



T.R.

AKDENİZ UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

**DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE
EDUCATION**

**MA
THESIS**

**EFL STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS
ON LEARNER ENGAGEMENT IN TASK-
BASED LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION: A
MIXED METHODS STUDY**

EZGİ UYAN

**ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING
MASTER'S PROGRAM**

Antalya, 2023



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Supervisor:

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AKDENİZ ÜNİVERSİTESİ

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ YABANCI DİLLER ANABİLİM DALI

İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ TEZLİ YÜKSEK LİSANS PROGRAMI

**İNGİLİZCE' Yİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN ÖĞRENCİLERİN GÖREV
ODAKLI YABANCI DİL ÖĞRETİMİNDE ÖĞRENCİ KATILIMINA İLİŞKİN
GÖRÜŞLERİ: BİR KARMA YÖNTEM ÇALIŞMASI**

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

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Antalya, 2023

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EFL STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS ON LEARNER ENGAGEMENT IN TASK-BASED LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION: A MIXED METHODS STUDY

ONAY: Bu tez, Enstitü Yönetim Kurulunca belirlenen yukarıdaki jüri üyeleri tarafından uygun görülmüş ve Enstitü Yönetim Kurulunun tarihli ve sayılı kararıyla kabul edilmiştir.

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ABSTRACT

EFL STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS ON LEARNER ENGAGEMENT IN TASK-BASED LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION: A MIXED METHODS STUDY

UYAN, Ezgi

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This study explored EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement in task-based language instruction. The study utilized a mixed methods approach to unveil any possible differences in the perceptions of learner engagement based on gender, major, English proficiency level and academic achievement. The participants were two hundred thirty-four EFL students who studied in a School of Foreign Languages at a private university. Initially, quantitative data were collected through a scale developed by Gunuc and Kuzu (2015) that assesses the three sub-dimensions of learner engagement: behavioral, cognitive and emotional engagement. Afterward, qualitative data were gathered through semi-structured interviews. The scale results revealed a significant difference between male and female students regarding their levels of behavioral engagement. This finding indicated that females demonstrated higher levels of behavioral engagement than males. The findings of the academic achievement variable showed a significant difference regarding cognitive and emotional engagement. The students with higher levels of academic achievement exhibited higher levels of cognitive and emotional engagement. On the other hand, the results of the students' major and English proficiency level variables did not show a significant difference regarding the sub-dimensions of learner engagement. Based on the participants' responses, the interview findings uncovered significant factors to be influential on learner engagement, such as task collaboration and teachers' impact.

Keywords: *learner engagement, EFL students, task-based language instruction, perception*

ÖZET

İNGİLİZCE'Yİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEREN ÖĞRENCİLERİN GÖREV ODAKLI YABANCI DİL ÖĞRETİMİNDE ÖĞRENCİ KATILIMINA İLİŞKİN GÖRÜŞLERİ: BİR KARMA YÖNTEM ÇALIŞMASI

Bu çalışma, İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin görev odaklı dil öğretiminde öğrenci katılımına ilişkin algılarını ortaya çıkarmak amacıyla yürütülmüştür. Çalışmada, öğrencilerin öğrenci katılımına ilişkin algıları ile cinsiyet, bölüm, İngilizce yeterlilik ve akademik başarı değişkenleri arasındaki olası farklılıkları ortaya çıkarmak için karma yöntem kullanılmıştır. Katılımcılar, özel bir üniversitenin Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okulu'nda öğrenim gören 234 kişidir. Nicel veriler, öğrenci katılımının üç alt boyutunu (davranışsal, bilişsel ve duygusal katılım) ölçen Gunuc ve Kuzu (2015) tarafından geliştirilen bir ölçek aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Ardından, nitel veriler yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Nicel verilerin sonuçları, cinsiyet temelinde erkek ve kadın öğrenciler arasında davranışsal katılım düzeyleri açısından anlamlı bir fark olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Bu bulgu, kadınların erkeklere göre daha yüksek düzeyde davranışsal katılım sergilediğini göstermiştir. Akademik başarı değişkeninin bulguları ise bilişsel ve duygusal katılım açısından anlamlı bir farklılık göstermiştir. Daha yüksek akademik başarı düzeyine sahip öğrencilerin, bilişsel ve duygusal katılım düzeylerinin daha yüksek olduğu bulunmuştur. Öte yandan, öğrencilerin bölüm ve İngilizce dil yeterlilik düzeyi değişkenlerine dayalı olarak öğrenci katılımının alt boyutları açısından anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır. Yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme sonuçları ise, görev işbirliği ve öğretmenlerin etkisi gibi öğrenci katılımı üzerinde etkili olan önemli faktörleri ortaya çıkarmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: *öğrenci katılımı, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrenciler, görev odaklı dil öğretimi, algı*

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	vi
ABSTRACT.....	vi
ÖZET	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	vi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xi

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study	1
1.2. Problem Statement	3
1.3. Research Questions	4
1.4. Significance of the Study	4

CHAPTER II LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Student Engagement.....	6
2.1.1. Sub-dimensions of Student Engagement.....	8
2.1.1.1. Cognitive Engagement	9
2.1.1.2. Behavioral Engagement.....	9
2.1.1.3. Emotional (Affective) Engagement.....	10
2.2. Studies Centered on Student Engagement in Different Contexts	10
2.3. Task-based Language Teaching	18
2.3.1. Theoretical Background of TBLT	19
2.3.2. Stages of TBLT	22
2.3.2.1. Pre-task Stage.....	22
2.3.2.2. Task Cycle.....	23
2.3.2.3. Post-task Stage	23
2.4. Studies Centered on Student Engagement in Task-based Language Teaching Contexts	24

CHAPTER III METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Design.....	28
3.2. Participants and Sampling.....	29
3.3. Data Collection Instruments.....	31
3.3.1. Student Engagement Scale.....	31
3.3.2. Semi-structured Interviews	32
3.4. Data Gathering Procedure	38
3.5. Data Analysis.....	39
3.5.1 Quantitative Data Analysis.....	39

3.5.1.2. Reliability Estimations of Student Engagement Subscales.	41
3.5.2. Qualitative Data Analysis.....	41

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

4.1. Quantitative Findings	44
4.2. Qualitative Findings	55
4.2.1. Definition of Student Engagement.....	56
4.2.2. Factors Influencing Student Engagement	58
4.2.3. Teachers' Impact on Student Engagement	60
4.2.4. Suggestions for Increasing Student Engagement.....	61
4.2.5. Impact of Task Collaboration on Student Engagement.....	63
4.2.6. Emotional Perceptions Towards In-class Tasks Regarding Student Engagement.....	64
4.2.7. Transferring the Knowledge Acquired from In-class Tasks to Different Settings.....	66
4.2.8. Role of Student Engagement in English Language Learning	67

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

5.1. Discussion	69
5.1.1. EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement across its sub- dimension on gender, major, English proficiency level and academic achievement.....	69
5.1.2. EFL students' overall perceptions of learner engagement in TBLI.....	72
5.2. Conclusion	73
5.3. Limitations of the Study.....	75
5.4. Implications and Suggestions for Future Research	76
REFERENCES	78
APPENDICES	86
ÖZGEÇMİŞ	92
BİLDİRİM	93
İNTİHAL RAPORU	94

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1. Studies centered on Student Engagement in different contexts	15
Table 2.2. Theoretical framework of TBLT.....	21
Table 2.3. Studies centered on Student Engagement in task-based language teaching contexts	26
Table 3.1. Classification of the participants	31
Table 3.2. Interview questions	33
Table 3.3. Average comparison tests employed in the current study	40
Table 3.4. Reliability values of Student Engagement subscales	41
Table 4.1. Descriptive statistics of Student Engagement sub-dimensions	44
Table 4.2. Distribution of the scores obtained from the Student Engagement sub-dimensions based on gender variable	45
Table 4.3. t-test results for cognitive, peer relations (emotional engagement- I) and behavioral engagement subscale scores based on gender variable	46
Table 4.4. U-test results for relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) subscale scores based on gender variable	47
Table 4.5. Distributions of cognitive, peer relations (emotional engagement- I), relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) and behavioral engagement sub-dimension scores based on major variable	47
Table 4.6. t-test results for cognitive, peer relations (emotional engagement- I) and behavioral engagement sub-dimension scores based on major variable	48
Table 4.7. U-test results for relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) sub-dimension scores based on major variable.....	49
Table 4.8. Distributions of cognitive, peer relations (emotional engagement-I), relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) and behavioral engagement sub-dimension scores based on English proficiency level variable.....	50
Table 4.9. One-way analysis of variance results for cognitive, peer relations (emotional engagement-I) and behavioral engagement sub-dimension scores based on proficiency level variable	51
Table 4.10. The Kruskal- Wallis H test results for the scores of the relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) sub-dimension based on proficiency level.....	52
Table 4.11. Distributions of cognitive, peer relations (emotional engagement-I), relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) and behavioral engagement sub-dimension scores based on academic achievement variable sublevels.....	53
Table 4.12. One-way analysis of variance results for cognitive, peer relations (emotional engagement-I), relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) and behavioral engagement sub-dimension scores based on academic achievement variable.....	54
Table 4.13. Participants' definition of Student Engagement.....	57
Table 4.14. Factors influencing Student Engagement.....	59
Table 4.15. Teachers' impact on Student Engagement	61
Table 4.16. Suggestions for increasing Student Engagement	62
Table 4.17. Impact of task collaboration on Student Engagement	63
Table 4.18. Emotional perceptions towards in-class tasks regarding Student Engagement.....	65
Table 4.19. Transferring the knowledge acquired from in-class tasks to different settings	66

Table 4.20. Role of Student Engagement in English Language Learning 67



LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1. Sub-dimensions of Student Engagement	9
Figure 2.2. Stages of TBLT adopted by Willis (1996)	22
Figure 3.1. Research design of the current study	29
Figure 3.2. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)	30
Figure 3.3. Steps of the thematic analysis proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006).....	42
Figure 3.4. Summary of the methodology.....	43
Figure 4.1. Summary of the quantitative findings.....	55
Figure 4.2. EFL Students' perceptions of Student Engagement in TBLI.....	56
Figure 4.3. Definition of Student Engagement.....	57
Figure 4.4. Factors influencing Student Engagement	58
Figure 4.5. Teachers' impact on Student Engagement	60
Figure 4.6. Suggestions for increasing Student Engagement.....	62
Figure 4.7. Impact of task collaboration on Student Engagement	63
Figure 4.8. Emotional perceptions towards In-class Tasks Regarding Student Engagement.....	65
Figure 4.9. Transferring the Knowledge Acquired from In-class Tasks to Different Settings.....	66
Figure 4.10. Role of Student Engagement in English Language Learning	67
Figure 4.11. Summary of the interview findings.....	68

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

L2: Second Language

SE: Student Engagement

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

STEM: Science, Technology, Engineering and Math

TBLI: Task-based Language Instruction

TBLT: Task-based Language Teaching

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of the study, starting with the background information. Following the background, it moves on to present the problem statement and research questions. Lastly, the chapter outlines the significance of the study.

1.1. Background of the Study

Over the years, there has been a growing emphasis on learner engagement in educational contexts. It has been recognized as a key element of education across different subjects and grade levels. It mainly entails actively involving and motivating students in their learning. It also encourages students to take ownership of their learning, creating an environment where meaningful learning experiences can take place. The concept of student engagement has evolved over time, with researchers and educators recognizing its importance in promoting meaningful learning and academic success.

In the past, education relied predominantly on a traditional model where teachers were the primary conveyors of knowledge, while students assumed a passive role as recipients of information (Lortie, 1975). However, as educational theories and practices advanced, it became evident that this one-way transmission of knowledge did not effectively engage students in the learning process (Freire, 2018). Concerning this, researchers and educators began exploring alternative methods that placed student engagement at the forefront. (Fredricks, Blumenfeld & Paris, 2004). They acknowledged that students actively participating in the learning process are more inclined to develop a genuine interest in the subject matter. Shifting from a traditional emphasis on transmitting knowledge to passive learners, learner engagement in educational settings has gained recognition.

When it comes to English as a Foreign Language (EFL), learner engagement possesses even more significance due to the unique challenges faced by learners in acquiring proficiency in a non-native language. EFL learners often have limited

exposure to authentic communication experiences in the target language outside the classroom. Unlike learners in immersion contexts, who have constant exposure to the target language in daily life, EFL learners rely heavily on their classroom interactions to engage with and practice the language. The limited availability of meaningful communication experiences outside the classroom underscores the crucial role of engagement with the target language within the classroom setting. Engaging with the language through various activities, such as communicative tasks, discussions, role-plays, and authentic materials, becomes vital for developing L2 skills (Dörnyei, 2019).

As a fundamental aspect of language learning, learner engagement is critical to the success of any language pedagogy (Appel & Lantolf, 1994; Mercer & Williams, 2014). Recognized for its widespread popularity and proven efficacy in EFL, Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) has been asserted as a practical approach that has gained momentum for its potential to promote learner engagement (Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004). Active participation is a prerequisite in TBLT, and achieving it relies on carefully designing tasks that effectively engage learners.

To promote learner engagement in TBLT, Skehan (2003) emphasizes the importance of selecting and preparing tasks with several key characteristics, including a focus on meaning rather than just grammatical rules, the presence of an achievable outcome and the incorporation of tasks that relate to real-world situations for authenticity. In this regard, promoting learner engagement by incorporating tasks is a crucial aspect of TBLT and has important implications for language teaching and learning.

In conclusion, the role of learner engagement in Task-based Language Instruction cannot be underestimated. Prioritizing learner engagement in TBLI has excellent potential for optimizing overall language learning outcomes (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). Learner engagement is at the core of effective TBLI (Bygate, 2016). By integrating tasks and providing achievable outcomes, TBLI has the potential to promote learner-centered instruction and foster high levels of learner engagement. This engagement goes beyond mere participation; it involves learners investing their cognitive, affective, and behavioral resources into the tasks. This level of agency and control empowers learners as they become more involved and invested in their language learning.

1.2. Problem Statement

Learner engagement is critical to effective language teaching and learning, as it significantly promotes students' overall academic success. In a classroom setting, teachers are responsible for actively fostering and facilitating learner engagement, yet many struggle to do so. Teachers struggle to engage learners due to the fast-changing characteristics, needs, and interests of the new generation. This change necessitates teachers to adapt their education, roles, and professional development accordingly. In this regard, understanding students' perceptions of engagement is crucial for teachers to address students' needs and create engaging learning environments, especially in a TBLI setting.

Understanding students' perceptions is crucial for several reasons. First, identifying the factors influencing learners' engagement in TBLI can inform language educators about effective teaching strategies and techniques promoting learner engagement. Second, it can help educators better understand the needs and preferences of different groups of students, which can lead to more tailored and effective language instruction. Finally, investigating the relationships between learners' demographic variables and their perceptions of learner engagement in TBLI can shed light on the factors that influence the success of TBLI for different groups of learners.

The success of TBLI largely depends on student engagement in the tasks. However, research suggests that students may only sometimes fully engage in-class tasks (Shehadeh & Coombe, 2012). There could be several reasons for the lack of engagement, such as inadequate teacher support, lack of feedback and a disconnect between the task and the student's interests and needs. While there has been a growing body of research concerning these factors for promoting student engagement, students' perceptions of learner engagement still need to be studied in foreign language pedagogy.

Despite the growing interest in the role of learner engagement in TBLI, a limited body of research has investigated EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement in TBLI, particularly in relation to students' gender, academic achievement, and proficiency level (Havik & Westergård, 2020). Although some studies have explored the impact of TBLI on learner engagement (Dao & Nguyen, 2021; van Uden, Ritzen & Pieters, 2013), these studies often focus on teacher perceptions. Thus, there is a

research gap in the literature regarding EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement in TBLI, especially regarding the above demographic variables. By addressing this research gap, language instructors and curriculum designers can enhance their understanding of students' learning experiences and develop more effective task-based language instruction programs that meet the needs and expectations of a diverse student population. Therefore, this study aims to explore EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement in TBLI and explore whether there are any differences in these perceptions based on learners' gender, major, academic achievement, and proficiency level. By filling this gap, this study can provide valuable insights for language educators to design effective TBLI practices that promote learner engagement and improve the quality of language instruction.

1.3. Research Questions

The study aimed to provide valuable insight into the existing literature by addressing the following research questions.

1. Are there any differences between the EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement and the following variables:
 - 1a. gender?
 - 1b. major
 - 1c. English proficiency level?
 - 1d. academic achievement?
2. What are the EFL students' overall perceptions of learner engagement in TBLI?

1.4. Significance of the Study

This study aimed to explore EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement in TBLI. More specifically, it seeks to identify specific factors that contribute to or hinder student engagement in TBLI. Student engagement has been linked to positive academic results, including motivation and achievement (Fredricks et al., 2004), and this study can contribute to enhancing the quality of language learning outcomes by unveiling student perceptions. The significance of this research study lies in its ability to address a notable gap in the existing literature about students' perceptions of engagement in TBLI. Despite the increasing interest in student engagement and its impact on language learning outcomes, limited research has specifically focused on investigating students' perspectives within the context of TBLI. By examining the

factors that either facilitate or impede students' engagement, the study endeavors to provide a comprehensive understanding of the dynamics within TBLI classrooms. Such insights into the underlying factors influencing student engagement can help educators and policymakers devise effective strategies and implementations to enhance the quality of language learning experiences in TBLI settings.

Understanding how students perceive and experience engagement in TBLI is of great significance for promoting effective language. By examining students' perspectives towards engagement, the research can also offer valuable guidance for educators in designing pedagogical practices that align with students' needs, interests, and motivations. Additionally, the findings of this study can contribute to evidence-based decision-making in educational policy. Overall, this research study holds the potential to inform future research directions in the field of language teaching and learning. The study can guide language teachers in creating dynamic and interactive learning experiences that captivate students' interest, promote their active participation, and facilitate language acquisition. Ultimately, this can contribute to more effective language instruction and more engaged and motivated learners.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The present chapter starts with an overview of the Student Engagement concept and introduces research studies that focus on Student Engagement in various educational contexts. Subsequently, the chapter presents an overview of the Task-based Language Teaching approach and research studies that focus on Student Engagement within the context of Task-based Language Teaching.

2.1. Student Engagement

The notion of student engagement has recently gathered significant attention from educational researchers in the field. The reason for this attention is grounded in the extensive body of research conducted on learner engagement (Chi, Adams, Bogusch, Bruchok, Kang, Lancaster & Yaghmourian, 2018; Heflin, Shewmaker & Nguyen, 2017; Schnitzler, Holzberger & Seidel, 2021; Wang & Holcombe, 2010) which consistently demonstrates a positive correlation between every aspect of student engagement and academic success (Glapaththi, Dissanayake, Welgama, Somachandara & Sachinthana, 2019), as well as a reduction in dropout rates (Rumberger & Rotermund, 2012). Additionally, the educational literature extensively focused on learner engagement, with significant emphasis on student engagement within schools (Lee, 2012). This was partly due to concerns arising from insufficient participation in academic activities, withdrawal, feelings of alienation, and dropout issues (Finn, 1989). As a result of this particular interest, various definitions of student engagement have been proposed in the relevant literature, along with multiple theoretical conceptualizations highlighting the correlation between student engagement and academic achievement.

