T.C.
ÇANAKKALE ONSEKİZ MART ÜNİVERSİTESİ
LİSANSÜSTÜ EĞİTİM ENSTİTÜSÜ

YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM/ DALI
İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ BİLİM DALI

THE EFFECT OF GAMIFIED BLENDED LEARNING MODULE ON EFL LEARNERS' LANGUAGE SKILLS, LEARNER AUTONOMY, L2 MOTIVATION SELVES, AND CLASSROOM INTERACTION

DOKTORA TEZİ

SERHAT GÜZEL

Tez Danışmanı
PROF. DR. CEVDET YILMAZ

ÇANAKKALE – 2023

T.C.
ÇANAKKALE ONSEKİZ MART ÜNİVERSİTESİ
LİSANSÜSTÜ EĞİTİM ENSTİTÜSÜ

YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM/ANASANAT DALI
İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ BİLİM DALI

THE EFFECT OF GAMIFIED BLENDED LEARNING MODULE ON EFL LEARNERS' LANGUAGE SKILLS, LEARNER AUTONOMY, L2 MOTIVATION SELVES, AND CLASSROOM INTERACTION

DOKTORA TEZİ

SERHAT GÜZEL

Tez Danışmanı

PROF. DR. CEVDET YILMAZ

Bu çalışma, TÜBİTAK 2211 Genel Yurt İçi Doktora Bursu ile desteklenmiştir.

ÇANAKKALE – 2023

T.C.

ÇANAKKALE ONSEKİZ MART ÜNİVERSİTESİ

LİSANSÜSTÜ EĞİTİM ENSTİTÜSÜ

Serhat GÜZEL tarafından Prof. Dr. Cevdet YILMAZ yönetiminde hazırlanan ve 03/07/2023 tarihinde aşağıdaki jüri karşısında sunulan "**The Effect of Gamified Blended Learning Module on EFL Learners' Language Skills, Learner Autonomy, L2 Motivation Selves, and Classroom Interaction**" başlıklı çalışma, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda DOKTORA TEZİ olarak oy birliği/oy çokluğu ile kabul edilmiştir.

Jüri Üyeleri	**İmza**
Prof. Dr. Cevdet YILMAZ (Danışman)	……
Prof. Dr. Aysun YAVUZ	……
Prof. Dr. Süleyman Davut GÖKER	…….
Prof. Dr. Şevki KÖMÜR	…….
Dr. Öğr.Üyesi Fatih YAVUZ	…….

Tez No : ……..

Tez Savunma Tarihi : 03/07/2023

Prof. Dr. Ahmet Evren ERGİNAL

Enstitü Müdürü

../07/2023

ETİK BEYAN

Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü Tez Yazım Kuralları'na uygun olarak hazırladığım bu tez çalışmasında; tez içinde sunduğum verileri, bilgileri ve dokümanları akademik ve etik kurallar çerçevesinde elde ettiğimi, tüm bilgi, belge, değerlendirme ve sonuçları bilimsel etik ve ahlak kurallarına uygun olarak sunduğumu, tez çalışmasında yararlandığım eserlerin tümüne uygun atıfta bulunarak kaynak gösterdiğimi, kullanılan verilerde herhangi bir değişiklik yapmadığımı, bu tezde sunduğum çalışmanın özgün olduğunu, bildirir, aksi bir durumda aleyhime doğabilecek tüm hak kayıplarını kabullendiğimi taahhüt ve beyan ederim.

ETHICAL STATEMENT

In this thesis study, which I prepared in accordance with Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University School of Graduate Studies Thesis Writing Rules, I hereby declare that I have obtained the data, information and documents I have presented in the thesis within the framework of academic and ethical rules, that I have presented all information, documents, evaluations and results in accordance with scientific ethics and morals, that I have cited all the works I have used in the thesis by making appropriate references, that I have not made any changes in the data used, and that the study I have presented in this thesis is original. Otherwise, I undertake and declare that I accept all the loss of rights that may arise against me.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I cannot believe it is finally over! You spend years and years writing, trying to come up with just the right words, and you succeed somehow, only to find out that this part is the hardest. What can you even say in a few paragraphs to sum up everything you have been through? It is highly unlikely. Only a few words and emotions are there to talk about the journey.

Many people helped me get this far. I want to start by thanking them, the people who made this journey possible. I should count myself very lucky that not a single person around me did something to slow me down. Whenever I needed something or whomever I shared my feelings with, the only thing I received was support. Maybe, it was not pure luck. Maybe, it was I who chose the right people around me. That, I am not certain of. Yet, I am thankful, nonetheless. I thank my professors who equipped me with the necessary knowledge and capabilities to finish such a big study on my own. They empowered me. I am also grateful to my advisor Cevdet YILMAZ, who encouraged me and guided me on my way, and, of course, to all the thesis committee members who supported me with their valuable feedback during the process.

All those sleepless nights, stomach problems, panic attacks, people I may have hurt… I cannot believe the person I became. I am not certain about the direction I am going in. All I can hope is that I can be a better person after all this. After all, living with love and compassion beats all. Speaking of love, I owe my sanity, my peace, my humanity to one person only: my Bihter. My darling, my love. Without her, nothing would be the same. I would be lost. I know I pushed her limits often. I sometimes neglected her. This did not stop her from standing beside me. There is nothing in this world that would compensate for this sacrifice, no words, no gestures. Nothing. I love you so much. Thank you for being with me!

Also, is it weird if I thank myself? What the heck! I thank myself, too. Good job, you sly devil, old dog me. Good job.

Serhat GÜZEL

Çanakkale, July 2023

ÖZET

OYUNLAŞTIRILMIŞ HARMANLANMIŞ ÖĞRENME MODÜLÜNÜN İNGİLİZCEYİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENENLERİN DİL BECERİLERİ, ÖĞRENME ÖZERKLİĞİ, İKİNCİ DİL MOTİVASYON BENLİKLERİ VE SINIF ETKİLEŞİMLERİ ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ

Serhat GÜZEL
Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi
Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı Doktora Tezi
Danışman: Prof. Dr. Cevdet YILMAZ
03/07/2023, 308

Bu doktora tezi, lise öğrencilerine İngilizce öğretmek için oyunlaştırılmış ve harmanlanmış bir öğrenme ortamı geliştirmeyi ve bu harmanlanmış ve oyunlaştırılmış öğretimin öğrencilerin özerk davranışları, motivasyonları, ikinci dil benlik algıları, dil becerileri ve sınıf içi etkileşimleri üzerindeki etkilerini belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu hedeflere ulaşmak için, çalışmada öncelikle öğretmen/idareci toplantıları, ihtiyaç analizi prosedürleri ve literatür taraması yoluyla toplanan verilere dayalı bir öğretim tasarımı süreci kullanılmıştır. Ardından, sıralı açıklayıcı karma yöntem araştırma deseninden yararlanılmış ve değişkenlerin kapsamlı bir şekilde anlaşılması için nicel ve nitel veri türleri birlikte kullanılmıştır. İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin dil öğrenme özerkliği, motivasyon, ikinci dil motivasyon benlikleri, dil becerileri ve etkileşim ile ilgili nicel ölçümlerini yapmak için bir dizi ölçek, dil becerisi verileri ve öğrenme analitiği verileri kullanılmıştır. Ayrıca, değişkenlerle ilgili nitel verileri toplamak ve nicel veri analizini tamamlamak için öğrencilere yapılandırılmış görüşme soruları sorulmuştur. Çalışmanın sonuçları, modüllerin öğrencilerin dil öğreniminde daha fazla sorumluluk alma ve diğer kültürlerle iletişim kurmak için İngilizce öğrenme isteklerini artırması nedeniyle özerk dil öğrenme davranışları ve İngilizce öğrenme motivasyonu açısından umut verici sonuçlar ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca, EFL öğrencilerinin dil becerilerinin oyunlaştırılmış ve

harmanlanmış öğrenme tasarımları aracılığıyla geliştirilebileceği bulunmuştur. Son olarak, çalışma oyunlaştırılmış ve harmanlanmış dil öğrenme ortamlarının etkililiğine ilişkin bazı önemli noktalarla sonuçlandırılmış ve gelecekteki araştırmalar için bir dizi öneride bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Dil Becerileri, Harmanlanmış Öğrenme, İkinci Dil Motivasyon Benliği, Oyunlaştırma, Özerk Öğrenme, Yabancı Bir Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi

ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF GAMIFIED BLENDED LEARNING MODULE ON EFL LEARNERS' LANGUAGE SKILLS, LEARNER AUTONOMY, L2 MOTIVATION SELVES, AND CLASROOM INTERACTION

Serhat GÜZEL

Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University

School of Graduate Studies

Department of Foreign Language Education Doctoral Thesis

Advisor: Prof. Dr. Cevdet YILMAZ

03/07/2023, 308

This doctoral dissertation aims to develop a gamified and blended learning environment to teach English to high school students and to determine the effects of such blended and gamified instruction on their autonomous behaviors, motivation, their perception of self, language skills, and classroom interaction. To achieve these objectives, the study initially employed an instructional design process based on the data gathered through teacher/administrator meetings, needs analysis procedures, and literature review. Then, the sequential explanatory mixed method research design was utilized, and quantitative and qualitative types of data were used together to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the variables. A series of scales, language skill data, and learning analytics data were used to measure EFL learners quantitatively regarding language learning autonomy, motivation, L2 motivational self, language skills, and interaction. Additionally, structured interview questions were asked to learners to gather qualitative data related to the variables and complement the quantitative data analysis. The results of the study revealed promising outcomes in terms of autonomous language learning behaviors and motivation to learn English as the modules increased the willingness of learners to take more responsibility in language learning and learn English to communicate with other cultures. Moreover, it was found that language skills of EFL learners can be developed through gamified and blended learning designs. Finally, the study was concluded with some crucial points regarding the effectiveness of gamified and blended language learning settings, and a series of recommendations was made for future research.

Keywords: Blended Learning, Classroom Interaction, Gamification, L2 Motivational Selves, Language Skills, Learner Autonomy

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER FOUR
FINDINGS

CHAPTER FIVE
DISCUSSION

CHAPTER SIX
CONCLUSIONS

SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

BL	Blended Learning
CEFR	Common European Framework for Reference
CI	Classroom Interaction
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
F2F	Face-to-Face
ID	Instructional Design
L2	Second Language
LAS	Learning Autonomy Scale
LLMS	Language Learning Motivation Scale
LMS	Learning Management System
LPSS	L2 Possible Selves Scale
PCA	Principal Component Analysis

TABLES INDEX

FIGURES INDEX

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1. Statement of the Problem

Changing learner and learning characteristics and the demands of professional life are significant determiners in designing language learning environments. Language classrooms are mainly challenging environments for both teachers and students as learning a second language has unique requirements in terms of content and tasks. According to Dörnyei (2005), being a unique field of focus compared to other subjects, language learning cannot be treated as a subject to be learned because it involves splits of individuals' personalities and mental prints of their identities. Another fundamental reason for the challenging nature of language learning is the wide range of needs manifested by modern-age students (Turner, 2009).

Learners of current times are immensely invested in multimodality when it comes to learning and interpreting the surrounding environment, equipped with a short attention span. In other words, they refer to various types of media for retrieving information in small chunks of time. However, one downside is that these multimodal learners lack informed decision-making in categorizing and interpreting what they read. Therefore, it can be suggested that they need guided and interesting content to keep them on the path of learning. In addition, learners tend to avoid long lectures and serious tasks that lead to overt teaching circumstances. Rather, they prefer more digestible items that are easier for the eye. Therefore, the issue of instructional design has become quite popular in terms of creating more interesting and engaging learning environments. On the other hand, in terms of technology use, Ushioda (2011a) argues that, in a world where the physical borders of countries are vaguer than ever and the number of programs that require English as a necessity is constantly rising, self-and identity-related issues changed characteristics in the sense of defining motivation through technological interactions of the individuals all around the globe. Therefore, the shift in addressing L2 motivation is regarded as directly related to individuals' identities and beliefs of self, which necessitates focusing on the digital scape, internet communication, and online interactions, as well.

With regard to devising motivating and rewarding learning environments, instructional design plays a major role. A systematic approach is required to plan instruction, taking into consideration the appropriateness and correct persistence of technical informedness, which is referred to as the systems approach. Numerous types of information, data, and tenets of theories are utilized at each step of planning. Additionally, the nature of individuals' learning is matched with the outcomes of an instructional design (Gagne et al., 2005). In connection, attention to human nature and needs mostly stems from the changing roles in today's educational paradigms. Current role changes demand teachers to help students in establishing rules, designing and choosing tasks, become facilitators in driving student performance and learning, assist students to evaluate their performances, and guide students through the path. In the context of learners, contemporary educational settings require learners to learn actively, regulate their learning and help their peers to learn. Moreover, technology is meant to serve as a database for keeping records of learning, a field of support for planning instructional settings, a backup instruction, and an alternative means of assessment (Reigeluth et al., 2017).

To enhance learning environments and enhance the experience of learning in a way that motivates students and encourages them to develop autonomy, gamification is regarded as a new and alternative tool (Alsawaier, 2018; Caponetto et al., 2014; Flores, 2015; Hung, 2017; Tan & Hew, 2016). Gamification is an opportunity for enriching the content to make them more appealing in the eyes of the individual. Regarding the utilization of gamification, there are two sides to the medallion. While one group of researchers advocates fully integrated game elements in learning contexts, the other regards gamification as distracting on the path to achieving learning objectives (Alsawaier, 2018). According to Flores (2015), using game elements makes affirmative contributions to the L2 learning experience. In addition, L2 learners improve in personality-related aspects such as motivation and interaction. From a constructivist perspective, gamification turns learning activities into meaningful and experiential episodes in the classroom. Furthermore, in connection with online instructional design, using e-learning technologies enriched with game elements provides many advantages for researchers/instructors (Osipov et al., 2015). According to them, firstly, it allows teachers to design quality and organized content. Secondly, it offers the opportunity to trace logs and evaluate the effectiveness of the module based on numerical

and statistical data. Lastly, discussions and posts by learners indicate the popularity of the content giving a chance to judge motivation-related constituents in the online environment.

The research is motivated by the aforementioned information mostly due to the appealing nature of online learning environments and gamification as a tool for improving language skills, motivation, and autonomy and for increasing the chance of interaction among students. Besides, the literature suggests that further empirical research is needed to evaluate the effect of gamification on learning motivation and improving learning. In addition, learners' views about gamification treatments are required to be investigated via qualitative means; in other words, the qualitative side of the story is thought to be missing (Alsawaier, 2018; Flores, 2015; Nacke & Deterding, 2017a; Osipov et al., 2015). Therefore, the research at hand is both valuable and necessary to shed light on the issues of the development of language skills, motivation, and autonomy since they are constantly debated and dynamic variables that change in character over time and requisite updates in methodologies, approaches, and techniques used in the language classroom.

1.2. Significance and Purpose of the Study

The current study is assumed to be significant for the related literature and field of work in several ways. First, findings regarding the potential effects of gamified blended learning on the development of language skills, learner autonomy, and L2 motivation will provide unique insights about learner characteristics in such environments. Second, the findings will offer new and original solutions and recommendations about Turkish EFL learners facing online, blended, and gamified contexts in learning the English language in connection with autonomy, motivation, and language skills. Third, the findings of learner interactions in both online and F2F environments in the gamified-blended module will prove quite useful in offering information and a data pool to investigate in terms of many aspects such as conversations, online and F2F discussions, online posts, language use, peer-support, etc. Last, the study can be regarded as significant due to possible contributions to the literature in the sense of providing practical recommendations and insights for educators, learners, researchers, curriculum developers, instructional designers, material writers, and policymakers.

To underline the significance of the current research, a rationalization regarding related topics such as online and blended learning, gamification as a term, and gamifying content will be discussed with regard to the purpose of this study. Initially, a brief description of the characteristics of both online and blended learning to offer an understanding of the concepts and how they are essential to the work will be included. Subsequently, gamification as an emerging language learning tool and how and why it is applied in language learning contexts will be depicted to serve as a basis for declaring the purposes of the study. Finally, the information provided regarding online/blended learning and gamification will be rationalized while presenting the purposes of the dissertation at hand.

With the changing definition of learning and what is expected from a learning experience, new pursuits in the context of education have emerged. The main concern that has urged these quests is the desire to ensure deep learning skills among students and to equip learners with 21st-century skills. Therefore, this understanding brings about the need for individuals to be capable beings in today's challenging world (Downing et al., 2014).

Modern students have different needs as learners owing to the changing characteristics of media and engagement. In connection, the expectations of employers have evolved into an understanding which requires their employees to solve problems in various dimensions. According to this mindset, students need to be equipped with 21st-century skills to be able to adapt to the modern world.

Lessons based on mere lecturing do not cover requisite skills and fail to motivate learners to take action in their learning. Skills such as problem-solving, interaction, and multimodality, all of which are required in this more challenging professional world, need to be acquired by learners to function in their occupational experiences. However, in a world even a social video sharing medium YouTube can be utilized to teach something, classroom experiences fall behind the real world. In the real world, people learn when they need to learn and how they want to learn in various media types to fit their preferences at the moment. In other words, as Downing et al. (2014) suggest, a classroom as a learning environment allows complete engagement provided that certain types of interaction are offered. Interaction opportunities for students must be established with lecturers, peers, and technological tools. In addition, Turner (2009) rationalizes the change of approach in education that must be

adopted by stating that educators and researchers of current times are more aware of the dynamics of learning, therefore it is mostly acknowledged that students experience complicated neural processes to actualize learning. This neural connectivity can be best ensured with an experiential approach to teaching and learning.

To adapt to the changing characteristics of both learners and educational settings, one of the most favored approaches to teaching is blended learning procedures (Downing et al., 2014; Osguthorpe & Graham, 2003). Osguthorpe and Graham (2003) establish the foundation for blended learning with the notion that both physical classroom and online interactions have their benefits in learning, therefore, mixing them in a blended sense by adjusting the balance is a plausible way to ensure motivation of learners with distinct types of learning behaviors and patterns. Based on The Next Generation Course Redesign Project (NGen) he led at the University of North Texas, Turner (2009) characterizes the balance of activity types in blended learning as follows: large group lectures (0-35% of the course), media-rich interactive online environment (30-60% of the course), and small-group experiential learning (30-50% of the course) (p. 12). As indicated by the percentage ranges for each interaction kind, the balance to be observed among them can vary depending upon the lessons. Blended instruction as a term can generate many misconceptions as it can be regarded as haphazard use of the internet and technology during lessons. However, it aims at magnifying the different needs and preferences of the learners, and the main purposes of the blended learning approach are pedagogical richness, access to knowledge, social interaction, personal agency, cost-effectiveness, and ease of revision (Osguthorpe & Graham, 2003). Moreover, in addition to supplying for various needs of diverse learners, online interaction provided by blended learning environments can boost the motivation and willingness to participate in discussions, see beyond social status and appearance, and not face criticism for things apart from intelligence (Chen & Looi, 2007). Yet, one of the most prominent disadvantages of online discussion is the lack of interaction apart from the assignments given by the teachers. Therefore, it is recommended by Chen and Looi (2007) that courses must be designed well enough to establish a system in which one downside in an environment can be complemented by another.

Blended learning models are categorized into four distinct classes based on the orientation of the blended contents: institutional blends, program-level blends, course-level

blends, and activity level blends (Johnson & Graham, 2014). Additionally, there is a distinction of models regarding the blended learning programs between K-12 education and higher education. Blended learning models can be classified into four groups in their report on blended learning in K-12 education. These models are the rotation model, flex model, self-blend or a la carte model, and enriched-virtual model (Christensen et al., 2013; Staker & Horn, 2012). In the rotation model, course direction can be diverse in terms of the used modality, and the teacher can rotate classroom activities for students so long as at least one of those activities is online learning. This model has four sub-categories as follows: The Station Rotation, The Lab Rotation, The Flipped Classroom, and The Individual Rotation. The station rotation model includes activities rotating between stations within the boundaries of the classroom while the lab rotation allows students to perform the online learning part of the learning in lab environments. The flipped classroom model requires F2F learning to take place in the classroom and online learning anywhere outside the site of the school. The individual model does not require any designated rotation as each student in the classroom is assigned an individual rotational guide to follow. In the flex model, most curricula are delivered online, but the teacher is required on-site for F2F interaction, only for support as needed. The self-blend or a la carte model offers students an opportunity to choose some individual courses online while other courses F2F in physical classrooms. Lastly, in the enriched-virtual model, students are instructed online with partial supplements via F2F meetings, in addition, it is a whole-school experience.

On the other hand, Twigg (2003) draws a model categorization for higher education by dividing the blended learning into five categories as follows: supplementary model, replacement model, buffet model, emporium model, and fully online model. The replacement model in higher education models is quite similar to the rotation model of the K-12 context in many aspects due to rotations based on student or facilitator choice. Similarly, the flex model of K-12 and emporium as a higher education model both employ an online-dominant instruction and are partially supplemented with F2F instruction just as a la carte blend (K-12) and buffet (higher ed.) models are both student-centered and individualized. Moreover, enriched virtual and fully online models are, yet again, greatly identical. Lastly, the supplementary model of higher education appears rather distinct from other models in the way that lecturing and F2F instruction are fixed and untouched for the

learners. Additionally, the online phase of the module merely includes supplementary materials and additional tasks meant to be fulfilled at home.

Gamification is traditionally defined as benefitting from game elements in domains that are considered to be non-related to games (Deterding et al., 2011). While gamification and the use of game elements in serious plains can be traced back to past decades, especially in contexts of marketing and business, incorporation of the concept in more deliberate manners and theorizing about it is a relatively new trend. Among the most prominent environments that deliberately handle gamification are smartphones and computer apps, initially led by location sharing and rating apps such as Foursquare. Foursquare and similar apps have utilized game elements by rewarding badges of status in return for certain behaviors such as becoming the most frequent visitor of a locale. In addition, some food and drink brands have been using game elements in a way that customers are rewarded with a product or a small prize after purchasing goods and collecting certain amounts of points.

The most noteworthy distinction of gamification is that it is different from a state of playing or playfulness (Deterding et al., 2011). Similarly, Salen and Zimmerman (2004) assert that programming a game on a computer is not the same as designing and setting out the rules of a game. In short, gamification of an environment is a rule-governed process in which certain rules and reward systems are designated.

When it comes to research trends in gamification, Albertazzi et al. (2019), divide research paper types into three categories as follows: 1- empirical, 2- theoretical, and 3- practical research papers (pp. 196-197). Not counting in business and marketing-related research fields, empirical studies are the dominant type of research trend. In addition, Albertazzi et al. (2019) report that research papers related to education, training, and academy are in the lead by 44.38% of all reviewed papers about gamification. Education, training, and academy research area constantly grows in the number of empirical studies, especially after the year 2015. According to Nacke and Deterding (2017), gamification can be considered an enlarging area of research interest. Moreover, considering all research fields, education is the most prominent domain that welcomes gamification as a new tool because students are more prone to game elements and innovative ways of learning. Other

sectors or areas are less enthusiastic about introducing game elements to their system due to the doubt that they might not be welcome by workers or customers.

To address the abovementioned gap related to blended learning in terms of "the lack of interaction" in online modules and learning environments (Chen & Looi, 2007), Huang et al. (2019) recommend incorporating game elements in online modules to increase student interaction and motivation to participate in discussions. Huang et al. (2019) found that students using a gamified online module participated more frequently in online discussion forums by posting opinions compared to students learning on a non-gamified online module. In connection, gamification ensures enhanced learning success, more creative posts, and superior online peer feedback.

In the light of these studies and insight into blended learning and gamification, it can be assumed that the combination of the two with the right amount of adjustments to suit the needs of the research can positively or negatively affect learners' specific language skills, improve the autonomy of learners, increase or decrease L2 motivation self-system, and have impacts on the dynamism of interactions on different domains such as online discussions, F2F communication, discussion posts, classroom interactions, etc. Therefore, it is quite valuable to design a blended learning module to serve as a language learning environment for EFL learners with consideration of gameful enrichment and measure potential changes in language skills, autonomy levels, and L2 motivation. As an outcome of all this, interaction patterns and dynamics will provide an irreplaceable facet for qualitative analysis and an understanding of the interactional nature of such environments.

In the light of the information provided beforehand, therefore, the main purpose of this Ph.D. dissertation is to conduct research setting by which a blended learning environment properly enriched and equipped with game elements can be implemented in an EFL classroom to measure the effects of such content on learners' language skills, autonomy situations, and L2 motivational self-systems and to analyze learners' interactional patterns in online and face-to-face (F2F) situations. By doing so, the potential effects of a gamified blended learning model will be observed and quantified to make interpretations so that future directions of online course designs can be characterized in terms of language learners. Moreover, learners' interactional patterns and behaviors in such environments will serve as

invaluable data to examine what type of dynamics are likely to be in motion in online gamified domains and to determine what elements are different and unique when online and F2F interactions are compared and contrasted. The ultimate purpose of the dissertation is, therefore, to devise a model for gamified blended learning and a package of gamified tasks and materials to initiate autonomy, L2 motivation, language skill development, and healthy classroom interaction to support these concepts. In the light of these purposes, therefore, the research will attempt to answer the following questions:

a) What is the impact of the gamified blended modules on EFL learners' pre-test and post-test scores in terms of learner autonomy?

b) What is the impact of the gamified blended modules on EFL learners' pre-test and post-test scores in terms of L2 motivation?

c) What is the impact of the gamified blended modules on EFL learners' pre-test and post-test scores in terms of L2 possible selves?

d) What is the impact of the gamified blended modules on EFL learners' language skills?

e) What are the opinions of EFL learners regarding the gamified blended module in terms of the mechanics of the gamified blended module?

f) What are the opinions of EFL learners regarding gamified blended environments in terms of learner autonomy, L2 motivation, L2 possible selves, language skills?

g) What is the state of classroom interaction and participation in the gamified and blended module?

1.3. Limitations of the Study

The research serving this Ph. D. dissertation in terms of providing a research sample, data, and conclusions to draw concerning the original assumptions took place in a high school setting. Depending on the research phases, the number and types of participants varied. As can be seen in the methodology section, the research was divided into several stages beyond pre-test, implementation, and post-test phases. These stages included meetings to design the module (as parts of the instructional design), a gamification training, needs analysis administration, piloting, focus group study, and finally the main stages (pre-test, intervention, and post-test) of the research.

Meetings, trainings, and the counterparts of needs analysis and focus group interviews were completed with the participation of seven English teachers. For the administrative meetings to collect information about the school before the initiation of the study, two administrators from the school were consulted.

As for the parts that related to the students, 99 students volunteered to participate while in the pilot study, 15 selected students contributed to testing the usability of data collection tools. In addition, in the pre-test, implementation, and post-test stages of the research, the number of participants fluctuated; therefore, I had to identify the students who participated in all the processes to analyze the data, which resulted with 78 student participants.

Regarding the time and duration of the study, preliminary meetings, trainings, and instructional design processes took one fall semester while stages of implementation and data collection from students lasted eight weeks in total. In addition, it must be added that the study only included high school students from the 9^{th} and 10^{th} grades due to the school system not involving other grades from the level-based classroom set-up. Therefore, for compatibility and valid comparison reasons, 11^{th} and 12^{th} grades were excluded from the study.

In line with these limitations, the study presented some assumptions regarding the outcomes of the process. These assumptions will be introduced and addressed in the following section.

1.4. Assumptions

The research nurturing this dissertation is naturally built upon certain initial assumptions that originally helped set the course of literary works chosen to theoretically strengthen the arguments, related methodology, and data analysis procedures. In essence, this study is driven by several major assumptions. First, it was apparent after my initial meetings with the faculty and the observations of the school that students at the high school were in need of motivation and autonomy raising activities and would be very receptive to innovations to improve their language skills. Therefore, I assumed that using a novel language learning setting would generate useful outcomes to understand certain dynamics at high schools.

Second, since the high schools I worked at had rather young and cooperative team of English teachers, I assumed that I should involve them in the instructional design process as much as possible. After all, they needed to learn everything about the modules to the letter because they would be the ones in charge of managing their group of students. To achieve this, therefore, I assumed that certain training sessions about gamification, instructional design, blended learning, and using Learning Management Systems would be very crucial.

Third, based on the literature reviewed, gamification and online learning opportunities offered by blended learning are acknowledged to contribute to EFL learners' motivation and autonomy states as well as their language skills. Therefore, I followed the assumption that using gamified and blended modules would have effects on students' motivation to learn English, their autonomous behaviors, their ideal and possible L2 selves, and language skills.

Finally, since it became evident that I would greatly exploit online learning opportunities, investigating learners' online classroom interactional behaviors and tendencies seemed advantageous to understand the above-mentioned variables. To this end, I assumed that I should take advantage of the learner analytics provided by Canvas LMS to

make sense of learners' logged-in durations, completed activities, and interactional behaviors.

1.5. Definitions

Concepts and terminology that are planned to be used in the Ph.D. dissertation are mainly as follows: blended learning, instructional design, Learning Management System (LMS), gamification, gamified content, learner autonomy, L2 motivation, classroom interaction, and affective states. Each concept will be explained and defined shortly and as explicitly as possible to support and justify the insights that have been proposed as part of the Ph.D. research.

1.5.1. Blended Learning

Blended learning is mostly defined as the combination of online and F2F education processes (Graham, 2004). Based on the model of choice, blended learning is a flexible approach that allows varying online-F2F ratios and instructional activities in numerous contexts, shaped by the needs of teachers and students (Johnson & Graham, 2014).

1.5.2. Instructional Design

Instructional design is "a system of procedures for developing education and training curricula consistently and reliably" (Branch & Kopcha, 2014). In addition, it is a progress of frequent repetition and testing for the ultimate result, and it involves determining the learning outcomes, selecting appropriate strategies for instruction, utilizing the spot-on technological assets, determining the medium of education, and quantifying the performance (Branch & Kopcha, 2014).

1.5.3. Learning Management System (LMS)

LMSs are online environments in which lesson-related materials and tasks are uploaded and course content is designed to initiate learning on a specific subject or a wide range of subjects.

1.5.4. Gamification

Gamification is referred to as utilizing components that belong to games in environments that are normally not perceived as suitable for games as they are generally serious contexts.

1.5.5. Gamified Content

A gamified content is a type of domain that is generally addressed as course-related environments in educational contexts and is enriched with game elements to disguise purposes for behavioral changes as enjoyable and colorful tasks.

1.5.6. Learner Autonomy

A feeling of and awareness for independence, freedom, and responsibility in the process of learning, an act of taking charge of one's learning and supporting peers if the need arises.

1.5.7. L2 Motivation Self System

L2 motivation self-system is a reconceptualization of past motivation research traditions, suggesting that investing oneself in the integration of the target language and its culture is inadequate without the inclusion of identity and self (Dörnyei, 2005; Magid & Chan, 2012).

1.5.8. Classroom Interaction

In a lesson or activity context, classroom interaction is the series of conversations, exchange of information, or acts of support provided for individuals who seek it. It is what takes place in a classroom that shares the same goals to serve as an exchange of information.

CHAPTER TWO
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Theoretical Framework

The study aims to investigate the effect of gamification of a blended language learning module on certain variables associated with EFL learners' needs. It is based upon a solid theorizing process in which how gamification and blended learning could be a plausible combination to improve learners' language skills, autonomy, L2 self-system motivations, and classroom interaction quality. For this purpose, the main constituents that are thought to be playing a role in the amalgamation of such concepts in the context of the variables will be described in length with the consideration for the related research in the field. These sections will firstly commence with the definitions and theories about what blended learning (BL) means in general, subsequently moving on to the issues in more depth as how BL models are integrated with specific areas such as language learning and EFL. Additionally, the same pattern will be observed for the sections of instructional design, gamification, learner autonomy, motivation and L2 motivational self-system, language skills, and classroom interaction. A frequently discussed and researched concept, BL is an elusive instructional tool in terms of defining it. Therefore, this next sub-section attempts to bring as many perspectives as possible into the description of the concept so as to establish a basis for the study.

2.1.1. Blended Learning (BL)

BL is the combination of online learning environments and face-to-face (F2F) interaction in educational settings. In addition to this simplistic definition of the concept, blended learning harbors many depictions and interpretations in terms of how and where it is used. In a broad sense, blended learning can be initially described based on the sequence of mixing up F2F and online instruction (Graham, 2004; Osguthorpe & Graham, 2003; Rasheed et al., 2020). In the light of these broad perspectives in defining blended learning, certain challenges emerge in drawing the line between blended learning and other technology-oriented methods to teach. To Garrison and Kanuka (2004), simply defining blended learning as the thoughtful use of asynchronous and synchronous deliveries is

insufficient as technologically enhanced and online learning processes are both indistinguishable from one another in this sense. They are rather components in a linear continuum of e-learning concepts (p.97).

The real challenge awaiting the practitioners on the verge of devising a blended-learning model is the requirement to update the conceptual and organizational grounds of the preexisting methodologies, approaches, and techniques used in F2F or online education settings. Thus, the practitioner/designer is required to transform these instructional constructs into a unique item, such that it bears no resemblance to the previous models (Garrison & Kanuka, 2004; Hrastinski, 2019). No blended learning model designed is similar to the other in integrating technology and F2F applications. The main reason for the aforementioned merge between online components and F2F characteristics of a classroom is the need to diversify the means for receiving knowledge. According to Downing et al. (2014), listening to a passive lecture by a professor is no different than watching a YouTube tutorial. Considering that the attention span of a university-level student, who tends to move back and forth between one media to another on multiple devices, is around 20 minutes, engagement can be ensured by combining vivid teacher-student, student-student, and technology-student interactional situations. Blended learning, therefore, is a way to diversify educational settings based on the needs arising from the situations related to teachers, students, and teaching environments.

Blended learning is a special territory that is approached differently by educators, designers, and researchers varying from one context to another. To adapt to the changing characteristics of both learners and educational settings, one of the most favored approaches to teaching is blended learning procedures (Downing et al., 2014; Osguthorpe & Graham, 2003). Osguthorpe and Graham (2003) establish the foundation for blended learning with the notion that both physical classroom and online interactions have their benefits in learning, therefore, mixing them in a blended sense by adjusting the balance is a plausible way to ensure motivation of learners with distinct types of learning behaviors and patterns. In describing the nature and foundation of the blended learning as a dynamic system, various models and frameworks have been drawn as per its demands from it.

Based on The Next Generation Course Redesign Project (NGen) he led at the University of North Texas, Turner (2009) characterized the balance of activity types in blended learning as follows: *large group lectures* (0-35% of the course), *media-rich interactive online environment* (30-60% of the course), and *small-group experiential learning* (30-50% of the course) (p. 12). As indicated by the percentage ranges for each interaction kind, the balance to be observed among them can vary depending upon the lessons. Blended instruction as a term can generate many misconceptions as it can be regarded as haphazard use of the internet and technology during lessons. However, it aims at magnifying the different needs and preferences of the learners, and the main purposes of the blended learning approach are *pedagogical richness*, *access to knowledge*, *social interaction*, *personal agency*, *cost-effectiveness*, and *ease of revision* (Osguthorpe & Graham, 2003). Moreover, in addition to supplying for various needs of diverse learners, online interaction provided by blended learning environments can boost the motivation and willingness to participate in discussions, see beyond social status and appearance, and not face criticism for things apart from intelligence (Chen & Looi, 2007). Yet, one of the most prominent disadvantages of online discussion is the lack of interaction apart from the assignments given by the teachers. Therefore, it is recommended by Chen and Looi (2007) that courses must be designed well enough to establish a system in which one downside in an environment can be complemented by another.

Blended learning models are categorized into four distinct classes based on the orientation of the blended contents: institutional blends, program-level blends, course-level blends, and activity level blends (Johnson & Graham, 2014). Additionally, there is a distinction of models regarding the blended learning programs between K-12 education and higher education. Blended learning models can be classified into four groups in their report on blended learning in K-12 education. These models are the rotation model, flex model, self-blend or a la carte model, and enriched-virtual model (Christensen et al., 2013; Staker & Horn, 2012). In the rotation model, course direction can be diverse in terms of the used modality, and the teacher can rotate classroom activities for students so long as at least one of those activities is online learning. This model has four sub-categories as follows: The Station Rotation, The Lab Rotation, The Flipped Classroom, and The Individual Rotation. The station rotation model includes activities rotating between stations within the boundaries of the classroom while the lab rotation allows students to perform the online learning part of

the learning in lab environments. The flipped classroom model requires F2F learning to take place in the classroom and online learning anywhere outside the site of the school. The individual model does not require any designated rotation as each student in the classroom is assigned an individual rotational guide to follow. In the flex model, most curricula are delivered online, but the teacher is required on-site for F2F interaction, only for support as needed. The self-blend or a la carte model offers students an opportunity to choose some individual courses online while other courses F2F in physical classrooms. Lastly, in the enriched-virtual model, students are instructed online with partial supplements via F2F meetings, in addition, it is a whole-school experience.

On the other hand, Twigg (2003) draws a model categorization for higher education by dividing the blended learning into five categories as follows: supplementary model, replacement model, buffet model, emporium model, and fully online model. The replacement model in higher education models is quite similar to the rotation model of the K-12 context in many aspects due to rotations based on student or facilitator choice. Similarly, the flex model of K-12 and emporium as a higher education model both employ an online-dominant instruction and are partially supplemented with F2F instruction just as a la carte blend (K-12) and buffet (higher ed.) models are both student-centered and individualized. Moreover, enriched virtual and fully online models are, yet again, greatly identical. Lastly, the supplementary model of higher education appears rather distinct from other models in the way that lecturing and F2F instruction are fixed and untouched for learners. Additionally, the online phase of the module merely includes supplementary materials and additional tasks meant to be fulfilled at home.

2.1.2. Instructional Design (ID)

ID is alternatively referred to as instructional development since they are used interchangeably in the related literature (Branch & Kopcha, 2014). ID models are the simplified representations of complicated plans and procedures for improving learning and teaching in given contexts to serve various purposes (Dick et al., 2015). The main purpose of ID is to make changes to the delivery of the instruction, learning materials, learning environments, media types, etc. to improve student investment, engagement, motivation, and achievement levels. When one component fails, certain improvements are devised and

employed as the need arises. However, it is quite challenging for instructors/facilitators to identify and decide the required adjustments in a flowing course of instruction. Therefore, pre-determined steps and models are regarded as useful tools to improve the shortcomings of an ongoing instructional process and mend the malfunctioning constituents.

To Dick et al. (2015), an ID mindset is drawn from the concept of a system, which is a set of interrelated parts, all of which work together toward a defined goal (p.1). Considering that the ID process is expected to function ideally under the circumstance that a systems approach is observed, every component in a system must be taken into consideration to reach learning objectives. In a typical system where the purpose is to achieve certain learning outcomes, the most essential aspects to regard are the facilitator/instructor, learners, materials to be utilized, learning activities, content delivery, learner performance assessment, and interactional assets (Dick et al., 2015; Reigeluth et al., 2017). Careful assembly of such components in a system where learning takes place ensures that proper ID models can be developed to reach certain goals depending on the context and needs of the instruction.

Before discussing the area-specific ID models, the core concepts behind the ID mindset need to be brought into the light since they are the backbone of any systematic model devised to serve an educational purpose. According to the definitions made to describe the ID process and the system concept, all systematic ID models are motivated by a generic set of procedural steps. This main set of core concepts which functions as a basis for structuring an ID model is commonly referred to as ADDIE (Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation, and Evaluation) framework, and it is quite useful in a way that each step of ADDIE directly contributes to the formation of an ID model layout regardless of the purpose of the design (Figure 1). The most crucial point in this basic conceptual infrastructure provided by ADDIE is the interchangeability in the sequence of the steps (Branch & Kopcha, 2014; Gustafson & Branch, 2002; Peterson, 2003).

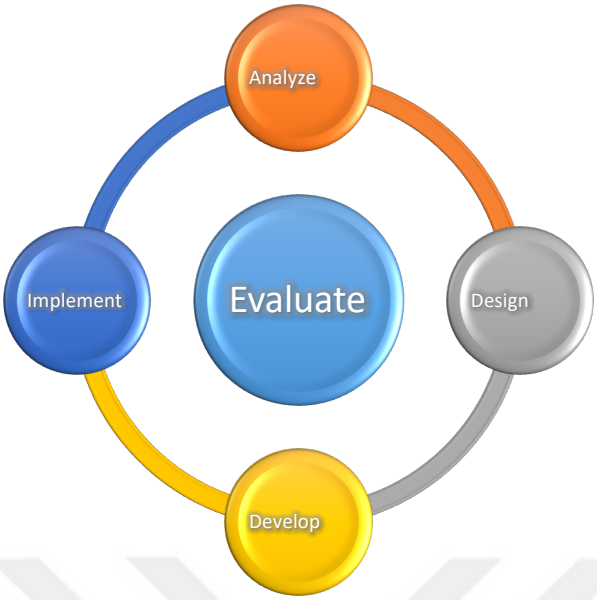


Figure 1. ID core concepts

ADDIE, which stands for Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation, and Evaluation, as an instructional design framework is one of the most used ID constructs in the designing process of lessons, courses, and training programs. The ADDIE framework provides course developers, educators, and teachers with a dependable and trustworthy way of integrating their plans into their syllabi and/or curricula (Peterson, 2003).

These five phases constitute the structural basis for the instructional development upon which new or adapted ID models can be built. The analysis stage is where the focus is on the target audience. In connection, firstly, a needs analysis is required to gather information about what the students already know and what they need to know at the end of the program. In other words, a Present Situation Analysis (PSA) and a Target Situation Analysis (TSA) are conducted to compare the pre-existing knowledge and objectives. Secondly, a task analysis is required to set a framework for the content and necessary skills by analyzing course-related texts, sample syllabi, course websites, and sample course structures. These sample courses can be found on the internet, and specifically, on the websites of educational institutions. These courses and sample contents are gathered, and a framework is cut out for the aimed program. Lastly, an instructional analysis is needed to determine the amount of instruction needed with regard to the needs of the learners and the task analysis.

The design stage includes certain steps to be taken to initiate the creation of an instructional program. The primary step is to identify the objectives of the program. Then, the objectives devised as the end goal of the program must be reviewed to meet their requirements. As the next step, instructional strategies to achieve the objectives of the program must be identified. Lastly, the type of media and methods most compatible with the planned process must be chosen. In the design stage, assessment plays a vital role as it serves the other components of the plan. When the assessment is properly aligned with goals and objectives, it can be exploited as setting new goals or altering the existing objectives to better fit the needs of the program.

In the development phase of the model, the ultimate purpose is to crudely shape the product for the delivery of the knowledge and content. This phase serves as a ground for transition where the designer is no longer functional merely as a researcher and planner but as a producer of the program. The development phase is comprised of drafting, production, and evaluation sub-steps. The designer makes rough sketches of the product details and attempts to select materials and media based on the draft. Subsequently, the production is reviewed by conducting formative evaluations. These evaluative routines ensure the integrity of the product in terms of the selected media and materials and its quality standards. In other words, the formative evaluation steps strengthen the product in a way that it can be improved as the need arises. The main goal, therefore, is to determine if the learners or audience will benefit from the product and how it can be further improved before implementation.

The implementation phase urges the designer to assume a more active role in creating the program. Continuous analysis and redesign procedures are involved to enhance the quality and integrity of the product. For the product to be effective, an evaluation and necessary revisions are required in this stage. In addition, during the implementation, learners and the instructor can be included as actively contributing members. Through instantaneous modifications with the contributions of learners and/or teachers, the effectiveness and efficiency of the program can be ensured (Peterson, 2003).

The evaluation stage as the last phase in the ADDIE core concepts is quite crucial for the design of a teaching program as it can take many purposes and forms in previous steps,

as well as serve as the final decisive step of the whole model. The aspect of evaluation is interwoven with all the stages in the model and helps ensure the quality of the final product on every possible level. First, it appears as a formative evaluation in the development phase, where the quality standards are observed during the selection of media and materials. Second, in the implementation phase, student and instructor aid are involved to ensure a formative evaluation so that instant changes can be made to improve the program in the sense of serving the ultimate objectives. Third and last, at the end of the implementation, it serves as a summative evaluation for instructional improvement. This can be achieved via setting about certain criteria to consider throughout the course design process. The first of these criteria is to make sure the problems in the product have been solved. Secondly, the evaluation process inquires if all the objectives set before the implementation have been met. Thirdly, one of the concerns of the designer must be to determine the impact of the product. Lastly, the designer must question the whole process in terms of required changes for the future delivery of the teaching module (Branch & Kopcha, 2014; Peterson, 2003).

ID processes can be classified under main categories based on different mindsets and understandings. One school differentiates between the linear and concurrent classification of ID processes to develop new models or make adaptations (Gustafson & Branch, 2002) whereas the other compares circular/continuous and concurrent approaches to model development (Dick et al., 2015). The two perspectives handle the concurrent aspect of the ID models similarly while the linear and circular/continuous processes are regarded distinctively. According to the Gustafson and Branch's (2002) perspective, linear ID approaches can lead to a rectilinear manner for model development. In addition to rectilinear processes, ID model development can follow curvilinear, the spiral model developed by Boehm (2007), and the layered model suggested by Tessmer and Wedman (1995).

Linear and circular/continuous approaches

For ID model development, the linear approaches reviewed by (Gustafson & Branch, 2002) include the rectilinear process as the most basic approach. It can be described as an approach that is generally portrayed with rectangular or square boxes that are connected with arrows that indicate sequential order, and these boxes generally include one or two boxes of

feedback or revision in between some of the steps. The rectilinear process is often followed by curvilinear approaches that depict more complex reflections of the ID model reality.

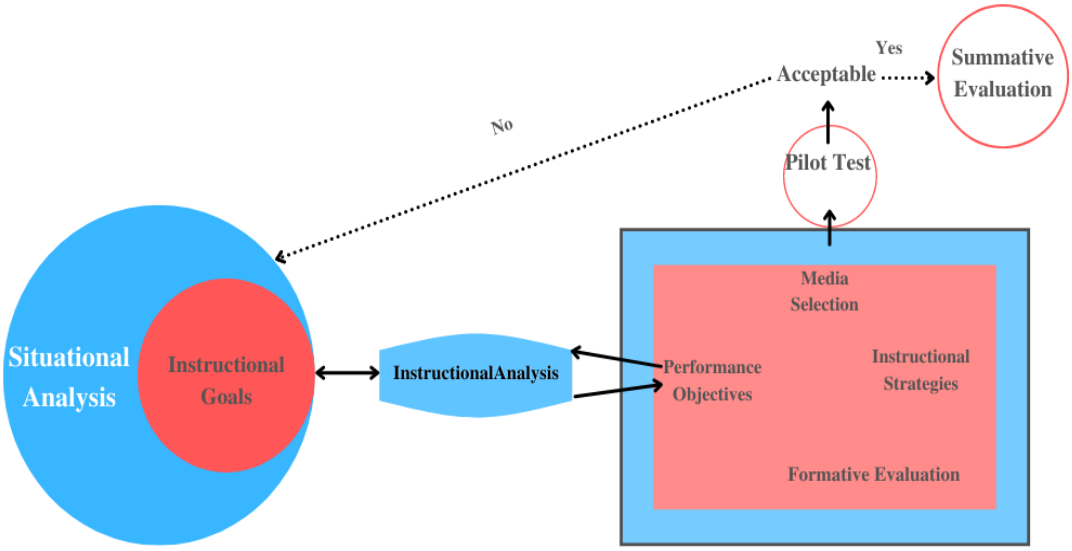


Figure 2. Curvilinear portrayal of ID model development (Gustafson & Branch, 2002)

In a curvilinear approach, connections between the steps to be followed are portrayed by two way or curved arrows that imply more complex interconnectivity, and the process does not necessarily follow one linear direction to reach a goal. In other words, some steps can require the designer to return to a missing or inadequate component before moving on to the next step. Moreover, in accordance with Dick et al. (2015), while linear and circular approaches may offer continuous improvement opportunities on certain levels and can be adequate for specific design needs, concurrent ID model development processes that assume cycles positioned in simultaneous functional order can be quite useful for designs that require an iterative nature for the development of components.

Concurrent Approaches

In some cases, the ID process needs to be more iterative and multiple cycles are required to be maintained simultaneously to provide immediate solutions. That is, certain ID modeling requires more dynamism in achieving the desired objectives.

Older examples for concurrent ID model development such as (Boehm, 2007) spiral model of software development and the Contextual Layered ID Model developed by (Tessmer & Wedman, 1995) set a sound foundation on which new models can be constructed to serve various contextual needs. In the spiral model of Boehm (2007), a highly competitive and iterative process is introduced, in which several ideas for a product are developed and tested simultaneously, and after multiple tests for the ideas, the strongest one is selected and subjected to the next step. Therefore, the modeling is referred to as a spiral process due to its layered nature.

The contextual layer model suggested by Tessmer and Wedman (1995) attempts to construct an alternative to the traditional linear models. As opposed to the former, the contextual layer model assumes the completion of the tasks concurrently during the ID process. When a traditional model is followed for the ID process, the designer cannot be certain whether the product is ready for use until the whole process is complete. However, with the layered approach, which suggests the utilization of negotiated prototypes, the design process harbors a holistic approach to product construction where the analyses of the prototypes are completed as a collective effort to reach the final product. Conversely, the traditional ID models only require analysis as the final step after the prototypes are developed. Therefore, it can be assumed that the contextual layered model offers a dynamic ID process in which constraints such as time and resources are used more economically; in that, the negotiated prototype allows the designers to simultaneously test the constituents of the product through the analysis, design, development, and evaluation stages. As can be inferred from the figure, the more the process linearly utilize these stages, the more money time, and resource is spent to finalize the product.

A respectively newer concurrent process for ID model development put forward by Dick et al. (2015) emphasizes the significance of exploiting ID steps at the same time to produce an ID model and reach the final product much more quickly. This ID process referred to as *Rapid Prototype Development* (Figure 3) draws the essence of concurrent labor for each step in the way of creating an ID model. Confirming the previous studies mentioned above, this ID process advocates the necessity of economy in terms of resources and time, and it suggests that all the steps (planning, development, implementation, and analysis) in

the ID model production must be initiated at the same time or multiple cycles that involve these steps should occur simultaneously.

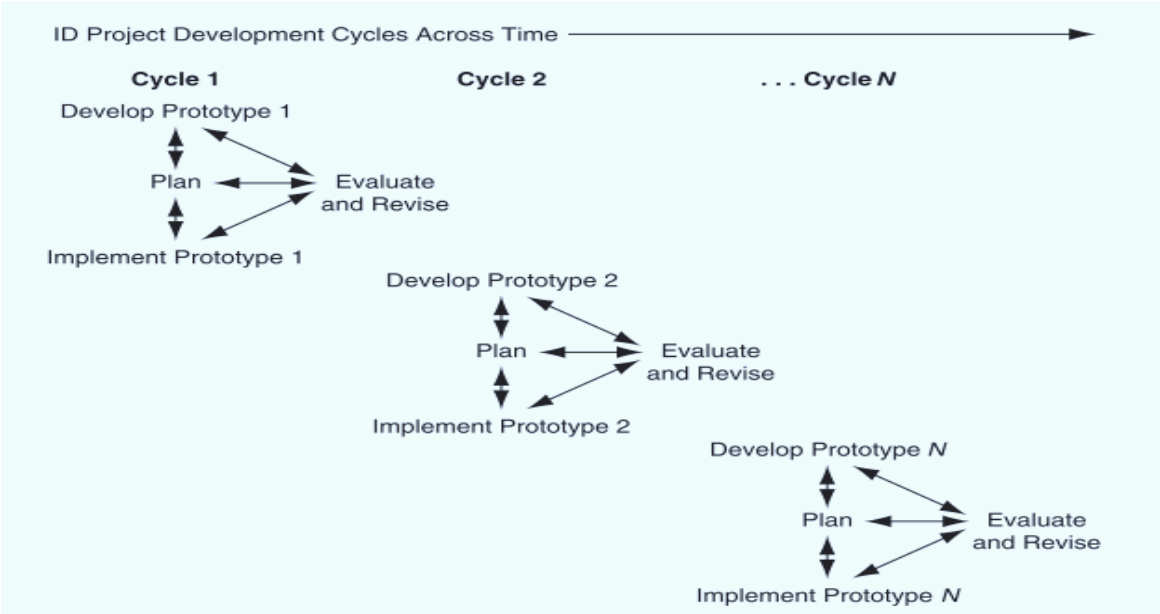


Figure 3. Rapid Prototype Development ID process by Dick et al. (2015)

Different model categories can be listed as the following: classroom-oriented models, product-oriented models, and system-oriented models (Gustafson & Branch, 2002). Classroom-oriented ID models are generally referred to as guides and *roadmaps* (p.18) for the in-service teachers who actively work with students in a classroom environment. Therefore, it is safe to assume that teachers are expected to lead a heavy workload in a classroom rather than spend time developing their materials and content. Due to this workload and focus on teaching pre-determined subjects, they have less time for creating original materials. In these classroom-oriented models, teachers are assumed to select the most appropriate materials, delivery methods, utilization of the selected materials and media, and objective identification.

In product-oriented models, the focus is to produce a set of prototypes to perfect and serve the end-users. Contrary to the classroom-oriented models, this type of model assumes the creation of materials and the media, rather than the selection of the preexisting ones. Additionally, constant prototype testing and iteration are emphasized for the product to function for the end-users. Most importantly, these models require the product to be used

with the support of the facilitators, not actively participating teachers. Especially with the rise of demand in distance education and computer-assisted learning, product-oriented models have been quite popular since these models are highly efficient and supportive of the self-study of the end-users.

Systems-oriented ID models aim to create an instructional product to be used for large-sized programs, as in curriculum or a year -or semester-long course. These models are developed by groups of *highly trained developers* (p.45), starting with a comprehensive data collection phase to determine the main problem in an existing instructional system. The main difference between the system-oriented and product-oriented models is their impact areas. In that, the former aims to address the institutional objectives of the instruction while the latter focuses on small products to increase functionality in accordance with certain instructional needs.

In the light of these models and approaches to the ID process, the final decision about what model or ID methods are right for the planned instructional objectives is a vital process. Therefore, according to the taxonomy (Figure 4) revised and developed by Gustafson and Branch (2002) to aid this decision process, conceptual frameworks must aid designers to assume the characteristics of the design situations and determine the most suitable model or elements of certain models to serve their needs.

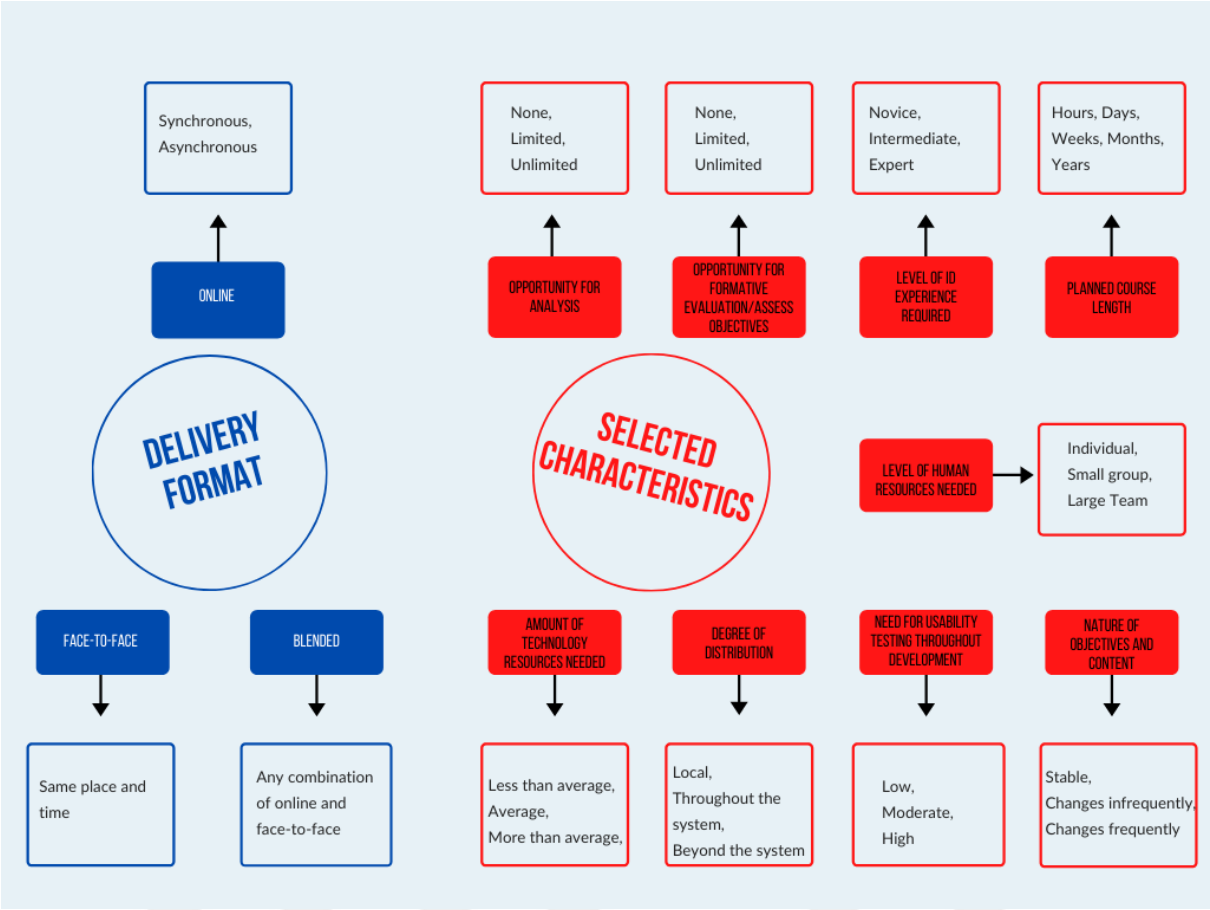


Figure 4. ID taxonomy suggested by Gustafson and Branch (2002)

To sum, considering these ID theories and models, the researchers are subject to the laborious task of selecting and/or adapting from this wide range of ID frameworks to manipulate the acquired insights to better serve their scientific and pedagogical purposes. In the case of this study, the most suitable way to develop an ID model and integrate it with the theoretical foundations of both blended learning models and gamification techniques. The next section, therefore, will provide insight into what types of theoretical arguments have been generated in the literature and how these theories could be implemented in the ID model of this research process.

2.1.3. Gamification

This section will broadly account for the theories that lie underneath the concept of gamification in many contexts. First, gamification and its origins will be discussed in-depth concerning the definition of the concept and its connection with this dissertation. Second,

the settings and cases where gamification is utilized will be discussed in light of the related literature. Last, before moving on to the specific gamification studies in the following sub-sections, the theoretical framework of gamification will be weighted by focusing on its advantages, drawbacks, and relationships with certain variables such as motivation, engagement, and behavioral change, etc. Before the context-specific discussion of gamification theory, coherent links to the next section will be provided with the help of the theories provided by related research.

Gamification research is mainly concentrated on the educational context. Gamification as a concept and practice has roots in the old days of the Soviet Union where the workers were rewarded in various ways depending on the labor they invested in a week or a period. Later, gamification has been adopted in the business world to spark light force in the competition and cooperation in a way that the working conditions can become more sufferable and delightful. Even though the name 'gamification' was not used as a concept, nor was the mentality itself used consciously and systematically. It was only in recent years that the term "gamification" was coined. Following the realization that it triggers enjoyment and motivation, it has become widespread in many contexts (Albertazzi et al., 2019). Moreover, according to Deterding et al. (2011), gamification as a concept raised a considerable amount of eyebrows when the location-sharing platform 'Foursquare' applied an awarding mechanism to encourage its users to actively use the app to share their locational information more frequently. Especially in business and marketing settings, this was recognized as a novelty in encouraging the end-users and changing their behaviors toward intended directions. As Caponetto et al. (2014) pinpoint, gamification as a trendy concept has gradually become so famous that many rudimentary fields use it for various reasons such as engaging the users of a product, motivating employees, etc. Most importantly, using game elements -or gamifying a setting so to speak- is a great way to alter behaviors in the direction of one's interests. This behavioral change potential has attracted educators and curriculum developers to put game elements into good use. In other words, using game elements has become more popular each passing year, therefore the research related to its role in educational contexts has intensified.

Following the spread of these applications that integrated game dynamics, different fields, especially education and industry, started to question its feasibility. According to the

theoretical studies related to the issue, game design or gamification has set solid foundations in the industry and various areas under different names, but with basically the same principles (Nacke & Deterding, 2017; Nicholson, 2012). The main feature of gamification is the integration of game elements into serious settings and environments where playfulness or game playfulness normally has no place. In other words, gamification is quite distinct in terms of nature from playfulness, state of play, or games. Deterding et al. (2011) illustrated this distinction as shown in Figure 5.

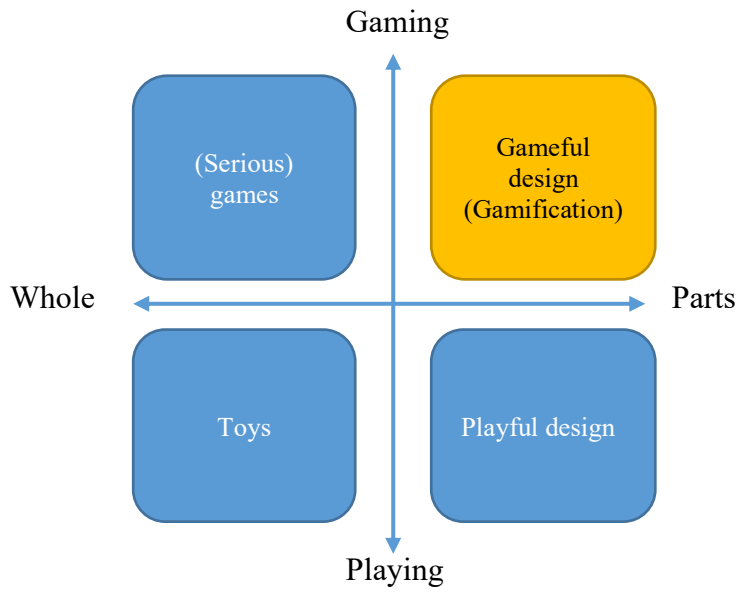


Figure 5. Gamification between game and play, whole and parts (Deterding et al., 2011)

Regarding the gamification-oriented research papers and academic tendencies, the number of published works in the field has skyrocketed especially between the years 2011 and 2014, the year 2013 becoming the period with the highest volume of studies (Caponetto et al., 2014). One noteworthy point about these research papers was that even though empirical and conceptual studies were close in number, statistical evidence was provided by a small percentage of all the papers. Therefore, it can be deduced that more statistical interpretation is needed in experimental studies in which game elements are tested in educational contexts. Moreover, regarding the target samples, the study revealed that almost half of the research papers placed their focus on the university level. What is more interesting is that only 4% of the studies took place at upper secondary (high school) levels. The main conclusion of the research is the revelation that gamification techniques and gamified

content are employed for the mere purpose of increasing motivation and engagement. On another note, it was found that most of the the gamified intervention techniques used in collecting data were designed as online tasks and content, traditionally with the help of asynchronous-natured Learning Management System (LMS) environments. Only a few of the reviewed studies designed a blended learning content in which students are required to complete face-to-face tasks and experience real-time teacher consultations. Considering this, a need to understand the maturation process of gamification in a specific context has emerged.

Gamification studies have evolved into an area of significant scientific grounds. However, despite its vast potential within the boundaries of a specific field, many studies that focus on implementing gamification via design elements and/or properties lack a well-translated solution for devising a methodology to construct gamified content or reports of empirical findings in a way that they will set a template for other studies. To Nacke and Deterding (2017), gamification research is still in its early years, remarking that the related studies are not sufficient in interpreting what they have revealed systematically. In other words, these studies should be able to find correlations between game elements and dynamics of gamification. Moreover, more studies that rely on empirical means to test out game dynamics in specific contexts are required for a well understanding of game dynamics in actions.

Gamified contents and gamification processes usually involve elements that belong to serious games, such as quests, badges, points, leaderboards, virtual transactions, avatar use, narratives, and progress check (Hung, 2017). In addition to these widespread gamification traditions, one of the key principles of gamification is the issue of content design. In terms of design, it is quite important to create an environment where learners/participants can feel the freedom of choice without ever doubting that a choice might fail. Furthermore, users need to feel in control to some extent to decide on their learning needs in compliance with their interests.

The key question to make a distinction between games and gamification lies in the issue of the potential of both dimensions. To elaborate, games offer a state of play or playfulness to the learners/users in a direct manner, as in a regular, well-known game

whereas gamification or a gamified environment brings forth the promotion of certain behaviors through elements of a game. Therefore, it can be stated that the gamification process aims at applying game mechanics to provide encouragement and prizes for selected behaviors to facilitate learning and ensure that learners maintain a nurturing social exchange. Rapp et al. (2019) noted that although the trend among researchers to publish studies with regard to various prospects of gamification concept is on the rise, the main defect is the limited number of studies that have succeeded to construct a methodology behind the issue. Therefore, it seems that a strong pedagogy or a framework, depending on the setting, is required to set an example for future research. In the designing mentality, there is an increase in the quality of gamified content in which game elements are channeled into the physical world rather than the digital environments. However, this raises some ethical issues regarding the control of behaviors. As can be traced in the fundamental research about gamification, the main point of the whole process is to change the behavior of the individuals. Referenced from the Chinese example, the physicality of gamification portrays a real-world experience where people are rewarded or punished based on their behaviors and social conformity as dictated by the authorities. Thus, this so-called gamified experience, no matter the scale of the population, is questionable in terms of interfering with the behavioral prospects of the individuals. For this reason, it shows that limiting the gamified design studies to the effects of gamification on a variable or the efficiency of gamified contents is not adequate. Instead, it is highly suggestible to use gamification as a way to enhance a setting or an environment and to utilize its potential to establish a framework concerning the design properties.

2.1.4. Learner Autonomy (LA)

LA has become an important factor in educational settings due to the shifts in educational paradigms. Following the paradigmatic scale ranging from behaviorism to constructivism, the new way of approaching the classroom and instructive processes focus on the lifelong nature of the educational experience, and connectivist learning is emphasized for contemporary learners (Anderson & Dron, 2011; Firat, 2016). In the connectivist learning theory, learner choice and independence in making informed decisions during one's learning are the fundamental scopes. The technological advancements and cross-device learning opportunities make it possible to assume that learners are better off deciding on their

preferences for instruction in terms of devices and learning styles, hence emphasizing autonomy in the learning process. The connectivism assumes that learners are highly capable of making their own choices regarding the instructional paths, and teachers are not required as the primary source of knowledge; rather, they are needed as facilitators in online and classroom environments to conduct the flow of the learning activities.

Autonomy in learning can be described in relation to personal autonomy and autonomy in different situations, and in a traditional sense, it was mostly based on the teacher's perspective (Benson, 2008a). In other words, in many definitions and descriptions regarding autonomy in the classroom, the main reference point to evaluate LA was the question of teacher existence. In that, many definitions of LA regarded it as a situation where the teacher help is not needed, and learners manage to learn on their own outside the classroom environment. However, this is a misled understanding of the concept, and LA is rather a capacity of the learner to lead their learning with or without the presence of a teacher inside or outside the classroom.

As proposed by Little et al. (2017), learners are required to take responsibility in an autonomous classroom by providing reflections through metalinguistic and metacognitive interaction with the teacher. To activate this meta dimension, learners are loaded with certain obligations in the classroom. First, they are expected to communicate their learning to the teacher by participating in the interactional activities. Second, they need to experiment with what they have or have not learned. Last, they are anticipated to establish an intention in their learning by accessing the metacognitive and affective dimensions of their learning. Naturally, it would be unfair to learners to automatically expect these autonomous characteristics from them. Thus, it is initially the teacher's duty to ensure that the students are equipped with these qualities of autonomy, and it is an arduous process. While autonomy is defined restrictively within specific domains such as learning autonomy, planning autonomy, etc. to some extent, it is more plausible to refer to it as a general capacity of a person to perform independent actions in different situations (Littlewood, 1996).

Paralleling the model drawn by Little et al. (2017), the framework set out by Littlewood (1996) for autonomy include *autonomy as a communicator*, *autonomy as a learner*, and *autonomy as a person* (p.432). This framework is quite similar in terms of

responsibilities of learners for communicating their gains, for developing their learning strategies and tinkering with their knowledge, and for involving their personal investment in the process. At the basis of this framework are *ability* and *willingness* of the learners (p.428). These two significant components are interrelated and function interchangeably to construct the autonomy of an individual. Ability component is dependent on knowledge and skills of the individual whereas the willingness is comprised of motivation and confidence. A learner possessing necessary knowledge and skills cannot achieve autonomy without motivation and confidence, hence the willingness, and vice versa. Being knowledgeable and skillful in a subject area is valuable in a learning environment; however, learners simply cannot invest their mind and personality in the effort, therefore rendering the ability useless or potentially lacking. Reversely, an individual with motivation and confidence, namely willing for a process, but lacking in the ability department will be dependent upon the teacher or external sources to pave the way (Little et al., 2017; Littlewood, 1996; Ushioda, 2011b).

According to Ushioda (2011b), autonomy has a profound relationship with motivational elements in a way that autonomy encourages learners to experience personal agency and self-determination, both of which are crucial for the development of motivation that originates from the inside. In addition, autonomy is mostly regarded as a concept that focuses on an idealized learner. However, the desired outlook for the autonomy concept assumes a focus on a round person with real identity and situatedness.

2.1.5. Autonomy and Language Learning

Autonomy is a research topic that has been long discussed within the context of language teaching and learning on many occasions, and it has been defined frequently from various perspectives motivated by terminological concerns, psychology of the learner, and ideological stances (Oxford, 2003).

One of the main discussions regarding LA is that cultural setting is a crucial factor that impacts the construction of autonomy in learners. Cultural setting does not necessarily mean ethnicity-related culture; indeed, it involves the values and merits developed within a sociocultural system, no matter how small or large in scale and populace. In addition, the Westernized perspective established for autonomy over the years has made it distinct that

the Eastern culture has its own systematic and characteristics in defining autonomy. Cases provided by certain research propose that among the cultural reasons for learning English is the need to accommodate to the English-spoken cultures. In other words, countries in the Eastern culture often regard learning English as a way to earn respect from society, parents, peers, etc. In a way, cultural exposure is an immense source for autonomy (Benson et al., 2003; Riley, 2003; Toohey & Norton, 2003).

Control over the system in which English is taught is difficult, if not impossible, for language learners, therefore, as the language goals become clear, individuals can set their own objectives and rules, constructing their autonomy (Benson, 2008a, 2010; Benson et al., 2003; Nunan, 2003). Aside from the elements that play vital roles in learners' language achievement such as motivation, learning style, cognitive factors, learning strategies, etc., autonomy of learners of English language are affected by sociocultural contexts. Learners develop their agencies based on personal experiences with the language, their process of immersion into the target culture, and the language objectives (Toohey & Norton, 2003). In line with the perspectives towards autonomy, Oxford (2003) proposed a model reviewing how different perspectives referred to autonomy as under four themes as follows: context, agency, motivation, and learning strategies. Based on the model, autonomy is divided into four schools of thought: *technical perspective*, *psychological perspective*, *sociocultural perspective*, and *political-critical perspective* (pp.76-80). Each perspective presented in the model focused on the themes in their distinct ways. In technical point of view, autonomy is regarded as skill sets to initiate independence in learning whereas in psychological view describes it as a mixture of personality traits of a person including attitudes, strategies for learning, etc. Moreover, in sociocultural point of view, autonomy is portrayed in two distinct manners. First, autonomy is thought to be equal to self-regulation that is acquired as a result of social interaction with more skilled mediators. However, mediators do not always need to be a person; rather, they can be other tools such as books, technological equipment and / or environments, etc. Second, autonomy is not viewed as the ultimate objective of a learning process is to ensure participation in the cultural environment where the language is practiced. This participation is often a gradual process that starts small and gets larger as the time progresses. Finally, in political-critical perspective, autonomy is basically gaining a strong stance in the middle of clashing ideological views and cultural settings.

Considering these perspectives presented in the model proposed by Oxford (2003), it is evident that it is hard to determine where to take a stance in evaluating learner autonomy in classroom practice in contemporary sense. However, the model and similar projections show that a wide range of issues and elements need consideration in examining learners' autonomy in the learning process. Before mentioning the measurement and evaluation dimensions regarding LA, however, it is plausible to review the perspectives offered by studies on LA in language learning and EFL context. That way, issues to consider how to measure learners' autonomy levels and autonomy-related behaviors will be more explicit for the sake of taking as many elements as possible into consideration.

In the related literature, many studies can be found that focused on LA, and it is quite noteworthy that many of these studies is in the context of language teaching and EFL learning. These studies not only shed light on general principles to follow to increase LA in language classrooms but also provide specific contextual circumstances where LA was attempted to be elevated using various methods and techniques (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2019; Lengkanawati, 2017; Little et al., 2017; Macaro, 2008; Oxford, 2017; Pichugova et al., 2016; Ramadhiyah & Lengkanawati, 2019; Shen et al., 2020; Ting, 2015; Tran & Duong, 2018; Tseng et al., 2020).

Based on the model set by Little et al. (2017), an autonomous language classroom revolves around two crucial premises: learners taking control over their learning and learners attempting to further improve their autonomy. Language learners can monitor their language learning through setting their own learning goals, choosing their paths, deciding on the learning process, monitoring their progress, and scrutinizing the learning outcomes. These can be achieved by focusing on the target language as a mediator of interaction, keeping logs of learning through instruments such as diaries, portfolios, etc., and etching the work cycle with visually traceable tools. Following the emphasis on target language and interactional (dialogic) learning, another issue by which LA is nurtured is the concept of interest. If the interest of learners is fed with activities and content which resonate with them, it is more likely that learners will develop an intrinsic motivation to participate in the learning process and invest their personalities in the classroom culture (Deci et al., 1996). However, the potential pitfall in focusing solely on the interests of learners and raising their intrinsic motivation is that learners will be prone to only complete tasks that are appealing to them

and neglect the rest. Therefore, it is advisable that teachers count in the extrinsic motivation factor in the equation, as well (Deci et al., 1996; Little et al., 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2006).

As a final note that would wrap up the discussion about how to develop LA in a language learning setting, Nunan's (2003) nine-step proposal vastly shapes the contemporary understanding of LA in language learning (Hu & Zhang, 2017; Macaro, 2008; Ushioda, 2011b) in a way that focuses on the personal investment of the learners in the process. According to these steps, the first thing to do as language teachers is to make the objectives of learning as clear as humanely possible. This notion suggests that the syllabus or, on a smaller scale, the lesson plan for the day should be transparent for the eyes of the students to judge. If possible, it is also suggested that students evaluate the state of the objectives being met or not at the end of lessons, units, or semesters. Second, learners should be given opportunities to set their own learning goals. These opportunities can be provided for learners in student-teacher gatherings where they can work on what to include or not during language learning, negotiating on the premises that are regarded necessary for the objectives of learning by teachers and students. Third, teachers are nudged to find ways to encourage their students to take the target language outside the boundaries of the classroom. The idea is that if the teacher can find a way to motivate the students to use English in a non-classroom context, it will serve splendidly to activate students' internalization of the language and to develop their intrinsic motivation. Fourth, as an addition to learners' goal setting, it is also crucial to allow them to control the mechanics of learning as in developing their own strategies to learn the language. However, it would be a bit in vain to expect them to come up with language learning strategies from scratch because they naturally lack the awareness of the existing learning strategies. Therefore, it is the responsibility of the teacher to pre-emptively raise learners' awareness of what possible strategies exist to learn specific units of the language. Fifth, after raising the awareness levels of the learners regarding the strategies, the teacher must allow them to work out what strategy or learning style suits them best to achieve their goals. For this, the teacher may want to lay out the possible options in front of the students and encourage them to choose the most appropriate one to serve their purposes. Sixth, the teacher can leave it to students to choose what activities to start with first to learn a language unit. If the sequence of activities is left undecided, the teacher can take votes about unresolved issues. Seventh, as the student control increases in the language classroom, the teacher might decide to involve students in the design of the activities. This

involvement, however, should not be expected to be on a highly professional level, but rather, it can be a group work where students prepare reading comprehension questions for a reading text to promote reading skills based on their needs and levels. Eighth, on the condition that the learners are mentally ready for this type of involvement, the teacher must give opportunities to learners to become teachers in some cases where they are able to perform macro teaching activities for their peers in the classroom. These activities may include videos, presentations, demonstrations, etc. to ensure interaction between students and offer them chances to teach one another. Last, the teacher should allow cognitively ready students to conduct research on various subjects to promote language use at more advanced levels so that they can activate their language in different contexts on a more technical level. Learners can be subjected to take field notes, conduct interviews, make observations, etc. to collect data from a specified setting to present information related to a subject. These steps, as can be seen, indicate that gaining autonomy in language learning is an arduous process that requires a continuum of actions taken during language learning.

2.1.6. Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

For Deci et al. (1996) and Ryan and Deci (2006), LA is deeply related to self-regulation of the individuals in learning processes, and learning can be regulated to various degrees in accordance with the self-determination theory (SDT) as an umbrella term for self-regulation concept (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; Hu & Zhang, 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2006). Individuals can regulate their learning and take responsibility as long as they feel internally driven and willing to pursue an endeavor. In addition, self-regulation process is not a fixed behavior with approximately the same force; rather, it is a spectrum highly based on the internal willingness of the individual to commit to a cause. For the most unwilling individual, the learning can be regulated simply because something is required by external factors while an individual with maximum regulation force can happily involve in activities that might serve a purpose closely or not. It can be noted that LA is strongly nurtured by the SDT and self-regulation; therefore, this theory will be explained further in a separate section of its own.

SDT is based on the notion that the activities performed related to language learning in a classroom are not adequate for EFL learners to reach mastery of the target language, and

activities outside physical classrooms are necessary for students to turn into a habit. However, to take on such habit, learners require internal motivation that would allow them to structure their language learning goals, styles, and strategies for reasons motivating them at personal levels (Deci et al., 1996; Hu & Zhang, 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2000). According to Deci and Ryan (1985), learners possess human needs for autonomy, competence, and motivation to be met in the learning contexts. When these needs are addressed in the learning process, learners start to grow their own internal motivation to follow the objectives of the lesson and the process becomes relatively more personal for the learners.

Nunan (2003) proposes, LA can be considered to be a continuum consisting of four levels as follows: degree to which innate needs are met, motivational and behavioral aspects, level of regulation types pertaining to behaviors, and the depth of LA. To specify, these four levels form the basis upon which LA can be observed in a learning process and they are overlapping categories which act dependent upon one another. For instance, needs the individuals feel innately are neglected or satisfied at different levels on a spectrum, leading to either a non-self-determined learning behavior or a self-determined behavior in learning. Neglected needs and non-self-determined learning behaviors are often coincided with external or introjected regulation (partially internalized behavior) and with dependence or relative dependence in learning. On the other hand, if the innate needs of the individuals are met and they are directed to self-determined behaviors, the behavioral regulation of the individuals takes characteristics of identified or integrated regulation. In addition, learners can develop relative or complete autonomy in learning (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; Hu & Zhang, 2017; Macaro, 2008; Nunan, 2003; Orakci & Gelisli, 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2006).

