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Motivational Strategies in Chinese University EFL Classrooms: A
Cyclical Action Research on the Development of Ideal English Self

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Abstract

Research on second language (L2) motivation, particularly within the Chinese context, frequently suffers from a lack of longitudinal designs and an oversight of cultural specificity, thus failing to capture the dynamic nature of motivation. This gap is further compounded by a scarcity of empirical validation for specific motivational strategies, especially concerning the role of the ideal English self (IES) and its capacity to explain motivational fluctuations over time. This dissertation aims to bridge these gaps by addressing the effectiveness of motivational strategies in English teaching at a Chinese university, specifically, (1) to identify the most important motivational strategies from teachers' perspectives; (2) to examine student perceptions of strategy effectiveness and their temporal dynamics, grounded in Dörnyei's (2001) process-oriented Motivational Teaching Practice (MTP) framework; (3) to determine optimal strategies to develop students' ideal English self, based on the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS; Dörnyei, 2009b); and 4) To design a two-semester pedagogical model that integrates motivational strategies into an EFL curriculum.

This mixed-methods study includes two main parts. Part 1 observed and surveyed four university EFL teachers on the 102 motivational strategies from the MTP model, analysing frequency, perceived effectiveness, and their correlations, complemented with qualitative analysis through semi-structured interviews. Part 2 was a 26-week action research study involving 90 Chinese undergraduates, which employed a multi-method approach: quantitative analysis tracked the effectiveness of motivational strategies across intervention phases, while additional measures gauged changes in student motivation. Additionally, one-way ANOVAs examined temporal effects on motivation during the intervention and the effectiveness of specific motivational activities. Qualitative coding of responses through open-ended questions and interviews provided deeper insights into student perceptions.

The findings revealed that teachers applied strategies prioritizing teacher-student relational dynamics and intrinsic engagement and adapted their strategies to contextual factors. Furthermore, based on the perceived effectiveness of commonly used motivational strategies by teachers, students prioritized strategies that contribute to supportive teacher-student relationships, emotional encouragement, and fairness in evaluation but rated strategies emphasizing external or impersonal interventions lower. Moreover, as for the effectiveness of the strategies proposed to improve the IES based on L2MSS, students prioritized activities that addressed personal barriers and self-reflection as most effective for fostering self-awareness and actionable strategies. They also believed that personalized, introspective tasks sustained engagement better than externally focused or repetitive interventions. Finally, a two-semester pedagogical model was suggested, emphasizing phased interventions focused on vision formation through workshops and the enhancement of English Learning experience (ELE), while integrating micro-goals, and hybrid assessments to balance autonomy and accountability.

This study provides empirical evidence on the adaptability of motivational theories in China's EFL context, offering insights into the interplay between teacher-led interventions and learners' IES. It advances L2MSS theory by empirically testing how self-discrepancies shape motivational changes and calls for attention to strategies, enhancing ought-to English self (OES) and ELE. The proposed pedagogical model offers educators a structured approach to fostering sustained motivation in high-stakes learning environments.

Keywords: motivation; action research (AR); motivational strategies; Motivational Teaching Practice (MTP) framework; L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS); ideal English self (IES); ought-to English self (OES); English Learning experience (ELE), EFL classrooms



摘要 (Abstract in Chinese)

当前英语（作为外语或二语）动机研究比较缺乏纵向设计，且容易忽视特定文化语境（如中国教育环境），从而忽略了动机的动态本质。此外，现有研究对具体动机策略的实证验证不足，尤其缺乏关于通过培养理想动机自我对外语学习动机作用的系统讨论。本研究旨在通过考察中国大学英语教学中动机策略的有效性来填补这些空白，具体围绕以下四个方面展开：1）探究中国 EFL 教师最常使用的关键动机策略；2）分析学生对 Dörnyei（2001）过程导向动机框架下常见动机策略有效性的评价；3）考察基于二语动机自我系统（L2MSS）（Dörnyei, 2009b）的理想英语自我提升策略在中国大学 EFL 语境中的有效性；4）开发将基于 L2MSS 的动机策略融入中国大学英语课程两个学期的教学方案。

本研究使用了混合方法，主要包含两个部分。一，基于 Dörnyei（2001）过程导向动机框架下的 102 项动机策略对四位大学 EFL 教师课堂进行观察和调查，分析动机策略的使用频率、教师认为自身对策略的使用频率和及其有效性，并通过半结构化访谈进行质性分析。二，对 90 名中国非英语专业本科生开展为期 26 周的行动研究，采用多元方法：量化分析追踪干预阶段策略有效性及学生动机变化，单因素方差分析检验干预期间动机的时间效应及特定活动的有效性，开放式问题和访谈的质性研究以深入揭示学生对动机策略的评价。

研究发现，教师多采用能提升师生互动关系和内在参与度的策略，并能根据情境因素调整策略。而学生认为最能有效促进支持性师生关系、情感激励和公平评估的策略最为重要，而对强调外部或非个人化干预的策略评价较低。在提升理想英语自我方面，学生认为解决个人障碍和自我反思的活动最有效，个性化内省型任务比聚焦外部或重复干预更能维持参与度。最后，本文提出在为期两个学期的英语教学中，可以通过工作坊分阶段培养愿景，整合具体学习目标和混合评价法以平衡学生学习的自主性与担当，同时提升英语学习体验，不断激发并维持学生的英语学习动机。

本研究丰富了二语动机理论在中国 EFL 语境适应性的实证证据，揭示了教师引导干预与学习者理想英语自我之间的相互作用。通过实证检验培养理想动机自我如何影响动机变化，推进了 L2MSS 理论发展，并呼吁关注应该英语自我和英语学习体验的提升策略。所提出的教学模式为高压力学习环境中维持动机提供了结构化方案。

关键词：动机；行动研究；动机策略；二语动机自我系统(L2MSS)；激发动机的教学实践框架(MTP)；理想英语自我；应该英语自我；英语学习体验；EFL 课堂

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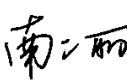
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Declaration

I declare that the work in this thesis was carried out in accordance with the regulations of the University of Nicosia. This thesis has been composed solely by myself except where stated otherwise by reference or acknowledgment. It has not been previously submitted, in whole or in part, to this or any other institution for a degree, diploma or other qualifications.

Signed ... 

Date...6 April 2026....



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Abbreviation Index

A	Activity
AR	Action Research
ATC	Attitude Toward the Course
C	Cycle
CDS	Complex Dynamic Systems
DST	Dynamic Systems Theory
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELE	English Learning experience
ESL	English as a Second Language
GMM	Growth Mixture Modeling
I	Interviewee
IES	Ideal English Self
IL2S	Ideal L2 Self
LSC	Linguistic Self-confidence
L2	Second Language
L2LE	L2 Learning Experience
L2MSS	L2 Motivational Self System
MCMS	Questionnaire on Most Common Motivational Strategies
MEMS	Questionnaire on the Most Effective Motivational Strategies
MLE	Motivation for Language Learning
MOE	Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China
MTP	Motivational Teaching Practice
NPEE	National Postgraduate Entrance Examination

OES	Ought-to English Self
OL2S	Ought-to L2 Self
P	Participant
Q	Question
QBFC	Questionnaire at the Beginning of the First Cycle
QEFC	Questionnaire at the End of the First Cycle
QESC	Questionnaire at the End of the Second Cycle
QETC	Questionnaire at the End of the Third Cycle
RM-ANOVA	Repeated Measures ANOVA
RO	Research Objective
RQ	Research Question
RQM	Retrodictive Qualitative Modelling
S	Strategy
SA	Section A
SB	Section B
SC	Section C
SD	Section D
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

Greek philosopher Plutarch (ca. 120 CE/1992) observed that education is not the filling of a pail, but the lighting of a fire. This metaphor captures the central challenge confronting English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instruction in China's tertiary education: how to move beyond knowledge transmission to ignite students' enduring motivation. This dissertation addresses the critical challenge of enhancing student motivation within this specific context. It first sought to identify the most salient motivational strategies utilized by Chinese EFL instructors; subsequently, it evaluated students' perceptions regarding the effectiveness of these commonly used strategies, employing Dörnyei's (2001) process-oriented Motivational Teaching Practice (MTP) model as an analytical lens. Furthermore, the study delved into the Second Language (L2) Motivational Self System (L2MSS) by assessing how strategies designed to fortify the learner's ideal English self (IES) were perceived. Ultimately, synthesizing these insights, the dissertation endeavoured to design and propose a coherent, two-semester pedagogical model that systematically integrates evidence-based motivational strategies into a standard university EFL curriculum, thereby contributing to both theoretical discourse and instructional praxis.

This introductory chapter establishes the framework for the doctoral study with three sections. Section 1.1 delineates the research background, identifying pervasive student demotivation as a central problem and positioning teacher-implemented motivational strategies, informed particularly by L2MSS, as the critical intervention. Section 1.2 articulates the study's specific aim to evaluate these strategies through action research, outlining four corresponding research objectives that progress from identifying and assessing strategies to designing an integrated pedagogical model. Section 1.3 provides a structural overview of the eight-chapter dissertation, which employs a mixed-methods, cyclical action research design featuring a 26-week teaching intervention, culminating in a proposed two-semester motivational framework for the college English curriculum.

1.1 Background

Amid accelerating economic globalization, the role of English as a global lingua franca has become indisputably significant (Crystal, 2003). In response, Chinese universities have increasingly emphasized the cultivation of students' global competence, defined as a multidimensional construct centered on developing foreign language skills and

cross-cultural abilities, requiring individuals to synergize relevant knowledge, attitudes, and values to interact and solve problems in globalized contexts (OECD, 2019), as part of their strategic educational objectives (Gu, 2022; Liu, 2024), firmly establishing English as a core component of the undergraduate curriculum (Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China [MOE], 2020).

Nevertheless, the current landscape of English learning among university students raises considerable concern. The proliferation of smartphones and artificial intelligence tools, while offering potential learning supports (Feng, 2025; Wei, 2023; Yang, 2024), appears to correlate with widespread declines in learner motivation (Cao & Abdullah, 2025; Li et al., 2021). Instructors across institutions frequently report a palpable lack of interest, pervasive learning burnout, and notably low levels of classroom engagement. Students often exhibit passive participation during lessons and inadequate effort outside class. Consequently, many graduate with limited lexical expansion, even failing to retain vocabulary acquired during secondary education—resulting in an overall regression of English proficiency, partly due to discontinuity between high school and university learning systems (Chen & Qi, 2025) and partly due to factors like initial learning quality, motivation, and usage (Szupica-Pyranowska, 2016).

This study investigates L2 (here specifically referring to English) learning motivation within the Chinese EFL context, where English is the primary foreign language for all participants. Motivation is widely recognized as a critical factor in second language acquisition (SLA), influencing learners' engagement, persistence, and achievement (Al-Hoorie, 2018; Dörnyei, 2005, 2020; Moskovsky et al., 2013; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012). This role is especially pivotal in EFL contexts, where learners often face more distinct motivational challenges compared to second language (ESL) environments, partly due to English's status as a compulsory subject with limited authentic use beyond the classroom (Al-Murtadha, 2025; Ye & Hu, 2025). Factors such as minimal exposure to English-speaking cultures and the pressure of high-stakes examinations further complicate sustained motivational effort (Ye & Hu, 2025).

Within culturally distinctive EFL settings such as China, the ways in which motivation is fostered and maintained are not uniform but vary significantly based on the interplay of specific teacher strategies and learner perceptions (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Howard, 2023; Qin & Wen, 2002). To capture this complexity,

theoretical frameworks such as Dörnyei's process-oriented model (2001) and the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS; Dörnyei, 2005, 2009b) offer essential analytical lenses. Yet, translating these theoretical insights into contextually grounded, pedagogically actionable strategies—those capable of genuinely enhancing English learning motivation among Chinese EFL learners—remains a critical and underexplored challenge. Addressing this gap is not only theoretically significant but also pedagogically imperative.

1.1.1 EFL Instruction in China

Within China's tertiary education context, Chinese remains the dominant language of instruction, and most English courses are taught by Chinese instructors. As it has become a global lingua franca, English has been established as a compulsory subject for non-English majors at the college level. Concurrently, Chinese universities have increasingly emphasized the cultivation of students' global competence as a strategic educational goal, in which English proficiency serves as a foundational pillar. The *Teaching Requirements of College English Curriculum* (MOE, 2020) accordingly maintains the shift toward a new pedagogical model that emphasizes student-centered learning and fosters both teacher and student engagement.

The *Requirements* (MOE, 2020) further underscore the importance of cultivating students' autonomous learning abilities, framing this shift not merely as a change in teaching methods but as a fundamental transformation in educational philosophy. This transition moves away from traditional knowledge-transmission approaches toward a model that prioritizes language application, self-directed learning, and lifelong education. To achieve these goals, instructors must adopt a facilitative role, employing motivational strategies to enhance student engagement. Research indicates that sustained motivation is critical not only for fostering autonomous learning and lifelong competency development (Aripova, 2021; Dörnyei, 2001; Gryshchenko et al., 2023; Ryan & Deci, 2020; Wang, 2002; Yip et al., 2024), but also for equipping students with the linguistic and intercultural capabilities required to participate in an increasingly interconnected world (Jiao et al., 2022; Lockiewicz, 2019; Semaan & Yamazaki, 2015). Consequently, determining how to enhance EFL learner motivation at the tertiary level—so as to align institutional policy goals with actual classroom practice—has

become a critical and pressing research priority within China's ongoing educational reforms.

1.1.2 The Significance of Affective Factors in SLA

Affective factors have been extensively investigated in L2 learning, though not as systematically or robustly as cognitive, linguistic, and social factors (Baker, 2008; Bialystok & Hakuta, 2008; Georgiou, 2023a, 2023b; He et al., 2025; Pawlak et al., 2024; Plonsky et al., 2022). Among these, motivation stands out as a key affective determinant of student engagement and achievement in L2 learning (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Kim et al., 2018a; Lasagabaster, 2011; Zare et al., 2025). SLA, as a form of human behavior, encompasses both cognitive and emotional dimensions, with the latter constituting what is known as the affective domain (Brown, 2007).

The affective domain in SLA comprises two facets: intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Intrinsic factors refer to individual personality traits that contribute to successful language acquisition, while extrinsic factors involve socio-cultural elements tied to the target language's culture (Brown, 2007). Numerous variables shape this emotional aspect of learning. Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia (1964) offer a widely accepted framework for understanding the affective domain, outlining its development as progressing from responding and receiving to valuing, organizing, and ultimately forming a personal value system.

In L2 learning, this process involves learners not only receiving the target language but also engaging with the people and contexts in which it is used. They respond to these interactions, gradually developing an appreciation for the communication experience. Emphasizing the importance of understanding learners' feelings, responses, beliefs, and values in SLA, Brown (2007) identifies nine key affective variables: self-esteem, attribution and self-efficacy, willingness to communicate, inhibition, risk-taking, anxiety, empathy, extroversion, and—most notably—motivation.

Similarly, Krashen (2009) highlights motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety as three critical filters in language acquisition, noting that motivation is widely regarded as one of the most essential variables in language learning. Dörnyei (2001, p. 5) further underscores this point, observing that students' enthusiasm, commitment, and

persistence are pivotal in determining success or failure in mastering a foreign or second language.

Motivation serves as “the initial engine to generate learning and later functions as an ongoing driving force that helps to sustain the long and usually laborious journey of acquiring a foreign language” (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007, p. 153). Without motivation, even the most gifted individuals will struggle to achieve long-term goals, regardless of the quality of the educational program or instructor. Conversely, with strong motivation, learners can overcome inherent linguistic disadvantages or suboptimal learning environments to attain their objectives (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p.72).

1.1.3 Teachers’ Crucial Influence on Students’ L2 Learning

Numerous studies (Arigita-García et al., 2021; Chambers, 1999; Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Hapsari, 2013; Taghavi & Aladini, 2018) have demonstrated that teachers are the most influential factor shaping students’ positive or negative appraisals of L2 learning. Specifically, Kaviani et al. (2020) found that among 40 university students, “students’ positive appraisals of the course are largely attributed to the teacher’s method of teaching.” Arigita-García et al. (2021), surveying 216 practicing teachers, concluded that “factors linked to the teacher are the most dominant.” With 285 Turkish EFL students, Derakhshan et al. (2023) demonstrated that teacher support, enthusiasm, and appreciation significantly influenced L2 grit through structural equation modelling (SEM). Dewaele & Li (2021) examined 2,002 Chinese EFL learners and found teacher enthusiasm correlated with student engagement, mediated by enjoyment and boredom. In contrast, Getie (2020) found teachers had negative impacts on student attitudes among 103 Ethiopian students, suggesting teacher effects are context-dependent. This body of research collectively confirms that teachers play a decisive role in shaping L2 learner motivation—for better or worse.

As teachers occupy key positions of authority in the classroom, the way they communicate with students significantly contributes to the development of students’ emotional stability. In short, almost everything teachers do in the classroom can influence students’ motivation. Dörnyei (2001) whereby suggests that teachers should be aware that motivational strategies used by teachers in classrooms can have a profound effect on learners’ acquisition. Teachers should adopt techniques in L2 teaching to trigger, promote, and protect students’ motivations. In China, scholars have

increasingly called for a pedagogical shift in College English teaching—from a predominant focus on instructional methods toward a deliberate emphasis on how to motivate students. Fang (2012) articulated this emerging requirement, noting that the central concern of educators should move beyond “how to teach” to “how to motivate.” This shift has also been embedded within national policy frameworks. The 2015 revision of China’s national university English curriculum explicitly identifies fostering student engagement as a core objective, thereby signaling institutional recognition of motivation’s centrality in EFL instruction (Peng, 2021). Empirical studies further underscore the significance of this motivational turn. Li et al. (2022) demonstrated that cultivating a motivational climate—encompassing empowerment, perceived usefulness, success experiences, and interest—directly predicts student achievement in Chinese college English courses. Similarly, Chen (2022) and Lee and Lin (2022) explicitly recommended that motivational teaching methods be systematically applied in English classrooms.

Despite this growing consensus on the importance of motivating learners, evidence suggests that the transition from traditional teaching paradigms to motivation-oriented practice remains incomplete. Yang et al. (2021) found that Chinese ESP teachers experience notable tensions between their espoused beliefs about motivation and their actual classroom practices, indicating that the intended shift has yet to be fully realized at the implementation level. The gap between theoretical recognition and practical execution underscores the need for further investigation into how teachers can effectively translate motivational principles into classroom practice—a question that lies at the heart of the present study.

1.1.4 Demotivation and Teacher-related Factors

While motivation serves as the driving force behind learning behaviors, its counterpart—demotivation—warrants equal attention in second language acquisition research. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, p 139) conceptualize demotivation as an external force that diminishes learners’ motivation, distinguishing it from amotivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985), which stems from internal feelings of incompetence. Amotivation, rooted in Self-Determination Theory (SDT), refers to the state of apathy/indifference where individuals perceive no contingency between their actions and desired outcomes, resulting in passivity or disengagement (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Their later work (Dörnyei

& Ushioda, 2021, p. 140) refines the definition of demotivation to emphasize the dynamic interplay between external and internal factors in the demotivation process, with Gearing (2023) further clarifying that demotivation functions as a specific trigger leading to amotivation. In essence, amotivation denotes a complete absence of intention to act, whereas demotivation refers to an external force that diminishes one's existing motivation. The current study focuses specifically on external demotivators to complement existing research on motivational factors.

Teacher behaviors and teaching quality are consistently identified as central demotivators in ESL/EFL contexts across multiple countries, with empirical evidence from thousands of participants demonstrating their substantial impact on student demotivation. The empirical study of demotivation originated with Gorham and Christopher's (1992) mixed-methods investigation of 2,404 motivators and demotivators from 308 Iranian undergraduates, finding that teacher behaviors accounted for approximately 44% of both motivators and demotivators, negative teacher behaviors were perceived as more central to students' demotivation (i.e., were listed without prompting) than positive teacher behaviors were perceived as central to motivation. Teacher-related demotivators encompassed a range of instructional and interpersonal behaviors, including lack of enthusiasm, disorganization, unfairness, and negative feedback patterns. This foundational work established teacher-related factors as particularly influential in student demotivation, a finding that has been consistently replicated across subsequent studies.

Chambers (1993) further contributed to this line of research by revealing, through comparative analysis, a marked discrepancy between teacher and student perceptions: educators tended to attribute motivational decline to student-related factors, whereas learners predominantly identified teaching quality and classroom conditions as primary demotivators. Oxford's (1998, 2001) large-scale studies identified four key teacher-related demotivators: poor teacher-student rapport, lack of instructor enthusiasm, undesirable personality traits, and ineffective classroom activities. These findings were corroborated by cross-cultural research (Dörnyei, 1998; Ushioda, 1998), with teacher-related factors consistently emerging as the most significant demotivators across different educational contexts.

More recent investigations continued to emphasize the central role of teaching quality in student motivation. Kim and Seo (2012) surveyed 6,301 Korean elementary students and 17 teachers, identified mismatches with student needs, teacher impatience, disinterest in both teaching and students as primary demotivators. Afrough et al. (2014), employing interviews and surveys with Iranian high school teachers and students, found that inadequate teacher competence and performance, lack of technological facilities, insufficient teaching materials, unfavourable classroom environments, and limited speaking practice opportunities demotivated students. Alharbi and Saaty (2022) identified five demotivating teaching practices in Saudi secondary schools: teacher-centered teaching, excessive Arabic use, teacher lack of motivation, insufficient feedback, and excessive strictness. Paziresh et al. (2022) surveying 300 Iranian high school students, reported that demotivation was attributed to teachers' lack of knowledge, lack of immediate behaviour, lack of familiarity with students' needs and subject matter, and teachers' use of the first language. Chong et al. (2019) and Ojong (2024) confirmed that inappropriate teaching styles, attitudes, and poor teaching quality are consistently cited as key demotivation factors across L2 contexts. Bo (2024) drawing on mixed-methods data from 100 students and 15 teachers, found that teacher-related demotivating factors in speaking activities included inauthentic tasks, lack of model speaking, absence of error correction, unequal attention, and insensitive feedback. Kim (2018), through interviews with 23 students and 9 teachers, identified teachers' unclear delivery, excessive afterschool private tutoring, and impractical grammar-focused lessons as key demotivators. Collectively, this body of research suggests that while teachers hold significant potential to motivate learners, they may inadvertently become primary sources of demotivation when pedagogical practices are suboptimal.

Within Chinese EFL contexts, teacher-related factors, particularly teaching quality and instructor behaviors, have been confirmed as predominant demotivators, supported by substantial empirical evidence. Tang and Hu (2022) surveyed 428 Chinese university students and found that teachers' discouraging attitudes and teaching approaches significantly predicted student demotivation. Zhang (2007) in a cross-cultural study among China, Germany, Japan, and the United States, demonstrated that teacher incompetence explained 8–39% of variance in student demotivation, with incompetence being the greatest source across cultures. Among the top five teacher

misbehaviors were boring lectures, and indolent teacher misbehaviors, information overload. Zhou (2012) conducted a mixed-methods investigation with 77 EFL learners from China and Japan, examining the influence intensity of four demotivators: teachers, learning contexts, language culture background, and learners. The findings revealed that teacher behaviors were identified as a demotivator, with significant differences in intensity ranking between Chinese and Japanese EFL learners. Same year, Zhou and Wang examined students' demotivated behaviors and the correlated factors through a questionnaire survey and interviews with 766 university EFL learners. Their findings revealed that teacher incompetence and teaching style were among the most influential demotivators. Gao et al. (2022) identified teacher knowledge and responsibility as key demotivating factors among 55-item scale items for senior high school students. The study developed a 28-item scale with six-dimensional construct through exploratory factor analysis to describe the factors leading to English learners' demotivation. Teachers are suggested being more dedicated to teaching and students, ensuring their identities and integrating in-class and extracurricular activities to intrigue students, integrating modern technology, enhancing lecture interest. Yuan (2025) examining 335 business English majors in China, confirmed that teachers as a primary demotivating factor with dynamic effects across academic years besides other factors of aptitudes, learning materials, learning strategies and environments. Li (2021), drawing on qualitative evidence from 14 Chinese EFL learners, demonstrated that demotivation arose from contradictory mediational factors including subject-mediated, rule-mediated, community-mediated, tool-mediated, and labour-of-division-mediated factors, where teacher-related elements were prominently involved.

These findings collectively establish teacher-related demotivators as central to understanding EFL demotivation in Chinese educational contexts. More broadly, the reviewed literature confirms that demotivation remains a persistent challenge across EFL learning environments worldwide. The tendency of students to attribute motivational decline to external factors, particularly teaching quality has been well documented (Gorham & Christophel, 1992). This pattern underscores the critical influence educators wield over classroom motivation. Notably, many teachers report difficulty in effectively motivating students (Daniels, 1994; Matteson et al., 2011; Tobgay, 2021; Veenman, 1984). Eggleton (1992) emphasized that motivating students is not a simple or one-step process, highlighting the complexity teachers face. The

research confirms that teachers do indeed struggle significantly with effectively motivating students, with multiple studies documenting specific challenges, suggesting a need for more research on practical motivational strategies. This study seeks to address this gap by exploring concrete techniques teachers can employ to enhance student motivation in EFL classrooms.

1.1.5 Theoretical Framework for the Present Research: Motivational Strategies

The concept of motivational strategies gained prominence during the 1990s (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008) and has since been defined as deliberate pedagogical interventions designed to produce systematic and lasting motivational outcomes (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 28). Hardré et al. (2008, p. 21) further specified these strategies as concrete practices, actions, and interpersonal approaches that teachers employ to foster student motivation, manifested through increased effort and classroom participation, while simultaneously strengthening learners' self-efficacy beliefs and academic performance. In essence, motivational strategies refer to instructional techniques designed to stimulate, maintain, and protect learner engagement (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). These strategies typically address three key phases identified by Williams and Burden (1997): awareness of learning needs, decision to act, and sustained effort, a framework later expanded by Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) into pre-actional (goal-setting), actional (implementation), and post-actional (reflection) stages. Across these conceptualizations, scholars recognize the dual importance of both initiating and sustaining motivation. Through such intentional practices, educators cultivate goal-oriented behaviors in their students, with mounting evidence suggesting that appropriately implemented TMSs yield considerable pedagogical advantages. The potential of these approaches has prompted extensive scholarly investigation into the specific techniques teachers can deploy to initiate and sustain intrinsic motivation (Dörnyei, 2001; Ellis, 2005).

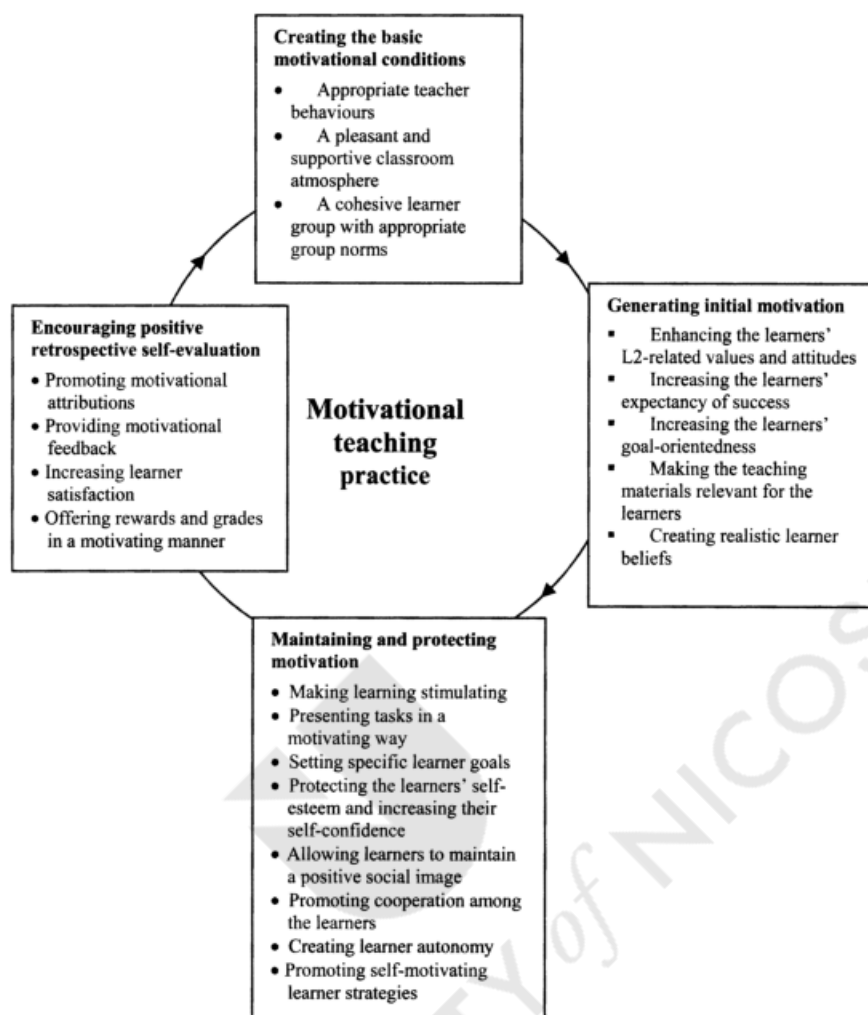
Responding to Gardner and Tremblay's (1994) call for empirical validation of pedagogical approaches, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) conducted a landmark study with 200 Hungarian English teachers, generating the widely cited "Ten Commandments for Motivating Language Learners." Through questionnaire-based data collection and statistical analysis, they identified ten macro-strategies ranked by perceived importance:

setting a personal example with one's own behavior; creating a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom; presenting tasks properly; developing a good relationship with learners; increasing learners' linguistic self-confidence; making language classes interesting; promoting learner autonomy; personalizing the learning process; increasing learners' goal-orientedness; and familiarizing learners with target language culture. This study established the foundational proposition that teachers' classroom behavior constitutes the most significant determinant of learner motivation, a finding that has guided subsequent research trajectories. The methodological approach of soliciting teacher perceptions of strategy importance sets a precedent for numerous follow-up investigations across diverse cultural contexts.

Building on these empirical foundations, Dörnyei (2001) developed a more comprehensive and systematic framework that organizes 102 motivational techniques according to the temporal progression of motivation. The framework structures these strategies into four sequential stages: establishing motivational foundations, generating initial motivation, sustaining motivation, and facilitating reflective evaluation. Each stage encompasses both macro-strategies and corresponding micro-strategies that teachers can deliberately employ to influence learners' motivational states throughout the learning process (see Figure 1.1). This process-oriented motivational teaching practice (MTP) framework recognizes that motivation is not a static trait but rather a dynamic phenomenon that evolves across the learning experience, requiring teachers to adapt their strategic approaches accordingly. Grounded in empirical research and praised for its comprehensive and systematic design, Dörnyei's (2001) MTP has served as a foundational theoretical framework in numerous studies (Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012, p. 573), informing numerous empirical investigations across diverse EFL contexts (e.g., Lee & Lin, 2022; Maharsi et al., 2025; Moskovsky et al., 2013; Wong, 2014; Zhuo & Zin, 2025).

While alternative conceptualizations exist (Wong, 2014), Dörnyei's MTP framework has demonstrated enduring influence, likely attributable to its dynamic conceptualization of motivation and practical applicability. Its comprehensive and systematic nature, contrasting with less theoretically grounded or reward-punishment oriented alternatives (Wong, 2014), makes it a particularly suitable theoretical lens for the present study.

Figure 1.1: The Components of Motivational Teaching Practice Model in the L2 Classroom (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 29)



Despite its strengths in accounting for motivational fluctuations and contextual influences, the MTP framework exhibits inherent limitations. Its process-oriented structure presupposes discrete, linearly identifiable action phases—an assumption that becomes problematic given the concurrent occurrence of motivational stages and strategy implementation, which inevitably generates complex interactive effects (Dörnyei, 2009c). These complexities necessitate a multidimensional approach capable of capturing not only behavioral processes but also the internal self-conceptualizations that underpin learners' motivational orientations. This recognition prompted a significant theoretical advancement at the turn of the 21st century: the applied pedagogical integration of self-dimensions into L2 motivation research through Dörnyei's (2005, 2009b) L2MSS.

Drawing on Higgins' (1987) self-discrepancy theory, the L2MSS framework (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009b) comprises three core components: (a) ideal L2 self (IL2S), representing aspirational language identity (e.g., I hope to experience life in another country without struggling with the language, all because my English skills are strong.); (b) ought-to L2 self (OL2S), reflecting externally imposed expectations (e.g., I need to study English to get the credits I need to graduate.); and (c) L2 learning experience (L2LE), meaning learners' attitudes towards immediate contextual factors such as teachers, curriculum, resources, classroom climate, and fellow learners. L2LE captures how learners feel about their actual, present-moment encounters with language learning. This model posits that motivation derives from learners' efforts to reconcile their actual and potential selves (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009), with empirical evidence supporting its predictive validity (Brady, 2019; Mackay, 2016). By foregrounding learners' self-conceptualizations rather than discrete behavioral phases, the L2MSS offers a complementary perspective that addresses the temporal and contextual complexities inadequately captured by process-oriented frameworks alone.

A key premise of this study concerns the operationalization of the L2LE. Among the three L2MSS components, the L2LE has received the least theoretical attention despite being a powerful predictor of motivated learning behavior in numerous empirical studies (Brady, 2019; Csizér & Kormos, 2009). Dörnyei (2019) himself described it as the "Cinderella" of the L2MSS, noting its relative neglect in the literature. To address this gap, the present study operationalizes L2LE through two measurable constructs: Attitudes Toward the Course (ATC) and Linguistic Self-Confidence (LSC). ATC captures learners' evaluative responses to the language course, its content, and instructional delivery, reflecting the situated quality of their classroom engagement. LSC, defined as learners' self-perceived competence and belief in their ability to successfully use the L2, emerges from accumulated learning experiences and directly influences willingness to engage in future learning tasks. Together, ATC and LSC constitute complementary dimensions of the L2LE: the former representing learners' appraisals of the learning environment, the latter representing internalized affective outcomes of those experiences.

The motivational power of the L2MSS lies in its emphasis on vision—the capacity to generate vivid, personalized images of one's desired future self (Dörnyei, 2009b). Through detailed self-relevant imagery, learners can develop a more tangible and

emotionally engaging IES, thereby strengthening their motivational commitment. However, empirical evidence indicates that such future self-guides function as effective motivators only when specific psychological conditions are met (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014). Translating these theoretical insights into actionable pedagogical practices—particularly regarding how research findings can inform instructional strategies—remains an area requiring further theoretical refinement and empirical investigation.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) systematically explored this issue in *Teaching and Researching Motivation*, offering numerous classroom-applicable motivational strategies, while Hadfield and Dörnyei (2014) expanded this work in *Motivating Learning* by proposing a six-component framework to operationalize future self-guides. First, *Creating the Vision* involves guiding students to develop an English-specific ideal self by helping them identify past aspirations and exposing them to relevant role models. Second, *Enhancing the IES* draws on psychological and educational research to strengthen self-imagery through guided visualization techniques. Third, *Substantiating the Vision* requires a realistic assessment of potential obstacles to build students' confidence in achieving their English goals. Fourth, *Implementing the Vision* translates these aspirations into concrete action plans and learning strategies. Fifth, *Keeping the Vision Alive* entails regular classroom reminders and activities to sustain motivation over time. Finally, *Counterbalancing the Vision* introduces the concept of a feared-self—highlighting the consequences of English incompetence—to reinforce commitment (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014, p. 6). This framework bridges theoretical constructs with practical interventions, though further research is needed to optimize its implementation across diverse learning contexts.

Hadfield & Dörnyei added a seventh component to the program—*Unifying the Vision* (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014, p. 8). Ought-to self needs to be aligned with the ideal self in order to be productive. That is, when our mind and our heart pull us in the same direction, that can be motivating.

The order of the components is not designed to reflect a practical teaching sequence. Hadfield & Dörnyei (2014) made some sequencing decisions to guide teaching practice to achieve a logical flow of the steps. The classroom motivational process begins with *Creating an Initial Vision*, which undergoes *Reality Checks* to ensure the envisioned

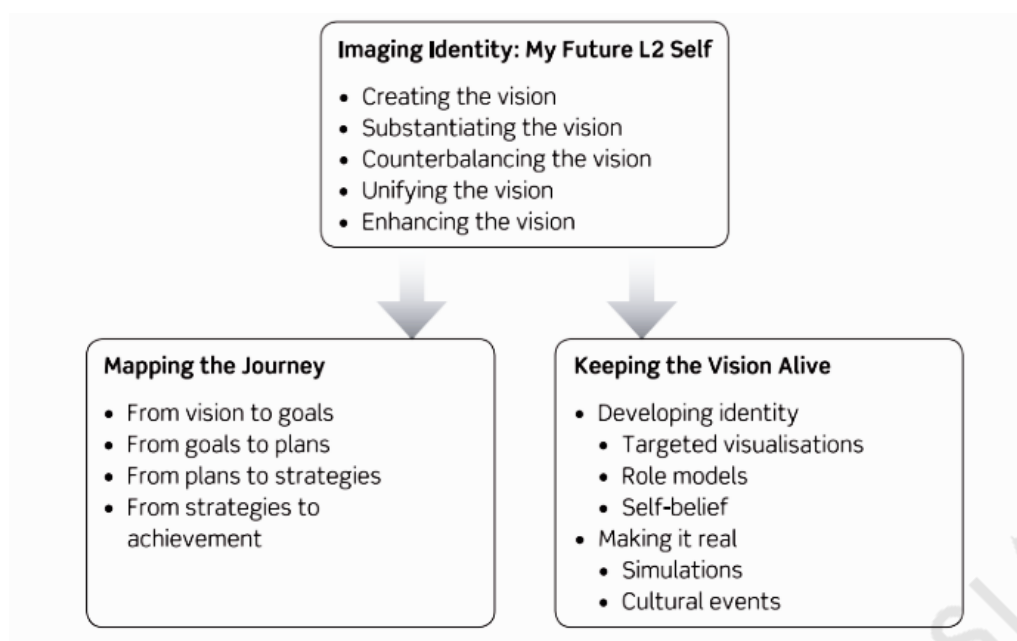
IES remains plausible. Additional self-guides—the feared-self and the ought-to self—are then introduced to strengthen motivational drive, followed by Refinement of the Vision to better align with real-life and classroom contexts. Once these preparatory steps are completed, two parallel processes commence: Mapping the Journey, which involves operationalizing the vision through concrete action plans for achieving self-guides, and Keeping the Vision Alive, entailing the organization of engaging classroom activities to activate the ideal self (see Figure 1.2 below). To bridge English motivation research with practical pedagogy, Hadfield and Dörnyei (2014) proposed diverse hands-on classroom activities (e.g. Activity 3, My Ideal Self. Students can be asked to write their ideal self visions. p. 21) and provide guidance on incorporating them into L2 syllabi.

The preceding review establishes the MTP framework (Dörnyei, 2001) as a comprehensive taxonomy organizing motivational strategies across four temporal phases, widely adopted as a theoretical framework in EFL contexts (Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012). While the MTP effectively captures strategy implementation dynamics, its linear phase assumptions necessitate complementation by the L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009b), which foregrounds learners' internal self-conceptualizations—IL2S, OL2S, and L2LE—as the psychological foundations underlying motivational responses. Together, these frameworks address both the strategic practices teachers employ and the learner identities that render such practices meaningful. The present study therefore integrates MTP and L2MSS to examine how motivational strategies function within Chinese tertiary EFL contexts, responding to calls for context-sensitive adaptation of motivational frameworks (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Wong, 2014) while acknowledging the need for methodological approaches capable of capturing dynamic motivational processes (Mahmoodi & Yousefi, 2022).

1.1.6 Empirical Studies on L2 Motivational Strategies and Their Limitations

Research on L2 motivational strategies has produced significant empirical findings across diverse cultural contexts (e.g., Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Lee & Lin, 2022; Ye & Hu, 2026) and established a robust foundation for

Figure 1.2: Schematic Illustration of the Sequencing of the Motivational Program (Hadfield & Dörnyei 2014, P. 9)



investigating motivational strategies. The investigation of the most important motivational strategies in EFL contexts reveals a rich yet fragmented research landscape. Foundational studies, such as Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), established core frameworks, while subsequent cross-cultural validations by Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) and Wong (2014) demonstrated both universal principles and profound cultural specificities. For instance, while teacher enthusiasm and rapport-building are widely endorsed, the importance of autonomy support or avoiding face-threatening acts varies significantly between Western and Asian contexts (Wong, 2014). This cultural contingency is further underscored by Rao (1996) and Hu (2002), who link Chinese teachers' strategy preferences to deep-rooted Confucian values emphasizing teacher authority, effort, and examination success.

Despite these contributions, however, the literature exhibits several methodological gaps that constrain a comprehensive understanding of motivational strategy use. Existing research predominantly relies on single-method approaches, primarily questionnaires or interviews, which limits the depth and triangulation of findings. Studies like those by Sam (2021) and Mauludin et al. (2023) provide valuable perceptual data but are constrained by their reliance on self-reports and descriptive statistics. While exceptions such as Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) use of the MOLT observation scheme and Wong's (2014) mixed-methods design incorporating

classroom observations demonstrate the value of methodological triangulation, these remain uncommon. Furthermore, the temporal dimension of motivation is critically underexplored. Most research, including the large-scale surveys of Ye and Hu (2026), captures motivational phenomena at a single point, offering a static snapshot rather than illuminating the dynamic fluctuations and long-term sustainability of strategy effects. The few studies that adopt longitudinal or quasi-experimental designs, such as Chen et al. (2019) or Maharsi and Khotimah (2025), are often limited by short intervention periods or single-cycle action research, failing to capture the evolving nature of teacher-student motivational interactions.

Culturally, while studies from diverse Asian contexts (e.g., Guilloteaux, 2013; Sugita & Takeuchi, 2010) offer comparative insights, systematic examination of non-English major university teachers' motivational strategies in mainland China remains surprisingly limited. Chinese tertiary EFL contexts present distinctive characteristics: large class sizes, students transitioning from highly structured secondary education, examination pressures like the College English Test (CET), and institutional expectations regarding teaching standardization (Fang, 2012). How these unique factors shape teachers' strategy selection and students' perceptions requires focused investigation, as recent international research highlights the profound impact of such contextual factors—resources, training, class size, and institutional constraints—on strategy implementation (Elisathusilawani et al., 2025; Maharsi & Khotimah, 2025). Grounded in Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) framework, Nguyen and Tran (2025) contributed to this contextual understanding through a mixed-methods study at a Vietnamese vocational school (see more in Section 2.6). Their findings revealed strong teacher-student alignment on valuing supportive behavior, effort recognition, and positive feedback, while students particularly prioritized emotional support and structured confidence-building activities. Strategies involving fantasy or high difficulty were consistently less favored.

Xiang et al. (2021) extended this line of vocational education research to the Chinese context through a rigorous mixed-method design combining survey and quasi-experimental approaches. Through questionnaires and interviews with 400 students and 40 teachers at a southern Chinese vocational college, they identified ten most effective motivational strategies—including teacher enthusiasm, rapport building, positive feedback, and group activities—that align closely with both the foundational

frameworks established by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) and the vocational context findings of Nguyen and Tran (2025). Critically, a 10-week quasi-experiment with 99 students (experimental/control classes) verified these strategies' effectiveness through pre-post tests and motivational intensity measurements, revealing significant improvements in both English proficiency (mean difference=9.14) and motivational intensity in the experimental class. This study makes several important contributions: it provides empirical validation that strategies identified through perceptual surveys actually produce measurable learning outcomes; it demonstrates the applicability of motivational strategy frameworks to China's distinctive higher vocational context, where students often exhibit low academic self-efficacy and predominantly instrumental orientations; and it methodologically advances the field by combining identification-phase surveys with experimental verification—a design that addresses the common disconnect between what teachers perceive as important and what demonstrably works in practice.

Finally, the rapid integration of educational technology presents both new challenges and opportunities that remain largely unaddressed in the motivational strategy literature. The COVID-19 pandemic has accelerated the shift towards blended and online learning, fundamentally altering the teacher-learner dynamics upon which many traditional strategies are predicated. While studies like Elisathusilawani et al. (2025) note the use of technology, there is a lack of systematic research examining how motivational strategies must be adapted for digital environments, how technology itself can serve as a motivational tool, or how to sustain student motivation in increasingly autonomous, technology-mediated learning contexts. This gap is particularly pressing given the AI revolution, which promises to reshape educational landscapes in unprecedented ways (Brown & Lee, 2025; Savvidou, 2026), yet its motivational implications for teacher practices remain uncharted.

Recent methodological advances have strengthened empirical validation. Experimental and quasi-experimental research confirms that structured interventions like MTP can yield significant positive effects on L2 motivation, positive L2 self, and classroom engagement (Zhuo & Zin, 2025; Moskovsky et al., 2013). However, Min and Chon (2021) caution that such outcomes are mediated by learner perceptions and contextual factors, revealing critical discrepancies between teacher-reported strategy use and student reception, with only attention-getting and confidence-building strategies

significantly predicting L2 proficiency. This context-dependence is further underscored by research demonstrating that strategy effectiveness varies by proficiency level (Sugita & Takeuchi, 2010), that teacher-student dynamics are bidirectional with engagement shaping subsequent teacher practices (Zhou et al., 2023), and that conceptual adaptations must be guided by learners' characteristics and needs (Raharja & Ashadi, 2019). Salsabila (2024) further points to an evolving paradigm where technology serves as a powerful, autonomous motivational tool, though such findings remain preliminary.

Despite these advances, several persistent limitations warrant consideration. Most studies rely on self-report data, vulnerable to social desirability and recall bias, underscoring the need for direct behavioral measures such as classroom observations or learning analytics. The brief intervention periods characteristic of experimental research (e.g., Zhuo & Zin, 2025; Moskovsky et al., 2013) highlight the necessity of extended longitudinal designs to capture the sustainability of motivational gains and evolving teacher-student perceptions over time—a need intensified by the shift to online instruction, which has fundamentally altered teacher-learner dynamics. Furthermore, the field lacks systematic investigation of technology-mediated motivation in AI-enhanced learning environments, and the reciprocal dynamics between teacher practices and student engagement warrant further exploration.

Recent work has increasingly incorporated L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2009b) as a theoretical framework for investigating motivational strategies. Liu's (2010) quasi-experimental study with Chinese university freshmen revealed "time-lag" effects in motivation-proficiency relationships, demonstrating that higher-proficiency learners exhibited delayed motivational responses to self-based interventions. Magid and Chan (2012) further demonstrated that imagery interventions could successfully enhance learners' IL2S, motivation, and linguistic self-confidence across two distinct programme formats in England and Hong Kong. Ye and Hu (2025) extended this line of inquiry through a 10-week quasi-experimental study with 391 Chinese junior secondary students, comparing traditional, vision-based, and combined motivational interventions. Their findings revealed that all three approaches significantly enhanced learners' IL2S, OL2S, and learning experience, with vision-based strategies most effective for the IL2S and combined strategies yielding superior outcomes for the OL2S and learning experience. However, waning effects over time underscored the need for sustained, carefully planned motivational efforts. Subsequent research has extended these findings across

diverse contexts: Safdari (2021) showed that structured six-step vision-based interventions significantly improved Iranian learners' IL2S and imagery capacity, while Vlaeva and Dörnyei (2021) provided the longest longitudinal evidence to date, documenting fluctuating engagement with visualization techniques over 10 months. Mackay (2016) found subtle positive effects on Spanish learners' ideal and feared L2 selves, alongside improved metacognition and willingness to communicate. More recently, Rad and Alipour (2023) demonstrated that integrating vision-inspired instruction with CALL tools enhanced both IL2S and writing outcomes, while Al-Murtadha (2025) confirmed the effectiveness of visualization interventions even in low-resource Yemeni secondary contexts. Complementing these intervention-focused studies, perceptual research in vocational settings has further illuminated context-specific strategy preferences (Nguyen & Tran, 2025; see more in Section 2.6). The experimental verification component of Xiang et al. (2021) complements these L2MSS-grounded studies by demonstrating that traditional motivational strategies—when systematically identified and implemented—can also yield significant proficiency gains, though their design did not specifically measure changes in learners' possible L2 selves. Nevertheless, methodological challenges persist, including difficulty isolating strategy effects from other instructional variables (Wang & Dai, 2015), the complex interplay of motivational factors (Ushioda, 2009), and equivocal evidence regarding OL2S change, with some studies reporting no impact (Mackay, 2016; Safdari, 2021) while others suggest contextual modulation (Sampson, 2012; Wang, 2016).

These empirical studies collectively underscore both the potential and limitations of current L2 motivational strategy research. While demonstrating the context-sensitive nature of strategy effectiveness and the pedagogical value of vision-based interventions across diverse settings, they highlight the need for more longitudinal, mixed-methods designs that account for the dynamic complexity of motivational processes in authentic learning environments. Common methodological limitations recur across the literature: reliance on self-report instruments, small sample sizes, short intervention periods, and limited long-term follow-up. Xiang et al. (2021) exemplify both the strengths and persistent challenges in this field: their mixed-method design incorporating experimental verification represents a methodological advance over purely perceptual studies, yet their 10-week intervention period—while longer than some—still leaves questions about long-term sustainability unanswered. This underscores the field's

ongoing need for extended longitudinal designs that can track both the emergence of motivational change and its durability over time. Particularly, empirical evidence regarding the role of vision in sustaining long-term student motivation remains underexplored, extending beyond initial studies on vision-training techniques (Csizér, 2020). Addressing these gaps requires research designs that combine experimental rigor with extended timeframes to capture both the emergence of motivational change and its durability over time.

1.1.7 A Brief Review on the Action Research on Teachers' Motivational Strategies in EFL Contexts

Hadfield and Dörnyei (2014) encouraged teachers to integrate L2 motivation research with teaching methodology in practical classroom contexts. Following the research-practice-research cycle, teachers could conduct classroom-based investigations focused on improving instructional quality, addressing pedagogical challenges, and contributing to theoretical advancements. This practitioner-led inquiry, typically categorized as exploratory practice or action research, has been recognized as an effective form of professional development. Hadfield and Dörnyei (2014) recommended gathering student feedback through questionnaires and interviews, which remain common data collection instruments in L2 motivation research. The researchers provided sample interview questions in their publication *Motivating Learning* designed to assess various dimensions of L2 motivation, including: student perceptions of visionary programs' impact on English learning motivation; self-confidence in language acquisition and use; attitudes toward visualization techniques; and evaluations of specific activities' effectiveness regarding vision-building, goal-setting, and emotional engagement. The question bank covered multiple thematic areas ranging from learners' attitudes toward English and its speech communities to their IL2S, personal aspirations, parental expectations, and potential discrepancies between these factors.

Action research represents both a transformative process and systematic methodological approach (Dusty, 2024; Edwards-Groves & Rönnerman, 2022) involving planning, action, reflection and replanning (Burns, 2009; Ebbini, 2022; Kemmis & McTaggart, 2014; Norton, 2009). Gopang et al. (2015) identified motivation challenges among L2 learners at Lasbela University in Pakistan and implemented a participatory action research project with colleagues to address this issue. The

researchers collected data through student focus group interviews and developed motivational strategies via collaborative discussions with fellow instructors. Following Kemmis and McTaggart's (2014) action research model, Gopang et al. (2015) executed a seven-phase intervention. Their findings demonstrated that modified instructional approaches could reduce student disengagement, while simultaneously validating action research as an effective paradigm for pedagogical improvement. This study established a methodological framework for subsequent action research in L2 motivation contexts.

Sampson's (2012) action research in a Japanese EFL university context examined the relationship between possible self-images and language learning motivation across three 15-week cycles. While supporting the motivational benefits of aligning instruction with students' self-concepts, the study's reliance on self-reported data presented limitations common to practitioner inquiry. Nevertheless, its application of Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivational Self System provided practical insights for other teaching contexts.

Fu (2014) conducted classroom action research across four cycles (16 weeks in duration) to examine motivational strategies in a college English intensive reading course in China. The study employed questionnaires, reflective journals, observations, and interviews with 58 first-year non-English majors. Cycle 1 focused on building rapport through teacher self-disclosure and student self-introductions. Cycle 2 introduced reading strategy instruction, group work, and three simultaneous activities: "News of the Week," "An Article a Day," and "My Dictionary." Cycle 3 incorporated multimedia, email communication, and Western films/music. Cycle 4 added competitions and rewards. Findings revealed these strategies positively impacted engagement and reading proficiency, though instrumental motivation dominated over integrative motivation. However, the study also revealed characteristic tensions of action research: the dual teacher-researcher role introduced potential interpretive bias (Norton, 2009), while over-ambitious implementation—introducing three time-intensive activities simultaneously in Cycle 2—generated student resistance and workload complaints, ultimately leading to a class vote that eliminated two activities. More critically, despite documenting immediate gains, the absence of longitudinal follow-up precluded assessment of whether observed motivational changes represented durable development or merely temporary engagement—a limitation Manchón (2008, p. 226)

identifies as pervasive in L2 research, where “time-lag effects” remain underinvestigated.

Maharsi and Khotimah (2025) employed collaborative action research, framed within Norton’s (2009) four-stage model, to enhance EFL teachers’ motivational strategies through a mentorship program involving three teachers and 63 students from Indonesian vocational schools. Their findings revealed that teachers adopted varied motivational strategies, positively impacting high achievers, while low achievers required more tailored support. Methodologically, however, the study was constrained by its short intervention period, small sample size, and absence of longitudinal data to verify sustained strategy effectiveness—echoing the very gaps this body of research collectively illuminates.

Sarimsakova (2024) conducted exploratory action research across two phases to motivate Uzbek EFL students toward learner autonomy. In the exploratory phase, the researcher collected data through self-reflection, colleague discussions, student questionnaires, interviews, and peer observation to identify autonomy-related challenges. In the action phase, she implemented autonomy-building activities including individual/pair/group work, self/peer assessment, short-term projects, and an offsite public speaking contest. Findings revealed that these interventions increased student engagement, target language use, and perceived autonomy. However, while action research prioritizes contextual understanding over generalizability (Burns, 2010), the study’s methodological choices—like those of its predecessors—revealed limitations that warrant consideration.

Collectively, these action research studies demonstrate the paradigm’s unique capacity to bridge motivational theory and classroom practice, enabling practitioners to diagnose context-specific challenges, implement responsive interventions, and generate locally grounded knowledge. Yet their limitations are equally instructive, forming a coherent pattern of methodological challenges that the field must address. Across studies, common vulnerabilities recur: reliance on self-report instruments susceptible to social desirability and recall bias (Sampson, 2012; Sarimsakova, 2024); researcher bias inherent in dual teacher-researcher roles (Fu, 2014; Norton, 2009); and, most persistently, brief intervention periods that capture immediate engagement but fail to track motivational trajectories over time. As Liu (2010) demonstrated, motivation

exhibits “time-lag effects” where outcomes may emerge only after prolonged intervention, while Manchón (2008, p. 226) emphasizes that without extended longitudinal designs, the field cannot determine whether pedagogical strategies produce durable change or merely transient effects. Fu’s (2014) experience further illustrates the practical tensions of classroom research: ambitious multi-activity interventions, however theoretically grounded, risk overwhelming learners accustomed to teacher-centered instruction, revealing that strategy effectiveness depends not only on what teachers implement but on how students perceive and receive those strategies—a dynamic requiring sustained, iterative investigation to fully understand. Sarimsakova’s (2024) study adds another dimension: the challenge of verifying autonomy development through behavioral indicators rather than relying primarily on self-perceptions, highlighting the need for multiple data sources that capture what students actually do, not merely what they report feeling.

These accumulated insights directly inform the present study’s design. Recognizing that prior action research has established the value of practitioner inquiry while simultaneously exposing its methodological vulnerabilities, this study responds to the pressing need for longitudinal investigation of motivational strategy effectiveness. Given widespread student demotivation (Gao, 2012; Gürlüyer & Atmaca, 2025) and motivation’s crucial role in L2 learning, this study addresses these gaps through an action research framework incorporating longitudinal elements and dynamic systems perspectives. Where previous studies documented immediate post-intervention gains without sustained follow-up, this research tracks motivational trajectories beyond the intervention period to capture potential “time-lag effects.” And where the field has called for attention to cultural variations in strategy effectiveness—particularly in Chinese EFL contexts—this investigation responds by situating inquiry within the specific conditions of Chinese tertiary English teaching, where large classes, examination pressures, and students transitioning from three-year-college education create distinctive motivational challenges. In doing so, this study embraces the principle that “good teaching is action research and good action research is teaching” (Columbia Embury et al., 2020, p. 28), advancing both pedagogical practice and theoretical understanding through systematic, context-grounded inquiry that learns from—and seeks to transcend—the limitations of prior work.

1.2 Research Aims and Questions

As Hoosain and Salili (2008) suggest, it should be necessary for teachers to know about their students' motivational orientations and it should be important to develop curriculum and teaching strategies tailored for cultural contexts. This doctoral study is one of the few action research projects that aim to evaluate the effectiveness of motivational strategies in L2 teaching at a Chinese university, with the goal of enhancing language learning outcomes among Chinese EFL learners.

The study pursued four objectives: (1) to identify the most important motivational strategies from teachers' perspectives; (2) to examine student perceptions of strategy effectiveness and their temporal dynamics, grounded in Dörnyei's (2001) process-oriented Motivational Teaching Practice (MTP) framework; (3) to determine optimal strategies to develop students' IES, based on the L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2009b); and 4) To design a two-semester pedagogical model that integrates motivational strategies into an EFL curriculum.

The present study therefore intends to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: What are the most important motivational strategies used in China' tertiary EFL education from teachers' perspectives?

RQ2: What are tertiary EFL students' perceptions of the effectiveness of common motivational strategies used by teachers and do these perceptions change over time?

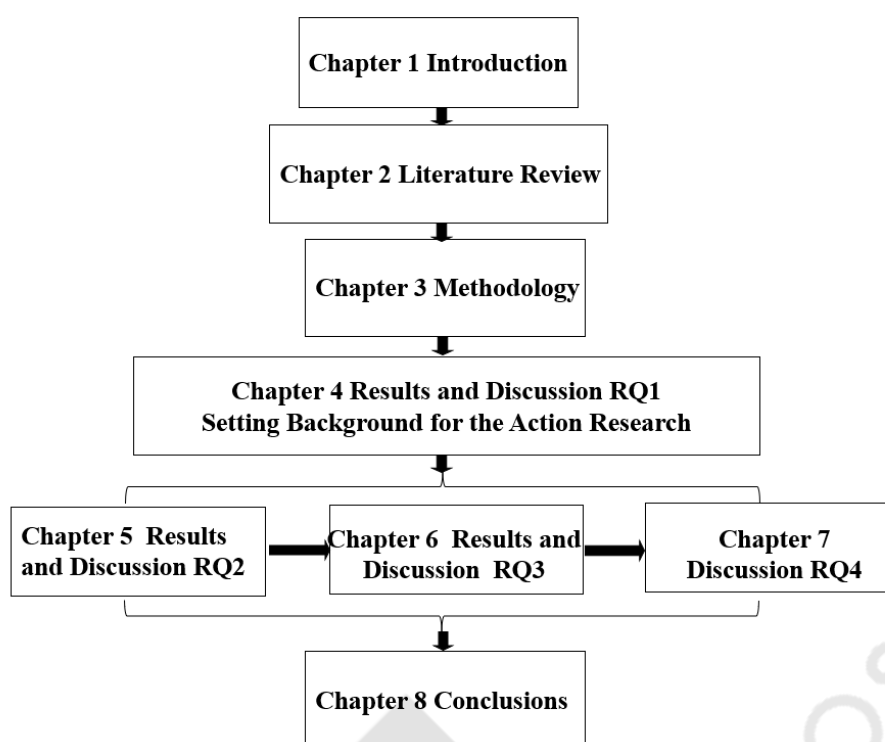
RQ3: What are students' perceptions of effectiveness of strategies to develop IES based on L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2009b)?

RQ4: How can motivational strategies be implemented in classroom activities in a two-semester college English course?

1.3 Outline of the Thesis

The dissertation comprises eight chapters as visually shown in Figure 1.3:

Figure 1.3: An Overview of the Thesis Structure



Chapter 1 establishes the rationale for studying L2 motivation, addressing prevalent demotivation issues in language learning. It outlines the theoretical framework of motivational strategies, reviews empirical studies with their limitations, and references China's College English Curriculum Requirements (MOE, 2020). The study focuses on: (a) selecting high-frequency motivational strategies for Chinese EFL contexts, and (b) adapting L2MSS-based strategies (Dörnyei, 2009b) to enhance students' IL2S. The 26-week action research aimed to evaluate these strategies' impact on learning motivation, contributing to L2MSS theory and teaching innovation.

Chapter 2 features the theoretical framework in L2 motivation, tracing the evolution of L2 motivation research through four phases: social psychological (1959-1990), cognitive-situated (1990s), process-oriented (2000-2004), and social-dynamic (2005-present). It examines Dörnyei's (2001) Motivational Teaching Practice (MTP) that encompasses 102 strategies organized by motivational phases: establishing preconditions, generating motivation, maintaining motivation, and encouraging reflection. The L2MSS model (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009b), building on Higgins' (1987) self-discrepancy theory, comprises three components: IL2S, OL2S, and L2LE. Six strategies are highlighted for cultivating IL2S, while research gaps persist in cross-

cultural validation, measurement improvement, and longitudinal investigation of strategy effectiveness.

Chapter 3 This chapter delineates the methodological framework employed to investigate the dynamic effectiveness of motivational strategies in Chinese EFL classrooms. It specifies the study's context: a public university in southeastern China, with 4 experienced EFL instructors and 90 intermediate-level non-English major students as key participants. The research adopts an action research design, comprising three iterative cycles of planning, action, observation, and reflection over two semesters (26 weeks). The chapter details a comprehensive suite of instruments, including classroom observations (OPMCMS), multiple teacher/student questionnaires (e.g., MCMS, QBFC, QEFC), semi-structured interviews, and learning journals, all adapted and validated through piloting and cross-cultural translation. It outlines the data analysis strategies employed to address each research question: frequency analysis, repeated measures ANOVA (RM-ANOVA), thematic analysis, and methodological triangulation to ensure rigor. At the end, research procedure is introduced from an initial 8-week observational phase to the cyclical teaching intervention.

Chapter 4 addresses Research Question 1, which investigated the most important motivational strategies from teachers' perspectives. Adopting a mixed-methods design, this phase of the study combined quantitative classroom observations of four EFL teachers with surveys and qualitative interviews involving the same participants. Data analysis involved comparing mean scores from 5-point Likert scales on the frequency and effectiveness of 102 motivational strategies, as well as analyzing correlations between these ratings, using SPSS 21.0. The research objectives were threefold: to identify the most frequently employed strategies through classroom observation, to analyze EFL teachers' perceptions regarding the most frequently utilized strategies through survey instruments, and to assess teachers' evaluations of strategy effectiveness through survey instruments. Cross-comparison of the results obtained from accomplishing these three objectives yielded the answer to RQ1, thereby establishing the baseline for the subsequent action research.

Chapter 5 presents the results and discussion addressing RQ2, which examined tertiary EFL students' perceptions of 43 commonly used motivational strategies and whether these perceptions changed over time. It first reports descriptive statistics and a two-way

RM-ANOVA to examine the effects of strategy and time. The seven highest-rated and seven lowest-rated strategies were identified, with cross-cycle comparisons presented. The discussion is organized into four subsections: students' overarching preferences for direct, personal strategies; four convergent thematic clusters; a categorical analysis of high- and low-rated strategies; and stable patterns across cycles. Together, these findings establish a student-centered baseline for understanding motivational preferences in Chinese EFL contexts, which, when contrasted with the teacher perspectives presented in Chapter 4, reveal notable discrepancies, particularly regarding grading practices and teacher enthusiasm, thereby informing the design of subsequent L2MSS-based interventions.

Chapter 6 presents the results and discussion of RQ3: students' motivational changes and their perceptions of strategies to develop students' IES across three cycles of teaching intervention. It first reports quantitative findings on students' English learning motivation, followed by results from post-cycle questionnaires, learning journals, and interviews regarding strategy effectiveness. The chapter then discusses these findings cycle by cycle, highlighting how students' perceptions informed iterative refinements in instructional design. These insights directly informed the development of the pedagogical framework presented in Chapter 7.

Chapter 7 presents the discussion addressing RQ4, which aimed to propose an optimal framework for implementing L2MSS-based motivational activities across three instructional cycles. It first introduces a five-phase workshop model derived from Cycle 1, followed by an expanded pedagogical framework incorporating multiple motivational components from Cycle 2. It then synthesizes cross-cycle insights into a dynamic, context-sensitive implementation model. The chapter culminates in a synthesized best-practice framework that integrates findings from all three cycles, offering a structured model for integrating motivational strategies into college English instruction.

Chapter 8 concludes the study by summarizing findings across four research questions, discussing theoretical and pedagogical implications, acknowledging limitations, and proposing future directions. It synthesizes key contributions: examining Dörnyei's (2001) process-oriented framework from both teacher and student perspectives in Chinese high-stakes contexts, identifying the primacy of teacher-led, relationship-

oriented strategies over indirect or abstract appeals, and developing a phased pedagogical model centered on vision-building within the L2MSS framework to enhance student motivation. The chapter also reflects on the study's methodological contributions through its longitudinal action research design and offers practical guidance for educators navigating exam-oriented environments.



CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

L2 motivation refers to the willingness to learn based on learners' tendencies and satisfaction experienced when engaging in activities (Gardner, 2001). It “serves as the initial engine to generate learning and later functions as an ongoing driving force that helps to sustain the long and usually laborious journey of acquiring a foreign language” (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007, p. 153). Without motivation, even gifted individuals would fail to achieve long-term goals regardless of educational programs or instructors. Conversely, highly motivated individuals can achieve long-term goals despite deficiencies in language aptitude or poor learning environments. Due to its crucial significance (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Kim et al, 2018a; Lasagabaster, 2011; Zare et al., 2025), L2 motivation has been extensively studied by scholars over past decades (e.g., Deci, 1975; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021; Ye & Hu, 2025).

Research on L2 motivation has evolved into a rich, independent field originally concerned with addressing social, psychological, behavioral, and cultural complexities in second language acquisition (SLA). Scholars have examined it from perspectives of its nature and influence on language learning. This chapter reviews studies according to different focal aspects of L2 motivation.

Between 1959 and 1990, researchers primarily examined L2 motivation as a social psychological issue (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972). During the 1990s, as psychology became substantially cognition-oriented, L2 motivation research incorporated dominant psychological motivational theories.

The 21st century brought attention to the dynamic, fluctuating temporal nature of L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Otto, 1998; Ushioda, 2001; Williams & Burden, 1997), conceptualizing it as an interactive process from motivation generation through maintenance to learning reflection (Dörnyei, 2001; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). This focus on temporal dynamics has been further enriched by longitudinal studies that capture motivation's contextual fluctuations (Papi & Hiver, 2020; Pan & Zhang, 2023). In 2005, Dörnyei introduced a “self” perspective into L2 motivation, recognizing its motivational power.

While the L2MSS (Dörnyei 2009b) has been widely applied across diverse contexts (Liu et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2025), its constructs have recently undergone critical

psychometric and conceptual scrutiny (Al-Hoorie et al., 2024, 2026; Henry & Liu, 2025; MacIntyre, 2022), sparking debate about its foundational validity (Papi & Teimouri, 2025).

Parallel to these developments, the concept of directed motivational currents has emerged as a complementary framework for understanding intense, sustained motivational engagement (He et al., 2022; Huo et al., 2025; Shen et al., 2025). Contemporary approaches investigate L2 motivation through innovative methodologies such as retrodictive qualitative modeling, which reverses traditional research directions by tracing how variables interact to produce specific outcomes (Chan et al., 2014; Gu, 2023; Ranjbar et al., 2025; Zhang et al., 2026).

L2 motivation research over past decades can be summarized into four phases (Chang, 2017; Dörnyei, 2001, 2009b; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021; Liu, 2010): the social psychological period (1959-1990); the cognitive-situated period (1990s); the process-oriented period (2000-2004) and the present social-dynamic period (2005-present). This chapter reviews these developmental phases to provide theoretical background for the current research.

2.1 The Social Psychological Period of L2 Motivation Research (1959–1990)

In 1959, Gardner and Lambert first approached SLA from a social psychological perspective, forming the social-educational (SE) model of L2 learning. They argued that learners' attitudes toward the L2 community and motives affect learning, alongside aptitude and linguistic traits (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). L2 learners' behavior is directly influenced by their attitudes toward the L2 and its community, as well as their ethnocentric orientation. These attitudinal dimensions distinguish language learning motivation from other disciplines, as language learners must acquire linguistic knowledge while identifying with another ethnolinguistic group and adopting distinct behavioral and linguistic styles (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 135). This social psychological perspective initiated L2 motivation research, with the SE model emphasizing social context alongside attitudes and community relationships. Their theory shaped L2 motivation research for subsequent decades.

Gardner's (1985) theory posits that L2 motivation comprises motivational effort, desire to learn the language, and attitudes toward language learning. He conceptualizes motivation as the driving force behind effort, will, and affect. A key issue in Gardner's (1985) theory is the relationship between motivation and orientation (or goals). Orientation generates and directs motivation toward specific goals. Although orientations are not strictly part of motivation but rather antecedents, the integrative and instrumental orientations became Gardner's most widely recognized concepts in L2 motivation research.

Instrumental orientation refers to motivation for practical purposes like career advancement or translation, while integrative orientation involves motivation for cultural integration. Research indicates that L2 learning can occur through either or both orientations. Typically, learners pursue L2 learning for both instrumental (e.g., academic) and integrative purposes.

According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2021), integrative motive represents perhaps the most researched aspect of Gardner's theory. It describes L2 motivation stemming from positive attitudes toward the target language community (Gardner, 1985, pp. 82-83), comprising three components: (a) integrativeness (integrative orientation, L2 interest, and feelings toward the L2 community); (b) attitudes toward the learning experience (feelings about teachers and courses); and (c) motivation itself (effort, desire to learn, and feelings about L2 learning). The central component involves relationships with the target language community. Factor analytical studies confirm that L2 motivation generally correlates with positive views of the L2 community and associated values. However, the integrative concept has sparked debate regarding its definition and applicability to English as a lingua franca without specific target communities.

Other significant social psychological studies include Clément's (1980) social context model, examining relationships between social settings and L2 proficiency development among minority group learners. This model proposes that linguistic self-confidence functions as both social and cognitive components (Clément, 1980). Giles and Byrne's (1982) intergroup model provides a social psychological framework for investigating majority language acquisition by minority ethnic groups, suggesting that social identity—based on group membership—affects acquisition and adoption of majority language features. Subsequent research by Clément, Noels, and colleagues

(Clément & Noels, 1992; Clément et al., 2001) advanced this perspective through situated identity theory, hypothesizing that situational factors influence linguistic assimilation and non-linguistic community membership. This growing attention to situational factors reflects a shift toward more contextual perspectives on L2 motivation.

The foundational social psychological period established important legacy in L2 motivation research, shaping understanding of language's social psychology and highlighting attitudinal dimensions in language use. However, Gardner's theory has faced criticism for lacking development as mainstream motivation research progressed with cognitive psychology in the 1980s. Scholars attempted to bridge educational psychology's motivational theories with L2 research, arguing that excessive focus on social dimensions neglected other important motivational aspects. This led to a new stage in L2 motivation research during the 1990s, discussed in the following section.

2.2 The Cognitive-situated Period of L2 Motivation Research (1990s)

During the 1990s, the field of L2 motivation research underwent significant transformation as scholars incorporated various cognitive theories into second language acquisition studies. This period saw the integration of several influential psychological frameworks, including Bandura's (1986) self-efficacy theory, Weiner's (1986, 1992) attribution theory, Deci and Ryan's (1985) Self-Determination Theory, Atkinson's (1957) and Wigfield and Eccles' (2000) expectancy-value theory, as well as Ames' (1992) goal-setting theory. These diverse theoretical perspectives collectively demonstrated how learners' motivation is shaped by their perceptions of personal capabilities, past experiences, task values, and the nature of their learning goals.

Among the most significant contributions to L2 motivation during this era were the comprehensive frameworks developed by Dörnyei (1994) and Williams and Burden (1997). Dörnyei's (1994) framework, as presented in Table 2.1 (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 18), organized L2 motivation into three distinct but interrelated levels. The language level encompasses various components related to the target language itself, including cultural aspects, intellectual and practical values, and the benefits of language acquisition, reflecting both integrative and instrumental orientations. At the learner level, the framework considers individual differences such as achievement needs and self-confidence that students bring to the learning process. The learning situation level

Table 2.1: Dörnyei's (1994) Framework of L2 Motivation (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 18)

LANGUAGE LEVEL	Integrative motivational subsystem Instrumental motivational subsystem
LEARNER LEVEL	Need for achievement Self-confidence * Language use anxiety * Perceived L2 competence * Causal attributions * Self-efficacy
LEARNING SITUATION LEVEL	
<i>Course-specific motivational components</i>	Interest (in the course) Relevance (of the course to one's needs) Expectancy (of success) Satisfaction (one has in the outcome)
<i>Teacher-specific motivational components</i>	Affiliative motive (to please the teacher) Authority type (controlling vs. autonomy-supporting) Direct socialisation of motivation * Modelling * Task presentation * Feedback
<i>Group-specific motivational Components</i>	Goal-orientedness Norm and reward system Group cohesiveness Classroom goal structure (cooperative, competitive or individualistic)

encompasses various components related to the target language itself, including cultural aspects, intellectual and practical values, and the benefits of language acquisition, reflecting both integrative and instrumental orientations. At the learner level, the framework considers individual differences such as achievement needs and self-confidence that students bring to the learning process. The learning situation level addresses classroom-specific motivational elements, including course design, teacher characteristics, and group dynamics.

Williams and Burden (1997) proposed an alternative but equally comprehensive framework that categorized motivational influences as either internal or external to the learner. Their model, detailed in Table 2.2 (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 20), included numerous subcomponents that reflected contemporary developments in educational psychology, offering language educators a different but complementary perspective on motivational factors in L2 learning.

This cognitive-situated approach emerged in response to perceived limitations in Gardner's (1985) social psychological model, which some researchers felt failed to provide adequate guidance for classroom practice (Dörnyei, 2007). The new perspective emphasized the importance of immediate learning contexts and adopted a more micro-level approach to understanding motivation in actual classroom settings. A central concept during this period was the distinction between intrinsic motivation,

which stems from internal satisfaction and enjoyment of the learning process (Deci, 1975), and extrinsic motivation, which derives from external rewards or outcomes.

Table 2.2: William and Bob Burden (1997)'s Framework of L2 Motivation (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 20)

INTERNAL FACTORS	EXTERNAL FACTORS
Intrinsic interest of activity • arousal of curiosity • optimal degree of challenge	Significant others • parents • teachers • peers
Perceived value of activity • personal relevance • anticipated value of outcomes • intrinsic value attributed to the activity	The nature of interaction with significant others • mediated learning experiences • the nature and amount of feedback • rewards • the nature and amount of appropriate praise • punishments, sanctions
Sense of agency • locus of causality • locus of control re: process and outcomes • ability to set appropriate goals	The learning environment • comfort • resources • time of day, week, year • size of class and school • class and school ethos
Mastery • feelings of competence • awareness of developing skills and mastery in a chosen area • self-efficacy	The broader context • wider family networks • the local education system • conflicting interests • cultural norms • societal expectations and attitudes
Self-concept • realistic awareness of personal strengths and weaknesses in skills required • personal definitions and judgements of success and failure • self-worth concern • learned helplessness	
Attitudes • to language learning in general • to the target language • to the target language community and culture	
Other affective states • confidence • anxiety, fear	
Developmental age and stage	
Gender	

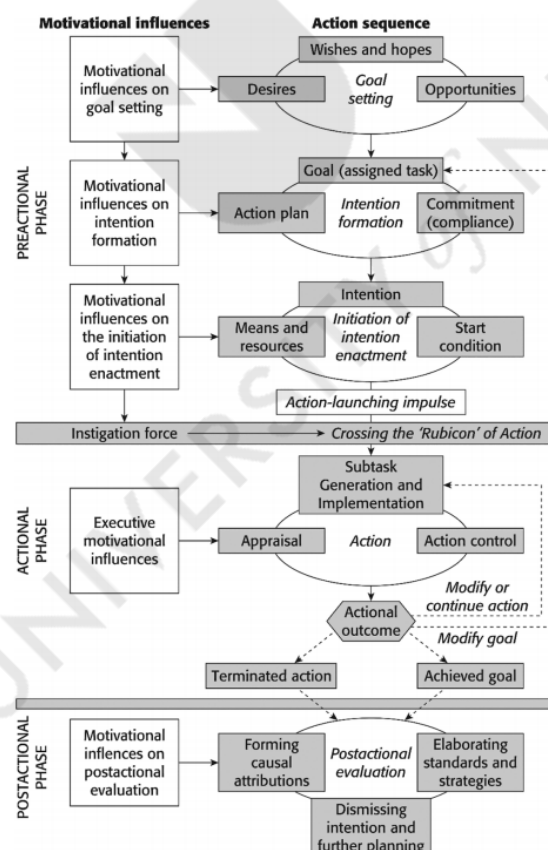
The intrinsic-extrinsic continuum proved particularly valuable for language education research and practice, as evidenced by numerous classroom applications (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Warden & Lin, 2000; Wu, 2003). This theoretical perspective facilitated extensive investigation into various classroom factors that influence motivation, including students' sense of self-confidence and autonomy, their orientation toward specific learning goals, the quality of teacher-student relationships, curriculum design elements, and peer interactions (Dörnyei, 1994; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Williams & Burden, 1997). These studies collectively advanced understanding of how motivation operates in authentic educational contexts and provided valuable insights for language teaching practice.

2.3 The Process-oriented Period of L2 Motivation Research (2000–2004)

The shift in L2 motivation research from social-psychological perspectives to practical language classroom applications has led to significant developments in understanding motivational dynamics. Recent decades have revealed the temporal fluctuations characteristic of motivation, raising important questions about how to analyze contextual changes in L2 motivation over time and how to interpret its past, present, and future dimensions. The turn of the century marked a pivotal breakthrough in addressing these questions.