Over time, student engagement has been defined in line with the standpoints of scholars; for instance, Mosher and McGowan (1985) initially described student engagement as active involvement with the school, encompassing both attitude and behavior towards participation in school programs. They asserted that engagement is shaped by various interdependent factors, including societal, economic, community,

and legal factors, as well as individual characteristics of students and families (including psychological factors) and school-specific factors that can impact student and school outcomes. Similarly, Skinner, Wellborn, and Connell (1990) defined student engagement as the initiation of action, effort, and persistence on schoolwork and the emotional states experienced by students during learning activities. They argued that teachers play a significant role in shaping students' perceived control, which can foster or undermine student engagement and ultimately impact academic success.

On the other hand, Newmann, Wehlage, and Lamborn (1992) defined student engagement as the degree of psychological investment students have in their learning. In their research, several factors influence student engagement and achievement, including family background, peer influence, participation in extracurricular activities, and part-time employment. They suggested strategies to promote student engagement in academic work, highlighting the impact of students' socioeconomic backgrounds and attitudes towards school as critical factors influencing their engagement in authentic work.

As one of the leading figures on student engagement studies, Finn and Voelkl (1993) further defined student engagement as both the active participation of students in school-related activities and a sense of attachment to the school community, as well as a recognition of the value of what the school offers. Finn (1989) argued that a significant correlation exists between students' participation in school activities, their sense of identification with the school, and their emotional and behavioral engagement. Likewise, Skinner and Belmont (1993) identified student engagement as a combination of behavioral involvement in learning activities and a positive emotional state. They also argued that an engaged learner actively chooses tasks that align with their competencies, initiates action, and puts effort and focus into learning while displaying enthusiasm, curiosity, and interest.

Alternatively, Jimerson, Campos, and Greif (2003) defined student engagement within the school context. According to their definition, student engagement has three components: the behavioral dimension, which encompasses observable behaviors such as participation in extracurricular activities, completion of homework, and academic success; the cognitive dimension, which pertains to students' self-efficacy, motivation, and perceptions of school, teachers, and peers; and the emotional

(affective) dimension, which involves students' emotions about school, teachers, and peers.

Although the identification of sub-dimensions and their definitions vary in the number and way they are identified, there is a consensus that engagement refers to students' involvement in school-related tasks and activities (Appleton, Christenson, Kim & Reschly, 2006). In contrast to previous approaches, Appleton et al. (2006) defined student engagement as a multifaceted concept consisting of four sub-dimensions: academic, behavioral, cognitive, and psychological. The psychological dimension is specified as students' feelings of belonging, identification with the school, and sense of membership within the school community. They emphasized that students' perspectives are crucial for measuring cognitive and psychological engagement and gaining insight into their experiences in the learning environment.

In addition to these sub-dimensions, Reeve and Tseng (2011) introduced a unique dimension called agentic engagement as a crucial aspect in improving learning conditions by acknowledging students' contributions to their teacher's instruction. Agentic engagement, as defined by the authors, involves students actively participating in the instruction flow by making constructive contributions. This may include offering input, suggesting goals, seeking feedback or modeling, and asking for help. Essentially, agentic engagement encourages students to take an active role in their learning process.

2.1.1. Sub-dimensions of Student Engagement

This subsection focuses on the broadly accepted definitions of three sub-dimensions of student engagement—cognitive, behavioral, and emotional—excluding the definitions of the agentic and psychological dimensions. The underlying reason for exclusion is that the current study focuses on examining three specific sub-dimensions of student engagement, namely behavioral, emotional, and cognitive. The exclusion of the psychological and agentic dimensions in this research study is driven by the need for a more focused investigation into observable aspects of student engagement, thus meaning that they may not be easily observed or quantified in the context of the current study. By narrowing the focus to behavioral, emotional, and cognitive dimensions, this subsection centers around the detailed definition of these three dimensions.

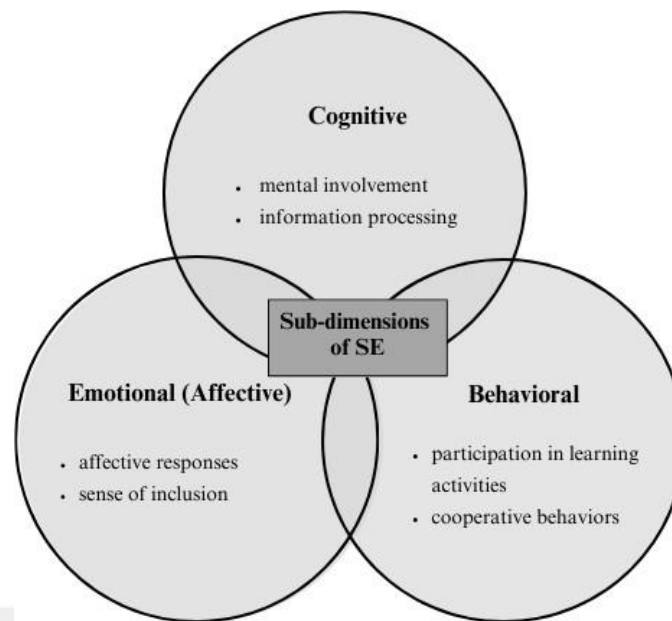


Figure 2.1. *Sub-dimensions of Student Engagement*

2.1.1.1. Cognitive Engagement

Cognitive engagement refers to a student's mindset about their abilities and learning, their techniques to assist their learning, and their eagerness and drive to learn (Fredricks et al., 2004). It encompasses students' cognitive processes, such as attention, concentration, and information processing, which are essential for effective learning and academic achievement. Cognitive engagement is characterized by a deep level of mental involvement, where students are actively constructing meaning, connecting new information to existing knowledge, and applying higher-order thinking skills (Appleton, Christenson & Furlong, 2008). As Bergdahl, Nouri, and Fors (2020) asserted, cognitive engagement entails students exhibiting greater focus on learning and investing more effort to understand intricate concepts and acquire challenging skills. This dimension of engagement is crucial as it reflects students' cognitive investment and their ability to interact meaningfully with academic content, leading to enhanced learning outcomes and intellectual growth.

2.1.1.2. Behavioral Engagement

Behavioral engagement is defined as the actions of learners, which include adhering to rules and regulations (Finn & Rock, 1997) and participating in learning activities with diligence, determination, and focus (Birch & Ladd, 1997). Fredricks et

al. (2004) additionally describe behavioral engagement as demonstrating positive behavior and participating in both academic tasks and extracurricular activities while allocating sufficient time and effort to these activities. Furthermore, it encompasses students' adherence to classroom rules, completion of assignments, and overall demonstration of responsible and cooperative behaviors within the academic setting (Skinner, Kindermann & Furrer, 2009). Havik and Westergård (2020) further suggest that students who are behaviorally engaged are attentive, actively seek to understand and complete tasks, ask relevant questions, and participate in class discussions. This engagement dimension is vital because it reflects students' involvement and commitment to learning, leading to better academic performance and positive educational outcomes.

2.1.1.3. Emotional (Affective) Engagement

Emotional engagement, also known as affective engagement, refers to the enthusiasm, pleasure, encouragement, sense of inclusion, and perspectives that students experience toward their instructors, classmates and school (Glanville & Wildhagen, 2007). It also includes their emotional responses to challenges and achievements within the academic setting. Emotionally engaged students exhibit positive emotional states, such as enthusiasm and curiosity, which contributes to their willingness to participate actively in the learning process (Appleton et al., 2008). Therefore, emotional engagement plays a crucial role as it influences students' overall well-being, motivation, and active participation.

2.2. Studies Centered on Student Engagement in Different Contexts

The student engagement studies under this heading are presented in chronological order, and these studies are chosen considering that each is conducted in a distinct context rather than a Task-based language environment. The reason for sharing such studies is to highlight the role of engagement and its significance in different educational contexts.

In a higher education context, Zepke, Leach, and Butler (2014) aimed to investigate the alignment between higher teachers' and students' perceptions of student engagement. A mixed-methods approach was employed, involving surveys and interviews with students and surveys with teachers from various institutions.

Students were asked to rate the importance of nine specific teacher behaviors in engaging them in learning. The findings revealed that students held high expectations for their teachers and emphasized the significance of behaviors such as clear explanations, supporting students' learning and feedback for fostering engagement. However, differences emerged between teachers' and students' perceptions, with teachers placing greater importance on challenging critical thinking.

DeWaelche (2015) conducted a mixed methods study with 42 undergraduate students in Korea. The study investigated the viability of incorporating higher-level questioning in student-centered activities to develop critical thinking and promote student engagement among English majors at a Korean university. Quantitative data was obtained from student surveys and rubric-based assessments of recorded conversations, while qualitative data was obtained from focus group discussions and classroom observations. The findings demonstrate that students' engagement in critical thinking activities can be affected by various factors, such as cultural and institutional aspects and the restrictions on English language proficiency. On the other hand, the author discusses that it is achievable for Korean students to overcome these sociocultural challenges and effectively engage in group activities if they have sufficient language skills in English and are encouraged during the classes.

In an EFL setting, Huang, Liu, Wang, Tsai, and Lin (2017) conducted a study investigating the engagement of learners with different levels of English proficiency in long-term collaborative EFL storytelling activities. The participants consisted of 42 third-grade students over a period of 17 months. A technology-enhanced collaborative storytelling activity was implemented. According to the findings, the students' proficiency level was discovered to have an impact on their engagement patterns, utilization of learning strategies, and performance when working in pairs.

Another mixed methods study conducted by Sarhandi, Bajnaid, and Elyas (2017) in the Saudi Arabia context examined whether utilizing smartphones in activities impacted EFL students' engagement level. The participants were 50 Saudi students studying in an EFL program at a university in Saudi Arabia. Two groups were randomly constituted, and it was aimed to compare the level of task engagement between these groups. The control group completed paper-based activities from a course book, while the experimental group completed the same activities using their smartphones. After the data analysis, it was found that the experimental group

exhibited considerably higher levels of task engagement than the control group, thus suggesting the positive impact of incorporating smartphones in the classroom on EFL students' task engagement.

Martin and Bolliger (2018) explore student perceptions of engagement strategies in an online context. The study surveyed 155 students who were enrolled in online graduate programs across the United States, and they rated several engagement strategies, such as learner-to-learner, learner-to-instructor, and learner-to-content. The findings showed that learner-to-instructor strategies were rated as the most valued among these categories. While students rated icebreaker/introduction discussions and collaborative work using online communication tools as the most valuable items in the learner-to-learner category, receiving regular announcements or email reminders and having grading rubrics for assignments were highlighted as the most useful in the learner-to-instructor category. Regarding the learner-content category, students found that working on real-world projects and participating in discussions with various questions were the most helpful. The findings hold practical implications for online educators and administrators seeking to promote engagement in online courses.

In another study in a flipped classroom context, Steen-Utheim and Foldnes (2018) conducted a qualitative study regarding student engagement. The study aimed to probe the experiences of twelve students enrolled in a Norwegian higher education institution by employing in-depth interviews. After the analysis of in-depth interviews in two semesters, the first was taught in a flipped classroom, while the second employed lectures. The findings showed that affective engagement was outstanding in the flipped classroom compared to a lecture-based one.

In a different EFL context, Zheng and Yu (2018) conducted a study to explore how Chinese lower-proficiency students engaged affectively, cognitively and behaviorally with teacher-written corrective feedback (WCF) in an EFL writing class. The study was conducted at a Chinese university with 12 students. The three-week case study included student essays, oral reports, written feedback from the teacher, and interviews. The findings showed that various factors affected participants' engagement with WCF, such as their attitude toward writing and prior experience both with teachers and feedback. In addition, it is found that participants exhibited comparatively positive affective engagement, despite their limited level of behavioral and cognitive engagement with WCF. The authors argued that these limitations could be caused by the participants' lower English proficiency levels.

Another study was conducted by Baranova, Khalyapina, Kobicheva, and Tokareva (2019). They aimed to fill a research gap by investigating students' engagement in a new integrated learning model in a blended learning context. This mixed methods study focused on the influence of the new model on undergraduate students' learning outcomes. In addition, it is intended to explore the impact of students' engagement levels on their learning outcomes. The data was collected through interviews, surveys, students' records of professional discipline and English testing. The findings showed that students' engagement level was relatively high. Based on the study's findings, the authors concluded that the integrated learning model helped students engage in the learning process and achieve better results.

On the other hand, in the educational setting of Norwegian schools, Havik and Westergård(2020) focused on the associations between students' perceptions of student engagement and classroom interactions, examining variables such as gender, grade level and socioeconomic status. Participants ranged from fifth to tenth graders and consisted of 1769 students. A self-reported web-based questionnaire was utilized for data collection. Based on the students' perceptions, the results showed that high-quality classroom interactions were positively associated with emotional and behavioral engagement. Additionally, students perceived their teachers' emotional support quite positively, thus indicating higher levels of engagement. The findings also showed that primary schoolers exhibited more emotional engagement than lower secondary schoolers, and female students exhibited more behavioral engagement than male students.

Similar to the study of Zheng and Yu (2018), Fan and Xu (2020) also conducted a study in the L2 writing context, specifically examining students' affective, behavioral and cognitive engagement with peer feedback. Five different sources of data were collected through interviews, students' drafts, written peer feedback, recorded sessions of peer feedback and a questionnaire survey. In the data collection process, participants were also trained to provide feedback. The findings revealed that the type of feedback influenced the students' engagement with peer feedback. For instance, form-focused feedback positively impacted students' affective, behavioral and cognitive engagement, while content-focused feedback influenced their behavioral and cognitive engagement to a lesser extent.

Phuntsho and Dendup (2020) investigated students' perceptions of student

engagement, academic achievement and school climate in higher secondary education. The participants consisted of 212 students from grades nine to twelve. The results indicated a significant correlation between school climate components and student engagement and between student engagement domains and academic achievement. Furthermore, the findings indicated that student engagement significantly mediated the relationship between school climate and academic achievement.

Taking a different approach, Zhao, Du, and Tan (2021) aimed to unveil the development of student engagement in the context of intercultural learning in a project-based learning (PBL) environment. The study was conducted with six voluntary groups of 19 students, each including one international student and two or three Chinese students with diverse linguistic backgrounds. The data consisted of video recordings of students' project meetings, students' in-class presentations, their reflective essays and interviews. The findings revealed various factors influencing student engagement, such as collaborative interaction and equal participation. The study concluded that these factors contributed to shaping engagement levels and resulted in the success or failure of the multicultural project groups.

Kurt, Atay, and Öztürk (2022) conducted a study on student engagement in K12 online education during the COVID-19 pandemic in Turkey. The study investigated what contributed to student engagement and the approaches high school teachers employ to engage students. Thematic analysis was used to identify specific themes of interview data. As a result of the findings, it is noted that students and teachers had similar perceptions of the factors influencing student engagement. Both groups referred to student engagement as challenging due to technical issues, lack of interaction and motivation. Consequently, various themes emerged influencing student engagement, including instructional and individual factors, learning environment, and policies. It was also found that the strategies employed by the teachers to engage students were instructional, emotional and managerial.

In their study, Lee, Park, and Davis (2022) aimed to obtain deeper insights into flipped learning (FL) outcomes by investigating possible factors influencing learner engagement, academic capability, and epistemological beliefs. More specifically, it is sought to examine how different dimensions of engagement (pre-class/in-class, behavioral/cognitive/affective) affect various outcomes in the context of FL. It is

employed a quantitative research methodology. The participants were undergraduate students at a Korean university who were required to study learning materials before class. A self-report questionnaire collected data on the participants' epistemological beliefs, learning engagement, and perceived learning outcomes. The study's findings revealed that participants' epistemological beliefs did not influence their level of pre or in-class engagement. In contrast, their academic capability influenced both pre-class and in-class engagement. On the other hand, learning outcomes were mainly influenced by pre-class and in-class engagement. The participants' affective engagement was not directly affected by their epistemological beliefs, but these beliefs indirectly affected FL outcomes regarding behavioral and cognitive engagement.

In a collaborative learning context, Vega-Abarzua, Pastene-Fuentes, Pastene-Fuentes, Ortega-Jimenez, and Castillo Rodriguez (2022) conducted an action research study and sought to explore and describe the impact of collaborative-based instruction on learners' engagement in Chile. The data was collected from 132 students through observation and a Likert test. Based on the findings, it is explored that employing collaborative-based instruction was proved to be an effective approach to enhance student engagement in the EFL classroom.

Table 2.1. *Studies Centered on Student Engagement in Different Contexts*

Context	Author(s)/ Year	Research Focus	Methodology	Main Findings
Higher Education	Zepke et al. (2014)	Alignment between teachers' and students' perceptions of student engagement	Mixed methods	Students emphasized the importance of clear explanations and feedback, while teachers placed greater importance on challenging critical thinking.
	DeWaelche (2015)	Incorporating higher-level questioning in student-centered activities	Mixed methods	Cultural and institutional aspects affect students' engagement in critical thinking activities.
EFL /Foreign	Huang et al. (2017)	Engagement of learners with	Mixed methods	Proficiency level impacted

Language		different proficiency levels in collaborative EFL storytelling activities		engagement patterns, learning strategies, and performance in collaborative storytelling activities.
	Zheng and Yu (2018)	Chinese lower-proficiency students' engagement with teacher-written corrective feedback	Case study with 12 students	Positive affective engagement despite limited behavioral and cognitive engagement with feedback.
	Fan and Xu (2020)	Students' affective, behavioral, and cognitive engagement with peer feedback	Mixed methods	The type of feedback influenced students' engagement with peer feedback, with form-focused feedback having a positive impact.
	Vega-Abarzua et al. (2022)	Impact of collaborative-based instruction on learners' engagement	Quantitative	Collaborative-based instruction enhanced student engagement in the EFL classroom.
Online /Distance Learning	Sarhandi et al. (2017)	Impact of utilizing smartphones on EFL students' engagement	Experimental study	Smartphone use led to higher levels of task engagement compared to paper-based activities.
	Martin and Bolliger (2018)	Student perceptions of engagement strategies in online courses	Quantitative	Learner-to-instructor strategies were rated most valued, with specific engagement strategies highlighted in each category.
	Kurt et al. (2022)	Student engagement in K12 online education during the COVID-19 pandemic	Qualitative	Technical issues, lack of interaction, and motivation influenced student engagement in online education.

