask something I write her (for assistance) without hesitation'.

4.2.1.2 Group work- Promoting cooperation. The students indicated that group work activities are more motivating compared to the individual ones. Group work and the activities that promote cooperation provide students with a sense of connectedness and create opportunities for peer interaction which in return makes the class more enjoyable and motivating.

> ‘I prefer doing activities together. For example, the teachers put us in a break-out room and we prepare something together or complete an activity together. It is much more enjoyable than doing it alone’.

Although all the students believed that group work and cooperative activities are appealing some of the students mentioned the limitations of the break-out rooms also. One of the students explained an issue as below:

> ‘Group work activities are good opportunities for us to learn together and not to get bored while doing an activity but sometimes when knowing that the teacher is not there we may just start chatting. But when the teacher pops in to check what we are doing we immediately go back to the activity’.

In online environments, the teachers also need to monitor the group works that are performed in the break-out rooms. Another student raised the problem as below:

> ‘Sometimes when we go to the break-out rooms one or two of our friends just switch off their cameras and do nothing. The rest are left alone to complete the task and it gets boring’.

4.2.1.3 Team competition. The students indicated that they prefer activities that involve team competition and that participating in these type of activities facilitate the interaction between peers. Having been physically present in the face-to-face classes the students mentioned that knowing their friends in person allows them to enjoy participating in the team competitions more. One of the students expressed her feelings as below:

> ‘Sometimes the teacher puts us in groups and sets up an activity of a team competition such as ‘jeopardy labs’. As we already know our friends from face-to-face classes the competition is much more fun and we talk to each other to decide on the right answer during the game. This way we both learn and have fun.

In addition, the students agreed that the activities that involve elements of team competition are more stimulating and creative and additionally some of them considered these activities as the most pleasurable ones. The following quote illustrates how team competition is perceived among students:

> ‘It is really enjoyable when we play games as a team. My favorite activities are the games that we play as a team. For example, we play a vocabulary game ’mystery box’. The teacher forms three groups and whichever team's student knows the correct answer, that team gets the right to decide on the reward’. You need to be active all the time and this is a really stimulating activity’.

4.2.2 Theme 2. Implementation of autonomy-supportive practices. Even though most of the students stated that when compared to face-to-face classes, online classes are more teacher-centered and they do not complete the activities or engaged as willingly as they do in a traditional classroom they seem to enjoy and notice the motivational practices of teachers that are autonomy-supportive.

4.2.2.1 Promoting autonomy. Students agreed that they prefer the teachers to allow them to make some choices or to have a say in the activities they would do within the classroom structure. One of these practices is reflected by a student as follows:

> ‘Usually, the teacher tells us what we will be doing but sometimes she asks us what we would like to do and I think this is better. She even uses a tool for voting and we vote for the activity we want to do. I prefer to have a say in the activities that we conduct in the class’.

The autonomy-supportive activities are also considered more desirable and students feel more motivated while doing these activities. The students also appreciate the teacher’s seeking their ideas and opinions and state that they complete the activities willingly. The following quote presents how the students perceive autonomy-supportive teacher practices in online lessons as below:

> ‘In speaking lessons sometimes, the teacher gives us a choice of topics and we choose the one we want to speak about. It is a lot better than the teacher giving the topic and asking us to talk about it. I mean when the topic is given I feel kind of stuck, not knowing what to say and the topic can be boring for me. But when I choose the topic myself it is something that I feel like I can talk about. I guess it helps me to talk.

Another point that some students indicated regarding the activities that promote students' autonomy is that it can take full control of the classroom from the teacher and promotes a student-centered classroom environment in which the students are more active. How shifting roles in the class helps to create student-centered classrooms is exemplified by the following quote:

'In online classes, sometimes our teacher remains silent during the activity and tells us that we are in charge of the process. She tells us to choose the student who will answer the next question. The person who answers the question tells a name right after giving the response to choose the next student. I like that, it is like we are the teachers'.

In addition several students indicated that autonomy supportive activities increase their motivation by promoting opportunities for them to communicate creatively. These activities help students to reflect their thoughts and talk about their interests. It is reflected by one of the students as below:

'Sometimes the teacher sends us to the break-out rooms and tells us to prepare an oral presentation about a given topic with the structures we have just learned. We prepare that together and afterward present it to the class. We are free to prepare it as we like however we wish with our ideas. I prefer preparing it with friends as I like, it makes the activity more enjoyable'.