Based on the insights provided regarding the SDT, it can be clearly seen that autonomy in language learning, personal regulatory behaviors, and motivation are concepts that cannot be handled distinctly from one another. Moreover, it can be stated that LA has recently taken a turn towards accounting for the learners' perspectives and their internal motivation. On top of this, the role of the "self" in the motivational aspects has gained an immense momentum to define autonomous learners. Therefore, it is essential to address the growth from the traditional motivational definitions to the self-system, which is an updated

perspective for the motivation in language learning (Benson, 2008a, 2010; Dam & Legenhausen, 2010; Firat, 2016; Lamb, 2010; Ushioda, 2011b).

2.1.7. Motivation in the Educational Context

The concept of motivation plays an integral part in this study; therefore, it is quite crucial to set a comprehensive theoretical basis with related theories in the field of education. To achieve this, motivation will primarily be discussed within the boundaries of education in general. Then, the concept will be placed in the context of language teaching, making introductions to a rather recent discussion of the self in connection to L2 motivation.

Motivation research goes beyond educational contexts and has been discussed in the field of psychology over decades. Motivation in terms of individuals' inner movement, emotions, feelings, and desires towards achieving or doing something is generally defined as the force to push people forward to achieve more in specific fields. In its earlier form, motivation was discussed in the context of company employees and business in the sense of searching for ways to improve performance and achieve high-stake objectives (Tohidi & Jabbari, 2012). Fundamentally, motivation is mostly associated with the reason behind the decisions made by individuals, the duration of the behavior to achieve a set goal, and the degree of perseverance shown in the process of showing the said behaviors (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

From a historical perspective, the earliest understanding of motivation was the underlying human emotions that impacted the behaviors in the exterior while at later stages, the shift of the paradigm in focusing on motivation brought about a cognitive perspective. It was noted that motivation of individuals was typically nurtured by conscious decisions and external factors. However, more recent perspectives suggest that personal-level emotions, personal dynamics, and values of individuals serve as additional predictors for motivation as well as conscious decisions advocated by the cognitivist perspective (Deci et al., 1991; Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Otto, 1998; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). For a clear-cut definition in the educational context, Dörnyei and Otto (1998) described motivation as *the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and*

desires are selected, prioritized, operationalized and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out (p.65).

In addition to the cognitive and affective distinction made by different perspectives regarding motivation, another line was drawn in the sense of the impact of social surroundings on motivation by Abrams and Hogg (1988, 2004), separating the motivational understanding into individualistic perspective and societal perspective (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). According to the individualistic perspective, society and the surroundings of individuals can only be scrutinized based on the insights and reflections provided by people in a social setting. In other words, the impact of societal factors on motivation is limited to what is reflected by individuals. The societal perspective, on the other hand, advocates that the distribution of power is the most prominent element that would affect one's motivational mindset since social norms, cultural inheritance, ethnic identity, etc. are mostly inescapable and they determine the actions of individuals to large extents.

On top of the ongoing debate over personal and societal dimensions of motivation, the achievement perspective is yet another concept for motivation levels of individuals. As well as being motivated by the society or senses within, individuals are motivated by either the need for achievement or the avoidance of failure. While the former seems very desirable and affirmative type of motivation that requires complete engagement of the individual, the latter motivation emerges as a feeling to dodge negative outcomes and it is still a motivation nonetheless (Atkinson, 1964; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Singh, 2011; Ushioda, 2010).

Other conceptual milestones in the understanding of motivation in relation to educational contexts are listed as success, task, goals, and self-determination (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Success condition in motivation is typically explained with attribution theory (Graham & Taylor, 2016; Graham & Williams, 2009; Weiner, 2010), self-efficacy theory (Bandura et al., 2001), and self-worth theory (Covington, 2009). The attribution theory assumes that individuals attribute certain behaviors to their past successes or failures, evaluating what they did right or wrong to set an example for future behaviors. In short, success is determined by what the person associates with past successful experiences. If certain sets of behaviors were proven successful in the eyes of a person, then it is very likely that these behaviors will be tried in new situations. The self-efficacy theory is related to the

person's own evaluation of their potential and capabilities to achieve certain actions. Based on this theory, people are likely to choose to perform a task only if they believe they can do it. Self-efficacy is an important factor to monitor in a learning environment because learners with low self-efficacy will tend to focus on their inadequacies when facing a challenge instead of the outcomes of success after the completion of a task. It should also be considered that beliefs about self-efficacy do not truly reflect the actual capabilities. Rather, they are only what the people persuade themselves to have in the face of a challenge. Therefore, it is crucial to focus on these beliefs and convince students that they can improve their performance by eliminating them. Lastly, the self-worth theory assumes that in some cases, individuals have a high self-esteem and belief that they can achieve a task easily, which causes them to put the blame on their lack of effort at times of failure, instead of a potential lack of competence and performance. This, therefore, constitutes a situation where the students feel that they only needed more effort and focus to have achieved a task, not to study more or try harder to improve themselves, leading to get defensive in case of potential criticism regarding their proficiency.

With reference to task, motivation is investigated with the help of value-related concepts as follows: attainment value, intrinsic value, extrinsic value, and cost (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). In a task-related motivational examination, attainment value represents the value given by the individual to achieving a task or acquiring a skill in the process of learning. In other words, what is important for the learner is to experience the satisfaction of performing well in a difficult learning task. In some cases, on the other hand, the focus of the individuals is placed on the process itself since the task at hand gives enjoyment to them. This enjoyment can stem from either the aesthetic features of the task, or simply from the attraction of the topic for the person due to personal interest. In contrast, the task might raise motivation of individuals because the efforts labored during a learning task yield the reward of achieving a learning objective long dreamed of achieving. Moreover, the aftermath of completing a task can improve the living conditions of individuals in terms of financial or intellectual factors, leading to a high-level motivation. Lastly, the cost factor plays a negative role in determining one's motivational situation since an individual might be deterred from performing at acceptable levels when focusing on the potential strain required to achieve a goal. In many cases, individuals consider the emotional, physical, and time-related hardships

to be successful at a task, and they feel more unwilling to perform certain actions (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000).

The goal as a concept has started to replace *needs* and *drives* as the forces behind increasing motivation in recent years (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) Regarding the goal dimension of motivational studies, goal setting (Latham & Locke, 1991), goal-orientation (Ames, 1992), and goal-content (Wentzel, 2000, 2017) concepts play a vital part in determining motivation in educational contexts. Latham and Locke (1991), in their goal-setting theory, proposed that the motivation is affected by how difficult a goal is, how specific a goal is, and the commitment of a person to a goal. The more difficult and specific a goal is, the more motivated the students will be, and the commitment can be ensured by convincing the students that the goal is crucial for them and that they can achieve the goal. Goal setting theory, which primarily aims to develop motivation in business-related settings, is accompanied by its learner-oriented counterpart, goal-orientation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Ames (1992) characterized goal-orientation with its focus on learning situation of children in the context of education. According to the theory, learners can either focus on the mastery of a content, which prioritizes personal development, or they can focus on the performance itself by viewing the learning process as a means of accomplishing an objective and get recognized by others in appreciation. As opposed to goal setting and goal-orientation theories, Wentzel (2000, 2017) proposed that motivation is a construct affected by a combination of goals, emotions, and sources. In other words, one learner may feel a multi-faceted motivation to achieve a task; that is, an amalgamation of factors such as pleasing a family member, avoiding humiliation in a classroom, earning respect in a specific social setting, etc. may play roles in structuring the motivational condition of an individual. Therefore, it is often very difficult, if not impossible, to isolate a single dimension out of the motivational structure, and the investigation of motivation requires the consideration of social settings and cultural elements (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Wentzel, 2000).

2.1.8. Motivation in the EFL Context

Motivation related to language teaching and the EFL context has been an area in which a vast number of studies has been published in the form of books, dissertations, and journal articles. It is a study field that offers a wealth of information, yet it makes it somewhat

difficult to make a synthesis of the research in relation to context because almost every possible scenario has gone under trial in different research settings. However, the fundamental research in the field has provided researchers with a well-grounded theoretical abundance to draw knowledge from (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei & Otto, 1998; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Ely, 1986; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985; Papi & Hiver, 2020; Singh, 2011; Sung, 2013; Ushioda, 2010, 2011a, 2016). In this section, therefore, basic principles and the historical outlook to the subject of motivation will be discussed to provide a more solid theoretical basis for this study.

As for the historical growth of motivational theories and perspectives, it is acknowledged that the first theoretical phase in motivation and language learning was the *social psychological period* initiated by Gardner and his team derived from his students and colleagues in their research that took place in Canada. The second period that started around 1990s was referred to as the *cognitive-situated period* during which educational psychology held an important place focusing on cognitive theories. Lastly, the beginning of the 2000s witnessed the emergence of the *process-oriented period* during which European scholars led by Dörnyei, Ushioda, Csizér, etc. focused on the motivational change (Dörnyei, 2005). However, these periods described in Dörnyei's 2005 book experienced an addition in the recent years, referred to as the *socio-dynamic period* (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

In the social-psychological period, works of Robert Gardner, his work associates, and his students set the basis for motivational studies conducted in the L2 context distinctly from the field of psychology. The main area of consideration was the attitudes of L2 learners towards the target language and the ethnocentricity of the learners affecting their L2 learning behaviors (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Apart from focusing on other factors that impacted motivation such as affective states of individuals, Gardner and Lambert (1972) examined cognitive elements such as ability and aptitude. They suggested that these cognitive factors could be better explained in the company of motivation as they alone did not explain the L2 achievement of language learners. In connection, Gardner (1985) advocated that L2 motivation was constructed by motivational intensity or effort, one's desire to learn a language, and attitudes towards language learning, emphasizing a strong relationship between motivation and orientation. From this perspective, orientation represented how individuals established their motivational goals, indicating integrative and

instrumental orientation as two types of orientation. Integrative orientation is associated with the care given by the individual to be included in a society and with the value given to this inclusion. Instrumental orientation, on the other hand, is mostly related to the pragmatic advantages gained by the individual and perks such as increase income, earning promotion, etc. Lastly, this period was enriched by the works of Schumann (1978, 1986) acculturation theory, proposing that the desire to be integrated with the target language culture both psychologically and socially is one of the main sources of motivation for language learners. In addition to the acculturation theory, Clément and Noels (1992) developed the situated identity theory in which they argued that one is motivated depending upon the degree of identification within a social context. These degrees of being identified might be affected by ethnic identity, communication with other ethnicities, power relations within an ethnic community, etc. This theory is recognized as the gateway for the next period as it immensely emphasized the situational factors impacting the motivational understanding.

The cognitive-situated period was ignited at early 90s with the criticism that L2 motivation studies needed to be aligned with the psychological trends of the time, which was the cognitivism since the focus of L2 motivation was too broad and vague to tell individual and cognitive factors. The first period mostly dealt with ethnolinguistic communities and general attitudes of L2 learners while the cognitive situated period involved studies suggesting that specific learning contexts must be represented (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). In their criticism of the previous period, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) defended that understanding of teachers regarding motivation is profoundly different from the social psychological perspectives because language classrooms are unique settings where learners portray various behaviors depending upon the situation. As a response for the criticism, Tremblay and Gardner (1995) proposed additional predictors for the motivational behavior of language learners. These predictors included the goals being specific and frequent, L2 learning desire and attitudes, and self-efficacy of language learners. Moreover, Dörnyei (1994a) categorizes types of motivation intro under three groups based on the previous work in the field as follows: *language level* motivation, *learner level* motivation, and motivation at *learning situation level* (pp.279-280). At language level, motivation depends on the integrative or instrumental orientation of the learners. They might be motivated to learn the language for its cultural integration premises or for pragmatic gains. On the second hand, at learner level, motivation can be impacted by the personal need to be

successful at language and the confidence for achievement. Confidence element includes anxiety for language use, how learners perceive their L2 competence, attributions made for the reasons behind success/failure, and self-efficacy. On the third hand, at learning situation level, language learners can be motivated by course-specific elements such as interest, relevance, expectancy, and satisfaction; by teacher-specific elements such as types of authority, affiliations, feedback, etc.; and, by group-specific elements such as goal orientation, rewarding structures and norms, goals set in the classroom context, and organization in the group. Cognitive situated period also makes connections with attribution, task motivation, SDT, and autonomy.

The process-oriented period evolved into describing motivation as a factor to be examined in a time progression. The research conducted in this period focused on the learning process and motivational situations over the period of learning (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Otto, 1998; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Ushioda, 1998; Williams & Burden, 1997). For instance, Williams and Burden (1997) separated motivation in the context of progression into two counterparts as in individuals would be motivated for getting engaged with the process or they would be motivated by various aspects during the engagement process. In other words, if an individual wants to do something, the first step would be the decision process; in that, the motivational factors will include choosing an action and finding a reason to perform the action. The second step in the way of motivation is to insist on seeing the end with persistence and perseverance. This step is mostly related to the way an individual behaves both physically and mentally in the course of language learning. Furthermore, Ushioda (1998) drew the line between past and future regarding motivation, stating that motivation of individuals could be influenced by past experiences such as failure and success or by the goals set for the future because they might believe that their potential could be fulfilled providing that they kept pursuing these goals. Similarly, Dörnyei and Otto (1998) proposed a three-dimensional model for the motivation referred to as the process model of L2 motivation. According to the model, motivation is influenced by various factors in the progression of three phases during learning as follows: pre-actional phase, actional phase, and post-actional phase. The pre-actional stage includes a goal-setting stage, forming the intentions, and putting the intentions into action by reviewing the desires, opportunities, action plans, and resources. During the actional stage, individuals are expected to assess the effectiveness of actions and make modifications in goals accordingly. Actions are either

ceased or continued depending on whether goals are achieved. Lastly, in the post-actional phase, individuals initiate a post-actional evaluation of the actions and goals by making attributions to the success or failure of actions and revising the strategies used for future planning.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) make a criticism of the past process model of L2 motivation developed by Dörnyei and Otto (1998) because the model falls short on addressing the dynamic and complex nature of language learning. A linear direction is not enough to reflect the overlapping elements that shape an individual's motivational situations. Another concern for the shift of direction towards a socio-dynamic process from the linear perspectives of motivation is the issue of English becoming a global language which assumes the communication and language needs are motivated by social constructs and contexts. Since English has become a lingua franca for nearly the whole world, the traditional view that communication is between native and non-native speakers has been rejected in recent years. To compensate for the shortcomings of the previous motivational perspectives, complex and dynamic nature of language learning motivation was brought to attention with perspectives such as a person-in-context relational view of motivation (Ushioda, 2009) and the L2 Motivational Self System introduced by Dörnyei (2009).

2.1.9. L2 Motivational Self System

As can be referenced by certain research (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Little & Al Wahaibi, 2017; Macintyre et al., 2009; Magid & Chan, 2012), conventional motivational theories built upon integrative, instrumental, intrinsic, or extrinsic motivation have evolved into systems that explore the inner feelings and personalities of the learner rather than their materialistic or integration-related motivation depicted by others. According to Ushioda (2009), it is questionable to investigate motivation of individuals by portraying the person as an intangible construct rather than a consciousness with emotional depth and personal identity. An individual cannot be generalized as a person who is motivated or demotivated in a social context since each person has unique values, an understanding of the self, an identity, and a socio-cultural background. Therefore, it is quite plausible to focus on individuals as unique sources for building a social construct in the classroom; however, it is especially challenging to track down what unique elements are in play when individual

differences are taken into consideration, which necessitates the analysis of the classroom interaction as in documenting or observing student-teacher and student-student interaction in the classroom setting to draw insights related to motivation of individuals (Dörnyei, 2009; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Ushioda, 2009).

L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) model emerged as a combination of Markus and Nurius (1986) theory of possible selves and the theory of self-discrepancy developed by Higgins (1996). The starting point of the model was with the study conducted by Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) concerning the L2 motivation of Hungarian learners. In the study, they administered the integration concepts first introduced by Gardner and his research team in Canada (Dörnyei et al., 2006). However, comparing two contexts, it was found that the integration was a difficult aspect to explain in the Hungarian context because there were no target cultures to be integrated into as in the Canadian context. In Canada, integration is more plausible compared to countries where a dominant majority speaks only one language due to Canada's multicultural structure involving English and French citizens (Csizér, 2019).

Whereas one side of research was attempting to come up with a solution to interpret integration with the help of self and identity concepts in the western settings (Csizér, 2019; Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Zoltán Dörnyei, 2009; Dörnyei et al., 2006; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Macintyre et al., 2009), studies in the eastern chapter also started trialing self and identity concepts within motivational contexts (Lamb, 2004; Yashima, 2006). On a fundamental level, Dörnyei (2005) categorized the concept of self into three groups as follows: the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the L2 learning experience. The ideal L2 self is concerned with the individuals' capacity to see themselves as very capable L2 users while the ought-to L2 self involves motivation drawn on external factors during the language learning. The L2 learning experience addresses the motivational elements, behaviors, and attitudes taking place in the language learning environment (Csizér, 2019; Dörnyei, 2009).

Regarding the ideal self, Dörnyei (2009) imposed that the construct of ideal self must elaborate on the future self-image portrayed by the individual, and the future objectives must possess a perceived plausibility. Moreover, ideal and ought-to selves must be in harmony, enabling the individual to activate the necessary actions to reach future goals. Additionally, Procedural strategies to reach future goals must support the ideal self of the individual,

creating a balance between the feared self (Csizér, 2019). Studies related to the ideal L2 self either focus on the influence of ideal L2 self on a specified criterion measure, or studies that involve an intervention to determine the effect of ideal self-perceptions of language learners on certain variables (Chan, 2014; Csizér & Magid, 2014; Mackay, 2014; Magid, 2014; Sato, 2021; Sato & Lara, 2019). Considering the ought-to self, it was determined that the external triggers impacting the self are quite hard to measure due to varying expectations from exterior forces, and it is difficult to pinpoint what to reflect in terms of scale items. Therefore, Papi et al. (2018) divided the concept into two dimensions as follows to emphasize the sources of pressure for individuals: ought-to L2 self-own and ought-to L2 self-others. This way, personal or external issues affecting the person in the form of obligation were specified.

2.1.10. Conclusion

To provide a sound theoretical background for the study on the effect of the designed gamified blended module on LA, the L2MSS, classroom interaction, and language skills of the high school EFL learners, studies that provide detailed accounts for blended learning, instructional design, gamification, LA, motivational theories, the L2MSS construct were reviewed, and the theories portrayed by them were presented in an organized manner.

Initially, BL and blended instruction approaches were explained in a detailed way, accounting for the historical development of the teaching in blended settings. BL was defined within the framework of BL models introduced to educational contexts.

As the next section indicates, the ID was described with the help of its interchangeable definitions made by researchers and educators. With these definitions in mind, the purpose of the ID and ID models was explained with references to the logic of ID model development. To specify, the ADDIE core concepts were introduced as the basis for the vast majority of present ID models to give more details about the types of models commonly used in the ID process. Lastly, a taxonomy for the ID was profiled to aid the comprehension of reference points considered during the ID model development.

Following the issue of ID, gamification as a novel technique was explained in connection to its origins. Subsequently, gamification was discussed in different contexts

where it is meaningful and functional. Finally, some potential setbacks and confusion that might arise from using game elements were addressed to clarify the distinction between games and a gamified content.

The next area of concern for the theoretical framework of the study was the LA. The LA was initially discussed with reference to the educational paradigms such as behaviorism, connectivism, and constructivism. To further the discussion, the LA was portrayed as a relationship dynamic between the teacher and students. Then, various frameworks for the LA were introduced based on the works of certain prominent figures. Finally, autonomy in the language learning context and the SDT subject areas were described in as great detail as possible.

In turn, motivation as a prevalent element in the educational context was defined with the help of historical perspectives, cognitive and affective dimensions, personal and societal factors, and perspectives of success, tasks, goals, and the SDT. On top of the educational context, motivation was described in the EFL context. It was underlined that motivation was defined differently in certain periods in the history. These periods were listed as the social psychological period, the cognitive-situated period, the process-oriented period, and the very recent socio-dynamic period. Motivation was examined under each period's perspective. Thus, the current motivation theory of the L2MSS was introduced and described to lay the foundation of this study.

2.2. Literature Review

2.2.1. Introduction

In this section, the related literature on the issues essential to the development of this dissertation will be examined in as much detail as possible under a thematic approach. In a thematic approach, the studies are reviewed under certain themes related to the study to emphasize the focal points of the reviewed research. Instead of organizing the studies in a chronological order, this type of literature review focuses on the research with the consideration of what serves better in terms of addressing certain topics. Typically, a

thematic literature review requires categorization of themes following a careful examination of the collected studies.

In this sense, the main focal areas of this research will be presented under thematic categories rather than a chronological order of reviewed studies. The overarching research areas on which this study focused on were Blended Learning (BL), Gamification, Learner Autonomy (LA), L2 Motivational Self-System (L2MSS), language skills, and classroom interaction (CI). Regarding these main subject domains, each will be divided into smaller thematic categories under which the related studies will be scrutinized. Additionally, the studies combining these main research areas will be presented under separate titles. These combined areas will be presented as follows: research on BL and LA, research on BL and L2 motivation, Gamification and LA, and Gamification and L2 motivation, as well as the relationship of these concepts with language skills and the CI. Finally, a conclusion section will summarize the insights provided by the related research to address their significance to the elements of this study.

2.2.2. Research on Blended Learning

The literature written on blended learning was reviewed, and three categories were identified in relation to the study at hand. The first category of studies comprised of research attempting to construct a theoretical basis for the concept of blended learning. In essence, they provided descriptions of and discussion about BL in modern educational contexts. The second category of research on BL discussed the concept within general education contexts such as institutional implementation, the K-12 educational settings, and higher education. The third category of studies includes research on BL in the context of EFL and ESL. Essentially, the categories follow a thematic order from a general outlook to a more specific scope.

As the first category of research, studies that aimed to draw a theoretical focus discussed the BL models, historical development of BL, and considerations when transforming the education from traditional perspectives to a BL-oriented mentality (Bergmann & Sams, 2012; Boelens et al., 2017; Cronje, 2020; Dziuban et al., 2018; Heterick & Twigg, 2003; Hrastinski, 2019; Johnson & Graham, 2014; Lalima & Lata Dangwal, 2017;

Murphy, 2019; Osguthorpe & Graham, 2003; Rao, 2019; Seraji et al., 2019; Smith & Hill, 2019; Turner, 2009; Valiathan, 2002; Zhang & Zhu, 2017; Zhonggen, 2015).

The second category of research on BL includes studies that explore the place and effect of BL in the context of education in a general sense (Antwi-Boampong, 2020; Bouilheres et al., 2020; Cabauatan et al., 2021; Chen & Looi, 2007; Chou & Chou, 2011; Christensen et al., 2013; Demirer & Sahin, 2013; Downing et al., 2014; Fegely et al., 2020; Fisher et al., 2021; Fleischmann, 2021; Fuller, 2021; Garrison & Kanuka, 2004; Graham et al., 2019; Hadiyanto et al., 2021; Halverson & Graham, 2019; Howard et al., 2021; Kastner, 2020; Kundu et al., 2021; Law et al., 2019; Ma & Lee, 2021; Macaruso et al., 2020; McGee & Poojary, 2020; Mestan, 2019; Murphy, 2019; Namyssova et al., 2019; Nayar & Koul, 2020; Pima et al., 2018; Poirier et al., 2019; Prasetya et al., 2020; Pulham & Graham, 2018; Ranjan, 2020; Rasheed et al., 2020; Shamsuddin & Kaur, 2020; Staker & Horn, 2012; Tan & Hew, 2016).

The third and final category of studies focuses on the implementation of BL in the EFL contexts. The research in this category attempted to discover the effect of BL on certain skills or student characteristics as well as the mechanics of a BL-oriented design in a language classroom (Ahmed, 2020; Al Bataineh et al., 2019; Alipour, 2020; Altay & Altay, 2019; Andujar & Çakmak, 2020; Chan, 2014; Elaish et al., 2017; Ferreira et al., 2014; Garrett, 2009; Hashemi & Si Na, 2020; Hinkelman & Gruba, 2012; Hong & Samimy, 2010; Isiguzel, 2014; Leakey & Ranchoux, 2006; Miyazoe & Anderson, 2010; Nedashkivska, 2015, 2019; Nissen & Tea, 2012; Sujannah et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021; Yang, 2014; Yao, 2019; Yudhana, 2021; Zhang & Zhu, 2017).

Research on the Theoretical Basis of BL

The theoretical ground for the BL can examined through the lenses of how BL has been defined and received by the institutions, the methodological implications, and BL's future directions. What started as distance education at institutions that offered intensive and compact learning programs faced degrees of resistance from some faculties as reported by Heterick and Twigg (2003) in the US education context. The reason for this resistance was mainly due to the perception that distance learning scenarios apparently degraded an

extensive series of work into a compressed, intensive unit, which could not replace the actual process. Therefore, new definitions for the implementation of distance education were required (Cronje, 2020; Graham, 2004; Heterick & Twigg, 2003; Hrastinski, 2019; Lalima & Lata Dangwal, 2017; Osguthorpe & Graham, 2003; Zhonggen, 2015).

In their research that made a distinction between hybrid and blended natures and characterized the BL process, Osguthorpe and Graham (2003) defined BL as a perfect mixture of both online characteristics and face-to-face elements of the education. In this perfect mixture, distinct from a hybrid nature, both online and F2F elements work in a homogeneous harmony rather than heterogeneous mixture where each element can be identified as separate items. In this blended model, online and F2F units work in a way that they complement the weakness of one element and emphasize the strengths. The amount of online or F2F elements in the course can vary depending upon the requirements of the educational setting. As a result, Osguthorpe and Graham (2003) reported that the ultimate goals of a blended course were *pedagogical richness, access to knowledge, social interaction, personal agency, cost effectiveness,* and *ease of revision* (pp. 231-232). To support the characterization made by this paper, Graham (2004) further emphasized the benefits of BL by commenting on how pedagogy could be enriched by BL, the contribution of BL to elevate the flexibility of and access to the content, and the cost-effectiveness of the education.

Proposing that BL can be made at various levels such as activity, course, program, and institutional levels, Graham (2004) suggested that certain aspects of education would be challenged when a BL model was to be introduced to an educational setting. First, live interaction of learners was indicated as one of the most important consideration points because limiting the interaction may damage the quality of delivery in some cases. Second, the matter of regulating one's own learning would play an important role in a blended course. The balance between the amount of teacher support and learner responsibility must be regulated properly to avoid potential hazards. Third, teachers must be able to decide on the type of technological support to provide for students as a basis for the BL. Fourth, socio-economic and cultural structure of the classroom must be evaluated well before setting up a BL model in the classroom. Last, the introduction of a new technological tool for the online aspect of the education must not come in the way of production made in the classroom.

On a similar vein, Lalima and Lata Dangwal (2017) divided the components of a BL setting into two categories: learning supported by computer-assisted learning, online and individual learning, and online group interaction; and traditional learning supported by F2F instruction in the classroom, and informal and formal classroom interaction (p. 130). After drawing the boundaries between traditional and supported learning, they identified the vital characteristics of a BL environment. Roughly, in such BL settings, students were able to choose out of two delivery modes, teachers were assumed to harbor a wide range of roles as well as the capability of utilizing different modes of delivery, and the issue of balance was key in interaction, the introduction of technology, and consideration for culture and production of knowledge. In conclusion, Lalima and Lata Dangwal (2017) evaluated these dimensions of BL and regarded BL as a concept as an advantageous approach to teaching, finding it quite relevant to the educational setting in India.

Based on studies conducted by Cronje (2020), Hrastinski (2019), and Zhonggen (2015), BL had been defined differently by scholars over time and tradition. Earlier studies referred to BL as an approach where the online and F2F elements were used in a combination while the latest studies emphasized being smart over what to combine and to what extent. As can be seen in Cronje (2020), the terms *hybrid*, F2F vs. *technology*, *ingredients*, and *strategy* were used by the research to define BL, paralleling with the timeline distinction made by Hrastinski (2019). Though the naming of elements such as online, mobile, technology-supported, and computer mediation varied from one study to another, the main definition that provided a common ground for the understanding of BL proposed that any amount of harmonious inclusion of online learning opportunities and F2F learning activities within a lesson or a series of courses could be regarded as a BL approach (Hrastinski, 2019; Zhonggen, 2015).

Johnson and Graham (2014) and Zhang and Zhu (2017) attempted to draw the boundaries for the future research, indicating the gaps in the field and necessary steps to be taken. Considering the past and ongoing trend in BL research, Johnson and Graham (2014) deduced that future BL studies might consider joining the concept of Massive Online Open Courses (MOOC) with F2F teaching / learning situations where the instruction is more personalized. On the other hand, BL courses needed more space for the analysis of the

content and learner entries. Finally, Zhang and Zhu (2017) identified three categories of research on BL, research evaluating and designing BL models being on the top. The least favored category was found to be the research reviewing the BL studies, which indicated the limited number in the theme.

To sum, studies on the theory of BL pointed out the strength of a blended instructional environment provided that the theoretical aspects are designed carefully and that the related implementation of BL are established within a sound theoretical framework. Additionally, it was found that defining BL before setting up a blended environment is crucial to follow an accurate path since focusing on certain elements is required depending on how BL is defined in a context.

Research on BL in the Context of Education

BL as a concept and approach attracted the attention of many educators, which led to the production of numerous studies that aimed to comprehend the place and effect of BL within different educational contexts. These studies in the education domain focused on the potential effects of BL on certain variables as well as the ideal implementation scenarios of the approach.

In the context of education in a general sense, one of the main focal points of the studies is the design aspect of BL. These studies (Antwi-Boampong, 2020; Cabauatan et al., 2021; Chou & Chou, 2011; Christensen et al., 2013; Fegely et al., 2020; Fuller, 2021; Garrison & Kanuka, 2004; Halverson & Graham, 2019; Kastner, 2020; Murphy, 2019; Namyssova et al., 2019; Pima et al., 2018; Poirier et al., 2019; Pulham & Graham, 2018; Rasheed et al., 2020; Staker & Horn, 2012) mainly discuss the design issues of BL at institutional and classroom level.

As a basis for a new educational perspective concerning BL, (Fuller, 2021) introduced a rather new understanding of blending the instruction. Reviewing the previous research on BL and definitions, the study by Fuller (2021) emphasized the change in the handling of classroom and F2F aspects of BL due to Covid-19 measures. While the traditional approaches to BL transformation assumed a F2F dimension in the blend, the new

trend proposed the duality of synchronous and asynchronous delivery. It was gradually acknowledged that F2F needs of the blended classroom could be met through synchronous online deliveries of the content, as in live video conferences.

As Fuller (2021) outlined, current educational perspectives indeed shift from traditional F2F-dominated ones to more student-centered, blended implementations (Cabauatan et al., 2021; Kastner, 2020). Especially after the impact of Covid-19, teachers felt the need to continue education under moments of crisis. However, teachers also felt some barriers in the way of effectively implementing BL approaches in their classrooms such as lacks in technological competence, technical difficulties, time constraints, etc. Kastner (2020) and Cabauatan et al. (2021) found that even though most of the teachers were optimistic and eager about BL, the issue of professional development was a striking limitation for the implementation of BL. Teachers reported that not all institutions were able to provide professional support to their teachers in technological training. Additionally, one main concern was the lack of existing framework used to prepare BL content for teachers because designing a BL environment from scratch was an immense time consumption for teachers and in most cases, teachers found it difficult to design an engaging lesson with BL elements.

In terms of engagement issues related to BL environments, (Halverson & Graham, 2019) proposed a framework of engagement specifically in the technological learning settings based on previous research on learning engagement. They found that each technological setting was unique and different conceptual identification would be needed for each learning circumstance. Finally, as for the negative factors affecting engagement in technology use, *boredom*, *frustration*, and *anxiety* were the among the most recurring themes in engagement studies, and it was suggested that special precautions must be taken to lessen their impact on instruction (pp. 160-161).

In their research in which the disruptive nature of K-12 blended models was investigated, Christensen et al. (2013) found that BL harbored the characteristics of a disruptive model in educational contexts. Disruptive models were basically defined as innovations that enabled users to take advantage of a product without requiring high skill,

finances, and capabilities. Therefore, BL models were regarded as such because they could facilitate personal learning and access education more cheaply and equally.

To further the discussion of BL within the education context, Staker and Horn (2012) classification of BL in the K-12 education revealed many types of implementational preferences of BL depending on the needs and choices of educators and students. In their study in which they reviewed sample cases from various institutions to describe these different models, Staker and Horn (2012) identified four major BL models: *rotation model*, *flex model*, *self-blend model*, and *enriched-virtual model* as explained in the theoretical framework section. However, the gist of this categorization of the models was that these four groups observed a balance between *brick-and-mortar* and *online learning* (p. 5) practices and the implementational elements shifted between the two. While some institutions preferred to implement the four models in a *brick-and-mortar* setting where conventional learning enriched with technology took place, some institutions employed the BL models in an *online learning* perspective which adopted informal education in virtual platforms balanced with controlled and fully committed online education.

Considering that BL models assume a mixture of online and F2F elements and technological depth in itself is open to comparison, discussion of the instructional spectrum requires elaboration (Graham et al., 2019; Pulham & Graham, 2018). According to their study comparing competencies in online and BL environments, Pulham and Graham (2018) and Graham et al. (2019) drew a spectrum of instruction where educational practices start at fully F2F environments, moving towards fully online platforms. They reviewed competencies required for each scenario based on insights of certain research and found that BL and online instruction shared common competencies under several categories such as *pedagogy, management, assessment, technology, instructional design, dispositions,* and *improvement* (Pulham & Graham, 2018, pp. 12-14). For instance, under technological competence, the use of LMSs to direct instructional processes was regarded as the necessity for both educational practices.

On the other hand, Poirier et al. (2019) reported that BL-related studies appeared to be limited when it came to the empirical studies in the context of K-12 education. The researchers examined a number of studies in the related context and found that these studies

lacked depth in terms of variables such as gender, sociocultural background, ethnicity, religion, and socioeconomic strength. As a result, Poirier et al. (2019) recommended that more experimental and extensive research be conducted to understand the issue of BL within the K-12 context.

On a different vein, Garrison and Kanuka (2004) and Pima et al. (2018) investigated the transformational situations and the nature and direction of research in the sense of BL in higher education context. Garrison and Kanuka (2004) explored that the use of the internet as a disruptive process was given a high potential by institutions, rendering blended approaches to educational practices more useful and functional than traditional ways of teaching. This could be ensured by the alignment of policies, experiences of learners during educational settings, and revision of the goal-related elements between the conventional ways and the transformed educational situation. Similarly, Pima et al. (2018) found in their study where they thematically reviewed over 200 articles from respectable sources that the most notable trend in the research on BL was the issues of ID, rather than the institutional policies and transformational readiness. Moreover, it was strongly underlined that empirical and qualitative studies that would explore the needs of students and outcomes of their involvement in a BL environment should be produced to comprehend the concept of BL in higher education better.

Antwi-Boampong (2020) and Namyssova et al. (2019) produced more to-the-point research in regard to BL in the higher education context. Antwi-Boampong (2020) investigated the position and opinions of fifteen faculty members on the implementation of BL techniques in an MA program. It was revealed that main consideration points jointly played an important role in motivating the faculty to implement BL efficiently. For a successful transition, institutions must be ready for a transformation, show positivity towards technology, provide support in case of technology-related hardships, and offer the faculty constant professional development regarding technology and BL design. Moreover, Namyssova et al. (2019) conducted a study in a mixed-method design on the outtake of MA students regarding a blended course. As a result, it was revealed that students' interests in the course slightly decreased overall for some individuals while they advocated the balance of online and F2F features of the course since it elevated their reflection skills, autonomy levels, and capabilities of managing the time.

In addition to design issues, and considerations for K-12 and higher education contexts, a discussion about the technological and online aspects of BL such as virtual reality implementation and LMS integration, and management of the BL course design process is quite useful for this study (Chou & Chou, 2011; Fegely et al., 2020; Murphy, 2019; Rasheed et al., 2020). For starters, Rasheed et al. (2020) found after a thorough systematic review that online components of BL had many challenges at student, teacher, and institutional level. Considering these challenges, regulating the learning, and receiving help for online transactions were the most prominent problems encountered by users.

To remedy such problems, Fegely et al. (2020) proposed that practitioners needed to develop in-depth frameworks for deeper learning experiences. In their study exploring the VR-supported blended lessons, it was found that using technological components only had limited benefits to the learning process. For a successful execution, BL models must be carefully reviewed, and the process must be planned and organized in advance. Chou and Chou (2011), for instance, accounted for how a careful integration of a new element such as the Course Management System (CMS) into BL could maximize the contributions of blended instruction. To integrate an element into a blended environment, practitioners must first be aware of the strengths and weaknesses of BL models and the tool they intend to use in a setting. Then, they need to perform an ideal and learned combination of these strengths to run an effective instructional process (Chou & Chou, 2011; Fegely et al., 2020).

As Murphy (2019) deducted, to address the planning and organizational issues in integrating technological or pedagogical elements into BL settings, certain management techniques are required. Such schemes can be organized through either a *top-down*, *systematic*, and *multidisciplinary* approaches employed by professionals aiming business-related outcomes or *bottom-up* and *iterative* approaches devised by academics targeting pedagogical outcomes (Murphy, 2019). In some cases, organization of BL design processes might borrow from both approaches.

The next strand of studies on BL in education focused on the implementational outcomes of BL instruction from the eyes of students, teachers, and researchers. These

studies are quite vital in understanding and interpreting the potential outcomes of the study I will conduct.

It can be understood from the studies examining the teacher perceptions that implementing BL is more than determining the type of model or a mix to employ in teaching. It requires revising the way instruction, assessment, and interactional situations work. Teachers might require leading figures to set up the BL environment because they may be unsure about how to do it even if they feel very willing prior to the process (Kundu et al., 2021; Mendieta & Barkhuizen, 2020). In some cases, BL as a concept may not be very clear to teachers, especially if a rapid change is required as in the situation during the Covid-19 pandemic where teachers had to adapt to online instruction techniques (Howard et al., 2021; Mestan, 2019).

Fast changes that lacked comprehensive planning and institutional support seemed to have caused negative perceptions towards BL or online teaching techniques even though student engagement was enhanced. The reason for this negative perception tendency was due to the lack of technical support from institutions and the inability to meet F2F interactional needs in BL settings (Howard et al., 2021; Mendieta & Barkhuizen, 2020; Mestan, 2019; Rasheed et al., 2020). To overcome such negative perceptions, McGee and Poojary (2020) suggested a deep collaboration in designing and running a BL setting. In essence, a structure that is ever-changing is what makes BL more dependable and individuals working together in the system should be able to depend on each other without hesitation. As a final note on teachers' readiness, Graham et al. (2019) reported the lack of empirical research that could help identify teacher competencies regarding BL. Therefore, it appears rather obvious that regions or countries newly adopting BL into their instructional settings may need validated models to measure teacher competencies to be aware of what models would suit best in terms of teacher capabilities.

From the student perspective, studies indicated that BL was quite advantageous in ensuring engagement with the course content, in increasing lesson enrollment rates and motivation. In addition, it was found in several contexts that the achievement levels of students increased in various skills. First, it was noticeable that BL techniques, if applied correctly and vary of student and teacher needs, could elevate the engagement levels of

students in numerous ways (Bouilheres et al., 2020; Downing et al., 2014; Fisher et al., 2021; Law et al., 2019; Nayar & Koul, 2020; Tan & Hew, 2016). In connection, as an approach mainly focusing on the student needs rather than centering around teachers, BL speaks to the senses and affective states of students by offering them choices, meeting their multimodality needs, appealing to different intelligences, and maintaining constant interaction (Ma & Lee, 2021; Shamsuddin & Kaur, 2020; Tan & Hew, 2016). In both direct and indirect senses, BL environments were observed to be capable of raising student motivation in classroom for similar reasons (Chen & Looi, 2007; Fleischmann, 2021; Prasetya et al., 2020).

Besides appealing to emotional and affective states of students, BL is a powerful and potent approach to elevate academic achievement of students. It was reported that students performed better in cases such as elementary school reading, math, and literacy, transferring their previous knowledge in classes, and the 21st century skills because BL provided them with opportunities to learn through experiences, more involvement, interaction, and independent learning styles despite occasional needs for F2F interaction (Demirer & Sahin, 2013; Hadiyanto et al., 2021; Kundu et al., 2021; Macaruso et al., 2020; Nayar & Koul, 2020; Ranjan, 2020).

In the sense of educational contexts in a general scope, it is evident that BL is a concept well-researched. However, it is also noteworthy that empirical and qualitative research are still required, especially in terms of technological competencies of stakeholders. To understand the concept more in relation to the field of language education and observe the role of BL in the context of EFL and ESL, the related research must be reviewed. Therefore, the next section delves deeper into the area-specific features of the BL concept.

Research on BL in Language Learning Context

Just as it brought about many benefits and challenges in different educational settings, BL also received great interest and enthusiasm in the language teaching and learning community. Considering the related literature, it can be seen that language learning in EFL and ESL contexts provided a more detailed and area-specific insights about BL. In a similar sense, language teachers and EFL/ESL students reflected the immense potential of BL

environments since they offered more engagement, higher motivation levels, and bigger potency in language skills proficiency.

Upon examining the studies on BL within the context of English language teaching, among the most striking mentions of BL was its endless potential to increase learner engagement and motivation (Ahmed, 2020; Al Bataineh et al., 2019; Alipour, 2020; Chan, 2014; Isiguzel, 2014; Nedashkivska, 2019; Wang et al., 2021). It was found in such studies that BL approaches constituted an environment in which EFL learners felt very engaged with the content due to the careful balance ensured by synchronous, asynchronous, F2F, and online elements. This largely tended to the personal learning styles of learners. While some preferred individual and asynchronous features, some benefited from F2F interaction opportunities. In short, learners could find units that might interest and engage them when they faced the risk of losing attention. More strikingly, in addition to cases where BL was compared to conventional settings, Alipour (2020) proposed that BL contributed more to the motivational states of EFL learners in comparison to instruction that solely used online environments because BL offered a well-balanced instructional setting to learners because F2F interaction and social confirmation also affected investment. Moreover, according to Yao (2019), BL environments decreased the negative feelings of learners, especially anxiety, which enabled them to perform better emotionally and mentally.

Aside from motivation and engagement dimensions, BL made positive contributions to the language skill achievement of EFL learners. Online tools and collaborative tasks enabled learners to make choices from a wide array of options to hone their language skills. This variety of materials and tools indirectly affected learners' attitudes towards EFL learning positively, increasing the quality of their language learning experience. The existence of the wide scale of tools nurtured the promotion of different modalities, therefore, different learning styles and strategies possessed by language learners. As the content became richer and more flexible, academic achievement of learners became more prone to development (Ferreira et al., 2014; Hashemi & Si Na, 2020; Hong & Samimy, 2010; Isiguzel, 2014; Leakey & Ranchoux, 2006; Miyazoe & Anderson, 2010; Yao, 2019; Yudhana, 2021; Zhang & Zhu, 2020).

For the improvement in affective states, motivational elements, and academic achievement in a blended language learning environment, a comprehensive and theory-based design is required. Conceptualizing the course design, careful integration of LMSs, and pedagogy-informed online tools are regarded as the ways of initializing an effective BL process. Effectiveness of BL approaches and CALL tools is also correlated with the level of computer-technology literacy skills of learners. It is quite likely that technological capabilities of language learners and teachers would be a predictor of an effective access to the BL content and sequences (Ahmed, 2020; Al Bataineh et al., 2019; Andujar & Çakmak, 2020; Elaish et al., 2017; Hong & Samimy, 2010; Nedashkivska, 2015; Nissen & Tea, 2012; Sujannah et al., 2019; Yang, 2014).

One a final note about BL in the context of language learning classrooms, the literature suggested that despite BL's potential and its motivation and engagement increasing nature, certain obstacles stand in the way of furthering BL integration into language teaching. Based on the related research, teachers mostly lacked technology skills and design-related capabilities. In a general sense, purely online CALL laboratories lost their touch in the current scene. This led to the widespread of BL due to convenience. To prepare institutions, a nation-wide online content and technology center, and specific institutes handling online needs of faculties are necessary. Training teachers and supporting their design and technology needs would improve the likelihood of their future readiness and enthusiasm to transform language classes into BL environments (Andujar & Çakmak, 2020; Elaish et al., 2017; Garrett, 2009; Hinkelman & Gruba, 2012; Nedashkivska, 2015).

As another vital concept that will go hand in hand with the BL concept, the research related to gamification and gamifying language learning environments will be discussed in the next section.

2.2.3. Research on Gamification

Following the BL environments and their contribution to education and language teaching, the next most crucial issue is the use of gamification based on this study. Therefore, this section examines the related literature in relation to the purposes of the study. The related literature on gamification can be divided into two meaningful categories. The first category

of research provides insights about the basis of gamification that accounts for the theories that support the educational domain (Albertazzi et al., 2019; Alsawaier, 2018; Antonellis et al., 2005; Asiri, 2019; Baldauf et al., 2017; Bencsik et al., 2021; Bozkurt & Durak, 2018; Çakıroğlu et al., 2017; Caponetto et al., 2014; Danelli, 2015; Deterding et al., 2013; Deterding et al., 2011; Deterding et al., 2011; Devers & Gurung, 2015; Dyer, 2015; Healey, 2019; Herzig et al., 2015; Hung, 2017; Klubal et al., 2018; Krisper-Ullyett et al., 2005; Landers et al., 2015; Miller, 2013; Morais et al., 2021; L. E. Nacke & Deterding, 2017; Nicholson, 2015a, 2012; Ortiz et al., 2016; Osipov et al., 2015; Ostahewski & Reid, 2015; Rapp et al., 2019; Richter et al., 2015; Salen & Zimmerman, 2004; Sánchez-mena & Martí-parreño, 2017; Stott & Neustaedter, 2013; Tan & Hew, 2016; Zichermann & Cunningham, 2011).

The second category of research on gamification was formed with studies that address the implementation of gamification in the content of English language education and similar educational settings (Alharthi, 2020; Alzaid & Alkarzae, 2019; Azzouz & Gutierrez-Colon Plana, 2020; Baldauf et al., 2017; Flores, 2015; Furdu et al., 2017; Hamari et al., 2014; Hernández-Prados et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2019; Jabali & Walker, 2021; Mee Mee et al., 2020, 2021; Mert & Samur, 2018; Morschheuser et al., 2019; Pardoel et al., 2018; Pham et al., 2021; Pinto et al., 2021; Purgina et al., 2020; Rivera-Trigueros & Sánchez-Pérez, 2020; Ryder & Machajewski, 2017; Samosa et al., 2021; Selvasli, 2018; Tan, 2018; Wichadee & Pattanapichet, 2014; Yavuz et al., 2020; Yürük, 2019). These studies present crucial instances where gamification theories were implemented into EFL-ESL learning contexts.

Research on Establishing the Theory of Gamification

Gamification as a concept found its roots within the business domain, however, it became an innovative approach in the educational contexts after its implementation in various fields from marketing to governmental sectors. After its introduction to the market, gamification attracted the attention of many fields. This led to different interpretations of gamification.

To emphasize the distinct gamified elements, Deterding et al. (2013), Deterding et al. (2011), Deterding et al. (2011), and Nacke and Deterding (2017) made a distinction

between serious games and gamification. They remarked that serious games and game-based practices were very common in some fields, portraying the situations as gamified environments. However, gamification should not be simplified as using games in a setting; instead, it should be regarded as integrating elements unique to games in environments very distant from the colorful atmosphere of games.

The main reason for the implementation of gamification in educational settings is the promise of motivation and engagement (Albertazzi et al., 2019; Bozkurt & Durak, 2018; Caponetto et al., 2014; Richter et al., 2015). Albertazzi et al. (2019) discovered that educational settings were more welcoming in terms of gamification compared to other fields, which appeared more doubtful and fearful in employing the technique. However, considering the studies, it was seen that empirical and qualitative studies were limited in number to fully understand the effects of gamification on educational environments. Caponetto et al. (2014) found that most empirical studies on the subject were conducted in higher education settings, and high school and lower-tier settings required more research. In addition, gamified practices mainly appeared in online modules, requiring more instances for blended environments. Moreover, Alsawaier (2018) proposed studies focusing on both quantitative and qualitative data to further understand the effects of gamification.

Theoretically speaking, gamification draws its basis from the SDT, Flow Theory (FT), Mechanics-Design-Aesthetics (MDA) framework, behaviorism, and the Organismic Integration Theory (OIT) which is a derivation of the SDT (Bozkurt & Durak, 2018; Danelli, 2015; Landers et al., 2015; Nicholson, 2015b, 2012). In terms of the SDT, Landers et al. (2015) posited that internalizing the goals and content provides autonomy, therefore, helping achieve satisfactory results in gamified environments. Since gamification mostly speaks to the intrinsic motivation and immersion of learners, SDT and FT are regarded as closely related to gamified learning. Considering this, it can be drawn that designing gamification-oriented learning environments require content, materials, and tasks that appeal to the internal motivation of participants. To further this, Nicholson (2012, 2015b) discussed that the OIT allows for situations where carefully designed external factors may be utilized to nourish the intrinsic motivation of learners, which suggested that external factors should not be overlooked for they can be transformed into internal elements. These external factors

target the previous beliefs of individuals to enrich the present experience. This way, the gamified learning environment becomes a meaningful process for learners.

As an extension of SDT, OIT, and motivational theories, the FT supports the studies by underlining that learners keep on working toward the goals as long as they are immersed in the process. Additionally, according to Bencsik et al. (2021), implementation of the MDA model enables learners to gain familiarity with goals, and they can become successful in completing the goals. Therefore, it can be suggested that designing immersive and engaging elements with the consideration of theoretical frameworks appropriate for the situation in a gamified environment will maintain the motivation levels of learners.

Considering the theories and frameworks that support gamification in educational contexts, other pressing issues are the design and accurate integration of game elements. Designing a gamified learning environment or developing content is regarded as an arduous process that mostly requires technological depth and technical skills. Herzig et al. (2015), for instance, regarded gamification process as a *software development* operation which requires technical expertise, underlining a gamification taxonomy of requirements. This list of requirements included knowledge of game interface patterns, design patterns, principles of design, model development, and design methodology. However, Krisper-Ullyett et al. (2005) conversely advocated that game-based learning or gamifying a situation does not necessarily require technology-dependent elements. A classroom with minimal physical equipment is more than adequate to create a gamified learning environment. After all, just as Antonellis et al. (2005) proposed, in a mechanical sense, gamified learning environments or settings that utilizes game elements requires communication and collaboration as well as virtual domains to keep digital data.

Gamified teaching settings need a specified ID process aiming to change behaviors of learners. An ID relying on gamification involves action language, assessment, conflict/challenge, control, environment, game fiction, human interaction, and rules (Landers et al., 2015). Since gamification draws most of its essence from behavioristic, collaborative, and interactional sources, these drivers speak to the competition, chance, emotion, and perception. Gamified content is solidified through the existence of rules. A

proper game design enriches user experience, helps change perceptions, and changes the way individuals behave (Danelli, 2015).

To enrich gamified learning settings, multiple game elements are implemented in the environment such as leaderboards, rewards, badges, competition, collaboration, points, and prizes. It can be seen that these elements raise motivation and engages learners with learning activities (Alsawaier, 2018; Antonellis et al., 2005; Çakıroğlu et al., 2017; Landers et al., 2015; Nicholson, 2015b; Ostahewski & Reid, 2015; Richter et al., 2015). Regarding the effective use of these elements, Nicholson (2015b) warned the educators about the continuum issue with the rewarding because decision of including rewarding at one point necessitates maintaining the reward system until the end of the process. Therefore, when to start using rewards and in what manners are of great importance for the flow of a gamified lesson. Similarly, examining the badge system in gamified environments, Ostahewski and Reid (2015) remarked that they originated from the ranking of military personnel or the political status of individuals in ancient societies. Badges in essence represent the achievements and praise bestowed upon a person who completes sets of tasks that require skill and effort. They motivate learners to set short/long ranged goals or to engage in desired actions. Badges serve as positive feedback, sharing the success with others, and recognition of achievement on a larger scale.

On another note, Çakıroğlu et al. (2017) found that game elements such as gifts, reputation, leaderboards, and points increased engagement levels of students. However, the effectiveness of these elements was predicted by the academic performance of students. Students who were more attentive to their studies were impacted more by the game elements since they were more receptive about the dynamics of lessons. Another noteworthy aspect of rewarding and the use of badges is the scale of importance given to the rewards by students. Richter et al. (2015) found that just as Maslow's hierarchy of needs, rewards are appealing to students based on a hierarchical system. Rewards that appeal to the behavioristic needs of students motivate them to repeat the praised behavior, and this increases the likelihood of yielding more successful outcomes in terms of achieving goals, but not on the long term (Landers et al., 2015). However, in some cases, students may require a rewarding system that offers them high-tier prizes in the hierarchy such as aesthetics and self-

actualization. Then, educators need a more meticulous designing stage to meet these high tier needs of students to maintain motivation and engagement (Richter et al., 2015).

On a final note, a close examination of a gamified environment is crucial because elements that are assumed to have played a role in achievement could in fact have played no part at all. Instead, other factors might have had an effect. Furthermore, gamification is not for everyone. It is only effective as long as students are engaged with the process and track their academic performance. For instance, competition can be a tricky issue in sensitive cases because there is a risk of losing the motivation of non-succeeding students. Thus, educators are expected to put extra effort in creating an environment that would be appealing to various types of individuals. To understand the effects of gamification deeply and to make sure what elements might impact students, more statistically significant results for the effect of gamification are needed. For measuring gamification and its effect on groups, play performance of students can be assessed during the process, their scores can be tracked, or student knowledge can be measured before and after the gamified interventions to determine the changes (Bencsik et al., 2021; Çakıroğlu et al., 2017; Devers & Gurung, 2015; Dyer, 2015).

Gamification Research in the EFL Context

Gamification is a rather novel approach that has been introduced to the field of education and language learning in the last couple of decades. Although we can trace back practices that might reflect the essence of gamifying the language learning process, it is difficult to state that these were deliberate attempts to systematically gamify a learning setting with utmost attention to related gamification theories.

From a theoretical perspective, Azzouz and Gutierrez-Colon Plana (2020) deduced that even though studies provide instances where gamification produced positive outcomes, a consensus upon theoretical bases, terminology used, and definition issues of gamification must be established. In addition, the number of empirical studies limits the chances of reaching generalizable interpretation of the effect of gamification on L2 learning. Gamified teaching is difficult especially in terms of assessment and feedback because they are expected in short periods (Alharthi, 2020; Azzouz & Gutierrez-Colon Plana, 2020).

Similarly, Baldauf et al. (2017) and Hamari et al. (2014) discovered that gamification practices supporting F2F classroom activities provided engagement and positive learning outcomes but being short-term interventions and using small samples with measurement tools that lacked validity tests, findings of these studies suggested that longitudinal or empirical studies with qualitative dimensions could provide more insights on the issue. Finally, the type of the context and student quality in academic performance could generate confounding variables.

Just as general educational sense, another matter of discussion about gamification could be about the aforementioned confusion of gamification and game-based approaches used in the context of language teaching. Although some studies found positive impacts obtained by game elements on the language learning (Alharthi, 2020; Jabali & Walker, 2021; Mee Mee et al., 2020, 2021; Wichadee & Pattanapichet, 2014; Yürük, 2019), the concept of gamification was used interchangeably with game-based language learning. In these studies, game-based tools such as Kahoot, FlipQuiz, and analogue game elements were used to determine if there was any positive improvement in certain language skills, motivation and engagement level of learners, and the learning quality. In such cases, as stated by Alharthi (2020), learners did not focus on the teacher effect or other elements; instead, they focused on the behavioristic repercussions of games such as Kahoot and FlipQuiz.

Studies that attempted to transform a learning platform or environment into a gamified experience generally found positive outcomes regarding the effect of such platforms. (Flores, 2015), for instance, revealed that gamified environments can positively effect language skills and encourage social behaviors in classroom. In connection, Hernández-Prados et al. (2021) pinpointed that ESL learners favored the use of gamified activities more in comparison to conventional learning practices. According to the study, gamified teaching supports learner-centered paradigm in education because it offers experiential activities. This way, language skills and interactional skills of learners can be improved, rendering learners motivated and engaged. In a similar sense, Selvasli (2018) found gamified classrooms improved intrinsic motivation of English learning, motivation to complete English homework, and learners' engagement with their homework.

The related research additionally mentioned that gamified approaches positively impacted the academic achievement of language learners (Pham et al., 2021; Purgina et al., 2020; Samosa et al., 2021; Yavuz et al., 2020). Pham et al. (2021) reported that combination of gamification, mobile learning, and game elements invoked autonomy in learners, therefore increasing their achievement levels in language learning. Using gamified strategies, online tools, and developed mobile apps all offered promising improvement in learners' success in language skills such as grammar and writing. While Purgina et al (2020) confirmed the benefits of gamified experiences in grammar acquisition, Samosa et al. (2021) and Yavuz et al. (2020) deduced that gamified platforms and strategies used in EFL writing can make mundane writing tasks more enjoyable. Furthermore, in gamified experiences, measuring the learner performance can be less threatening because they allow teachers to track performance without invading learners' personal space and interfering with their affective states.

Studies focusing on the effectiveness of game elements within gamified settings discovered powerful elements that directly appealed to the motivational drivers of learners but posed risks unless a balance was not observed (Flores, 2015; Furdu et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2019; Morschheuser et al., 2019; Pardoel et al., 2018; Rivera-Trigueros & Sánchez-Pérez, 2020; Ryder & Machajewski, 2017; Tan, 2018). Gamified environments, when carefully set up, offer learners to engage with the content through role-playing, collaborative tasks, rewards, penalties, points, power-ups, content unlocking, etc. (Pardoel et al., 2018; Rivera-Trigueros & Sánchez-Pérez, 2020). These elements are not only known to increase motivation, engagement, and autonomy but also the peer feedback quality, originality of learners in posts, and learning success (Huang et al., 2019). However, such elements were reported to require a close attention since overusing one or failure to maintain a balance in the use may endanger the experience.

In terms of the delicate balance to keep regarding game elements, Flores (2015) and Furdu et al. (2017) mentioned the risk of damaging the beneficial nature of gamified settings by the ineffective use of rewards, badges, and leaderboards. Useful as they are, losing the balance may cost learners to lose interest in learning when they feel they may not catch the high-achievers or collect as many badges and rewards as the others did. Moreover, Pardoel et al. (2019) proposed that learners need constant scaffolding even though they tend to enjoy

cooperation to a great extent. Therefore, a gamified design beckons level-adjustment and a consideration for task difficulty. It should also be considered that even though game elements directly relates to learners behavioristic drives, such items may not have desired effects on how learners perceive the importance of English language (Rivera-Trigueros & Sánchez-Pérez, 2020).

Ryder and Machijewski (2017) revealed affirmative impacts of a gamified FL course on both teacher and learner engagement. However, challenges such as continuity of mission or task creation, keeping learners notified of changes in design, and the management of tasks over a long period were apparent. Furthermore, it was found that team-competition situations gave more enjoyment to learners compared to purely cooperative and purely competitive gamification. Cooperative sides led users to recommend gamified apps to others in greater scales (Morschheuser et al., 2019). On another note, Pinto et al (2021) suggested that the integration of new technological means must be introduced as supportive activities, not a replacement for traditional learning settings because learners were observed to benefit from both.

In a follow-up study, Pardoel et al. (2019) found that different types of learners may emerge as a result of the gamified experience such as consistent learners, centralists, late awakeners, and achievers. Teachers should keep in mind that some learners can centralize on achieving the required tasks only while others may seem unwilling at first but open up at later stages. Therefore, designing the tasks according to these potential learner types might improve the effectiveness of gamified environments. To counter potential hazards in the way, Tan (2018) proposed a meaningful gamification to invoke learners' interest in the process, making it very likely that learner competence would increase. As inherent in gamified environments, learners should be confident that they would not sense failure.

Lastly, from the perspective of teachers, it was explored that teachers believed that a gamified learning would be useful, especially in the context of language teachers. Moreover, if teachers' attitudes toward gamification were high and the potential of social impact was expected, teachers were more prone to using gamification effectively (Asiri, 2019). However, teachers feared that the lack of technology and necessary materials could pose a threat for the full integration of gamification although they tended to perceive gamification

as an approach that could increase interest of learners and their social skills (Mee Mee et al., 2020).

To sum up, it can be seen from the studies that gamification yielded positive results in terms of increasing language learners' motivation, engagement, and autonomy levels as well as their enjoyment of language lessons. However, it should be noted that the integration of game elements is a delicate matter because overusing some of them or losing the balance could negatively affect the whole process. Furthermore, it is evident that the number of qualitative research and empirical trials in larger samples sizes must be increased to understand the effects of gamification on language learners' motivational and autonomy-related states.

2.2.4. Research on Learner Autonomy

LA studies can be divided into two categories in terms of the concept's relevance and potential contribution to this study. First, studies in literature address the theoretical roots and LA's function in educational settings. This category contributes to the research in a way that it provides discussions about theories that nurture LA and solidify its importance in education (Anderson & Dron, 2011; Benson et al., 2003; Benson, 2008b, 2010; Deci et al., 1996; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; Firat, 2016; Fonseka, 2003; Hu & Zhang, 2017; Lamb, 2010; Little, 1990; Littlewood, 1996; Nunan, 2003; Orakci & Gelisli, 2017; Riley, 2003; Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2006; Smith, 2003; Smith, 2015; Ting, 2015; Toohey & Norton, 2003; Ushioda, 2011b).

The second strand of studies on LA sheds light onto the role of LA in language education in EFL and ESL settings (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2019; Dam & Legenhausen, 2010; Lengkanawati, 2017; Little, 2012; Little et al., 2017; Macaro, 2008; Murase, 2015; Oxford, 2003, 2017; Pichugova et al., 2016; Ramadhiyah & Lengkanawati, 2019; Schwienhorst, 2003; Shen et al., 2020; Tran & Duong, 2018; Tseng et al., 2020).

From the teacher perspective, Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) reported that teachers defined autonomy as the freedom and choice-making offered to learners. Although they

believed EFL learners being autonomous directly affects their achievement, more than half of the teachers were either unsure or negative about their students possessing adequate autonomy. Moreover, student choice was not regarded as beneficial in terms of choosing how to assess the performance and setting the course objectives. Promotion of LA can be hindered by the lack of motivation, institution-related elements, and teacher-based problems such as low levels of belief in their students. Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) also handled the autonomy concept from technical, political, psychological, and social perspectives. Similarly, Oxford (2003) noted that situational conditions, learner characteristics, mediation of learning, and ideological issues must be addressed for a more systematic model to comprehend LA.

In a similar vein, it was pointed out by teachers that problems related to autonomy are more likely to be caused by learners themselves (Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2019). Learners being not knowledgeable about studying properly or their low motivation levels can be given as examples of such learner-based problems. According to Borg and Alshumaimeri (2019), LA is achievable with the help of teachers, and it should not mean that learners should manage their own learning without teacher support. Furthermore, to understand LA of learners in language learning, teachers need to evaluate the learning process constantly because LA is a construct that is difficult to test. Therefore, exploring what learners think throughout the process is crucial. In some cases, testing can be useful in offering the students chances to track their progress, but evaluation is more crucial to understand autonomy of language learners. Through evaluation, teachers can observe the reflection of learners in critical situations such as performing the language, learner experiences, and linguistic outputs (Dam & Legenhausen, 2010).

In terms of evaluation and testing, the question of whether it is possible to measure LA is a long-debated matter. Assessment and measurement concepts can be distinguished to understand the approaches to the issue of LA. Assessment involves grading learners based on their autonomy while measurement is related to understanding learner behaviors in the context of autonomy. Measuring LA may generate problems, but a conceptual design of a measurement tool can be beneficial if four dimensions provided by Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) and Oxford (2003) are employed in the tool. In addition, learner perspective may be

more valuable than teachers' perspectives (Murase, 2015). After all, most theories and frameworks handle the issue of LA from the perspectives of teachers.

Placing the importance on the learner, the European Language Portfolio (ELP), for instance, was developed with the sole purpose of fostering LA. Teachers' main duty must be to channel the autonomy of their learners that they have in their daily lives into the language learning context. This distinction was made between real-life autonomy and L2 learning autonomy based on the assumption that everyone has some types of autonomy in their lives (Little, 2012). Additionally, LA can be examined in line with the categories of language competence and choices of learners. Rather than focusing on predetermined learner models dictated by teacher opinions, teachers and researchers alike must consider psychological and social aspects of language learners and must find strategies for learners to produce what they desire to convey in the language (Macaro, 2008).

In terms of learner behaviors, although teachers might believe that outside the school activities contribute to LA, in the study by Lengkanawati (2017), it was revealed that teachers did not omit the role of teachers in promoting autonomy in language learning. They indicated that presence of the teacher is required no matter how learners operate. Autonomy is deeply related to how learners manage to evaluate their performance. For this indispensable role of teacher, Pichugova et al. (2016) stated that LA is not an easy task to achieve in educational contexts, let alone the EFL context. One major point is the teacher persistence over promoting autonomy in learning because it might take a long time to ensure autonomy in all learners. Students must be offered to make choices, given support emotionally and cognitively, and their self-esteem and motivation levels must be elevated in the learning process.

Ramadiyah and Lengkanawati (2019) found that, in a technical sense, students did not believe they committed to individual learning other than mandatory class assignments. In terms of their psychological states, they reported to be autonomous learners; however, they thought it was the teacher's responsibility to ensure their autonomy. Moreover, assessing their peers' performance in language learning increased EFL learners' autonomy levels in a writing classroom. Peer-assessment helped learners to become more independent of their teachers, and they started to believe that they could study more efficiently on their

own. In addition, the practice enabled them to be more skillful at evaluating the learning process and using different strategies for learning (Shen et al., 2020).

In a yet more different experience, Tseng et al. (2020) explored that using virtual environments increased the effectiveness of language learning in terms of vocabulary learning. Virtual environments also provided a situation where learners could collaborate with the teacher; however, students benefited from working in pairs the most in terms of portraying autonomous behaviors. Virtual tools can be great alternatives for EFL learning with autonomy, which indicate the function of technology in increasing LA. Regarding technology, Ramadiyah and Lengkanawati (2019) reported that, for teachers, the use of technology could promote autonomy because technology can offer a multitude of platforms for learners to gain autonomy in language learning. To further this, Tran and Duong (2018) stated that the inclusion of technological equipment and online platforms shifted the understanding of autonomy, making it easier for learners to achieve LA in language learning. Even though they might not be for everyone, learners in the study associated their LA to making choices, using tools such as portfolios, and their teacher's ability to adapt to various situations.

As the final note, Schwienhorst (2003) pointed out that some obstacles in the way of obtaining autonomy in language classrooms are the difficulty of accessing the target culture, the gap between learning a language and using it in real life, and the brick-and-mortar environments provided by the physicality of schools and classrooms being weak suppliers of real-life situations. Therefore, introducing Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) environments to language learning processes brings many advantages to fostering LA in the context of EFL learning.

As mentioned in the earlier sections, autonomy is a concept deeply related to motivation since the presence of one nurtures the other, or vice versa. Therefore, the discussion of autonomy concept must be followed by insights into L2 motivation within new perspectives toward motivation such as the constructs of identity and self. The research regarding the evolution of L2 motivational models adequately accounts for the need to include self and identity to redefine L2 motivation.

2.2.5. Research on L2 Motivational Self System

Concerning the concept of motivation, two categories were identified in terms of serving the purposes of the current paper. The first category of research adopts a theoretical outlook for the issue of motivation whereas the second group of studies examines the concept in relation to EFL and ESL.

The first category simply consists of studies exploring how motivation theories look at education and human psychology and research on sub-theories that nurture the concept of motivation such as self-regulation, identity, self-worth, and self-determination (Abrams & Hogg, 1988, 2004; Ames, 1992; Atkinson, 1964; Bandura et al., 2001; Barkley, 2010; Covington, 2009; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Deci et al., 1991; Dörnyei, 2009; Graham & Williams, 2009; Higgins, 1996; Kaplan & Flum, 2009; Latham & Locke, 1991; Markus & Nurius, 1986; Singh, 2011; Tohidi & Jabbari, 2012; Weiner, 2010; Wentzel, 2000, 2017; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000).

The second category of research in the context of motivation includes studies that deal with the motivation concept in more detail, focusing on the motivational outcomes of various EFL or ESL-related work and on the concept of motivational *self* (Aubrey & Philpott, 2021; Chan, 2014; Clément & Noels, 1992; Csizér, 2019; Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Csizér & Magid, 2014; Dörnyei, 1994b, 1994a, 2005, 2009; Dörnyei et al., 2006; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei & Otto, 1998; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Ely, 1986; Gardner et al., 1983; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985; Lamb, 2004; Little & Al Wahaibi, 2017; Macintyre et al., 2009; Mackay, 2014; Magid, 2014; Magid & Chan, 2012; Papi et al., 2018; Papi & Hiver, 2020; Ryan, 2006; Sato, 2021; Sato & Lara, 2019; Schumann, 1986; Sung, 2013; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Ushioda, 1998, 2010, 2011a, 2016; Williams & Burden, 1997; Wong, 2020; Yashima, 2006).

As a basis for the transition from conventional motivational concepts to the self and identity, studies by Dörnyei (1994a; 1994b), Dörnyei and Csizér (2002), and Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) can set the foundation for the need to include identities of individuals in the equation of motivational thinking in language learning. Motivational elements can be handled with constituents that are unique to the course, the teacher, and the groups. Learners'

interest, feeling of relevance, satisfaction, and expectation of success are in the category of course-related components. Teachers, in addition, can affect motivation through approving learner behaviors, authority style, presentation of models, feedback, tasks, and praise. Finally, learners can be motivated by setting proper goals, establishing reward dynamics, strengthening the bonds in groups, and deciding the group interaction types such as collaboration, competition, and individual work (Dörnyei, 1994a).

Considering these modeling of motivation concepts, Dörnyei (1994b) believed that Gardner's The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) must be reconceptualized in terms of terminology, measurement, and conceptual constituents. Concepts of goal orientation and motivation should not be separate for they are close in meaning. Motivation and attitudes serve the same construct in the context of L2 motivation. To further this, Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) found that, in the Hungarian context, L2 learners' responses generated *integrativeness, instrumentality, direct contact with L2 speakers, cultural interest,* and *vitality* (p.432). Integrativeness has more depth compared to the willingness to study the target language; in other words, it is deeply related to the emotional states, identities, and the "self" concept of language learners.

To construct a new conceptual definition for motivation, Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) employed a structural equation model to determine the relationship of factors playing roles in the L2 motivational selves. It was noted that there are no absolutes in determining a model. Models can vary from one situation to another. Still, integrativeness appears as one of the most crucial elements in the motivational construct of language learners. Authors correlated integrativeness with the concept of ideal L2 self of learners.

In their study to address some issues in these remodeling attempts, Papi et al. (2018) found that a two times two model including ideal and ought-to L2 self with a distinction between *own* and *other* factors worked well to mend the configuration problems of previous research. While previous models underlined ideal L2 self, the study by Papi et al. (2018) pointed out that the ought-to L2 self concept is as significant. Moreover, Papi and Hiver (2020) attempted to portray the characteristics of L2 learners' motivation over the years of language learning. As a generalizable characteristic, it was found that early ages of L2 learning decisions of learners aimed to satisfy parents' or family members' demands. Then,

the line of development is affected by environmental elements, threats to the integrity of motivation along the way, and the integration with life goals as the learners mature.

In the light of a more globalized mindset, language learning motivation can be defined differently. This globalization affects how learners picture the L2 self within a globalized community and new social structures. Therefore, the visualized language community will generate very different images from the conventional communities of language. The essence of this mindset is that it should be acknowledged that English language is a global commodity, rather than being in the control of a handful of countries or cultural communities (S. Ryan, 2006; Sung, 2013).

Culturally speaking, studies portraying the motivational perspectives of different communities add great value to the understanding of L2 motivation in a more recent sense (Aubrey & Philpott, 2021; Lamb, 2004; Little & Al Wahaibi, 2017; Wong, 2020; Yashima, 2006). For instance, it was seen in Aubrey and Philpott (2021) that implementing tasks that provided inter-cultural contact for EFL learners greatly increased the L2 motivation level of learners. However, intercultural contact did not have direct impact on their self constructs such as ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self. Yet, it can be stipulated that intercultural or intracultural contact is likely to improve learners' way of thinking about the function of English in real life.

In Lamb (2004), the Indonesian EFL settings offered different autonomy- and motivation-related perspectives in comparison to western nations. In this context, students had to locate extensive language materials due to the limitation of state-provided resources. In addition, it was found that Indonesian learners did not fit the categories of integrativeness or instrumentality in the sense of motivational construct because they indicated an unusual identification with the L2 culture, desiring to adopt it as their second culture. In the case of Japanese culture, Yashima (2006) noted that Japanese EFL learners showed interest in forming international friendship with people from English-speaking cultures, as well as interest in the American community and travel-related elements. It can be inferred that these drives for cultural integration construct a basis for L2 motivation for Japanese EFL learners.

In a study carried out in a Hong Kong context, Wong (2020) aimed to detect the impact of L2 proficiency over young learners' L2 motivation. The extent of L2 proficiency impacting motivation was determined by how learners perceived their performance in language. Moreover, it was found that learners' perceptions of their performance affected their learning behaviors and intentions. Therefore, a meticulous adjustment of tasks and careful design of the learning will greatly impact learners' proficiency perceptions, actual language performance, hence their L2 self.

According to the research conducted by Little and Wahaibi (2017), digital platforms enabled Omani EFL learners to find motivation for English language learning and practice because their identities perceived as Islamic and Middle Eastern by the world gave them reason to engage in online platforms to create a positive image about their identities. It was shown that L2 ideal self concept was fueled by cultural, ideological, and even religious drives rather than solely learning-related sources. Therefore, it is important to involve everything belonging to the identities of learners to promote motivation. Concerning this, Ushioda (2011) remarked that the change in the perspective when dealing with L2 motivation dictates that teachers must focus on involving learners' identities as a whole, instead of treating learners as mere students whose motivation levels must be increased within the classroom context.

Regarding the changes to comprehend the motivation with the inclusion of self and identity concepts, motivational studies of late have attempted to widespread the practice of visualization and mental imagery to establish ideal L2 self constructs of language learners (L. Chan, 2014; Mackay, 2014; Magid, 2014; Magid & Chan, 2012; Sato, 2021; Sato & Lara, 2019). According to Magid (2014) and Magid and Chan (2012), EFL learners can become more motivated and picture a more positive future for their L2 selves if visualization, imagining, and picturing methods are applied in language classrooms where learners can listen to scenarios from future language use or practice assumed situations related to their interactions in the target language.

To test the technique within context, Mackay (2014) employed visualization practice with Catalan EFL learners, and the intervention increased the willingness to communicate in English while their motivation slightly decreased. Mackay reported that this technique can

yield better results with more mature participants, and different contexts are required for a better understanding. Additionally, Chan (2014) established a connection between mental imagery and possible self concepts. To increase behaviors related to possible selves in language learning and to establish the concept of self in learners, reminding learners their previous instances of success can be helpful. Visualizing the language-related future and participating in meetings of counselling improved the motivation level of EFL learners. Moreover, Sato (2021) explored that the use of tasks facilitating visualization among EFL learners impacted their L2 motivation constructs and behaviors in the classroom. It was found that vision-focused tasks improved L2 motivation, particularly in the ideal L2 self constituent. The ought-to L2 self indicated a negative correlation with learners' frequency of using target language.

To conclude the section of L2 motivation, it can be stated that motivational definitions have shown substantial changes over time. The conventional perspective of motivation studies mainly focused on the motivational levels of learners as a construct functioning in the language classroom or during the language learning process. However, the recent outlook portrays that motivation of language learners is deeply related to their identities, socio-cultural states, ideologies, and the construct of self. Therefore, it is recommended that everything about the language learner can and must be included in the equation to raise their L2 motivation.

The next and final section, building up on previous chapters on BL, gamification, LA, and L2 motivation, attempts to provide a discussion about language skills development of L2 learners for the purpose of understanding what types of techniques, methods, practices, and approaches may affect, be it positively or negatively, learners' language skills.

2.2.6. Language Skills

This section will discuss how different methods, techniques, approaches, and practices in the context of EFL teaching and learning might affect the language skills of EFL learners. The content and findings of the related studies will be presented under skill-related themes to elaborate on the potential improvements in language skills regarding the corresponding field. This section is significant because the potential language skill

development of the participants of this research can be compared to the similar or different outcomes generated by other studies in different contexts. Each sub-section will discuss the findings of the literature in a thematic approach rather than presenting them chronologically since a thematic arrangement will serve better to the study for understanding the focal points of the related research in the field.

Studies concerning the language skills that are considered relevant to potential outcomes of this study can be reviewed under two main sections. The first category of related studies therefore is about the research on reading and vocabulary skills of EFL and ESL learners (Brown et al., 2011; Chan, 2014; Collins, 2010; Hsieh, 2011; Hsu, 2014; Hu, 2012; Huifen & Tsuiping, 2007; Kahn-Horwitz et al., 2005; Kieffer, 2012; Kieffer & Lesaux, 2007; Konstantakis & Alexiou, 2012; Krashen, 1989; Luk, 2002; Muñoz, 2014; Murphy, 2007; Roberts & Neal, 2004; Sidek, 2012; Sze, 1999; Yudhana, 2021) on the grounds that reading comprehension and vocabulary were among the most important components of the modules that were used in this research.

As for the second category of studies, writing skills of learners are also quite relevant to the outcomes of this study since the module activities demanded many written assignments and written online interaction from participants. In this sense, studies that focused on the improvement of writing skills of EFL or ESL learners (Apel & Werfel, 2014; Dupont et al., 2020; Duruk, 2021; Espinoza-Celi & Pintado, 2020; Ferreira et al., 2014; Hamimed, 2021; Hashemi & Si Na, 2020; Jo, 2021; La Sala, 2018; Mazhar Hameed, 2021; Sujannah et al., 2019; Walter et al., 2019; Yao, 2019) will contribute greatly as the means of comparison to the results of the current study.

Receptive skills such as vocabulary and reading set the foundation for the development of EFL learners' language skills in general. In principle, learners of English language need to extend their vocabulary and lexical depth as well as comprehend the texts and become prominent in their L1 basic language skills to be able to successfully produce the language (Brown et al., 2011; Kahn-Horwitz et al., 2005; Kieffer, 2012; Krashen, 1989; Sze, 1999). Krashen (1989) stated on the matter that vocabulary learning, and accurate spelling can be best achieved through reading authentic language sources. In addition, Sze (1999) suggested that as the interest of learners in reading in general was reported to decline,

tasks requiring extensive reading would provide EFL learners with opportunities to develop language skills, which supported Krashen (1989).