Dörnyei and Ottó (1998; see also Dörnyei, 2000) developed an influential model outlining the process of L2 motivational dimensions (see Figure 2.1), which structures

Figure 2.1: Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) Process Model of L2 Motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021, p.53)



major motivational influences along actional events into a sequence of generating and enacting motivated behavior. Building on Heckhausen and Kuhl's (1985) Action Control Theory, this model divides the motivational process into three distinct temporal

stages: pre-actional, actional, and post-actional. The pre-actional stage focuses on motivational choice, involving goal setting, intention formation, and action initiation. The actional stage emphasizes the executive aspects of motivation, including subtask generation and execution, appraisal, and action control. The post-actional stage involves motivational retrospection, where learners form causal attributions, elaborate standards and strategies, and make plans for future actions.

This process-oriented perspective represents a significant theoretical advancement by shifting emphasis from pre-actional deliberation to implementation within continuous social activities like classroom learning (Dörnyei, 2000, p. 535). Its importance lies in integrating multiple dimensions of L2 motivation that determine learner behavior in classroom contexts (Dörnyei, 2000, p. 529). Building on this process-oriented understanding, Dörnyei (2001) developed a comprehensive Motivational Teaching Practice (MTP) framework that organizes 102 motivational techniques according to the temporal progression of motivation, demonstrating how process-oriented theory can be translated into systematic classroom practice (as cited in Alrabai, 2016; Moskovsky et al., 2013). The (MTP) framework (Dörnyei, 2001) informs the strategic approach adopted in the present research.

Process-oriented motivation research has developed along three main lines of inquiry. The first involves longitudinal studies tracking motivational changes throughout course learning, using questionnaires to measure attitudes and motivation at different time points or comparing motivation across different learner cohorts (Chambers, 1999; Dörnyei et al., 2006; Gardner et al., 2004; Williams et al., 2002). These studies consistently demonstrate declining motivation levels as students face increasing academic and linguistic demands, though some dimensions like attitudes toward learning situations and instrumental motivation may show growth. Using retrospective interviews with six Iranian PhD students in the U.S., Papi & Hiver (2020) examined L2 motivation longitudinally through Higgins' (2014) value-truth-control framework, revealing how dynamic interactions among these dimensions shaped learners' motivational trajectories across educational contexts, with different dimensions dominating at different developmental stages, such as value overriding control when instrumental goals intensified, and truth mediating value through shared social realities. Adopting a similar dynamic systems perspective, Pan and Zhang (2023) conducted a 14-week longitudinal survey of 55 Chinese EFL learners, finding that foreign language

enjoyment (FLE) fluctuated more than foreign language anxiety (FLA), with motivational factors (e.g., OL2S, criterion measures) and extraversion predicting both the mean levels and variability of classroom emotions.

A second research direction examines motivational changes across learners' lifespans, reflecting growing interest in autobiographical approaches in applied linguistics and social sciences (Chamberlayne et al., 2000). Representative studies include Lim's (2002) analysis of her English learning motivation from childhood through graduate education in America, and Shoaib and Dörnyei's (2005) retrospective qualitative study exploring motivational patterns in learners' language learning histories. Recently, Darnault et al. (2024) traced motivational changes across learners' lifespans through narrative inquiry, showing senior learners integrate language learning into their identity post-retirement, with a small but in-depth case study of 3 participants using retrospective stories and thematic analysis. These lifespan perspectives align with Ushioda's (2009) conceptualization of motivation as an "organic process" embedded in broader social and contextual systems, a view that has informed subsequent investigations into how learners' motivational trajectories are shaped by cumulative educational experiences across different stages of language learning (Magid & Chan, 2012; Wang, 2016).

The third line of investigation focuses on motivational self-regulation, emphasizing strategies to manage and sustain motivation during learning (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Ushioda, 1998). This perspective highlights learners' agency in constructing thoughts and beliefs that shape and maintain their motivation (Ushioda, 2003). The emphasis on self-regulation resonates with subsequent research demonstrating that effective strategy implementation depends not only on teacher intentions but also on how students perceive and internalize those strategies within their specific learning contexts (Min & Chon, 2021). As Zhou et al. (2023) later demonstrated through three-wave longitudinal analysis, motivational processes involve bidirectional teacher-student influences, with engaged students positively shaping their perceptions of teacher support—a dynamic interaction that process-oriented frameworks were designed to capture and that reinforces the value of extended temporal designs in motivation research.

2.4 The Present Social-dynamic Period of L2 Motivation Research (2005–)

The preceding discussion of the process-oriented period reveals how social-dynamic dimensions have become increasingly integrated into L2 motivation research. This section examines the factors driving this theoretical evolution and characterizes the distinctive features of the current social-dynamic period.

Critical reflection on the process model has revealed several limitations, despite its valuable delineation of actional events in motivated behavior (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998). Two significant shortcomings have emerged: first, the model's assumption that actional processes occur in relative isolation, unaffected by concurrent processes; second, its conceptualization within a linear cause-effect paradigm that fails to account for the multiple parallel and interacting relationships with feedback cycles inherent in motivational processes (Dörnyei, 2005). These limitations have necessitated a fundamental reconceptualization adopting complex dynamic systems approaches to better capture the interplay of motivational components.

Theoretical perspectives on motivation have evolved considerably since Freud's early emphasis on unconscious drives and instincts. The latter twentieth century saw a cognitive turn, focusing on conscious processes like goal-setting, self-efficacy beliefs, and event interpretation. However, human action fundamentally emerges from complex physical, cultural, and psychological contexts that substantially shape cognition, behavior, and achievement. Recent decades have witnessed growing recognition of contextual influences, with the "social turn" incorporating classroom environments and cross-cultural differences as independent variables in research paradigms (McInerney, 2008; Salili et al., 2001). Contemporary perspectives view individual and social phenomena as mutually constitutive, with motivation dynamically integrated within holistic contexts (McCaslin, 2004; Volet & Järvelä, 2001). These approaches examine motivation's development through complex self-context interactions.

Three principal theoretical approaches have emerged in this social-dynamic period, distinct from earlier conceptualizations: Ushioda's (2009) person-in-context relational view of motivation; Dörnyei's (2005, 2009b) L2MSS; and motivation conceptualized from a complex dynamic systems perspective (Dörnyei, 2009c). Each represents significant advancements in understanding L2 motivation's situated and interactive nature.

2.4.1 A Person-in-context Relational View of L2 Motivation

The temporal analysis of motivational processes presents significant challenges in accounting for dynamic interactions with contextual factors, including interpersonal relationships, classroom goals, peer influences, and broader institutional and social cultures. A notable social turn in SLA research emerged when Norton (2000) reconceptualized motivation, identity, and language learning as socially and historically situated processes. This paradigm shift underscores that language acquisition extends beyond cognitive-psycholinguistic mechanisms to encompass socio-cultural and socio-historical dimensions. Consequently, relational and dynamic systems perspectives have gained prominence in theorizing the complex interplay between motivation and social contexts.

Ushioda's (2009) person-in-context relational framework elucidates the organic development of interactions among motivation, self, and context. This approach emphasizes the complex individuality of actual learners and their lived experience—aligning with Norton's perspective—rather than focusing on abstract learner characteristics. It reconceptualizes learners as sentient individuals possessing distinct identities, personalities, and unique histories, while particularly examining the dynamic relationship between these self-reflective intentional agents and the fluid, complex systems of social relations, activities, experiences, and contexts (Ushioda, 2009, p. 220). The framework establishes principles for determining contextual relevance and advocates analyzing interactional data, such as teacher-student discourse, to study motivation as it emerges through developing communication (Ushioda, 2009).

Dörnyei (2020) complements this perspective by proposing centering human agency within complex systems to prioritize overlapping aspects of the person-context paradigm. These approaches have recently directed attention toward the intricate social and personal histories shaping learners' current L2 motivations. To fully incorporate dynamic and contextual elements in motivation research, scholars must consider not only past and present temporal dimensions of language learning experiences, but also future-oriented perspectives and imagined possibilities, which the following section will examine in detail.

2.4.2 The L2 Motivational Self System

2.4.2.1 Theoretical Antecedents: From Integrative Motivation to Possible Selves

While the tripartite structure of the L2MSS has been outlined in Section 1.1.5, a deeper understanding of the framework requires tracing its theoretical lineage. The L2MSS represents a conceptual shift from Gardner's (1985) integrative-instrumental paradigm toward a self-based understanding of L2 motivation. Gardner's integrative concept—defined as a positive disposition toward the L2 community and a desire to interact with and become similar to valued members of that community (Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972)—generated considerable debate, particularly in EFL contexts where learners have limited contact with native speakers. Scholars proposed alternative orientations such as “International Posture” (Yashima, 2002) and observed that integrative and instrumental orientations typically blend together in the learning process (Lamb, 2004).

This reconceptualization paved the way for a self-based approach to L2 motivation, drawing on advances in self psychology that will be examined in the following section.

2.4.2.2 Possible Selves, Self-Guides, and Vision

At the end of the 20th century, self-theories gradually illuminated the dynamic character of the self-system, transforming static self-representations into a self-system that actively influences behavior over time. Self-regulation and mental schemata emerged as key mechanisms linking self-concept to action, creating an interface between personality psychology and motivational psychology.

One influential mechanism is possible selves, introduced by Markus and Nurius (1986), which examines how the self moderates and controls action through the setting of goals and expectations. According to Markus and Nurius (1986, p. 954), possible selves refer to self-knowledge about one's potentials and future, drawing upon hopes, aspirations, and dreams. Functioning as future self-guides, possible selves derive from past experiences and societal expectations, reflecting the dynamic conception of how individuals progress from the present toward the future.

Building on this foundation, Higgins (1987) developed self-discrepancy theory, which distinguishes between two types of self-guides: ideal selves (representing hopes and aspirations) and ought-to selves (reflecting social obligations and responsibilities). The theory posits that motivation arises from the psychological tension created by the

discrepancy between one's actual self and these self-guides. Individuals are driven to reduce this gap, thereby aligning their current state with their desired future selves. This mechanism of the motivational force generated by self-discrepancy constitutes the core psychological engine underlying the L2MSS.

Central to both possible selves and self-guides is the concept of vision, also referred to as mental imagery or cognitive representation. This fundamental human capacity enables individuals to form mental images and simulations through an internal sensory system, playing a vital role in cognitive functions including information processing and memory (Dörnyei, 2020). While self-guides provide the content and direction of motivation, vision provides its intensity and emotional power. Empirical research has demonstrated that forming mental images, particularly those depicting future scenarios, serves as a powerful motivator across diverse life domains (Rawolle et al., 2017).

Research has identified several key mechanisms through which vision exerts its motivational influence. First, effective vision requires process imagery, the ability to mentally simulate the steps toward goal achievement rather than merely envisioning the end result (Knäuper et al., 2009). Second, mental contrasting, the cognitive juxtaposition of desired goals with potential obstacles, enhances motivation (Oettingen & Sevincer, 2018). Third, the motivational power of vision depends on the perceived realism and attainability of the envisioned future (Dörnyei, 2020).

The emotional dimension of vision constitutes another critical aspect of its motivational potential. According to Holmes and Matthews (2010), visionary processes involve not only rehearsal of perceptual images and behaviors but also simulation of affective experiences. These emotionally-charged mental representations can be transformed into motivational energy that drives goal-directed action, constituting what Dörnyei (2021) terms "motivated behavior proper." The affective component of vision serves as the foundation for strong action tendencies, though its effectiveness depends on appropriate motivational guidance and the cultivation of adaptive visionary practices (Dörnyei, 2020).

2.4.2.3 Essential Conditions and Pedagogical Applications

Drawing on the theoretical foundations outlined above, Dörnyei (2009b) identified nine essential conditions under which vision-based future self-guides can effectively

motivate action. First, learners must possess a clear aspiration or ideal self-image. Second, this future self-image must differ meaningfully from their current self-concept. Third, the ideal self-image should be sufficiently detailed and specific. Fourth, learners must perceive their future self-image as realistic and attainable. Fifth, they must believe that achieving this self-image requires sustained effort. Sixth, there should be compatibility between ideal and ought-to selves. Seventh, the future self-image needs regular cognitive activation. Eighth, it must be accompanied by concrete action plans and strategies. Ninth, incorporating feared selves (potential negative outcomes) alongside the future self-image enhances motivational effectiveness (Dörnyei, 2009b). These conditions form the theoretical foundation for pedagogical interventions designed to enhance learners' IL2S. Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014) and Hadfield and Dörnyei (2014) subsequently developed comprehensive frameworks for translating these conditions into classroom practice. As detailed in Section 1.1.5, these frameworks provide the basis for the motivational activities implemented in the present study's intervention. A systematic review of empirical studies examining the effectiveness of such vision-based interventions is presented in Section 2.6.

2.4.2.4 The L2LE: Conceptual Debates

As operationalized in Section 1.1.5, the L2LE constitutes the third component of the L2MSS. While the IL2S and OL2S have received extensive theoretical attention, the L2LE has been comparatively neglected in the literature. Dörnyei (2019) characterized it as the “Cinderella” of the L2MSS, noting that its theoretical development has lagged behind the other two components. This section reviews existing conceptualizations of the L2LE and situates the present study's operationalization within the broader literature.

Researchers have conceptualized the L2LE in various ways. Some studies have treated it as synonymous with attitudes toward learning (Taguchi et al., 2009), while others have emphasized its role as the most powerful predictor of motivated behavior (Brady, 2019; Csizér & Kormos, 2009). Thompson (2017) conceptualized it as the complex relationship between language learners and their micro and macro contexts that help inform their self formation. Begić and Mercer (2017) suggested it comprises learners' past and ongoing present experiences. Huang et al. (2025) recently demonstrated that L2LE exerts moderate to strong causal influence on both the IL2S and OL2S,

challenging assumptions about its peripheral role and suggesting that motivational strategies targeting L2LE may enhance multiple L2MSS components simultaneously. These varied conceptualizations underscore the need for clear operationalization in empirical research, a gap the present study addresses by operationalizing L2LE through ATC and LSC, as justified in Section 1.1.5.

2.4.3 Current Dynamic Approaches Theorizing L2 Motivation

Over the past decade, researchers have increasingly recognized the limitations of traditional SLA research paradigms. A fundamental realization has emerged that SLA processes are inherently nonlinear—learners do not acquire linguistic items in a predictable, sequential manner, nor does mastery of individual items follow straightforward developmental trajectories (Larsen-Freeman, 1997). The learning process is characterized by alternating periods of progress and regression, challenging conventional linear models of language development.

In response to these insights, Larsen-Freeman proposed the application of Dynamic Systems Theory (DST) as a framework for understanding the complex dynamics of L2 learning curves. Originating in physics and mathematics, DST examines systems characterized by continuous or discrete change across multiple disciplines, from epidemiology to financial market analysis (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). A defining feature of dynamic systems is the reciprocal interaction between components, where each element can simultaneously function as both agent and influenced factor. This is exemplified in natural phenomena such as flocking birds, where individual behaviors collectively create emergent group patterns, or weather systems resulting from the interplay of atmospheric elements.

The L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2009b) is particularly amenable to DST analysis, with its three core components—the IL2S, OL2S, and L2LE—functioning as both distinct elements and interdependent subsystems (as exemplified by Li et al., 2022). The complexity of this system emerges from the multifaceted interactions between components and subsystems, mirroring the dynamic nature of motivation itself as shaped by constantly evolving internal and external factors. This complex systems perspective represents a paradigm shift in scientific inquiry, moving beyond traditional cause-effect analysis to adopt a holistic approach that examines how multiple factors interact within specific motivational contexts.

A significant recent theoretical shift has been the application of a Complex Dynamic Systems (CDS) perspective to L2 motivation research (e.g., Chen et al., 2024; Dörnyei, 2009a, 2009c, 2014; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Rooted in DST, a complex dynamic systems theory (CDST) is defined as a system of multiple interacting components whose micro-level interactions alter their own properties and generate novel, emergent patterns at a macroscopic level over time (van Geert, 2011). Over the past decades, complex CDST has reshaped L2 motivation research, framing constructs like the IL2S, OL2S, and L2LE as emergent, context-sensitive states that fluctuate over time. A synthesis of empirical studies (1994–2019) shows a methodological shift toward idiographic, longitudinal designs to capture intraindividual variability, substantiating the interconnected and nonlinear nature of motivational development. However, over 80% of studies remained exploratory, with 26% using designs ill-suited for investigating change, underscoring the need to move beyond description of motivational complexity toward designing and evaluating systemic pedagogical interventions (Hiver et al., 2022).

Against the backdrop of Complex Dynamic Systems (CDS) and Dynamic Systems Theory (DST), research into Directed Motivational Currents (DMCs) has emerged, examining intense, goal-driven motivational flows (Chang, 2017; Dörnyei, 2014; Dörnyei et al., 2015; Dörnyei & Henry, 2022; He et al., 2022; Huo et al., 2025; Zheng & Feng, 2017). Conceptualized as powerful, sustained motivational surges, DMCs are characterized by their temporal unfolding and profound impact on participants (Dörnyei, 2021). The DMC framework describes intensive motivational engagement that drives and maintains L2 learning behaviors through a self-reinforcing cycle: an explicit goal and associated behavioral pathway generate initial enthusiasm; this motivational energy propels learners forward even through challenging circumstances; and the achievement of subgoals creates positive feedback that sustains momentum toward the ultimate objective.

Complementing these developments, the field has witnessed the emergence of retrodictive qualitative modelling (RQM) as an innovative methodological approach (Chan et al., 2014; Chang, 2017; Gu, 2023; Sampson, 2015; Zhang et al., 2026). This paradigm reverses conventional research directions by beginning with outcomes and tracing back to identify how different variables contribute to specific results.

These theoretical and methodological advances in understanding DMCs and employing retrodictive qualitative approaches inform the design of the current study, which implements a multi-phase data collection strategy incorporating interviews and questionnaires at three strategic points to capture the dynamic nature of participants' motivational trajectories.

2.5 The Application and Development of L2MSS

Since Dörnyei's (2005) proposal of L2MSS, this framework has fundamentally reshaped L2 motivation research worldwide. The L2MSS is theoretically grounded in a dynamic reconceptualization of individual differences, wherein motivation is understood not as a stable trait but as a multicomponential system continuously interacting with the learning environment (Dörnyei, 2009a). Drawing on complexity and dynamic systems theory, Dörnyei (2009a) positions the IL2S and OL2S as emergent constructs arising from the interplay between internal learner processes and contextual affordances, rather than isolated variables. As a conceptual rather than empirical work, it synthesizes prior research to advocate for longitudinal and qualitative designs capable of capturing the nonlinear motivational dynamics theorized within L2MSS. By framing L2 selves as context-sensitive and evolving, the framework underscores the need for pedagogical interventions attuned to learners' developing self-concepts within specific educational settings. The absence of empirical validation for the proposed dynamic systems approach left its operationalization as a direction for future research.

The initial wave of empirical research sought to validate the tripartite structure of the L2MSS and establish its cross-cultural applicability. Taguchi et al. (2009) conducted one of the first large-scale validations, surveying nearly 5,000 English learners across Japan, China, and Iran. Using SEM, they confirmed the tripartite structure and demonstrated that the IL2S has stronger explanatory power for motivated behavior than traditional integrativeness. The study also revealed cross-cultural variations: instrumentality-promotion merged with the IL2S in China and Iran due to familial obligations and societal pressures, whereas in Japan it remained distinct, reflecting different cultural internalization patterns. A key finding relevant to this thesis is that attitudes toward learning English mediated the relationship between IL2S and intended effort in Japan and Iran, but in China this link was more direct, suggesting that Chinese

learners persist regardless of classroom enjoyment due to high-stakes pressures. Subsequent replications, such as Ryan's (2009) work in Japan, further confirmed the framework's applicability across different Asian EFL contexts. Brady's (2019) mixed-methods study in Spain similarly confirmed the L2MSS's cross-cultural relevance, also revealing that L2LE can evolve positively over time, a finding relevant to understanding motivational change across educational transitions. Particularly instructive for the present research is Taguchi et al.'s illumination of how Chinese learners' ideal selves are uniquely shaped by family expectations and instrumental concerns, offering a nuanced framework for interpreting motivational dynamics in China's exam-oriented tertiary context.

Beyond the core tripartite structure, domain-specific applications have extended the L2MSS to particular skill areas. Tahmouresi and Papi (2021), for instance, developed L2 writing self scales and found that ideal writing self positively predicted writing enjoyment, motivation, and achievement, while ought-to writing self predicted anxiety alongside motivation. Research has also examined how L2 learning experience, which is traditionally treated as a peripheral component, may exert more substantial influence than previously assumed; Huang et al. (2025) demonstrated that L2LE exerted a moderate to strong causal influence on both the IL2S and OL2S, challenging assumptions about its subsidiary role. These extensions suggest that motivational self-guides operate differently across skill domains and learning contexts, a consideration relevant to the present study's focus on general English proficiency development.

Recognition of motivation as a dynamic phenomenon prompted theoretical and methodological extensions to the L2MSS. Drawing on complexity and dynamic systems theory, Dörnyei (2009a) positioned the IL2S and OL2S as emergent constructs arising from the interplay between internal processes and contextual affordances—an orientation that advocates for longitudinal designs capable of capturing nonlinear motivational trajectories. Empirical studies have confirmed the fluctuating nature of motivation at multiple timescales: Pawlak (2012) found that motivational intensity fluctuates minute-by-minute within lessons, while Piniel and Csizér (2015) tracked Hungarian English majors over a 14-week seminar, revealing significant non-linear fluctuations in L2LE, OL2S, and writing anxiety, with IL2S remaining stable. Nitta et al. (2015) similarly explored the year-long evolution of IL2S in task-based learning environments, employing self-regulation constructs to trace how self-guides developed

over extended instructional periods. Together, these studies demonstrate that L2 motivation, far from static, exhibits fluctuations shaped by contextual affordances—a finding that underscores the need for sustained pedagogical interventions and repeated measurement.

This dynamic perspective was further developed through the concept of Directed Motivational Currents (DMCs), which explain sustained, intense motivational engagement through self-reinforcing cycles of goal pursuit, subgoal achievement, and positive feedback (Dörnyei et al., 2014; Dörnyei & Henry, 2022). In Chinese contexts, empirical work has traced EFL motivational dynamics through trajectory equifinality modeling (Chang, 2017, 2018, 2019), identified DMC-typed motivational surges triggered by role models, inspiring teachers, and vivid imagery (He et al., 2022; Huo et al., 2025), and quantitatively validated DMC dimensions as predictors of English performance (Shen et al., 2025). Methodological innovations have paralleled these theoretical developments. Approaches such as retrodictive qualitative modeling (RQM) have been advanced to capture emergent, context-sensitive motivational processes by reversing conventional research logic, starting from observed outcomes and retrospectively tracing the multicausal pathways leading to them (Gu, 2023). Chan et al. (2014) applied RQM to identify motivational archetypes in Hong Kong classrooms, while Ranjbar et al. (2025) adopted the approach to investigate emotional dynamics and regulation strategies among adolescent learners. Zhang et al.'s (2026) application of RQM to Chinese EFL learners in AI-enhanced contexts further revealed how technology shapes nonlinear motivational states. These methodological innovations offer promising tools for investigating how motivation evolves over time, and their underlying principles, particularly the emphasis on tracing emergent, context-sensitive processes, are conceptually aligned with the longitudinal orientation of the present study's action research design.

A critical line of inquiry has examined the relationship between L2MSS components and actual language achievement, with findings that complicate assumptions about motivation's automatic behavioral outcomes. Moskovsky et al. (2016) found that while L2MSS components significantly predicted intended learning efforts—replicating prior research—these motivational variables showed no consistent positive correlation with actual L2 proficiency; IL2S and intended learning behavior exhibited weak, negative

correlations with test scores, challenging the assumption that heightened motivation automatically translates into higher attainment. Dunn and Iwaniec (2022), employing latent profile analysis with Spanish adolescents, identified five distinct learner profiles and revealed that IL2S, English self-concept, and L2LE were the strongest differentiators between high and low proficiency learners, while the OL2S played a negligible role. These findings underscore that self-reported motivation does not guarantee behavioral outcomes and that the relationship between self-guides and attainment is heterogeneous and non-linear, highlighting the complex mediation between intentions and achievement.

Parallel to these developments, the L2MSS has faced increasing critical scrutiny regarding its conceptual foundations and measurement integrity. MacIntyre (2022) questioned whether invoking the self as a central concept has been “worth the trouble,” highlighting the self’s inherent complexity, the proliferation of conceptually redundant “selves,” and the framework’s reliance on imagined rather than actual-ideal discrepancies. Al-Hoorie et al. (2024) provided large-scale psychometric evidence that core L2MSS constructs lack empirical distinctiveness—the IL2S was found empirically indistinguishable from language self-concept, suggesting that responses to ideal self items may reflect current competence beliefs rather than future aspirations. Al-Hoorie et al. (2026) experimentally confirmed that IL2S items are predominantly driven by ability beliefs rather than visions of an idealized future. Henry and Liu (2025) identified theoretical confusion arising from Dörnyei’s conflation of Markus and Nurius’s (1986) possible selves with Higgins’s (1987) self-guides, while McClelland and Larson-Hall (2025) exposed systemic methodological flaws in foundational L2MSS studies. Oga-Baldwin (2024) offered a moderate perspective, conceptualizing the situation as an opportunity for constructive advancement, a “crisitunity”, and advocating for a fundamental paradigm shift that prioritizes theoretical refinement and methodological rigor before pursuing new substantive findings. In response, Papi and Teimouri (2025) contest the “validity crisis” characterization, arguing through re-analysis of Al-Hoorie et al.’s (2024) data that the framework’s construct validity has been misrepresented. This productive tension—critics highlighting foundational issues while proponents demonstrating ongoing refinement—converges on the shared priority of enhancing definitional clarity and methodological rigor. Zhou et al. (2025) synthesized 26

empirical studies on the interplay among IL2S, L2 investment, and L2 identity, extending L2MSS research beyond dominant East Asian settings.

The literature reviewed in this section reveals several consistent findings with direct implications for research design. First, the L2MSS framework, while generative, has faced persistent challenges regarding the discriminant validity of its core constructs (Al-Hoorie et al., 2024, 2026; MacIntyre, 2022), underscoring the importance of triangulating multiple data sources rather than relying exclusively on self-report questionnaires. Second, the relationship between self-reported motivation and actual language achievement is neither uniform nor direct (Moskovsky et al., 2016; Dunn & Iwaniec, 2022), suggesting that research designs should incorporate observable behavioral outcomes alongside perceptual measures. Third, empirical evidence of motivational fluctuations across different timescales (Pawlak, 2012; Piniel & Csizér, 2015) and the dynamic systems orientation underlying the L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2009a; Gu, 2023) point to the value of longitudinal designs capable of tracking how motivation evolves over extended periods. Fourth, the persistent inconsistencies regarding the relative predictive power of L2MSS components, particularly the contrasting roles assigned to the ought-to L2 self across studies, underscore the need for context-sensitive investigations that examine how multiple self-guides interact in specific educational settings. These considerations inform the methodological decisions presented in subsequent chapters.

2.6 The Most Important Motivational Strategies in EFL Contexts

The growing body of research on L2 motivation carries significant pedagogical implications, though translating findings into classroom practice requires both theoretical refinement and empirical validation. Since the mid-1990s, when cognitive-situated perspectives gained prominence, researchers have increasingly focused on developing practical motivational strategies for language classrooms (e.g., Abdullah et al., 2019; Brown, 2007; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei, 2001; Guilloteaux, 2013; Williams & Burden, 1997; Wong, 2014). These investigations have predominantly drawn from two distinct lines of inquiry: studies examining motivational strategies from language teachers' perspectives, and research focusing on student-perceived effectiveness.

2.6.1 Foundational Frameworks and Cross-Cultural Validation

The empirical investigation of motivational strategies in TEFL evolved significantly since Gardner and Tremblay's (1994) call for scientific validation of pedagogical approaches. This call was first substantively addressed by Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) landmark study with 200 Hungarian English teachers, which generated the widely cited "Ten Commandments for Motivating Language Learners." Through questionnaire-based data collection, they identified ten macro-strategies ranked by perceived importance, establishing that teachers' classroom behavior constitutes a significant determinant of learner motivation. Building on these foundations, Dörnyei (2001) developed the comprehensive Motivational Teaching Practice (MTP) framework organizing 102 motivational techniques according to the temporal progression of motivation.

However, Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) study acknowledged several limitations: the ranking was based solely on teachers' subjective perceptions, it omitted student perspectives, it did not test actual effectiveness, and it was conducted in a single context (Hungary), raising questions about cross-cultural transferability. These limitations prompted a wave of cross-cultural validation studies.

Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) conducted a modified replication in Taiwan with 387 teachers, finding that while some strategies are culturally dependent, others—particularly those related to teacher behavior, instilling confidence, presenting tasks clearly, and establishing a positive environment—may be considered universally applicable (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012). However, notable dissimilarities also emerged: strategies promoting learner autonomy, which ranked highly in Hungary, demonstrated scant relevance in Taiwan, while Taiwanese teachers placed greater emphasis on celebrating effort and maintaining relationships. Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) attributed these differences to cultural factors, suggesting that Asian contexts characterized by teacher-centered traditions and examination pressures may render certain strategies less effective. This study thus provided foundational evidence that motivational strategy effectiveness is mediated by cultural context.

Wong (2014) extended this line of inquiry through a comprehensive mixed-methods investigation in Hong Kong, incorporating classroom observations, teacher and student questionnaires, and interviews. His findings revealed eight frequently used strategies, including paying attention to students, encouraging risk-taking, ensuring sufficient

preparation, preventing face-threatening situations, and responding supportively to participation. Significantly, Wong's comparative analysis of studies conducted in Oman, Taiwan, Hungary, and Japan revealed clear contextual differentials. Most remarkably, Wong concluded that no universally generalizable strategies could be identified across contexts—even within Asia, strategies perceived as effective by one group might be viewed as ineffective by another. This finding challenges earlier assumptions about strategy transferability and suggests that culture exerts a more dominant influence on strategy effectiveness than previously conjectured.

2.6.2 Strategy Preferences in Asian EFL Contexts

Research from additional Asian contexts provides valuable comparative reference points for understanding Chinese EFL teachers' strategy preferences. Guilloteaux (2013) found that Korean teachers prioritized demonstrating care, showing enthusiasm, establishing rapport, and promoting students' confidence—findings that align closely with those from Chinese contexts, suggesting shared cultural values regarding teacher-student relationships. Similarly, Sugita and Takeuchi (2010) found that Japanese teachers emphasized continuous assessment, sharing personal interest in the target language, and helping students understand that mistakes are part of learning—an emphasis on error acceptance that resonates with findings from Chinese contexts (Wong, 2014).

Grounded in Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) framework, Nguyen and Tran (2025) investigated teacher and student perceptions at a Vietnamese vocational school, revealing strong alignment between both groups in valuing supportive teacher behavior, recognition of effort, positive feedback, and a comfortable learning atmosphere. Teachers additionally prioritized goal-setting and practical tasks tailored to vocational contexts, while students particularly appreciated emotional support and structured confidence-building activities. Strategies involving fantasy or high difficulty were consistently less favored.

Within the Chinese context specifically, Fang (2012) investigated university teachers' strategy use through a two-phase mixed-methods design, identifying 25 commonly used strategies clustered into 12 dimensions including teacher-student rapport, confidence building, classroom climate, goal orientation, and task presentation. Observations largely aligned with questionnaire findings, though certain reported strategies, such as

fostering learner autonomy, were not observed in practice—revealing gaps between reported and enacted practices. Fang further noted that China’s examination-oriented context predisposes teachers toward test-preparation strategies over those promoting intrinsic motivation or autonomy, and identified perceptual gaps between teachers and students regarding strategy effectiveness.

Chen et al. (2019) echoed these findings, demonstrating through a five-week case study in Northwest China that controlling strategies—particularly exercising authority and giving answers directly—dominated classroom practices despite teachers valuing motivation. While teachers attempted autonomy-supportive strategies, they reverted to controlling approaches when students struggled, with contextual pressures driving controlling behaviors regardless of stated beliefs.

Ye and Hu (2026) surveyed 1,489 Chinese junior secondary students and 210 teachers, finding that teachers rated all strategies higher than students, with significant differences on 12 strategies—largest gaps for promoting self-confidence, proper teacher behavior, and recognizing effort. Both groups ranked traditional strategies above vision-based ones, with “proper teacher behavior” top-ranked by both. Students prioritized guidance on achieving an IL2S-image more than teachers did, suggesting a potential gap in vision-based strategy implementation that warrants further investigation.

2.6.3 Research Gaps and Implications for the Present Study

The research landscape reveals several consistent findings. First, certain strategies demonstrate cross-cultural validity, particularly those related to teacher enthusiasm and supportive relationships (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux, 2013; Wong, 2014). Second, studies across diverse Asian contexts consistently identify supportive teacher behavior, recognition of effort, and positive feedback as highly valued (Guilloteaux, 2013; Nguyen & Tran, 2025; Sugita & Takeuchi, 2010; Wong, 2014). Third, cultural context significantly influences strategy preference and effectiveness; as Wong (2014) concluded, no universally generalizable strategies exist across contexts, and this pattern of contextual dependency has been observed beyond Asia as well (Sam, 2021). Fourth, a persistent gap exists between teacher and student perceptions of strategy effectiveness, with teachers frequently overestimating the impact of certain techniques (Chen et al., 2019; Fang, 2012; Wong, 2014; Ye & Hu, 2026).

Despite these valuable contributions, several gaps remain. First, systematic examination of non-English major university teachers' motivational strategies in mainland China is surprisingly limited. Chinese tertiary EFL contexts present distinctive characteristics: large class sizes, examination pressures like the College English Test (CET), and institutional expectations regarding teaching standardization (Fang, 2012). How these unique factors shape strategy selection requires focused investigation. Second, the field has been limited by a reliance on cross-sectional, self-report data, which captures perceptions at a single point rather than the dynamic, long-term effects of motivational interventions. The few studies incorporating observational methods (Chen et al., 2019; Wong, 2014) remain exceptions rather than the norm. Third, while studies from diverse Asian contexts offer comparative insights, research specifically examining the strategies perceived as most important by Chinese university teachers, and the alignment between what teachers report and what they actually do, remains underexplored.

The present study addresses these gaps by: (a) examining motivational strategies from both teacher and student perspectives within the Chinese university context, (b) employing a longitudinal action research design combining classroom observations, teacher self-reports, and effectiveness ratings to move beyond single-point perceptions, and (c) investigating the alignment between reported and enacted practices through triangulated analysis. These contributions establish the foundation for RQ1 and inform the subsequent intervention cycles.

2.7 Effectiveness of Motivational Strategies in Fostering L2 Motivation

While perception-based studies reviewed in Section 2.6 reveal what teachers and students believe to be important, the chapter has also highlighted a recurring methodological limitation: the predominant reliance on cross-sectional, self-report data, which captures perceptions at a single point rather than dynamic motivational processes over time. A distinct line of inquiry has employed longitudinal and quasi-experimental designs to examine whether, how, and under what conditions motivational strategies influence learner motivation. This section reviews key methodological contributions from this literature, with particular attention to what they reveal about research design challenges in capturing motivational change, challenges that offer relevant reference points for the methodological considerations of the present study.

Early longitudinal work established that strategy effectiveness is neither uniform nor guaranteed. Over two months in Japanese secondary EFL classes, Sugita and Takeuchi (2010, as discussed in Section 2.6) found that while teachers employed a diverse range of strategies, only a few correlated significantly with student motivation. Crucially, effectiveness varied by proficiency level: higher-proficiency students responded to different strategies than lower-proficiency learners, empirically validating that motivational strategies are not universally effective and challenging assumptions that frequent strategy use equates to effectiveness. This finding underscores that any investigation of strategy effectiveness must account for learner characteristics, a consideration that is relevant to the present study's tracking of students across proficiency levels.

Subsequent quasi-experimental studies have provided controlled evidence for strategy efficacy while simultaneously revealing methodological constraints. Moskovsky et al. (2013), in an eight-week intervention with Saudi EFL learners, found significant improvements in both trait and state motivation among experimental groups. Similarly, Xiang et al. (2021) reported significant gains in English proficiency and motivational intensity from a ten-week intervention in Chinese higher vocational classes, while Zhuo and Zin (2025) demonstrated that a six-week Motivational Teaching Practice intervention significantly enhanced Malaysian university students' L2 motivation, positive L2 self, and classroom engagement. Despite their methodological strengths, these studies share a critical limitation: intervention periods ranging from six to ten weeks cannot establish whether motivational gains are sustained once systematic implementation ceases. The absence of extended post-intervention follow-up leaves questions about the durability of observed effects unanswered, a limitation that the present study's 26-week design may help explore.

Longer-term designs have offered richer insights into the dynamic nature of motivational processes. Fu (2014) employed classroom action research with 58 first-year non-English majors in China, framed within Dörnyei's motivational strategies framework, to examine whether motivational strategies positively affect student engagement and reading proficiency. Effectiveness was assessed through four intervention cycles using questionnaires, reflective journals, observations, interviews, and pre-post test comparisons. Effective strategies included establishing rapport through teacher self-disclosure, incorporating authentic materials (news articles, films,

music), implementing student-centered group work, and providing graded performance incentives. “News of the Week” proved particularly effective, enhancing vocabulary and engagement. However, teacher-dependent habits and instrumental orientation limited effectiveness for some students, suggesting motivation cultivation requires long-term intervention (also see Section 1.1.7).

A recurring theme across these studies is that strategy effectiveness depends not only on teacher implementation but also on how students perceive and experience those strategies. Min and Chon (2021), surveying Korean high school learners and their teachers, revealed a critical discrepancy: learners significantly underutilized the strategies teachers claimed to employ. Interview data attributed this to insufficient strategy variety, misalignment between teachers’ approaches and students’ personal goals, and unintended negative outcomes. This finding underscores the need for research designs that capture both teacher intentions and learner perceptions—a consideration that is relevant to the present study’s triangulated data collection involving teacher questionnaires, classroom observations, and student perception surveys.

Collectively, the studies reviewed above yield three methodological implications for research design. First, strategy effectiveness is consistently mediated by learner characteristics, contextual factors, and implementation duration—findings that underscore the need for sustained, context-sensitive investigation rather than brief, one-size-fits-all interventions. Second, the field suffers from a notable gap in extended longitudinal evidence: most quasi-experimental studies assess immediate post-intervention effects, while action research provides richer contextual detail but limited causal control. Third, capturing motivational change over time requires designs that move beyond single-point self-report data toward repeated measures across extended timeframes. These considerations are relevant to the present study’s 26-week, three-cycle action research design, which is positioned to track motivational trajectories over a longer period than most prior studies while maintaining contextual authenticity. The design also reflects consideration of perceptual discrepancies documented in the literature (e.g., Min & Chon, 2021), where teacher-reported and student-perceived strategy use were found to diverge significantly.

2.8 Effectiveness of Vision-Based Interventions in Fostering L2 Motivation

The empirical investigation of motivational strategies grounded in L2MSS framework has yielded significant insights into their effectiveness across diverse educational contexts. Papi and Abdollahzadeh's (2012) large-scale study in Iran, involving 741 male students and 17 teachers, demonstrated through systematic classroom observation and questionnaire data that teachers' motivational practices significantly correlated with students' motivated behaviors. This research not only validated the applicability of Dörnyei's L2MSS (2005, 2009b) in an Iranian context but also revealed an important distinction between high- and low-motivation learner groups regarding their future self-guides. While both groups showed comparable IL2S, the low-motivation group exhibited stronger OL2S, suggesting the need for differentiated motivational approaches based on learners' self-concept profiles.

In the Chinese EFL context, Liu's (2010) quasi-experimental study with 112 university freshmen over 16 weeks provided compelling evidence for the framework's validity. The research revealed several key findings: first, that self-based interventions could effectively enhance both motivation and language proficiency; second, that different components of L2MSS varied in their predictive power depending on learners' proficiency levels; and third, that higher-proficiency learners showed delayed ("time-lag") effects from motivational interventions. These findings align with Yang and Li's (2010) assertion that motivational strategy research should adopt a process-oriented perspective to account for learners' evolving motivational profiles.

Building on these foundational insights, subsequent intervention research has further refined understanding of how L2MSS-based strategies operate across different contexts and populations. Magid and Chan (2012) implemented two distinct L2MSS-based vision interventions: a four-month voluntary programme in England with four workshops and two counselling sessions, and a three-month compulsory Hong Kong programme integrated into a self-access language learning course with six sessions and two counselling sessions. Both interventions enhanced Chinese university students' IL2S, motivation, and linguistic self-confidence by clarifying and strengthening their future self-visions. Despite differences in design and duration, the programmes shared core vision-enhancement components. The generalizability of these findings, however,

is constrained by the case study design and the context-specific nature of the small samples. Extending this work to younger learners, Magid (2014) advanced L2MSS intervention research by employing a quasi-experimental mixed-methods design with 16 10-11-year-old Singaporean students (experimental and control groups). Over four months, experimental participants engaged in scripted visualization workshops to enhance IL2S clarity and develop action plans. Questionnaire and interview data revealed 90% of the experimental group showed increased motivation, confidence, and positive attitudes—substantially outperforming controls. However, due to the limited sample size, the researcher could only compare pre- and post-program mean ratings without testing for statistical significance, constraining the robustness of the findings despite the program’s apparent effectiveness. Additionally, approximately 10% of participants showed limited response to the interventions, suggesting individual differences in susceptibility to self-based motivational strategies.

The classroom applicability of L2MSS principles was further explored through action research methodologies. Sampson’s (2012) three-cycle study in a Japanese university context provided valuable insights into the practical implementation of possible self-enhancement activities. The research not only confirmed the motivational potential of activities targeting IL2S but also challenged Dörnyei’s (2009b) scepticism about classroom applications of ought-to selves, demonstrating that peer-influenced ought-to self development could indeed serve as a valuable motivational resource in collectivist educational contexts.

Shifting from action research to controlled experimental designs, the next group of studies examined the effectiveness of L2MSS-based interventions through quasi-experimental and mixed-methods approaches across different cultural contexts.

Wang and Dai’s (2015) mixed-methods study in China offered a more nuanced understanding of L2MSS-based strategies’ effects. Their controlled experiment revealed that while interventions successfully enhanced students’ IL2S, this improvement did not consistently translate into increased motivational states. This finding underscores the complex, multi-factorial nature of L2 motivation and aligns with Ushioda’s (2009) conceptualization of motivation as an “organic process” embedded in broader social and contextual systems. The study’s methodological limitations, particularly the shared teacher variable between experimental and control

groups, highlight the challenges of isolating motivational strategy effects from other instructional factors.

Wang's (2016) subsequent research significantly advanced this line of inquiry through a two-phase investigation that extended the L2MSS framework. The study's key contribution lay in demonstrating how strategy effectiveness varied by proficiency level: high-proficiency learners responded strongly to ideal self-focused interventions, while low-proficiency learners required integrated approaches addressing ought-to selves and learning experiences. These findings not only corroborated but also refined Dörnyei's (2009b) original framework, particularly in collectivist, exam-oriented educational contexts where external expectations play a substantial motivational role.

Mackay (2016) contributed further evidence through a quasi-experimental intervention with 47 university EFL learners in Barcelona, examining whether IL2S activities could enhance motivation. Using semi-structured interviews, language logs, and Language Contact Profile questionnaires analyzed via NVivo and SPSS, the study found subtle positive effects on learners' ideal and feared L2 selves, but no impact on the OL2S. The intervention strengthened learners' awareness of their own learning processes and their tendency to attribute outcomes to personal effort rather than external factors, along with improved classroom dynamics and willingness to communicate. Significant gains in speaking and reading were observed and teachers responded positively but emphasizing the need for careful implementation. The study demonstrates practical potential for L2MSS-based interventions while highlighting the importance of learner maturity and visualization willingness.

More recent studies have extended this line of inquiry to Asian contexts with larger samples and more systematic comparisons. Ye and Hu (2025) extended this line of inquiry through a 10-week quasi-experimental study with 391 Chinese junior secondary students, comparing traditional, vision-based, and combined motivational interventions. Drawing on Hadfield and Dörnyei (2014) and Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014), the vision-based strategies encompassed guided imagery, role model sharing, SMART goal-setting, and simulated authentic communication tasks. Using two-way mixed ANOVAs with Bonferroni-adjusted post-hoc comparisons, they found that all three interventions significantly enhanced participants' IL2S, OL2S, and L2LE immediately post-intervention. Vision-based strategies proved most effective for the IL2S, while

combined strategies yielded superior outcomes for the OL2S and learning experience, with sustained effects only from the combined treatment on the learning experience. Notably, the waning effects of traditional and vision-based treatments over time underscore the need for sustained, carefully planned motivational efforts—a critical insight for action research. However, the exclusion of low-proficiency learners limits generalizability, and the challenge of accommodating individual preferences within intact classes highlights the persistent tension between personalized motivation and practical classroom constraints.

Evidence from other cultural contexts has further contributed to understanding the cross-cultural applicability of vision-based interventions. Safdari (2021) conducted a quasi-experimental study with 51 Iranian EFL learners, implementing a six-step vision-based intervention over one academic semester. ANCOVA results revealed significant improvements in experimental participants' IL2S, imagery capacity, attitudes, and intended effort, while the OL2S remained unchanged. The study demonstrates that structured vision-enhancement tasks can effectively strengthen L2 learners' motivational self-guides, though reliance on self-report instruments and absence of long-term follow-up limit generalizability.

Vlaeva and Dörnyei (2021) made a distinctive contribution by conducting a five-week vision-building course with 25 EAP students in a UK university pathway program, collecting interview data over 10 months—the longest longitudinal vision intervention to date. Their qualitative analysis revealed fluctuating engagement with visualization techniques, demonstrating that while vision training can enhance L2 self-images and motivation, success depends critically on adapting general principles to specific learning contexts. While the study's reliance on self-report instruments and small sample constrains generalizability, its extended timeframe provides valuable longitudinal evidence of motivational fluctuations unavailable in short-term designs.

Employing a pretest-posttest quasi-experimental design, Rad and Alipour (2023) investigated the effects of vision-inspired Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) instruction on 51 Iranian EFL learners from two intact upper-intermediate classes. Over an eight-week period, the experimental group received L2MSS-based vision-inspired instruction integrated into the existing curriculum for 30 minutes prior to regular class time, while both groups continued using CALL tools for writing

instruction. Data were collected through L2MSS questionnaires and writing tasks, and analyzed using ANCOVA. Results revealed significant improvements in the experimental group's IL2S and learning experience compared to the control group, alongside enhanced writing outcomes. However, the absence of random assignment and reliance on self-report instruments limit causal interpretability, and the relatively small sample size further constrains generalizability.

Extending this line of inquiry to a markedly different context, Al-Murtadha (2025) employed a parallel quasi-experimental design with six secondary school EFL classes in Yemen (three experimental, three control) to test a six-week IL2S visualization intervention. Using ANCOVA and qualitative analysis of interviews and narrative frames, the study found significant increases in experimental participants' IL2S, L2LE, and intended learning effort. Qualitative data revealed that role models, action plans, and goal-setting activities enhanced motivation by making visions plausible and keeping them alive. Pedagogically, the findings underscore the value of integrating role models, action plans, and goal-setting into EFL instruction to sustain students' IL2S and motivation. The study demonstrates that L2MSS-based visualization is effective even in low-resource contexts, though the short intervention period and absence of classroom observations limit conclusions about long-term sustainability.

In summary, the studies consistently demonstrate that vision-based L2MSS interventions effectively enhance learners' IL2S, imagery capacity, and motivational intensity across diverse contexts including Iran (Safdari; 2021), Rad & Alipour (2023); China (Liu, 2010; Wang, 2016; Ye & Hu, 2025); Spain (Mackay, 2016); Yemen (Al-Murtadha, 2025) and the UK/Hong Kong (Magid & Chan, 2012). However, the evidence concerning OL2S remains inconclusive, with some studies reporting no change while others suggest contextual influences. Despite these promising findings, several methodological limitations persist across the literature: predominant reliance on self-report instruments, small sample sizes, and critically, short intervention periods with minimal long-term follow-up. These temporal constraints leave fundamental questions unanswered regarding whether observed motivational gains are sustained, diminish, or evolve over time, a gap that necessitates extended longitudinal designs capable of tracking motivational trajectories beyond immediate post-intervention effects.

Addressing this gap requires careful consideration of appropriate timeframes for assessing motivational change. As Jang et al. (2016) argued, selecting measurement intervals must account for both contextual and developmental factors. In the Chinese academic calendar, each 17-week semester constitutes a relatively self-contained experiential unit, bookended by two-month breaks that naturally segment the academic year. Prior research indicates that students require approximately one month to recognize, adapt to, and become influenced by their teachers' classroom practices (Cheon et al., 2020; Jang et al., 2012). Thereafter, changes in students' motivation and engagement induced by teacher practices are thought to stabilize within one to two months (Cheon & Reeve, 2015). These findings suggest that meaningful assessment of motivational change requires multiple measurement points spaced at intervals sufficient to capture both initial adaptation and subsequent stabilization. Ye and Hu's (2025) findings particularly highlight the need for sustained, carefully planned motivational efforts rather than one-off activities—a critical insight for action research, where ongoing teacher commitment and iterative refinement are central.

The present study's 26-week cyclical action research design directly addresses these temporal considerations by enabling systematic tracking of motivational trajectories across an extended timeframe, multiple intervention cycles, and repeated assessment points. By spanning two full semesters, this design captures longer-term motivational trajectories that studies limited to weeks rather than academic terms inevitably miss. Furthermore, the cyclical nature of action research allows for ongoing refinement of strategies in response to students' evolving needs, while the extended timeframe facilitates the inclusion of diverse samples across educational levels, including low-proficiency learners who may have distinct motivational needs and could benefit most from targeted interventions (Ye & Hu, 2025). Thus, the present study is positioned to provide insights into both immediate effects and long-term sustainability that shorter designs cannot capture, addressing a gap identified in the literature for research designs that combine sustained implementation with repeated assessment to understand how motivational strategies operate in authentic educational contexts over meaningful timescales.

2.9 Summary

This chapter has reviewed the theoretical foundations, empirical developments, and methodological debates surrounding L2 motivation research, with particular attention to motivational strategies in EFL contexts and the emerging evidence on vision-based interventions. Four interconnected strands of literature have been examined: the L2MSS framework and its critical debates (Section 2.5), teacher and student perceptions of motivational strategies (Section 2.6), methodological insights from effectiveness studies (Section 2.7), and empirical evidence on vision-based interventions (Section 2.8). Synthesising these strands reveals a coherent set of research gaps that the present study is positioned to address.

First, the L2MSS has fundamentally reshaped understanding of L2 motivation by foregrounding the role of future self-guides in energising motivated behaviour (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009b). The framework's self-regulatory mechanism, namely that vivid and elaborate ideal self-images create a discrepancy that triggers action, has provided the theoretical foundation for vision-based motivational strategies (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014; Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014). However, the L2MSS has faced increasing critical scrutiny regarding its conceptual foundations and measurement integrity (Al-Hoorie et al., 2024, 2026; MacIntyre, 2022; Henry & Liu, 2025). These critiques highlight the need for research designs that move beyond exclusive reliance on self-report questionnaire data toward triangulated approaches incorporating multiple data sources. The dynamic systems orientation (Dörnyei, 2009a; Gu, 2023) and empirical evidence of motivational fluctuations across timescales (Pawlak, 2012; Piniel & Csizér, 2015) further underscore the value of longitudinal designs capable of tracking motivational trajectories over extended timeframes. These theoretical and methodological considerations directly inform the present study's 26-week cyclical action research design.

Second, perception-based studies reviewed in Section 2.6 reveal what teachers and students believe to be important motivational strategies. Foundational frameworks (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001) and cross-cultural validations (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Wong, 2014) have established that while certain strategies, particularly those related to teacher enthusiasm, supportive relationships, and confidence-building, demonstrate cross-cultural relevance, cultural context significantly influences strategy preference and effectiveness. Within the Chinese context, Fang (2012) and Chen et al. (2019) documented that controlling strategies often dominate classroom practices

despite teachers' stated beliefs, and identified perceptual gaps between teachers and students regarding strategy effectiveness. Ye and Hu (2026) further revealed that students prioritised guidance on achieving an IL2S-image more than teachers did, suggesting a potential gap in vision-based strategy implementation. Despite these contributions, systematic examination of non-English major university teachers' motivational strategies in mainland China remains limited, and the alignment between what teachers report and what they actually do remains underexplored. These gaps establish the rationale for RQ1, which investigates Chinese tertiary EFL teachers' perspectives on the most important motivational strategies.

Third, the methodological limitations identified across the reviewed literature point to the need for research designs that capture dynamic motivational processes rather than single-point perceptions. Quasi-experimental studies have provided controlled evidence for strategy efficacy but are constrained by intervention periods of six to ten weeks (Moskovsky et al., 2013; Xiang et al., 2021; Zhuo & Zin, 2025), leaving questions about long-term sustainability unanswered. Longitudinal designs have revealed that motivational processes are bidirectional and that effects may wane over time (Fu, 2014; Zhou et al., 2023; Ye & Hu, 2025). Furthermore, discrepancies between teacher intentions and student perceptions (Min & Chon, 2021) underscore the need for designs that capture both perspectives. These methodological considerations establish the rationale for RQ2, which tracks students' perceptions of common motivational strategies over time to examine whether and how these perceptions change.

Fourth, vision-based interventions have demonstrated effectiveness in enhancing learners' ideal L2 selves, imagery capacity, and motivational intensity across diverse contexts (Liu, 2010; Magid & Chan, 2012; Wang, 2016; Ye & Hu, 2025; Al-Murtadha, 2025). However, the evidence concerning the ought-to L2 self remains inconclusive, and the methodological limitations documented in the broader effectiveness literature, including short intervention periods, reliance on self-report instruments, and absence of extended longitudinal tracking, recur across vision-based intervention studies. Critically, Ye and Hu (2025) found that vision-based treatment effects waned over time, highlighting that even well-designed interventions may not produce lasting change without sustained implementation. This gap is also evident in Chinese tertiary EFL contexts, where systematic investigation of vision-based interventions with non-English major students over extended timeframes remains limited. These gaps

establish the rationale for RQ3, which examines students' perceptions of the effectiveness of strategies designed to develop the ideal English self, and RQ4, which investigates how motivational strategies can be implemented in classroom activities across a two-semester college English course.

Based on the gaps identified above, the present study addresses four research questions concerning: (a) teachers' perspectives on the most important motivational strategies in Chinese tertiary EFL education (RQ1), (b) students' perceptions of strategy effectiveness and whether these perceptions change over time (RQ2), (c) students' perceptions of the effectiveness of IES-building strategies (RQ3), and (d) the implementation of these strategies in classroom activities across a two-semester course (RQ4). These questions, as stated in Chapter 1, guide the present investigation.

In addressing these questions, the present study contributes to the literature in several ways. Methodologically, it responds to calls for research designs that move beyond cross-sectional self-report data by employing a 26-week, three-cycle action research design that combines sustained implementation with repeated assessment, thereby capturing both immediate effects and long-term sustainability. Contextually, it addresses the underexplored population of non-English major university students in mainland China, providing empirical evidence on how motivational strategies, particularly vision-based IES-building strategies, operate in this specific educational setting. Pedagogically, the cyclical action research design allows for ongoing refinement of strategies in response to students' evolving needs, generating practical insights for classroom implementation that extend beyond the identification of "what works" to illuminate "how" and "under what conditions" strategies can be effectively integrated into authentic teaching practice. The methodological approaches employed to address these questions, including teacher questionnaires, interviews, classroom observations, and longitudinal student perception surveys, are detailed in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

Motivation in language learning represents a dynamic process rather than a static outcome (Reeve, 2005). To examine the effectiveness of teachers' motivational strategies in EFL classrooms, this study adopts a process-oriented approach through action research methodology. Classroom research fundamentally involves systematic observation and documentation (Nunan, 1992), and action research follows an iterative cycle of problem identification, intervention planning, implementation, and reflective evaluation. While some scholars critique action research for potential subjectivity in localized educational contexts (Burns, 2009), Ladkin (2005), drawing on phenomenological traditions, argues compellingly that such subjectivity is not a weakness but an epistemological necessity. She posits that meaningful truths, particularly those concerning human action and interaction, are revealed only through active engagement and within the "life-world" of practice, where the researcher's subjective, participatory knowing becomes the very foundation for generating valid, situated insights (Ladkin, 2005, pp. 108-126). Similarly, Walker (1995) defends action research by demonstrating how subjectivity can be rigorously addressed, rather than denied. Through theoretically informed critique (Walker, 1995, p. 11) and reflexive interrogation of researcher positionality, she argues that researchers can challenge personal bias and power imbalances (Walker, 1995, pp. 13-14). This process transforms subjectivity into a tool for surfacing marginalized knowledges and fostering emancipatory practice. This study integrates qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches to enhance methodological rigor and minimize bias. The mixed methods design provides comprehensive, reliable data to reveal how teachers' motivational strategies influence student engagement and learning outcomes.

Given that teachers may consciously employ motivational strategies and that observers' interpretations of classroom dynamics can be subjective (Dörnyei, 2001), this study employs multiple data sources, including questionnaires, learning journals, and semi-structured interviews, to triangulate findings from both teacher and student perspectives. These methods capture nuanced aspects of motivation that classroom observation alone might overlook.

The study was conducted over one academic year (2020–2021) and comprised three complete action research cycles (planning, action, observation and reflection), focusing

on students' evaluations of motivational strategies. Participants included 90 intermediate-level English learners from diverse academic disciplines but at the same grade level. This chapter delineates the theoretical foundations of action research, research design, procedures, instruments, data analysis methods, and ethical considerations, as summarized in the table below (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1: Data Collection Instruments and Analysis by Research Question

Action Research	Research Question	Time Period	Duration	Key Activities	Data Collection Instrument/s	Participants	Analysis Methods
Phase 1 Descriptive Research	Most important motivational strategies: teachers' perspectives (RQ1)	Prior to formal observation	2 days	Pilot observations (×2, 90 min) for protocol refinement and rater training	Classroom observation protocol (OPMCMS)	2 instructors one Cypriot and one Chinese	—
		Feb–Apr 2020	8 weeks	Classroom observations (online, 4 teachers, 32 sessions total)	Classroom observation protocol (OPMCMS)	4 instructors	Frequency analysis (SPSS)
		Early Oct 2020	1 day	MCMS questionnaire (frequency of use)	Teacher questionnaires (MCMS)		Frequency analysis (SPSS)
		Mid-Oct 2020	1 day	MEMS questionnaire (effectiveness)	Teacher questionnaires (MEMS)		Frequency analysis (SPSS)
		Late Oct 2020	7 days	Semi-structured interviews	Interview transcripts		Thematic analysis of interviews
Phase 2 Teaching Intervention	Students' perceptions of strategy effectiveness over time (RQ2)	25/09/2019 - 05/10/2019	Pre-Cycle 1	Pilot questionnaire (Appendix H): 48 items adapted → 44 items retained; Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.976$; administered to establish reliability and validity	Pilot questionnaire (Appendix H)	108 students (95 valid)	SPSS reliability analysis; Cronbach's α and CITC
		25/12/2019-10/07/2020 Week 10, Week 18 and Week 26		—	Student questionnaires (QEFC, QESC, QETC—Part III)	90 students (questionnaires)	Two-way repeated measures ANOVA
	Students' perceptions of IES-building strategies (RQ3)	08/10/2019 - 10/07/2020 Week 1, Week 10, Week 18 and Week 26	26 weeks	17 Motivational activities (Cycle 1)+19 Motivational activities (Cycle 2)+6 Motivational activities (Cycle 3)	Student questionnaires (QBFC; QEFC, QESC, QETC—Part II); Focus group interviews; Learning journals	90 students (questionnaires , journals); 9 students sampled (interviews)	One-way ANOVAs with Tamhane's T2 post-hoc tests; Descriptive statistics; Paired samples <i>t</i> -tests; Inductive thematic coding
	Implementation in a two-semester course (RQ4)				All instruments: OPMCMS, MCMS, MEMS, interviews with teachers, QBFC, QEFC, QESC, QETC, Learning journals; Focus group interviews with students	Entire participant cohort (90 students, 4 teachers, 1 researcher-instructor)	Additional One-way repeated measures ANOVA; Thematic analysis of implementation barriers; Synthesis of quantitative trends and qualitative insights

3.1 Action Research

Effective foreign language teaching requires consideration of numerous theories, techniques, methods, approaches and principles. While grammar-translation, audio-lingual, direct, cognitive, communicative, and total-physical response represent traditional methods, action research (AR) represents a more contemporary approach alongside cooperative, project-based, and multiple intelligence methods. AR originated

with Kurt Lewin's work in 1944 (Lewin, 1947, pp. 150–151) and has since been adapted for language teaching. The term was first developed in the United States during the 1940s and applied to education by Corey (1955). Carr and Kemmis (1986) later developed “educational action research” (EAR), which has become an umbrella term in educational research. Elliott (1991, p. 6) notes that AR in the UK contributed to secondary modern schools' curriculum reforms during the 1960s. This section examines AR's definition, types, features and applicability, and principles and processes.

3.1.1 Definition of Action Research

Lewin (1952) conceptualized AR as a cyclical process progressing from idea to reconnaissance to plan to action and back to reconnaissance. Various scholars have emphasized different aspects of AR: French and Bell (1988) defined it as research on action to enhance effectiveness; Argyris and Schön (1991, p. 86) emphasized its problem-solving nature through context-specific interventions; Kemmis and McTaggart (2014, p. 12) highlighted its collective, self-reflective nature aimed at improving educational practices and practitioners' understanding; while Burns (2005) stressed its capacity to transform social enterprises through practice improvement. Burns (2005) particularly emphasized the close connection between research and teaching, noting that teachers conduct AR—either independently or collaboratively—to better understand their teaching environments and enhance instructional quality.

Synthesizing these perspectives, AR in the present study is conceptualized as a systematic, cyclical inquiry undertaken by the researcher-practitioner within her own classroom context to identify motivational challenges, implement pedagogical strategies, and refine practice through iterative cycles of planning, action, observation, and reflection. This conceptualization draws primarily on Burns' (2005) emphasis on the research-teaching nexus and Kemmis and McTaggart's (2014) self-reflective spiral, while adapting them to the specific needs of investigating L2 motivational strategies in a Chinese tertiary EFL setting.

3.1.2 Types of Action Research

Action research (AR) encompasses several distinct methodological approaches, each characterized by its specific focus and application in educational settings: (1)

Diagnostic AR involves identifying contextual challenges within teaching and learning environments and developing evidence-based solutions to address them; (2) Participatory AR (also referred to as collaborative AR) positions practitioners as both active participants and co-researchers in the inquiry process, emphasizing democratic knowledge production; (3) Empirical AR prioritizes systematic documentation of classroom interventions followed by critical reflection to enhance professional practice and theoretical understanding; (4) Experimental AR employs controlled comparisons of alternative instructional strategies to evaluate their relative effectiveness in specific educational contexts (Chein et al., 1948); Action research (AR) has been categorized into three types based on purpose: (1) Technical AR focuses on improving measurable outcomes through controlled interventions; (2) Practical AR emphasizes collaborative reflection with stakeholders; (3) Critical AR aims to address systemic oppression through transformative change (Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Kemmis & McTaggart, 2014, p. 14; Watkins, 1991, p. 4). These types range from outcome-focused to participatory to emancipatory approaches. The current study adopts a critical action research approach (Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Kemmis & McTaggart, 2014) that integrates empirical (Chein et al., 1948) and participatory elements. Grounded in the emancipatory intent of Dörnyei's (2009b) L2MSS, the study aims not merely to improve teaching techniques but to empower students by addressing their "lack of interest and enthusiasm", a systemic consequence of traditional EFL pedagogy. Through three iterative cycles (question, plan, act, observe, reflect), it systematically documents classroom interventions while positioning students as active participants whose ongoing feedback through learning journals, portfolios, and interviews directly shapes each subsequent cycle. This design transforms motivation from a temporary fix into a sustained, democratically negotiated process, reflecting the critical goal of challenging hegemonic educational practices (Walker, 1995, p. 10) and fostering "emancipatory practice" (Walker, 1995, pp. 13-14).

3.1.3 Features and Applicability of Action Research

While AR has faced criticism from scholars like Cohen and Manion (1985) for lacking scientific rigor, Merriam and Simpson (1984) for contributing limited knowledge due to insufficient controls, and Foster (1972) for often representing either research without action or action without research, its value is staunchly defended by others. For instance,

Richards (2003, p. 232) argues that teachers naturally engage in research processes, asserting that most ESOL teachers are instinctive researchers.

The traditional experimental research methods, originating from natural sciences, typically involve strict designs, controlled variables, and specialized interventions. However, humanities and social sciences involve numerous interacting factors that resist such controls. Action research proves more appropriate for educational research because controlling all variables or conducting teaching experiments under laboratory conditions remains impossible. Moreover, establishing clear causality between teaching processes and outcomes proves particularly challenging. A key advantage of action research lies in its informal nature, which facilitates the improvement of educators' work and enhances educational and pedagogical practice (Cierpiałowska, 2023). This practical orientation is further strengthened by a methodological rigor grounded in contextual relevance. By combining expert and local knowledge for contextual grounding and testing validity through real-world action by invested stakeholders, action research is inherently more capable of producing valid results than conventional social science (Brydon-Miller et al., 2003).

Key features of AR include: (1) Democratic nature—researchers and subjects follow the same process, with both teachers and students determining study focus (Elliott, 1991, p. 6; Kember, 2000, p. 29); (2) Pragmatic orientation—improving current situations or solving educational problems (Carr & Kemmis, 1990, p. 165); (3) Practitioner basis—conducted by teachers or administrators (Nunan, 1994, p. 17); 4) Spiral process—involving multiple cycles of investigation (Nunan, 1994, p. 36); 5) Action centrality (McNiff, 2013, p. 3)—testing and refining teaching interventions; and 6) Reflexivity—combining reflection on actions and outcomes with self-understanding and realization (Elliott, 1995, pp. 10–11).

3.1.4 Principles and Process of Action Research

Scholars have reached consensus regarding the fundamental principles and processes of action research (AR). Elliott (1991) described AR as involving four key stages: reconnaissance, general planning, implementation, and monitoring. Cohen et al. (2007, pp 307–308) outlined an eight-stage action research process in prior literature: (1) identifying a critical teaching problem or innovation need, (2) stakeholder negotiations and draft proposal development, (3) literature review, (4) problem redefinition into

testable hypotheses, (5) research procedure selection, (6) planning continuous evaluation, (7) project implementation with data collection, and (8) data interpretation and dissemination. This iterative framework emphasizes collaborative problem-solving, adaptive refinement, and reflective evaluation. Kemmis and McTaggart (2014) emphasized that AR fundamentally involves self-reflection and follows a spiral cycle model comprising four recursive steps: (1) planning a change, (2) acting and observing the process and consequences of the change, and (3) reflecting on these processes and consequences before (4) replanning for subsequent cycles. However, they cautioned that AR rarely follows this idealized spiral model precisely, as stages frequently overlap and initial plans often require modification based on emerging insights (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2014). In practice, the AR process typically demonstrates greater fluidity, openness, and responsiveness than theoretical models suggest. The current study adopted this essential self-reflective spiral framework, implementing three complete cycles of planning (based on observation, description), acting, observing, and reflecting (from evaluation to replanning to refinement).

3.2 Setting and Context

This study was conducted at a public university in southeastern China, where General English or General Academic English is a compulsory two-year course for all non-English majors pursuing bachelor's degrees. The General (also called College) English curriculum includes different levels (e.g., *College English I*) paired with Audio-Visual-Speaking courses in language labs equipped with computers and headphones. The eighteen-week semester schedule consists of three *College English* sessions and one *Audio-Visual-Speaking* session every two weeks. Students are grouped according to their English proficiency levels, which are determined by their college entrance exam scores. As a degree requirement, they must pass *College English IV* and either the National College English Test Band 4 (CET-4) or Band 6 (CET-6)—approximately equivalent to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) levels B1 to B2 (National Education Examinations Authority, 2018). These standardized tests hold significant weight in China's job market. The courses observed included *College English III*, and *IV*, while the teaching intervention spanned *College English II* and *III*. After completing *College English IV* in their third semester, students are required to take a compulsory course in *General Academic English* or *English for*

Practical Purposes, which includes options such as translation, writing, or business English.

Instruction occurs in traditional classrooms with supplementary materials provided through online platforms and social media. All non-English majors and their instructors use the same textbook series, syllabi, and tests, ensuring uniform content coverage across all sections of each level despite different instructors. The COVID-19 pandemic's global impact since 2020 accelerated online education adoption, resulting in students experiencing fully online, blended, or hybrid instruction through learning applications and computer software. Consequently, this study encompasses not only traditional face-to-face classrooms but also synchronous online and hybrid learning environments.

3.2.1 Setting and Context for Classroom Observation

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, only online synchronous lectures could be observed; however, this approach remains valid as post-pandemic education transitions toward blended learning models, which have demonstrated superior effectiveness compared to traditional instruction (Means et al., 2013). Core pedagogical principles, such as structured interactions and instructor feedback, show consistent efficacy across delivery formats (Bernard et al., 2009), while instructor behaviors (e.g., clarity, scaffolding) remain critical for student engagement (Martin & Bolliger, 2018).

The researcher employed a purposive sampling strategy that strategically combined stratified sampling (by course type) and quota sampling (by instructor gender) to select four representative university-level English courses (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). This approach ensured the inclusion of both general English courses and general academic English courses, taught by a balanced representation of male and female instructors. The selected courses comprised two sections of *College English III* and two sections of *College English IV* for non-English majors, with a total participant pool of 151 students aged 20-22 years. All observed lecture participants were native Mandarin speakers with English proficiency levels ranging from CEFR B1 to B2 (intermediate to upper-intermediate), as validated by Peng et al.'s (2019) empirical study on the alignment between China's Standards of English Language Ability (CSE) and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). All of them had taken China's College English Test Band 4 (CET-4) prior to enrolling in the observed courses.

Following established protocols for observer-as-participant classroom observation (Cohen et al., 2007), all courses were observed through systematically recorded synchronous online sessions to enable subsequent triangulation analysis. The observation period extended over 8 weeks, during which each instructor was observed eight times, with each observation session lasting the full 90-minute class duration. To enhance the reliability of observations, the study incorporated systematic time sampling, complete session recording and multimodal data capture. Observations were scheduled at consistent intervals (approximately weekly) to capture representative instructional sequences (Dörnyei, 2007). Each 90-minute observation encompassed the entire class period from warm-up activities to concluding segments. The screen recordings included simultaneous documentation of the video feeds, audio channels, and digital interactions (chat logs and whiteboard annotations) on the DingTalk app.

3.2.2 Setting and Context for Teaching Intervention

The teaching intervention was implemented in an authentic EFL instructional context at a Chinese university, utilizing a face-to-face blended learning approach. The study employed an action research design across two compulsory undergraduate English courses: General English II (second semester) and General English III (third semester). The prescribed instructional materials consisted of the *New College English Integrated Course* (3rd Edition, Book 3 & 4) and *New College English Viewing, Listening & Speaking* (3rd Edition, Book 4 & 4), published by Zhejiang University Press, which formed the core curriculum framework.

The courses followed an institutionally mandated standardized syllabus with a comprehensive assessment system comprising three formal evaluation components: a midterm examination (20%), final written examination (50%), final oral proficiency test (15%) and participation and assignments (15%). This tripartite assessment structure ensured multidimensional evaluation of students' language competencies. The intervention spanned two consecutive semesters (26 weeks total), with a consistent schedule of four 45-minute instructional sessions per week, supplemented by biweekly dedicated listening practice sessions using the prescribed audio-visual materials.

The action research adopted a three-cycle iterative design. The first exploratory cycle (10 weeks) during the initial semester established baseline data and identified preliminary pedagogical issues. The second refinement cycle (8 weeks) in the

subsequent semester's first half incorporated methodological adjustments. The third consolidation cycle (8 weeks) in the semester's latter half focused on stabilizing effective instructional practices.

The action research features ecological validity through implementation in authentic credit-bearing courses, standardized curriculum delivery using nationally recognized textbooks, systematic integration of all language skills through prescribed materials, controlled implementation with consistent use of approved pedagogical resources, and a longitudinal design allowing for comprehensive observation of learning trajectories, which constitutes its methodological strengths. The selection of Zhejiang University Press's *New College English* series, a widely adopted textbook collection in Chinese universities, ensured the study's relevance to typical EFL instructional contexts in China. The materials' integrated approach to language skills development, combining comprehensive input (reading/listening) with productive output (writing/speaking), provided a solid foundation for implementing the blended learning methodology. The standardized nature of these teaching resources contributed to the reliability of the intervention's implementation across different course levels.

3.3 Participants

The study employed purposive sampling and quota sampling techniques and selected four EFL instructors (one male and three female) teaching general English and general academic English courses at the university level. These participants represented distinct personality types and teaching styles. Additionally, three classes taught by the researcher-instructor participated in the autonomous action research component of the study.

The participating instructors, aged 41–45 years ($M = 43$), each possessed over fifteen years of teaching experience. Preliminary data collection involved classroom observations and surveys to identify existing challenges and current practices regarding motivational strategy implementation. These instructors were selected as primary subjects for addressing Research Questions 1, with the study aiming to identify patterns in motivational strategy adoption that might offer transferable insights for broader teacher populations. To ensure methodological rigor, data triangulation was achieved through supplementary teacher interviews.

The researcher-instructor, a native Mandarin speaker with 18 years of EFL teaching experience, led the autonomous action research component. A total of 110 students from three intact classes (54 female, 56 male) initially participated in the study, all of whom returned the questionnaires. After data screening, 20 questionnaires were excluded due to incomplete responses or patterned answering (e.g., selecting the same response for all items), yielding a final valid sample of 90 students (46 female, 44 male) for quantitative analysis.

All participants were native Mandarin speakers aged 19 to 22 years, representing three academic majors: business, civil engineering, and energy and environmental engineering, with English proficiency levels ranging from B1 to B2 (intermediate to upper-intermediate) on the CEFR scale (Papageorgiou et al., 2019). To enhance internal validity, key variables were controlled, including the instructor's role as the primary motivator, as well as student age and English proficiency levels.

Nine student participants, with three purposively selected from each of three major-specific classes, formed the focus group. This quota sampling design ensured proportional representation from different academic cohorts. The resulting group was small enough for a coherent discussion yet diverse enough to capture a wide spectrum of viewpoints.

3.4 Instruments

This study includes three main stages following the identifying problems and solving problems pattern. In the first stage, surveys and interviews are conducted to identify the motivational problems and the strategies frequently used. Then action research is carried out to examine what strategies are effective through questionnaires among students and focus group interview among students. Finally, the third stage sums and proposes a teaching model infused the most important motivational strategies.

A pilot study served as a preliminary investigation, testing specific research instruments, including questionnaires, interview protocols, or observation tools, before full-scale implementation (Polit & Beck, 2021). Its primary purpose was to evaluate question clarity and assess whether the instruments effectively collect the intended data. In this research, pilot tests were conducted to examine the reliability of the observational protocol for most common motivational strategies, the questionnaire on effectiveness

of common motivational strategies used by teachers in students' opinion and the semi-structured interviews with respectively the teacher and student participants.

All study materials, including questionnaires, interview protocols, and observation rubrics, were initially developed in English to maintain consistency with established international theoretical frameworks. For implementation in Chinese educational settings, a rigorous translation and validation protocol was implemented. Firstly, the instruments underwent professional translation by a team of bilingual researchers specializing in applied linguistics (2 colleagues in TEFL and 3 in applied linguists). Two independent translators first completed forward translations (English to Chinese), followed by a reconciliation process where a third researcher resolved any discrepancies to create a consensus Chinese version. To ensure conceptual equivalence, two additional translators unfamiliar with the original materials performed blind back-translations (Chinese to English). The research team then systematically compared these back-translated versions with the original English instruments, making iterative adjustments until achieving $\geq 95\%$ conceptual consistency across all items.

The finalized Chinese versions were pilot tested with a sample of 20 participants representative of the target population for questionnaires, 5 for interviews and 2 for teachers' questionnaires and interviews. This process identified and addressed any remaining issues with item comprehension, cultural appropriateness, or linguistic nuances, particularly focusing on adapting academic terminology while maintaining the instruments' psychometric properties.

This comprehensive approach followed established cross-cultural adaptation guidelines (Brislin, 1986), ensuring both linguistic accuracy and methodological rigor while preserving the theoretical integrity of all measurement tools across language versions.

3.4.1 Classroom Observation Protocol

The Observational Protocol for Most Common Motivational Strategies (OPMCMS; Appendix A) was developed to systematically document the frequency of use of motivational strategies in L2 classrooms, grounded in Dörnyei's (2001) process-oriented MTP framework comprising four sequential phases: creating an environment that motivates (Section A), fostering initial motivation (Section B), supporting and safeguarding motivation (Section C), and strengthening positive self-evaluation

(Section D). This comprehensive protocol retained the original 102-item pool from Dörnyei's MTP taxonomy, unlike Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) reduced 48-item version, as the current study focused specifically on documenting strategy frequency rather than establishing psychometric properties. The four-section structure (Table 3.2) operationalized this theoretical framework, with Section A containing 27 items assessing foundational classroom climate strategies, Section B evaluating 23 initial motivation techniques, Section C monitoring 38 maintenance strategies, and Section D tracking 14 positive reinforcement approaches.

Table 3.2: Structure of the Classroom Observation Protocol

Section	Content	No. of Items	Types of Questions
A	Creating an environment that motivates	27	Numerical (open-ended) questions
B	Strategies to foster initial motivation	23	Numerical (open-ended) questions
C	Supporting and safeguarding motivation	38	Numerical (open-ended) questions
D	Strengthening Positive Self-Reflection	14	Numerical (open-ended) questions

Examples of items in Section A included the following:

- 1). *Be a living example of engagement by sharing your fascination with the L2.*
- 2). *Demonstrate to your class that you see L2 acquisition as a personally rewarding journey, one that brings fulfillment and enhances your worldview.*

These measures demonstrate and show teachers' own enthusiasm for the course material, and how it affects teachers personally, which sets motivational conditions for students. Examples of items in Section B included the following:

- 1). *Arrange for senior students to share their success stories with your class.*
- 2). *Use a class newsletter as a vessel to circulate a synthesis of student perspectives back to the group.*

Such techniques are used to stimulate students' initial motivation by enhancing the learners' language-related values with the presentation of their peer role models. Examples of items in Section C included the following:

- 1). *Try to make your teaching tasks and other classroom activities as diverse as possible.*
- 2). *Pay as much attention to keeping students engaged as you do to giving them information.*

In doing so, teachers break up the routine to keep learning fresh and engaging. Students' motivation can be protected as a result. Examples of items in Section D included the following:

- 1). *Guide learners to attribute setbacks to effort and strategy, not ability.*
- 2). *Reject ability attributions and stress that the syllabus is within every learner's reach.*

Such practice promotes effort attributions in students so as to help establish positive self-evaluation (Dörnyei, 2001).