4.2.2.2 Establishing relevance. Establishing relevance is another motivational strategy that the teachers employed which supports autonomy. Some of the students mentioned that when the teachers make connections between the topic they learn and students' lives they tend to become more attentive and the lesson gets more interesting. This is illustrated in the below quote as follows:

'Before the reading activity, the teacher showed us an interesting picture. We talked about it for a while giving examples from our experiences. The reading got more interesting for me'.

Additionally, addressing the interests of the students in a classroom helps teachers to establish relevance which in turn can support learner engagement as is given in the following quote:

‘In the online lessons, I do not necessarily feel connected. How can I say, like I am not always interested in what we are learning, I kind of isolate myself may be because I am at home. But in some lessons, we talk about a topic that is interesting to me, connected to me in a way. These lessons feel more engaging’.

4.2.3 Theme 3. Implementation of competence-supportive practices. Competence-supportive strategies were the ones that have been employed most in the online classes. The majority of the students indicated that they receive feedback whenever they need or request and the instructions are clear and they can comprehend whatever is communicated to them.

4.2.3.1 Scaffolding. A good deal of students mentioned they find it useful when the teachers provide reviews on the topics that have been previously studied and it provides them with feelings of mastery and capability. The following quote presents how the students perceive competence-supportive teacher practices in online lessons as below:

‘Before we move on our teacher summarizes or goes over the things we have learned previously. This helps me to focus on learning more. And I can ask any questions I want during this revision. For example, if there is anything that is not clear that’s another chance for me to ask.’

Additionally, some of the students indicated that instructors often define the objectives of the lesson and give clear explanations about the topics. One of these practices is reflected by a student as follows:

‘The teacher starts the lesson by explaining to us what we will be learning that day’. She briefly tells us the activities we will conduct that day’

4.2.3.2 Neutral feedback session. The students consider the neutral feedback sessions as contributing to their mastery skills and they mentioned the usefulness of these practices when the teachers go over the answers of an activity. One of the students elaborated on this experience as below:

‘We go over the answers with the teacher and during this process, we can ask the ones that we do not understand and the teacher tells us the kind of acceptable answers. It is casual and helps me to understand the studied topic better’

The responses of the students indicated that consistent feedback supported their competence. This is illustrated by one of the students as below:

‘Sometimes we need to finish the lesson without answering the questions or completing the exercise. Then the teacher uploads the answer key on Teams and tells us where to find the file so that we can have a chance to check our own answers. In the next lesson, she asks us if we have any questions regarding those exercises. This is good because we can chechk our own mistakes and can make sense of them also there can be some questions that are unclear or hard to understand and we can clarify these later with the teacher’.

Chapter 5
Discussion and Conclusions

5.1 Discussion of Findings for Research Questions

This study took on the current approach of motivation as a dynamic process and collected data through class observations to shed light on one of the greatest challenges of 21st-century education which is grabbing the students' attention in the classrooms. The main purpose of this study was to examine the nature of the relationship between the teachers' motivational practices, the students' motivated behavior, and their self-reported level of motivation in a blended learning context and the differences in the employed strategies of teachers between modalities. Today's rapid globalization and advances in information and communication technologies necessitate a shift in the perspective and behavior of educators. Blended learning, which is predicted to dominate the higher education paradigm in the near future is likely to embrace the education of the 21st century's demands and requirements. Therefore, rather than just replicating conventional classroom activities in the online modality, the blended learning model needs to be carefully planned to embody the potential advantages and optimize the student's learning outcomes. The following sections discuss the findings of the study with respect to each research question.