Flipped Classroom	Steen-Utheim and Foldnes (2018)	Student engagement in the flipped classroom versus lecture-based classroom	Qualitative	The affective engagement was more prominent in flipped classrooms compared to lecture-based classrooms.
	Lee et al. (2022)	Factors influencing learner engagement and outcomes in flipped learning	Quantitative	Academic capability influenced engagement, and engagement influenced learning outcomes.
Blended Learning	Baranova et al. (2019)	Students' engagement in a new integrated learning model in a blended learning context	Mixed methods	Students' engagement level was relatively high, and the learning model facilitated engagement and improved learning outcomes.
Higher secondary education	Havik and Westergård (2020)	Associations between students' perceptions of engagement, classroom interactions, and demographic variables	Quantitative	High-quality classroom interactions were positively associated with emotional and behavioral engagement.
	Phuntsho and Dendup (2020)	Students' perceptions of student engagement, academic achievement, and school climate	Quantitative	School climate components correlated with student engagement and academic achievement.
Project-based learning	Zhao et al. (2021)	Development of student engagement in intercultural learning within a project-based learning environment	Quantitative	Collaborative interaction and equal participation influenced student engagement and project group outcomes.

2.3. Task-based Language Teaching

Task-Based Language Teaching is a foreign language teaching approach that has gained attention from instructors and researchers in the language education field. Vandommele, Van den Branden, and Van Gorp (2018) have reported significant evidence supporting the effectiveness of Task-Based Language Teaching in language learning, which has led to an increase in the number of educators worldwide who implement this method in their classes. As foreign language instruction has shifted towards more learner-centered and teacher-guided approaches throughout history, tasks have become increasingly important as they provide learners with a meaningful context to use the target language.

The task-based language teaching, often referred to as task-based language instruction (TBLI), is centered on the authentic use of language to carry out meaningful tasks in the target language. It emphasizes the use of language in meaningful and authentic tasks rather than simply teaching grammar and vocabulary in isolation. Learners are presented with tasks designed to simulate real-life situations, and they use language to achieve a communicative goal within the task context. As the first to raise the task-based language teaching approach, Prabhu(1987) points out that the target language is more achievable for learners if they concentrate on the task rather than the language itself. Since it is viewed as a student-centered and communication-based approach, task-based language teaching has been increasingly popular in teaching foreign languages since the 1980s (Hismanoglu & Hismanoglu, 2011).

Ellis (2003) argued that the task-based approach was developed as a response to the limitations of the PPP (presentation, practice, production) method and is based on the principles of communicative language teaching. According to Willis (1996), the task-based approach is a more effective alternative to traditional methods and is well-supported by theory and practice. Similarly, Lambert and Zhang (2019) suggested that TBLT is a learner-centered process considering learners' syllabuses, resources, and experiences. In TBLT, language tasks provide opportunities for students to actively engage in authentic topics, debates, and problem-solving activities with their peers, which enhances their communicative skills and understanding of the subject matter. This aspect of TBLT encourages learners to participate in the learning process and promotes active interaction among them.

2.3.1. Theoretical Background of TBLT

In the 1980s, Prabhu's groundbreaking "Bangalore Project" significantly contributed to the development of TBLT. Prabhu (1987) advocated for a shift from traditional forms of language instruction to focusing on tasks as the central unit of language learning. His project involved implementing task-based activities in language classrooms, where learners engaged in authentic language use and problem-solving. Prabhu's work emphasized the importance of learners' active involvement and ability to use language meaningfully in real-life contexts. His efforts laid the foundation for developing and implementing TBLT methodologies (Prabhu, 1987).

Long's (1980) Interaction Hypothesis asserts that learners acquire language more effectively when they experience communication breakdowns that lead to a substantial amount of comprehensible input. To compensate for the breakdown in communication, learners are provided with additional input and engage in the negotiation of meaning. Likewise, Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun (1993) propose that TBLT has its foundations in the Interactionist theory, which suggests that effective language learning happens when learners receive adequate input and opportunities to exchange ideas.

Yule's (1991) research on communicative effectiveness has contributed to TBLT. He defines communicative effectiveness as consisting of two dimensions: referent and role-taking. The referent dimension requires learners to understand the reference of the input and distinguish between different referents to make meaningful comments. The role-taking dimension involves learners recognizing their role in communication, expressing their perspectives, and meaningfully continuing the conversation. In the context of TBLT, communicative effectiveness is linked to tasks that involve problem-solving and negotiation, where learners must effectively communicate to achieve their objectives.

The Schema Theory, proposed by Estaire and Zanon (1994), is also a worth-mentioning theoretical framework underlying the TBLT methodology. They explore how individuals learn and suggest that the Schema Theory can assist in understanding the classroom processes involved in language learning. Schemas are blocks of data in the human mind that represent knowledge of the world, and individuals build these schemas as they process information. These schemas are interconnected rather than existing as individual entities in the human mind (Schank & Abelson, 1977). Estaire

and Zanon (1994) claimed that since people learn and apply their knowledge using schemas, this approach can also be used in language learning. This means that target language learning can be based on categorizing and storing a target language within the human information processing system. Therefore, tasks play a significant role in developing communicative competence as they work on "procedural and instrumental knowledge" (Estaire& Zanon, 1994, p. 79). In TBLT, like schemas, tasks are small learning units that help promote communicative competence. These language tasks provide a chance to integrate existing schemas and enhance overall language proficiency, activating the schemas. Therefore, the tasks in TBLT are crucial for promoting language learning since they function as schemas.

Willis (1996) further contributed to the advancement of TBLT by proposing a comprehensive framework for its instruction. Their framework centered around the idea that language learning is most effective when learners are engaged in goal-directed activities or tasks. They highlighted the importance of creating tasks that reflect real-life language use and align with learners' needs and interests. It is emphasized that tasks should have a clear purpose, offer opportunities for meaningful communication, and promote the development of language skills. Their framework provided practical guidelines and examples for teachers to design and implement task-based lessons, making TBLT more accessible and applicable in language classrooms. Upon presenting a structured approach to task-based instruction, Willis (1996) enhanced the understanding and implementation of TBLT methodologies in foreign teaching contexts.

In addition, Ellis (2003) emphasizes that Skehan's Cognitive Approach (1998) forms the foundation for language learning tasks by positing that second language learners utilize two distinct systems: an exemplar-based system and a rule-based system. The exemplar-based system relies on lexical words and phrases to aid in language production, while the rule-based system is crucial for generating correct linguistic expressions. Skehan (1998) maintains that language tasks can facilitate both systems' development through input and output creation. This approach may enhance both fluency and accuracy in language acquisition.

In summary, the various frameworks discussed in the literature provide insights into the foundations of TBLI, contributing to the understanding and application of its methodologies in the target language teaching context. Table 2.2. summarizes these frameworks.

Table 2.2. *Theoretical framework of TBLT*

Theoretical Framework	Description
Long's (1980) Interaction Hypothesis	Learners acquire language effectively through communication breakdowns and negotiation of meaning
Prabhu's (1987) Bangalore Project	Emphasizes using tasks as the core component of language learning, promoting authentic language use.
Yule's (1991) research on communicative effectiveness	Tasks that require problem-solving and negotiation are closely connected to communicative effectiveness.
Schema Theory by Estaire and Zanon (1994)	Tasks in TBLT function as schemas, which are interconnected blocks of knowledge.
Willis' (1996) framework for TBLT	Proposes a comprehensive framework for the instruction of TBLT
Skehan's (1998) Cognitive Approach	Forms the foundation for language learning tasks by positing that second language learners utilize two distinct systems: exemplar-based and rule-based.

Due to its emphasis on meaning, practical language usage, and authentic communication, TBLT has attracted growing attention in language teaching contexts. The popularity of TBLT has given rise to numerous views of what exactly a "task" is. As the name suggests, tasks are the central concept of the TBLT. Although it has been interpreted differently by many researchers, a task has been characterized in language learning as an activity that entails learners focusing on meaning and utilizing the target language in real-life contexts (Ellis, 2003). Prabhu's (1987) definition of a task states that it is an activity that involves learners using provided information to achieve a result. His definition indicates that learners are expected to take responsibility for their learning processes in language learning environments that utilize the task-based approach. Another definition of a task, given by Skehan (2003), emphasizes that the main importance of an activity lies in its meaning. The success of a task is determined by whether it produces the desired outcome and closely resembles authentic language use. This view proposes that the learners in this approach focus on communication through interactive activities with a specific goal. According to Nunan (2004), a task is a piece of work that learners complete in class that requires them to understand, control, produce, or engage in the target language while their attention is directed toward using their grammatical knowledge to express meaning. Unlike Nunan (2004), Willis (1996) defines a task as a specific

piece of work with a clear objective designed to enhance language learning. Tasks in TBLT are seen as a means of promoting language learning by providing opportunities for learners to use the language in context and to engage in meaningful communication with others.

Long (2014), on the other hand, refers to tasks as the learners' real-world communicative means of the target language for academic, professional, or social survival goals outside the classroom. The definition of what precisely qualifies as a task has been altered and improved by several scholars in second language acquisition, and it remains a hot debate topic. However, based on common points of the various task definitions proposed in the relevant literature, a task in TBLT can broadly be defined as an engaging and meaningful activity that encourages learners to use the target language in real-life contexts.

2.3.2. Stages of TBLT

Some essential phases of TBLT foster effective instruction. For instance, Willis (1996) initially proposed a three-staged framework for TBLT that included: the pre-task stage, the task cycle, and the post-task stage. Since then, these stages have become widely adopted by practitioners and researchers in the field of foreign language teaching.

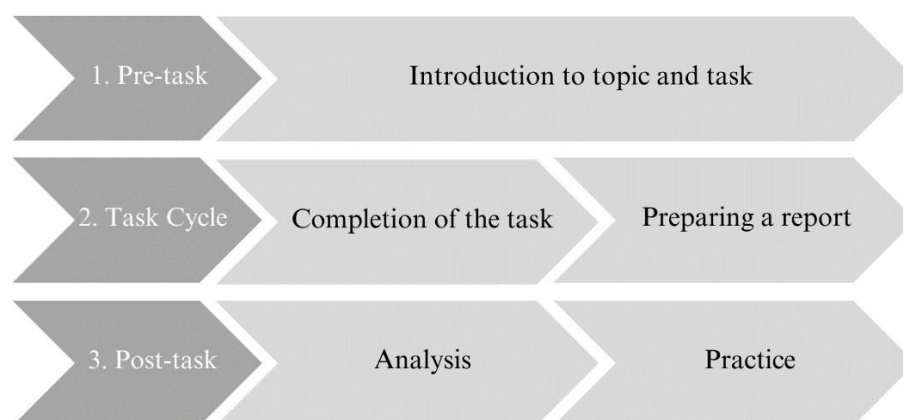


Figure 2.2. *Stages of TBLT adopted by Willis (1996)*

2.3.2.1. Pre-task Stage

In the pre-task stage, the teacher introduces the topic and language needed to complete the task to the learners. The teacher also provides the necessary vocabulary

and language input and clarifies any questions or uncertainties the learners may have. Ellis (2003) stated that the objective of the pre-task stage is to equip learners with the necessary preparation to complete the task. This could involve teachers initiating a discussion on the topic and guiding students as they brainstorm and relate to their prior knowledge. By recalling prior knowledge, learners can be better prepared to undertake the task, and this stage also provides an opportunity for students to reflect on upcoming tasks and stages. Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) recommended that teachers assign learners with a current social problem and ask them to present possible solutions, emphasizing fluency over accuracy during these activities. Instructors are expected to encourage their students' creativity and imagination. Upon completing the task, learners could present their report in a meaningful and communicative manner to the class, which paves the way for receiving feedback from their instructors in the post-task phase to refine both the content and form of their tasks.

2.3.2.2. Task Cycle

The task cycle is the second phase in TBLT. According to Ellis (2003), the task cycle stage focuses on students completing the task while prioritizing the communicative aspects of language. Students are expected to utilize the target language and improve their communicative skills during this phase, whether they work independently, in pairs or in groups. The teacher's responsibility is to monitor the students and offer feedback as needed. In this stage, fluency is emphasized over accuracy, and the learning environment should foster a relaxed atmosphere conducive to learning. Upon completing the task, students may prepare a report summarizing their performance and present it to the teacher or the class.

2.3.2.3. Post-task Stage

The final stage in TBLT is the post-task stage. Richards and Rodgers (2001) suggest that during the post-task stage, learners concentrate on practicing and utilizing the target language. This entails scrutinizing and comprehending the utilization of the target language, as well as reflecting on how learners themselves use it. Additionally, learners can identify areas for improvement and receive feedback on their performance.

2.4. Studies Centered on Student Engagement in Task-based Language Teaching Contexts

Considering the current study's main focus, this part aims to provide a comprehensive introduction to the limited body of research conducted on student engagement within task-based language teaching (TBLT) environments. It presents the existing research chronologically, highlighting key studies and their findings, thus establishing a foundation for the subsequent discussion.

In his Ph.D. dissertation on peer task-based interaction, Dao (2017) aimed to unveil the impact of interlocuter proficiency and task outcome on student engagement by employing various studies. Study 1 examined Vietnamese EFL learners' engagement levels possessing different language proficiency. The results revealed that students showed higher levels of social and cognitive engagement with lower proficiency-level peers and higher levels of emotional engagement with higher proficiency-level peers. On the other hand, Study 2 focused on the impact of task outcomes on student engagement. Students exhibited higher social and cognitive in tasks, although emotional engagement did not significantly vary. The final study sought to establish a link between student engagement and L2 question development. The findings showed that cognitive engagement especially forecasted question development, in contrast to social and emotional engagement.

In a study by Dao (2019), the impact of task goal orientation on learner engagement in language classroom activities was examined. The research involved 40 Vietnamese university students who completed two types of tasks: convergent and divergent. The findings revealed that learners exhibited higher cognitive and social engagement levels in convergent tasks, while emotional engagement remained consistent across both tasks. Participants reported positive emotions for both task types. The quantitative analysis showed no significant differences in task enjoyment and reported emotions.

In a task-supported English language classroom, Aubrey, King, and Almkhaild (2020) studied the factors influencing students' engagement and disengagement while performing tasks. Thirty-seven Japanese university participants participated in 10 different speaking tasks throughout ten weeks. Their engagement was measured by administering a post-task questionnaire assessing their anxiety, confidence, concentration and willingness to communicate. The data findings revealed various

underlying factors behind student engagement, including task familiarization, easier task topics and task repetition. On the contrary, a few factors, such as social integration issues and motivational baggage, indicated task engagement among the participants.

In a task-based learning environment, Farizka, Santihastuti, and Suharjito (2020) aimed to investigate students' learning engagement in composing writing through in-class observations. The participants completed various collaborative writing activities, and the authors observed them. It was found that something hindered student engagement during the pre-writing stage. Afterward, it was realized that when students were unable to understand the teacher's instruction or the tasks were not meaningful; they chose to abstain from engaging in tasks.

Similarly, Tusino, Faridi, Saleh, and Fitriati (2020) investigated college students' engagement in a hybrid task-based language teaching environment and explored their overall perceptions of EFL writing classes regarding its implementation. Twenty-six students majoring in English major participated in the study. The data-gathering instruments were questionnaires and interviews. The data findings showed that students were more engaged in writing classes regarding the use of hybrid in TBLT, proving that hybrid classes contributed to student engagement.

In a task-based interaction, Dao, Nguyen, and Iwashita (2021) aimed to unveil teachers' perceptions of student engagement. As the study participants, fifty-four pre- and in-service EFL/ESL instructors with years of L2 teaching experience were assigned to measure student engagement. They defined and rated engagement using learner-learner interaction recordings and a questionnaire. In the first part of the study, the participants listened to audio-recorded learner interactions. Subsequently, they evaluated each learner's engagement degrees based on the recordings. The participants were assigned a questionnaire in the second part, including a table. They completed this table by rating the engagement level of each student. According to the results, teachers indicated three main indicators to evaluate student engagement: (1) learners' level of deep thinking and attention to their peer's ideas, (2) the quantity of content, and (3) the level of interaction and assistance. It is also found that teachers tended to prioritize social and cognitive dimensions of learner engagement instead of behavioral and emotional dimensions when assessing engagement.

Salsabella and Dewi (2022) also focused on student engagement in task-based

language teaching in reading classes. Observation, documentation and interviews were the data collection tools in this qualitative method study. When students were on task, the authors observed them considering various aspects of student engagement, such as working well with peers, asking questions, and participating in discussions. Semi-structured interviews were employed to explore students' perceptions of TBLT. The findings showed that initially, students felt unfamiliar with TBLT. However, when they recognized the implementation of TBLT, the students became active and engaged.

Table 2.3. *Studies Centered on Student Engagement in Task-based Language Teaching Contexts*

Author(s) / Year	Research Focus	Methodology	Main Findings
Dao (2017)	Impact of interlocutor proficiency and task outcome on engagement	Mixed methods	Students showed higher social and cognitive engagement with lower proficiency peers and higher emotional engagement with higher proficiency peers and also exhibited higher social and cognitive engagement in tasks.
Dao (2019)	Impact of task goal orientation on learner engagement	Quantitative	Learners exhibited higher cognitive and social engagement in convergent tasks, while emotional engagement remained consistent across both task types.
Aubrey et al. (2020)	Factors influencing engagement and disengagement in task performance	Quantitative	Factors influencing engagement were task familiarization, easier task topics, and task repetition. Factors indicating task disengagement were social integration issues and motivational baggage.
Farizka et al. (2020)	Students' engagement in composing writing	Qualitative	Pre-writing stage hindered student engagement when instructions were not understood, or tasks were not meaningful.

Tusino et al.(2020)	College students' engagement in a hybrid TBLT setting	Mixed methods	When hybrid task-based language teaching was implemented, students were more engaged in writing classes.
Dao et al. (2021)	Teachers' perceptions of student engagement	Mixed methods	Teachers prioritized social and cognitive dimensions of learner engagement over behavioral and emotional dimensions.
Salsabella and Dewi (2022)	Exploring student engagement in TBLT reading classes	Mixed methods	Initially, students felt unfamiliar with TBLT but became more active and engaged once they recognized TBLT implementations.

Concerning the research studies in the reviewed literature on student engagement, several studies have explored various factors influencing student engagement and its outcomes. These studies have examined student engagement in higher education, online courses, flipped classrooms, collaborative learning and various EFL programs. In addition, several research has been conducted in task-based language environments regarding learner engagement (Aubrey et al., 2020; Dao, 2019; Dao et al., 2021; Farizka et al., 2020). Despite the significant body of research on student engagement, there is still a need for research to identify the gaps in understanding the factors that shape students' perceptions of their engagement, particularly in task-based language instruction. While some studies have focused on aspects of student engagement in task-based language teaching, there is a need for comprehensive research investigating perceptions employing different variables. This study proposes several variables that could efficiently unveil students' perceptions. Therefore, the current study aims to fill this research gap by investigating students' perceptions of learner engagement in TBLI and examining the relationship between various variables and student engagement across its sub-dimensions.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter introduces the present study's research design, participants, and data collection instruments. Afterward, data collection and analysis procedures are presented.