Regarding the proficient use of L1 basic skills, Brown et al. (2011) noted that basic language skills of children are predictors of establishing causal connections, and the size of vocabulary impacts the understanding of narration and connection-making. In addition, a longitudinal study conducted by Kieffer (2012) revealed that EFL learners' spoken language development at early stages is deeply effective in their reading skill development in later years. Furthermore, Kahn-Horwitz et al. (2012) found in their study aiming to determine the effect of L1 on EFL reading acquisition that learners' awareness of phonology and morphology in their L1 affected EFL learning skills in general.

In the sense of vocabulary and reading skills, Roberts and Neal (2004) suggested that vocabulary of EFL learners can be expanded with the extensive support and direction of the teacher as well as working with groups in small numbers. Literacy levels of EFL learners also play an important role in the reading skills of language learners. To hone the vocabulary and reading skills of EFL learners, Kieffer and Lesaux (2007) proposed that teaching morphological techniques to EFL learners improves their chances to expand their vocabulary, extract desired meaning from texts, and comprehend reading texts better.

Sidek (2012) and Konstantakis and Alexiou (2012) reported certain problematic areas in terms of reading and vocabulary learning. In the Malaysian EFL context, Sidek (2012) reported that the Malaysian EFL curriculum for secondary level education included reading activities that required learners to process information in the texts as they read and complete tasks related to the texts, which did not meet the standards for communicative language teaching models. For this, it was suggested that adding collaboration and communicativeness in the reading instruction would improve reading skills of EFL learners more effectively. On the other hand, regarding the profile of vocabulary course books of EFL learners of young ages, Konstantakis and Alexiou (2012) found that books did not meet the necessary standards to equip learners with the necessary vocabulary. Considering this might be an issue for other contexts, it was proposed that the use of multiple course books to cover vocabulary would increase the quality of vocabulary acquisition.

Concerning the techniques to use for developing reading and vocabulary skills, Hu (2012) pointed out that fast-mapping tasks can enable children to obtain new vocabulary based on their initial mental word pools. Unlike previous research suggesting learning a foreign language decreases the chance to link unknown words to objects because L2 words mostly have more than one meaning, Hu (2012) found that presenting unknown words in sentences beforehand can enable learners to match unfamiliar words to shown objects. In addition, rich definition provided for new vocabulary increase the amount of understood words in a text. These explanations can be made through gestures, definitions, statements out of context, giving the synonyms of the words, and support by visuals and illustrations (Collins, 2010). On another note, Hsieh (2011) proposed that using established sequences and habitual tasks in the classroom improves the likelihood of learning the language. Additionally, depending on the ages of learners, introducing games and fun activities to the language learning is beneficial for the learners.

Aside from the aforementioned techniques, methods, and approaches, Huifen and Tsuiping (2007) and Murphy (2007) advocated the use of multimedia tools and online platforms to enrich vocabulary and reading instruction. Murphy (2007) discovered that when the reading comprehension activities were presented in online platforms, elements such as feedback, online interaction, and pair-work can improve the reading comprehension levels of EFL learners. Similarly, Huifen and Tsuiping (2007) attempted to determine the effects of multimedia tools such as animations, visuals, and question prompts as supports for the visuals on learners' reading comprehension. Despite revealing positive outcomes with the use of these tools, it was noted that using multimedia tools such as animations and visuals does not guarantee improvement in reading comprehension because they are simply no different than presenting texts. However, contexts and questions accompanying the visuals or animations to invoke reading comprehension are necessary for learners.

Considering the writing skills of EFL learners, studies attempting to increase writing through the implementation of different techniques were presented. These studies report their findings of how their techniques affected the writing skills of EFL learners. The methods and techniques used to develop writing skills of EFL learners in by these studies are portfolios, blogging, wikis, morphology training, reviews and feedback, online learning, photographs, social media, collaboration, and literary works (Apel & Werfel, 2014; Aydin,

2010; Espinoza-Celi & Pintado, 2020; Kayacan & Razı, 2017; La Sala, 2018; Mazhar Hameed, 2021; Özdemir & Aydın, 2015; Savran Celik & Aydin, 2016; Valizadeh, 2022; Walter et al., 2019). Prior to discussing the repercussions of such methods and techniques, though, how EFL learners perceive the writing skill should be laid out.

Regarding the attitudes toward EFL writing process, Aydın and Başöz (2010) revealed that pre-service teachers had positive attitudes toward writing activities in the EFL context. Since they were pre-service English language teachers, they found that writing was easy in any case even though they might not be particularly good at it. What they valued the most in terms of writing were feedback received from peers and teachers alike, chance of revising, and making corrections. On another note, Duruk (2021) reported that consensus indicated the difficulty of writing skills. However, in the case of this study, prep school students who participated in the study found writing as the second easiest skill after reading. In comparison to ELT pre-service teachers' opinions, which emphasized the insufficiency of their skills, these learners regarded themselves as successful at writing. The reason for this might be the high expectation levels of ELT department students.

In terms of methods and techniques used to improve writing skills of EFL learners, firstly, Aydin (2010) reported that even though portfolios as tools to measure EFL writing skills were studied previously, research on pre-service English teachers as EFL learners was limited. In the study, portfolios were found to be effective in improving mechanics of writing such as paragraph development, essay writing, punctuation, etc. However, it was evaluated as a tiresome and dull process by participants, and it limited the creativity of learners due to the necessity to follow certain rules of writing. Similarly, as a process-based approach to writing, Özdemir and Aydin (2015) implemented blog writing activities and improved achievement of EFL learners in writing skills. Thanks to this approach, mechanics of writing were comprehended more thoroughly. However, using blogs did not particularly yield a superiority over conventional writing. One of the main reasons for this could be technical difficulties faced by learners when using online tools.

According to Apel and Werfel (2014), English language in written form requires formulations and morphological understanding, thus learners can improve writing skills by gaining awareness of morphology of the language. Besides improving writing skills, learning

the morphological structure of English will equip learners with literacy skills. Yet, using process-based approaches as in Aydin (2010) and Özdemir and Aydin (2015) for teaching writing mechanics can lead to boredom or technological barriers.

As another process-based writing study, Savran Celik and Aydin (2016) discovered that writing with process-based approaches can be a beneficial way of developing writing skills of EFL learners because it supports their learning of writing mechanics over a period, leading to writing achievement. In their experimental study, it was found that the use of wikis as a process-based writing activity provided more success for EFL learners compared to conventional writing activities. Moreover, Kayacan and Razı (2017) stated that integrating technology into writing instruction in the EFL context mainly produced potent outcomes. Their study revealed that using self-reviews and peer feedback in online platforms led to an increase in EFL learners' writing performance. Digital platforms and anonymity offered a promising mix to develop writing achievement of language learners.

In another study, La Sala (2018) attempted to provide independent working opportunities to EFL learners. It was revealed in the study that learners turned to different learning styles in the online platform. Another key finding was that the content and task must be meaningful for learners to instigate sufficient work. Independent work on writing activities in an online platform mostly require a rich and wide array of materials and resources provided by the teacher. Furthermore, based on Walter et al. (2019), utilizing photographs as visual aid to support writing skills of EFL learners produced positive outcomes. This type of content and activities can raise interest and awe among learners, enabling them to work more willingly. The use of photos works on the premise that language learning tasks and content must carry a meaning. In particular, photos improved the chance of recalling words and linking them to the produced language.

To continue with technological tools and online platforms, Espinoza-Celi and Pintado (2019) noted that, in their study, Twitter as a language learning platform was regarded as a good way of improving writing skill by the majority of learners. Yet, almost a non-negligible twenty percent did not find it as useful simply because the platform itself was not interesting for them. In terms of language skills in particular, Twitter use increased learners' achievement levels. However, interest issues may pose a threat to the inclusion of

everyone in the classroom willingly. Moreover, in Valizadeh (2022), the use of collaboration and digital tools provided more positive contributions to learners in EFL writing activities thanks to online feedback and collaboration on a digital platform. Collaboration supported by the convenience of online tools helps create a social interaction community, which is a necessity for language learning processes.

As can be seen in the research, many techniques and approaches have been employed to develop language skills of EFL learners all over the world. Whereas many of these practices yield very promising results for the future research to build upon, it is possible to trace problems related to implementation of the techniques and methods, learners' responses, interest of learners, technical problems, and apprehension, and so on. The main message of the related literature is to carry on trying different techniques and collect as much information as possible in different contexts. Therefore, all these studies are quite valuable to this study because they point to possible problems that I may encounter on the way of implementing technological tools and online platforms to develop language skills or they can underline what to be careful about during the practice of similar techniques in this study.

2.2.7. Conclusion

Upon reviewing and discussing the related literature on BL, gamification, LA, L2 motivation, and language skills, several issues can be emphasized. To understand these issues better and connect what has been found by others to the methodology of this research, this section will briefly conclude each section of literature reviewed previously, underlining the key points.

The research on BL indicates that BL has been defined differently by educators and researchers over the course of years. In its theoretical roots, BL has been discussed over the issue of mixing F2F and online components of education. The studies in various educational contexts have long attempted to find the most appropriate mix for blended instruction. Therefore, many studies conducted research to test numerous scenarios to understand the balance of instructional components within a blended environment. Moreover, BL studies portrayed the processes of how institutional transition from conventional brick-and-mortar education to a blended education is realized. In addition, different models such as rotation

model, flex model, etc. were discussed. Finally, it is evident that the current research mostly deals with the integration of technology into the online components of BL and enriching the learning environments. This can be explained with the spread of CALL technologies and abundant online opportunities offered to educators and learners, making the adoption of different technological tools more convenient.

As for the next category, gamification studies are another vital source for this study on the ground that gamification approaches and techniques as well as game theories were comprehensively integrated into the methodologies of the research. The research initially discusses the logic and emergence of gamification in terms of its function and applicability in different contexts. As mentioned before, gamification was introduced as a marketing strategy to speak to the behavioristic and motivational core of individuals because game elements are appealing thanks to their playful nature. Based on this, gamification as a promising concept has been debated in different contexts, particularly in educational settings due to its deep relationship with motivation and engagement constructs. The research found that gamification indeed managed to bring about changes in learners' behaviors in classroom, rewarding and engaging them. It was found that integration of online platforms into education strengthened the role of gamification as a behavior modifier and motivation driver as it is known that online platforms such as LMSs, social media, blogs, etc. are very compatible with game elements such as immediate feedback, leaderboards, rewards, narration, aesthetics, progress check, etc. Therefore, it can be stated that gamification holds an immense potential for motivational and autonomy-related studies, and as the research suggests, more empirical and qualitative results are always needed to understand its effect broadly.

Studies regarding autonomy chiefly emphasize the need for a change in the perspective to discuss autonomy concept. According to the research, autonomy and LA constructs have long been defined and described from the perspectives of teachers and outsiders, not the learners themselves. Therefore, the tone of the research has changed over the years, embracing the learners and their lives as a whole. Just as Ushioda (2011) noted, autonomy of learners is not a structure merely related to classroom behaviors. For this reason, another debate on the measurement of LA has emerged for it is a difficult concept to concretize and measure. Furthermore, the research suggests that even though learners need

to be offered chance to gain independence and responsibility, the presence of a teacher should not be neglected because both teachers and learners believe that teachers play a crucial role in enabling their students to be autonomous by providing them the means and supporting them along the way. Similar to BL and gamification research, current studies on LA emphasize the importance of technology and online platforms in enabling language learners to become more independent. Thus, it is important for further research to explore what this means and to attempt to measure the effects of technology on LA.

Concerning the L2 motivation, the range of research is quite wide and rich since motivation is a very fundamental and vital issue for language learning, if not for all educational settings. Similar to BL and LA research, motivational research in the field of language learning also indicated changes in the understanding of learners' motivation in language learning. Conventional classroom-related integrativeness, instrumental, intrinsic, and extrinsic motivation concepts have been redefined and reconceptualized by the researchers who have attempted to include concepts of self and identity along with motivational constructs. As a result of this, ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self concepts have emerged. The recent research, therefore, suggests that motivation is a construct deeply related with how individuals feel about themselves culturally and ideologically, and where in society they feel the feeling of belonging. For this reason, teachers and researchers are suggested to give learners chances to visualize themselves using the target language and employ visualization practices in the classroom. These visualization activities can be mixed with learning tasks and class content or presented as a standalone session to support learner motivation.

As the final section in the literature review, language skills and methods and techniques affecting L2 language skills were discussed. First, research on how language skills might be developed and what concerns must be observed in the process of language learning and language skill development was chosen as the starting point of the section. Second, the research was divided into categories related to this study, as in receptive skills such as reading and vocabulary skills and productive skills such as writing. These skills were chosen because the study attempts to use a gamified blended module is not expected to have a measurable impact on skills such as listening and speaking. The research essentially indicates that a rich source of materials and wide array of techniques and approaches

ultimately help learners to improve their language skills, and teachers have a critical role in providing such rich environments for language learners. Similar to other researched areas, language skill research has moved to empirical attempts to integrate technology, online tools, and alternative techniques into the learning process to develop learners' language skills. It can be acknowledged that, in this technological age, multimedia tools and online technologies undoubtedly offer educators to have alternative options to enhance the language learning experience of L2 learners.

To sum, the research on BL, gamification, LA, and language skills discussed in the theoretical framework and literature review sections will greatly contribute to the methodological development of this study. Additionally, these studies will guide the processes of data collection, designing the instruction, intervention, and the analysis and interpretation of the data. This study will attempt to fill the research related gap indicated by the related literature as they emphasized the need for future studies to focus on empirical and qualitative dimensions to discover L2 learners' BL, gamification, LA, and motivational experiences during language learning. In connection to the related literature, therefore, the next section will give a detailed account of how the research was planned and what types of methodology was found appropriate for this study.

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This section will provide detailed information concerning the methods and techniques used to design the research, develop, and implement the products in the study, collect the data, and analyze the obtained data. First, the research models that were utilized throughout the research process will be explained at length, addressing the rationale for implementing such research models to suit the research goals. Second, detailed information about the sample group of the research will be provided along with an explanation of the rationale behind the selection of the participants. Third, data collection tools used for gathering data to serve the purposes of the research will be introduced and their functions concerning the study will be explained. Fourth, data collection procedures and all the stages implemented throughout the research process will be accounted for concerning the research questions of the study. Last, data analysis techniques and procedures will be described in the light of the research questions and the research models utilized in the study. Each item listed above will be elaborated on in a separate section to maintain order and avoid confusion.

3.2. Research Models

The research aims at measuring and analyzing EFL learners' certain variables such as autonomy, L2 motivation self-system, language skills, and classroom interaction and at designing a blended-gamified language teaching module employing a mixed-method approach to the research. In other words, the research which is comprised of two stages as *instructional design phase* and the *mixed-method research phase* utilized both quantitative and qualitative means of data collection and data analysis techniques. According to Creswell (2014) and Miles et al. (2014), mixed-method research is a relatively new methodology, assuming that taking advantage of both quantitative and qualitative means of data collection and analysis procedures while diminishing their shortcomings will strengthen the degree of understanding of the research purposes and dynamics.

In the study, the initial stage to lay the foundation on which the data will be collected was the instructional design phase. In the instructional design process, various models can be used to develop content following the purpose and needs of the research and the target groups.

3.2.1. Instructional Design

The development of an ID model is arduous work that requires a wide array of skills, resources, and research procedures. For the ID model development, the developer is generally faced with three options: employing an existing and tested ID model, developing one from scratch and testing it for efficiency, or choosing the blurry line in the middle; that is, taking what is best for your research and making your additions, leaving out the non-functional parts. In the context of this study, the eclectic choice, which was the most suitable for the purposes and the pace of the research at hand, appeared to be the right option. In that, as can be referenced from the earlier works on ID (Branch & Kopcha, 2014; Gagne et al., 2005; Gustafson & Branch, 2002; Tessmer & Wedman, 1995), the ID model development process requires an extremely comprehensive effort providing that the objective of ID addresses institutional or system-related issues, rather than the transformation of a lesson.

With this study, it was aimed to transform certain aspects of an existing lesson for a limited time; therefore, it is plausible to suggest that a comprehensive approach of high levels would not be necessary, and a combination of classroom-oriented models and product-oriented models in ID model development would be sufficient for the research (Gustafson & Branch, 2002). Additionally, considering that the core concepts of the ID models are essentially similar as in analysis, design, development, implementation, and evaluation steps in a cyclical motion to progress the effort, what needed to be done was to build upon these core concepts (Peterson, 2003) with the consideration of aspects such as linearity, concurrence, iteration, and cyclicity (Branch & Kopcha, 2014).

3.2.2. Mixed-Method Research

The rationale behind the selection of a mixed methodology to collect and analyze the data can be addressed with several points. First, as Creswell (2007, 2014) and Miles et

al. (2014) suggested, mixed-method research strengthens the hand of the researcher(s) in the data interpretation since quantitative or qualitative data alone can be insufficient to address the implications of the research in a wide perspective.

As for the phase following the creation of the instructional product, therefore, among the mixed-method approaches to the research, the explanatory sequential mixed-method design was selected as the appropriate model; in that, the study initially collected quantitative data from the participants as pre-and post-tests to be complemented by qualitative data in a manner of building upon the foundation laid by the quantitative analyses. To Creswell (2014) and Miles et al. (2014), this model of mixed-method research allows the researcher to strengthen the results of the study by making sense of the quantitative data through the qualitative findings. As for the qualitative data of the research, a phenomenological model of the qualitative research designs was used. Phenomenological design is a research model in which participants who have experienced the same set of events and processes are asked for their reflections on the specific points of these events and experiences so that the process can be analyzed and reported by the researcher(s) (Creswell, 2007).

3.3. Research Sample and Universe

The research took place in two types of high schools in the town center of a southern Marmara region city of Turkey, Balikesir. The high schools of focus were both parts of a private institution that harbored primary, elementary, and secondary level education in separate buildings. The private institution known as Private Açı Schools functioned in two buildings, one of which involved primary and elementary level students whereas the other offered high school level education. In the high school where the research was conducted, two types of high schools were incorporated. One part of the high school served as Science High School while the other functioned as an Anatolian High School.

3.3.1. High School Types

Science high schools are considered the most prestigious high schools in Turkey since they are the most preferred schools by the students with the highest scores in the

national entrance examinations. Students who aim to attend faculties such as engineering, medicine, and similar top-tier subject areas believe that science high schools provide them with an education tailored for their instructional needs to be able to prepare for such faculties. Since the students in these high schools are assumed to have great potential for prestigious universities and faculties, their teachers and the school administration give extra attention to the instructional needs of the students and they try to cover a wide range of subjects in the lessons, delving deeper into the issues.

On another note, Anatolian high schools are regarded as the second most preferred schools in Turkey, succeeding the Science high schools. However, Anatolian high schools went through a characteristic change after some regulations were made in 2013, rendering the place of these high schools obscure in terms of success level. Until this year, these high schools had distinct characteristics in comparison to one another. For instance, Anatolian high schools were mostly known for their intensive English preparatory education besides other disciplines whereas science high schools focused more on science-related subjects, giving less priority to foreign languages. After the regulation was made in 2013, many high schools were categorized as Anatolian high schools and gave up on the preparatory English lessons. This caused confusion in terms of student profile in these high schools since these once-different schools were all rebranded as Anatolian high schools. Nevertheless, in recent years, Anatolian high schools have been classified amongst them categorizing some as prestigious Anatolian schools that need a minimum score from the national high school entry exams while others as neighborhood Anatolian high schools that do not require any prerequisites other than dwelling in the near vicinity.

To specify the school types concerning Balikesir Private Açı Science and Anatolian High School that formed the universe of this study, Science and Anatolian High Schools in this private institution are considered among the prestigious schools of the Balikesir town center. Açı Science High School is known to primarily accept students who score the highest among the students of Balikesir in the national exam, and it is widely appreciated by the townspeople as a successful high school whose students achieve great higher education results after their four-year experiences. To maintain their achievement streak, the school administration admits only a limited number of students in the science high school portion of the institution. That is why parents of successful students show a high level of enthusiasm

to enroll their children at the Açı Science High School due to the reasons described. Students who fail to enroll at the science high school of the institution are accepted to the Anatolian high school. Therefore, it is safe to assume that, academically speaking, science high school students are expected to achieve better educational results pertaining to their higher education futures even though Anatolian high school students are known to have outlying members.

3.3.2. Language Education

In both Science and Anatolian high schools of the Private Açı Schools, the 9th and 10th-grade students receive the same type of English language instruction. During their first second years, students are required to take six hours of English lessons in a week. Four hours of these lessons are main courses while the remaining two are skill-based lessons. Students are placed in level-based classrooms based on their scores on the periodically administered language proficiency tests (WEXT). Their test scores determine their language proficiency levels based on the standards set by the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). According to these standards, students are divided into classrooms of A1, A2, B1, and B2 levels. Students whose scores indicate similar proficiency regarding standard levels are placed in the classrooms that are closest to their proficiency levels.

WEXT Proficiency Exam

WEXT is an organization that offers personalized language learning content and proficiency exams to EFL learners. While the primary focus of the WEXT products is language teaching supported with artificial intelligence (AI), the company also offers language proficiency test packs for the institutions for a price. The fee includes four proficiency exams for each semester, allowing the faculty to track the students' progress (Figure 6).

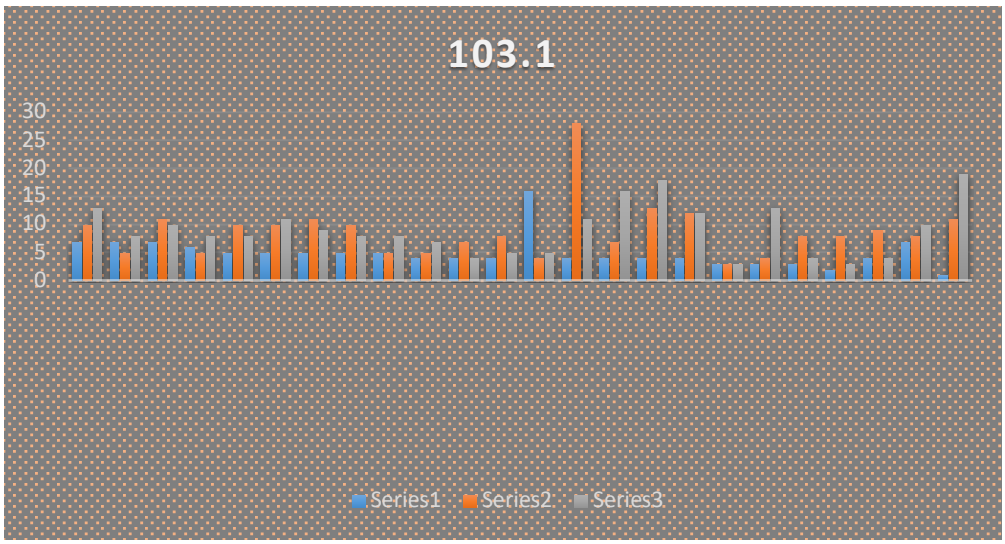


Figure 6. Student success charts of a sample classroom

WEXT proficiency exams served as an asset to both the teachers for placing their students into level-based classrooms and the research to measure the language skills of the students before and after the module implementation. Therefore, it was a valuable and fortunate tool for the research in a way that it saved time and cost issues for me as a researcher to arrange a means to measure the students' proficiency levels. Since the school already had the pre-determined proficiency test packages bought by the institution before I made the arrangements for my research, gathering language skill data obtained from these tests was useful in the sense that I could present a portrayal of learners' language skills in a natural and uninterrupted way. Another positive aspect of this WEXT package was that the test items supported by Oxford University Press content generated results based on the CEFR standards. Even though the study did not situate its focus on language skills because it attempted to report the development in L2 motivational self-system and autonomy, observing how learners progressed in terms of language skills during the intervention was valuable.

Coursebooks

English teachers working at the Science and Anatolian high schools of the institution of focus used Cambridge University Press course books titled *Interchange 1,2,3* and *Passages 1* (Richards, 2017a, 2017b, 2017c; Richards & Sandy, 2014) for their lessons as a result of their department meetings at the beginning of the semester.

Students who had been placed into A1 classrooms used *Interchange 1* (Richards, 2017a) while A2 and B1 levels went with *Interchange 2* (Richards, 2017b) and *Interchange 3* (Richards, 2017c) respectively. For the students with the highest proficiency level, which was B2 in this case, *Passages 1* (Richards & Sandy, 2014) by the same publisher was chosen. Although the levels of the course books were different among classrooms, they included connected and scaffolded content in similar layouts and designs.

In *Interchange 1,2,* and *3* (Richards, 2017a, 2017b, 2017c), a typical unit involved an introductory snapshot of the subject matter, and incorporated conversation, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation sub-skills (Figure 7).

Figure 7. Interchange introductory chapters

Following the introductory part where the necessary grammar and vocabulary were presented to the students as priory knowledge, learner production was facilitated by reading, listening, writing, and speaking activities based on the prior knowledge given by the introduction sections (Figure 8).

Figure 8. Interchange production sections

Productive activities in the books were also supported by video activities (Figure 9) where students could practice what they had learned by watching a related video and responding to video-related questions, using the language items and structures in the previous sections.

Figure 9. Interchange video activities

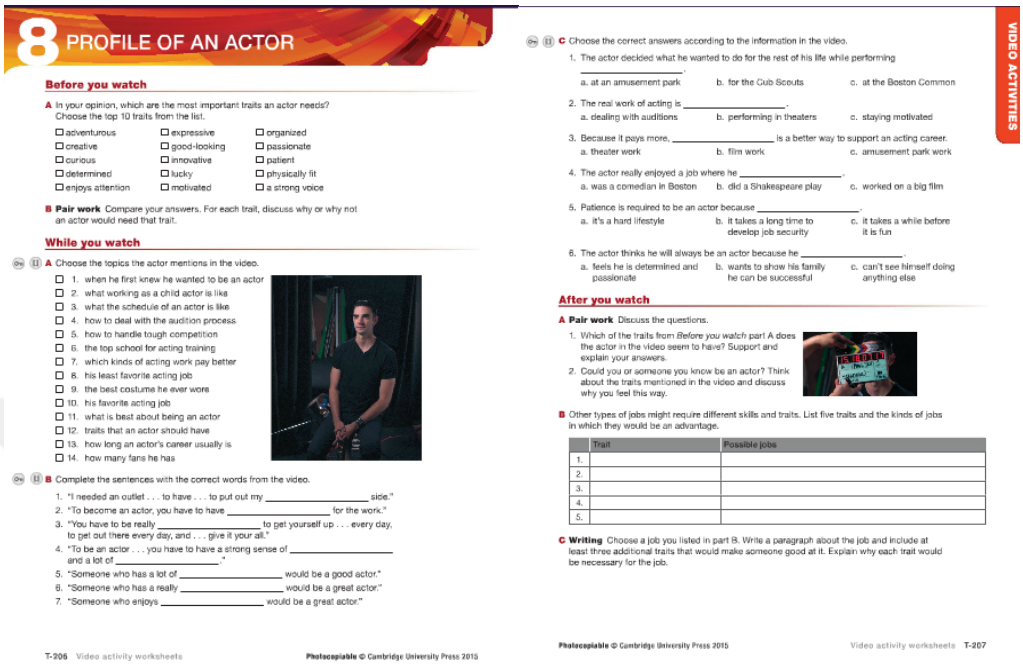
Regarding *Passages 1* (Richards & Sandy, 2014), which was used for the B2 level classrooms, although the layouts and the sequence of the activities were similar to those in the *Interchange* series, they embodied one profound difference. Each unit in the book was divided into two sections, hence presenting the language items in smaller chunks instead of one whole collection of skills and structures (Figure 10).

Figure 10. Passages 1 section division

In parts A and B of the unit, the sequence is similar to the *Interchange* books. The sections start with a starting point to promote engagement and curiosity about the topic. After these sections, vocabulary and grammar structures are presented in multiple activities. At the end of each part, skill activities such as writing, speaking, listening, and reading are given to put what has been learned into practice.

In addition to the main sections that facilitate structural and skill-related learning and practice, similar to the *Interchange* series, video activities that aim to encourage students to practice what they have learned from the related unit are presented in the book (Figure 11). These activities are distinctly classified into three categories as follows: *Before You Watch, While You Watch, and After You Watch* sections. In the pre-watch activities, related vocabulary is given in an opinion-based paired work practice where the learners can have prior readiness to the vocabulary they are about to encounter in the video. In the section *during the watching* activities, the students are required to fill out blanks, checkboxes, or choose a correct answer for video-related questions as the video progresses. Finally, in the post-video section, students are expected to have discussions about related issues with their

classmates and create different scenarios based on what they have learned so that they can build on their freshly gained skills.



8 PROFILE OF AN ACTOR

Before you watch

A In your opinion, which are the most important traits an actor needs? Choose the top 10 traits from the list.

☐ adventurous	☐ expressive	☐ organized
☐ creative	☐ good-looking	☐ passionate
☐ curious	☐ innovative	☐ patient
☐ determined	☐ lucky	☐ physically fit
☐ enjoys attention	☐ motivated	☐ a strong voice

B Pair work Compare your answers. For each trait, discuss why or why not an actor would need that trait.

While you watch

A Choose the topics the actor mentions in the video.

1. when he first knew he wanted to be an actor
2. what working as a child actor is like
3. what the schedule of an actor is like
4. how to deal with the audition process
5. how to handle tough competition
6. the top school for acting training
7. which kinds of acting work pay better
8. his least favorite acting job
9. the best costume he ever wore
10. his favorite acting job
11. what is best about being an actor
12. traits that an actor should have
13. how long an actor's career usually is
14. how many fans he has

B Complete the sentences with the correct words from the video.

1. "I needed an outlet . . . to have . . . to put out my _____ side."
2. "To become an actor, you have to have _____ for the work."
3. "You have to be really _____ to get yourself up . . . every day, to get out there every day, and . . . give it your all."
4. "To be an actor . . . you have to have a strong sense of _____ and a lot of _____."
5. "Someone who has a lot of _____ would be a good actor."
6. "Someone who has a really _____ would be a great actor."
7. "Someone who enjoys _____ would be a great actor."

T-206 Video activity worksheets Photocopiable © Cambridge University Press 2015

C Choose the correct answers according to the information in the video.

1. The actor decided what he wanted to do for the rest of his life while performing _____.
   a. at an amusement park b. for the Cub Scouts c. at the Boston Common
2. The real work of acting is _____.
   a. dealing with auditions b. performing in theaters c. staying motivated
3. Because it pays more, _____ is a better way to support an acting career.
   a. theater work b. film work c. amusement park work
4. The actor really enjoyed a job where he _____.
   a. was a comedian in Boston b. did a Shakespeare play c. worked on a big film
5. Patience is required to be an actor because _____.
   a. it's a hard lifestyle b. it takes a long time to develop job security c. it takes a while before it is fun
6. The actor thinks he will always be an actor because he _____.
   a. feels he is determined and passionate b. wants to show his family he can be successful c. can't see himself doing anything else

VIDEO ACTIVITIES

After you watch

A Pair work Discuss the questions.

1. Which of the traits from *Before you watch* part A does the actor in the video seem to have? Support and explain your answers.
2. Could you or someone you know be an actor? Think about the traits mentioned in the video and discuss why you feel this way.

B Other types of jobs might require different skills and traits. List five traits and the kinds of jobs in which they would be an advantage.

	Trait	Possible jobs
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		

C Writing Choose a job you listed in part B. Write a paragraph about the job and include at least three additional traits that would make someone good at it. Explain why each trait would be necessary for the job.

Photocopiable © Cambridge University Press 2015 Video activity worksheets T-207

Figure 11. Passages 1 video activities

3.3.3. Participants

The high schools, at which the research took place, involved 209 students in total in the 9th and 10th grade level-based English classrooms in total. In addition, 7 English teachers in total worked to keep the level-based English teaching system running in both high school types. Moreover, one administrative faculty member was consulted before, during, and after the procedures. Among the English teachers, one of them was male while the rest was female teachers. Besides teaching, the male teacher functioned as the head of the department, to whom I addressed my requirements and demands so that he would maintain the balance between school administration and the teacher/student groups who were involved in the research.

All teachers involved with the research had at least 5 years of teaching experience at the high school level. However, despite the numbers of students and teachers given as mentioned above, the number of participants showed changes in different stages of the research. That is why it is plausible to present the participants under the sections of

corresponding research phases. Considering that the research involved preliminary meetings (administration and teacher meetings), gamification training, a needs analysis, a pilot study, an implementation phase (pre-test, module practice, post-test), and focus group interviews (Figure 12), participants and their roles will be described under their distinct sections.

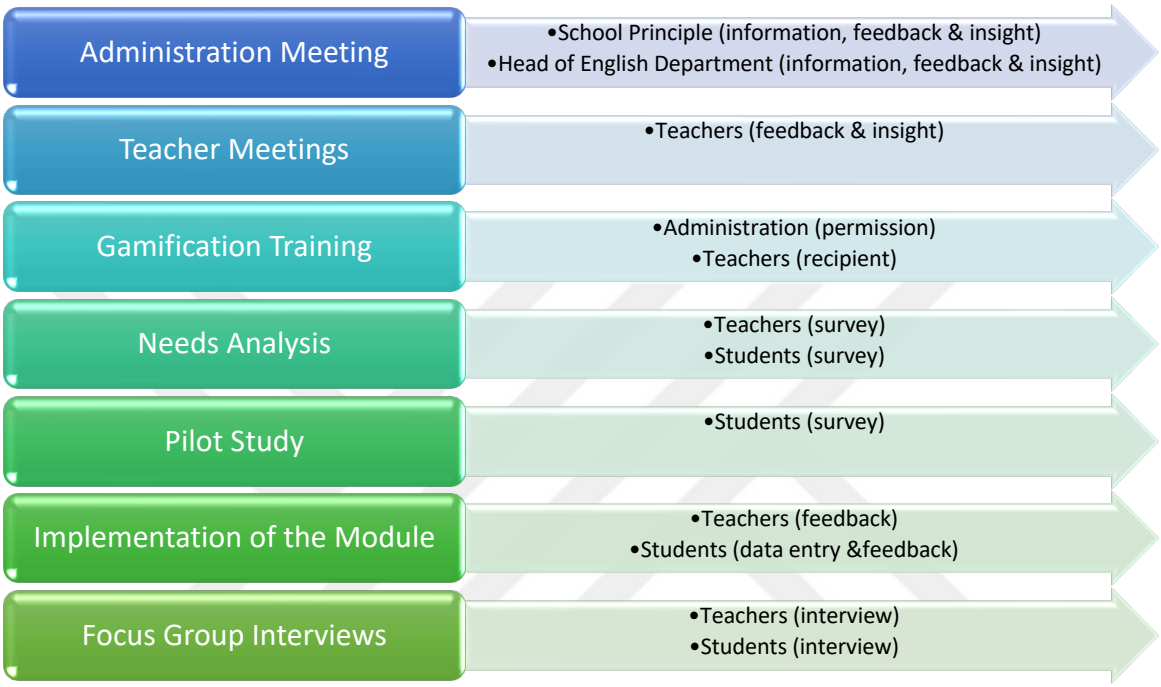


Figure 12. Participant types and research phases

Preliminary Meetings

In the phase of the preliminary meeting, I initially conversed with the school principal about my intentions regarding the research. The school principal, who was a male former physics teacher, only contributed to the research in terms of the feasibility of the research-related actions to be taken in the institution. I gave him briefs about my plans and he showed me ways to actualize them and provided me with ideas about what could or could not work within the ecosystem of the school. The head of the English department, who was a 31-year-old male English teacher, was the secondary administrative figure I consulted with. He provided me with information and insight about the dynamics of the department, and I learned about the timetables, lesson plans, syllabi, and teacher rotations from him.

My third and one of the most important sources for the research was, without a doubt, the teachers of the English department. I worked with 6 of English teachers, all of whom were females. The youngest of the teachers was 27 years old while the oldest was 37. All the teachers were graduates of the English Language Teaching departments of various Turkish universities except for one, who graduated from American Culture and Literature and completed the pedagogical formation certification program later on. The English teachers all gave English lessons to Science and Anatolian high school students. Teachers served as constant support and module development and implementation collaborators during the research process. Therefore, six of them participated in virtually all the research procedures excluding the pilot study, which only aimed to collect data from the students.

Students participating in the research constantly changed in number both due to the nature of the data collection procedures and their volunteering frequencies depending on the procedure. In normal circumstances, the number of students, who were in the 9th and 10th grades, was 209 in total, 97 of whom were females and 112 were males. In terms of Science and Anatolian high school types, students from both schools studied English in mixed level-based classrooms. In other words, following the placement of students based on their WEXT proficiency exam scores, they were placed in classrooms regardless of their high schools. However, due to the requirements of the research and the lack of research permission for minor individuals at that time of the study, no students were involved in the phase of the preliminary meeting.

Gamification Training

In the gamification training phase, the primary steps were to reserve a venue for the seminar and to set a date and time. Before talking with the teachers, I needed to learn about the possibility of such training, thus, I collaborated with the school principal and the head of the department. Following the permission of the administrative stakeholders, with whom I had previously exchanged ideas in the preliminary meetings, I involved the same six English teachers in the training process.

Needs Analysis

For the Needs Analysis, which I administered to gather information about the institution's language teaching situations and the needs of the stakeholders, I asked for the participation of both the teachers and the students. In terms of the teachers, I collaborated with the same group of six female teachers.

Regarding the student dimension of the Needs Analysis, 99 students in total volunteered to contribute to the study and submitted their responses even though we tried to encourage the maximum number for participation. Out of 99 students, 57 of them were female students whereas the remaining 42 were males. In terms of grade levels, there were 54 9^{th} grade and 45 10^{th} grade students.

Pilot Study

In the piloting phase, a random selection of students with the help of their teachers was made so that students with all awareness and competence levels can contribute to the improvement of the scales' reliability and validity. Therefore, as guided by their teachers, 30 students were randomly picked for the piloting of the surveys and scales.

The number of students that participated in the pilot study was 30 in total. Genders were equally balanced as 15 females and 15 males. Twenty-four of the students were in 9^{th} grade while the remaining six were from the 10^{th} grade.

Implementation of the Module

Following the phases preceding the implementation of the module, classrooms and designs were finalized to be employed in the school language teaching setting. Before commencing the English class activities in the blended-gamified module, students were asked to contribute to a pre-test regarding their autonomy and L2 motivations, and motivational selves. In the pre-test phase of the implementation stage, 76 students volunteered and submitted their responses to the surveys. 32 of the responders were male

students while 44 of them were females. In addition, 55 of the students were from the 9th grade and the remaining twenty-one were 10th-grade students.

During the implementation of the modules, 141 students were actively involved in the activities in the module, completing the quizzes, writing discussion topics, etc. 76 of the participating students were females while the remaining 65 were males. In the gamified-blended module, there were eleven virtual classrooms whose levels ranged from A1 to B2 (Table 1). Even though the active participation rate in the module was quite high, it can be seen that these numbers did not reflect in the participator numbers in pre-test and post-test. The number of students who submitted their responses through these surveys significantly dropped.

Table 1

Distribution of Students by Level-Based Classrooms

Level	**Grade**	**Number of Students**		
		Male	**Female**	**Total**
A1	9	7	8	15
A1	9	9	8	17
A1	10	4	2	6
A2	9	4	6	10
A2	10	5	4	9
A2	10	4	4	8
B1	9	8	9	17
B2	9	9	12	21
B2	9	5	6	11
B2	10	6	7	13
B2	10	4	10	14
Total Number		65	76	141

Considering the post-test, the number of students who completed the surveys and responded to the questions was 92 in total, which were divided into 49 females and 43 males. The number of post-test participants was higher than the number of the students who participated in the pre-test.

However, due to the difference in names participating as the responders in both tests, to ensure the reliability and validity of the results, the tests were scanned and the students who participated in both tests were reserved, omitting the others from the analysis. As a result, 72 students remained in the study for measurements and analyses. 43 of the students were females whereas the remaining 29 of them were male participants. Additionally, there were only twenty-one 10th graders as opposed to fifty-one 9th grade students.

Focus Group Interviews

As the final step of the research, individuals from both teacher and student groups were selected to ask questions about the striking results of the study procedures. From the teacher group, 5 of the teachers were administered an interview asking about the results of the surveys. Similarly, the same questions were asked to 6 students who were selected with the help of their teachers to interpret certain outcomes and findings of the research. Out of these six students, four of them were females while the rest were males.

3.4. Data Collection

Data collection tools for the research can be divided into six categories based on their functions: teacher meeting recordings, needs analysis questionnaire, pre-test, and post-test questionnaires, scales, and skill data (proficiency test and writing assignments), student and teacher module logs and entries, focus group interviews, and the researcher's notes.

In terms of teacher meeting records, the video recordings of the multiple meetings and the gamification training held with the teachers were taken to be transcribed and coded for further analysis. Each of these meetings, taking about an hour to conclude, typically started with my questions, and continued with the contributions and feedback of the teachers regarding the issue of the meeting. In total, eight meetings with the teachers were recorded due to their significance to the research. The first four meetings recorded were in the instructional design phase of the research while the other four were taken during the implementation of the blended-gamified module.

In the meantime, necessary permissions to initiate the study were obtained from the institution where I was affiliated with as the Ph. D. student and the Regional Directorate for the Ministry of National Education. The permits included one Ethics Committee Report (Appendix 1) and a permission document from the directorate (Appendix 2). To obtain permission, the directorate requested the scales and interview forms planned to be used, and parental consent forms (Appendix 3) to be distributed to legal guardians of students.

In addition to four teacher meeting recordings, the instructional design phase of the research was nurtured by and based on Needs Analysis questionnaires comprising eight sections prepared by the researcher for students (Appendix 4) and teachers (Appendix 5). The first two sections of the survey included the instructions and consent page and a section collecting the demographic information of the participants and views on their technological competence regarding general technology and educational technologies, respectively. The following section aimed to collect information about the importance given to language skills such as reading, writing, listening, speaking, translation, grammar, and vocabulary. The next four sections about specific language skills included questions about the importance given by the participants to the sub-skills under each major language skill. These specific skills were as follows: reading skill, writing skill, listening skill, and speaking skill. In the last section of the questionnaire, participants were asked to answer four semi-structured open-ended questions. The questions were about the sufficiency of the school in providing for the language skills, additional methods, and techniques on top of the existing ones, opinions about the materials used, and the importance given to the major language skills by the teachers.

For understanding the opinions of the students regarding their autonomy levels in EFL learning, the Learning Autonomy Scale (LAS) developed by (Orakci & Gelisli, 2017) was used in its original language and form (Appendix 6). The scale originally consisted of 14 items concerning the learner autonomy issue and was developed in the Turkish language, which was the mother tongue of the participants. After the reliability analysis, the item number on the scale was reduced to 13. The details of item reduction and statistical procedures were introduced in the data analysis section.

To measure the motivational opinions of the students regarding the module, the combination of the Language Learning Motivation Scale (LLMS) by (Ely, 1986) (Appendix 7) and the L2 Possible Selves Scale (LPSS) developed by (Macintyre et al., 2009) (Appendix 8) were used. The LLMS involving 16 items was reduced to 15 items and used this way after the piloting. The LPSS consisting of 18 items and three sections corresponding to each item was used without any alteration. The LLMS and the LPSS were translated into the Turkish language by the researcher and two scholars in the field through translation and back-translation techniques in two panels. After the consensus was reached over the translated versions of the items, the scales were administered to the students.

As for the skill tests, the preexisting WEXT proficiency tests that were organically administered during the academic year were very useful to get uninterrupted and untainted data regarding students' reading, vocabulary, and grammar skills. The proficiency scores were collected from the tests taken before the implementation of the module and after the module experience.

The writing skills of the participants were measured as a separate attempt because their proficiency tests did not include a written section due to being an online test. Therefore, participants who attended the modules regularly and completed their final assignments were identified individually using the learner analytics feature of the Canvas LMS. 47 students in total were detected to be consistent in their logged-in durations and they submitted their final assignments. To score the written assignments and collect writing skills data, a standard paragraph development rubric was used (Appendix 9). According to the rubric, students were required to write a solid topic sentence (20 pts.), be careful about grammar rules and tenses (20 pts.), observe the mechanics such as capital letters, spelling, and punctuation (20 pts.), develop coherent sentences that are connected to each other (20 pts.), and use a wide range of vocabulary as expected from their levels (20 pts.). Students' writing skills were measured by making a comparison between their written competence before the modules and at the end of the module. Their pre-test written competence data were measured based on their written assignments they completed based on similar criteria (Appendix 11). Their post-test writing data were collected through scoring their module writing assignments.

The student and teacher logs (online discussions, interactions, log-in durations, assignment submissions, etc.) on the Canvas LMS were examined and the online interaction between student-student, student-teacher, and student-machine was investigated based on the data provided by the Learner Analytics feature of the LMS. These interactional patterns and logs were valuable to read into the online classroom interaction dynamics.

Another aspect of the data collection was the focus group interviews administered to students and teachers. They were asked to evaluate the module experience and system dynamics, interpret the pre-test and post-test results of the autonomy, motivation, and L2 possible selves scales in terms of the meanings of certain findings. Lastly, the last section asked the participants to comment on the needs analysis results related to the language skills and technical competence in reference to the gender differences (Appendix 10).

As the final data collection tool, I decided to use my reflections and notes as a researcher throughout the study as I realized that my experiences could be a valuable source for both this study and the further research that might follow this. In that, the difficulties in design and implementation, preparation stages, permission procedures, personal dynamics, and feelings involved in each phase could very well account for great potential hypotheses and research problems for future studies. In addition, these reflections could provide first-hand insights about the unpredicted elements of the research and the procedures that changed direction due to obstacles. These reflections will be addressed as a separate section under the title of findings in a personal and subjective language for the appreciation of the researchers who would pursue similar research objectives.

3.5. Procedures

The research followed two main procedural stages to collect data from the participants of the study: *an instructional design* phase and *the implementation* phase. The first stage of the research started with the intention to develop a well-rounded and well-adjusted gamified-blended module with the collaboration of the participating teachers to implement in their level-based English lessons. To achieve this, I reviewed instructional design models and methodologies to find the most suitable model to fit into the needs and wants of the administration, faculty members, participant teachers, and, finally and most

importantly, the students. Following the determination of what models suited the purposes of the study the best, I collaborated with the teachers, and we worked together to devise each step of the chosen model to build the whole module.

As for the second main step of the research, subsequently, the model was finalized with the teachers and implemented in the classrooms. In the implementation phase, students were administered a series of questionnaires, and their opinions about certain points were collected through open-ended questions and interviews before and after the treatment. In addition, both students and teachers contributed with their natural entries and interactions in the flow of the lessons taking place in the classroom and the module.

To specify these steps of the procedure, a detailed account of what transpired in the development and implementation phases of the research must be provided. That is why the two main phases of the study will be classified under two headings and these phases will be explained and reported with more depth to the matters at hand. Under each title, sub-procedures will be presented in their titles to report the actions taken to further the research for the sake of meticulousness. To aid the readers visually, Table 2 presents the distribution of the procedural actions taken to plan and instigate the research.

Table 2

Procedural Phases of the Research

Phases	Steps	Target Group	Actions
Instructional Design	Literature review	N/A	Review, researcher notes
	Meetings #1	Administration, faculty, teachers	Recordings, researcher notes
	Meeting #2	Teachers	Recordings, researcher notes
	Gamification training	Teachers	N/A

Table 2 (continued).

	Meeting #3	Teachers	Recordings, researcher notes
	Needs analysis	Administrator, faculty, teachers, students	Questionnaire, interviews, open-ended questions, researcher notes
	Meeting #4	Teachers, students	Recordings, researcher notes
	Piloting	Students	Researcher notes
	Meeting #5 (redesign)	Teachers	Recordings, researcher notes
	Pre-test	Students	Questionnaires, scales, open-ended questions
	Meeting #6	Teachers	Recordings, researcher notes
Implementation	Module implementation	Students, teachers	Teacher feedback, researcher notes, student logs, and entries
	Meeting #7	Teachers	Recordings, researcher notes
	Meeting #8	Teachers	Recordings, researcher notes
	Post-test	students	Questionnaires, scales, open-ended questions
	Focus group	Students, teachers	Interviews, open-ended questions

3.5.1. The Instructional Design Procedure

The instructional design process of the research was based on the conceptual framework of ADDIE, which is commonly regarded as a collection of fundamental core concepts for the instructional design, rather than a model in itself (Reigeluth et al., 2017). Simply put, the *Analysis*, *Development*, *Design*, *Implementation,* and *Evaluation* steps of the ADDIE framework are mere referential points on which new models of instructional design can be developed or adapted. The sequential and conceptual order and the cycle of

the steps can be fitted following the elements such as objectives, context, learning setting, delivery of the content, etc. (Branch & Kopcha, 2014).

ID Model Development

Concerning the vital ID elements to develop a model as discussed above, this research adopted a mixture of classroom- and product-oriented approaches. In terms of classroom orientation, the design was not aimed to extend over the boundaries of one lesson for some time; on the other hand, in the sense of product orientation, the design needed to be in such a condition that it could be used by other teachers in different settings with minor alterations (Gustafson & Branch, 2002). In other words, the research aimed to develop an applicable and adaptable ID model for multiple uses in different contexts and purposes in blended and gamified learning environments with minimal alterations.

Regarding the structural aspects and the procedural networks of the developed ID model in the research, a concurrent, cyclical, and iterative nature was highlighted as a result of the meetings held with the administration and the teachers. A visualization of the employed model as shown in Figure 13 will help summarize the procedural steps taken in the ID model development for this study prior to the detailed rationalization to be provided for each step.

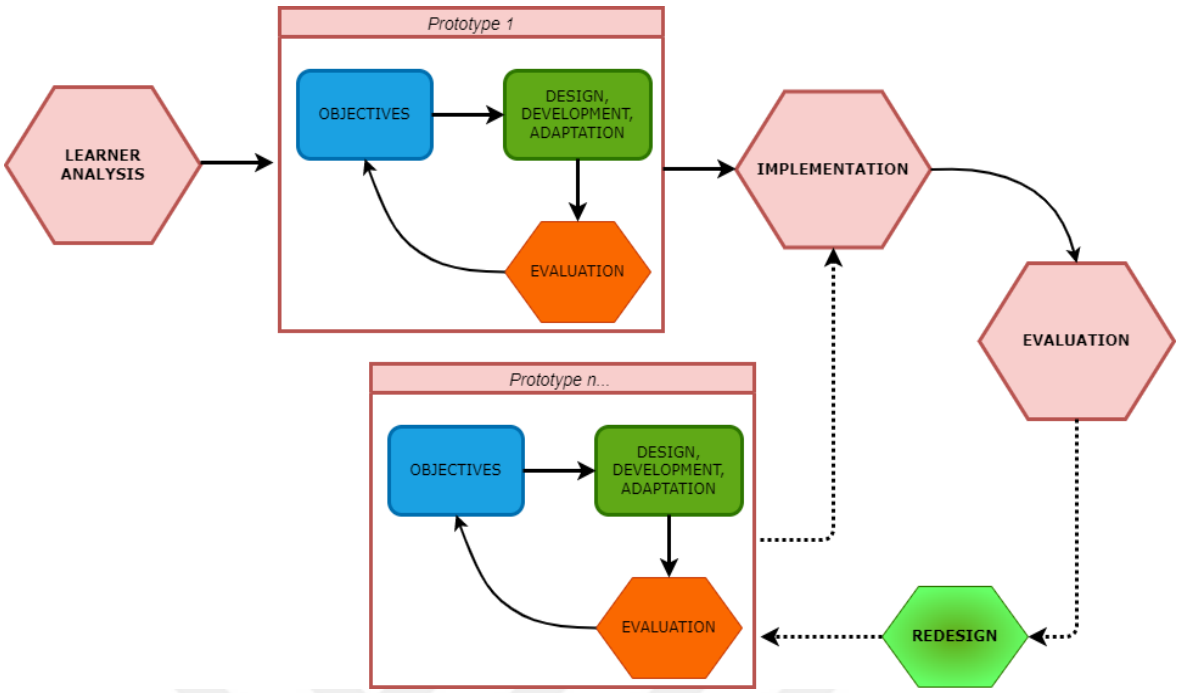


Figure 13. Instructional design model developed by the researcher

The model used in the research for the implementation of the gamified-blended instruction of the lesson was surrounded by the notion that each weekly module should progress as prototypes designed for the corresponding week based on the content requirements of the lessons. Due to time constraints and the dynamicism of the learning activities in the school, we decided that the process would get closer to the ideal through weekly formative evaluation cycles and collective decision-making. Each week, both before and after the blended-gamified modules, teachers and I (the researcher) held online conferences to discuss the possible weaknesses and shortcomings of the designed module so that I could make reparations for the next week, adding new materials, tinkering with the interface, designing new gameful experiences, and make necessary system-related adjustments.

In a brief explanation of Figure 13, the initial and most comprehensive step of the ID model development was the Needs Analysis where both teachers and students were asked questions about general technology, educational technology, the importance given to language skills, their language skill competence, and English language education system of the school. Second, the objectives of the modules in terms of student learning outcomes, target needs of the school, and teacher expectations were identified aligned with the course

books. Third, the content of the modules, materials, and media to be integrated, and the instructional elements were designed, developed, or adapted depending on the function with the consideration of the objectives. Fourth, teachers and I came together to run the modules for possible pitfalls and problems as a formative evaluation so that we can modify them before the modules were unlocked for student use. Fifth, the finalized products, as I referred to as prototypes, were used by the students during the week. Sixth, at the end of the week, following the consumption of the modules, teachers were asked for the responses of the students, their interactions, their willingness to complete the modules, and teachers' feedback about what could be improved. Last, depending on the evaluation and feedback on the prototypes, certain steps were taken to develop another prototype for the next week with identical steps. If there was no need to change the mechanics, the prototype structure as in the use of materials, content, etc. remained the same; thus, I continued to work with the familiar patterns.

Setting Up the Canvas LMS

Following the meetings and heavy discussion sessions with the administrative staff and the English teachers, the next apparent step was to decide upon the most appropriate and cost-effective LMS for the implementation of the blended-gamified module. Teachers were asked for their opinions in the decision process, and they went through the searching phase with me. After reviewing and considering various LMS opportunities such as Blackboard, Edmodo, Chameleon, and similar platforms, Canvas Free for Teachers version was selected as the most suitable LMS platform for our purposes. Since the money and code writing incapability proved problematic and time-consuming, the built-in and free service provided by Canvas Free for Teachers LMS looked promising and functional. I took the responsibility of designing and preparing the gamified module for each classroom on Canvas LMS.

As indicated in Table 2, Needs Analysis conducted with teachers and students, and the meetings with the administration and teachers helped me to understand what to expect in terms of student participation, what types of activities would be designed in alignment with the course books. For the preparation of the modules for each level-based classroom, teachers provided me with the number of students in each level and grade, their capability

of dealing with the activities, their possible responses to certain game elements, and their readiness for such a module. As a result, I learned that I was to set up three A1-level, three A2-level, one B1-level, and four B2-level classrooms, which would mean that I needed to design four separate modules for the level groups (Figure 14).

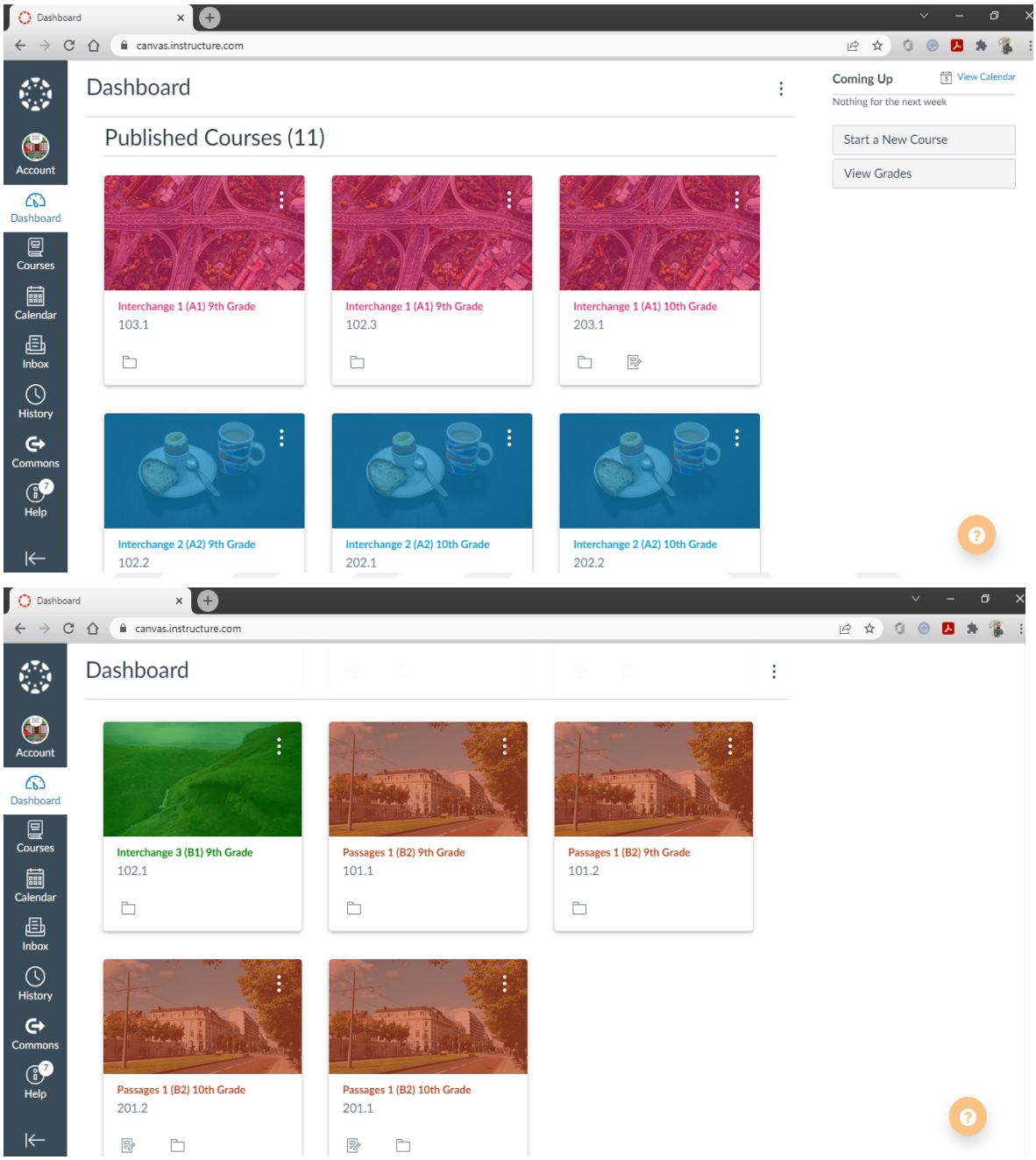


Figure 14. Distribution of levels and grades in the LMS

In the A1 group, there would be three classrooms consisting of two 9th grades and one 10th grade. The A2-level group similarly included three classrooms; however, in this

case, there were two 10th grade classrooms and one 9th grade. The level of B2 involved only one 9th grade classroom. Lastly, for the B2 classroom level, there were four groups, two of the classrooms were 9th-grade students while the other two were the 10th grades.

Canvas LMS Design for the Groups

Considering that I needed to design four level-based modules for eleven student groups as mentioned in the previous sections, I turned to the meeting recordings and notes I collected with the contributions of the teachers and the administration. Evidently, it proved to be an arduous process since the module designs required me to review what teachers provided, course books, and the Needs Analysis data to set up the most appropriate module for each group of students, with the consideration of the instructional design model I developed, additionally.

The initial step for the modules was to design a prize store (Figure 15) where students could purchase various prizes based on their performance scores after the completion of certain tasks and acquisition of the end-of-module badges. The prize store was designed the same way for each student group, in a visually attractive manner. Even though the modules designed for each CEFR level contained different activities and content, the store page and the prizes were planned to be the same since the scoring and points to be received by students were structured with the same progress trees. In other words, the scores the students could earn in each module were equal; that is, students completing the modules at the same pace would be awarded the same scores, no matter their levels or classrooms.

Figure 15. Prize store for the modules

Each module developed for each student group was designed to last seven weeks according to the plans made with administrators and teachers. One of the planned weeks was supposed to be a free-activity week since the students would take a progress quiz scheduled by the school, which meant that no coursebook activity would be done. That is why, due to the blended nature of the modules, teachers and I agreed that the quiz week during which no coursebook activities would be pursued must include a module where students could blow off some steam. Therefore, the quiz week module would not award scores for the completion of the tasks. This left me with six gradable weeks for modules (Figure 16), and eight points maximum for students to obtain providing that they completed all the modules without any flaw. Accordingly, the prize store was designed with the recognition of this maximum point limit, and the prizes with the highest points were worth 80 points as can be seen in Figure 15.

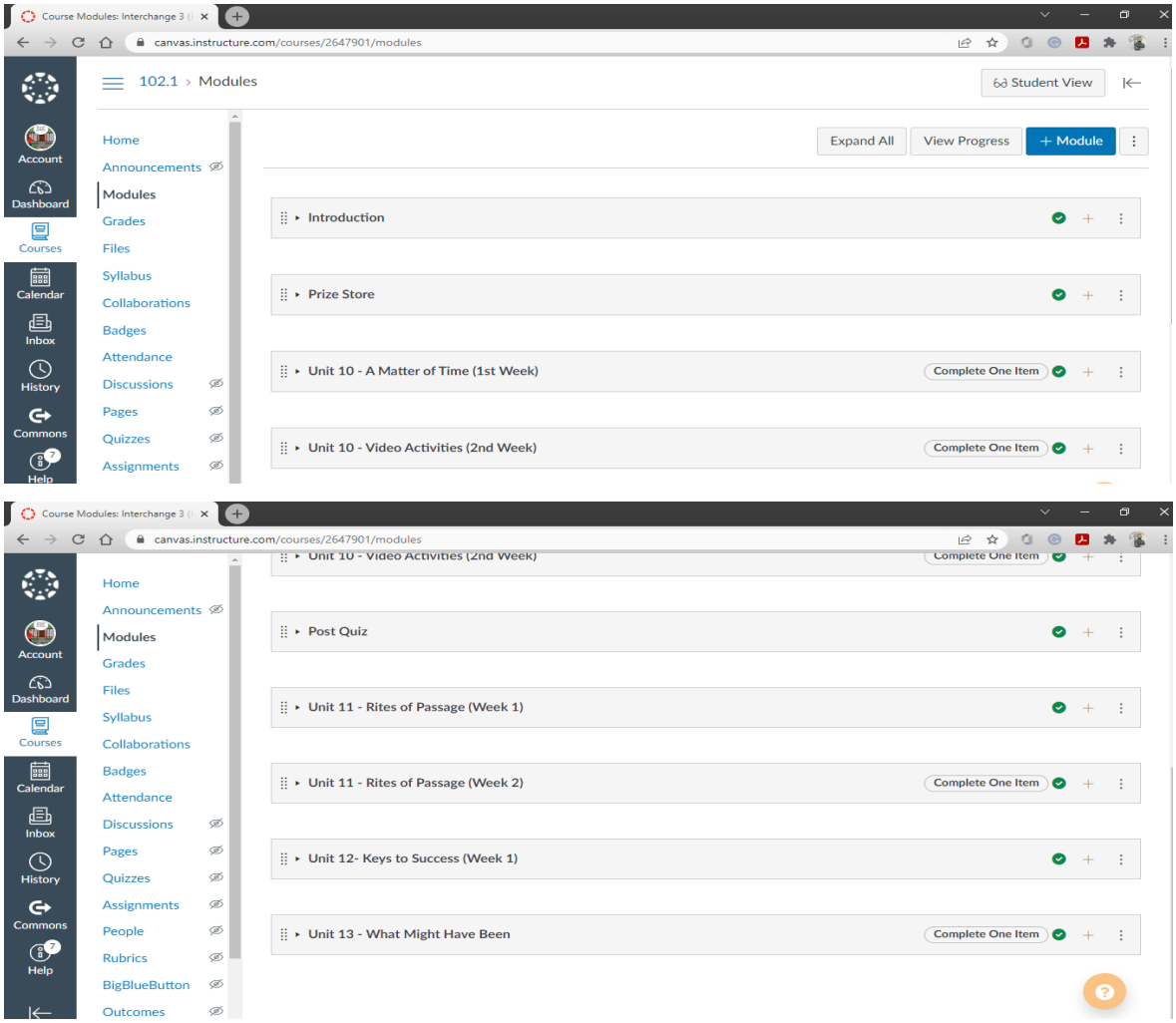


Figure 16. Sample weekly distribution of modules

In the design, the first two modules and the final assignments involved yielded 10 points each due to the intention of warming up students and avoiding discouraging students who failed to complete the first tasks since the loss of larger quantities of points would mean that they would fall back in the leaderboard and have difficulty catching up with the high-achieving peers. Additionally, the first weeks required more attention to the students' full integration to the LMS because it was a new interface that needed familiarity. Although students were given training about the LMS by their teacher in one lesson period during the week previous to the implementation of the modules, the real experience was expected to be more difficult than the theoretical instructions.

In the sense of weekly activities, each module typically started with an introductory and revisionary page (Figure 17), reviewing the coursebook activities completed on the F2F sessions.

Figure 17. Sample weekly module scheme

Then, it was followed by a grammar revision covering the topics, structures, and vocabulary they studied with their teachers in the F2F main course lessons (Figure 18 and 19).

Figure 18. Sample revision page

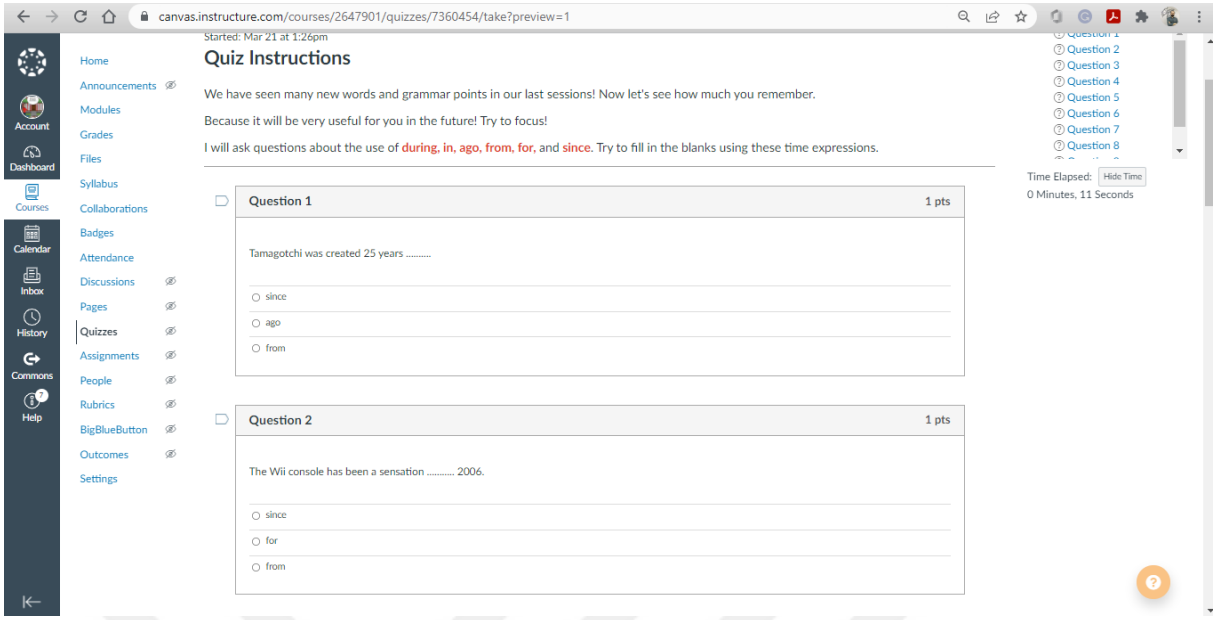


Figure 19. Sample revision quiz

Next, online discussion activities based on a topic or passages (Figure 20) where students could interact with one another and with their teachers, a reading activity, and reading comprehension questions related to the reading activity to practice their reading skills (Figure 21) were used.

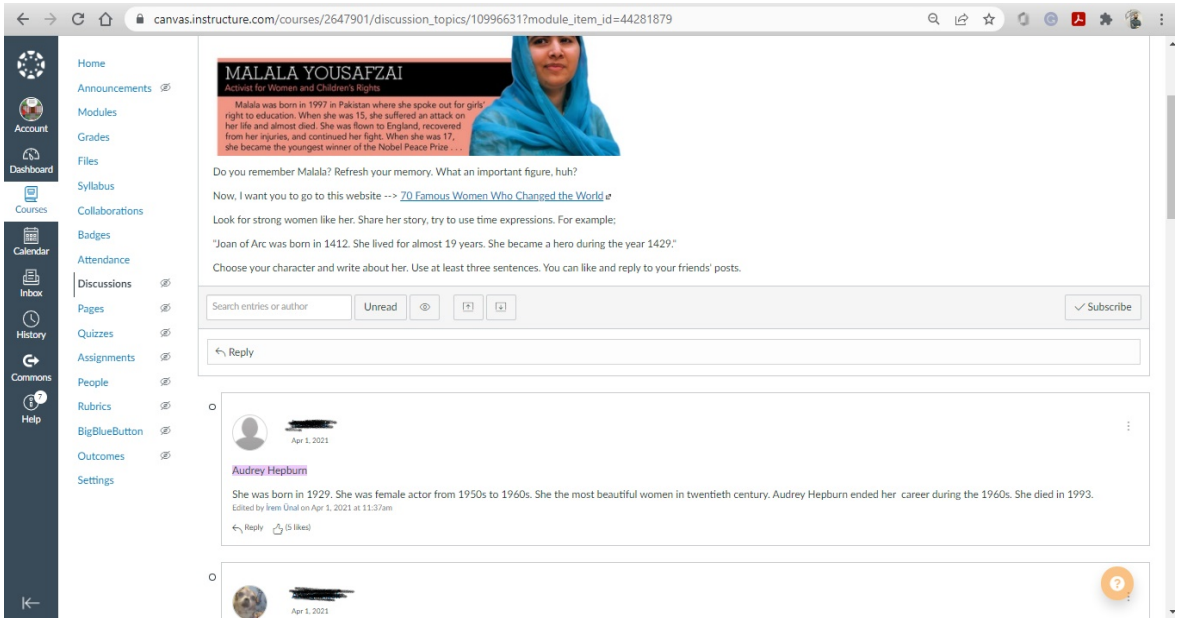


Figure 20. Sample online discussion activity

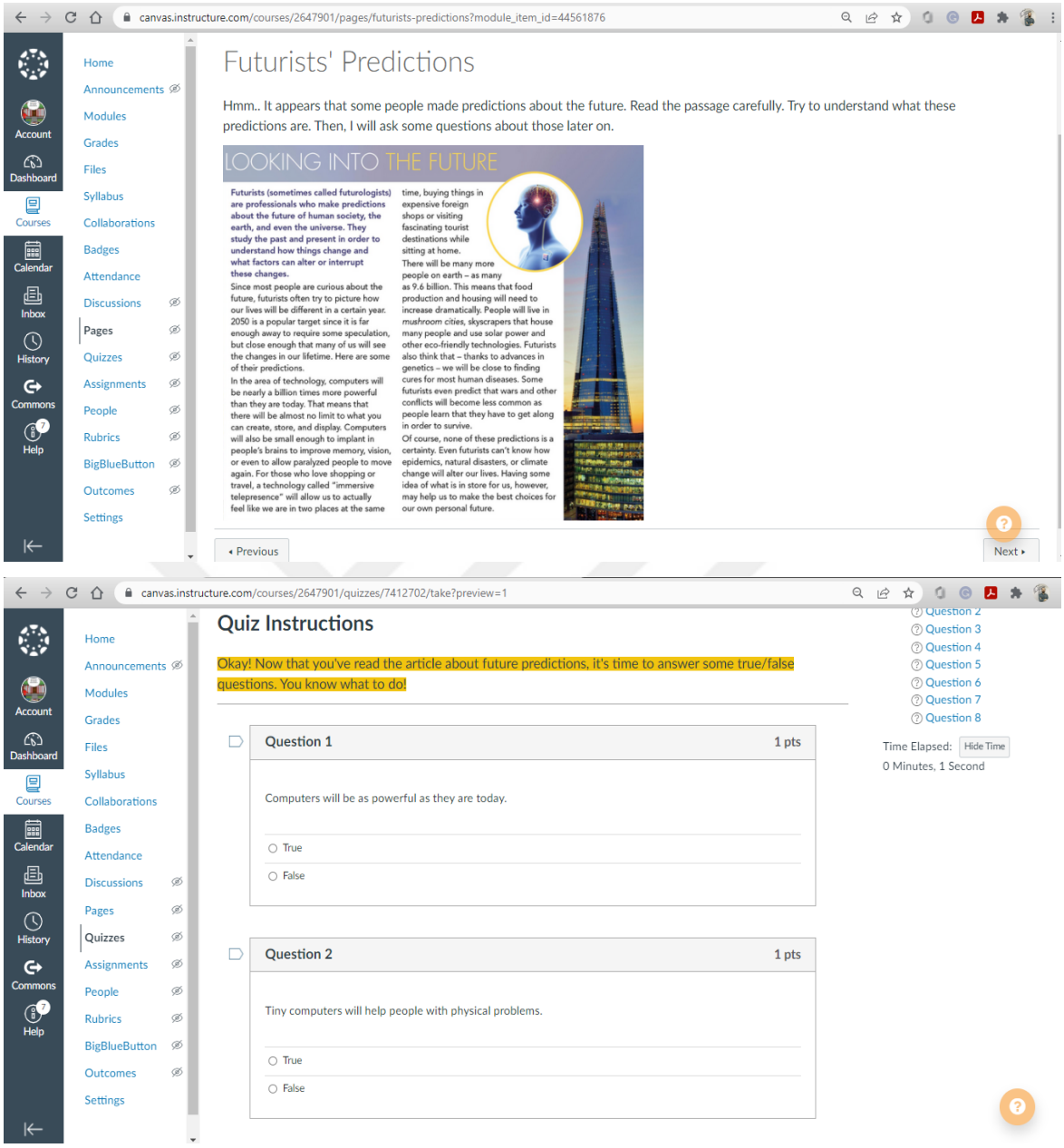


Figure 21. Sample reading activity and reading comprehension quiz

As for the final activity, a written assignment was given to the students to promote elements such as creativity, role-play, research skills, use of writing mechanics, etc. (Figure 22). The final assignment promised scores ranging from 10 to 20 depending on the weekly module. In the case of the module shown in Figure 22, it was 10 points in total.

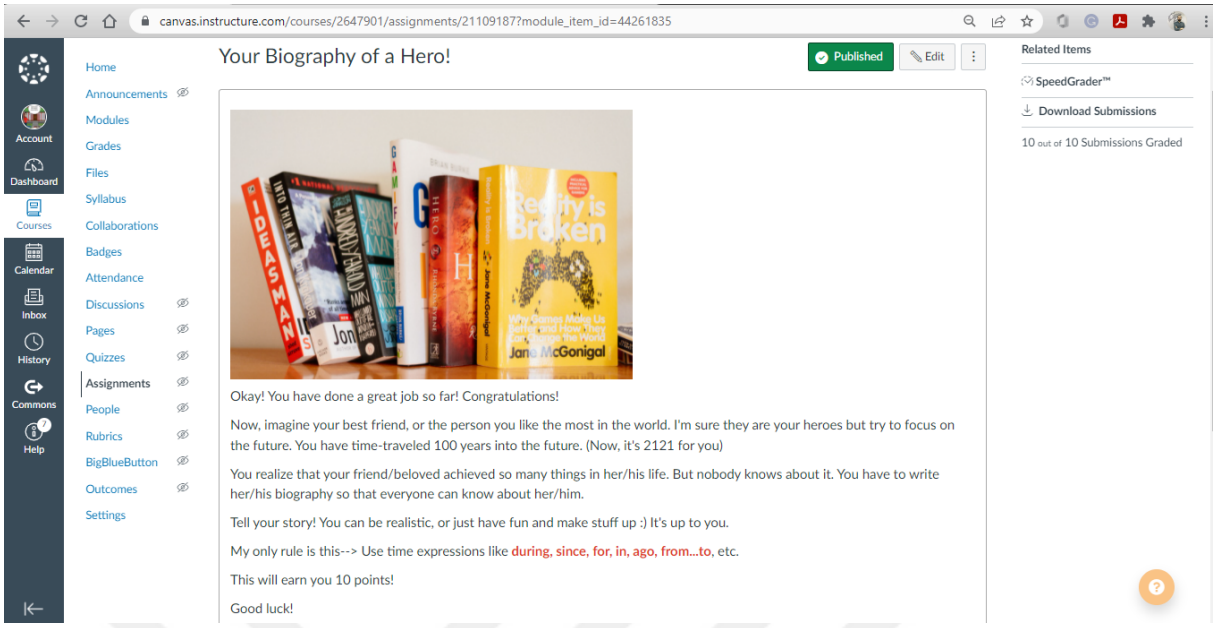


Figure 22. Sample final assignment

In the collection, completion of all the assignments in the modules designed for the level-groups added up to 80 points in total. In addition, after completing each unit of their course books in the modules, students were awarded badges of specific themes to honor their progress. These badges were used to keep their scores in a leaderboard to allow for a progress check. To manage the badges and the leaderboards pertaining to them, the Badgr Digital Badging System (https://info.badgr.com/) extension as the courtesy of Canvas LMS was installed to all modules in the system (Figure 23).