The protocol's development involved rigorous adaptation and testing procedures. Initial validation included pilot implementations across diverse instructional contexts—a face-to-face TESOL writing lecture at a university in Cyprus and a synchronous online general English session at a public university in southeastern China—to refine the observation system, establish rating consistency, and familiarize researchers with the protocol's application. Two TESOL experts subsequently evaluated content validity, providing critical guidance for coding complex, multi-categorical teaching behaviors. Their recommendations proved particularly valuable for documenting overlapping strategies such as formative feedback practices that might simultaneously address multiple framework components (e.g., acknowledging student contributions while providing developmental feedback).

The formal observation phase involved eight weeks of systematic classroom monitoring for each participating instructor and their respective student groups, combining real-time protocol completion with video recordings for subsequent verification. Observers recorded the use frequency of each motivational strategy used by each participant per

90-minute lesson directly into the protocol, assigning each observed teacher behavior to the most directly applicable strategy category. When a behavioral instance simultaneously aligned with multiple strategies, it was recorded under all applicable categories. For example, a teacher praising a student who attempted an answer despite inaccuracy was recorded both as S91 “Be attentive to and respond supportively to valuable student participation” and S70 “Direct attention toward learners’ existing strengths and capabilities,” as the behavior reflected both responsiveness and recognition of student effort. The researcher maintained detailed marginal notes during live observations for strategies that were uncertain or exceptional, and any such cases were subsequently verified by reviewing lesson recordings.

The researcher acknowledges that interpreting certain motivational strategies through observation involves a degree of subjectivity, as some strategies manifest through teachers’ discursive behaviors that require inference. To address this, clear operational criteria were applied: for instance, a teacher sharing personal experiences or expressing genuine interest in lesson content was recorded as employing the strategy “be a living example of engagement by sharing your fascination with the L2”; when a teacher reminded students of available support channels (e.g., leaving messages on DingTalk) or expressed willingness to assist, this was recorded as “be accessible and ready to support students in their academic work.” While this interpretive process inherently involves researcher judgment, the combination of real-time documentation, video verification, and triangulation with questionnaire data helps strengthen the reliability of these observational findings.

All data subsequently transferred to Excel for statistical analysis using SPSS21.0 for means of the frequency of strategies (see Appendix R). These observational findings were triangulated with data from two parallel questionnaires: the Most Common Motivational Strategies survey (MCMS; Appendix B) which confirmed 51 strategies as regularly used, and the Most Effective Motivational Strategies instrument (MEMS; Appendix C) which identified 57 strategies as particularly impactful. The intersection of these datasets informed the selection of strategies for subsequent investigation.

The observation protocol directly shaped subsequent research instruments in three significant ways. First, it provided the item bank for the MCMS and MEMS questionnaires. Second, it guided the development of semi-structured interview

protocols (Appendix D), which explored instructors' rationale for adopting or omitting specific strategies, particularly addressing unexpectedly low-frequency items like group norm strategies (S21, S27, S82) that showed minimal implementation ($M = 0.00$). Third, the observational findings led to strategic modifications in later-phase questionnaires (QEFC, QESC, QETC), including the removal of rarely observed strategies such as student involvement in course design (S48; $M = 0.03$) and alternative assessment methods (S99, S102; $M = 0.00$), while adding frequently implemented practices like demonstrating academic availability (S4; $M = 0.81$) and maintaining classroom expectations (S5; $M = 0.59$). Additional procedural strategies such as attendance documentation (S42) and rule reinforcement (S43) were incorporated based on their observed prevalence.

The protocol's four-phase structure enabled nuanced analysis of motivational teaching practices while maintaining theoretical fidelity to Dörnyei's (2001) framework. Section A items captured teachers' establishment of supportive learning environments through personal modelling and value demonstration. Section B observations documented strategies for sparking initial engagement through peer modelling and value activation. Section C tracking revealed how instructors sustained motivation through task variation and flow maintenance. Section D recordings assessed reinforcement techniques promoting growth mindsets. This comprehensive approach ensured the observational data could effectively inform subsequent research phases while providing rich, theoretically grounded insights into actual motivational strategy use in L2 classrooms.

3.4.2 Semi-structured Interviews with the Teacher Participants

The semi-structured interview protocol (Appendix D) was developed to collect qualitative data from teacher participants regarding their implementation of motivational strategies in both online and face-to-face classroom contexts. Following established methodological principles (Ratner, 2002), this approach combines the reliability of structured interviews with the flexibility to explore emerging themes, thereby providing comprehensive insights into participants' experiences and perspectives. The interview design serves as a crucial supplementary data source that complements and triangulates findings from classroom observations and questionnaire surveys.

The protocol consists of four systematically organized sections, as detailed in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Outline of the Teacher Interview Protocol

Sections	Items
A Advantages of Online Teaching	Q1, what do you think are the advantages of online-live teaching in motivating students?
B Challenges of Online Teaching	Q2, what do you think are the challenges of online-live teaching in motivating students?
C Reasons for Application of Some Motivational Strategies	Q3, why did/didn't you adopt the motivational strategies (based on classroom observation)?
D Adaptability of Some Motivational Strategies	Q4, what motivational strategies can be carried over to face-to-face teaching as the advisable from on-line live teaching?

Section A examines perceived advantages of synchronous online instruction for student motivation (Q1), while Section B investigates corresponding challenges in this teaching modality (Q2). Section C explores instructors' rationales for adopting or omitting specific motivational strategies identified during classroom observations (Q3). The final section (D) assesses the potential transferability of effective online motivational techniques to traditional classroom settings (Q4). This structured yet flexible format enables in-depth examination of several critical dimensions: the frequent implementation of theoretically less important strategies in online environments (Section A), the limited use of potentially valuable techniques (Section B), the contextual factors influencing strategy selection (Section C), and the cross-modal adaptability of motivational practices (Section D).

The semi-structured interview approach offers particular advantages for this investigation. As noted by Ratner (2002), this method maintains focus on predetermined research topics while allowing for exploration of unanticipated yet relevant themes that emerge during the interview process. The conversational nature of the interviews facilitates deeper understanding of individual instructors' pedagogical decision-making and personal experiences with various motivational strategies. This methodological approach proves especially valuable for explaining apparent contradictions between theoretical strategy importance and actual implementation frequency observed in earlier research phases.

The interview protocol was carefully designed to address specific gaps in the quantitative data collected through observations and surveys. By investigating why certain strategies were frequently used despite their theoretical insignificance (particularly in online contexts), why important strategies were underutilized, and how strategies might be adapted across teaching modalities, the interviews provide critical explanatory power to the study's findings. The protocol's four-section structure ensures systematic coverage of all key research dimensions while maintaining sufficient flexibility to pursue unique insights offered by individual participants.

This interview design contributes significantly to the study's methodological rigor by enabling data triangulation across multiple collection methods. The qualitative insights gained through these interviews help contextualize and explain patterns identified in the observational and survey data, particularly regarding discrepancies between instructors' reported practices and their actual classroom behaviors. Furthermore, the focus on both online and face-to-face teaching contexts allows for comparative analysis of motivational strategy effectiveness across different instructional modalities.

The semi-structured interviews with teacher participants were conducted in Chinese, the participants' native language, to ensure clear communication and nuanced expression. Interview questions were developed based on preliminary findings from classroom observations and aligned with the study's research questions. Each of the four participating teachers completed individual interviews lasting approximately 30 minutes, with two conducted face-to-face and two via WeChat video calls.

Prior to data collection, the researcher followed established ethical protocols. Participants received a comprehensive explanation of the interview purpose and procedures, enabling informed consent. The researcher disclosed information about recording methods, interview duration, data handling procedures, and confidentiality measures. All participants reviewed and signed consent forms (see Appendix G) confirming their voluntary participation and right to withdraw at any time. The consent process emphasized that responses would remain anonymous in subsequent analyses and that participants would receive transcripts for member checking to ensure accuracy.

The interviews specifically explored teachers' rationales for adopting or omitting particular motivational strategies, along with their perceptions of advantages and challenges in online teaching environments. Digital recordings of all interviews were

subsequently transcribed verbatim by the researcher. A sample transcript appears in Appendix E. To ensure data credibility, the researcher employed triangulation through member checking, allowing participants to verify transcript accuracy. The verified transcripts were then analyzed using thematic analysis, with codes developed inductively to capture emergent patterns. Microsoft Excel software supported the coding process through systematic organization and categorization of data. This analytical approach followed established qualitative research procedures to identify recurring themes and relationships within the dataset.

All four participants actively engaged in the interview process and subsequent verification activities. The interview methodology maintained rigorous standards throughout data collection, processing, and analysis phases, adhering to established qualitative research protocols.

3.4.3 Questionnaires

3.4.3.1 Questionnaires of Most Common and Effective Motivational Strategies (MCMS & MEMS)

Given that teachers' conscious adoption of motivational strategies and observers' measurements of such practices may involve subjectivity (Dörnyei, 2001), teacher participants provided their perceptions through two complementary questionnaires: the Most Common Motivational Strategies (MCMS; Appendix B) and Most Effective Motivational Strategies (MEMS; Appendix C) instruments. Both questionnaires were developed based on the 102 motivational strategies identified in the Observational Protocol for Most Common Motivational Strategies (OPMCMS).

The MCMS questionnaire measured the self-reported frequency of strategy use in teachers' practice, while the MEMS questionnaire assessed teachers' perceptions of each strategy's effectiveness. Both instruments employed 5-point Likert scales, maintaining consistency with items in OPCMS, the MCMS, 1 = hardly ever to 5 = very often, and the MEMS, using a parallel effectiveness scale (1 = absolutely ineffective to 5 = absolutely effective). The identical 102-item structure across all three instruments (OPCMS, MCMS, and MEMS) enabled direct comparison of observational and self-report data (see Table 3.1 for complete structure).

The questionnaires were administered in English to align with the EFL teachers' professional context, serving three core research purposes: documenting strategy implementation frequencies, evaluating perceived effectiveness, and triangulating observational data. Quantitative analysis was performed using SPSS 21.0 to examine response patterns, with the results systematically compared against classroom observation findings. This integrated approach specifically addressed Research Question 1 concerning the identification of most significant motivational strategies in Chinese EFL teaching contexts.

3.4.3.2 Questionnaire of Effectiveness of Motivational Strategies in English Classroom for Pilot Study

Questionnaire of Effectiveness of Motivational Strategies in English Classroom (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Fang, 2012) for Pilot Study was handed out to 108 students in the parallel classes (three groups studying the same General English course—shared similar English education backgrounds and native language profiles, all being non-English majors) before the beginning of the first cycle of the teaching experiment. To avoid language problems the Chinese version translated from English is used. It was tailored to assess strategy effectiveness from students' perception. 95 valid questionnaires were collected. Initially, forty-eight items were adapted from validated instruments used in similar Confucian cultural contexts (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux, 2013), with modifications based on Mainland China-specific studies (Fang, 2012; Liu, 2010; Wang, 2016). After incorporating findings from the classroom observations, 44 items were selected for the pilot study questionnaire (see Appendix H). The Chinese-language version was used to ensure comprehension.

The pilot study was conducted to establish the questionnaire's reliability and validity among students taught by the observed teachers. Analysis using SPSS yielded a Cronbach's α of 0.976, exceeding the 0.8 threshold for good reliability (see Table 3.4). While deleting items like "Teach students learning techniques," "Show your enthusiasm for teaching," and "Design tasks within students' ability" could have improved reliability, only the latter was ultimately removed due to conceptual overlap with item 28 "Set tasks that push students just beyond their comfort zone." The retained items all demonstrated good corrected item-total correlations ($CITC > 0.4$), confirming the questionnaire's appropriateness for research use.

Table 3.4: Reliability of the Questionnaire for Pilot Study

No. of Items	Samples	Cronbach's alpha
42	50	0.976

Forty-three motivational strategies were ultimately selected for testing their effectiveness on students (see Part III, Appendix J, Questionnaire at the End of the First Cycle or Table 5.4).

Initially, pre-intervention questionnaires assessing strategy effectiveness were administered online separately from motivational orientation and IES activity surveys to avoid respondent fatigue. This approach yielded only a 50% response rate, which was deemed insufficient for analysis due to the small sample size. In accordance with Economidou-Kogetsidis' (2023) methodology, subsequent questionnaires were distributed in paper format during face-to-face sessions. These revised instruments combined both assessment domains while incorporating cycle-specific activity evaluations. For the second and third cycles, IES activity questions were translated into Chinese (Appendices K & L) to improve participant comprehension and data collection efficiency.

3.4.3.3 Questionnaire at the Beginning of the First Cycle (QBFC)

To assess classroom motivation, a questionnaire was developed based on the theoretical framework that conceptualizes learner motivation as comprising both trait and state orientations (Brophy, 1987), while acknowledging the interplay between situation-specific and general motives in task motivation (Dörnyei, 2002; Julkunen, 2001). At the beginning of the autumn semester, the Questionnaire Before the First Cycle (QBFC; Appendix I) was administered to evaluate students': (a) English learning appraisals, (b) personal interests, (c) motivational sources, and (d) current motivational intensity. This instrument served to identify predominant motivational orientations and states, thereby informing subsequent research questions. The complete QBFC structure is presented in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: QBFC Structure—College Students' English Learning Motivation

Parts	Content	Items	Question Types
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Section I	Personal information	4 (Question 1–4)	Open-ended Responses
	IES	9 (Question 5–13)	5-point Likert Scale
Section II	OES	13 (Question 14–26)	
	ATC	8 (Question 27–34)	
	LSC	8 (Questions 35–42)	
	MLE	10 (Questions 43–52)	

QBFC is a questionnaire on College Students' English Learning Motivation. It contains two sections. Section I are four questions for participants' person information. The rest 48 questions are targeting learners' ideal second language self (Question 5–13), ought-to second language self (Question 14–26), Questions 27–34 address learners' attitudes to their English language teacher, the English course, the group of EFL learners in their class, and themselves as EFL learners (Question 35–42). The rest 10 questions (Question 43–52) are for learning trait motivation in general. Most of the questionnaire items were drawn from Dörnyei's (1994) Model of L2 motivation.

The questionnaires assessing students' motivational orientations, IES, and perceptions of IES-enhancing activities were adapted from multiple validated sources (Fang, 2012; Liu, 2010; Moskovsky et al., 2013, pp. 34–62; Taguchi, et al., 2009; Wang, 2016). Glesne and Peshkin (1992) emphasized that pilot studies help identify potential issues before committing significant time and resources to the main study, while also improving the questionnaire's internal reliability. Internal consistency was evaluated using Cronbach's alpha (α), the most widely accepted measure of reliability for questionnaire items (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). This metric reflects the correlation and standardization of elements within the instrument. As Cho and Kim (2014) noted, a Cronbach's alpha value above 0.7 confirms the reliability of the variables measured. Table 3.6 outlines the interpretation of different alpha ranges.

Table 3.6: Reliability Test, Range and Indication (Cho & Kim, 2014)

Value of Cronbach's Alpha	Reliability Analysis
Less than 0.59	Poor
0.60–0.69	Acceptable
0.70–0.79	Moderate
0.80–0.89	Good
0.90–0.99	Excellent

1.00	Perfect
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In this study, the reliability of student responses was assessed using Cronbach's alpha. The results demonstrated excellent internal consistency (see Table 3.7): for the 48-item *Questionnaire on College Students' English Learning* (QBFC; see Appendix I), administered at the beginning of the first cycle (autumn semester), the alpha coefficient was 0.96, far exceeding the 0.9 threshold for exemplary reliability (Cho & Kim, 2014).

Table 3.7: Overall Instrument Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficients

Content	No. of Items	Cronbach alpha
IES	9	0.92
OES	13	0.89
ATC	8	0.84
LSC	8	0.85
MLE	10	0.88
The Whole Questionnaire	48	0.96

The QBFC aimed to explore participants' motivational orientations and states, including their ideal English self (IES), ought-to English self (OES), linguistic self-confidence (LSC), and overall motivation in learning English (MLE). These data informed the formulation of research questions for the subsequent action research cycle.

These measures were consolidated into four integrated instruments: the Questionnaire at the End of the First Cycle (QEFC; Appendix J), progressively modified versions for the second (QESC; Appendix K) and third cycles (QETC; Appendix L), and the learning journal (Appendix O). Each iteration incorporated adjustments based on action research outcomes.

3.4.3.4 Questionnaire at the End of the First Cycle (QEFC)

The Questionnaire at the End of the First Cycle (QEFC; see Appendix J) was developed as a comprehensive evaluation tool to assess the effectiveness of motivational strategies in students' opinion in the first 8-week teaching intervention in college English classrooms. Integrating Questionnaire at the Beginning of the First Cycle (QBFC, Part I of QEFC), which measured students' baseline motivational orientations including IES, OES, and ATC, LSC and MLE, QEFC was specifically designed to capture post-

intervention changes in motivation and strategy effectiveness. The instrument also comprised another two structurally integrated yet conceptually distinct sections, each serving specific assessment purposes while maintaining methodological continuity with the QBFC for longitudinal comparison. The structure of QEFC is demonstrated in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8 Structure of Questionnaire at the End of the First Cycle (QEFC)

Content	Items	Question Types
Part I Questionnaire on College Students' English Learning Motivation		
Personal information	4 (Question 1–4)	Open-ended Responses
IES	9 (Question 5–13)	5-point
OES	13 (Question 14–26)	Likert Scale
ATC	8 (Question 27–34)	
LSC	8 (Questions 35–42)	
MLE	10 (Questions 43–52)	
Part II A Effectiveness of Motivational Strategies Oriented to Improve Students' IES		
1) Creating the vision	2 (Question 1–2)	5-point
2) Substantiating the vision	3 (Question 3–5)	Likert Scale
3) Counterbalancing the vision	5 (Question 6–10)	
4) Enhancing the vision	Question 11	
5) From vision to goals	4 (Question 12–15)	
6) From goals to plan	2 (Question 16–17)	
Part II B Your Ideas on the Effectiveness of Motivational Activities this Semester		
Your Ideas on the Effectiveness of Motivational Activities this Semester	1	Open-ended Responses
Part III Questionnaire on the Effectiveness of Motivational Strategies in English Classroom		
1) Display appropriate teacher behaviors	1 (Question 1–7)	5-point
2) Positive feedback	2 (Question 8, 11)	Likert Scale
3) Strengthen learner confidence through consistent encouragement.	2 (Question 9, 12)	
4) Encourage positive retrospective self-evaluation.	Question 10	
5) Provide students with learning techniques.	2 (Question 13–14)	
6) Create an accepting, friendly classroom climate and a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms.	3 (Question 15–17)	

7) Present and select tasks properly.	3 (Question 18–20)
8) Make sure the lessons relate directly to your students.	Question 21
9) Help students design individual study plans.	Question 22
Implement structured goal-setting techniques with students.	Question 23
10) Enhance the learners' awareness of the values associated with knowing the L2.	2 (Question 24, 27)
11) Create appealing activities to make learning more exciting and enjoyable.	3 (Question 25, 26, 28)
12) Foster learners' intrinsic motivation for the L2 learning process.	4 (Question 29–32)
13) Ensure learners see the Extrinsic benefits of their language skills.	Question 33
14) Strengthen learners' language values by exposing them to peers who embody those ideals.	Question 34
15) Collaboratively establish clear group norms and guide learners to discuss and take ownership of them.	Question 35
16) Foster team cohesion.	3 (Question 36, 37, 39, 40)
17) Develop students' ability to motivate themselves.	Question 38
18) Ensure the group norms are consistently observed.	Question 41
19) Stress classroom discipline and group norms	Question 42
20) Design grading to incentivize learning and minimize discouragement.	Question 43

Part I replicated the QBFC's structure to enable direct pre-post comparisons, consisting of 4 open-ended demographic questions and 48 Likert-scale items (5-point) assessing five key motivational dimensions: IES (9 items), OES (13 items), ATC (8 items), LSC (8 items), and MLE (10 items). Part II introduced novel assessment components by evaluating 17 newly implemented activities derived from L2MSS theory through a 5-point Likert scale across six sub-dimensions: vision creation (2 items), substantiation (3 items), counterbalancing (5 items), enhancement (1 item), goal translation (4 items), and planning implementation (2 items), supplemented by open-ended qualitative feedback. Part III represented an empirically refined adaptation from prior pilot studies, systematically assessing 43 classroom motivational strategies (originally 44 before excluding "Design tasks within students' ability" based on preliminary findings through

Questionnaire of Effectiveness of Motivational Strategies in English Classroom for Pilot Study survey) using a 5-point Likert scale.

The questionnaire was administered face-to-face immediately post-intervention to 110 participants, with data processing following rigorous analytical protocols. Quantitative analysis employed SPSS 21.0 for descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations) and inferential tests (ANOVA with Tamhane's T2 post-hoc adjustments for unequal variances), while qualitative responses underwent systematic thematic coding. This mixed-methods approach yielded three key methodological insights that informed subsequent research instruments: first, the 5-point Likert scale effectively minimized neutral responses while maintaining discriminative sensitivity; second, certain strategy phrasings required linguistic refinement for enhanced clarity; third, the exclusion of "Design tasks within students' ability" was empirically validated. Furthermore, the QBFC-QEFC structural alignment established a robust framework for longitudinal motivation tracking, demonstrating how theoretically-grounded instrument design can both assess intervention outcomes and iteratively improve research tools across action research cycles.

3.4.3.5 Questionnaire at the End of the Second Cycle (QESC)

The Questionnaire at the End of the Second Cycle (QESC, see Appendix K) was administered following the second 8-week teaching intervention to assess the effectiveness of implemented motivational strategies. The instrument maintained the same three-part structure as the first cycle's questionnaire (QEFC), with Part I measuring students' English learning motivation (including IES, OES, LSC and MLE), Part II evaluating L2MSS-oriented motivational activities, and Part III assessing common classroom motivational strategies. Key modifications from QEFC included: presenting Part II in Chinese to eliminate language barriers and expanding the L2MSS activity evaluation to 19 items to facilitate cross-cycle comparison.

The questionnaire was distributed face-to-face to the same cohort of 110 students after the teaching intervention. Data collection procedures strictly followed the same protocol as the first cycle to ensure consistency. For quantitative analysis, preliminary checks were first conducted to identify and address any out-of-range or missing values. The data then underwent paired samples *t*-tests ($N = 3870$) using SPSS 21.0 to compare students' perceptions of the 43 motivational strategies between the two cycles. Further

paired samples *t*-tests ($N = 90$) were performed for each individual strategy to identify specific differences. Descriptive statistics including means and standard deviations were calculated for all items. For the evaluation of L2MSS activities in Part II, means and standard deviations were computed to assess overall effectiveness, followed by ANOVA and Tamhane's T2 post-hoc tests to examine differences between highly-rated and lowly-rated activities. Qualitative responses from open-ended questions were analyzed through thematic coding to identify patterns in student feedback.

The analytical approach focused specifically on addressing the research questions: paired samples *t*-tests examined whether students' perceptions of motivational strategies changed significantly between cycles, while descriptive statistics and ANOVA analyzed the effectiveness of newly implemented L2MSS activities. This rigorous, focused methodology ensured the validity and reliability of findings regarding strategy effectiveness and motivational changes across the intervention periods. The data processing methods were deliberately restricted to those explicitly mentioned in the research materials, with no additional analytical techniques introduced beyond the specified paired samples *t*-tests and associated procedures.

3.4.3.6 Questionnaire at the End of the Third Cycle (QETC)

The Questionnaire at the End of the Third Cycle (QETC, see Appendix L) was developed as a standardized assessment tool to evaluate the effectiveness of motivational strategies implemented during the third cycle of this action research study. Building upon the structure of previous questionnaires (QEFC and QESC), the QETC maintained consistency in core sections while introducing targeted modifications to assess newly implemented L2MSS-based activities. The questionnaire consisted of three main parts, each serving distinct research purposes. Part I comprehensively evaluated students' English learning motivation across five key dimensions: IES (8 items), OES (12 items), ATC (7 items), LSC (7 items), and MLE (9 items), using a 5-point Likert scale for all 52 items.

The most significant adaptation in QETC appeared in Part II, which specifically assessed six newly implemented IES-oriented activities divided into two categories: three vision-maintenance activities (watching English movies with discussion, participating in English competitions, and reflecting on motivational strategies) and three goal-transformation activities (breaking down goals, creating task lists, and

establishing learning contracts). To ensure participant comprehension, all items in this section were presented in Chinese rather than English. Part III maintained consistency with previous cycles by evaluating the same 43 commonly used motivational strategies in English classrooms, ensuring longitudinal comparability. However, open-ended questions were omitted in this cycle due to limited participant engagement observed in the first two cycles.

Administration of the QETC followed strict protocols, with hard copies distributed to participants immediately following the 8-week teaching intervention during the late spring semester. The standardized administration process included controlled classroom distribution and immediate collection upon completion. Data analysis employed SPSS 21.0 for sophisticated statistical examinations, including two-way RM-ANOVA to investigate time and strategy interaction effects, paired samples *t*-tests for cross-cycle comparisons, and comprehensive descriptive statistics. When data violated sphericity assumptions, appropriate corrections such as Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments were applied to maintain analytical rigor.

The QETC's design facilitated multiple research functions. Its longitudinal structure enabled tracking of motivational changes across three research cycles, while the specialized Section II provided focused assessment of cycle-specific interventions. By maintaining core questionnaire elements from previous administrations while strategically introducing targeted modifications, the QETC allowed for both consistent trend analysis and novel intervention evaluation. This balanced approach supported investigation of all primary research questions: RQ2 (strategy effectiveness through 43-strategy comparison), RQ3 (IES activity efficacy via Section II), and RQ4 (pedagogical model development through motivational trend analysis). The questionnaire data was further enriched through triangulation with weekly learning journals, post-intervention focus group interviews, and systematic classroom observations, creating a comprehensive dataset for thorough analysis of the motivational interventions' impacts.

3.4.4 Semi-Structured Interviews with the Student Participants

The semi-structured interview protocol for student participants (Appendix N) was adapted from established instruments (Liu, 2010; Dörnyei & Hadfield, 2014) and administered as focus group discussions at the conclusion of each instructional cycle. These interviews were designed to complement questionnaire data by examining

students' attitudes toward English learning and their motivational dynamics, thereby enabling methodological triangulation. The protocol addressed multiple dimensions of language learning motivation, including students' evaluations of visionary programs, confidence in English proficiency, perceptions of target language cultures, and the interplay between personal aspirations and parental expectations regarding English use.

This semi-structured interview (Table 3.9) contains 28 questions across four themes. Theme 1 (10 questions) explores overall motivational states: attitudes toward the course (Q1), motivational orientations (Q2), engagement (Q3), motivation changes over time (Q13, 14, 17), progress and setbacks (Q21, Q22), ideal selves and parental expectations (Q12), and self-efficacy (Q8, Q10). Theme 2 (8 questions) examines perceptions of vision-based strategies to develop IL2S, including goal-related strategies (Q5, 6, 7, 9, 15, 19, 20) and task completion suggestions (Q16). Theme 3 (8 questions) addresses strategy implementation and learning context: environment (Q4, 11, 24), standardized tests (Q18), tools/resources (Q25, 26), instructional modes (Q27), and influential people (Q23). Theme 4 (1 questions) collects open reflections (Q28).

Table 3.9: Outline of the Focus Group Interview Protocol with Students

Theme	Subtheme	Items
Overall Motivational State and Changes (for RQ3)	Attitudes Toward the Course	Q1
	Motivational Orientations	Q2
	Engagement and Commitment	Q3
	Changes in Motivation Over Time	Q13, Q14, Q17
	Experiences of Progress and Setbacks	Q21, Q22
	Ideal Selves, Wishes and Students' Parents' Ideals about How they will Use English in their Future	Q12
	Self-Efficacy and Perceived Challenges	Q8, Q10
Perceptions of Motivational Strategies to develop IES (for RQ3)	Perceptions of Vision- and Goal-Related Strategies	Q5, Q6, Q7, Q9, Q15, Q19, Q20
	Task Completion and Suggestions for Improvement	Q16
Implementation of Motivational Strategies and Learning Context (for RQ4)	Learning Environment and Contextual Factors	Q4, Q11, Q24
	Attitudes Toward Standardized Tests	Q18
	Learning Tools and Resources	Q25, Q26
	Preferences for Instructional Modes	Q27
	Influential People and Events	Q23

Nine participants (coded IA-II) were recruited through stratified random sampling from the 110 students who completed the three-cycle intervention. Three students were randomly selected from each of the three participating classes, with efforts made to ensure diversity across academic majors and gender. Prior to the interviews, all selected students were informed of the purpose of the study, the voluntary nature of their participation, and their right to withdraw at any time without consequence. Written informed consent was obtained from each participant. All interviews were conducted in Chinese to ensure comprehension. Sessions were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim, with subsequent translation and back-translation procedures employed to verify linguistic accuracy. Thematic analysis incorporated both deductive and inductive approaches, with responses coded at the utterance level. Frequency calculations represented the proportion of students endorsing particular views (e.g., single occurrence = 11%), though silent agreements were noted as qualitative indicators rather than quantified.

This methodological approach yielded rich data regarding students' perceptions of motivational strategies and evolving learning orientations. Complete transcripts are available in Appendix R (Focus Group Interview Transcripts), preserving the original linguistic data while facilitating systematic analysis of motivational patterns and intervention effects.

3.4.5 Learning Journal

The learning journal (Appendix O) was adapted from Hadfield and Dörnyei's (2014, pp. 7–284) framework and implemented before initiating interventions to enhance learners' IES. As Nunan (1992, p. 123) emphasizes, journals serve as a valuable data collection approach that provides unique insights into students' learning processes that might otherwise remain inaccessible. The 36-page journal upgraded based on the separate sheets used in Cycle 1, primarily consisted of each participant's portfolio, worksheets needed for activities of teaching intervention, learning contract, weekly goal statement, and post-class questionnaires, serving as a key instrument for methodological triangulation in the action research.

To capture students' immediate reactions to each session, post-class questionnaires were embedded within the learning journal. In Cycle 1, a separate worksheets and

questionnaires (Appendix M) was used; in Cycles 2 and 3, the worksheets and questionnaires were integrated into the learning journal for enhanced efficiency and effectiveness. To ensure clarity and ease of comprehension, the end-of-class questionnaires in the journal were administered in Chinese (see The Even-Numbered Pages from 6 to 36 of the Learning Journal, Appendix O), completed during the final five minutes of each lesson.

Students rated the motivational impact of that day's activities on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = absolutely not motivating, 5 = absolutely motivating). To minimize response bias, students were not primed with specific motivational strategies prior to completing the ratings. Consequently, in addition to strategies explicitly designed to develop IES (such as public speeches or English movie appreciation), students also frequently identified and rated ordinary teaching activities (e.g., dictation exercises, quizzes, and supplementary reading materials) as highly motivating, reflecting their authentic perceptions of classroom experiences. Participants were also provided with dedicated space for additional evaluative commentary in their journals, allowing for spontaneous reflections that complemented the quantitative ratings. Throughout the teaching experiment, these structured journal entries documented students' ongoing responses to instructional activities.

Data from the journals were analyzed through a combination of qualitative thematic analysis and quantitative surveys. Manual content analysis was applied to open-ended responses to track longitudinal changes in students' IES. To ensure confidentiality, all journals were anonymized during data processing, with access restricted to the researcher and her supervisors. Identifying information was removed prior to analysis, and data were stored securely to protect participant privacy.

As shown in Appendix O, which presents the journal used in Cycles 2 and 3, the first page was designed to collect participants' personal information, including age and CET-4 or CET-6 grades as indicators of English proficiency. This page also contained worksheets primarily used for Activity 2) Writing your own ideal English selves, Activity 4) Checking the reality of your ideal English selves, Activity 6) Predicting the consequences of failures, and Activity 8) Identifying self-barriers.

The second page mainly contained the task for Activity 11) Telling a fairy tale in English to your classmates, along with a wish list designed to map the journey from

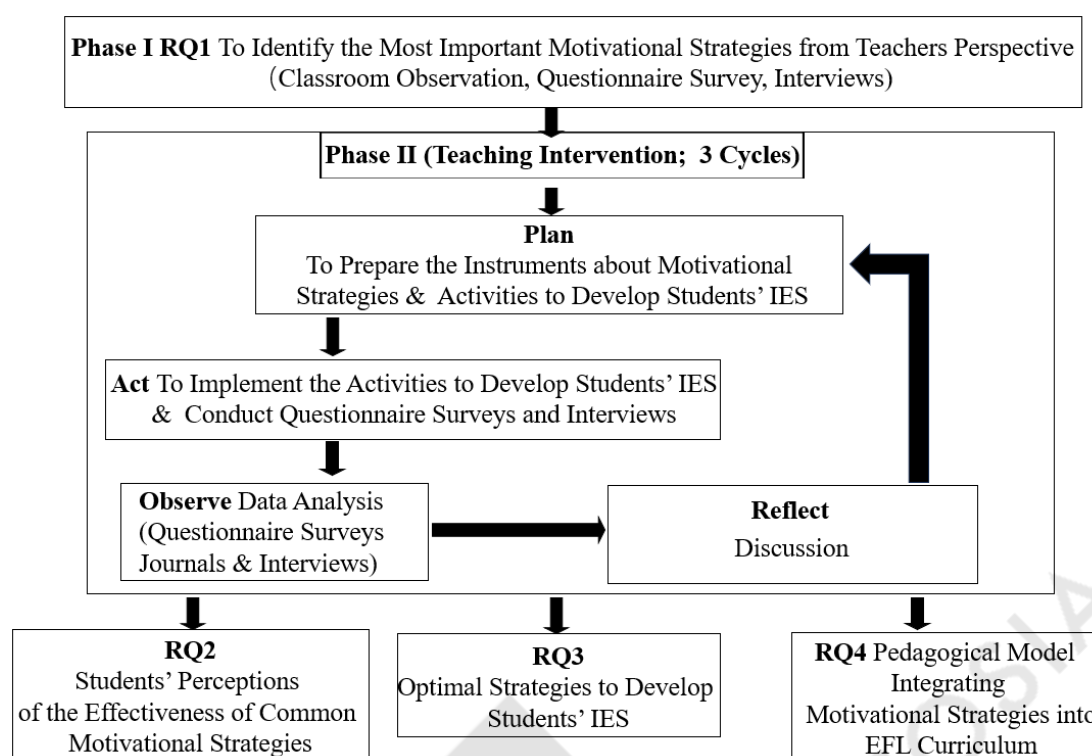
dream to reality—used for Activity 13) in Cycle 1 and Activity 15) in Cycle 2. Page three featured a worksheet for comparing the syllabus with students' ambitions and aligning class aims with personal goals, which supported Activity 12) in Cycle 1 and Activity 14) in Cycle 2. Page four provided a template for listing weekly class goals, additional personal goals, and the time scheduled for their accomplishment; this worksheet was used for Activity 15) Breaking down your goals in Cycle 1 and Activity 17) in Cycle 2. Page five contained the learning contract, comprising students' personal goal statements and their self-determined time commitment to achieving those goals, which corresponded to Activity 17) Learning contract in Cycle 1 and Activity 19) in Cycle 2.

From page 6 through page 36, the even-numbered pages consisted of questionnaires embedded within the journal to collect data on students' immediate reactions to classroom activities. The odd-numbered pages, from page 7 to page 35, contained worksheets for listing weekly class goals, additional personal goals, and the time scheduled for their accomplishment (see Appendix O). The journal's dual function as both a pedagogical tool and research instrument allowed for comprehensive documentation of the intervention's impact on learners' IES development.

3.5 Research Procedures and Data Collection

The study consisted of two phases. The first phase was primarily an observational and survey-based examination of RQ1, which investigated the most important motivational strategies used in China' tertiary EFL education from teachers' perspectives. Phase 2 constituted action research addressing three research questions: RQ2 examined students' perceptions of the effectiveness of common motivational strategies used by teachers and whether these perceptions change over time; RQ3 investigated students' perceptions of the effectiveness of strategies to develop IES based on L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2009b); and RQ4 explored how can motivational strategies be implemented in classroom activities in a two-semester college English course. The procedure is shown in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: An Overview of Research Procedure



3.5.1 Phase I

This phase established the foundation for the longitudinal study by employing eight weeks of classroom observations, questionnaire surveys, and teacher interviews. Grounded in Dörnyei's (2001) dual-dimensional classroom framework—which encompasses both instructional processes and social dynamics—the methodology featured an observational phase using standardized protocols, followed by cyclical action research phases to assess motivational strategies.

After securing formal ethical clearance from the Chinese university where the participants were enrolled (see Appendix F for the approval letter), the researchers informed them about different elements of the project seven days prior to the observation phase. These elements included the aims, methods, and timeline of the investigation. Nevertheless, specific information regarding which motivational strategies would be examined was withheld prior to the observations and questionnaire surveys. This study adhered to the methodological principle of minimizing research bias by implementing two key precautions (Mackey & Gass, 2022). First, to mitigate the observer's paradox, details about the specific variables under investigation were not disclosed. Second, a sequential design was adopted in which the surveys were

administered only after the observation phase. This temporal arrangement ensured that teachers' instructional behavior during the observations remained unaffected by exposure to the subsequent questionnaire content. Additionally, participants received explanations concerning their entitlements (such as confidentiality, voluntary engagement, and the freedom to withdraw unconditionally) and responsibilities (including the provision of truthful answers). All individuals agreed to take part in the study and subsequently signed a digital bilingual consent form prepared in both English and Chinese (the English-language version is provided in Appendix G).

Prior to the formal observations, two 90-minute pilot sessions were conducted by the researcher alone to refine the observation protocol and familiarise the observer with its application. The pilot sessions comprised a face-to-face TESOL writing lecture at a university in Cyprus, where the researcher was physically based at the time, and a synchronous online general English session at a public university in southeastern China, which was selected to simulate the authentic online teaching environment where the formal observations would later take place. These pilots served to test the clarity and usability of the OPMCMS instrument, establish a consistent approach to recording strategy frequency, and enhance the reliability of the observational data. As the researcher was the sole observer throughout both the pilot and formal observation phases, formal interrater reliability checks were not applicable. To maintain ecological validity, the study employed non-participant observation throughout the data collection process. The four participating teachers were selected through convenience and purposive sampling. All were instructors teaching *College English III or IV* at the researcher's home institution, and their willingness to participate was a key criterion for inclusion.

The formal observation phase was conducted over an eight-week period from February to April 2020. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, all observations were conducted in real time via online live streaming platforms. Over the eight-week period, the researcher observed each participating instructor's 90-minute lecture on eight separate occasions, resulting in a total of 32 credit hours. Specifically, eight sessions were observed for each of the two *College English IV* instructors, TD and TLJ (both pseudonyms), and eight sessions for each of the two *College English III* instructors, TS and TL (both pseudonyms). The observed content spanned units on "The Power of Words," "Creativity," "Personality," "Social Problems," "Language," and "Animals," as well as

two CET-4/6 preparation sessions and several course introduction sessions. During each session, the researcher systematically recorded the frequency of the use of motivational strategies directly into the observation protocol, while adding marginal notes for strategies that were uncertain or exceptional. Following the observations, all data were transferred to Excel for statistical analysis using SPSS 21.0 to compute the mean frequency of each strategy's implementation (see Appendix R). It presents findings addressing RQ1: What are the most important motivational strategies used in China's tertiary EFL education. These results serve as the baseline for the subsequent phase of this research—an action research investigation into student motivation, grounded in data collected over the 2020/2021 academic year.

Drawing on established classroom research methodology (Nunan, 1992), this phase adopted a mixed-methods approach. It comprised the eight weeks of online classroom observations, followed by the administration of questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Through methodological triangulation of structured classroom observations, teacher questionnaires (15 min), and semi-structured interviews (20 min), the researcher systematically observed and documented instructional sessions to collect preliminary data on teachers' motivational practices. These observational data established a foundational understanding of the implementation of motivational strategies, which subsequently informed the action research component of this doctoral study.

This phase aimed to identify the most frequently employed motivational practices among the 102 strategies outlined in Dörnyei's (2001) MTP framework, as well as those perceived by teachers as most effective. In doing so, it established a baseline for examining the longitudinal impact of these strategies. The research question guiding this chapter is: What are the most important motivational strategies used in China's tertiary EFL education? (RQ1).

The observation protocol OPMCMS (see Appendix A) contained 102 items drawn from Dörnyei's (2001) Motivational Teaching Practice framework, covering the full range of motivational strategies outlined in the taxonomy. The researcher, in the role of observer, systematically recorded the frequency of each motivational strategy using numerical annotations during each observed session. The same 102-item framework was also adopted for the teacher questionnaires (see Appendices B and C), which were

administered to capture teachers' self-reported frequency of strategy use (Appendix B) and their perceptions of strategy effectiveness (Appendix C). These parallel questionnaires were designed to enable a comparison between teachers' self-reported perceptions and their actual classroom practices recorded through the OPMCMS protocol, as well as to identify any discrepancies between frequency and effectiveness ratings. Given the small number of participating teachers ($n = 4$), the teacher surveys functioned as exploratory tools for identifying patterns and informing subsequent interview questions, rather than as psychometric scales requiring reliability analysis. The observational findings and survey responses were triangulated with interview data to provide a richer understanding of strategy use, and these combined findings informed the subsequent development of the semi-structured interview questions (see Appendix D).

Following the eight-week observation phase, the two teacher questionnaires were administered electronically. The MCMS (Appendix B), which measured teachers' self-reported frequency of strategy use, was distributed online in early October and completed without the researcher's supervision; all four responses were collected by mid-October. The MEMS (Appendix C), which assessed teachers' perceptions of strategy effectiveness, was then sent also online to the same four teachers separately and collected via WeChat one week later.

The researcher acknowledged a well-documented limitation of self-report instruments (see Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007), namely that respondents may be inclined to present their behaviour in an overly favourable manner, aligning with what they perceive as socially desirable or expected (a phenomenon known as social desirability bias). To mitigate this issue, two precautions were implemented. First, both the covering letter and the questionnaire instructions emphasised that all responses would be treated as confidential and that anonymity was guaranteed. Second, recognising the possibility that teachers who rated certain motivational strategies as highly effective might subsequently be reluctant to report low usage of those same strategies, the researcher administered the frequency questionnaire prior to the effectiveness survey.

These questionnaires assessed teachers' self-reported frequency of strategy use and their perceptions of strategy effectiveness. The observational findings were triangulated with data from the two questionnaires: the MCMS confirmed 51 strategies as regularly

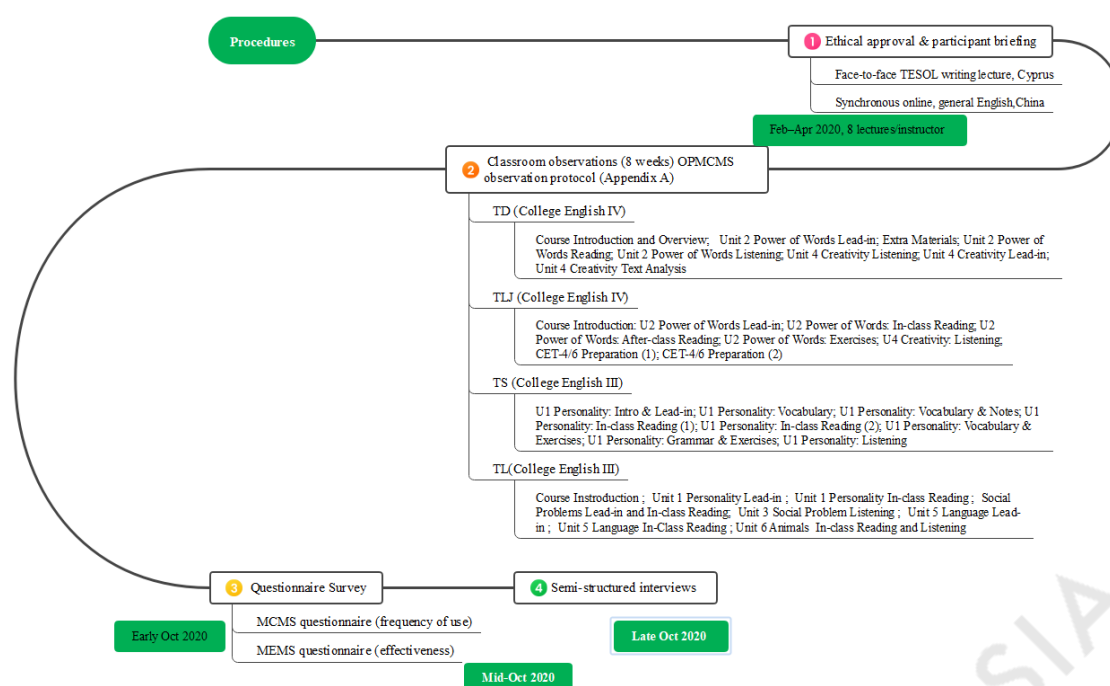
used, and the MEMS identified 57 strategies as particularly impactful. The intersection of these datasets informed the selection of strategies for subsequent investigation.

Then, semi-structured interviews were performed with all four participating teachers, three in person and one via videoconference (see Appendix D for interview protocol). The interview discussions yielded important insights about how the online teaching format influenced motivational strategy selection. Through methodological triangulation, the researcher identified consistent patterns among the most frequently observed, commonly reported, and highly rated strategies (see more details in Chapter 4). This comprehensive analysis not only provided substantive answers to RQ1 but also established an empirical foundation for the study's subsequent phase by highlighting the most promising strategies worthy of further investigation. The procedure can be seen in Figure 3.2.

3.5.2 Phase II

Building on the foundational understanding established in Phase I, this phase constituted a teaching intervention designed to address Research Questions 2, 3, and 4 (RQ2–RQ4). In implementing the intervention, the researcher acknowledges her dual role as instructor and investigator, a positionality inherent to action research. To mitigate potential bias, the cyclical action research design incorporated triangulated data collection and reflective journaling throughout the three cycles. The study comprised three complete, iterative cycles of action research, following a development-implementation-evaluation sequence that enabled empirically grounded refinement of motivational activities across successive phases. This cyclical design drew on established practices from Phase I and was informed by Dörnyei's (2009b) L2MSS theoretical framework.

Figure 3.2: Phase I Research Procedure and Timeline (February–October 2020)

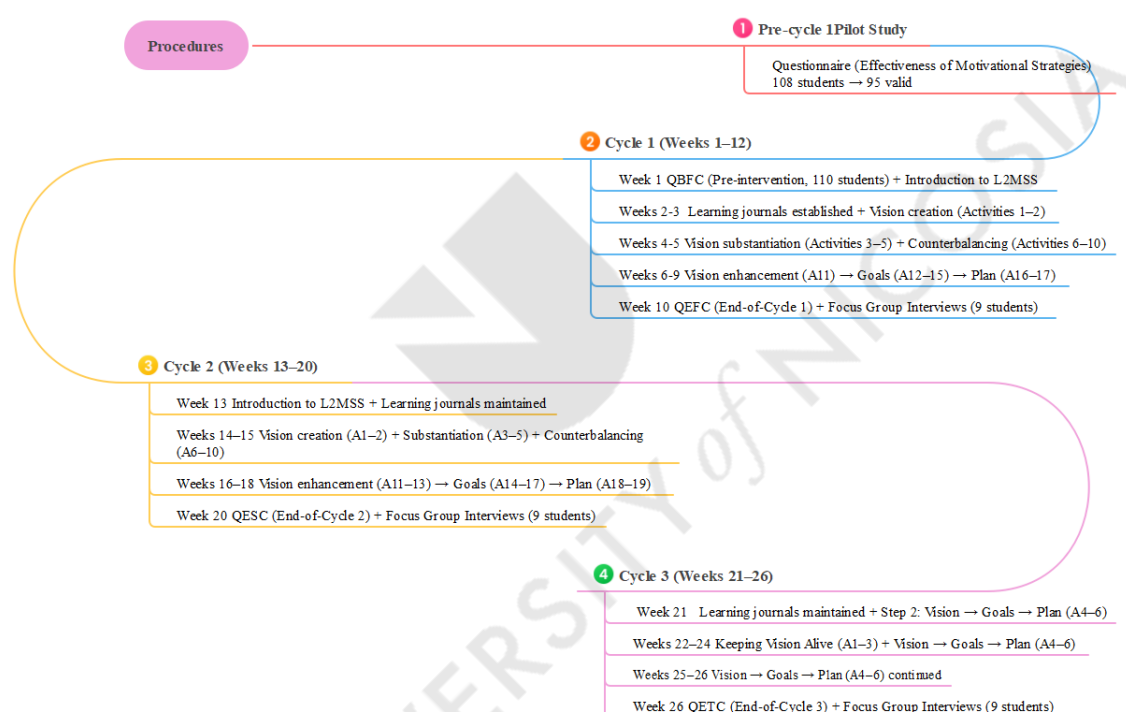


A common data collection framework was followed across the three cycles. In the “Observe” stage of each cycle, data were collected through the following methods. A 36-page learning journal (adapted from Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014, pp. 7–284; see Appendix O) was distributed to all participants before the first intervention cycle. The journal comprised each participant’s portfolio, worksheets for intervention activities, learning contract, weekly goal statements, and post-class questionnaires. The post-class questionnaires were completed during the final five minutes of each lesson to capture students’ immediate reactions to each session. In Cycle 1, separate worksheets and questionnaires (see Appendix M) were used; in Cycles 2 and 3, these components were integrated into the learning journal for enhanced efficiency. The journal was administered with a Chinese version to ensure clarity and ease of comprehension (see the even-numbered pages from 6 to 36 of the learning journal, Appendix O).

A cycle-specific questionnaire was administered in person at the end of each cycle: the Questionnaire at the End of the First Cycle (QEFC; see Appendix J), the Questionnaire at the End of the Second Cycle (QESC; see Appendix K), and the Questionnaire at the End of the Third Cycle (QETC; see Appendix L). Part II of each questionnaire assessed students’ perceptions of the IES-oriented activities implemented in that cycle, while Part III measured students’ evaluations of 43 common motivational strategies (adapted from Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux, 2013) to track RQ2 over time.

After each cycle's questionnaire administration, face-to-face focus group interviews were conducted using the same semi-structured protocol (see Appendix N). All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim for analysis (see Appendix R). Only participants who completed all three cycles of data collection and submitted valid questionnaires at each time point were retained for longitudinal analysis, resulting in a final sample of 90 students (20 participants were excluded due to incomplete cycle participation or invalid responses). The procedures of the data collection is illustrated in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3: Phase II Research Procedure and Timeline (October 2019—July 2020)



The following sections present the procedure and data collection methods for each of the three cycles. Cycle 1 is reported first, followed by Cycle 2 and Cycle 3.

Cycle 1

Questions: The three cycles collectively addressed the following research questions:

RQ2: What are tertiary EFL students' perceptions of the effectiveness of common motivational strategies used by teachers and do these perceptions change over time?

RQ3: What are students' perceptions of effectiveness of strategies to develop IES based on L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2009b)?

RQ4: How can motivational strategies be implemented in classroom activities in a two-semester college English course?

Plan: This initial cycle aimed to examine the effectiveness and applicability of the first set of IES-oriented activities in the college English classroom.

Act: A total of 17 IES-oriented activities (adapted from Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014; Wang & Dai, 2015) were integrated into regular classroom instruction.

Observe: At the commencement of the intervention, the Questionnaire at the Beginning of the First Cycle (QBFC; see Appendix I) was administered to 110 students. After screening, 90 valid questionnaires were retained for baseline analysis. At week 10, the QEFC (see Appendix J) was administered in person. Participants completed post-class questionnaires embedded in the learning journal during the final five minutes of each session. Separate worksheets and questionnaires (see Appendix M) were used in this cycle. Face-to-face focus group interviews were conducted after week 10 using the semi-structured protocol (Appendix N), with all sessions audio-recorded and transcribed.

Reflect: The analysis was focused on students' perceptions of the 43 common motivational strategies, initial shifts in their evaluations, and the applicability of L2MSS-based strategies within an exam-oriented context. Based on these findings, a five-phase implementation framework emphasizing vision building, goal concretization, and cultural adaptation was developed, which subsequently informed the design of the next intervention cycle.

Cycle 2

Questions: RQ2, RQ3, RQ4 as in Cycle 1

Plan: Activities were adjusted based on students' feedback from the first cycle to further examine the effectiveness and applicability of the refined activities.

Act: Nineteen adapted IES-oriented activities (drawn from the same sources) were implemented, with greater emphasis on activity types that received more favorable responses in Cycle 1.

Observe: At week 18, the QESC (see Appendix K) was administered in person. Post-class questionnaires continued to be completed during the final five minutes of each session in the learning journal. From this cycle onward, worksheets and questionnaires were integrated into the learning journal (see Appendix O) for enhanced efficiency. Focus group interviews were conducted face-to-face after week 18 using the same semi-structured protocol (Appendix N), with all sessions audio-recorded and transcribed.

Reflect: Results from this cycle were compared with those from Cycle 1 to identify patterns in how different activity types resonated with students over time. The longitudinal sample selection criteria were also validated to ensure consistency for subsequent analysis.

Cycle 3

Questions: RQ2, RQ3, RQ4 as in Cycle 1

Plan: Activities were further refined based on cumulative findings from the first two cycles to validate the overall effectiveness and stability of the optimized strategies.

Act: Newly designed IES-oriented activities (adapted from the same sources) were implemented, with the number and type of activities adjusted dynamically according to feedback from previous cycles.

Observe: At week 26, the QETC (see Appendix L) was administered in person. Post-class questionnaires were continued to be completed during the final five minutes of each session, with worksheets and questionnaires fully integrated into the journal (see Appendix O). Focus group interviews were conducted face-to-face after week 26 using the same semi-structured protocol (Appendix N), with all sessions audio-recorded and transcribed.

Reflect: This cycle examined the longitudinal trajectory of students' motivation across the three cycles and the sustainability of motivational strategies over a two-semester intervention. Data from all three cycles were synthesized to answer RQ2, RQ3, and RQ4, culminating in a practical model for integrating L2MSS-based motivational strategies into college English courses.

To facilitate reference, Table 3.10 summarises the data collection instruments administered across the three action research cycles. These include the pre-intervention

questionnaire (QBFC), the end-of-cycle questionnaires (QEFC, QESC, QETC), the post-class questionnaires embedded in the learning journal, and the focus group interviews conducted at the end of each cycle. For each instrument, the table indicates its timing, purpose, and respondent group, as well as its alignment with RQ2, RQ3, and RQ4.

Table 3.10 Summary of Data Collection Instruments in Phase II (Questionnaires & Interviews)

Questionnaire and interviews	Code	Appendix	Timing	Purpose	Respondents
Pilot Study Questionnaire (Effectiveness of Motivational Strategies)	—	H	Pre-Cycle 1	Establish reliability and validity of strategy effectiveness items	108 students (95 valid)
Pre-intervention Questionnaire (L2MSS)	QBFC	I	Cycle 1, Week 1	Baseline measure of L2MSS components	
End-of-Cycle 1 Questionnaire	QEFC	J	Cycle 1, Week 10	Measure perceptions of IES activities + common strategies for RQ2 ,3, and 4	
End-of-Cycle 2 Questionnaire	QESC	K	Cycle 2, Week 18	Track changes in strategy perceptions + IES activity evaluation for RQ2, 3, and 4	110 students (90 valid)
End-of-Cycle 3 Questionnaire	QETC	L	Cycle 3, Week 26	Final measure of strategy perceptions + IES activity evaluation for RQ2, 3, and 4	
Post-class Questionnaires	—	Learning Journal (Appendix O)	Final 5 min of each session in Cycle 1, collected weekly in Cycle 2 and 3	Immediate reactions to each session for RQ3 and RQ4	

Student Focus Group Interview	—	N	Cycle 1, Week 10	Explore students' in-depth perceptions of IES activities; gather qualitative insights to complement questionnaire data (RQ2, RQ3, RQ4) Examine changes in students' perceptions over time; identify factors influencing IES activities effectiveness (RQ2, RQ3, RQ4) Capture final reflections on the intervention; explore sustainability of motivational changes (RQ2, RQ3, RQ4)	9 students
Student Focus Group Interview	—	N	Cycle 2, Week 18		9 students
Student Focus Group Interview	—	N	Cycle 3, Week 26		9 students

3.6 Pedagogical Implementation

The overall pedagogical intervention procedure across the three cycles can be referred to Table 3.11, including the duration, tasks, and participants involved in each phase of data collection. Across the three cycles, a total of 42 activities were implemented, with approximately 15 minutes of each 90-minute lecture session dedicated to the motivational activities. The 42 activities comprised 17 activities in Cycle 1 (totalling approximately 150 minutes), 19 in Cycle 2 (totalling approximately 210 minutes), and 6 in Cycle 3 (totalling approximately 120 minutes), amounting to roughly 480 minutes (8 hours) of class time over the 26-week intervention period. These activities were integrated into the regular curriculum rather than delivered as separate sessions, ensuring that the intervention remained embedded within authentic classroom instruction.

Table 3.11: An Overview of the Pedagogical Intervention

Session	Step	Activity Code	Activity Description	Duration	Materials
C1					
Week 1	Pre-inter- vention	—	QBFC Questionnaire (Appendix I); Introduction to L2MSS	45 min	Questionnaire-
Week 2	—	—	Establishment of Personal Portfolios (Learning Journals)	15 min	Learning Journal (Appendix O)
Week 3	Step 1	A1–A2	Creating the Vision: Finding future alternatives; Writing your own IES	15 min each	
Week 4	Step 2	A3–A5	Substantiating the Vision: Checking reality of others' IES, one's own IES; Rewriting vision	15 min	
Week 5	Step 3	A6–A8	Counterbalancing the Vision: Predicting consequences of failures; Analysing obstacles in others' learning; Identifying self-barriers	15 min	
Week 6	Step 3	A9–A10	Counterbalancing the Vision (continued): Facing self-barriers (short play); Overcoming self-barriers (strategy discussion)	15 min	Worksheet (Appendix Q)
Week 7	Step 4	A11	Enhancing the Vision: Introducing your IES in public	15 min	
Week 8	Step 5	A12– A15	From Vision to Goals: Listing goals; Comparing with syllabus; Overview; Breaking down goals	15 min	

Week 9	Step 6	A16	From Goals to Plan: Task list (weekly to-do list)	15 min	
Week 10	Step 6	A17	From Goals to Plan: Learning contract	15 min	
Week 10	Data collection	—	QEFC Questionnaire (Appendix J); Focus-group Interviews	30 min each	Questionnaire; Interview protocol (Appendix N)
C2					
Week 1	Pre-intervention	—	Introduction to L2MSS; Learning Journals maintained	15 min	
Week 2	Step 1	A1–A2	Creating the Vision: Finding future alternatives; Writing your own IES	15 min each	
Week 3	Step 2	A3–A5	Substantiating the Vision: Checking reality of others' IES, one's own IES; Rewriting vision	15 min	
Week 4	Step 3	A6–A10	Counterbalancing the Vision (all 5 activities)	15 min	Learning Journal (Appendix O)
Week 5	Step 4	A11–A13	Enhancing the Vision: Fairy tale; Peer sharing; English salon	15 min; 15 min; 60 min	
Week 6	Step 5	A14–A17	From Vision to Goals: Listing goals; Comparing with syllabus; Overview; Breaking down goals	15 min	
Week 7	Step 6	A18	From Goals to Plan: Task list	15 min	
Week 8	Step 6	A19	From Goals to Plan: Learning contract	15 min	
Week 8	Data collection	—	QESC Questionnaire (Appendix K); Focus-group Interviews	30 min each	Questionnaire; Interview protocol (Appendix N)
C3					
Week 1	—	—	Learning Journals maintained	15 min	

			Keeping the Vision Alive: Watching English movies; Breaking down goals; Task list; Learning contract	15 min each	
Week 2	Step 1 & 2	A1, A4– A6	Keeping the Vision Alive: English competitions; Breaking down goals; Task list; Learning contract	15 min	
Week 3	Step 1 & 2	A2, A4– A6	Keeping the Vision Alive: Reflection on motivational activities; Breaking down goals; Task list; Learning contract	15 min	
Week 4	Step 1 & 2	A3, A4– A6	From Vision to Goals and to Plan: Breaking down goals; Task list; Learning contract	15 min	Learning Journal (Appendix O)
Week 5	Step 2	A4–A6	From Vision to Goals and to Plan: Breaking down goals; Task list; Learning contract (continued)	15 min	
Week 6	Step 2	A4–A6	From Vision to Goals and to Plan: Breaking down goals; Task list; Learning contract (continued)	15 min	
Week 7	Step 2	A4–A6	From Vision to Goals and to Plan: Breaking down goals; Task list; Learning contract (continued)	15 min	
Week 8	Step 2	A4–A6	QETC Questionnaire (Appendix L); Focus-group Interviews	30 min each	Questionnaire; Interview protocol (Appendix N)

Note: C1= Cycle 1; C2=Cycle 2; C3=Cycle 3

3.6.1 Action Implementation Cycle 1

Research suggests that while most individuals possess some conception of an ideal future self, such mental representations often lack sufficient substance, elaboration, or vividness to effectively motivate behavior (Dörnyei, 2009b). Consequently, pedagogical interventions should focus on enhancing learners' awareness of their desired future identities, systematically developing these mental images into detailed and vivid imagined realities. The motivational potential of these visions appears directly proportional to their specificity and clarity— as mental representations become more concrete and lifelike, they transition from vague aspirations to plausible future realities, thereby generating stronger motivational impetus.

The absence of a well-defined IL2S, identified by Dörnyei (2009b, p. 33) as a primary contributor to deficient L2 motivation, necessitates targeted instructional strategies. The initial motivational intervention involved guiding learners in constructing their IES through a process of selecting and refining aspirations from various potential futures, thereby establishing the cognitive conditions necessary for motivational vision formation. This theoretical framework was operationalized through seventeen specific classroom activities designed to facilitate IES development.

The main action of the first cycle was to integrate the activities oriented to improve students' IES (adapted from Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014 and Wang & Dai, 2015) into the College English Course teaching practice.

Step 1: Creating the Vision

The aim of this step was to help students to create build on their future possible selves that are attractive and desirable, elaborate and detailed, concrete and tangible. The researcher selected Activity (A) 1 and 2 from Hadfield and Dörnyei (2014) which involves mainly reading and speaking and writing tasks.

A1 involved finding future alternatives based on examples of different ideal English selves (Appendix Q). In the last 15 minutes of a lecture at the beginning of a semester, students were explained what IES is and were given examples of different ideal selves extracted from Hadfield and Dörnyei (2014). Students were informed that IES means their future identity that they envision for them as English speakers.

Then A2 is writing your own ideal English selves. Students were assigned a writing task of writing their own IES. They were encouraged to write out their ideas of their

ideal selves as detailed and vivid as possible. In case of difficulties in expressing in English, they were allowed to use dictionary.

Step 2: Substantiating the Vision

Even the most elaborate, detailed and intensely desired vision of an ideal future self will be meaningless if it is so unrealistic as to be unachievable (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014). Any effective future self must be a possible self; therefore, the point of imagining an ideal future self is not to indulge in idle fantasy but to construct a future possible reality that can be planned for and worked towards. It thus, is necessary to analyze the original vision in order to determine what parts of the vision are achievable and what is unrealistic.

Activities A3, A4, and A5 comprised three components: checking the reality of others' IES, checking the reality of one's own IES, and rewriting one's original vision (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014). The objective of this section was to engage students in critical analysis and discussion of their initial visions, ultimately guiding them toward a revised vision that was both realistic and practically achievable.

In a sampled student's work for these activities, one participant wrote that he could imagine working in a foreign company, communicating with foreign colleagues in English, and that there was even a possibility he might travel abroad on business with his English qualifications. His ideal self also included knowledge of foreign cultures and the aspiration to study overseas. In his reality check, he rated mastery of foreign cultures as "easy to achieve." He rated working in a foreign company, communicating with foreign colleagues in English, and the possibility of traveling abroad on business as "possible but more long-term." He rated studying at a university abroad as "very hard to achieve" (see Sample of a Student's Work of A3, 4 and 5, Appendix Q for more details).

Step 3: Counterbalancing the Vision (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014)

Psychological research conceptualizes motivation as comprising two fundamental tendencies: approach and avoidance (Elliot, 2008, pp. 8–9). The visualization of an ideal future self exemplifies the approach tendency, representing motivational energy directed toward goal attainment, while consideration of potential failures embodies the avoidance tendency, reflecting motivation to circumvent negative outcomes (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014). A natural cognitive bias toward approach motivation appears

dominant, with avoidance strategies typically emerging only when primary goal-directed strategies prove ineffective. This reactive employment of avoidance motivation at critical thresholds may exacerbate anxiety rather than enhance performance. Consequently, proactive integration of balanced outcome appraisal during initial goal-setting phases may optimize motivational regulation by strategically engaging both tendencies before performance crises occur (ibid).

A6 involved predicting the consequences of failures (see Appendix Q); A7 required analyzing obstacles in others' English learning (see Appendix Q); A8 focused on identifying personal barriers in English learning; A9 entailed confronting self-barriers through a creative writing task (composing a short play about the conflict between positive and negative selves); and A10 addressed overcoming self-barriers through strategy discussions (see Appendix Q) (ibid). These activities incorporated imaginative, reflective, and creative discussion components that potentially extended benefits beyond language learning to other life domains. The time investment in this phase proved pedagogically valuable, as evidenced by one student's representative work sample. One participant articulated his predictions regarding the consequences of English learning failure in A6. His feared outcomes included concerns that inadequate English proficiency could negatively impact his academic trajectory, specifically mentioning the aspiration to pass the postgraduate qualification examination. This, in turn, was feared to lead to limited job opportunities with satisfactory salaries and ultimately result in a lower quality of life, which the student described as "the most real reality I've expected." Additional fears included the inability to travel internationally and missed opportunities for cross-cultural friendships, leading to a narrowed worldview. In A8, he identified personal barriers, listing "the lazy self," "the inefficient self," and "the disorganized/unsystematic self" as internal obstacles to English learning success (see Appendix O for the original work).

Step 4: Enhancing the Vision

After the original vision has been through various modifications and adjustments, it is time to make sure it is whole and not fragmented and that it is kept alive in the imagination so that the vision can have maximum motivational effect (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014, p. 94). A11 introducing your IES in public was employed in this phase.

Step 5: From Vision to Goals

The vision of an IES may remain merely an abstract fantasy without the derivation of specific, actionable goals (ibid). Typically, such imaginative representations tend to be too broad to directly inform practical learning behaviors, necessitating systematic decomposition into concrete objectives. To operationalize this goal-setting process, four structured activities were implemented during the concluding 15-minute segment of regular class sessions: (1) A12 (ibid) involved comprehensive goal enumeration (see Appendix Q); (2) A13 required comparative analysis between personal goals and curricular requirements (see Appendix Q); (3) A14 focused on goal synthesis and prioritization; and (4) A15 (ibid) entailed granular goal decomposition into manageable sub-tasks (see Appendix Q). This sequential scaffolding effectively mediated the transition from aspirational self-concepts to tangible learning trajectories, ensuring alignment between students' envisioned future selves and their immediate academic requirements.

The implementation of these activities followed established pedagogical principles from goal-setting theory, with particular attention to: (a) specificity in task formulation, (b) progressive complexity across activities, and (c) continuous reference to institutional learning outcomes. Students' completed work samples (e.g., A Completed Work Sample of A15, Appendix Q) demonstrated varying degrees of goal sophistication, reflecting individual differences in self-regulatory capacity. In this personal goal statement worksheet, the participant stated the class goals, which included learning about Unit 2 and determining a term plan. In addition to these shared objectives, he set three personal goals: preparing for CET-6, learning 280 new words with daily check-ins, and reviewing grammar. He also specified seven weekly self-study hours dedicated to achieving these goals, followed by his signature. The structured nature of Activities A12–A15 provided necessary cognitive scaffolding for learners to articulate previously implicit learning objectives, while the syllabus comparison component (A13) served as an important reality check against program expectations.

Step 6: From Goals to Plan

The step was designed to address the question of how learners could achieve their goals by developing a clear roadmap to reach their ultimate objectives. The process of transforming goals into actionable plans involved two distinct phases. The first phase required students to break down their short-term or weekly goals into specific tasks,

while the second phase involved prioritizing these tasks into a structured weekly learning plan.

A16 and A17 were implemented in this section. A16 (Wang & Dai, 2015) consisted of a task list, where students were asked to create a weekly to-do list based on their predefined goals. A17 was a learning contract as exemplified by Sample of a Student's Work of A17 (Appendix Q). In this learning contract, the participant documented both collective class objectives and individual learning targets for the course. The class goals, as outlined in the worksheet, included finishing the network assignment and passing the mid-term and final examinations. In addition to these shared objectives, the participant set four personal goals: passing the final exam, passing the speaking test, translating important passages, and learning the important words in each unit. To achieve these goals, the participant specified one strategy: reviewing the material covered in tutorials. The participant also committed approximately six hours per week to self-study dedicated to achieving these goals.

3.6.2 Action Implementation Cycle 2

As the first cycle showed all the 17 activities in general appears effective in the report of students. A11 Introducing your IES and 2 Writing your own IES appeared to be rated the least effective, while A10 Overcoming self-barriers (discuss strategies to overcome self-barriers) and A9 Facing self-barriers (Writing a short play on the fight between positive-self and negative-self) ranked high in the effectiveness evaluation of students. According established research (e.g., Dörnyei, 2009b; Huang et al., 2025; Kim & Kim 2018a; Li, 2014; Liu, 2010; Liu et al., 2024; Papi, 2010; Tahmouresi & Papi, 2021; Zhou et al., 2025), components of L2MSS have differences in predicting L2 motivation and for non-English major undergraduates, and L2LE is the best predictor. Yang and Li (2010 p. 65) also suggested that the study of L2 motivational strategies should have a process-oriented perspective and concern the adjustment of motivational strategies to learners' motivational changes in their learning experience. Therefore, the researcher applied similar motivational strategies to help students create their IL2S, namely, similar but several different activities meet the conditions for one's future self to have effect on motivating students through 19 activities (adapted from Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014 and Wang & Dai, 2015) into the College English Course teaching practice. Before the steps working on the enhancement of learners' ideal self, the learning journal (see

Appendix O) based on Hadfield and Dörnyei (2014) were handed out to participants to complete during the teaching experiment. It contains all the steps of the teaching intervention and the tasks and questionnaires students are supposed to complete. To avoid observer bias, students were not informed with what activities to rate, but instead, they were encouraged to grade all the activities they were exposed to. The journals were collected on a weekly basis in order to make sure they are updated on time.

Following the distribution of journals at the spring semester's commencement, the instructional intervention commenced with vision-building motivational activities. All Cycle 1 activities were retained except those in Step 4: Enhancing the vision, which underwent substantive modifications.

Step 4 Enhancing the Vision

This section returned to the vision of the ideal self created in Step 1 and provided activities that enrich and deepen the vision. Three different activities adapted from Hadfield and Dörnyei (2014) were applied in order to make sure the vision created and adjusted was a complete one so that it could realize the best motivational effect. The activities were introduced below.

A11 involved Telling a fairy tale in English to your classmates (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014, p. 102). Fairytale (A33) was aimed at getting the students to look back at their journey of vision so far and summarize it in written or graphic form. In other words, to provide an imaginative representation of the journey towards the ideal self. First, students were encouraged to find a fairytale from China, or the English culture. Brainstorm from the class what were some familiar elements of fairytales (e.g. giants, witches, wizards, heroes/heroines, princes/princesses, a journey, spells, tasks, transformations, a goal or grail, a wise counsellor, guide or good fairy, etc.). Introduce to the class the idea that fairytales could tell us something about ourselves—the quest the hero or heroine follows was very often a journey to a future possible ideal self, involving various hardships and tasks, encounters with people, as well as objects or monsters that blocked the path and tried to prevent the hero or heroine achieving the ideal. Very often there was also a guide or mentor figure who was on the hero/ heroine's side and offers wise advice. The elements of a fairytale could thus involve:

- The Self: hero or heroine;

- The Ideal Self: the self the hero or heroine wished to become;
- The Journey: the route he/she had to take to reach that goal;
- Self Barriers: creatures that tried to block the route and had to be overcome;
- The Ought-to Self: a wise guide who could give advice.

Students were guided to classify elements they had identified during brainstorming under these headings: the Ideal Self (e.g. a prince instead of a frog, a princess instead of a servant), the Journey (e.g. hacking down the enchanted forest, climbing a mountain), Self Barriers (e.g. giants, trolls, dragons), the Ought-to Self (guide, cryptic counsellor, fairy godmother). In pairs, students told stories and interpreted them in terms of their own lives and goals. Then one or two students were recommended to tell a fairy tale to the class.

A12 Listening to peers (more successful in English learning) meant sharing English learning experiences. One or two students were recommended by students or teachers to make a short speech in a few minutes on how they then learnt English.

A13 (English Salon) involved an external lecturer presentation followed by English-themed interactive games. An invited instructor from a private language institute delivered a 15-minute speech on spoken English improvement strategies. The event was conducted in the designated “English Chat Corner,” an on-campus space specifically allocated for oral English practice. Student participants were strongly encouraged to attend this session.

Step 5: From Vision to Goals

The same with this part in Cycle 1, A14–17 was organized in the same way as A12–15 in Cycle 1. In light of the notion that the vision of a future English self may remain a dream and fantasy and will not come true unless specific goals are derived from it (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014). The imagination is usually too remote to form in itself a basis for action. It is needed analysing the vision into specific and plausible goals. Therefore, in the last 15 minutes of my usual class, students were asked to do the following four activities: A14 listing your goals (See Appendix Q) (ibid); A15 comparison between your personal goals and the syllabus (See Appendix Q); A16 overview of your goals; and A17 Breaking down your goals (ibid) (See Appendix Q).

Step 6: From Goals to Plan

Hadfield and Dörnyei (2014) underscore that goals alone are insufficient; they must be operationalized through detailed, adaptive plans. By transforming abstract ambitions into structured, context-sensitive actions, learners can overcome procrastination, maintain motivation, and achieve tangible progress in English learning. Ignoring this transition risks leaving goals as unfulfilled intentions. This step was to help one reach one's goal, that is to draw a route map to arrive the ultimate destination. Transforming goals into plans involved two phases. Phase one entailed breaking one's short-term or weekly goals down into a list of precise tasks, and phase two involved prioritize the tasks into a weekly learning plan. A18 and 19 were carried out in the section, as the A16 and 17 in Cycle 1.

A18 comprised a task list activity (Wang & Dai, 2015), where students were required to create weekly to-do lists aligned with their learning objectives. A19 involved a learning contract, with Picture 6 demonstrating a representative student sample from A17 implementation.

3.6.3 Action Implementation Cycle 3

A comprehensive motivational program encompasses three primary visionary components: imagining identity, mapping the journey, and maintaining the vision (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014). The first component, imagining identity, involved developing the future L2 self through activities that can create, substantiate, counterbalance, and enhance this vision, as implemented in the initial two research cycles. The second component, mapping the journey, referred to the transitional process from conceptualization to actualization, achieved through activities that transform imaginative visions into concrete goals, strategic plans, and measurable achievements. Concurrently, the third component focused on sustaining the vision's vitality by engaging both affective and cognitive aspects of language learning, thereby maintaining learners' connection to their initial aspirations.

Hadfield and Dörnyei (2014) identified two principal approaches to vision maintenance: identity development and experiential realization. The identity development approach aimed to preserve and concretize learners' visions, preventing their dissipation amidst routine language exercises. The experiential realization approach incorporated authentic L2 usage opportunities through simulated environments, community

engagement, or cultural immersion activities that brought the target language and culture to life within educational settings. For the current cycle's implementation, six activities adapted from Hadfield and Dörnyei's framework were systematically integrated into the instructional design.

China represents a characteristic EFL environment where non-English majors have minimal exposure to English-speaking communities (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Studies indicate that Chinese students often lack opportunities for authentic English communication due to traditional teaching methods focused on grammar and memorization (Hu, 2002). Consequently, culturally immersive classroom activities that simulate English community experiences become pedagogically valuable. A1 involved structured English movie viewing sessions (clips of *Flipped*). The implementation protocol included: allocating dedicated class time for showing selected film clips (approximately 15 minutes per session); utilizing English subtitles as supplementary listening aids and conducting guided 5-minute discussions comparing Sino-American educational cultural differences.

A2 was initiating participation in various English competitions to support identity development and refresh students' English vision. The implementation included introducing relevant competitions during instructional sessions, such as translation contests, English vocabulary competitions, the National College English Contest, public speaking events, writing competitions, and scientific English short video presentations. Students received encouragement to participate in competitions matching their interests. These diverse activities aimed to facilitate students' formation of a clear, detailed future English self through experiential engagement with English-language communities.

A3 focused on reflective practice regarding the effectiveness of implemented motivational strategies. Students completed a 150-word composition analyzing which motivational activity most significantly impacted their English learning (see Appendix Q for samples). In sample A, student participant 69 reflected that while various motivational strategies were employed, breaking down goals and making learning plans were the most useful. She explained that decomposing long-term goals into daily tasks transformed English learning from "an impossible task" into achievable steps, noting that checking completed tasks provided sustained motivation. In contrast, she found

vision-writing activities less effective, noting that “too much fantasy can get in the way” and caused distraction during actual learning.

In Sample B, participant 68, reported that various motivational strategies enhanced his learning experience. He found pre-class free talks particularly effective for building connections among classmates, and teamwork activities with creative group names fostered collaboration. Most significantly, he emphasized that the teacher’s positive personality was a huge motivation—her calm demeanor created a relaxed classroom atmosphere. In contrast, he found the textbook content less engaging, noting it felt “fade away” and “boring,” though unavoidable. This writing task promoted reflection on personal visions, goals, and motivational traits, thereby reinforcing the effects of previous interventions.

A4, A5 and A6 were the same instruction to A15, 16 and 17 in Cycle 1 (see 3.6.1 for more details). The action of this cycle maintained continuity with previous cycles through continued use of learning journals (Appendix O), which contain specific tasks and questionnaires evaluating implemented activities. The journals were collected weekly to ensure timely updates, sample pages of a completed journal in Cycle 3 can be seen in Appendix P.