3.1. Research Design

This study aims to explore EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement in task-based language instruction. To achieve this goal, an explanatory sequential design, a sub-type of mixed methods research, is fit for this study considering the research phenomenon. Regarding the explanatory sequential design, both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods are employed. Since adopting a mixed methods research design is likely to provide a more comprehensive and holistic understanding of the research questions, it combines the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative research approaches (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). As Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) emphasize, adopting a mixed-method research design and employing multiple data sources is crucial to triangulate research findings and increasing the validity of results. Similarly, Mackey and Bryfonski (2018) assert that mixed methods design provides multiple perspectives resulting in a richer and more detailed picture of the research topic by avoiding the limitations of using either quantitative or qualitative methods in isolation.

As the instrument of the quantitative phase of the study, the scale administrated to a large sample size enables the exploration of individuals' opinions and behaviors about a specific subject. This clarifies the factors supporting or undermining student engagement and potential differences. Considering the advantages of a scale, such as time efficiency and cost-effectiveness, the current study employs a carefully customized scale to facilitate data collection. Additionally, the subsequent qualitative phase, which includes interviews, delves deeper into the reasons, motivations, and experiences related to learner engagement with smaller sample size. According to Tetnowski and Damico (2001), interviews allow researchers to obtain more comprehensive and authentic data by going beyond the numbers and gaining a richer

understanding of the research phenomenon, capturing participants' viewpoints, and providing contextual insights. Furthermore, interviews allow participants to freely express their opinions and perspectives rather than being limited to predefined answer choices.

Considering the current study's research questions, employing an explanatory sequential design within the context of mixed methods research is a convenient approach for conducting a thorough investigation into the research topic. By integrating quantitative and qualitative data, the present study intends to increase the validity and comprehensiveness of its findings, resulting in a reliable understanding of student perceptions.

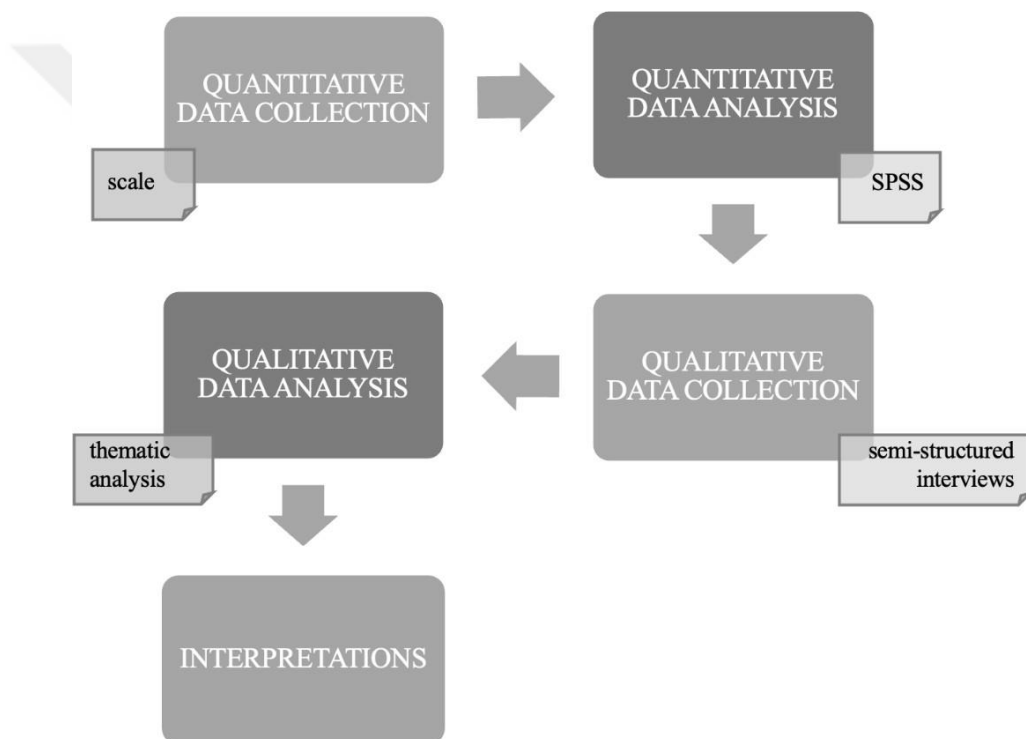


Figure 3.1. *The research design of the current study*

3.2. Participants and Sampling

Two hundred thirty-four students enrolled at the School of Foreign Languages of a private university in the Mediterranean region of Turkey provided the data for the current study. One hundred nine males and one hundred twenty-five females volunteered to participate in the study. Convenience sampling, which refers to selecting participants based on their easy accessibility or availability to the researcher, was employed (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005). Convenience- sampled participants were

also asked for their consent and provided with information regarding the confidentiality of their responses.

The participants in the study exhibited a range of English proficiency levels, which were classified according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001). The current study included participants from A2, B1, and B2 levels. At the A2 (Elementary) level, participants can comprehend and communicate in everyday situations, albeit with some difficulty. They were capable of engaging in basic conversations and comprehending simple written texts. Moving up to the B1 (Intermediate) level, participants display a greater understanding of clear, standard speech and texts. They are capable of handling most situations encountered while traveling, expressing their opinions, and describing personal experiences. Finally, at the B2 (Upper Intermediate) level, participants showcase a strong command of the English language. They exhibit the ability to comprehend complex texts, engage in detailed discussions, and communicate fluently in various situations.

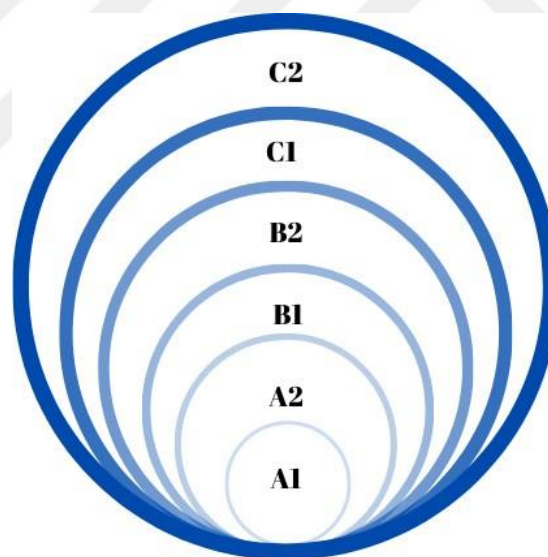


Figure 3.2. *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)*

Since students' departments differ, such as engineering, gastronomy, psychology, tourism, architecture, and economics, these departments were categorized under the following headings: (1) STEM, which encompasses engineering, architecture, mathematics, and (2) verbal majors, which entails psychology, gastronomy, tourism and various social sciences. The participants' academic achievement was represented by the grades they received in the last midterm exam at the school. After the data analyses, eligible participants decreased from 270 to 234. Table 3.1. demonstrates

the frequency and percentage for each category.

Table 3.1. *Classification of the participants*

General Information	Group	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	109	46,6
	Female	125	53,4
Proficiency	A2	41	17,5
	B1	130	55,6
	B2	63	26,9
Major	STEM	163	69,7
	Verbal Majors	71	30,3
Academic Achievement (out of 100)	≤ 59	42	18,0
	60-69	80	34,3
	70-79	78	33,5
	≥ 80	33	14,2

3.3. Data Collection Instruments

This study employed two different data collection instruments: a scale and interviews.

3.3.1. Student Engagement Scale

The Student Engagement Scale, originally developed by Gunuc and Kuzu (2015) in English, was used in the study's quantitative data collection phase (see Appendix-1). The necessary permissions were obtained from the authors to use the original scale (see Appendix-2). The scale consists of two components: campus engagement and class engagement. Campus engagement refers to a student's involvement in university life, including factors such as valuing the university, having a sense of belonging, and participating in campus activities. On the other hand, class engagement refers to a student's engagement in the classroom, including dimensions such as cognitive engagement, emotional engagement, and behavioral engagement. The scale items are designed as a five-point Likert-type, where participants can rate their agreement or disagreement on a scale from 1 (I totally disagree) to 5 (I totally agree).

agree). The initial form of the student engagement scale included 59 items. However, after conducting various analyses, including exploratory factor analysis (EFA), a total of 18 items were deleted from the scale, resulting in a final set of 41 six-factor items. The scale used in the study consisted of six-factor items, encompassing class engagement (cognitive, emotional, and behavioral engagement) and campus engagement (valuing and sense of belonging). Since the present study aimed to explore the participants' perceptions regarding learner engagement in TBLI within the classroom setting, the campus engagement part of the scale was not administered to the participants.

The class engagement part of the scale included 30 items measuring three sub-dimensions of learner engagement in class: behavioral, emotional, and cognitive engagement. The emotional engagement was assessed across two categories: peer relations and relationships with the faculty member. The scale represents cognitive engagement in items 12 to 21, emotional engagement in items 22 to 37 (peer relations 22 to 27, relationships with the faculty member 28 to 37) and behavioral engagement in items 38 to 41.

3.3.2. Semi-structured Interviews

In the qualitative phase of the study, semi-structured interviews were conducted. The interviews included eight open-ended questions to gain further insights into EFL students' perceptions regarding their engagements in TBLI. Before the interviews, a pool of 30 questions was generated by meticulously reviewing the studies in the relevant literature. Afterward, an expert in the field guided narrowing down the interview questions to a final selection of eight. The questions were carefully designed to address student engagement along with its sub-dimensions. Considering the participants, who were native Turkish speakers, the questions were generated and administered in Turkish to minimize potential language barriers or misunderstandings in L2. As displayed in Table 3.2., the first column presents the interview questions, and the second column indicates the specific sub-dimension of student engagement that each question assesses.

Table 3.2. Interview questions

Interview Questions	Aim of the questions
Q1. What is your understanding of 'student engagement,' and what does it mean to you? - If you think you engage in classes, please describe your engagement. - If you think you do not, explain the reason.	Exploring the general understanding of student engagement of the participants
Q2. Are there any positive and negative factors that have an impact on your engagement in classes? Explain.	Factors influencing student engagement
Q3. Does your teacher have an impact on your in-class engagement? Explain.	Exploring teacher impact on student engagement
Q4. What suggestions do you give to your teachers to enhance student engagement?	Getting suggestions to enhance student engagement
Q5. When engaging in classroom tasks, do you collaborate with your classmates? - If yes, please give details. - If not, please explain the reason.	Assessing behavioral engagement
Q6. Please define your emotional condition when you engage in tasks.	Assessing emotional engagement
Q7. Do you use the knowledge gained from engaging in classroom tasks in other contexts?	Assessing cognitive engagement
Q8. Do you believe that 'classroom engagement' plays a role in English language learning? - If yes, what role do you think it plays? - If not, please explain.	Exploring the role of student engagement in English language learning

3.4. Data Gathering Procedure

Data were collected during the second semester of the 2022-2023 academic year at a private university's English language preparatory school. At this institution, EFL classes were implemented, including all English language skills, and task-based language instruction is widely adopted. The schedule for the preparatory program entailed 25 hours of instruction per week. Before collecting the data, approval from the institutional review board was received to ensure research ethics compliance, and all necessary formal permissions were obtained (see Appendix-3).

Initially, to collect the quantitative data, the Student Engagement scale developed by Gunucand Kuzu (2015) was administered to the participants. The scale was administered through Google Forms to achieve secure data storage and minimize the potential for human error through automated data entry (see Appendix-4). Before starting the data collection, the participants were guaranteed that their responses would be confidential and used only for academic purposes. After giving their online consent by clicking the button on the first page, participants completed the scale in approximately 6-8 minutes. The voluntary participation statement was both in Turkish and English. Additionally, demographic information such as gender and major was collected in Turkish and English, considering foreigners and Turkish native speakers. However, the scale was administered in English as in the original article (Gunuc & Kuzu, 2015). Afterward, to analyze the quantitative data, necessary statistical procedures were initiated

After analyzing the quantitative data, to conduct semi-structured interviews, out of the 234 participants who completed the scale, 15 were selected voluntarily and informed that all responses they provided would be kept confidential. The participants were seven females and eight males, representing various proficiency levels (A2, B1, B2) and majors with different academic achievements. The interviews were conducted in Turkish and audio-recorded in a quiet and distraction-free environment in the school at different time intervals over one week. Each interview lasted approximately 5-10 minutes.

3.5. Data Analysis

The analysis process starts with quantitative data and then continues with qualitative data analysis.

3.5.1. Quantitative Data Analysis

The online collected data were initially transferred to Microsoft Excel and then to IBM SPSS software. Necessary numerical coding and statistical analysis were conducted.

Initially, missing values were detected, and any missing values found in the independent variables were excluded from the analysis. After excluding values exhibiting outliers, single and multiple variables, the number of participants decreased from 270 to 234, as shown in Table 3.2. Subsequently, descriptive values of the scores obtained from the sub-dimensions (cognitive-emotional-behavioral) of the student engagement scale (Gunuc & Kuzu, 2015) were examined. The means and minimum-maximum scores of these sub-dimensions were evaluated. Afterward, the scores of student engagement sub-dimensions were subjected to mean comparison tests at the sub-levels of gender, major, academic achievement, and English proficiency level variables. Before conducting the mean comparison tests, the distributions of the variables in the sub-dimensions of student engagement were examined. After reviewing the relevant literature, it is evident that various approaches exist to determine whether a score distribution follows a normal or skewed distribution. In this study, three different methods were used to decide on the distributions of scale scores in the sub-levels of the variables. The first method employed was the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilks (S-W) tests, which test whether a distribution exhibits a normal distribution. These tests examine whether the test statistic is significant and test the hypothesis "H₀ = the distribution is normal". If the significance level of the test results is above 0.05, the null hypothesis is accepted, providing evidence of a normal distribution (Bryman & Cramer, 2001). The S-W test was applied when the sample size in the sub-group was less than 30, while the K-S test was used when the sample size was greater than 30. Another approach to determine normality is to examine whether the skewness-kurtosis coefficients of the score distribution in the relevant sub-level fall within the range of (-2,+2). Sub-levels with skewness-kurtosis coefficients within the specified range are assumed to indicate a

normal distribution (George & Ramachandran, 2011). Lastly, the Z values obtained from the skewness-kurtosis coefficients of the score distributions in the relevant sub-levels were examined to determine whether they fall within the range of (-1.96,+1.96). Sub-levels with Z coefficients within the specified range are assumed to indicate a normal distribution (Howitt & Cramer, 1997). Sub-groups were considered normally distributed if they largely met the criteria for normal distribution.

On the other hand, sub-groups that failed to satisfy most of these criteria were categorized as non-normally distributed. For variables with two sub-groups and all sub-groups demonstrating normal distribution, independent samples t-test was used for mean comparison. At the same time, the Mann-Whitney U test was employed for the mean comparison of those with at least one sub-group not showing normal distribution (Ruxton, 2006). For variables with more than two sub-groups and all sub-groups demonstrating normal distribution, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and, in case of significant differences, Scheffe's multiple comparison tests were used for mean comparison. The Kruskal-Wallis H test was used for mean comparison for those with at least one sub-group not showing normal distribution (Kruskal, 1952). The tests used for the comparison of student engagement sub-dimensions in terms of various variables are shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3. *Average comparison tests employed in the current study*

Subscale	Variable	Analysis
Cognitive Engagement	Gender	Independent samples t-test
	Proficiency	One-way analysis of variance
	Major	Independent samples t-test
	Academic Achievement	One-way analysis of variance
Peer Relations (Emotional Engagement-I)	Gender	Independent samples t-test
	Proficiency	One-way analysis of variance
	Major	Independent samples t-test
	Academic Achievement	One-way analysis of variance
Relationships with the Faculty Member (Emotional Engagement- II)	Gender	Mann-Whitney U test
	Proficiency	Kruskal Wallis H test
	Major	Mann-Whitney U test
	Academic Achievement	One-way analysis of variance

Behavioral Engagement	Gender	Independent samples t-test
	Proficiency	One-way analysis of variance
	Major	Independent samples t-test
	Academic Achievement	One-way analysis of variance

3.5.1.2. Reliability Estimations of Student Engagement Subscales

Reliability estimations were recalculated for the current study. The Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient of the class engagement subscales used in the study is presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4. *Reliability Values of Student Engagement Subscales*

Subscale	Coefficient Alpha
Cognitive Engagement	0,79
Peer Relations (Emotional Engagement-I)	0,80
Relationships with the Faculty Member (Emotional Engagement-II)	0,92
Behavioral Engagement	0,71

Upon examination of the alpha coefficients of student engagement subscales displayed in Table 3.4., it is evident that it is 0.79 for the cognitive engagement subscale, 0.80 for the friend relations subscale, 0.92 for the relationship with the faculty member subscale, and 0.71 for the behavioral engagement subscale. It is discernable that all of the related values are 0.70 and above, so the scores obtained from the subscales of student engagement are reliable in terms of internal consistency (Domino & Domino, 2006).

3.5.2. Qualitative Data Analysis

The data analysis process of the semi-structured interviews involved applying thematic analysis, which aims to reveal, analyze and decode patterns of meaning known as themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). As displayed in Figure 3.3., the current

study followed the steps of thematic analysis proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006).

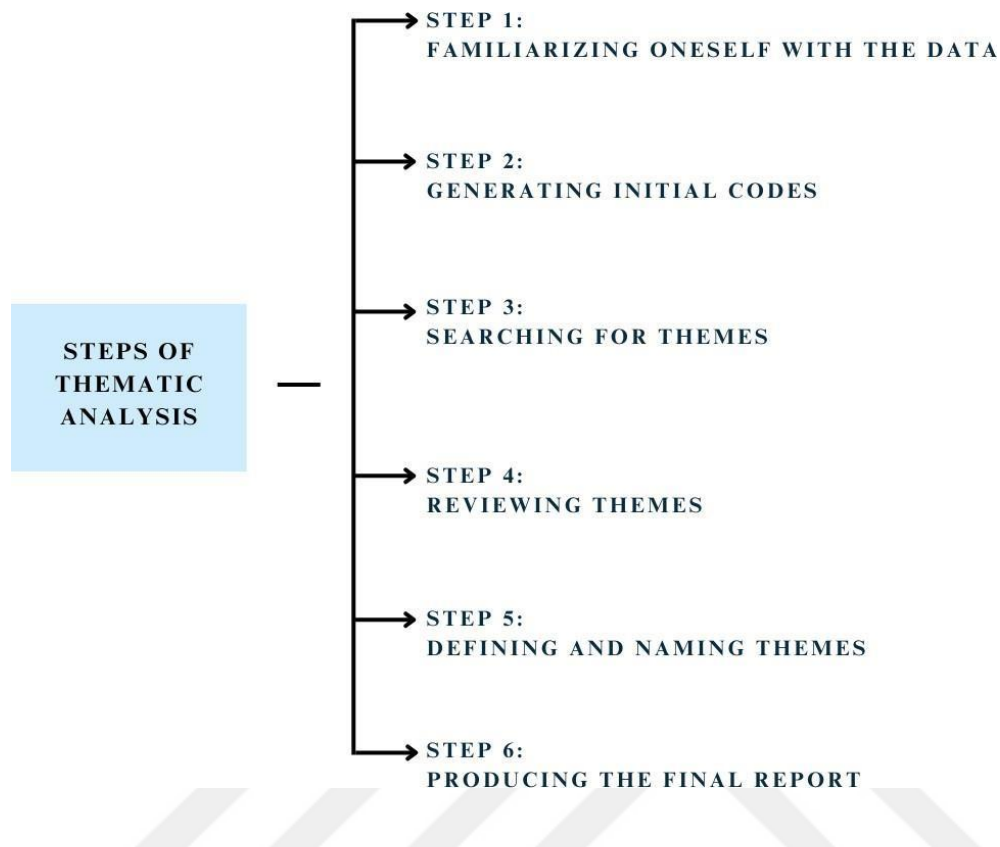


Figure 3.3. Steps of the thematic analysis proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006)

In the first step, the audio-recorded data was transcribed verbatim, reading through all the details and nuances of the participants' responses to become familiar with the data. In the next step, the data was coded by creating initial codes, which included specifying the relevant units provided by the participants. Afterward, these units were labeled as codes within the interview transcripts. In the third step, themes were identified by reviewing the codes and determining similarities and connections between the codes. Subsequently, a list of potential themes emerged from the data was generated. The initial themes were reviewed in the fourth step by rechecking the coded data. The themes were compared against the coded segments to ensure they accurately represent the relevant information. Themes were modified as needed to ensure they were coherent and distinct. In the fifth step, each theme was specified and described in detail. Descriptions were written using quotes and sample responses from the participants to support the interpretations. A title was assigned to each theme. In the final step, the final report was generated, summarizing the findings of the thematic analysis. This report included a detailed description of each theme, relevant quotes and

excerpts from the interviews. An overall interpretation of the students' perceptions of learner engagement based on the identified themes was provided.