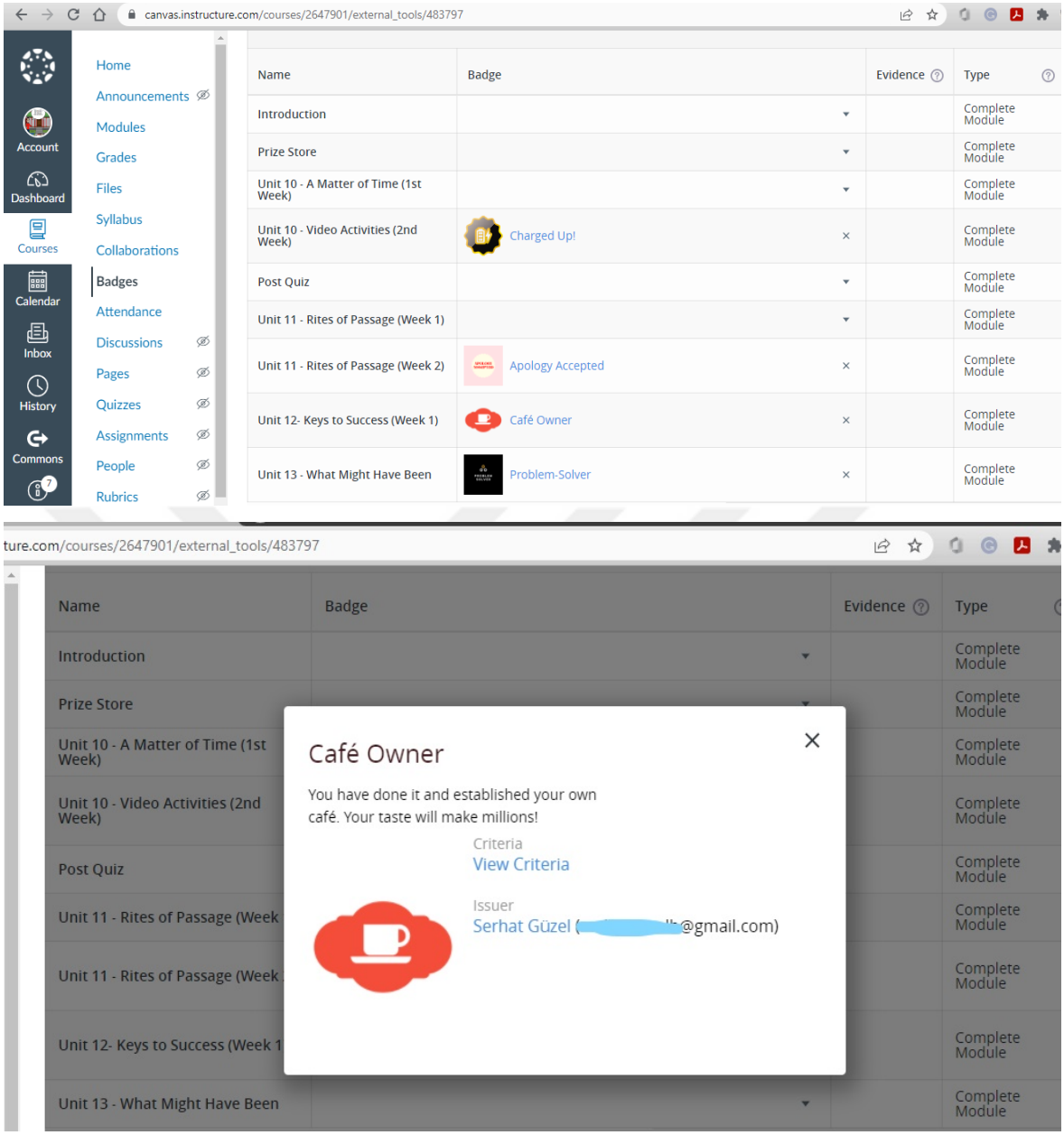


Figure 23. Sample badges and badge descriptions

For each level, virtually all badges were named distinctly due to the different content and theme of their lessons based on the course books. The badges designed for each unit are aimed at motivation and amusement, creating a virtual persona for the students.

3.5.2. Implementation Phase

The implementation phase of the data collection procedure involved the stages that took place following the maturation of the ID model with the collaboration and input of the

administration, teachers, and students through the labor of the aforementioned stages of the ID model development. These stages are the piloting, pre-test, gamified-blended module experience, post-test, and focus group study. Each step functioned to complement the holistic nature of data collection, serving as interpretation devices to make meaning out of the input provided by the abovementioned stakeholders.

Pilot Study

The pilot study of the research involved 30 students who could provide me with valuable feedback with their inquisitive minds and high-level interpretive skills according to their teachers. The devised questionnaires and scales were administered to those students with the help and direction of their teachers before the actual data collection phase. To their teachers, these students would be able to inform me about whether the questions addressing the intended issues were comprehensible, clear, and to-the-point since they were quite intellectual, and their awareness levels were above average.

Following the designation of the targeted students for the piloting, I asked the teachers to inform these students about certain sensitive issues, the most crucial of which was the necessity to keep the content of the questions a secret from the other students. The remaining sensitive issues were sincerity while answering the questions, their labored attention, and the feeling of freedom to ask anything if an issue was to arise.

Making sure the preparations were set, I sent the pilot test via a link to an online surveying platform through their teachers. The teachers discussed the response time with the students, and they agreed upon the optimum period in which everyone would be comfortable to complete the task. 15 students assigned to the piloting were given 24 hours to respond to and evaluate the questions. They completed the tests and returned their online responses without giving any negative feedback, which I ultimately interpreted as acceptable scales and questions. Pilot study participants reported nothing about any incomprehensible item or any problematic area. Therefore, the teachers and I concurred that the scales and questionnaires were ready to be analyzed for reliability and validity before the administration of the pre-test.

Pre-Test Phase

The pre-test stage of the research aimed for the participation of all the volunteering students who were willing to take part in the gamified-blended module. As mentioned in the participants section, 76 students in total participated in the pre-test stage of the research. Before the administration of the test, teachers of each level-based classroom informed their students about the change in the instructional method for the following weeks. First, they introduced the planned gamified module to be used as the online dimension of their lessons and stated that their lessons would be transformed into a blended and gamified concept. In this concept, students would complete discussions and main course-related items within the boundaries of their F2F classroom time while leaving the main skills of reading, writing, and grammar revisions to the gamified module. Second, they were informed about the mechanics of the LMS and how to navigate through the modules by the teachers. They were asked to sign up to the Canvas LMS and enroll in their online classrooms.

Canvas LMS Activities

As a result of the consensus reached with the administrative figures and the teachers, we concluded that the module activities could last for seven weeks of active lessons based on the schedule of the school, excluding the introductory week in which students were given detailed information about the LMS and the lesson structures. Following the introductory week, students were integrated into the LMS in their normal classrooms with the help of their teachers to commence their blended-gamified lessons. To be more concrete in addressing the actions taken for the weekly activities in line with the research objectives, each week should be described and accounted for under their specific sections.

Training Week

The first week after the conclusion of meetings, ID model development, module designs, and piloting was reserved for the preparation stage where students would be trained in how to use the LMS and navigate through modules and extensions. The first thing the teachers did in their lessons was to announce that they would transform their lessons into something new and more enjoyable and that they would take charge of their own learning

process to some extent with the use of gamification and blended learning techniques. To clarify the process, students were informed about what gamification and blended learning were and how they would be beneficial for them. Having received their own training about the matters, teachers encouraged their students to ask questions about unclear points in the process.

Making sure that the students were satisfied with the explanations and answers pertaining to the gamified and blended process, the teachers raised other pressing issues: signing up to the Canvas LMS and prize store suggestions. Regarding the sign-up, teachers shared the access codes of the online classrooms with the students, and they asked them to complete the sign-up during the class time. They helped the students who had technical issues completing the signing up. After the sign-up, students were shown how to set-up their accounts quickly and how to navigate through the LMS. Teachers explained each section on the system, putting more emphasis on the assignment submission and reading teacher feedback.

As for the last stage, to promote learner ownership, the prize store was shown to the students and their opinions of the store were asked. According to the teachers, students were very excited to use such a feature, and they compared the whole process to mobile games they played. In addition to our suggestions for the prize store, students were asked to submit their opinions for the possible prizes so that we could consider using them. They were given one day to think about additional rewards to be purchased by their points. Among many suggestions made by the students, the ones taken into consideration were as follows: using Kahoot in lessons, using virtual backgrounds in Zoom lessons, using name tags, certification, being the moderator, extra grades, feeding stray animals, planting trees, making up for incomplete assignments, experience points, choosing the homework, and making the teacher sing a song during lesson. As can be referenced from Figure 15 that shows the finalized prize store, several student suggestions were accepted to be included to increase their involvement in the process, which could increase their motivation to participate in the modules actively.

Week 1

As mentioned in the previous sections, Canvas modules were designed separately for proficiency levels based on the coursebooks used. In this direction, four level classrooms for A1, A2, B1, and B2 levels were set up in the LMS, harboring distinct flows and requirements in each module. For the A1 level courses, the first week module, which followed the footprints of Interchange 1 (Richards, 2017a) Unit 10 titled "Have You Ever Been There?", started with a revision and a quiz of the main course aiming at the remembering the present perfect tenses. Following the revision and the quiz, students were asked to participate in a different and colorful activity of creating digital stories through cartoons. This digital storytelling involved the students to go to the website storyboardthat.com, which is a free-to-some-extent digital story creating website and create their stories using the present perfect tenses based on the example in the module (Figure 24).

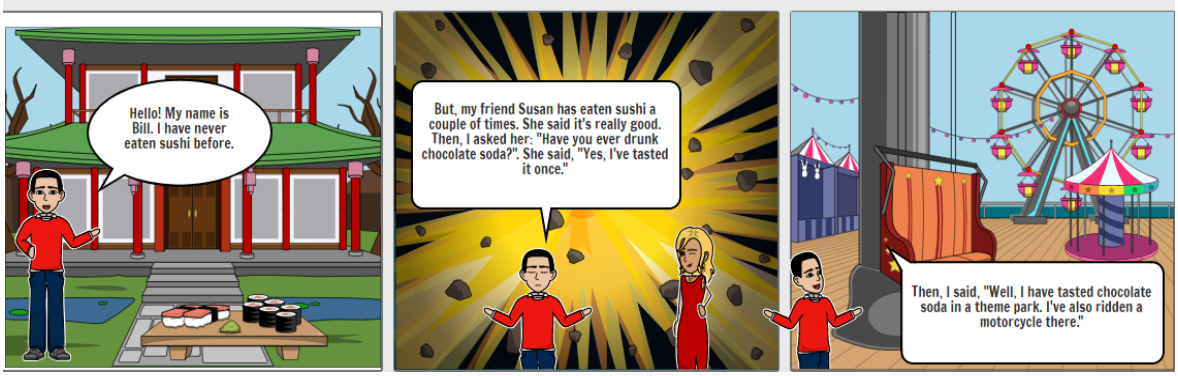


Figure 24. Sample digital story for the students

The students were instructed about how to create digital stories and about the basics of the cartoon elements on the website. Then, they were asked to publish their work (Figure 25) on a discussion portal created within the module for the appreciation of their classmates and teacher. They were encouraged to post comments on their friends' posts or simply like them by clicking the heart button.

Figure 25. Sample student digital story

As for the last activity in the module, students were asked to complete a written assignment based on a fabricated text message screen created as an image (Figure 26). They were given options to either edit the image with their sentences on the original image provided on the module or post their responses as a separate file.

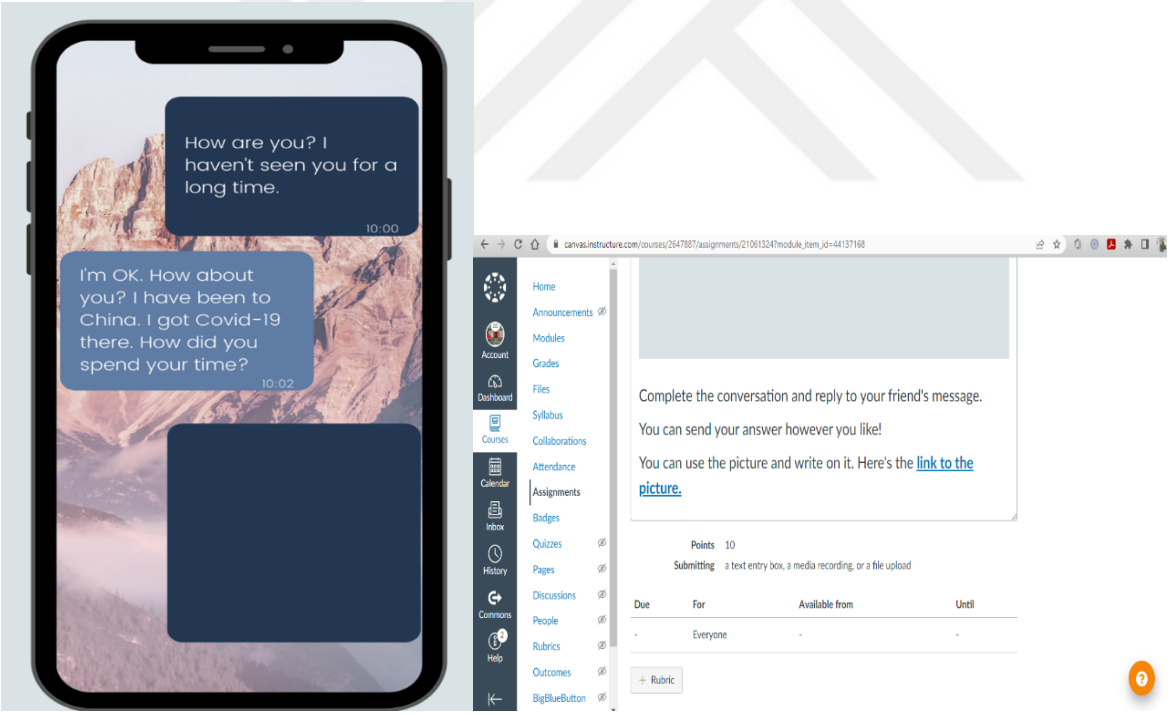


Figure 26. A1-level assignment

Regarding the A2 level, the first week module was designed based on the Unit 10 “I Like Working with People” in Interchange 2 (Richards, 2017b). Similarly, the first activity was the revision of the grammar and vocabulary of the week. Next, a reading comprehension quiz was prepared with the inclusion of a passage from the book about cross-cultural

problems. Following the passage related to the jobs and business life of the different cultures, students were asked to roleplay and give some job application advice for their friends from England, who planned to apply to a job in Turkey as practice-writing. For the final assignment, they were asked to apply for a position given in the fabricated hiring notice (Figure 27). They were supposed to write an application letter by using certain affirmative and negative statements with gerunds and clauses formed with "because". The assignment was designed in accordance with the grammatical structures and expected vocabulary presented by the coursebooks. All the requirements were carefully written as instructions, and the students were assured that their names would be invisible to the teacher after submission. Points given to the assignments would be solely based on their performance and they did not need to worry about their mistakes. They were encouraged to use dictionaries and a hyperlink for an online dictionary was provided so as to make it easy for those who wanted to work with one.

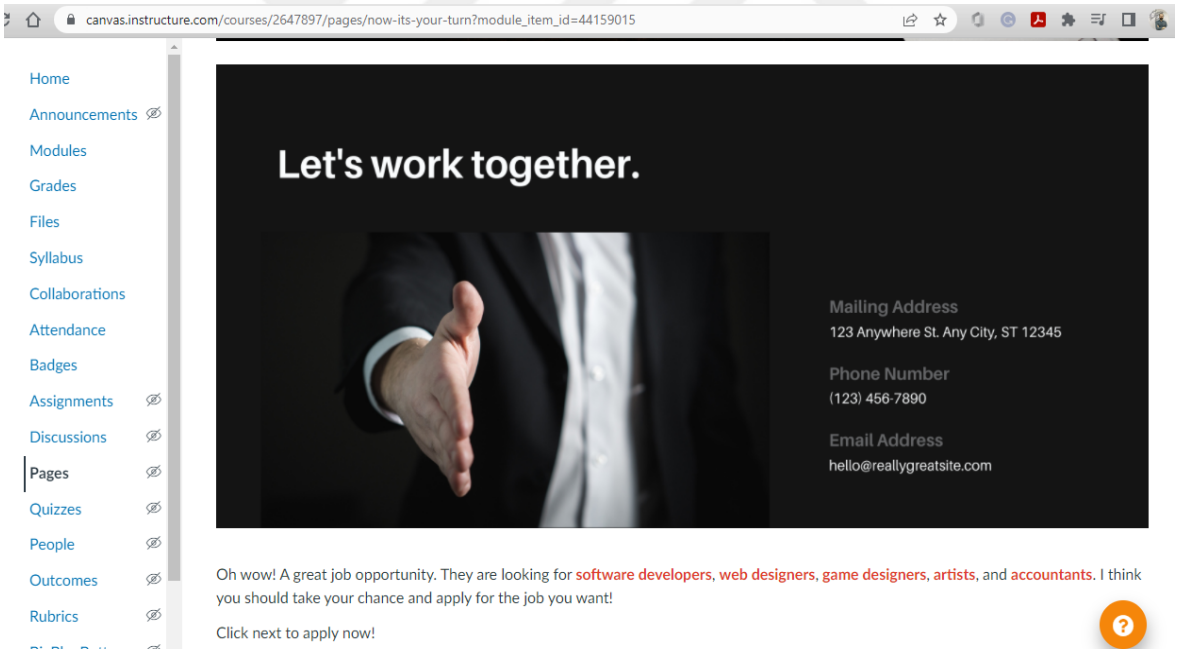


Figure 27. Introduction to the assignment

B1-level module followed a similar pattern in designing the first week module, and the first activity was grammar and vocabulary revision followed by a quiz. The activities were based on Unit 10 titled "A Matter of Time" and involved structures to talk about past events and make predictions for the future. The revision started with special structures to refer to important past events and milestones in history. After the revision activities, students

were introduced to an online discussion activity based on a small reading. A text about an important woman in near history was given to encourage them to do a quick research and find another woman who inspired them for sharing online with their friends (Figure 28).

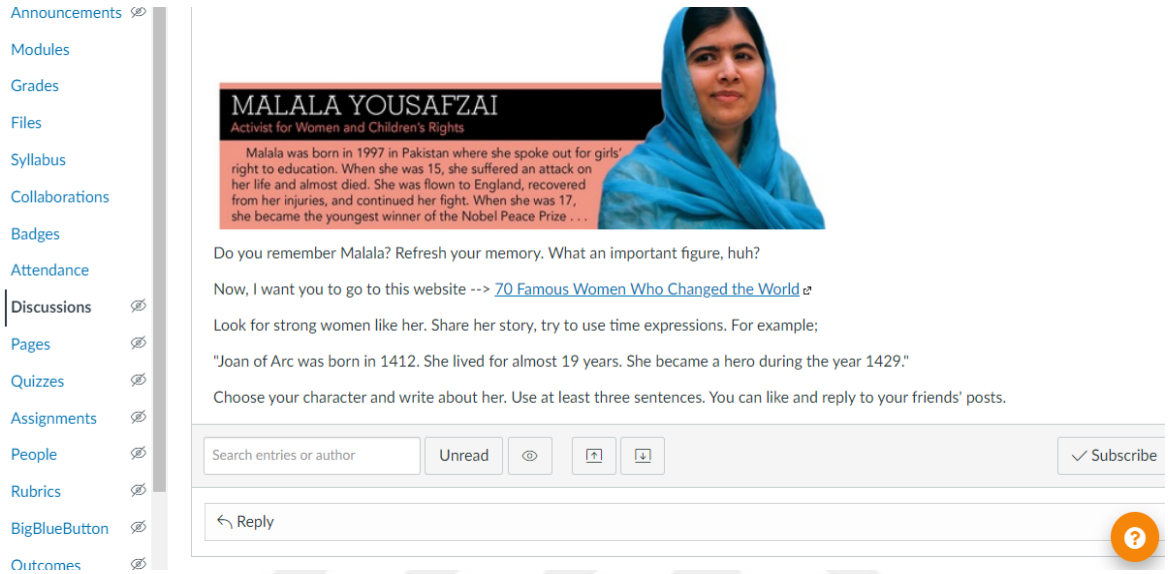


Figure 28. B1 discussion activity

After the discussion, the students worked on a passage about future predictions and took a quiz about their comprehension skills. Lastly, they were presented with a situation where they assumed the role of someone who traveled forward into the year 2121. In this role, they realize that one person they care about deeply has been erased from history, and they want to write a biography of this person. The text giving out the instructions was prepared by the researcher as a product of collaboration with English teachers. For this assignment, students were asked to use their imagination and stick to the structures they had learned during the week (Figure 29).

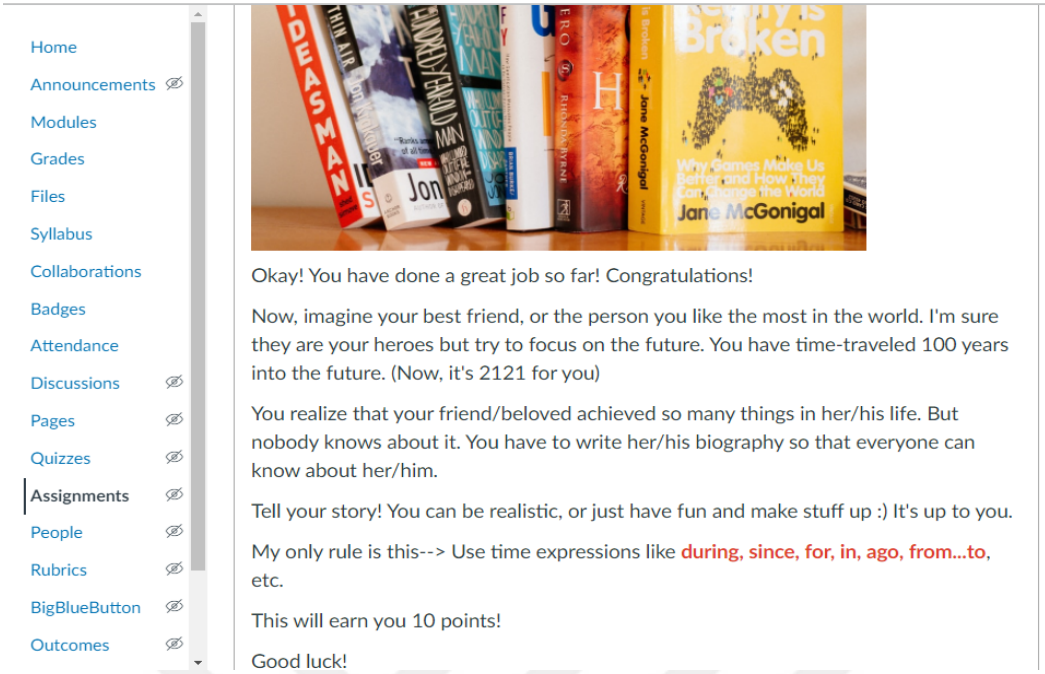


Figure 29. B1 weekly assignment

Concerning the B2 groups, students were introduced to a module based on the Unit 8 of their Passages 1 (Richards & Sandy, 2014) coursebook titled "Putting the Mind to Work". In the module, similarly, they were given a revision of the structures and vocabulary of the week. After the revisions and quiz, they were asked to participate in an online discussion where they were to evaluate the creativity of their best friends based on a chart from the Passages 1 coursebook (Richards & Sandy, 2014) they had used for themselves in the F2F lessons (Figure 30). They were asked to describe their friends' creativity with at least three sentences.

How Creative Are You?

	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
1. Are you a risk taker?	3	2	1	0
2. Are you naturally curious?	3	2	1	0
3. Do you look for opportunities to improve things?	3	2	1	0
4. Are you sensitive to beauty?	3	2	1	0
5. Do you challenge accepted ideas?	3	2	1	0
6. Do you keep an eye out for new fashions and products?	3	2	1	0
7. Do you adapt easily to new situations?	3	2	1	0
8. Do you trust your guesses, intuitions, and insights?	3	2	1	0
9. Are you more interested in the future than in the past?	3	2	1	0
10. Do you have a creative sense of humor?	3	2	1	0

Figure 30. B2 discussion topic

Following the discussion, they were presented with a passage that needed to be divided into three paragraphs based on certain rules. For the paragraph division, they were asked to submit their opinions to the teacher to receive feedback. After the paragraph structure activity, a passage about a creative person was embedded in the module to make an introduction to the weekly assignment. For the assignment, they were asked to find a person who was very creative in their opinions and explain why they thought so by using the relative clauses and paragraph division techniques they had learned about during the week (Figure 31). The assignment page was designed in a way that students would be able to read the instructions, imagine who might be a creative person, and access various websites via the provided links. This way, we aimed to keep students in perspective and help them to stay on the right path.

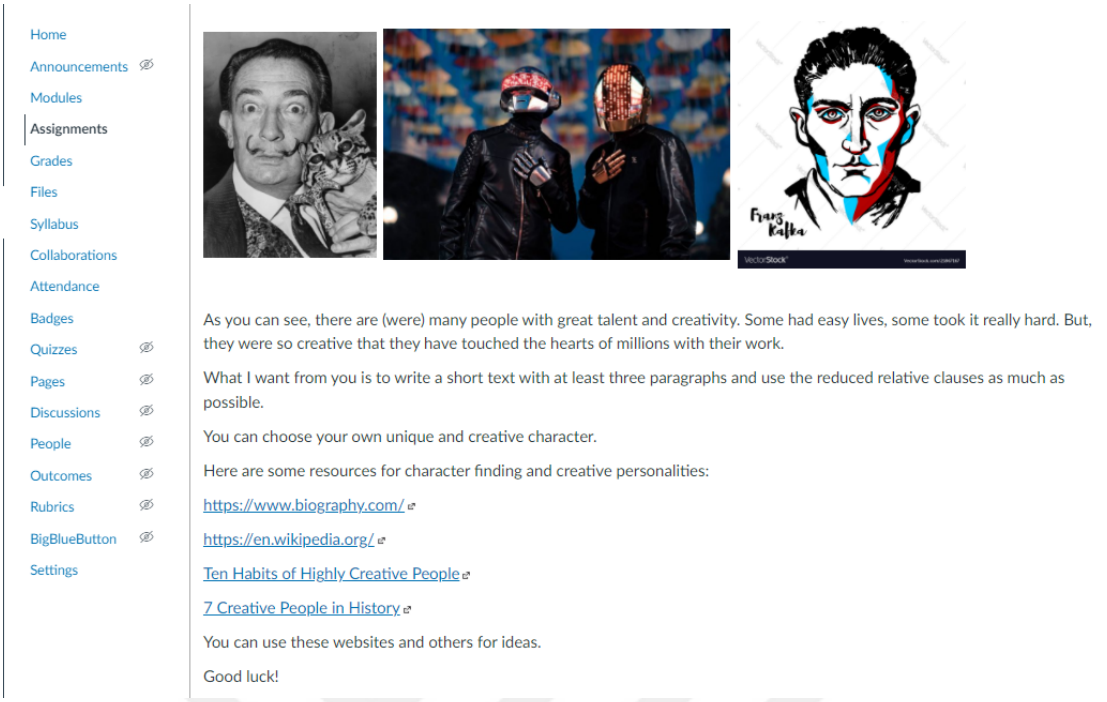


Figure 31. B2 weekly assignment

Week 2

The other weeks that followed used the same or similar patterns in the sense of design and activities in comparison with the first week. However, the second parts of the same units continued before moving on to the next units in the books, all of which included video activities as a distinct feature. To complete the modules, students were required to refer to their video books as the official supplementary sources of their course books. Before the video activities, the first step for each level group was another revision of the week and a following quiz. Regarding the activities after the revisions and quizzes, students were asked to complete an activity as a preparatory step for the video-related activities.

The A1-level activity before the video-related activity was an online discussion about the video that required a superficial idea about the content of the video. Students were asked to answer which character's decisions appeared sillier. Following the discussion, students were asked to remember the video by watching it one more time and answer video-related questions in a quiz using true/false items. Finally, the students were asked to summarize the story in the video based on a sample summary provided by the module. The sample summary showcased the structures they were required to use in their assignments

within context (Figure 32). The text and the instructions shown in the figure were created by the researcher and teachers. Students were free to cheat off the sample summary as long as they used their original statements.

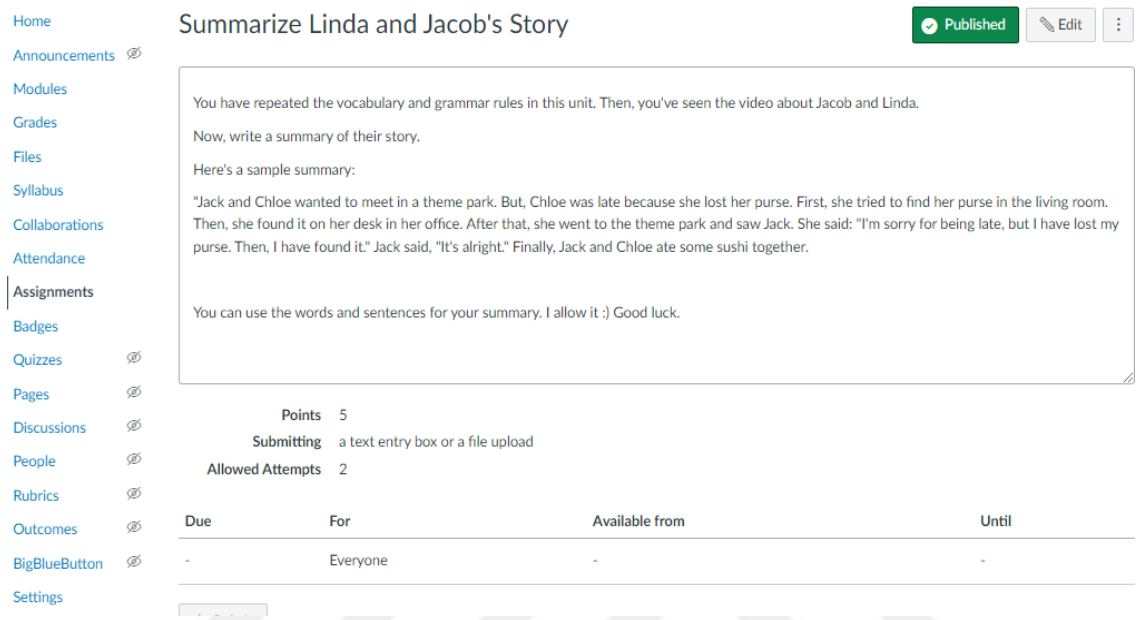


Figure 32. A1 week 2 assignment

For the A2-level groups, the module started with the vocabulary revision of the week, which was followed with a typical quiz. The second activity after the revision and vocabulary quiz was an online discussion activity spotlighting the place of CVs in business life. Sample CVs based on the characters in the video were designed to preview the video-related activities. Students were asked for their opinions about which one of the candidates they would hire to their company based on the information on the resumés. Next, they were asked to remember the video of the week -or watch it again- and answer the questions about the characters in the video in a quiz. After the quiz, students were introduced to storyboardthat.com website where they could create cartoon-style digital stories as their final assignments. They were instructed about how they could use the website for their assignment and the points and badges they would receive after completing the modules of the first two weeks (Figure 33). The sample shown in the figure was prepared by the researcher to showcase how such a storyboard would look.

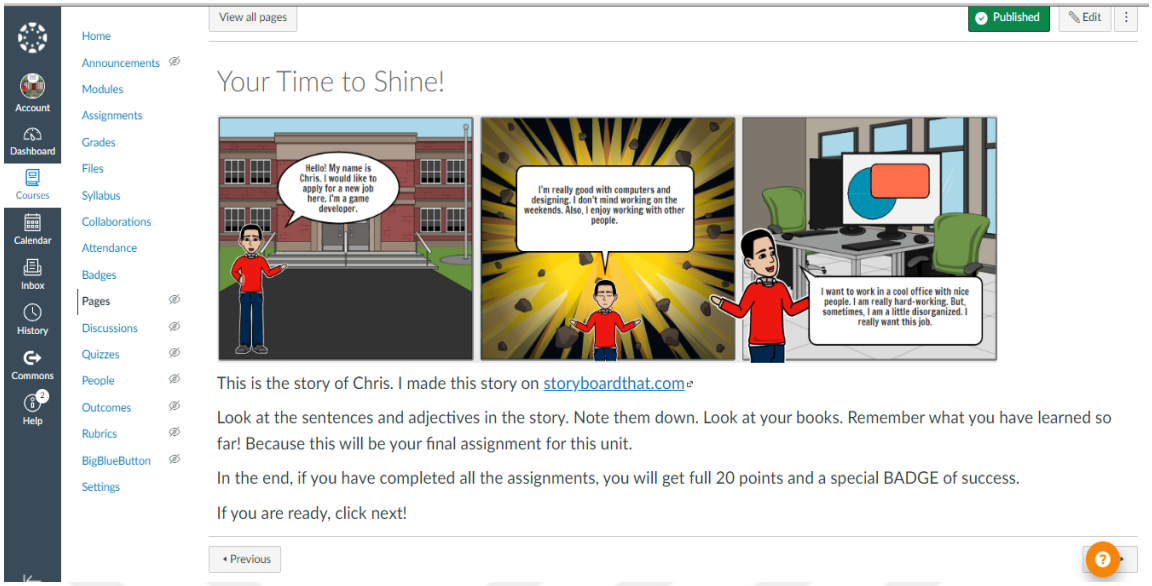


Figure 33. A2 second week assignment

The second week's module for the B1 level opened with a provocative page on which a picture of the ocean was shown with the title "Welcome to Your New Office" to hint at the possibilities of the future working life. Following a typical revision and a quiz, students were asked to participate in an online discussion and interact with each other about the video they had watched with their teachers during the week. Students shared their opinions about the IBM company's plans for the working environment on the grounds of whether it would be possible or not. Finally, they were directed to the assignment page which gave them detailed instructions and asked them to create their ideal virtual working environment (Figure 34). Instructions in the figure were prepared by the researcher and teachers as a product of collaboration.

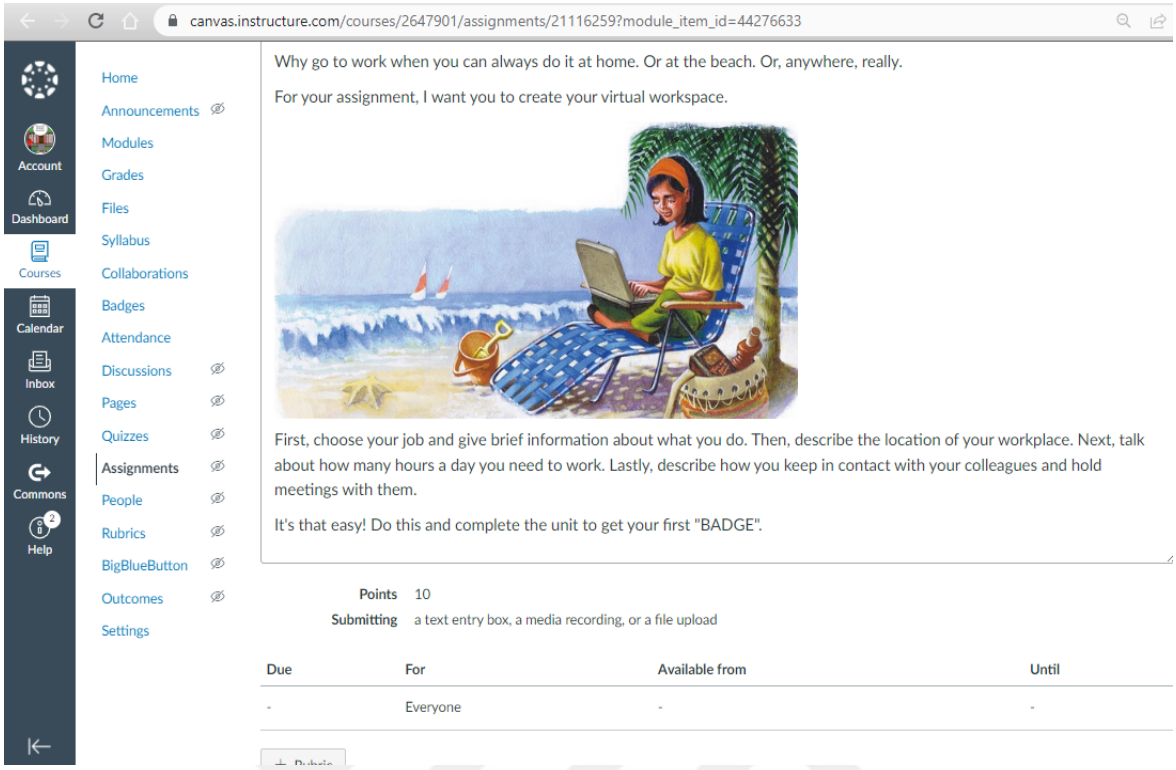


Figure 34. B1 second week assignment

Having talked about creativity and unique character traits in the previous week, the B2 groups started with an introduction to the acting and actor profiles. They were reminded of certain crucial vocabulary they were introduced during the F2F lessons and asked to participate in a discussion in which they were required to choose the best ten character traits an actor should possess out of the given fifteen options and explain why. After the discussion, students were encouraged for an enjoyable digital story-telling activity with storyboardthat.com website, for which they were asked to create cartoon-based stories about introducing an actor for a role by using the character traits in meaningful sentences (Figure 35).

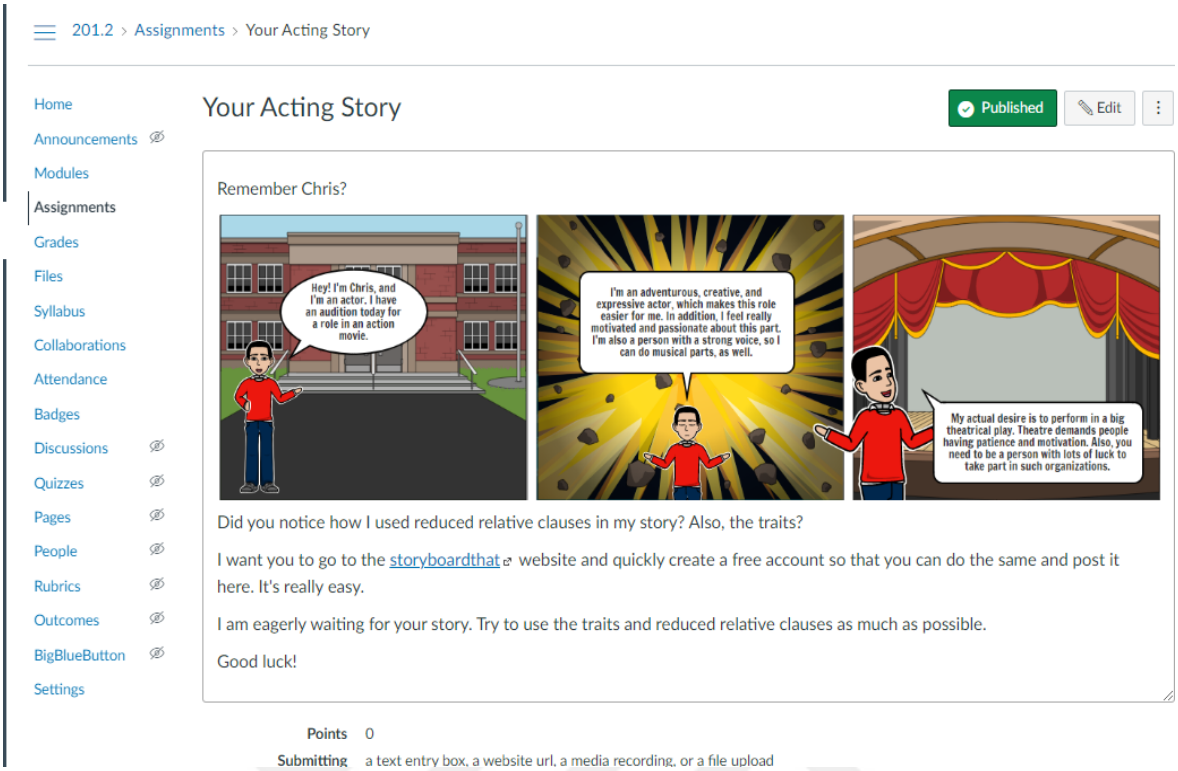


Figure 35. B2 digital story-telling activity

As for the final assignment, the students were asked to find a script for a TV show or a movie and act it out on a video for an audition for the role. They were instructed that they needed to follow certain rules such as no swear words and discriminatory language, and reasonable and short scripts consuming little time. They were informed that breaking the rules would cost them their 10 points and badges.

Week 3

The third week employed a different approach to designing the flow of the module due to the language quiz that took place during the week according to the school schedule as mentioned earlier. This week, teachers administered the language quiz to the students in all the level groups and they did not use the course books in their class time as there was no time for the lessons. Therefore, all modules for the week were planned as a refreshing and fun activity in which the students could still interact with each other and practice the language structures they had learned so far.

To serve as feedback on the proficiency quiz, the students were asked for their opinions about the quiz in an online discussion as the first activity in the module. It was agreed that the student feedback would be very valuable to see the problematic areas in the quiz and this module would be a practical way to collect this type of information from the students. Otherwise, it would be quite hard and time-consuming for the teachers to organize an online form or a survey. The second step of the module was an introduction to a role-playing experience. Clicking the next button, students were faced with a page that hinted at an alien invasion role-playing activity. The next page provided explanations about the situation and what the students were expected to do in this activity (Figure 36). They were instructed that an intelligent race of aliens invaded the earth, and each student oversaw a country of the world. After the alien invasion, the students who oversaw the protection of these countries were informed that there was a secret organization beyond the power of governments, which recognized the world as a single unity against galactic forces.

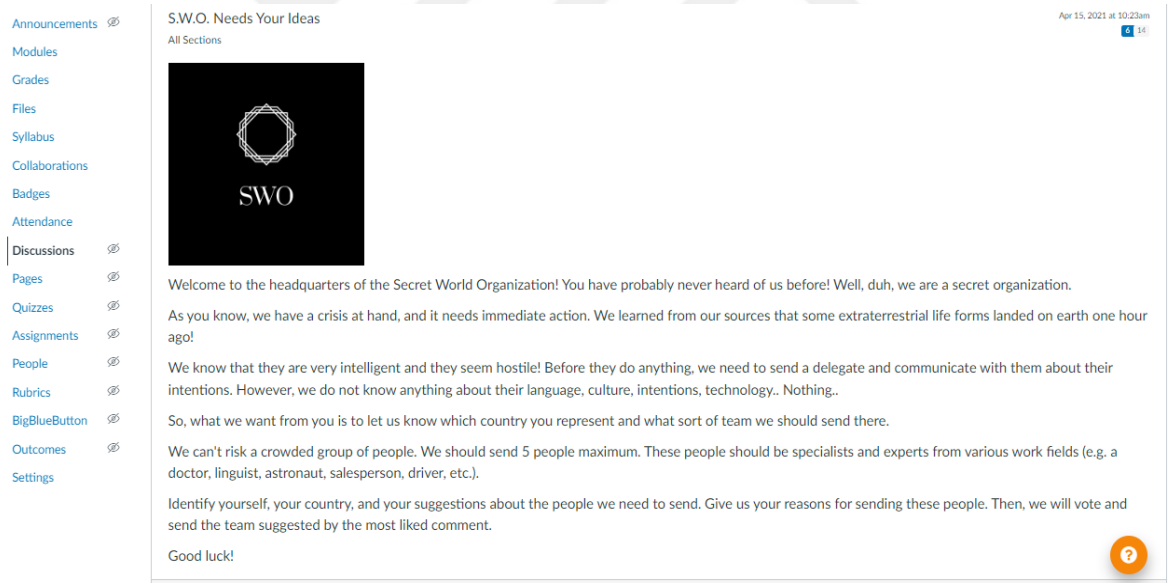


Figure 36. Quiz week activity

After the instructions given, students were directed to the online discussion page where they were expected to share the country they represented and the five delegates they wanted to send to communicate with the aliens by giving their reasons. All the level groups did the same activity during the quiz week; however, each classroom completed their online discussions with their classmates. Teachers were specifically encouraged to keep the student comments in check and the conversation flowing during the week, frequently logging in to

their accounts to see if anyone commented. Most of the students participated in the discussion shortly after the publication of the weekly module, and they seemed to be quite invested in the role-playing (Figure 37).

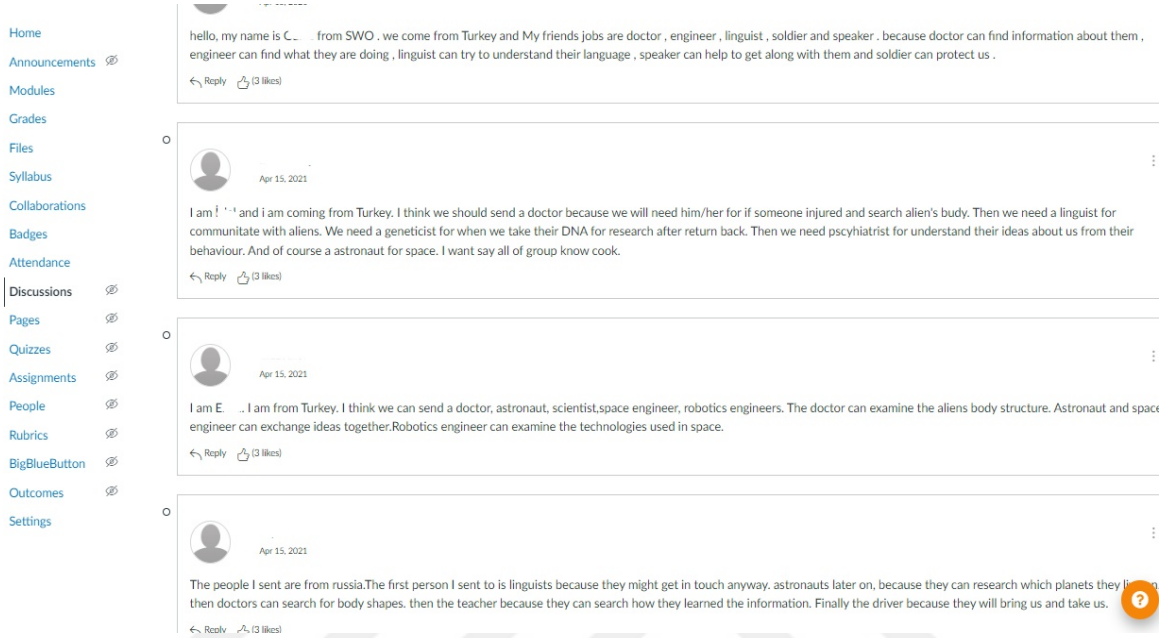


Figure 37. Student role-playing in the quiz week event

Lastly, after they voted for the best idea by their classmates, they were instructed to look at the delegation who got the most votes and choose a profession among the five professionals suggested by the commenter. They were expected to take notes about what they would say to the aliens to convince them to leave peacefully and share their ideas with their teachers by either posting their ideas or submitting them privately. The module is finished without a pointed assignment, but the students were promised that their final suggestions for the alien invasion would be discussed further and finalized in their next F2F lesson.

Week 4

After an interval in the course book activities due to the quiz week, the fourth week activities continued as planned. The modules were designed based on the course book content of each level.

A1-level students started their module with a revision of adverbs and conjunctions they were introduced throughout the week in the 11th Unit of the book titled “It’s a Really Nice City”. The revision and the quiz were followed by video activities. They were asked to remember or re-watch the video about a couple planning to visit San Francisco as tourists. Regarding the video, they were initially asked to share their plans for a possible visit in the city of San Francisco in an online discussion. After sharing their plans, they were asked specific comprehension questions about the video. In addition, as provided by the coursebook, they were given six more options to visit in San Francisco which were not mentioned in the video. Accordingly, students were asked to do quick research about these places using Google and, choosing one of them, to share at least one reason why people should visit this place in an online discussion. As for the final assignment, the students were asked to remember the travel advice given in the unit and form their own advice as to how and why people should visit Balikesir (the city they lived in).

In the module designed for the A2 groups, the first activity was the revision of active/passive sentences based on Unit 11 of the coursebook titled “It’s Really Worth Seeing”. After the revision of the structures, students were asked related questions in a mini quiz. Following an introduction to the video activity, the students were asked to remember or re-watch the video about two brothers visiting Machu Picchu in Peru. Before answering video-related questions, the students were asked to participate in an online discussion sharing which famous landmark in the world they would want to visit. Next, the students were asked to answer questions about what they had learned from the video. Finally, they were informed that the active/passive structures they had learned during the week could be used to explain facts about places and things by providing an example based on Machu Picchu. The students were asked to review the sample text mentioning certain facts about Machu Picchu and create their own texts using the structures of the week. To complete their assignments, they were given a bunch of landmarks around the globe and asked to choose one of them and write some facts about it doing a little research (Figure 38).

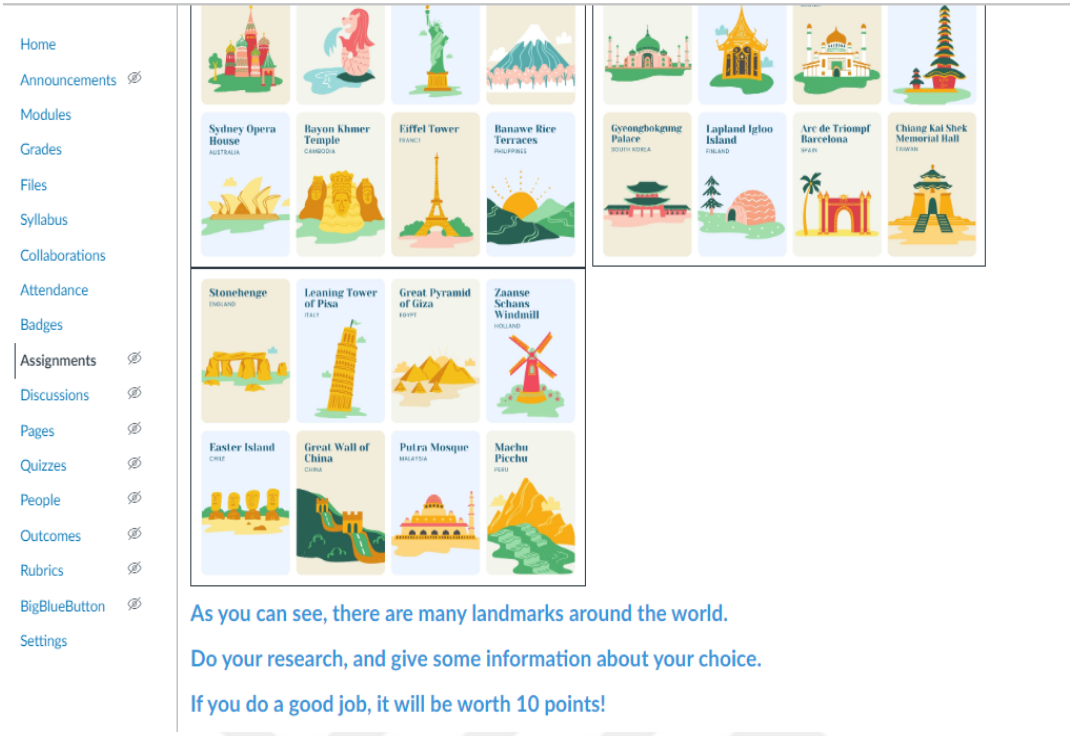


Figure 38. A2 fourth week assignment

The B1 group similarly started with a grammar and vocabulary revision of the week based on Unit 11 of their coursebooks titled “Rites of Passage”. After revisions, they were presented with a short text about embarrassing moments in the past and encouraged to remember such a moment in their lives as preparation for the video activity. Before they shared their opinions and answered the questions about the video, they were asked to remember or re-watch the stories of embarrassment from Evan, Alexis, and Amber. In an online discussion, they were asked to share their ideas about which one of the stories told in the video they had found the most embarrassing and why. Following the online discussion, they took a short quiz to test their comprehension of the video. Before the final assignment about fixing the past mistakes, they were given an introductory visual page with a striking message suggesting that everybody could make mistakes, but what would happen if we could have a chance to change them. For the module assignment, the students were asked to write their possible plans to change their one mistake in the past, encouraging them to use the time clauses they had learned during the week (Figure 39).

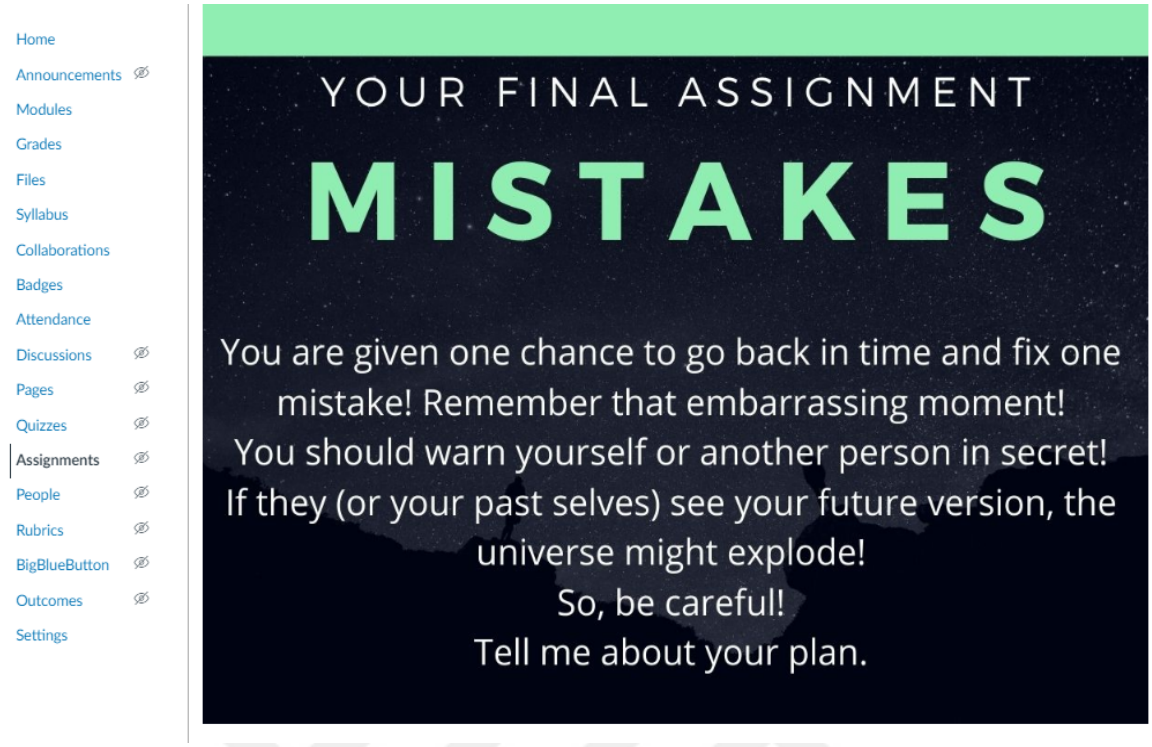


Figure 39. B1 fourth week assignment

Based on the Unit 9 titled "Generally Speaking", the B2-level groups learned to compare and contrast certain aspects and stating exceptions. Following the revision of coursebook examples comparing and contrasting different cultures, the students were asked to write the characteristics of a typical Turkish person in an online discussion as an addition to the coursebook activities to make the unit more enjoyable. After listing the characteristics, they were presented with a revision of the structures used to show contrasts and exceptions such as while, unlike, in contrast to, except (that), and except for. Then, the students were asked to take a small quiz to test their knowledge of these structures. Before watching the video of the week and answering the related questions they were introduced to a new page stating that the new age required different sets of skills for professional careers and providing new vocabulary to use in their discussions. Next, they were asked to remember or re-watch the video of the week in which people were hired depending on their problem-solving skills and creativity in a situation where they used a candle, a box of matches, and a box full of pins to make sure the candle stayed on the pinboard alight. Based on the video, they were asked in an online discussion if such a hiring method was a good idea for a company and what kind of careers would be best for the characters in the video. The assignment of the module was based on the online discussion related to the video, and the

students were required to help the characters in the video to prepare for a job interview (Figure 40).

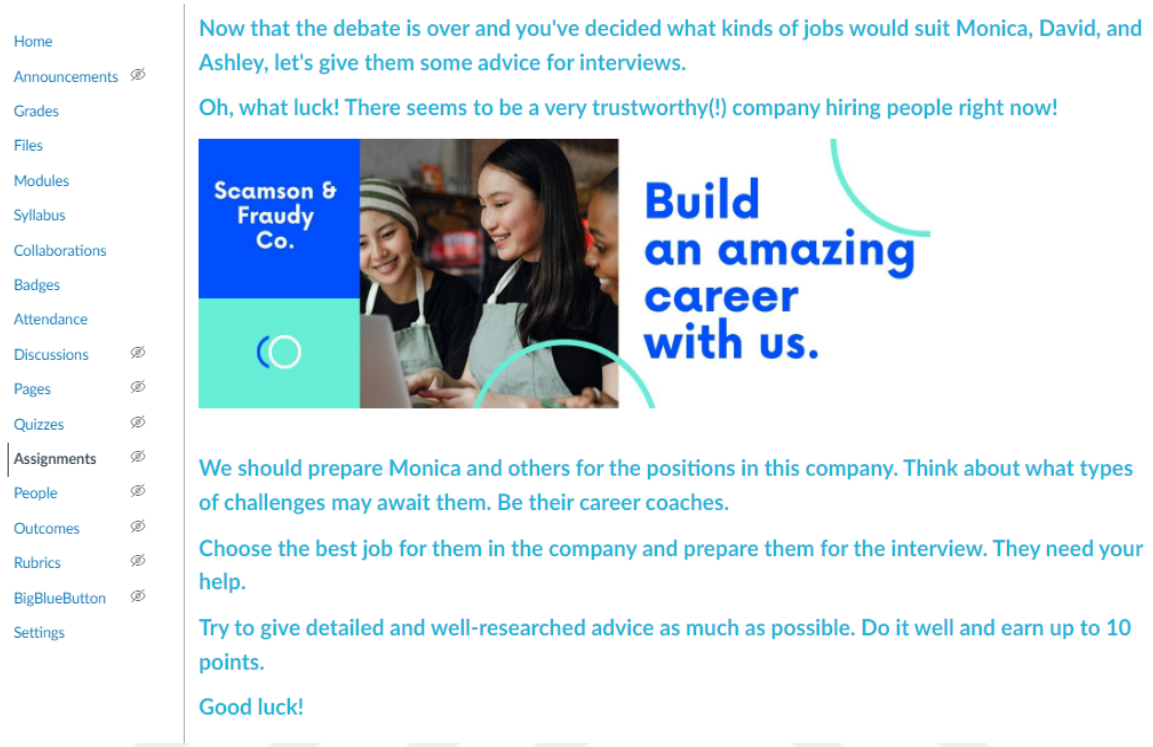


Figure 40. Fourth week assignment of the B2 level

Week 5

The fifth week modules involved the second parts of the same units that focused on reading and writing skills based on the structures presented. The same pattern of module design was used for each level group.

The A1 level groups started the module with the revision of six world famous landmarks and can/should sentences. After the revision quiz, they were introduced to some mails giving information about different landmarks. To test the reading comprehension of the students, they were asked a few questions about the landmarks in the mails in a reading quiz. Subsequently, the students were asked to search their favorite landmarks online to find interesting information to share with their classmates in an online discussion post. In this online discussion, they were encouraged to look at others' posts and ask questions about the landmarks shared in discussion threads. In a connected activity, they were asked to focus on

Balikesir, which was the city they lived in, in terms of advertising it to tourists, giving information about three landmarks of their choice. They were encouraged to use the structures to give information about landmarks so that they could achieve learning permanence. Before the final assignment of the week, an introductory page was provided to warm them up for their responsibilities (Figure 41) and give them time to review their options.

.

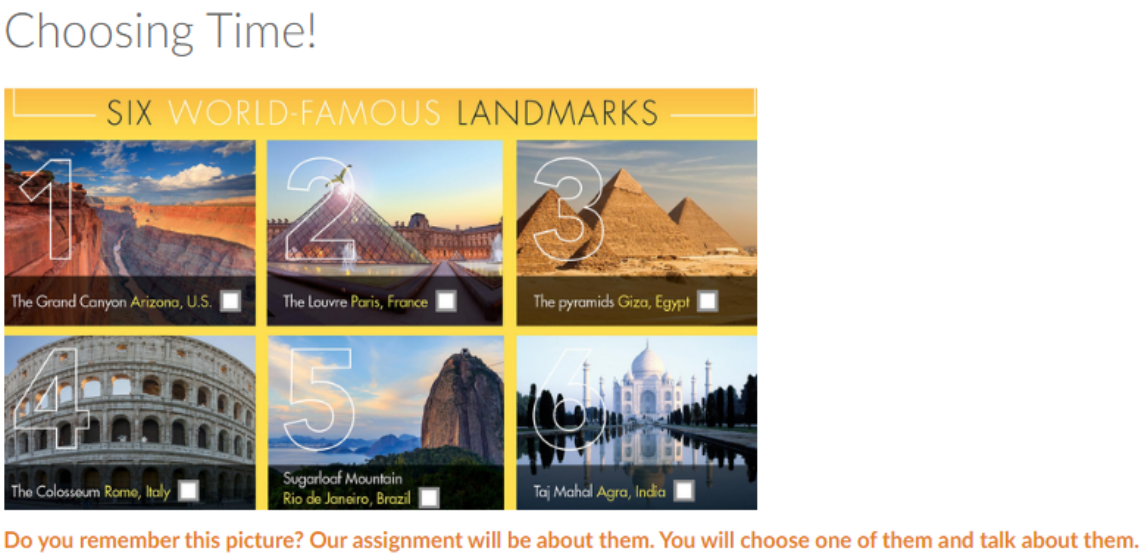


Figure 41. A1-level assignment for the fifth week

In the assignment, the students were asked to choose one famous landmark they had worked on several times during the week and do research on them to write informative paragraphs regarding why people should visit this place and what people can do there.

A2-level activities in the second section of Unit 11 showed similarities to the A1 activities in involving landmarks as the theme. The first activity in the module started with a revision of the weekly main course content. A visual page involving certain main landmarks was followed with a grammar and vocabulary quiz testing the students' active/passive structure knowledge. After the quiz, they were presented with a reading passage about interesting museums around the world. Based on the information given in the reading passage, an online discussion page was inserted to promote a discussion among students concerning which museum they found to be the most interesting. Following the discussion about the interesting museums given in the reading passage, a flashy page with soothing forest picture requested

information about the students' hometowns in another discussion. However, they were asked to do a little research on their original hometowns and find facts about the significant landmarks they could introduce. Before initiating a quiz about the reading passage on interesting museums, a link to an online game testing knowledge about the countries around the world was provided to blow off some steam. After the completion of the game at their own pace, the students were asked to answer some questions related to the reading passage. Finally, a final weekly assignment was given with necessary instructions (Figure 42). On the bottom of the page was the additional information about the point value, submission requirements, and the deadline of the assignment.

Do some research about a city of your choice. Give information about:

1- Population

2- Agricultural Products

3- Industry

4- History

Use at least ten sentences to give your information. Do not forget to use Passive Voice!

Figure 42. A2 Level Weekly Assignment

The fifth-week module for the B2-level groups started with a revision of the main course content, which was related to the memorable first times. The revision page supported with visual content was followed with a quiz about should have/shouldn't have grammar structures. With some humor and colorful content, the students were introduced to the next activity about regrets over the past mistakes. In this activity, students were asked to participate in an online discussion, sharing their ideas about how mistakes can improve one's life. Next, a reading passage about a question-and-answer portal called "Dear Stella" for people who ask for advice over their daily problems. After the reading, typically, they were administered a small reading quiz. The quiz was followed by a fun discussion activity where the students could play the role of "Abby". The Abby character was introduced to the students in a small explanatory section before asking them to participate in the online discussion (Figure 43).

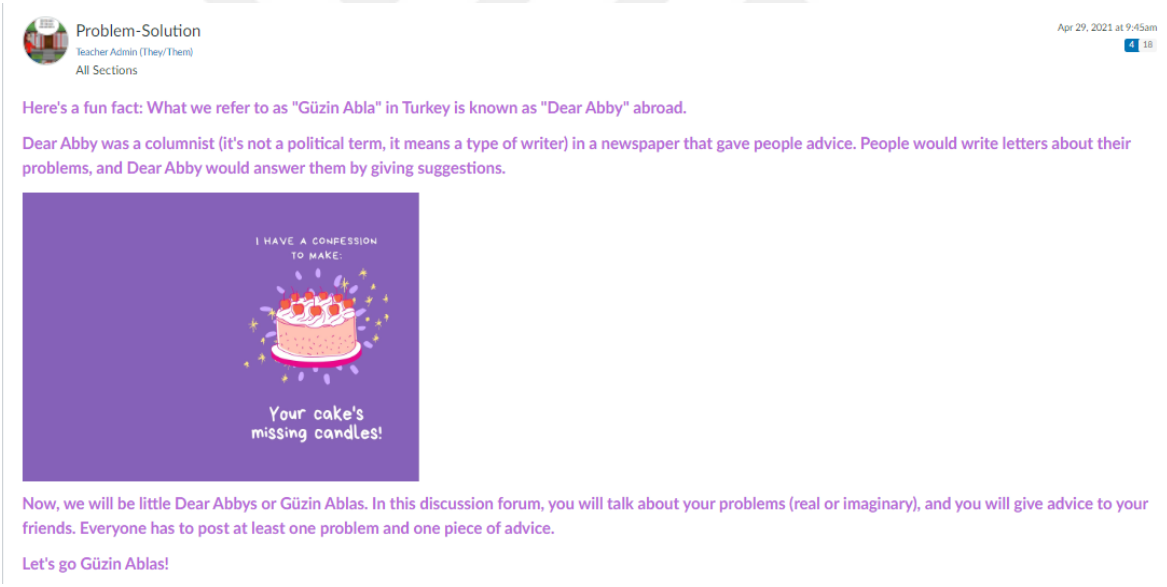


Figure 43. Dear Abby activity instructions

After the explanation that Dear Abby had an equivalent in Turkish culture, the students were asked to write their problems and give advice to the problems of others. In the assignment section, they were presented with three situations where a person makes a mistake and needs to apologize to someone. The students were asked to choose one of these three situations and prepare an apology letter by giving special care for the should have /shouldn't have structures during writing.

B2-level group similarly started the module with a revision of the weekly main course activities which focused on used to/would structures used when referring to past habits. After the typical revision quiz, a small reading section was provided in the next page, aiming to initiate an online discussion about how changes and problem-solving can improve one's life. The discussion section was followed by a reading passage addressing four solutions to a problem related to painting. In relation, a quiz about these four lessons given in the passage was administered to the students before the assignment of the week. Just as the B1 module included an online discussion about advice for mistakes, this module made use of Dear Abby for a problem-solving activity in the form of an online discussion. In this case, students were asked to provide solutions to problems shared by their classmates in the discussion forum. As for the final assignment (Figure 44), the students were requested to assume the role of an interviewer and interview an imaginary famous figure of their choice to report what types of problems they overcame to become successful in their lives.

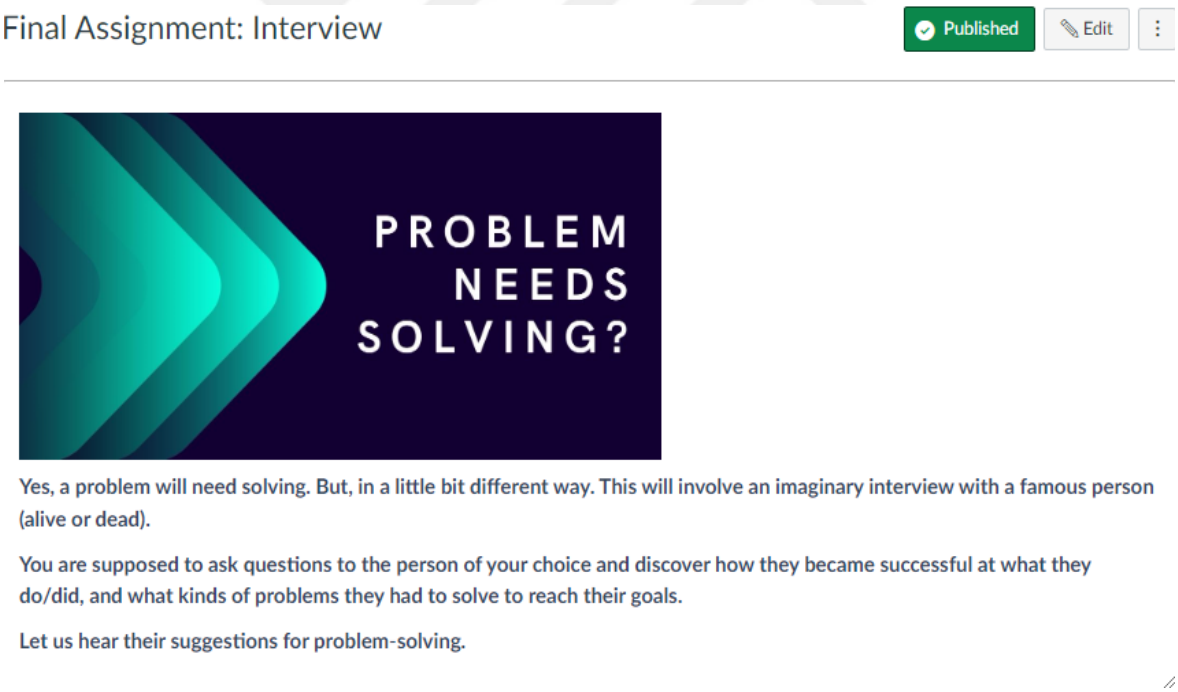


Figure 44. Fifth week assignment in the B2-level module

Week 6

In the sixth week modules for each language level, the same pattern of progress across the activities was used. For the A1-level students, the module included activities in

alignment with Unit 12 “It’s Important to Get Rest” content. The module started with a revision page covering solutions for the cold followed by an online discussion activity which urged students to choose from the options in the picture embedded in the page and to use suggestion sentences to fight the cold. After sharing the ideas in the discussion section, they were asked to remember or re-watch the weekly video about ways to fight the cold. The video was mentioned since the following quiz included questions about cold remedies people resort to when they catch a cold. After the video quiz, the students were asked to choose which remedy suggestion was better in their opinion and write their reasons in an online discussion forum. To ease the recalling of the characters and their suggestions, images of the people in the video were displayed in the instruction section of the quiz so that they could refer to the images when they formed their opinions. In the final assignment for the week, the students were asked to find a common health problem frequently encountered in daily life and suggest solutions for the discomfort or illness as presented in the examples (Figure 45).

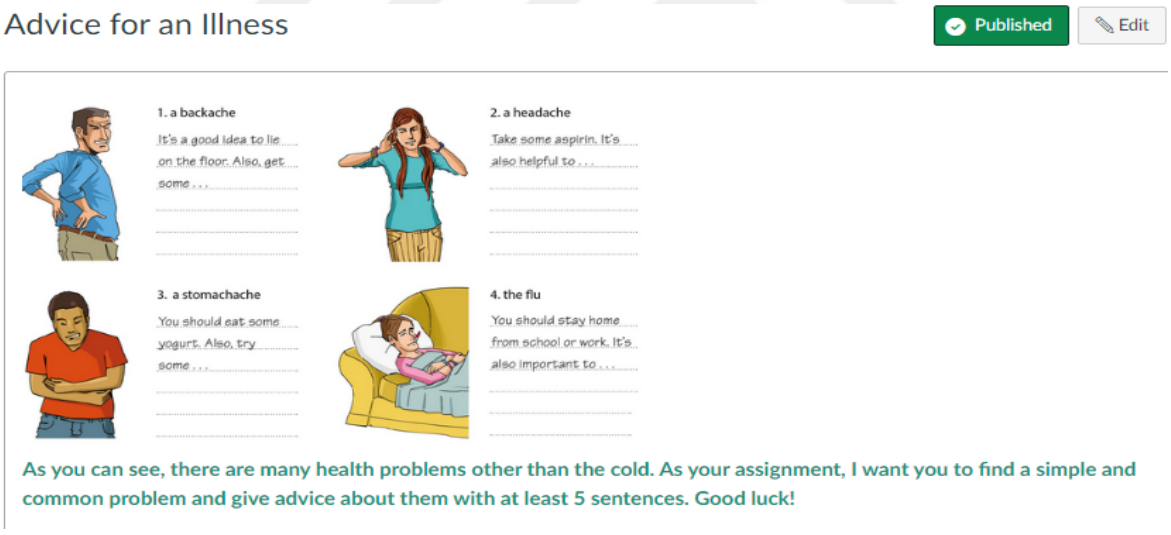


Figure 45. A1 assignment in the sixth-week module

A2-level activities for the sixth week were based on content of Unit 12 of the coursebook titled “It’s a Long Story”. The first activity in the module was a revision for the weekly main course, which was followed with a revision quiz on past continuous and past simple tenses. The next page included an image design to warm up the students by thinking about some questions before mentioning the profession of reporting in video-related activities. Prior to the video questions, students were provided with a screenshot taken from the video and several preparation questions to increase concentration over the video content.

After the warmup and the introduction to the video, they were asked to remember or re-watch the video to answer questions about the life of the reporter mentioned in the video. Based on the content of the video and the quiz questions, students were asked to participate in an online discussion to share what type of reporter they would want to become if given a chance. They were encouraged to use the special reporter types they had seen during the week. The purpose of the online discussion was to enable students to activate their related vocabulary and professional knowledge regarding reporting before their weekly assignment which required them to choose a reporter profession and report interesting news based on small research on a topic of their choice (Figure 46).

Now, as your assignment, I want you to choose what kind of reporter you would like to be. Are you a nature news reporter? Sports reporter? A weather reporting person? Or a podcaster?

Choose a reporter job and prepare your story about an interesting event. Do your research and find something interesting to report!

If you do a good job, you can get 10 points!

Figure 46. Sixth week assignment in the A2-level module

The sixth week module for the B1-level students was designed based on the content of Unit 12 titled "Keys to Success", and the first point of focus was the café shops and their importance. After a revision through a small passage on cafés, the students were administered a quiz to test their vocabulary for the week. In the quiz, special sentences to express purpose such as infinitive clauses and infinitive clauses with *for* were revised. Before the activities related to a video about owning a café, an introductory page on which a screenshot from the video and a few warm-up questions was provided. Subsequently,

students were asked to remember or re-watch the video of the week and answer related questions. Next, an online discussion where they were required to share their ideas concerning what their ideal café would be like was included in the module. Before the weekly assignment, they were provided with an infographic listing the legal requirements to open a café in a simplistic and visual manner with the purpose of allowing the students to get familiar with the content of their assignment. Finally, the last page included the instructions for the assignment supported by an image (Figure 47).

Now, as your assignment, I want you to open your café (in your imagination of course). You don't need to spend all that money just for 10 points.

I want you to describe your dream café with these criteria below:

1- What is the name of your café?

2- Where is it? (location)

3- How big is it? (size)

4- How many hours do you work? (open hours)

5- How is it inside? (furniture, music, food, drinks, and rules)

Figure 47. Sixth week assignment in the B1-level module

Regarding the activities in the sixth-week module designed for the B2-level, the content was based on Unit 12 in the coursebook titled “The Art of Complaining”. The unit involved complaining about the things that annoy people in their lives, focusing on the relative clauses as the grammar structure. In connection, the first activity in the module was the revision of the annoying sounds that the students had covered during the week through pictures, phrases, and finally, a quiz. Secondly, the students were asked to remember or re-watch the weekly video about annoying sounds, and they were administered a mini quiz based on the video. Next, they were asked to share their views on annoying things in an online discussion, explaining what annoyed them the most and why. Finally, before their assignment instructions, they were reminded with a picture portraying different annoying people in a bus that there are many types of annoying people in the world (Figure 48). For the assignment, they were asked to think of a famous person or a celebrity that annoyed

them the most with their behaviors and write a complaint letter to their managers/agents, explaining why they were so annoying and what they must change.

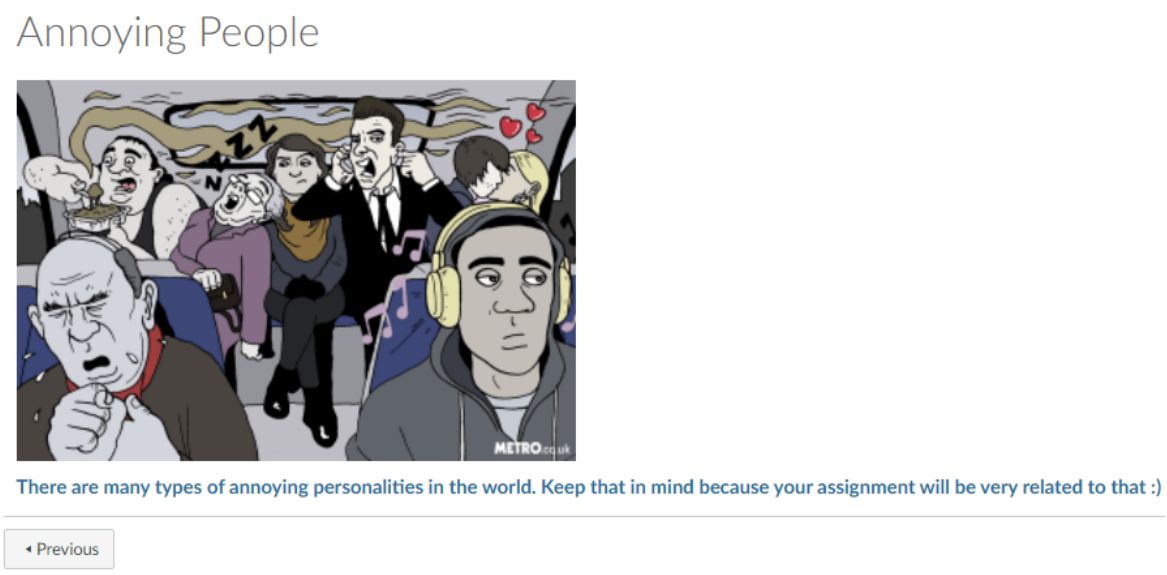


Figure 48. B2-level weekly assignment

Week 7

In the seventh week, which was the last week of the modules, modules for each level group started with the post-test survey. The survey was embedded as a link in the first page of each seventh-week module (Figure 49). Students were made aware that they would encounter the survey in their last week so that they would not be surprised to see it on the first page of the module. Following the page that contained an external link to the online survey, the usual progress was maintained in the modules.

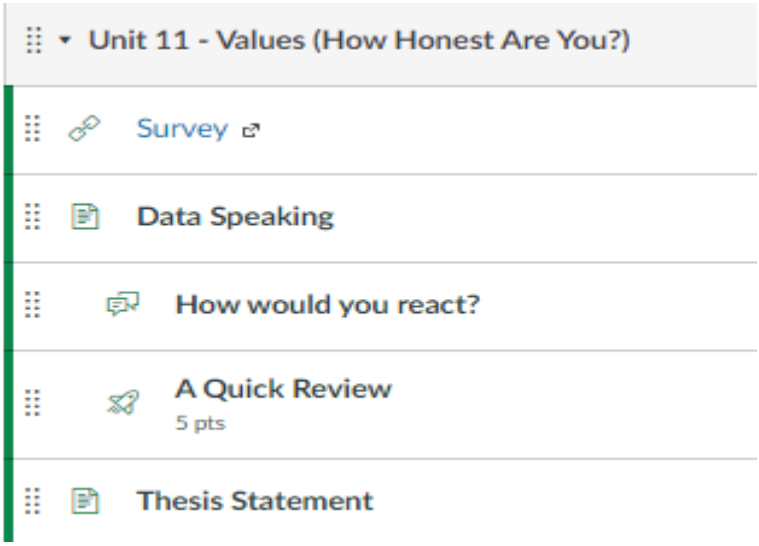


Figure 49. Integration of the post-test into the module

Modules of the last week designed for the A1, A2, and B1 levels were based on Unit 13 of the Interchange coursebooks while the B2-level modules were based on Unit 11 of the Passages. The first activity for the A1-level groups in the module which was based on the content of the unit titled "What Would You Like?" was a revision of the types of food favored by a majority in the world and grammar structures accompanied by it. The students' knowledge of structures such as neither, nor, either, and or was put to the test with a small quiz. The revision was followed by a reading passage about tip culture around the world. The students were similarly tested for their reading comprehension with a quiz after reading the passage. Next, they were presented with an image containing a phone screen showing someone's restaurant review. They were asked to write a review for a restaurant they had visited before in an online discussion so that they could interact with their classmates. After the online discussion forum, they were asked to remember or re-watch a video about two people ordering different food and answer related questions in a quiz. Finally, as the assignment, they were required to choose a country to try the famous food there and explain why they had chosen it.