The journals integrated Likert-scale evaluations with reflective prompts, allowing students to both rate and comment on the effectiveness of each activity. As shown in Appendix P, one participant, in Step I (imagining my ideal self phase), engaged in vision creation by articulating her IES as passing CET-6, “reading English articles without barriers, passing the final exam, to understand the subtitles of English movies,” and “communicate with foreigners.” Her subsequent reality check revealed varying levels of feasibility: “Passing the final exam is easy to achieve”; passing CET-6 was possible but required long-term effort; reading English articles without barriers was perceived as very difficult; while understanding movie subtitles and communicating with foreigners were considered “not really achievable (without much more time than I have).” During the Counterbalancing the vision phase, the participant reflected on her fears: “I’m afraid I can’t pass the exam and have no language skills to find a good job in the future. I also feared not living up to the expectations of my family and friends.” She also identified self-perceived barriers including “self-discipline, procrastination,

absent-minded, lack of will power” (Page 1 of a Completed Journal in Cycle 3, Appendix P).

In Step II (mapping the journey: from dream to reality), the participant compiled a wish list outlining her semester-end aspirations: to “pass the CET-6, successfully passed midterm and final exams,” and to “know and master more words” (Page 2 of a Completed Journal in Cycle 3, Appendix P).

When comparing personal ambitions with syllabus requirements, the participant noted that passing the final exam was covered in the syllabus, whereas passing CET-6 and building vocabulary were not. She found all syllabus content useful, even elements not aligned with her personal aims. Additionally, she compared her individual goals with class objectives, recognizing that reciting textbook passages—though absent from her personal list—was a task she needed to maintain (Page 3 of a completed Journal in Cycle 3, Appendix P).

The sample worksheet of personal statement shown on Page 4 of a Completed Journal in Cycle 3 (Appendix P) listed weekly class goals, such as “study Unit 1” and “make a study plan,” followed by additional personal goals for that week, including “learn the words in Unit 2 by heart” and “practice listening.” An eight-hour self-study plan for that week was then outlined to allocate time for achieving these goals, with the participant’s signature at the end.

Page 5 of the journal (in Appendix P) featured a learning contract that participants were asked to sign at the beginning of each cycle. In the sampled contract, one participant articulated both course-related objectives, such as “develop a deeper understanding of the textbook”, and personal aspirations, including the desire to watch English movies without feeling pressured. To achieve these goals, she committed to actions such as “completing homework earnestly.” The contract was then signed by the participant and countersigned by her deskmate as a witness.

A sampled questionnaire page displayed on page 6 of a completed journal (Appendix P) documents the strategies or activities students perceived the instructor had used during the lesson delivered on 12th March 2021, along with their ratings of those classroom activities. A short public speech delivered by students in turns at the beginning of the lesson, listening practice, and writing practice were all listed and rated

as highly motivating, receiving 5 points on the 5-point Likert scale. The speech and reading activities in the 16th March class scored 4, indicating motivating.

3.7 Approaches to Data Analysis

3.7.1 Data Analysis Methods for RQ1

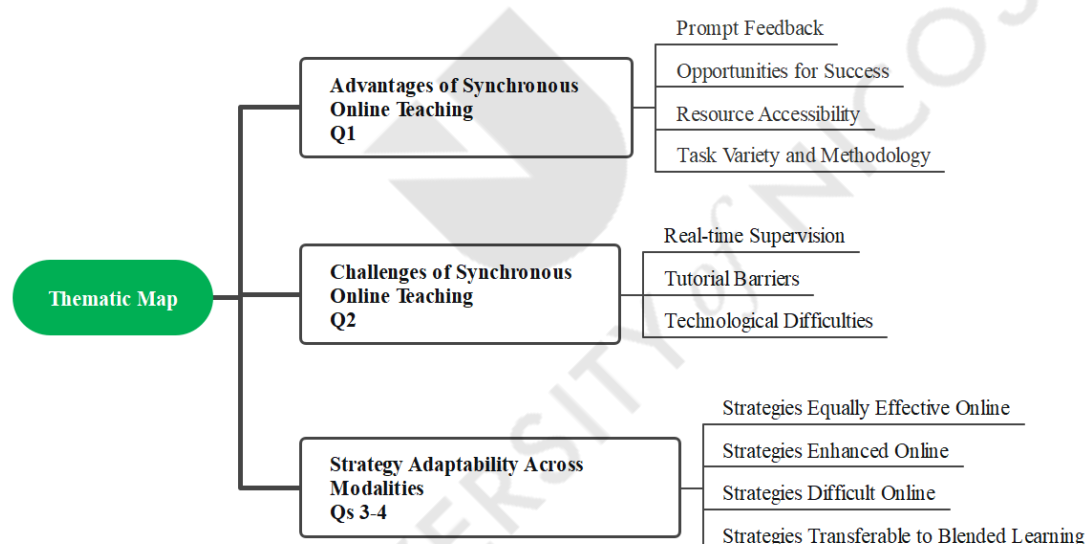
The first research question of this study is: What are the most important motivational strategies used in China's tertiary EFL education from teachers' perspectives? To systematically analyze the motivational strategies employed by Chinese EFL teachers, this study implemented a rigorous multi-phase data processing approach that incorporated quantitative and qualitative methods. The classroom observation data underwent comprehensive quantitative analysis, where each of the 102 motivational strategies proposed by Dörnyei (2001) was meticulously documented during synchronous online teaching sessions. The frequency counts for each strategy were recorded and subsequently converted to mean frequencies. These strategies were then systematically categorized into four distinct motivational phases (SA–SD) following Dörnyei's established framework, with the results presented in detailed frequency tables (Table 4.1, or more detailed, Appendix S). The observational data was further analyzed to generate implementation rankings based on the calculated mean frequencies (Table 4.2), allowing for clear identification of strategies that demonstrated actual classroom implementation versus strategies that remained unused.

The questionnaire data processing involved two validated instruments—the Motivational Strategy Frequency Survey (MCMS) and the Motivational Strategy Effectiveness Survey (MEMS). For the MCMS, electronic surveys collected from four participating EFL teachers were carefully analyzed by aggregating individual strategy ratings on a five-point Likert scale into comprehensive mean scores. These results were then organized into clear rankings based on perceived frequency of use (Table 4.5). The most frequently used strategies were verified through a comparison of the findings from questionnaire survey MCMS and classroom observation (see Table 4.6). The MEMS data underwent similar processing methodology, with effectiveness means and corresponding rankings calculated to provide comparative insights (Table 4.7).

Semi-structured interviews with participating teachers were processed through systematic qualitative analysis methods. The audio recordings were first transcribed

verbatim and anonymized to ensure confidentiality, followed by thematic coding of teachers' reported experiences and perceptions. The thematic framework for the teacher interview data was derived deductively from the teacher interview protocol (see Table 3.3) and inductively through thematic analysis of the interview transcripts (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The framework comprises three main themes: advantages of synchronous online teaching, challenges of synchronous online teaching, and adaptability of motivational strategies across teaching modalities, each with corresponding sub-themes, as presented in Figure 3.4. This framework guided the analysis of teacher interview data reported in Section 4.3 and illustrated in Figures 4.1 and 4.2, with findings subsequently triangulated with both observational and survey data to enhance validity.

Figure 3.4: Thematic Map of Teacher Interview Data (Online Teaching and Motivational Strategies)



To determine the correlation between these variables, the data (including observed use frequencies, teacher-rated frequencies, and teacher-perceived effectiveness) were analyzed using SPSS 21.0. Then the data from all three instruments were integrated and analyzed to compute the mean values for observed frequency, teacher-perceived frequency, and teacher-perceived effectiveness. These composite measures were later used to rank the strategies for determining the relative importance of each strategy, with the outcomes presented in Table 4.9. To triangulate the findings, the researcher conducted a cross-comparison of the three data sets: observed use frequency, teacher-reported frequency, and teacher-rated effectiveness. This analysis revealed a subset of

strategies that emerged consistently across all sub-studies. These consensus motivational strategies are summarized in Table 4.12. This methodological approach ensured both the reliability of quantitative measures and the depth of qualitative insights while maintaining strict adherence to academic integrity standards throughout the research process.

3.7.2 Data Analysis Methods for RQ2

RQ2 is What are tertiary EFL students' perceptions of the effectiveness of common motivational strategies used by teachers and whether these perceptions change over time. The investigation of RQ2 employed a longitudinal questionnaire survey administered three times (at 10, 18, and 26 weeks) to the same group of participants during a 26-week teaching intervention. The 43 strategies, adapted from Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) and Guilloteaux (2013), were evaluated using a 5-point Likert scale. Analysis on data for RQ2 were mainly quantitative. Data about students' motivational state were descriptive to identify the most and least effective strategies, followed by comparative approach (through ANOVA) to examine differences in students' perceived effectiveness ratings between top-rated and bottom-rated motivational activities. The dependent variable consisted of effectiveness ratings measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = absolutely ineffective to 5 = absolutely effective), while the independent variable categorized activities into two groups: the seven highest-rated and seven lowest-rated strategies based on mean scores. The seven highest-rated and seven lowest-rated strategies were selected to prevent the arbitrary omission of strategies that share the same or almost the same scores. Post hoc tests (Tamhane's T2) were used when homogeneity of variances was violated. A two-way RM-ANOVA was designed to examine whether students' opinions on the effectiveness of motivational strategies change over time, the effects of two within-subjects factors: Strategy (43 levels, representing different motivational techniques) and Time (3 levels: Cycle 1 [10 weeks], Cycle 2 [18 weeks], and Cycle 3 [26 weeks]) on students' effectiveness ratings (measured on a 5-point Likert scale: 1=absolutely ineffective to 5=absolutely effective). The analysis was conducted using SPSS 21.0 with an alpha level set at .05 for significance testing.

Mauchly's test assessed the sphericity assumption, revealing violations for the Strategy main effect ($W \approx 0.00$, $p < .01$) and Time $\times$ Strategy interaction ($W \approx 0.00$, $p < .01$),

prompting Greenhouse-Geisser corrections ($\epsilon = 0.37$ and 0.26 , respectively). For the Time factor, sphericity was met ($W = 0.96, p = .21$), permitting standard interpretation. Effect sizes were reported using partial eta-squared (η^2).

Post hoc analyses included Bonferroni-adjusted pairwise comparisons to examine: strategy differences: Contrasts among the 43 strategies (collapsed across time), time differences: Comparisons between cycles (collapsed across strategies), and interaction effects: strategy-specific changes across cycles. The design accounted for repeated measurements through within-subjects factors, with missing data handled via listwise deletion. All tests were two-tailed, and confidence intervals were set at 95%.

3.7.3 Data Analysis Methods for RQ3

RQ3 is what are students' perceptions of the effectiveness of strategies to develop IES based on L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2009b). The study employed a comprehensive statistical approach to evaluate the effectiveness of motivational classroom activities through students' perceptions, with activity type serving as the independent variable (categorical, with varying levels across cycles: 17 activity types in Cycle 1, 19 activity types in Cycle 2 and 6 in Cycle 3. Quantitative analyses were conducted using a series of one-way ANOVAs to compare effectiveness ratings (dependent variable: students' perceived effectiveness measured on a Likert-type scale) across these activity types within each instructional cycle. Prior to each ANOVA, Levene's test was performed to assess homogeneity of variance, with results consistently indicating violations of this assumption ($p < .001$), necessitating the use of Tamhane's T2 post hoc tests for conservative pairwise comparisons.

To validate the findings, the study also included cross-cycle paired t -tests for individual activities that appeared in multiple cycles (e.g., goal-setting exercises); inductive coding of journal reflections (Appendix O) focusing on activity-specific feedback, with intercoder reliability ensured through member checking with 10% participants and peer debriefing with two doctoral colleagues, and semi-structured interview transcripts (Appendix N/Q) were analyzed using content analysis to extract activity implementation challenges and perceived benefits.

The analytical framework specifically examined: (1) differences between clusters of top-rated versus bottom-rated activities (grouped based on mean ratings) in Cycle 2, and (2) pairwise comparisons among the six individual activities in Cycle 3. All

ANOVA models were tested at $\alpha = .05$, with significant main effects followed by post hoc analyses reporting mean differences, standard errors, and 95% confidence intervals. Effect sizes (partial η^2) were computed for significant findings to assess the magnitude of observed differences. This multi-method analytical approach was to detect both global patterns in activity effectiveness and specific differences between individual motivational strategies (the independent variable levels). All analyses were conducted using SPSS21.0 with rigorous attention to parametric test assumptions and appropriate correction procedures when assumptions were violated.

3.7.4 Data Analysis Methods for RQ4

To address RQ4 how can motivational strategies be implemented in classroom activities in a two-semester college English course, a comprehensive mixed-methods longitudinal approach was employed, combining quantitative tracking of motivational constructs with qualitative analysis of implementation challenges.

The study longitudinally monitored five key motivational variables: IES, OES, ATC, LSC, and MLE, through one-way RM-ANOVA across four assessment points (baseline and after each action research cycle). This quantitative component was to examine systematically how students' perceptions of strategy effectiveness evolved throughout the three-cycle intervention, with particular attention to identifying significant fluctuations in specific constructs and overall temporal patterns. Greenhouse-Geisser corrections were applied when sphericity assumptions were violated, and Bonferroni-adjusted post hoc tests were conducted to pinpoint changes between time points, with effect sizes (partial η^2 and Cohen's d) calculated to assess the magnitude of observed differences.

Complementing this quantitative analysis, qualitative data from semi-structured interviews, student journals, and open-ended survey responses were thematically analyzed to identify practical implementation barriers and contextual factors influencing strategy effectiveness. This qualitative component employed Braun and Clarke's (2006) inductive coding approach to systematically categorize challenges in journal-keeping difficulties, strategy comprehension issues, and engagement fluctuations to maintain methodological rigor through coder consensus procedures and data triangulation.

The integrated analysis of both quantitative trends and qualitative insights was conducted for nuanced understanding of strategy implementation dynamics, to reveal not only how student perceptions changed over time but also why certain patterns emerged and how practical obstacles could be addressed. This dual-focused approach was to ultimately yield actionable pedagogical recommendations for optimizing motivational strategy implementation in extended college English courses, grounded in both statistical evidence and authentic student experiences.

3.7.5 Thematic Analysis of Open-Ended Survey Questions, Journals, and Student Interviews

This study employed qualitative instruments comprising semi-structured interviews with teachers and students, as well as open-ended survey questions and learning journals. Prior to data collection, a panel of five experts: two TEFL specialists, two applied linguistics scholars, and one qualitative research methodologist, evaluated the interview protocols to verify alignment with the study's objectives and the effectiveness of the questions in eliciting relevant responses.

The interviews were conducted in Chinese to ensure clarity and accuracy. All recordings were transcribed verbatim, translated into English, and verified through back-translation by a bilingual translator. To strengthen data credibility, both the Chinese transcripts and their English translations were returned to participants for verification through member checking (Creswell, 2013). Participants examined their responses for accuracy and signed confirmation forms; only minimal revisions were necessary as all respondents validated the transcriptions' accuracy. This procedure enhanced the study's trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Thematic analysis followed Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-phase framework, applied to three qualitative data sources: open-ended questionnaire responses, learning journals, and semi-structured focus group interviews. Inductive coding was used to identify, analyse, and report recurring patterns within the data.

For the interview data, the analysis incorporated both deductive and inductive approaches. Codes were extracted line by line from the transcripts, and themes were developed based on recurring patterns. Responses were segmented into independent idea units, and the frequency of each idea was calculated. An idea reported by one

interviewee was counted as 11%; an idea reported by two interviewees was counted as 22%. These percentages were considered indicative rather than absolute, as some interviewees who agreed with others remained silent.

The analysis of open-ended survey questions followed three coding phases: open coding generated initial descriptive codes (e.g., “increased enthusiasm,” “greater interest,” “clearer goals”) derived directly from participants’ language; axial coding established relationships and patterns among these codes; and selective coding synthesised the categories into six core themes. The resulting thematic structures are presented in Figure 3.5 for interview data and Figure 3.6 for open-ended responses.

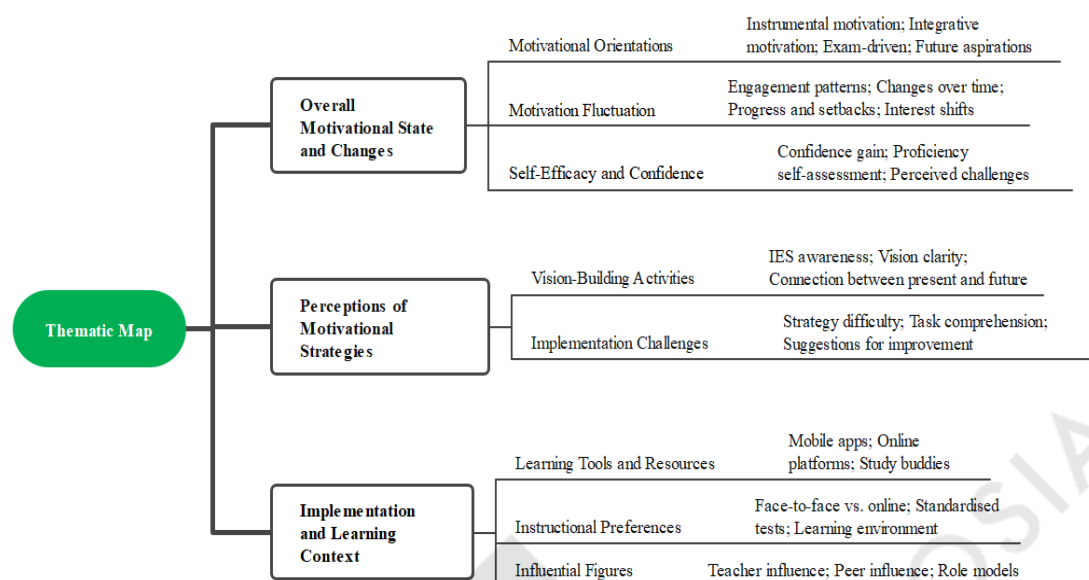
To ensure analytical rigour, several verification strategies were employed. Two doctoral colleagues participated in initial calibration exercises using a 20% data subset; through iterative discussion, coding discrepancies were resolved and the coding framework was finalised. The main coding was then carried out by the researcher independently, with ongoing peer consultation throughout the process. This approach aligns with established qualitative research practices, where consensus building and investigator triangulation are considered appropriate alternatives to formal reliability coefficients (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Additionally, two doctoral candidates in TESOL independently assessed the interview codes and themes; their recommendations led to the modification of certain theme names to reduce subjective interpretations, yielding an inter-rater agreement rate of 89% (Miles et al., 2014). Theoretical saturation was achieved when no new themes emerged from additional data. Member checking allowed participants to verify interpretation accuracy, while a comprehensive audit trail documented all analytical decisions, including codebook development, memo writing, and theme refinement, to ensure transparency and dependability.

Participants’ anonymity was ensured through letter- and number-based codes. Three types of codes were used: T for teachers (e.g., TL for a teacher marked with L), P for students responding to questionnaires (e.g., P2), and I for student interviewees (e.g., I3).

The analytical framework for the interview data, comprising three main themes with corresponding sub-themes, data sources, and example codes, is presented in Figure 3.5. This framework was derived deductively from the interview protocol (see Table 3.9) and inductively through iterative engagement with the interview transcripts (Braun &

Clarke, 2006). The framework served as the analytical lens for organising and interpreting the interview findings reported in Sections 6.4.1–6.4.3.

Figure 3.5: Thematic Map of Interview Findings Across Three Cycles

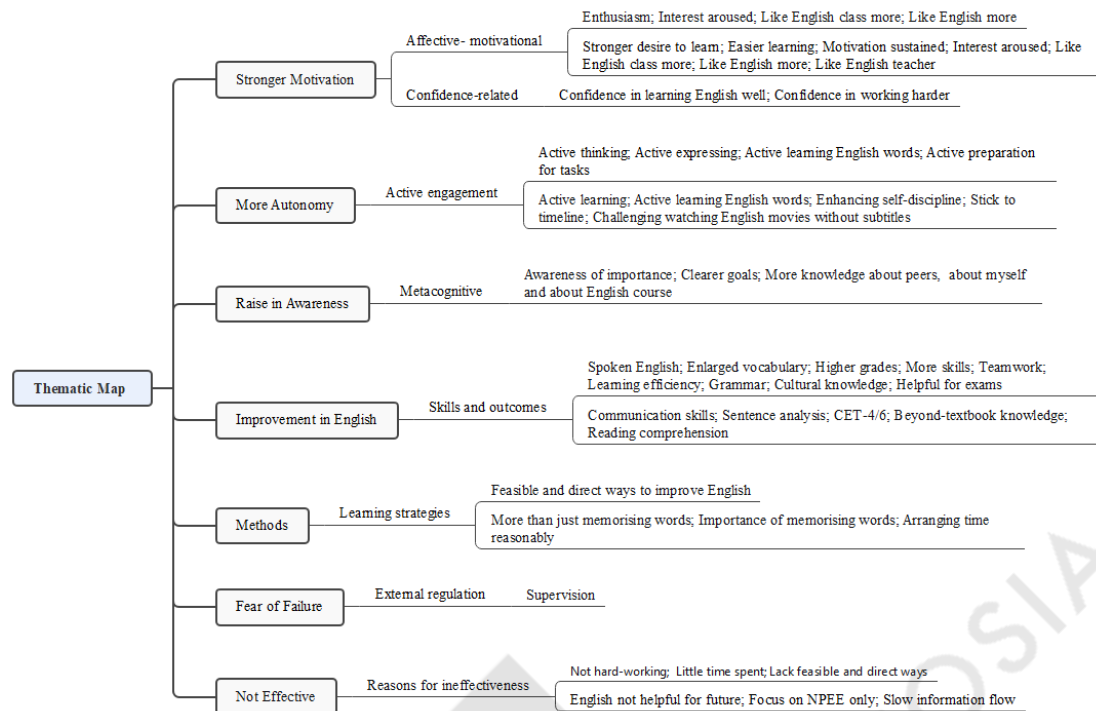


The thematic map of the open-ended responses is presented in Figure 3.6. The figure presents the core themes and sub-themes derived from inductive thematic analysis of open-ended questionnaire responses in Cycles 1 and 2. A total of 27 initial codes were identified in Cycle 1 and 38 in Cycle 2, which were subsequently grouped into seven core themes: Stronger Motivation, More Autonomy, Raise in Awareness, Improvement in English, Methods, Fear of Failure, and Not Effective. This thematic map provides a visual summary of the qualitative analytical process applied to the open-ended responses and complements the detailed findings reported in Sections 6.2.1 and 6.2.2.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

This doctoral study, involving human participants in an educational context, adhered to strict ethical research standards. Ethical approval was obtained from the university's ethics committee at a public university in southeastern China prior to contacting participants and initiating data collection (see Appendix F).

Figure 3.6: Thematic Map of Qualitative Data from Open-ended Responses



All participants received comprehensive information about the research, including the researcher's identity, study objectives, data collection purposes, potential consequences, confidentiality measures, and their right to withdraw at any time. Their identities remained strictly confidential throughout the study. All collected data, including questionnaire responses, interview content, and performance records, were handled with utmost confidentiality. Personally identifiable information was never disclosed to anyone other than the principal researcher under any circumstances. Participation was entirely voluntary, with written consent obtained through signed forms prior to involvement. Participants were offered the option to receive their individual response results upon study completion.

The research caused no physical or psychological harm to participants. Potential benefits included enhanced understanding of motivational strategies for either teaching or personal language learning purposes. Throughout the research process, no data fabrication, result manipulation, or unethical use of researcher privileges occurred. All study components maintained complete academic integrity.

3.9 Summary

This chapter delineates the research approaches and methodology employed to investigate the effectiveness of teachers' motivational strategies in EFL classrooms, as well as the overall research procedure. It begins with a brief review of AR and its applicability to the present study. The chapter further provides the rationale underpinning the research design, including the justification for adopting a triangulation approach, specifically, to compare findings derived from qualitative methods (learning journals, interviews, and open-ended questionnaire responses) with those from quantitative methods, thereby offsetting the limitations inherent in action research and balancing the weaknesses of each single approach with the strengths of others. Subsequently, the research procedure and the pedagogical implementation of the three action research cycles are presented in detail. Ethical considerations are addressed at the conclusion of the chapter.

In brief, the choice of research methodology and methods was primarily driven by the study's purpose: to identify the most effective motivational strategies that teachers can adopt to generate and sustain students' L2 motivation. The results and discussion pertaining to each research question are presented in the following chapters: Chapter 4 addresses RQ1 (teachers' perspectives on the most important motivational strategies), Chapter 5 addresses RQ2 (students' perceptions of common motivational strategies and their stability over time), Chapter 6 addresses RQ3 (students' perceptions of IES-oriented strategies), and Chapter 7 addresses RQ4 (the implementation of motivational strategies in a two-semester pedagogical model).

**CHAPTER 4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION: THE MOST
IMPORTANT MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES BASED
ON TEACHERS**

4.0 Introduction

This chapter addresses Research Question 1: “What are the most important motivational strategies used in China’s tertiary EFL education from teachers’ perspectives?” Based on eight-week classroom observations, questionnaire surveys, and teacher interviews, it presents and discusses findings from classroom observations, teacher-reported frequency, and teacher-rated effectiveness. These three data sources are then triangulated to identify the most important strategies. Interview findings on online teaching are integrated throughout. The chapter concludes by discussing cultural and contextual factors shaping strategy prioritization and implications for practice, establishing the baseline for the subsequent action research phase on student motivation conducted over two semesters (2020/2021).

4.1 Results

4.1.1 Most Common Motivational Strategies Used by Teachers Observed

Analysis of the classroom observation data, based on the frequency of implementation of Dörnyei’s (2001) 102 motivational strategies, revealed that 59 strategies were employed at least once by a teacher participant in Chinese EFL classrooms. The remaining 43 strategies, such as “schedule regular tasks for small, mixed groups to ensure peer exchange” (S17), were not observed during any of the instructional sessions (see Table 4.1; original data are presented in Appendix S).

Table 4.1: Average Frequencies of Observed Motivational Strategies in Classrooms

SA	Strategy	Mean	SB	Strategy	Mean
S1	Personal Passion	2.84	S28	Senior Sharing	0
S2	Rewarding Journey	0	S29	Peer Feedback	0
S3	Care for Growth	0.13	S30	Peer Inspiration	0.38
S4	Accessibility	0.81	S31	Model Enjoyment	0
S5	High Expectations	0.59	S32	Positive Start	0
S6	Demonstrate Respect	4.34	S33	Teach Culture	0.03
S7	Focused Attention	3.38	S34	Share Optimism	0
S8	Avail for Support	0.16	S35	Guide Discovery	0
S9	Parent Updates	0	S36	Engage Community	0.34

S10	Parent Involvement	0	S37	Link to Goals	0.59
S11	Foster Tolerance	0.03	S38	Reinforce Relevance	0
S12	Encourage Risks	0.16	S39	Real-World Use	0
S13	Use Humor	0.91	S40	Ensure Training	1.22
S14	Personalize Space	0.03	S41	Clarify Success	0.88
S15	Empower Interaction	0	S42	Remove Obstacles	0.22
S16	Ice Breaking	0.03	S43	Negotiate Goals	0
S17	Mixed Group Work	0	S44	Review Goals	2.81
S18	Extracurricular	0	S45	Keep Achievable	0
S19	Flexible Seating	0	S46	Needs Analysis	0.16
S20	Group Goals	0	S47	Relate to Life	3.59
S21	Group Identity	0	S48	Student Involvement	0.09
S22	Norm Initiation	0	S49	Confront Beliefs	0.16
S23	Explain Norms	0	S50	Raise Awareness	0.09
S24	Student Input	0			
S25	Display Rules	0			
S26	Model Rules	0.03			
S27	Enforce Rules	0			
SC	Strategy	Mean	SD	Strategy	Mean
S51	Vary Tasks	1.63	S89	Attribute Effort	0
S52	Focus Flow	0	S90	Reject Ability	0
S53	Do Unexpected	0.03	S91	Notice Contributions	8.22
S54	Make Challenging	0.03	S92	Regular Feedback	1.31
S55	Add Novelty	1.53	S93	Celebrate Success	0
S56	Personalize Tasks	0.19	S94	Visual Records	0.06
S57	Tangible Products	0.13	S95	Public Display	0.78
S58	Active Involvement	0.19	S96	Avoid Preoccupation	0
S59	Assign Roles	0	S97	Visual Rewards	0
S60	Explain Purpose	2.5	S98	Incentivize Tasks	0.03
S61	Whet Appetite	1	S99	Transparent Assessment	0
S62	Provide Strategies	3.38	S100	Grade Effort	0.03
S63	Set Short Goals	0.09	S101	Continuous Assessment	0.03
S64	Deadlines & Feedback	0.25	S102	Self-Assessment	0
S65	Learning Contract	0			
S66	Monitor Contract	0.03			
S67	Create Success	5.03			
S68	Adjust Difficulty	0			
S69	Design Tests	0			

S70	Highlight Strengths	6.53
S71	Show Belief	0.31
S72	Avoid Comparison	0
S73	Promote Cooperation	0.03
S74	Accept Mistakes	0.03
S75	Transparent Grading	0.5
S76	Learning Strategies	2.06
S77	Communication Strategies	0
S78	Good Roles	0.03
S79	Avoid Face-Threat	0.16
S80	Team Goals	0.16
S81	Team Evaluation	0.03
S82	Social Training	0
S83	Allow Choices	0.09
S84	Delegate Roles	0
S85	Be Facilitator	0
S86	Raise Awareness	0
S87	Share Strategies	0
S88	Adopt Strategies	0.06

Note: SA=Section A, Phase of creating an environment that motivates; SB=Section B, Phase of fostering initial motivation; SC= Section C, Phase of supporting and safeguarding motivation; and SD = Section D, phase of strengthening positive self-evaluation

The quantitative data revealed substantial variation in implementation frequency. As shown in Table 4.2, the 16 most frequently used strategies, namely S91, S70, S67, S6, S47, S7, S62, S1, S44, S60, S76, S51, S55, S92, S40, and S61 (listed in descending order), were each employed by every teacher participant at least once on average.

Table 4.2: Rankings of the Use Frequencies of 102 Strategies Observed

Rank	Strategy		Mean	Strategy not Used Frequently		Mean
1	S91	Notice Contributions	8.22	S2	Rewarding Journey	0
2	S70	Highlight Strengths	6.53	S9	Parent Updates	0
3	S67	Create Success	5.03	S10	Parent Involvement	0
4	S6	Demonstrate Respect	4.34	S15	Empower Interaction	0
5	S47	Relate to Life	3.59	S17	Mixed Group Work	0
6	S7	Focused Attention	3.38	S18	Extracurricular	0
6	S62	Provide Strategies	3.38	S19	Flexible Seating	0
8	S1	Personal Passion	2.84	S20	Group Goals	0
9	S44	Review Goals	2.81	S21	Group Identity	0

10	S60	Explain Purpose	2.5	S22	Norm Initiation	0
11	S76	Learning Strategies	2.06	S23	Explain Norms	0
12	S51	Vary Tasks	1.63	S24	Student Input	0
13	S55	Add Novelty	1.53	S25	Display Rules	0
14	S92	Regular Feedback	1.31	S27	Enforce Rules	0
15	S40	Ensure Training	1.22	S28	Senior Sharing	0
16	S61	Whet Appetite	1	S29	Peer Feedback	0
17	S13	Use Humor	0.91	S31	Model Enjoyment	0
18	S41	Clarify Success	0.88	S32	Positive Start	0
19	S4	Accessibility	0.81	S34	Share Optimism	0
20	S95	Public Display	0.78	S35	Guide Discovery	0
21	S5	High Expectations	0.59	S38	Reinforce Relevance	0
21	S37	Link to Goals	0.59	S39	Real-World Use	0
23	S75	Transparent Grading	0.5	S43	Negotiate Goals	0
24	S30	Peer Inspiration	0.38	S45	Keep Achievable	0
25	S36	Engage Community	0.34	S52	Focus Flow	0
26	S71	Show Belief	0.31	S59	Assign Roles	0
27	S64	Deadlines & Feedback	0.25	S65	Learning Contract	0
28	S42	Remove Obstacles	0.22	S68	Adjust Difficulty	0
29	S56	Personalize Tasks	0.19	S69	Design Tests	0
29	S58	Active Involvement	0.19	S72	Avoid Comparison	0
31	S8	Avail for Support	0.16	S77	Communication Strategies	0
31	S12	Encourage Risks	0.16	S82	Social Training	0
31	S46	Needs Analysis	0.16	S84	Delegate Roles	0
31	S49	Confront Beliefs	0.16	S85	Be Facilitator	0
31	S79	Avoid Face-Threat	0.16	S86	Raise Awareness	0
31	S80	Team Goals	0.16	S87	Share Strategies	0
37	S3	Care for Growth	0.13	S89	Attribute Effort	0
37	S57	Tangible Products	0.13	S90	Reject Ability	0
39	S48	Student Involvement	0.09	S93	Celebrate Success	0
39	S50	Raise Awareness	0.09	S96	Avoid Preoccupation	0
39	S63	Set Short Goals	0.09	S97	Visual Rewards	0
39	S83	Allow Choices	0.09	S99	Transparent Assessment	0
39	S88	Adopt Strategies	0.06	S102	Self-Assessment	0
39	S94	Visual Records	0.06			
45	S11	Foster Tolerance	0.03			
45	S14	Personalize Space	0.03			
45	S16	Ice Breaking	0.03			
45	S26	Model Rules	0.03			
45	S33	Teach Culture	0.03			

45	S53	Do Unexpected	0.03
45	S54	Make Challenging	0.03
45	S66	Monitor Contract	0.03
45	S73	Promote Cooperation	0.03
45	S74	Accept Mistakes	0.03
45	S78	Good Roles	0.03
45	S81	Team Evaluation	0.03
45	S98	Incentivize Tasks	0.03
45	S100	Grade Effort	0.03
45	S101	Continuous Assessment	0.03

Among the 16 motivational strategies employed with notable frequency by all teacher participants, the most frequently used strategy was Section D S91 (Be attentive to and respond supportively to valuable student participation), with a mean frequency of 8.22 occurrences per 90-minute lesson, substantially higher than any other observed strategy. The second and third most frequently observed strategies were Section C S70 (Direct attention toward learners' existing strengths and capabilities, $M = 6.53$) and Section C S67 (Create repeated moments of success for all learners in the language classroom, $M = 5.03$). Strategies emphasizing teacher-student rapport, namely Section A S6 (Demonstrate your respect and genuine concern for each learner, $M = 4.34$) and Section A S7 (Give each student your focused attention, $M = 3.38$), also ranked among the top seven. At the lower end of the frequency distribution, Section C S61 (Stimulate appetite for the task ahead) was observed least often, with a mean frequency of 1.00 per lesson. Table 4.3 presents the complete ranking of these 16 strategies with their mean frequencies of use.

Table 4.3: The Motivational Strategies Observed Most Frequently Used in Means Order

Rank	Strategy	Observed Teacher Behaviour	Mean
1	Section D S91 Be attentive to and respond supportively to valuable student participation.	Responded to incorrect answers with encouragement and guided correction.	8.22
2	Section C S70 Direct attention toward learners' existing strengths and capabilities.	Encouraged a student by linking their strength in maths to their potential in English: "You are so good at maths; you can also do well in English."	6.53

3	Section C S67 Create repeated moments of success for all learners in the language classroom.	Organised group presentations regularly to provide all students with repeated opportunities to succeed.	5.03
4	Section A S6 Demonstrate your respect and genuine concern for each learner.	Greeted students with “Are you doing well?”; Used “love the sinner, not the sin” to distinguish between respecting learners and correcting errors.	4.34
5	Section B S47 Link the lesson to your students’ lives and backgrounds.	Related to students’ majors (e.g., business, engineering).	3.59
6	Section A S7 Give each student your focused attention.	Maintained a warm smile; Noticed and complimented a student’s new hairstyle.	3.38
6	Section C S62 Equip learners with clear steps to complete the task.	Provided step-by-step instructions with sample answers.	3.38
8	Section A S1 Be a living example of engagement by sharing your fascination with the L2.	Shared personal research interest in the connotation of body language when teaching the unit.	2.84
9	Section B S44 Bring up the class goals regularly. Show how what you’re doing ties back to achieving them.	Displayed a slide showing “Today’s activities and how they help us reach our class goals.”	2.81
10	Section C S60 Connect the task to clear objectives and practical benefits.	Explained how tasks would benefit students in future academic or professional settings.	2.50
11	Section C S76 Provide students with learning techniques that aid in absorbing new material.	Demonstrated vocabulary notebook techniques and effective note-taking methods.	2.06
12	Section C S51 Try to make your teaching tasks and other classroom activities as diverse as possible.	Alternated between individual writing, pair discussion, group presentations, and interactive quizzes.	1.63

13	Section C S55 Design tasks that can hook interest with content that taps into student curiosity or adds fun, competition, or fantasy.	Organised quick-response quiz competitions on DingTalk based on teaching content.	1.53
14	Section D S92 Regularly update students on their progress and prioritize next steps for learning.	Sent individual feedback after assignments highlighting strengths and areas for improvement, and frequently asked questions to check understanding.	1.31
15	Section B S40 Ensure they get enough training and help.	Provided two weeks of instruction and guidance for a specific assignment task.	1.22
16	Section C S61 Stimulate appetite for the task ahead.	Played a short video clip or after some reading, asked “What do you think happens next?”	1.00

Analysis of the observational data revealed that the 16 most frequently used motivational strategies were distributed across all four phases of Dörnyei’s (2001) process-oriented framework. In the Phase of creating an environment that motivates (Section A), three strategies were observed among the most frequently used: S6 (Demonstrate your respect and genuine concern for each learner, $M = 4.34$), S7 (Give each student your focused attention, $M = 3.38$), and S1 (Be a living example of engagement by sharing your fascination with the L2, $M = 2.84$). In the Phase of fostering initial motivation (Section B), three strategies also appeared: S47 (Link the lesson to your students’ lives and backgrounds, $M = 3.59$), S44 (Bring up the class goals regularly, $M = 2.81$), and S40 (Ensure they get enough training and help, $M = 1.22$).

The Phase of supporting and safeguarding motivation (Section C) contributed the largest number of strategies, with eight ranking among the top 16: S70 (Direct attention toward learners’ existing strengths and capabilities, $M = 6.53$), S67 (Create repeated moments of success for all learners, $M = 5.03$), S62 (Equip learners with clear steps to complete the task, $M = 3.38$), S60 (Connect the task to clear objectives and practical benefits, $M = 2.50$), S76 (Provide students with learning techniques that aid in absorbing new material, $M = 2.06$), S51 (Make teaching tasks as diverse as possible, $M = 1.63$), S55

(Design tasks that tap into curiosity or add fun, competition, or fantasy, $M = 1.53$), and S61 (Stimulate appetite for the task ahead, $M = 1.00$).

In the Phase of strengthening positive self-evaluation (Section D), two strategies were observed: S91 (Be attentive to and respond supportively to valuable student participation), which was the single most frequently observed strategy across all phases with a mean of 8.22 per lesson, and S92 (Regularly update students on their progress and prioritize next steps for learning, $M = 1.31$). Table 4.4 presents the complete distribution of these 16 strategies across Dörnyei's (2001) four motivational phases.

Table 4.4: The Most Frequently Used Motivational Strategies Observed

Phase	Strategy	Frequency (Mean)
Section A	1. Model personal passion for the subject and its relevance.	2.84
	6. Demonstrate your respect and genuine concern for each learner.	4.34
	7. Give each student your focused attention.	3.38
Section B	40. Ensure they get enough training and help.	1.22
	44. Bring up the class goals regularly. Show how what you're doing ties back to achieving them.	2.81
	47. Link the lesson to your students' lives and backgrounds.	3.59
Section C	51. Try to make your teaching tasks and other classroom activities as diverse as possible.	1.63
	55. Design tasks that can hook interest with content that taps into student curiosity or adds fun, competition, or fantasy.	1.53
	60. Connect the task to clear objectives and practical benefits.	2.50
	61. Stimulate appetite for the task ahead.	1.00
	62. Equip learners with clear steps to complete the task.	3.38
	67. Create repeated moments of success for all learners in the language classroom.	5.03

	70. Direct attention toward learners' existing strengths and capabilities.	6.53
	76. Provide students with learning techniques that aid in absorbing new material.	2.06
Section D	91. Be attentive to and respond supportively to valuable student participation.	8.22
	92. Regularly update students on their progress and prioritize next steps for learning.	1.31

4.1.2 Most Common Motivational Strategies Reported by Teachers

Given that 16 motivational strategies were identified as the most frequently used among the 102 strategies outlined in Dörnyei's (2001) framework based on classroom observations, 16 strategies with the highest mean scores from the teacher questionnaire were initially targeted for selection to enable comparison between observed frequency and teacher-reported use. However, due to tied mean scores in the teachers' frequency ratings, the selection threshold extended to include 20 strategies (See Appendix T for raw data).

Results of the teacher questionnaire data showed that the highest-ranked strategy was Section A S7 (Give each student your focused attention), with $M = 4.00$. Three strategies shared the second-highest mean score of 3.75: Section A S3 (Let students know that their improvement is important to you; $M = 3.75$), Section C S60 (Connect the task to clear objectives and practical benefits; $M = 3.75$), and Section C S79 (Prevent situations that could cause students to lose face, such as humiliating feedback or unexpected public attention; $M = 3.75$). Strategies with a mean score of 3.50 included Section A S6 (Demonstrate your respect and genuine concern for each learner; $M = 3.50$), Section A S12 (Taking risks is encouraged and errors are viewed as a natural step in learning; $M = 3.50$), Section B S40 (Ensure they get enough training and help; $M = 3.50$), Section C S74 (Encourage learners to view mistakes as evidence of effort and growth; $M = 3.50$), and Section D S91 (Be attentive to and respond supportively to valuable student participation; $M = 3.50$).

The remaining 11 strategies each received a mean score of 3.25. These included Section A S8 (Make it clear that you are available to support your students), Section A S15 (Empower learners to interact, collaborate, and share openly about themselves), Section B S41 (Ensure they fully understand what it takes to succeed in the task), Section B S42

(Ensure the path to success is clear), Section C S61 (Stimulate appetite for the task ahead), Section C S71 (Express clear confidence in your students' effort and ability to succeed), Section C S75 (Keep all testing and grading fully open, and engage learners in final mark negotiations), Section C S81 (Include collective results alongside individual performance in evaluation), Section D S86 (Help students recognize the value of self-motivation in their learning), Section D S87 (Exchange proven strategies that have worked for you), and Section D S92 (Regularly update students on their progress and prioritize next steps for learning). Table 4.5 presents the complete ranking of these 20 strategies with their mean frequency scores as reported by teachers.

Table 4.5: The Most Frequently Used Motivational Strategies Reported by Teachers

Rank	Strategy	Observed Teacher Behaviour	Mean
1	Str 7 Give each student your focused attention.	Maintained a warm smile; Noticed and complimented a student's new hairstyle.	4
2	Str 3 Let students know that their improvement is important to you.	Acknowledged individual progress during feedback by saying "I can see you have improved since last week" or "Your writing is getting better."	3.75
3	Str 60 Connect the task to clear objectives and practical benefits.	Explained how tasks would benefit students in future academic or professional settings.	3.75
4	Str 79 Prevent situations that could cause students to lose face, such as humiliating feedback or unexpected public attention.	Provided private feedback on assignments rather than pointing out errors in front of the whole class; addressed sensitive issues individually via private messages.	3.75
5	Str 6 Demonstrate your respect and genuine concern for each learner.	Greeted students with "Are you doing well?"; Used "love the sinner, not the sin" to distinguish between respecting learners and correcting errors.	3.5
6	Str 12 Taking risks is encouraged and errors are viewed as a natural step in learning.	Encouraged students to attempt difficult tasks by saying "It is okay to make mistakes; that is how we learn."	3.5
7	Str 40 Ensure they get enough training and help.	Provided two weeks of instruction and guidance for a specific assignment task.	3.5

8	Str 74 Encourage learners to view mistakes as evidence of effort and growth.	Told students “Making mistakes means you are trying, and that is how you grow.”	3.5
9	Str 91 Be attentive to and respond supportively to valuable student participation.	Responded to incorrect answers with encouragement and guided correction.	3.5
10	Str 8 Make it clear that you are available to support your students.	Announced “I am available on DingTalk every Thursday afternoon for questions” and responded to student messages within 24 hours.	3.25
10	Str 15 Empower learners to interact, collaborate, and share openly about themselves.	Encouraged students to share personal experiences related to lesson topics during class discussions.	3.25
10	Str 41 Ensure they fully understand what it takes to succeed in the task.	Shared exemplary work from senior students to illustrate what it takes to succeed in the task.	3.25
10	Str 42 Ensure the path to success is clear.	Provided a detailed task checklist and explained the grading criteria before students began the task.	3.25
10	Str 61 Stimulate appetite for the task ahead.	Played a short video clip or after some reading, asked “What do you think happens next?”	3.25
10	Str 71 Express clear confidence in your students’ effort and ability to succeed.	Said to students, “I believe you can do this if you keep trying.”	3.25
10	Str 75 Keep all testing and grading fully open, and engage learners in final mark negotiations.	Shared grading rubrics with students and allowed them to discuss and negotiate their final marks.	3.25
10	Str 81 Include collective results alongside individual performance in evaluation.	Included group performance as part of the overall assessment for collaborative tasks, e.g., peer-grading.	3.25
10	Str 86 Help students recognize the value of self-motivation in their learning.	Encouraged students to reflect on what drives them to learn and to set personal goals.	3.25

10	Str 87 Exchange proven strategies that have worked for you.	Shared personal learning strategies, such as using vocabulary apps and watching English videos, and encouraged students to share their own.	3.25
10	Str 92 Regularly update students on their progress and prioritize next steps for learning.	Sent individual feedback after assignments highlighting strengths and areas for improvement, and frequently asked questions to check understanding.	3.25

Among the 20 most frequently reported strategies from the teacher questionnaire, eight were also among the 20 most frequently observed strategies in classroom instruction. This alignment analysis was based on the top 20 strategies from each dataset to ensure a comparable number of strategies for meaningful comparison. The observation data initially identified 16 strategies as most frequent; however, the 20 most frequently observed strategies were selected for this analysis because the teacher questionnaire yielded 20 strategies due to tied mean scores in teachers' self-reported frequency ratings.

The eight overlapping strategies, with their respective mean scores (M) from both datasets included S7 (Give each student your focused attention; teacher M = 4.00, observed M = 3.38), S60 (Connect the task to clear objectives and practical benefits; teacher M = 3.75, observed M = 2.50), S6 (Demonstrate your respect and genuine concern for each learner; teacher M = 3.50, observed M = 4.34), S40 (Ensure they get enough training and help; teacher M = 3.50, observed M = 1.22), S91 (Be attentive to and respond supportively to valuable student participation; teacher M = 3.50, observed M = 8.22), S41 (Ensure they fully understand what it takes to succeed in the task; teacher M = 3.25, observed M = 0.88), S61 (Stimulate appetite for the task ahead; teacher M = 3.25, observed M = 1.00), and S92 (Regularly update students on their progress and prioritize next steps for learning; teacher M = 3.25, observed M = 1.31). Notably, S91 showed the highest observed frequency (M = 8.22) while receiving a teacher-reported mean of 3.50, and S6 demonstrated consistently high scores across both datasets (observed M = 4.34, teacher M = 3.50). Table 4.6 presents these strategies with their respective mean scores from both datasets.

Table 4.6: Overlapping Strategies Between Teacher-reported Frequency and Classroom Observation

No.	Strategy	Teacher- Reported Mean	Observed Mean Frequency
1	S7 Give each student your focused attention	4	3.38
2	S60 Connect the task to clear objectives and practical benefits	3.75	2.5
3	S6 Demonstrate your respect and genuine concern for each learner	3.5	4.34
4	S40 Ensure they get enough training and help	3.5	1.22
5	S91 Be attentive to and respond supportively to valuable student participation	3.5	8.22
6	S41 Ensure they fully understand what it takes to succeed in the task	3.25	0.88
7	S61 Stimulate appetite for the task ahead	3.25	1
8	S92 Regularly update students on their progress and prioritize next steps for learning	3.25	1.31

The comparison reveals substantial alignment between teacher perceptions and observed practice, with eight strategies commonly identified across both datasets. The discrepancies between reported and observed frequencies were relatively minor, and strategies that differed often belonged to the same motivational phase or cluster, suggesting consistency in the overall pattern of strategy use rather than fundamental contradictions.

4.1.3 Most Effective Motivational Strategies Reported by Teachers

To maintain consistency with the observation phase, strategies with a mean score of 4.00 or higher were selected from the teacher-rated effectiveness data, resulting in 20 strategies (see Appendix T for raw data).

The highest-ranked strategy was Section A S3 (Let students know that their improvement is important to you), with $M = 4.75$. The second highest was Section A S6 (Demonstrate your respect and genuine concern for each learner), with $M = 4.50$. Six strategies shared the third rank with $M = 4.25$: Section A S12 (Taking risks is encouraged and errors are viewed as a natural step in learning), Section C S51 (Try to make your teaching tasks and other classroom activities as diverse as possible), Section C S60 (Connect the task to clear objectives and practical benefits), Section C S63, Section C

S80, and Section D S91 (Be attentive to and respond supportively to valuable student participation). A further ten strategies received $M = 4.00$, including Section B S40 (Ensure they get enough training and help), Section C S70 (Direct attention toward learners' existing strengths and capabilities), Section C S71 (Express clear confidence in your students' effort and ability to succeed), Section C S74 (Encourage learners to view mistakes as evidence of effort and growth), Section C S81 (Include collective results alongside individual performance in evaluation), and Section D S86 (Help students recognize the value of self-motivation in their learning), among others. As shown in Table 4.7, the 20 strategies ranked highest by teachers for effectiveness are presented with their mean scores. The corresponding raw data are available in the Appendix U (Most Effective Motivational Strategies Reported by Teachers).

Table 4.7: The Most Effective Motivational Strategies Reported by Teachers

Rank	Strategy	Observed Teacher Behaviour	Mean
1	Section A S3 Let students know that their improvement is important to you.	Acknowledged individual progress during feedback by saying "I can see you have improved since last week" or "Your writing is getting better."	4.75
2	Section A S6 Demonstrate your respect and genuine concern for each learner.	Greeted students with "Are you doing well?"; Used "love the sinner, not the sin" to distinguish between respecting learners and correcting errors.	4.5
3	Section A S12 Taking risks is encouraged and errors are viewed as a natural step in learning.	Encouraged students to attempt difficult tasks by saying "It is okay to make mistakes; that is how we learn."	4.25
3	Section C S51 Try to make your teaching tasks and other classroom activities as diverse as possible.	Alternated between individual writing, pair discussion, group presentations, and interactive quizzes.	4.25
3	Section C S60 Connect the task to clear objectives and practical benefits.	Explained how tasks would benefit students in future academic or professional settings.	4.25
3	Section C S63 Let learners pick their own short-term goals.	Asked students to set their own weekly learning goals and submit them via DingTalk.	4.25

3	Section C S80 Design collaborative tasks that require teams to pursue a shared objective.	Assigned group projects with shared objectives, such as preparing a joint presentation on a given topic.	4.25
3	Section D S91 Be attentive to and respond supportively to valuable student participation.	Responded to incorrect answers with encouragement and guided correction.	4.25
9	Section A S2 Demonstrate to your class that you see L2 acquisition as a personally rewarding journey, one that brings fulfillment and enhances your worldview.	Shared personal experiences of how learning English enriched their life and career.	4
9	Section B S35 Guide students to independently discover the target-language world (such as online).	Encouraged students to explore English-language content online (e.g., news, videos) and share their findings in class.	4
9	Section B S40 Ensure they get enough training and help.	Provided two weeks of instruction and guidance for a specific assignment task.	4
9	Section B S50 Help students see the different paths to learning a language and all the factors involved in its success.	Discussed various learning strategies such as dictation, listening to podcasts, reading news, watching films, and speaking practice.	4
9	Section C S70 Direct attention toward learners' existing strengths and capabilities.	Encouraged a student by linking their strength in maths to their potential in English: "You are so good at maths; you can also do well in English."	4
9	Section C S71 Express clear confidence in your students' effort and ability to succeed.	Said to students, "I believe you can do this if you keep trying."	4
9	Section C S74 Encourage learners to view mistakes as evidence of effort and growth.	Told students "Making mistakes means you are trying, and that is how you grow."	4
9	Section C S81 Include collective results alongside individual performance in evaluation.	Included group performance as part of the overall assessment for collaborative tasks.	4
9	Section D S86 Help students recognize the value of self-motivation in their learning.	Encouraged students to reflect on what drives them to learn and to set personal goals.	4
9	Section D S100 Design grading to recognize both the learning journey	Included effort and participation as part of the final grade alongside test scores.	4

(effort/improvement) and the
destination (mastery).

4.1.4 The Most Important Strategies from Teachers' Perspectives: A Triangulated Approach

To identify the most important motivational strategies in Chinese tertiary EFL classrooms, a triangulated approach was adopted, integrating the three data sources presented in the preceding sections: observed frequency of strategy use, teacher-reported frequency, and teacher-rated effectiveness. Prior to calculating composite scores, Pearson correlation analyses were conducted using SPSS 21.0 to examine the relationships among these three measures. A perfect positive correlation was observed between frequency observed and frequency responded ($r = 1.000, p < .01$), indicating that these two variables are perfectly linearly related. Additionally, frequency observed exhibited a moderate positive correlation with effectiveness responded ($r = 0.281, p < .01$), and similarly, effectiveness responded was moderately positively correlated with frequency responded ($r = .281, p < .01$). These results suggest that frequency observed and frequency responded share identical variance in their measurements, while effectiveness responded demonstrates a weaker but statistically significant relationship with both frequency observed and frequency responded (see Table 4.8). The results indicated moderate to strong consistency across the three data sources and providing empirical justification for combining them into a single composite index.

Table 4.8: Correlations Among Observed Frequencies, Teacher-perceived Effectiveness and Frequencies (N=102)

		Frequency Observed	Effectiveness Responded	Frequency Responded
Frequency Observed	Pearson Correlation	1		
Effectiveness Responded	Pearson Correlation	.281**	1	
Frequency Responded	Pearson Correlation	1.000**	.281**	1

** $p < .001$

Based on these findings, a composite mean score was calculated for each of the 102 motivational strategies by averaging its observed frequency, teacher-reported frequency, and teacher-rated effectiveness. The resulting composite scores were then ranked to

identify the strategies perceived as most important from a multi-perspective, triangulated standpoint.

Following the established tradition in motivational strategy research (e.g., Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007), which seeks to identify the most salient macrostrategies for language learning motivation, the present study selected strategies with composite means above 1.0 and below 0.3 for detailed analysis. All 102 strategies were ranked by their composite mean scores. This selection aligns with the thresholds used in previous sections, where the most frequently observed strategies (above 1.0) and the most effective strategies (top 16 to 20) were similarly identified, ensuring consistency and comparability across analyses. As shown in Table 4.9, 20 strategies with composite means higher than 1.0 (ranging from 1.06 to 7.82) were identified as the most important motivational practices, while 16 strategies with means lower than 0.3 (ranging from 0.10 to 0.28) were considered the least important. This threshold aligns with natural breaks in the score distribution, as strategies above 1.0 were observed at least occasionally across data sources, while those below 0.3 formed a distinct cluster clearly separated from the remaining strategies. This approach enables meaningful comparison of the most and least important motivational practices in Chinese tertiary EFL classrooms, consistent with the cross-cultural validation framework employed in prior studies.

The most important 20 strategies and 16 least important ones are distributed across all four phases of Dörnyei's (2001) framework. In the phase of creating an environment that motivates (Section A), six strategies ranked among the most important. S6 (demonstrate respect and genuine concern) ranked fourth with a mean of 4.36, and S7 (give each student focused attention) ranked sixth with 3.41. S1 (share personal fascination with the L2) ranked ninth with 2.86, while S4 (be accessible and ready to support students) ranked eighteenth with 1.14. S13 (weave humor into teaching) ranked nineteenth with 1.09. In contrast, five Section A strategies appeared among the least important: S11 (foster a culture of tolerance) with 0.30, S18 (promote extracurricular activities) with 0.20, S19 (avoid fixed seating) with 0.23, and S21 (cultivate group identity) with 0.25.

In the phase of fostering initial motivation (Section B), four strategies ranked among the most important. S47 (link lessons to students' lives) ranked fifth with 3.58, and S44

(regularly reference class goals) ranked eighth with 2.91. S40 (ensure sufficient training) ranked fifteenth with 1.50, and S41 (ensure understanding of success requirements) ranked seventeenth with 1.16. Five Section B strategies ranked among the least important: S28 (invite senior students to share experiences) with 0.18, S34 (share optimistic words from public figures) with 0.30, S38 (reinforce L2 relevance) with 0.30, and S39 (prompt real-world language use) with 0.30.

In the phase of supporting and safeguarding motivation (Section C), ten strategies ranked among the most important. S70 (direct attention to learners' strengths) ranked second with 6.28, and S67 (create repeated moments of success) ranked third with 4.88. S62 (equip learners with clear steps) ranked seventh with 3.39, and S60 (connect tasks to clear objectives) ranked tenth with 2.68. S76 (provide learning techniques) ranked eleventh with 2.23, and S51 (diversify tasks) ranked twelfth with 1.89. S55 (design curiosity-driven content) ranked thirteenth with 1.73, and S61 (stimulate task appetite) ranked sixteenth with 1.29. Three Section C strategies ranked among the least important: S52 (maintain student engagement) with 0.30, S53 (introduce unexpected elements) with 0.26, and S59 (assign unique roles) with 0.28.

In the phase of strengthening positive self-evaluation (Section D), three strategies ranked among the most important. S91 (respond supportively to student participation) ranked first overall with 7.82, substantially higher than all other strategies. S92 (regularly update students on progress) ranked fourteenth with 1.51, and S95 (schedule public skill displays) ranked twentieth with 1.06. Three Section D strategies ranked among the least important: S89 (attribute setbacks to effort) with 0.30, and S90 (reject ability attributions) with 0.28.

Collectively, the 20 most important strategies span all four phases, with the largest concentration in Section C. The 16 least important strategies are distributed across all phases, with notable clusters in Sections A and B related to parental involvement, group dynamics, and external motivational appeals (See Table 4.9).

Table 4.9: The Most and Least Important Motivational Strategies Based on Composite Mean Scores

No.	Strategy	Observed Teacher Behaviour	Mean	Rank
Most Important Strategies				

1	S1 Be a living example of engagement by sharing your fascination with the L2.	Shared personal research interest in the connotation of body language when teaching the unit.	1	9
2	S4 Be accessible and ready to support students in their academic work.	Announced office hours on DingTalk and responded to student messages within 24 hours.	1.14	18
3	S6 Demonstrate your respect and genuine concern for each learner.	Greeted students at the start of each session with “Are you doing well?”; Used the phrase “love the sinner, not the sin” to distinguish between respecting students as individuals and addressing their mistakes in learning.	4.36	4
4	S7 Give each student your full and focused attention.	Maintained a warm smile; Noticed and complimented a student’s new hairstyle.	3.41	6
5	S13 Weave humor into the teaching.	Made a self-deprecating joke about his appearance before turning off the camera.	1.09	19
6	S40 Ensure they get enough training and help.	Provided two weeks of instruction and guidance for a specific assignment task.	1.5	15
7	S41 Ensure they fully understand what it takes to succeed in the task.	Shared exemplary work from senior students to illustrate what it takes to succeed in the task.	1.16	17
8	S44 Bring up the class goals regularly. Show how what you’re doing ties back to achieving them.	Displayed a slide showing “Today’s activities and how they help us reach our class goals.	2.91	8
9	S47 Link the lesson to your students’ lives and backgrounds.	related to students’ majors (e.g., business, engineering).	3.58	5
10	S51 Try to make your teaching tasks and other classroom activities as diverse as possible.	Connected lesson content and tasks to students’ majors, using examples from their disciplines and assigning subject-related speaking and writing tasks.	1.89	12
11	S55 Design tasks that can hook interest with content that taps into student	Organised quick-response quiz competitions on DingTalk based on teaching content.	1.73	13

	curiosity or adds fun, competition, or fantasy.			
12	S60 Connect the task to clear objectives and practical benefits.	Explained how tasks would benefit students in future academic or professional settings.	2.68	10
13	S61 Stimulate appetite for the task ahead.	Played a short video clip or after some reading, asked “What do you think happens next?”	1.29	16
14	S62 Equip learners with clear steps to complete the task.	Provided step-by-step instructions with sample answers.	3.39	7
15	S67 Create repeated moments of success for all learners in the language classroom.	Organised group presentations regularly to provide all students with repeated opportunities to succeed.	4.88	3
16	S70 Direct attention toward learners’ existing strengths and capabilities.	Encouraged a student by linking their strength in maths to their potential in English: “You are so good at maths; you can also do well in English.”	6.28	2
17	S76 Provide students with learning techniques that aid in absorbing new material.	Demonstrated vocabulary notebook techniques and effective note-taking methods.	2.23	11
18	S91 Be attentive to and respond supportively to valuable student participation.	Responded to incorrect answers with encouragement and guided correction.	7.82	1
19	S92 Regularly update students on their progress and prioritize next steps for learning.	Sent individual feedback after assignments highlighting strengths and areas for improvement, and frequently asked questions to check understanding.	1.51	14
20	S95 Schedule regular tasks where students can apply and exhibit their skills publicly.	Organised PowerPoint or video presentations followed by peer feedback.	1.06	20
Least Important Strategies				
1	S9 Provide routine updates to parents about their child’s development and achievements.	Phone calls or letters or form parents WeChat group.	0.13	101

2	S10 Request their support with specific learning activities at home.	Ask parents to collaborate to fulfil some assignments not observed.	0.1	102
3	S11 Foster a culture of tolerance.	Showed empathy when students were distracted, acknowledging that it is natural in online learning.	0.3	87
4	S18 Promote and, where feasible, facilitate extracurricular activities and trips.	Mentioned the value of extracurricular activities but did not organise any due to online constraints.	0.2	99
5	S19 Avoid the formation of fixed seating arrangements.	Seating arrangements were irrelevant in the online format.	0.23	98
6	S21 Actively cultivate a unique, shared identity and narrative for the group.	Use class names or shared class stories in online sessions.	0.25	97
7	S27 Maintain accountability by addressing all infractions.	Address minor infractions such as late arrivals or off-task behaviour.	0.28	93
8	S28 Arrange for senior students to share their success stories with your class.	Invite senior students to share success stories.	0.18	100
9	S34 Share optimistic words on acquiring languages from well-known people.	Use quotes from celebrities or public figures.	0.3	87
10	S38 Reinforce the L2's relevance to their lives and the wider world.	Mention that English is useful for global communication.	0.3	87
11	S39 Prompt real-world use of their language skills.	Assign tasks requiring interaction outside the classroom.	0.3	87
12	S52 Pay as much attention to keeping students engaged as you do to giving them information.	Do not lost student engagement due to factor such as lecture-heavy delivery.	0.3	87
13	S53 Try introducing something unexpected now and then.	Introduce surprise/unplanned elements.	0.26	96
14	S59 Assign unique roles and personalized tasks to all.	Assigned group roles.	0.28	93

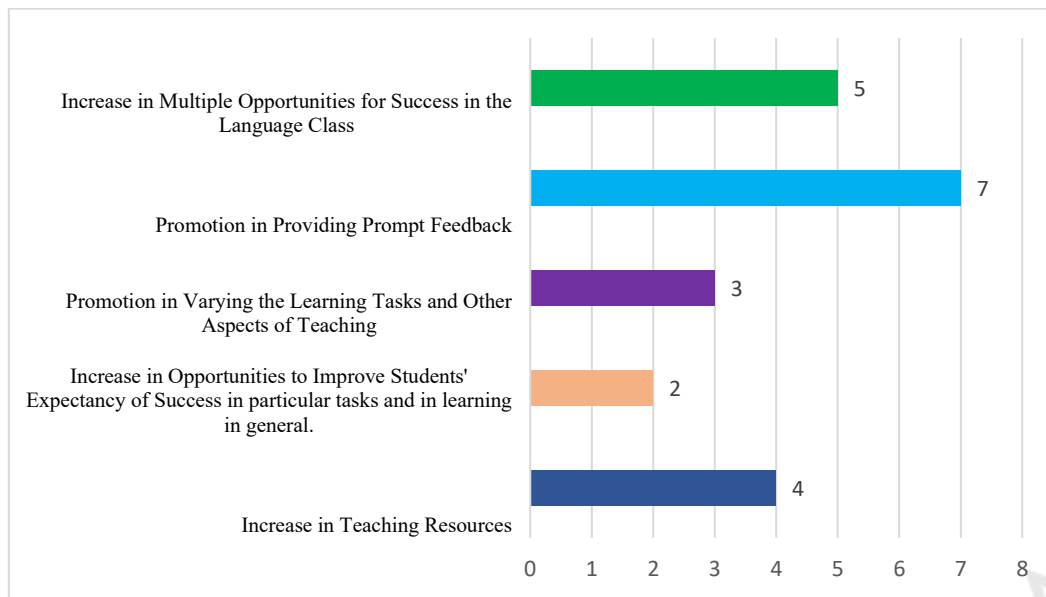
15	S89 Guide learners to attribute setbacks to effort and strategy, not ability.	Explicitly address attribution.	0.3	87
16	S90 Reject ability attributions and stress that the syllabus is within every learner's reach.	Made general encouraging statements and directly reject ability attributions.	0.28	93

Do most important motivating techniques apply the same in online synchronous classrooms and face-to-face classroom? Interviews with teachers observed provide more in-depth ideas in the following section.

4.1.5 The Influence of Online Instruction on Teachers' Selection of Motivational Strategies

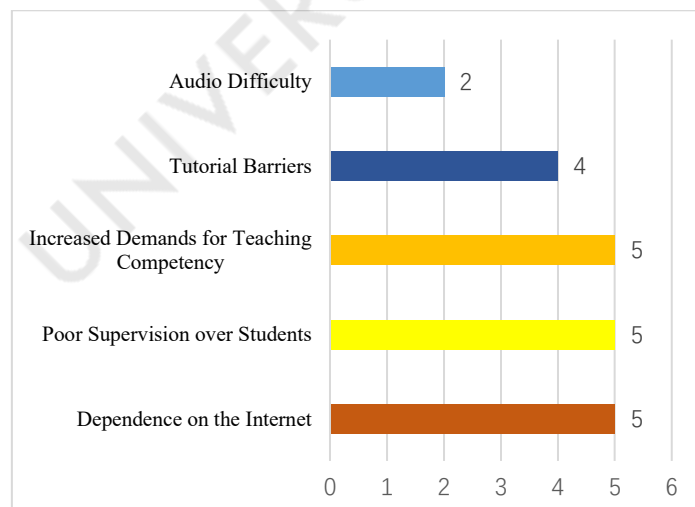
Given that all classroom observations were conducted through synchronous online lectures, semi-structured focus group interviews with the teacher participants were subsequently carried out to investigate whether the online format had shaped teachers' motivational strategy choices. Results of the interviews showed that teachers' perceptions of how synchronous online teaching supported motivational practice varied across different motivational phases. The majority of teachers (87.5%) reported that online live teaching facilitated the provision of prompt feedback to students. Over half of the teachers (62.5%) believed that the online format helped create a motivating environment by offering multiple opportunities for student success. Half of the teachers (50%) noted that online teaching expanded their access to instructional resources. Additionally, 37.5% of teachers indicated that the platform enabled them to diversify tasks and refresh teaching methods more effectively. A quarter of the teachers (25%) observed that online instruction provided greater opportunities for student success and enhanced students' expectancy of success in specific tasks (see Figure 4.1).

Fig. 4.1: Advantages of Synchronous Online Teaching in Motivating Students



Teachers identified several challenges associated with synchronous online teaching in motivating students. The most frequently cited challenge, reported by 83.33% of the teachers interviewed, was that online teaching increased demands on teaching competency while offering poor real-time supervision over students and being heavily dependent on communication speed. A similar proportion of teachers (66.67%) perceived tutorial barriers as a major difficulty in the online teaching environment. Additionally, 33.33% of teachers mentioned technological difficulties as a challenge in synchronous online instruction (see Figure 4.2).

Fig. 4.2: Challenges of Synchronous Online Teaching in Motivating Students



The interviews indicated that certain motivational strategies were employed across both online and face-to-face settings, whereas others were used more frequently in the online

environment, proved less feasible in the virtual context, or were subsequently adapted into traditional classrooms through blended learning approaches.

Certain motivational strategies were applied similarly in both formats, particularly those related to teacher enthusiasm, individualized attention, and positive reinforcement. For instance, 87.5% of teachers reported that strategies like providing prompt feedback (S71) and recognizing student effort (S8, S9) were equally effective online. As Participant TS emphasized: “Each individual deserves respect and care from teachers... Pay as much attention to each individual as possible, and then give them enough respect and attention, which will also be conducive to the cultivation or development of their positive emotions.” These strategies rely on teacher-student rapport rather than physical presence, making them adaptable to both environments.

Concurrently, online teaching facilitated certain motivational techniques that were either enhanced or more easily implemented digitally. First, digital resource integration was reported by 50% of teachers, who leveraged multimedia such as TED Talks and English videos to enrich their lessons. Participant TL noted: “I usually play some pleasant music, English listening materials, or academic video clips for students to enjoy five minutes before the class or during the break.” Second, real-time feedback tools, used by 87.5% of teachers, enabled instant responses through platforms like DingTalk and Xuexitong, thereby increasing student engagement. Third, task variety was mentioned by 37.5% of teachers, who utilized online tools for dynamic task adjustments, including interactive quizzes and digital whiteboard exercises.

Many instructional strategies proved difficult to execute effectively in online environments, particularly those requiring physical presence or dynamic group interaction. Group cohesion activities (S18, S19, S21) were significantly limited, with only 25% of teachers attempting synchronous group tasks due to persistent technical barriers, as exemplified by Participant TD’s frustration: “How to connect a group synchronously online? It is too much trouble. I could connect with one student at most. The connection was poor.” Additionally, 83.33% of teachers struggled with monitoring engagement due to restricted webcam usage and bandwidth constraints, while extracurricular motivational strategies like outings (S18) proved virtually irreproducible.

Despite challenges, some online strategies would later be integrated into traditional classrooms through blended learning, including first, digital assignment submissions—

Participant TL continued using DingTalk for homework even after returning to in-person classes: “Now I can review and give feedback on their assignment on DingTalk. Everyone can see my review and comments... basically no homework on paper needed to be handed over.” Besides, hybrid group work—Participant TD used Xuexitong for collaborative tasks, allowing students to share findings digitally while maintaining offline discussions.

4.2 Discussion

The study’s first phase addressed RQ1, which examined the most important motivational strategies used in China’s tertiary EFL education from teachers’ perspectives. This was achieved through three research objectives: systematic classroom observations to identify frequently employed strategies, questionnaire responses to examine teachers’ perceptions of their strategy use, and survey instruments to assess teachers’ evaluations of strategy effectiveness. Together, these three objectives revealed a teacher-led, relationally focused motivational hierarchy, with strategies centered on supportive feedback, confidence building, teacher-student rapport, task clarity, and goal orientation emerging as most important. The findings also demonstrated substantial alignment between observed practice and teacher-reported frequency, though notable discrepancies emerged in effectiveness ratings. In what follows, the discussion first presents the most frequently observed strategies, followed by teachers’ reported strategy use and their perceptions of effectiveness. It then examines the convergence and divergence across these three data sources through a triangulated analysis, culminating in the identification of the most and least important strategies from teachers’ perspectives.

4.2.1 The Most Frequently Employed Strategies through Classroom Observation

The classroom observation data revealed 16 motivational strategies that were employed with notable frequency by all teacher participants. These strategies span all four phases of Dörnyei’s (2001) process-oriented framework, with a clear concentration in the phase of supporting and safeguarding motivation (Section C).

The most prominent strategy across all phases was providing supportive feedback on students’ valuable contributions (S91), a technique situated in the phase of strengthening positive self-evaluation. Regarding verbal encouragement strategies, Sugita and Takeuchi (2006) found through classroom observations that teachers at university used

verbal affirmations acknowledging correct responses more often than teachers at other school levels, suggesting that the use of acknowledgment-based feedback may be particularly salient in tertiary EFL contexts. This finding aligned with Fang's (2012) classroom observations, which documented that teachers consistently provided positive verbal feedback when students responded correctly, using expressions such as "Yes, that's right," "Good," and "Excellent," and offered understanding when students struggled with comments like "Never mind. It is a bit difficult." Such practices reflect teachers' attention to maintaining students' positive self-evaluation even in challenging learning moments. The prominence of this strategy may reflect cultural emphasis on maintaining positive face and harmonious classroom relationships, consistent with Hu's (2002) analysis of Confucian educational traditions where teacher encouragement carries particular significance. Another strategy from this phase, regularly updating students on their progress (S92), was also observed, indicating teachers' attention to helping students form positive self-evaluation through ongoing feedback on their learning trajectory.

Three strategies from the phase of creating an environment that motivates ranked among the most frequently observed. Demonstrating genuine care for learners (S6) and giving each student focused attention (S7) appeared in the top seven, while sharing personal interest in the L2 (S1) ranked eighth. Fang's (2012) observations revealed multiple dimensions of teacher-student rapport building. Both teachers demonstrated care through nonverbal interactions: Teacher A frequently moved around the classroom, maintaining eye contact and physical proximity when addressing students, while Teacher B often stepped down from the podium to stand among students, using rich gestures to convey enthusiasm. Teacher A maintained a warm demeanor with frequent smiling and laughter, whereas Teacher B adopted a gentle and amiable tone. These varied approaches to demonstrating care and attention, though stylistically different, collectively reflect the foundational importance of teacher-student rapport in Chinese EFL classrooms. Using classroom observation methods similar to those employed in the present study, Jaya et al. (2022) also documented that Indonesian teachers frequently engaged in building positive relationships with their students. This cross-context consistency, observed through comparable methodological lenses, suggests that establishing positive teacher-student relationships may constitute a foundational motivational principle across diverse classroom settings.

The phase of supporting and safeguarding motivation contributed the largest number of strategies, with eight appearing among the top 16. These included directing attention toward learners' strengths (S70), creating repeated moments of success (S67), equipping learners with clear task steps (S62), connecting tasks to clear objectives (S60), providing learning techniques (S76), diversifying tasks (S51), designing curiosity-driven content (S55), and stimulating task appetite (S61). The inclusion of both confidence-building and task-engagement strategies indicates that Chinese teachers attend to multiple dimensions of motivation maintenance. They not only help students believe in their capabilities but also actively work to make learning tasks engaging and appealing. Fang's (2012) observations illustrated this balanced approach. Teacher A incorporated specific learning strategy instruction, teaching students' prediction techniques before listening exercises, while Teacher B emphasized public speaking skills such as eye contact, gesture use, and pronunciation. Both teachers integrated cultural knowledge into their lessons, introducing background information about feminism when teaching "Titanic Puzzle" and using multimedia to present relevant images. Teacher B further enhanced task engagement by showing video clips from *Friends* to illustrate "feminine" behaviors, which elicited laughter and active student participation. Jaya et al. (2022) documented similar patterns in Indonesian classrooms, where teachers employed a variety of strategies including games and varied activities alongside more structured approaches. This finding complemented Rao's (1996) observation that Chinese teachers traditionally emphasize effort and discipline, suggesting that contemporary practice integrates both culturally valued approaches and task-engagement strategies to sustain student motivation.

Three strategies from the phase of fostering initial motivation completed the top 16: linking lessons to students' lives (S47), regularly referencing class goals (S44), and ensuring sufficient preparation (S40). Fang's (2012) observations revealed contextualized applications of these strategies. Teacher A systematically supplemented instruction with CET-4 preparation materials, dedicating class time to analyzing sample essays and highlighting relevant vocabulary and expressions, directly responding to her students' examination needs. Teacher B, whose students had largely already passed CET-4, instead connected lessons to student interests through video materials and organized a debate competition on engaging topics such as whether cars do more harm than good and whether money is the most important thing in life. Both teachers

demonstrated attention to ensuring sufficient preparation: Teacher B provided clear debate procedures and allowed preparation time before the activity, while Teacher A ensured students had necessary vocabulary and expressions for examination success. These observations illustrate how teachers adapt goal-oriented strategies to their specific student populations while maintaining the core function of building expectancy of success. Jaya et al. (2022) similarly documented that Indonesian teachers employed speech strategies to remind students of their learning goals and the future benefits of English, a practice closely aligned with regularly referencing class goals to foster initial motivation.

Collectively, these observational findings reveal that Chinese EFL teachers' most frequently used motivational strategies span all four phases of Dörnyei's (2001) framework, with a pronounced emphasis on maintaining and safeguarding motivation. The convergence between the present study's quantitative findings and Fang's (2012) qualitative documentation strengthened the validity of these patterns, suggesting shared motivational priorities across Asian EFL contexts while also revealing culturally specific emphases that reflect Confucian educational values prioritizing teacher authority, student effort, and harmonious relationships (Hu, 2002; Rao, 1996). The predominance of strategies focused on supporting and safeguarding motivation underscores the importance of viewing motivation as a dynamically evolving process requiring sustained instructional attention (Dörnyei, 2001).

4.2.2 Teachers' Perceptions Regarding the Most Frequently Utilized Strategies through Survey Instruments

The teacher questionnaire revealed that, with the exception of strategies involving parental involvement, teachers perceived themselves as using all 102 motivational strategies at least occasionally. The 20 strategies that emerged as most frequently used span all four phases of Dörnyei's (2001) framework.

In the phase of creating an environment that motivates, teachers reported frequent use of relational strategies including giving each student focused attention (S7), conveying genuine investment in learners' development (S3), demonstrating respect and concern (S6), indicating availability for support (S8), encouraging risk-taking (S12), and empowering learners to interact and collaborate (S15). This prominence of relational strategies resonates strongly with findings from other Asian EFL contexts. Cheng and

Dörnyei's (2007) Taiwanese study identified "proper teacher behaviour" as the most frequently used macrostrategy, encompassing showing students care and establishing rapport. Guilloteaux (2013) found that Korean teachers prioritized demonstrating care for students, while Wong (2014) reported that Hong Kong teachers frequently employed strategies such as paying attention to students. Fang (2012) similarly identified teacher-student rapport as a core dimension among Chinese university teachers' commonly used strategies. Sugita and Takeuchi (2010) found that among Japanese secondary school teachers, creating a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom and indicating mental and physical availability for academic matters were among the most frequently used strategies. This finding also aligns with Erdil-Moody and Thompson's (2020) Turkish study, where instructors reported that "creating a friendly stress-free learning environment" and "caring for student progress" were among the most frequently used motivational strategies in their university EFL classes.