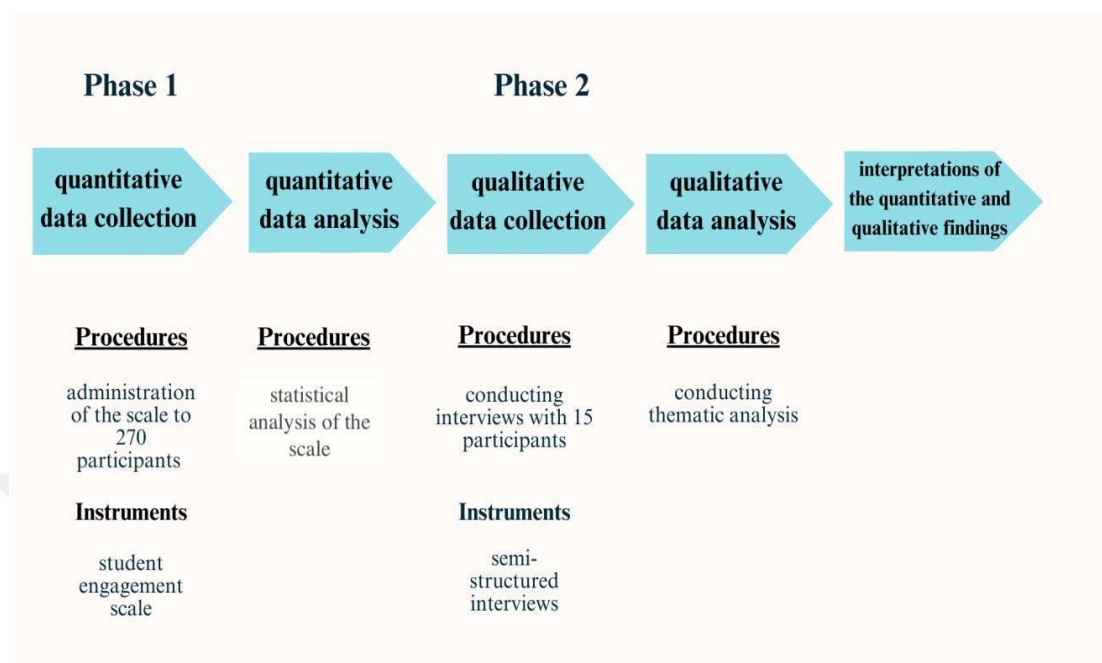


Figure 3.4 . Summary of the methodology

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Following the explanatory sequential research design employed in this study, this chapter primarily presents the quantitative data findings of the first research question. Afterward, the qualitative findings obtained from the semi-structured interviews are presented in detail within the context of the second research question.

4.1. Quantitative Findings

The first research question explored the relationship between EFL students' perceptions of engagement and various variables such as proficiency, major and academic achievement. In line with the purpose of this research question, the quantitative data findings gathered from Student Engagement Scale (Gunuc & Kuzu, 2015) are presented below.

Are there any differences between the EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement and gender?

Table 4.1. displays the descriptive statistics of cognitive engagement, peer relations (emotional engagement-I), relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) and behavioral engagement sub-dimensions.

Table 4.1. *Descriptive statistics of Student Engagement sub-dimensions*

Subscale	N	Min	Max	$\bar{X}$	S.S
Cognitive Engagement	234	20,0	50,0	37,97	4,93
Peer Relations (Emotional Engagement-I)	234	13,0	30,0	23,07	3,59
Relationships with the Faculty Member (EmotionalEngagement- II)	234	25,0	50,0	41,70	5,54
Behavioral Engagement	234	9,0	20,0	15,08	2,00

Upon reviewing the descriptive scores in Table 4.1., the mean of the cognitive engagement subscale is 37.97 ± 4.93 , the mean of the peer relations (emotional engagement-I) subscale is 23.07 ± 3.59 , the mean of the relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) is 41.70 ± 5.54 and behavioral engagement subscale mean is 15.08 ± 2.00 . When evaluated within the framework of the minimum-maximum scores obtained from the subscales, it is evident that the average score of the study group's student engagement subscale is quite high. It is apparent that the highest average of the group belongs to the relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II), and the lowest average belongs to the behavioral engagement subscale.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov/Shapiro-Wilk test statistic, skewness-kurtosis values, and kurtosis-skewness Z scores regarding the distributions of scores obtained from the subscales of student engagement across gender variable subgroups are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. *Distribution of the scores obtained from the Student Engagement sub-dimensions based on gender variable*

Subscale	Variable	K-S/ S-W	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness Z-score	Kurtosis Z-score
Cognitive Engagement	Male	0,200	-0,10	0,41	-0,43	0,88
	Female	0,086	0,02	-0,43	0,08	-1,01
Peer Relations (Emotional Engagement-I)	Male	<0,001	-0,12	0,01	-0,50	0,03
	Female	0,006	0,06	-0,60	0,26	-1,39
Relationships with the Faculty Member (Emotional Engagement- II)	Male	0,023	-0,49	-0,01	-2,12	-0,02
	Female	0,005	-0,36	-0,18	-1,67	-0,42
Behavioral Engagement	Male	<0,001	-0,11	0,57	-0,46	1,24
	Female	<0,001	0,01	0,24	0,06	0,56

When examining the scores regarding normality in Table 4.2., it is evident that the scores of the subscale measuring relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) for the male subgroup do not meet the established criteria for normality, as indicated by the significant K-S test ($p=0.023$) and a skewness Z-

score of (-2.12). Therefore, it can be stated that the distribution of these scores is not normal. However, it is apparent that the distributions of the scores for the other subscales in both the male and female groups meet at least two criteria for normality, thus demonstrating the normal distribution.

The results of the independent samples t-test regarding gender obtained from the cognitive engagement, peer relations (emotional engagement-I), and behavioral engagement subscales of the student engagement, along with the Mann Whitney U test results for the comparison of scores obtained from the relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) subscale according to gender, are shown in Table 4.3. and Table 4.4. respectively.

Table 4.3. *t-test results for cognitive, peer relations (emotional engagement-I) and behavioral engagement subscale scores based on gender variable*

Subscale	Variable	N	$\bar{X}$	S.S	SD	t	p	η^2
Cognitive Engagement	Male	109	37,47	5,10	232	1,45	0,149	-
	Female	125	38,40	4,75				
Peer relations (Emotional Engagement-I)	Male	109	22,91	3,50	232	0,67	0,503	-
	Female	125	23,22	3,67				
Behavioral Engagement	Male	109	14,67	2,01	232	2,95	0,003	0,04
	Female	125	15,43	1,94				

When examining the independent samples t-test results presented in Table 4.3., it is evident that there is no significant difference in the mean scores of the cognitive engagement subscale based on gender ($t_{232}=1.45$, $p>0.05$). Therefore, it can be asserted that the mean scores of the cognitive engagement subscale are similar for the male (37.47 ± 5.10) and female (38.40 ± 4.75) groups. It is also observed that there is no significant difference in the mean scores of the peer relations (emotional engagement-I) subscale based on gender ($t_{232}=0.67$, $p>0.05$). Thus, it can be stated that the mean scores of the peer relations (emotional engagement-I) subscale are similar for the male (22.91 ± 3.50) and female (23.22 ± 3.67) groups. However, it is observed that there is a significant difference in the mean scores of the behavioral engagement subscale based on gender ($t_{232}=2.95$, $p<0.05$). Therefore, it can be asserted that the mean scores of the behavioral engagement subscale for females (15.43 ± 1.94) are higher than the mean scores for males. The calculated effect size

coefficient for the significant difference ($\eta^2=0.04$) indicates a medium effect size.

Table 4.4. *U-test results for relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) subscale scores based on gender variable*

Subscale	Variable	N	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	U	p
Relationships with the Faculty Member (Emotional Engagement- II)	Male	109	117,13	12767,0	6772,0	0,937
	Female	125	117,82	14728,0		

As displayed in Table 4.4., the Mann-Whitney U test results based on gender for the subscale scores of the relationship with the faculty member indicate that there is no significant difference between the mean ranks of the male and female subgroups ($U=6772.0$, $p>0.05$). Accordingly, it is evident that the mean ranks of male students (117.13) and female students (117.82) are similar.

Are there any differences between the EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement and major?

The K-S/S-W test statistics, skewness-kurtosis scores, and kurtosis-skewness Z-scores for the distributions of scores obtained from the subscales of student engagement in the sub-levels of the major variable are presented in Table 4.5..

Table 4.5. *Distributions of cognitive, peer relations (emotional engagement-I), relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) and behavioral engagement sub-dimension scores based on major variable*

Subscale	Variable	K-S/ S-W	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness Z-score	Kurtosis Z-score
Cognitive Engagement	STEM	0,003	-0,15	0,37	-0,78	0,98
	Verbal	0,200	0,12	-0,64	0,41	-1,14
	Majors					
Peer relations (Emotional Engagement-I)	STEM	<0,001	-0,17	0,06	-0,90	0,16
	Verbal	0,079	0,36	-0,69	1,27	-1,22
	Majors					
Relationships with the Faculty Member (Emotional Engagement-II)	STEM	0,007	-0,47	-0,10	-2,49	-0,26
	Verbal	0,018	-0,33	0,00	-1,14	0,01
	Majors					
Behavioral Engagement	STEM	<0,001	-0,08	0,58	0,42	1,54
	Verbal	<0,001	-0,37	0,19	-1,30	0,33
	<u>Majors</u>					

As illustrated in Table 4.5., the scores of the relationship with the faculty member subscale for the STEM subgroup do not meet the criteria for normality, as indicated by the significant result of the K-S test ($p=0.007$) and the skewness Z score (-2.49). For this reason, it can be stated that the distribution of these scores is not normally distributed. On the other hand, it is evident that the distributions of the scores for the other subscales belonging to the STEM and verbal major groups meet at least two criteria for normality, thus showing normal distribution.

The independent samples t-test results for the scores obtained from the subscales of cognitive engagement, peer relationships, and behavioral engagement based on major are presented in Table 4.6. Additionally, the Mann-Whitney U test results for the scores obtained from the relationship with the faculty member subscale based on the major are exhibited in Table 4.7 .

Table 4.6. *t-test results for cognitive, peer relations (emotional engagement-I) and behavioral engagement sub-dimension scores based on major variable*

Subscale	Variable	N	$\bar{X}$	S.S	SD	<i>t</i>	p	η^2
Cognitive Engagement	STEM	163	37,93	4,89				
	Verbal Majors	71	38,04	5,05	232	0,16	0,876	-
Peer relations (Emotional Engagement-I)	STEM	163	23,36	3,47	232	1,85	0,065	-
	Verbal Majors	71	22,43	3,80				
Behavioral Engagement	STEM	163	15,04	1,98	232	0,40	0,695	-
	Verbal	71	15,15	2,07				

Upon examining the independent samples t-test results presented in Table 4.6., it is evident that the subscale mean scores of cognitive engagement based on major do not show a significant difference ($t_{232}=0.16$, $p>0.05$). Therefore, it is apparent that the cognitive engagement subscale means of STEM (37.93 ± 4.89) and verbal (38.04 ± 5.05) groups are similar. Similarly, the mean scores of the peer relations (Emotional Engagement-I) subscale do not show a significant difference based on the majors ($t_{232}=1.85$, $p>0.05$). Hence, it is obvious that the friendship relationships

subscale means of STEM (23.36 ± 3.47) and verbal (22.43 ± 3.80) groups are similar. Finally, it is observed that the behavioral engagement subscale means do not significantly differ based on the majors ($t_{232} = 0.40$, $p > 0.05$). Therefore, it can be concluded that the behavioral engagement subscale means of STEM (15.04 ± 1.98) and verbal (15.15 ± 2.07) groups are similar.

Table 4.7. *U-test results for relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) sub-dimension scores based on major variable*

Subscale	Variable	N	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	U	p
Relationships with the Faculty Member (Emotional Engagement- II)	STEM	163	119,33	19451,0	5488,0	0,529
	Verbal	71	113,30	8044,0		
	Majors					

When examining the U-test results of the scores for the relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) on majors, it is apparent that there is no significant difference in the mean ranks between the STEM and verbal subgroups ($U = 5488,0$, $p > 0,05$). Thus, it can be concluded that the mean ranks of students studying in STEM (119,33) and students studying in the verbal majors (113,30) are similar.

Are there any differences between the EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement and English proficiency level?

The scores obtained from the subscales of student engagement were analyzed for their distributions across the levels of English proficiency level, and the K-S/S-W test statistics, skewness-kurtosis scores, and kurtosis-skewness Z scores are presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8. *Distributions of cognitive, peer relations (emotional engagement-I), relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) and behavioral engagement sub-dimension scores based on English proficiency level variable*

Subscale	Variable	K-S/ S-W	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness Z-score	Kurtosis Z-score
Cognitive Engagement	A2	0,030	-0,39	-0,03	-1,04	-0,04
	B1	0,200	-0,15	0,20	-0,69	0,48
	B2	0,028	0,34	-0,39	1,13	-0,65
Peer relations (Emotional Engagement-I)	A2	0,017	0,16	-0,23	0,43	-0,32
	B1	<0,001	-0,09	0,20	-0,40	0,49
	B2	0,090	-0,17	-0,99	-0,57	-1,66
Relationships with the Faculty Member (Emotional Engagement- II)	A2	0,013	-0,31	-0,29	-0,84	-0,40
	B1	0,005	-0,52	-0,18	-2,46	-0,43
	B2	0,004	0,25	-1,13	0,84	-1,90
Behavioral Engagement	A2	0,003	-0,40	0,38	-1,08	0,52
	B1	<0,001	-0,11	0,54	-0,50	1,29
	B2	0,002	0,11	0,16	0,38	0,26

Considering normality as displayed in Table 4.8., the scores of the subscale of relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) for the B1 level subgroup do not meet the criteria for normality, as indicated by the significant result of the K-S test ($p=0.005$) and the skewness Z score of (-2.46). Therefore, it can be concluded that the distribution of these scores is not normal. In contrast, it can be stated that the distributions of the other subscale scores for the A2, B1, and B2 groups meet at least two criteria for normality.

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) results for the scores obtained from the subscales of cognitive engagement, peer relations (Emotional Engagement-I), and behavioral engagement, according to the proficiency level variable, are presented in Table 4.9. Additionally, the Kruskal-Wallis H test results for the scores obtained from the subscale of relationships with the faculty member, according to the English proficiency variable, are shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.9. *One-way analysis of variance results for cognitive, peer relations (emotional engagement-I) and behavioral engagement sub-dimension scores based on the English proficiency level variable*

Subscale	Variable	N	$\bar{X}$	S.S	SD	F	p	η^2
Cognitive Engagement	A2	41	38,95	4,34	2	1,80	0,168	-
	B1	130	37,44	5,02	231			
	B2	63	38,40	5,03				
Peer relations (Emotional Engage-ment)	A2	41	23,05	3,44	2	1,69	0,187	-
	B1	130	22,75	3,33	231			
	B2	63	23,76	4,11				
Behavioral Engagement	A2	41	14,98	2,12	2	0,80	0,453	-
	B1	130	14,98	1,87	231			
	B2	63	15,35	2,16				

Upon reviewing the results of the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) presented in Table 4.9., it is obvious that there is no significant difference in the mean scores of the cognitive engagement subscale among different English proficiency levels ($F_{2,231}=1.80$, $p>0.05$). Therefore, it can be asserted that the mean scores of cognitive engagement for the A2 (38.95 ± 4.34), B1 (37.44 ± 5.02), and B2 (38.40 ± 5.03) proficiency groups are similar. Similarly, no significant difference is observed in the mean scores of the peer relations (Emotional Engagement-I) subscale among different English proficiency levels ($F_{2,231}=1.69$, $p>0.05$). Thus, the mean scores of peer relations (emotional engagement-I) for the A2 (23.05 ± 3.44), B1 (22.75 ± 3.33), and B2 (23.76 ± 4.11) proficiency groups can be considered similar. Finally, there is no significant difference in the mean scores of the behavioral engagement subscale based on English proficiency levels ($F_{2,231}=0.80$, $p>0.05$). Therefore, the mean scores of behavioral engagement for the A2 (14.98 ± 2.12), B1 (14.98 ± 1.87), and B2 (15.35 ± 2.16) proficiency groups are similar.

Table 4.10. *The Kruskal- Wallis H test results for the scores of the relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) sub-dimension based on the English proficiency level*

Subscale	Variable	N	Mean rank	SD	χ^2	p
Relationships with the FacultyMember (Emotional Engagement- II)	A2	41	116,22	2	1,49	0,474
	B1	130	113,67			
	B2	63	126,25			

When the Kruskal-Wallis H test results for the scores of the relationships with the facultymember (emotional engagement- II) subscale based on English proficiency level in Table 4.10. are examined, it is evident that there is no significant difference between the mean ranks of theproficiency level subgroups ($\chi^2=1.49$, $p>0.05$). Thus, it can be asserted that the students in the A2 (116.22), B1 (113.67), and B2 (126.25) proficiency level groups have similar mean ranks.

Are there any differences between the EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement and academic achievement?