5.1.1 Discussion on the nature of the relationship between the teachers' motivational practices, the students' motivated behavior, and their self-reported level of motivation. The focus of the first research question was to explore the nature of the relationship between the teachers' motivational practices, the students' motivated behavior, and their self-reported level of motivation. As expected, the findings indicated a high correlation between the teachers' motivational practices and the students' motivated behavior which consisted of attention, participation, and volunteering. These results support the findings of the previous studies that found positive correlations between these two constructs in face-to-face settings that based on class observations (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012; Kouraichi & Lesznyák, 2022). Hence, as is presented in this study, L2 Motivation in the blended learning model is a dynamic process that is influenced by various contextual factors (Dörnyei, 2001a). The study also found a positive link between the teachers' motivational practices and their self-reported level of motivation. Relying on the data collected in the actual classroom observations, the findings revealed that teachers' motivational strategies have a positive impact both on students' observed and self-reported motivation in blended learning environments. The connection that is revealed in the study emphasizes the role that is exerted on teachers as being a significant source of motivation in the classroom and why effective teaching is traditionally been associated with promoting learner motivation (Lamb, 2019). The findings support that instructors can make major contributions to the learning environments and how the strategies that are implemented can affect the motivation process of the learners (Deci & Ryan 2000; Dörnyei, 2001a; Garcia & Pintrich 1996; Noels et al. 1999). Therefore, as the study revealed, with the current paradigm which considers motivation as a dynamic construct that is subject to fluctuations, it is significantly important 'to raise teachers' awareness of their critical role' (Ushioda, 2012. p.70) in order to create effective learning environments. In particular, the findings argue that by using a variety of motivational approaches and strategies, teachers can significantly alter the motivational disposition of their students both in online and face-to-face environments, particularly the teachers who receives the necessary knowledge and training. Therefore, as highlighted in this study, it is crucial to inform educators about the role they play in students' motivation in an actual classroom context.

In brief, the findings contributed to the understanding of teachers' implementation of motivational strategies in a blended learning model and revealed their significant role in affecting students' motivation by gathering observational data both in face-to-face and online classes within the current paradigm of motivation.

5.1.2 Discussion on differences between students' motivated learning behaviors in different modes of delivery and its relationship between the teachers' motivational practices in face-to-face and online modalities. The second research question focused on the differences in the observed motivational behaviors of students between face-to-face and online deliveries and the link between those and the teachers' motivational practices. The findings demonstrated that students' motivated learning behaviors differ between modalities and students in the face-to-face group presented higher levels of observed motivated behaviors than the online group. This finding supports that motivating learners and stimulating the participation of students is one of the greatest challenges in online education (Jacobs, 2013; Ryan & Deci, 2020).

The second part of this question was to investigate if there is any relationship between L2 teachers' motivational practices and the motivational behavior of students in face-to-face and online modes of delivery separately. The results of the face-to-face delivery showed a positive link between teachers' motivational practices and students' motivated behavior, however, this correlation was not significant.

A striking finding was that the results for the online mode indicated a very strong negative correlation between students' motivated learning behavior and teachers' motivational practices. The findings showed that in the online delivery, the motivational practices that the teachers adopted have negatively affected the students and these strategies actually have resulted in diminished motivational intensity. This finding indicates that the strategies that are effective in the traditional classroom may not accommodate online delivery. This finding corresponds with Chen and Jang (2010) who concluded in their motivational study that 'haphazard and aimless supports without addressing students' needs are likely to lead to adverse – even worse than ''no effects" – outcomes' (p. 750). This finding indicates the need for the educators to shift their attention toward comprehending the effects of employing digital teaching methods on students according to their specific requirements in order to meet the demands of the new generation in the current technology-advanced educational settings (Becker, Cummins, Davis, Freeman, Hall, & Ananthanarayanan, 2017).

However, there was a high positive correlation between the teachers' motivational practices and the students' motivated behavior when the link was assessed for the overall blended learning experience. This finding can be attributed to the blended learning model which combines traditional face-to-face and online learning. Instead of replacing face-to-face learning with online learning, blended learning complements the drawbacks of each modality and with the potential to utilize the best features of face-to-face and online deliveries, provides varied learning opportunities (Cheung & Hew, 2011; Singh, Steele & Singh, 2021; Watson, 2008). Blended learning environments give the opportunity to meet physically with both the students and the teacher. Capitalizing on the advantages of blended learning, teachers can implement strategies that diminish the effects of isolation, lack of engagement and help build a stronger sense of community, which are considered to be the drawbacks of online settings (Rovai & Jordan, 2004; Xie, Siau & Nah, 2020). This finding echoes what Garrison, Anderson and Archer (1999) suggested in their study by stating that blended learning is accepted to be more facilitative and stimulating compared to purely online settings and is similar to Garrison and Vaughan, (2008) who pointed out a need for transformation in education toward a more flexible, interactive and student-centered approach. In similar vein, the findings of this study pointed out that effective blended learning is not a mere replication of traditional classroom activities in an online format. Instead, it should be carefully crafted to enrich the learning experience and achieve the intended learning objectives.