In the phase of fostering initial motivation, three strategies featured among the top 20: ensuring sufficient training and help (S40), ensuring understanding of success requirements (S41), and ensuring clarity of the path to success (S42). These goal-oriented strategies reflect teachers' attention to building students' expectancy of success, a key component of initial motivation. The emphasis on task preparation and clarity aligns with Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) finding that Taiwanese teachers frequently employed strategies related to proper task presentation. Wong (2014) similarly reported that Hong Kong teachers prioritized ensuring students receive sufficient preparation and assistance. Fang (2012)' survey among teachers also identified goal orientation and task presentation as among the 12 dimensions of commonly used strategies. Guilloteaux (2013) further noted that Korean teachers emphasized recognizing students' progress, which presupposes clear goal articulation. Sugita and Takeuchi (2010) identified keeping class goals achievable as one of the most constantly used strategies, employed in nearly all lessons observed. Erdil-Moody and Thompson (2020) similarly found that strategies such as "clearly stating lesson objectives" and "giving a genuine meaningful purpose to students to work on activities" were among the frequently used motivational practices reported by Turkish EFL instructors. Notably, the emphasis on short-term goal setting also resonates with findings beyond Asia; Sam (2021) reported that Tanzanian EFL student teachers frequently encouraged students to select specific, realistic short-term learning goals.

In the phase of supporting and safeguarding motivation, the largest number of strategies appeared among the top 20, including connecting tasks to objectives (S60), stimulating task appetite (S61), expressing confidence in students (S71), encouraging viewing mistakes as evidence of growth (S74), engaging learners in grade negotiations (S75), preventing face-threatening situations (S79), and including collective results in evaluation (S81). The prominence of these strategies underscores the importance teachers place on the ongoing maintenance of motivation. The emphasis on task clarity and face protection aligns with Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) identification of "present tasks properly" as a frequently used macrostrategy and "create a pleasant classroom climate" as a key dimension. Guilloteaux (2013) found that Korean teachers emphasized maintaining positive classroom relationships. Fang (2012), based on teachers' perception, identified confidence building, classroom climate, and assessment and feedback as core dimensions among Chinese university teachers' strategy use. Sugita and Takeuchi (2010) found that focusing on the motivational flow in the lesson was the most frequently used strategy and also among the most constantly used, appearing in the vast majority of lessons observed. Erdil-Moody and Thompson (2020) reported that Turkish EFL instructors frequently used strategies such as "promoting interaction and cooperation in classes" and "bringing in and encouraging humor," which align with the present study's emphasis on collective evaluation and positive classroom dynamics.

In the phase of strengthening positive self-evaluation, teachers reported frequent use of responding supportively to student participation (S91), regularly updating students on progress (S92), helping students recognize the value of self-motivation (S86) and exchanging proven strategies (S87). This finding aligns with other studies based on teachers reports: Wong's (2014) Hong Kong study, where responding supportively to student participation and regularly updating students on progress ranked among the most frequently used strategies; Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) identified "recognise students' effort" as a key macrostrategy among Taiwanese teachers; Guilloteaux (2013) similarly found that Korean teachers emphasized recognizing students' progress and achievements.; Fang (2012) included assessment and feedback as one of the 12 dimensions of commonly used strategies; Erdil-Moody and Thompson (2020) found that Turkish EFL instructors reported frequent use of strategies such as "offering praise and constructive feedback for effort and achievement" and "showing students that they

care about their progress.” This finding also aligns with Sam’s (2021) findings, where Tanzanian student teachers reported teaching self-motivating strategies as one of the most frequently employed affective strategies. However, Sugita and Takeuchi (2010) found that providing regular feedback about areas for improvement showed a weak but significant correlation with student motivation, suggesting that while feedback strategies are important, their motivational impact may be moderated by other factors. This finding adds nuance to the present study’s inclusion of regularly updating students on progress among frequently used strategies, highlighting that frequency of use does not automatically equate to perceived effectiveness, a distinction that warrants further investigation.

Collectively, the 20 strategies most frequently reported by Chinese EFL teachers span all four phases of Dörnyei’s framework, with a notable concentration in supporting and safeguarding motivation. This profile aligns closely with patterns documented in other Asian EFL contexts, including Mainland China (Fang, 2012), Korea (Guilloteaux, 2013), Hong Kong (Wong, 2014), Japan (Sugita & Takeuchi, 2010), Taiwan (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007) and Turkey (Erdil-Moody & Thompson, 2020). However, Sugita and Takeuchi’s (2010) classroom-based empirical study found that only a few motivational strategies showed significant correlations with student motivation, serving as an important caveat: frequent use does not necessarily guarantee motivational effectiveness. This insight underscores the value of the present study’s multi-perspective design, which combines teacher self-reports with classroom observations and student perceptions. The convergence across these diverse contexts suggests that certain motivational strategies, particularly those related to teacher-student rapport, task clarity, and positive feedback, possess cross-cultural validity, while also highlighting the need for context-sensitive adaptations.

4.2.3 Teachers’ Evaluations of Strategy Effectiveness through Survey Instruments

Through questionnaire surveys and cross-cultural comparisons, findings reveal significant patterns in strategy effectiveness, shaped by cultural, structural, and pedagogical factors unique to Chinese university contexts.

In the phase of creating an environment that motivates, teachers prioritized strategies centered on emotional support and teacher-student relationships. conveying genuine

investment in each learner's development (S3) ranked as the most effective strategy overall, followed by demonstrating respect and genuine concern (S6) as the second most effective. Other highly rated strategies in this phase included encouraging risk-taking and viewing errors as natural (S12) and demonstrating that L2 acquisition is a personally rewarding journey (S2). Teachers' emphasis on teacher-student rapport aligns with findings from other relevant research in Asian EFL contexts. Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) Taiwanese study identified "proper teacher behaviour" as the most important motivational macrostrategy, encompassing showing students care, establishing good rapport, and demonstrating enthusiasm. Similarly, Guilloteaux (2013) found that Korean teachers rated demonstrating care for students and establishing good rapport among the most important motivational strategies. Ye and Hu (2026), in their large-scale survey of Chinese junior secondary students and teachers, further confirmed that "proper teacher behavior" was top-ranked by both groups in terms of perceived importance. Xiang et al. (2021), based on a large-scale survey of 400 students and 40 teachers in Chinese higher vocational education, similarly identified "show enthusiasm for teaching and be a good example for students" and "establish good rapport with students" among the ten most effective motivational strategies, further reinforcing the centrality of teacher behaviors in Chinese educational settings.

In the phase of fostering initial motivation, several strategies were rated as highly effective, including ensuring sufficient training and help (S40), guiding students to independently discover the target language world (S35), and helping students understand different paths to language learning success (S50). These goal-oriented strategies reflect teachers' attention to building students' expectancy of success. Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) found that Taiwanese teachers rated "present tasks properly" as a highly important macrostrategy. Nguyen and Tran (2025), in their Vietnamese vocational study, found that teachers prioritized goal-setting and meaningful, practical tasks tailored to students' career needs, resonating with the present study's emphasis on goal clarity and task preparation. Guilloteaux (2013) further noted that Korean teachers rated recognizing students' progress as highly important. Xiang et al. (2021) identified "increase learners' goal-orientedness" and "promote effort attributions" among their ten most effective strategies, resonating with the present study's emphasis on goal clarity and task preparation.

In the phase of supporting and safeguarding motivation, the largest cluster of effective strategies emerged. This cluster included diversifying teaching tasks (S51), connecting tasks to clear objectives (S60), letting learners pick their own short-term goals (S63), designing collaborative tasks (S80), directing attention toward learners' strengths (S70), expressing confidence in students (S71), encouraging viewing mistakes as evidence of growth (S74), and including collective results in evaluation (S81). This emphasis on task variety, goal-setting, collaboration, and confidence-building resonates with findings across multiple Asian contexts. Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) found that Taiwanese teachers rated "promote learners' self-confidence" (which is conceptually related to S70, S71, S74) and "make the learning tasks stimulating" (encompassing S51, S60) among the most important macrostrategies. Sugita and Takeuchi (2010) found that Japanese teachers emphasized helping students understand that mistakes constitute part of the learning process, which resonates with S74 in the present study. Guilloteaux (2013) found that Korean teachers rated maintaining positive classroom relationships and promoting students' confidence as highly important. Xiang et al. (2021) identified "make students know that it is normal to make a mistake during learning process," "encourage students to cooperate with each other through group activities," and "make class easy to understand" among the ten most effective strategies, all of which closely correspond to S74, S80, and S60 in the present study. Recently, Nguyen and Tran (2025) similarly reported that students in Vietnamese vocational education particularly appreciated emotional support, clear instructions, and structured confidence-building activities, aligning with the confidence-building strategies identified in the present study.

In the phase of strengthening positive self-evaluation, responding supportively to student participation (S91) ranked among the top strategies, while helping students recognize the value of self-motivation (S86) and designing grading to recognize both effort and mastery (S100) were also rated as highly effective. Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) identified "recognise students' effort" as a key macrostrategy among Taiwanese teachers. Guilloteaux (2013) similarly found that Korean teachers rated recognizing students' progress and achievements as highly important. Xiang et al.'s (2021) identification of "recognize students' efforts and achievement" and "provide students with positive feedback" among the ten most effective strategies further validates the importance of positive self-evaluation strategies in Chinese EFL contexts. However,

Ye and Hu (2026) identified significant perceptual gaps between teachers and students regarding “recognize students’ effort,” underscoring the complexity of implementing positive self-evaluation strategies effectively.

Compared with relevant research in other Asian contexts, both universal and context-specific trends emerged. Teacher enthusiasm, rapport-building, positive feedback, and task clarity were consistently valued across studies conducted in Taiwan (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007), Korea (Guilloteaux, 2013), Japan (Sugita & Takeuchi, 2010), Vietnam (Nguyen & Tran, 2025), and Mainland China (Xiang et al., 2021; Ye & Hu, 2026). This convergence across different educational levels, institutional contexts, and theoretical frameworks confirmed the cross-cultural validity of these core motivational practices within Confucian-heritage educational settings (Hu, 2002). However, the present study’s inclusion of learner-selected goals and collaborative task design among the most effective strategies reflects a balanced approach that incorporates both teacher-directed structure and opportunities for student autonomy.

The findings imply that in practice, teachers should prioritize relational and confidence-building strategies while also incorporating task variety and collaborative design to sustain motivation. Teachers are advised to avoid importing universal strategies uncritically and instead align interventions with institutional structures and cultural values. This principle of contextual alignment extends beyond traditional classrooms to technology-mediated environments. As Savvidou (2018) observed, educators must critically examine their online feedback practices by considering their alignment with specific educational cultures, whether feedback reflects local pedagogical values, and accommodates diverse learner expectations (pp. 103–121).

4.2.4 The Most Important Motivational Strategies Used in China’ Tertiary EFL Education from Teachers’ Perspectives

This comparison between the teacher-reported frequency data and the classroom observation results revealed eight overlapping strategies, demonstrating substantial alignment between what teachers believe they do and what they actually do in the classroom. These overlapping strategies, particularly those related to teacher-student rapport (S6, S7), task clarity (S60), and positive feedback (S91), corresponded closely to motivational macrostrategies identified across Asian EFL contexts (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux, 2013; Wong, 2014), strengthening the claim that these

practices are core to Confucian-heritage educational settings (Hu, 2002). Notable discrepancies emerged for ensuring sufficient training (S40), ensuring understanding of success requirements (S41), stimulating task appetite (S61), and regularly updating students on progress (S92), which teachers reported using frequently but appeared less often in classroom observations, reflecting the challenge of consistently implementing preparatory and feedback-oriented strategies in large-sized university classes (Fang, 2012).

Finally, to address RQ1, a triangulated approach was adopted, integrating observed frequency, teacher-reported frequency, and teacher-rated effectiveness. Following the established tradition in motivational strategy research (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998), the top 20 and bottom 16 strategies were selected for detailed analysis. The most important strategies formed four thematic clusters: teacher-student relationships; confidence building and success experiences; task clarity and goal orientation; and supportive feedback and public recognition. The 16 least important strategies formed a distinct cluster with composite means below 0.30. These included strategies related to home-school connection; classroom climate and group dynamics; external motivational appeals; and sustaining student engagement.

Specifically, the most important strategies identified in this study center on supportive feedback (S91), confidence building (S70, S67), teacher-student rapport (S6, S7), task clarity (S62, S60), and goal orientation (S44, S47). Interview data provided further insight into how these strategies operated in practice. Teachers confirmed that relational strategies such as demonstrating respect and genuine concern (S6) and giving focused attention (S7) remained fundamentally rooted in teacher disposition rather than physical presence, granting them adaptability across online and face-to-face settings. However, they also highlighted the challenge of maintaining personalized attention in virtual environments, where real-time supervision is inherently limited. Regarding confidence-building and task-clarity strategies (S70, S67, S62, S60), a majority of teachers perceived that the online environment offered valuable opportunities to engineer student success, suggesting that the format itself can support the creation of motivating conditions when intentionally leveraged. Teachers also reported leveraging digital tools for dynamic task adjustments and resource enrichment, indicating that, as Savvidou (2026, Chapter 4) demonstrates, technology can enhance task presentation and variety. The importance of supportive feedback was strongly reinforced by interview data, with

teachers consistently reporting that online live teaching facilitated the provision of prompt feedback and that such strategies retained their motivational power across both online and face-to-face settings.

This profile aligned closely with findings from other Asian EFL contexts. Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) Taiwanese study identified "proper teacher behavior," "promoting learners' self-confidence," and "presenting tasks properly" as key macrostrategies. Guilloteaux (2013) found that Korean teachers prioritized demonstrating care, establishing rapport, and promoting students' confidence. Wong (2014) reported that Hong Kong teachers frequently employed strategies such as paying attention to students, responding supportively to participation, and ensuring sufficient preparation. Nguyen and Tran (2025) similarly found that Vietnamese teachers and students consistently valued supportive teacher behavior, recognition of effort, positive feedback, and clear instructions. Sugita and Takeuchi (2010) emphasized the importance of helping students understand that mistakes are part of learning, which resonates with confidence-building approaches.

In contrast, the least important strategies reflect structural and cultural constraints of Chinese university classrooms. The low ranking of home-school connection strategies is consistent with the developmental stage of university students as autonomous young adults. Group dynamics and classroom organization strategies (S18, S19, S21, S27, S59) aligned with Rao's (1996) observation that Chinese teachers often view flexible arrangements and extensive group activities as less feasible or pedagogically meritorious in large class settings. Fang (2012) noted that institutional constraints, including large class sizes and fixed seating, limit the implementation of such strategies. Interview data strongly corroborated this, with teachers reporting significant difficulties in executing synchronous group tasks online due to technical barriers. Only a minority of teachers attempted such activities, reinforcing that strategies requiring extensive interaction face inherent limitations in virtual environments. Extracurricular strategies like outings (S18) proved virtually irreplicable online.

The low importance of novelty-oriented strategies (S53) and external motivational appeals (S28, S34, S38, S39, S89, S90) may reflect the examination-oriented focus of Chinese education, where unexpected elements may be perceived as distractions and abstract appeals less prioritized than concrete task preparation (Fang, 2012; Hu, 2002).

These findings resonated with Erdil-Moody and Thompson's (2020) observation that IES related strategies, including inviting senior students to share experiences, were among the least frequently used in their Turkish context. Sam (2021) similarly found that strategies involving humor and varied activities were underutilized in teacher-dominant pedagogical cultures. Chen et al. (2019) further documented that controlling strategies often dominate classroom practices despite teachers' stated beliefs, reflecting contextual pressures that shape strategy implementation.

Interview data further illuminated the dual role of technology in shaping strategy implementation. Teachers reported that while synchronous online teaching enhanced motivational conditions through features like immediate feedback and expanded digital resources, it also introduced distinct challenges in supervision, group dynamics, and technological reliability. These findings aligned with Savvidou's (2013) observation that students' attitudes toward virtual interaction vary significantly, with some finding social engagement motivating while others prefer individual or face-to-face work. Crucially, the study revealed that insights from online pedagogy can inform and enrich face-to-face teaching practices, as several effective digital strategies, such as online assignment systems and real-time feedback tools, were successfully integrated into traditional classrooms through blended learning. This bidirectional influence addresses the research gap concerning technology's role in motivation highlighted by Abdullah et al. (2019) and underscores the need for flexible, context-sensitive adaptations of motivational frameworks across instructional modes.

4.3 Summary

Based on triangulated analysis of classroom observations, teacher self-reports, and effectiveness ratings, this chapter identified 20 most important motivational strategies from Chinese EFL teachers' perspectives, addressing RQ1. These strategies spanned all four phases of Dörnyei's (2001) process-oriented framework, with the largest concentration (ten strategies) in the phase of supporting and safeguarding motivation, underscoring teachers' emphasis on ongoing motivation maintenance.

The 20 most important strategies formed four thematic clusters: teacher-student relationships, confidence building and success experiences, task clarity and goal orientation, and supportive feedback and public recognition. Together, these formed a teacher-led, relationally focused motivational hierarchy. Supportive feedback on

student participation emerged as the single most critical strategy overall, followed by confidence-building strategies such as directing attention to learners' strengths and creating repeated moments of success. Relational strategies (demonstrating genuine care and giving focused attention) also ranked prominently. Goal-oriented strategies, including linking lessons to students' lives and regularly referencing class goals, further reflected teachers' attention to building expectancy of success.

In contrast, the 16 least important strategies formed a distinct cluster, including those related to home-school connection, classroom climate and group dynamics, external motivational appeals, and sustaining student engagement. These reflected structural and cultural constraints of Chinese university classrooms, such as large class sizes and the examination-oriented focus of education.

Interview data revealed that relational strategies adapted effectively to online teaching, while technology-mediated tools enhanced feedback efficiency and task variety. Teachers also reported that insights from online pedagogy informed face-to-face practices through blended learning. These findings established a baseline for the subsequent action research on student motivation and underscored the cultural contingency of motivational strategy implementation in high-stakes, exam-oriented educational contexts.

**CHAPTER 5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION: STUDENTS’
PERCEPTIONS OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF
COMMON MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES**

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the results and discussion in relation to RQ2, which examined tertiary EFL students' perceptions of the effectiveness of common motivational strategies and whether these perceptions changed over time. Descriptive statistics of students' ratings across three cycles are first reported, followed by a two-way RM-ANOVA to examine the effects of strategy and time. The seven highest-rated and seven lowest-rated strategies are then identified, with cross-cycle comparisons presented. The findings are discussed in four subsections, followed by a chapter summary.

5.1 Results of Effectiveness of Motivational Strategies Reported by Students at the End of All Three Cycles Respectively

For RQ2, which examined students' perceptions of common motivational strategies and whether these perceptions changed over time, data were collected using the same 43-item questionnaire administered at three intervals: at week 10 (QEFC; Appendix J), week 18 (QESC; Appendix K), and week 26 (QETC; Appendix L). Part III of each questionnaire assessed students' evaluations of 43 common motivational strategies using a 5-point Likert scale. Prior to analysis, data were screened for out-of-range and missing values. Descriptive statistics were calculated to summarize students' perceptions at each time point (see Table 5.1).

Table 5.1: Student-Perceived Effectiveness of 43 Motivational Strategies in Three Cycles (N=90)

No.	Strategy	M C1	M C2	M C3	M	SD	Rank
1	Show Care	4.68	4.6	4.69	4.66	0.34	12
2	Build Rapport	4.74	4.61	4.8	4.72	0.26	4
3	Enthusiasm	4.72	4.67	4.8	4.73	0.27	1
4	Value English Learning	4.57	4.5	4.66	4.57	0.47	25
5	Be Authentic	4.63	4.62	4.79	4.68	0.31	9
6	Rigorous Expectations	4.63	4.54	4.72	4.63	0.3	15
7	Be Accessible	4.68	4.63	4.73	4.68	0.29	9
8	Recognize Effort	4.63	4.66	4.83	4.71	0.29	6
9	Recognize Progress	4.71	4.69	4.79	4.73	0.26	1
10	Credit Effort	4.66	4.57	4.71	4.64	0.33	14
11	Positive Feedback	4.61	4.72	4.82	4.72	0.3	4
12	Show Confidence	4.62	4.63	4.7	4.65	0.38	13

13	Learning Techniques	4.58	4.61	4.59	4.59	0.39	23
14	Meaning Over Grammar	4.53	4.48	4.7	4.57	0.39	27
15	Pleasant Climate	4.69	4.69	4.72	4.7	0.33	8
16	Encourage Risks	4.64	4.71	4.77	4.71	0.32	6
17	Avoid Comparison	4.62	4.56	4.7	4.63	0.34	16
18	Explain Relevance	4.67	4.52	4.67	4.62	0.33	20
19	Explain Relevance	4.59	4.44	4.43	4.49	0.39	37
20	Realistic Beliefs	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.53	0.37	32
21	Identify Needs	4.58	4.53	4.58	4.56	0.4	28
22	Tailor Tasks	4.59	4.49	4.4	4.49	0.4	36
23	Set Goals	4.63	4.51	4.72	4.62	0.34	19
24	Review Goals	4.62	4.64	4.58	4.62	0.35	21
25	Break Monotony	4.57	4.59	4.62	4.59	0.36	23
26	Novel Elements	4.57	4.56	4.6	4.57	0.32	25
27	Create Products	4.62	4.5	4.56	4.56	0.39	30
28	Stretch Tasks	4.57	4.41	4.51	4.5	0.38	35
29	Use English	4.61	4.49	4.7	4.6	0.4	22
30	Explore Community	4.49	4.44	4.58	4.5	0.42	33
31	Cultural Familiarity	4.51	4.44	4.44	4.47	0.48	38
32	Authentic Contact	4.51	4.33	4.49	4.44	0.45	40
33	Highlight Benefits	4.49	4.41	4.48	4.46	0.43	39
34	Senior Sharing	4.14	3.91	3.73	3.93	0.8	43
35	Set Norms	4.48	4.32	4.46	4.42	0.49	41
36	Personal Sharing	4.69	4.51	4.68	4.63	0.35	16
37	Collaborative Tasks	4.56	4.46	4.68	4.56	0.4	28
38	Be Facilitator	4.56	4.5	4.62	4.56	0.35	30
39	Peer Teaching	4.67	4.58	4.73	4.66	0.3	11
40	Self-Motivation	4.69	4.56	4.63	4.63	0.34	16
41	Record Presence	4.63	4.5	4.38	4.5	0.45	33
42	State Goals	4.6	4.28	4.19	4.36	0.56	42
43	Grade Growth	4.76	4.71	4.72	4.73	0.3	1
Overall		4.6	4.53	4.61	4.58	0.38	

Note: M C1 = mean in cycle 1; M C2 = mean in cycle 2; M C3 = mean in cycle 3; SD = standard deviation; Scale: 1 = absolutely ineffective; 2 = not very effective; 3 = not certain; 4 = effective; 5 = absolutely effective

Then a two-way RM-ANOVA was conducted through SPSS 21.0 to study the effects of “Strategy” (Strategy 1 to 43) and “Time” (10 weeks in Cycle1, 18 weeks Cycle2, and 26 weeks Cycle 3) on participants’ perception of the effectiveness of each strategy. Table 5.3 shows the results.

Mauchly’s test (Table 5.2) indicated the assumption of sphericity for the main effect of Time was met ($W = 0.96, p > .01$). Concurrently, violations of sphericity were detected

for the main effect of Strategy and the $Time \times Strategy$ interaction, so Greenhouse-Geisser corrections were applied ($\epsilon = 0.37$ and 0.26 , respectively; $p < .001$).

Table 5.2: Results of Mauchly's Test of Sphericity for Effect of Students' Perceptions of the 43 Strategies and Cycles

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	df	P	Epsilon Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt	Lower-bound
Time	.96	3.14	2.00	.21	.97	.99	.50
Strategy	.00	1921.86	902.00	.00	.37	.45	.02
Time * Strategy	.00	6657.99	3569.00	.00	.26	.35	.01

Descriptive statistics revealed minor fluctuations in strategy scores across the three time points (see Table 5.3). The mean score for Cycle 1 ($M = 4.60$, $SE = 0.05$) was slightly higher than that for Cycle 2 ($M = 4.53$, $SE = 0.05$) but slightly lower than that for Cycle 3 ($M = 4.61$, $SE = 0.04$), reflecting the non-significant main effect of time (see Table 5.3).

Table 5.3: Depicts of Scores of Strategies at the Different Time

Time	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	3870	0.00	5.00	4.60	0.66
2	3870	0.00	5.00	4.53	0.73
3	3870	0.00	5.00	4.61	0.71

Note: Time 1 = cycle 1 (C1); Time 2 = cycle 2 (C2); Time 3 = cycle 3 (C3)

The within-subjects effects through RM-ANOVA revealed that no significant main effect of *Time* was observed, $F(2, 178) = 0.94$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2 = 0.01$. However, a significant $Time \times Strategy$ interaction emerged, $F(21.98, 1956.53) = 1.16$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = 0.19$, and a significant main effect of Strategy was also found, $F(15.51, 1380.14) = 18.73$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = 0.17$ (see Table 5.4).

Table 5.4: Within-Subjects Effects through RM-ANOVA of Students' Perceptions of the 43 Strategies and Cycles

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	η^2
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Time	Sphericity Assumed	16.52	2.00	8.26	0.94	0.39	0.01
Strategy	Greenhouse-Geisser	213.91	15.51	13.79	18.73	0.00	0.17
Time * Strategy	Greenhouse-Geisser	42.31	21.98	1.92	1.76	0.02	0.02

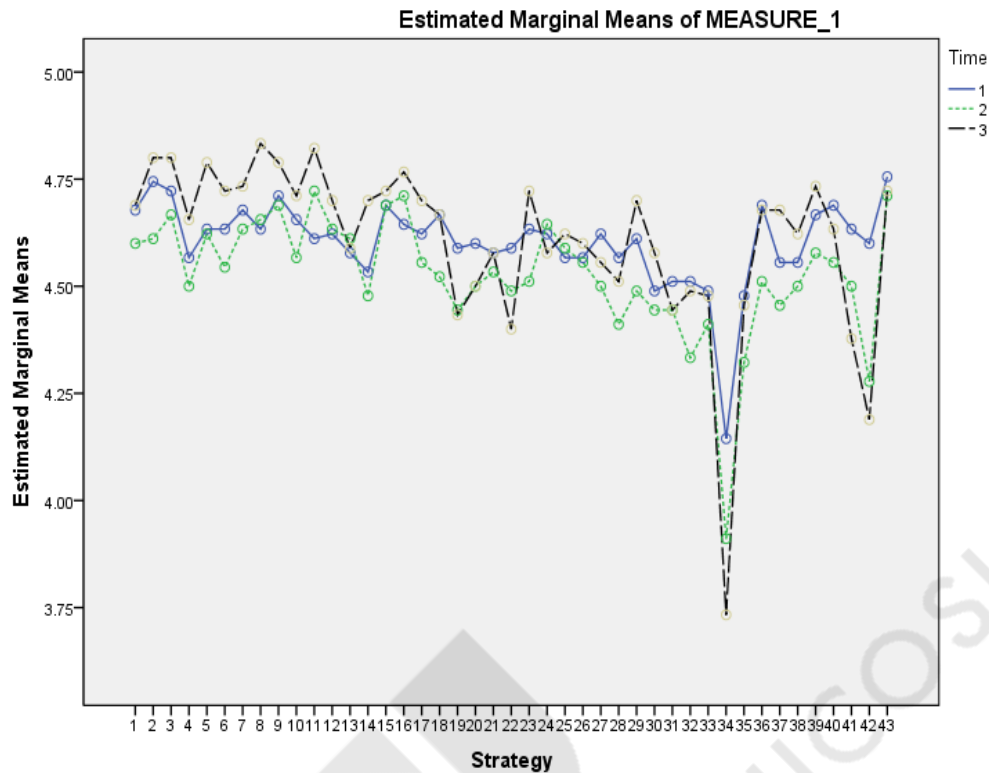
Pairwise comparisons with Bonferroni correction revealed no statistically significant differences between any of the three time points. The mean difference between Cycle 1 and Cycle 2 was 0.08 ($p = .86$), between Cycle 1 and Cycle 3 was -0.01 ($p = 1.00$), and between Cycle 2 and Cycle 3 was -0.08 ($p = .70$), with all 95% confidence intervals crossing zero (see Table 5.5). These results indicated that students' perceptions of strategy effectiveness remained stable across the three measurement points.

Table 5.5: Pairwise Comparison of Strategy Ratings by Students Between Cycles

(I) Time (J) Time		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	<i>p</i>	95% Confidence Interval for Difference Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	.08	.07	.86	-.10	.25
	3	-.01	.06	1.00	-.16	.14
2	1	-.08	.07	.86	-.25	.10
	3	-.08	.07	.70	-.25	.09
3	1	.01	.06	1.00	-.14	.16
	2	.08	.07	.70	-.09	.25

The stability of students' perceptions across the three measurement points is further illustrated in Figure 5.1, which presents the estimated marginal means for each strategy across the three time points. As shown in the figure, the three lines representing Cycle 1, Cycle 2, and Cycle 3 remained largely parallel with minimal divergence across the 43 strategies. This visual pattern corroborates the statistical findings, indicating that students' perceptions of strategy effectiveness did not change significantly over time.

Figure 5.1: Effects of Time on Students' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of the 43 Strategies Commonly Used by Teachers



The main effect of strategy in the two-way RM-ANOVA (see Table 5.4) revealed that students clearly favored some strategies while assigning less importance to others. To identify which strategies were most and least valued, and to examine whether these perceptions changed over time, the mean ratings for each strategy across the three time points were ranked. Given the large number of strategies ($N = 43$), the analysis was narrowed to focus on the most distinct patterns at both ends of the perception spectrum. The results showed that Str3, Str43, and Str9 all shared the highest mean of 4.73, with Str2 and Str11 tied for fourth at 4.72 (see Table 5.1). To avoid arbitrarily excluding strategies with identical or nearly identical ratings, the selection was extended to include all strategies with a mean of 4.71 or higher, which resulted in seven highest-rated strategies: Str3, Str43, Str9, Str2, Str11, Str8, and Str16. For the lowest-rated strategies, a parallel approach was adopted, selecting the seven strategies with the lowest means, which were Str34, Str42, Str35, Str32, Str33, Str31, and Str41. This approach ensured that tied scores were treated consistently and that the analysis focused on the most distinct strategies at both ends of the perception spectrum.

According to students' perceptions of strategy effectiveness, the top seven strategies, which received mean ratings above 4.70, centered on teacher enthusiasm (Str3), recognition of effort and achievement (Str8, Str9), positive feedback (Str11), establishing good rapport (Str2), supportive grading practices (Str43), and encouraging risk-taking (Str16). These strategies were consistently rated as effective across students, with standard deviations ranging from 0.26 to 0.32, indicating strong consensus.

In contrast, the bottom seven strategies received mean ratings below 4.50, with Str34 (inviting senior students to share experiences) rated lowest at 3.93. These lower-rated strategies included external motivational appeals (Str33, Str34), cultural exposure (Str31, Str32), goal reiteration (Str42), rule setting (Str35), and task rationale explanation (Str19). Notably, standard deviations for these strategies were larger, particularly for Str34 (SD = 0.80), suggesting less agreement among students regarding their effectiveness. Table 5.6 presents the complete list of top and bottom strategies with their mean scores, standard deviations, and rankings.

Table 5.6: Top and Bottom Strategies in Effectiveness in Three Cycles

Items	Strategy Description	M	SD	Rank
Top Strategies				
1	Str3 Show your enthusiasm for teaching.	4.73	0.27	1
2	Str43 Design grading to recognize both the learning journey (effort/improvement) and the destination (mastery).	4.73	0.3	1
3	Str9 Recognize students' progress and achievement.	4.73	0.26	1
4	Str2 Establish good rapport with students.	4.72	0.26	4
5	Str11 Provide students with positive feedback.	4.72	0.3	4
6	Str8 Recognize students' effort.	4.71	0.29	6
7	Str16 Taking risks is encouraged and errors are viewed as a natural step in learning.	4.71	0.32	6
Bottom Strategies				
1	Str34 Invite senior students to share their English learning experiences.	3.93	0.8	43
2	Str42 Bring up the class goals regularly.	4.36	0.56	42
3	Str35 Explain the importance of the class rules, and formulate group norms explicitly through discussion with the students.	4.42	0.49	41
4	Str32 Promote contact with authentic cultural materials and English-speakers.	4.44	0.45	40
5	Str33 Remind students of the benefits of mastering English.	4.46	0.43	39
6	Str31 Familiarize students with the cultural background of the target language.	4.47	0.48	38

7	Str19	Give good reasons to students as to why a particular task is meaningful.	4.49	0.39	37
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Note: M = mean; SD= standard deviation; Scale: 1 = absolutely ineffective; 2 = not very effective; 3 = not certain; 4 = effective; 5 = absolutely effective

Whether students' perceptions of the most and least effective strategies changed over time and whether differences existed between the two groups of strategies were determined through a two-way RM-ANOVA using a factorial design. The independent variables were strategy (the group factor) and the three cycles (the time factor). First, data were examined using Mauchly's test of sphericity. The sphericity for the factor "Group" and "Group $\times$ Time" was disrupted ($W = 0, p < .001$), so Greenhouse-Geisser correction was applied (see Table 5.7).

Table 5.7 Results of Mauchly's Test of Sphericity for Effect of Students' Top/Bottom Strategy Perceptions Across Cycles

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	df	P	Epsilonb Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt	Lower-bound
Time	.96	3.27	2.00	.19	.96	.99	.50
Group	.00	513.13	90.00	.00	.43	.46	.08
Time * Group	.00	1285.43	350.00	.00	.34	.38	.04

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects implied that there was significant "Time $\times$ Groups" interaction effect on students' perceptions in the three cycles, $F(8.80, 782.90) = 2.43, p < .05, \eta^2 = .03$ (See Table 5.8).

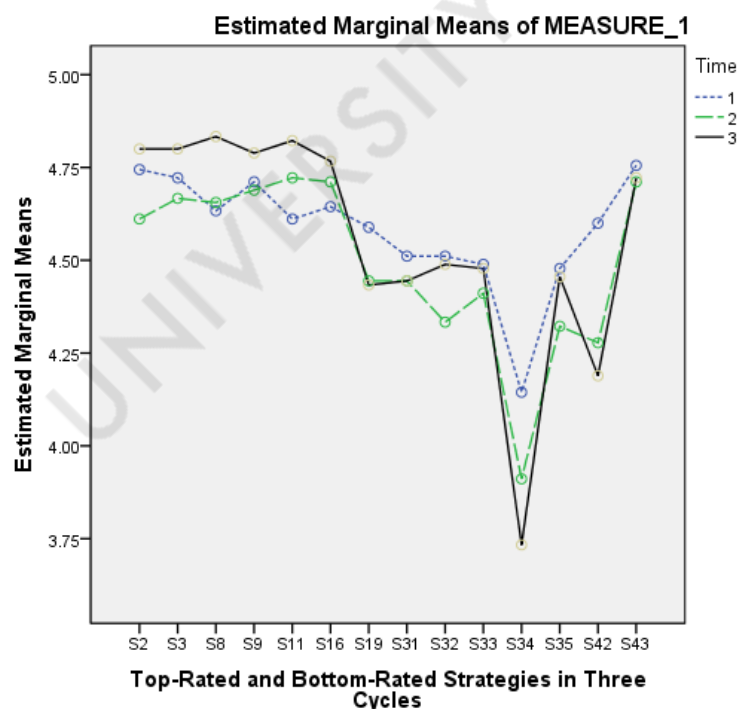
Table 5.8: Within-Subject Effects on Strategy Ratings: RM-ANOVA Results

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P	η^2
Time	Sphericity Assumed	5.11	2.00	2.56	0.81	0.45	0.01
Group	Greenhouse-Geisser	181.57	5.55	32.70	39.09	0.00	0.31
Time * Group	Greenhouse-Geisser	23.81	8.80	2.71	2.43	0.01	0.03

There was also significant main effect of the group (strategy) between cycles, $F(5.55, 494.18) = 39.09$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.31$, but no significant main effect of time was observed, $F(2, 178) = 0.81$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2 = 0.01$. This pattern was confirmed by the initial two-way RM-ANOVA encompassing all strategies (Table 5.5). A focused RM-ANOVA comparing the top-rated and bottom-rated groups was conducted to specifically test the main effect of strategy performance. The results of the Bonferroni-corrected post hoc tests from this analysis elaborated on the effects of these 14 extreme strategies.

The seven top-rated strategies (Str2, Str3, Str8, Str9, Str11, Str16, and Str43) showed no significant differences from each other ($p > .05$), but each was rated significantly higher than all bottom-rated strategies ($p < .001$) (see Figure 5.2; full pairwise comparison results are available in Appendix V). Among the bottom-rated strategies (Str19, Str31, Str32, Str33, Str34, Str35, and Str42), only Str34 (inviting senior students to share their English learning experiences) received significantly lower ratings than the other bottom-rated strategies and all top-rated strategies ($p < .001$). No significant differences were found among the remaining six bottom-rated strategies ($p > .05$).

Figure 5.2: The Most Highly-rated 7 Strategies and the Most Lowly-rated 7 Strategies by Students in Three Cycles



A cross-comparison of the top-rated and bottom-rated items across the three cycles showed that S43 (designing grading to recognize both the learning journey and the destination), S3 (showing enthusiasm for teaching), and S9 (recognizing students' progress and achievement) were consistently among the highest-rated strategies across the three assessments. In contrast, S31 (familiarizing students with the cultural background of the target language), S32 (promoting contact with authentic cultural materials and English speakers), S33 (reminding students of the benefits of mastering English), S35 (explaining the importance of class rules and formulating group norms through discussion with students), and S34 (inviting senior students to share their English learning experiences) were consistently among the lowest-rated strategies (see Table 5.9).

Table 5.9: Results of Cross Comparison of the Top/Bottom Strategies Across Cycles

Top Seven Strategies					
Cycle 1	Mean	Cycle 2	Mean	Cycle 3	Mean
Str43 Grade Growth ✓	4.76	Str11 Positive Feedback	4.72	Str3 Enthusiasm ✓	4.73
Str2 Build Rapport	4.74	Str16 Encourage Risks	4.71	Str43 Grade Growth ✓	4.73
Str3 Enthusiasm ✓	4.72	Str43 Grade Growth ✓	4.71	Str9 Recognize Progress ✓	4.73
Str9✓ Recognize Progress	4.71	Str9✓ Recognize Progress	4.69	Str2 Build Rapport	4.72
Str15 Pleasant Climate	4.69	Str15 Pleasant Climate	4.69	Str11 Positive Feedback	4.72
Str36 Personal Sharing	4.69	Str3 Enthusiasm ✓	4.67	Str8 Recognize Effort	4.71
Str40 Self-Motivation	4.69	Str8 Recognize Effort	4.66	Str16 Encourage Risks	4.71
Bottom Seven Strategies					
Cycle 1	Mean	Cycle 2	Mean	Cycle 3	Mean
Str14 Meaning Over Grammar	4.53	Str31 Cultural Familiarity✓	4.44	Str19 Explain Relevance	4.49
Str31 Cultural Familiarity✓	4.51	Str33 Highlight Benefits ✓	4.41	Str31 Cultural Familiarity✓	4.47
Str32 Authentic Contact ✓	4.51	Str28 Stretch Tasks	4.41	Str33 Highlight Benefits ✓	4.46
Str30 Explore Community	4.49	Str32 Authentic Contact ✓	4.33	Str32 Authentic Contact ✓	4.44

Str33 Highlight Benefits ✓	4.49	Str35 Set Norms ✓	4.32	Str35 Set Norms ✓	4.42
Str35 Set Norms ✓	4.48	Str42 State Goals	4.28	Str42 State Goals	4.36
Str34 Senior Sharing ✓	4.14	Str34 Senior Sharing ✓	3.91	Str34 Senior Sharing ✓	3.93

Note: Str = strategy; ✓ = common ones.

5.2 Discussion

This section addressed RQ2: what are tertiary EFL students' perceptions of these strategies, and do these perceptions change over time? Results revealed a clear distinction between direct, personal strategies and indirect, abstract appeals. A cross-dataset comparison identified four convergent thematic clusters alongside notable discrepancies. Regarding temporal change, students' perceptions remained largely consistent across three cycles. In what follows, students' overarching preferences are first discussed (5.2.1), followed by cross-dataset comparisons (5.2.2), a categorical analysis (5.2.3), and a summary of stable patterns (5.2.4).

5.2.1 Chinese EFL Learners' Motivational Preferences: Direct Recognition over Abstract Appeals

This chapter investigated students' perceptions of 43 commonly employed motivational strategies in Chinese EFL classrooms, addressing RQ2. Students consistently rated all strategies positively, though clear distinctions emerged between the most and least effective ones.

The highest-rated strategies centered on teacher enthusiasm, positive feedback, recognition of effort and achievement, establishing good rapport, and supportive grading practices. These strategies share a common thread: they directly communicate to students that their efforts are seen, valued, and rewarded. Rather than relying on external incentives or abstract appeals, they operate through the immediate teacher-student relationship and tangible recognition of individual progress. As Howard (2023) observed in her comprehensive review, "strategies that provide direct, personal acknowledgment and authentic teacher presence consistently enhance learner motivation and outcomes" (p. 10), a pattern that aligns closely with the top-rated strategies identified in the present study. This pattern suggested that Chinese EFL learners are most motivated when they feel personally acknowledged by their instructors and when their performance is evaluated in ways that reflect their

developmental journey rather than absolute outcomes. This preference for direct, instructor-mediated support was echoed by Elisathusilawani et al. (2025), Howard (2023), and Mauludin et al. (2023). This convergence across contexts reinforces the cross-cultural relevance of direct, instructor-mediated strategies.

In contrast, the lowest-rated strategies included peer modeling, cultural exposure, goal reiteration, rule setting, and task rationale explanation. These strategies share a common limitation: they operate at a distance from students' immediate concerns. Whether inviting senior students to share experiences, reminding students of the benefits of English, or explaining why a task is meaningful, these approaches rely on abstract appeals or external examples rather than direct engagement with students' own efforts and progress. The larger standard deviations for these strategies, particularly for S34 involving peer modeling, indicate that students' perceptions of their effectiveness were more varied than for the top-rated strategies, where ratings showed stronger consensus. Notably, while these strategies were rated lower than the top seven, most were still perceived as effective, suggesting that students recognize their value even if they are not their primary preference. The clear exception was inviting senior students to share experiences, which fell into the uncertain range, indicating that students were less convinced of its motivational impact. This finding aligns with Sam's (2021) observation that in contexts where teacher-dominant pedagogy prevails, strategies such as inviting senior students may be met with uncertainty, as teachers and students alike may perceive such approaches as inconsistent with traditional classroom authority structures (p. 127). The relatively low effectiveness of socially mediated strategies is further echoed in Mauludin et al.'s (2023) study, where "providing regular group work" and "finding pen pals" were among the least motivating strategies (p. 16), suggesting that such strategies may lack the direct, personal relevance that students find motivating.

This pattern reveals a fundamental orientation in Chinese EFL learners' motivational preferences: they respond most strongly to strategies that are personal, immediate, and directly tied to their own performance. The top strategies are characterized by high instructor presence and personalized feedback; the bottom strategies, by contrast, are more indirect, relying on external models, cultural exposure, or task rationale explanation. This preference for direct, instructor-mediated support over indirect motivational appeals may reflect the exam-oriented context in which Chinese students operate, where tangible progress markers and personalized attention are perceived as

more immediately relevant to their academic goals. It also suggests that while abstract appeals and external examples may have a place, they are less likely to resonate with students than strategies that directly engage with their own learning journey.

5.2.2: Convergence and Divergence: Four Thematic Clusters of Motivational Strategies Across Chinese Educational Contexts

A cross-comparison of the most effective strategies across the three datasets revealed four distinct thematic clusters of motivational practice that were consistently valued by students and teachers in the present study, as well as by students in Hong Kong (Wong, 2014). To ensure comparability, the top-rated strategies were selected based on natural breaks in the score distributions: the top nine strategies from students in the present study (mean ≥ 4.68) and the top eight from teachers (mean ≥ 4.25 , with tied ranks), for comparison with the top ten strategies reported by students in Wong's (2014) study. Fang (2012) identified the top twelve most effective strategies from students' perspectives in Mainland China, which were also consulted for additional contextual reference.

The first cluster centered on recognition of student progress. Students in the present study rated recognizing students' progress and achievement (S9) among their top strategies, while teachers identified responding supportively to valuable student participation (S91). Wong's (2014) students similarly valued regularly updating students on progress and responding supportively to participation. Fang (2012) also identified recognizing students' progress and achievement as among the most effective strategies rated by Mainland Chinese students. This convergence suggested that across different Chinese educational contexts, timely acknowledgment of student effort and achievement is perceived as a cornerstone of effective motivation. This finding aligned with experimental evidence from Xiang et al. (2021), whose quasi-experimental intervention demonstrated that strategies emphasizing recognition and positive feedback produced significant improvements in both English proficiency and motivational intensity among Chinese vocational students.

The second cluster emphasized teacher-student relationships. Students in the present study ranked establishing good rapport (S2) highly, while teachers prioritized S6 (demonstrating respect and genuine concern). Wong's (2014) students similarly valued paying attention and listening to students. Fang (2012) further confirmed that

demonstrating care for students and establishing good relationships were consistently rated as highly effective by students. These findings underscore the foundational role of positive interpersonal connections in Chinese EFL classrooms, reflecting the Confucian emphasis on harmonious teacher-student relationships (Hu, 2002). As Howard (2023) noted in her review of cross-cultural TMS research, strategies related to “establishing a positive environment” and “developing a good relationship with the learners” are consistently valued across diverse EFL contexts, suggesting their cross-cultural transferability (p. 5). This convergence was reinforced by Zhou et al. (2023), whose three-wave longitudinal study of 1,742 postsecondary EFL students in Mainland China demonstrated that autonomy-supportive teaching, a relational practice closely tied to teacher-student rapport, significantly predicted psychological need satisfaction and subsequent classroom engagement, while also revealing reciprocal effects whereby engaged students positively shaped subsequent perceptions of teacher support.

The third cluster focused on positive feedback. Students rated providing positive feedback (S11) among their top strategies, and both teachers in the present study and students in Wong’s (2014) study identified responding supportively to student participation as highly effective. Fang (2012) similarly identified providing positive feedback as among the most effective strategies from students’ perspectives. This cross-dataset alignment confirms that affirming student contributions is universally valued across different Chinese educational contexts, consistent with prior research identifying positive feedback as a cross-culturally robust motivational strategy (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux, 2013). Mauludin et al.’s (2023) study further supported this pattern, identifying “providing constructive criticism and praise” as one of the five most motivating teaching practices in Indonesian vocational higher education (p. 15), underscoring the cross-cultural importance of affirmative feedback.

The fourth cluster concerned responses to student errors. Students in the present study rated encouraging risk-taking and viewing errors as natural (S16) highly, and teachers identified the same strategy as effective. Wong’s (2014) students similarly valued preventing face-threatening situations such as humiliating feedback or unexpected public attention. Fang (2012), based on students’ report, identified creating a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere as highly effective, which complements the broader theme of fostering a non-threatening learning environment. This pattern suggested that Chinese EFL learners respond positively to classroom climates where

mistakes are normalized and face is protected, reflecting the cultural significance of maintaining positive social image in learning contexts (Hu, 2002; Rao, 1996). The importance of a supportive and positive learning atmosphere was further substantiated by Elisathusilawani et al. (2025), who reported that “creating a supportive and positive learning atmosphere” was a strategy employed by all five participating teachers in their Indonesian EFL context (p. 184), underscoring the cross-cultural relevance of psychologically safe classroom environments. Sam’s (2021) study in the Tanzanian context further supported this finding, revealing that “creating a supportive and pleasant classroom climate where students are free from embarrassment and ridicule” was one of the most frequently employed strategies by EFL student teachers (Table 2, s/n 12). This finding resonated with the work of Min and Chon (2021), whose mixed-methods study in Korean high school EFL contexts revealed that confidence-building strategies significantly predicted learners’ L2 proficiency. These strategies inherently involve creating psychologically safe environments, underscoring the cross-cultural importance of supportive error handling.

However, it is noteworthy that Mauludin et al. (2023) found a contrasting pattern in their Indonesian vocational context, where “emphasizing that mistakes are a natural part of learning” was among the least motivating strategies (p. 16). This divergence may reflect contextual differences in how learners perceive error handling in high-stakes versus vocational educational settings, or may be attributable to variations in instructional approaches and classroom cultures across contexts.

Collectively, these four thematic clusters: recognition of progress, teacher-student rapport, positive feedback, and supportive error handling, represent a core set of motivational practices that transcend individual contexts. Their consistent endorsement across students, teachers, and different educational settings in Mainland China and Hong Kong confirms their cross-contextual validity and provides a foundation for developing culturally responsive motivational interventions in Chinese EFL classrooms.

However, several strategies that students ranked among their most effective were notably absent from teachers’ top-rated list or received considerably lower prioritization from teachers.

The most striking discrepancy involved designing grading to recognize effort and improvement (S43), which students ranked first. Teachers did have a counterpart

strategy, designing grading to recognize both the learning journey and the destination (S100), but ranked it ninth among the 102 strategies. This substantial gap indicated that while both groups acknowledge the importance of grading practices that reflect progress, students value this strategy far more highly than teachers do. In the examination-oriented Chinese context, where grades carry significant consequences, students appear to derive strong motivation from grading systems that acknowledge their developmental trajectory rather than merely their final standing relative to peers. Teachers may underestimate the motivational weight students attach to such assessment practices. This finding was consistent with the intervention outcomes reported by Fu (2014), who found that graded performance incentives, a form of recognition-oriented assessment, proved effective in enhancing student engagement. This suggested that students' preference for growth-oriented grading is not merely perceptual but translates into measurable motivational gains.

Enthusiasm for teaching (S3) ranked first among students but corresponded to sharing personal fascination with the L2 (S1), which ranked ninth among teachers. While both groups valued teacher enthusiasm, students placed it at the very top, indicating that they may be particularly sensitive to teachers' affective engagement. This may reflect students' expectation that teachers serve not only as knowledge transmitters but also as emotional anchors in the learning process, a role that becomes especially salient in high-pressure educational environments. Xiang et al. (2021) similarly identified teacher enthusiasm as one of the ten most effective motivational strategies in Chinese higher vocational English teaching, with their quasi-experimental results confirming that enthusiasm, when combined with rapport building and positive feedback, significantly improved learning outcomes and classroom engagement.

Being yourself in front of students (S5) ranked ninth among students and corresponded to S1, which teachers ranked ninth, a point of convergence suggesting that both groups recognize the value of authentic teacher presence, though students ranked it slightly higher.

When compared with Wong's (2014) Hong Kong study, grading recognizing effort was not included in the 25 strategies rated by Hong Kong students, limiting direct cross-contextual comparison. Its prominence in the present study nonetheless underscores the particular importance Mainland Chinese students attach to grading

practices that reflect progress, a factor that may be especially salient in an educational environment where examination pressure is intense and where students seek tangible validation of their effort.

Recognizing students' effort (S8) and Being yourself in front of students were not among Hong Kong students' top ten strategies, whereas both strategies featured in the top ten of Mainland Chinese students' rankings. This difference may reflect contextual variations between Mainland China and Hong Kong educational systems. Although Hong Kong shares Confucian heritage influences with Mainland China, with Chinese language, literature, and history consistently maintained as core subjects throughout the colonial period (Luk, 1991), its curriculum developed distinctive features under British colonial rule, including a more decentralised structure and greater pedagogical flexibility (ibid). In contrast, Mainland China operates under a centralised national curriculum with standardised high-stakes examinations such as the Gaokao and CET, and more uniform classroom practices across institutions (Hu, 2002; Fang, 2012). These structural differences may shape how motivational strategies are perceived and prioritised across the two contexts. While the present study focuses on the Mainland Chinese context, the comparison with Hong Kong serves to highlight that strategy preferences are context-sensitive, and that findings from one setting may not be directly transferable to another without careful contextual consideration. Further research would be needed to explore the specific underlying factors contributing to these differences.

Comparison of the present student-rated strategies with Fang (2012) shows that both identified enthusiasm, rapport, positive feedback, and classroom climate as highly effective, but three strategies in the present study were absent from Fang's list.

Grading that recognizes effort and improvement did not appear in Fang's (2012) study because the instrument used in that research did not include assessment-related strategies as a distinct dimension. However, its prominence in the present study may also reflect an evolving student consciousness regarding the fairness and developmental value of grading practices. In an increasingly competitive examination-driven environment, students appear to value assessment systems that acknowledge their learning journey, not merely their final outcomes.

Encouraging risk-taking and viewing errors as natural was not explicitly present in Fang's (2012) classroom climate dimension, which focused on a "pleasant and

supportive atmosphere.” This shift may reflect a pedagogical evolution where students now recognize that language learning inherently involves making mistakes, and they therefore expect teachers to cultivate a classroom culture where errors are normalized rather than penalized.

Being yourself in front of students was absent from Fang’s (2012) findings. This suggests that students’ expectations of teacher authenticity may have intensified over time. In high-pressure educational contexts, students may value not only teachers’ professional competence but also their genuine human presence, someone who shares personal interests, displays individuality, and engages authentically. This growing emphasis on “authenticity” may reflect broader educational shifts toward more relational and student-centered approaches.

These differences suggest that while core motivational practices such as enthusiasm, rapport, and feedback remain stable across time, students’ motivational priorities also evolve in response to changing educational contexts and their own developmental needs. The strategies that emerge as important in the present study, namely grading that reflects growth, classrooms that tolerate mistakes, and teachers who are authentic, point to a deeper student desire for learning environments that are not only effective but also personally meaningful and psychologically safe.

5.2.3: High-rated and Low-rated Strategies: A Categorical Analysis Situated in Broader Empirical Evidence

From a broader perspective, the strategies that students rated most highly can be grouped into three categories. The first category comprises teacher immediacy strategies, including teacher enthusiasm (S3) and authentic teacher presence (S5). The second category encompasses recognition strategies, such as recognizing progress (S9), recognizing effort (S8), and providing positive feedback (S11). The third category involves structuring strategies that directly support student learning, including supportive grading practices (S43) and creating a pleasant classroom climate (S15).

As Howard (2023) observed, the teacher “plays a crucial role in modelling behaviour for learners” and “certain techniques can be employed to positively influence learner behaviours, such as participation and attention” (p. 9), which aligns with the high effectiveness of teacher immediacy strategies in the present study. The high

effectiveness of teacher immediacy strategies aligns with Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) finding that teachers' motivational practice correlates strongly with students' motivated behavior. Similarly, recognizing progress aligns with the principles of fostering positive self-evaluation and encouraging students, which are key facets of established motivational frameworks.

The consistent recognition of effort and achievement across multiple studies further reinforces this pattern. As Howard (2023) noted, Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) "Ten Commandments" included "increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence" and "develop a good relationship with the learners" as among the most important strategies for motivating language learners (p. 5), findings that have been replicated across diverse EFL contexts. Mauludin et al. (2023) similarly found that "providing constructive criticism and praise" and "constantly encouraging students" were among the five most motivating teaching practices in their Indonesian vocational context (p. 15), reinforcing the cross-cultural validity of recognition-oriented strategies.

The high effectiveness of structuring strategies resonated with learner-centered approaches validated by Du (2021) and Üzümlü and Özbek (2024), as well as with the broader principle of fostering supportive learning environments highlighted by Raharja and Ashadi (2019) and Gopang et al. (2015). More recent experimental evidence reinforces this pattern: Zhuo and Zin (2025) found that a structured Motivational Teaching Practice (MTP) intervention, which integrated positive psychology principles with systematic strategy implementation, produced significantly higher gains in L2 motivation, positive L2 self, and classroom engagement compared to control groups, demonstrating that well-structured motivational approaches yield measurable outcomes even within relatively brief intervention periods.

Conversely, the strategies rated lower by students can be grouped into two categories. The first category comprises externally oriented strategies, including cultural exposure (S31, S32), instrumental appeals (S33), and task rationale explanation (S19). The second category involves socially mediated strategies, such as peer modeling (S34), rule setting (S35), and goal reiteration (S42).

The lower effectiveness of strategies involving cultural exposure (S31, S32) and instrumental appeals (S33) appears inconsistent with traditional L2 motivation theories

(e.g. Ely, 1986), which would predict their value for fostering integrative and instrumental motivation. However, this inconsistency is resolved by classroom-based evidence. Howard's (2023) review offered significant evidence for the limits culture placed on TMS effectiveness, noting that in "traditional didactic contexts" such as those in East Asia, externally oriented strategies often "feel less tangible to learners" (p. 10). Research by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008), Moskovsky et al. (2013), and Raharja and Ashadi (2019) indicated that in monolingual contexts like South Korea, Saudi Arabia, and Indonesia, such strategies felt less tangible to learners. Whereas these external appeals faltered, the high effectiveness of strategies like S3 and S9 in the same assessments confirmed that immediate, interpersonal motivation within the classroom overshadowed the abstract promotion of cultural or instrumental benefits. As Howard (2023) further observed, "culture is a critical determinant of how learners perceive and react to TMSs" (p. 10), and even within Asia, strategies perceived as effective in one context may be viewed as ineffective in another (p. 9, see also Wong, 2014). This interpretation was further supported by Min and Chon (2021), whose mixed-methods investigation revealed a critical discrepancy between teachers' claimed use of motivational strategies and students' perceptions of their effectiveness; students reported underutilization of strategies due to insufficient variety and misalignment with personal goals, suggesting that even theoretically sound strategies may fail to motivate when they do not connect with learners' immediate concerns and experiential realities.

The relatively low effectiveness of socially mediated strategies, including peer modeling (S34), goal reiteration (S42), and rule setting (S35), may be understood through the lens of Wang and Dai (2015), who observed that knowing what to do is one thing, but acting on it is another. While students may recognize the potential value of hearing from senior peers, this awareness does not necessarily translate into sustained motivational engagement. Sam's (2021) study provided additional insight here, revealing that while "inviting enthusiastic senior students to talk about English learning was the most preferred social motivational strategy" among EFL student teachers, a significant number of respondents expressed uncertainty about its use, with the uncertainty linked to "teachers' preference for teacher-dominance language teaching" (p. 127). This suggested that the effectiveness of peer modeling may be contingent on the extent to which it aligns with established classroom authority structures and cultural expectations. Mauludin et al.'s (2023) study further supported this pattern, finding that

“providing regular group work” and “finding pen pals” were among the least motivating strategies (p. 16), reinforcing the notion that socially mediated strategies may lack the direct, personal relevance that students find motivating. The same logic applies to S31, S32, and S33: students may acknowledge the importance of cultural exposure or the benefits of mastering English, but these abstract appeals lack the immediate, personal connection that transforms knowledge into action. In contrast, strategies such as teacher enthusiasm (S3), recognition of progress (S9), and grading that reflects effort (S43) provide direct, tangible feedback that bridges the gap between knowing and doing, making them more effective in sustaining motivation.

Another possible explanation for the low effectiveness rating is that, while Dörnyei (2001) advocates for clear rules to establish a secure learning environment, an over-reliance on this strategy may undermine another key motivational principle he promotes: the need to create stimulating and enjoyable learning by involving students as active participants in tasks. The low ratings for goal reiteration (S42) suggest that the repetitive reminding of class goals may have led to habituation among students. In addition, cultural factors may moderate this effect. Although students in collectivist educational contexts may be more accustomed to structured environments, prolonged and mechanistic use of rule-centric strategies can still erode motivation by undermining student agency and trust. In such contexts, repetitive rule reminders may be perceived not as guidance, but as a sign of distrust, making students feel patronized, as reported in the students’ responses to open-ended questions in this study.

The lower rating of explaining class rules and formulating group norms (S35) appears to directly contradict the proposal of Raharja and Ashadi (2019) who established group norms as a motivational strategy in their conceptual adaptation of Dörnyei’s framework for the Indonesian context. This divergence underscored a critical gap between theoretical prescription and practical effectiveness. While students may understand the rationale behind establishing rules, knowing why rules matter does not automatically lead them to internalize or act upon them. One plausible explanation is implementation quality: if this strategy is executed in a top-down manner rather than through the genuinely collaborative discussion it prescribes, it may be perceived as bureaucratic and undermine student autonomy, thereby reducing its efficacy. This interpretation aligned with Sam’s (2021) finding that “creating opportunities so that students can mix

and get to know each other better” was a strategy met with considerable uncertainty among EFL student teachers, with 36% indicating they were “not sure” about its use (Table 4, s/n 2). This uncertainty may stem from the tension between collaborative, student-centered approaches and the traditional teacher-dominant pedagogy prevalent in many EFL contexts. This interpretation found support in Fang’s (2012) study, where group learning activities were similarly perceived as ineffective. Fang attributed this outcome to practical impediments, such as short activity duration, unfamiliar topics, and peer pressure, which prevented the activities from fostering genuine communication. This explanation was further strengthened by the findings of Min and Chon (2021), whose interview data revealed that students attributed strategy underutilization to insufficient variety and misalignment with personal goals, underscoring that even well-intentioned strategies can lose effectiveness when implemented in ways that do not authentically engage learners or when they fail to account for students’ individual learning needs and contextual constraints. Consequently, these findings collectively suggest that the success of strategies reliant on social dynamics, including establishing group norms, is highly contingent not only on their theoretical soundness but also on the quality of their implementation and the mitigation of practical constraints in the classroom.

5.2.4 Stable Patterns Across Three Cycles: A Summary of Students’ Perceptions

Quantitative findings from the questionnaire administered at the end of Cycle 3 indicated that students maintained generally positive perceptions of the motivational strategies throughout the 26-week intervention. Students’ perceptions of the 43 motivational strategies demonstrated generally stable yet fluctuating patterns across cycle.

In conclusion, designing grading to recognize both the learning journey and the destination, showing enthusiasm for teaching, and recognizing students’ progress and achievement were consistently among the highest-rated strategies across the three assessments. In contrast, familiarizing students with the cultural background of the target language, promoting contact with authentic cultural materials and English speakers, reminding students of the benefits of mastering English, explaining the importance of class rules and formulating group norms through discussion with students,

and inviting senior students to share their English learning experiences were consistently among the lowest-rated strategies.

The pattern of results largely aligned with the empirical shift in the literature, confirming that motivational strategy effectiveness is mediated by contextual factors, particularly learner proficiency, cultural context, and the immediacy of teacher-student relationships (Howard, 2023). The consistently high ratings for recognition-oriented and teacher immediacy strategies reflected a broader empirical finding: strategies that provide direct, personal acknowledgment and authentic teacher presence consistently enhance learner motivation and outcomes. Howard (2023) similarly observed that “strategies that provide direct, personal acknowledgment and authentic teacher presence consistently enhance learner motivation and outcomes” (p. 10), a finding that aligned with the stable preference patterns observed across the three cycles of the present study. Mauludin et al. (2023) similarly concluded that “the learning environment, learning contexts, and students’ and teachers’ individual personalities all play a role in the application” of motivational strategies (p. 17), underscoring the situated nature of strategy effectiveness and reinforcing the stable patterns observed across the three cycles of the present study. Conversely, the persistently low ratings for externally oriented and socially mediated strategies reflect a broader empirical finding: strategies relying on abstract appeals or indirect social modeling often fail to resonate with learners when they lack direct, personal relevance.

Future research, as called for in the literature, should employ longitudinal and mixed-methods designs to move beyond perceptions and unpack the specific conditions under which strategies like leveraging senior students or discussing cultural backgrounds become potent motivational tools, rather than being consistently among the least effective.

5.3 Summary

This section addressed RQ2 by examining tertiary EFL students’ perceptions of 43 commonly used motivational strategies and whether these perceptions changed over time. Data were collected across three cycles (weeks 10, 18, and 26) using a 43-item questionnaire. Descriptive statistics and a two-way RM-ANOVA were conducted to analyze the effects of strategy and time on students’ perceptions.

Results revealed no significant main effect of time, indicating that students' perceptions of strategy effectiveness remained stable across the three assessment cycles. A significant main effect of strategy was observed, demonstrating that students clearly distinguished between more and less effective strategies. A significant Time $\times$ Strategy interaction was also found, reflecting minor fluctuations in individual strategy ratings across cycles despite overall stability.

Seven strategies were consistently rated highest across all three cycles: teacher enthusiasm, supportive grading recognizing effort and improvement, recognizing progress, establishing rapport, positive feedback, recognizing effort, and encouraging risk-taking. These strategies shared common characteristics of direct, personal acknowledgment and immediate teacher-student connection. In contrast, seven strategies were consistently rated lowest: inviting senior students to share experiences, goal reiteration, rule setting, cultural exposure, instrumental appeals, cultural background, and task rationale explanation. These strategies relied on abstract appeals, external examples, or indirect social mediation.

Further analysis comparing top and bottom strategies confirmed that the seven highest-rated strategies did not differ significantly from one another but were each rated significantly higher than all bottom-rated strategies. Among the bottom strategies, Str34 was rated significantly lower than the others, indicating particularly weak student endorsement.

Cross-dataset comparisons revealed four thematic clusters consistently valued across Chinese educational contexts: recognition of student progress, teacher-student relationships, positive feedback, and supportive error handling. Notable discrepancies emerged between student and teacher perceptions, particularly regarding grading practices and teacher enthusiasm, where students assigned substantially higher importance than teachers did.

The pattern of results aligned with broader empirical evidence indicating that motivational strategy effectiveness is mediated by contextual factors such as learner proficiency, cultural context, and the immediacy of teacher-student relationships. In students' perceptions, strategies providing direct, personal acknowledgment consistently enhanced learner motivation, whereas strategies relying on abstract appeals or indirect social modeling often failed to resonate with learners.



**CHAPTER 6 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION: STUDENTS’
PERCEPTIONS OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF
STRATEGIES TO DEVELOP IES**

6.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the results and discussion addressing RQ3, which examined tertiary EFL students' perceptions of the effectiveness of strategies to develop students' IES across three cycles of teaching intervention. Data were mainly collected through post-cycle questionnaires, learning journals, and focus group interviews. The chapter first reports quantitative findings on students' motivation in English learning across cycles, followed by results on students' perceptions of strategy effectiveness from questionnaires, learning journals, and interviews. It then discusses these findings collectively, integrating relevant literature, and concludes with a summary of the chapter.

6.1 Results of Students' Motivation in English Learning

To examine changes in students' motivational state across the three intervention cycles, the College Students' English Learning Questionnaire was administered at four time points: before the first cycle (C0), after the first cycle (C1), after the second cycle (C2), and after the third cycle (C3). The five measured constructs were IES, OES, ATC, LSC, and MLE.

At C0, prior to any intervention, the overall mean score across the five items was 3.27 (SD = 1.11), indicating that students held a moderately positive view of their general motivation in English learning. Students reported moderate positive views on IES (M = 3.33, SD = 1.27) and OES (M = 3.30, SD = 1.12). Their ATC was also rather positive (M = 3.33, SD = 1.01). In contrast, perceptions of LSC (M = 3.12, SD = 1.09) and MLE (M = 3.26, SD = 1.03) were slightly lower than the overall mean. These results suggested that students were moderately motivated prior to the teaching intervention.

At C1, following the first intervention cycle, the overall mean score increased to 3.75 (SD = 0.95). Students continued to report moderately positive motivation. Their IES (M = 3.73, SD = 0.98), ATC (M = 3.84, SD = 0.89), and MLE (M = 3.77, SD = 0.94) were rated higher than OES (M = 3.73, SD = 0.96) and LSC (M = 3.65, SD = 0.98).

At C2, after the second intervention cycle, the overall mean score was 3.76 (SD = 0.92), remaining moderately positive. IES (M = 3.80, SD = 0.95), ATC (M = 3.84, SD = 0.87), and MLE (M = 3.78, SD = 0.87) were rated higher than OES (M = 3.70, SD = 0.97) and LSC (M = 3.68, SD = 0.91).

At C3, following the third intervention cycle, the overall mean score was 3.70 (SD = 0.90), still indicating moderately positive motivation. The highest rated construct was IES (M = 3.76, SD = 0.96), followed by ATC (M = 3.72, SD = 0.87) and MLE (M = 3.71, SD = 0.85). OES (M = 3.66, SD = 0.94) and LSC (M = 3.63, SD = 0.87) were both slightly below the overall mean.

Across the three cycles, the average mean scores (Avg.) for the five constructs ranged from 3.66 to 3.80. Positive gains were observed across all constructs when comparing C0 with the average of the three post intervention time points (C1, C2, and C3): IES increased by 0.44, OES by 0.39, ATC by 0.47, LSC by 0.54, and MLE by 0.49. Notably, the most substantial change occurred in LSC (Avg. = 3.66), which increased by 0.54 from a pretest score of 3.12. Additionally, MLE (Avg. = 3.75) showed a marked increase of 0.49 from its pretest score of 3.26. These findings suggest that the three cycles of teaching intervention had a particularly strong impact on learners' LSC and MLE. Overall, the average perception across the five items increased by 0.35, indicating consistent improvements in students' motivational state following the intervention cycles. Descriptive statistics for each time point are presented in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Descriptive Statistics of English Learning Motivation Across Three Cycles

	C0		C1		C2		C3		Avg.	Diff.
Items	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD		
IES	3.3	1.27	3.73	0.98	3.8	0.95	3.76	0.96	3.77	0.44
OES	3.3	1.12	3.73	0.96	3.7	0.97	3.66	0.94	3.7	0.39
ATC	3.3	1.01	3.84	0.89	3.84	0.87	3.72	0.87	3.8	0.47
LSC	3.1	1.09	3.65	0.98	3.68	0.91	3.63	0.87	3.66	0.54
MLE	3.3	1.03	3.77	0.94	3.78	0.87	3.71	0.85	3.75	0.49
Overall	3.3	1.11	3.75	0.95	3.76	0.92	3.7	0.9	3.62	0.35

Note: C0= before Cycle 1; M=Mean; SD= standard deviation; Avg.=average; Diff.=difference (between C0 and average); Scale: 1=very untrue, 2=untrue, 3=neither true nor untrue, 4=true, 5=very true

6.1.1 Students' Motivation in English Learning by the End of Cycle 1

A paired samples *t*-test was performed to examine the difference in students' motivation in learning English before and after one cycle of teaching especially with strategies to develop students' IES based on L2MSS (see Table 6.2). The results revealed a significant difference between students' pre-test scores in English learning motivation (M = 3.27, SD =1.11) and post-test scores (M = 3.75, SD =0.95), indicating that the

first cycle of teaching effectively improved students' scores in learning motivation, $t(4319) = -21.80, p < .001, d = 0.33, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.52, -.43]$. Exploring further into the five specific categories of students' learning motivation, the findings showed that students' scores in all the components of motivational state tested were all significantly higher than those before the intervention: IES, $t(809) = -7.31, p < .001, d = 0.26, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.51, -0.29]$; OES, $t(1169) = -10.25, p < .001, d = 0.3, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.51, -0.35]$; ATC, $t(719) = -10.64, p < .001, d = 0.4, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.61, -0.42]$; LSC, $t(719) = -9.96, p < .001, d = 0.38, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.64, -0.43]$, and MLE, $t(899) = -11.20, p < .001, d = 0.38, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.6, -0.42]$. The findings indicated that the strongest influence of the first teaching intervention for 10 weeks was on students' MLE and ATC. The second largest effect was on the raise of students OES. The smallest raise was in IES.

Table 6.2: Paired *t*-Test on Students' Motivation in English Learning Before and Aafter the First Cycle

Items	C0		C1		M	SD	SE	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
	M	SD	M	SD				Lower	Upper			
IES	3.33	1.27	3.73	0.98	-0.4	1.56	0.05	-0.51	-0.29	-7.31	809	0
OES	3.3	1.12	3.73	0.96	-0.43	1.43	0.04	-0.51	-0.35	-10.2	1169	0
ATC	3.33	1.01	3.84	0.89	-0.51	1.29	0.05	-0.61	-0.42	-10.64	719	0
LSC	3.12	1.09	3.65	0.98	-0.53	1.44	0.05	-0.64	-0.43	-9.96	719	0
MLE	3.26	1.03	3.77	0.94	-0.51	1.37	0.05	-0.6	-0.42	-11.2	899	0
Overall	3.27	1.11	3.75	0.95	-0.47	1.43	0.02	-0.52	-0.43	-21.8	4319	0

Note: M = mean; SD = standard deviation; SE = standard error of the mean.

6.1.2 Students' Motivation in English Learning by the End of Cycle 2

To further investigate whether teaching intervention of Cycle 2 had brought about significant changes in students' motivational state (their IES, OES, ATC, LSC and their MLE), a paired samples *t*-test was performed between the three times of students' ratings.

The results demonstrated that there was significant difference between the first time (Cycle 0) and the latest ratings (Cycle 2) on students' motivation in learning English, $t(4319) = -22.111, p < 0.001, d = 0.33641, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.52, -0.44]$, while there was no significant difference between the Cycle 1 and Cycle 2, $t(4319) = -0.486, p > 0.005, d = 0.00739, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.04781, .02883]$. Paired t -test of the responses for questions about specific motivations between Cycle 0 and Cycle 2 showed that all the components about students' motivational state were rated significantly differently, including IES, $t(809) = -8.62, p < 0.001, d=0.30, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.48, -0.31]$; OES, $t(1169) = -8.62, p < 0.001, d = -0.27, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.48, -0.31]$; ATC, $t(719) = -10.28, p < 0.001, d = 0.38, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.61, -.41]$; LSC, $t(719) = -10.88, p < 0.001, d = 0.41, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.61, -.46]$; and MLE, $t(719) = -10.88, p < 0.001, d = 0.38, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.61, -.43]$. The findings indicated the teaching intervention in this cycle did not bring out significant differences from Cycle 1, but students' motivational state was kept slightly ($d < 0.5$) higher than before the two cycles of teaching intervention. All the facets of their motivational state tested including their IES, OES, ATC, LSC and MLE were all kept slightly higher than before the Cycle 1 intervention, but no significant change in the 8-week teaching intervention (see Table 6.3).

Table 6.3: Paired t-Test Results of Student Motivation Across Intervention C0, C1 and C2 (N = 4320)

Pair	Paired Differences										<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
	C0				C 2				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	SE	Lower	Upper					
Overall	3.27	1.11	3.76	0.92	-0.48	1.43	0.02	-0.52	-0.44	-22.11	4319	0	
IES	3.33	1.27	3.8	0.95	-0.48	1.57	0.06	0.58	-0.37	-8.62	809	0	
OES	3.3	1.12	3.7	0.97	-0.39	1.47	0.04	-0.48	-0.31	-9.08	1169	0	
ATC	3.33	1.01	3.84	0.87	-0.51	1.34	0.05	-0.61	-0.41	-10.28	719	0	
LSC	3.12	1.09	3.68	0.91	-0.56	1.39	0.05	-0.67	-0.46	-10.88	719	0	
MLE	3.26	1.03	3.78	0.87	-0.52	1.35	0.05	-0.61	-0.43	-11.45	899	0	

Pair	C1		C2		-								
Overall	3.75	0.95	3.76	0.92	0.01	1.28	0.02	-0.05	0.03	-0.49	4319	0.63	
IES	3.73	0.98	3.8	0.95	0.07	1.36	0.05	-0.17	0.02	-1.55	809	0.12	
OES	3.73	0.96	3.7	0.97	0.04	1.28	0.04	-0.04	0.11	1.01	1169	0.32	
ATC	3.84	0.89	3.84	0.87	0	1.21	0.04	-0.09	0.09	0	719	1	
LSC	3.65	0.98	3.68	0.91	0.03	1.31	0.05	-0.13	0.07	-0.63	719	0.53	
MLE	3.77	0.94	3.78	0.87	0.00	1.26	0.04	-0.09	0.08	-0.08	899	0.94	

Note: Cycle 0 = Pre-Cycle; Cycle 1 = Post-First Cycle; Cycle 2 = Post-Second Cycle; M = mean; SD = standard deviation; SE = standard error of the mean.

6.1.3 Students' Motivation in English Learning by the End of Cycle 3

To examine whether Cycle 3 of teaching intervention had brought about significant changes in students' motivational state, paired samples *t*-test was performed between the three times of students' ratings.

The paired *t*-test showed that Cycle 3 ($M = 33.70$, $SD = .90$) made significant difference from the previous Cycle 0 ($M = 3.27$, $SD = 1.11$), Cycle 1 ($M = 3.75$, $SD = 0.95$) and Cycle 2 ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 0.92$). The first comparison between Cycle 0 and Cycle 3 showed that there was significant positive effect on students' motivation in learning English, $t(4319) = -19.92$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.30$, 95% CI $[-0.47, -0.38]$. In this cycle, all specific manifestation of motivation (IES, OES, ATC, LSC and MLE) tested showed significant difference from their original situation in Cycle 0. Students' IES in Cycle 3 ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 0.96$) was significantly higher than that in Cycle 0 ($M = 3.33$, $SD = 1.27$), $t(809) = -7.70$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.27$, 95% CI $[-0.55, -0.32]$; OES in Cycle 3 ($M = 3.66$, $SD = 0.94$) was significantly higher than that in Cycle 0 ($M = 3.30$, $SD = 1.12$), $t(1169) = -8.08$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.22$, 95% CI $[-0.44, -0.28]$; ATC in Cycle 3 ($M = 3.72$, $SD = 0.87$) was significantly higher than that in Cycle 0 ($M = 3.33$, $SD = 1.01$), $t(719) = -8.18$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.30$, 95% CI $[-0.48, -0.30]$; LSC in Cycle 3 ($M = 3.63$, $SD = 0.87$) was significantly higher than that in Cycle 0 ($M = 3.12$, $SD = 1.09$), $t(719) = -10.37$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.39$, 95% CI $[-0.61, -0.42]$; and MLE in Cycle 3 ($M = 3.71$, $SD = 0.85$) was also significantly higher than that in Cycle 0 ($M = 3.26$, $SD = 1.03$), $t(899) = -10.34$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.34$, 95% CI $[-0.54, -0.37]$.