The K-S/S-W test statistics, skewness-kurtosis scores, and kurtosis-skewness Z scores forthe distributions of scores obtained from the student engagement subscales based on the academic achievement variable sublevels are presented in Table 4.11. below.

Table 4.11. *Distributions of cognitive, peer relations (emotional engagement-I), relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) and behavioral engagement sub-dimension scores based on academic achievement variable sublevels*

Subscale	Variable	K-S/ S-W	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness Z-score	Kurtosis Z-score
Cognitive Engagement	≤ 59	0,036	0,05	-1,17	0,13	-1,00
	60-69	0,200	0,04	-0,50	0,13	-1,62
	70-79	0,200	-0,39	1,66	-1,42	3,09
	≥ 80	0,200	0,12	-0,85	0,28	-1,06
Peer relations (Emotional Engagement-I)	≤ 59	0,245	0,46	0,33	1,26	-0,45
	60-69	0,002	-0,16	0,35	-0,59	0,66
	70-79	0,029	-0,05	-0,53	-0,18	-0,98
	≥ 80	0,200	-0,23	-0,09	-0,57	-0,12
Relationships with the Faculty Member (Emotional Engagement-II)	≤ 59	0,115	-0,01	-0,77	-0,02	-1,07
	60-69	0,014	-0,39	0,28	-1,47	0,53
	70-79	0,019	-0,43	-0,04	-1,60	-0,08
	≥ 80	0,052	0,06	-1,34	0,13	-1,67
Behavioral Engagement	≤ 59	0,029	-0,13	0,57	-0,35	0,80
	60-69	<0,001	0,17	0,54	0,64	1,02
	70-79	<0,001	-0,13	-0,37	-0,48	-0,69
	≥ 80	0,006	-0,45	0,46	-1,11	0,58

When examining the scores related to normality in Table 4.11., it is apparent that the distributions of scores obtained from the cognitive engagement, peer relationships, relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II), and behavioral engagement subscales meet at least two criteria for normality.

The one-way analysis of variance results for the scores obtained from the cognitive engagement, peer relationships, relationship with the faculty member, and behavioral engagement subscales in relation to the academic achievement variable are displayed in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12. One-way analysis of variance results for cognitive, peer relations (emotional engagement- I), relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) and behavioral engagement sub-dimension scores based on academic achievement variable

Subscale	Variable	N	$\bar{X}$	S.S	SD	F	p	η^2	Difference
Cognitive Engagement	$\leq 59^{(1)}$	42	32,14	4,41					
	60-69 ⁽²⁾	80	39,06	4,70	3				
	70-79 ⁽³⁾	78	38,09	4,85	229	6,63	0,001	0,08	2-1
	$\geq 80^{(4)}$	33	38,73	5,10					3-1 4-1
Peer relations (Emotional Engagement-I)	≤ 59	42	22,02	3,63					
	60-69	80	23,51	3,40	3				
	70-79	78	23,31	3,77	229	1,75	0,159	-	-
	≥ 80	33	22,90	3,43					
Relationships with the Faculty Member (Emotional Engagement-II)	$\leq 59^{(1)}$	42	38,57	6,64					
	60-69 ⁽²⁾	80	41,96	5,11	3				
	70-79 ⁽³⁾	78	42,67	5,06		6,66	<0,001	0,008	2-1
	$\geq 80^{(4)}$	33	43,30	4,73	229				3-1 4-1
Behavioral Engagement	≤ 59	42	14,60	2,14					
	60-69	80	15,40	2,03	3				
	70-79	78	14,95	1,74	229	1,70	0,169	-	-
	≥ 80	33	15,24	2,28					

In Table 4.12., the results of the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) show that the mean scores of cognitive engagement from the student engagement subscale exhibit a significant difference among the subgroups of the achievement variable ($F_{3,229}=6.63$, $p<0.05$). According to the post-hoc multiple comparison test, it is determined that the groups with achievement levels of 60-69 (39.06 ± 4.70), 70-79 (38.09 ± 4.85), and 80 and above (38.73 ± 5.10) have significantly higher mean scores of cognitive engagement compared to individuals with achievement levels of 59 and below (32.14 ± 4.41). The calculated effect size coefficient ($\eta^2=0.08$) indicates a moderate effect size. On the other hand, the mean scores of peer relations (emotional engagement-I) from the student engagement subscale do not show a significant difference among the subgroups of the achievement variable ($F_{3,229}=1.75$, $p>0.05$). Therefore, it can be concluded that the mean scores of peer relations (emotional engagement-I) are similar across different achievement levels.

Additionally, the mean scores of relationship with the faculty member from the student engagement subscale exhibit a significant difference among the subgroups of

the achievement variable ($F_{3,229}=6.66$, $p<0.05$). According to the post-hoc multiple comparison test, it is determined that the groups with achievement levels of 60-69 (41.96 ± 5.11), 70-79 (42.67 ± 5.06), and 80 and above (43.30 ± 4.73) have significantly higher mean scores of relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement-II) compared to individuals with achievement levels of 59 and below (38.57 ± 6.64). The calculated effect size coefficient ($\eta^2=0.08$) indicates a moderate effect size. Lastly, the mean scores of behavioral engagement from the student engagement subscale do not significantly differ among the subgroups of the achievement variable ($F_{3,229}=1.70$, $p>0.05$). Therefore, it can be concluded that the mean scores of behavioral engagement are similar across different achievement levels.

Figure 4.1. summarizes the quantitative findings of the current study, indicating (+) for significant differences and (-) for non-significant differences.



	COGNITIVE ENGAGEMENT	PEER RELATIONS (EMOTIONAL ENGAGEMENT 1)	RELATIONSHIPS WITH THE FACULTY MEMBER (EMOTIONAL ENGAGEMENT 2)	BEHAVIORAL ENGAGEMENT
Gender	-	-	-	+
Major	-	-	-	-
English Proficiency Level	-	-	-	-
Academic Achievement	+	-	+	-

Figure 4.1. *Summary of the quantitative findings*

4.2. Qualitative Findings

The second research question aimed to unveil the overall perceptions of the EFL students on learner engagement in TBLI. Consistent with the purpose of this question, the qualitative findings of semi-structured interviews obtained from fifteen EFL students are provided in detail below. In contrast to the variables addressed in RQ1, the findings of RQ2 were presented overall without considering the variables. The underlying reason for this is the absence of any observed difference among participants' responses related to the variables mentioned above during interviews.

What are the EFL students' overall perceptions of learner engagement in TBLI?

The participants were asked to respond to eight open-ended interview questions to address the second research question. As summarized in Figure 4.2., the eight interview questions also formed eight themes, which are as follows: (1) definition of student engagement, (2) factors influencing student engagement, (3) teachers' impact on student engagement, (4) suggestions for increasing student engagement, (5) impact of task collaboration on student engagement, (6) emotional perceptions towards in-class tasks regarding student engagement, (7) transferring the knowledge acquired from in-class tasks to different settings, and (8) role of student engagement in English language learning. These themes are illustrated in figures, and the participants' answers to each interview question are presented in tables separately.

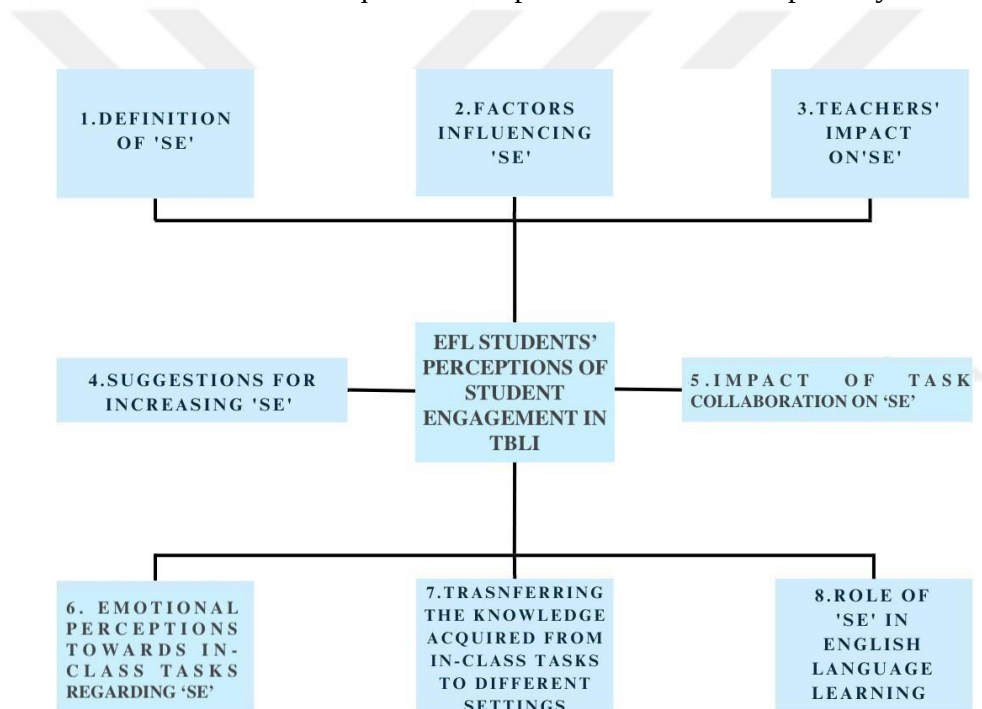


Figure 4.2. *EFL Students' Perceptions of Student Engagement in TBLI*

4.2.1. Definition of Student Engagement

The first interview question required the participants to define student engagement and explain how they engaged in class tasks. Based on the participants' responses, Figure 4.3. illustrates the sub-themes and categories, and Table 4.13. shows the frequency of the responses.

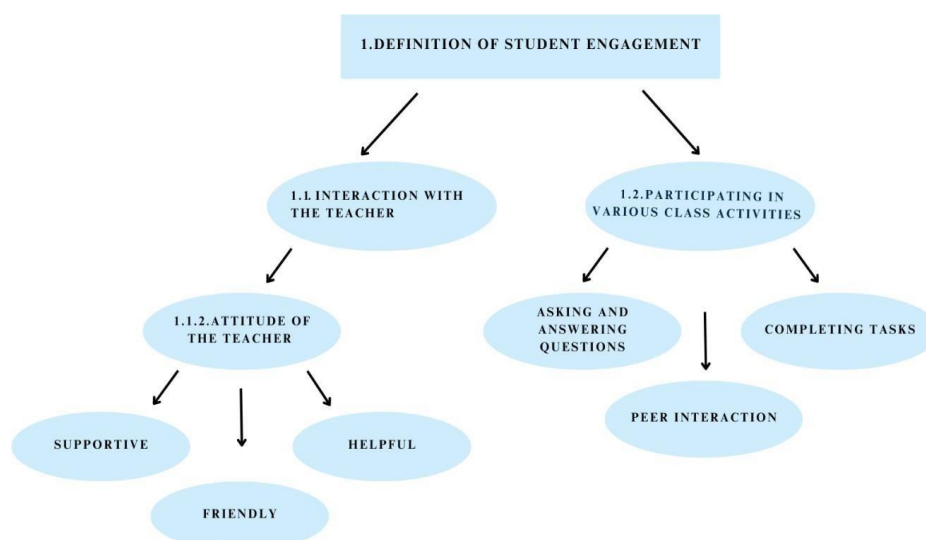


Figure 4.3. *Definition of Student Engagement*

Table 4.13. *Participants' definition of Student Engagement*

Theme	Sub-theme	Category	f
Student engagement	1.1. Interaction with the teacher 1.1.2. Attitude of the teacher	Supportive	5
		Helpful	3
		Friendly	2
	1.2. Participating in various class activities	Asking and answering questions	3
		Peer interaction	1
		Completing tasks	1

Derived from the outcomes of the thematic analysis, student engagement was defined as a concept that depended on participants' interaction with their teachers by most of the participants (n=10). They stated that a teacher's attitude had a big impact on how engaged they were. Their engagement levels varied depending on the teacher's attitude in the classroom. In other words, they were more likely to engage if the teacher had a supportive, friendly and helpful attitude, as opposed to a hostile or unapproachable one. Some of the sample excerpts are presented below.

I engage in class with the help of a supporting and monitoring teacher. (P1)

I engage in class more as I get to know my teachers, I participate if the teachers are friendly. (P7)

If I get help from my teacher, I always volunteer to engage in their classes. (P13)

Additionally, according to some participants (n=5), participating in class activities constituted being engaged in class. It can also be regarded as a means of expressing oneself in the classroom and demonstrating interest. Participants highlighted that engaging in class activities included asking and answering questions, interacting with their peers, and completing tasks, as follows:

I am a student who engages in activities. I answer the questions asked by the teachers; I try to be engaged in class by asking questions if I do not understand something. (P3)

I fulfil the tasks the teacher gives, listen to my classmates, and present my ideas clearly in the classroom. (P4)

4.2.2. Factors Influencing Student Engagement

The second interview question inquired about any positive and negative factors impacting participants' class engagement. Some students highlighted both positive and negative factors that influence their engagement, while some mentioned either positive or negative factors. Based on the participants' responses, Figure 4.4. illustrates the sub-themes and categories, and Table 4.14. shows the frequency of the responses.

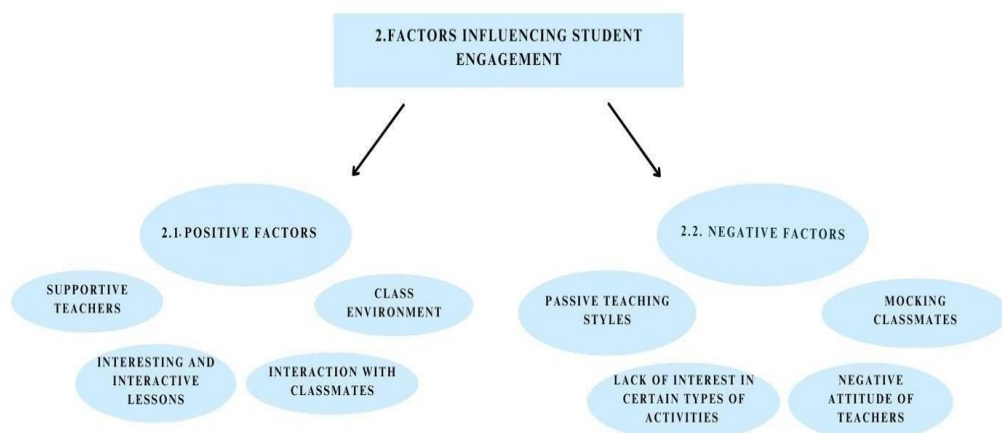


Figure 4.4. *Factors Influencing Student Engagement*

Table 4.14. *Factors influencing Student Engagement*

Theme	Sub-theme	Category	f
Factors Influencing Student Engagement	Positive factors	Supportive teachers	11
		Interesting and interactive lessons	1
		Interaction with classmates	1
		Class environment	1
	Negative factors	The negative attitude of teachers	6
		Passive teaching styles	1
		Lack of interest in certain types of activities	1
		Mocking classmates	1

A frequently highlighted positive factor in response to this question was the impact of teachers. The overwhelming majority of the students said that teachers play a substantial role in their engagement levels (n=11).

The teacher influences me. If the teacher is talking about something that catches my attention, I focus on the class. (P1)

If the teacher's approach is positive, I engage in tasks. (P5)

My teachers have a positive influence on my engagement. (P6)

A few participants (n=3) also highlighted positive factors such as interesting and interactive lessons, interaction with classmates, and a positive class environment, as follows:

Entertaining subjects promote my engagement in tasks. (P8)

Last term, our writing classes were perfect because I was having fun in the classroom with my classmates and my teacher. (P10)

A friend of mine gives me information about an interesting subject, which may catch my interest and boost my engagement. (P15)

On the other hand, some students (n=6) recalled having unpleasant encounters with particular teachers that had a detrimental impact on their engagement in class tasks. Students felt less inclined to engage when teachers did not foster a helpful and encouraging environment or seemed uninterested. Disengagement and low involvement were attributed to the negative attitudes of the teachers, as presented in the sample excerpts:

If the teacher talks about boring things and seems insincere, I don't engage in class. (P5)

If my teachers are angry with me or reprimand me, I tend to distance myself during their classes. (P8)

Passive teaching styles, lack of interest in certain types of activities and mocking classmates are also highlighted by a few participants (n=3) as negative factors.

I don't like writing classes, writing doesn't seem like a class to study at school, so I don't engage in writing activities. (P1)

Some peers mock the English pronunciation in the classroom, this did not happen to me, but some students are affected. (P13)

4.2.3. Teachers' Impact on Student Engagement

The participants were prompted to provide information on the impact of their teachers on student engagement through the third question. While some students listed both positive and negative impacts of their teachers, others focused solely on either positive or negative factors. Figure 4.5. illustrates the sub-themes and categories, and Table 4.15. shows the frequency of the responses.

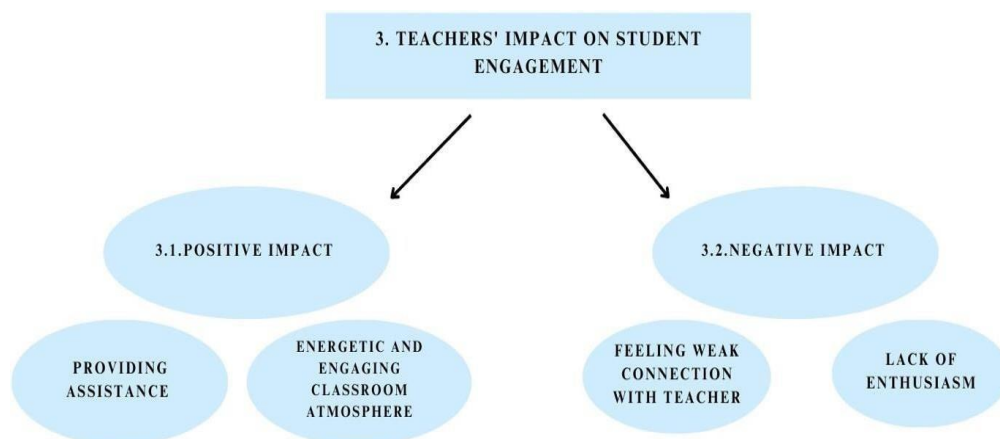


Figure 4.5. *Teachers' Impact on Student Engagement*

Table 4.15. *Teachers' impact on Student Engagement*

Theme	Sub-theme	Category	f
Teachers' impact on Student Engagement	Positive impact	Providing assistance	8
		An energetic and engaging classroom atmosphere	3
	Negative impact	Feeling a weak connection with teacher	4
		Lack of enthusiasm	3

Many students (n=11) asserted the positive impacts of their teachers as providing assistance and creating an energetic and engaging classroom atmosphere.

It is very important for the teacher to be energetic. It is very important that the teacher is active and creates a good atmosphere. (P2)

All of my teachers were trying to help me in matters that I did not understand, and this had a positive effect on my engagement in the class. (P3)

However, some students (n=7) mentioned negative impacts, such as feeling a weak connection with the teacher and lacking enthusiasm, which may lead to student disengagement.