5.1.3 Discussion on the differences in the use of teachers' motivational practices between the modes of delivery. The third research question addressed the differences in the use of teachers' motivational strategies between face-to-face and online deliveries. Elicitation of self/peer correction session, scaffolding, personalization, group work, and promoting cooperation was the first five motivational strategies that the teachers employed in face-to-face settings; whereas scaffolding, neutral feedback session, signposting, personalization, and referential questions were the top five strategies that the teachers utilized in the online classes. The top three strategies in online settings were giving feedback, scaffolding, and signposting which are the strategies that mostly associated with supporting the need for competence (Davis, 2022; Jang, Reeve & Deci, 2010).

The main difference in the use of teachers' motivational practices between modalities was that the strategies adopted in the face-to-face classes were wide-ranging in terms of satisfying the different basic psychological needs compared to the online classes. Contrary to the online modality, acting synchronously, the practices in the traditional face-to-face classes supported autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Additionally, these findings revealed that face-to-face lesson practices involved more student-student interaction (e.g. elicitation of self/peer correction session, group work, and promoting cooperation) as well as teacher-student interaction which are associated with relatedness support, whereas, these practices were adapted significantly rare in the online classes.

The findings of this study indicate a notable contrast in instructional strategies employed between face-to-face and online modalities. Collaborative learning approaches, such as group work, pair work, and team competition, were found to be prioritized in face-to-face settings. However, in online environments, these strategies were either rarely utilized or completely absent. This could be attributed to one of the major challenges of online lessons which is to create an interactive and communicative environment for learners (Bawa, 2016; Vlachopoulos & Makri, 2019). The underused strategies in the online modality can shed light on the negative impact of the practices that were utilized in the online classes in this study as high level of computer-mediated communication and interaction opportunities are attributed characteristics of an effective and facilitative online courses (Dixson, 2010).

The striking finding of this research was that the implementation of unintended motivational practices does not necessarily ensure high student motivation. The 21st-century generation has advanced skills in adopting technological affordances and has learned new ways of thinking and learning owing to these technological affordances (Prensky, 2001). However, even though the current generation is considered excel in using technology tools, their ability to utilize these tools for learning is constrained by their knowledge (Margaryan, Littlejohn & Vojt, 2011). In order to adapt technology to its extended potential in education, firstly, teachers should be aware of how current technologies can effectively promote learning in higher education. Accordingly, they will have the necessary skills to provide their students with the essential abilities to utilize the affordances of technology.

To conclude, it is possible that both teachers and students may lack the requisite understanding of effectively utilizing existing technological tools in educational settings to facilitate interactive and communicative learning experiences during online lessons which significantly impacts students' motivation. This study suggests that activities that promote interaction among peers were likely to be perceived as stimulating and enjoyable by the participants and current utilized practices require a change in online education as well as blended learning. The findings of this study indicated that, in light of the ongoing changes in education, it is crucial to embrace innovation and adopt new strategies that align with the current teaching and learning requirements.

5.1.4 Discussion on the students' perceptions and insights into the teachers' motivational practices in a blended learning model and their associations of these practices with autonomy, competence, and relatedness regarding the differences between face-to-face and online modalities. The fourth research question focused on the students' perceptions and insights into the teachers' motivational practices in a blended learning model regarding the associations of these strategies with autonomy, competence, and relatedness in order to comprehend how these srategies affect the fulfillment of the basic psychological needs of the students. The findings revealed that in face-to-face classes teachers employed strategies that mostly support all three basic psychological needs whereas needs fulfillment for autonomy and relatedness were either partly or totally neglected in the online deliveries. Even the teachers who employed autonomy and relatedness supportive practices allocated considerably less time for these practices compared to the ones that provided competence support. Moreover, relatedness supportive activities were the least to be employed. This result aligns with the very recent study in which the teachers perceived utilizing relatedness supportive activities limited in online environments (Jeon & Lee 2023).