The last module designed for the A2-level groups was based on the 13th unit of the coursebook titled "That's Entertainment". The first activity involved a page reminding the students of the weekly topic, which was facts about famous movies. In a related activity, the students were tested for their knowledge of participles and relative pronouns. Next, a reading passage about the art of acting and a related comprehension quiz were used as the

next activities. Within the same context, the students were presented with a sample movie review written on an Academy Award winning movie. Based on this review, they were asked to write their own short reviews in an online discussion thread. After the discussion, the next activity introduced street performing as an art in a short passage, making way to the video activity in the next page. The students were asked to remember the weekly video or refresh their memories by re-watching it to answer some video-related questions in a quiz. Following the quiz, they were asked for their opinions regarding which street performer in the video they liked the most and why. Finally, they were asked to write a well-structured paragraph about a party they were to throw where they needed to choose a performer with their reasons as an assignment. The instructions for the assignment were presented with the help of pictures of some performers (Figure 50).

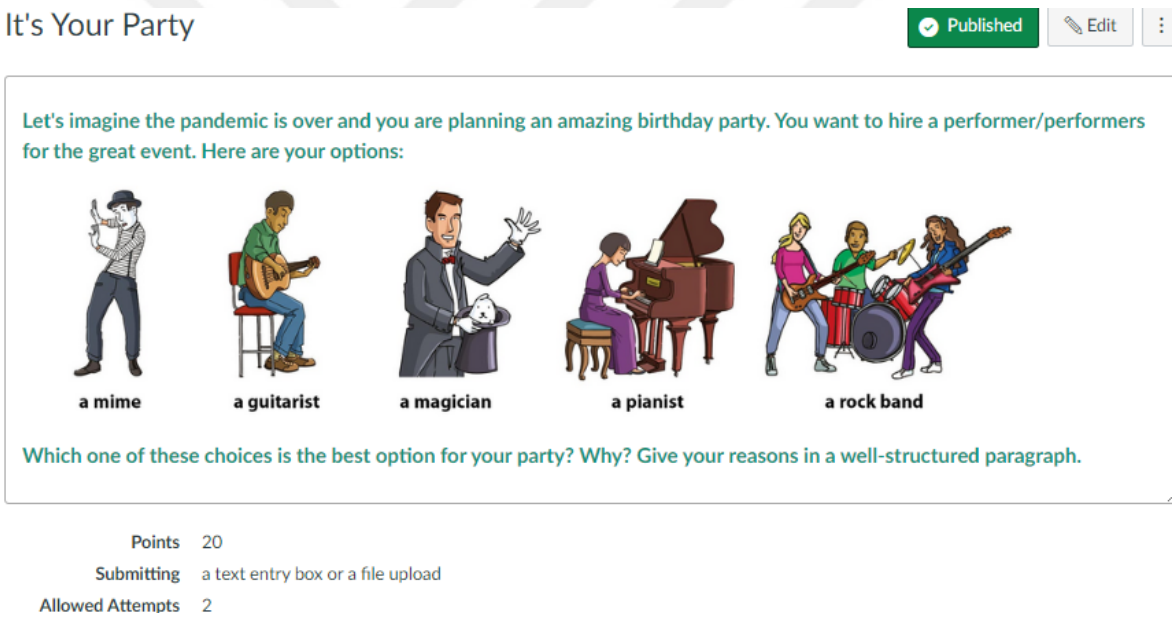


Figure 50. A2 seventh-week assignment

The module for the B1-level groups was based on the unit titled “What Might Have Been” and started with the revision of pet peeves and a quiz about the use of past modals. The first activity was followed by a reading passage about strange outer space experiences having occurred in the past and a reading comprehension quiz both highlighting the use of past modals. Next, an online discussion forum was opened for students to share their complaints about a problem in their lives based on a sample complaint posted as an image. Connected with the theme of mysteries of the past, the students were presented with a video activity about Stonehenge. In a quiz about the video of the week, they were tested in a quiz.

In relation to the final assignment, they were provided with three small passages about mysterious events and an embedded song in the page to listen along with the texts. In the assignment page, they were asked to remember the mysterious and creepy stories from historical records and write their own mysterious events. It was stated in the instructions that the scariest and most interesting story would be shared with the entire class in the following week.

The last week of the B2-level students included activities based on the eleventh unit of their coursebook titled "Values (How Honest Are You?)". First, they were provided with statistical data about how people behaved in certain situations. Second, a conundrum where they had to make a choice between hurting someone's feeling and doing the right thing was presented as the topic of an online discussion. The students were asked to share what they would have done in a situation like this. Third, the students were given an online quiz about present unreal conditional with *unless*, *only if*, and *even if* structures. Fourth, the students were presented with an introduction to the thesis statement in a composition or an essay (Figure 51) to prepare them for the next activities.

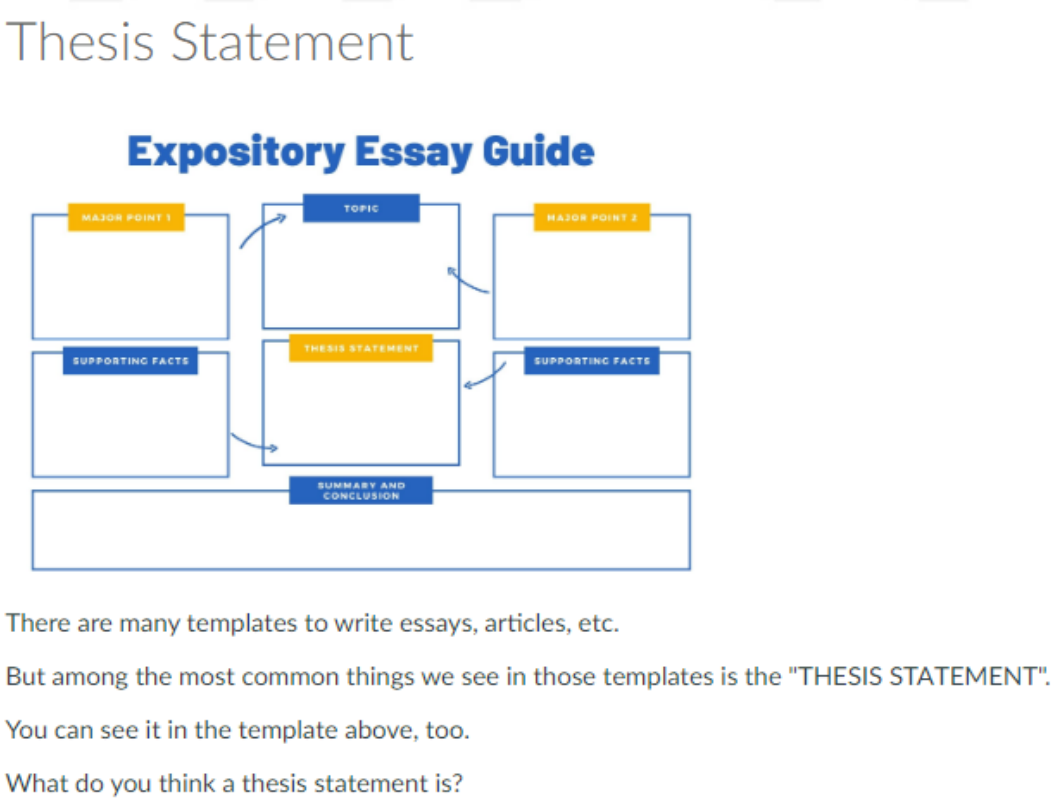


Figure 51. Thesis statement introduction

Next, a distinction between topic sentence and thesis statement was made, stating that a topic sentence stated the main idea of a single paragraph while a thesis statement introduced the topic of a composition containing multiple paragraphs. After the definition of the thesis statement with visual aids and comparison, the next page involved a reading passage where the students needed to read the whole text to decide what could serve as the thesis statement. As for the practice, the students were given three statements all based on the passage, and they were asked to carefully evaluate the text to choose the most appropriate statement. An online discussion forum was opened on the next page to encourage students to share their opinions about the thesis statement of the passage. Before the assignment, a page on which a YouTube video about thesis statement was embedded was included in the module to promote their understanding of the thesis statement in different contexts. As the last step before the assignment, another online discussion forum was added, asking the question "How can we use this in our lives in the future? What difference does it make if we know how to create a thesis statement for our essays or articles?". The question was directed to the students to make sure that they could appreciate the importance of such a topic with a group effort. Finally, the last assignment for the B2 students was requested on the last page with the presentation of a designed image and detailed instructions (Figure 52). The students were asked to write an essay about a regretful or a happy memory following certain rules for writing as requested by the instructions.

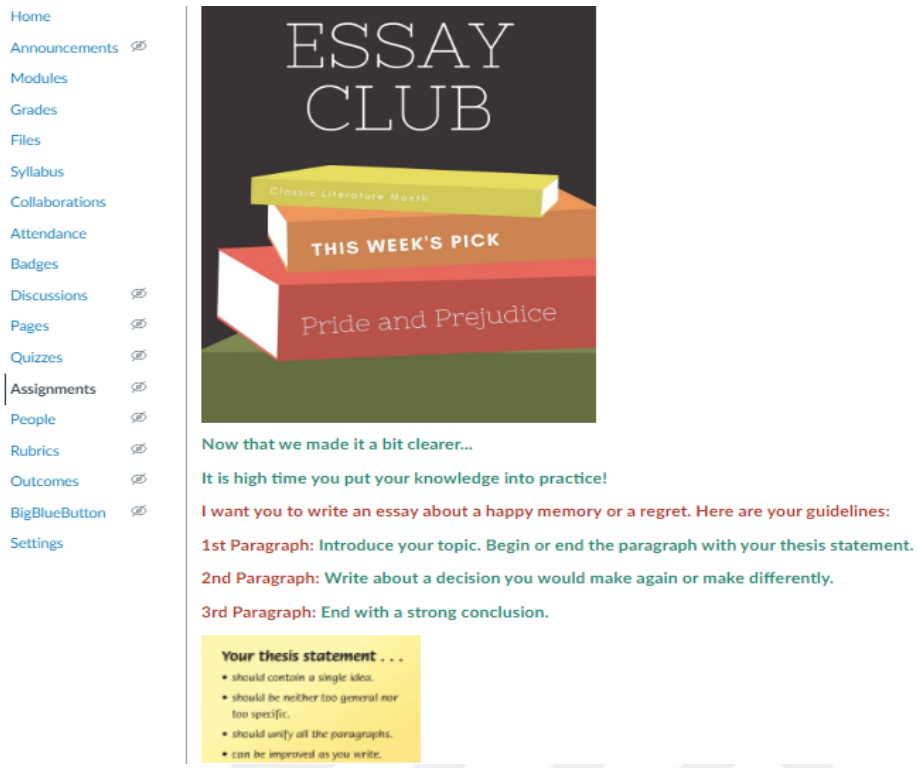


Figure 52. B2-level assignment for the last week

Post-Test and Focus Group Study

The final step taken after the completion of all the modules was another meeting with the teachers to perform a final evaluation for the functionality, efficiency, and effectiveness of the modules. In addition, post-test submissions were checked in terms of the returned responses and number of form submissions.

Following the module-related evaluations related to the adequacy of the whole experience and the post-test data collection confirmations, I addressed my intention to conduct focus group interviews with both teachers and a small group of students. It was mutually agreed that the teachers present in the meeting would answer my questions regarding the statistical analysis results of the scales and questionnaires used during the research process. Similarly, the teachers were asked to arrange a meeting with a small group of students who could interpret the results and could represent all the students in the study.

As agreed, after a three-week break, I returned to the school and held two separate meetings with five teachers and six students, asking the same questions in both groups. First,

I asked four questions concerning the mechanics of the module and the module experience. Second, I asked questions about the statistically significant changes in the scale items related to the autonomy scale, motivation scale, and the possible L2-selves scales. I wanted the participants to write down their answers before we discussed them so that they could be more comfortable speaking about the questions and could have an opportunity collect their thoughts. Third, I asked questions about the difference of technological competencies between genders. Last, I requested their opinions regarding the importance given to language skills, addressing the difference between genders.

3.6. Data Analysis and Validity and Reliability Issues

The data analyzed to commence the research initially included the analyses of the data obtained from the Needs Analysis administered to the teachers and students as per one of the stages of the ID model planned to be developed for the gamified-blended module. The results of the analyses of the Needs Analysis data procured the insights necessary to develop the ideal module to serve the objectives of this study. Subsequently, the pilot study data gathered thanks to the participation of the thirty designated students were analyzed to mature the pre-test conditions. Next, the pre-test procedures included the administration of the questionnaire before the module implementation started. The data gathered from the pre-test were analyzed to configure the data analysis stages in several ways. First, the scales were analyzed in terms of inter-item correlations and internal consistency of the scales. Second, the scales were run a componential analysis to determine the factors to investigate, in the meantime, eliminating the redundant items from the scales. Last, the components of the scales were tested for correlation and reliability. The pre-tests and the module implementation were followed by the post-test, in which the same questionnaire involving the modified scales and additional open-ended questions was used. Lastly, a focus group interview was held with the participation of teachers and some students. The focus group questions and answers were of qualitative nature, thus requiring a content analysis just as the other qualitative data collected in pre and post-tests.

As mentioned above, the data were first divided under two classifications as quantitative and qualitative data. Next, according to the direction of the research, different data collection tools were administered to gather relevant information.

3.6.1. Needs Analysis

The initial stage in collecting the data was the needs analysis. Needs analysis scales and questionnaires were administered to both students and teachers to possess insight into students' present situations and target situations. The scale contained 70 short items and required responses in 5-point Likert type scaling, which generated a high level of reliability (Table 3).

Table 3

Reliability Statistics of Student Needs Analysis

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.972	70

Similarly, the needs analysis scale suited for the teachers and worded for their understanding of the students generated a high-reliability coefficient (Table 4). The teacher scale included 45 items.

Table 4

Reliability Statistics of Teacher Needs Analysis

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.875	45

Apart from the quantitative data in the Needs Analysis, the questionnaire aimed to collect qualitative data based on the opinions of teachers and students regarding several issues. First, they were asked to describe their general technology and educational technology competences. Second, they were asked what they would like to improve related to general technology and educational technology. Last, they were asked questions regarding the language skills, materials, activities used in their schools and what they would improve in terms of language teaching. The qualitative data collected with the Needs Analysis questionnaire were analyzed through the content analysis technique to better interpret the quantitative data. Furthermore, the data collection involved the inspection of the course books in terms of content and corpora with the cooperation and contributions of the teachers.

3.6.2. Pilot Study

As for the next stage, a pilot study was administered with the attendance of 30 students who were superficially informed about the content of the study. In the study, three scales as can be seen in previous subsections were used to collect data from the students, hence, in the pilot stage. Concerning the autonomy scale, the pilot played a role in making some alterations in the items, thus rendering the scale more reliable in terms of internal consistency (Table 5).

Table 5

Reliability Statistics for Autonomy Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.739	13

The removal of the item number 7 (I want to use videos/CDs related to my English lessons outside the classroom) from the scale was considered to increase the Cronbach's Alpha to the level of .739. With the item still included, the reliability coefficient was calculated as .697, and the inter-item correlation values of the item 7 generated no correlation with other items. With the exclusion of the said item, the total number of items measuring the learner autonomy levels of the students was finalized to be 13, and the internal consistency of the scale seemed more solid. The original items in the scale are shown in Figure 53 so that a comparison between the initial and final states of the instrument can be displayed.

1- I want to choose the best activity to help me learn English.
2- I want to take responsibility while learning English.
3- I want my opinion to be asked while learning English.
4- I want to have a say in topics to teach English.
5- I can identify my weaknesses while learning English.
6- I can identify my strengths while learning English.
7- I want to use videos/CDs related to my English lessons outside the classroom (OMITTED)
8- I like taking risks to communicate in English.
9- I can only learn English with the help of my teacher.
10- I willingly read English books written according to my level.
11- I can identify my own learning needs.
12- I can assess the works I've done in English myself.
13- I want my opinions to be taken into consideration in the activities.
14- I am afraid that I won't learn the subject unless the teacher teaches it.

Figure 53. Autonomy Scale Items

Regarding the motivation scale originally including 18 items, two items were excluded from the pilot (Figure 54) prior to the administration of the scale due to the items being related to relatives and heritage, which did not apply to the student in this context. Item number 11, however, was additionally removed from the scale as suggested by the internal consistency calculations. Following the initial calculation of the scale reliability with 16 total items, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was calculated as .668. However, after the deletion of the item and reducing the scale into 15 items, the reliability coefficient level increased to .759, which indicated a sufficient level for a scale to be considered reliable. The other items correlated with at least a few items ($r \geq .3$) and indicated consistency. The original items in the scale can be viewed in Figure 54 before the items indicated with red were omitted.

1- I want to use English when I travel to an English-spoken country.
2- I need to study a foreign language as a requirement of my field.
3- I want to be able to converse with English speakers.
4- I am interested in English culture, history, or literature.
5- I feel it may be helpful in my future career.
6- I need it for studying abroad.
7- I feel it is mentally challenging and provides mental exercise.
8- I want to be able to use it with English-speaking friends.
9- I need it to fulfill the university foreign language requirement.
10- Because of interest in my own heritage.
11- I think it will help me to understand Turkish grammar better.
12- I feel the classes are less demanding than other five-unit courses.
13- I want to be able to speak more languages than just Turkish.
14- I want to learn about another culture to understand the world better.
15- It may make me a more qualified job candidate.
16- I want to communicate with relatives in English.
17- I think foreign language study is part of a well-rounded education.
18- I feel English is an important language in the world.

Figure 54. Motivation Scale Items

The last scale titled the "Possible L2 Selves" is comprised of three sections. The first section involved dichotomous items, and after the pilot, its internal consistency calculations indicated .839 in Cronbach's Alpha. The second section of the scale enquired about the desirability of the dichotomous questions in a 5-point Likert-type scale. The reliability coefficient of the desirability section was calculated as .809 in Cronbach's Alpha. Lastly, the third section was about the likelihood of the dichotomous questions asked in the first section, which indicated a high-reliability coefficient (Table 6).

Table 6

Reliability Statistics for the Possible Selves Likelihood

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.938	18

In none of those three sections in the last scale, an item reduction was necessary due to the naturally occurring high-reliability and correlating values.

All scales were piloted for three basic reasons. First, they were tested for technical issues such as accessibility, submission mechanics, layout, etc. The main aim for the technical considerations was to make sure that students could access the scales, submit their responses for the items, and navigate through the scale items seamlessly. Second, the scales were tested in terms of linguistic mechanics; that is, the comprehensibility of the items, clarity of meaning, and accurate delivery of the message. For this, the LAS remained the same after checking for simple phrasing in the items since it was already in Turkish language, which was the mother tongue of the students. However, for the LLMS and the LPSS, translation and back-translation methods were used with the help of two ELT professionals who held MA degrees in the field. After the translation of the scales, the comprehensibility and linguistic issues were discussed with the field professionals in panels to finalize the scales. Considering the qualitative data collection items in the questionnaire, students did not report any problems understanding the questions. Last, the scales were piloted to test the internal consistency of the items so that they can be administered to the students and obtain reliable data.

The piloting procedures helped finalize the scales for the administration in a larger scale in the pre-test phase of the study. The acknowledgement that the scales were tried for potential technical issues, linguistic matters, and item consistency made the pre-test data collection more reliable and valid.

3.6.3. Pre-Test

In the pre-test stage of the research, students were administered the questionnaires about autonomy, motivation, and L2 possible selves in their first weekly modules before carrying on with the lesson activities. Result of each scale was examined in terms of internal consistency using the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient values.

First, the inter-item correlation and reliability analysis of the LAS developed by (Orakci & Gelisli, 2017) was performed using the SPSS. The scale was administered as modified after the pilot study with 13 items. In the original scale analyses performed by (Orakci & Gelisli, 2017), the reliability coefficient of the scale was found to be .965, and all

fourteen items were loaded under one single factor. The developers of the scale suggested further research to strengthen the scale in other contexts.

To test the applicability of the scale in the context of this study, as suggested by the developers, the inter-item correlation analysis indicated that all items in the scale except for item number 8 correlated with each other in a way ($r \geq .3$). Therefore, another analysis was run by omitting the item to maximize the internal consistency of the scale. The new analysis with 12 items made an increase in the reliability coefficient of .751 as can be seen in Table 7, yielding a higher reliability score. This finding showed that the scale was factorable, and a principal component analysis (PCA) was possible.

Table 7

Reliability Statistics for Autonomy Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.773	12

As for the next step, to meet the prerequisites of a PCA, the scale was analyzed with KMO test and Bartlett's test of sphericity. The results of the analysis generated a KMO coefficient of .736, which could be considered high for a component analysis. As acknowledged, a KMO coefficient above .60 can be considered sufficient for factor analysis. Additionally, the chi-square value for the Bartlett's test of sphericity was found to be significant (χ^2 [66] = 275.29, $p < .001$). These results all indicated that a PCA could be performed for the scale.

The PCA of the scale generated three components as opposed to the findings of (Orakci & Gelisli, 2017), who found one component in their study. As additional precautions adapted from (Razi, 2012), all the components were required to generate eigen values above 1, items under the components must have a factor loads above or equal to .450. Finally, items should load under at least one component, and items loading under two separate components must have at least .100 factor loading value difference to be included under a component (Pallant, 2001; Razi, 2012). Considering these criteria, item number 6 that loaded under components two and three with the loading values of .596 and .509,

violating the criterion of .100 loading value difference was omitted from the scale to rerun the analysis. The new analysis revealed that item number 11 with its updated name showed no correlation with other items after the extraction of item number 6. Another analysis with the elimination of item 11 was run, and the number of components dropped to two, this time indicating inter-item correlation between all items in the scale. This meant that the scale was ideal for the data collection and analysis with 10 items.

As a result, items 1,2,3,4,6, and 10 loaded under component one while items 5, 7, 8, and 9 loaded under the component number two. This ten-item version of the scale could account for 54% of the variance, and Table 8 shows the related factor analysis data for the finalized scale by addressing the means, factor loadings, and communality values with Varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization for the 78 participants of the pre-test.

Table 8

PCA Findings of the LAS

Items/Components	Mean (SD)	Communalities	Ownership	Self-evaluation
I want to take responsibility while learning English.	3.71 (1.07)	.585	**.765**	-.011
I want to choose the best activity to help me learn English.	4.28 (.82)	.545	**.736**	.056
I want my opinions to be taken into consideration in the activities.	3.96 (1.02)	.553	**.736**	.106
I want to have a say in topics to teach English.	3.73 (1.10)	.540	**.690**	.254
I want my opinion to be asked while learning English.	4.01 (.97)	.526	**.639**	.342
I like taking risks to communicate in English.	3.40 (1.25)	.441	**.632**	.205
I can identify my own learning needs.	3.91 (1.00)	.705	.106	**.833**
I can assess the works I've done in English myself.	3.73 (1.01)	.673	.085	**.816**
I can identify my weaknesses while learning English.	3.95 (.93)	.598	.117	**.764**
I willingly read English books written according to my level.	3.18 (1.34)	.258	.206	**.464**

Note. Items 6 and 11 were omitted. Explained variance: Total = 54.2%; Factor 1 = 30.2%; Factor 2 = 24.0%

As can be seen in Table 8, after the PCA, two major components covering the learner ownership and self-evaluation were generated. The ownership component included items that represented the desire to take charge of one's learning, decide the teaching process, and participate in English communication. On the other hand, the items under the self-evaluation component suggested that learners considered themselves adequate in identifying learning needs and strengths and weaknesses, and in assessing their language levels.

Considering the internal consistency of the finalized scale, the reliability coefficient of the 10 items was calculated as .80, which showed a remarkable increase compared to the previous versions. In addition, the ownership component's reliability coefficient value was calculated as .80 whereas the reliability coefficient of the self-evaluation component was found .70, both of which showed high reliability.

As can be seen in Table 9, where the Pearson correlation values between the two components are shown, and the components were correlated with one another.

Table 9

Pearson Correlations of LAS Components

	Ownership	Self-evaluation
Ownership	1	.375(**)
Self-evaluation	.375(**)	1

Note. N = 78; ** p < .001

Regarding the LLMS developed by Ely (1986), the reliability analysis generated the results as shown in Table 10. As can be seen in the table, the LLMS pre-test results indicated a very high level of reliability as it generated a coefficient value quite close to .1.

Table 10

Reliability Statistics for LLMS

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.879	15

Furthermore, the internal consistency analysis showed that all the items correlated with each other ($r \geq .3$), suggesting that a factorial analysis could be run to assess the construct validity of the scale and to compare the components with the findings of Ely (1986), in which the items clustered around three components. Seven items in the first cluster generated Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .83, three items in the second cluster .70, and two items in the third cluster .67. The reliability coefficient of the entire scale was found to be .86.

The initial analysis before PCA indicated that the scale consisting of 15 items generated a KMO coefficient of .799, indicating adequacy to perform a factor analysis. In addition, Bartlett's test of sphericity chi-square coefficient value showed significance (χ^2 [105] = 562.09, $p < .001$), suggesting that a component analysis could be performed next. Initially, the PCA indicated five components representing the fifteen items in the scale. Considering the items loading under the components, it was found that two items violated a fundamental rule by loading under two components yielding a difference lower than .100. Item number 6 loaded with the values .411 and .491, and item number 10 with .432 and .516 under two components. Therefore, it seemed plausible to eliminate these three items from the scale to run another analysis. Following the exclusion of items number six and ten, the number of components on the scale was reduced to four.

Items 1,3,7, and 9 were loaded under component one, items 2, 5, and 8 under component two, items 6, 11, 12, and 13 under component three, and items 4 and 10 under component four. These four components accounted for 69% of the variance. In respective order, component one accounted for 23% of the total variance, component two for 19%, component three for 14%, and component four for 13%. Table 11 shows the means, communalities, and the component factor loadings of the thirteen-item scale calculated through Varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization.

Table 11

PCA Findings of the LLMS

Items/Components	Mean (SD)	Communalities	Communication	Instrumentality	Functionality	Interest in Culture
I want to be able to converse with English speakers.	4.56 (.93)	.799	**.856**	.188	.162	.070
I want to use English when I travel to an English-spoken country.	4.78 (.61)	.790	**.837**	.023	.158	.252
I want to be able to use it with English-speaking friends.	4.46 (.86)	.791	**.797**	.354	.161	.067
I want to be able to speak more languages than just Turkish.	4.86 (.55)	.545	**.669**	.264	.149	.074
I need to study a foreign language as a requirement of my field.	4.23 (1.05)	.851	.151	**.885**	.041	.207
I feel it may be helpful in my future career.	4.67 (.81)	.788	.347	**.803**	.144	.039
I need it to fulfill the university foreign language requirement.	4.36 (1.00)	.689	.169	**.753**	.189	.242
I think foreign language study is a part of a well-rounded education.	3.74 (1.17)	.682	.283	-.023	**.775**	.037
It may make me a more qualified job candidate.	4.56 (.92)	.657	.268	.374	**.651**	-.145
I feel English is an important language in the world.	4.83 (.56)	.476	-.113	.097	**.564**	.369
I feel it is mentally challenging and provides mental exercise.	3.76 (1.15)	.544	.338	.185	**.557**	.291
I am interested in English culture, history, or literature.	2.83 (1.30)	.831	.222	.106	.005	**.878**
I want to learn about another culture to understand the world better.	4.24 (.98)	.653	.122	.296	.249	**.699**

Note. Items 6 and 10 were omitted. Explained variance: Total = 69.97%; Factor 1 = 23.3%; Factor 2 = 19.3%; Factor 3 = 14.4%; Factor 4 = 12.9%

As per the information given about the scale developed by (Ely, 1986), first cluster indicated desire to communicate in the target language while the second cluster indicated an instrumental aspect for learning English. The third component, however, generated a

different outcome for this study in comparison with the original scale. In the original scale, the third cluster indicated a negative predictor while it represented a functionality aspect in the case of this study. Four items that was loaded in this component indicated the functionality of English as a predictor of a well-rounded education, a qualification in a job, an important world language, and mental refreshment. As for the fourth component, although the original scale did not produce such component, it was found that this cluster of two items were related to the interest in learning English culture.

Regarding the internal consistency of the scale, Cronbach's alpha coefficients of all the components and the entire scale were calculated. The reliability coefficient of the communication component was found .86 while the instrumental component was .84. In addition, the reliability coefficients of the requirement and culture components were both .66. The internal consistency of the entire scale based on Cronbach's alpha was calculated as .86, which could be considered highly reliable. As for the Pearson correlations among the components, Table 12 provides information about the related analytical results. According to the correlational analysis, it was revealed that all four components significantly correlated with one another.

Table 12

Pearson Correlations of LLMS Components

	Communication	Instrumentality	Functionality	Interest in Culture
Communication	1	.506(**)	.525(**)	.367(**)
Instrumental	.506(**)	1	.435(**)	.424(**)
Functionality	.525(**)	.435(**)	1	.380(**)
Interest in Culture	.367(**)	.424(**)	.380(**)	1

Note. N = 78; ** p < .001

Lastly, the reliability of the LPSS that was developed by (Macintyre et al., 2009) and administered as the pre-test yielded high reliability scores, which ensured a safe environment for data analyses. The questionnaire consisted of three dimensions: a dichotomous section presenting two options for the participants to respond with yes/no depending on whether the statement described them now, a five-point Likert type scale to

measure to what extent they desired the statement in the items, and another five-point Likert scale to measure how likely they thought the statement to happen in the future.

Retracing the steps of the original research (Macintyre et al., 2009), two separate PCAs were run for the dimensions. All the items in the desirability section of the scale showed inter-item correlation ($r \geq .3$), meaning that the scale showed partial eligibility for factorial analysis. To make sure the scale was fully eligible for a PCA, the KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity values were calculated. The KMO coefficient of the scale was .80, and the Bartlett's sphericity test revealed significance (χ^2 [153] = 978.84, $p < .001$). The outlook on the PCA showed that three components represented the eighteen items in the scale. In the meantime, concerning the likelihood dimension of the LPSS, 18 items confirmed in the piloting phase were tested for internal consistency after the pre-test administration to seventy-eight students. The initial consistency and inter-item correlation analysis of the scale revealed that all eighteen items indicated internal consistency and correlation among each other ($r \geq .3$). This helped confirm that the scale was potentially eligible for a factorial analysis. To fully affirm that a PCA was a plausible operation, KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity were run. The screenings of the analyses showed that the KMO coefficient of the scale was .91, and the Bartlett's sphericity test was significant (χ^2 [153] = 1370.87, $p < .001$), which suggested that the scale met all the requirements for a component analysis.

However, upon reviewing the factor loadings under three components for the desire dimension of the scale and two components loading for the likelihood dimension, scree plots indicated a steep and decreasing line after the first components in each PCA output. In connection to this, it was suggested by the original research that the rule that eigenvalues that are greater than one must all be considered to be factors is quite unreliable (Cliff, 1988; Macintyre et al., 2009). Therefore, as they conducted their own research, these two dimensions were analyzed again through PCAs with a one factor solution without rotation. The reason for the preference of PCAs with no rotation was based on the suggestion made by the authors that one factor solutions could not use rotation.

Based on the calculations made after the one factor re-consideration, Table 13 below presents the factor loadings for three dimensions used as separate scales. In addition to factor

loadings of components, variance percentages for each component were reviewed. The items' state of describing the participants at the time accounted for the variance of 39.3%. As for the desired outcome dimension, 46.8% of the variance was accounted for. Lastly, future likelihood of the item dimension covered 64.5% of the variance.

Table 13

Factor loadings of three dimensions after one factor solutions

Items/Components	Describes now	Desired	Future likelihood
Understand native English speakers' views	.523	.795	.861
Think like native English speakers	.657	.835	.861
Be a knowledgeable person	.689	.768	.862
Be a cultured person	.678	.847	.767
Understand English literature	.574	.650	.670
Appreciate English art and literature	.578	.542	.687
Feel at ease with native English speakers	.667	.694	.884
Friendships with native English speakers	.712	.774	.890
Feel respected because I speak English	.650	.226	.759
Enjoy speaking English	.547	.759	.832
Want to learn many languages	.407	.791	.715
Participate freely in activities of other cultural groups	.591	.626	.754
Act like native English speakers	.663	.517	.796
Meet and converse with native English speakers	.697	.466	.877
Work at a job using English	.493	.643	.810
Travel to English speaking areas / countries	.732	.816	.796
Go to English films in the original language	.713	.498	.835
Read newspapers and magazines in English	.611	.742	.770

For the dichotomous part of the scale where the students responded with two options either stating that the situation applied for them or not, the reliability coefficient based on the Cronbach's Alpha was calculated as .90. In addition, the remaining dimensions, which were desirability and the future likelihood (possibility) of the situation, were comprised of five-point Likert type scales and enquired the students' responses for the same 18 items in

two different dimensions. The desirability dimension that was about how desirable the situation in the item was for the student generated a reliability score as shown in Table 14.

Table 14

Reliability Statistics for LPSS Desirability Dimension

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.908	18

Considering the likelihood of the statements according to students' opinions, the third dimension was analyzed to determine the reliability coefficient value. Table 15 below presents the reliability score calculated for the future likelihood dimension of the questionnaire.

Table 15

Reliability Statistics for LPSS Future Likelihood Dimension

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.96	18

Normality Tests

To determine if the data were distributed normally and decide upon the parametric or non-parametric measures would be taken in the data analysis, the scales were analyzed in terms of normality criteria. For this reason, the data comprising of independent and dependent variables were tested for Skewness and Kurtosis, Shapiro-Wilk's tests, and histograms and normal Q-Q plots were inspected to check for the approximate normality in the distribution the data. It is assumed that normal distribution requires a Shapiro-Wilk's test above a p value of .05 while the kurtosis and skewness of the data should be as close to zero as possible and within the range of -1.96 and +1.96. In other words, in normality tests, the null hypothesis is the assumption that the data is normally distributed; therefore, a p value below .05 is statistically significantly different from a normal distribution, which means that the data should have no statistically significant difference (Doane & Seward, 2011; Razali & Wah, 2011).

In terms of the gender variables, the LAS yielded an approximately normal distribution as a skewness of -0.598 (SE = 0.354) and kurtosis of 0.460 (SE = 0.695) were found for females while a skewness of 0.062 (SE = 0.409) and kurtosis of -0.651 (SE = 0.798) were calculated for males. The Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$) and Q-Q plots indicated normal distribution for the LAS. As for the other scales, the gender variables did not produce normal distribution values in any of the criteria.

Considering the grade variables, similarly, the LAS normality test results indicated an approximate normality in data distribution. For the 9th grades, the skewness was calculated as -0.496 (SE = 0.316) and the kurtosis was found as -0.060 (SE = 0.623) whereas the skewness was 0.371 (SE = 0.501) and the kurtosis was -0.515 (SE = 0.972) for the 10th grades. Additionally, the Shapiro-Wilk's normality test generated no statistically significant difference ($p > .05$) while the normal Q-Q plots showed a visual normality, which indicated that the data were normally distributed in an approximate manner. The remaining scales (LLMS and LPSS) did not show normality in any of the normality criteria in terms of grade variable.

As for the qualitative data collection items in the questionnaire, the students were asked about their interest in English language learning with the reasons, be it positive or negative. The student responses were analyzed through the content analysis technique.

3.6.4. Post-Test

The post-test stage of the study included the administration of the autonomy, motivation, and L2 possible-selves questionnaires at the end of the seventh week activities. The scales included in the questionnaires were administered as modified in the pre-test phase.

The LAS, which originally included 14 items, was administered with 10 items after the reductions made in the pre-test phase based on the internal consistency and PCA procedures. In addition, considering that the LAS normality tests and the normally distributed gender and grade variables, it appeared that parametric tests would be used to

analyze the inferential data collected by the scale. To analyze the data collected through the LAS, independent samples t-tests and paired samples t-tests would work effectively.

Regarding the LLMS, 16 original items were analyzed in terms of inter-item correlation, internal consistency, and PCA. Based on the analysis results, the scale was reduced to involve 13 items. Furthermore, the normality tests indicated that the data were not normally distributed for both variables. Therefore, the scale would be analyzed through non-parametric tests to infer interpretation.

The LPSS that harbored three sections with the same 18 items as a dichotomous scale asking whether the situation applied to the students, a desirability section asking if the students found the situation desirable, and a likelihood section whether the students thought the situation likely in the future was analyzed in terms of internal consistency and PCA required certain modifications to the scales. Both the desirability and likelihood scales were reduced to 14 items, but at different items based on the componential structures after the PCA. The normality tests revealed no normal distribution in the related variables for all the scales. Therefore, as in the LLMS, non-parametric tests would be plausible for the inferential statistics of the scale data. Regarding the LLMS and the LPSS, Mann Whitney-U and Wilcoxon tests appeared to be the most appropriate data analysis choices to analyze the independent and dependent variables.

The post-tests were answered by more students compared to the pre-test. However, for the sake of data analysis that would compare the scores of both tests, the same 72 students out of 92 students who participated in the pre-test were selected, and the submissions of the remaining students were not taken into consideration.

In addition to the scales that collected quantitative data, semi-structured questions that aimed to collect qualitative data from the students were asked in the questionnaire. Students were asked questions about their experiences in the blended-gamified module in terms of activities, module mechanics, and their criticism of the whole experience. The qualitative items were reserved to be analyzed through the content analysis technique.

3.6.5. Skill Tests

Students' skill data were analyzed using their reading, grammar, and vocabulary scores obtained from the WEXT proficiency tests as mentioned before. Writing skills were measured separately using the learner analytics feature of the Canvas LMS to identify students who regularly attended the modules and completed their final assignments. The final 47 students were found to be consistent in their logged-in time and submissions. Moreover, measuring this vital productive skill based on learners' performance on the module is more logical because learners spent 8 weeks trying to hone their writing skills as requested by the modules. Each weekly module required students to produce written assignments and submit them. Therefore, within the context of their written development, their module assignments and their homework before the module implementation were used for comparison. Overall, the process was carefully planned and included both standardized tests and module-specific assessments, providing a comprehensive understanding of students' language skills before and after the module, and identifying areas for improvement.

To make a comparison between students' writing skills before and after the module, previous written assignments of these 47 students which were written on certain topics were found by their teachers. After obtaining the assignments, one teacher was asked to collaborate with me in scoring the assignments again based on a common rubric (Appendix 9) for paragraph development.

The re-scoring was employed for the pre-test because of validity and reliability reasons. I (the researcher) took the role of Rater 1 while the teacher was Rater 2. The scorers marked the assignments independently first, then the scores were compared in a meeting to see if there were big differences to ensure inter-rater reliability. Reliability scores were calculated with Cronbach's Alpha and for the pre-test it was found to be .88, while it was .90 for the post-test scores. Finally, the overall reliability value of both pre-test and pos-test writing scores was found .70. These values indicated that scorers had given consistent marks for the assignments, and they can be used to measure writing skills of the students.

3.6.6. Focus Study

After the data were collected and analyzed, six students and five teachers were asked specialized questions about the scales, responses of the students, and the blended-gamified module experience. The students who participated in the focus interview were selected with the help of their teachers. I specifically asked the teachers to recommend the students who would be the best fits for the procedure, and the teachers suggested that these students were very perceptive and smart, and that they would enjoy such discussions. Therefore, I agreed to include the students and kindly asked the teachers to ask the students about their opinions about participating in such interviews. When the students agreed to contribute to the focus group interview, I presented them with semi-structured questions about the experience.

A similar procedure was initiated with the participation of the teachers with only one loss. One of the teachers took a maternity leave, and I could only interview five teachers about the blended-gamified experience and the data interpretation. All the answers given to the questions were documented to be analyzed with the content analysis technique.

CHAPTER FOUR
FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

The findings of this study will be presented in two main sections as the quantitative and qualitative data analysis results. Since the research principally sought answers for five main research questions, each research question will be addressed under its own headline and specified results will be provided under sub-headings. The first three research questions investigating the statistically significant difference between pre- and post-test scores of EFL learners who participated in the study and the fourth research question focusing on the students' opinions regarding the mechanics of the gamified blended module will present quantitative analysis data. The last two research questions will provide qualitative analysis results of the study, which will focus on the opinions of EFL learners regarding the gamified blended module in relation to autonomy, motivation, interaction, etc. and interactional features of the module.

4.2. Investigation of Statistical Differences Between Pre-Test and Post-Test Scores of EFL Learners Regarding LA

To obtain approximate insights about the LA of the EFL learners who participated in the research, the LAS developed by (Orakci & Gelisli, 2017) was administered to the EFL learners who took part in the module activities of the research. The results obtained in pre-test and post-test were analyzed with quantitative techniques for interpretation. The results of the tests were initially organized as a comparison of pre-test and post-test values with reference to components found in the LAS. Next, the results were analyzed in terms of gender and grade variables for pre-test and post-test scores obtained in the LAS.

The data obtained from the LAS were analyzed through parametric tests since the normality test results generated an approximately normal distribution for gender and grade variables. The initial step for the analysis was to compare pre-test results of EFL learners regarding LA in terms of gender and grade. To analyze the data for the variables, independent samples t-test was used on separate accounts. Next, similarly, post-test results

for the same variables were analyzed through independent samples t-test. Finally, the results of pre-test and post-test were compared with paired samples t-test for different scenarios by filtering genders and grades to observe the difference in LA for each case.

4.2.1. Pre-Test Results of EFL Learners for the LAS

After the PCA was computed to determine the components of the LAS, it was found that there were two components representing the items in the scale. These two components were ownership and self-evaluation. Items having loaded under ownership component addressed situations where the learners wished to take responsibility of their learning decisions and personalize the process. On the other hand, self-evaluation component included items suggesting that the learners could assess their performance and choices in the learning process. Table 16 below shows the mean scores and standard deviation values of the learners regarding the components of the LAS in pre-test.

Table 16

Pre-test scores reflected in the components of LAS

Item	***M***	***SD***
ownership	3,86	.75
self-evaluation	3,74	.75

Note. *N=72*

Upon examination of the mean scores, it can be noted that participants rated the component items with moderately high responses. Prior to gender and grade related differences, the analysis data on all items under each component are presented in Table 17 for a detailed understanding of the responses.

Table 17

Pre-test scores reflected in the items of the LAS

Component	**Item**	***M***	***SD***
ownership	*I want to take responsibility while learning English.*	*3,71*	*.75*
	I want to choose the best activity to help me learn English.	*4,28*	*.82*

Table 17. Continued

ownership	*I want my opinions to be taken into consideration in the activities.*	*3,99*	*1.04*
	I want to have a say in topics to teach English.	*3,75*	*1.07*
	I want my opinion to be asked while learning English.	*4,03*	*.99*
	I like taking risks to communicate in English.	*3,43*	*1.26*
self-evaluation	*I can identify my own learning needs.*	*3,93*	*.96*
	I can assess the works I've done in English myself.	*3,78*	*.99*
	I can identify my weaknesses while learning English.	*3,99*	*.94*
	I willingly read English books written according to my level.	*3,25*	*1.29*

Note. *N=72*

As can be seen in the table, the learners showed high ownership levels in desire to choose the best activity to help them learn English (*M*=4,28 , *SD*=.82) and demand their opinions be asked while learning English (*M*=4,03 , *SD*=.99) whereas in the other items, their responses indicated high ownership in relatively moderate manner. In terms of self-evaluation, students showed moderately high levels while showing a moderate-level self-evaluation related autonomy in the item stating that they willingly read English books written according to their levels (*M*=3,25 , *SD*=1.29), indicating that they can moderately evaluate their levels to choose appropriate English books to read willingly.

LAS Pre-Test Scores Based on Gender

To compare the differences in gender, an independent samples t-test was run for both at component level and all items in detail. Table 18 shows the descriptive statistics regarding the LAS components.

Table 18

Pre-test scores reflected in the components of the LAS based on gender

Item	**Gender**	**n**	***M***	***SD***
ownership	female	43	3,93	.73
	male	29	3,76	.77
self-evaluation	female	43	3,77	.75
	male	29	3,68	.76

The data in the table indicates that female learners (*M*=3,93 , *SD*=.73) were more in tune with themselves in terms of ownership compared to male learners (*M*=3,76 , *SD*=.77), indicating scores that can be considered high in terms of the five-point Likert scale. Similarly, females (*M*=3,77 , *SD*=.75) were slightly more capable of evaluating their performance in comparison with males (*M*=3,68 , *SD*=.76) although the scores of both genders were quite close to one another. In addition to the componential data, Table 19 presents the gender responses given to each item in the LAS.

Table 19

Pre-test scores reflected in the items of the LAS based on gender

Component	**Item**	**Gender**	***M***	***SD***
ownership	*I want to take responsibility while learning English.*	female	3,79	1.05
		male	3,59	1.15
	I want to choose the best activity to help me learn English.	female	4,37	.81
		male	4,14	.83
	I want my opinions to be taken into consideration in the activities.	female	4,02	1.03
		male	3,93	1.06
	I want to have a say in topics to teach English.	female	3,98	.88
		male	3,41	1.24
	I want my opinion to be asked while learning English.	female	4,09	1.08
		male	3,93	.84
	I like taking risks to communicate in English.	female	3,33	1.28
		male	3,59	1.24
self-evaluation	*I can identify my own learning needs.*	female	3,91	.99
		male	3,97	.94
	I can assess the works I've done in English myself.	female	3,72	.95
		male	3,86	1.06
	I can identify my weaknesses while learning English.	female	4,07	.98
		male	3,86	.87
	I willingly read English books written according to my level.	female	3,40	1.27
		male	3,03	1.32

Note. *N=72*

Based on the data presented in the table, it is apparent that females gave responses indicating higher autonomy levels in majority of the cases. Except, male learners regarded themselves more autonomous in two items under self-evaluation component although the scores were

very close to those of females. In terms of identifying their own learning needs, males (*M*=3,97 , *SD*=.94) were slightly more autonomous in evaluating themselves than females (*M*=3,91 , *SD*=.99) were. Additionally, there was a slight difference between males (*M*=3,86 , *SD*=1.06) and females (*M*=3,72 , *SD*=.95) regarding the ability to assess their works they have done in English. Under the ownership component, males (*M*=3,59 , *SD*=1.24) seemed to be more in favor of taking risks to communicate in English than did the female learners (*M*=3,33 , *SD*=1.28).

Regarding the difference between genders in the LAS pre-test responses, Table 20 presents the analysis results based on the independent samples t-test.

Table 20

Differences regarding pre-test LAS components based on gender

Component	**Gender**	**N**	**X**	**S**	**sd**	**t**	**p**
ownership	female	43	3,93	.73	.18	.91	.36
	male	29	3,76	.77			
self-evaluation	female	43	3,77	.75	.18	.50	.61
	male	29	3,68	.76			

Note. *N=72*

According to the table above, in terms of ownership and self-evaluation components of the LAS, no statistically significant difference between genders was found. In the case of item-based differences, the item “I want to have a say in topics to teach English” revealed a statistically significant difference between females (*M*=3,98 , *SD*=.88) and males (*M*=3,41 , *SD*=1.24), $t(47) = 2.10$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.53$. Levene’s test for equality of variances did not indicate equal variances ($F = 6.72$, $p = .012$), therefore the value for degree of freedom was modified from 70 to 47. In addition, the effect size for the difference was revealed as medium. The related data are presented in Table 21 below.

Table 21

Differences regarding pre-test LAS items based on gender

Item	Gender	N	X	S	sd	t	p
I want to have a say in topics to teach English	female	43	3,98	.88	.26	2.10	.04
	male	29	3,41	1.24			

Note. *N=72*

LAS Pre-Test Scores Based on Gender

The difference between the learners from the 9th and 10th grade regarding their responses in the LAS were analyzed through an independent samples t-test. Initially, the differences were scrutinized in terms of the LAS components. Later, a comparison between the grade levels was made at the item level. Table 22 below shows the data regarding the mean scores and standard deviations of both grades.

Table 22

Pre-test scores reflected in the components of the LAS based on grade

Item	Grade	n	*M*	*SD*
ownership	9th grade	51	3,89	.74
	10th grade	21	3,78	.80
self-evaluation	9th grade	51	3,79	.78
	10th grade	21	3,58	.69

Note. *N=72*

Based on the data shown in the table, in terms of the components of the LAS, both grades showed virtually identical response scores. However, as can be seen, despite the close response values, the 9th-grade students (*M*=3,89 , *SD*=.74) scored higher in terms of items under ownership component than the 10th-grade students (*M*=3,78 , *SD*=.80). Similarly, the 9th grades believed that they were stronger (*M*=3,79 , *SD*=.78) than the 10th graders (*M*=3,58 , *SD*=.69) in the sense of evaluating their performance in language learning. To be more precise, a more detailed outlook to their LA levels, Table 23 presents item-based data regarding their responses to the LAS.

Table 23

Pre-test scores reflected in the items of the LAS based on grade

Component	Item	Gender	*M*	*SD*
ownership	*I want to take responsibility while learning English.*	9th grade	3,67	1.12
		10th grade	3,81	1.03
	I want to choose the best activity to help me learn English.	9th grade	4,27	.82
		10th grade	4,29	.84
	I want my opinions to be taken into consideration in the activities.	9th grade	4,04	1.01
		10th grade	3,86	1.10
	I want to have a say in topics to teach English.	9th grade	3,90	.94
		10th grade	3,38	1.28
	I want my opinion to be asked while learning English.	9th grade	4,04	1.00
		10th grade	4,00	1.00
	I like taking risks to communicate in English.	9th grade	3,45	1.31
		10th grade	3,38	1.16
self-evaluation	*I can identify my own learning needs.*	9th grade	4,00	.98
		10th grade	3,76	.94
	I can assess the works I've done in English myself.	9th grade	3,84	1.03
		10th grade	3,62	.92
	I can identify my weaknesses while learning English.	9th grade	4,00	.96
		10th grade	3,95	.92
	I willingly read English books written according to my level.	9th grade	3,35	1.32
		10th grade	3,00	1.22

Note. *N=72*

Considering the grade-level difference, both grade learners responded with similar rates for each item. However, the item related to the participants' willingness to take part in the decision process of choosing topics for English teaching showed the greatest mean difference between grades. While the 9th grades (*M*=3,90 , *SD*=.94) reflected a nearly high ownership level regarding the item, the 10th-grade students (*M*=3,38 , *SD*=1.28) responded with a relatively more moderate ownership level.

To determine whether there was a statistically significant difference concerning the LAS scores of both grade levels, an independent samples t-test was run, and the results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference at componential level. Table

24 below presents the related data regarding the differences between grade levels in the LAS scores.

Table 24

Differences regarding LAS components based on grade

Component	Gender	N	X	S	sd	t	p
ownership	9th grade	51	3,89	.74	.19	.56	.57
	10th grade	21	3,78	.80			
self-evaluation	9th grade	51	3,79	.78	.19	1.09	.27
	10th grade	21	3,58	.69			

Note. *N=72*

Similarly, at item-level statistics, no statistically significant difference was detected between grades in terms of their scores in the LAS, apart from the indication of the data that in all the cases except one, the 9th-grade students showed higher autonomy levels compared to the 10th-grade learners. The single item the 10th-grade students showed more autonomy than the 9th grades was about the desire to choose the best activity to help them learn English, though it was a small difference.

4.2.2. Post-Test Results of EFL Learners for the LAS

The same pattern to the pre-test data was observed for the post-test results of the LAS regarding the difference between learner groups in terms of gender and grade. However, a general outlook of the mean scores for the whole group will be presented initially to understand the LA-related outcomes following the blended gamified module implementation. Table 25 below shows the mean scores and standard deviation values of the learners regarding the components of the LAS in post-test.

Table 25

Post-test scores reflected in the components of the LAS

Item	*M*	*SD*
ownership	4,03	.73
self-evaluation	3,72	.73

The data on the table indicates that EFL learners had ownership levels slightly above the bar that is considered high (*M*=4,03 , *SD*=.73), while the self-evaluation component of the scale indicated a value close to moderate levels of autonomy (*M*=3,72 , *SD*=.73). To understand the dynamics of the components, Table 26 presents an item-based tabulation of the post-test response values of the learners.

Table 26

Post-test scores reflected in the items of the LAS

Component	**Item**	***M***	***SD***
ownership	*I want to take responsibility while learning English.*	3,82	1.17
	I want to choose the best activity to help me learn English.	4,56	.69
	I want my opinions to be taken into consideration in the activities.	4,00	1.03
	I want to have a say in topics to teach English.	3,90	1.14
	I want my opinion to be asked while learning English.	4,28	.89
	I like taking risks to communicate in English.	3,65	1.25
self-evaluation	*I can identify my own learning needs.*	3,88	.95
	I can assess the works I've done in English myself.	3,76	1.00
	I can identify my weaknesses while learning English.	4,08	.87
	I willingly read English books written according to my level.	3,18	1.32

Note. *N=72*

As the table suggests, the EFL learners gave scores above the moderate-level autonomy for all of the ownership-related items. In the cases of wanting to choose the best activity (*M*=4,56 , *SD*=.69), wanting their opinions to be asked while learning English (*M*=4,28 , *SD*=.89), and wanting their opinions to be taken into consideration in the activities (*M*=4,00 , *SD*=1.03), participants indicated high-level autonomy.

In terms of self-evaluation, learners were not as confident as they were in ownership to take control over their learning regarding assessing the learning elements. The table portrays that they showed autonomy levels within the moderate-to-high range except for one item suggesting that they could identify their weaknesses while learning English (*M*=4,08 , *SD*=1.32).

LAS Post-Test Scores Based on Gender

The reactions given to the LAS following the blended gamified module experience were analyzed to detect the potential differences between genders. To interpret the results, first, a general outlook for the mean scores and standard deviations for the genders will be provided with the help of componential data. Following this, items of the LAS will be presented to project the gender-related differences. Lastly, the gender difference regarding the post-test scores will be compared in the light of the analysis data obtained from an independent samples t-test.

Regarding the reactions of the participants to the LAS components, Table 27 below provides information about the mean scores and standard deviations of genders related to ownership and self-evaluation components in the post-test.

Table 27

Post-test scores reflected in the components of the LAS based on gender

Item	**Grade**	**n**	***M***	***SD***
ownership	female	43	4,10	.75
	male	29	3,93	.70
self-evaluation	female	43	3,79	.82
	male	29	3,62	.58

Note. *N=72*

As can be seen from the table, in the post test, female learners appeared to be more autonomous in ownership and self-evaluation components with slight difference levels. Specifically, female learners (*M*=4,10 , *SD*=.75) scored higher in terms of ownership component than compared to male learners (*M*=3,93 , *SD*=.70). Moreover, females (*M*=3,79 , *SD*=.82) were more aware of their performance in connection with evaluating their English learning process in comparison with males (*M*=3,62 , *SD*=.58).

In addition to the componential differences, Table 28 below provides insights about the differences between genders in terms of their responses given to each item in the LAS.

Table 28

Post-test scores reflected in the items of the LAS based on gender

Component	Item	Gender	*M*	*SD*
ownership	*I want to take responsibility while learning English.*	female	3,88	1.26
		male	3,72	1.07
	I want to choose the best activity to help me learn English.	female	4,63	.65
		male	4,45	.74
	I want my opinions to be taken into consideration in the activities.	female	4,07	1.08
		male	3,90	.98
	I want to have a say in topics to teach English.	female	4,00	1.13
		male	3,76	1.15
	I want my opinion to be asked while learning English.	female	4,28	.98
		male	4,28	.75
	I like taking risks to communicate in English.	female	3,77	1.32
		male	3,48	1.22
self-evaluation	*I can identify my own learning needs.*	female	3,88	1.05
		male	3,86	.79
	I can assess the works I've done in English myself.	female	3,84	1.11
		male	3,66	.81
	I can identify my weaknesses while learning English.	female	4,12	.85
		male	4,03	.90
	I willingly read English books written according to my level.	female	3,33	1.37
		male	2,97	1.24

Note. *N=72*

As can be seen in the table, female learners felt more autonomous in virtually all items except for the item about wanting their opinions to be asked while learning English. Although the difference in the post-test LAS items were very little between genders, females (*M*=3,33 , *SD*=1.37) felt that they willingly read English books written according to their level at a moderate level while male students (*M*=2,97 , *SD*=1.24) showed a below-moderate autonomy level in the item.

Considering the difference between genders, a comparison made with an independent samples t-test indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between genders at component level (Table 29).

Table 29

Differences regarding LAS components based on gender in post-test

Component	Gender	N	X	S	sd	t	p
ownership	female	43	4,10	.75	.17	.99	.32
	male	29	3,93	.70			
self-evaluation	female	43	3,79	.82	.16	.91	.36
	male	29	3,62	.58			

Note. *N=72*

Similarly, in terms of the differences at item level, no statistically significant differences were detected between genders regarding their LAS scores in the post-test. As mentioned before, the only interpretation that can be made regarding the gender difference is that the females showed slightly more LA level in the post-test.

LAS Post-Test Scores Based on Grade

The results of the LAS post-test after the blended gamified module were analyzed to be reviewed in terms of any difference between the grade levels. As the primary step, the LAS post-test results will be presented in a general sense to scrutinize the mean and standard deviation values of the groups at componential level. Then, the data will be tabulated and interpreted for each item in the LAS. Last, the difference between grade levels will be interpreted based on the results obtained from an independent samples t-test.

Grade-related results revealed that the 9th grades showed slightly more autonomy concerning the components of the LAS post-test. Table 30 below shows the post-test means and standard deviation values for the grades at componential level.

Table 30

Post-test scores reflected in the components of the LAS based on grade

Item	Grade	n	*M*	*SD*
ownership	9th grade	51	4,05	.70
	10th grade	21	3,97	.81
self-evaluation	9th grade	51	3,79	.77
	10th grade	21	3,55	.61

As can be seen in the table, the 9th-grade students (*M*=4,05 , *SD*=.70) showed ownership values above high level while the 10th-grade learners (*M*=3,97 , *SD*=.81) were slightly lower than a high-level ownership value. Similarly, at self-evaluation level, students from the 9th grade (*M*=3,79 , *SD*=.77) scored somewhat higher than the students from the 10th grade (*M*=3,55 , *SD*=.61), indicating a small difference between grades in the favor of the 9th grades.

Regarding the items in the scale, Table 31 below presents the descriptive results of the grade levels.

Table 31

Post-test scores reflected in the items of the LAS based on grade

Component	**Item**	**Gender**	***M***	***SD***
ownership	*I want to take responsibility while learning English.*	9th grade	3,84	1.19
		10th grade	3,76	1.18
	I want to choose the best activity to help me learn English.	9th grade	4,53	.67
		10th grade	4,62	.74
	I want my opinions to be taken into consideration in the activities.	9th grade	4,06	.97
		10th grade	3,86	1.19
	I want to have a say in topics to teach English.	9th grade	4,00	1.06
		10th grade	3,67	1.32
	I want my opinion to be asked while learning English.	9th grade	4,29	.90
		10th grade	4,24	.89
	I like taking risks to communicate in English.	9th grade	3,63	1.28
		10th grade	3,71	1.19
self-evaluation	*I can identify my own learning needs.*	9th grade	3,90	1.00
		10th grade	3,81	.81
	I can assess the works I've done in English myself.	9th grade	3,90	1.00
		10th grade	3,43	.93
	I can identify my weaknesses while learning English.	9th grade	4,16	.90
		10th grade	3,90	.77
	I willingly read English books written according to my level.	9th grade	3,22	1.35
		10th grade	3,10	1.30

Note. *N=72*

The data in the table indicates that the students from the 9th grade showed more autonomy in a majority of the items in the scales except for two cases. The 10th-grade learners (*M*=4,62 , *SD*=.74) showed more willingness to choose the best activity the help them learn English in comparison with the 9th grades (*M*=4,53 , *SD*=.67). However, this does not change the outcome that both grades indicated remarkably high autonomy levels in the item. Additionally, the 10th grades (*M*=3,71 , *SD*=1.19) were willing to take more risks while communicating in English compared to the 9th grades (*M*=3,63 , *SD*=1.28) although the values for both grades indicated a moderate-level autonomy.

Regarding the differences between grade levels at componential level, no statistically significant difference was detected (Table 32).

Table 32

Differences regarding LAS components based on grade in post-test

Component	**Grade**	**N**	**X**	**S**	**sd**	**t**	**p**
ownership	9th grade	51	4,05	.70	.18	.43	.66
	10th grade	21	3,97	.81			
self-evaluation	9th grade	51	3,79	.77	.18	1.24	.21
	10th grade	21	3,55	.61			

Note. *N=72*

With a similar outcome, an item-level outlook revealed that there were no statistically significant differences between grades in the post-test scores. Apart from the items that revealed slight differences between grades, the learners showed considerable mean difference in two items. First, the 9th-grade learners (*M*=4,00 , *SD*=1.05) wanted to have a say in topics to teach English at a high level while the 10th-grade learners (*M*=3,67 , *SD*=1.32) were only moderately interested in having a say in the topics. Second and last, the 9th graders (*M*=3,90 , *SD*=1.00) responded that they could assess the works they had done, indicating a high level autonomy while the 10th graders (*M*=3,43 , *SD*=.93) felt a more moderate autonomy towards the statement.

4.2.3. Pre-Test and Post-Test Comparison of the LAS

To compare the pre-test and post-test results of the learners in the LAS, paired samples t-tests were run for different scenarios. First, the difference between pre-test and post-test scores was analyzed for the whole scale by comparing the total mean scores of the pre-test and post-test. The whole-item differences were reviewed by filtering genders and grades on separate occasions. Second, the differences between ownership and self-evaluation components were analyzed, filtering the genders and grades subsequently to detect differences between variables. Last, the same analysis techniques and procedures were employed for each item in the scale.

As for the general outlook at the differences between pre-test and post-test scores of the learners, Table 33 presents the whole-scale data and componential differences.

Table 33

Pre-test and post-test scores at general and componential level

Item	*M*	*SD*
pre-test learner autonomy	3,81	.62
post-test learner autonomy	**3,91**	**.63**
pre-test ownership	3,86	.75
post-test ownership	**4,03**	**.73**
pre-test self-evaluation	3,73	.76
post-test self-evaluation	**3,72**	**.73**

Note. *N=72*

Considering the mean scores in a general sense, it can be seen that the learners raised their autonomy levels in the post-test (*M*=3,91 , *SD*=.63) after the gamified blended module adding to their autonomy levels before the implementation of the module (*M*=3,81 , *SD*=.62). On the other hand, in terms of components of the scale, it was found that the EFL learners were less autonomous in the ownership component (*M*=3,86 , *SD*=.75) before the module while their ownership levels increased above a level that could be considered high (*M*=4,03 , *SD*=.73) after the activities in the module. However, even though it was a slight change, the participants showed a decrease in self-evaluation component. Their autonomy at moderate levels (*M*=3,73 , *SD*=.76) decreased to a little extent after the implementation of

the module (*M*=3,72 , *SD*=.73), yielding an interesting result which requires further looking into.

According to the paired samples t-test results of the general scale comparison and the comparisons of the components, statistically significant differences were found at the whole scale and at ownership level. It was found that the total mean scores calculated in the post-test (*M*=3,91 , *SD*=.63) were significantly higher than the scores calculated for the pre-test (*M*=3,81 , *SD*=.62), $t(71) = 1.99$, $p \leq .05$, $d = 0.15$. Moreover, a componential comparison revealed that the participants' post-test scores were significantly higher (*M*=4,03 , *SD*=.73) than their pre-test scores (*M*=3,86 , *SD*=.75) for the ownership component, $t(71) = 2.68$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.22$. In the sense of self-evaluation component, no statistically significant difference was found.

Upon the analysis of the items individually, it was revealed that three items in the scale generated statistically significant difference between pre-test and post-test scores of the EFL learners. Table 34 portrays the statistical information about the significant differences between the tests.

Table 34

Pre-test post-test differences regarding the LAS items

Item	Test	X	S	sd	t	p
I want to choose the best activity to help me learn English	pre-test	4,28	.74	.08	3.20	.00
	post-test	4,56				
I want my opinion to be asked while learning English	**pre-test**	**4,03**	**.83**	**.09**	**2.54**	**.01**
	post-test	**4,28**				
I like taking risks to communicate in English	pre-test	3,43	.89	.10	2.11	.03
	post-test	3,65				

Note. *N=72*

As can be seen from the table, the EFL learners' willingness to choose the best activity to help them learn English was significantly higher (*M*=4,56 , *SD*=.69) after the module activities compared to their pre-test scores (*M*=4,28 , *SD*=.83), $t(71) = 3.20$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.36$. Moreover, while they showed a slightly less interest in sharing their opinions while learning English (*M*=4,03 , *SD*=.99), their desire to share their opinions significantly

increased (*M*=4,28 , *SD*=.89) after the module implementation, $t(71) = 2.54$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.26$. Lastly, students' willingness to take risks to communicate in English significantly increased in their post-test scores (*M*=3,65 , *SD*=1.25) compared to their pre-test responses (*M*=3,43 , *SD*=1.26), $t(71) = 2.11$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.17$. Even though the remaining items indicated somewhat differences and improvements, the changes were not statistically significant.

Comparison of Pre-test and Post-Test Scores in terms of Gender

To interpret the differences between female and male students, gender variables were isolated in the data set and separate paired samples t-tests were run for the entire scale, components of the scale, and each item of the scale.

When the female gender was analyzed in terms of the whole scale and the components as isolated by filtering the cases in the statistical data software, it was found that their scores in post-test were not significantly different than their scores in pre-test. However, it can be observed that their autonomy levels showed slight improvement after the module implementation. Similar to the female students, males did not show a statistically significant difference regarding the whole scale and the components. While their autonomy scores increased in the general scale and the ownership component, male students showed a slight decrease in their pre-test scores (*M*= 3,68 , *SD*=.77) after the module activities (*M*=3,62 , *SD*=.58). This outcome indicated that it was the male students who were responsible for the decrease in the self-evaluation component in the entire populace.

Considering the individual items in the scale, female students indicated statistically significant difference at two items. Female students showed significantly lower autonomy levels (*M*=4,37 , *SD*=.82) in terms of wanting to choose the best activity before the module implementation compared to their autonomy levels following the activities (*M*=4,63 , *SD*=.65), $t(42) = 2.30$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.35$. In addition, females did not like to take risks to communicate in English (*M*=3,33 , *SD*=1.29) as much as they did after the implementation of the module (*M*=3,77 , *SD*=1.32), indicating a statistically significant difference, $t(42) = 2.30$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.33$ (Table 35).

Table 35

Pre-test post-test difference of females regarding the LAS items

Item	Test	X	S	sd	t	p
I want to choose the best activity to help me learn English	pre-test	4,37	.72	.11	2.30	.02
	post-test	4,63				
I like taking risks to communicate in English	pre-test	3,33	.88	.13	3.28	.00
	post-test	3,77				

Note. *N=43*

Concerning the male students' pre-test and post-test comparison in terms of individual items in the LAS, it was found that three items indicated statistically significant difference (Table 36). It was revealed that male students felt a strong desire to choose the best activity (M = 4,14 , SD = .83) based on the pre-test; however, their desire went significantly higher after the module activities (M = 4,45 , SD = .74), $t(28) = 2.19$, $p < .05$, d = 0.39. Moreover, they were at a moderate-to-high level (M = 3,93 , SD = .84) in terms of wanting their opinions to be asked according to their pre-test responses while this desire significantly increased in their post-test scores (M = 4,28 , SD = .75) climbing above a level which could be considered high, $t(28) = 2.16$, $p < .05$, d = 0.43. Lastly, male learners showed a moderate response (M = 3,41 , SD = 1.24) to having a say in topics to teach English in the pre-test while their willingness to have a showed a significant raise (M = 3,76 , SD = 1.15) after participating in the gamified blended module, $t(28) = 2.28$, $p < .05$, d = 0.29.

Table 36

Pre-test post-test difference of males regarding the LAS items

Item	Test	X	S	sd	t	p
I want to choose the best activity to help me learn English	pre-test	4,14	.76	.14	2.19	.03
	post-test	4,45				
I want my opinion to be asked while learning English	**pre-test**	**3,93**	**.86**	**.15**	**2.16**	**.03**
	post-test	**4,28**				
I want to have a say in topics to teach English	pre-test	3,41	.81	.15	2.28	.03
	post-test	3,76				

Note. *N=29*

Comparison of Pre-Test and Post-Test Scores in terms of Grade

After isolating the grade levels in the data set through filtering, post-test and pre-test score differences of the grade levels were analyzed with the paired samples t-test to determine whether there were any statistically significant differences at componential and item levels.

Considering the 9th-grade students who participated in the study, a statistically significant difference was found at ownership level, $t(50) = 2.06$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.22$ (Table 37). It was seen that the 9th-grade students improved their ownership levels after the module activities ($M = 3,89$, $SD = .74$) compared to their levels reflected in the pre-test ($M = 4,05$, $SD = .70$). However, in terms of the total mean score comparison and the self-evaluation component, no statistically significant differences were detected.

Table 37

Pre-test post-test difference of 9th grades regarding components

Component	Test	X	S	sd	t	p
ownership	pre-test	3,89	.56	.07	2.06	.04
	post-test	4,05				

Note. *N=51*

The 10th-grade learners were isolated in the statistical analysis software to make a comparison between their pre-test and post-test scores in terms of their total mean scores and the components. The results indicated that no statistically significant differences were found concerning these elements.

Upon analysis of the tests in terms of individual items in the LAS, as can be seen in Table 38, it was found that the 9th-grade students were significantly more willing to participate in choosing the best activity to help them learn English after the module activities ($M = 4,27$, $SD = .83$) when a comparison was made with their scores in the pre-test ($M = 4,53$, $SD = .67$), $t(50) = 2.44$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.34$.

Table 38

Pre-test post-test difference of 9th grades regarding the LAS items

Item	Test	X	S	sd	t	p
I want to choose the best activity to help me learn English	pre-test	4,27	.74	.10	2.44	.01
	post-test	4,53				

Note. *N=51*

Regarding the 10th grades, it was found that two items in the scale indicated statistically significant differences between pre-test and post-test scores (Table 39). Students in the 10th grade became significantly more willing ($M = 4,62$, $SD = .74$) in terms of choosing the best activity compared to their situation before the module activities ($M = 4,29$, $SD = .84$), $t(20) = 2.09$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.41$. Similarly, the 10th-grade learners were significantly more comfortable with taking risks ($M = 3,71$, $SD = 1.19$) as opposed to what they felt before participating in the gamified blended module ($M = 3,38$, $SD = 1.16$), $t(20) = 2.09$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.28$.

Table 39

Pre-test post-test difference of 10th grades regarding the LAS items

Item	Test	X	S	sd	t	p
I want to choose the best activity to help me learn English	pre-test	4,29	.73	.15	2.09	.04
	post-test	4,62				
I like taking risks to communicate in English	pre-test	3,38	.73	.15	2.09	.04
	post-test	3,71				

Note. *N=21*

4.3. Statistical Differences of EFL Learners Regarding L2 Motivation

EFL learners who participated in the gamified blended module designed to improve their LA, L2 motivation, and L2 possible self-related perceptions were administered the LLMS developed by (Ely, 1986), and the results based on their scores in pre-test and post-test were analyzed in quantitative means.

The analysis of pre-test and post-test score of participants in terms of gender and grade levels was conducted with Mann Whitney U tests due to the abnormal distribution of

variables. Initially, pre-test scores of EFL learners were analyzed descriptively in a general sense and in terms of gender and grade variables. Then, post-test scores were analyzed to be interpreted in the same manner. Lastly, participants' differences in motivation based on their pre-test and post-test scores were analyzed through Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test to interpret their motivational changes after the gamified blended learning module.

4.3.1. Pre-Test Motivation Level of Participants

Considering the analysis of pre-test scores of learners obtained from the LLMS, the general descriptive data revealed that participants showed high levels of motivation toward learning English in a general sense (Table 40). However, one particular item related to being interested in English culture, history, or literature (*M* = 2,79 , *SD* = 1.31) indicated a low-to-moderate motivation tendency compared to the other items.

Table 40

Pre-test scores reflected in the items of the LLMS

Item	***M***	***SD***
I want to use English when I travel to an English-spoken country.	4,79	.62
I need to study a foreign language as a requirement of my field.	4,25	1.01
I want to be able to converse with English speakers.	4,61	.89
I am interested in English culture, history, or literature.	2,79	1.31
I feel it may be helpful in my future career.	4,71	.72
I feel it is mentally challenging and provides mental exercise.	3,72	1.15
I want to be able to use it with English-speaking friends.	4,46	.87
I need it to fulfill the university foreign language requirement.	4,39	.94
I want to be able to speak more languages than just Turkish.	4,85	.57
I want to learn about another culture to understand the world better.	4,24	1.00
It may make me a more qualified job candidate.	4,60	.85
I think foreign language study is part of a well-rounded education.	3,71	1.16
I feel English is an important language in the world.	4,83	.58

Note. *N=72*

In the light of components and the scale in a general sense, Table 41 presents mean scores and standard deviation values of participants based on the LLMS. While the general outlook and components such as communication, instrumentality, and functionality seem to

be quite high, the culture component (*M* = 3,51 , *SD* = 1.00) appears to be on a moderate-to-high level.

Table 41

Pre-test scores reflected in the components of the LLMS

Item	***M***	***SD***
LLMS in general	4,30	.55
communication	4,67	.63
instrumentality	4,44	.76
functionality	4,21	.67
interest in culture	3,51	1.00

Note. *N=72*

The data on the table suggests that participants already had high motivation levels regarding language learning in English lessons. They gave great importance to the premise of communication (*M* = 4,67 , *SD* = .63) above everything else. As can be seen in the previous table showing item-level responses, it can be interpreted that participants prominently wanted to learn English to speak with other English speakers and their friends, and using only their mother tongue did not satiate their communication needs. In addition, the learners found English language to be an instrument to achieve their goals in life (*M* = 4,44 , *SD* = .76) while they gave a high regard to the functionality of English language in life (*M* = 4,21 , *SD* = .67).

Pre-Test Scores Based on Gender

When the pre-test scores obtained from the scale are examined in terms of male and female participants, the data showed that female students (*M* = 4,35 , *SD* = .09) were more motivated than male students (*M* = 4,22 , *SD* = .08) in a general sense. More specifically, Table 42 presents the pre-test descriptive data regarding components and gender.

Table 42

Pre-test scores reflected in the components of the LLMS based on gender

Item	***Gender***	***M***	***SD***
LLMS in general	female	4,35	.09
	male	4,22	.08
communication	female	4,68	.10
	male	4,66	.09
instrumentality	female	4,48	.12
	male	4,40	.13
functionality	female	4,28	.08
	male	4,11	.14
interest in culture	female	3,63	.15
	male	3,32	.18

Note. *N=72*

In addition to the general outlook to the scale and componential values, Table 43 below provides additional information regarding the mean scores and standard deviations of genders at the item level. The item-level tabulation is useful to comprehend what the tendencies shown by females and males are in terms of specific motivational situations.

Table 43

Pre-test scores reflected in the items of the LLMS based on gender

Component	**Item**	**Gender**	***M***	***SD***
communication	*I want to use English when I travel to an English-spoken country.*	female	4,79	.70
		male	4,79	.49
	I want to be able to converse with English speakers.	female	4,65	.94
		male	4,55	.82
	I want to be able to use it with English-speaking friends.	female	4,47	.93.
		male	4,45	.78
	I want to be able to speak more languages than just Turkish.	female	4,84	.65
		male	4,86	.44
instrumentality	*I need to study a foreign language as a requirement of my field.*	female	4,26	1.02
		male	4,24	1.02
	I feel it may be helpful in my future career.	female	4,74	.79
		male	4,66	.61

Table 43 (continued).

instrumentality	*I need it to fulfill the university foreign language requirement.*	female	4,44	1.03
		male	4,31	.80
functionality	*I feel it is mentally challenging and provides mental exercise.*	female	3,91	1.17
		male	3,45	1.08
	It may make me a more qualified job candidate.	female	4,63	.84
		male	4,55	.87
	I think foreign language study is a part of a well-rounded education.	female	3,74	1.04
		male	3,66	1.34
	I feel English is an important language in the world.	female	4,86	.41
		male	4,79	.77
interest in culture	*I am interested in English culture, history, or literature.*	female	2,95	1.30
		male	2,55	1,29
	I want to learn about another culture to understand the world better.	female	4,33	.96
		male	4,10	1.04

Note. *N=72*

Based on the data presented in the table, it can be seen that almost all items indicate similarities in female and male responses. However, two items, one of which is functionality-related and the other culture-related, show notable differences in responses given by two groups. For instance, female learners relied more (M = 3,91 , SD = 1.17) on English to give them mental exercise and benefits than male learners did (M = 3,45 , SD = 1.08). Furthermore, While female learners (M = 2,95 , SD = 1.30) were more interested in English culture, history, or literature, male learners (M = 2,55 , SD = 1.29) did not show an interest as great as the females. Regarding this item, it can be seen that all learners showed a low interest in the culture of English spoken communities.

To determine if there was statistically significant difference between genders, the Mann Whitney U test was conducted on two levels: componential level and item level. Concerning the componential structure of the scale, no statistically significant differences were found between female and male students (Table 44).

Table 44

Pre-test LLMS statistical data on gender differences

Component	***Gender***	***Mdn***	***U***	***p***
communication	female	5.00	578.5	.56
	male	4.30		
instrumentality	female	4.66	570.0	.51
	male	4.66		
functionality	female	4.50	555.5	.43
	male	4.25		
interest in culture	female	3.50	509.5	.18
	male	3.00		

Note. *N=72*

Regarding item-level statistics calculated with the Mann Whitney U test, again, no statistically significant differences were found at gender level. The related data and values are provided in Table 45.

Table 45

Item-level pre-test LLMS statistical data on gender differences

Component	**Item**	**Gender**	***Mdn***	***U***	***p***
communication	I want to use English when I travel to an English-spoken country.	female	5.00	591.5	.54
		male	4.30		
	I want to be able to converse with English speakers.	female	5.00	542.5	.20
		male	5.00		
	I want to be able to use it with English-speaking friends.	female	5.00	584.0	.59
		male	5.00		
	I want to be able to speak more languages than just Turkish.	female	5.00	617.0	.19
		male	5.00		
instrumentality	I need to study a foreign language as a requirement of my field.	female	5.00	623.0	.99
		male	5.00		
	I feel it may be helpful in my future career.	female	5.00	542.5	.17
		male	5.00		
	I need it to fulfill the university language requirement.	female	5.00	526.0	.19
		male	5.00		

Table 45 (continued).

functionality	I feel it is mentally challenging and provides mental exercise.	female male	4.00 3.00	465.0	.05
	It may make me a more qualified job candidate.	female male	5.00 5.00	569.0	.40
	I think foreign language study is part of a well-rounded education.	female male	4.00 4.00	619.5	.96
	I feel English is an important language in the world.	female male	5.00 5.00	617.0	.89
interest in culture	I am interested in English culture, history, or literature.	female male	3.00 2.00	517.5	.21
	I want to learn about another culture to understand the world better.	female male	5.00 4.00	547.5	.33

Note. *N=72*

The data in the Table shows no statistically significant difference between genders in relation to their pre-test scores obtained from the LLMS. However, in the functionality component, English language being a mentally challenging process and providing mental exercise indicated difference of responses from females (*Mdn* = 4) and males (*Mdn* = 3) almost on the verge of significance, $U = 465.0$, $p = .059$.