But both the comparisons between Cycle 3 ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 0.92$) and Cycle 1 ($M = 3.7$, $SD = 0.95$) and between Cycle 3 ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 0.92$) and Cycle 2 ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 0.92$) showed that Cycle 3 had very slight lower effect on students' motivation in

learning English, with Cycle 1, the $t(4319) = 2.45, p < .001, d = 0.04, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.01, -0.09]$; and with Cycle 2, the $t(4319) = 3.03, p < .001, d = 0.05, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.02, -0.01]$. The differences between Cycle 3 and Cycle 1, Cycle 2 were negligible. All specific manifestation of motivation in Cycle 3 tested showed no significant difference from them in Cycle 1 and Cycle 2 ($p < .05$) except for the factor of ATC ($M = 3.72, SD = 0.87$) which was significant lower (very slightly) from its situation in Cycle 1 ($M = 3.84, SD = 0.89$) and Cycle 2 ($M = 3.84, SD = 0.87$). Results in these two pairs were $t(719) = 2.45, p < .005, d = 0.10, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.03, 0.32]$; and $t(719) = 2.74, p < .005, d = 0.10, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.03, 0.21]$. The results are shown in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4: Paired t-Test Results of Student Motivation Across Intervention Cycles (N = 4320)

Paired Differences												
Pair	C0		C3		M	SD	SE	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
	M	SD	M	SD				Lower	Upper			
Overall	3.27	1.11	3.7	0.9	−0.42	1.4	0.02	−0.47	−0.38	−19.92	4319	0
IES	3.33	1.27	3.76	0.96	−0.43	1.61	0.06	−0.55	−0.32	−7.70	809	0
OES	3.3	1.12	3.66	0.94	−0.36	1.41	0.04	−0.44	−0.28	−8.68	1169	0
ATC	3.33	1.01	3.72	0.87	−0.39	1.28	0.05	−0.48	−0.30	−8.18	719	0
LSC	3.12	1.09	3.63	0.87	−0.51	1.33	0.05	−0.61	−0.42	−10.37	719	0
MLE	3.26	1.03	3.71	0.85	−0.45	1.31	0.04	−0.54	−0.37	−10.34	899	0
Pair	C1		C3									
Overall	3.75	0.95	3.7	0.9	0.05	1.32	0.02	0.01	0.09	2.45	4319	0.01
IES	3.73	0.98	3.76	0.96	−0.03	1.35	0.05	−0.13	0.06	−0.70	809	0.48
OES	3.73	0.96	3.66	0.94	0.07	1.37	0.04	−0.01	0.15	1.75	1169	0.08
ATC	3.84	0.89	3.72	0.87	0.12	1.24	0.05	0.03	0.21	2.65	719	0.01
LSC	3.65	0.98	3.63	0.87	0.02	1.27	0.05	−0.07	0.11	0.41	719	0.68
MLE	3.77	0.94	3.71	0.85	0.06	1.32	0.04	−0.03	0.15	1.39	899	0.16
Pair	C2		C3									
Overall	3.76	0.92	3.7	0.9	0.06	1.27	0.02	0.02	0.1	3.03	4319	0
IES	3.8	0.95	3.76	0.96	0.04	1.36	0.05	−0.05	0.13	0.85	809	0.39
OES	3.7	0.97	3.66	0.94	0.03	1.32	0.04	−0.04	0.11	0.84	1169	0.4
ATC	3.84	0.87	3.72	0.87	0.12	1.2	0.04	0.03	0.21	2.74	719	0.01
LSC	3.68	0.91	3.63	0.87	0.05	1.25	0.05	−0.04	0.14	1.07	719	0.28
MLE	3.78	0.87	3.71	0.85	0.06	1.19	0.04	−0.01	0.14	1.63	899	0.1

Note: Cycle 0 = Pre-Cycle; Cycle 1 = Post-First Cycle; Cycle 2 = Post-Second Cycle; M = mean; SD = standard deviation; SE = standard error of the mean.

6.1.4 The Effects of Time on Students' Self-Rated Motivational Scores

A one-way RM-ANOVA was conducted to examine the effects of time on students' self-rated motivational scores across 26 weeks. Students' motivation was measured through five facets (i.e., IES, OES, ATC, LSC, and MLE) as "items," with four assessment points (Cycle 0 to Cycle 3) coded as the "Time" variable. Mauchly's test of sphericity was applied, and the results indicated a violation of sphericity (Mauchly's $W = .97 > .75, p < .01$) as showed in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5: Mauchly's Test of Sphericity: Motivation Across Cycles

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	df	p	Epsilonb Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt	Lower-bound
Time	.97	124.96	5.00	.00	.98	.98	.33

Consequently, the Huynh–Feldt correction was used instead of the Greenhouse–Geisser correction. The within-subjects tests revealed a significant main effect of time on students' perceived motivation, $F(2.94, 12712.38) = 251.01, p < .001, \eta^2 = .05$ (see Table 6.6).

Table 6.6: Results of Within-Subjects Effects of Time on Students' Motivation

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Partial Eta Squared
Time	Huynh-Feldt	692.60	2.94	235.31	251.01	0.00	0.05

To further explore the effect of time on motivation, pairwise comparisons were performed. The Post hoc pairwise comparisons with Bonferroni correction revealed significant differences between the baseline (Cycle 0) and each of the subsequent cycles (Cycle 1: $MD = -.47, p < .001$; Cycle 2: $MD = -.48, p < .001$; Cycle 3: $MD = -.42, p < .001$). Results showed that student motivation scores at the end of Cycle 1 ($M = 3.75, SD = 0.95$) were significantly higher than those at baseline (Cycle 0; $M = 3.27, SD = 1.11$).

No significant changes in motivation were observed between most subsequent assessments ($p > .05$), except that scores in Cycle 3 ($M = 3.70, SD = 0.90$) were slightly

but significantly lower than those in Cycle 2 ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 0.92$), $MD = -0.06$, $p < .05$ (see Table 6.7). These findings were consistent with the paired-samples t tests conducted between three Cycles (see Sections 6.1.1, 6.1.2 and 6.1.3).

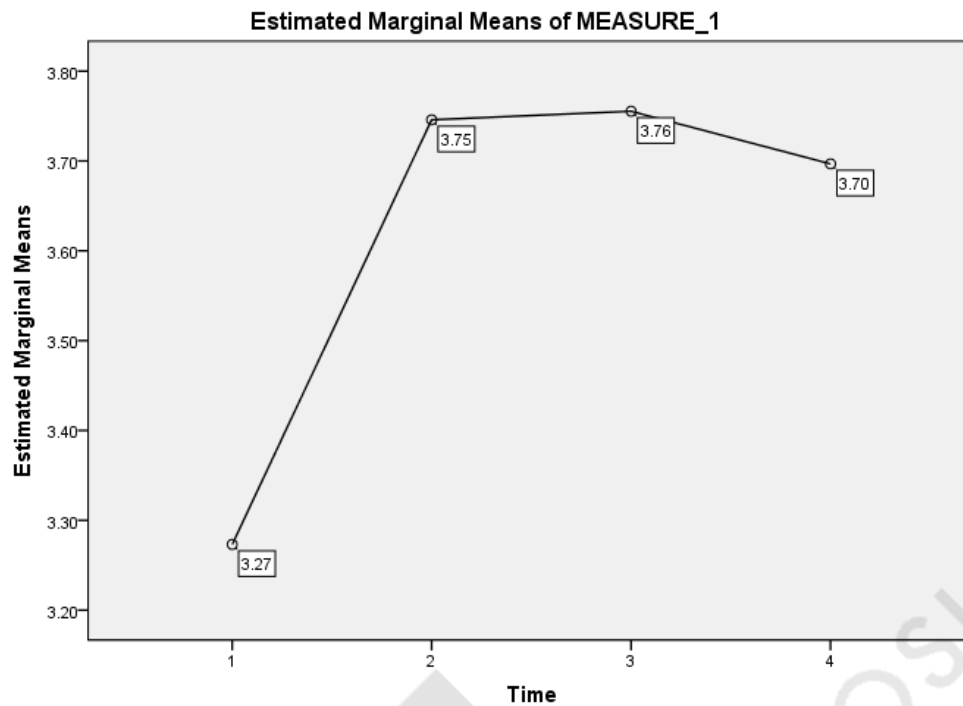
Table 6.7: Pairwise Comparisons of Motivation Across Cycles

(I) Time (J) Time		Mean Difference (I-J)	SE	p	95% Confidence Interval for Difference	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	-0.47*	0.02	0.00	-0.53	-0.42
	3	-0.48*	0.02	0.00	-0.54	-0.42
	4	-0.42*	0.02	0.00	-0.48	-0.37
2	1	0.47*	0.02	0.00	0.42	0.53
	3	-0.01	0.02	1.00	-0.06	0.04
	4	0.05	0.02	0.09	0.00	0.10
3	1	0.48*	0.02	0.00	0.42	0.54
	2	0.01	0.02	1.00	-0.04	0.06
	4	0.06*	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.11
4	1	0.42*	0.02	0.00	0.37	0.48
	2	-0.05	0.02	0.09	-0.10	0.00
	3	-0.06*	0.02	0.01	-0.11	-0.01

Note: * $p < .05$; Time 1 = Cycle 0; Time 2 = Cycle 1; Time 3 = Cycle 2; Time 4 = Cycle 3; SE= standard error of the mean.

The most substantial improvement in student motivation occurred in Cycle 1, and this elevated level was largely sustained in Cycle 2. Although a slight but statistically significant decline was observed in Cycle 3, scores remained significantly above baseline (Cycle 0). The overall trajectory across the four time points is visualized in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1: Changing Mode of Students' Motivated Performance Over Time

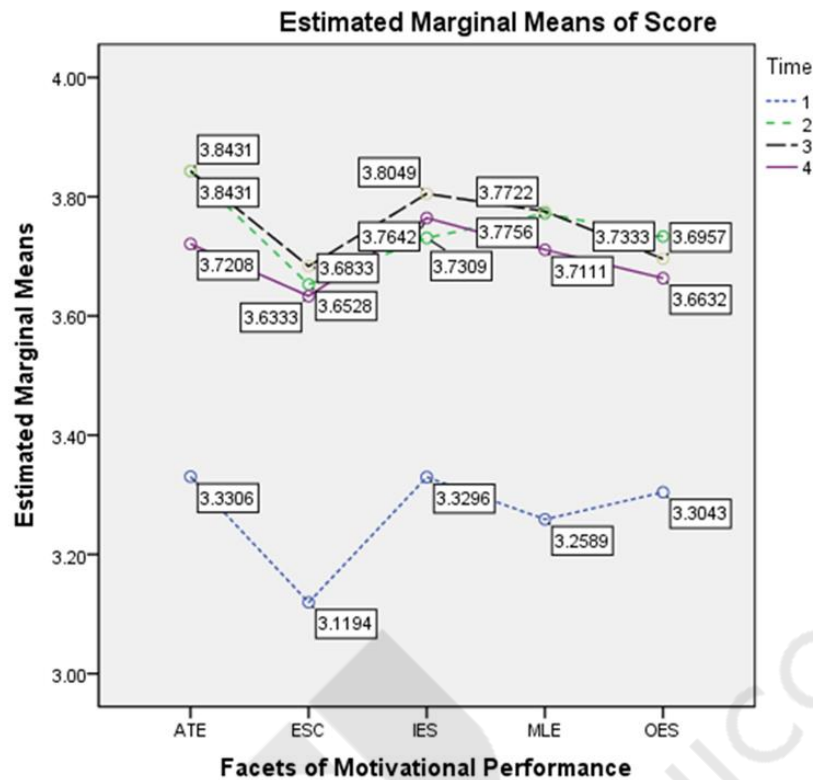


Among the five motivational dimensions—IES, OES, ATC, LSC, and MLE—ATC consistently recorded the highest scores across the three cycles, reaching a maximum of 3.84, compared to IES (max = 3.80), MLE (max = 3.77), and OES (max = 3.73). In contrast, LSC consistently ranked the lowest throughout the intervention, with a minimum score of 3.12 across the four assessments. The overall effects of time on each motivational subscale are illustrated in Figure 6.2, which integrates data from Table 6.1 and Figure 6.1.

6.2 Results of Students' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Strategies to Develop IES

To address Research Question 3 (RQ3), students' perceptions of the motivational activities were assessed at the end of each teaching intervention cycle. After the first cycle, data from Part II of the Questionnaire at the End of the First Cycle (QEFC) revealed students' evaluations of the adapted motivational strategies. Following the second cycle, which incorporated further adaptations based on the L2MSS, findings from the relevant section of the Questionnaire at the End of the Second Cycle (QESC) were collected and analyzed. After the third cycle, results from the Questionnaire at the

Figure 6.2 Changing Mode of the Five Facets of Students' Motivated Performance Over Time



End of the Third Cycle (QETC) were examined. Collectively, these findings informed the refinement of the teaching intervention across the three cycles.

6.2.1 Students' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Motivational Strategies to Develop IES in Cycle 1

Results of Part II of the Questionnaire at the End of the First Cycle (QEFC) showed that students were generally positive about the effectiveness of the 17 activities to develop IES based on L2MSS ($M = 3.97$, $SD = 0.89$). To provide a focused analysis of students' perceptions of the motivational activities implemented in the first intervention cycle, the five highest-rated and five lowest-rated activities were selected based on their mean scores. This selection strategy enabled the identification of activities that were perceived as most effective and those that were least effective, thereby offering actionable insights for refining the instructional design in subsequent cycles.

As shown in Table 6.8, the top five activities (Activities 10, 9, 8, 12, and 14) had mean scores ranging from 4.02 to 4.24, all exceeding the overall mean of 3.97. In contrast, the five lowest-rated activities (Activities 3, 11, 13, 17, and 7) had mean scores ranging

from 3.69 to 3.90, falling below the overall mean. This selection allowed for a focused comparison between high-impact and low-impact strategies, supporting evidence-based adjustments in the following cycles.

Table 6.8: Descriptive Statistics: Student Ratings of L2MSS Activities' Effectiveness (Post-Cycle 1, N=90)

Activity	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Rank	Activity
1 Find Alternatives	3.91	0.84	2	5	12
2 Write IES	4.01	0.77	2	5	6
3 Check Others' IES	3.69	0.96	1	5	17
4 Check Own IES	4.01	0.81	2	5	6
5 Rewrite Vision	3.93	0.92	1	5	10
6 Predict Failure	3.92	0.89	1	5	11
7 Analyze Others' Obstacles	3.9	0.84	2	5	13
8 Identify Self-Barriers	4.1	0.79	2	5	3
9 Face Self-Barriers	4.14	0.74	2	5	2
10 Overcome Self-Barriers	4.24	0.75	2	5	1
11 Introduce IES	3.82	1.03	0	5	16
12 List Goals	4.02	0.96	1	5	4
13 Compare Goals	3.88	0.98	1	5	14
14 Overview Goals	4.02	0.94	1	5	4
15 Break Down Goals	4.01	0.95	1	5	8
16 Task List	3.98	0.91	1	5	9
17 Learning Contract	3.88	1.05	1	5	14
Total	3.97	0.9	0	5	

Note: Scale: 1 = absolutely ineffective; 2 = not very effective; 3 = not certain; 4 = effective; 5 = absolutely effective

Further analysis was conducted to see the differences between the top-rated activities and bottom-rated ones. Results of the post hoc test comparing the effectiveness ratings of the five top-rated activities and five bottom-rated ones showed a statistically significant difference between various activities ($F = 3.03, p < 0.05$ in ANOVA), with one of the bottom-rated Activity 3 (A3) being significantly different from top two highly-rated ones ($p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.05$, respectively). Meanwhile, all of the top-rated strategies showed no significant differences from each other ($F = 1.10, p = 0.356 > 0.05$ in ANOVA), and all of the bottom-rated strategies showed no significant differences from each other ($F = 0.70, p = 0.594 > 0.05$ in ANOVA). The detailed statistics of the post hoc tests are shown in Table 6.9 (see Appendix W for complete results).

Table 6.9: Summary of ANOVA and Post Hoc Comparisons for Activity Effectiveness Ratings (Cycle 1)

Comparison Group	F	p	Significant Differences
Top-rated activities (n = 5)	1.11	0.36	None
Bottom-rated activities (n = 5)	0.68	0.60	None
Top-rated vs. bottom-rated	3.03	0.001	A3 < A9 ($p = .04$), A3 < A10 ($p < .001$)

Note: Top-rated activities: A8, A9, A10, A12, A14; bottom-rated activities: A3, A7, A11, A13, A17. Complete post hoc results are presented in Appendix W.

As shown in Figure 6.3, Activity 3 (Checking the reality of others' IES; $M = 3.69$) was rated significantly less effective than A10 (overcoming self-barriers in English learning; $M = 4.24$) and A9 (facing self-barriers in English learning; $M = 4.14$). Overall, students' responses indicated generally high positive perceptions of the effectiveness of the 17 motivational strategies, as illustrated in Figure 6.3.

Regarding the open-ended question on whether the motivational activities were effective in promoting their motivation, 46 out of 90 participants perceived them as effective, two reported no effect, and 42 did not provide a response. Thus, over 96% of the respondents who answered the question perceived the 17 motivational activities as effective in promoting their motivation, as shown in Figure 6.4.

Figure 6.3: Most Effective and Least Effective Activities in Students' Perception at the End of Cycle 1

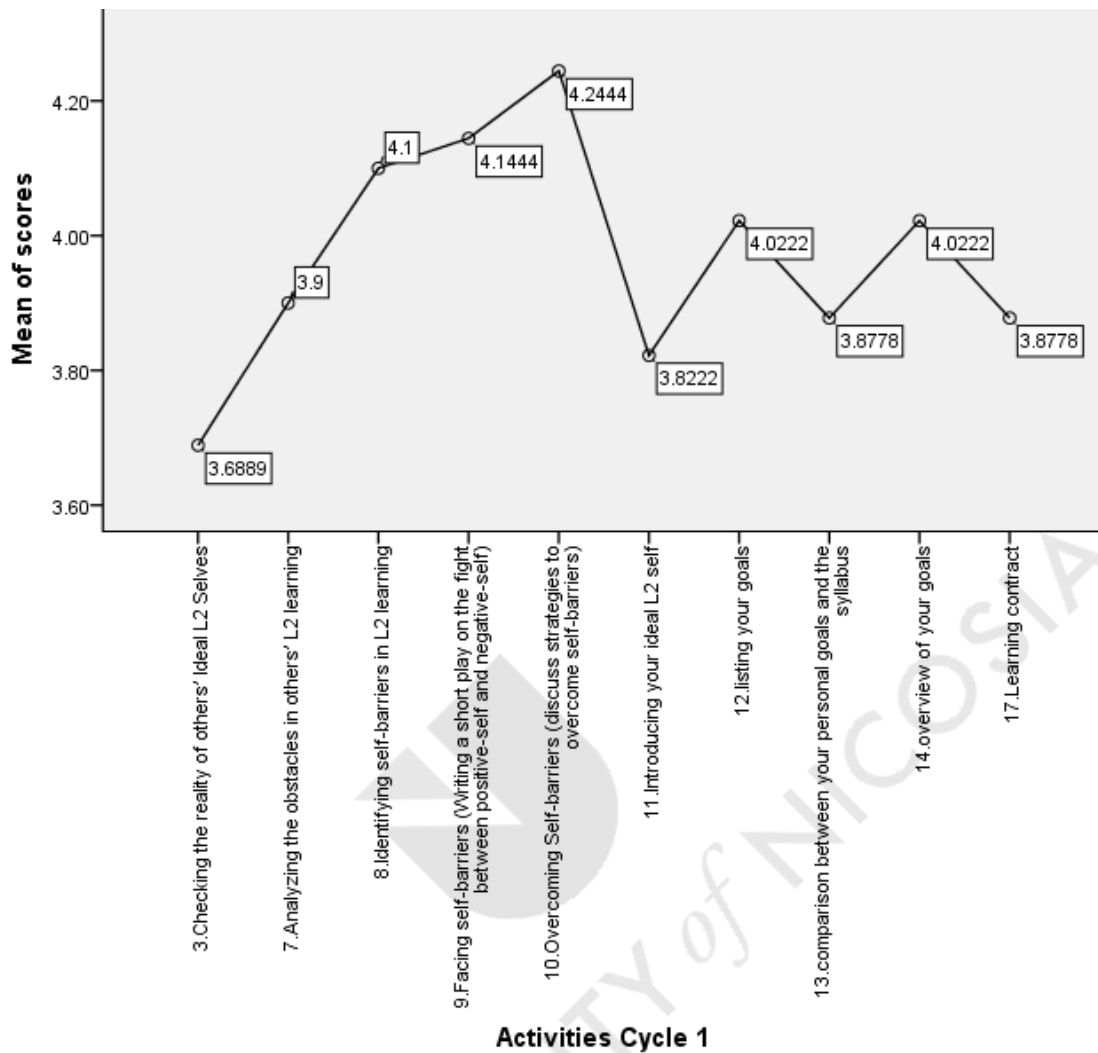
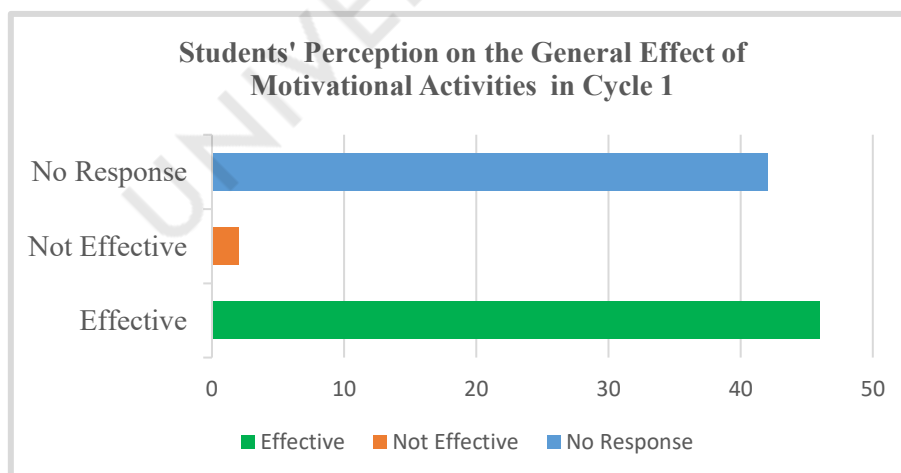


Figure 6.4: Results of Open-ended Questions in QEFC



The participants further elaborated on how they found the activities motivating or not. Among those who responded to the open-ended questions, 44% indicated that the motivational strategies were helpful to the improvement of their English. They explained that the motivational activities organized by the teacher pushed them to speak in English and prepare before class (Participants 81, 14, et al., Cycle 1). Other factors contributing to their English improvement included the responsible teacher, the learning contract, others' successful learning experiences, and learning strategies (Participants 75, 84, 87, et al., Cycle 1). Another 31% reported that the activities designed to build their IES, the specific tasks outlined for each phase toward their future self, and the fun classroom atmosphere promoted their English learning motivation (Participants 1, 75, et al., Cycle 1). An additional 31% of the respondents explained that the supportive teacher, opportunities to express their ideas, and the practice of breaking down goals into plans helped raise their awareness of the importance of English, as well as their understanding of themselves, their peers, and their own weaknesses and goals in English learning (Participants 30, 40, 70, et al., Cycle 1). A typical response illustrated this perspective:

(Those activities) brought about great positive impact, for example, listing my goals and activities of "From Goals to Plans" stimulated my motivation. I thus gained clearer goals and most importantly, my overall goals were broken down into specific practical tasks, which made me realize what I should focus right now and thereby improved my efficiency. (P40, Cycle 1)

Eighty percent of participants with positive responses expressed improvement in their autonomy (Participants 44, 50, et al., Cycle 1). They became more active in thinking, learning English words, preparing for English tasks, and speaking in English. Two students (Participants 1 and 54, et al., Cycle 1) appreciated the activity of listing their learning goals, noting that the written goals guided their English learning behavior.

In contrast, the two students who regarded the classroom activities as ineffective attributed their lack of motivation to their own problems, stating that they did not work hard, spent little time on English, or failed to find more time for English. One student (Participant 27, Cycle 1) explained that he needed a more direct method to improve his English proficiency. Notably, both students with positive views and those with negative

views demonstrated introspection regarding their English learning, reflecting an awareness of the importance of taking action, as shown in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10: Elaborated Results of Open-Ended Questions of Questionnaire Survey QEFC

Themes	Sub-theme	No.	Reasons	E (N = 46)	%	NE (N = 2)	%
Stronger Motivation	Affective-motivational	1	Enthusiasm	1	31%		
		2	Interest Aroused	7			
		3	To like English Class More	1			
		4	To Like English More	1			
	Confidence-related	5	More Confidence in Learning English Well	1			
		6	More Confidence in Working Harder	4			
More Autonomy	Active engagement	7	Active Thinking	1	8%	2	4%
		8	Active Expressing	1			
		9	Active Learning English Words	1			
		10	Active Preparation for Tasks	1			
Fear of Failure	External regulation	11	Supervision	1	2%		
Raise in Awareness	Metacognitive	12	Awareness of the Importance of English	3	31%		
		13	More Knowledge about Peers	2			
		14	More Knowledge about Myself	5			
		15	Clearer Goals	5			
Improvement in English	Skills and outcomes	16	Improvement in Spoken English	7	44%		
		17	Improvement in Teamwork	1			
		18	More Skills of English	1			
		19	Improved in learning Efficiency	1			

		20	Enlarged Vocabulary	4			
		21	Higher Grades	2			
		22	More Acquisition	1			
		23	Improved English Proficiency	1			
		24	Better at Grammar	1			
		25	Gain in Cultural Knowledge	1			
		26	Being Helpful for Exams	1			
Methods	Learning strategies		Feasible and Direct				
		27	Ways to Improve English	1	2%	1	2%

Note: E = effective; NE = not effective

6.2.2 Students' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Strategies to Develop IES in Cycle 2

Following the same approach as in the first cycle, students' perceptions of the effectiveness of the adapted motivational strategies implemented in the second cycle were examined. Results from Part II of the Questionnaire at the End of the Second Cycle (QESC) showed that students remained generally positive about the effectiveness of the 19 activities designed to develop the IES based on L2MSS, with an overall mean of 3.86 (SD = 0.95). To enable a focused analysis and facilitate comparison with the first cycle, the five highest-rated and five lowest-rated activities were again selected based on their mean scores.

As shown in Table 6.11, the top five activities (A10, 9, 8, 14, and 12) had mean scores ranging from 3.99 to 4.12, all above the overall mean of 3.86. In contrast, the five lowest-rated activities (A3, 11, 13, 7, and 1) had mean scores ranging from 3.61 to 3.73, falling below the overall mean. Notably, A3 and 11 received the lowest ratings ($M = 3.61$ each), while A10 remained the highest-rated ($M = 4.12$), consistent with its top ranking in the first cycle. This selection enabled a targeted comparison between high-impact and low-impact strategies, providing empirical grounding for further refinements in the subsequent cycle.

Table 6.11: Descriptive Statistics: Student Ratings of L2MSS Activities' Effectiveness (Post-Cycle 2, N = 90)

Activity	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Rank
1 Find Alternatives	3.73	0.99	1.00	5.00	15
2 Write IES	3.83	0.96	1.00	5.00	13
3 Check Others' IES	3.61	0.90	1.00	5.00	18
4 Check Own IES	3.87	0.88	1.00	5.00	11
5 Rewrite Vision	3.89	0.98	1.00	5.00	7
6 Predict Failure	3.88	0.97	1.00	5.00	10
7 Analyze Others' Obstacles	3.71	0.97	1.00	5.00	16
8 Identify Self-Barriers	4.04	0.73	2.00	5.00	3
9 Face Self-Barriers	4.06	0.77	2.00	5.00	2
10 Overcome Self-Barriers	4.12	0.78	2.00	5.00	1
11 Fairy Tale	3.61	1.04	1.00	5.00	18
12 Peer Sharing	3.99	0.92	2.00	5.00	5
13 English Salon	3.64	1.32	0.00	5.00	17
14 List Goals	4.02	0.85	2.00	5.00	4
15 Compare Goals	3.89	0.89	2.00	5.00	7
16 Overview Goals	3.97	0.87	2.00	5.00	6
17 Break Down Goals	3.89	0.93	2.00	5.00	7
18 Task List	3.87	0.99	1.00	5.00	11
19 Learning Contract	3.78	1.03	1.00	5.00	14
Total	3.86	0.95	0.00	5.00	

Note: Scale: 1 = absolutely ineffective; 2 = not very effective; 3 = not certain; 4 = effective; 5 = absolutely effective

An ANOVA was conducted to examine the differences between the top-rated and bottom-rated activities. The test of homogeneity of variances indicated that equal variances could not be assumed ($p < .05$), as shown in Table 6.12. Therefore, Tamhane's T2 was used for the post hoc analysis.

Table 6.12: Results of Test of Homogeneity of Variances for Activities in Cycle 2

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	p
5.953	9	890	.000

Results of ANOVA (Table 6.13) showed a statistically significant difference between various activities ($F = 4.38$, $p < 0.001$).

Table 6.13: Results of ANOVA for the Activities in Cycle 2

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Between Groups	(Combined)	34.80	9.00	3.87	4.38	0.00
	Linear Contrast Term	3.92	1.00	3.92	4.44	0.04
	Deviation	30.88	8.00	3.86	4.37	0.00
Within Groups		786.54	890.00	0.88		
Total		821.35	899.00			

Post hoc comparisons were conducted to examine differences between the top-rated and bottom-rated activities. As summarized in Table 6.14 (see Appendix X) for complete results, no significant differences were found among the five top-rated activities ($p > .05$) or among the five bottom-rated activities ($p > .05$). However, significant differences were observed between the two groups: A10 was rated significantly higher than A3 ($p < .01$) and A11 ($p < .05$), and A8 and 9 were both rated significantly higher than A3 ($p < .05$ for both comparisons).

Table 6.14: Summary of Multiple Comparisons: Top-rated vs. Bottom-rated Activities (Cycle 2)

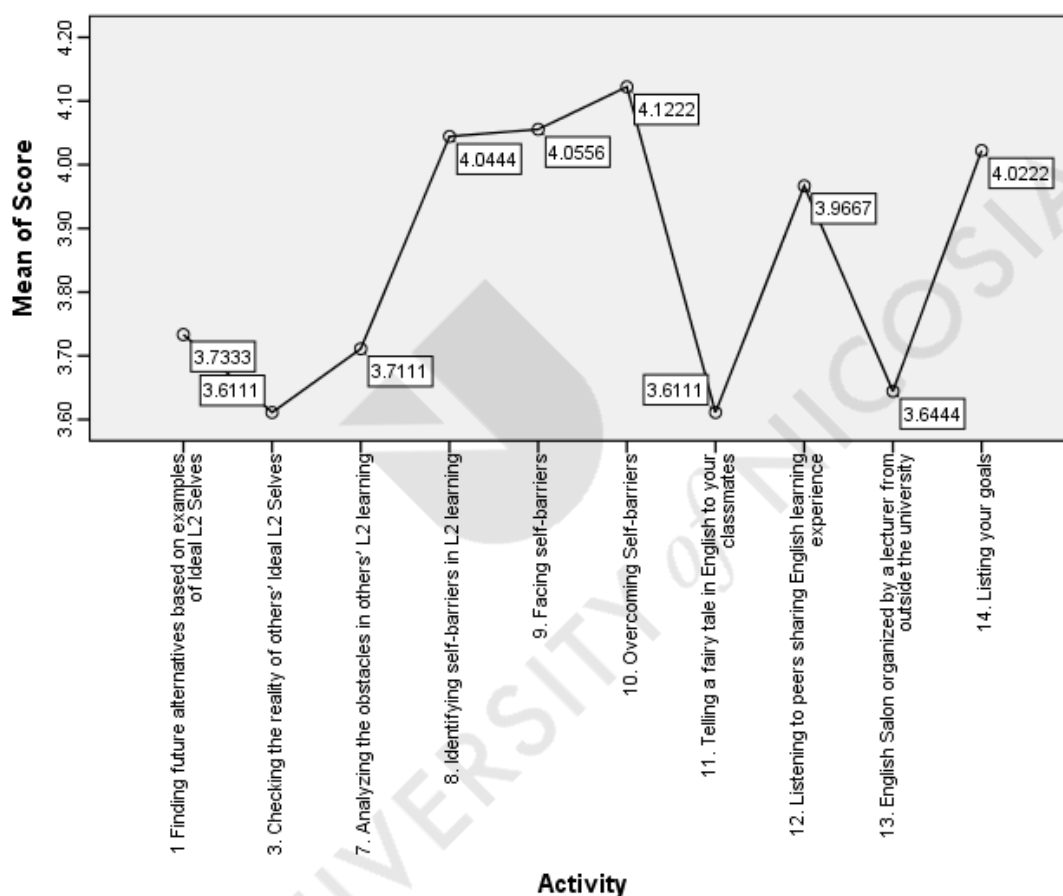
Comparison	Significant Differences
Among top-rated activities (A8, A9, A10, A12, A14)	No significant differences ($p > .05$)
Among bottom-rated activities (A1, A3, A7, A11, A13)	No significant differences ($p > .05$)
Between top-rated and bottom-rated activities	A10 > A3 ($p < .01$), A10 > A11 ($p < .05$), A8 > A3 ($p < .05$), A9 > A3 ($p < .05$)

Note: Complete post hoc results are presented in Appendix X.

The five highest-rated and five lowest-rated activities from Cycle 2 were extracted and are presented in Figure 6.5. Among the 19 activities implemented in this cycle, the top

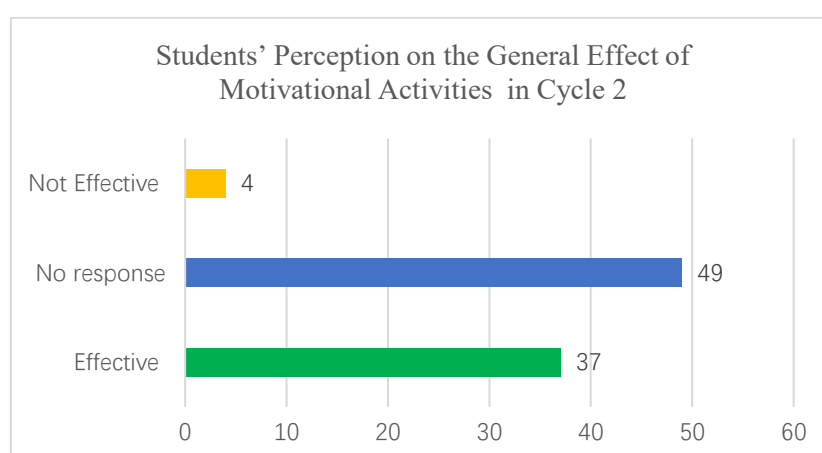
three most encouraging activities were A10 (Overcoming self-barriers; $M = 4.12$), A9 (Facing self-barriers; $M = 4.06$), and A8 (Identifying self-barriers in others' IES; $M = 4.04$). In contrast, the lowest-rated activities were A3 (Checking the reality of others' IES; $M = 3.61$) and A11 (Telling a fairy tale in English to your classmates; $M = 3.61$), which were rated significantly lower than the top three activities, as illustrated in Figure 6.5.

Figure 6.5: Most Effective and Least Effective Activities in Students' Perceptions at the End of Cycle 2



Responses to the open-ended questions in the Questionnaire at the End of the Second Cycle (QESC) revealed that over 54% of participants did not respond to whether the 19 motivational activities were effective. Among the 46% who provided a response, 90% reported positive perceptions, while the remaining 10% expressed negative views. with the overall response distribution illustrated in Figure 6.6.

Figure 6.6: Results of Open-ended Questions in QEFC



Contrastively, responses to the open-ended questions revealed that 58% of the participants reported that the motivational strategies helped improve their English. They explained that several activities encouraged them to speak in English. In particular, the fairy tale storytelling activity allowed them to practice spoken English in public and helped them overcome stage fear (Participants 31, 33, Cycle 2). Other factors were also credited. Listing goals (A14) was noted as helpful for improving English proficiency (Participants 65, 62, et al., Cycle 2). The English salon (A13), organized by a lecturer from outside the university, was reported to promote social and communication skills in English (Participants 42, 33, Cycle 2).

In addition, 44% of the respondents expressed that their motivation to learn English became stronger. They attributed this increase to the pre-class speeches, a tolerant classroom atmosphere, and a humorous teacher, which contributed to greater enthusiasm and made English learning feel easier (Participant 55, Cycle 2).

Furthermore, 28% of the respondents indicated improvement in learning autonomy, reporting that they became more self-disciplined and able to adhere to their timelines toward their ideal English selves (Participant 10, Cycle 2). Another 23% wrote that they gained broader knowledge of English in various aspects and developed clearer learning goals (Participants 88, 86, Cycle 2). Additionally, 6% emphasized that they acquired more feasible learning methods, particularly in overcoming their weaknesses. As Participant 89 (Cycle 2) noted, listening to peers with greater success in English learning (A12) made them realize the importance of vocabulary retention. Others added that learning English involved more than memorizing words (Participants 75, 88, Cycle 2).

On the other hand, 10% of the respondents maintained that the strategies used were not effective in providing motivational influence. Some stated that English was not and would not be helpful in their lives (Participant 82, Cycle 2), while others believed that all efforts should be directed toward passing the NPÉE, making other factors secondary (Participant 19, Cycle 2). One student expressed feeling demotivated by the slow flow of information during instruction, though the participant still held a positive view of the strategies adopted (Participant 55, Cycle 2). A summary of these findings is presented in Table 6.15.

Table 6.15: Elaborated Results of Open-ended Questions of Questionnaire Survey QESC

Theme	Sub-theme	No.	Reason	E (N = 37)	%	NE (N = 4)	%
Stronger Motivation	Affective-motivational	1	Stronger desire to learn	2		1	
		2	Easier learning	1			
		3	Motivation sustained	1			
		4	Enthusiasm	1			
		5	Like English teacher	1			
		6	Interest Aroused	3		1	
		7	To like English Class More	2		1	
	Confidence-related	8	To Like English More	2	44%		6%
		9	More willing to read	1			
		10	More courage to communicate in English with others	1			
		11	Confidence in Learning English Well	2			
		12	Confidence in Working Harder	1			
More Autonomy	Active engagement	13	Challenging watching English	1	28%		

			movies without subtitles				
		14	Active learning	5			
		15	Active Learning English Words	3			
		16	Enhancing self-discipline / stick to timeline	3			
	Metacognitive		More knowledge about English as a subject	1			
		19	Awareness of the Importance of English	1	23%	5%	
Raise in Awareness		20	Clearer Goals	7	2		
		21	More Knowledge about Peers	1			
	Skills and outcomes		Improvement in Spoken English communication skills	4			
		25	Enlarged Vocabulary/ knowledge	1			
		26	Improved English Proficiency	2			
		27	Improved English sentence analysis	4			
		28	Better at Grammar	2			
Improvement in English		29	Gain in Cultural Knowledge	1	51%		
		30	Passing CET-4 & 6	1			
		31	More Acquisition beyond textbooks	1			
		32	reading comprehension	3			
		33	Being Helpful for Exams	1			
	Learning strategies		More than just memorizing words	1	6%		
Methods		36					

37	Importance of memorizing words	1
38	Arranging time reasonably/ Reasonable arrangement for English learning	1

Note: E = effective; NE = not effective

6.2.3 Students' Perceptions of the Strategies to Develop IES in Cycle 3

To address RQ3, students' perceptions of the motivational activities implemented in the third cycle were examined using the Questionnaire at the End of the Third Cycle (QETC). Results showed that students generally perceived the six activities as effective, with an overall mean of 3.85 (SD = 0.94). As presented in Table 6.16, the highest-rated activity was A1 (M = 4.27, SD = 0.85), followed by A4 (M = 3.96, SD = 0.90), A5 (M = 3.87, SD = 1.00), A3 (M = 3.84, SD = 0.82), A2 (M = 3.63, SD = 1.00), and A6 (M = 3.51, SD = 1.05).

Table 6.16: Descriptive Statistics: Student Ratings of L2MSS Activities' Effectiveness (Post-Cycle 3, N = 90)

Activity	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Rank
A1 Movie Discussion	4.27	0.85	1	5	1
A2 English Competitions	3.63	1	1	5	5
A3 Reflective Activity	3.84	0.82	2	5	4
A4 Break Down Goals	3.96	0.9	2	5	2
A5 Task List	3.87	1	1	5	3
A6 Learning Contract	3.51	1.05	1	5	6
Total	3.85	0.94	1	5	

Note: Scale: 1 = absolutely ineffective; 2 = not very effective; 3 = not certain; 4 = effective; 5 = absolutely effective

To examine differences in students' perceptions of the effectiveness of the six activities, a one-way ANOVA was conducted with activity ratings as the dependent variable and activity type as the factor. A test of homogeneity of variances indicated that equal variances could not be assumed ($p < .001$), as shown in Table 6.17. Therefore, Tamhane's T2 was used for post hoc comparisons.

Table 6.17: Results of Test of Homogeneity of Variances for Activities in Cycle 3

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	p
3.76	5.00	534.00	0.00

The one-way ANOVA revealed a significant difference among the six activities, $F(5, 534) = 7.08, p < .001$ (see Table 6.18).

Table 6.18 Results of ANOVA for the Activities in Cycle 3

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Between Groups	(Combined)	31.209	5	6.242	7.076	0
	Linear Contrast	11.316	1	11.316	12.828	0
	Term Deviation	19.894	4	4.973	5.638	0
Within Groups		471.033	534	0.882		
Total		502.243	539			

Multiple comparisons revealed that A1 received significantly higher ratings than A2, 3, and 6, and A4 was rated significantly higher than A6 (see Table 6.19). The corresponding mean differences and p values were as follows: A1–A2 (MD = 0.63, $p < .001$), A1–A3 (MD = 0.42, $p < .05$), A1–A6 (MD = 0.76, $p < .001$), and A4–A6 (MD = 0.44, $p < .05$).

Table 6.19: Multiple Comparison of the Effectiveness of Activities at the End of Cycle 3

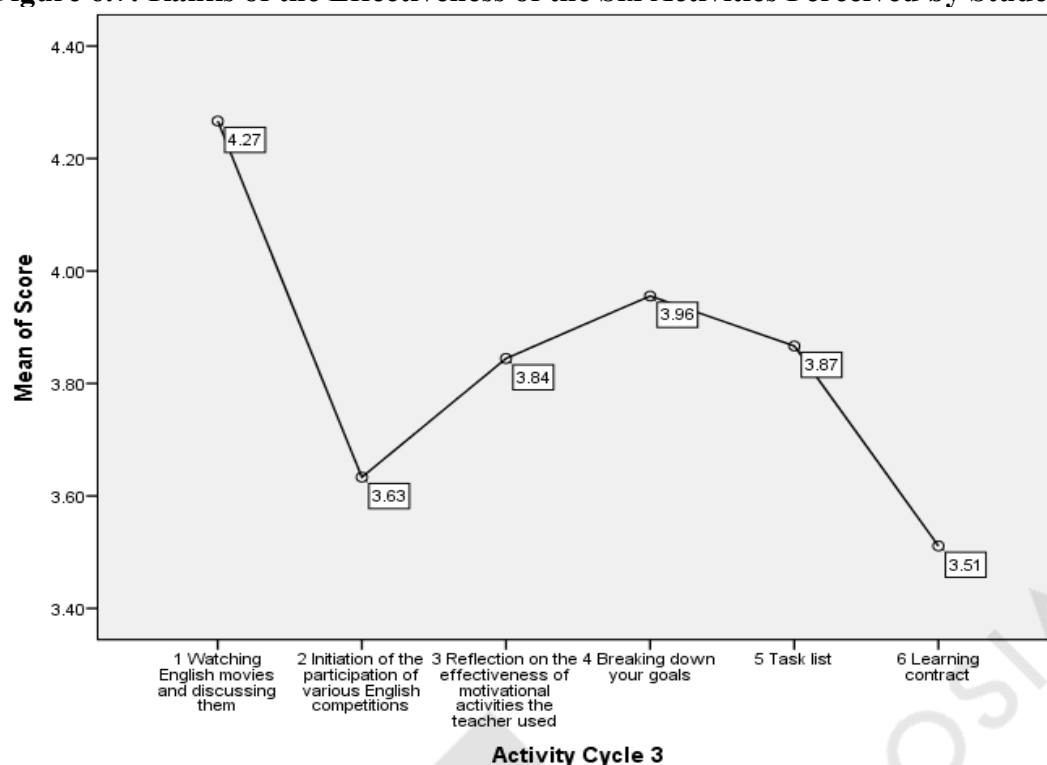
(I) Activity (J)Activity		Mean Difference (I–J)	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
Tamhane					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1 Movie Discussion	2 English Competitions	.63*	0.14	0	0.22	1.04
	3 Reflective Activity	.42*	0.12	0.01	0.05	0.79
	4 Break Down Goals	0.31	0.13	0.24	–.07	0.7
	5 Task List	0.4	0.14	0.06	–.01	0.81
	6 Learning Contract	.76*	0.14	0	0.33	1.18
2 English Competitions	1 Movie Discussion	–.63*	0.14	0	–1.04	–.22
	3 Reflective Activity	–.21	0.14	0.86	–.62	0.19
	4 Break Down Goals	–.32	0.14	0.31	–.74	0.1
	5 Task List	–.23	0.15	0.85	–.67	0.21
	6 Learning Contract	0.12	0.15	1	–.33	0.58
	1 Movie Discussion	–.42*	0.12	0.01	–.79	–.05

3 Reflective Activity	2 English Competitions	0.21	0.14	0.86	-.19	0.62
	4 Break Down Goals	-.11	0.13	1	-.49	0.27
	5 Task List	-.02	0.14	1	-.43	0.38
	6 Learning Contract	0.33	0.14	0.25	-.08	0.75
4 Break Down Goals	1 Movie Discussion	-.31	0.13	0.24	-.70	0.07
	2 English Competitions	0.32	0.14	0.31	-.10	0.74
	3 Reflective Activity	0.11	0.13	1	-.27	0.49
	5 Task List	0.09	0.14	1	-.33	0.51
	6 Learning Contract	.44*	0.15	0.04	0.01	0.88
5 Task List	1 Movie Discussion	-.40	0.14	0.06	-.81	0.01
	2 English Competitions	0.23	0.15	0.85	-.21	0.67
	3 Reflective Activity	0.02	0.14	1	-.38	0.43
	4 Break Down Goals	-.09	0.14	1	-.51	0.33
	6 Learning Contract	0.36	0.15	0.27	-.10	0.81
6 Learning Contract	1 Movie Discussion	-.76*	0.14	0	-1.18	-.33
	2 English Competitions	-.12	0.15	1	-.58	0.33
	3 Reflective Activity	-.33	0.14	0.25	-.75	0.08
	4 Break Down Goals	-.44*	0.15	0.04	-.88	-.01
	5 Task List	-.36	0.15	0.27	-.81	0.1

Note: * $p < .05$

The student-derived rankings for the six activities in Cycle 3 are presented in Figure 6.7. As shown, A1 (Watching English movies and discussing them) was rated as the most motivating ($M = 4.27$), followed by A4 (Breaking down your goals; $M = 3.96$), which was slightly higher than A5 (Task list; $M = 3.87$). A3 (Reflection on the effectiveness of motivational activities used by the teacher) ranked in the middle ($M = 3.84$), while the lowest-rated activities were A2 (Initiation of the participation of various English competitions; $M = 3.63$) and A6 (Learning contract; $M = 3.51$). The overall ranking order was $A1 > A4 > A5 > A3 > A2 > A6$. The one-way ANOVA further indicated that students held generally positive perceptions of the activities' effectiveness overall.

Figure 6.7: Ranks of the Effectiveness of the Six Activities Perceived by Students



Open-ended questions were included in the Cycle 1 and Cycle 2 questionnaires to capture students' elaborated perceptions of the motivational activities. Given the declining response rates and the consistent patterns observed across the first two cycles, the open-ended question was omitted from the Cycle 3 questionnaire to minimise respondent burden. In Cycle 1, 46 out of 90 participants (51%) responded, with over 96% expressing positive views. In Cycle 2, the response rate decreased to 46% (37 participants), of whom 90% reported positive perceptions.

6.3 Results Immediate Students' Perceptions of Effectiveness of Strategies to Develop IES

6.3.1 Immediate Students' Perceptions of Effectiveness of Strategies to Develop IES in Cycle 1

To obtain immediate feedback on students' evaluations of the classroom activities, learning journals were collected after each instructional session during the first cycle of teaching intervention. Participants rated a total of 140 classroom activities, from which 17 core motivational activities to develop IES were subsequently identified and analyzed (see Table 6.20). Among these, "Counterbalancing the vision" and

“Enhancing the vision” were highlighted. Activity 8 (Identifying self-barriers) received a notably high score ($M = 5.00$), followed by Activity 10 (Overcoming self-barriers; $M = 4.60$) and Activity 1 (Introducing the IES; $M = 4.53$), emphasizing practical planning and self-reflection as effective motivators. A typical journal entry illustrated how one student was motivated:

I used to reckon English boring, but I’ve found it interesting since I found some ways to do it. For instance, you can imagine watching English movies without subtitle when your English is good enough. Or when you can communicate with foreigners fluently when you travel abroad. We should not only see the bright future when we learn English well, but also pay attention to some difficulties in the learning process. In other words, we will face the barriers in learning and we have to overcome it. For example, we often want to take out our phone to play, so much so we stop learning. But I think I have an excellent idea for it. That is, we can ask our friends to remind us. I think this has significant effect. Another difficulty is that we often feel unmotivated. I think that’s because we are blind in surfing. Therefore, we need to visualize our goals. We should write our goals down on the paper and put it on the wall. (Student P, Journal, Cycle 1)

Table 6.20: Mean Ratings of Motivational Activities (Cycle 1 Journals)

Phase	Activity	Mean
1) Creating the vision	1) Finding future alternatives based on examples of different ideal English selves	4.39
	2) Writing your own ideal English selves	4
2) Substantiating the vision	3) Checking the reality of others’ ideal English selves	4
	4) Checking the reality of your ideal English selves	4.2
	5) Rewriting your own vision	4
3) Counterbalancing the vision	6) Predicting the consequences of failures	4
	7) Analyzing the obstacles in others’ English learning	4.33
	8) Identifying self-barriers in English learning	5
	9) Facing self-barriers (Writing a short play on the fight between positive-self and negative-self)	4.17
	10) Overcoming self-barriers (discuss strategies to overcome self-barriers)	4.6
4) Enhancing the vision	11) Introducing your IES	4.53
	12) Listing your goals	4.33

5) From vision to goals	13) Comparison between your personal goals and the syllabus	4.33
	14) Overview of your goals	4
	15) Breaking down your goals	4
6) from goals to plan	16) Task list	4
	17) Learning contract	4.33
Overall		4.26

Note: Scale: 1 = absolutely ineffective; 2: not very effective; 3 = not certain; 4 = effective; 5 = absolutely effective

6.3.2 Immediate Students' Perceptions of Effectiveness of Strategies to Develop IES in Cycle 2

Students' evaluations of classroom activities were collected weekly in the second teaching intervention cycle through learning journals to ensure timely feedback. During the teaching experiment, participants rated 165 specific teaching activities, including the 19 motivational strategies to develop IES based on L2MSS.

Generally, students reported high motivation levels for activities related to vision building and goal setting, with an overall mean of 4.33 (see Table 6.21). The top-rated strategies included A2 (Writing your own ideal English selves; $M = 4.53$), A5 (Rewriting your own vision; $M = 4.50$), and A8 (Identifying self-barriers in English learning; $M = 4.50$), highlighting the importance of personal relevance. Peer-based activities also received high ratings, such as A12 (Listening to peers sharing English learning experiences; $M = 4.50$), A13 (English Salon; $M = 4.50$), and A11 (Telling a fairy tale in English to your classmates; $M = 4.36$), reflecting the value of social motivation. In contrast, lower ratings were observed for more abstract or performative tasks, including A6 (Predicting the consequences of failures; $M = 3.50$) and A9 (Facing self-barriers through a short play; $M = 3.33$), suggesting a preference for concrete and collaborative approaches. The high ratings of those 19 activities supported the effectiveness of the motivational design.

A typical journal entry illustrated how one student perceived the motivational strategies:

There must be various difficulties and various barriers in the beginning of study, we should have the determination to overcome them. In spare time, we can watch English movies, sing English songs and learn pure expressions. What's more, more communication is the key to learn a foreign language well. The English corner is a very wonderful land for us to practice. Finally, to learn

English as hobby, rather than a task, from the heart to accept it. (Student H, Journal, Cycle 2)

Table 6.21: Mean Ratings of Motivational Activities (Cycle 2 Journals)

Phase	Activity	Mean
1) Creating the vision	1) Finding future alternatives based on examples of different ideal English selves	4.25
	2) Writing your own ideal English selves	4.53
2) Substantiating the vision	3) Checking the reality of others' ideal English selves	4.33
	4) Checking the reality of your ideal English selves	4.33
	5) Rewriting your own vision	4.5
3) Counterbalancing the vision	6) Predicting the consequences of failures	3.5
	7) Analyzing the obstacles in others' English learning	4.33
	8) Identifying self-barriers in English learning	4.5
	9) Facing self-barriers (Writing a short play on the fight between positive-self and negative-self)	3.33
	10) Overcoming self-barriers (discuss strategies to overcome self-barriers)	4.33
4) Enhancing the vision	11) Telling a fairy tale in English to your classmates	4.36
	12) Listening to peers (more successful in English learning) sharing English learning experiences	4.5
	13) English Salon organized by a lecturer from outside the university (for participants only)	4.5
5) From vision to goals	14) Listing your goals	4.33
	15) Comparison between your personal goals and the syllabus	4
	16) Overview of your goals	4
	17) Breaking down your goals	4.33
6) From goals to plan	18) Task list	4
	19) Learning contract	4.33
Overall		4.33

Note: Scale: 1 = absolutely ineffective; 2: not very effective; 3 = not certain; 4 = effective; 5 = absolutely effective

6.3.3 Immediate Students' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of the Strategies to Develop IES in Cycle 3

To obtain ongoing feedback on students' evaluations of the classroom activities, learning journals were collected weekly throughout the third cycle. As in previous cycles, the journals included structured tasks and questionnaires through which students rated the activities they recognized, without being directed to assess specific ones to

develop IES in order to minimize observer bias. A total of 119 teaching activities were recorded, from which six key motivational strategies were selected for analysis.

Student ratings on a 5-point Likert scale indicated consistently positive perceptions across all six strategies, with an overall mean of 4.36. The highest-rated activity was A1 (Watching English movies and discussing them; $M = 4.48$), followed closely by A2 (Initiation of the participation of various English competitions; $M = 4.36$) and A6 (Learning contract; $M = 4.36$). The strong ratings for A1 and A2 reflect a preference for engaging and participatory formats, while the high rating for A6 indicates the value students placed on structured self-regulation tools. Structured approaches such as A4 (Breaking down your goals; $M = 4.33$) and A5 (Task list; $M = 4.33$) also received high ratings, highlighting the perceived value of clear organizational frameworks. Although A3 (Reflection on the effectiveness of motivational activities used by the teacher) received a slightly lower mean score ($M = 4.31$), its strong performance still supports its role in fostering metacognitive awareness.

These quantitative outcomes were further supported by qualitative evidence from student journals, as illustrated in the following reflective entry from Student Z:

Among those tactics, I think writing down the vision, checking the vision; facing the barriers in English learning, film appreciation and English presentation better motivated me to learn English well. Because writing down vision could help me clear and definite goals. Film appreciation and English presentation could let me experience English and bring me happiness, let me want to learn English more. I agree that “breaking down your goals” couldn’t motivate me, because I think that it got messy and I don’t like to get messy. (Student Z, Journal, Cycle 3)

Another student held a nuanced view, while similarly emphasizing the motivational value of English movie viewing:

What stimulates my motivation are practical strategies like watching films, giving English presentations, breaking down goals, and making learning plans. These methods are effective because, compared to abstract ideals, they are more realistic and aligned with daily life. For instance, sharing a goal with a friend provides encouragement, and breaking goals into smaller steps makes them feel

more achievable. Finally, having a plan helps prevent last-minute disorganization. In contrast, writing down visions, reviewing them, and confronting barriers in English learning are less motivating to me because focusing on a distant and idealized future feels illusory. I believe it is more important to concentrate on the present. While people's dreams and futures often sound beautiful and lofty, the reality is often harsh. An overly optimistic vision of the future only brings pressure, especially since I am still uncertain about my future plans. (Student Y, Journal, Cycle 3)

The average ratings for all six activities are presented in Table 6.22.

Table 6.22: Mean Ratings for Motivational Activities from Cycle 3 Journals

Phase	Activity	Mean
Keeping the vision alive	1) Watching English movies and discussing them	4.48
	2) Initiation of the participation of various English competitions	4.36
	3) Reflection on the effectiveness of motivational activities used by the teacher	4.31
2) From vision to goals and to plan	4) Breaking down your goals	4.33
	5) Task list	4.33
	6) Learning contract	4.36
Overall		4.36

Note: Scale: 1 = absolutely ineffective; 2: not very effective; 3 = not certain; 4 = effective; 5 = absolutely effective

6.4 Results of Students' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Strategies to Develop IES from Interviews

6.4.1 Students' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Strategies to Develop IES from First-cycle Interviews

Based on the thematic framework outlined in Table 3.9, qualitative analysis of interview transcripts from the first cycle yielded findings organized around three main themes: overall motivational state and changes, perceptions of motivational strategies, and implementation of strategies in the learning context.

The first theme focused on overall motivational state and changes, which provided essential contextual background for addressing RQ3. Regarding motivational

orientations, 78% of participants identified instrumental motivations tied to institutional requirements, with characteristic statements such as “Learning English is important because English proficiency is a prerequisite for graduation and further study” (IA, Q2, C1) and “I have no choice but to learn it because of all the examinations before I can get my degree” (IB, Q2, C1). When asked about immediate learning objectives, 22% of participants directly linked their motivation to upcoming assessments, citing “my final exam” (IA, Q6, C1) and “NPEE” (IB, Q6, C1) as their current goals.

Analysis of motivational evolution revealed two significant patterns. First, participants reported examination-contingent fluctuations, exemplified by one student’s recollection: “I was strongly motivated in learning in the past because of the Upgrading Test for Three-Year College Students” (IA, Q13, C1). Second, post-intervention shifts included measurable progress in self-efficacy, with 22% of interviewees reporting enhanced confidence, as captured in statements like “My English was poor but now I have made some progress” (IC, Q8, C1) and “I have gained more knowledge about English course in recent months” (IB, Q8, C1). Notably, 11% described expanded future self-concepts, with one participant contrasting their previous limitations: “I don’t dare to think so big” (IA, Q14, C1).

The second theme addressed perceptions of motivational strategies (RQ3). Participant evaluations of the motivational activities yielded several key insights. Vision-building activities strengthened IES representations, transforming previously examination-focused perspectives into more nuanced visions, as articulated by one student: “Future English self never occurred to me before. English can be so heavily involved in my future life. It can be used in conversations, in academic domain...” (IB, Q15, C1). Some participants demonstrated internalized motivation frameworks, exemplified by the assertion: “External factors cannot promote nor hinder my motivation. Interest is mine. I would be more engaged in learning English when I am interested” (IC, Q16, C1). However, while recognizing the potential of visualization techniques, some students requested clearer implementation guidance, typified by the comment: “I wondered what is the point of writing down my future IES? I was at loss. Relevant knowledge of the whole vision program was not adequately explained” (IA, Q16, C1).

The third theme examined implementation of motivational strategies and learning context (RQ4). Regarding the learning context, 11% of participants noted the port city

advantage in Ningbo (Q4), while 22% expressed envy toward English-speaking communities (Q11). In terms of learning tools, 33% reported using mobile apps, 22% relied on study buddies, and 22% acknowledged the helpfulness of the Internet (QQ platform) for accessing assignments and learning materials (Q25, Q26). When asked about instructional preferences, 22% favored face-to-face classes for physical closeness and easier supervision, while another 22% preferred online lectures for their flexibility and the ability to revisit content (Q27). Additionally, 22% of participants viewed the National English Test Band 4 and 6 as reasonable (Q18), and 11% identified the teacher or classmates as influential figures in their learning (Q23). A summary of interview findings is presented in Table 6.23, and detailed responses by question are provided in Appendix Y.

Table 6.23: Summary of Key Interview Findings (Cycle 1)

Theme	Sub-theme	Key Findings
Overall Motivational State and Changes	Motivational Orientations	78% instrumental (graduation, further study); 22% immediate exam goals
	Motivation	Examination-contingent patterns
	Fluctuation	
	Self-Efficacy and Confidence	22% enhanced confidence; 11% expanded future self-concepts
Perceptions of Motivational Strategies	Vision-Building Activities	Strengthened IES; transformed exam-focused perspectives
	Implementation Challenges	Requests for clearer guidance
Implementation and Learning Context	Learning Tools and Resources	33% mobile apps; 22% study buddies; 22% Internet (QQ platform)
	Instructional Preferences	Mixed preferences: 22% face-to-face; 22% online; 22% viewed national English tests as reasonable
	Influential Figures	11% identified teacher/classmates

6.4.2 Students' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Strategies to Develop IES from Second-cycle Interviews

Qualitative analysis of interview transcripts from the second cycle yielded findings organized also around three main themes: overall motivational state and changes,

perceptions of motivational strategies, and implementation of strategies in the learning context.

The first theme focused on overall motivational state and changes, which provided essential contextual background for addressing RQ3. Regarding motivational orientations, 22% of participants acknowledged instrumental motivations tied to institutional requirements, citing English as a compulsory requirement: "...the examinations required to get my degree and NPEE" (IA, Q2, C2). Another 11% expressed an integrative orientation, stating that being able to speak English is a valuable skill and that "skills are never too many to us" (IB, Q2, C2). When asked about their goals, 22% cited passing various English exams, 11% mentioned the ability to use English in workplaces, and 11% referred to communicating proficiently in English. In response to Question 7 regarding long-term goals, 11% of answers given were "using English in workplaces" (IA, Q6, C2). Overall, while most students studied English for instrumental purposes (e.g., exams), a notable subset exhibited integrative motivational orientations.

Regarding changes in motivational state, 11% indicated that exams were the major factor influencing their motivation, with one student reporting, "I was stressed this semester because I had to face the final spoken English test" (IC, Q2, C1). When asked about past motivation (Q13), 11% stated they had been strongly motivated by the Upgrading Test for Three-Year College Students prior to the semester. Regarding enjoyment of English learning, 11% expressed liking it, while 33% expressed dislike, particularly due to difficulties in memorizing new words, grammar, and a poor foundational knowledge. Self-perception of English proficiency reflected their motivational state: 22% described their English as just-so-so, able to speak a little when necessary. Regarding ideal selves, 11% mentioned having thought about it when young but now held more realistic expectations, while another 11% expressed having envisioned studying at a good university and were working hard toward that goal.

When asked about progress (Q17), 22% reported experiencing setbacks, such as delayed feedback from teachers, negative feedback, or lack of punishment for rule violations. In response to Q14 ("Has your image or dream of yourself using English changed?"), 11% gave a negative response. When asked about pleasant memories (Q21), 11% mentioned group presentations and 11% cited film screenings. These

results indicate that despite encountering difficulties, students maintained an overall optimistic perception of their motivation.

The second theme addressed perceptions of motivational strategies (RQ3). Students' responses regarding the effectiveness of the motivational activities provided direct insight into RQ3. Eleven percent agreed that the activities were effective, with one student noting, "Speaking in public activities that everyone had to do in turns gave me pressure which was transformed into motivation" (IA, Q15, C2). In contrast, 11% showed passivity in their learning plans, with one student remarking that they had initially set a goal but later neglected it (IA, Q20, C2). When asked about difficulties in completing tasks (Q16), 22% reported finding it challenging, with comments including "The task was with too many new words" (IA, Q16, C2) and "I have been too busy for exams of other courses" (IB, Q16, C2).

The third theme examined implementation of motivational strategies and learning context (RQ4). Suggestions for implementation emerged from student responses. Eleven percent proposed that teachers provide more instruction and explanations of new vocabulary (Q16). Regarding influential figures (Q23), 11% cited their teacher and another 11% cited classmates who spoke fluent English as the most influential.

Additional insights for RQ4 emerged from other questions. Regarding learning tools (Q25), 33% reported using various electronic tools or apps for assistance, while other strategies included listening to songs (11%), using desserts as self-rewards (11%), engaging through electronic games (11%), periodic reporting to a team leader (11%), and using an electronic dictionary (11%). Mixed methods were employed to support English learning. Regarding the Internet as a blended teaching platform (Q26), 22% reported it was helpful for accessibility to teachers, work presentations, and notices. When asked about instructional mode preferences (Q27), 11% favored face-to-face classes for being direct and vivid, while 11% preferred online classes for being recordable.

A summary of interview findings is presented in Table 6.24, with detailed responses by question available in Appendix Y.

Table 6. 24: Summary of Key Interview Findings (Cycle 2)

Theme	Sub-theme	Key Findings
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Overall Motivational State and Changes	Motivational Orientations	22% instrumental; 11% integrative
	Motivation	Motivation influenced by exams; 33% disliked English (vocabulary, grammar)
	Fluctuation	22% “just-so-so”; 22% setbacks
Perceptions of Motivational Strategies	Self-Efficacy and Confidence	
	Vision-Building Activities	11% found effective (public speaking as pressure-to-motivation)
Implementation and Learning Context	Implementation Challenges	22% task difficulties (new vocabulary, time constraints); 11% wanted more vocabulary instruction
	Learning Tools and Resources	33% apps; 22% online platforms helpful; varied strategies (songs, rewards, games)
	Instructional Preferences	Mixed: 11% face-to-face; 11% online
	Influential Figures	11% teacher; 11% fluent classmates

6.4.3 Students’ Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Strategies to Develop IES from Third-cycle Interviews

Qualitative analysis of interview transcripts collected from the third cycle yielded findings organized around three main themes: overall motivational state and changes, perceptions of motivational strategies, and implementation of strategies in the learning context (See Table 6.25, see Appendix Y for detailed responses by question).

The first theme focused on overall motivational state and changes, which provided essential contextual background for addressing RQ3. Regarding motivational orientations, 22% of participants acknowledged instrumental motivations tied to graduation and further study requirements. Another 22% cited passing various English tests as their main goal, while 11% were motivated by prospects of future study and life abroad. Short-term objectives were dominated by the National College English Test and final exams, each mentioned by 11% of interviewees. In response to long-term goals, 11% expressed a desire to master and use the language authentically, moving beyond instrumental purposes.

Regarding shifts in motivational intensity, results indicated some fluctuation but no significant overall change from the second cycle. As one student explained:

How much one is motivated in learning is reflected in the amount of time you spent in learning. I could work on an English book in a row of days. It is a pity

I would fail to follow my to-do-list when I got engaged by other stuff. My motivation is pretty much the same with last semester, it changes periodically...there were ups and downs. (IB, Q3, C3)

Students' interest in English served as another indicator of motivation. Specifically, 33% of interviewees expressed genuine interest in English-language culture, such as films and general knowledge. Another 33% reported that examinations were their primary driver. In contrast, 22% stated they were actively trying to develop a liking for the language. As one student noted, "Similar to the other guy, I like English, taking it as a foreign language, wanting to know more about its culture, but I dislike to take English exams, which makes me loathe English" (IE, Q1, C3). Meanwhile, 11% expressed uncertainty regarding their interest.

Motivational states often fluctuated with proximity to examinations. A representative response was: "I have stronger motivation now to memorize new words and try hard to improve my English because time is pressing for my Post-Graduate Entrance Exam. Last semester, I still had plenty of time to prepare for the exam, so I didn't work hard" (IA, Q2, C3). Additionally, 11% of students described a pattern in which motivation peaked immediately after motivational activities but gradually diminished over time (IA, Q13, C3).

Student confidence emerged as another critical facet. When self-assessing their English proficiency, 22% perceived their skills as having declined, citing reduced time for English study and self-identified barriers such as "laziness." Another 11% expressed a lack of confidence in their oral abilities, identifying as literate primarily in reading rather than speaking. Descriptions of learning difficulties included the need for "persistence" (IA, Q11, C3), feelings that English was "boring" (IB, Q11, C3), the challenge of mastering too many new words, and the difficulty in perceiving clear progress.

The second theme addressed perceptions of motivational strategies (RQ3). The specific strategies implemented in this cycle demonstrated a tangible impact on student motivation in two primary dimensions. First, the activities contributed positively to the development of students' ideal English selves (IES). Participants began to articulate more vivid future possibilities involving English, such as working in a joint venture, teaching English, or reading original English novels. Second, students exhibited an

increased tendency to establish structured plans and goals, encompassing both short-term objectives and longer-term aspirations. These goals expanded beyond exam preparation, as illustrated by one participant's outlook: "Post-Graduate Entrance Exam, Bachelor's Degree, National College English Test (Band 4 and 6), future study and life, like reading literature in English without difficulties" (IA, Q5, C3).

Regarding the effect of learning journals and goal-setting strategies, participants reported that these interventions were most effective in providing immediate and short-term motivation during or shortly after the activities. As one student metaphorically described, "It was like once you had a dream, you would stick to it and usually little could distract you from it" (IA, Q15, C3).

The third theme examined implementation of motivational strategies and learning context (RQ4). Regarding difficulties, 22% of participants expressed challenges in consistently maintaining learning journals and task lists. As IA noted, "I would write my learning journal every day at the beginning, then gradually, I seemed to have no idea about what to write" (IA, Q16, C3). Similarly, IB described the journal as burdensome (IB, Q16, C3). Unpleasant past experiences also provided relevant insights: 22% of interviewees described long and difficult sentences, writing challenges, and over-reliance on dictionaries as particularly discouraging.

Conversely, positive learning experiences offered additional clues. According to 11% of respondents, successfully applying a newly learned word to answer a reading comprehension question generated a sense of achievement. Another 11% identified roommates who performed better on exams as the most influential figures in the past two months, noting that this comparison motivated them to study harder.

Regarding learning tools and resources, 11% reported using dictionary apps, 11% watched instructional videos (particularly exam preparation lectures), and 11% viewed experience-sharing videos by bloggers on Bilibili. Additionally, 22% emphasized the importance of the online teaching platform used in the study, describing it as essential for accessing instructors, learning materials, and key announcements. In terms of instructional format, 11% preferred face-to-face teaching for its warmth and immediacy of feedback, while another 11% favored online classes for the advantage of being able to record and review sessions.

The interviews also revealed more nuanced cultural awareness. When comparing cultures, students could identify both advantages and disadvantages in each (such as individualism in Western countries and the strong family concept in China, IB, Q12, C3) while explicitly rejecting the notion of cultural superiority or inferiority (IC, Q12, C3), see Table 6.25 below.

Table 6.25: Summary of Key Interview Findings (Cycle 3)

Theme	Sub-theme	Cycle 3 Key Findings
Overall Motivational State and Changes	Motivational Orientations	22% instrumental; 33% genuine interest in culture; 33% exam-driven; 11% authentic language use; 11% future study abroad
	Motivation Fluctuation	Peaks after activities, wanes over time; fluctuates with exam proximity
	Self-Efficacy and Confidence	22% perceived decline (time constraints, laziness)
Perceptions of Motivational Strategies	Vision-Building Activities	Contributed to more vivid IES and structured goals
	Implementation Challenges	22% found journals challenging to maintain; burdensome over time
Implementation and Learning Context	Learning Tools and Resources	Dictionary apps, instructional videos, BiliBili bloggers (11% each)
	Instructional Preferences	Mixed: 11% face-to-face; 11% online
	Influential Figures	33% identified role models (classmates, friends, bloggers)

6.5 Discussion

Research Question 3 examined tertiary EFL students' perceptions of the effectiveness of strategies to develop students' IES across three cycles of teaching intervention, with each cycle informing refinements in subsequent instructional design. Students' overall motivation improved significantly after the first cycle and remained moderately positive throughout the intervention, with the strongest gains observed in linguistic self-confidence and motivation in learning English. Their perceptions of strategy effectiveness were consistently positive across cycles, with barrier-focused and vision-building activities rated highest and activities involving external models or peer experiences rated lowest. In what follows, the discussion first addresses students' perceptions after Cycle 1 and their implications for the second intervention (Section 6.2.1), followed by Cycle 2 findings and their influence on the third cycle (Section

6.2.2), and finally Cycle 3 results, which are discussed in relation to the cumulative impact of the iterative refinements (Section 6.2.3).

6.5.1 Students' Perceptions of Strategies to Develop the IES After Cycle 1

The second research objective investigated the effectiveness of motivational strategies to develop IES based on Dörnyei's (2009b) L2MSS theory. Students' perceptions of the 17 implemented strategies were generally positive across multiple data sources, with a substantial proportion of participants explicitly endorsing their effectiveness in promoting motivation.

Quantitative results from the first cycle provided a supportive backdrop for these strategy-focused findings. A paired-samples t-test confirmed a significant overall improvement in students' English learning motivation, with all five motivational components showing significant gains. The strongest effects were observed for ATC and MLE, followed by LSC and OES, while the IES showed a smaller but still significant effect. A one-way ANOVA with post hoc comparisons confirmed that the five highest-rated activities were rated significantly higher than the five lowest-rated activities, with activities focused on overcoming and facing personal barriers rated significantly more effective than those focused on checking the reality of others' ideal selves. No significant differences emerged among the top-rated activities nor among the bottom-rated ones.

Qualitative data from open-ended survey responses, learning journals, and focus group interviews corroborated and extended these quantitative patterns by revealing how students evaluated specific strategy types. Analysis revealed these activities succeeded in stimulating interest, fostering autonomy, facilitating self-awareness of learning challenges, and promoting awareness of peer learning experiences. The finding that barrier-focused activities were highly effective corresponded with Huo et al.'s (2025) observation that DMCs were triggered by factors such as role models, inspiring teachers, and emergent opportunities, and were sustained through manageable subgoals and timely feedback loops. Among the 17 activities, those centered on overcoming personal barriers received the highest ratings, followed by activities focused on introducing and strengthening the IES. By contrast, activities involving examination of others' learning

experiences received comparatively lower ratings. Specific vision-building exercises were particularly highlighted for their positive impact.

Participants in focus group interviews further elaborated on these effects, reporting increased confidence in English proficiency, which they attributed to structured conversational practice and increased language engagement time. Several interviewees described meaningful transformations in self-perception, including heightened goal orientation. The practical relevance of course activities was frequently cited as beneficial, with participants valuing the applied nature of tasks that connected to real-world communication needs and academic preparation.

These findings aligned partially with existing research on motivational pedagogy. Previous studies (Liu, 2010; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012) similarly demonstrated relationships between instructional practices and student motivation. Particularly relevant are the works of Magid and Chan (2012) and Wang and Dai (2015), whose investigations of L2MSS-based interventions in Chinese educational contexts yielded comparable results regarding self-concept enhancement, though with noted variations in motivational persistence. Magid's (2014) subsequent study further confirmed that vision-based interventions enhanced motivation and confidence, with approximately 90% of participants showing positive responses. The pattern of higher ratings for barrier-focused and vision-building activities corresponded with Sampson's (2012) findings regarding the motivational value of personal obstacle discussion versus role model examination.

In contrast, Erdil-Moody and Thompson (2020) found that strategies related to strengthening students' IES image were among the least frequently used in their Turkish EFL context. They attributed this low frequency to teachers' lack of familiarity with the L2MSS framework, a discrepancy between teacher and student perceptions of strategy use, and the possibility that other strategy types were perceived as more relevant (pp. 400–402). This divergence may reflect the importance of structured interventions for implementing ideal self strategies effectively.

The interview data illuminated significant transformations in participants' motivational orientations. First, strengthened IES became evident, with many participants moving beyond examination-focused orientations toward broader communicative and academic applications. Second, participants developed more defined learning objectives while

simultaneously recognizing personal learning challenges. Third, increased awareness emerged regarding intrinsic versus extrinsic motivational sources. Finally, while acknowledging the potential value of visualization techniques, participants indicated need for more structured guidance in their application.

This pattern was also consistent with Erdil-Moody and Thompson (2020) in the Turkish EFL context, where inviting senior students to share their experiences were among the least frequently used by instructors and were perceived by students as even less frequent than instructors reported (p. 400), suggesting that strategies relying on external examples may be less effective in fostering motivation when they lack direct personal relevance.

These findings collectively underscored the complex interplay of internal and external factors shaping L2 motivation. The data suggested that while ideal self-development offers rich possibilities for motivational intervention, the ought-to self dimension which showed significant improvement in this first cycle may hold greater pedagogical potential than previously theorized (Dörnyei, 2009b). Consistent with this, Li et al. (2025) found that among Chinese adult online L2 learners, the OL2S, rooted in external expectations such as career advancement, positively and significantly predicted both enjoyment and engagement, supporting the pedagogical relevance of obligation-relevant goal framing. Participants' responses indicated that external expectations and social contexts significantly influence self-concept formation, with classroom environments serving as powerful mediators of these effects. This aligned with Li (2014) and Thompson and Vásquez (2015). Specifically, Thompson and Vásquez observed that the L2MSS inadequately captures the dynamic relationship between individual agency ("I") and social expectations ("other")—a core tenet of self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987). This dynamic interplay had been empirically illustrated by Chan et al. (2014), who used retrodictive qualitative modeling to identify motivational archetypes in Hong Kong classrooms, and by Nitta et al. (2015), whose year-long exploration of IL2S evolution in task-based learning environments demonstrated the complex, emergent nature of self-concept development. They further argued that whereas the IL2S foregrounds personal aspirations, the OL2S disproportionately emphasizes external pressures, thereby obscuring the dialectical interaction between self-concepts and contextual factors in motivation development. Notably, activities requiring conceptualization of distant future selves proved

challenging for participants, suggesting the need for more proximal goal framing. This difficulty aligned with Piniel and Csizér's (2015) longitudinal finding that students' IES remained stable throughout a 14-week seminar, while more context-sensitive constructs showed significant fluctuation, underscoring the need for sustained, scaffolded interventions when targeting distal future selves. This observation was further supported by Vlaeva and Dörnyei's (2021) longitudinal finding that motivation fluctuates over time and that vision training success depends on adapting general principles to specific learning contexts, as well as Ye and Hu's (2025) emphasis that sustained, carefully planned motivational efforts were more effective than one-off activities. These observations informed subsequent modifications for the second intervention cycle, particularly regarding the integration of more immediate, personally relevant applications of future self-concepts.