The overwhelming majority of the students stated that they do not feel as motivated as they are in online classes in general. This finding can be attributed to the fact that in the current study, students' all three basic physiological needs were not fully supported in their online part of their blended learning environment, in fact the strategies that provide support for relatedness are sparingly utilized. Based on the findings of this research, it can be concluded that in blended learning environments, employing relatedness supportive strategies is particularly important as relatedness is attributed crucial for supporting autonomy and competence (Muñoz & Ramirez, 2015). This finding echoes Chiu's (2021b) finding that 'perceived relatedness is the primary predictor of behavioral, emotional and agentic engagement' in online settings as learners have less circumstances to interact with their peers and instructors (p.12).

One of the major findings of this study is that students mentioned teachers' motivational strategies that support autonomy and relatedness and perceived these as stimulating and motivating. The students in the study recalled the autonomy-supportive and relatedness-supportive instances that their teachers employed.

Therefore, this study argues that depending on the attitude and strategies of the teacher or the activity students could be engaged in the lesson more and they could feel more motivated compared to some other online classes.

Based on the findings of the study, it can be suggested that in order to fulfill students' fundamental psychological needs, online learning environments should be meticulously planned and the implementation of well-structured programs is required. Moreover, it is imperative for teachers to receive appropriate training in utilizing these strategies effectively. By doing so, educators can create an environment that supports students' psychological dimension and enhances their overall learning experience in online as well as blended settings.

5.2 Pedagogical Implications

In the 21st century, learning and teaching have transcended the limitations of space and time, with the integration of technology in education. Furthermore, it is anticipated that technology's role in education will continue to expand in the future. Offering effective opportunities for learning regardless of time and space yet maintaining the high quality standards of education in all settings will remain significant. Keeping up with the recent advancements in education and the rapid shift to integrate online courses in higher education raised concerns. The recent advancements in education have sparked significant interest in researching student motivation within contemproray educational environments. In fact, researchers have actively emphasized to investigate the motivation of students in technology advanced environments in relation to established frameworks within different context including gathering contextual data.

Considered to have a great potential to meet the demands of the 21st century's education, blended learning offers leverage for the challenges that are caused by the lack of physical presence of students and teachers which is considered to be the most prominent drawback of online learning. On the other hand, there is another discussion on the consideration that teachers can influence student's motivation through instructional design. However, it is important to note that not all instructional strategies yield the expected outcomes in terms of enhancing student motivation. This research highlights the need for careful consideration and evaluation of instructional approaches to ensure their effectiveness in fostering and sustaining student motivation.

Taking motivation as a dynamic process stance, the findings of this study can help educators to enhance the motivation of the students in their social learning environment as well as meet the demands of the new generation in education.
Another contribution of this study is that raising teachers' awareness of their crucial role will help to enhance the classroom environment. Additionally, teachers can utilize strategies that can address the motivation challenges associated with technology-enhanced environments within the SDT framework.

The result of this research has significant theoretical implications for teacher educators to enhance language learning environments in the 21st century.

5.3 Conclusion

The present study significantly contributes to the existent literature by exploring the influence of teachers' use of motivational strategies in a blended learning model and their impact on students' motivated behavior as well as investigating the differences in the utilization of these strategies between face-to-face and online modalities in an actual classroom context.

SDT maintains that individuals have an innate tendency to be autonomously motivated but they don't have inherited tendencies whether or not to like the activity. Therefore, it is how the learning environment is shaped to facilitate or impede motivation (Jones et al., 2009). In a similar vein, teacher's practices that are applied in the actual classroom settings have a prominent role in either supporting or diminishing students' motivation (Jang et al., 2010; Lamb 2019) and deliberate applications of well-structured effective strategies can have a valuable contribution to the learning environment when they satisfy the basic phycological needs of the students appropriately. The results of the current study revealed that for the teacher's practices to be effective in enhancing motivation, providing mostly competence support along with autonomy support is not sufficient and there is an interrelated relationship between these needs (Davis, 2022). When the students' need for relatedness is not supported they do not develop a sense of belonging which in return affects their motivation negatively. This result confirms that ‘within interactions or in groups in which one does not feel close or cared for, it is not likely that one will feel a great deal of volition or interest’ (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 248) and in online environments, it is challenging to create settings that promote relatedness (Jeon & Lee, 2023). In traditional face-to-face classes, relatedness can be satisfied in a natural way through collaborative activities and connective tasks that provide diverse interactional opportunities whereas online classes require more effort to support relatedness. The findings suggest that in online environments relatedness supportive practices should be given extra consideration and teachers need to possess the necessary skills to apply these strategies which aligns with the recent studies in the literature (Jeon & Lee, 2023; Hornstra, Stroet, & Weijers, 2021).