Pre-Test Scores Based on Grade

Pre-test scores of the participants based on grade are presented in Table 46 below in terms of scale components. In a general sense, 9th-grade students (*M* = 4,31 , *SD* = .59) appeared to be slightly more motivated compared to the 10th grade students (*M* = 4,27 , *SD* = .46), almost practically the same level.

Table 46

Pre-test scores reflected in the components of the LLMS based on grade

Component	***Gender***	***M***	***SD***
communication	9th grade	4,61	.73
	10th grade	4,83	.26

Table 46 (continued).

instrumentality	9th grade	4,43	.79
	10th grade	4,49	.71
functionality	9th grade	4,27	.67
	10th grade	4,05	.66
interest in culture	9th grade	3,62	1.00
	10th grade	3,23	.96

Note. *N=72*

To interpret the data on pre-test scores of participants at grade level, item-based findings are presented in Table 47. In the table, each item was divided into 9th and 10th grade categories, and their mean scores and standard deviation values were addressed.

Table 47

Pre-test scores reflected in the items of the LLMS based on grade

Component	**Item**	**Gender**	***M***	***SD***
communication	*I want to use English when I travel to an English-spoken country.*	9th grade	4,73	.72
		10th grade	4,95	.21
	I want to be able to converse with English speakers.	9th grade	4,53	1.02
		10th grade	4,81	.40
	I want to be able to use it with English-speaking friends.	9th grade	4,39	.96
		10th grade	4,62	.59
	I want to be able to speak more languages than just Turkish.	9th grade	4,80	.66
		10th grade	4,95	.21
instrumentality	*I need to study a foreign language as a requirement of my field.*	9th grade	4,25	.99
		10th grade	4,24	1.09
	I feel it may be helpful in my future career.	9th grade	4,69	.78
		10th grade	4,76	.53
	I need it to fulfill the university foreign language requirement.	9th grade	4,35	.99
		10th grade	4,48	.81
functionality	*I feel it is mentally challenging and provides mental exercise.*	9th grade	3,76	1.12
		10th grade	3,62	1.24
	It may make me a more qualified job candidate.	9th grade	4,63	.87
		10th grade	4,52	.81
	I think foreign language study is a part of a well-rounded education.	9th grade	3,86	1.21
		10th grade	3,33	.96

Table 47 (continued).

functionality	*I feel English is an important language in the world.*	9th grade	4,86	.40
		10th grade	4,76	.88
interest in culture	*I am interested in English culture, history, or literature.*	9th grade	2,90	1.37
		10th grade	2,52	1.12
	I want to learn about another culture to understand the world better.	9th grade	4,35	.93
		10th grade	3,95	1.11

Note. *N=72*

As can be seen in the table, considering the pre-test responses of participants based on grade level, almost all items in the scale showed similarities between the groups. However, students considering English a part of a well-rounded education were far more passionate in the 9th grade (*M* = 3,86 , *SD* = 1.21) in comparison with the 10th grade (*M* = 3,33 , *SD* = .96). Additionally, culture component was another dimension where the difference between items was among the greatest. 9th-grade students (*M* = 2,90 , *SD* = 1.37) were more interested in English culture and learning about another culture to expand their world knowledge (*M* = 4,35 , *SD* = .93) compared to the other group where they greatly differed both in their interest in English culture, history, and literature (*M* = 2,52, *SD* = 1.12) and desire to learn about another culture (*M* = 3,95 , *SD* = 1.11).

To determine the potential statistically significant differences between grade levels in terms of participants' pre-test motivation, Mann Whitney U tests were conducted for the components of the scale and each item. At componential level, no statistically significant differences were detected. Table 48 below shows the details of the statistical analysis.

Table 48

Pre-test LLMS statistical data on grade differences

Component	***Gender***	***Mdn***	***U***	***p***
communication	9th grade	5.00	460.0	.29
	10th grade	5.00		
instrumentality	9th grade	4.66	506.5	.70
	10th grade	4.66		

Table 48 (continued).

Functionality	9th grade	4.50	398.5	.08
	10th grade	4.00		
interest in culture	9th grade	3.50	412.5	.12
	10th grade	3.00		

Note. *N=72*

The item-level Mann Whitney U test revealed that one item in the scale showed a statistically significant difference. Under the functionality component, 9th grades (*Mdn* = 4) believed significantly more that learning English was the predictor of a well-rounded education compared to 10th grades (*Mdn* = 3), $U = 363.0$, $p = .027$, $r = .23$. Table 49 accounts for the statistical data related to the all item-level differences in the pre-test.

Table 49

Item-level pre-test LLMS statistical data on grade difference

Component	**Item**	**Gender**	***Mdn***	***U***	***p***
communication	I want to use English when I travel to an English-spoken country.	9th grade	5.00	465.0	.14
		10th grade	5.00		
	I want to be able to converse with English speakers.	9th grade	5.00	499.5	.53
		10th grade	5.00		
	I want to be able to use it with English-speaking friends.	9th grade	5.00	494.5	.55
		10th grade	5.00		
	I want to be able to speak more languages than just Turkish.	9th grade	5.00	497.0	.35
		10th grade	5.00		
instrumentality	I need to study a foreign language as a requirement of my field.	9th grade	5.00	524.0	.87
		10th grade	5.00		
	I feel it may be helpful in my future career.	9th grade	5.00	530.5	.92
		10th grade	5.00		
	I need it to fulfill the university language requirement.	9th grade	5.00	508.0	.69
		10th grade	5.00		
functionality	I feel it is mentally challenging and provides mental exercise.	9th grade	4.00	501.5	.66
		10th grade	4.00		
	It may make me a more qualified job candidate.	9th grade	5.00	477.0	.33
		10th grade	5.00		

Table 49 (continued).

	I think foreign language study is part of a well-rounded education.	**9th grade** **10th grade**	**4.00** **3.00**	**363.0**	**.02**
	I feel English is an important language in the world.	9th grade 10th grade	5.00 5.00	526.0	.82
interest in culture	I am interested in English culture, history, or literature.	9th grade 10th grade	3.00 2.00	450.5	.28
	I want to learn about another culture to understand the world better.	9th grade 10th grade	5.00 4.00	425.5	.13

Note. *N=72*

4.3.2. Post-Test Motivation Level of Participants

The analysis of the participants' post-test results based on the LLMS revealed similar mean scores for the items in a general sense. Table 50 below presents the mean and standard deviation values for each item in the scale.

Table 50

Post-test scores reflected in the items of the LLMS

Item	***M***	***SD***
I want to use English when I travel to an English-spoken country.	4,74	.65
I need to study a foreign language as a requirement of my field.	4,15	1.03
I want to be able to converse with English speakers.	4,50	.91
I am interested in English culture, history, or literature.	2,67	1.24
I feel it may be helpful in my future career.	4,81	.46
I feel it is mentally challenging and provides mental exercise.	3,69	1.14
I want to be able to use it with English-speaking friends.	4,69	.66
I need it to fulfill the university foreign language requirement.	4,50	.80
I want to be able to speak more languages than just Turkish.	4,85	.59
I want to learn about another culture to understand the world better.	4,08	1.16
It may make me a more qualified job candidate.	4,54	.93
I think foreign language study is part of a well-rounded education.	3,99	1.22
I feel English is an important language in the world.	4,76	.74

Note. *N=72*

As can be seen in the table, being interested in the English culture, art, and literature item was still considered unimportant by the participants (*M* = 2,67 , *SD* = 1.24); in other words, they did not feel motivated to learn about cultural and literary aspects of English language communities.

In a general sense, on the other hand, post-test scores obtained from the scale showed similar values to the pre-test. While the general scale values stayed on the same level in both measurements, communication, instrumentality, and functionality components very slightly showed increase. However, culture component appeared to be lower than the pre-test scores (Table 51).

Table 51

Post-test scores reflected in the components of the LLMS

Item	***M***	***SD***
LLMS in general	4,30	.56
communication	4,69	.60
instrumentality	4,48	.61
functionality	4,24	.74
interest in culture	3,37	1.00

Note. *N=72*

Post-Test Scores Based on Gender

Dividing the post-test scores in gender groups, the results obtained indicated that female learners were more motivated than male students at every component, in addition to the general sense.

Table 52

Post-test scores reflected in the components of the LLMS based on gender

Item	***Gender***	***M***	***SD***
LLMS in general	female	4,40	.53
	male	4,16	.58

Table 52 (continued).

Communication	female	4,77	.64
	male	4,57	.54
instrumentality	female	4,56	.51
	male	4,36	.72
functionality	female	4,33	.68
	male	4,12	.81
interest in culture	female	3,54	.99
	male	3,12	.98

Note. *N=72*

Aside from the general and componential data, Table 53 below presents an item-level portrayal of gender-related descriptive data. An item-based outlook on the data provided more insights into how the participants responded to specific items after the implementation of the gamified blended module based on their gender.

Table 53

Post-test scores reflected in the items of the LLMS based on gender

Component	**Item**	**Gender**	***M***	***SD***
communication	*I want to use English when I travel to an English-spoken country.*	female	4,81	.66
		male	4,62	.62
	I want to be able to converse with English speakers.	female	4,70	.77
		male	4,21	1.04
	I want to be able to use it with English-speaking friends.	female	4,70	.70
		male	4,69	.60
	I want to be able to speak more languages than just Turkish.	female	4,88	.62
		male	4,79	.55
instrumentality	*I need to study a foreign language as a requirement of my field.*	female	4,23	.89
		male	4,03	1.21
	I feel it may be helpful in my future career.	female	4,88	.39
		male	4,69	.54
	I need it to fulfill the university foreign language requirement.	female	4,58	.73
		male	4,38	.90
functionality	*I feel it is mentally challenging and provides mental exercise.*	female	3,81	1.18
		male	3,52	1.09

Table 53 (continued).

funcionality	*It may make me a more qualified job candidate.*	female	4,65	.84
		male	4,38	1.04
	I think foreign language study is a part of a well-rounded education.	female	4,02	1.12
		male	3,93	1.38
	I feel English is an important language in the world.	female	4,84	.65
		male	4,66	.85
interest in culture	*I am interested in English culture, history, or literature.*	female	2,88	1.27
		male	2,34	1.14
	I want to learn about another culture to understand the word better.	female	4,21	1.14
		male	3,90	1.17

Note. *N=72*

Again, unsurprisingly, female students appeared to be more motivated than their male peers in all the items in the scale. Most notably, they wanted to have conversations with English speakers (*M* = 4,70 , *SD* = .77) when they learn English much more willingly than male students (*M* = 4,21 , *SD* = 1.04). Similarly, in the cultural interest component, females (*M* = 2,88 , *SD* = 1.27) were far more interested in English culture, history, or literature compared to male students (*M* = 2,34 , *SD* = 1.14) even though both groups showed a low-to-moderate motivation toward the item.

Similar to the pre-test procedures, Mann Whitney U tests were conducted to determine whether there were any statistically significant differences between females and males in terms of their post-test scores both on componential level and item level. The results of the test revealed that communication component of the scale showed statistically significant difference between genders in post-test scores (Table 54). In addition, Table 54 presents the information on the statistical data of other components.

Table 54

Post-test LLMS statistical data on gender differences

Component	***Gender***	***Mdn***	***U***	***p***
communication	**female**	**5.00**	**471.0**	**.04**
	male	**5.00**		

Table 54 (continued).

Instrumentality	female	4.66	547.0	.35
	male	4.66		
functionality	female	4.50	532.5	.29
	male	4.25		
interest in culture	female	3.50	458.5	.05
	male	3.00		

Note. *N=72*

Besides componential statistical analysis, an item-level analysis was carried out through the Mann Whitney U test to interpret the item-based differences. Table 55 below portrays the necessary statistical information related to the item differences.

Table 55

Item-level post-test LLMS statistical data on gender differences

Component	**Item**	**Gender**	***Mdn***	***U***	***p***
communication	**I want to use English when I travel to an English-spoken country.**	**female**	**5.00**	**503.0**	**.04**
		male	**5.00**		
	I want to be able to converse with English speakers.	**female**	**5.00**	**436.0**	**.00**
		male	**5.00**		
	I want to be able to use it with English-speaking friends.	female	5.00	612.5	.86
		male	5.00		
	I want to be able to speak more languages than just Turkish.	female	5.00	567.5	.18
		male	5.00		
instrumentality	I need to study a foreign language as a requirement of my field.	female	5.00	591.5	.69
		male	5.00		
	I feel it may be helpful in my future career.	**female**	**5.00**	**511.5**	**.04**
		male	**5.00**		
	I need it to fulfill the university language requirement.	female	5.00	555.0	.33
		male	5.00		
functionality	I feel it is mentally challenging and provides mental exercise.	female	4.00	507.0	.16
		male	3.00		
	It may make me a more qualified job candidate.	female	5.00	533.5	.18
		male	5.00		

Table 55 (continued).

functionality	I think foreign language study is part of a well-rounded education.	female	4.00	618.5	.95
		male	5.00		
	I feel English is an important language in the world.	female	5.00	552.0	.17
		male	5.00		
interest in culture	I am interested in English culture, history, or literature.	female	3.00	477.0	.08
		male	2.00		
	I want to learn about another culture to understand the world better.	female	5.00	515.0	.17
		male	4.00		

Note. *N=72*

According to the table, two items under the communication component and one item under the instrumentality component showed statistically significant difference between genders based on their post-test LLMS scores. Firstly, female learners (*Mdn* = 5) were more willing to learn English to use it in their travels to English-spoken countries than male learners (*Mdn* = 5) did, *U* = 503.0 , *p* = .044 , *r* = .23. Secondly, females (*Mdn* = 5) were more willing to communicate with English speakers compared to males (*Mdn* = 5), *U* = 436.0 , *p* = .008 , *r* = .31. Lastly, as an instrumentality component, female learners (*Mdn* = 5) believed more strongly that learning English could help them in their future careers than male learners (*Mdn* = 5), *U* = 511.5 , *p* = .047 , *r* = .23.

Post-Test Scores Based on Grade

Regarding the grade-level groups in a general sense, the results obtained indicated that 9th grades (*M* = 4,31 , *SD* = .57) were more motivated than students in the 10th grade (*M* = 4,27 , *SD* = .54). Table 56 additionally presents the findings on how grade levels of participants appeared motivationally in terms of componential level.

Table 56

Post-test scores reflected in the components of the LLMS based on grade

Item	***Gender***	***M***	***SD***
communication	9th grade	4,67	.68
	10th grade	4,75	.38

Table 56 (continued).

Instrumentality	9th grade	4,47	.61
	10th grade	4,50	.62
functionality	9th grade	4,29	.71
	10th grade	4,11	.80
interest in culture	9th grade	3,40	1.01
	10th grade	3,30	.99

Note. *N=72*

Besides general and componential data, Table 57 provides an item-level outlook on grade-related descriptive data. The item-based presentation of the data clarifies how grade levels responded to each item specifically.

Table 57

Post-test scores reflected in the items of the LLMS based on grade

Component	**Item**	**Grade**	***M***	***SD***
communication	*I want to use English when I travel to an English-spoken country.*	9th grade	4,76	.68
		10th grade	4,67	.57
	I want to be able to converse with English speakers.	9th grade	4,47	.92
		10th grade	4,57	.92
	I want to be able to use it with English-speaking friends.	9th grade	4,65	.74
		10th grade	4,81	.40
	I want to be able to speak more languages than just Turkish.	9th grade	4,80	.69
		10th grade	4,95	.21
instrumentality	*I need to study a foreign language as a requirement of my field.*	9th grade	4,22	.94
		10th grade	4,00	1.22
	I feel it may be helpful in my future career.	9th grade	4,76	.51
		10th grade	4,90	.30
	I need it to fulfill the university foreign language requirement.	9th grade	4,45	.83
		10th grade	4,62	.74
functionality	*I feel it is mentally challenging and provides mental exercise.*	9th grade	3,69	1.15
		10th grade	3,71	1.14
	It may make me a more qualified job candidate.	9th grade	4,65	.82
		10th grade	4,29	1.14
	I think foreign language study is a part of a well-rounded education.	9th grade	4,10	1.15
		10th grade	3,71	1.38

Table 57 (continued).

funcionality	*I feel English is an important language in the world.*	9th grade	4,76	.68
		10th grade	4,76	.88
interest in culture	*I am interested in English culture, history, or literature.*	9th grade	2,75	1.27
		10th grade	2,48	1.16
	I want to learn about another culture to understand the word better.	9th grade	4,06	1.17
		10th grade	4,14	1.15

Note. *N=72*

As can be seen in the table, items did not point to dramatic differences in terms of grade level except for two items in the functionality component. In terms of motivation for English learning for the reason of being more qualified in job candidacy, students in the 9th grade showed more motivation (*M* = 4,65 , *SD* = .82) than those in the 10th grade (*M* = 4,29 , *SD* = 1.14). Moreover, 9th grade students (*M* = 4,10 , *SD* = 1.15) were far more in favor of English learning being a part of a well-rounded education than the 10th-graders (*M* = 3,71 , *SD* = 1.38).

To find out whether there were any statistically significant differences between 9th grades and 10th grades based on the post-test LLMS scores, Mann Whitney U tests were carried out for the componential structure of the scale as well as at the item level. The componential statistics after the test showed no statistically significant difference between grades (Table 58).

Table 58

Post-test LLMS statistical data on grade differences

Component	***Gender***	***Mdn***	***U***	***p***
communication	9th grade	5.00	535.5	1.00
	10th grade	5.00		
instrumentality	9th grade	4.66	524.5	.88
	10th grade	4.66		
functionality	9th grade	4.50	455.5	.31
	10th grade	4.25		
interest in culture	9th grade	3.50	504.0	.69
	10th grade	3.50		

Note. *N=72*

Similarly, the item-level statistics obtained through the Mann Whitney U test revealed no statistically significant differences between grade groups in items. Detailed information on the statistical data is presented in Table 59 below.

Table 59

Item-level post-test LLMS statistical data on grade differences

Component	Item	Grade	*Mdn*	*U*	*p*
communication	I want to use English when I travel to an English-spoken country.	9th grade	5.00	469.0	.23
		10th grade	5.00		
	I want to be able to converse with English speakers.	9th grade	5.00	508.0	.67
		10th grade	5.00		
	I want to be able to use it with English-speaking friends.	9th grade	5.00	495.0	.49
		10th grade	5.00		
	I want to be able to speak more languages than just Turkish.	9th grade	5.00	507.0	.46
		10th grade	5.00		
instrumentality	I need to study a foreign language as a requirement of my field.	9th grade	5.00	496.0	.59
		10th grade	4.00		
	I feel it may be helpful in my future career.	9th grade	5.00	479.5	.28
		10th grade	5.00		
	I need it to fulfill the university language requirement.	9th grade	5.00	477.0	.37
		10th grade	5.00		
functionality	I feel it is mentally challenging and provides mental exercise.	9th grade	4.00	535.0	.99
		10th grade	4.00		
	It may make me a more qualified job candidate.	9th grade	5.00	441.0	.13
		10th grade	5.00		
	I think foreign language study is part of a well-rounded education.	9th grade	5.00	449.5	.25
		10th grade	4.00		
	I feel English is an important language in the world.	9th grade	5.00	505.0	.52
		10th grade	5.00		
interest in culture	I am interested in English culture, history, or literature.	9th grade	3.00	469.0	.39
		10th grade	2.00		
	I want to learn about another culture to understand the world better.	9th grade	4.00	510.5	.73
		10th grade	5.00		

Note. *N=72*

4.3.3. Pre-Test and Post-Test Motivational Differences

Following the analysis of variable differences in pre-test and post-test situations separately, differences between post-test and pre-test scores of the participants will be shown in this section to account for the statistical difference after the implementation of the gamified blended module in language learning. To observe the differences, initially, scores will be analyzed through the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test for the whole group. Then, the genders and grade levels will be isolated, and their improvement or decrease in motivation will be accounted for by comparing post-test and pre-test scores.

As for the first step, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test revealed that, on a componential level, there were no statistically significant differences between participants' pre-test and post-test scores (Table 60).

Table 60

Pre-test and post-test scores of LLMS on componential level

Component	***Test***	***M***	***Sd***	***Z***	***p***
communication	pre-test	4,67	.63	-.06	.94
	post-test	4,69	.60		
instrumentality	pre-test	4,44	.76	-.30	.75
	post-test	4,48	.61		
functionality	pre-test	4,21	.67	-.80	.42
	post-test	4,24	.74		
interest in culture	pre-test	3,51	1.00	-1.82	.06
	post-test	3,37	1.00		

Note. *N=72*

In addition to the component-level differences between pre-test and post-test scores of participants, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was repeated to see an item-level outlook of the scale. The results of the test showed that two items in the communication pointed to statistically significant differences between pre-test and post-test scores (Table 61). The first item under communication component of the scale was related to the participants' willingness to gain an ability to speak with their English-speaking friends, indicating a significant improvement after the implementation of the module, $Z = -2.75$, $p < .001$, $r =$

.32. Moreover, the item about English being part of a well-rounded education was given a significantly higher regard after the implementation of gamified blended module, $Z = -2.41$, $p < .05$, $r = .28$, indicating a small effect size.

Table 61

Item-level pre-test and post-test data of learners

Component	Item	Test	*M*	*Z*	*p*
communication	I want to use English when I travel to an English-spoken country.	pre-test	4,79	-.92	.35
		post-test	4,74		
	I want to be able to converse with English speakers.	pre-test	4,61	-1.26	.20
		post-test	4,50		
	I want to be able to use it with English-speaking friends.	**pre-test**	**4,46**	**-2.75**	**.00**
		post-test	**4,69**		
	I want to be able to speak more languages than just Turkish.	pre-test	4,85	.00	1.00
		post-test	4,85		
instrumentality	I need to study a foreign language as a requirement of my field.	pre-test	4,25	-1.14	.25
		post-test	4,15		
	I feel it may be helpful in my future career.	pre-test	4,71	-1.25	.20
		post-test	4,81		
	I need it to fulfill the university language requirement.	pre-test	4,39	-1.12	.25
		post-test	4,50		
functionality	I feel it is mentally challenging and provides mental exercise.	pre-test	3,72	-.10	.91
		post-test	3,69		
	It may make me a more qualified job candidate.	pre-test	4,60	-.58	.55
		post-test	4,54		
	I think foreign language study is part of a well-rounded education.	**pre-test**	**3,71**	**-2.41**	**.01**
		post-test	**3,99**		
	I feel English is an important language in the world.	pre-test	4,83	-.96	.33
		post-test	4,76		
interest in culture	I am interested in English culture, history, or literature.	pre-test	2,79	-1.07	.28
		post-test	2,67		
	I want to learn about another culture to understand the world better.	pre-test	4,24	-1.49	.13
		post-test	4,08		

Note. *N=72*

In terms of genders, female students did not show any statistically significant difference in their motivation levels after the module whereas male students significantly improved in motivation regarding the desire to converse with English speakers, $Z = -1.9$, $p < .05$, $r = .23$.

When the data were analyzed with regard to grade levels, it was revealed that 9th grade participants showed statistically significant improvement in two items while decreasing in motivation in one item. First, participants in the ninth grade felt more motivated to speak with their English-speaking friends, $Z = -2.3$, $p < .05$, $r = .27$. Second, they started to believe English being part of a well-rounded education more after the module, $Z = -2{,}0$, $p < .05$, $r = .23$. Last, after the gamified blended module, they were less motivated to learn about another culture, $Z = -2{,}2$, $p < .05$, $r = .25$. On the other hand, tenth-grade participants showed statistically significant decrease in their motivation to use English when they would travel to an English-spoken country, $Z = -2{,}1$, $p < .05$, $r = .25$.

4.4. Statistical Differences of EFL Learners Regarding L2 Possible Selves

To examine the changes in the opinions of EFL learners regarding the L2 possible selves as a newly constructed motivational system, the LPSS developed by (Macintyre et al., 2009) consisting of three fractions was administered to the participants of the gamified blended module. The three fractions of the LPSS were as follows: the dichotomous dimension, desirability dimension, and likelihood dimension. To ensure a meaningful delivery of each dimension, the interpretation of the related results will be made under corresponding sub-headings.

4.4.1. Pre-Test Data of Learners Based on the LPSS

As the initial step, dichotomous, desire, and likelihood dimensions of the LPSS were descriptively analyzed in a general sense based on the pre-test scores. The results of the descriptive data are presented in Table 62 to provide a portrayal of the general outlook.

Table 62

Pre-test scores reflected in the dimensions of the LPSS

Item	*M*	*SD*
dichotomous	1,69	.26
desire	4,52	.52
likelihood	4,06	.83

Note. *N=72*

The dichotomous dimension of the scale asked participants whether a situation defined them at the moment or not, thus containing yes or no responses. Desire and likelihood dimensions enquired about learners' desire to actualize the statements in the item while likelihood dimension asked them how likely the statements were to happen in the future.

Pre-Test Results Based on Gender

Since the scale did not pass normality standards, the data were analyzed through non-parametric tests. In the case gender and grade differences, Mann Whitney U tests were conducted while Wilcoxon Signed Ranks tests were carried out to detect potential differences between pre-test and post-test results.

In the dichotomous dimension, the Mann Whitney U test did not indicate any statistically significant differences between gender groups. In desire dimension, on the other hand, genders indicated a statistically significant difference in the favor of female learners (*Mdn* = 4,83) over the males (*Mdn* = 4,56), $U = 397.0$, $p = .009$, $r = .30$. In the likelihood dimension, however, no statistically significant difference was detected between genders ($p = .08$).

When the scales were analyzed on item level, it was found that regarding establishing friendships with native English speakers, female (*Mdn* = 2) learners were statistically more in favor of the item compared to male learners (*Mdn* = 1) in the dichotomous dimension, $U = 475.5$, $p = .048$, $r = .23$. Regarding other items in the dimension, no statistically significant differences were found.

Concerning the desirability dimension, five items showed statistically significant differences between genders. Firstly, females (*Mdn* = 5) desired being a cultured person in English more than males (*Mdn* = 4), *U* = 436.0 , *p* = .018 , *r* = .27. Secondly, female students (*Mdn* = 5) were significantly more appreciative of English art and culture than male students (*Mdn* = 3), *U* = 428.5 , *p* = .018 , *r* = .28. Thirdly, female learners (*Mdn* = 5) desired to act like native speakers significantly more than males (*Mdn* =5), *U* = 503.0 , *p* = .045 , *r* = .23. Fourthly, females (*Mdn* = 5) showed a statistically significant dominance over males (*Mdn* = 5) in terms of their desire to travel to English speaking areas or countries, *U* = 484.0 , *p* = .008 , *r* = .31. Lastly, female students (*Mdn* = 5) showed significantly more desire than male students (*Mdn* = 5) to go to English films in the original language, *U* = 482.0 , *p* = .015 , *r* = .28.

In the sense of likelihood dimension, four items in the scale showed statistically significant difference. For instance, females (*Mdn* = 5) thought it more likely that they would understand native English speakers' views in the future than males (*Mdn* = 4), *U* = 466.0 , *p* = .049 , *r* = .23. In addition, female learners (*Mdn* = 4) found it more likely that they would appreciate English art and culture in the future than male learners (*Mdn* = 3), *U* = 434.0 , *p* = .024 , *r* = .26. Moreover, female students (*Mdn* = 5) regarded it as more likely than males (*Mdn* = 4) that they would want to learn many languages in the future, *U* = 456.5 , *p* = .041 , *r* = .24. Lastly, it was indicated more by females (*Mdn* = 5) that they would likely read English magazines and newspapers compared to males (*Mdn* = 4), *U* = 440.5 , *p* = .024 , *r* = .26.

Pre-Test Results Based on Grade

Considering the grade-based statistical analysis, the none of the dichotomous, desire, and likelihood dimensions of the scale revealed statistically significant difference on componential level. In other words, grade did not play a significant role in determining EFL learners' self-related descriptions, desires, and future likelihood situations.

Considering the item-level statistics of each dimension, though, it was found that the tenth-grade students (*Mdn* = 2) statistically and significantly differed from the ninth-grades (*Mdn* = 2) in terms of describing themselves as capable of thinking like native speakers, *U*

= 414.0 , *p* = .032 , *r* = .25. Moreover, the tenth-graders (*Mdn* = 2) felt more at ease with native English speakers than the ninth-graders (*Mdn* = 2), *U* = 370.5 , *p* = .014 , *r* = .28, and they (*Mdn* = 2) went to English movies in the original language more than the ninth-grades (*Mdn* = 2), *U* = 370.5 , *p* = .014 , *r* = .28. These statistical differences were apparent under the dichotomous dimension. In the desire dimension, the only item that indicated statistically significant difference was the desire to act like native English speakers, in the favor of the ninth grade learners (*Mdn* = 2) who wanted this more than their tenth grade (*Mdn* = 2) counterparts, *U* = 423.0 , *p* = .043 , *r* = .23. In terms of likelihood dimension, however, there were no statistically significant differences between grade levels.

4.4.2. Post-Test Data of Learners Based on the LPSS

Similar to the procedure in the pre-test data analysis, learners' post-test statistical data were analyzed through Mann Whitney U test based on gender and grade at componential and item levels. Before presenting the variable-related statistics, Table 63 presents the general outlook of the dimensions.

Table 63

Post-test scores reflected in the dimensions of the LPSS

Item	***M***	***SD***
dichotomous	1,69	.25
desire	4,48	.57
likelihood	4,04	.88

Note. *N=72*

LPSS Post-Test Data Based on Gender

Considering the differences of genders in post-test scores, a componential look at the dimensions of the scale revealed that dichotomous and likelihood dimensions did not generate any statistically significant difference based on gender while desire dimension revealed a significant difference in the favor of female learners (*Mdn* = 4.8) in comparison to males (*Mdn* = 4.5), *U* = 397.0 , *p* = .009 , *r* = .30.

Item-based analyses of the data revealed that, in the dichotomous dimension of the scale, one item showed statistically significant difference between females and males. Female learners (*Mdn* = 2) described themselves more capable at thinking like native English speakers than male students (*Mdn* = 2), *U* = 502.5 , *p* = .043 , *r* = .23.

As a striking outcome, gender variable played an immense role in determining participants' desires about learning English and it was revealed that nine items in the desire dimension of the LPSS indicated statistically significant difference. Table 64 portrays the statistical data about gender differences in the desire dimension of the LPSS post-test.

Table 64

Post-test LPSS data on gender differences in desire dimension

Item	Gender	*Mdn*	*U*	*p*
Think like native English speakers.	female	5	456.5	.00
	male	5		
Be a cultured person.	female	5	370.5	.00
	male	4		
Understand English literature.	female	4	411.0	.01
	male	3		
Appreciate English art and literature.	female	5	391.5	.00
	male	3		
Friendships with native English speakers.	female	5	504.0	.01
	male	5		
Feel respected because I speak English.	female	5	450.0	.02
	male	4		
Participate freely in activities of other cultural groups.	female	5	429.5	.01
	male	4		
Act like native English speakers.	female	5	445.0	.00
	male	5		
Go to English films in the original language.	female	5	450.5	.00
	male	5		

Note. *N=72*

In the likelihood dimension of the scale, three items statistically and significantly differed between genders. First, female students (*Mdn* = 5) were more hopeful about understanding native English speakers' views in the future than the males (*Mdn* = 4), *U* =

458.0 , p = .036 , r = .24. Second, females (*Mdn* = 4) were again more optimistic about appreciating English literature in the future in comparison to male learners (*Mdn* = 3), U = 430.5 , p = .022 , r = .27. Last, similarly, female learners (*Mdn* = 4) were more confident that they would participate freely in activities of other cultural groups in the future compared to male students (*Mdn* = 3), U = 437.0 , p = .025 , r = .26.

LPSS Post-Test Data Based on Grade

In terms of grade level, dimensions in the scale did not differ statistically and significantly in post-test scores. Grade did not play any parts in forming the self-related opinions of participants on componential level.

Regarding the item-level portrayal of the data, dichotomous dimension of the scale where learners chose whether an item described them or not indicated statistically significant difference at one item. Tenth-grade students (*Mdn* = 2) claimed to participate more freely in other cultural groups' activities than the ninth-graders (*Mdn* = 2), U = 424.5 , p = .045 , r = .23. On a similar note, desire dimension of the scale included one item that showed statistically significant difference between two grades. The ninth-grade students (*Mdn* = 5) desired to feel respected because they spoke English more than the tenth-grade learners (*Mdn* = 5), U = 345.5 , p = .006 , r = .32. Concerning the likelihood dimension, there were no data that showed statistically significant difference.

4.4.3. LPSS Pre-Test and Post-Test Comparison of Learners

Following the separate pre-test and post-test statistical analysis conducted through Mann Whitney U tests, the comparison between participants' LPSS scores was made by conducting Wilcoxon Signed Ranks tests.

When the dichotomous dimension of the scale was analyzed in terms of pre-test and post-test differences, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test revealed any statistically significant differences neither on the componential nor the item level. Concerning the desire dimension, similarly, the componential level of the scale did not produce any statistically significant difference. However, an item-level analysis generated a statistically significant decrease in

EFL learners' desire to be a knowledgeable person in English. While they wanted to be knowledgeable in English in the pre-test (*Mdn* = 5), in the post-test (*Mdn* = 5), they were less willing to desire this situation for themselves, Z = -2.1 , p = .030 , r = .25. Moreover, the likelihood dimension of the scale did not indicate a statistically significant difference between pre-test and post-test scores of participants. However, similar to the desire dimension, students found it more likely to be a knowledgeable person in the future before the implementation (*Mdn* = 4.5) compared to the likelihood shown in the post-test (*Mdn* = 4.0), Z = -2.1 , p = .029 , r = .25.

4.5. Statistical Differences of EFL Learners Regarding Language Skills

This section focuses on the potential improvements in the language skills of EFL learners who participated in the study. The differences in language skills obtained from the proficiency tests administered by the school will be presented in terms of comparing the proficiency levels before and after the implementation of the module. The levels of the students will be compared in terms of gender and grade as well as the language skills tested in the proficiency exams.

The skills tested both before and after the implementation of the module were based on the WEXT proficiency test previously mentioned in the methodology section. Originally, main skills including reading, listening, and speaking as well as grammar and vocabulary sub-skills were tested in the WEXT. However, since speaking and listening skills were not the focus of this study, only the results of grammar, vocabulary, reading, and writing skills were analyzed. Writing skills were graded by the researcher and one English teacher based on students' written assignments before the module and their written assignments produced as assignments in the module.

4.5.1. Language Skills of EFL Learners Before the Modules

The skills were initially analyzed descriptively in terms of gender and grade variables, and the results are presented in Table 65.

Table 65

Descriptive statistics of WEXT language competence in pre-test

Skill	**X (sd)**		**X (sd)**	
	Female	**Male**	**9th Grade**	**10th Grade**
Grammar	43,79 (1.36)	39,06 (3.63)	43,45 (1.55)	38,09 (4.32)
Vocabulary	46,88 (1.77)	39,08 (3.63)	45,08 (1.70)	40,47 (4.82)
Reading	45,93 (2.92)	47,70 (3.94)	46,89 (2.94)	46,03 (3.79)
Total	45,53 (1.38)	41,94 (2.63)	45,14 (1.53)	41,53 (2.72)

Note. *N=72*

As can be seen in the table, on both general level and skill level, females were more successful than males while the 9th grade students achieved more than the 10th grade students in the pre-test. In addition to this, the skill data were tested to see the statistical differences between variables, and since the skill tests produced ordinal data, they were analyzed with the Mann Whitney U test as a non-parametric data measurement.

In terms of gender variable, none of the skills, including the general scores, indicated a statistically significant difference between genders. Similarly, when the same analysis procedure was carried out for the grade variable, no statistically significant differences were found in the pre-test scores of participants.

Concerning the writing skills of the students which were measured separately as explained in the methodology section, pre-test writing competence of participants were scored as shown in Table 66.

Table 66

Descriptive statistics of pre-test writing competence

Gender	**X (sd)**	**Grade**	**X (sd)**
Female	69,68 (11.84)	9th Grade	68,78 (14.10)
Male	68,91 (13.64)	10th Grade	70,53 (8.50)

Note. *N=47*

The analysis of gender and grade differences through the Mann Whitney U tests revealed that no statistically significant difference was found between groups neither for gender nor grade. In the pre-test, learners scored very closely; however, even though they

were slight differences, females seemed more competent in writing than males. Additionally, it can be seen that the 10th grades received higher scores than the 9th grades.

4.5.2. Language Skills of EFL Learners After the Module

The abovementioned language skills of participants were analyzed after the implementation of the gamified blended module by following the same steps in the pre-test language skill data analysis. First, the descriptive data regarding the scores of participants, Table 67 presents the mean scores and standard deviation values of participants.

Table 67

Descriptive statistics of WEXT language competence in post-test

Skill	**X (sd)**		**X (sd)**	
	Female	**Male**	**9th Grade**	**10th Grade**
Grammar	59,30 (3.43)	55,17(3.61)	55,55 (3.08)	62,69 (4.13)
Vocabulary	42,63 (3.77)	48,27 (4.08)	45,09 (3.37)	44,44 (5.05)
Reading	70,93 (5.29)	71,83 (6.02)	68,30 (4.87)	78,57 (6.52)
Total	57,62 (2.54)	58,42 (2.56)	56,31 (2.32)	61,90 (3.04)

Note. *N=72*

Considering the statistical differences between gender groups, it was found that post-test scores of participants did not show significant differences between females and males. Furthermore, post-test scores of the ninth grade and tenth grade participants were not significantly different in terms of statistical comparison. As can be seen in Table 66, male students were more successful than females in vocabulary and reading sections of the test, and they overturned the total outcome as well. Even though the tenth grades were more successful at grammar skills, the ninth-grade students were still in the lead in terms of general competence as well as vocabulary and reading.

When the writing skills competence of the participants was analyzed descriptively, it was found that female students outscored males with an increase in the score gap, and even though the difference was not much, 9th grade students received better scores than the 10th grades in the post test (Table 68).

Table 68

Descriptive statistics of post-test writing competence

Gender	X (sd)	Grade	X (sd)
Female	74,89 (12.32)	9th Grade	71,36 (16.67)
Male	67,39 (20.85)	10th Grade	70,89 (19.25)

Note. *N=47*

4.5.3. The Effect of the Intervention on Language Skills of Participants

Following the separate analyses of pre-test and post-test language competence level of participants, comparisons were made between pre-test and post-test scores of EFL learners by utilizing the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test because the skill scores consisted of ordinal data.

Considering the total achievement scores of participants, it was found that their language competence after the intervention (*Mdn* = 61.1) was significantly higher than their pre-test competence level (*Mdn* = 44.4), indicating a statistically significant improvement, *Z* = -4.54 , *p* = .000 , *r* = .37 (Table 69).

Table 69

Comparison of participants' language competence scores

Test	Ranks	*N*	Mean Rank	*Z*	*p*
Pre-test and post-test comparison	Negative Ranks	15	33,63		
	Positive Ranks	57	37,25	-4.54	.00
	Ties	0			
	Total	72			

Note. *N=72*

Regarding the grammar, vocabulary, and reading skills, it was revealed by the tests that grammar and reading skills yielded statistically significant improvements while vocabulary skills did not show any statistical significance in the competence score difference (Table 70).

Table 70

Comparison of grammar and reading competence scores

Test	Ranks	*N*	Mean Rank	*Z*	*p*
grammar competence	Negative Ranks	7	13,86	-5.11	.00
	Positive Ranks	41	26,32		
	Ties	24			
	Total	72			
reading competence	Negative Ranks	12	44,38	-3.80	.00
	Positive Ranks	55	31,74		
	Ties	5			
	Total	72			

Note. *N=72*

According to the table, participants received lower grammar scores in the test (*Mdn* = 50) before the intervention compared to their scores after the module (*Mdn* = 50), showing a statistically significant improvement, $Z = -5.11$, $p = .000$, $r = .42$. Similarly in their reading competence, EFL learners were significantly more successful after the implementation of the module (*Mdn* = 83.3) in comparison to their pre-test performance (*Mdn* = 50), $Z = -3.80$, $p = .000$, $r = .31$.

When the genders were isolated, it was found that females showed statistically significant improvement in grammar, $Z = -3.98$, $p = .000$, $r = .46$; reading $Z = -3.09$, $p = .000$, $r = .36$; and general language competence $Z = -3.30$, $p = .000$, $r = .38$. Similarly, male students showed statistically significant improvement in grammar, $Z = -3.21$, $p = .000$, $r = .37$; reading, $Z = -2.52$, $p = .02$, $r = .29$; and total language scores, $Z = -3.14$, $p = .000$, $r = .37$.

The same procedure was applied for the grade groups, and it was revealed that the 9th grades showed statistically significant improvement in grammar $Z = -3.86$, $p = .000$, $r = .45$; reading, $Z = -2.52$, $p = .01$, $r = .29$; and total language scores, $Z = -3.11$, $p = .000$, $r = .36$. As for the 10th grades, again, grammar competence, $Z = -3.35$, $p = .000$, $r = .39$; reading

competence, $Z = -3.23$, $p = .000$, $r = .38$; and total language competence showed statistically significant increase after the module experience, $Z = -3.50$, $p = .000$, $r = .41$.

Considering the writing competence of the learners, the analysis procedures were conducted separately as an individual process because of the small number of written assignment participation in the module. In other words, since their scores of other skills such as reading, grammar, and vocabulary were organically collected through their periodical proficiency tests, their writing performance was measured by the effort of teachers based on student assignments submitted in the modules. Since the submission numbers were smaller than the participation number, it was decided to analyze their writing competence separately.

The writing competence of the participants was analyzed through a series of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks tests to see the differences in the whole groups and in gender and grade variables. In a general sense, the participants' writing competence did not show a statistically significant increase. However, their pre-test scores (*Mdn* = 72.5) showed an increase in the post-test (*Mdn* = 75). Therefore, it is possible to state that their writing competence improved despite not being statistically significant.

In terms of gender, again, there was no statistically significant improvement in writing competence; however, female students scored better (*Mdn* = 78.7) compared to their previous writing performance (*Mdn* = 72.5). Similarly, despite the increase in performance in the post-test (*Mdn* = 72.5), male students did not show a statistically significant improvement after their pre-test performance (*Mdn* = 70).

Regarding grade levels, 9th grade students showed slight improvement in their writing competence when their pre-test (*Mdn* = 72.5) and post-test scores (*Mdn* = 77.5) were compared although this improvement was not statistically significant. Moreover, 10th grade students improved in their pos-test scores (*Mdn* = 75) compared to the pre-test (*Mdn* = 68.7), yet it was not enough to indicate a statistically significant difference.

Following the quantitative data analysis results of autonomy, motivation, L2 selves, and language skills of participants, the following sections provide insights into the qualitative data collected from the participants. According to the sequential explanatory

research design of the study, these qualitative sections will attempt to elaborate on the statistical data provided so far.

4.6. EFL Learners' Opinions of English Lessons

As the initial step of qualitative part of the study, participants were asked about their opinions of the English classes. Then, after the implementation of the module, their opinions were asked again in terms of the effect of the module in terms of certain dimensions such as its effect on their learning, their views on the module components, and their criticism. To understand the effects of the module on the learners better, their opinions of English lessons before they have seen the module will be more functional.

Considering the participants' views on English lessons, three main categories can be addressed. Based on the qualitative data analysis, these three main themes regarding their opinions were as follows: positive feelings (f = 135), negative feelings (f = 28), and mixed feelings (f = 5) (Figure 55).

Among the positive feelings explained by the participants, five most-frequently-mentioned codes were enjoyment (f = 47), learning a new language (f = 24), future usefulness (f = 9), disposition to English language (f = 8), and speaking enjoyment (f = 6). When addressing their positive feelings towards the English lesson, participants preferred to directly mention the enjoyment feeling, that was why, the enjoyment code recurred very frequently.

Under the category of negative feelings (f = 28), skill-related (f = 9) negative feelings, communication apprehension (f = 5), difficulties (f = 4), and speaking anxiety (f = 2) were the most frequently recurring codes causing learners to have negative feelings toward English lessons. In most of the cases, skill-related dislike feelings were prominent among learners. Additionally, learners either mentioned problems understanding others during lessons or doubts that others would understand them well in English, hence the communication apprehension.

Under the mixed-feelings theme (f = 5), participants who responded with *enjoyment* and *learning a new language* codes mixed with negative feelings such as dislike of reading, writing, speaking, and listening, too many lessons, and speaking anxiety were included in the category. In addition, there were participants who generated the code of neutral feelings (f =2) because they genuinely felt no strong emotions one way or another.

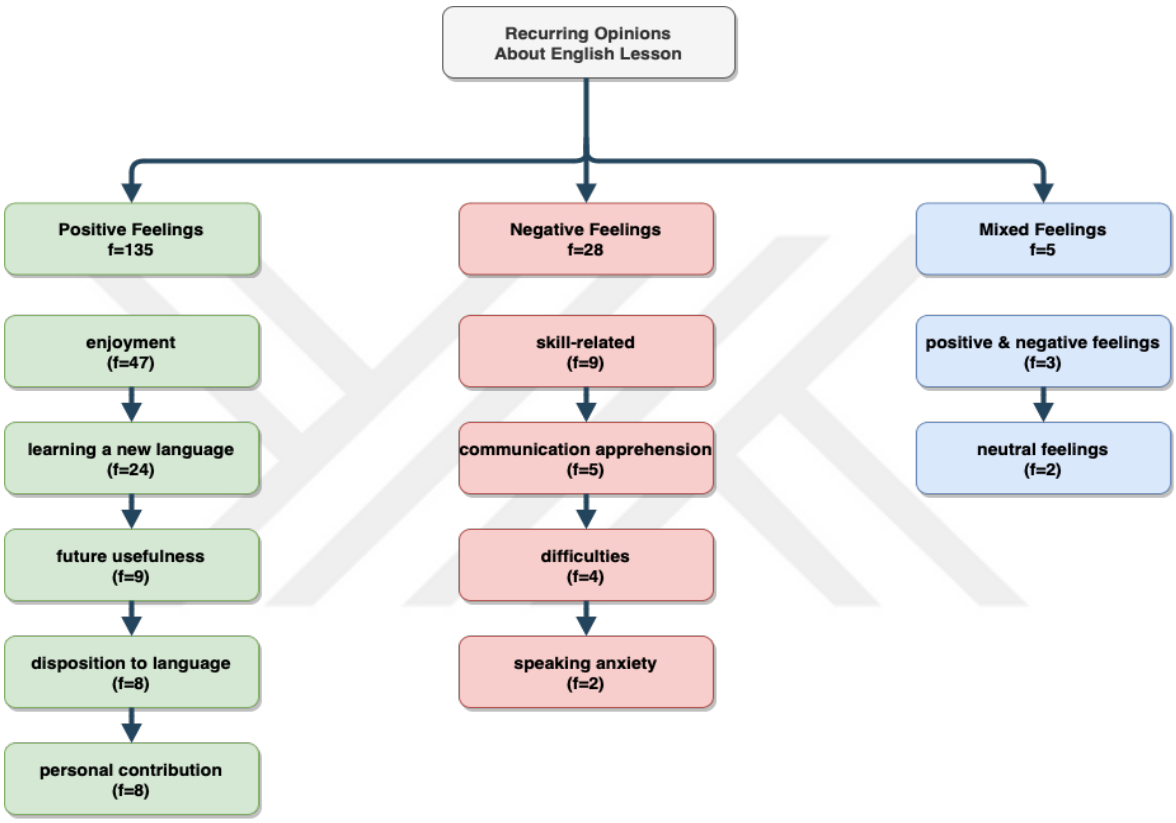


Figure 55. Recurring themes and corresponding codes for opinions toward English lessons

As can be seen in the figure, only the most recurring codes were mentioned because the remaining codes were only used once. However, to account for all the codes, the remaining ones will be addressed by providing the related excerpts to explain how each learner felt about English lessons.

Under the positive feelings theme, enjoyment was the most recurring code based on participants' responses. For instance, P58 said, "*Yes, we can learn by having fun more than other lessons.*", indicating that they had positive feelings toward English lessons because it was simply enjoyable. Learning a new language code was the second most frequent code generated by student responses (f =24), about which P70 stated, "*I like it a lot because I am*

interested in languages." and P59, "*I like it. Learning a new language is fun.*". These statements indicated that learning a new language was mainly the main drive behind their fondness to English lessons.

Following these codes, future usefulness (f = 9) was mentioned by several learners as the reason for liking English lessons. About this, P40 remarked, "*Foreign language is one of the important things and a privilege that will help me be in a better position than others in the future.*", summarizing in detail why future usefulness drove learners to like English. Learners additionally mentioned they already had disposition to language (f = 8) and believed English lessons made personal contribution (f = 8) to them. Regarding the disposition, P33's statement "*yes I like it a lot because I feel very close to English and lessons.*" portrayed the essence of the code. Furthermore, P62 stated, "*yes I like it because I have a personality of loving new things.*" about personal contribution.

As for the remaining codes indicating the reason for liking English lessons, speaking enjoyment (f = 6), skill development (f =5), informative (f =5), world knowledge (f =4), literary aims (f =4), intercultural communication (f =2), investment (f =2), native teachers (f =2), reaching international resources (f =2), video lessons (f =2), career boost (f =1), easier lesson (f =1), easy-going teachers (f =1), relaxing (f =1), and teacher support (f =1) codes were generated based on learners' positive responses.

The theme of negative feelings (f = 28) contained various issues mentioned by learners that pointed to their dislike for English lessons. Among these issues, three codes were mentioned more frequently than others: skill related (f = 9) issues, communication apprehension (f =5), and difficulties (f =4). Under skill-related codes, participants mentioned dislike toward speaking (f=3), grammar (f=2), writing (f=2), listening (f=1), and writing (f=1) skills. For instance, P7 stated, "*I don't like it very much because I dislike speaking parts.*", indicating that speaking activities are the source of their dislike for English lessons. Concerning the communication apprehension, P9 complained, "*...you need to understand instructions and your head becomes empty when it is told in English, we can't understand exactly.*", underlining that communication in English was a problem for many students in classroom. In terms of difficulties (f=4), P57 said, "*I like English lessons but don't like having difficulties.*" while P26 stated, "*I like it but I find it difficult sometimes.*", showing

that failure to adjust difficulty level of English tasks could cause students to dislike English lessons. The remaining codes formed by student responses were as follows: quiz dislike (f=1), exam-based lesson (f=1), instruction problems (f=1), requirement (f=1), quiz dislike (f=1), rote learning (f=1), too many lessons (f=1), and video homework dislike (f=1).

In addition to positive and negative opinions regarding the English lessons, participants also gave some mixed feelings (f=5). Within this category participants shared positive feelings and negative feelings together, or they remarked that they felt neutral about English lessons. For instance, P55 was in mixed feeling as can be understood from the statement, "*I like it but there are too many lessons.*". Moreover, P37 underlined the neutral feeling towards English lessons by saying, "*I neither like nor dislike it.*". Neither case gave strong signals about one way or another, therefore they fitted into the mixed-signals theme.

4.7. Opinions of EFL Learners Regarding the Module

Following the implementation of the module, the participants of the study were additionally asked to respond to experience questions which they could rate in a 5-point Likert scale. These items investigated the opinions of EFL learners regarding their willingness to use similar modules in the future, the effect of such modules on motivation, their contentment with the module, the intelligibility and appropriateness of the activities and statements in the module, and teacher support. Afterwards, they were asked their opinions about the module in terms of its instructional and mechanical functions after the completion of weekly modules. Accordingly, these dimensions were interpreted under their corresponding sub-headings.

4.7.1. Results of the Module Experience Survey

The numerical data collected through the experience survey after the module implementation revealed information about participants' possibility to use similar modules in the future, whether this module increased their motivation to learn English, the extent to which their motivation levels changed, intelligibility of instructions and clarity of objectives in the module, and, lastly, their ratings of teacher support during the implementation.

When asked whether they would use similar modules in the future, as the figure below indicates, a vast majority of the participants responded positively, indicating that they would indeed like to have similar experiences while learning English.

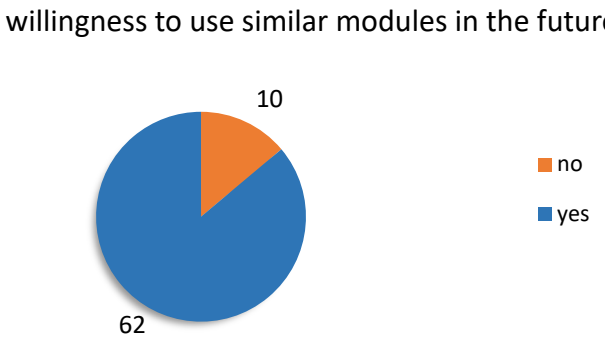


Figure 56. Willingness pie chart

To support this, participants were asked if this module was effective in increasing their motivation to learn English, and their responses were yet again affirmative in this sense. 57 of the participants (79.2%) held positive views while the remaining 15 learners (20.8%) were negative. When asked about the extent of motivational effect, participants rated the motivational satisfaction of the module, results of which are presented in the chart below.

.

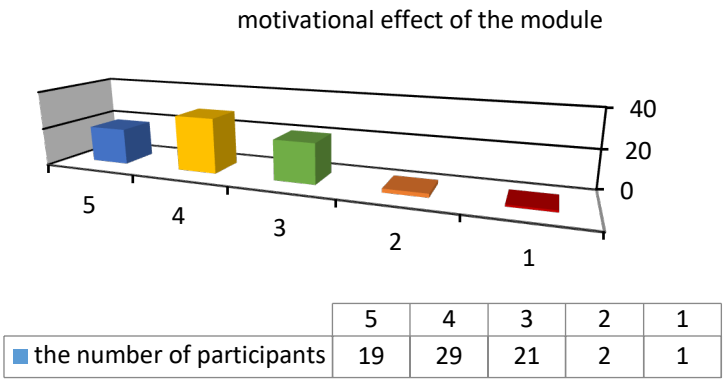


Figure 57. Motivational effect

As the chart suggested, except for three students rating the experience as a low motivational source, most participants regarded the module as a motivating and satisfactory tool. Considering the clarity and intelligibility of the module activities and objectives, participants gave dominantly positive responses to the experience survey (Figure 58).

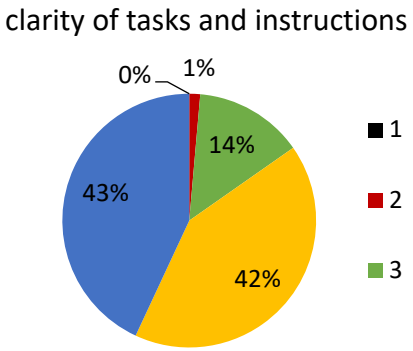


Figure 58. Clarity of tasks

Regarding teacher support category in the experience survey, participants rated their teachers in terms of support provided for them, and the results indicated that their teachers offered them the necessary support concerning the module activities (Figure 59).

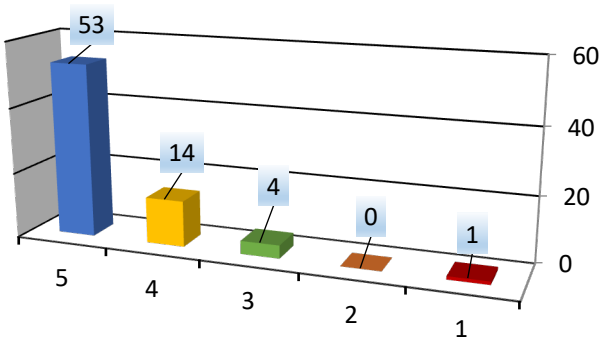


Figure 59. Teacher support

As can be seen, almost all the students participating in the module rated their teachers as very supportive during their time in module activities. Following the experience survey, students' opinions were collected through semi-structured questions, and the first one of these questions was related to their opinions of the module in terms of its instructional worth and mechanical features.

4.7.2. Module-Related Opinions of Participants

When participants' opinions regarding their experiences with the module are examined, four themes were established based on the generated codes: mechanics-related opinions, content opinions, negative opinions, and non-specific opinions. Under the themes of mechanics-related and content opinions, codes formed on the basis of participants' responses were positive opinions about their experiences with the module elements. On the other hand, the negative experiences of participants were accumulated under the theme of negative opinions. Lastly, learners refrained from mentioning specific items in their responses and generally made remarks such as "*good*" (P60), "*I liked it*" (P54), or "*nice*" (P44). Since they did not choose to give specification for the reasons why they liked the module or not, their responses were coded under the theme of non-specific opinions. The codes under each theme and their frequency values were given in the figure below.

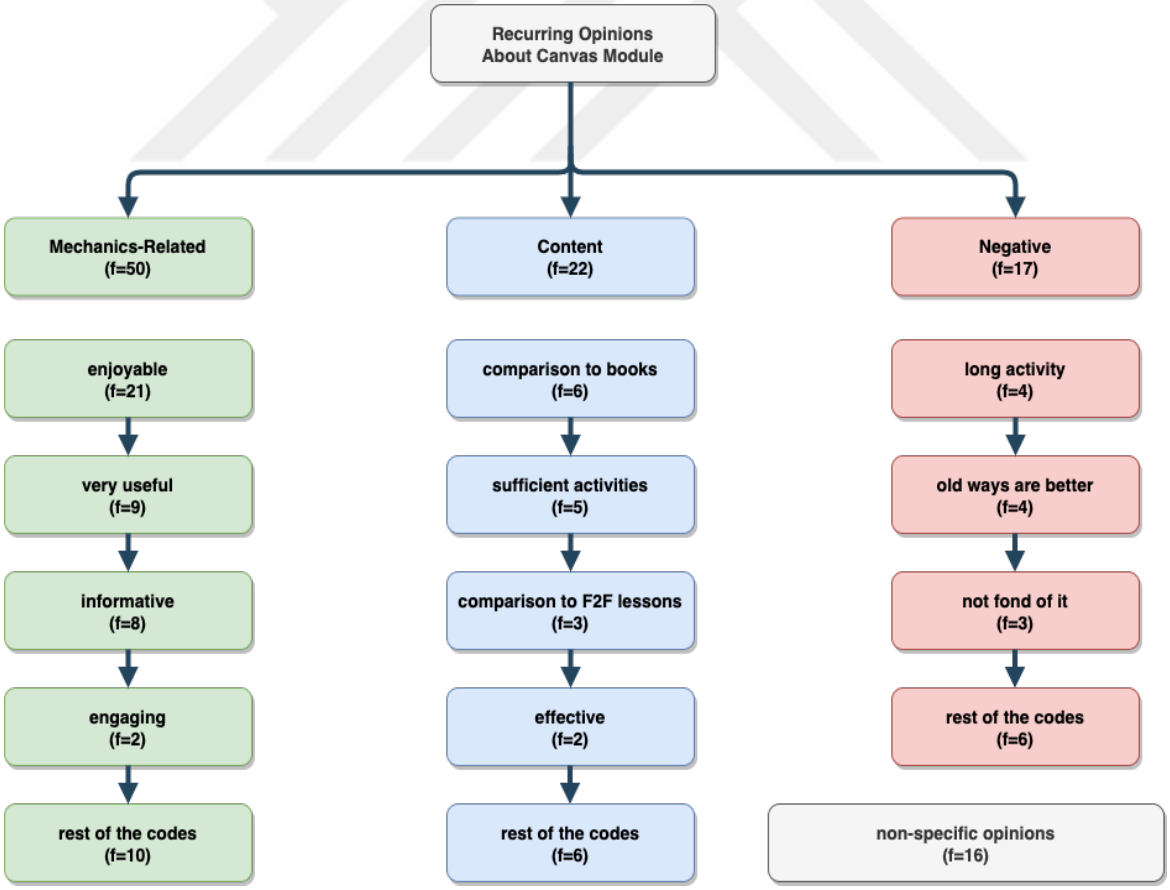


Figure 60. Module related opinions

Under the theme of mechanics-related opinions, enjoyable (f=21) code was the most frequently recurring response from the learners. Many responders used the word *enjoy* in their opinions either as a standalone mood or as an accompanying feeling with other opinions. For instance, P17 said, "*It's a nice and fun site. I enjoy and learn.*", and similarly, P42 stated, "*I think Canvas module and activities are very nice. I really liked it. It's a positive platform for learning and enjoying. I learn by having fun.*". In addition to enjoyable code, in nine instances, participants mentioned the usefulness of the module. According to P66, the module was "*...a useful system with a very high function.*", indicating that a considerable number of students found the module useful. Apart from finding it enjoyable and useful, participants also added the informative side of the module to their responses. In eight comments, students mentioned that the module was an educational experience for them aside from being fun and useful. For this, P27 remarked, "*I think it was useful. We have fun and we can improve our English.*".

In other instances which were less frequent in student opinions, two participants mentioned engagement, about which P68 said, "*It engages me with the lessons more.*", and P34 commented, "*nice, it helps me not be distracted.*". Additionally, two participants were particularly interested in the attendance issues, generating the tracking attendance (f=2) code, pointing to the practicality of the module in tracking attendance. Concerning this, P7 said, "*...because you can see if students have joined or not.*" indicating that the module is an especially nice experience thanks to this feature. The remaining codes, each mentioned only once, can be listed as follows: motivating, easy to use, freedom, clear tasks, quick flow, self-explanation, visuality, and writing enjoyment.

Under the theme of content-related opinions about the module, the most recurring code was comparison to book with six mentions, making comparisons with the coursebooks used during lessons and finding the module more effective. With this regard, P54 said, "*Instead of using a book classically during lessons, using Canvas in the computer motivates me more.*", showing that Canvas can be a more motivating experience. Moreover, to P52, "*Book is nice too, but I think Canvas is more interesting…*". Apart from this, participants mentioned the adequacy of the activities, and these remarks were categorized under the code of sufficient activities (f=5). Concerning this code, P64 responded, "*…a pretty nice system and I think the activities are enough.*" while P43 said, "*I think Canvas module and activities*

are very good. I liked them very much…". These comments clearly represent the related code and indicate the contentment of students with the module activities.

As the third most frequent mention, more enjoyable lesson (f=3) code was used to compare the experience to English lessons in general, and P7 commented, "*I think it's better than speaking in the lesson, it should continue like this.*", indicating that this module can be an opportunity for students to maintain engagement with the language learning process even though they might feel insecure about some elements of the lessons. In addition, two learners focused on the effectiveness of the module in their responses, hence generating the code of effective. For instance, P40 explicitly stated, "*I think it is effective.*" about the Canvas module. The remaining mentions that were brought up only once by different learners were coded as follows: interesting, creative activities, different experience, good vocabulary, better reading, and positive impacts.

Under the non-specific opinions theme, the general contentment with the module was mentioned in fifteen instances, but no specific reasons were given by the learners. In an example, P33 only said, "*I think it's a nice activity.*". For this reason, these short and unspecific responses were coded as *generally nice*. Additionally, one learner did not share any opinions about the module by saying, "*I don't have opinions about it.*" (P48).

Regarding the negative opinions, four participants thought the language lessons were better before converting it to a blended and gamified experience, another four believed the activities in the module were too long, and three participants were simply not fond of the experience at all. For the opinions favoring the non-converted version of the lessons, the code *old ways are better* (f=4) was generated while *long activity* (f=4) code was formed for opinions mentioning the length of the experience. In addition, for the responses mentioning that participants were not favoring the module experience, the code *not fond of it* (f=3) was established. As an example of favoring the old ways more, P57 said, "*The old system was better. I didn't like this system. I didn't get used to it. I wouldn't like it even if I got used to it.*", and P8 thought, "*…but I explain myself better in normal lessons and have more fun.*". In addition to longing for the traditional lessons, some students mentioned the length of the module. For instance, P4 complained, "*I think it's good but a little long. I wish it was*

shorter.", indicating that some learners were overwhelmed by the module experience and loaded content.

In another code, *not fond of it* (f=3), participants used statements showing their dislike of the module experience. Concerning this, P21 said, "*In my opinion, it's a bit boring.*" while P11 simply remarked, "*I don't like it very much.*". The remaining responses, each of which was mentioned by one person generated the codes as follows: complex, decrease interaction, difficult activities, absurd parts, not bad, and time management.

Following the general opinions of participants about the module experience collected after the implementation of the blended gamified module, participants were asked about their specific opinions regarding the motivational effects of the module, their favorite elements in the module, and the criticism of the module. These specific questions will help understand the motivational, autonomy-related, and interactional dimensions of the experience in a more detailed way.

4.8. Opinions Regarding Module Experience Related to LA, Motivation, and CI

This section includes the qualitative dimension of EFL learners' opinions regarding the motivational effect of the module on their views of English with reasons, the strengths of the module as in their favorite part in the whole experience, and the weaknesses of the module in the shape of criticism of the module. These main points will be addressed under their corresponding subheadings.

4.8.1. Motivational Effect of the Module

As the second open-ended question in the post-test stage, participants were asked about the effects of the Canvas module on their motivation toward learning English. As a result of the content analysis run for the responses to the question, three main themes were established regarding participants' reactions to the motivational effects of the module. These themes included: improvement effect, partial change, and no change or decrease. In addition to these categories, one response was classified as a separate category since it did not fit into

any of the themes. Under this category, one participant simply said, "*I don't know*" and did not provide any other statements (P22). The main categories and their corresponding codes were presented in the figure below.

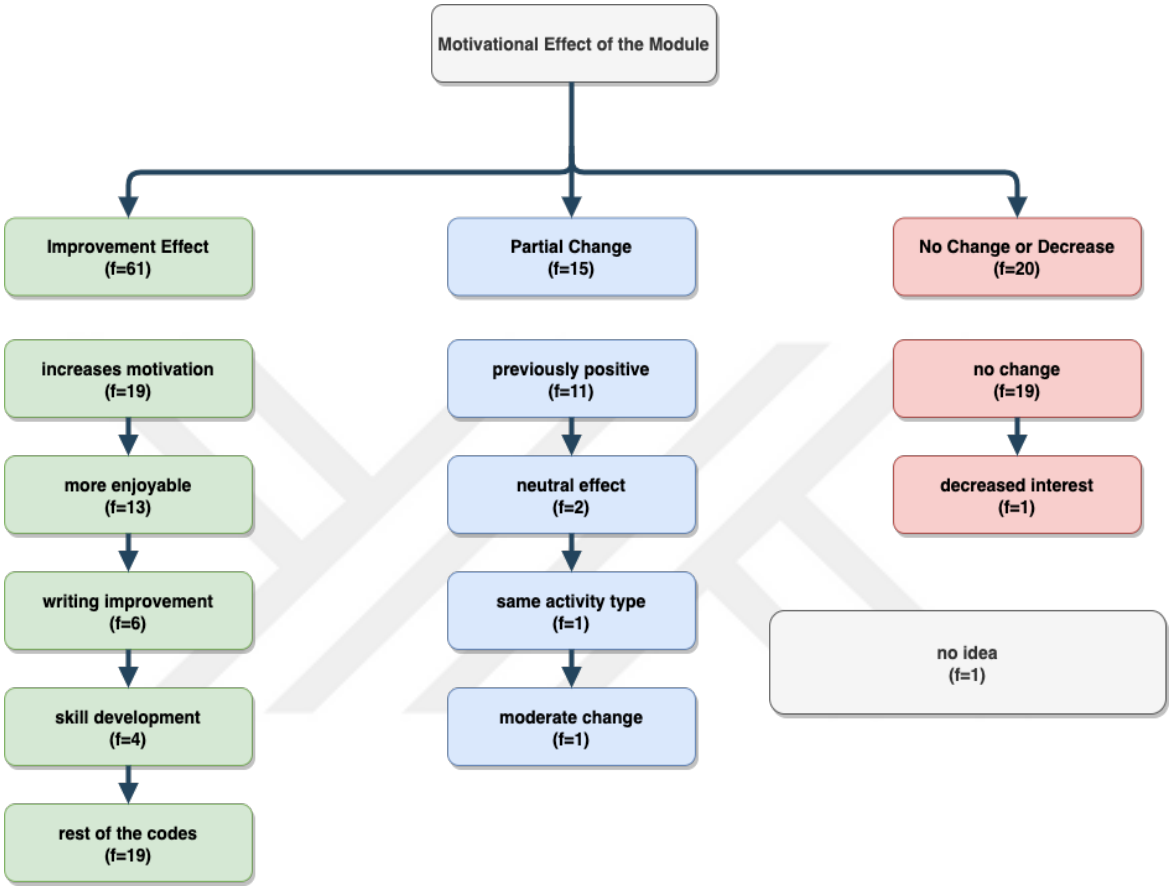


Figure 61. Motivational effect of the module

Within the improvement effect theme, most of the participants (f=19) mentioned how the module experience increased motivation levels. About this, P50 stated, "*...activities becoming more diverse in a virtual environment increased my willingness to learn.*" whereas P10 said, "*…increases my motivation by showing different areas.*". These statements clearly exemplify the positive impact of the module on EFL learners' motivation toward learning English. The second most frequently mentioned issue was how this module was more enjoyable than their regular lessons in terms of increasing English learning motivation. Therefore, the code *more enjoyable* was generated in this sense, about which, P64 said, "*Because for me English is more enjoyable this way and more encouraging.*". In addition, P41 remarked, "*I think it is teaching in a very fun way, I am happy.*".

In terms of the improvement effect theme, six participants mentioned circumstances where their writing experience was improved. For this, P40 stated, "*...especially practicing by writing about something is very beneficial for us.*" while P33 commented, "*Actually, I think there are positive sides. I think it developed all of us in terms writing...*". These statements and others clearly underlined the impact of the module on their writing enjoyment and writing improvement. Similar to writing improvement, participants commented that all language skills are improved by the contribution of the module. In this sense, P68 stated, "*It works positively for me because even though we have a professional in front of us, you can't cover all important things about language like speaking by using the book as workbook.*". In this statement, P68 wanted to underline the importance of the module in covering all language skills in a balance. In a different vain, interestingly, P7 said, "*...positive because I was shy about speaking but now I can do things without speaking.*", meaning that students could find engaging parts about the language even if they are anxious about their other skill. In other words, the module provided students with alternative ways and opportunities to develop their English.

Another important code generated in relation to the improvement effect theme was *engagement* (f=3). Participants who mentioned engagement-related statements showed that the module experience was captivating and engaged them with the learning process. Regarding this, P49 said, "*I keep losing and losing myself. This is impossible in a normal English lesson.*" and clearly indicated that the module experience is positively unique and not similar to regular lessons at all. Furthermore, P37 remarked, "*I was bored and distracted in normal English lessons. I do it with fun thanks to Canvas.*". In addition to these, participants underlined the impact of immediate feedback (f=2), increased attendance (f=2), and independence in learning (f=2), which were quite significant because they directly made associations to the core of gamification and autonomous learning. Regarding this, for immediate feedback, P31 said, "*We see our mistakes after answering the test. Most sites don't have this.*", pointed to how immediate feedback can increase motivation, and the statement, "*...because I couldn't understand what was right or wrong when I wrote in the book.*" by P16 made it clear that receiving clear feedback can really help learners to be more motivated. Similarly, increased attendance and feeling of freedom were the apparent effects of the module. P43, for instance, said, "*I can use English more freely and more confidently.*".

In the context of improvement effect, learners gave statements that generated the codes *beneficial system*, *confidence*, *diverse activities*, *educating*, *gamified*, *interesting examples*, *interesting texts*, *less boring lesson*, *overcoming anxiety*, and *positive perspective*. These codes were each mentioned only once by different students, and they were individual accounts, meaning that a recurrence was not possible. They were only valuable in terms of representing student opinions no matter how infrequently they were mentioned.

In the partial change category, most of the learners stated that they had already had positive disposition and motivation toward English, and their motivation levels did not change radically. These statements were coded as *previously positive* (f=11), and P70 represented the group with the statement, "*It didn't make any changes with me because I already like English very much.*". Likewise, two participants shared neutral statements in terms of change even though they liked the module generally. Due to the positive tone of their statements, they were included in the partial change category. Moreover, one participant said activity types were almost the same as the book while another learner remarked that there was a slight change in motivation.

As for the last category, no change or decrease, 19 participants reported that they did not notice any changes in terms of motivation levels. They did not specify any feelings whatsoever; therefore, it was difficult to deduce their statements harbored disappointment or indifference to the situation. However, it can be understood from their short and unspecified remarks that students were not very willing to participate in answering the questions and they gave short and hasty responses. Another speculation can be that they had already been demotivated toward English lessons, and nothing could change their opinions. Furthermore, P57 reported, "*It made negative change. I started to not like English lessons.*", which might raise concern about the effectiveness of a gamified and blended experience even though it was only one student. However, it is impossible to understand what might have caused this decrease in motivation since the student did not provide any reasons for the condition.

4.8.2. Participants' Favorite Components Regarding the Experience

Following the motivational effects of the module, EFL learners were asked to respond with their favorite components in the module by explaining. After the content

analysis of the responses, three main categories were found for the participants' favorite elements in the module experience as follows: game elements, instructional elements, and non-specific responses. Each categorical theme generated related codes, all of which were presented in the figure below.

Initially, non-specific responses given by the participants contained statements that did not provide any specific favorite part regarding the module. Out of seven responses within this category, four participants remarked that they liked everything about the module and did not indicate any strong feelings toward one or more specific elements. Regarding the *everything* code, P60, for instance, stated, "*It's generally good.*". Similarly, two participants said that they were not sure what to pick while one student did not say anything, leaving the question unanswered. The two major categories other than non-specific responses were game element (f=39) and instructional elements (f=40). Corresponding codes for these themes were shown in Figure 62 below.

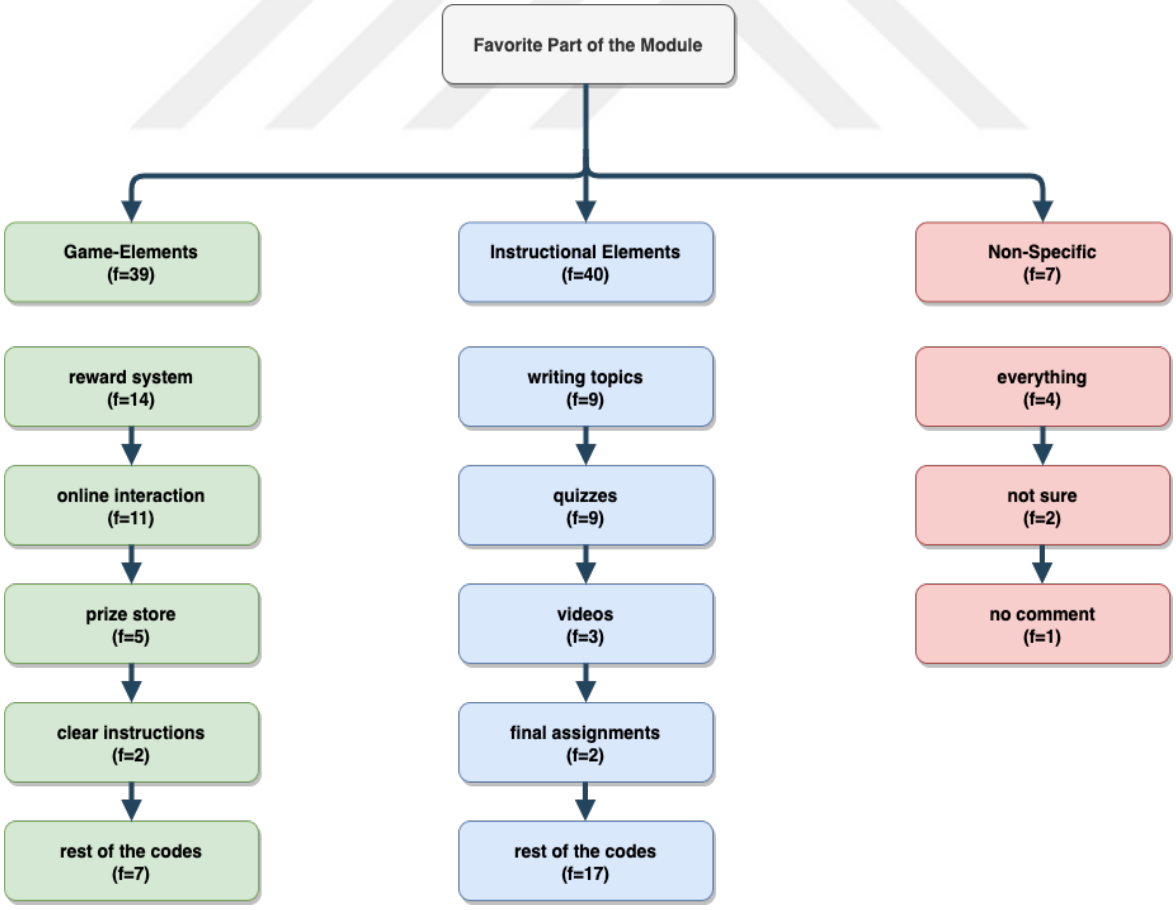


Figure 62. Favorite parts in the module based on participants' opinions

In the category of game elements, the reward system was mentioned fourteen times as participants' favorite element in the module. Concerning the reward system, P25 commented, "*It's nice to get rewards when we join classes.*" while P45 said, "*…being able to earn things when we do something.*", which can lead to the deduction that reward system was an interesting and motivating aspect as one of game elements. As for the next favorite item of the learners, online interaction element received eleven mentions. P51 said regarding this, "*I found seeing my friends' opinions about the topics we talked about in the lessons and similarly them seeing my statements very useful.*". Comments like this one indicated that learners really liked the online interaction aspect of the module, which is an element frequently used in game environments and serious games.

Apart from the reward system as a general concept, students favored the prize store on which they can spend their collected points and buy different prizes to use in their lessons or in their daily lives. Regarding the prize store, P62 said, "*I really liked buying things with the points we collected.*", which was quite similar to others' comments on the same matter. Participants also favored clear instructions (f=2) and second chances (f=2) as game elements in the module. Serious games traditionally are expected to contain clear instructions and guidelines for users/participants and fear of failure is mostly eliminated by giving users another chance until the tasks are completed. Concerning clear instructions, P16 said, "*I think the best part is telling us what to do in detail. Clearer than the book.*". In addition, about receiving a second chance, P37 remarked, "*I liked trying for more times in short tests.*". Even though they were not mentioned by a vast majority, these two codes were still significant in terms of reflecting game elements and were appreciated and noticed by participants. In the remaining instances, students mentioned badges (f=1), flow of the module (f=1), fun activities (f=1), progress check (f=1), and refreshing parts (f=1) as their favorite elements.

In the category of instruction-related (f=40) favorites, participants favored elements related to writing topics (f=9) and quizzes (f=9) the most. About writing topics code, P40 responded, "*I like writing sections where we can write about given topics and things similar to what we see in lessons.*". This showed that writing topics were interesting in the eyes of learners, and they were engaging and motivating elements. Moreover, students equally favored the quizzes administered in each of the module unit. In terms of quizzes, P3 said, "*I*

liked the quizzes the most. They were short and fun." while P34 liked "*revising the grammar we learned with a quiz.*", meaning that quizzes were seen as a good opportunity to learn or practice the learned bits about the language.