6.5.2 Students' Perceptions of Strategies to Develop the IES After Cycle 2

Results of the questionnaire survey focused on the effectiveness of the motivational strategies to develop IES indicated that participants remained intermediately positive about the teaching intervention. Their perceptions could be triangulated by the results of students' motivation in English at the end of Cycle 2. Generally, their motivation was still moderately positive across all dimensions of motivated performance. Among these dimensions, ATC were highest, followed by IES, MLE and OES. The results were reasonable as the IES predicts effort to learn English both directly and indirectly through attitudes toward learning English (Taguchi et al., 2009). Ranked last was LCS.

These results aligned with those from the open-ended questions and focus group interviews that followed. A majority of students believed their English had improved and that they enjoyed the tolerant classroom atmosphere. Novel classroom activities made them like English more. Furthermore, they became more aware of English as a course and gained more knowledge about their peers. They had created their IES, and various examinations were enhancing their OES. Their relatively lower perception of LSC was also explained by some interviewees, who reported experiencing setbacks such as delayed or negative feedback from teachers, as well as the lack of consequences for those who violated class rules.

Results of comparison between the scores tested at different times showed that ideal self activities employed in this cycle created no significant differences from the last cycle (8 weeks ago), but compared with the time before the two cycles (18 weeks) of teaching intervention, students' motivation in learning was still slightly higher, including higher scores in IES, OES, ATC, LSC, and MLE. Interviews with the participants provided similar results. On the one hand, they had pleasant and motivating memories of group presentations and film screenings. Generally, they maintained positive perceptions of the effectiveness of the vision activities. On the other hand, activities to create and enhance ideal English selves had been conducted in the first cycle, and their ideal images had shown no change in the past weeks; a number of participants had given thought to them, become more realistic, and were working hard toward them. The interviews also revealed that they experienced setbacks in learning, including difficulties in memorizing new words and grammar, compounded by a poor foundation. Most importantly, examinations remained their major motivational orientation, with their motivational state tending to stabilize before pivotal exams. This prominence of examinations in students' learning motivation was reflected in their responses to the open-ended questions, as 10% of respondents expressed that the vision activities made no difference to their motivation because their top concern was the Post-Graduate Entrance Exam, rendering all other factors secondary. These results were in line with Chen et al. (2005), Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), Ryan (2009), and especially Taguchi et al. (2009):

While many Chinese students enjoy learning English, enjoyment does not play a decisive role in their overall motivation: even if learning English is a painstaking task, Chinese students will typically be able to control their negative attitudes for the sake of achieving their ultimate goal, a high level of proficiency in English or at the very least a passing mark in their English exams. Owing to the enormous pressure Chinese students are under to achieve their future desired selves, the classroom experience is far less important for them than for the Japanese and Iranian university students. Broadly speaking, they simply cannot afford the luxury of caring for the niceties of the classroom experience. (Taguchi, et al., 2009)

Qualitative results also revealed a paradoxical situation where participants acknowledged the effectiveness of motivational strategies while simultaneously facing

individualized barriers. One respondent's demotivation with the slow information flow in teaching practice exemplified this tension. These motivational variations can be analyzed through Chang's (2017) dual framework of goal or vision orientation and facilitative structures, further complicated by the dynamic interplay of expected returns, campus atmosphere, and instructional quality. This tension between positive perception and persistent barriers echoed Brady's (2019) finding that while IL2S showed strong correlations with intended learning effort, OL2S exhibited a negative relationship with L2 learning.

The predictive power of English/L2 learning experience (ELE/ L2LE) was strongly supported by motivation research (e.g., Brady, 2019; Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Huang et al., 2025; Lamb, 2012; Li, 2014; Papi, 2010; Takahashi & Im, 2020), yet its impact showed significant cultural contingency. In high-stakes educational environments like China, traditional ELE constructs may be overshadowed by examination pressures and instrumental goals. Such cross-cultural differences underscored the need to contextualize motivational frameworks when interpreting the predictive effects of ELE.

The increase in IES during the weeks of teaching intervention was also observed in Wang and Dai's (2015) study. However, the observed rise in motivational state appeared inconsistent with Wang and Dai (2015), which reported no significant longitudinal increase among students. In contrast, the motivational improvement aligned with the results of Liu (2010), Magid (2014), Magid and Chan (2012), and Wang (2016), who demonstrated that enhancing students' vision of their IES led to stronger motivated performance. Safdari (2021) also found that structured vision-enhancement tasks significantly improved participants' IES, imagery capacity, attitudes, and intended effort. These findings were also consistent with Tahmouresi and Papi's (2021) observation that ideal writing self positively predicted writing enjoyment, motivation, and achievement. Similarly, Rad and Alipour's (2023) quasi-experimental study reported significant improvements in IES and learning experience following vision-inspired Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) instruction.

The fluctuation in students' motivational perception may result from the repeated application of IES-targeted strategies. Activities 1 through 10 used in the two cycles were nearly identical, while the remaining activities, though not exactly the same, were structured within the same L2MSS framework. This pattern of diminishing returns

(Finn, 2018; Pawlak et al., 2020) aligned with the findings of Tahmouresi and Papi (2021), who highlighted the need for ongoing motivational monitoring of future selves, as well as with Wong's (2018) model, which provided a nuanced understanding of how psychological constructs such as future self-image function differently depending on the quality of the learning ecology. Resonating with the observed stabilization in the present cycle, Ye and Hu's (2025) finding that waning effects of interventions over time underscored the need for sustained, carefully planned motivational efforts.

Notably, the eight-week teaching intervention incorporating 19 adapted activities did not yield a statistically significant difference compared to Cycle 1, even in specific aspects of student motivation. This outcome may be attributed to Dörnyei's (2001, p. 30) assertion that variations in students' cultural backgrounds, ages, proficiency levels, and personal connections to English can render certain strategies ineffective while making others highly impactful. This interpretation found support in Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) contention that "hardly any research has been done to examine the extent to which motivational strategies are culture specific" and that "it would be useful to know which aspects of a motivational teaching practice are freely transferable across learning situations" (p. 73). Furthermore, students' language proficiency levels and the pressure of upcoming examinations substantially influenced their motivational states. These shifts in motivational perceptions aligned with Chang's (2017) study on motivational dynamics, which revealed that learners' motivational trajectories fluctuated in a current-like manner, with high-stakes English exams serving as attractors that both segmented and connected different phases of motivation.

Turning to students' direct perceptions of the 19 adapted motivational activities, quantitative analysis based on questionnaire surveys and learning journals showed slight discrepancies in the effectiveness of specific activities. Initial feedback may reflect short-term reactions, whereas long-term results showed sustained impact, making them more reliable for evaluating motivational strategies. Overall, the 19 adapted activities were generally popular among participants. The most appealing activities, in order from most to least, were Overcoming self-barriers (A10), Facing self-barriers (A9), Identifying self-barriers in English learning (A8), Listening to peers sharing English learning experiences (A12), and Listing your goals (A14). In contrast, the activities considered less effective, in order from the lowest score, were Checking the reality of others' IES (A3), Telling a fairy tale in English to your classmates (A11),

English Salon organized by a lecturer from outside the university (A13), Analyzing the obstacles in others' IES (A7), and Finding future alternatives based on examples of IES (A1). Statistical analysis revealed that A8 consistently received the highest ratings across both questionnaires and learning journals, demonstrating significantly greater effectiveness than the lowest-rated activities. While journal entries showed some variability potentially attributable to transient factors such as mood fluctuations or task difficulty, the questionnaire data collected at the conclusion of the second cycle provided more stable and comprehensive evaluations.

Open-ended responses corroborated these quantitative findings, with 90% of participants endorsing the effectiveness of the 19 implemented activities, while only 10% reported limited benefits. Over half of the respondents believed that the activities helped improve their English in various ways. These qualitative outcomes aligned with Sampson (2012), as participants described developing clearer goals, heightened interest and enthusiasm, improved time management for English learning, and more effective learning strategies. Huo et al.'s (2025) analysis of DMCs provided further insight here, noting that DMCs were sustained by clear structure, manageable subgoals, and timely feedback loops. Collectively, these qualitative results substantiated the quantitative data indicating that the vision intervention program exerted a moderately strong influence on participants' motivation.

The interview data provided additional qualitative evidence supporting the efficacy of motivational strategies while offering more comprehensive insights that supplemented the quantitative findings. The pedagogical intervention successfully fostered broader aspirations among participants, shifting their motivational orientation from exam-focused to more integrative perspectives, including viewing English as a valuable skill for articulate communication. Several respondents confirmed the effectiveness of specific activities, particularly public speaking exercises, reporting heightened motivation following vision-building tasks. However, an equivalent proportion of participants expressed reservations, with some abandoning their periodic goals due to perceived difficulty of vision-related tasks (e.g., excessive new vocabulary) or competing academic demands. This phenomenon of neglected or even resisted goal-setting aligned with previous observations by Wang and Dai (2015), who noted the limited effectiveness of strategies like "Timeline towards IES" and "Sharing experience of successful English learning." Dunn and Iwaniec's (2022) finding that the OL2S

showed no significant predictive power for sustained engagement further contextualized this implementation gap. Their analysis of participant journals revealed a persistent gap between intention and implementation, mirroring the current finding that 11% of interviewees ultimately disregarded their English learning plans.

Multiple factors may account for this implementation gap. Overambitious objectives, particularly teacher-assigned tasks with strict deadlines, often proved unrealistic for students with limited proficiency or existing academic workloads. Additionally, vague planning failed to provide actionable guidance, while insufficient progress monitoring contributed to misplaced priorities.

Notably, the most impactful vision activities in this cycle demonstrated consistency both with Cycle 1 results and with prior research by Wang and Dai (2015), Sampson (2012), Magid and Chan (2012, p. 8), and Wang (2016). Al-Murtadha's (2025) recent intervention in Yemen further supports these findings, demonstrating that role models, action plans, and goal-setting activities enhanced motivation by making visions plausible and keeping them alive. Mackay's (2019) quasi-experimental study similarly found that IL2S activities strengthened learners' awareness of their learning processes and improved classroom dynamics, while also highlighting that learner characteristics such as maturity and prior experience may mediate intervention outcomes. These cross-study parallels reinforced the reliability of the identified effective strategies while highlighting persistent challenges in goal implementation. Various activities in the Counterbalancing the vision phase stood out commonly as the most effective ones (A8, A9, and A10), whereas activities in the Substantiating IES Phase (A3) and in the Enhancing IES Phase (A13) were commonly perceived as the least effective. As Hadfield and Dörnyei (2014) stressed, students may not have good study habits or may not know the techniques that may be useful in their study (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014, p. 146). The strategies acquired through activities in the Counterbalancing the vision phase might have brought students exactly what they needed and thus gained popularity. Conversely, activities such as Checking the reality of others' ideal English selves (A3) and the English salon (A13) inviting successful English learners to share their experiences were rated lower than other activities in providing motivation, a result consistent with what was found in Cycle 1 and Erdil-Moody and Thompson (2020). Strategies involving models and others might be too far beyond the reach of the students' current lives to have been proved as motivating (Sampson, 2012, p. 329).

Based on the findings from the second cycle, several insights informed the design of the third intervention. The consistently high ratings for activities focused on overcoming personal barriers and goal listing indicated that these strategy types are advisable to be integrated into College English teaching. In contrast, the lower perceived effectiveness of activities involving external models and reality checking of others' ideal selves suggested a need to replace such tasks with more engaging and learner-centered alternatives. Accordingly, the third cycle introduced activities such as watching English movies with discussion, participation in English competitions, and structured reflection on the effectiveness of motivational strategies. Additionally, the goal implementation phase was streamlined to focus on practical planning through goal decomposition, task lists, and learning contracts, reflecting students' preference for concrete and actionable strategies as identified in the second cycle.

6.5.3 Students' Perceptions of Strategies to Develop the IES After Cycle 3

The results gained in Cycle 3 from questionnaire surveys and learning journals regarding the effectiveness of the implemented motivational strategies indicated that students maintained moderately positive attitudes toward English learning overall. Analysis revealed the highest ratings for their IES, followed by ATC and MLE, while OES and LSC scores remained below average levels.

Holistically, students' English learning motivation fluctuated over time but showed no statistically significant net change. The primary drivers remained instrumental, centered on diploma requirements and future academic needs, aligning with Gao et al.'s (2007) findings on motivation for standardized tests and career preparation. This instrumental focus contributed to stable yet passive and ambivalent attitudes, heavily influenced by external factors like examinations and academic workload, alongside persistently low linguistic self-confidence. Motivational states varied temporally, with activities exerting the most impact during or immediately after implementation, though inherent challenges of English learning consistently dampened motivation. While specific interventions produced observable effects, paired t-tests revealed a nonlinear pattern: a primary boost in Cycle 1, a concerning dip in Cycle 2, and partial recovery in Cycle 3, consistent with prior empirical work documenting motivational fluctuations over time (Chan et al., 2014; He et al., 2022; Liu, 2010; Magid & Chan, 2012; Nitta et al., 2015;

Pawlak, 2012; Piniel & Csizér, 2015; Sampson, 2015; Vlaeva & Dörnyei, 2021; Wang, 2016; Wang & Dai, 2015; Yang & Li, 2010).

The implementation of motivational strategies over 26 weeks demonstrated generally positive effects following an initial peak-stabilization pattern. Chinese non-English major EFL students exhibited significant initial motivation boosts when first exposed to IES strategies, primarily due to the psychological stimulation of envisioning desirable future identities. This effect was reinforced through clear goal-setting and positive feedback from teachers and peers, creating a motivational loop (Dörnyei, 2009b). Cultural factors in high-stakes learning environments like China further modulated these effects, as IES often aligned with instrumental expectations. Taguchi et al.'s (2009) large-scale validation of L2MSS across Japan, China, and Iran revealed that in China, instrumentality-promotion merged with the IL2S due to familial obligations and societal pressures, explaining why Chinese learners' ideal selves are uniquely shaped by external expectations. Dunn and Iwaniec's (2022) distinction between the ought-to L2 self/own and ought-to L2 self/others offered a useful lens here, suggesting that the external expectations shaping Chinese learners' IES may operate through internalized social pressures. Brady's (2019) finding that the OL2S exhibited a negative relationship with L2 learning in a Spanish context further highlighted the cultural contingency of L2MSS constructs.

As strategy implementation continued, effects gradually stabilized. Students adapted to the motivational patterns, with initial novelty fading while learning challenges became more prominent. Basic language acquisition demands like vocabulary and grammar mastery required sustained effort that sometimes diminished the IES strategies' effectiveness. External environmental factors, including fixed curricular structures and limited new incentives, further contributed to this stabilization phase (Chang, 2017). The generally positive outcomes were inconsistent to Wang and Dai's (2015) finding that an enhanced IES "did not consistently translate into increased motivational states". The nuance underscored Ushioda's (2009) concept of motivation as a complex, "organic process," suggesting that strengthening one component of the L2MSS was necessary but not always sufficient for a sustained motivational shift. Other unmeasured factors (e.g., classroom environment, peer dynamics, personal issues) could mediate the relationship between self-guides and motivated behavior. Papi (2010), in the Iranian

context, confirmed that while the IL2S and learning experience positively influence intended effort, the OL2S can increase anxiety, illustrating how different L2MSS components interact with affective factors to shape motivational outcomes. Kim and Kim's (2018a) study of Korean male high school students further supported this, finding that the IL2S and intrinsic motivation directly predicted motivated behavior, while other factors exerted only indirect effects through these more internalized constructs.

A comparative analysis indicated that the interventions most substantially enhanced learners' linguistic self-confidence and motivation for English learning. Linguistic confidence, defined as learners' self-perceived English proficiency, showed particular improvement through activities like future professional roleplays which reduced anxiety by normalizing language use. These findings were consistent with the work of Magid and Chan (2012) and Magid (2014), who demonstrated that interventions designed to enhance the IL2S directly led to increased motivation and, crucially, self-confidence. The activities like roleplays were practical instantiation of the "vividness and specificity" of the ideal self that Magid's work found to be effective.

Analysis of the five motivational facets showed participants' ATC slightly higher than MLE, OES, and LSC. IES ranked higher than OES and LSC, while LSC remained the lowest factor. This pattern reflected Chinese non-English majors' paradoxical motivational profile: strong IES and course attitudes coexisting with underdeveloped OES and LSC. Wang (2016)'s research was a particular support here, as it explicitly found that in "collectivist, exam-oriented educational contexts," external expectations (the domain of the OES) are major motivational orientations. This directly explained the "misalignment between intrinsic aspirations and extrinsic demands", Taguchi et al. (2009) further illuminated this dynamic, noting that in China, the link between IL2S and intended effort was more direct than in Japan or Iran, suggesting that Chinese learners persist regardless of classroom enjoyment due to high-stakes pressures. Papi's (2010) study further clarified that while the IL2S and L2LE positively influence intended effort, the OL2S can increase anxiety, which helped explain the persistent lower ratings for LSC observed in these cycles.

The strong IES and positive ATC coexisting with underdeveloped OES and LSC is not a contradiction but rather a reflection of this specific socio-educational context. The

students' intrinsic desires (IES) are genuine, but the high-pressure, exam-focused system fails to adequately cultivate the practical, external-instrumental motives (OES) or the confidence (LSC) to bridge the gap between aspiration and reality. More often than not, the exam-oriented system generates narrow external pressure rather than fostering the mature, autonomous, and practical motivation embodied by OES—a concept encompassing broader, future-oriented instrumental values such as using English for academic, professional, or personal development. In China's context, while students may exhibit strong intrinsic interest (IES) and recognize the course's utility (ATC), the system fails to cultivate purposeful external motives (OES) and, in turn, undermines LSC. Consequently, what should motivate learners ends up suppressing meaningful external motivation and weakening their confidence. Benson (2001) argued that the emphasis on practical skills and limited perceived relevance of general English to their career can lead to feelings of discouragement and low confidence.

Students' effectiveness ratings of the six activities followed this descending order: (1) English movie viewing, (2) goal decomposition, (3) task lists, (4) reflective activities, (5) English competitions, and (6) learning contracts. These findings aligned with Wang and Dai's (2015) prioritization of media-based activities and Wang's (2016) observation of contracts as least effective. Students' expressed need for supervision alongside recognition of self-regulation importance reflected the OES-IES tension characteristic of transitional learning phases. The participants' desire for supervision is not merely a dependency but a culturally situated strategy that leverages social expectations (a form of OES) to bolster their self-regulatory efforts aimed at their ideal selves (IES). This interpretation resonated with Kim and Kim's (2018a) study of Korean male high school students, which found that the IL2S and intrinsic motivation directly predicted motivated behavior, while other factors exerted only indirect effects through these more internalized constructs—underscoring the importance of helping learners envision positive future self-images. The ought-to self is not merely a negative force but also an area of self-development that may provide valuable motivational opportunities in classrooms (Huo et al., 2025; Sampson, 2012, 2015; Xu & Gao, 2014), particularly under peer influence in collectivist contexts.

6.6 Summary

This section addressed RQ3 by examining tertiary EFL students' perceptions of the effectiveness of strategies to develop IES across three cycles of teaching intervention. Data were collected through post-cycle questionnaires, learning journals, and focus group interviews after each cycle.

Results indicated that students consistently perceived the implemented strategies as effective. In Cycle 1, the 17 strategies received generally positive ratings, with barrier-focused activities rated highest and activities involving examination of others' learning experiences rated lowest. Statistical analysis confirmed that top-rated activities were rated significantly higher than bottom-rated ones. Open-ended responses showed that the vast majority of respondents who answered endorsed the strategies, citing improvements in spoken English, autonomy, and self-awareness. Learning journals further highlighted the effectiveness of barrier-focused and vision-building activities, consistent with Huo et al.'s (2025) observation that DMCs are sustained through clear structure, manageable subgoals, and timely feedback loops.

In Cycle 2, the 19 adapted strategies maintained overall positive perceptions. The highest-rated activities again centered on overcoming and facing self-barriers, while activities involving external models or peer experiences remained among the lowest-rated. Open-ended responses revealed that the majority of respondents endorsed the strategies, with reported gains in autonomy, clearer goals, and improved learning methods. These findings aligned with Sampson's (2012) emphasis on the motivational value of personal obstacle discussion over role model examination, and with Wang and Dai's (2015) observation that vision-building activities could enhance IES development.

In Cycle 3, the six strategies yielded generally positive ratings. Watching English movies was rated highest, followed by goal decomposition and task lists, while learning contracts received the lowest ratings. Statistical analysis revealed significant differences among activities. The sustained yet fluctuating pattern of motivation across cycles echoes prior longitudinal research documenting the nonlinear nature of motivational change (Piniel & Csizér, 2015; Vlaeva & Dörnyei, 2021; Ye & Hu, 2025).

Across all three cycles, qualitative data from learning journals and interviews corroborated the quantitative findings, with students consistently valuing barrier-focused, vision-building, and autonomy-promoting activities. Collectively, these findings supported prior research demonstrating that IES can be effectively developed

through structured, sustained interventions (Magid & Chan, 2012; Wang & Dai, 2015), while also aligning with longitudinal evidence highlighting the nonlinear nature of motivational change and the need for sustained scaffolding (Piniel & Csizér, 2015; Ye & Hu, 2025).



**CHAPTER 7 DISCUSSION: INTEGRATING
MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES INTO EFL
CURRICULUM**

7.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the discussion addressing RQ4, which aimed to propose an optimal framework for implementing L2MSS-based motivational activities in classroom instruction across three instructional cycles. Drawing on findings from each cycle, the chapter first introduces a five-phase workshop model derived from Cycle 1, followed by an expanded pedagogical framework incorporating multiple motivational components from Cycle 2. It then synthesizes cross-cycle insights into a dynamic, context-sensitive implementation model, integrating relevant literature throughout. A summary concludes the chapter.

7.1 A Five-phase Workshop Model for Integrating Motivational Strategies: Insights from Cycle 1

RQ4 aimed to propose an optimal framework for implementing L2MSS-based motivational activities in classroom instruction. Results from Cycle 1 yielded two critical implementation recommendations.

First, regarding intervention timing, the study advocated initiating the program with a dedicated 45-minute workshop to introduce L2MSS theory and provide foundational visualization training. This addressed two fundamental prerequisites for effective imagery application: students' conceptual understanding of visualization's pedagogical value and their practical capacity for mental imagery generation. Participants who lacked awareness of visualization's theoretical underpinnings demonstrated limited engagement, while those with underdeveloped visualization abilities required targeted training using established exercises such as those in Hadfield and Dörnyei's (2014) framework.

Second, concerning program architecture, the results recommended a structured sequence of five weekly 45-minute workshops complemented by public English expression opportunities. This structured approach aligned with Safdari's (2021) vision-based intervention design, which implemented a six-step program over an academic semester and demonstrated significant improvements in participants' IES. The inaugural workshop established essential groundwork by addressing the aforementioned prerequisites. Subsequent sessions followed a developmental

progression: the second workshop facilitated guided analysis and refinement of students' scripted imagery through instructor-mediated counselling sessions; the third workshop constructed balanced self-representations by contrasting ideal and feared English self-scenarios, an approach informed by Kim and Kim's (2018a) identification of the feared English self as a distinct motivational factor and validated in prior research (Magid & Chan, 2012; Sampson, 2012); the fourth workshop, which participants rated as particularly impactful, focused on barrier identification and solution formulation through reflective, imaginative exercises; and the concluding workshop assisted students in formulating realistic, temporally-structured English learning objectives.

The parallel public speaking component was recommended for multiple pedagogical purposes: reinforcing ideal self-visualization, developing oral communication skills, and providing behavioral accountability mechanisms. This integrated approach responded to learners' evolving needs, supporting the rationale for multi-session structured interventions (Piniel & Csizér, 2015). It also aligned with Taguchi et al.'s (2009) observation that in collectivist contexts like China, the IES is uniquely shaped by family expectations and instrumental concerns, underscoring the importance of context-sensitive implementation and the need for teacher guidance to explicitly connect students' visions to these culturally embedded motivators.

7.2 Expanding the Five-phase Workshop Model into a Broader Pedagogical Framework: Insights from Two Instructional Cycles

Based on the key findings of the second instructional cycle, this section expands the five-phase workshop model into a broader pedagogical L2MSS framework for China's college English context. It outlines strategies to construct a positive ELE, modulate the utility of OES, sustain the future orientation of the IES, and integrate technology into vision-building programs, while balancing learner needs with cultural specificities. These theoretically informed approaches collectively advance motivation-focused pedagogy within the L2MSS paradigm.

7.2.1 Constructing a Positive ELE Based on L2MSS Framework

The ELE, as a central component of L2MSS, encompasses motivation derived from the immediate learning environment and prior educational encounters. This includes factors such as teacher-student rapport, curriculum design, peer interaction, and

experiences of success. Dörnyei (2009b) integrated ELE into the L2MSS framework upon recognizing that for many learners, motivation often originates not from future self-images like the IES, but from a sense of accomplishment in the actual learning process. This empirical grounding establishes ELE as both a catalyst and an outcome of learners' ongoing interaction with their linguistic context.

A positive ELE is foundational to sustaining learner motivation. Engeström (1999) argued that significant tensions among the components of a learning system can destabilize the learning experience, thereby undermining motivation. Empirical evidence from Kikuchi and Sakai (2009) corroborated this theoretical perspective: their study of Japanese EFL learners identified demotivation as originating primarily from ELE-related factors, namely unsatisfactory test scores, uninspiring class content, and repeated experiences of failure. These findings affirmed that immediate classroom realities exert a more decisive influence on learners' motivational trajectories than broader societal or cultural forces, thereby offering robust empirical support for the ELE component within the L2MSS framework. Hadfield and Dörnyei (2014, p. 292) further cautioned that in the absence of enjoyment, whether derived from teacher presence, classroom climate, engaging content, or feelings of success, the learning experience itself can become a source of demotivation. Huang et al. (2025) reaffirmed the undeniable significance of the ELE in shaping learner motivation and urged educators to recognize its profound impact on self-images and perceived responsibilities in achieving language competence. Collectively, these theoretical and empirical insights underscored the imperative for EFL educators to deliberately cultivate and sustain a positive ELE, thereby fostering a classroom environment conducive to motivation and learning.

Empirical findings from this study underscored the practical impact of ELE. Questionnaire results on 43 motivational strategies revealed that most ratings were consistent across cycles, with the notable exception of Bring up the class goals regularly, which was perceived as significantly less motivating in Cycle 2. Focus group interviews attributed this to a lack of consequences for rule-breaking, which hindered progress. Additionally, qualitative data revealed that some students found certain strategies ineffective, citing limited real-life relevance of English or an excessive focus on exams. Some reported demotivation due to slow-paced instruction, while others highlighted the

significant influence of peers and teachers on their performance, illustrating how contextual factors directly shape the learning experience.

The relationship between ELE and the IES is bidirectional and dynamic. ELE is intricately linked to learners' past and present self-concepts. Research indicated that the IES does not emerge in isolation but is shaped by the interplay of these temporal selves, meaning ELE indirectly influences the IES (Huang et al., 2025). Conversely, a well-defined IES can actively optimize ELE through deliberate pedagogical interventions, as conceptually supported by Zhou et al. (2025). This forms a reinforcement loop: a positive, learner-centered ELE strengthens the IES (Brady, 2019; Huang et al., 2025; Su, 2012), which in turn motivates learners to seek out enriching experiences, thereby further solidifying future self-guides (Wang, 2016).

The study noted that students enjoyed the tolerant classroom atmosphere, while some were demotivated by bringing up class goals regularly. A supportive environment is crucial for preventing the anxiety associated with the ought-to self from becoming debilitating. To construct a positive ELE by leveraging this relationship, targeted pedagogical strategies are needed. First, balancing structure with autonomy—such as by collaboratively revising class rules with students (Mercer & Dörnyei, 2020)—should mitigate the stifling of creativity and engagement that rigid adherence may cause, thereby fostering a more positive and motivating learning experience. Teachers may encourage peer support for exam preparation. Study groups can be framed as a way to share the burden of OES pressures, making the journey less isolating and more manageable, thereby sustaining motivation through difficult periods. As participants reported the issue of “delayed or negative feedback” that eroded LSC, it is also suggested to implement a system of formative, constructive feedback that focuses on improvement. Instead of just highlighting errors, feedback should reference the strategies being developed in class, thus helping to build LSC.

Building on the qualitative analysis of student interviews, which revealed four primary IES themes: leisure, cross-cultural exchange, overseas study, and career development (consistent with Gao et al., 2003), this study proposed corresponding pedagogical interventions. These interventions employ experiential classroom activities designed to simulate the realization of these aspirations, thereby consciously bridging the gap between learners' IES and instructional design. Specifically, instructors can

recommend films or TV programs and organize dubbing or review sessions for students motivated by entertainment. Those interested in cultures can undertake group projects to investigate English-speaking countries and present their findings. For academically oriented learners, providing access to authentic lectures and literature, followed by reflective sharing, can underscore the role of English in global academia. For career-focused students, discipline-specific tasks such as conducting mock business negotiations in English can simulate real-world professional demands.

Since learners often possess multifaceted IES visions, an integrated application of these strategies is recommended. This tailored, experiential approach aims to create a positive English learning environment by directly linking classroom practice to students' personal motivational drivers.

7.2.2 Moderating the Utility of OES

The OES, comprising attributes learners believe they should possess to fulfill external expectations or avoid negative outcomes, exhibits variable motivational impact across contexts (Taguchi et al., 2009; You & Dörnyei, 2016). In China's English learning environment, however, the OES remains highly influential. Rooted in Confucian traditions that emphasize diligence as a student's duty (Kember, 2015), Chinese learners' aspirations are often shaped by parental and authoritative expectations, with the IES frequently emerging from OES-driven imperatives (Chen et al., 2005). This study's data revealed that a notable proportion of learners are primarily motivated by English's compulsory status and instrumental value, such as exam performance. In such a context, intrinsic motivation may be less impactful than external requirements (ibid), especially among students transitioning to more autonomous academic stages, where exams often remain the clearest objective (Wang, 2016).

To effectively moderate the utility of the OES, teachers should aim not to suppress it, but to integrate and optimize its function. Dörnyei (2009b) outlined key preconditions for strengthening the OES, including creating a vivid vision, ensuring its credibility, aligning it with the IES, activating it through contextual cues, developing actionable plans, and leveraging "feared-self (the possible self-image they are afraid to become)" to avoid negative outcomes. Notably, activating the feared English self, a strategy validated in this study's Cycle 2 and prior research (Magid & Chan, 2012; Sampson,

2012; Xu & Gao, 2014), can amplify motivation. This aligned with Papi's (2010) finding that while the IES reduces anxiety, the OES can increase it, suggesting that strategic activation of the feared self may heighten awareness of consequences without necessarily increasing debilitating anxiety when balanced with supportive learning experiences. The pedagogical challenge is to harness this OES-driven motivation without letting it become a source of excessive anxiety and to connect it to the IES where possible. This is crucial, as Papi and Abdollahzadeh (2012) observed that in certain contexts, a dominant ought-to self can correlate with lower motivation, potentially indicative of anxiety or external pressure unmitigated by a strong, internalized IES. Consequently, pedagogical efforts should aim to channel the OES by connecting it to the internal desires of the IES wherever possible.

As the findings indicate that examinations are a powerful, stable source of motivation, educators are advised to explicitly link classroom activities to examination success. The utility of every motivational activity must be made explicit. When introducing a motivational activity like group presentations which were positively remembered, the teacher should explicitly state how it develops skills directly assessed in exams. For example: This group presentation will not only help you practice fluent speaking (part of your ideal self as a good communicator) but will specifically prepare you for interview section after the Post-Graduate Entrance Exam, which assesses your structured oral argumentation. Standardized tests (e.g., CET-6) should be framed as stepping stones toward IES goals, such as high scores unlocking overseas internships. Teachers should adapt the highly effective "Counterbalancing" activities to use exam-related content. For A9) Facing Self-Barriers, the "negative-self" could voice exam-specific anxieties, and the positive-self would devise test-taking strategies to counter them.

The pressure to succeed in exams is an external OES pressure. Teachers can help students reframe this pressure into a proactive skill set. Educators can enhance a Timeline towards IES/OES strategy by guiding students to create a dual timeline that visually integrates their long-term IES with necessary examination milestones, thereby transforming exam preparation into a meaningful step toward personal vision. This approach involves one track outlining aspirations like international career goals while the parallel track specifies concrete academic requirements such as passing CET-6 or achieving high scores on entrance exams, creating clear connectivity between the

personally resonant IES and often onerous OES. Culturally, this approach aligned with the observation that in China and Iran, instrumentality-promotion merged with the IES due to familial obligations and societal pressures (Taguchi et al., 2009), indicating that OES-aligned strategies can be particularly effective when they resonate with learners' external responsibilities. Furthermore, teachers should systematically address LSC issues by normalizing setbacks through structured Feedback Analysis activities where students categorize errors and update their action plans to bust barriers, effectively converting negative OES-related events into strategic opportunities for growth.

7.2.3 Continue to Exploit the Future-Oriented Role of IES

The IES has been widely recognized as the core component of the L2MSS (Al-Hoorie, 2018; Dörnyei, 2009b; Dunn & Iwaniec, 2022; Liu et al., 2024; Tahmouresi & Papi, 2021). Dörnyei (2009b, p. 32), in discussing the practical application of the L2MSS theory, emphasized specific motivational strategies to enhance learners' IES. Although the teaching intervention in subsequent cycles did not bring out significant differences from Cycle 1, students' motivational state was kept slightly higher than that before the teaching intervention. All the facets of their motivational state tested including their IES, OES, ATC, LSC and MLE were all kept slightly higher than before the Cycle 1 intervention. Among all the spheres, their ATC were highest, followed by their IES, MLE, and then their OES. Ranked last was their LSC. Empirical research also revealed that the efficacy of various motivational strategies in improving learners' English learning motivation varied significantly.

Educators should actively implement strategies with proven effectiveness while critically examining the underlying reasons for the limited impact of certain strategies, making necessary adjustments to maximize their utility in fostering students' IES. Recommendation one is to sustain the effective role of “constructing IES vision” and “enhancing IES vision”. Strategies at the beginning of the vision program, as the most positively evaluated strategies by students, should be capitalized on the motivational benefits of these approaches. Teachers must strive to “keep the IES vision active” (Xu, 2012, p. 70) by integrating vision-building activities into classroom practices to reinforce learners' aspirational goals.

Recommendation two is to substantiate the IES with proximal, attainable models and adequate assistance. The least effective activities were A3 Checking the reality of others'

IES, and the poorly-rated A13 English Salon featuring an external lecturer. This indicated that distant or advanced peer models could be demotivating if seen as unrelatable. A better strategy is to reframe model use towards proximal growth stories. For example, activity A12 listening to peers sharing experience, should be modified to feature peers who are only slightly more advanced and can articulate a clear narrative of struggle and the strategies used to overcome specific, common barriers. Furthermore, the teacher can act as a model by verbalizing their own process for tackling English challenges, demonstrating that proficiency is built through applied strategies rather than innate talent. Additionally, as in the qualitative analysis, some participants proposed that teachers should give them more instruction and explanations of new words for the task in the vision activities, it was suggested educators should engage in students' realistic evaluations of their IES, encouraging and supporting their conceptualizations of future selves without arbitrary dismissal. This requires balancing idealism with pragmatism, guiding students to align their visions with achievable milestones while maintaining enthusiasm.

Recommendation three is to deepen and personalize the Counterbalancing the vision strategy. Statistical results revealed that the top-rated three strategies among the 19 in this cycle were A10 (Overcoming Self-Barriers), A9 (Facing Self-Barriers), and A8 (Identifying Self-Barriers in English Learning) in the Counterbalancing the vision phase; these were significantly more effective. Activities held in the Counterbalancing the vision phase were most acclaimed by students in this study. They are relevant to each individual, offer direct strategies in learning the language, and provide methods for learners to overcome their problems directly. These activities, with the self being closely related to the present lives of students, were more easily conceptualized than the still somewhat removed, not-experienced professional self, and thus more motivating (Sampson, 2012).

Teachers should systematically implement barrier-focused activities as recurring practices to bridge the gap between students' aspirations and actual learning behaviors. Rather than treating self-barrier identification as a one-time exercise, educators should begin with a confidential barrier inventory and periodically revisit it, enabling students to track progress on challenges like grammar weaknesses or vocabulary acquisition. To externalize internal conflicts, teachers can scaffold the play-writing activity with sentence stems for the "negative self" while guiding students to craft evidence-based

“positive self” rebuttals. Most crucially, this process must culminate in specific “Barrier-Busting Action Plans” where students translate awareness into concrete strategies.

Recommendation four is to optimize the “From Goals to Action Plans” strategy, addressing the intention-implementation gap. A significant finding is that students often set goals but fail to follow through due to overambitious targets, vague planning, and a lack of monitoring. Effective strategy implementation must include structured, incremental, and monitored action plans. Participants in this cycle tended to neglect their periodic goals or resorted to passive avoidance when facing some vision tasks perceived as too difficult with too many new words, or when the participants had been overloaded by assignments of other burdens. Educators must emphasize the critical link between goal-setting and actionable plans, clarifying that even the most ambitious goals remain futile without consistent execution. To enhance the motivational impact of action plans, educators can help tailor students’ plans, encouraging them to develop feasible action plans based on objective circumstances. While class-wide goals (e.g., completing standardized assignments) are mandatory, individualized goals should be flexibly adjusted according to personal contexts (Wang, 2016). For instance, during periods of ample after-school discretionary time, students may be set more tasks; conversely, during busy phases (e.g., extracurricular activities), goals should be scaled back to avoid frustration from unmet expectations. External accountability is necessary. Structured oversight is indispensable during plan implementation. Regularly monitor progress and consider integrating plan completion into formative assessments (e.g., linking task adherence to participation grades). This external accountability reinforces commitment and mitigates procrastination (ibid).

7.2.4 Integrating Technology into the Vision Program

Findings from the focus group interviews supported the integration of technology into L2MSS-based activities in college EFL teaching, aligning with previous research by Salsabila (2024) and Zainal (2023). Specifically, Zainal (2023) found that gamification in vocabulary learning was associated with positive student perceptions, including increased motivation and a richer learning environment. Consistent with these findings, participants in the present study reported using various digital tools and applications, such as listening to songs, playing English games, or using electronic dictionaries, to

support their learning. Furthermore, Savvidou (2026) observed that such tools can enhance learner autonomy through personalized feedback, while also emphasizing that teacher guidance remains essential to prevent overreliance (pp. 73–76, 182–184).

The online environment facilitates a blurring of the traditional roles of teachers and students, as Chen (2010, p. 62) observed, “When computers and networks are fully integrated into our English teaching, students hold even higher expectations for the role of teachers.” Educators should explore adaptive technologies that evolve with students’ and teachers’ needs (e.g., AI-driven personalized feedback). Computers and online tools should be leveraged to foster greater interaction and communication with students. A suitable approach, supported by Cao et al. (2025) and Li et al. (2021), would be to progressively nurture students’ ability to engage in online self-directed learning through the guidance and involvement of teachers. Teachers should reinforce the monitoring and provision of feedback on learning records and consider incorporating these elements into a portion of the students’ regular grades, thereby augmenting both the constraint and motivation for autonomous learning, as suggested by Wei (2023) and Yang (2024). As Savvidou (2026) argued, technology should serve as a facilitator rather than a replacement for human interaction, with teachers maintaining their central role in guiding students’ critical engagement with digital tools (pp. 238, 240).

7.2.5 Balancing Dynamic Learner Needs and Cultural Contexts

Instructors should be sensitive to learners’ evolving motivational dynamics and the cultural and contextual factors of the EFL classroom during the implementation of motivational strategies. As Chang (2017) suggested, college English teachers should keep an eye on students’ motivational dynamics and variations and create a favorable learning environment so as to facilitate the maximization of motivational intensity. To address the well-documented diminishing returns of repeated IES strategy implementation, effective mitigation requires strategic variation through: alternating IES and OES approaches biweekly, incorporating gamification elements (Zainal, 2023) that provide fresh challenges, and periodically revising students’ future self-images to reflect evolving aspirations.

7.3 Dynamic and Contextual Approaches to Motivational Strategy Implementation: Insights from Three Instructional Cycles

The comprehensive findings regarding motivational strategy effectiveness across three instructional cycles yield significant pedagogical implications for EFL education. First and foremost, educators must fundamentally reconceptualize motivation as a complex, dynamic system rather than a stable trait. The nonlinear nature of motivational development necessitates longitudinal intervention designs that account for fluctuating patterns of engagement (Yang & Li, 2010). This perspective shift requires moving beyond short-term “motivational boosts” to sustained strategy implementation, aligning with Ushioda’s (2009) conceptualization of motivation as an “organic process” embedded within broader social and contextual systems. To operationalize this, teachers should employ longitudinal tracking to monitor individual motivational trajectories, an approach underscored as a current research need to better capture motivational dynamics over time (e.g., Gao, 2012). In practice, teachers should adjust target setting dynamically: initially, an appealing macro English self-image to inspire enthusiasm, then manageable sub-goals to sustain motivation. To sustain motivation, diverse incentives can be combined, such as tangible rewards, emotional support, and group competitions, alongside core strategies.

Contextual sensitivity emerges as the second crucial consideration. Research demonstrates that strategies focusing on the IES exhibit varying efficacy across different educational ecosystems. The cross-cultural validity of the L2MSS framework is well-established, as seen in its successful application in contexts like Iran (Papi, 2010; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012). Taguchi et al.’s (2009) comparative study across Japan, China, and Iran provided foundational evidence for both the framework’s cross-cultural applicability and its culturally specific manifestations. Notably, strategy effectiveness is moderated by cultural and institutional factors. For instance, in collectivist, exam-oriented settings, the OES and external expectations can play substantial motivational roles, necessitating integrated approaches alongside IES enhancement (Sampson, 2012, 2015; Wang, 2016). Kim and Kim’s (2018a) study of Korean male high school students demonstrated that the IES and intrinsic motivation directly predicted motivated behavior and achievement, while the OES and instrumentality exerted only indirect effects, highlighting the need to prioritize vision-enhancement strategies even in exam-focused East Asian contexts. This highlights the importance of adapting the core framework proposed by Hadfield and Dörnyei (2014) to align with local values and educational realities. To effectively leverage cultural and contextual relevance in the

setting of China, the IES intervention should be explicitly aligned with familial expectations (e.g., fulfilling parental hopes through academic success) and societal values, such as contributing to national development or collective honor. Culturally, this approach resonates with the observation that Chinese learners' ideal selves are uniquely shaped by family expectations and high-stakes pressures (Taguchi et al., 2009), requiring interventions that acknowledge these cultural specificities rather than imposing one-size-fits-all solutions. This integration must directly address the dominant exam-oriented culture by framing test preparation (e.g., for CET-4/6 or NPEE) as concrete, sanctioned steps toward realizing these broader personal and collective aspirations. Furthermore, instructional activities must be adapted for large-class settings and designed to complement, rather than conflict with, the established respect for teacher authority, ensuring pedagogical strategies are both culturally coherent and practically viable.

Additionally, the strong student preference for effort-based grading carries significant assessment implications. Educators should integrate process-oriented assessment, such as effort-based grading, which also aligns strongly with the principles of operationalizing the vision. The motivational program framework emphasizes translating aspirations into concrete action plans and learning strategies ("implementing the vision") and maintaining engagement through classroom activities ("keeping the vision alive"; Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014). Formative assessment tools such as e-portfolios documenting incremental progress (through platforms like Xuexitong) can help operationalize learning metrics while supporting self-regulated learning through reflection and multimedia evidence (Lamont, 2007). However, the implementation of effort-based grading faces challenges in China's standardized testing framework. Teachers often lack training in designing rubrics that quantify effort or improvement, risking subjective biases. Moreover, institutional resistance to deviating from national exam benchmarks may hinder adoption. Accordingly, workshops on effort-oriented evaluation are recommended to train teachers in growth mindset pedagogy. Besides, summative exams with effort-weighted components (e.g., 40% effort, 60% achievement) and granular feedback that highlights specific improvements are also approaches to leverage effort-based grading effectively.

To address the challenges Chinese university students face in adhering to learning contracts or self-directed plans, a multifaceted and culturally attuned approach is

essential. First, a structured accountability system should be implemented. Peer monitoring through study groups leverages social accountability, and gamified tools (e.g., Baicizhan; Jalalzai et al., 2023) can visually track progress, merging external rewards with intrinsic motivation (Bagunaid et al., 2022; Xiao & Hew, 2023). Gamification as discussed by Abdullah et al. (2019) and Zainal (2023), should be paired with peer accountability to counter procrastination, leveraging social and technological support (Jalalzai et al., 2023; Wei, 2023; Xiao & Hew, 2023; Yang, 2024). Second, explicit training in self-regulation is crucial. Students should be taught to set optimum goals and use time-management strategies (Zimmerman, 2002), with teachers gradually scaffolding autonomy from directed plans to student-designed contracts. This gradual release of responsibility aligns with the developmental trajectories observed in longitudinal L2MSS research (Piniel & Csizér, 2015). Finally, institutional integration is key. Linking contract completion to a portion of course grades validates its relevance within the exam-oriented culture, while teachers shift from enforcers to facilitators who provide resources and optional check-ins. This combination of adaptive design, social and technological support, skill development, and systemic alignment creates a sustainable framework for self-directed learning in China's higher education context.

This comprehensive model bridges theory and practice by addressing temporal dynamics through longitudinal tracking, contextual variation via adaptive strategy selection, and a sustainable framework for self-teaching, ultimately creating more effective, sustainable motivational support systems for diverse English learners.

7.4 A Synthesized Framework for Classroom Implementation

Based on empirical evidence gathered throughout the three action research cycles, this section presents a synthesized best-practice framework for integrating L2MSS-based motivational strategies in Chinese college English contexts (see Figure 7.1).

The optimal integration of IES strategies begins with a 45-minute introductory workshop to explain L2MSS theory and train students in visualization techniques. Following this, structured weekly workshops should be implemented: Week 1 focuses on drafting written narratives of students' IES; Week 2 involves teacher-guided refinement to align visions with achievable milestones; Week 3 balances IES with the feared English self through role-plays contrasting aspirational and negative outcomes; Week 4 focuses on barrier identification; and Week 5 transitions to SMART goal-

setting. Public performance opportunities should be incorporated to reinforce these strategies.

Beyond IES development, cultivating the OES requires linking language learning to familial expectations and national goals, explicitly aligning interventions with local values. Standardized tests should be framed as stepping stones toward IES goals. Learner-centered activities and peer systems foster a positive ELE by combining enjoyment with competence.

To address contextual challenges, technology-mediated autonomy can be enhanced via platforms for tracking progress and AI tools for instant feedback, paired with peer accountability to counter procrastination. Group competitions align with collectivist values while maintaining individual accountability.

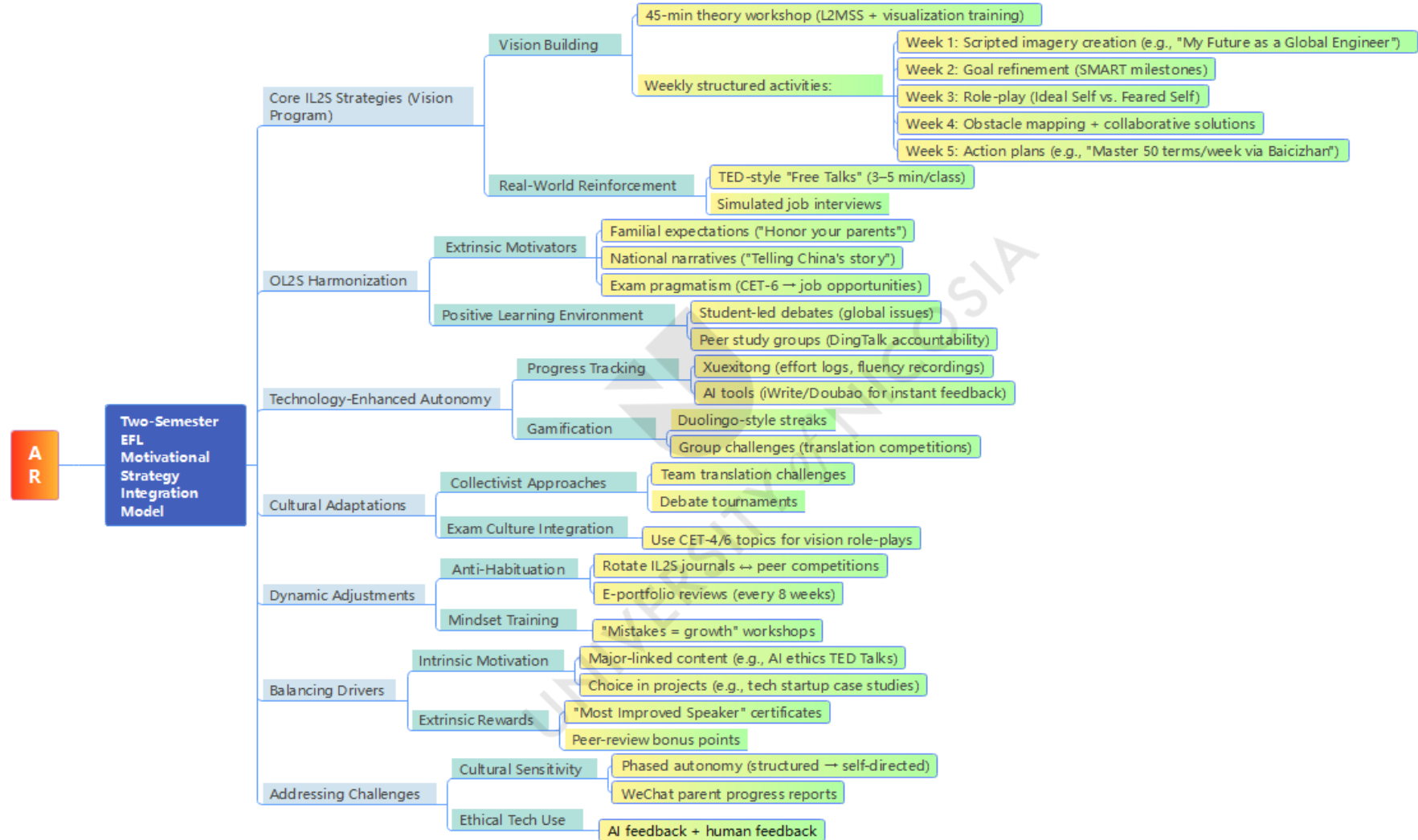
To sustain long-term engagement, strategies must be dynamically adjusted, recognizing motivation as a complex, dynamic system. Alternating between different activity types prevents habituation, while effort attribution training mitigates exam-drive perfectionism. Intrinsic motivation can be nurtured by linking English to students' majors and allowing project choice.

In culturally sensitive contexts like China, structured guidance must gradually introduce autonomy without undermining teacher authority. Family involvement can align parental expectations with IES goals.

7.5 Summary

This chapter addressed RQ4 by proposing an optimal framework for implementing L2MSS-based motivational activities in classroom instruction. Drawing on findings from three instructional cycles, the discussion was organized into three progressively

Figure 7.1: Two-Semester EFL Motivational Strategy Integration Model



developed models: a five-phase workshop model derived from Cycle 1, an expanded pedagogical framework integrating multiple motivational components from Cycle 2, and a dynamic, context-sensitive approach synthesizing insights from all three cycles. Based on these cumulative findings, Section 7.4 presented a synthesized best-practice framework for classroom implementation.

The five-phase workshop model established foundational procedures for vision-based interventions, including a structured sequence of weekly workshops complemented by public speaking opportunities. This approach aligned with prior vision-based intervention designs and responded to the observation that internalized self-concepts resist short-term change. The expanded framework from Cycle 2 integrated strategies for constructing a positive English learning experience, moderating the utility of the ought-to English self, sustaining the future orientation of the IES, and incorporating technology into vision-building programs. The dynamic, context-sensitive model from Cycle 3 emphasized reconceptualizing motivation as a complex, dynamic system, adapting strategies to cultural and institutional contexts, integrating process-oriented assessment practices, and addressing the intention-implementation gap through structured accountability systems and self-regulation training.

Collectively, these findings bridge theory and practice by providing a comprehensive, empirically grounded framework for implementing motivational strategies in Chinese college English contexts.

CHAPTER 8 CONCLUSIONS

8.0 Introduction

The conclusion chapter provides an overview of the current study. Then it discusses implications, reflects on its limitations, and suggests directions for future investigation regarding implementing motivational strategies appropriate in China's TEFL environment.

8.1 Summary and Discussion of the Findings

This study investigated the implementation of motivational strategies in an EFL classroom at a public university in southeastern China, with a particular focus on Dörnyei's process-oriented framework of L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 2001) and his framework of L2MSS (2009b). It was guided by four primary research questions: (1) What are the most important motivational strategies used in China's tertiary EFL education from teachers' perspectives? (RQ1); (2) What are tertiary EFL students' perceptions of the effectiveness of common motivational strategies used by teachers and do these perceptions change over time? (RQ2); (3) What are students' perceptions of the effectiveness of strategies to develop IES based on L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2009b)? (RQ3); and (4) How can motivational strategies be implemented in classroom activities in a two-semester college English course? (RQ4). The research employed a within-subjects design with mixed-methods methodology, incorporating data through systematic classroom observations, questionnaire surveys, learning journals and semi-structured interviews. The findings presented analyses of critical motivational strategies from dual perspectives of educators and learners, along with the efficacy of L2MSS-based activities. The action research component implemented iterative refinement of interventions, with each research phase informing subsequent pedagogical modifications. The conclusion chapter synthesizes key findings, discusses implications, acknowledges limitations, and proposes directions for future investigation regarding motivational strategies appropriate for China's evolving TEFL environment.

8.1.1 RQ1: Key Motivational Strategies from Teachers' Perspectives

Research Question 1 examined the most important motivational strategies from teachers' perspectives, as presented in Chapter 4. Adopting a mixed-methods design, this part of the study combined quantitative classroom observations of four EFL teachers and surveys with qualitative interviews with these teacher participants. Data analysis included comparing mean scores from 5-point Likert scales on the frequency

and effectiveness of 102 motivational strategies, as well as analyzing the correlation between these ratings, using SPSS 21.0.

Through triangulation of observational data, teacher self-reports, and perceived effectiveness ratings, the study identified 20 motivational strategies that Chinese EFL teachers considered most important. These strategies spanned all four phases of Dörnyei's (2001) framework. In the phase of creating a motivating environment, strategies centered on demonstrating respect and concern for students and sharing personal fascination with the target language were prioritized. In the phase of generating initial motivation, linking lessons to students' lives and regularly referencing class goals emerged as key practices. The phase of supporting and safeguarding motivation contributed the largest concentration, with ten strategies identified, including directing attention to learners' strengths, creating repeated moments of success, equipping learners with clear task steps, and providing learning techniques, underscoring teachers' emphasis on ongoing motivation maintenance. In the phase of strengthening positive self-evaluation, responding supportively to student participation ranked as the single most critical strategy overall. Among the most critical strategies overall were supportive feedback, confidence building, teacher-student rapport, task clarity, and goal orientation. This core set formed a teacher-led, relational focus, prioritizing demonstrative care, clear utility, and constructive feedback. Conversely, strategies involving parental engagement, extensive group work, or enhancing learner autonomy were found to be less prioritized, reflecting contextual constraints. This culturally shaped hierarchy aligned with findings from similar contexts (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Wong, 2014) and underscored Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) caution regarding the cultural contingency of motivational strategies, as their implementation is mediated by local pedagogical values and structures (Fang, 2012; Hu, 2002; Rao, 2013).

8.1.2 RQ2: Students' Perceptions and Their Temporal Dynamics on Motivational Strategy Effectiveness

Research Question 2 investigated students' perceptions regarding the effectiveness of common motivational strategies employed by teachers and examined potential changes in these perceptions over time. To address RQ2, a longitudinal questionnaire survey was administered three times using a 5-point Likert scale. Means comparison on the

effectiveness of motivational strategies based on students' answers to Likert-point scale questions in each phase of teaching intervention was conducted to explore the highest- and lowest-rated strategies. An ANOVA was conducted to examine differences between the highest- and lowest-rated strategies. Additionally, two-way RM-ANOVA were performed to reveal the changing pattern of students' perception over the phases of teaching intervention.

Findings demonstrated that students particularly valued teacher-implemented motivational approaches. Seven strategies were consistently rated highest across the three cycles, centering on teacher enthusiasm, supportive grading recognizing effort and improvement, recognizing progress, establishing rapport, positive feedback, recognizing effort, and encouraging risk-taking. These strategies shared common characteristics of direct, personal acknowledgment and immediate teacher-student connection. These results indicated that within high-stakes educational contexts, learners responded most positively to transparent assessment practices consistent with learner-centered approach advocated by Du (2021) and Üzümler and Özbek (2024) and educators who demonstrate both subject passion (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Moskovsky et al., 2013) and interpersonal accessibility (Wong, 2014).

Conversely, seven strategies were consistently rated lowest, including inviting senior students to share experiences, goal reiteration, rule setting, cultural exposure, instrumental appeals, familiarizing students with cultural background, and task rationale explanation. These strategies relied on abstract appeals, external examples, or indirect social mediation. This pattern aligned with previous research: strategies relying on peer modelling were perceived as less influential (Erdil-Moody & Thompson, 2020; Sampson, 2012; Wang & Dai, 2015), and abstract rationalizations for English language learning, whether cultural or instrumental, often felt less tangible compared to immediate, interpersonal classroom motivation (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Moskovsky et al., 2013; Raharja & Ashadi, 2019).

In contrast to these indirect approaches, cross-dataset comparisons revealed four thematic clusters consistently valued across Chinese educational contexts: recognition of student progress, teacher-student relationships, positive feedback, and supportive error handling. Notable discrepancies emerged between student and teacher perceptions,

particularly regarding grading practices and teacher enthusiasm, where students assigned substantially higher importance than teachers did.

Throughout the three-cycle intervention period, student evaluations remained generally consistent, with no significant main effect of time observed, indicating that students' perceptions of strategy effectiveness remained stable across the three assessment cycles. Although certain approaches, particularly repetitive rule enforcement, demonstrated diminishing returns over time (Finn, 2018; Pawlak et al., 2020), likely attributable to methodological redundancy. A significant Time $\times$ Strategy interaction was also found, reflecting minor fluctuations in individual strategy ratings across cycles despite overall stability. The results aligned with the view of motivation as a dynamic and context-dependent process (Ushioda, 2009), influenced by immediate contextual factors like exam schedules within an exam-oriented system (Sampson, 2012; Taguchi, et al., 2009). These outcomes underscore the importance of implementing diverse and adaptive motivational techniques to maintain learner engagement throughout extended language acquisition processes.

8.1.3 RQ3: Optimal L2MSS-Based Motivational Activities in Student Evaluation

The study also examined the effectiveness of activities designed to cultivate learners' IES (RQ3). The researcher compared students' Likert-scale responses regarding their motivational state (measured before and after each intervention phase) and their perceptions of the effectiveness of motivational activities to develop the IES. Changes over time were analyzed using paired samples *t*-tests and one-way RM-ANOVA. A one-way ANOVA was applied to examine variations in motivational facet ratings across the 26-week intervention, and to compare perceived effectiveness across the six activities implemented in the third instruction cycle. Additionally, qualitative data from open-ended survey questions, semi-structured focus group interviews with students and learning journals were manually coded for thematic analysis.

Activities focused on overcoming personal barriers, derived from Dörnyei's (2009b) L2MSS, were found as most effective. Specifically, activities involving identifying, facing, and discussing strategies to overcome self-barriers in English learning consistently received the highest ratings. These activities, categorized in the Counterbalancing the vision phase, were reported to foster self-awareness, autonomy,

and clearer goal-setting, aligning with findings from Magid and Chan (2012) and Sampson (2012). Conversely, activities centering on examining others' experiences, such as checking the reality of others' ideal selves or listening to external speakers, were rated as least effective. Introspective and actionable strategies were valued over those based on external modeling or abstract future selves, corroborating the observation of Sampson (2012) that strategies involving distant models may feel less tangible and motivating.

8.1.4 RQ4: Classroom Implementation Frameworks for Motivational Strategies in College English

Research Question 4 examined the implementation of motivational strategies across a two-semester college English course. Data were drawn from open-ended questionnaire responses and semi-structured focus group interviews analyzed through manual coding.

The three-cycle action research yielded a synthesized best-practice framework comprising a series of actionable implementation steps. A core starting point of the framework is a dedicated 45-minute introductory workshop that explains L2MSS theory and provides foundational visualization training (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014). This is followed by five weekly workshops: drafting IES narratives; teacher-guided refinement connecting visions to family expectations and instrumental concerns (Taguchi et al., 2009); balancing IES with the feared self through role-plays (Magid & Chan, 2012; Sampson, 2012); barrier identification; and SMART goal-setting, reinforced by public speaking opportunities.

Beyond IES development, the framework cultivates a positive English learning experience through learner-centered activities and peer systems. To moderate the ought-to self, it links language learning to familial expectations and national goals, framing standardized tests as stepping stones toward IES goals (Taguchi et al., 2009; Wang, 2016). Activating the feared self amplifies motivation while balancing anxiety, aligning with the finding that the IES reduces anxiety whereas the OES can increase it (Papi, 2010). Technology-mediated autonomy is enhanced via tracking platforms and AI feedback, paired with peer accountability and gamification (Abdullah et al., 2019; Jalalzai et al., 2023; Wei, 2023; Xiao & Hew, 2023; Yang, 2024; Zainal, 2023). Group competitions aligned with collectivist values while maintaining individual

accountability. IES activities were integrated into test preparation to bridge motivational and institutional demands.

To sustain engagement, strategies are dynamically adjusted, recognizing motivation as a complex, dynamic system (Dörnyei, 2009a; Ushioda, 2009). Alternating activity types, effort attribution training, and periodic e-portfolio reviews prevent habituation. Intrinsic motivation is nurtured by linking English to students' majors and allowing project choice. In culturally sensitive contexts like China, structured guidance gradually introduces autonomy (Zimmerman, 2002) without undermining teacher authority, and family involvement aligns parental expectations with IES goals. Ethically, AI tools supplement rather than replace human feedback (Brown & Lee, 2025; Savvidou, 2026). This two-semester model reconciles exam pressures with long-term learning objectives through scaffolded vision-building, practical adaptations, and culturally attuned technology integration.

8.2 Implications

This study offers a nuanced understanding of motivation in language learning and provides actionable recommendations for educators aiming to foster sustained student engagement. Its insights into L2 motivation within Chinese contexts carry theoretical, pedagogical, and practical significance.

8.2.1 Theoretical Contribution: Extending L2 Motivational Frameworks

This study makes substantial theoretical contributions by addressing critical gaps in L2 motivation research through its rigorous examination of motivational strategies in Chinese university EFL classrooms. The research provides robust empirical validation of Dörnyei's (2001) process-oriented MTP framework and his L2MSS (2009b) while simultaneously revealing important cultural adaptations necessary for the Chinese context. Three key theoretical advancements emerge from the findings.

First, the study demonstrates how motivational strategies operate differently in high-stakes learning environments compared to Western educational contexts. The perfect correlation between observed and self-reported teacher strategies confirms that Chinese EFL instructors implement motivational techniques with remarkable consistency, particularly favoring relationship-building approaches like showing care for students

and demonstrating enthusiasm (S3). This finding extends our understanding of Dörnyei's (2001) process-oriented MPT framework by showing how collectivist cultural values mediate strategy implementation, with teacher-centered approaches showing more effective than Western-preferred collaborative methods (S18).

Second, the research identifies and explains the paradoxical motivational profile: strong IES and ATC coexisting with lower LSC and underdeveloped OES among Chinese non-English majors. Despite strong development of IES through interventions like Overcoming Self-barriers (A10), and positive ATC, students' LSC and OES remained persistently lower. This phenomenon, captured through longitudinal analysis across three cycles, suggests current motivation theories must better account for the complex interplay between aspirational selves and self-assessment in exam-driven systems. The 26-week study design provides empirical evidence for L2MSS that high-stakes testing environments can create disjuncture not only between learners' future visions and their present self-evaluations, but also between their internal aspirations and the external, instrumentally-oriented motivations embodied by OES.

Third, the study advances dynamic systems perspectives on L2 motivation. The inverted U-curve pattern of intervention effectiveness, with initial strong effects followed by motivational saturation, challenges linear models of motivation development. These temporal fluctuations support more subtle conceptualizations of motivation as fluid and context-dependent, particularly in environments dominated by standardized testing. The cyclical variations observed, especially the resurgence of motivation in Cycle 3 correlated with impending high-stakes exams, provide empirical grounding for theories emphasizing motivation's situated nature (Ushioda, 2009).

The research also contributes methodologically by demonstrating the value of mixed-methods approaches in motivation studies. The combination of quantitative measures with qualitative insights (e.g., student interviews about perceived monotony of interventions) offers a more comprehensive understanding than either approach could achieve independently. This methodological innovation provides a template for future research seeking to capture motivation's complexity.

8.2.2 Pedagogical Implications: Transforming EFL Instruction in High-Stakes Contexts

This study offers several pedagogical implications for EFL instruction in culturally specific, exam-driven contexts such as China. It highlights the importance of relational and affective motivational strategies, suggesting that teachers should prioritize building trust, emotional support, and fair evaluation practices. Given the inherently dynamic and fluctuating nature of L2 motivation, which requires continuous support to sustain (Dörnyei, 2001), embedding motivation-enhancing strategies within EFL pedagogy is imperative. This need is further underscored by the teacher's dual role: while wielding profound influence, educators can also unintentionally act as primary sources of demotivation (e.g., Gorham and Christopher, 1992; Kim et al., 2018b; Oxford, 1998, 2001; Zhang, 2007). Therefore, a systematic integration of theoretically-grounded frameworks, such as the L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2009b), is crucial. This transforms theory into situated practice, proactively counters motivational attrition, and cultivates the sustained engagement necessary for achieving long-term learning outcomes (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). The study suggests three major areas for curricular and instructional transformation based on empirical evidence from Chinese classrooms.

First, the research supports restructuring assessment practices to better align with motivational principles. Students overwhelmingly preferred effort-based grading (S43), suggesting current evaluation systems overemphasize summative outcomes at the expense of progress. The study proposes a hybrid assessment model incorporating progress metrics (40% weight tracked through platforms like Xuexitong), communicative competence (10%, assessed through activities like Free Talks), and exam-aligned outcomes (50%). This balanced approach accommodates institutional testing requirements while recognizing developmental progress, potentially reducing the anxiety associated with high-stakes testing.

Second, the findings advocate for integrating phased motivational development across the curriculum. The successful two-semester model demonstrates how to sequence interventions from whole-class vision building and scripted imagery creation, through small-group goal refinement and barrier identification, to individualized strategy training. This progression aligns closely with Vygotsky's scaffolding principle (Vygotsky, 1987), wherein instructional support begins with teacher-facilitated, macro-level context creation, advances via peer-mediated meso-level adjustments, and culminates in micro-level strategy support that fosters capability internalization and independence—thus allowing the supportive framework to be dynamically adapted and

gradually withdrawn as students' motivation develops. Meanwhile, this sequenced approach addresses the observed "time-lag effect" (Liu, 2010) in strategies such as goal-setting where benefits accrue progressively over time.

Third, the study reveals important insights about technology integration. Contrary to assumptions about digital natives, technology-mediated strategies underperformed without proper pedagogical framing. The research advocates for "pedagogically grounded technologization"—for instance, using interactive platforms like Xuexitong or sojump (like Kahoot!) for real-time polling and formative assessment, while reserving the synthesis of results and nuanced explanation for direct teacher-student interaction. Similarly, while advanced AI evaluation tools can provide substantive feedback on essay content, structure, and argument coherence, their role is optimally framed as a preparatory step. The instructor's subsequent personalized feedback, building upon the AI's analysis, then focuses on higher-order critique and individual mentorship. This balanced approach prevents the motivational declines observed when technology dominates classroom dynamics.

The pedagogical model also addresses the sustainability challenge through its rotational activity system. By alternating intervention types every 4–6 weeks (e.g., shifting from vision journals to peer competitions), educators can maintain novelty while still providing the repetition needed for skill development. This innovation responds directly to the diminishing returns observed when repeating identical interventions across cycles.

8.2.3 Practical Applications for Chinese EFL Classrooms

This study has identified a set of empirically grounded strategies that address the complex challenge of enhancing L2 motivation in exam-oriented contexts. These strategies are synthesized and presented through six interconnected, actionable dimensions, offering a structured approach for pedagogical implementation.

First, relationship-building techniques can be used to establish teacher-student connections through daily personalized check-ins, weekly sharing of instructors' personal L2 learning journeys, and structured feedback protocols requiring two specific praises, one constructive suggestion, and zero criticisms per interaction. These practices align with Dörnyei's (2001) emphasis on creating an environment that motivates by

showing care and acceptance and demonstrating enthusiasm for the subject, which were frequently observed and highly rated by Chinese EFL teachers. Such strategies foster a supportive classroom atmosphere, enhance students' sense of belonging, and directly contribute to maintaining motivation, underscoring their practical significance in cultivating engaged and confident learners in culturally attuned teaching contexts.

Second, student motivation can be operationalized through the TARGET task design framework (Ames, 1992; Anderman & Patrick, 2012), which posits that classroom motivation is not a fixed trait but is systematically shaped by six alterable dimensions of the learning environment: Task, Authority, Recognition, Grouping, Evaluation, and Time. In this intervention, these principles were concretely applied: task design was aligned with authentic exam demands; student autonomy was fostered through topic choice; recognition was structured via public skill showcases; grouping was organized around collaborative, culturally framed competitions; evaluation employed effort-weighted rubrics to reward process; and time management was supported by decomposing complex goals into manageable micro-steps. This approach resonates with the study's observed frequent use of strategies that explain the purpose and utility of a task, make task content relevant to students, and provide positive feedback and recognition through public skill showcases to encourage self-evaluation (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Wong, 2014). This structured application of the TARGET framework created a mastery-oriented learning climate, which the literature links to enhanced engagement, persistence, and deeper cognitive processing (Anderman & Patrick, 2012).

Third, monthly "Future Self" workshops are suggested to facilitate the development of the IES, incorporating guided visualization, reality checks to identify required competencies, collaborative barrier mapping and problem-solving, and "Vision Portfolios" to document progress (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014; Magid & Chan, 2012). These practices align with strategies that aim to "increase students' goal-orientedness by formulating explicit class goals" and to "make the curriculum and teaching materials relevant to students" (Dörnyei, 2001). By making learners' future professional identities tangible and actionable, such workshops translate motivational theory into practical classroom routines, thereby enhancing students' engagement and long-term L2 investment.

Fourth, cultural bridge strategies should contextualize motivation by designing group activities that reward individual excellence, connecting English learning to filial piety through narratives like “How English helps your future family,” and fostering national identity via projects such as “Presenting China to the world.” This is grounded in the Confucian heritage which emphasizes teacher authority and respect, as well as a unified exam-oriented curriculum (Hu, 2002; Rao, 2013).

Fifth, exam preparation is proposed to transform from a source of pressure into a motivation-building opportunity. This involves reframing test topics as engaging role-play scenarios to make content relevant and stimulating, and intentionally incorporating effort-based components into assessments to provide positive feedback and foster a sense of competence (Dörnyei, 2001), thereby aligning necessary exam practice with effective motivational strategies.

Based on Savvidou’s (2018) emphasis on aligning online feedback with specific educational cultures and this study’s finding that digital tools enhance feedback efficiency, implementing multi-layered monitoring mechanisms, such as weekly micro-surveys, just-in-time polls, and e-portfolio reflections, can effectively bridge motivational theory and classroom practice. This data-driven, reflective cycle allows teachers to dynamically adapt strategies, thereby maximizing student engagement and goal attainment in diverse teaching contexts.

The study particularly emphasizes strategic repetition, reintroducing effective interventions such as providing encouraging feedback to positive contributions in varied formats every few weeks to sustain motivational impact. This practice aligns with the finding that consistent positive feedback was both frequently observed and highly effective in building student confidence and encouraging self-evaluation (Dörnyei, 2001). By cyclically revisiting such core, teacher-led strategies, educators can prevent habituation while maintaining a stable, supportive learning atmosphere, thereby translating motivational theory into sustainable classroom practice.

To conclude, this study provides significant theoretical and practical contributions to L2 motivation in high-stakes contexts. Theoretically, it validates and culturally adapts Dörnyei’s (2001) framework, demonstrating the dominance of teacher-led, relational strategies in Chinese classrooms over Western-preferred collaborative methods. It advances understanding of motivational dynamics, including the paradox between

strong IL2S and low linguistic confidence, and supports a cyclical, non-linear view of motivation development. Practically, it offers a structured, culturally attuned pedagogical model. This includes prioritizing relationship-building techniques, applying the TARGET task design framework to make learning relevant, and strategically integrating technology for efficient, culturally aligned feedback (Savvidou, 2018). The model emphasizes balancing exam requirements with motivational support, for example through effort-based evaluation, and employing strategic repetition of core interventions to sustain engagement. These insights directly empower educators to translate motivational theory into sustainable, effective classroom practice within specific institutional and cultural constraints.

8.3 Limitations of the Study

While this action research provides valuable insights into the implementation of L2MSS-based strategies in Chinese university EFL classrooms, several limitations warrant acknowledgment. These limitations pertain to methodological constraints, contextual specificity, theoretical application, and practical challenges inherent in the research design.

8.3.1 Sample Representativeness and Generalizability

The study's participants were drawn from a single Chinese university, with a relatively small cohort of students (four observed teachers and their classes for Research Question 1 and 110 students for the rest research questions). While this focus allowed for in-depth longitudinal analysis, it limits the generalizability of findings to broader populations, such as students from diverse academic disciplines, regions, or educational backgrounds. For instance, the motivational dynamics of students in elite universities or vocational colleges may differ significantly due to variations in institutional priorities, learner profiles, and resource availability. Consequently, the proposed two-semester teaching design, while theoretically grounded, requires validation across heterogeneous contexts to ensure scalability.

8.3.2 Temporal Constraints and Longitudinal Effects

Although the study spanned 26 weeks across three cycles, the duration may have been insufficient to fully capture the long-term sustainability of motivational changes. Motivation, as a dynamic and context-dependent construct (Ushioda, 2009), often

fluctuates in response to external pressures especially exam periods or internal factors such as self-efficacy shifts. While the cyclical design tracked immediate effects of interventions, it could not account for delayed or diminishing impacts beyond the research timeframe. For example, strategies such as “future self-visualization” showed initial promise in Cycle 1 but may lose efficacy over repeated use, as hinted in Cycle 3. A multi-year longitudinal study would better elucidate how motivational strategies interact with learners’ evolving academic and personal trajectories.

8.3.3 Methodological Reliance on Self-Reported Data

The primary instruments: questionnaires, learning journals, and focus group interviews, introduced risks of social desirability bias and subjective interpretation. Students’ self-reported motivation levels and perceptions of strategy effectiveness may reflect idealized or transient attitudes rather than sustained behavioral changes. Similarly, classroom observation protocols used in observing teachers’ behaviors, though systematic, were susceptible to researcher bias, as the author simultaneously served as instructor and observer. Triangulation with objective measures, such as standardized proficiency tests or independent observer ratings, could have strengthened validity. Furthermore, the Likert-scale questionnaires, while statistically robust, oversimplified complex motivational constructs, potentially masking subtle interactions between IL2S, OL2S, and L2LE.

8.3.4 Cultural and Theoretical Constraints

The study’s reliance on Dörnyei’s L2MSS framework, though theoretically sound, may not fully account for the sociocultural specificities of Chinese EFL contexts. For instance, the OL2S component, heavily influenced by familial and societal expectations, was underexplored in intervention design. While the study acknowledged the role of exam pressures, strategies to harmonize OL2S with IL2S were not systematically tested. Additionally, the collectivist educational culture in China, which prioritizes conformity and external validation, may have constrained students’ ability to internalize IL2S visions autonomously. Comparative studies in individualistic contexts could clarify the universality of L2MSS strategies. Another concern is related to empirical support, theoretical consistency, and methodological soundness of the L2MSS. Recent critiques emphasize the necessity for enhanced theoretical consistency, clearer construct

differentiation, and improved methodological practices to address ambiguities and inconsistencies (Al-Hoorie et al., 2024; Henry & Liu, 2025).

8.3.5 Intervention Design and Implementation Challenges

The iterative nature of action research necessitated frequent adjustments to activities across cycles. While adaptability is a strength, such modifications introduced variability that complicates causal inferences. For example, the addition of “English Salon” sessions in Cycle 2 may have confounded the effects of core IL2S strategies. Furthermore, the heavy reliance on teacher-mediated activities assumes uniform instructor expertise, which may not hold in resource-limited settings. The study also faced logistical hurdles, such as inconsistent student participation in learning journals, which reduced data completeness.

8.3.6. Theoretical and Practical Gaps

The study prioritized IL2S-oriented strategies, leaving the integration of L2LE and OL2S underdeveloped. While L2LE was acknowledged as critical (e.g., Brady, 2019; Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Li, 2014; Liu, 2010), interventions focused narrowly on vision-building rather than holistic learning environment design. Similarly, the feared-self (Dörnyei, 2009b), a potent motivator in Asian contexts (Sampson, 2012; Taguchi et al., 2009; Wang, 2016), was minimally leveraged. In China’s context, the motivational force derived from avoiding a catastrophic future represented by the feared-self may be as powerful as striving toward an ideal future self (Xu & Gao, 2014). Future research should explore hybrid models that synergize all L2MSS components. Lastly, the study’s emphasis on group-level outcomes overlooked individual differences in learning styles, proficiency levels, and psychological traits, which may mediate strategy effectiveness.

In conclusion, these limitations do not diminish the study’s contributions but highlight avenues for refinement. Addressing these gaps through expanded samples, extended timelines, mixed-method designs, and culturally adaptive frameworks will advance both theoretical and practical applications of L2MSS in global EFL education (Wang & Chen, 2023).

8.4 Directions for Future Research

Building on the findings and limitations of this study, advancing the application of L2MSS requires a multi-dimensional research agenda. Future work should integrate longitudinal, cross-contextual, and technologically-informed investigations with a deeper focus on teacher development and learner diversity to transform L2MSS into a dynamic, culturally adaptive framework for global EFL education.