If a teacher does not seem very sincere to me, this will affect my engagement in the class. It can reduce or increase my class performance, the way I engage, and the frequency of engagement. (P7)

I didn't come to the classes for a while because I didn't like my teachers. (P11)

I was not very satisfied with the attitude of some of the teachers because some teachers seemed reluctant to teach. (P15)

4.2.4. Suggestions for Increasing Student Engagement

For the fourth question inquiring about suggestions to teachers for increasing student engagement, participants forwarded several suggestions encompassing the use of visual aids and interactive materials, creating a positive teacher-student relationship, designing relevant and meaningful activities, and encouraging active participation and student expression. Figure 4.6. illustrates the sub-themes, and Table

4.16. shows the frequency of the responses.

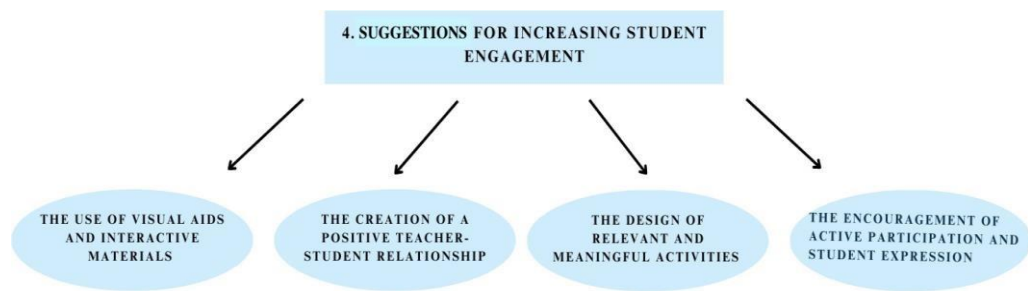


Figure 4.6. *Suggestions for Increasing Student Engagement*

Table 4.16. *Suggestions for increasing Student Engagement*

Theme	Sub-theme	f
Suggestions for increasing Student Engagement	The creation of a positive teacher-student relationship	5
	The design of relevant and meaningful activities	4
	The use of visual aids and interactive materials	3
	The encouragement of active participation and student expression	3

Inferred from the outcomes of the thematic analysis, fostering a positive teacher-student relationship based on respect and support emerged as a frequently highlighted suggestion by some participants (n=5), as follows:

If the teacher talks more with the students, creates a bond, and allows the students to express themselves without hesitation, more engagement can be achieved. (P10)

Incorporating activities and tasks that are relevant, meaningful, and practical was also highlighted by some participants (n=4) to enhance student engagement. Additionally, some participants (n=3) stressed that teachers could make the learning experience more captivating and engaging. Lastly, encouraging active participation and providing opportunities for students to express their thoughts and opinions were recognized by a few participants (n=3) as key factors for increasing engagement. The following excerpts exemplify some of the responses.

Teachers should use visual aids like charts to engage students. For example,

adding pictures during the reading classes would catch my attention. (P1)

Teachers can have more interaction with students and involve them in the lesson. They can achieve this through the beneficial activities they assign. (P9)

I think the teacher can entertain the students. Because we get bored at school, and some classes are boring, but if the teacher entertainingly presents the content, students can engage accordingly. (P12)

Games and activities can be very effective in increasing engagement. Group activities can also be used. (P14)

4.2.5. Impact of Task Collaboration on Student Engagement

The fifth question asked participants about the impact of task collaboration on their engagement. The overwhelming majority of the participants (n=14) mentioned a group of positive impacts of collaboration. Figure 4.7. displays the sub-themes, and Table 4.17. shows the frequency of the responses.

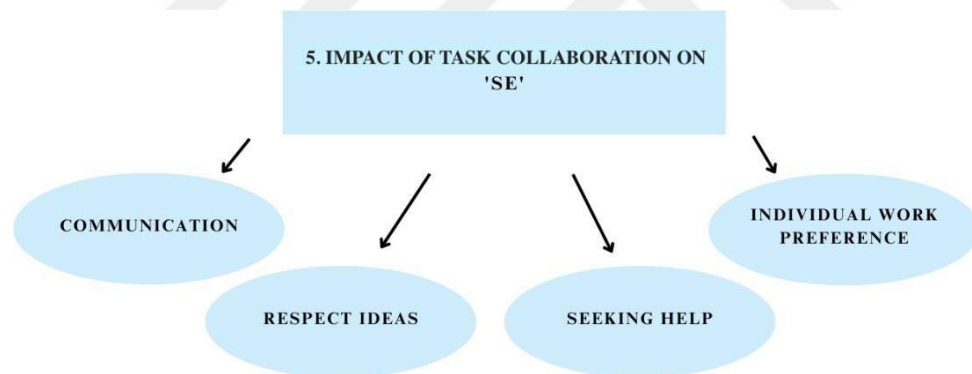


Figure 4.7. *Impact of Task Collaboration on Student Engagement*

Table 4.17. *Impact of task collaboration on Student Engagement*

Theme	Sub-theme	f
Impact of task collaboration on	Communication	7
	Seeking help	6
Student	Respect ideas	1
Engagement	Individual work preference	1

Regarding the analysis of this interview question, many participants (n=7) appreciated the communication and interaction with their classmates while engaging

in tasks.

Collaboration teaches us how to communicate with peers. (P2)

Seeking help was another perspective mentioned by some participants (n=6). They stated that seeking help while collaborating with their peers promoted their engagement and contributed to their learning. Additionally, one of them highlighted that various ideas are welcomed and respected during tasks.

We collaborate and help each other. I can ask my friends any questions without hesitation when I need help during tasks. (P7)

When collaborating on a specific task, everyone should present their ideas, and we should respect their opinions. (P10)

On the other hand, one of the students underlined that they preferred studying and engaging individually rather than collaborating with a peer on tasks. They believed collaboration didn't contribute to their level of engagement.

I don't like task collaboration. When someone else shares their ideas, I get confused. I might ask my friends about specific words, but generally, I prefer not to ask for information. I prefer doing tasks on my own. (P1)

4.2.6. Emotional Perceptions Towards In-class Tasks Regarding Student Engagement

The sixth question asked the participants to define their emotional condition during tasks. While some students highlighted both positive and negative emotions, others focused solely on either positive or negative ones. As shown in Figure 4.8., positive and negative responses with their sub-categories are presented. Table 4.18. provides the frequency of the responses to the sixth question.

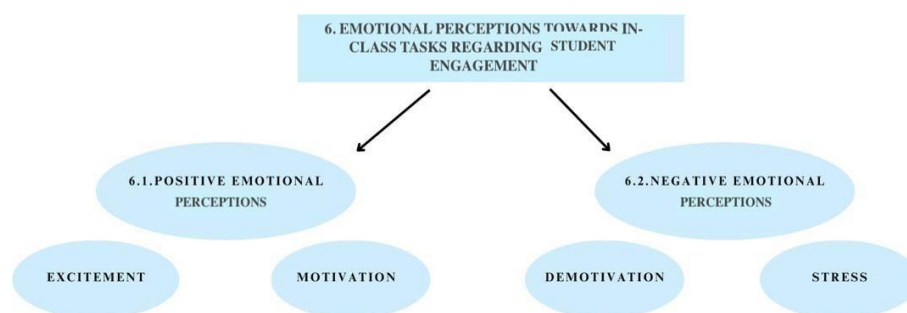


Figure 4.8. *Emotional Perceptions Towards In-class Tasks Regarding Student Engagement*

Table 4.18. *Emotional perceptions towards in-class tasks regarding Student Engagement*

Theme	Sub-theme	Category	f
Emotional perceptions towards in-class tasks regarding student engagement	Positive emotion	Excitement	7
		Motivation	4
	Negative emotions	Stress	6
		Demotivation	1

Frequently highlighted positive answers were excitement and motivation. Many students (n=11) stated that they felt excited and motivated at the beginning of a task and got more engaged because of these emotional responses. Participants also shared that fulfilling tasks had a positive impact on their emotions.

I get excited at the beginning of a task because sometimes there are tasks we've never seen before. (P10)

As I complete the tasks, I see how much progress I've made, and I feel motivated. (P2)

Negative responses, on the other hand, were stress and demotivation. Some (n=4) highlighted that these responses were mainly based on task difficulty. When they encountered a challenging task, they felt demotivated and stressed.

When I can't think of an answer or idea during a task, it lowers my motivation. (P4)

When I encounter a difficult task, I feel demotivated. For example, I don't like

speaking and listening classes, so I drift away and lose focus; I don't engage much in these classes. (P6)

4.2.7. Transferring the Knowledge Acquired from In-class Tasks to Different Settings

Participants were asked whether they were transferring the knowledge acquired while engaging in-class tasks to different settings. All answers were affirmative. Sub-themes are categorized in Figure 4.9. as (1) using knowledge in different subjects and (2) daily life and Table 4.19. shows the frequency of the responses.

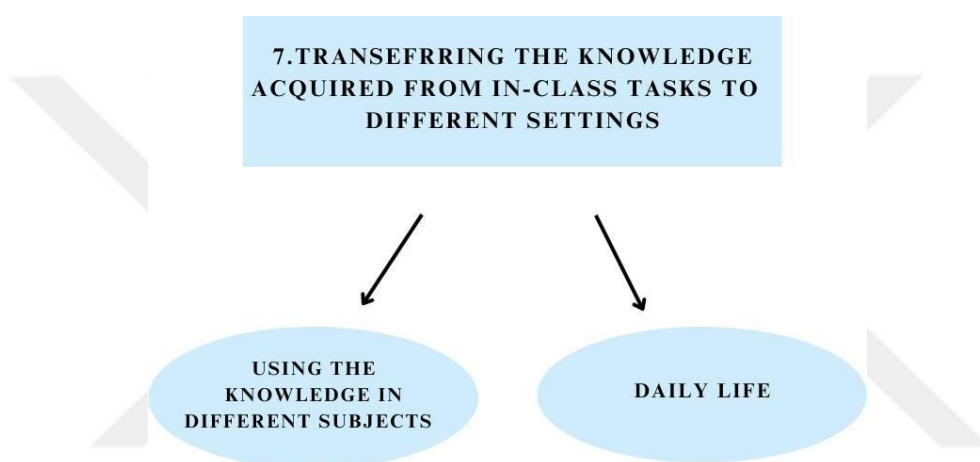


Figure 4.9. *Transferring the Knowledge Acquired from In-class Tasks to Different Settings*

Table 4.19. *Transferring the knowledge acquired from in-class tasks to different settings*

Theme	Sub-theme	f
Transferring the knowledge acquired from in-class tasks to different settings	Using the knowledge in different subjects	9
	Daily Life	6

The thematic analysis revealed that participants frequently used the information gained from in-class tasks in other skills. Participants (n=9) frequently cited sharing and transferring newly acquired vocabulary or language patterns into other main skills, such as speaking and listening. In addition, some students (n=6) mentioned that

they often incorporated knowledge beyond the academic environment and stressed that completing these tasks contributed to their general knowledge base in daily life. The following excerpts present sample responses to this question.

I use what I learned in one task in other classes. (P3)

I use it in daily life. For example, I may be conveying information to my parents at home. (13)

4.2.8. Role of Student Engagement in English Language Learning

The eighth and last question asked the participants about the role of engagement in their English language learning. All of the participants stated that the more they got engaged in-class tasks, the more they improved their English proficiency. Figure 4.10. displays three main themes that emerged based on the participants' answers : (1) improving language skills, (2) learning from peers, and (3) confidence building. Table 4.20. displays the frequency of responses.

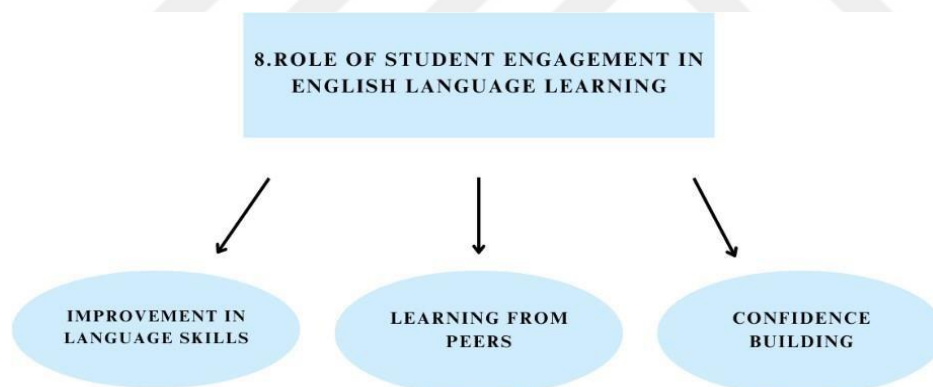


Figure 4.10. *Role of Student Engagement in English Language Learning*

Table 4.20. *Role of Student Engagement in English Language Learning*

Theme	Sub-theme	f
Role of engagement in English language learning	Improvement in language skills	10
	Learning from peers	3
	Confidence building	2

The first sub-theme revolved around many participants (n=10) mentioning their

improvement in certain skills, such as writing, listening and speaking. They highlighted that engaging in tasks helped them promote their language skills. Secondly, some (n=3) learned from their peers and improved their proficiency when engaged in tasks, especially in pair and group tasks. The third one included confidence building which a few participants (n=2) mentioned. Given the thematic analysis findings, engaging in tasks supported their overall proficiency and enhanced their confidence in English language learning, as follows:

If I were a student who didn't engage in class, I don't think I could improve my English proficiency this much. (P4)

We can learn English more easily when we get engaged in groups and pair tasks with peers. (P10)

I believe that engaging in-class tasks, particularly speaking tasks, has improved my English learning and I trust myself while speaking English. (P11)

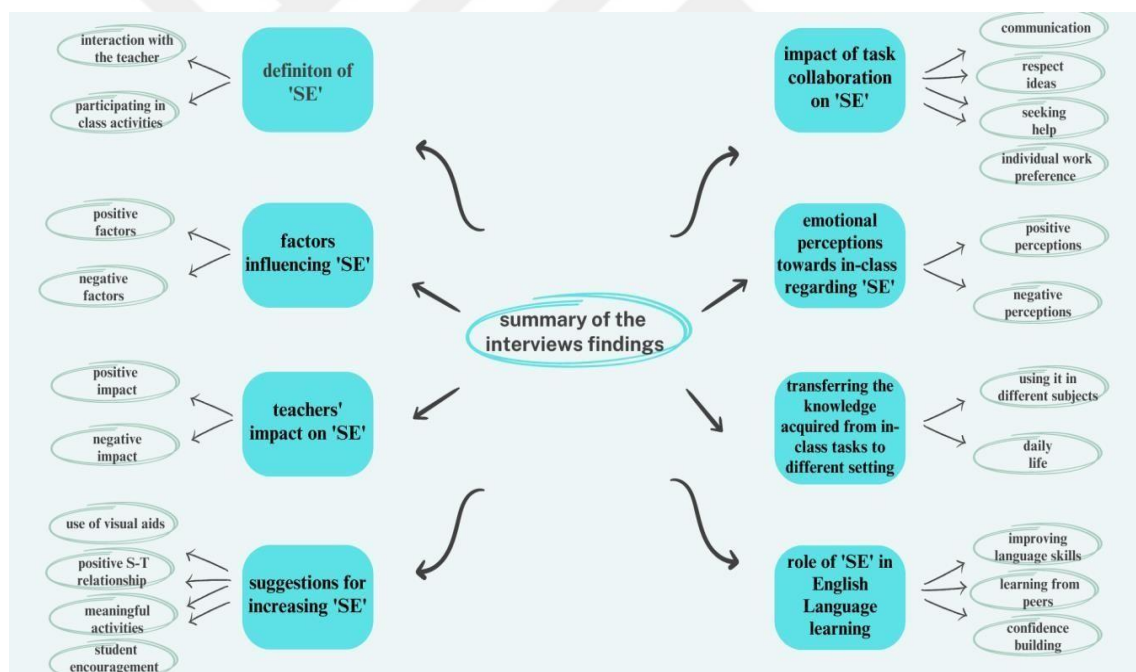


Figure 4.11. Summary of the interview findings

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter presents a comprehensive discussion of the study findings, draws conclusions based on these findings, and provides suggestions for future research.

5.1. Discussion

This study aimed to explore the EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement. The qualitative and quantitative data analysis findings were discussed in detail. To ensure a coherent framework, the discussion is structured following the order of the research questions.

5.1.1. EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement across its sub-dimensions based on gender, major, English proficiency level and academic achievement

One of the aims of the current study is to explore the EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement across its sub-dimensions based on their genders. More specifically, it is intended to explore whether gender plays a role in how EFL students perceive learner engagement. The findings in the previous chapter provide insights into the relationship between gender and various sub-dimensions of learner engagement.

Following the scale analysis, the results indicated that EFL students' perceptions did not significantly differ regarding cognitive and emotional engagement based on gender. This suggests that male and female students exhibit similar cognitive and emotional engagement levels, according to their perceptions. On the other hand, it is notable that there is a significant difference in the mean scores of the behavioral engagement subscale based on gender. In line with the students' perceptions, this significant difference suggests that female students potentially exhibit higher behavioral engagement levels than male students in TBLI. This result aligns precisely with the findings of the study conducted by Havik and Westergård (2020). On the other hand, research investigating gender differences in learner engagement has shown that no clear relationship between gender and learner engagement has emerged in the literature (Kuh, 2003; Zhao, Carini & Kuh, 2005).

Based on the gender findings of the current study, it can be justified that female students may be more inclined to actively participate, interact, and engage in visible behaviors, which could manifest as higher levels of behavioral engagement. On the other hand, male students might exhibit engagement in different ways that may not be captured by the behavioral engagement measure. Differences between male and female students could originate from social and cultural factors, which could play a role in shaping the behavioral engagement of the students. Cultural expectations regarding classroom behavior and gender roles may influence how students perceive and exhibit engagement. For example, female students may feel more encouraged or socially expected to participate in classroom activities actively.

Another primary aim of the study is to explore the relationship between the major of EFL students and their perceptions of engagement in various sub-dimension. In particular, the potential influence of different majors on student perceptions is sought regarding engagement. The scale's findings showed no significant difference regarding cognitive, emotional and behavioral engagement between the STEM and verbal majors. This suggests that both groups show similar cognitive, emotional and behavioral engagement levels. Overall, based on the insight provided by the students, these results indicate that the major is not a determinant variable in revealing the students' level of engagement across sub-dimensions. Remarkably, no previous research has explored this aspect in the relevant literature, which investigates the relationship between different majors and student engagement. Although this study finding is unique and fills a gap in the literature, it is important to highlight that no statistically significant difference was observed between the two. The absence of a significant difference suggests that there is no substantial relationship between the variables examined; however, it is important to recognize that non-significant findings contribute to the overall understanding by indicating factors that may not significantly impact the phenomenon being studied. Regarding the nonsignificance of this finding, the specific characteristics of the sample in the current study, such as the size and context, could be the reasons behind the scene. The absence of a significant difference could be specific to the current study's participants and may not necessarily reflect the entire population of STEM and verbal majors.