Students additionally put videos (f=3) in the module in high regard, about which P42 reported to like "*parts of watching videos and answering questions.*". Next, students gave importance to different skills (f=2) covered by the module activities, the effectiveness and creativity of final assignments (f=2), good content (f=2) designed for the module, individual work (f=2) chances, opportunities for sharing personal ideas (f=2), and units (f=2) included in the module. As a striking favored element in terms of its connection to autonomy, individual work was praised by two learners, aligning with the purposes of the module. P9 liked the module due to individuality, saying, "…*doing the tests on our own.*".

As for the remaining responses, students' statements about their favorite parts in the module were coded as details (f=1), effective supplement (f=1), familiarity (f=1), range of activities (f=1), revision (f=1), short and fun (f=1), and similarities to the book (f=1). In essence, students gave accounts for the details provided by the module and the module was regarded as a good supplementary material for the lesson. Students also liked the familiar content of the module, its revision opportunities, the length of the module, the range of activities in the process, and its enjoyable atmosphere.

Following the presentation of codes and themes generated based on students' opinions in general about the module, on motivational effects of the module, and on their favorite elements in the module, students were lastly asked to write their criticism regarding what was missing or what could be improved in the module. The next section presents the findings regarding this question based on students' responses.

4.8.3. Criticism of the Module

In the last question, participants were asked to give their opinions about what they found to be missing or insufficient in the module as well as their positive remarks. This question was asked to provide insights into what worked or did not work, and to give ideas about future iterations of the module. In addition, future research attempting to conduct

similar modules which harbor gamification and blended learning techniques can benefit from the responses given by the participants of this study.

Considering the responses of students, it was found that the criticism made on the module included content-related and technology-related shortcomings. Additionally, participants gave non-specific statements about the module, most of which remarked that there was nothing to complain about the experience. However, a small group of students neither pointed out a negative element in the module nor mentioned a positive one, simply stating that they had no ideas. The related themes and their corresponding codes are presented in the figure below.

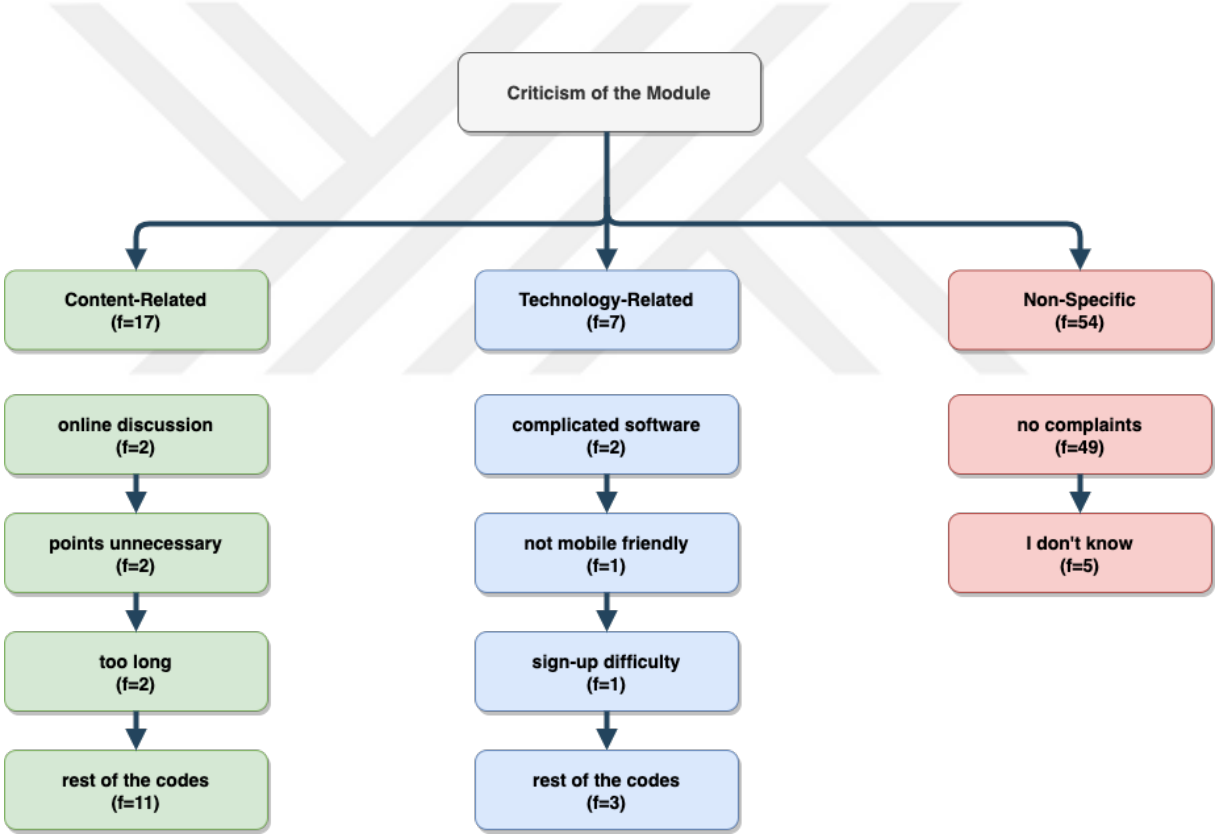


Figure 63. Criticism of the module

Based on the responses of participants, content-related drawbacks of the module were mostly about the online discussion (f=2), unnecessary points (f=2), and the module being too long (f=2). P19 said about online discussions, "*I think there are a lot of comment writing activities.*", believing that online discussion activities might affect students negatively if they are excessively used. Furthermore, concerning unnecessary points in the module, P21

commented, "*I think point parts are unnecessary, but this is my opinion.*". Moreover, two students found the module process too long, about which P43 remarked, "*Some activities take too much time to read.*". This indicated that the length of some modules can be negotiated with students to maintain the engagement of students.

The remaining issues raised by the participants once were creativity, finding video activities unnecessary, some parts being moderately boring, necessity to include more historical texts, requirement to add more videos, some reading parts being dull, homework being similar to the ones in regular lessons, requisition for more Ted X videos, and some texts being problematic according to one student for some reason unknown to us. In addition, one student (P64) said "*I think all the activities were sufficient.*", pointing out that there are no negative sides to the module.

In terms of technology-related criticism, two participants found the module a bit complicated to use. For instance, P61 said, "*the design of the site is complicated. This can be fixed.*" whereas P42 commented, "*It's a little complicated for me. I don't have a clear answer.*". These remarks showed that more simplistic interfaces can be used as modules even though only two students criticized this aspect. Additionally, one participant (P43) mentioned, "*Because it's online, I can forget some activities.*", indicating that reminders and teacher warning from time to time could be useful for student involvement. The remaining student comments generated the codes *not mobile friendly* (f=1), *signing-up difficulty* (f=1), *system notifications* (f=1), and *time for getting used to* (f=1). In essence, some might expect a more mobile friendly interface to use it everywhere, a more simplified registering process, a module where constant pop-up notification is available to give immediate and constant feedback for students' actions in the module, and a system where getting used to is easier.

4.9. Classroom Interaction and Participation

In this section, the interactional and participatory actions of the EFL learners in the module activities will be scrutinized. First, the participation of the students will be examined with reference to their interaction based on assignment completion and online discussions in the modules. This log data can be reached through the New Analytics feature of the Canvas

module, which is very useful in terms of screening overall student participation in the module.

Upon reviewing the module log data, students' activity completion in the sense of written assignments and online discussion can be seen on the Canvas module analytics. The charts in the figures provided below give accounts of student activity over the course of module activities.

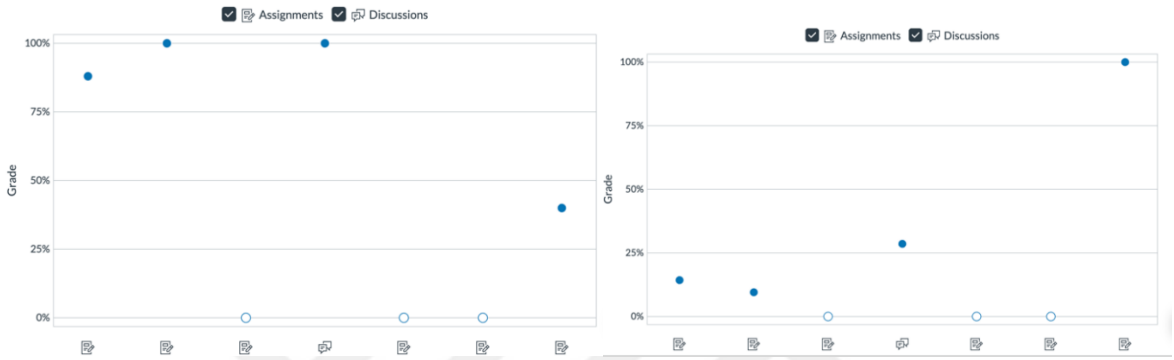


Figure 64. A1 9th grades

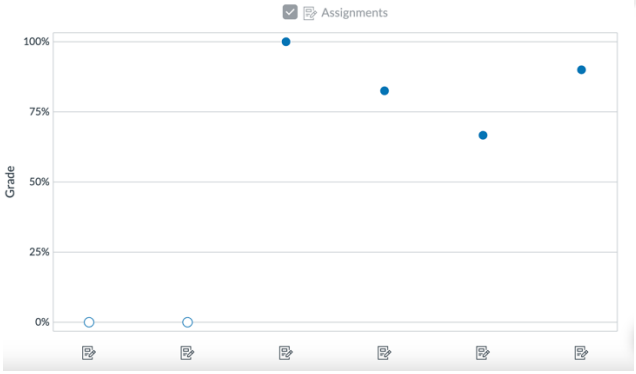


Figure 65. A2 9th grades

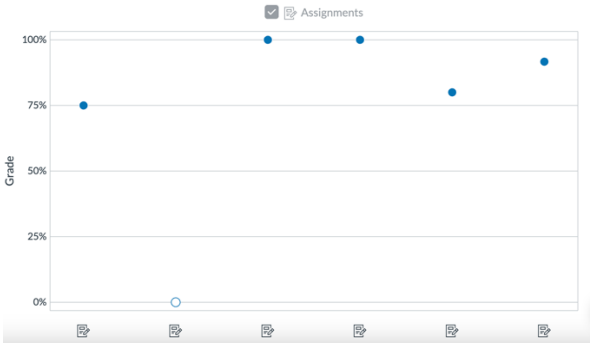


Figure 66. B1 9th grades

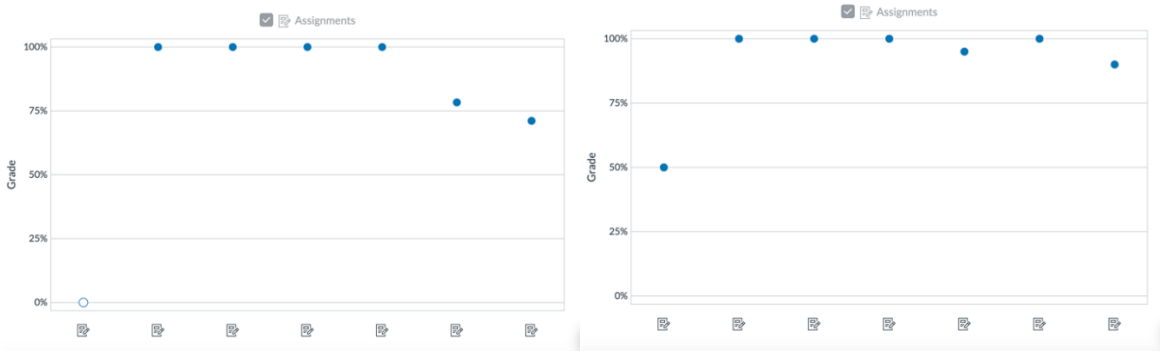


Figure 67. B2 9th grades

As can be seen in the figures, in terms of 9th-grade students, assignment and online discussion participation was not the same for the classrooms. While the first A1 classroom showed a decrease in attendance and task completion, the other group at the same level started with low attendance and peaked at the end stages. For the A2-level classroom in the 9th grade, the first two modules received no interest and task completion, but the attendance peaked in the middle of the process, decreasing again only to be recovered at the end. Similarly, B1-level students showed fluctuations in terms of attendance and completion of tasks. Starting with a 75% completion, their participation dropped to zero in the second module. In the middle of the phase, their performance peaked and slightly plummeted. At the end, however, the participation raised to very high levels again, if not to the maximum performance. B2 classrooms both started low and reached the peak quickly and performed greatly. However, the first group decreased more in terms of participation in the last module compared to the second group.

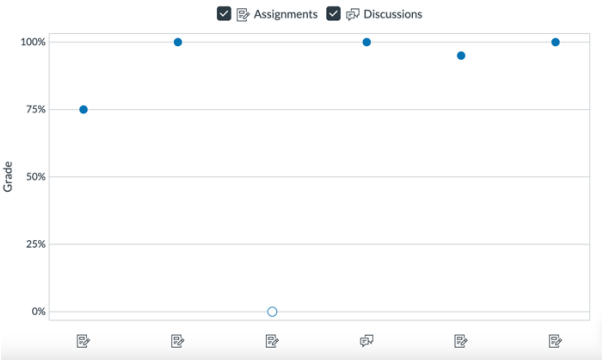


Figure 68. A1 10th grades

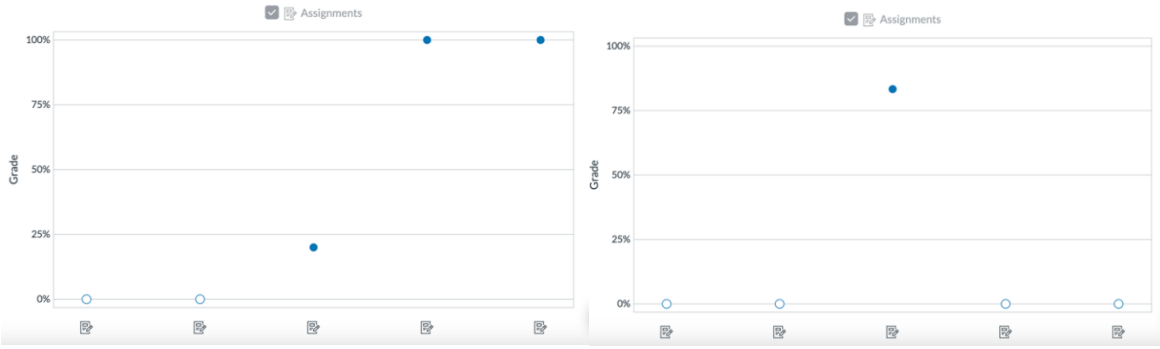


Figure 69. A2 10th grades

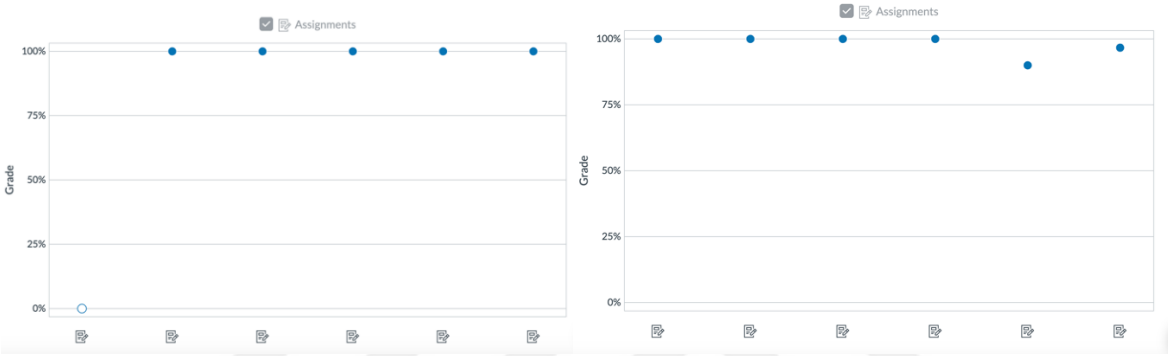


Figure 70. B2 10th grades

Based on the charts in figures above, 10th grade learners performed a stable and high task completion in all modules, reaching maximum participation at the end of the activities. However, the same cannot be said for the A2 groups because the first group started off very poorly, recovering the performance only at the end whereas the second group in A2 level only completed one activity. Concerning the B2 groups, both performed almost splendidly, except for the first group, failing to complete the assignment in the first week.

In sum, these logs indicating student performance based on classroom groups will be very useful in interpreting and discussing the statistical and qualitative outcomes of this study. Student participation and task completion information retrieved from the logs will be kept as a reference point in interpreting the motivational and autonomy-related responses of the groups.

4.10. Focus Group Interview Data

Following the implementation of the gamified blended module and the analysis of quantitative data collected from the EFL learners who participated in the research process, teachers and selected students as previously mentioned in the methodology chapter were asked about their opinions regarding the statistical changes in the LA, motivation and L2 motivational self-system constructs. The content analysis results of the focus group interviews are very crucial to the validity of the study because it provided valuable insights from the members of the participants themselves. As the researcher, it is not possible for me to address every issue as they interpreted them since I would only rely on the data provided for me by the qualitative analysis software and my personal judgment to code them.

The focus group semi-structured questions included five main sections. In the first section, participants were asked questions about the module as follows: what they have found the most effective in the module, negative sides of the module, autonomy state of students after the module, and views on the effects of the module on their English motivation. The second, third, and fourth sections contained questions about the results obtained from the autonomy scale, motivation scale, and L2 possible selves scales, respectively. The last section, finally, asked participants to interpret the outcomes related to technology and language skills of the students. To effectively investigate what types of interpretative contributions were made by the participants of the research, teacher and student responses will be presented under their respective sections.

4.10.1. Issues Related to the Module

The questions asked to obtain reflections of the participants as a spectator eye regarding the mechanics and effectiveness of the module, four questions were asked to teachers and students in the focus group. The first question asked was the most effective element in the gamified blended module in their opinions. Subsequently, they were asked to comment on the shortcomings of the module, the autonomy state of students after the implementation of the module, and the effects the module has had on the students.

The Most Effective Elements in the Module

Based on the question regarding the most effective elements in the module, responses of focus group participants were tabulated under themes and codes corresponding to the themes. The results of the coding process were presented in Table 71.

Table 71

Opinions of participants regarding the most effective element in the module

Participants	Themes (f)	Codes (f)
students	*content* (3)	*Text topics* (1), *articles* (1), *different activities* (1)
	***learning opportunities* (2)**	***revision and practice* (1), *written assignments* (1)**
	feedback (2)	*peer comments* (1), *others' perspectives* (1)
	***game mechanics* (6)**	***competition* (2), *challenge* (1), *immediate feedback* (1), *award system* (1), *technology integration* (1)**
teachers	*content* (3)	*enjoyable* (2), *different activities* (1)
	***learning opportunities* (5)**	***learning strategies* (2), *revision and practice* (2), *permanent learning* (1)**

Note. N=11

Considering the results obtained from the content analysis of the responses, it was found that codes were arranged under four main themes as follows: learning opportunities (f=7), content (f=6), game mechanics (f=6), and feedback (f=2). As can be seen in the table above, teachers and students generated distinct codes under the same codes of learning opportunities and content despite making associations with the same themes. However, in student responses, codes addressing the theme of feedback were prevalent whereas teachers made references to the game mechanics in the module as the most effective elements.

Regarding the learning opportunities (f=7) as the most recurring theme, students mentioned the effectiveness of revision and practice (f=1) and written assignments (f=1) while teachers underlined learning strategies (f=2), revision and practice (f=2), and permanent learning (f=1). For revision and practice (f=1), Student 3 (will be referred to as S from this point forward) remarked, "*quizzes at the end of the topic and places where we write*

our ideas about the topic" as the most effective element in the module while Teacher 2 (hereafter T) stated about the issue, "…*students who were bored in the main lessons in the grammar section enjoyed more with short reminders and practices in these modules.*", highlighting the effect of revision and practice element provided by the module. As for the learning strategies (f=2) mentioned twice by teachers under the learning opportunities theme, T1 stated, "…*and that the students experienced their own learning methods.*", signifying the importance of ability to set strategies for language learning offered by the module.

Another common theme generated by the responses of teachers and students was the content (f=6), for which students generated the codes of text topics (f=1), articles (f=1), and different activities (f=1) and teachers the codes of enjoyable (f=2) and different activities (f=1). Different activities code was mentioned by both groups about which T3 said, "*The different and fun activities in the module attracted the attention of the students.*". The code of enjoyable (f=2) was mentioned by two teachers in the group one of whom (T2) remarked about it, "*…competitive atmosphere that motivates students made the learning process enjoyable…*".

For the student group, feedback (f=2) theme was prominent as they mentioned codes such as peer comments (f=1) and others' perspectives (f=1). About peer comments, S6 stated, "*Being able to see the comments written by other people in the class during the lesson…*". In the continuation of the same sentence, S6 also highlighted the effect of others' perspectives by saying, "…*comments we write express an opinion and we can look at the situation from a wider perspective.".*

The theme of game mechanics (f=6) mentioned by teachers was made up of codes such as competition (f=2), challenge (f=1), immediate feedback (f=1), award system (f=1), and technology integration (f=1). These to-the-point comments generating the codes addressing game mechanics are potentially the results of gamification training given to teachers, which raised their awareness of gamification terminology. Regarding the competition (f=2), T4 stated, "*The thing that kept students fit were the little challenge and motivation awards in front of them.*", at the same time, accounting for the effectiveness of award system (f=1) code. T4 also stated in the same sentence, "…*getting instant feedback with constant mini tests…*", emphasizing the effect of immediate feedback provided by

quizzes integrated into the module. Finally, with the response, "…*students were intertwined with technology…*", T1 mentioned the positive impact of technology integration offered by the module.

Shortcomings of the Module

Concerning the question asked to the participants pertaining to the negative aspects of the module in their opinions, teachers and students provided answers taking into consideration the performance of all students who participated in the activities. Themes and codes generated based on the responses of the focus group were presented in Table 72 below.

Table 72

Opinions of participants regarding the shortcomings of the module

Participants	Themes (f)	Codes (f)
	module mechanics (2)	*inadequate articles* (1), *interface problems* (1)
students	***learner-based* (1)**	***difficult writing activities* (1)**
	contentment (3)	*no negativity* (3)
	***module mechanics* (3)**	***long modules* (2), *student distance* (1)**
teachers	*learner-based* (1)	*login duration* (1)
	***contentment* (2)**	***no negativity* (2)**

Note. N=11

When the participants of the focus group study were asked to respond to the negative elements in the module, three main themes for the codes generated were formed as follows: module mechanics (f=5), learner-based (f=2) shortcomings, and contentment (f=5). Initially, it must be highlighted that five responses given by teachers and students assured that there was not a negative aspect in the module. T5 was straightforward when saying, "*I didn't encounter any negative component.*". However, some statements validating the dominant positivity of the module were followed with an additional sentence of condition, meaning that *no negativity* code was only meant for the effort to meet the learning objectives and mechanical interface behind the module, not expressing perfection. For instance, T4 stated, "*I don't think there is a downside to the module. As a system, we could not get the full effect of students due to their autonomous learning…*". In the sense of module mechanics (f=5) as the other commonly recurring theme, students mentioned inadequate articles (f=1) and

interface problems (f=1) as the negativity while teachers emphasized long modules (f=2) and student distance (f=1). One of the students found the number of articles embedded in the modules to be low for English practice. In addition, S6 criticized the interface by saying, "*I'm very happy with it in general, but the interface could be a little smoother."*. Moreover, two separate teachers mentioned the length of the modules, about which T2 stated, "*There were some parts that they could not finish because some modules were long rather than the negative, but…*" indicating that students were unwilling to finish some parts of the modules due to their length. From the student perspective, regarding learner-based negativities, one downside of the module was the difficult writing activities (f=1), and concerning this, S3 said, "*some writing related issues were a bit difficult sometimes.*", indicating that students' levels could be insufficient with some writing activities. On the other hand, T1 generated the code of login duration (f=1) by remarking, "*…students didn't spend a lot of time on the module.*" for the theme of learner-based negativities.

Autonomy State of Students After the Module

Focus group participants were asked about the changes related to autonomy levels of students following the blended gamified module activities. The answers given by teachers and students were organized under main themes and codes constituting these themes. Table 73 below presents detailed information about main themes and codes pertaining to the responses given to the question.

Table 73

Opinions of participants regarding the autonomy states of students

Participants	Themes (f)	Codes (f)
students	*autonomy development* (5)	*improvement in autonomy* (4), reflection (1)
	***affective states* (1)**	***relaxation* (1)**
	content support (1)	*scaffolding* (1)
	***autonomy development* (7)**	***improvement in autonomy* (4), *self-monitoring* (1), *reflection* (1), *lack of engagement* (1)**
teachers	*affective states* (1)	*self-confidence* (1)
	***content support* (3)**	***scaffolding* (2), *instructions* (1)**

Note. N=11

As can be interpreted from the table, the main themes built around the generated codes were autonomy development (f=12), content support (f=4), and affective states (f=2). Autonomy development theme included codes that made remarks about the increase in students' autonomy levels while the theme of affective states involved codes addressing students' emotional and psychological states. Lastly, content support reflected the codes indicating that the module supported language learning through scaffolding (f=3) and correct use of instructions (f=1).

Regarding the autonomy development (f=12), students in the focus group mentioned issues that accumulated under the codes of improvement in autonomy (f=4) and reflection (f=1). Concerning this, S3 stated, "*I think I can be a more autonomous student.*", indicating that after the module, autonomy levels of students might have showed an increase. Moreover, S6 emphasized the reflection (f=1) code by stating, "…*But I saw my disadvantages...*". In terms of teachers on the theme of autonomy development (f=6), the recurring codes were improvement in autonomy (f=4), self-monitoring (f=1), reflection (f=1), and lack of engagement (f=1). For the improvement in autonomy code, T2 remarked, "*I definitely think that students are more autonomous.*" while T1 sent mixed signals about the autonomy development, mentioning that some students increased in autonomy levels while an immense number of students did not show enthusiasm for the module activities, therefore indicating a stability or decrease in autonomy levels. T1's remark about this matter was as follows: "*While it developed positively for some students, it was the opposite for a significant majority. They didn't care enough.*", pointing to the code of lack of engagement (f=1). Concerning the self-monitoring (f=1) and reflection (f=1), T4 stated, "*I believe it is a good support for their further academic life because children saw themselves.*", meaning that students could monitor their academic progress and reflect on their performance during the activities.

The second most frequently recurring theme in responses to the question was the content support (f=4) which accounted for the learning-related support provided by every design element of the module. Regarding this, students mentioned the code of scaffolding (f=1) whereas teachers responded with matters under the codes of scaffolding (f=2) and instructions (f=1). In the sense of scaffolding, T3 stated, "*…after a few lessons, the students could complete them without our guidance…*", indicating that activities and modules were

scaffolded and supported with prior knowledge to further language learning. For the scaffolding code, S6 made the statement, "…*it was a little difficult to write a text without help at first, but later I got used to it.*". Additionally, the importance of instructions was highlighted in the development of autonomy within the theme of content support. For this, T3 said, "*Since the instructions given in the modules were very clear and precise…*", pointing to the impetus provided by instructions for improving the autonomy of learners.

Another theme generated by the participants' responses was the affective states (f=2) which accounted for the codes of relaxation (f=1) and self-confidence (f=1). Students mentioned the feeling of relaxation in relation to the module while teachers underlined self-confidence provided by the module experience. Concerning the relaxation (f=1) code, S2 said, "*I'm more relaxed*.", referring to their own experience as a participant in the module after the activities. Moreover, T3 said, "…*This…increased the self-confidence of the students and thus, I think, enabled them to gain autonomy in learning.*", about the self-confidence code within the affective states theme.

Module Effect on Motivation to Learn English

Participants of the focus group study were asked about the possible effect of the gamified blended module on students' motivation to learn English. Their responses were categorized under certain themes and codes as shown in Table 74 below.

Table 74

The effect of the module on students' motivation to learn English

Participants	Themes (f)	Codes (f)
students	*affective states* (3)	*pre-existing motivation* (2)
		self-expression (1)
	***content* (4)**	***enjoyable content* (3)**
		***authentic language* (1)**
teachers	*affective states* (2)	*positive change of opinion* (2)
	***content* (2)**	***coursebook independence* (1)**
		***enjoyable content* (1)**
	learner attitude (2)	*effort* (1)
		student attendance (1)

Considering the main themes generated after the content analysis of the responses, affective states (f=5) and content (f=6) themes both appeared in the answers of teachers and students. However, teachers gave responses signifying the theme of learner attitude (f=2) in addition to the common themes. Affective states theme covered emotional or feeling-related impacts of the module on EFL learners whereas content theme contained the effects invoked by the mechanical features of the module. Lastly, learner attitude theme was generated from the teacher responses that were related to the behaviors of the participants as an impact on their motivational outcomes.

Affective states (f=5) included codes such as pre-existing motivation (f=2), and self-expression (f=1) from the students' points of view while teachers mentioned positive change of opinion (f=2) regarding the theme. Two students from the focus group pointed to the fact that they themselves already possessed a positive motivation towards learning English, leaving no space for additional stimuli to increase their motivation levels. Concerning this, S2 remarked, "*I always had a positive side towards English and this attitude continued.*", indicating that module or not, they would maintain their interest in learning English. In addition, S4 claimed that the module was a way to improve self-expression willingness due to its fun environment by saying, "*I think I can express my thoughts more easily because it is more fun.*". From the perspectives of teachers who observed positive changes in students' motivation after the module implementation, T4, for instance, said, "…*I had students who changed their minds very seriously.*". These insights indicated that the module had positive impact on the affective states of EFL learners.

Regarding the theme of content (f=6), students mentioned elements in the module that made up the codes of enjoyable content (f=3) and authentic language (f=1) while teachers raised the codes of coursebook independence (f=1) and enjoyable content (f=1). Regarding the common code of enjoyable content between teachers and students, participants stated that the module content was very enjoyable for EFL learners. For instance, S5 said, "*It left positive effects, made it more fun.*" about the module while T3 remarked, "…*and that they can learn English in a different and more enjoyable way.*". On another vein, student group indicated the authentic language use in the module, about which S1 said, "*I liked it because it was more everyday stuff.*". Furthermore, T3 mentioned coursebook independence provided by the module by stating, "…*because they have seen more clearly*

that they do not have to stick to a book.", specifying that the module was a great supplementary source of learning English.

Under the theme of learner attitude (f=2) pinpointed by the teacher group, teachers raised the codes of effort (f=1) and student attendance (f=1) as elements affecting the student motivation. Firstly, teachers put a condition for students to be affected positively by the module, which was the degree of effort put to activities. In an example, as quoted by T1, "*Yes, it was very effective for students who put serious effort. However, this situation was negatively affected by those who did not work.*", it can be seen that some students did not exploit the potential of the module to the fullest. As for the matter of student attendance, teacher group mentioned that attendance of student played a crucial role in gaining benefits from the module. Concerning this, T2 said, "*…it can be said that the students who did not change in a positive way consisted of students who did not attend the lesson regularly…*", indicating that there was a correlation between attendance to F2F classes and module effect. This could mean that students who already missed a considerable number of lessons did not participate in the modules, or even if they spent time in the modules, they failed to experience the full potential of the gamified blended experience.

After asking the opinions of students and teachers about the module in terms of features mentioned and explained above, the focus group study commenced by asking the opinions of students and teachers in the focus group regarding certain outcomes of the study. First, they were asked to discuss the statistical results of the LAS, which was about the changes in participants' autonomy states. Second, they were given the results of the motivational outcomes of the study based on the results of the LLMS, which was related to the statistical changes in participants' motivation toward English language learning. Last, the results of the LPSS that measured the possible self system construct of participants were presented to the members of the focus group. The changes that show statistically significant differences were discussed and interpreted by the focus group.

For the reasons explained, interpretations and discussion of the statistical changes in the autonomy, motivation, and possible self constructs will be presented in the discussion chapter rather than the findings. The discussion chapter will attempt to make sense of the findings by making references to the related research and by relying on the interpretations

made by the researcher and the focus group members. Presenting these insights into the findings under the discussion chapter will be more functional in the sense of commenting on the results and making interpretations of the data because the comments made by the focus group members are more of a discussion of the results, rather than findings of the research. In other words, these sections of the focus group interviews directly attempt to discuss the findings of the study and make interpretations of the outcomes, putting an effort to bring explanations for them.

4.11. Conclusion

To revise the statistical and content analysis of the data, participants of the study were thoroughly evaluated in terms of their LA, motivation, L2 possible selves, and classroom interactional patterns. The data gathered were initially analyzed through quantitative means using statistical and numeric data. Then, the qualitative data related to these variables were analyzed through content analysis techniques. In short, the quantitative results were validated and triangulated with as much qualitative data as possible.

First, statistical results of autonomy, motivation, and L2 possible selves were portrayed based on the data collected with related scales. Second, participants' language skills such as reading, grammar, and vocabulary were analyzed based on their proficiency test scores before and after the module. In addition, writing skills of EFL learners were measured and compared based on their written assignments collected before the module and their written assignments in the final weeks of the module implementation. These assignments were graded by the researcher and one of the English teachers by observing inter-rater reliability. Third, EFL learners' classroom interactional patterns were shown in graphics as taken from the online module used. Fourth, the answers given by learners to semi-structured questions were analyzed to find certain themes and codes in a content analysis as a qualitative data analysis technique. Last, responses elicited from the focus group formed with selected students and teachers were similarly analyzed to diversify the data analysis.

As the last note, focus group interpretations of the results of the study were reserved to be discussed in the discussion section. In connection, the discussion section will attempt

to interpret the findings of the study based on my personal interpretations as the researcher, focus group comments on the results, and the related research in the field. Therefore, a detailed account of how these findings can be interpreted and what they could inform in the field of EFL learning will be provided.

CHAPTER FIVE
DISCUSSION

5.1. Introduction

This section will include lengthy discussions of the findings in terms of EFL learners' motivational, autonomy-related, and language skill outcomes in the light of related research presented in the literature review sections. While discussing the findings presented in the previous chapter, I will follow the same sectional order used in the findings headline. First, I will discuss the findings related to autonomy states of EFL learners comparing them to the findings of related research. Second, I will interpret the findings related to the motivational outcomes of learners by cross-referencing the findings of similar studies in the literature. Third, I will discuss the L2 motivational self-system concept of the participants of this study by following similar steps. Fourth, I intend to discuss the language skill improvement states of the learners in the study in the light of similar scenarios provided by the related research. Last, interactional, and participation-related actions of learners will be discussed with reference to the findings of the study. As the methodology of the research suggests, I will attempt to make sense of the statistical outcomes obtained from the quantitative data by using the qualitative data as explanatory means.

5.2. Autonomy-Related Outcomes of the Study

Revisiting the findings of the study, it was revealed that learners' autonomy levels showed a statistically significant increase after the use of gamified and blended module. Learners' autonomy-related responses to the scale showed significant mean score increase in general and in terms of ownership component of the scale. In addition, their autonomy levels indicated statistically significant difference in three items specifically. In the light of other research in the field, the findings of the study regarding autonomy offered unique gains in the context of this research. These outcomes can contribute to the understanding of autonomy in high school students using blended and gamified learning environments.

5.2.1. Desire to Choose the Best Activity

Considering the items that were statistically and significantly improved, some interpretations can be made based on the related research in the field and focus group discussions. First, it was seen that learners wanted to choose the best activity in their opinion more after the blended and gamified experience. This might indicate that the process helped them to appreciate the importance of choice and shaping their own learning. It can be stated that the modules involving game elements and the feeling of considerable freedom impacted the learning behaviors of participants, which underlined the importance of choice-making.

From the perspective of the focus group members, when asked about the elevating desire of students to choose the best activity for them to learn English, students and teachers in the focus group emphasized constituents such as choices offered to learners, freedom feeling, self-sufficiency opportunities, gamified activities, rewards, self-learning opportunities, self-discovery, confidence, and comfort zone. In other words, focus group participants commented that these components played crucial roles to increase learners' desire to choose the best activity for themselves.

Regarding this statistical change, more specifically, S3 stated, "*They might believe they can choose the best activity because they started to learn by themselves and the module helped them to know themselves.*", which indicates that modules provided opportunities for learners to explore their learning styles and choices. In a similar sense, T2 said, "*Because they were given chances to collect rewards that motivated them after completing the tasks, and they were asked for their opinions while determining these rewards.*". This statement could point out that asking the opinions of students while negotiating the content helped them believe that their choices indeed made difference and that they could shape their own learning process to serve their purposes.

Considering the research in the related literature, several outcomes pointed to common directions with the findings of the study and supported each other. For instance, As Pichugova et al. (2016) stated, LA is a product of a difficult and laborious process in which teachers, students, and content designers need to work co-dependently. In addition, students must be offered opportunities to make choices and supported cognitively and emotionally

during the language learning process. As can be seen in the quantitative and qualitative findings of the study, learners wanted to become more autonomous in terms of making their own choices in the activities and they greatly favored the feeling of freedom and independence, stating that they were motivated by the modules' enabling atmosphere. Aligned with the study of Nunan (2003), it can be inferred that through metacognition, learners must be offered ways to discover learning styles and strategies to choose their preferred way of learning in autonomy.

Furthermore, Ramadiyah and Lengkanawati (2019), Schwienworst (2003), Shen et al. (2020), Tran and Duong (2018), and Tseng et al. (2020) highlighted the importance of providing real-life content and access to the target culture with the help of technology. It was implied that providing these through face-to-face classrooms on site could be difficult and technology and CALL tools are quite beneficial in ensuring that learners are exposed to the target culture and authentic materials. Aligned with these findings, this study confirmed that using online opportunities and meticulous content design contributed to learners' autonomous behaviors as in their increasing will to make their own choices. Additionally, interacting online and evaluating peers are great ways to increase learners' autonomous behaviors in language learning just as Shen et al. (2020) and Tseng et al. (2020) revealed in their studies.

5.2.2. The Need to Be Asked for Opinions

As the second item that showed statistical improvement, after the modules, participants were more in need of being asked about their opinions during learning. Similarly, the process appears to have affected their desire for involvement because they saw that their opinions could change how the learning process was shaped. Regarding this, focus group members thought that feeling of control, feedback, prizes, motivation, self-confidence, self-paced work, learning styles, individual differences, interaction, desire to communicate, engagement, communication, and competition were all important factors affecting learners' increased desire to state their opinions.

For the change in this item, S5 said, "*Thanks to the module, they started to feel closer to things they learned. Thanks to the module that is more interactive and helps students to*

communicate more healthily, they might want to say their opinions more.". Here, the interactive nature of the module leading to the learners' investment in the process was emphasized, which indicated ownership component. Similarly, T5 stated, "*With Canvas in their lives, they experienced an adventure other than published materials and lesson activities in which they were included in the process and their interactive needs were satisfied. This might have met their expectations."*. This statement strongly accentuates the ownership component of the autonomy as well, validating the emphatic relationship between what is measured by the study and what is provided by the modules.

In connection, the related research had similar results to this outcome of this study in a way that involves the identities of learners (Ushioda, 2011) and negotiates with them (Ting, 2015). Likewise, this outcome revealed that making negotiations with learners as in determining the rewards in the prize store, making it possible to evaluate the quizzes during the process, etc. can promote autonomous behaviors in online language learning platforms. As can be seen in the qualitative findings, learners greatly valued the prize store and sharing their opinions with their friends and teachers online, which was very consistent with the outcomes of the LAS. Students also portrayed autonomous behaviors when they shared their opinions to assess their peers' work in discussions, similar to the findings of Shen et al. (2020). As Tseng et al. (2020) suggested, working together is a great way to enable students to behave more autonomously. In addition, Macaro (2008) suggested that teachers, or content developers in this case, must make use of strategies to ensure learners can articulate what they want and need in a language learning process. According to this study, this is one of the most crucial ways to reach LA in language learning. Therefore, it can be commented that the structure of the modules which attempted to provide students as many opportunities as possible for sharing their opinions effectively contributed to the appreciation of the learners as well as their LA. In effect, this feature also helped learners to become aware of the importance of sharing their opinions to improve their language learning experience.

5.2.3. Willingness to Take Risks

Lastly, learners were more courageous to take risks to communicate and state their opinions in English. This can be explained with the enjoyable interactional environment created by modules where interaction was not always something to be judged and graded.

Learners also felt that interacting with their peers and teachers online in written form gave extra enjoyment to the learning process. For the statistically significant development in risk-taking willingness of the learners, focus group members underlined the roles of constituents such as freedom, interaction, self-confidence, game atmosphere, desire for success, importance given to needs, and engagement as elements to increase risk-taking occurrences.

Concerning this, S1 in the focus group remarked, "*Canvas environment that gives freedom to everyone might give them courage because it kept everyone in interaction.*" while T2 said, "*They might have felt more comfortable while communicating online in modules, and this might have changed their perspectives of English.*". These comments indicate that interactional opportunities given by online platforms equipped with a gamified atmosphere can positively affect students' interactional willingness and their frequency of risk-taking. Indeed, these modules were designed to give as many opportunities as possible to enable learners to communicate with their friends and teachers during the activities.

As Ushioda (2011) stated, autonomy and motivation are intimately connected concepts; therefore, nurturing one directly or indirectly improves the other. Confirming this interrelation, this study found that students whose learning behaviors were directed to more autonomous ones became more motivated to participate in language activities. It was seen that learners in the study were more willing to take risks. Other reasons for the increase in this willingness are the chances of interaction offered in the modules and benefits of online platforms. This inference can be made based on learners' qualitative responses in which they favored online interaction and reduced anxiety in communication. These interpretations made about the learners' willingness to take more risks corroborate with Lee and Lee (2020) who found that students who are engaged and motivated with the language learning activities are more likely to take risks, and they enjoy it. This is the case in this study where learners got engaged with a gamified blended environment and became more willing to take risks with their actions.

Taking risks is typically associated with oral communication, and it is known that speaking is considered among the most anxiety-triggering language skills. Regarding this, one learner clearly stated that online modules were alternate ways of communication for them because they realized they could still communicate without being shy on online discussion parts.

5.3. Motivational Outcomes of the Study

In terms of motivation towards learning English, learners did not show any statistically significant improvement or decrease in their motivation at componential level based on their LLMS scores. However, when their motivational states were analyzed on item level, it was found that their motivation levels showed statistically significant elevation in two items. First, learners were more motivated to learn English for the purpose of communicating with foreign friends after the implementation of the module. Second, after the module experience, students gave more importance to English language learning as the part of a well-rounded education. In other words, their opinions of learning English as an indicator of good education became much stronger.

Considering these two items, communication and functionality features of English were positively affected by the implementation of the module. These changes were discussed with the members of the focus group, and their insights into the statistical results provided very valuable contributions to the interpretation of the findings. Almost all focus group members gave credit to the online interaction feature of the modules in increasing students' motivation to learn English for the purpose of communicating with foreign friends. This interpretation matches with the purposes of Canvas that attempted to invoke interactional occurrences within each module. In addition, gamified environments naturally assume interaction of the participants in online platforms to achieve tasks.

Regarding this outcome of the scale, S5 commented, "*Their belief they can speak with foreign people became higher. Online discussion in the module might help this."*, pointing out the essence of the matter. Furthermore, one of the teachers in the focus group (T2) remarked, "*This experience might have affected their opinion like that because they had opportunities to communicate with each other (online) and today's students mostly find friends online. Also, module contents that included many cultural topics might have affected them.*". As can be understood from these exemplary statements, online interaction and cultural elements advertised in the modules likely shaped learners' opinions into believing that interaction is an enjoyable and essential part of learning English and that communicating in English is not something to be afraid of because online interaction might offer an

alternative to speaking skill, which many students find emotionally and psychologically challenging.

As for the second statistically significant improvement in the scale, students believing more strongly that learning English meant they received a well-rounded education in their schools can be interpreted from different perspectives. In the focus group interviews, it was discussed that learners' belief in this well-roundedness increased because online education provided by the modules and module contents helped them appreciate the real benefits of learning English. In addition, it was interpreted that due to the content of modules based on the students' needs, learners realized the global aspects of the English language and how language learning could be transformed into a functional and beneficial process. Concerning this, S5 said, "*When the module is prepared according to students' needs and with a plan and organization, the module becomes more well-rounded. This makes students feel like that.*". This statement shows that just as this module was designed, learning English can be perceived as a part of a well-rounded education if the lessons address the needs of students. Learners probably felt stronger about this after they experienced the module since their regular English lessons before that failed to contain everything that was needed by them.

On a similar vein, teachers commented about the effects of the module content and the changing definition of a well-rounded education after the module experience. For instance, T4 said, "*Because we added new entries to foreign language education* [with the module]*, their definition for the 'well-rounded' changed.*", indicating that gamified modules showed learners that English can be very beneficial and complement their entire educational gain from the institution because it is not a separate item that will be useless after they graduate. Instead, their English education will help them greatly in their following academic life after high school.

Comparing the results with the findings of other related research in the literature, a striking similarity to Yashima's (2006) findings was found at the communication level improvement of the participants of the study. Yashima (2006) revealed that Japanese EFL learners wanted to form international friendships and relations with English speakers because their culture interested them. Interestingly, participants in this study showed

statistically significant improvement in one communication-related item. They felt motivated to learn English to speak with foreign friends or speakers of English more after the implementation of the modules. In other words, they became motivated due to integrative reasons rather than instrumentality (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002).

Another perspective to the increase in student motivation in relation to intercultural communication can be the globalized mindset emphasized by Ryan (2006). Similar to the motivational outcomes of this study, Ryan (2006) found that learners are able picture themselves using English in a clear image now because structure of societies changes to become more global and interactional. In addition, Sung (2013) suggested that identifying oneself with the target culture motivates learners to acquire more English-related materials and put extra effort in learning the language. Moreover, as can be seen in this study, once the learners feel integrated with their life goals, they are more likely to preserve their motivation (Papi & Hiver, 2020). As can be understood from the motivation-related findings mentioned earlier, learners in this study showed increase in communication and function aspects of motivation because the modules most likely helped them to understand the importance of English as a means to communicate with other cultures and as a part of a quality education.

5.4. Outcomes Regarding the Concept of Possible Self

Results of the LPSS presented in the findings chapter showed that learners' views of their possible selves did not show statistically significant improvement after the module. Rather, their views of their possible selves showed significant decrease in an item in desirability and likelihood dimensions of the scale. Learners evaluated that they did not desire to become a knowledgeable person as strongly as they did before the implementation of the modules. In addition, they viewed the possibility of becoming a knowledgeable person in English language more unlikely after the module experience. Even though these outcomes might indicate a negative disposition at first glance, different interpretations that show caution and realism can be made. Especially with the help of the discussions provided by the focus group members, this decline in desire and likelihood for the item can be interpreted as positive personal development and realization of learners' true potential.

Considering the decrease in desire to become a knowledgeable person in English, it can be discussed that learners might have given more importance to the functionality of English language rather than focusing on their personal knowledge. As can be acknowledged, learners tend to focus on accuracy and structure due to being graded and assessed for their performance but in the case of this module, they might have evaluated that function and interaction are more important, and there might be no point in focusing on becoming a knowledgeable person. For this, S3 discussed, "*They probably desired becoming a knowledgeable person less because they saw it (English) a social and daily life language rather than seeing it as a lesson.*". To further the discussion, T2 commented, "*They might've come up with this idea because communicating in online platforms were easier than communicating face to face.*", underlining the importance of functionality and communication over accuracy and knowledge.

Finally, while some interpreted the situation as the shifting focus of the learners as exemplified, some put the responsibility on the language anxiety and reduced attendance to the lessons toward the end of the semester. Two teachers in the focus group (T3 and T4) clearly stated that students' desire to become knowledgeable people in English dropped because their attendance to the classes showed a decrease in some groups and some students were prone to being anxious about their English performance. Based on these comments, it can be interpreted that when students severe their ties with English lessons as in the case here, they might show comparatively smaller interest in anything related to English language. In addition, anxiety issues can lead to problems with visualizing the self in the future using English language as suggested by one of the teachers.

As for the second and last outcome of the LPSS, it was found that learners that participated in the study found it less likely that they would be knowledgeable people in terms of English language after the intervention. This outcome can be interpreted from different perspectives and the insights provided by the focus members are quite valuable for the understanding of the situation. Initially, when the focus group was presented this result, their responses mostly referred to certain reasons for such an outcome. These reasons were personal doubt, feeling of insufficiency, little chance to practice English in daily life, realization of their true performance, and indecisiveness.

In most cases, focus group members brought doubting the self into the discussion because they believed that realizing how vast English language was caused students to become more conscious about their performance and knowledge. It can be assumed that before the implementation of modules, they were more at ease with what they knew or did not know because their visualization of themselves using English consisted of a narrower scope. However, after experiencing the module activities, diverse interactional opportunities, and rich content of modules, they were surprised that their assumptions of the boundaries of English language was not very accurate as in realizing that they needed to achieve more to be successful at language-related experiences. Just as the focus group discussions suggested, this can be explained with learners' realization of their possible insufficiencies. Yet again, no matter how negative this outcome may seem, it can be interpreted as a promising result because the awareness of one's lacks is a solid indication that they know to work harder to become successful and reach their language goals.

Another idea about personal doubt and feeling of insufficiency brought forward was that some students may have compared themselves with their overachieving peers and felt more inadequate. Concerning this, S4 said, "*They might believe they are not enough because they saw other people's success. So, they might lose motivation and start to like learning less.*". This comment is very aligned with the results of some studies revealing that competition and cooperation balance determines the motivation of students.

Although self-realization and responsibility issues can be discussed in the context of these knowledge-related desire and likelihood opinions, this decrease in students' desire and vision for being a knowledgeable person in English indicates the necessity of involving more visualization practices (Chan, 2014; Mackay, 2014; Magid, 2014; Sato, 2021; Sato & Lara, 2019). These outcomes show that when learners are in tune with their true capabilities and what is required from them in a scenario where they are to use the language, they might become more motivated to learn the language as found in this study. This finding has similarities with the studies conducted by Chan (2014) in terms of the effect of visualization on modifying the behaviors of students while picturing their ought-to selves and possible selves. In addition, as Mackay (2014), Magid (2014), and Magid and Chan (2012) found, providing students with opportunities of listening to scenarios from future language use or

practicing assumed situations helps them understand their language capabilities and set goals for language learning.

As in the case of this study, it is apparent that many students never had the opportunity to picture themselves using English in the future as directed by their teachers. This can be the reason why their knowledgeable person desires and likelihood opinions showed a decrease because they merely regarded English lessons as something to tolerate at school and never use again. However, activities in modules such as job applications, profession-based role plays, cultural discussions, and creation of future job environments made them realize that there was more to the English language. Therefore, it is only natural for them to feel insufficient at language-related knowledge and to expect less from themselves in terms of future knowledge because they simply became aware that they had a long way to go to reach the ideal L2 self. In a similar sense, Sato and Lara (2019) and Sato (2021) detected that the ought-to self of learners showed a negative correlation with their frequency of using target language. This can indicate that when learners feel pressure to use the language and become successful, they tend to lose motivation to practice language. Fluctuations discussed in the interactional findings might be indications of where visualization practices should be more frequent, and students need to be motivated more. Furthermore, it can be inferred from the findings that many students feeling more independent, responsible, and motivated can be explained with the module activities that lower the pressure on students, if not eliminate it entirely.

In terms of insufficiencies and negative projections related to knowledge experienced by learners, these outcomes of the study had similarities to the findings of Borg and Alshumaimeri (2019) revealing that if learners are not knowledgeable about studying properly, or the language itself, the process can be overwhelming for them, which might eventually lead to low motivation and negative self-imaging as in this case. However, as they suggested, this low motivation can be overcome with the help of their teachers. In this context, it can be inferred that teacher support and sensible module design can help overcome desperation. After all, autonomous and motivated learners are created after an arduous process of learning design, greatly contributed by teachers themselves.

5.5. Outcomes Regarding Language Skills

In the research, language skills of learners such as reading, grammar, vocabulary, and writing went through an affirmative change after the implementation of the modules. The use of a blended design and a gamified platform provided promising and potent results for the future of gamified language learning environments.

Recalling the findings related to language skills, it was found that the module increased the participants' grammar and reading skills at a statistically significant level, and their general language competence seemed to have increased significantly, as well. However, in terms of vocabulary and writing competence, even though students' scores showed an increase, it was not statistically significant. These increases experienced in students' measured language skills showed that gamified and blended learning settings can positively affect language skills of EFL learners.

As the first focal point, it was seen that learners advanced in their grammar and reading skills at statistically significant levels. However, vocabulary skills did not indicate an improvement at the same rate as grammar and reading skills. Based on the qualitative responses of learners, it can be stated that learners preferred these modules for variety of reasons such as teacher support, easy and organized access to the materials, alternative ways of communication, and opportunities unique to technological and digital platforms.

Going back to the related literature, Krashen (1989) pointed out that vocabulary acquisition and development are dependent upon the frequency and quality of reading. This outcome in vocabulary might be an indication that learners need to make reading a strict habit and they probably needed more time practicing reading. In addition, as Sze (1999) stated, interest in reading is always at risk of dropping over time, and it must be rekindled constantly by through extensive reading activities. Therefore, it can be inferred that these learners must be exposed to more frequent reading and their teachers must provide their students with creative extensive reading opportunities. Just as Robert and Neal (2004) found, this study can come to the conclusion that teachers must be more present in supporting learners extensively to improve reading and vocabulary because it was found that making

the learning blended and allocating activity time outside the classroom really helped learners' reading, grammar, and vocabulary skills.

Additionally, it can be inferred from the findings that collaborative and communicative activities such as group projects, pretend interviews, online discussions, and role-playing activities were found useful in developing grammar, reading, and vocabulary skills by learners, which coincides with the findings of Sidek (2012). In connection, Sidek (2012) and Konstantakis and Alexiou (2012) complained that course books of the time were not comprehensive in covering all necessary vocabulary and communicative functions; therefore, they advocated using multiple textbooks or a variety of materials to improve vocabulary. In this direction, this study achieved good results because the number of materials and types of activities used in the modules were quite high, which was mentioned and commended by learners themselves in their qualitative responses.

In the sense of writing skills, learners emphasized the benefits of online platforms and technology use because these modules offered them alternative means to say what they wanted to say. According to one student, they were able to speak their minds in written statements even if they might normally feel shy in spoken communication. In addition, they underlined that writing activities helped them improve their skills. Another aspect that was mentioned by learners in the study was the opportunity to work independently (La Isla, 2018). This gave them time to think about their answers, making revisions before submitting when necessary. These findings aligned with the findings and recommendations of several related research. For instance, Aydın and Başöz (2010) found that giving students opportunities to make revisions and rewriting improved learners' opinions of writing.

As for the benefits of module in improving students' writing skills, Apel and Worfel (2014) suggested teaching the mechanics of the language such as morphology, which reflected the nature of the modules used in this context. The modules included almost everything related to language structures and provided guidance for some writing mechanics such as developing paragraphs, writing summaries, and producing essays. Therefore, it can be inferred that just as Apel and Worfel (2014) found, introducing structural and mechanical knowledge to students can help them to improve their writing.

Furthermore, since the modules adopted a process-based writing in principle and succeeded to some extent, this can be aligned with the findings of Savran Çelik and Aydın (2016) who revealed that process-based writing can lead to improvement in writing skills. In addition, as revealed by Kayacan and Razı (2017), Espinoza-Celi and Pintado (2019), and Valzadeh (2022), integration of technology and the use of technological tools genuinely increased the odds of improving writing skills because learners really enjoyed the opportunities offered by online platforms and use of LMS platforms.

In short, it can be remarked that using technological tools, gamifying the process, providing students with constant support, and giving them opportunities to work independently and make revisions of their writing helped learners to feel comfortable and motivated to work on their progresses.

5.6. Conclusion

To summarize the discussions about students' autonomy, motivation, L2 motivational self, and language skills, it can be stated that the study yielded many positive outcomes and opened windows of opportunities to understand what worked or did not work in terms of motivational and autonomy-related features of the module.

It can be seen that the findings of the study contributed to the gaps in research and provided useful perspectives from the context of a Turkish high school using gamified blended learning environments in learning English. In addition, these findings can be used to further what has been started by other studies in the field. In some manners, it is possible to talk about some differences from other studies because this study employs a new joint model, which cannot be judged and evaluated with only one dimension of it such as gamification, online learning, blended learning, or instructional design.

Therefore, this rather new amalgamated model will be useful in providing rather fresh insights into the combined efforts of language teaching, putting the needs of the learners first. It should also be noted that these efforts to promote autonomous behaviors, raise motivation, enrich the *self* concept awareness in EFL learners, and develop language skills gave fruit as pictured and anticipated by the previous research. For instance, just as Japanese

and Indonesian EFL learners (Lamb, 2004; Yashima, 2006), communication aspect of motivation was triggered in Turkish EFL learners who participated in this study because they somewhat identified with the target culture and wanted to communicate with English speakers.

In short, it can be seen that the findings and discussion parts of this study experience as a whole made great contributions to the area of EFL teaching and learning in terms of using gamified and blended language teaching designs. First, it was found that such blended and gamified packages can facilitate autonomous language learning behaviors in EFL classrooms. Second, it can be inferred that motivational and self-related mindsets of EFL learners can be modified through gamification of language teaching contents and the use of blended instruction approaches. Third, this study offers great findings related to the development of language skills of EFL learners. It is especially effective in the development of reading and grammar skills. Although vocabulary and writing skills were improved, it is clear that some additional modifications such more independent and skill-oriented tasks are required to get clearer and more significant improvement in these skills. Last, this experience revealed that, online platforms supported with blended approaches increase classroom interaction of students. However, this interaction should not be limited to F2F communication and verbal exchange since it was evident that many students who were rather shy in F2F instances preferred to share their opinions in online opportunities such as commenting and online discussions.

Based on these findings and interpretations of the findings, some conclusions can be reached, and recommendations can be made to researchers who might wish to further any aspect(s) of this study. For this purpose, the next chapter will provide some conclusions reached based on the results of the research and recommend some important consideration points for the future research interests.

CHAPTER SIX
CONCLUSIONS

Based on the findings explained and discussed in previous sections, the current study reached several conclusions. In this section, I plan to present these conclusions in an orderly manner, making recommendations for future studies and mentioning limitations of this research subsequently. Conclusions reached based on the findings and discussions of these findings will typically represent the core ideas and deductions regarding the related research question. In other words, conclusions, recommendations, and limitations of the research will be presented for each research question as given in the previous chapters, only in the form of their fundamental implications to the field.

In general, I attempted to discover what types of effects a gamified and blended language learning might have on language learning autonomy, L2 motivation, L2 motivational self, language skills, and CI of EFL learners. To reach a conclusion about these constructs, the first thing was to conduct an ID process with the collaboration of the English teachers. After a series of meetings, needs analysis procedures, and administrative processes, a blended and gamified learning experience was designed. The normal language learning process was transformed into a blended experience in which students can complete the skill-related sections of their course books in an LMS (Canvas). The LMS part of the tasks was gamified to increase engagement and motivation because gamification is known to contribute to these affective states. This blended and gamified experience was used to make measurements related to the abovementioned variables and collect qualitative opinions of learners to better understand the quantitative data. As a result, valuable results and crucial points for discussion were reached with these efforts.

In terms of variables focused on in the study, initially, the study explored the language learning autonomy of the high school EFL learners, and it was found that gamified and blended language learning can increase their willingness to take risks, take charge of their own learning, and offer their opinions to negotiate the course content. They mentioned the comfort of online environments in communicating their ideas in connection with their shyness to speak in normal sessions. The opportunity of revising their sentences and taking their time to compose their responses in online platforms made learners more positive

towards English lessons. Based on their opinions, they possessed alternative ways to communicate with their teachers and peers, and they would normally feel reluctant to speak their minds under F2F circumstances. Therefore, it can be concluded that EFL learners need their teachers to ask their opinions about English lessons and classroom activities. Providing them with such opportunities can increase their willingness to take risks and participate in English lessons. In the context of this study, these preconditions appeared to have increased EFL learners' autonomous behaviors in English lessons.

As the next construct, the study focused on learners' motivation to learn English, and the main outcomes of the motivational data analysis were found to be related to communication and function aspects of English. In connection, learners were motivated to learn English to communicate with their potential foreign friends, and they regarded learning English as an indicator of a well-rounded education. These outcomes were validated by students' opinions as part of the qualitative data. The main idea behind these motivational changes was that learners can be motivated to learn English as long as they comprehend its global importance and function. In addition, students can value English as a component to enrich their life during school years and beyond if their needs are respected and addressed in language education. Thus, it can be concluded that designing activities that include functional and authentic cultural items in the language learning process can motivate learners to learn English and be committed to improving themselves in communicating in English. Additionally, integrating subjects that are related to other courses and learners' future professional lives into English lessons is a beneficial idea because learners tend to regard English lessons as separate activities that are disconnected from their daily struggles and purposes. Providing that schools manage to convince their students about the benefits of English as a part of their life, students will more likely work for their language development with an internal drive.

In the sense of EFL learners' L2 motivational selves as the third construct, it can be revealed that image of the self is a fickle concept in English language learning contexts as it can be impacted by several factors such as motivation, anxiety, engagement, emotional fluctuations, cognitive load, expectations from others, etc. As can be seen in the findings of the research, learners' desire to become more knowledgeable in English language showed a considerable decrease as well as the likelihood of becoming knowledgeable in the future as

anticipated by themselves. This consistent decrease in these two dimensions can indicate the importance of teacher support and visualization techniques to strengthen learners' views of the self in terms of English language competence. One thing that can be suggested for the future studies can be the inclusion of visualizing exercises and counselling sessions to help learners to imagine their future selves using English. Even though BL and gamification offer learners to be more motivated and engaged during language learning, contemporary solutions such as visualization to help raise possible self images of learners must be utilized in language classrooms.

On the other hand, the focus group interpretations of the case suggest that there might be some faults in the conventional language classrooms for many students are typically not aware of the true vastness of English language and they assume a limited competence in some skills is enough to make them feel confident. However, they happened to understand after the rich content of the modules that English language was much more than a limited set of vocabulary and communication with basic structures. It seems very likely that English is neglected over the dominance of other courses such as Math, physics, chemistry, and literature that are considered more important because learners will be tested with these in university entrance exams, not with the English lesson topics. That is the reason many teachers and students reach a compromise and avoid a heavy cognitive load in English classes. Therefore, this indicates that being exposed to cognitively heavy content with diverse activities would naturally alter learners' self-image negatively. Although this seems problematic and discouraging from the perspective of learners who understand that there are many things to achieve to become knowledgeable in English and it will not be easy, it is a good chance to convince students to focus on their language development in the long run. As suggested in the context of visualization technique, this is a very delicate process and requires precision and expertise. After all, motivating learners and encouraging them to actualize their ideal self and turn it into a possible self require psychological support on top of language learning.

Regarding language skills and classroom interaction of learners, BL approach to language learning and the use of gamification techniques served greatly to EFL learners as a good mixture of language learning innovation. It can be inferred from this study that balancing out the incompatible parts of disruptive technologies and innovative techniques

with a close consideration for learners' needs through a meticulous ID process can greatly improve the quality of language learning. As can be seen in the findings and discussion sections, learners' language skills showed promising improvements. Based on the views of students and teachers, providing alternative ways to communicate, offering a diverse range of activities, enabling students to practice language skills through extensive work, and providing constant and non-delayed feedback all function well with blended and gamified language learning environments. It can be concluded that the diversifying effect of BL and the engagement-invoking nature of gamification can work well in harmony to improve autonomous behaviors and motivational states of learners as well as their language skills. Creating such blends that will ensure elevation in learner engagement, motivation, and language competence is possible through arduous ID processes during which researchers, teachers, students, and other possible stakeholders work in collaboration. Negotiations over the course contents and language learning procedures are crucial to reach the objectives of the lesson without discouraging stakeholders.

On another note, it can be seen that a well-balanced blended and gamified package can offer instructors and researchers valuable learner data thanks to learner analytics made possible with LMS integration. Information about learner logged-in time, interactional data, activity completion, and activity in general can be monitored. This alone offers tremendous opportunities to teachers and/or researchers who wish to investigate learner characteristics further. As this study indicates, learners who were successful in completing tasks and were interested in the content showed a heightened interaction in the modules. However, interaction alone is not possible to reflect autonomous behavior, motivational states, or language skill development of learners. Further attention is required to understand the correlation between LMS learner analytics data and motivation, autonomy, and language skills of learners.

In a general sense, it can be concluded that BL and gamification are a great mix to impact learners' autonomous behaviors, motivational states, their L2 "self" images, and language skills. However, some practical recommendations should be made considering the limitations of this research. First, it should be mentioned that the study focused on private high school students from the 9th and 10th grades. 11th and 12th grades were not included in the level-based English teaching system of the schools; therefore, they were not invited to

participate in the study so as to ensure consistency in measurements and data collection. In terms of reflecting motivational and autonomy-related outcomes, the 9th and 10th grade learners can fall short compared to their older counterparts who are closer to graduation and experiencing the effects of their English learning in high school. Therefore, it can be suggested that future studies focus on all grade levels and state high schools to gather data on a larger scale.

Second, the study utilized an experimental design without a control group due to restrictions from the school board requesting that classroom groups and level-based system be maintained without any sampling. For this reason, future studies focusing on similar research agendas should attempt to design true experimental research settings in which the intervention effect can be compared to a control group. Such research designs would present a clearer picture of the effect of blended and gamified language learning environments.

Third, the research process including the ID stages and data collection was completed in success thanks to the cooperation of seven English teachers and two key administrators in the high school. The faculty was quite interested in the process, and they provided good equipment and communication with EFL learners. In addition, students who participated in the study had access to technologies to complete their online lesson responsibilities. However, the related literature would benefit greatly from state schools where students are not as fortunate financially and teachers not invested in the process due to schedule conflicts. It is mostly these types of schools where researchers struggle to get access and do full-scale research. Therefore, it will be very valuable for researchers to observe and measure motivational and autonomous behaviors of EFL learners in state schools, preferably in a longitudinal setting.

Fourth, this study took almost one academic year to complete, including the ID process, gamified and blended interventions, data collection, and focus group study. The focus group study which took place three weeks later than the administration of the post-test provided valuable insights into the autonomous and motivational behaviors of EFL learners after the intervention. Based on teachers and students' interpretation of the data, it was found that EFL learners' understanding of the function of English in their future lives and their awareness of how they could contribute to their own learning process improved. It can be

concluded that blended environments where online, gamified, and F2F elements mingled helped learners change their learning behaviors and gain new perspectives towards learning EFL. In connection with this, it can be suggested that future research can seek more evidence of these behavioral changes from additional sources such as test scores to measure permanence of knowledge, interviews with parents and other stakeholders, and the iteration of the ID process. In addition to these, such studies can employ ethnographic research characteristics through which the school culture can be investigated with regard to motivation, autonomy, and language skills. This way, more detailed information can be obtained from more organic sources.

Fifth, the teachers I worked with in the design and research processes were rather young and possessed contemporary qualifications in terms of technology use, online learning/teaching, etc. However, as I observed at the time, they mostly lacked basic knowledge about ID processes and gamification. They thought that they knew gamification concept, but they had many misconceptions such as the belief that we should turn all lesson elements into games. On the other hand, they were partially aware of what blending a lesson meant though it was not sufficient as a whole. To avoid any mistakes and misunderstandings during the process, therefore, it was necessary to hold small training sessions for the teachers where I explained gamification, ID, and BL. Only after we completed these sessions did we move on to the design phase. Still, I had to make corrections and supervise many gatherings from time to time because some concepts could be forgotten. In particular, the most common tendency of teachers was to turn every single activity into a game as the concept name gamification made this suggestion to them. Considering these, future studies can focus on the teacher side of the matters such as designing professional development packages, in-service training programs, and pre-service training opportunities to ensure in-service teachers and/or teacher candidates are aware of innovative ways to improve language learning experiences.

Last, the use of Canvas LMS in the study offered many benefits to the process. Its practicality, layout options, user-friendly platforms, and learner analytics are among the most effective features. Creating blended and gamified instruction can be simplified by choosing LMS integration because the pre-installed and ready-made tools greatly support gamified instruction and online learning opportunities. This research process was possible

with Free-for-Teachers package of Canvas as it did not require very advanced tools nor it was necessary to delve deeper into learner analytics. However, for studies that focus on more statistical data from learner analytics and want to use more online tools offered by Canvas, I can recommend finding more budget or be prepared to contact LMS salespeople to request discount or waivers.

As a final note, this study showed that using a blended approaches to EFL instruction can diversify the activities used in English lessons and raise autonomy and motivation because learners that would normally be too shy or too distracted to complete tasks are offered a self-paced learning opportunity. In this self-paced learning, unlike F2F sessions, there is the luxury of making mistakes and trying again without feeling humiliated or shy. On top of this, mixing the process with gamification greatly contributes to the engagement of learners, making them more motivated and more involved in the process. Successful execution of a careful ID process can be very rewarding for teachers, learners, and even researchers because teachers and students all know what to do next since the expected behaviors and the road map are set, leaving no space for doubt and uncertainty. Since it is a combination of multi-layered attempts, special attention must be paid to balancing student needs, target needs, and learning objectives with the right mixture of BL models and gamification principles. Excessive or inadequate use of one element might cause disturbances in learners' motivational states and autonomous behaviors as well as hindering the potential effect on language skills. Hence, the whole process must be planned meticulously, and objectives should be scattered throughout the work timeline.

REFERENCES

Abrams, D., & Hogg, M. A. (1988). "Comments on the motivational status of self-esteem in social identity and intergroup discrimination". *European Journal of Social Psychology, 18*(4), 317–334. https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.2420180403

Abrams, D., & Hogg, M. A. (2004). "Metatheory: Lessons from social identity research". *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 8*(2), 98–106. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327957pspr0802_2

Ahmed, F. (2020). "Investigating Learner Autonomy and 21st Century Skills in Blended Tech-Enhanced Language Learning". M. Kruk & M. Peterson (Eds.). in: *New Technological Applications for Foreign and Second Language Learning and Teaching* (pp. 113–134). IGI Global.

Al Bataineh, K. B., Banikalef, A. A. A., & Albashtawi, A. H. (2019). "The effect of blended learning on EFL students' grammar performance and attitudes: An investigation of moodle". *Arab World English Journal, 10*(1), 324–334. https://doi.org/https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.27

Albertazzi, D., Gitirana, M., Ferreira, G., & Antônio, F. (2019). "A Wide View on Gamification. Technology". *Knowledge and Learning, 24*(2), 191–202. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10758-018-9374-z

Alharthi, S. (2020). "Assessing Kahoot's impact on EFL students' learning outcomes". *TESOL International Journal, 15*(5), 31–57.

Alipour, P. (2020). "A comparative study of online vs. blended learning on vocabulary development among intermediate EFL learners". *Cogent Education, 7*(1). https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2020.1857489

Alsawaier, R. S. (2018). "The effect of gamification on motivation and engagement". *The International Journal of Information and Learning Technology, 35*(1), 56–79. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJILT-02-2017-0009

Altay, I. F., & Altay, A. (2019). "A review of studies on blended learning in EFL environment". *International Journal of Curriculum and Instruction, 11*(1), 125–140.

Alzaid, F., & Alkarzae, N. (2019). “The effects of paper, web, and game based formative assessment on motivation and learning: A literature review”. *Online Submission*, 1–38.

Ames, C. (1992). “Classrooms: Goals, structures, and student motivation”. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 84*(3), 261–271.

Anderson, T., & Dron, J. (2011). “Three generations of distance education pedagogy”. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning, 12*(3), 80–97. https://doi.org/10.19173/irrodl.v12i3.890

Andujar, A., & Çakmak, F. (2020). “Foreign language learning through Instagram: A flipped learning approach”. M. Kruk & M. Peterson (Eds.). in: *New Technological Applications for Foreign and Second Language Learning and Teaching* (pp. 135–156). IGI Global. https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-7998-2591-3.ch011

Antonellis, I., Bouras, C., Gkamas, A., & Poulopoulos, V. (2005). “Implementing and supporting a game based learning related community”. M. Burmester, D. Gerhard, & F. Thissen (Eds.). in: *Proceedings of the 4th International Symposium for Information Design at Stuttgart Media University* (pp. 23–56). Universiatsverlag Karlsruhe.

Antwi-Boampong, A. (2020). “Towards a faculty blended learning adoption model for higher education”. *Education and Information Technologies, 25*(3), 1639–1662. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-019-10019-z

Apel, K., & Werfel, K. (2014). “Using morphological awareness instruction to improve written language skills”. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools, 45*, 251–260. https://doi.org/10.1044/2014_LSHSS-14-0039

Asiri, M. J. (2019). “Do teachers’ attitudes, perception of usefulness, and perceived social influences predict their behavioral intentions to use gamification in EFL classrooms?” Evidence from the Middle East. *International Journal of Education and Practice, 7*(3), 112–122. https://doi.org/10.18488/journal.61.2019.73.112.122

Atkinson, J. W. (1964). *An Introduction to Motivation*. Van Nostrand.

Aubrey, S., & Philpott, A. (2021). “Inter-cultural and intra-cultural contact and the L2 motivational self system: An EFL classroom intervention study”. *RELC Journal, 52*(3), 440–457. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688219865409

Aydin, S. (2010). “A qualitative research on portfolio keeping in English as a foreign language writing”. *The Qualitative Report, 15*(3), 475–488.

Aydın, S., & Başöz, T. (2010). “The attitudes of pre-service teachers towards EFL writing”. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 6*(2), 54–68.

Azzouz, N., & Gutierrez-Colon Plana, M. (2020). “Effect of gamification on students’ motivation and learning achievement in second language Acquisition within higher education: A literature review 2011-2019”. *The EUROCALL Review, 28*(1), 40.

Baldauf, M., Brandner, A., & Wimmer, C. (2017). “Mobile and gamified blended learning for language teaching - Studying requirements and acceptance by students, parents and teachers in the wild”. *ACM International Conference Proceeding Series*, 13–24. https://doi.org/10.1145/3152832.3152842

Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (2001). “Self-efficacy beliefs as shapers of children s aspirations and career trajectories”. *Child Development, 72*(1), 187–206.

Barkley, E. F. (2010). *Student engagement techniques: A handbook for college faculty*. In The Jossey-Bass Higher and Adult Education Series. Jossey-Bass.

Bencsik, A., Mezeiova, A., & Samu, B. O. (2021). “Gamification in higher education (case study on a management subject)”. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research, 20*(5), 211–231. https://doi.org/10.26803/IJLTER.20.5.12

Benson, P. (2008). “Teachers’ and learners’ perspectives on autonomy”. T. Lamb & H. Reinders (Eds.). in: *Learner and Teacher Autonomy: Concepts, realities, and responses* (pp. 15–32). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/aals.1.05ben

Benson, P. (2010). “Measuring autonomy: Should we put our ability to the test?” A. Paran & L. Sercu (Eds.). in: *Testing the Untestable in Language Education* (pp. 77–97). https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847692672-007

Benson, P., Chik, A., & Lim, H.-Y. (2003). “Becoming autonomous in an Asian context: autonomy as a sociocultural process”. D. Palfreyman & R. C. Smith (Eds.). in: *Learner Autonomy across Cultures: Language Education Perspectives* (1st ed., p. 292). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230504684

Bergmann, B. J., & Sams, A. (2012). “Before you flip, consider this”. *Phi Delta Kappan, 94*(2), 25–25.

Boehm, B. (2007). “A Spiral model of software development and enhancement”. *Software Management, 21*(2), 61–72. https://doi.org/10.1109/9780470049167.ch2

Boelens, R., De Wever, B., & Voet, M. (2017). “Four key challenges to the design of blended learning: A systematic literature review”. *Educational Research Review, 22*, 1–18. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2017.06.001 Permanent

Borg, S., & Al-Busaidi, S. (2012). “Teachers’ beliefs and practices regarding learner autonomy”. *ELT Journal, 66*(3), 283–292. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccr065

Borg, S., & Alshumaimeri, Y. (2019). “Language learner autonomy in a tertiary context: Teachers’ beliefs and practices”. *Language Teaching Research, 23*(1), 9–38. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168817725759

Bouilheres, F., Le, L. T. V. H., McDonald, S., Nkhoma, C., & Jandug-Montera, L. (2020). “Defining student learning experience through blended learning”. *Education and Information Technologies, 25*(4), 3049–3069. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-020-10100-y

Bozkurt, A., & Durak, G. (2018). “A systematic review of gamification research: In pursuit of homo ludens”. *International Journal of Game-Based Learning, 8*(3), 15–33. https://doi.org/10.4018/IJGBL.2018070102

Branch, R. M., & Kopcha, T. J. (2014). “Instructional design models”. J. M. Spector, M. D. Merrill, J. Elen, & M. J. Bishop (Eds.). in: *Handbook of Research on Educational Communications and Technology* (4th Ed., pp. 77–87). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-3185-5

Brown, D. D., Lile, J., & Burns, B. M. (2011). “Basic language skills and young children’s understanding of causal connections during storytelling”. *Reading Psychology, 32*(4), 372–394. https://doi.org/10.1080/02702711.2010.495573

Cabauatan, R. R., Uy, C., Manalo, R. A., & Castro, B. (2021). “Factors affecting intention to use blended learning approach in the tertiary level: A quantitative approach”. *Higher Education for the Future, 8*(2), 239–255. https://doi.org/10.1177/23476311211011934

Çakıroğlu, Ü., Başıbüyük, B., Güler, M., Atabay, M., & Yılmaz Memiş, B. (2017). “Gamifying an ICT course: Influences on engagement and academic performance”. *Computers in Human Behavior, 69*, 98–107. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2016.12.018

Caponetto, I., Earp, J., & Ott, M. (2014). “Gamification and education: A literature review”. *European Conference on Games Based Learning*, 50–57.

Chan, C. H. Y. (2014). “Building an online library for interpretation training: Explorations into an effective blended-learning mode”. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 27*(5), 454–479. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2013.770034

Chan, L. (2014). “Effects of an imagery training strategy on Chinese university students’ possible second language selves and learning experiences”. K. Csizér & M. Magid, (Eds.). in: *The impact of self-concept on language learning* (pp. 357–376). Multilingual Matters.

Chen, W., & Looi, C. (2007). “Incorporating online discussion in face to face classroom learning: A new blended learning approach”. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology, 23*(3), 307–326.

Chou, A. Y., & Chou, D. C. (2011). “Course management systems and blended learning- an innovative approach”. *Decision Sciences Journal of Innovative Education, 9*(3), 463–484. https://doi.org/10.1111_j.1540-4609.2011.00325.x

Christensen, C. M., Horn, M. B., & Staker, H. (2013). *Is K-12 blended learning disruptive? An introduction to the theory of hybrids*. Clayton Christensen Institute for Disruptive Innovation.

Clément, R., & Noels, K. A. (1992). “Towards a situated approach to ethnolinguistics identity: The effects of status on individuals and groups”. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 11*, 203–232.