Furthermore, Deci and Ryan (1994) argue that in order for the students to be intrinsically motivated all three basic needs have to be supported together to some extent and there is an interrelated relationship among these three dimensions. Similarly, in their study, Hornstra et al. concluded that when students are provided with greater need support, it enhances their motivation and academic success however there is an interdependent relationship between autonomy, competence, and relatedness that lack of one need would not compensate for the other one. Specifically, it was observed in the study that relatedness supportive strategies were almost not employed by the teachers in the online environments which can be the reason for the negative effects of the teachers’ motivational practices on students’ motivation. This study illustrated that in order for the teachers’ motivational practices to be effective and function as desired, first of all, an appropriate social environment needs to be created. In other words, in order to foster motivation with teachers’ practices, it is important to build a sense of community and establish a welcoming warm atmosphere in the classroom which can be achieved through relatedness supportive strategies.

The striking finding regarding motivation in blended learning environments was that of differing correlation results when the analysis was computed overall in blended learning and separately for face-to-face and online settings. Specifically, the results showed that even though teachers’ motivational practices and students’ motivated learning behavior was positively correlated when measured together in face-to-face and online settings, there was no correlation when these dimensions were analyzed separately for each of the modalities. This can be attributed to the features of blended learning which offers an integrated learning experience with incorporated learning modalities. The study illustrated that blended learning can help to avoid the disadvantages of both face-to-face and online learning. Moreover, the perceived drawbacks of online lessons that impede motivation such as feeling of isolation, and lack of teacher's physical presence can also be avoided by adopting carefully designed blended learning courses.

This research, drawing on Dörnyei's (2005) conceptualization of motivation as a dynamic process confirmed that motivation is subject to changes depending on the social context. It was clear from the results that the effectiveness of the strategies changes depending on the social environment and the motivational practices that the teachers employ, therefore this research illustrates that the strategies that function efficiently in traditional classrooms may not accommodate online environments. To this end, the results of the current research contributed to the literature by gathering empirical data regarding teachers' implementation of motivational strategies through in-class observations which to the author's knowledge, has not been investigated previously. Addressing the recent call by Jeon & Lee (2023) 'to collect data on teachers' actual use of motivational strategies through observation' (p.18), the results of this study, would enhance our comprehension of the practical utilization of motivational strategies, offering a comprehensive and context-specific understanding.

Additionally, the research offers practical implications that can serve as a starting point for improving the support they provide for three fundamental psychological needs of the learners in blended learning environments. For example, the study found out that in the online mode of the blended learning environment, students highly value student-student interaction practices which satisfy the feeling of relatedness. Therefore, teachers who encounter challenges in supporting relatedness in their classrooms may wish to employ the strategies that the students indicated as motivating and stimulating.

Consistent with the existing research, the major finding is that, contrary to face-to-face settings relatedness supportive activities are underutilized in the online contexts and instructors should create more opportunities for the students to interact and collaborate more in order to satisfy their need for relatedness. Confirming that relatedness support is one of the most perceived challenging need to satisfy for the instructors and online instruction necessitate particular competencies and skills (Jeon & Lee 2023; Belt & Lowenthal, 2022; Wang, Wen & Quek, 2022), this research addresses the need for specific instructor training for online teaching.

Finally, the finding highlights the fact that the issue of the disparity between the perceived and the actual effectiveness of specific motives or motivational strategies in an authentic classroom environment (Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005) should also be addressed to improve online and blended learning environments. This study emphasizes the need to reevaluate the existing methods employed in online instructional settings, taking into account the theory of Self-Determination. By aligning instructional practices with the principles of SDT, it can be possible to create learning environments that can foster student motivation and engagement with the implimentation of effective motivational strategies. This study highlights the importance of adapting instructional strategies that aligns theory with practice to promote a supportive and empowering online learning experience for students as Ryan and Deci (2019) made the call by stating that ‘future SDT research will no doubt be looking more closely at how educational media, e-learning, remote classrooms, and other opportunities afforded by technology can be successfully created to motivate engagement and learning’ (p.8).

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