As another study variable, English proficiency levels categorized as A2, B1, and B2 did not show any significant difference regarding students' perceptions of cognitive, emotional and behavioral engagement, based on the study's findings. This

result shows that students' proficiency levels do not have a discernible impact on their perceptions of engagement, thus indicating that students from different majors display similar levels of engagement in each sub-dimension of learner engagement. As a potential reason, individual traits of the participants, such as learning styles, strategies or motivation, may be influential in perceiving engagement rather than English proficiency levels. How students perceive themselves and their confidence in their language skills can impact their engagement levels. Regardless of their proficiency level, students may view themselves equally capable of actively participating in cognitive, emotional, and behavioral aspects of language learning. This perception of their abilities may lead to similar perceptions of engagement across different proficiency levels.

When the relevant literature is closely examined, it is seen that these findings are not consistent with the study of Baranova et al., (2019). They found that more emotionally and cognitively engaged students were more likely to demonstrate higher levels of English proficiency. Likewise, the present findings did not align with the study findings by Huang et al. (2017). The discrepancy between the findings of Baranova et al. (2019), Huang et al. (2017) and the current study highlights the importance of continued research to explore the underlying factors that may contribute to the relationship between emotional and cognitive engagement, English proficiency, and student perceptions.

Lastly, the findings on the EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement across each sub-dimension based on their academic achievement showed that peer relations (emotional engagement-I) and behavioral engagement do not differ significantly across different academic achievement subgroups. On the other hand, relationships with the faculty member (emotional engagement- II) and cognitive engagement show significant differences, thus indicating that high achievers exhibit higher levels of cognitive and emotional engagement (relationships with the faculty member) than low achievers. Several factors could contribute to the observed differences in emotional (relations with the faculty member) and cognitive engagement based on academic achievement, with teachers playing a crucial role in shaping these engagement levels. High achievers often receive more recognition and support from their faculty members or instructors due to their academic performance. Teachers can play a significant role in this process by employing effective teaching

practices and providing personalized feedback. Teachers may also differentiate instruction to meet the diverse needs of students, offering high achievers more challenging tasks and advanced materials, which stimulates their cognitive engagement. Similarly, positive teacher-student relationships can foster higher levels of emotional engagement and facilitate cognitive engagement. High achievers often have stronger relationships with teachers, which contributes to increased engagement levels.

Since academic achievement is consistently recognized as a significant outcome of student engagement, a large body of research has been conducted to investigate the relationship between academic achievement and learner engagement across its sub-dimensions (Lei, Cui, Zhou, & Sang, 2018; Shernoff, 2010). Similar to the current study's findings, Phuntsho and Dendup (2020) identified a positive correlation between student engagement and academic achievement. Contrary to the results of the present study, the literature has a considerable amount of research indicating that student engagement does not predict academic engagement (Chen, Yang, Bear, & Zhen, 2013; Shernoff & Schmidt, 2008).

5.1.2. EFL students' overall perceptions of learner engagement in TBLI

The second research question explored the EFL students' overall perceptions of learner engagement in TBLI regardless of the study variables. In line with the students' perceptions, the findings of the semi-structured interviews centered around three remarkable themes encompassing behavioral, emotional and cognitive engagement, respectively: (1) the impact of task collaboration on learner engagement, (2) emotional responses towards in-class tasks regarding learner engagement and (3) transferring the knowledge acquired from in-class tasks to different settings.

Revealing their perceptions of behavioral engagement, the students expressed the impact of task collaboration on their engagement. The responses showed that task collaboration contributed to overall learner engagement. This finding is notable as it is a unique contribution to the existing body of research. No prior study in the available literature has specifically examined the perceptions of students on learner engagement regarding the impact of task collaboration. The impact of task collaboration on learner engagement suggests that collaborative tasks promote active participation, social interaction, and shared responsibility. When students work with

their peers, they discuss, exchange ideas, and collaboratively solve problems. This collaborative nature of tasks fosters a sense of engagement and involvement among students.

Additionally, students' emotional responses towards in-class tasks regarding learner engagement revealed their perceptions of emotional engagement. Students stated positive feelings such as enjoyment, excitement and enthusiasm when they engaged in tasks. This finding is similar to the study by Dao (2019). This finding underscores that emotional responses toward in-class tasks play a significant role in learner engagement. When students have positive emotional experiences during tasks, such as enjoyment or excitement, it enhances their emotional engagement. Tasks that elicit emotional responses are often perceived as meaningful, interesting, and relevant, leading to higher levels of engagement.

The third theme unveiled the perceptions of cognitive engagement, which involved the transfer of acquired knowledge from in-class tasks to different settings. This finding is also notable because it presents a unique perspective not explored in previous studies in the available literature. This finding proposes that when students can apply the knowledge and skills they have gained in the classroom to real-world situations or other contexts, it enhances their cognitive engagement. The ability to transfer knowledge demonstrates a deeper understanding and relevance of the learned material, leading to increased engagement.

5.2. Conclusion

According to the student's responses, one of the most significant factors shaping their perceptions of engagement was their teachers' impact. The students mostly attributed their teachers' positive features to influencing their overall classroom engagement. One of the most highlighted features was the teachers' supportive behaviors. They mainly mentioned that supportive teachers promoted students' engagement levels. This finding is entirely consistent with the results of Havik and Westergård (2020). Additionally, this finding shows similarity to the findings of the research conducted by Zepke, Leach, and Butler (2014).

The study aimed to explore EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement across its sub-dimensions based on several variables. Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches, the study provided a comprehensive understanding of EFL

students' perceptions of learner engagement in TBLI. Based on the analysis and findings presented in the previous chapter, it is evident that there are varying student perspectives on learner engagement among EFL students. Therefore, this chapter concludes in light of the outcomes of the present study.

An inference that can be drawn from the study is that student perceptions can vary when different variables are involved. This suggests that gender, major, English language proficiency and academic achievement may influence students' perception of learner engagement. While some of these variables indicate differences in students' perceptions, others do not reveal any significant difference. It is important to consider that these variations highlight the complex nature of the concept and the multifaceted factors that contribute to it. Recognizing which variables significantly impact and which do not contributes to a deeper understanding of learner engagement.

Another aspect to emphasize is the significant contribution of task collaboration on students' engagement, specifically within the context of TBLI. Based on the students' insights, this implies that when students collaborate on tasks, it enhances their overall engagement. This conclusion emphasizes the value of integrating collaborative tasks to promote learner engagement within the framework of TBLI.

Additionally, teachers' behaviors have a significant impact on students' engagement. This concludes that how teachers interact, support, and facilitate learning experiences in the classroom can influence students' overall level of engagement. Teachers who demonstrate supportive behaviors, create a positive learning environment, and provide meaningful guidance can effectively promote students' engagement.

In conclusion, exploring EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement enhanced the overall understanding of how students perceive and experience engagement in the context of TBLI, allowing educators and researchers to gain a deeper insight into the factors that influence engagement. This understanding can inform instructional practices and curriculum design to create more engaging and effective learning environments. Overall, gaining valuable insights into EFL students' perceptions of learner engagement in TBLI helps optimize teaching practices, creating more engaging learning experiences that support students' language development and overall academic success.

5.3. Limitations of the Study

As with any research study, certain limitations should be considered when interpreting the results. Despite offering needed information for the relevant literature, it is crucial to outline potential limitations that may have affected the current study's results and conclusions.

Firstly, it is essential to note that the sample size used in this study may limit the generalizability of the findings. For instance, the present study excludes beginner-level students due to insufficient beginner-level students in the school where the study is conducted. Since beginner-level students are typically beginners in the language, they may have different perceptions and experiences with student engagement concepts in task-based language instruction compared to more advanced learners. As such, excluding this group of students may limit the generalizability of the study's findings to the broader population of EFL learners. Additionally, beginners represent an essential and sizable segment of EFL learners, and their exclusion may overlook valuable insights that could inform task-based language instruction practices for this group. While efforts were made to ensure a diverse and representative sample, the study is conducted in a preparatory school of a single university in a specific location and may not represent EFL students in other settings or regions. Therefore, future studies that include beginner-level students could provide a more comprehensive understanding of student engagement in task-based language instruction across different proficiency levels.

Another limitation of the study is that it is limited to a single point in time and did not track changes in student perceptions over time. This limits the ability to draw any causal conclusions or generalize findings beyond the specific context of this study. Furthermore, this study focused on the perceptions of EFL students, which may not necessarily reflect their actual engagement or behavior in the classroom. Participants may have responded positively about their engagement to align with their perceived expectations, but their actual engagement may be lower.

Finally, this study aimed to investigate the relationship between learner engagement and some variables such as gender, major, and proficiency level. While these demographic variables are considered in relation to learner engagement, other variables may also impact learner engagement, such as motivation and learning styles. Future research could address these limitations by utilizing larger, more diverse

samples and exploring additional variables that may impact learner engagement.

5.4. Implications and Suggestions for Future Research

The study's outcomes suggest educational implications for stakeholders, researchers and policymakers. To begin with, stakeholders in the relevant field should recognize that gender may play a role in student engagement considering the current study's finding on gender variables. They can develop strategies to meet diverse genders' specific needs and preferences, promoting enhanced learner engagement. Furthermore, incorporating collaborative tasks into their instructional practices may contribute to student engagement.

Teacher training that equips teachers with the skills and knowledge to create a supportive and engaging learning environment can also be advantageous, considering the importance of teachers' behaviors in influencing student engagement. More specifically, teachers can be trained in active learning techniques encouraging student participation, critical thinking, and problem-solving. For example, it can be beneficial to train the teachers in a way that they can learn how to design and facilitate group activities where students collaborate to solve real-world problems, encouraging active engagement. To meet the needs of the new generation of learners growing up in a rapidly advancing digital era, training teachers in the effective use of technology tools and resources can also enhance student engagement in the classroom.

Researchers in the relevant field should further investigate the role of gender in engagement, focusing on the various contextual factors and variables that may influence these differences. The literature on the relationship between majors and learner engagement is also limited. Comparative studies are needed to examine the potential influence of different majors on learner engagement. Lastly, educational policymakers can integrate collaborative learning approaches and activities into the curriculum to enhance learner engagement. Providing resources and support for teacher professional development programs that enhance teacher effectiveness in promoting learner engagement can also be beneficial.

By incorporating and implementing these suggestions, stakeholders, researchers, and policymakers can contribute to optimizing teaching practices and enhancing learner engagement within the context of TBLI. This, in turn, can lead to overall improvements in EFL students' academic success and language development.

These efforts can result in more effective and engaging learning experiences, better student outcomes, and a positive impact on the educational system.



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APPENDICES

Appendix-1. The Student Engagement Scale, originally developed by Gunuc and Kuzu (2015)

Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education 593

Table 2. (Continued).

Item	References
Class engagement	
<i>Cognitive engagement</i>	
21. I motivate myself to learn	Appleton et al. (2006), Lehr et al. (2004), Sutherland (2010) Interviews
22. I determine my own learning goals	Appleton et al. (2006), Lehr et al. (2004) Interviews
23. I try to do my best during classes	Interviews
24. Besides doing my lessons, I further study for my lessons	Fredricks et al. (2003), Handelsman et al. (2005), Krause and Coates (2008)
25. What I learn in class is important for me	Appleton et al. (2006) Interviews
26. I discuss what I have learned in class with my friends out of class	Fredricks et al. (2003), Krause and Coates (2008)
27. I attend classes by getting prepared in advance	Finn (1989), Krause and Coates (2008), Newmann, Wehlage, and Lamborn (1992)
28. I try to do my homework in the best way	Appleton et al. (2006), Fredricks et al. (2003), Handelsman et al. (2005), Newmann, Wehlage, and Lamborn (1992) Interviews
29. I enjoy intellectual difficulties I encounter while learning	Appleton et al. (2006), Krause and Coates (2008)
30. I spend enough time and make enough effort to learn	Appleton et al. (2006), Finn, Pannozzo, and Achilles (2003), Handelsman et al. (2005), Lehr et al. (2004), Newmann, Wehlage, and Lamborn (1992) Interviews
<i>Emotional engagement</i>	
31. I have close friend(s) in my class.	Appleton et al. (2006), Kember, Lee, and Li (2001), Krause and Coates (2008) Interviews
32. My teachers are always near me when I need them	Appleton et al. (2006), Kember, Lee, and Li (2001), Sutherland (2010) Interviews
33. I give importance to studying together with my classmates (in a group)	Finn, Pannozzo, and Achilles (2003), Kember, Lee, and Li (2001), Krause and Coates (2008)
34. My teachers respect me as an individual	Appleton et al. (2006), Bryson and Hand (2007), Sutherland (2010) Interviews
35. I like my teachers	Interviews
36. My classmates respect my thoughts/ views	Appleton et al. (2006)
37. I think my teachers are competent in their fields	Interviews
38. I think my courses are beneficial for me	Handelsman et al. (2005) Interviews
39. I respect my classmates	Appleton et al. (2006), Fredricks, Blumenfeld, and Paris (2004), Lehr et al. (2004), Sutherland (2010), Voelkl (1996)
40. I have teachers that I can share my problems with	Appleton et al. (2006), Bryson and Hand (2007), Sutherland (2010) Interviews

(Continued)

Table 2. (Continued).

Item	References
41. My classes are entertaining	Fredricks et al. (2003), Handelsman et al. (2005), Sutherland (2010) Interviews
42. I respect my teachers	Appleton et al. (2006), Bryson, and Hand (2007), Fredricks, Blumenfeld, and Paris (2004), Lehr et al. (2004), Sutherland (2010), Voelkl (1996) Interviews
43. I am interested in my courses	Kahu (2013), Newmann, Wehlage, and Lamborn (1992)
44. My teachers show regard to my interests and needs	Appleton et al. (2006), Bryson and Hand (2007), Krause and Coates (2008) Interviews
45. I like doing something for my classmates	Appleton et al. (2006), Finn, Pannozzo, and Achilles (2003), Fredricks, Blumenfeld, and Paris (2004), Lehr et al. (2004), Sutherland (2010)
46. I feel myself as a part/member of a student group	Finn, Pannozzo, and Achilles (2003), Kahu (2013), Kember, Lee, and Li (2001) Interviews
47. I like communicating my teachers	Appleton et al. (2006), Bryson and Hand (2007), Kember, Lee, and Li (2001), Sutherland (2010) Interviews
48. I feel anxious when I don't attend classes	Willms (2003)
49. I like seeing my friends in class	Appleton et al. (2006), Kember, Lee, and Li (2001), Sutherland (2010) Interviews
<i>Behavioural engagement</i>	
50. I am an active student in class	Appleton et al. (2006), Finn (1993), Finn, Pannozzo, and Achilles (2003), Handelsman et al. (2005), Krause and Coates (2008), Lehr et al. (2004), Newmann, Wehlage, and Lamborn (1992) Interviews
51. My teachers behave fairly to all my friends	Appleton et al. (2006), Sutherland (2010) Interviews
52. I attend classes willingly	Handelsman et al. (2005), Willms (2003) Interviews
53. I carefully listen to my teacher in class	Finn (1989), Fredricks et al. (2003), Handelsman et al. (2005), Lewis (2010), Newmann, Wehlage, and Lamborn (1992) Interviews
54. My teachers interact/communicate with me	Kahu (2013), Sutherland (2010) Interviews
55. I follow the rules in class	Fredricks et al. (2003), Lewis (2010)
56. I do my homework/tasks in time	Appleton et al. (2006), Fredricks et al. (2003), Lehr et al. (2004), Lewis (2010), Newmann, Wehlage, and Lamborn (1992) Interviews
57. I carefully listen to other students in class	Appleton et al. (2006), Fredricks, Blumenfeld, and Paris (2004), Sutherland (2010) Interviews

(Continued)

Table 2. (Continued).

Item	References
58. I try to do my best regarding my responsibilities in group work	Finn, Pannozzo, and Achilles (2003), Newmann, Wehlage, and Lamborn (1992)
59. I share information with my classmates	Finn, Pannozzo, and Achilles (2003), Handelsman et al. (2005), Krause and Coates (2008) Interviews



Appendix-2. Permission from the author to use the original scale

ölçek kullanma talebi Gelen kutusu



ben 16 May

alıcı:



Merhaba Selim hocam,

Akdeniz Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi alanında Doç. Dr. Mustafa Caner danışmanlığında yüksek lisans tez çalışmalarımı sürdürmekteyim. Tez konum 'görev odaklı İngilizce öğretiminde öğrencilerin derslerdeki 'student engagement' konseptine dair algılarını ölçmek. Dolayısıyla Abdullah hoca ile 'Student engagement scale: development, reliability and validity' makalenizde geliştirmiş olduğunuz ölçeği akademik amaçlı kullanmak için sizden izin istiyorum, makale erişime açık fakat ölçekteki bazı maddelerin çıkartıldığı belirtilmiş, ölçeğinizin son halini paylaşabilirseniz çok mutlu olurum.

Şimdiden danışmanım ve kendim adına teşekkür ediyorum.

Saygılar,



Selim GÜNÜÇ 16 May

alıcı: ben



Merhaba

Ekte nihai formu yolluyorum, ilgili makaleyi de yolluyorum

İyi çalışmalar

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Gönderildi: 16 Mayıs 2023 Salı 17:40

Kime: Selim GÜNÜÇ

Konu: ölçek kullanma talebi

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Doküman

Appendix-3. Research Ethics Committee Approval

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 09.06.2023-662933



T.C.
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Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Bilimsel Araştırma ve Yayın Etiği Kurulu
KURUL KARARI



TOPLANTI TARİHİ : 08.06.2023
TOPLANTI SAYISI : 13
KARAR SAYISI : 297

Üniversitemiz Eğitim Fakültesi Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü öğretim üyesi **Doç. Dr. Mustafa CANER**'in danışmanlığını, **Ezgi UYAN**'ın araştırmacılığını üstlendiği, "*Görev Odaklı Yabancı Dil Öğretiminde Öğrenen Katılımına İlişkin Öğrenci Görüşleri*" konulu çalışmanın, fikri hukuki ve telif hakları bakımından metot ve ölçeğine ilişkin sorumluluğun başvurucuya ait olmak üzere, proje süresince uygulanmasının etik olarak **uygun olduğuna** oy birliği ile karar verilmiştir.

Prof. Dr. Hilmi DEMİRKAYA
Kurul Başkanı

Başkan
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Taner KORKUT

Üye
Prof. Dr.
Gökhan AKYÜZ

Bu belge, güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır..

Appendix-4. Google Forms link of Student Engagement scale developed by Gunuc and Kuzu (2015) (administered to the participants of the current study)

https://docs.google.com/forms/d/1kar5qeCMgzg7ENhuZQnlC5RRg1U5gcIdSbpIW_R_YmEU/edit



ÖZGEÇMİŞ

Kişisel Bilgiler

Adı Soyadı: Ezgi Uyan

Eğitim Bilgileri

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