Cliff, N. (1988). “The eigenvalues-greater-than-one rule and the reliability of components”. *Psychological Bulletin, 103*(2), 276–279. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.103.2.276

Collins, M. F. (2010). “ELL preschoolers’ English vocabulary acquisition from storybook reading”. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 25*(1), 84–97. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecresq.2009.07.009

Covington, M. (2009). “Self-worth theory: retrospection and prospects”. K. R. Wentzel & A. Wigfield (Eds.). in: *Handbook of motivation at school* (First Ed., pp. 141–169). Routledge.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among Five Traditions (Second)*. Sage Publications, Inc.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Method Approaches*. Sage Publications, Inc.

Cronje, J. C. (2020). “Towards a new definition of blended learning”. *The Electronic Journal of E-Learning, 18*(2), 114–121. https://doi.org/10.34190/EJEL.20.18.2.001

Crookes, G., & Schmidt, R. W. (1991). “Motivation: Reopening the research agenda”. *Language Learning, 41*(4), 469–512. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1991.tb00690.x

Csizér, K. (2019). “The L2 motivational self system”. M. Lamb, K. Csizér, A. Henry, & S. Ryan (Eds.). in: *The Palgrave handbook of motivation for language learning* (pp. 71–94). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-28380-3

Csizér, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (2005). “The internal structure of language learning motivation and its relationship with language choice and learning effort”. *Modern Language Journal, 89*(1), 19–36. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0026-7902.2005.00263.x

Csizér, K., & Magid, M. (2014). *The impact of self-concept on language learning*. Multilingual Matters.

Dam, L., & Legenhausen, L. (2010). “Learners Reflecting on Learning: Evaluation versus Testing in Autonomous Language Learning”. A. Paran & L. Sercu (Eds.). in: *Testing the untestable in language education* (pp. 120–139). Short Run Press Ltd. https://doi.org/10.1080/14708477.2012.722104

Danelli, F. (2015). “Implementing game design in gamification”. T. Reiner & L. C. Wood (Eds.). in: *Gamification in education and business* (pp. 67–80). Springer.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behavior* (1st ed.). Springer.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). “The " what " and " why " of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior”. *Psychological Inquiry, 11*(4), 227–268.

Deci, E. L., Ryan, R. M., Vallerand, R. J., & Pelletier, L. G. (1991). “Motivation and education: The self-determination perspective”. *Educational Psychologist, 26*(3–4), 325–346. https://doi.org/10.1080/00461520.1991.9653137

Deci, E. L., Ryan, R. M., & Williams, G. C. (1996). “Need satisfaction and the self-regulation of learning”. *Learning and Individual Differences, 8*(3), 165–183.

Demirer, V., & Sahin, I. (2013). “Effect of blended learning environment on transfer of learning: An experimental study”. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning, 29*(6), 518–529. https://doi.org/10.1111/jcal.12009

Deterding, S., Björk, S., Nacke, L. E., Dixon, D., & Lawley, E. (2013). “Designing gamification: creating gameful and playful experiences”. *CHI’13 Extended Abstracts on Human Factors in Computing Systems,* April, 3263–3266. https://doi.org/10.1145/2468356.2479662

Deterding, S., Dixon, D., Khaled, R., & Nacke, L. (2011). “From game design elements to gamefulness: Defining “gamification”. *Proceedings of the 15th International Academic MindTrek Conference: Envisioning Future Media Environments*, 9–15.

Deterding, S., Sicart, M., Nacke, L. E., O’Hara, K., & Dixon, D. (2011). “Gamification: using game design elements in non-gaming contexts”. *CHI’11 Extended Abstracts on Human Factors in Computing Systems*, 2425–2428.

Devers, C. J., & Gurung, R. A. R. (2015). “Critical perspective on gamification in education”. T. Reiner & L. C. Wood (Eds.). in: *Gamification in education and business* (pp. 417–430). Springer.

Dick, W., Carey, L., & Carey, J. O. (2015). *The Systematic Design of Instruction* (8th Ed.). Pearson.

Doane, D. P., & Seward, L. E. (2011). “Measuring skewness: A forgotten statistic?” *Journal of Statistics Education, 19*(2). https://doi.org/10.1080/10691898.2011.11889611

Dörnyei, Z. (1994a). “Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom”. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*(3), 273–284. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1994.tb02042.x

Dörnyei, Z. (1994b). “Understanding L2 motivation: On with the challenge!” *The Modern Language Journal, 78*(4), 515–523. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1994.tb02071.x

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dörnyei, Z. (2009). “The L2 motivational self system”. Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.). in: *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 9–42). Multilingual Matters.

Dörnyei, Z., & Csizér, K. (2002). “Some dynamics of language attitudes and motivation: Results of a longitudinal nationwide survey”. *Applied Linguistics, 23*(4), 421–462.

Dörnyei, Z., Csizér, K., & Németh, N. (2006). *Motivational dynamics, language attitudes and language globalisation: A Hungarian perspective*. Multilingual Matters.

Dörnyei, Z., & Otto, I. (1998). “Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation”. *Working Papers in Applied Linguistics, 4*, 43–69.

Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). “Teaching and researching motivation”. C. N. Candlin & D. R. Hall (Eds.). in: Applied linguistics in action (2nd ed.). Pearson. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.804304

Downing, C. E., Spears, J., & Holtz, M. (2014). “Transforming a course to blended learning for student engagement”. *Education Research International, 2014*, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1155/2014/430732

Dupont, A., Held, J. A., & Hossain, G. S. (2020). “Let’s talk about it: Strategies for integrating writing and speaking in the classroom”. *English Teaching Forum*, 22–31.

Duruk, E. (2021). “A CEFR based evaluation of B1+ level preparatory program at a Turkish state university: The application of the foreign language skills scale”. *Psycho-Educational Research Reviews, 10*(3), 0–1. https://doi.org/10.52963/perr_biruni_v10.n3.27

Dyer, R. (2015). “A conceptual framework for gamification measurement”. T. Reiner & L. C. Wood (Eds.). in: *Gamification in education and business* (pp. 47–66). Springer.

Dziuban, C., Graham, C. R., Moskal, P. D., Norberg, A., & Sicilia, N. (2018). “Blended learning: The new normal and emerging technologies”. *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education, 15*(3), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1186/s41239-017-0087-5

Elaish, M. M., Shuib, L., Abdul Ghani, N., Yadegaridehkordi, E., & Alaa, M. (2017). “Mobile learning for English language acquisition: Taxonomy, challenges, and recommendations”. *IEEE Access, 5*, 19033–19047. https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2017.2749541

Ely, C. M. (1986). “Language learning motivation: A descriptive and causal analysis”. *The Modern Language Journal, 70*(1), 28–35. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1986.tb05240.x

Espinoza-Celi, V., & Pintado, C. M. (2020). “Using Twitter to enhance writing skill with senior high school students: A case study”. *Teaching English with Technology, 20*(5), 108–124.

Fegely, A. G., Hagan, H. N., & Warriner, G. H. (2020). “A practitioner framework for blended learning classroom inquiry-based virtual reality lessons”. *E-Learning and Digital Media, 17*(6), 521–540. https://doi.org/10.1177/2042753020926948

Ferreira, A. F., Salinas, J. G., & Morales, S. (2014). “Using a task-based approach for supporting a blended learning model for English as a foreign language”. *International Journal of Computer-Assisted Language Learning and Teaching, 4*(1), 44–62. https://doi.org/10.4018/ijcallt.2014010103

Firat, M. (2016). “Measuring the e-learning autonomy of distance education students”. *Open Praxis, 8*(3), 191–201. https://doi.org/10.5944/openpraxis.8.3.310

Fisher, R., Perényi, Á., & Birdthistle, N. (2021). “The positive relationship between flipped and blended learning and student engagement, performance and satisfaction”. *Active Learning in Higher Education, 22*(2), 97–113. https://doi.org/10.1177/1469787418801702

Fleischmann, K. (2021). “Hands-on versus virtual: Reshaping the design classroom with blended learning”. *Arts and Humanities in Higher Education, 20*(1), 87–112. https://doi.org/10.1177/1474022220906393

Flores, J. F. F. (2015). “Using Gamification to Enhance Second Language Learning”. *Digital Education Review, 27*, 32–54.

Fonseka, E. A. G. (2003). “Autonomy in a resource-poor setting: Enhancing the carnivalesque”. D. Palfreyman & R. Smith (Eds.). in: *Learner autonomy across cultures: Language education perspectives* (1st ed., pp. 147–163). Palgrave Macmillan.

Fuller, L. (2021). “Negotiating a new blend in blended learning: Research roots”. *Inquiry, 24*(1), 5–7.

Furdu, I., Tomozei, C., & Kose, U. (2017). “Pros and cons of gamification and gaming in classroom”. *BRAIN: Broad Research in Artificial Intelligence and Neuroscience, 8*(2), 56–62.

Gagne, R. M., Wager, W. W., Golas, K. C., & Keller, J. M. (2005). *Principles of instructional design*. Cengage Learning.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social Psychology and Second Language Learning: The Role of Attitudes and Motivation*. Edward Arnold.

Gardner, R. C., Lalonde, R. N., & Pierson, R. (1983). “The socio-educational model of second language acquisition: An investigation using Lisrel causal modeling”. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 2*(1), 1–15. https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927X8300200101

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning*. Newbury House.

Garrett, N. (2009). “Computer-assisted language learning trends and issues revisited: Integrating innovation”. *The Modern Language Journal, 93*, 719–740.

Garrison, D. R., & Kanuka, H. (2004). “Blended learning: Uncovering its transformative potential in higher education”. *Internet and Higher Education, 7*(2), 95–105. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iheduc.2004.02.001

Graham, C. R. (2004). “Blended learning systems: Definition, current trends, and future directions”. C. J. Bonk & C. R. Graham (Eds.). in: *Handbook of blended learning: global perspectives, local designs* (pp. 3–21). Pfeiffer.

Graham, C. R., Borup, J., Pulham, E., & Larsen, R. (2019). “K–12 blended teaching readiness: Model and instrument development”. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education, 51*(3), 239–258. https://doi.org/10.1080/15391523.2019.1586601

Graham, S., & Taylor, A. Z. (2016). “Attribution theory and motivation in school”. K. R. Wentzel & D. B. Miele (Eds.). in: *Handbook of motivation at school* (Second Ed., pp. 11–33). Routledge.

Graham, S., & Williams, C. (2009). “An attributional approach to motivation in school”. K. R. Wentzel & A. Wigfield (Eds.). in: *Handbook of motivation at school* (First Ed., pp. 11–34). Routledge.

Gustafson, K. L., & Branch, R. M. (2002*). Survey of Instructional Development Models* (4th Ed.). ERIC Clearinghouse on Information and Technology, Syracuse University.

Hadiyanto, H., Failasofah, F., Armiwati, A., Abrar, M., & Thabran, Y. (2021). “Students’ practices of 21st century skills between conventional learning and blended learning”. *Journal of University Teaching and Learning Practice, 18*(3). https://doi.org/10.53761/1.18.3.7

Halverson, L. R., & Graham, C. R. (2019). “Learner engagement in blended learning environments: A conceptual framework”. *Online Learning Journal, 23*(2), 145–178. https://doi.org/10.24059/olj.v23i2.1481

Hamari, J., Koivisto, J., & Sarsa, H. (2014). “Does gamification work? - A literature review of empirical studies on gamification”. *Proceedings of the Annual Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences*, 3025–3034. https://doi.org/10.1109/HICSS.2014.377

Hamimed, N. (2021). “A review on instructing English through literary genre”. *Arab World English Journal, 12*(3), 278–293. https://doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol12no3.19

Hashemi, A., & Si Na, K. (2020). “The effects of using blended learning in teaching and learning English: A review of literature”. *The Eurasia Proceedings of Educational & Social Sciences (EPESS), 18*(4), 173–179.

Healey, D. (2019). *Gamification*. Macmillan Education.

Hernández-Prados, M. Á., Belmonte, M. L., & Manzanares-Ruiz, J. C. (2021). “How to run your own online business: A gamification experience in ESL”. *Education Sciences, 11*(11). https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci11110697

Herzig, P., Ameling, M., Wolf, B., & Schill, A. (2015). “Implementing gamification: Requirements and gamification platforms”. T. Reiner & L. C. Wood (Eds.). in: *Gamification in education and business* (pp. 431–450). Springer.

Heterick, B., & Twigg, C. (2003). *The learning marketspace*. The Learning Marketspace.

Higgins, E. T. (1996). “The “self digest”: Self-knowledge serving self-regulatory functions”. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 71*(6), 1062–1083. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.71.6.1062

Hinkelman, D., & Gruba, P. (2012). “Power within blended language learning programs in Japan”. *Language Learning and Technology, 16*(2), 46–64.

Hong, K. H., & Samimy, K. K. (2010). “The influence of L2 teachers’ use of CALL modes on language learners’ reactions to blended learning”. *CALICO Journal, 27*(2), 328–348. https://doi.org/10.11139/cj.27.2.328-348

Howard, S. K., Tondeur, J., Siddiq, F., & Scherer, R. (2021). “Ready, set, go! Profiling teachers’ readiness for online teaching in secondary education”. *Technology, Pedagogy and Education, 30*(1), 141–158. https://doi.org/10.1080/1475939X.2020.1839543

Hrastinski, S. (2019). “What do we mean by blended learning”? *TechTrends, 63*(5), 564–569. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11528-019-00375-5

Hsieh, M. F. (2011). “Learning English as a foreign language in Taiwan: Students’ experiences and beyond”. *Language Awareness, 20*(3), 255–270. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2011.573856

Hsu, W. (2014). “The effects of audiovisual support on EFL learners’ productive vocabulary”. *ReCALL, 26*(1), 62–79. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0958344013000220

Hu, C. F. (2012). “Fast-mapping and deliberate word-learning by EFL children”. *Modern Language Journal, 96*(3), 439–453. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2012.01357.x

Hu, P., & Zhang, J. (2017). “A pathway to learner autonomy: A self-determination theory perspective”. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 18*(1), 147–157. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12564-016-9468-z

Huang, B., Hwang, G., Hew, K. F., & Warning, P. (2019). “Effects of gamification on students’ online interactive patterns and peer-feedback”. *Distance Education, 40*(3), 350–379. https://doi.org/10.1080/01587919.2019.1632168

Huifen, L., & Tsuiping, C. (2007). “Reading authentic EFL text using visualization and advance organizers in a multimedia learning environment”. *Language Learning and Technology, 11*(3), 83–106.

Hung, A. C. Y. (2017). “A critique and defense of gamification”. *Journal of Interactive Online Learning, 15*(1), 57–72.

Isiguzel, B. (2014). “The blended learning environment on the foreign language learning process: A balance for motivation and achievement”. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education, 15*(3), 108–121. https://doi.org/10.17718/tojde.41051

Jabali, M., & Walker, C. (2021). “An exploratory cross-sectional study: Flipquiz as a digital tool for learning English vocabulary in language classroom”. *International Journal of Technology in Education, 4*(3), 516–526. https://doi.org/10.46328/ijte.149

Jo, C. W. (2021). “Exploring general versus academic English proficiency as predictors of adolescent EFL essay writing”. *Written Communication, 38*(2), 208–246. https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088320986364

Johnson, M. C., & Graham, C. R. (2014). “Current status and future directions of blended learning models”. M. Khosrow-Pour (Ed.). in: *Encyclopedia of information science and technology* (pp. 2470–2480). IGI Global.

Kahn-Horwitz, J., Shimron, J., & Sparks, R. L. (2005). “Predicting foreign language reading achievement in elementary school students”. *Reading and Writing, 18*(6), 527–558. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-005-3179-x

Kaplan, A., & Flum, H. (2009). “Motivation and identity: The relations of action and development in educational contexts: An introduction to the special issue”. *Educational Psychologist, 44*(2), 73–77. https://doi.org/10.1080/00461520902832418

Kastner, J. A. (2020). “Blended learning: Moving beyond the thread quality of blended learning and instructor experiences”. *Journal of Educators Online, 17*(2).

Kayacan, A., & Razı, S. (2017). “Digital self-review and anonymous peer feedback in Turkish high school EFL writing”. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 13*(2), 561–577.

Kieffer, M. J. (2012). “Early oral language and later reading development in Spanish-speaking English language learners: Evidence from a nine-year longitudinal study”. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 33*(3), 146–157. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appdev.2012.02.003

Kieffer, M. J., & Lesaux, N. K. (2007). “Breaking down words to build meaning: Morphology, vocabulary, and reading comprehension in the urban classroom”. *The Reading Teacher, 61*(2), 134–144. https://doi.org/10.1598/rt.61.2.3

Klubal, L., Kostolányová, K., & Gybas, V. (2018). “Gamification in LMS courses”. *ICTE Journal, 7*(2), 46–50. https://doi.org/10.1515/ijicte-2018-0009

Konstantakis, N., & Alexiou, T. (2012). “Vocabulary in Greek young learners’ English as a foreign language course books”. *Language Learning Journal, 40*(1), 35–45. https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2012.658222

Krashen, S. (1989). “We acquire vocabulary and spelling by reading: Additional evidence for the input hypothesis”. *The Modern Language Journal, 73*(4), 440–464. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1989.tb05325.x

Krisper-Ullyett, L., Ortner, J., & Buchegger, B. (2005). “Field report: Collaborative blended learning meets game-based learning or how internet platforms allow us to play 1000 “low tech games”. M. Burmester, D. Gerhard, & F. Thissen (Eds.). in: *Proceedings of the 4th international symposium for information design at Stuttgart Media University* (pp. 199–213). Universiatsverlag Karlsruhe.

Kundu, A., Bej, T., & Nath Dey, K. (2021). “Time to achieve: Implementing blended learning routines in an Indian elementary classroom”. *Journal of Educational Technology Systems, 49*(4), 405–431. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047239520984406

La Sala, M. C. (2018). “Enhancing written language skills during the year abroad through online independent learning”. *Using Digital Resources to Enhance Language Learning – Case Studies in Italian*, 2018, 17–27. https://doi.org/10.14705/rpnet.2018.24.795

Lalima, Dr., & Lata Dangwal, K. (2017). “Blended learning: An innovative approach”. *Universal Journal of Educational Research, 5*(1), 129–136. https://doi.org/10.13189/ujer.2017.050116

Lamb, M. (2004). “It depends on the students themselves”: Independent language learning at an Indonesian state school”. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 17*(3), 229–245. https://doi.org/10.1080/07908310408666695

Lamb, T. (2010). “Assessment of autonomy or assessment for autonomy? Evaluating learner autonomy for formative purposes”. A. Paran & L. Sercu (Eds.). in: *Testing the untestable in language education* (pp. 98–119). https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847692672-008

Landers, R. N., Bauer, K. N., Callan, R. C., & Armstrong, M. B. (2015). "Psychological theory and the gamification of learning". T. Reiner & L. C. Wood (Eds.). in: *Gamification in education and business* (pp. 165–186). Springer.

Latham, G. P., & Locke, E. A. (1991). "Self-regulation through goal setting". *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*(2), 212–247. https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90021-K

Law, K. M. Y., Geng, S., & Li, T. (2019). "Student enrollment, motivation and learning performance in a blended learning environment: The mediating effects of social, teaching, and cognitive presence." *Computers and Education, 136*, 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2019.02.021

Leakey, J., & Ranchoux, A. (2006). "BLINGUA. A blended language learning approach for CALL". *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 19*(4–5), 357–372. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588220601043016

Lee, J. S., & Lee, K. (2020). "Affective factors, virtual intercultural experiences, and L2 willingness to communicate in in-class, out-of-class, and digital settings". *Language Teaching Research, 24*(6), 813–833. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168819831408

Lengkanawati, N. S. (2017). "Learner autonomy in the Indonesian EFL settings". *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 6*(2), 222–231. https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v6i2.4847

Little, D. (2012). "The European language portfolio: History, key concerns, future prospects". B. Kühn & M. L. P. Cavana (Eds.). in: *Perspectives from the European language portfolio: Learner autonomy and self-assessment* (pp. 7–21). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203809426

Little, D., Dam, L., & Legenhausen, L. (2017). "Language learner autonomy: Theory, practice and research". D. Little, L. Dam, & L. Legenhausen (Eds.). in: *Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 1-21). https://doi.org/10.37237/080408

Little, J. W. (1990). "The persistence of privacy: Autonomy and initiative in teachers' professional relations". *Teachers College Record, 91*(4), 509–536. https://doi.org/10.1177/016146819009100403

Little, S., & Al Wahaibi, S. (2017). "'We are not as they think about us': exploring Omani EFL learners' 'selves' in digital social spaces". *Multicultural Education Review, 9*(3), 175–187. https://doi.org/10.1080/2005615X.2017.1346557

Littlewood, W. (1996). ""Autonomy": An anatomy and a framework". *System, 24*(4), 427–435. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(96)00039-5

Luk, J. (2002). "Communication behaviours of EFL learners in a native English-speaker teacher's class: A case in Hong Kong". A. Kirkpatrick (Ed.). in: *Englishes in Asia: Communication, identity, power and education* (pp. 289-300). Melbourne, Victoria: Language Australia.

Ma, L., & Lee, C. S. (2021). "Evaluating the effectiveness of blended learning using the ARCS model". *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning, 37*(5), 1397–1408. https://doi.org/10.1111/jcal.12579

Macaro, E. (2008). "The shifting dimensions of language learner autonomy". In *Learner and Teacher Autonomy: Concepts, realities, and responses* (pp. 47–62). https://doi.org/10.1075/aals.1.07mac

Macaruso, P., Wilkes, S., & Prescott, J. E. (2020). "An investigation of blended learning to support reading instruction in elementary schools". *Educational Technology Research and Development, 68*(6), 2839–2852. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11423-020-09785-2

Macintyre, P. D., Mackinnon, S. P., & Clément, R. (2009). "Toward the development of a scale to assess possible selves as a source of language learning motivation". Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.). in: *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (p. 376). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847691293-012

Mackay, J. (2014). "Applications and implications of the L2 motivational self system in a Catalan EFL context". K. Csizér & M. Magid (Eds.). in: *The impact of self-concept on language learning* (pp. 377–400). Multilingual Matters.

Magid, M. (2014). "A motivational programme for learners of English: An application of the L2 motivational self system". K. Csizér & M. Magid (Eds.). in: *The impact of self-concept on language learning* (pp. 333–356). Multilingual Matters.

Magid, M., & Chan, L. (2012). “Motivating English learners by helping them visualise their Ideal L2 Self: Lessons from two motivational programmes”. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 6*(2), 113–125. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2011.614693

Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1986). “Possible selves”. *American Psychologist, 41*(9), 954–969.

Mazhar Hameed, P. F. (2021). “Enhancing students writing skills using novels: The Saudi EFL learners’ perspective”. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 17*(3), 1469–1483. https://doi.org/10.52462/jlls.106

McGee, D. E., & Poojary, D. P. (2020). “Exploring blended learning relationships in higher education using a systems-based framework”. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education, 21*(4), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.17718/TOJDE.803343

Mee Mee, R. W., Pek, L. S., Yee Von, W., Abd Ghani, K., Tengku Shahdan, T. S., Ismail, M. R., & Subba Rao, Y. (2021). “A conceptual model of analogue gamification to enhance learners’ motivation and attitude”. *International Journal of Language Education, 5*(2), 40–50. https://doi.org/10.26858/ijole.v5i2.18229

Mee Mee, R. W., Shahdan, T. S. T., Ismail, M. R., Abd Ghani, K., Pek, L. S., Von, W. Y., Woo, A., & Rao, Y. S. (2020). “Role of gamification in classroom teaching: Pre-service teachers’ view”. *International Journal of Evaluation and Research in Education, 9*(3), 684–690. https://doi.org/10.11591/ijere.v9i3.20622

Mendieta, J., & Barkhuizen, G. (2020). “Blended language learning in the Colombian context: a narrative inquiry of teacher ownership of curriculum change”. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 33*(3), 176–196. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2018.1553888

Mert, Y., & Samur, Y. (2018). “Students’ opinions toward game elements used in gamification application”. *Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry, 9*(2), 70–101. https://doi.org/10.17569/tojqi.364130

Mestan, K. (2019). “Create a fine blend: An examination of institutional transition to blended learning”. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology, 35*(1), 70–84. https://doi.org/10.14742/ajet.3216

Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldaña, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook* (Third). Sage Publications, Inc.

Miller, C. (2013). "The gamification of education". *Developments in Business Simulation and Experiential Learning, 40*, 196–200. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4302-3594-1_3

Miyazoe, T., & Anderson, T. (2010). "Learning outcomes and students' perceptions of online writing: Simultaneous implementation of a forum, blog, and wiki in an EFL blended learning setting". *System, 38*(2), 185–199. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2010.03.006

Morais, L., Goncalves, V., & De Assis, L. B. (2021). "A Case Study on the use of Gamification in the Flipped Classroom". *Iberian Conference on Information Systems and Technologies (CISTI),* (1–6). IEEE. https://doi.org/10.23919/CISTI52073.2021.9476257

Morschheuser, B., Hamari, J., & Maedche, A. (2019). "Cooperation or competition – When do people contribute more? A field experiment on gamification of crowdsourcing". *International Journal of Human Computer Studies, 127*, 7–24. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhcs.2018.10.001

Muñoz, C. (2014). "Exploring young learners' foreign language learning awareness". *Language Awareness, 23*(1–2), 24–40. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2013.863900

Murase, F. (2015). "Measuring language learner autonomy: Problems and possibilities". C. J. Everhard & L. Murphy (Eds.),. in: *Assessment and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 35–63). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137414380_3

Murphy, P. (2007). "Reading comprehension exercises online: The effects of feedback, proficiency and interaction". *Language Learning and Technology, 11*(3), 107–129.

Murphy, T. (2019). "Classifying the management of the blend: a typology of the management of blended learning course development". *Tertiary Education and Management, 25*(3), 211–224. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11233-019-09032-1

Nacke, L. E., & Deterding, S. (2017). “The maturing of gamification resear”ch. *Computers in Human Behavior, 71*, 1–5. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2016.11.062

Namyssova, G., Tussupbekova, G., Helmer, J., Malone, K., Afzal, M., & Jonbekova, D. (2019). “Challenges and benefits of blended learning in higher education”. *International Journal of Technology in Education (IJTE) International Journal of Technology in Education, 2*(1), 22–31.

Nayar, B., & Koul, S. (2020). “Blended learning in higher education: A transition to experiential classrooms”. *International Journal of Educational Management, 34*(9), 1357–1374. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-08-2019-0295

Nedashkivska, A. (2015). “Developing a blended-learning model in an L2 classroom”. *Journal of Foreign Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 1*(3), 1–12.

Nedashkivska, A. (2019). “Student perceptions of progress and engagement in language learning: The blended-learning model (the case of Ukrainian)”. *Journal of the National Council of LCTL, 25*, 21–66.

Nicholson, S. (2012). A user-centered theoretical framework for meaningful gamification. In C. Martin, A. Ochsner, & K. Squire (Eds.), *GLS 8.0 Games+Learning+Society Conference* (pp. 223–229). ETC Press. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1184/R1/6686786.v1

Nicholson, S. (2015). “A recipe for meaningful gamification”. T. Reiners & L. Wood (Eds.). in: *Gamification in education and business* (pp. 1–20). Springer. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-10208-5_1

Nissen, E., & Tea, E. (2012). “Going blended: New challenges for second generation L2 tutors”. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 25*(2), 145–163. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2011.636052

Nunan, D. (2003). “Nine steps to learner autonomy”. *Symposium, 2003*, 193–204.

Orakci, S., & Gelisli, Y. (2017). “Learner autonomy scale: A scale development study”. *Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Sciences, 5*(4), 25–35.

Ortiz, M., Chiluiza, K., & Valcke, M. (2016). “Gamification in higher education and STEM: A systematic review of literature”. *Proceedings of EDULEARN16 Conference*, 6548–6558. https://doi.org/10.4018/IJICTE.20211001.oa10

Osguthorpe, R. T., & Graham, C. R. (2003). “Blended learning environments definitions and directions”. *The Quarterly Review of Distance Education, 4*(3), 227–233. https://doi.org/10.7765/9781847799005.00014

Osipov, I. V, Nikulchev, E., Volinsky, A. A., & Prasikova, A. Y. (2015). “Study of gamification effectiveness in online e-learning systems”. *International Journal of Advanced Computer Science and Applications, 6*(2), 71–77.

Ostahewski, N., & Reid, D. (2015). “A history and frameworks of digital badges in education”. T. Reiner & L. C. Wood (Eds.). in: *Gamification in education and business* (pp. 187–200). Springer.

Oxford, R. L. (2003). “Toward a more systematic model of L2 learner autonomy”. D. Palfreyman & R. Smith (Eds.). in: *Learner autonomy across cultures: Language education perspectives* (1st ed., pp. 75–91). Palgrave Macmillan.

Oxford, R. L. (2017). *Teaching and researching: Language learning strategies self-regulation in context* (Second). Routledge.

Özdemir, E., & Aydın, S. (2015). “The effects of blogging on EFL writing achievement”. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 199*, 372–380. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.521

Pallant, J. (2001). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS for Windows* (Versions 10 and 11). Open University Press.

Papi, M., Bondarenko, A. V., Mansouri, S., Feng, L., & Jiang, C. (2018). “Rethinking L2 motivation research: The 2 x 2 model of L2 self-guides”. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 40*, 1–25. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263118000153

Papi, M., & Hiver, P. (2020). “Language learning motivation as a complex dynamic system: A global perspective of truth, control, and value”. *Modern Language Journal, 104*(1), 209–232. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12624

Pardoel, B., Papadima-Sophocleous, S., & Athanasiou, A. (2018). “How MISSION BERLIN gamified my FL/L2-German class – a six-week journey”. P. Taalas, J. Jalkanen, L. Bradley, & S. Thouësny (Eds.). in: *Future-proof CALL: language learning as exploration and encounters – short papers from EUROCALL 2018* (pp. 255–260). https://doi.org/10.14705/rpnet.2018.26.846

Peterson, C. (2003). “Bringing ADDIE to life: Instructional design at its best”. *Journal of Educational Multimedia and Hypermedia, 12*(3), 227–241.

Pham, L. L. N., Nguyen, H. T., & Le, V. T. K. (2021). “Triggering students’ learning autonomy using the combination of m-learning and gamification: A case study at Nguyen Tat Thanh University”. *Teaching English with Technology, 21*(2), 66–91.

Pichugova, I. L., Stepura, S. N., & Pravosudov, M. M. (2016). “Issues of promoting learner autonomy in EFL context”. *SHS Web of Conferences, 28*, 1–4. https://doi.org/10.1051/shsconf/20162801081

Pima, J. M., Odetayo, M., Iqbal, R., & Sedoyeka, E. (2018). “A thematic review of blended learning in higher education”. *International Journal of Mobile and Blended Learning, 10*(1), 1–11. https://doi.org/10.4018/IJMBL.2018010101

Pinto, R. D., Peixoto, B., Melo, M., Cabral, L., & Bessa, M. (2021). “Foreign language learning gamification using virtual reality—a systematic review of empirical research”. *Education Sciences, 11*(5). https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci11050222

Poirier, M., Law, J. M., & Veispak, A. (2019). “A spotlight on lack of evidence supporting the integration of blended learning in K-12 education”. *International Journal of Mobile and Blended Learning, 11*(4), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.4018/ijmbl.2019100101

Prasetya, D. D., Wibawa, A. P., Hirashima, T., & Hayashi, Y. (2020). “Designing rich interactive content for blended learning: A case study from Indonesia”. *Electronic Journal of E-Learning, 18*(4), 276–287. https://doi.org/10.34190/EJEL.20.18.4.001

Pulham, E., & Graham, C. R. (2018). “Comparing K-12 online and blended teaching competencies: A literature review”. *Distance Education, 39*(3), 411–432. https://doi.org/10.1080/01587919.2018.1476840

Purgina, M., Mozgovoy, M., & Blake, J. (2020). "WordBricks: Mobile technology and visual grammar formalism for gamification of natural language grammar acquisition". *Journal of Educational Computing Research, 58*(1), 126–159. https://doi.org/10.1177/0735633119833010

Ramadhiyah, S., & Lengkanawati, N. S. (2019). "Exploring EFL learner autonomy in the 2013 curriculum implementation". *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 9*(1), 231–240. https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v9i1.15626

Ranjan, P. (2020). "Is blended learning better than online learning for B. Ed students?". *Journal of Learning for Development, 7*(3), 349–366.

Rao, V. C. S. (2019). "Blended learning: A new hybrid teaching methodology". *Journal of Research Scholars and Professionals of English Language Teaching, 3*(13).

Rapp, A., Hopfgartner, F., Hamari, J., Linehan, C., & Cena, F. (2019). "Strengthening gamification studies: Current trends and future opportunities of gamification research". *International Journal of Human - Computer Studies, 127*, 1–6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhcs.2018.11.007

Rasheed, R. A., Kamsin, A., & Abdullah, N. A. (2020). "Challenges in the online component of blended learning: A systematic review". *Computers and Education, 144*(March), 103701. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2019.103701

Razali, N. M., & Wah, Y. B. (2011). "Power comparisons of Shapiro-Wilk, Kolmogorov-Smirnov, Lilliefors and Anderson-Darling tests". *Journal of Statistical Modeling and Analytics, 2*(November), 21–33.

Razi, S. (2012). "Developing the inventory of cultural components to assess perception in language learning". *Novitas ROYAL Research on Youth and Language, 6*(2), 169–186.

Reigeluth, C. M., Myers, R. D., & Lee, D. (2017). "The learner-centered paradigm of education". C. M. Reigeluth, B. J. Beatty, & R. D. Myers (Eds.). in: *Instructional-design theories and models: The learner-centered paradigm of education* (pp. 5-33). Taylor and Francis. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315795478

Richards, J. C. (2017a). *Interchange Student's Book 1* (Fifth). Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C. (2017b). *Interchange Student's Book 2* (Fifth). Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C. (2017c). *Interchange Student's Book 3* (Fifth). Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C., & Sandy, C. (2014). *Passages Student's Book 1* (Third). Cambridge University Press.

Richter, G., Raban, D. R., & Rafaeli, S. (2015). "Studying gamification". T. Reiner & L. C. Wood (Eds.). in: *Gamification in education and business* (pp. 21–46). Springer.

Riley, P. (2003). "Self-access as access to self: Cultural variation in the notions of self and personhood". D. Palfreyman & R. Smith (Eds.). in: *Learner autonomy across cultures: Language education perspectives* (1st ed., pp. 92–110). Palgrave Macmillan.

Rivera-Trigueros, I., & Sánchez-Pérez, M. del M. (2020). "Conquering the iron throne: Using Classcraft to foster students' motivation in the EFL classroom". *Teaching English with Technology, 20*(4), 3–22.

Roberts, T., & Neal, H. (2004). "Relationships among preschool English language learner's oral proficiency in English, instructional experience and literacy development". *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 29*(3), 283–311. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2003.08.001

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). "Self-Determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being". *American Psychologist, 55*(1), 68–78.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2006). "Self-regulation and the problem of human autonomy: Does psychology need choice, self-determination, and will?". *Journal of Personality, 74*(6), 1557–1586.

Ryan, S. (2006). "Language learning motivation within the context of globalisation: An L2 self within an imagined global community". *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies, 3*(1), 23–45. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15427595cils0301_2

Ryder, R., & Machajewski, S. (2017). "The UIC German game app for the enhancement of foreign language learning – Case study". *International Journal of Educational Technology, 4*(1), 1–16.

Salen, K., & Zimmerman, E. (2004). *Rules of Play - Game Design Fundamentals*. MIT Press.

Samosa, R. C., Policarpio, M. V, Caňamaque, B. O., Honeylyn Camocamo, P. A., & Marie Clavito, J. E. (2021). "Gamification as an innovative strategy to improve learners' writing skills". *International Journal of Academic Multidisciplinary Research, 5*(12), 25–32.

Sánchez-mena, A., & Martí-parreño, J. (2017). "Drivers and barriers to adopting gamification: Teachers' perspectives". *The Electronic Journal of E-Learning Volume, 15*(5), 434–443.

Sato, M. (2021). "Generating a roadmap for possible selves via a vision intervention: Alignment of second language motivation and classroom behavior". *TESOL Quarterly, 55*(2), 427–457. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.611

Sato, M., & Lara, P. (2019). "Interaction vision intervention to increase second language motivation: A classroom study". M. Sato & S. Loewen (Eds.). in: *Evidence-based second language pedagogy: A collection of instructed second language acquisition studies* (pp. 287–313). Routledge.

Savran Celik, S., & Aydin, S. (2016). "Wiki effect on English as a foreign language writing achievement". *Global Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 6*(4), 218–227.

Schumann, J. H. (1978). "The acculturation model for second language acquisition". R. Gingras (Ed.). in: *Second language acquisition and foreign language teaching* (pp. 27–107). Center for Applied Linguistics.

Schumann, J. H. (1986). "Research on the acculturation model for second language acquisition". *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 7*(5), 379–392.

Schwienhorst, K. (2003). "Neither here nor there? Learner autonomy and intercultural factors in CALL environments". D. Palfreyman & R. Smith (Eds.). in: *Learner autonomy across cultures: Language education perspectives* (pp. 164–182). Palgrave Macmillan.

Selvasli, H. (2018). The Effect of Gamified Homework on Students' Intrinsic Motivation and Motivation for Homework in EFL Context (August). Bahçeşehir University.

Seraji, F., Attaran, M., & Azizi, S. M. (2019). “Blended learning researches in Iran: Several fundamental criticisms”. *Digital Education Review, 36*, 190–206. https://doi.org/10.1344/der.2019.36.190-206

Shamsuddin, N., & Kaur, J. (2020). “Students’ learning style and its effect on blended learning, does it matter?”. *International Journal of Evaluation and Research in Education, 9*(1), 195–202. https://doi.org/10.11591/ijere.v9i1.20422

Shen, B., Bai, B., & Xue, W. (2020). “The effects of peer assessment on learner autonomy: An empirical study in a Chinese college English writing class”. *Studies in Educational Evaluation, 64*, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2019.100821

Sidek, H. M. (2012). “EFL reading instruction: Communicative task-based approach”. *International Journal of Instruction, 5*(2), 109–128.

Singh, K. (2011). “Study of achievement motivation in relation to academic achievement of students”. *Shared Seasoned International Journal of Topical Issues, 6*(1), 1–12.

Smith, K., & Hill, J. (2019). “Defining the nature of blended learning through its depiction in current research”. *Higher Education Research and Development, 38*(2), 383–397. https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2018.1517732

Smith, R. C. (2003). “Pedagogy for autonomy as (becoming-) appropriate methodology”. D. Palfreyman & R. Smith (Eds.). in: *Learner autonomy across cultures: Language education perspectives* (pp. 129–146). Palgrave Macmillan.

Smith, S. (2015). “Learner autonomy: Origins, approaches, and practical implementation”. *International Journal of Educational Investigations, 2*(4), 82–91.

Staker, H., & Horn, M. B. (2012). *Classifying K-12 blended learning*. Innosight Institute (May). https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-007-9037-5

Stott, A., & Neustaedter, C. (2013). *Analysis of gamification in education*. Carmster.Com, 1–8.

Sujannah, W. D., Cahyono, B. Y., & Astuti, U. P. (2019). “Effect of blended learning using google classroom on writing ability of EFL students”. *Teaching English with Technology, 20*(2), 82–97.

Sung, C. C. M. (2013). “Learning English as an L2 in the global context: Changing English, changing motivation”. *Changing English: Studies in Culture and Education, 20*(4), 377–387. https://doi.org/10.1080/1358684X.2013.855564

Sze, V. Y. W. (1999). “Prompting second language development and reading habits through an extensive reading scheme”. C. Y. Mee & N. S. Moi (Eds.). in: *Language instruction issues in Asian classrooms* (pp. 59–74). International Development in Asia Committee.

Tan, M., & Hew, K. F. (2016). “Incorporating meaningful gamification in a blended learning research methods class: Examining student learning, engagement, and affective outcomes”. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology, 32*(5), 19–34. https://doi.org/10.14742/ajet.2232

Tan, Y. L. L. (2018). “Meaningful gamification and students’ motivation: A strategy for scaffolding reading material”. *Online Learning Journal, 22*(2), 141–156. https://doi.org/10.24059/olj.v22i2.1167

Tessmer, M., & Wedman, J. (1995). “Context-sensitive instructional design models: A response to design research, studies, and criticism”. *Performance Improvement Quarterly, 8*(3), 38–54. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1937-8327.1995.tb00685.x

Ting, Y. L. (2015). “Tapping into students’ digital literacy and designing negotiated learning to promote learner autonomy”. *Internet and Higher Education, 26*, 25–32. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iheduc.2015.04.004

Tohidi, H., & Jabbari, M. M. (2012). “The effects of motivation in education”. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 31*, 820–824. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.12.148

Toohey, K., & Norton, B. (2003). “Learner autonomy as agency in sociocultural settings.” D. Palfreyman & R. Smith (Eds.). in: *Learner autonomy across cultures: Language education perspectives* (pp. 58–74). Palgrave Macmillan.

Tran, T. Q., & Duong, T. M. (2018). “EFL learners’ perceptions of factors influencing learner autonomy development”. *Kasetsart Journal of Social Sciences, 41*(1), 1–6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.kjss.2018.02.009

Tremblay, P. F., & Gardner, R. C. (1995). “Expanding the motivation construct in language learning”. *The Modern Language Journal, 79*(4), 505–518. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1995.tb05451.x

Tseng, W. T., Liou, H. J., & Chu, H. C. (2020). “Vocabulary learning in virtual environments: Learner autonomy and collaboration”. *System, 88*, 102190. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2019.102190

Turner, P. M. (2009). “Next generation course redesign”. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning, 41*(6), 10–16. https://doi.org/10.1080/00091380903297642

Twigg, C. A. (2003). “Improving learning and reducing costs: new models for online learning”. *Educause Review, 38*, 28–38.

Ushioda, E. (1998). “Effective motivational thinking: A cognitive theoretical approach to the study of language learning motivation”. E. A. Soler & V. C. Espurz (Eds.). in: *Current issues in English language methodology* (pp. 77–89). Universitat Jaume I.

Ushioda, E. (2009). “A person-in-context relational view of emergent motivation, self, and identity”. Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.). in: *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 215–228). Multilingual Matters.

Ushioda, E. (2010). “Motivation and SLA”. *EUROSLA Yearbook*, 10, 5–20. https://doi.org/10.1075/eurosla.10.03ush

Ushioda, E. (2011a). “Language learning motivation, self and identity: Current theoretical perspectives”. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 24*(3), 199–210. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2010.538701

Ushioda, E. (2011b). “Why autonomy? Insights from motivation theory and research”. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 5*(2), 221–232. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2011.577536

Ushioda, E. (2016). “Language learning motivation through a small lens: a research agenda”. *Language Teaching, 49*(4), 564–577. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0261444816000173 A

Valiathan, P. (2002). *Blended Learning Models. Learning Circuits*. https://purnima-valiathan.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/09/Blended-Learning-Models-2002-ASTD.pdf

Valizadeh, M. (2022). "Collaborative writing on Google Docs: Effects on EFL learners' descriptive paragraphs". *Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 6*(2), 277–287.

Walter, O., Gil-Glazer, Y., & Eilam, B. (2019). "Photo-words": promoting language skills using photographs". *The Curriculum Journal, 30*(3), 298–321.

Wang, N., Chen, J., Tai, M., & Zhang, J. (2021). "Blended learning for Chinese university EFL learners: learning environment and learner perceptions". *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 34*(3), 297–323. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2019.1607881

Weiner, B. (2010). "The development of an attribution-based theory of motivation: A history of ideas". *Educational Psychologist, 45*(1), 28–36. https://doi.org/10.1080/00461520903433596

Wentzel, K. R. (2000). "What is it that I'm trying to achieve? Classroom goals from a content perspective". *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 105–115. https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1021

Wentzel, K. R. (2017). "Peer relationships, motivation, and academic performance at school". A. J. Elliot, C. S. Dweck, & D. S. Yeager (Eds.). in: *Handbook of competence and motivation: Theory and application* (pp. 586–604). The Guilford Press.

Wichadee, S., & Pattanapichet, F. (2014). "Enhancement of performance and motivation through application of digital games". *The Journal of Teaching English with Technology, 18*(1), 77–92.

Wigfield, A., & Eccles, J. S. (2000). "Expectancy-value theory of achievement motivation". *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25*(1), 68–81. https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1015

Williams, M., & Burden, R. L. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers*. Cambridge University Press.

Wong, Y. K. (2020). "Effects of language proficiency on L2 motivational selves: A study of young Chinese language learners". *System, 88*, 102181. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2019.102181

Yang, Y. F. (2014). "Preparing language teachers for blended teaching of summary writing". *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 27*(3), 185–206. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2012.701633

Yao, C. (2019). "A case study of Chinese adult learners' English acquisition in a blended learning environment". *Australian Journal of Adult Learning, 59*(1), 115–135.

Yashima, T. (2006). "Orientations and motivation in foreign language learning: a study of Japanese college students". *JACET Bulletin, 31*, 121–133.

Yavuz, F., Özdemir, E., & Celik, O. (2020). "The effect of online gamification on EFL learners' writing anxiety levels: a process-based approach". *World Journal on Educational Technology: Current Issues, 12*(2), 62–70. https://doi.org/10.18844/wjet.v12i2.4600

Yudhana, S. (2021). "The implementation of blended learning to enhance English reading skills of Thai undergraduate students". *English Language Teaching, 14*(7), 1. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v14n7p1

Yürük, N. (2019). "Edutainment: using Kahoot! as a review activity in foreign language classrooms". *Journal of Educational Technology and Online Learning, 2*(2), 89–101. https://doi.org/10.31681/jetol.557518

Zhang, W., & Zhu, C. (2017). "Review on blended learning: identifying the key themes and categories". *International Journal of Information and Education Technology, 7*(9), 673–678. https://doi.org/10.18178/ijiet.2017.7.9.952

Zhang, W., & Zhu, C. (2020). "Blended learning as a good practice in ESL courses compared to F2F learning and online learning". *International Journal of Mobile and Blended Learning, 12*(1), 64–81. https://doi.org/10.4018/IJMBL.2020010105

Zhonggen, Y. (2015). “Blended learning over two decades”. *International Journal of Information and Communication Technology Education, 11*(3), 1–19. https://doi.org/10.4018/IJICTE.2015070101

Zichermann, G., & Cunningham, C. (2011). *Gamification by design: Implementing game mechanics in web and mobile apps.* O’Reilly.

APPENDIX 4

STUDENT NEEDS ANALYSIS QUESTIONNAIRES AND RESULTS

Students' Views on Language Learning Needs

1. **Bölüm: Genel Bilgiler**

Cinsiyet : Erkek… / Kadın…

Sınıf :

2. **Bölüm: Dil Becerileri Önem Dereceleri**

Şu an kur sistemi ile aldığınız İngilizce Beceri derslerini düşündüğünüzde, sizce hangi becerilerin edinilmesi sahip olduğunuz eksikler konusunda daha önemlidir? Lütfen verilen her beceri için düşündüğünüz önem derecesini belirtiniz. Daha sonra her bir beceri için kendinizi ne kadar yeterli hissettiğinizi puanlayınız.

1) Önemli değil 2) Önemli 3) Çok önemli

Beceri	Önem Derecesi			Yeterlik		
Okuma	1	2	3	1	2	3
Yazma	1	2	3	1	2	3
Dinleme	1	2	3	1	2	3
Konuşma	1	2	3	1	2	3
Çeviri	1	2	3	1	2	3
Dilbilgisi	1	2	3	1	2	3
Sözcük bilgisi	1	2	3	1	2	3

3. **Bölüm: Okuma,Yazma, Dinleme ve Konuşma Becerilerinin Önemi**

Okuma

Okuma becerisini kullanacağınız alanları ve aşağıda verilen mikro becerileri değerlendirerek, her bir mikro becerinin okuma açısından önemini ve bu mikro alandaki yeterliğinizi puanlayınız.

1) Önemli değil 2) Önemli 3) Çok önemli

		Önem derecesi			Yeterlik		
A	Ders notlarını ve kaynaklarını okumak	1	2	3	1	2	3
B	Ders ve ders dışı kitaplar okumak	1	2	3	1	2	3

C	İnternet yazılarını (mail, web sitesi, vs.) okumak	1	2	3	1	2	3
D	Dergi ve gazetelerdeki makaleleri okumak	1	2	3	1	2	3
E	Teknik yazılar okumak	1	2	3	1	2	3
F	Raporlar okumak	1	2	3	1	2	3
G	Grafik, tablo ve şekilleri yorumlamak	1	2	3	1	2	3
H	Referans kaynakları okumak (ansiklopedi, sözlük)	1	2	3	1	2	3
I	Belirli bir bilgi için okumak	1	2	3	1	2	3
J	Genel bilgi için okumak	1	2	3	1	2	3
K	Ana fikri bulmak için okumak	1	2	3	1	2	3
L	Sonuçlar çıkarmak amacıyla okumak	1	2	3	1	2	3
M	Okurken parçanın kendi içindeki mantığı anlamak	1	2	3	1	2	3
N	Okurken genel olarak bilinmeyen kelimeleri taramak	1	2	3	1	2	3
O	Okurken işlenen konuyla alakalı olan kelimeleri anlamak	1	2	3	1	2	3
P	Okurken çıkarım yapmak	1	2	3	1	2	3

Yazma

Yazma becerisini kullanacağınız alanları ve aşağıda verilen mikro becerileri değerlendirerek, her bir mikro becerinin yazma açısından önemini ve bu mikro alandaki yeterliğinizi puanlayınız.

		Önem derecesi			Yeterlik		
A	Kısa yazılar (paragraflar) yazmak	1	2	3	1	2	3
B	Sınavlarda kısa cevap gerektiren soruları cevaplamak	1	2	3	1	2	3
C	Sunumlar hazırlamak	1	2	3	1	2	3
D	Araştırma yazıları yazmak	1	2	3	1	2	3
E	Sınıfta not tutmak	1	2	3	1	2	3
F	Özet yazmak	1	2	3	1	2	3
G	Proje yazmak	1	2	3	1	2	3
H	Bir yazı / makale üzerine eleştiri yazmak	1	2	3	1	2	3
I	Kişisel ya da resmi mektuplar yazmak	1	2	3	1	2	3

J	Yazıda ana fikrin iyi ifade edilmesi	1	2	3	1	2	3
K	Yazının dilbilgisi kurallarına uygunluğu	1	2	3	1	2	3
L	Yazıdaki fikirlerin konuya uygunluğu	1	2	3	1	2	3
M	Yazıda fikirler arasında uygun geçişler	1	2	3	1	2	3
N	Yazarken fikirlerin sıralanması (fikirlerin uygun düzenlenmesi)	1	2	3	1	2	3
O	Yazıdaki fikirlerin yeterli ve yerinde gelişimi	1	2	3	1	2	3
P	Yazıdaki fikirlerin orijinalliği	1	2	3	1	2	3
R	Yazarken uygun kelime kullanımı	1	2	3	1	2	3
S	Yazarken konu ile alakalı akademik kelimeler kullanmak	1	2	3	1	2	3
T	Yazarken imla ve noktalama işaretlerini doğru kullanmak	1	2	3	1	2	3

Dinleme

Dinleme becerisini kullanacağınız alanları ve aşağıda verilen mikro becerileri değerlendirerek, her bir mikro becerinin dinleme açısından önemini ve bu mikro alandaki yeterliğinizi puanlayınız.

1) Önemli değil 2) Önemli 3) Çok önemli

		Önem derecesi			Yeterlik		
A	Derste kullanılan İngilizce kelime ve terimleri anlamak	1	2	3	1	2	3
B	Ders süresince verilen sözlü İngilizce talimatları anlamak	1	2	3	1	2	3
C	Günlük konuşmaları anlamak	1	2	3	1	2	3
D	İngilizce seminerleri ve sunumları anlamak	1	2	3	1	2	3
E	İngilizce video ve televizyon programlarını anlamak	1	2	3	1	2	3
F	Yabancıların ya da arkadaşlarının İngilizce konuşmalarını anlamak	1	2	3	1	2	3

Konuşma

Konuşma becerisini kullanacağınız alanları ve aşağıda verilen mikro becerileri değerlendirerek, her bir mikro becerinin konuşma açısından önemini ve bu mikro alandaki yeterliğinizi puanlayınız.

		Önem derecesi			Yeterlik		
A	Sınıf içi tartışmalara katılmak	1	2	3	1	2	3
B	Sorular sormak ve yöneltilen sorulara cevap vermek	1	2	3	1	2	3
C	Raporları sözlü sunmak ve sunum yapmak	1	2	3	1	2	3
D	Seminerlerde konusma yapmak	1	2	3	1	2	3
E	Günlük konusma dilini kullanmak	1	2	3	1	2	3
F	Yabancılarla ilgi alanı ile ilgili konusmak	1	2	3	1	2	3
G	Genel (akademik olmayan) kelimeleri kullanmak	1	2	3	1	2	3
H	Bilimsel ve akademik kelimeler kullanmak	1	2	3	1	2	3
I	Konusurken dil bilgisini dogru kullanmak	1	2	3	1	2	3
J	Konusurken telaffuz, vurgu ve aksana dikkat etmek	1	2	3	1	2	3
K	Akıcı ve dogru konusmak	1	2	3	1	2	3
L	Anlasılır ve açık konusmak (konunun anlasılırlıgı)	1	2	3	1	2	3
M	Anlatmak istedigi düsünceyi ifade edebilmek	1	2	3	1	2	3

4. Bölüm: Görüşler

Mevcut olan durum ile alakalı olarak yöneltilen soruları lütfen kısaca ve içten bir şekilde cevaplayınız.

A- Okuldaki mevcut işleyiş size istediğiniz becerileri kazandırmada yeterli midir? Gerekçelerinizle açıklayınız.

B- Şu an uygulanan yöntem ve tekniklere ek olarak neler uygulanabilir?

C- Öğretmenlerinizin kullandığı materyaller (görseller, ders ortamları, ek kaynaklar, vb.) ve etkileri hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?

D- Öğretmenlerinizin dil becerilerine (okuma, yazma, dinleme, konuşma) verdiği önem nasıldır? Hangi becerilerin daha fazla / daha az kullanılması gerektiğini düşünürsünüz?

Skill	Importance Given to Skill (x)				Perceived Competence in Skill (x)			
	female	male	9th grade	10th grade	female	male	9th grade	10th grade
Reading	4,72	4,12	4,43	4,51	3,75	3,60	3,69	3,69
Writing	4,51	4,07	4,39	4,29	3,53	3,31	3,59	3,24
Listening	4,81	4,48	4,72	4,60	3,88	3,76	3,98	3,64
Speaking	4,79	4,48	4,65	4,67	3,18	3,12	3,30	2,98
Translation	4,51	4,36	4,41	4,49	3,53	3,29	3,44	3,40
Grammar	4,28	3,95	4,22	4,04	2,96	2,88	2,89	2,98
Vocabulary	4,63	4,31	4,48	4,51	3,19	3,33	3,30	3,20

Importance of Reading Subskills	X	S
13- Understanding the logic within the text while reading	4,46	.78
15- Understanding the words related to the lesson topic while reading	4,41	.86
9- Reading for specific information	4,35	.83
16- Making deductions while reading	4,33	.80
14- Scanning the text for unknown words while reading	4,29	1.00
12- Reading to reach conclusions	4,29	.86
10- Reading for general information	4,27	.76
1- Reading lesson notes and resources	4,20	.90
3- Reading internet texts (mails, web sites, etc.)	4,00	1.07
11- Reading to find main idea	3,98	.99
2- Reading course-related or non-course-related books	3,96	1.05
7- Interpreting graphics, tables and figures	3,83	1.06
4- Reading articles in journals and newspapers	3,78	1.15
5- Reading technical texts	3,78	1.11
8- Reading reference sources (encyclopedias, dictionaries, etc.)	3,75	1.16
6- Reading reports	3,64	1.14

Importance of Writing Subskills	X	S
12- Keeping the ideas in line with the text	4,47	.86
17- Using appropriate vocabulary while writing	4,37	.92
5- Taking notes in classroom	4,34	.98
13- Maintaining cohesion between ideas in the text	4,29	.86
15- Developing adequate and to-the-point ideas in the text	4,24	.92

2- Answering short-answer questions in exams	4,22	.94
14- Listing the ideas while writing (ordering)	4,21	.91
16- Originality of ideas in the text	4,16	1.07
10- Expressing the main idea of a text well	4,13	1.03
11- Writing grammatically correct texts	4,12	1.03
3- Preparing presentations	3,88	1.28
1- Writing short texts (paragraphs)	3,86	1.19
19- Using correct spelling and punctuation while writing	3,86	1.29
18- Using academic vocabulary related to the topic while writing	3,85	1.11
4- Writing research texts	3,84	1.21
7- Writing projects	3,77	1.19
6- Summarizing a text	3,72	1.24
9- Writing personal or formal letters	3,65	1.24
8- Making criticism on a text/article	3,63	1.27

Importance of Listening Subskills	**X**	**S**
3- Understanding daily conversations	4,67	.78
6- Understanding foreigners and peers when they speak English	4,63	.76
1- Understanding English words and concepts in the lesson	4,58	.83
2- Understanding English instructions in the lesson	4,57	.83
5- Understanding English TV shows and videos	4,44	.95
4- Understanding English seminars and presentations	4,32	.93

Importance of Speaking Subskills	**X**	**S**
13- Being able to express the intended thoughts	4,68	.60
5- Using daily speech	4,59	.74
12- Being intelligible and clear while speaking (intelligibility)	4,56	.78
11- Speaking fluently and accurately	4,42	.92
2- Asking and answering questions	4,40	.86
6- Talking to foreigners or strangers about interests	4,33	.97
7- Using general (non-academic) vocabulary	4,24	.97
9- Using grammatical sentences while speaking	4,08	1.04
10- Being careful about pronunciation, intonation and accent while speaking	4,04	1.14

1- Participating in classroom discussions	4,03	1.05
3- Presenting reports orally and making presentations	3,84	1.25
4- Delivering speeches in seminars	3,82	1.26
8- Using scientific and academic vocabulary	3,67	1.17

APPENDIX 5

TEACHER NEEDS ANALYSIS QUESTIONNAIRE AND RESULTS

Teachers' Views on Language Learning Needs

1. **Bölüm: Genel Bilgiler**

Cinsiyet : Erkek… / Kadın…

Verilen Skill Dersleri :

2. **Bölüm: Dil Becerileri Önem Dereceleri**

Öğrencilerinize kur sistemi ile verilen İngilizce Beceri derslerini düşündüğünüzde, sizce hangi becerilerin edinilmesi öğrencileriniz ve onların sahip olduklar eksikler konusunda daha önemlidir? Lütfen verilen her beceri için düşündüğünüz önem derecesini belirtiniz.

1) Önemli değil 2) Önemli 3) Çok önemli

Beceri	Önem Derecesi		
Okuma	1	2	3
Yazma	1	2	3
Dinleme	1	2	3
Konuşma	1	2	3
Çeviri	1	2	3
Dilbilgisi	1	2	3
Sözcük bilgisi	1	2	3

3. **Bölüm: Okuma,Yazma, Dinleme ve Konuşma Becerilerinin Önemi**

Okuma

Öğrencilerinizin okuma becerisini kullanacakları alanları ve aşağıda verilen mikro becerileri değerlendirerek, her bir mikro becerinin okuma açısından önemini puanlayınız.

1) Önemli değil 2) Önemli 3) Çok önemli

A	Ders notlarını ve kaynaklarını okumak	1	2	3
B	Ders ve ders dışı kitaplar okumak	1	2	3
C	İnternet yazılarını (mail, web sitesi, vs.) okumak	1	2	3
D	Dergi ve gazetelerdeki makaleleri okumak	1	2	3
E	Teknik yazılar okumak	1	2	3
F	Raporlar okumak	1	2	3

G	Grafik, tablo ve şekilleri yorumlamak	1	2	3
H	Referans kaynakları okumak (ansiklopedi, sözlük)	1	2	3
I	Belirli bir bilgi için okumak	1	2	3
J	Genel bilgi için okumak	1	2	3
K	Ana fikri bulmak için okumak	1	2	3
L	Sonuçlar çıkarmak amacıyla okumak	1	2	3
M	Okurken parçanın kendi içindeki mantığı anlamak	1	2	3
N	Okurken genel olarak bilinmeyen kelimeleri taramak	1	2	3
O	Okurken işlenen konuyla alakalı olan kelimeleri anlamak	1	2	3
P	Okurken çıkarım yapmak	1	2	3

Yazma

Öğrencilerinizin yazma becerisini kullanacakları alanları ve aşağıda verilen mikro becerileri değerlendirerek, her bir mikro becerinin yazma açısından önemini puanlayınız.

A	Kısa yazılar (paragraflar) yazmak	1	2	3
B	Sınavlarda kısa cevap gerektiren soruları cevaplamak	1	2	3
C	Sunumlar hazırlamak	1	2	3
D	Araştırma yazıları yazmak	1	2	3
E	Sınıfta not tutmak	1	2	3
F	Özet yazmak	1	2	3
G	Proje yazmak	1	2	3
H	Bir yazı / makale üzerine eleştiri yazmak	1	2	3
I	Kişisel ya da resmi mektuplar yazmak	1	2	3
J	Yazıda ana fikrin iyi ifade edilmesi	1	2	3
K	Yazının dilbilgisi kurallarına uygunluğu	1	2	3
L	Yazıdaki fikirlerin konuya uygunluğu	1	2	3
M	Yazıda fikirler arasında uygun geçişler	1	2	3
N	Yazarken fikirlerin sıralanması (fikirlerin uygun düzenlenmesi)	1	2	3
O	Yazıdaki fikirlerin yeterli ve yerinde gelişimi	1	2	3
P	Yazıdaki fikirlerin orijinalliği	1	2	3
R	Yazarken uygun kelime kullanımı	1	2	3

S	Yazarken konu ile alakalı akademik kelimeler kullanmak	1	2	3
T	Yazarken imla ve noktalama işaretlerini doğru kullanmak	1	2	3

Dinleme

Öğrencilerinizin dinleme becerisini kullanacakları alanları ve aşağıda verilen mikro becerileri değerlendirerek, her bir mikro becerinin dinleme açısından önemini puanlayınız.

1) Önemli değil 2) Önemli 3) Çok önemli

A	Derste kullanılan İngilizce kelime ve terimleri anlamak	1	2	3
B	Ders süresince verilen sözlü İngilizce talimatları anlamak	1	2	3
C	Günlük konuşmaları anlamak	1	2	3
D	İngilizce seminerleri ve sunumları anlamak	1	2	3
E	İngilizce video ve televizyon programlarını anlamak	1	2	3
F	Yabancıların ya da arkadaşlarının İngilizce konuşmalarını anlamak	1	2	3

Konuşma

Öğrencilerinizin konuşma becerisini kullanacakları alanları ve aşağıda verilen mikro becerileri değerlendirerek, her bir mikro becerinin konuşma açısından önemini puanlayınız.

A	Sınıf içi tartışmalara katılmak	1	2	3
B	Sorular sormak ve yöneltilen sorulara cevap vermek	1	2	3
C	Raporları sözlü sunmak ve sunum yapmak	1	2	3
D	Seminerlerde konusma yapmak	1	2	3
E	Günlük konusma dilini kullanmak	1	2	3
F	Yabancılarla ilgi alanı ile ilgili konusmak	1	2	3
G	Genel (akademik olmayan) kelimeleri kullanmak	1	2	3
H	Bilimsel ve akademik kelimeler kullanmak	1	2	3
I	Konusurken dil bilgisini dogru kullanmak	1	2	3
J	Konusurken telaffuz, vurgu ve aksana dikkat etmek	1	2	3
K	Akıcı ve dogru konusmak	1	2	3
L	Anlasılır ve açık konusmak (konunun anlasılırlıgı)	1	2	3
M	Anlatmak istedigi düsünceyi ifade edebilmek	1	2	3

4. Bölüm: Görüşler

Mevcut olan durum ile alakalı olarak yöneltilen soruları lütfen kısaca ve içten bir şekilde cevaplayınız.

A- Okuldaki mevcut işleyiş öğrencilere istenen becerileri kazandırmada yeterli midir? Gerekçelerinizle açıklayınız.

B- Şu an uygulanan yöntem ve tekniklere ek olarak neler uygulanabilir?

C- Derste kullandığınız materyallerin (görseller, ders ortamları, ek kaynaklar, vb.) etkisi hakkında neler düşünüyorsunuz?

D- Öğrencilerinizin farklı beceri derslerindeki durumlarına bakıldığında, sizce dil becerilerine (okuma, yazma, dinleme, konuşma) olan tutumları nasıldır? Sizce mevcut durumda hangi becerilerin öğrencilere kazandırılması daha zordur?

Skill	Importance Given to Skill (x)
Reading	5,00
Writing	4,83
Listening	5,00
Speaking	5,00
Translation	3,50
Grammar	3,50
Vocabulary	4,67

Importance of Reading Subskills	X	S
16- Making deductions while reading	5,00	.00
13- Understanding the logic within the text while reading	5,00	.00
10- Reading for general information	5,00	.00
2- Reading course-related or non-course-related books	5,00	.00
12- Reading to reach conclusions	4,83	.40
11- Reading to find main idea	4,83	.40
4- Reading articles in journals and newspapers	4,83	.40
15- Understanding the words related to the lesson topic while reading	4,67	.51
3- Reading internet texts (mails, web sites, etc.)	4,67	.51
9- Reading for specific information	4,50	.83
7- Interpreting graphics, tables and figures	4,50	.54
1- Reading lesson notes and resources	4,50	.83
8- Reading reference sources (encyclopedias, dictionaries, etc.)	4,17	.98
6- Reading reports	4,17	.98
5- Reading technical texts	4,17	.98
14- Scanning the text for unknown words while reading	4,00	.89

Importance of Writing Subskills	X	S
14- Listing the ideas while writing (ordering)	5,00	.00
13- Maintaining cohesion between ideas in the text	5,00	.00
12- Keeping the ideas in line with the text	5,00	.00
10- Expressing the main idea of a text well	5,00	.00
17- Using appropriate vocabulary while writing	4,83	.40
15- Developing adequate and to-the-point ideas in the text	4,83	.40

9- Writing personal or formal letters	4,83	.40
8- Making criticism on a text/article	4,83	.40
7- Writing projects	4,83	.40
4- Writing research texts	4,83	.40
1- Writing short texts (paragraphs)	4,83	.40
3- Preparing presentations	4,67	.51
16- Originality of ideas in the text	4,50	.54
19- Using correct spelling and punctuation while writing	4,33	.51
11- Writing grammatically correct texts	4,17	.75
6- Summarizing a text	4,17	.75
2- Answering short-answer questions in exams	4,17	1.32
5- Taking notes in classroom	3,83	.75
18- Using academic vocabulary related to the topic while writing	3,67	.51

Importance of Listening Subskills	**X**	**S**
6- Understanding foreigners and peers when they speak English	5,00	.00
3- Understanding daily conversations	5,00	.00
5- Understanding English TV shows and videos	4,83	.40
2- Understanding English instructions in the lesson	4,83	.40
4- Understanding English seminars and presentations	4,67	.51
1- Understanding English words and concepts in the lesson	4,33	.81

Importance of Speaking Subskills	**X**	**S**
13- Being able to express the intended thoughts	5,00	.00
12- Being intelligible and clear while speaking (intelligibility)	5,00	.00
6- Talking to foreigners or strangers about interests	5,00	.00
2- Asking and answering questions	5,00	.00
1- Participating in classroom discussions	5,00	.00
7- Using general (non-academic) vocabulary	4,83	.40
5- Using daily speech	4,83	.40
3- Presenting reports orally and making presentations	4,83	.40
4- Delivering speeches in seminars	4,67	.81
11- Speaking fluently and accurately	4,33	.81

10- Being careful about pronunciation, intonation and accent while speaking	4,00	1.09
8- Using scientific and academic vocabulary	4,00	.89
9- Using grammatical sentences while speaking	3,83	.75

APPENDIX 6

LEARNING AUTONOMY SCALE

Özerklik Ölçeği
Learner Autonomy Scale (LAS) Orakci and Gelisli (2017)

Aşağıda eğitim sürecine ilişkin özerklik durumlarını betimlemeye yönelik ifadelere yer verilmiştir. Lütfen sorularınızı cevaplarken **İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENMEYİ** düşününüz. Her bir madde ile tanımlanan davranışı gösterme sıklığınızı, aşağıda belirtilen beşli derecelendirme ölçeği üzerinde uygun gelen seçeneği (ölçek noktasını) işaretleyerek (X) belirtmeniz beklenmektedir.

Sıra	İfadeler	Hiç Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
1	İngilizce öğrenmemi sağlayacak en uygun aktiviteyi seçmek isterim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	İngilizce öğrenirken sorumluluk almak isterim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	İngilizce öğrenirken benim görüşlerimin alınmasını isterim	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	İngilizce dersinde öğretilecek konularda söz sahibi olmak isterim	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	İngilizce öğrenirken zayıf taraflarımı tespit edebilirim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	İngilizce öğrenirken güçlü taraflarımı tespit edebilirim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7	İngilizce derslerimle ilgili video/CD' leri sınıf dışında kullanmak isterim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8	İngilizce iletişim kurmak için risk almayı severim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9	İngilizceyi sadece öğretmenin yardımıyla öğrenebilirim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10	Seviyeme göre yazılmış İngilizce kitapları kendi isteğimle okurum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11	Kendi öğrenme ihtiyaçlarımı belirleyebilirim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12	İngilizcede yaptığım çalışmalarımı kendim değerlendirebilirim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
13	Yapılan aktivitelerde bana da seçim hakkı verilmesini isterim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
14	İngilizce bir konuyu öğretmen anlatmazsa, onu öğrenemeyeceğim diye korkarım.	①	②	③	④	⑤

APPENDIX 7

LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION SCALE

Ely, C. M. (1986). Language learning motivation: A descriptive and causal analysis. *The Modern Language Journal*, *70*(1), 28-35.

Lütfen aşağıdaki her bir ifadenin sizin için önem derecesini işaretleyiniz.

(1. Hiç katılmıyorum…..4.Çok katılıyorum)

İngilizce derslerine istekle katılıyorum çünkü;

1. İngilizcenin konuşulduğu ülkelere gittiğimde İngilizceyi kullanmak istiyorum.
2. gelecekte seçeceğim alan gereği yabancı bir dil öğrenmek zorundayım.
3. İngilizce konuşan kişilerle sohbet edebilmek istiyorum.
4. İngiliz kültürü, tarihi ve edebiyatına karşı ilgiliyim.
5. gelecekteki kariyerimde bana faydalı olabilir.
6. bana yurt dışında okumam için gerekli.
7. mental olarak zorlayıcı olması benim zihnimi çalıştırır.
8. İngilizce konuşan arkadaşlarımla iletişim kurabilmek isterim.
9. gideceğim üniversitede yabancı dil şartlarını yerine getirmem lazım.
10. İngilizce öğrenmek gramer bilgilerimi geliştirmeye yardımcı olacak.
11. İngilizce dersi diğer derslerden daha az sorumluluk gerektirir.
12. Türkçe dışında başka bir dili daha konuşabiliyor olmak isterim.
13. dünyayı daha iyi anlamak için başka bir kültür hakkında bilgi sahibi olmak isterim.
14. İngilizce ileride beni iş görüşmelerinde diğer adaylar arasında bir adım öne çıkarabilir.
15. yabancı dil öğrenmek tam donanımlı bir eğitim aldığım anlamına gelir.
16. İngilizcenin dünya genelinde önemli bir dil olduğunu düşünüyorum.

APPENDIX 8
L2 POSSIBLE SELVES SCALE

SCALE TO ASSESS POSSIBLE SELVES (SAPS)

Macintyre, Mackinnon & Clément (2009)

	İfadeler	***Şu anki beni anlatıyor***	***Olası geleceğimi anlatıyor***	***Bu durumu gelecekte ne derece ister ya da istemezsin? (1=istemem, 5=isterim)***	***Bu durumun gerçekleşme ihtimali sence nedir? (1=hiç olası değil, 5=çok olası)***	***Böyle bir gelecek için ne sıklıkta kafa yorarsın? (1=hiçbir zaman, 5=çok fazla)***
1	İngilizceyi ana dili olarak konuşanların görüşlerini anlayabilme	Evet / Hayır	Evet / Hayır			
2	İngilizceyi ana dili olarak konuşanlar gibi düşünebilme	Evet / Hayır	Evet / Hayır			
3	İngilizce konusunda bilgili birisi olabilme	Evet / Hayır	Evet / Hayır			
4	İngilizce konusunda kültürlü birisi olabilme	Evet / Hayır	Evet / Hayır			
5	İngiliz edebiyatını anlayabilme	Evet / Hayır	Evet / Hayır			
6	İngilizce sanat ve edebi eserleri değerlendirebilme	Evet / Hayır	Evet / Hayır			
7	İngilizceyi ana dili olarak konuşanların yanında rahat hissedebilme	Evet / Hayır	Evet / Hayır			
8	İngilizceyi ana dili olarak konuşanlarla arkadaşlıklar kurabilme	Evet / Hayır	Evet / Hayır			
9	İngilizce konuştuğum için etraftan saygı görme	Evet / Hayır	Evet / Hayır			
10	İngilizce konuşmaktan keyif alma	Evet / Hayır	Evet / Hayır			
11	Bir çok yabancı dil öğrenebilme	Evet / Hayır	Evet / Hayır			
12	Başka kültürlere ait etkinliklerde rahatça yer alabilme	Evet / Hayır	Evet / Hayır			
13	İngilizceyi ana dili olarak konuşanlar gibi davranabilme	Evet / Hayır	Evet / Hayır			
14	İngilizceyi ana dili olarak konuşanlarla tanışıp muhabbet edebilme	Evet / Hayır	Evet / Hayır			
15	İngilizcenin kullanıldığı bir meslekte çalışabilme	Evet / Hayır	Evet / Hayır			
16	İngilizce konuşulan bölgelere / ülkelere güvenle seyahat edebilme	Evet / Hayır	Evet / Hayır			
17	Orijinal dili İngilizce olan filmleri altyazısız izleyebilme	Evet / Hayır	Evet / Hayır			
18	İngilizce gazete ve dergileri okuyabilme	Evet / Hayır	Evet / Hayır			

APPENDIX 9

PARAGRAPH DEVELOPMENT RUBRIC

Paragraph Development Scores		
Criteria	**Points Possible**	**Points Given**
Topic sentence use	20	
Grammar	20	
Mechanics	20	
Development/Cohesion	20	
Vocabulary	20	
Total	100	

APPENDIX 10

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Özerklik Test Sonuçları

Özerklik (autonomy) açısından bahsettiğimiz Canvas modülünü 7 hafta kullandıktan sonra öğrencilerin testlere verdiği cevaplarda anlamlı bazı değişimler meydana geldi. Bu maddelere göre öğrencilerin özerklik seviyelerinde kayda değer bir artış olduğu anlaşılıyor.

Şimdi senden bu değişimleri yorumlamanı rica edeceğim.

1. Öğrenciler oyunlaştırılmış modülü tecrübe ettikten sonra İngilizce öğrenmeye yardımcı olacak aktiviteleri kendi başlarına seçebileceklerine daha fazla inanmışlar. Bu neden olabilir? *

Long answer text

2. Oyunlaştırılmış modülü tecrübe ettikten sonra öğrenciler İngilizce öğrenirken kendi fikirlerinin sorulması gerektiğine daha fazla inanmaya başlamışlar. Neden bu düşünce artmış olabilir? *

Long answer text

3. Öğrenciler modülden sonra İngilizce iletişim kurarken daha fazla risk alabileceklerine inanmaya başlamışlar. Bu cesaret neden gelişmiş olabilir? *

Long answer text

Motivasyon Test Sonuçları

Motivasyon ile alakalı sorulan sorulara göre;

1- İngilizceyi yabancı arkadaşlarımla konuşmak için öğrenmek isterim.
2- Yabancı dil öğrenmek tam donanımlı bir eğitim aldığım anlamına gelir.

düşüncelerinde büyük ve kayda değer bir gelişme meydana gelmiş. Bunları yorumlamaya çalışalım mı?

1. Oyunlaştırılmış bir İngilizce öğrenme sürecinden sonra öğrencilerde "İngilizceyi yabancı arkadaşlarımla konuşabilmek için öğrenmek isterim" konusunda bir düşünce gelişmiş. Bu uygulamadan sonra böyle bir isteğin uyanması ne anlama gelebilir? *

Long answer text

2. Canvas uygulamalarından sonra öğrenciler yabancı dil öğrenmenin donanımlı bir eğitim aldıkları anlamına geldiğine inanmaya başlamışlar. Bu düşünce neden gelişmiş olabilir? *

Long answer text

Muhtemel Benlik Testi Sonuçları

Gelecekte olmak istenen kişilik ve İngilizce öğrenme ilişkisini inceleyen teste göre olumsuz bir değişim meydana gelmiş.

Öğrenciler modülden sonra,

"İNGİLİZCE KONUSUNDA BİLGİLİ BİR KİŞİ OLABİLME" durumunu Canvas kullandıktan sonra daha az arzulamışlar;

aynı zamanda kendilerinin gelecekte "İNGİLİZCE KONUSUNDA BİLGİLİ BİR KİŞİ OLABİLME" ihtimallerini daha düşük görmeye başlamışlar.

1. Sence oyunlaştırılmış uygulamalardan sonra neden İngilizce konusunda daha bilgili birisi olma konusunda öğrencilerin isteklerinde düşüş yaşanmış olabilir? *

Long answer text

2. Sence modülü kullandıktan sonra öğrenciler neden İngilizce konusunda bilgili bir kişi olabilme ihtimallerini daha düşük görmüş olabilirler? *

Long answer text

Dil Becerileri

Hatırlayacağın gibi, tüm herkese süreçlerin öncesinde ihtiyaçları belirlemek için bazı sorular sormuştuk. Burada; cinsiyetler bazında bazı kritik farklar ortaya çıktı. Bu farkları yorumlayabilir misin?

1. Kız öğrencilerin dil becerilerine erkeklere göre daha büyük hassasiyetle yaklaştıkları görülmüştür. Neden böyle sence? *

Long answer text

2. Erkek öğrencilerin kendilerini genel teknoloji konusunda kızlara oranla daha güvende hissettikleri, kızların da eğitim teknolojileri konusunda erkeklerden daha özgüvenli olduğu sonuçları çıkmıştır. Bu durum neden bu şekilde olabilir? *

Long answer text

APPENDIX 11

SAMPLE PARAGRAPHS AS PRE-TEST WRITING ASSIGNMENT

UNICEF is an effective and supplying charity for children who need food, clothes or help in general.

UNICEF is created by resowution 57 (I) of the United Nations General Assembly on 11 December 1946 to provide supplies and assistance to children after WWII

UNICEF's first logo features a child drinking a cup of milk, which reflects the organization's main activity at the time: delivering milk to children. This occured in October 1953

A standard global logo is issued, which retains the "mother & child" emblem as the dot on the "i" of "unicef" This is the first version of the UNICEF logo to be registered with the World Intellectual Property Organization

modularity is a key component of this logo. For example, "for every child, hope", "for every child, opportunity" and "for every child, dignity". This logo enables us to highlight the challenges children face, as well as the the hopes we have for them.