Due to space constraints, this study did not investigate the alignment between teachers' perceptions of strategy effectiveness and their actual implementation behaviors. While the present study identified eight strategies that overlapped between teacher-reported frequency and observed classroom practice, whether teachers' beliefs about effectiveness correspond to their frequency of use remains an important area for future inquiry. Such discrepancies, which may reveal contextual or institutional influences, could be examined through stimulated recall interviews and classroom observations (Bachtiar, 2024; Borg, 2006). Future research, grounded in teacher cognition frameworks, should explore why certain effective strategies are underutilized while less effective ones persist (Chen et al., 2019; Fang, 2012).

Second, longitudinal studies spanning multiple academic years are critical to assess the sustainability of IL2S interventions and their long-term impacts on language proficiency and career trajectories. Such designs could capture delayed motivational shifts, such as post-graduation language use or the internalization of lifelong learning habits.

Third, cross-cultural comparisons are needed to examine how sociocultural norms (e.g., collectivism vs. individualism) moderate the effectiveness of L2MSS strategies. For instance, comparing Chinese students' responses to IES activities with those in Western or Middle Eastern contexts could clarify universal versus culture-bound pedagogical principles.

Fourth, the adoption of mixed-method approaches, particularly through blended learning environments, can substantially enhance the objectivity of learner assessment while mitigating social desirability bias. By systematically utilizing online teaching platforms, it is possible to integrate multimodal behavioral data such as class participation, assignment completion, group collaboration, and attentiveness indicators, alongside self-reported reflections. This methodological integration allows for a more nuanced and evidence-based understanding of student engagement and performance.

Moreover, technological integration warrants further exploration. Building on Savvidou's (2026) comprehensive analysis of generative AI in language education, future research could investigate AI-driven adaptive systems that personalize IES activities based on learner profiles. For example, machine learning algorithms could dynamically adjust task difficulty or recommend resources aligned with students' evolving goals. Such investigations would extend her call for ethically grounded, pedagogically sound technology integration in TESOL.

Furthermore, the role of teacher training in L2MSS implementation remains underexplored. Research could design and evaluate professional development programs that equip educators with skills to balance IES, OES, and ELE strategies while navigating institutional constraints especially the exam-centric curricula. Finally, individual differences—such as growth mindset, resilience, or socioeconomic backgrounds—should be examined as mediators of motivational strategy efficacy. Qualitative case studies could illuminate how marginalized learners negotiate ideal selves within structural inequalities. By addressing these gaps, future scholarship can refine L2MSS frameworks into actionable, culturally adaptive models for global EFL education.

8.5 Summary

In conclusion, this action research examined the effectiveness of common motivational strategies from both teacher and student perspectives, and further evaluated supplementary L2MSS-based interventions within a two-semester university English curriculum in China, aiming to optimize students' IES while navigating contextual constraints such as exam pressure, cultural norms and technological integration.

The study revealed a complex interplay between universal motivational principles and localized contextual factors. While relationship-building and intrinsic engagement strategies were consistently valued, their implementation and perceived effectiveness were mediated by cultural expectations and high-stakes learning environments. Structured interventions, including vision-building workshops and personalized activities, were shown to enhance short-term motivation. However, the research also observed diminishing returns from repeated strategy use, underscoring the need for dynamic adaptation. Furthermore, the findings underscored the bidirectional relationship between the IES and the learning environment, an interaction in which

learner-centered and culturally responsive practices supported by mindful technology integration prove most effective for sustaining engagement. Based on these insights, a phased pedagogical model was proposed, integrating vision formation, microenvironment enhancement, and hybrid assessments to balance autonomy with accountability.

Ultimately, this research contributes to the understanding of motivation in EFL contexts by illustrating the necessity of adapting theoretical frameworks to specific educational landscapes. It offers practical guidance for educators while acknowledging limitations related to sample scope and measurement, pointing to valuable directions for future research, including the exploration of the relationship between teachers' perceptions of strategy effectiveness and their actual classroom practices, as well as longitudinal and cross-cultural investigations. These directions can further refine the application of motivational frameworks in diverse EFL settings.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Observation Protocol for Most Common Motivational Strategies (OPMCMS)

Dörnyei (2001)

This is the protocol for the classroom observation at the beginning of the study to examine the frequencies of motivational strategies used by teachers.

Date	Participant	Venue
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	Motivational Strategy	Times used by the teacher	Notes:
A	Creating an environment that motivates		
1 Model personal passion for the subject and its relevance.			
1)	Be a living example of engagement by sharing your fascination with the L2.		
2)	Demonstrate to your class that you see L2 acquisition as a personally rewarding journey, one that brings fulfillment and enhances your worldview.		
2 Approach each learner's intellectual growth with profound respect.			
3)	Let students know that their improvement is important to you.		
4)	Be accessible and ready to support students in their academic work.		
5)	Maintain rigorous academic expectations that push students to grow.		
3 Establish a positive connection with each of your students.			
6)	Demonstrate your respect and genuine concern for each learner.		
7)	Give each student your focused attention.		
8)	Make it clear that you are available to support your students.		
4 Build a strong home-school connection.			
9)	Provide routine updates to parents about their child's development and achievements.		
10)	Request their support with specific learning activities at home.		
5 Nurture a welcoming and encouraging climate in your classroom.			
11)	Foster a culture of tolerance.		
12)	Taking risks is encouraged and errors are viewed as a natural step in learning.		
13)	Weave humor into the teaching.		

14)	Encourage learners to personalize the classroom environment according to their taste.		
6 Foster team cohesion.			
15)	Empower learners to interact, collaborate, and share openly about themselves.		
16)	Begin with an ice-breaking activity to open the course.		
17)	Schedule regular tasks for small, mixed groups to ensure peer exchange.		
18)	Promote and, where feasible, facilitate extracurricular activities and trips.		
19)	Avoid the formation of fixed seating arrangements.		
20)	Design tasks that either require the entire group to achieve a shared objective or are structured as competitive games between small teams.		
21)	Actively cultivate a unique, shared identity and narrative for the group.		
7 Collaboratively establish clear group norms and guide learners to discuss and take ownership of them.			
22)	Initiate the group with a dedicated activity to establish norms clearly.		
23)	Articulate the purpose of the established norms and how they foster an effective learning environment, then secure their agreement.		
24)	Open the floor for learners to suggest additional rules, applying the same discussion framework used for the pre-established ones to evaluate each idea.		
25)	Display the group rules—along with the associated consequences.		
8 Ensure the group norms are consistently observed.			
26)	Follow the established norms to the letter yourself.		
27)	Maintain accountability by addressing all infractions.		
B Strategies to foster initial motivation			
9 Strengthen learners' language values by exposing them to peers who embody those ideals.			
28)	Arrange for senior students to share their success stories with your class.		
29)	Provide feedback on the students' views of their peers, e.g. in the form of a class newsletter.		
30)	Create opportunities (e.g., in group projects) for learners to work alongside and be inspired by classmates who show high engagement in the subject.		
10 Foster learners' intrinsic motivation for the L2 learning process.			

31)	Spotlight and model the enjoyable elements of L2 learning for your students.		
32)	Ensure students' first exposure to the L2 is a positive one.		
11 Foster an integrative orientation by cultivating an open and appreciative stance toward the L2, its communities, and diverse cultural experiences.			
33)	Teach the living culture behind the language, not just its grammar.		
34)	Share optimistic words on acquiring languages from well-known people.		
35)	Guide students to independently discover the target-language world (such as online).		
36)	Facilitate engagement with the language community and its cultural content.		
12 Ensure learners see the Extrinsic benefits of their language skills.			
37)	Show students that an L2 is key to reaching their own objectives.		
38)	Reinforce the L2's relevance to their lives and the wider world.		
39)	Prompt real-world use of their language skills.		
13 Boost their confidence in tasks and overall progress.			
40)	Ensure they get enough training and help.		
41)	Ensure they fully understand what it takes to succeed in the task.		
42)	Ensure the path to success is clear.		
14 Help your students focus on what to achieve by setting clear class goals that they buy into.			
43)	Let students discuss their personal goals and a shared aim. Then, put their final agreement up for everyone to see.		
44)	Bring up the class goals regularly. Show how what you're doing ties back to achieving them.		
45)	Maintain achievable class goals and be ready to revise them together.		
15 Make sure the lessons relate directly to your students.			
46)	Tailor your teaching to your students' needs and interests.		
47)	Link the lesson to your students' lives and backgrounds.		
48)	Bring students on board to design and run the course.		
16 Guide students to develop realistic expectations about progress			
49)	Spot and reshape unhelpful beliefs your students hold.		
50)	Help students see the different paths to learning a language and all the factors involved in its success.		
C Supporting and safeguarding motivation			
17 Break up the routine to keep learning fresh and engaging.			

51)	Try to make your teaching tasks and other classroom activities as diverse as possible.		
52)	Pay as much attention to keeping students engaged as you do to giving them information.		
53)	Try introducing something unexpected now and then.		
18 Create appealing activities to make learning more exciting and enjoyable.			
54)	Set tasks that push students just beyond their comfort zone.		
55)	Design tasks that can hook interest with content that taps into student curiosity or adds fun, competition, or fantasy.		
56)	Personalise learning tasks.		
57)	Pick activities that lead to a tangible final product.		
19 Create stimulating and enjoyable learning by involving students as active participants in tasks.			
58)	Select tasks to immerse every learner—mentally and physically.		
59)	Assign unique roles and personalized tasks to all.		
20 Launch and organize tasks in a motivating manner.			
60)	Connect the task to clear objectives and practical benefits.		
61)	Stimulate appetite for the task ahead.		
62)	Equip learners with clear steps to complete the task.		
21 Implement structured goal-setting techniques with students.			
63)	Let learners pick their own short-term goals.		
64)	Support goals with clear deadlines and ongoing feedback.		
22 Use written agreements to secure student commitment to their goals.			
65)	Co-create a detailed learning contract with students, outlining objectives, methods, support, and rewards.		
66)	Track progress and ensure mutual adherence to the contract terms.		
23 Ensure learners frequently achieve tangible success			
67)	Create repeated moments of success for all learners in the language classroom.		
68)	Match task difficulty to student skill, while offsetting tough assignments with doable ones.		
69)	Design competency-based tests that highlight strengths and provide paths for growth.		
24 Strengthen learner confidence through consistent encouragement.			
70)	Direct attention toward learners' existing strengths and capabilities.		

71)	Express clear confidence in your students' effort and ability to succeed.		
25 Reduce language anxiety by minimizing stress factors in the learning space.			
72)	Actively prevent all comparison among students, even subtle kinds.		
73)	Encourage collaboration over comparison.		
74)	Encourage learners to view mistakes as evidence of effort and growth.		
75)	Keep all testing and grading fully open, and engage learners in final mark negotiations.		
26 Keep all Foster confidence in learning ability through explicit strategy instruction.			
76)	Provide students with learning techniques that aid in absorbing new material.		
77)	Provide practical strategies to help learners work through communication challenges.		
27 Ensure the preservation of learners' social confidence during task engagement.			
78)	Choose tasks that give every participant a "good" role.		
79)	Prevent situations that could cause students to lose face, such as humiliating feedback or unexpected public attention.		
28 Strengthen student motivation through structured peer cooperation.			
80)	Design collaborative tasks that require teams to pursue a shared objective.		
81)	Include collective results alongside individual performance in evaluation.		
82)	Provide guided practice in the social skills needed for teamwork.		
29 Elevate motivation through increasing learner control and ownership.			
83)	Empower students with meaningful decision-making power over how, what, and when they learn.		
84)	Delegate instructional roles and classroom functions to learners whenever possible.		
85)	Embrace a facilitative teaching role.		
30 Develop students' ability to motivate themselves.			
86)	Help students recognize the value of self-motivation in their learning.		
87)	Exchange proven strategies that have worked for you.		
88)	Help learners select, adapt and implement ways to motivate themselves.		
D Strengthening Positive Self-Reflection			
31 Teach students to credit their success to effort.			
89)	Guide learners to attribute setbacks to effort and strategy, not ability.		
90)	Reject ability attributions and stress that the syllabus is within every learner's reach.		
32 Offer encouraging and constructive feedback.			

91)	Be attentive to and respond supportively to valuable student participation.		
92)	Regularly update students on their progress and prioritize next steps for learning.		
33 Cultivate a greater sense of student accomplishment.			
93)	Track progress and intentionally celebrate moments of student success.		
94)	Use visual records and regular activities to showcase concrete progress.		
95)	Schedule regular tasks where students can apply and exhibit their skills publicly.		
34 Use rewards to encourage and motivate students.			
96)	Ensure the primary focus remains on learning, not the rewards.		
97)	Ensure praise and recognition have a tangible or visible component.		
98)	Incentivize participation in well-designed activities that are novel, goal-oriented, creatively engaging, and structured for achievable success.		
35 Design grading to incentivize learning and minimize discouragement.			
99)	Create a clear and open assessment process that incorporates student and peer perspectives.		
100)	Design grading to recognize both the learning journey (effort/improvement) and the destination (mastery).		
101)	Assess continuously with a variety of measurement tools beyond traditional tests.		
102)	Equip students with tools to develop accurate self-evaluation skills.		

Appendix B: Questionnaire on Most Common Motivational Strategies (MCMS)

(Dörnyei, 2013)

This questionnaire is handed out to the teachers observed at the end of whole observation.

THE CONTENTS OF THIS FORM ARE *ABSOLUTELY* CONFIDENTIAL. INFORMATION IDENTIFYING THE RESPONDENT WILL NOT BE DISCLOSED UNDER ANY CIRCUMSTANCES.

This survey is conducted by a PhD candidate of the University of Nicosia to better understand the frequency of the strategies used by teachers to motivate their students in classrooms. Please rate the frequency you employed each of the motivational strategies marked from 1) to 102) in the following table in your English course, online live lectures(直播课程). This is not a test so there is no “right” or “wrong” answer. Although your name is required on the first page, I do so only because I must be able to associate your answers to this questionnaire with those of other questionnaires which you will be asked to answer. Please give your answers sincerely as only this will guarantee the success of the investigation. Thank you very much for your help!

Name:

For your reference: 1 = hardly ever 2 = in some of my lectures; 3 = in most of my lectures; 4 = multiple times in each lecture of mine; 5 = more than 5 times in each lecture of mine (答题方法: 将数字直接填在每条策略后面的方框里即可)

Notes:

L2: Second language, English in this questionnaire.

	Teacher's motivational strategies	Hardly ever→very often				
		1	2	3	4	5
A	Creating an environment that motivates					
1	Model personal passion for the subject and its relevance.					
1)	Be a living example of engagement by sharing your fascination with the L2.					
2)	Demonstrate to your class that you see L2 acquisition as a personally rewarding journey, one that brings fulfillment and enhances your worldview.					
2	Approach each learner's intellectual growth with profound respect.					
3)	Let students know that their improvement is important to you.					
4)	Be accessible and ready to support students in their academic work.					
5)	Maintain rigorous academic expectations that push students to grow.					
3	Establish a positive connection with each of your students.					
6)	Demonstrate your respect and genuine concern for each learner.					
7)	Give each student your focused attention.					
8)	Make it clear that you are available to support your students.					
4	Build a strong home-school connection.					
9)	Provide routine updates to parents about their child's development and achievements.					
10)	Request their support with specific learning activities at home.					
5	Nurture a welcoming and encouraging climate in your classroom.					
11)	Foster a culture of tolerance.					

12)	Taking risks is encouraged and errors are viewed as a natural step in learning.	
13)	Actively incorporate and promote humour.	
14)	Let learners personalize their classroom to reflect their preferences.	
6	Foster team cohesion.	
15)	Empower learners to interact, collaborate, and share openly about themselves.	
16)	Begin with an ice-breaking activity to open the course.	
17)	Schedule regular tasks for small, mixed groups to ensure peer exchange.	
18)	Promote and, where feasible, facilitate extracurricular activities and trips.	
19)	Avoid the formation of fixed seating arrangements.	
20)	Design tasks that either require the entire group to achieve a shared objective or are structured as competitive games between small teams.	
21)	Actively cultivate a unique, shared identity and narrative for the group.	
7	Collaboratively establish clear group norms and guide learners to discuss and take ownership of them.	
22)	Initiate the group with a dedicated activity to establish norms clearly.	
23)	Articulate the purpose of the established norms and how they foster an effective learning environment, then secure their agreement.	
24)	Open the floor for learners to suggest additional rules, applying the same discussion framework used for the pre-established ones to evaluate each idea.	
25)	Display the group rules—along with the associated consequences.	
8	Ensure the group norms are consistently observed.	
26)	Follow the established norms to the letter yourself.	
27)	Maintain accountability by addressing all infractions.	
B	Strategies to foster initial motivation	
9	Strengthen learners' language values by exposing them to peers who embody those ideals.	
28)	Let experienced learners motivate through personal testimony.	
29)	Use a class newsletter as a vessel to circulate a synthesis of student perspectives back to the group.	
30)	Create opportunities (e.g., in group projects) for learners to work alongside and be inspired by classmates who show high engagement in the subject.	
10	Foster learners' intrinsic motivation for the L2 learning process.	
31)	Spotlight and model the enjoyable elements of L2 learning for your students.	
32)	Ensure students' first exposure to the L2 is a positive one.	
11	Foster an integrative orientation by cultivating an open and appreciative stance toward the L2, its communities, and diverse cultural experiences.	
33)	Teach the living culture behind the language, not just its grammar.	
34)	Share optimistic words on acquiring languages from well-known people.	
35)	Guide students to independently discover the target-language world (such as online).	
36)	Facilitate engagement with the language community and its cultural content.	
12	Ensure learners see the Extrinsic benefits of their language skills.	
37)	Show students that an L2 is key to reaching their own objectives.	
38)	Reinforce the L2's relevance to their lives and the wider world.	
39)	Prompt real-world use of their language skills.	
13	Boost learners' confidence in tasks and overall progress.	
40)	Ensure they get enough training and help.	
41)	Ensure they fully understand what it takes to succeed in the task.	

42)	Ensure the path to success is clear.	
14	Help your students focus on what to achieve by setting clear class goals that they buy into.	
43)	Let students discuss their personal goals and a shared aim. Then, put their final agreement up for everyone to see.	
44)	Bring up the class goals regularly. Show how what you're doing ties back to achieving them.	
45)	Maintain achievable class goals and be ready to revise them together.	
15	Make sure the lessons relate directly to your students.	
46)	Tailor your teaching to your students' needs and interests.	
47)	Link the lesson to your students' lives and backgrounds.	
48)	Bring students on board to design and run the course.	
16	Guide students to develop realistic expectations about progress	
49)	Spot and reshape unhelpful beliefs your students hold.	
50)	Help students see the different paths to learning a language and all the factors involved in its success.	
C	Supporting and safeguarding motivation	
17	Break up the routine to keep learning fresh and engaging.	
51)	Try to make your teaching tasks and other classroom activities as diverse as possible.	
52)	Pay as much attention to keeping students engaged as you do to giving them information.	
53)	Try introducing something unexpected now and then.	
18	Create appealing activities to make learning more exciting and enjoyable.	
54)	Set tasks that push students just beyond their comfort zone.	
55)	Design tasks that can hook interest with content that taps into student curiosity or adds fun, competition, or fantasy.	
56)	Tailor tasks to the learner.	
57)	Pick activities that lead to a tangible final product.	
19	Create stimulating and enjoyable learning by involving students as active participants in tasks.	
58)	Select tasks to immerse every learner—mentally and physically.	
59)	Assign unique roles and personalized tasks to all.	
20	Launch and organize tasks in a motivating manner.	
60)	Connect the task to clear objectives and practical benefits.	
61)	Stimulate appetite for the task ahead.	
62)	Equip learners with clear steps to complete the task.	
21	Implement structured goal-setting techniques with students.	
63)	Let learners pick their own short-term goals.	
64)	Support goals with clear deadlines and ongoing feedback.	
22	Use written agreements to secure student commitment to their goals.	
65)	Co-create a detailed learning contract with students, outlining objectives, methods, support, and rewards.	
66)	Track progress and ensure mutual adherence to the contract terms.	
23	Ensure learners frequently achieve tangible success	
67)	Create repeated moments of success for all learners in the language classroom.	
68)	Match task difficulty to student skill, while offsetting tough assignments with doable ones.	
69)	Design competency-based tests that highlight strengths and provide paths for growth.	
24	Strengthen learner confidence through consistent encouragement.	
70)	Direct attention toward learners' existing strengths and capabilities.	

71)	Express clear confidence in your students' effort and ability to succeed.	
25	Reduce language anxiety by minimizing stress factors in the learning space.	
72)	Actively prevent all comparison among students, even subtle kinds.	
73)	Encourage collaboration over comparison.	
74)	Encourage learners to view mistakes as evidence of effort and growth.	
75)	Keep all testing and grading fully open, and engage learners in final mark negotiations.	
26	Keep all Foster confidence in learning ability through explicit strategy instruction.	
76)	Provide students with learning techniques that aid in absorbing new material.	
77)	Provide practical strategies to help learners work through communication challenges.	
27	Ensure the preservation of learners' social confidence during task engagement.	
78)	Choose tasks that give every participant a "good" role.	
79)	Prevent situations that could cause students to lose face, such as humiliating feedback or unexpected public attention.	
28	Strengthen student motivation through structured peer cooperation.	
80)	Design collaborative tasks that require teams to pursue a shared objective.	
81)	Include collective results alongside individual performance in evaluation.	
82)	Provide guided practice in the social skills needed for teamwork.	
29	Elevate motivation through increasing learner control and ownership.	
83)	Empower students with meaningful decision-making power over how, what, and when they learn.	
84)	Delegate instructional roles and classroom functions to learners whenever possible.	
85)	Embrace a facilitative teaching role.	
30	Develop students' ability to motivate themselves.	
86)	Help students recognize the value of self-motivation in their learning.	
87)	Exchange proven strategies that have worked for you.	
88)	Help learners select, adapt and implement ways to motivate themselves.	
D	Strengthening Positive Self-Reflection	
31	Teach students to credit their success to effort.	
89)	Guide learners to attribute setbacks to effort and strategy, not ability.	
90)	Reject ability attributions and stress that the syllabus is within every learner's reach.	
32	Offer encouraging and constructive feedback.	
91)	Be attentive to and respond supportively to valuable student participation.	
92)	Regularly update students on their progress and prioritize next steps for learning.	
33	Cultivate a greater sense of student accomplishment.	
93)	Track progress and intentionally celebrate moments of student success.	
94)	Use visual records and regular activities to showcase concrete progress.	
95)	Schedule regular tasks where students can apply and exhibit their skills publicly.	
34	Use rewards to encourage and motivate students.	
96)	Ensure the primary focus remains on learning, not the rewards.	
97)	Ensure praise and recognition have a tangible or visible component.	
98)	Incentivize participation in well-designed activities that are novel, goal-oriented, creatively engaging, and structured for achievable success.	
35	Design grading to incentivize learning and minimize discouragement.	
99)	Create a clear and open assessment process that incorporates student and peer perspectives.	

100)	Design grading to recognize both the learning journey (effort/improvement) and the destination (mastery).	
101)	Assess continuously with a variety of measurement tools beyond traditional tests.	
102)	Equip students with tools to develop accurate self-evaluation skills.	
If any, please list other motivational strategies and rate them.		

Thank you for your time!



Appendix C: Questionnaire on the Most Effective Motivational Strategies (MEMS)

(Dörnyei, 2013)

This questionnaire is handed out after the teachers observed finished the questionnaire MCMS in Appendix II to avoid prejudice effect caused by their answers to this questionnaire.

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This survey is conducted by a PhD candidate of the University of Nicosia to better understand teachers' perception of the Effectiveness of motivational strategies (Dörnyei, 2013) in language classrooms. Please rate how effective you think the motivational strategies marked from 1)-102) in the table are in L2 classrooms (**either in online live lectures or in face-to-face lectures**). The effectiveness ranges from 1 to 5 (1 = absolutely ineffective; 5 = absolutely effective; 3 =not sure/neutral). This is not a test so there is no "right" or "wrong" answer. Although your name is required on the cover page, I do so only because I must be able to associate your answers to this questionnaire with those of other questionnaires which you will be asked to answer. Please give your answers sincerely as only this will guarantee the success of the investigation. Thank you very much for your help!

Name:

Notes:

L2 means Second language, English in this questionnaire.

Please write the corresponding number showing your perception of its importance in the blank at the end of each motivational strategy.

	Teacher's motivational strategies	Absolutely ineffective→ absolutely effective				
		1	2	3	4	5
A	Creating an environment that motivates					
1	Model personal passion for the subject and its relevance.					
1)	Be a living example of engagement by sharing your fascination with the L2.					
2)	Demonstrate to your class that you see L2 acquisition as a personally rewarding journey, one that brings fulfillment and enhances your worldview.					
2	Approach each learner's intellectual growth with profound respect.					
3)	Let students know that their improvement is important to you.					
4)	Be accessible and ready to support students in their academic work.					
5)	Maintain rigorous academic expectations that push students to grow.					
3	Establish a positive connection with each of your students.					
6)	Demonstrate your respect and genuine concern for each learner.					
7)	Give each student your focused attention.					
8)	Make it clear that you are available to support your students.					

4	Build a strong home-school connection.	
9)	Provide routine updates to parents about their child's development and achievements.	
10)	Request their support with specific learning activities at home.	
5	Nurture a welcoming and encouraging climate in your classroom.	
11)	Foster a culture of tolerance.	
12)	Taking risks is encouraged and errors are viewed as a natural step in learning.	
13)	Actively incorporate and promote humour.	
14)	Let learners personalize their classroom to reflect their preferences.	
6	Foster team cohesion.	
15)	Empower learners to interact, collaborate, and share openly about themselves.	
16)	Begin with an ice-breaking activity to open the course.	
17)	Schedule regular tasks for small, mixed groups to ensure peer exchange.	
18)	Promote and, where feasible, facilitate extracurricular activities and trips.	
19)	Avoid the formation of fixed seating arrangements.	
20)	Design tasks that either require the entire group to achieve a shared objective or are structured as competitive games between small teams.	
21)	Actively cultivate a unique, shared identity and narrative for the group.	
7	Collaboratively establish clear group norms and guide learners to discuss and take ownership of them.	
22)	Initiate the group with a dedicated activity to establish norms clearly.	
23)	Articulate the purpose of the established norms and how they foster an effective learning environment, then secure their agreement.	
24)	Open the floor for learners to suggest additional rules, applying the same discussion framework used for the pre-established ones to evaluate each idea.	
25)	Display the group rules—along with the associated consequences.	
8	Ensure the group norms are consistently observed.	
26)	Follow the established norms to the letter yourself.	
27)	Maintain accountability by addressing all infractions.	
B	Strategies to foster initial motivation	
9	Strengthen learners' language values by exposing them to peers who embody those ideals.	
28)	Let experienced learners motivate through personal testimony.	
29)	Use a class newsletter as a vessel to circulate a synthesis of student perspectives back to the group.	
30)	Create opportunities (e.g., in group projects) for learners to work alongside and be inspired by classmates who show high engagement in the subject.	
10	Foster learners' intrinsic motivation for the L2 learning process.	
31)	Spotlight and model the enjoyable elements of L2 learning for your students.	
32)	Ensure students' first exposure to the L2 is a positive one.	
11	Foster an integrative orientation by cultivating an open and appreciative stance toward the L2, its communities, and diverse cultural experiences.	
33)	Teach the living culture behind the language, not just its grammar.	
34)	Share optimistic words on acquiring languages from well-known people.	
35)	Guide students to independently discover the target-language world (such as online).	
36)	Facilitate engagement with the language community and its cultural content.	
12	Ensure learners see the Extrinsic benefits of their language skills.	

37)	Show students that an L2 is key to reaching their own objectives.	
38)	Reinforce the L2's relevance to their lives and the wider world.	
39)	Prompt real-world use of their language skills.	
13	Boost their confidence in tasks and overall progress.	
40)	Ensure they get enough training and help.	
41)	Ensure they fully understand what it takes to succeed in the task.	
42)	Ensure the path to success is clear.	
14	Help your students focus on what to achieve by setting clear class goals that they buy into.	
43)	Let students discuss their personal goals and a shared aim. Then, put their final agreement up for everyone to see.	
44)	Bring up the class goals regularly. Show how what you're doing ties back to achieving them.	
45)	Maintain achievable class goals and be ready to revise them together.	
15	Make sure the lessons relate directly to your students.	
46)	Tailor your teaching to your students' needs and interests.	
47)	Link the lesson to your students' lives and backgrounds.	
48)	Bring students on board to design and run the course.	
16	Guide students to develop realistic expectations about progress	
49)	Spot and reshape unhelpful beliefs your students hold.	
50)	Help students see the different paths to learning a language and all the factors involved in its success.	
C	Supporting and safeguarding motivation	
17	Break up the routine to keep learning fresh and engaging.	
51)	Diversify tasks, refresh methods.	
52)	Pay as much attention to keeping students engaged as you do to giving them information.	
53)	Try introducing something unexpected now and then.	
18	Create appealing activities to make learning more exciting and enjoyable.	
54)	Set tasks that push students just beyond their comfort zone.	
55)	Design tasks that can hook interest with content that taps into student curiosity or adds fun, competition, or fantasy.	
56)	Tailor tasks to the learner.	
57)	Pick activities that lead to a tangible final product.	
19	Create stimulating and enjoyable learning by involving students as active participants in tasks.	
58)	Select tasks to immerse every learner—mentally and physically.	
59)	Assign unique roles and personalized tasks to all.	
20	Launch and organize tasks in a motivating manner.	
60)	Connect the task to clear objectives and practical benefits.	
61)	Stimulate appetite for the task ahead.	
62)	Equip learners with clear steps to complete the task.	
21	Implement structured goal-setting techniques with students.	
63)	Let learners pick their own short-term goals.	
64)	Support goals with clear deadlines and ongoing feedback.	
22	Use written agreements to secure student commitment to their goals.	
65)	Co-create a detailed learning contract with students, outlining objectives, methods, support, and rewards.	
66)	Track progress and ensure mutual adherence to the contract terms.	
23	Ensure learners frequently achieve tangible success	
67)	Create repeated moments of success for all learners in the language classroom.	

68)	Match task difficulty to student skill, while offsetting tough assignments with doable ones.	
69)	Design competency-based tests that highlight strengths and provide paths for growth.	
24	Strengthen learner confidence through consistent encouragement.	
70)	Direct attention toward learners' existing strengths and capabilities.	
71)	Express clear confidence in your students' effort and ability to succeed.	
25	Reduce language anxiety by minimizing stress factors in the learning space.	
72)	Actively prevent all comparison among students, even subtle kinds.	
73)	Encourage collaboration over comparison.	
74)	Encourage learners to view mistakes as evidence of effort and growth.	
75)	Keep all testing and grading fully open, and engage learners in final mark negotiations.	
26	Keep all Foster confidence in learning ability through explicit strategy instruction.	
76)	Provide students with learning techniques that aid in absorbing new material.	
77)	Provide practical strategies to help learners work through communication challenges.	
27	Ensure the preservation of learners' social confidence during task engagement.	
78)	Choose tasks that give every participant a "good" role.	
79)	Prevent situations that could cause students to lose face, such as humiliating feedback or unexpected public attention.	
28	Strengthen student motivation through structured peer cooperation.	
80)	Design collaborative tasks that require teams to pursue a shared objective.	
81)	Include collective results alongside individual performance in evaluation.	
82)	Provide guided practice in the social skills needed for teamwork.	
29	Elevate motivation through increasing learner control and ownership.	
83)	Empower students with meaningful decision-making power over how, what, and when they learn.	
84)	Delegate instructional roles and classroom functions to learners whenever possible.	
85)	Embrace a facilitative teaching role.	
30	Develop students' ability to motivate themselves.	
86)	Help students recognize the value of self-motivation in their learning.	
87)	Exchange proven strategies that have worked for you.	
88)	Help learners select, adapt and implement ways to motivate themselves.	
D	Strengthening Positive Self-Reflection	
31	Teach students to credit their success to effort.	
89)	Guide learners to attribute setbacks to effort and strategy, not ability.	
90)	Reject ability attributions and stress that the syllabus is within every learner's reach.	
32	Offer encouraging and constructive feedback.	
91)	Be attentive to and respond supportively to valuable student participation.	
92)	Regularly update students on their progress and prioritize next steps for learning.	
33	Cultivate a greater sense of student accomplishment.	
93)	Track progress and intentionally celebrate moments of student success.	
94)	Use visual records and regular activities to showcase concrete progress.	
95)	Schedule regular tasks where students can apply and exhibit their skills publicly.	
34	Use rewards to encourage and motivate students.	
96)	Ensure the primary focus remains on learning, not the rewards.	

97)	Ensure praise and recognition have a tangible or visible component.	
98)	Incentivize participation in well-designed activities that are novel, goal-oriented, creatively engaging, and structured for achievable success.	
35	Design grading to incentivize learning and minimize discouragement.	
99)	Create a clear and open assessment process that incorporates student and peer perspectives.	
100)	Design grading to recognize both the learning journey (effort/improvement) and the destination (mastery).	
101)	Assess continuously with a variety of measurement tools beyond traditional tests.	
102)	Equip students with tools to develop accurate self-evaluation skills.	
If any, please list other motivational strategies and rate them.		

Thank you for your time!



Appendix D: Questions for Teacher Interview

This is a semi-structured interview on teachers' attitudes towards motivating students in online-live teaching and in face-to-face teaching, conducted after classroom observation and the questionnaires of MCMS and MFMS are completed:

- 1, What do you think are the advantages of online-live teaching in motivating students?
- 2, What do you think are the challenges of online-live teaching in motivating students?
- 3, Why did/didn't you adopt the motivational strategies (based on classroom observation)?
- 4, What motivational strategies can be carried over to face-to-face teaching as the advisable from on-line live teaching?



**Appendix E: Sample of Teacher Interview Transcript (Teacher L, Chinese
Version and English Version)**

LH 视频通话， 2020 年 7 月 15 日

时长：15 分钟

研究者: A

教师: B

编码: TL

A: L 老师，您觉得线上教学有什么优势，尤其是在激励学生方面？

B: 线上可能真的没有多大优势，唯一就是不用跑过去，不用那么累，然后不用站在那里那么累，时间上可能稍微自由一点，可能唯一的就只有这个吧，其他的真的没有什么优势。

A: 挑战、劣势

B: 劣势是你没有办法监管啊，你没有办法跟学生（像面对面那样）互动啊，没办法真正的互动啊，而且你没办法知道学生真正地在干什么，有没有参与进来，而且沟通也不好，参与都不是很好，线下可以小组讨论或者什么的。线上唯一的只能说他们发到群里，没办法小组的形式也没办法及时地去比如说，线下可以让他们完成什么他们做，线上的话，你可能让他们写作，他们在网上找资料或怎么样什么的，你也没办法，所以有很多的问题，线上。

A: 我发现的确课堂小组活动不多，是不是可以布置一些小组任务，他们线上视频讨论完成，课堂线上展示？

B: 你让他们线下自己组个群，像我们线下课堂那样，可能性真的很小，不太可能，所以不好操作，线上的话有很多局限性，小组讨论也不行，当堂作业也无法完成，也没办法去监管。

A: 你觉得能看到学生的脸或者教师露脸会不会好一点？

B: 一般都是学生不露脸，我露脸，他们不露脸，可能不愿意露，或者网络连接不是很好，各种东西吧，都没有人露脸，都是我露脸，有时候讲 PPT 的话也不露，露不露吧，我觉得影响不大，没有多大关系。

A: 我看到你上课用了浙大的 PPT 资源，为什么要用那个呢？

B: 其实有的它讲的还不错啊，有些老师前面导入部分讲的还挺好，我就不需要另外再去备课或什么，它讲到的我就用一些，没有讲到的，我再补充一些，那个东西既然人家拿来公开课上讲，我觉得还是不错的，可以拿来学习的。

A: 是学习通上的吗？

B: 不是，是集体备课的时候他们录屏，发过来的。

A: 我还看到你给学生看了相关的视频，TED 演讲上面的，或者其他一些网络上的资源，你为什么会有想到用这些呢？

B: 语言输入太少了，课本上那点东西，讲的应该还是比较少，增加点内容。

A: 你觉得学生会比较感兴趣是吧？

B: 人家做的也很好，也非常的清晰，也比较有趣吧，一些点都包含进去了，也很有趣，自己讲的话你可能讲不了那么多，例子可能也没那么生动，语言上讲讲，没有图片啊展示得那么生动。

A: 你觉得线上得挑战就是看不到学生，调动他们，监管他们比较有难度。

嗯。

A: 对老师而言，对老师对软件，平台的使用要求比较高，备课啊。

B: 备课当然是，因为其实总的来说，线上唯一的就还是给它 PPT 展示出来，不是当面给他讲，所以呈现的东西很有限，所以尽量多一点网上的资料，多放一点东西，所以要去找一些东西，多放点视频。软件也不需要什么，最多也就剪辑视频，或是录屏，其他也没有什么相关的东西需要。

A: 你觉得那一段直播课对你现在的线下上课有没有什么影响，比如教学方式，混合式教学，可能用到一些平台，继续用的有没有？

B: 我当时线上教学以前一直在用钉钉，现在线下教学钉钉也是一直在用，钉钉非常用的，线上布置一些预习的作业什么的，钉钉是一直在用的，线上主要就是作业通知啦。其他没有用到。

A: 所以就是布置作业，课堂上让他们发言会用到吗？

B: 课堂或者课下布置作业，完成后发到钉钉群里，小组的，以前可能都是书面形式，做了什么作文交上来，然后改了发下去，现在都是小组或者个人作业全都发在钉钉上，所有人都可以看到，就是我在钉钉上给他们回复啊，批改啊，这样就是所有人都可以看到，方便很多，基本上都没有交纸质作业了。

A: 然后你平时讲评也都是在钉钉上讲是吧？

B: 有时候可能是在钉钉上，在课堂上直接讲了，有时候课堂上没时间讲的就课下线上回复。

A: 我注意到你挺喜欢让学生写作文。我很少这样。为什么呢？

B: 学术英语啊，有很多要写的，有时候是段落，有时候是文章。

A: 以前教大学英语的时候，你也专门安排了写作的课是吗？

B: 有要求啊，大学英语也是要求有作文。

A: 我好像很少教，我觉得作文很难教。

B: 以前也没怎么系统地教，就错题啊，改一改。现在学术英语有比较系统地讲 topic sentence 怎么写，底下怎么写，讲的稍微比以前都一点。

English Version:

LH video call, July 15, 2020

Duration: 15 minutes

Investigator: A

Teacher: B

Code: TL

A: Ms L, what do you think are the advantages of online teaching, especially in terms of motivating students?

B: Online may not really have many advantages, the only thing is that you don't have to commute, won't be so tired, and then don't have to stand there getting tired, maybe a little flexible, that's maybe all for the advantages.

A: What about challenges or disadvantages

B: The disadvantage is that you can't supervise ah, you can't interact with students (like face-to-face), you can't really interact, and you can't know what students are really doing, whether they are involved, and the communication is not good, participation is not very good. Group discussions or other activities like that can be organized offline. The only group work can only be sending their answers or ideas to the group chatting room, there is no way to form the group and there is no enough time to go for that, for example, offline, I can let them complete, online, if you may ask them practice writing, they would look for information online or things like that, you can't stop them, so there are a lot of problems online.

A: I found that there are not many group activities in the classroom, can I assign some group tasks, complete their online video discussions, and show them online in class?

B: You let them form their own group offline, like our offline classroom, the possibility is really small, unlikely, so it is not easy to operate, there are many limitations online, group discussion is not good, homework cannot be completed in class, and there is no way to supervise.

A: Do you think it would be better to see the faces of students or teachers showing their faces?

B: Generally, students don't show their faces, (instead) I show my face, partly because they may not want to show their faces and partly because the network connection is not very good. All kinds of factors contribute to such phenomenon that no one use their cameras. Sometimes I don't show the words of PPT as it doesn't matter much.

A: I saw that you used the PPT resources of Zhejiang University in class, why did you use that?

B: In fact, some of it is quite good, some teachers said quite well in the previous introduction part, I don't need to prepare for the lesson or anything, I will use some of what it says, what is not mentioned, I will add some, since people take it to open classes to talk about it, I think it is still good, you can use it to learn.

A: Is it a learner?

B: No, they recorded the screen and sent it during the group lesson preparation.

A: I've also seen you show students videos, TED Talks, or other resources on the Internet, why did you come up with the idea of using these?

B: There is too little language input, and the things in the textbook should still be relatively small, and add some content.

A: You think students will be more interested, right?

B: People are also doing very well, but also very clear, but also more interesting, some points are included, but also very interesting, you may not be able to talk so much, examples may not be so vivid, linguistically speaking, no pictures ah show so vividly.

A: You think the challenge online is not seeing students, mobilizing them, supervising them is more difficult.

Well.

A: For teachers, the requirements for teachers to use software and platforms are relatively high, so prepare for lessons.

B: Of course, the lesson preparation is, because in fact, in general, the only thing online is to show it PPT, not to him in person, so the things presented are very limited, so try to have more information on the Internet, put a little more things, so go find some things, put more videos. The software doesn't need anything, at most, it cuts videos, or records screens, and nothing else is needed.

A: Do you think that live class has any impact on your current offline classes, such as teaching methods, blended teaching, may use some platforms, do you continue to use them?

B: I used to use DingTalk for online teaching at that time, and now offline teaching DingTalk has also been using, DingTalk is very useful, I often send assignments notice on DingTalk. that's it.

A: So, it's homework, will it be used to let them speak in class?

B: I usually assign homework in class or after class, sending it to the DingTalk, group tasks. Once completed, their assignments can be sent to DingTalk, which had to be submitted in their notebooks. Now I can review and give feedback on their assignment on DingTalk. Everyone can see my review and comments, that is, I reply to them on DingTalk, correct them, so that everyone can see, which is much more convenient, basically no homework on paper needed to be handed over."

A: Then you usually talk about DingTalk, right?

B: Sometimes it may be on DingTalk, directly in class, and sometimes there is no time to talk in class to reply online after class.

14. I noticed that you like to let students write essays. I rarely do this. Why?

B: Academic English, there is a lot to write, sometimes paragraphs, sometimes articles.

A: When you used to teach college English, you also arranged a writing class, right?

B: There are requirements, college English is also required to have an essay.

A: I seem to teach very little, and I find composition difficult to teach.

B: I didn't teach it systematically, so I changed the wrong question. Now academic English has a more systematic way of talking about how to write an opic sentence and how to write underneath, and it is a little more than before.

Appendix F: Ethical Clearance Form

Ethics Clearance Form

ETHICS CLEARANCE FORM FOR FACULTY STUDY

Section 1: Project Details	
a. Project title	An Action Research on the Effectiveness of Teachers' Motivational Strategies in EFL Classrooms----Case Study of [REDACTED] University
b. Researcher Name	Erli Nan
c. Intended research start date	21st March 2020
d. Intended research end date	28th July 2021
e. Funder (if applicable)	None
Section 2: Research Summary	
This study is to investigate the effectiveness of the motivational strategies that are frequently used by Chinese English teachers the suggested motivational techniques based on the theory of L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2009) through literature analysis, classroom observation, questionnaire surveys and interviews. It is expected that the results of the study will shed light on a motivation-sensitive approach in Chinese TEFL university classrooms.	
Section 3: Research Participants	
The researcher decides to study mainly the three classes the researcher teaches (120 students) at Ningbo-Tech University (International Business majors, Mechanical Engineering majors and Civil Engineering majors). Four colleagues (English teachers of [REDACTED] University) and three of their classes are also sampled as subjects to form the research instruments for the main study.	
Section 4: Research Methods	
A mixed methods approach	Classroom observation; Interviews; Questionnaires;
Section 5: Ethical Consideration	
All the participants will be clearly informed of the purpose of the research and the reason for their involvement. Participants will use their pseudonyms, and they will feel free to participate or leave any time during the study. They study itself will not incur any physical, mental, or psychological harm to the participants involved. The researcher will not fabricate, distort authorship, data or results or any part of the study including knowingly using her role to achieve dishonest purposes.	
Section 6: Declaration	
<i>I confirm that to the best of my knowledge this is a full description of the ethics issues that may arise in the course of this project.</i>	
Name	Erli Nan <i>Nan Erli</i>
Date	12/03/2020 <i>12/03/2020</i>



Ethics Clearance Form

DEPARTMENT USE

Reviewer	
Name	[REDACTED]
Comments	No ethical problems were found. The university allows and encourages the researcher to implement the proposed study.
Signature	[REDACTED] Research coordinator, [REDACTED]
Decision	Approved ✓ Not Approved
Date decision was made	

13/03/2020

Appendix G: Consent Form (English Version)

Title of this Study: Motivational Strategies in Chinese University EFL Classrooms: A Cyclical Action Research on the Development of Ideal English Self (former Cultural Consequences on Teachers' EFL Motivational Strategies: The Case of Cyprus and China)

Name of Researcher: Erli Nan

Part I: Information Sheet

Introduction

My name is Erli Nan, a PhD student at the University of Nicosia. I am studying the effectiveness of motivational strategies teachers use in TEFL classrooms. I am going to give you information and invite you to be part of this research. This consent form may contain words that you do not understand. Please ask me to stop as we go through the information and I will take time to explain. If you have questions later, you can ask me anytime.

Purpose of the research

Motivational strategies mean the teaching techniques used to stimulate learners' behavior to achieve goals. If you are a teacher, you can help by sharing your classroom teaching practice and your understanding of some specific motivational strategies. If you are a student, you can help by sharing your experience, knowledge about the English course and your opinion on the teachers' use of motivational strategies.

Type of Research Intervention

If you are a teacher, this research will involve your in-class teaching being observed for a semester. In addition, at the end of the semester, you will be invited to answer a questionnaire asking you about the frequencies you employ these motivational strategies and the most effective strategies you think. Lastly, you will be invited to talk about the specific motivational strategies in a short interview with me and a group discussion with other participants. If you are a student, you will be invited to some questionnaires and focus group interviews.

Participant Selection

If you are a TEFL teacher, you are being invited to take part in this research as non-native English speakers teaching intermediate-level English in China. If you are a student, you are being invited to take part in this research as non-native English speakers taking college English course in China.

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this research is entirely voluntary. It is your choice whether to participate or not.

Procedures

If you decide to take part in the research, your motivational techniques observed, your questionnaire responses and your comments in the interview and group discussion may be used. In the interview and discussion, you do not have to share anything that you are not comfortable sharing. The class observed, the interview and discussion will be audio-recorded, but no-one will be identified by name. The information recorded is confidential, and no one else except me will have access to the recordings. Your responses to the questionnaire will be collected and stored securely. If you do not wish to answer any of the questions, you may skip them. All information is confidential and no one else except me will have access to it.

Duration

For teacher participants, the research takes place over eight weeks in total. One or two 90-minute-classroom observations will be conducted per week, and after that, a questionnaire, a face-to-face interview and group discussion will follow. The questionnaire will last 15 minutes, the face-to-face interview will last 20 minutes and the discussion will take 30-40 minutes. For student participants, questionnaires will be completed at 4 times of two semester, interviews will be conducted 3 times: at the end of the first semester, at the middle of the second semester and at the end of the second semester. Each interview will last 30 minutes. A learning journal will be fulfilled and your opinion on effectiveness of the classroom activities will be written down in it after each class for two semesters (26 weeks in total).

Risks

Your performance in teaching or your opinions shared will not be used for any other purpose than this research and you are not obliged to answer any question if you feel the question(s) are too personal or if talking about them makes you uncomfortable.

Benefits

There will be no direct benefit to you, but your participation is likely to help me find out more about how to motivate students in English teaching.

Reimbursements

You will not be provided any incentive to take part in the research.

Confidentiality

The information that is collected from this research project will be kept private. Notes taken during classroom observation will be coded with pseudonyms, questionnaires, and journals will be kept in a locked drawer, and will be destroyed after the research. Digital data will be stored securely on the researcher's password-secure phone and computer and in files encrypted. Anti-virus software 360 will be open all the time to maintain the files. Personally identifiable data will be kept from all other data.

Sharing the Results

The knowledge that I get from this research will be shared with my supervisors and there is a possibility that we will publish the results so that other academics may learn from the research.

Right to Refuse or Withdraw

You do not have to take part in this research if you do not wish to do so, and choosing to participate will not affect your experience and/or evaluations in any way. You may stop participating in the research at any time that you wish.

Who to Contact

If you have any questions, you can ask them now or later. If you wish to ask questions later, you may contact me at nancy0321@qq.com.

If you have any concerns or complaints, regarding your participation in the study, you can contact the office of teaching affairs in School of International Study.

Part II: Certificate of Consent

I have read the foregoing information. I have had the opportunity to ask questions about it and any questions I have been asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I consent voluntarily to be a participant in this study.

Signature:

Date:



Appendix H: Effectiveness of Motivational Strategies in English Classroom for Pilot Study

(Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Fang, 2015)

This questionnaire is handed out to students before the beginning of the first cycle of the teaching experiment as a pilot study. To avoid language problems the Chinese version translated from English is used. Here are the English and Chinese versions of the questionnaire.

THE CONTENTS OF THIS FORM ARE *ABSOLUTELY* CONFIDENTIAL. INFORMATION IDENTIFYING THE RESPONDENT WILL NOT BE DISCLOSED UNDER ANY CIRCUMSTANCES.

Dear students,

This questionnaire investigates the effectiveness of English teaching strategies, with a focus on how motivational strategies impact student motivation. Please evaluate each strategy's effectiveness using the following scale: 5 (absolutely effective), 4 (effective), 3 (uncertain/neutral), 2 (slightly effective), or 1 (absolutely ineffective). All responses will remain confidential and be used exclusively for academic research purposes, with no connection to teacher or student evaluations. There are no correct answers—we simply value your honest perspectives. Thank you for participating.

Your major: _____ Your gender (tick✓): Male Female Prefer not to say

	Teacher's motivational strategies	Effectiveness:					Notes 1 = Absolutely ineffective 3 = not sure/neutral 5 = absolutely effective
		1	2	3	4	5	
1)	Show students you care about them.						
2)	Establish good rapport with students.						
3)	Show your enthusiasm for teaching.						
4)	Share with students that you value English learning as a meaningful experience.						
5)	Be yourself in front of students.						
6)	Maintain rigorous academic expectations that push students to grow.						
7)	Be accessible and ready to support students in their academic work.						
8)	Recognize students' effort.						
9)	Recognize students' progress and achievement.						
10)	Teach students to credit their success to effort.						
11)	Provide students with positive feedback.						

12	Express clear confidence in your students' effort and ability to succeed.						
13)	Teach students learning techniques						
14)	Design tasks that are within the students' ability (making sure they have enough preparation, assistance, and what the success of the task involves).						
15)	Make clear to students that communicating meaning effectively is more important than being grammatically correct.						
16)	Creating a pleasant classroom climate.						
17)	Taking risks is encouraged and errors are viewed as a natural step in learning.						
18)	Avoid social comparison.						
19)	Make the class goals clear to the students.						
20)	Give good reasons to students as to why a particular task is meaningful.						
21)	Help students develop realistic beliefs about English learning.						
22)	Find out students' needs and build them into curriculum.						
23)	Tailor tasks to the learner.						
24)	Encourage students to set learning goals.						
25)	Review the class goals regularly and how particular activities help to attain them.						
26)	Break the monotony of classroom events.						
27)	Make tasks attractive by including novel and fantasy elements or topics interesting to students.						
28)	Encourage students to create products.						
29)	Set tasks that push students just beyond their comfort zone.						
30)	Increase the amount of English you use in the class.						
31)	Encourage students to conduct their own exploration of the English community (e.g. on the Internet).						
32)	Familiarize students with the cultural background of the target language.						
33)	Promote contact with authentic cultural materials and English-speakers.						
34)	Remind students of the benefits of mastering English.						
35)	Invite senior students to share their English learning experiences.						
36)	Explain the importance of the class rules, and formulate group norms explicitly through discussion with the students.						
37)	Encourage students to share personal information, experiences and thoughts.						
38)	Regularly Design collaborative tasks that require teams to pursue a shared objective.						
39)	Adopt the role of a "facilitator".						

40)	Encourage peer teaching and group presentation.						
41)	Teach self-motivating strategies.						
42)	Take record of students' presence.						
43)	Bring up the class goals regularly.						
44)	Design grading to recognize both the learning journey (effort/improvement) and the destination (mastery).						

The Chinese Version:

亲爱的同学们：这是一份关于英语教学效果的问卷，调查激励策略对激发学生学习动力的作用。请您根据自己的感受对以下策略的效果进行打分，非常有效 = 5 分，有效 = 4 分，不确定是否有效 = 3 分，不太有效 = 2 分，完全无效 = 1 分。我们承诺调查结果仅用于学术研究，和师生的个人考核无任何关系。题目答案没有对错之分，我们只对您的看法感兴趣，请如实填写。非常感谢您的支持与参与！

1. 您专业_____ 2. 您的性别 男 女 不回答

Items of Motivational Strategies in Chinese:

3. 关心学生。

1 2 3 4 5

4. 与学生关系融洽。

1 2 3 4 5

5. 教学投入，富有热情。

1 2 3 4 5

6. 分享英语学习对自己人生的意义。

1 2 3 4 5

7. 在课堂上举止大方，展示真实的自我。

1 2 3 4 5

8. 展现出对学生的学业赋予较高的期望。

1 2 3 4 5

9. 可以随时为学生提供英语学习方面的帮助。

1 2 3 4 5

10. 积极肯定学生的努力。

1 2 3 4 5

11. 积极肯定学生的进步和成绩。

1 2 3 4 5

12. 引导学生认为成功是靠努力才能取得的。

1 2 3 4 5

13. 给学生正面的反馈和鼓励。

1 2 3 4 5

14. 让学生觉得（教师）相信他们会努力学习并且可以完成任务。

1 2 3 4 5

15. 教学生学习方法和技巧，“授人以渔”。

1 2 3 4 5

16. 布置与学生能力相匹配的任务。

1 2 3 4 5

17. 引导学生关注英语沟通的内容表达，不必过度纠结语法细节。

1 2 3 4 5

18. 营造轻松愉快的课堂气氛。

1 2 3 4 5

19. 鼓励学生尝试，学习就是一个在错误中学习的过程。

1 2 3 4 5

20. 避免对学生的表现进行比较。

1 2 3 4 5

21. 让学生明白课程目标和要求。

1 2 3 4 5

22. 向学生说明所布置的活动任务有什么意义。

1 2 3 4 5

23. 引导学生对英语学习形成科学的认识。

1 2 3 4 5

24. 了解学生的需求并对课程内容做出调整。

1 2 3 4 5

25. 个性化学生的学习任务，“因材施教”。

1 2 3 4 5

26. 鼓励学生设立学习目标。

0 1 2 3 4 5

27. 定期强调课程目标和要求以及一些活动任务如何有利于目标的实现。

1 2 3 4 5

28. 课堂形式多样化。

1 2 3 4 5

29. 布置的活动任务内容新颖、能激发想象或者是学生感兴趣的话题。

1 2 3 4 5

30. 鼓励学生完成作业的过程中发挥创造力。

1 2 3 4 5

31. 布置的活动任务有一定的挑战性。

1 2 3 4 5

32. 尽可能多地使用英语授课。

1 2 3 4 5

33. 鼓励学生多去了解英语社会文化（如：通过网络）。

1 2 3 4 5

34. 向学生介绍英语文化背景知识。

1 2 3 4 5

35. 促进学生接触到真实的语言文化素材或说英语的外国人。

1 2 3 4 5

36. 强调掌握英语对学生的益处。

1 2 3 4 5

37. 邀请学长（姐）进行英语学习经验分享。

1 2 3 4 5

38. 强调课堂纪律的重要性，与学生讨论学习小组的规范。

1 2 3 4 5

39. 鼓励学生之间多交流。

1 2 3 4 5

40. 定期布置需要成员相互合作完成的团队任务。

1 2 3 4 5

41. 转变传统角色，让学生做主导者，教师做“协助者”。

1 2 3 4 5

42. 鼓励学生互教互学，进行小组作业展示。

1 2 3 4 5

43. 教学生自我激励的策略。

1 2 3 4 5

44. 做好课堂考勤。

1 2 3 4 5

45. 不断强调课堂纪律和小组规范。

1 2 3 4 5

46. 学生的英语水平不能作为唯一的评分标准，要给学生的努力和参与一定的分值。

1 2 3 4 5



Appendix I: Questionnaire at the Beginning of the First Cycle (QBFC)

大学英语课堂学习动机状态问卷 (Questionnaire on College Students' English Learning)

同学：您好！以下问卷是我们关于大学生英语教学和学习情况的调查工具。答案无对错之分，请您根据自身实际情况如实填写。我们承诺问卷结果将仅用于学术研究，衷心感谢您的配合！

1. 学号：_____ 性别：_____ 年龄：____岁 专业班级 _____
2. 您的英语入学（升入宁波理工的英语）成绩： _____
3. 您的全国大学英语四级成绩： _____ （若不填或未参加，请说明）
4. 您的全国大学英语六级成绩： _____ （若不填或未参加，请说明）

填表说明：请根据自身体会在相应选项上划“√”

5. I can imagine myself enjoying English movies, TV programs etc without relying on Chinese subtitles when my English is good enough.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

6. I can imagine myself as someone who commands English so well that he or she can do well in English tests of all kinds.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

7. I can imagine myself reading English classic literature in English to get knowledge about western history when my English is good enough in the future.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

8. I can imagine myself using my English in the future effectively for communicating with international people through email, phones in my career, and make remarkable achievements.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

9. I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my courses are taught in English (maybe abroad in the future).

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

10. I can imagine myself having a lot of English speaking friends.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

11. I can imagine myself using English fluently like the person(s) I admire.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

12. I can imagine myself travelling abroad recognizing English signs and maps without difficulties.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

13. I dream of living abroad or staying abroad for a while without language problems because my English is good.

- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
14. Learning English is necessary because people around me expect me to do so.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
15. Without learning English it will be difficult to travel to English speaking countries.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
16. It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
17. Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
18. I have to study English because I don't want to get bad marks in it.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
19. I am studying English because I don't like to be considered a weak student.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
20. Studying English is important for me because without it I will have a low-paying job.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
21. Some important people in my life feel that it is very important for me to learn English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
22. Without learning English it will be very difficult for me to use computers or mobile phones effectively.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
23. Being able to speak English will add to my social status.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
24. Chinese society expects me to learn English so that I can explain my culture to others.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
25. Without learning English it will be very difficult for me to use the internet effectively.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
26. Without learning English, it will be difficult to find an excellent job in the future.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
27. I like the overall atmosphere of my English classes.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
28. My English teachers are better than my other subjects' teachers.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
29. I really enjoy learning English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
30. I would rather spend more time in my English classes and less in other classes.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

31. I enjoy the activities of our English class much more than those of my other classes.
1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
32. My English teachers have interesting teaching styles.
1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
33. I find the English books that we are studying really useful.
1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
34. I find the other students at my English classes really friendly.
1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
35. It worries me that other students in my class seem to speak English better than I do. (请注意此题按 very untrue = 5 分, very true = 1 分打分)
1 very true 2 true 3 neither true nor untrue 4 untrue 5 very untrue
36. I feel I am making progress in English this semester.
1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
37. I believe I will receive good grades in English this semester.
1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
38. I often experience a feeling of success in my English lessons this semester.
1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
39. I am sure that one day I will be able to speak English.
1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
40. In English lessons this semester, I usually understand what to do and how to do it.
1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
41. This semester, I think I am good at learning English.
1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
42. I often volunteer to do speaking presentations in English lessons.
1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
43. If I do well in English this semester, it is because I try hard.
1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
44. If I do well in English this semester, it is because of the fascinating teaching style of our English class teacher.
1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
45. I am working hard at learning English.
1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
46. It is extremely important for me to learn English.
1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
47. If an English course was offered at university or somewhere else in the future, I would like to take it.

- | | | | | | |
|--|---------------|----------|---------------------------|--------|-------------|
| | 1 very untrue | 2 untrue | 3 neither true nor untrue | 4 true | 5 very true |
|--|---------------|----------|---------------------------|--------|-------------|
48. I think I am doing my best to learn English.
- | | | | | | |
|--|---------------|----------|---------------------------|--------|-------------|
| | 1 very untrue | 2 untrue | 3 neither true nor untrue | 4 true | 5 very true |
|--|---------------|----------|---------------------------|--------|-------------|
49. I would like to spend lots of time learning English.
- | | | | | | |
|--|---------------|----------|---------------------------|--------|-------------|
| | 1 very untrue | 2 untrue | 3 neither true nor untrue | 4 true | 5 very true |
|--|---------------|----------|---------------------------|--------|-------------|
50. I would like to study English even if I were not required.
- | | | | | | |
|--|---------------|----------|---------------------------|--------|-------------|
| | 1 very untrue | 2 untrue | 3 neither true nor untrue | 4 true | 5 very true |
|--|---------------|----------|---------------------------|--------|-------------|
51. If I could have access to English-speaking TV stations, I would try to watch them often.
- | | | | | | |
|--|---------------|----------|---------------------------|--------|-------------|
| | 1 very untrue | 2 untrue | 3 neither true nor untrue | 4 true | 5 very true |
|--|---------------|----------|---------------------------|--------|-------------|
52. I am the kind of person who makes great efforts to learn English.
- | | | | | | |
|--|---------------|----------|---------------------------|--------|-------------|
| | 1 very untrue | 2 untrue | 3 neither true nor untrue | 4 true | 5 very true |
|--|---------------|----------|---------------------------|--------|-------------|



Appendix J: Questionnaire at the End of the First Cycle (QEFC)

This questionnaire is handed out to students face-to-face after 8 weeks of the teaching experiment. The second part used the Chinese version.

THE CONTENTS OF THIS FORM ARE *ABSOLUTELY* CONFIDENTIAL. INFORMATION IDENTIFYING THE RESPONDENT WILL NOT BE DISCLOSED UNDER ANY CIRCUMSTANCES.

Dear Students:

We would like to invite you to the questionnaires for the research on college English teaching and learning. This is not a test so there is no “right” or “wrong” answer. The survey is for academic research use only and your answers are not associated with the evaluation from or of your teachers. Please give your answers sincerely as only this will guarantee the success of the investigation. Thank you very much for your help!

1. Student Number: _____ Sex: _____ Age: _____ Class _____
2. English score in the Entrance Exam: _____
3. Score in the national College English Test Band 4 or 6 : _____ (others to explain____)
4. Score in the national College English Test Band 6: _____ (others to explain____)

Note: “Second language” refers to English in this questionnaire.

Part I: English Motivation in College English Classrooms

Directions: *Please show the degree you think the following statements are true to your state or opinion by putting a tick “√” beside the corresponding number.*

5. I can imagine myself enjoying English movies, TV programs etc without relying on Chinese subtitles when my English is good enough.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

6. I can imagine myself as someone who commands English so well that he or she can do well in English tests of all kinds.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

7. I can imagine myself reading English classic literature in English to get knowledge about western history when my English is good enough in the future.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

8. I can imagine myself using my English in the future effectively for communicating with international people through email, phones in my career, and make remarkable achievements.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

9. I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my courses are taught in English (maybe abroad in the future).

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

10. I can imagine myself having a lot of English-speaking friends.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
11. I can imagine myself using English fluently like the person(s) I admire.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
12. I can imagine myself travelling abroad recognizing English signs and maps without difficulties.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
13. I dream of living abroad or staying abroad for a while without language problems because my English is good.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
14. Learning English is necessary because people around me expect me to do so.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
15. Without learning English, it will be difficult to travel to English speaking countries.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
16. It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
17. Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
18. I have to study English because I don't want to get bad marks in it.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
19. I am studying English because I don't like to be considered a weak student.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
20. Studying English is important for me because without it I will have a low-paying job.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
21. Some important people in my life feel that it is very important for me to learn English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
22. Without learning English, it will be very difficult for me to use computers or mobile phones effectively.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
23. Being able to speak English will add to my social status.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
24. Chinese society expects me to learn English so that I can explain my culture to others.

- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
25. Without learning English it will be very difficult for me to use the internet effectively.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
26. Without learning English, it will be difficult to find an excellent job in the future.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
27. I like the overall atmosphere of my English classes.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
28. My English teachers are better than my other subjects' teachers.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
29. I really enjoy learning English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
30. I would rather spend more time in my English classes and less in other classes.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
31. I enjoy the activities of our English class much more than those of my other classes.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
32. My English teachers have interesting teaching styles.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
33. I find the English books that we are studying really useful.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
34. I find the other students at my English classes really friendly.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
35. It worries me that other students in my class seem to speak English better than I do. (Please note that very untrue corresponds to 5points; very true corresponds to 1.)
- 1 very true 2 true 3 neither true nor untrue 4 untrue 5 very untrue
36. I feel I am making progress in English this semester.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
37. I believe I will receive good grades in English this semester.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
38. I often experience a feeling of success in my English lessons this semester.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
39. I am sure that one day I will be able to speak English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
40. In English lessons this semester, I usually understand what to do and how to do it.

- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
41. This semester, I think I am good at learning English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
42. I often volunteer to do speaking presentations in English lessons.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
43. If I do well in English this semester, it is because I try hard.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
44. If I do well in English this semester, it is because of the fascinating teaching style of our English class teacher.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
45. I am working hard at learning English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
46. It is extremely important for me to learn English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
47. If an English course was offered at university or somewhere else in the future, I would like to take it.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
48. I think I am doing my best to learn English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
49. I would like to spend lots of time learning English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
50. I would like to study English even if I were not required.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
51. If I could have access to English-speaking TV stations, I would try to watch them often.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
52. I am the kind of person who makes great efforts to learn English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

Part II: Effectiveness of Motivational Strategies Oriented to Improve Students' Ideal English Self

Section I: *Recall the past weeks and rate the effectiveness of the motivational strategies to you and put tick beside the corresponding number.*

Motivational Strategies	Activities	1 absolutely ineffective	2 not very effective	3 not certain	4 effective	5 absolutely effective
1) Creating the vision	1) Finding future alternatives based on examples of different ideal English selves					
	2) Writing your own ideal English selves					
2) Substantiating the vision	3) Checking the reality of others' ideal English selves					
	4) Checking the reality of your ideal English selves					
	5) Rewriting your own vision					
3) Counterbalancing the vision	6) Predicting the consequences of failures					
	7) Analyzing the obstacles in others' English learning					
	8) Identifying self-barriers in English learning					
	9) Facing self-barriers (Writing a short play on the fight between positive-self					

	and negative-self)					
	10) Overcoming self-barriers (discuss strategies to overcome self-barriers)					
4) Enhancing the vision	11) Introducing your ideal English self					
5) From vision to goals	12) Listing your goals					
	13) Comparison between your personal goals and the syllabus					
	14) Overview of your goals					
	15) Breaking down your goals					
6) From goals to plan	16) Task list					
	17) Learning contract					

Section II: *please discuss the effect motivational strategies adopted in the past weeks. If there are positive effects, what are they specifically? If there are negative effects, please analyze the possible reasons for that.*

Part III: Effectiveness of Motivational Strategies in English Classroom

Directions: *Recall the past weeks and rate the effectiveness of the motivational strategies to you and put tick beside the corresponding number.*

Note: 1 = absolutely ineffective; 2: not very effective; 3 = not certain; 4 = effective; 5 = absolutely effective

No.	Teachers' Motivational Strategies	1	2	3	4	5
1)	Show students you care about them.					
2)	Establish good rapport with students.					
3)	Show your enthusiasm for teaching.					

4)	Share with students that you value English learning as a meaningful experience.					
5)	Be yourself in front of students.					
6)	Maintain rigorous academic expectations that push students to grow.					
7)	Be accessible and ready to support students in their academic work.					
8)	Recognize students' effort.					
9)	Recognize students' progress and achievement.					
10)	Teach students to credit their success to effort.					
11)	Provide students with positive feedback.					
12)	Express clear confidence in your students' effort and ability to succeed.					
13)	Teach students learning techniques.					
14)	Make clear to students that communicating meaning effectively is more important than being grammatically correct.					
15)	Creating a pleasant classroom climate.					
16)	Taking risks is encouraged and errors are viewed as a natural step in learning.					
17)	Avoid social comparison.					
18)	Make the class goals clear to the students.					
19)	Give good reasons to students as to why a particular task is meaningful.					
20)	Help students develop realistic beliefs about English learning.					
21)	Find out students' needs and build them into curriculum.					
22)	Tailor tasks to the learner.					
23)	Encourage students to set learning goals.					
24)	Review the class goals regularly and how particular activities help to attain them.					
25)	Break the monotony of classroom events.					
26)	Make tasks attractive by including novel and fantasy elements or topics interesting to students.					
27)	Encourage students to create products.					
28)	Set tasks that push students just beyond their comfort zone.					

29)	Increase the amount of English you use in the class.						
30)	Encourage students to conduct their own exploration of the English community (e.g. on the Internet).						
31)	Familiarize students with the cultural background of the target language.						
32)	Promote contact with authentic cultural materials and English-speakers.						
33)	Remind students of the benefits of mastering English.						
34)	Invite senior students to share their English learning experiences.						
35)	Explain the importance of the class rules, and formulate group norms explicitly through discussion with the students.						
36)	Encourage students to share personal information, experiences and thoughts.						
37)	Regularly Design collaborative tasks that require teams to pursue a shared objective.						
38)	Adopt the role of a “facilitator”.						
39)	Encourage peer teaching and group presentation.						
40)	Teach self-motivating strategies.						
41)	Take record of students’ presence.						
42)	Bring up the class goals regularly.						
43)	Design grading to recognize both the learning journey (effort/improvement) and the destination (mastery).						

The end. Thank you !

Appendix K: Questionnaire at the End of the Second Cycle (QESC)

This questionnaire is handed out to students face-to-face at the end of the second cycle of the teaching experiment.

同学：您好！以下问卷是我们关于大学生英语教学和学习情况的调查工具。答案无对错之分，请您根据自身实际情况如实填写。我们承诺问卷内容只有研究者本人能看到，您的信息将会被严格保密。结果将仅用于学术研究，和师生的个人考核无任何关系。非常感谢您的支持与参与！

1. 学号：_____ 性别：_____ 年龄：____岁 专业班级 _____
2. 您的英语入学（升入宁波理工的英语）成绩：_____分
3. 您的全国大学英语四级成绩：_____（若不填或未参加，请说明）
4. 您的全国大学英语六级成绩：_____（若不填或未参加，请说明）

注释：Second language，二语，在本问卷中指英语。

问卷一：大学英语课堂学习动机状态问卷

填表说明：请根据自身体会在相应选项上划“√”

5. I can imagine myself enjoying English movies, TV programs etc. without relying on Chinese subtitles when my English is good enough.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

6. I can imagine myself as someone who commands English so well that he or she can do well in English tests of all kinds.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

7. I can imagine myself reading English classic literature in English to get knowledge about western history when my English is good enough in the future.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

8. I can imagine myself using my English in the future effectively for communicating with international people through Email, phones in my career, and make remarkable achievements.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

9. I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my courses are taught in English (maybe abroad in the future).

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

10. I can imagine myself having a lot of English-speaking friends.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

11. I can imagine myself using English fluently like the person(s) I admire.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

12. I can imagine myself travelling abroad recognizing English signs and maps without difficulties.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

13. I dream of living abroad or staying abroad for a while without language problems because my English is good.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

14. Learning English is necessary because people around me expect me to do so.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

15. Without learning English it will be difficult to travel to English speaking countries.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

16. It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

17. Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of English.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

18. I have to study English because I don't want to get bad marks in it.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

19. I am studying English because I don't like to be considered a weak student.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

20. Studying English is important for me because without it I will have a low-paying job.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

21. Some important people in my life feel that it is very important for me to learn English.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

22. Without learning English it will be very difficult for me to use computers or mobile phones effectively.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

23. Being able to speak English will add to my social status.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

24. Chinese society expects me to learn English so that I can explain my culture to others.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

25. Without learning English it will be very difficult for me to use the internet effectively.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

26. Without learning English, it will be difficult to find an excellent job in the future.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

27. I like the overall atmosphere of my English classes.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

28. My English teachers are better than my other subjects' teachers.

- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
29. I really enjoy learning English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
30. I would rather spend more time in my English classes and less in other classes.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
31. I enjoy the activities of our English class much more than those of my other classes.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
32. My English teachers have interesting teaching styles.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
33. I find the English books that we are studying really useful.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
34. I find the other students at my English classes really friendly.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
35. It worries me that other students in my class seem to speak English better than I do. (请注意此题按 very untrue = 5 分, very true = 1 分打分)
- 1 very true 2 true 3 neither true nor untrue 4 untrue 5 very untrue
36. I feel I am making progress in English this semester.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
37. I believe I will receive good grades in English this semester.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
38. I often experience a feeling of success in my English lessons this semester.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
39. I am sure that one day I will be able to speak English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
40. In English lessons this semester, I usually understand what to do and how to do it.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
41. This semester, I think I am good at learning English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
42. I often volunteer to do speaking presentations in English lessons.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
43. If I do well in English this semester, it is because I try hard.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
44. If I do well in English this semester, it is because of the fascinating teaching style of our English class teacher.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
45. I am working hard at learning English.

- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
46. It is extremely important for me to learn English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
47. If an English course was offered at university or somewhere else in the future, I would like to take it.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
48. I think I am doing my best to learn English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
49. I would like to spend lots of time learning English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
50. I would like to study English even if I were not required.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
51. If I could have access to English-speaking TV stations, I would try to watch them often.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
52. I am the kind of person who makes great efforts to learn English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

问卷二：理想二语动机策活动略实施效果调查问卷

1. 回顾这学期英语课上我们所进行的动机策略活动，并如实评价这些活动对促进你的英语学习动机所起到的作用。请根据自身体会在相应方框内划“√”。

动机策略	动机策略活动	1 完全不激励我	2 比较不激励我	3 不确定	4 比较激励我	5 非常激励我
1) 建构理想英语自我愿景	1) 参考别人的理想英语自我，思考将来可能自我					
	2) 写下我的理想英语自我愿景					
2) 具体化理想英语自我	3) 测评别人的理想自我的可能性					
	4) 测评自己理想英语自我的可能性					
	5) 重构理想英语自我愿景					
3) 平衡理想英语自我愿景	6) 设想实现不了英语自我的不良后果					
	7) 分析阻碍别人英语学习的自我障碍					
	8) 确定自我障碍					
	9) 直面自我障碍（积极自我和消极自我的对戏）					
	10) 克服阻碍（讨论学习克服阻碍的方法）					

4) 强化理想英语自我愿景	11) 用英语向同学讲述童话故事					
	12) 优秀同学学习经验交流					
	13) 外语角新东方李老师的口语练习活动(此题未参加的同学不用填)					
5) 从愿景到目标	14) 列出目标单					
	15) 大纲核对					
	16) 个人目标概述					
	17) 目标分解					
6) 从目标到行动计划	18) 任务单					
	19) 学习合同					

2. 请真实地谈一谈在你看来这学期我们进行的英语学习动机策略活动对于你学习英语动机方面带来的影响。如果有积极地影响,那么主要表现在哪些方面?如果没有显著影响,请分析一下原因。(写不下可翻页)

问卷三: 关于大学英语课堂动机策略效果的问卷

填写方法: 请根据自身体会在相应方框内划“√”。1 = 完全无效; 2 = 不太有效; 3 = 不确定; 4 = 比较有效; 5 = 非常有效

序号	教师的课堂动机策略	1	2	3	4	5
1)	关心学生					
2)	与学生关系融洽					
3)	对教学富有热情					
4)	分享英语学习对自己人生的意义					
5)	在课堂上举止大方, 展示真实的自我					
6)	展现出对学生的学学习赋予较高的期望					
7)	可以随时为学生提供英语学习方面的帮助					
8)	积极肯定学生的努力					
9)	积极肯定学生的进步和成绩					
10)	引导学生认为成功是靠努力才能取得的					
11)	给学生正面的反馈和鼓励					
12)	让学生觉得(教师)相信他们会努力学习并且可以完成任务					
13)	教学生学习方法和技巧, “授人以渔”					
14)	让学生明白用英语交流中内容比语法正确更重要					
15)	营造轻松愉快的课堂气氛					
16)	鼓励学生尝试, 学习就是一个在错误中学习的过程					
17)	避免对学生的表现进行比较					
18)	让学生明白课程目标和要求					
19)	向学生说明所布置的活动任务有什么意义					
20)	引导学生对英语学习形成科学的认识					
21)	了解学生的需求并对课程内容做出调整					

22)	个性化学生的学习任务，“因材施教”					
23)	鼓励学生设立学习目标					
24)	定期强调课程目标和要求以及一些活动对实现目标的意义					
25)	课堂形式多样化					
26)	布置的活动任务内容新颖、能激发想象或者是学生感兴趣的话题					
27)	鼓励学生完成作业的过程中发挥创造力					
28)	布置的活动任务有一定的挑战性					
29)	尽可能多地使用英语授课					
30)	鼓励学生多去了解英语社会文化（如：通过网络）					
31)	向学生介绍英语文化背景知识					
32)	促进学生接触到真实的语言文化素材或说英语的外国人					
33)	强调掌握英语对学生的益处					
34)	邀请学长（姐）进行英语学习经验分享					
35)	强调课堂纪律的重要性，与学生讨论学习小组的规范。					
36)	鼓励学生之间多交流					
37)	定期布置需要成员相互合作完成的团队任务					
38)	转变传统角色，让学生做主导者，教师做“协助者”					
39)	鼓励学生互教互学，进行小组作业展示					
40)	教学生自我激励的策略					
41)	做好课堂考勤					
42)	不断强调课堂纪律和小组规范					
43)	学生的英语水平不能作为唯一的评分标准，要给学生的努力和参与一定的分值					

本次问卷到此结束，衷心感谢您的参与！
星期五

2021年5月7日

Appendix L: Questionnaire at the End of the Third Cycle (QETC)

This questionnaire is handed out to the students face-to-face at the end of the third cycle of the teaching experiment.

同学：您好！以下问卷是我们关于大学生英语教学和学习情况的调查工具。答案无对错之分，请您根据自身实际情况如实填写。我们承诺问卷内容只有研究者本人能看到，您的信息将会被严格保密。结果将仅用于学术研究，和师生的个人考核无任何关系。非常感谢您的支持与参与！

1. 学号：_____ 性别：_____ 年龄：____岁 专业班级 _____
2. 您的英语入学（升入宁波理工的英语）成绩：_____分
3. 您的全国大学英语四级成绩：_____（若不填或未参加，请说明）
4. 您的全国大学英语六级成绩：_____（若不填或未参加，请说明）

注释：Second language，二语，在本问卷中指英语。

问卷一：大学英语课堂学习动机状态问卷

填表说明：请根据自身体会在相应选项上划“√”

5. I can imagine myself enjoying English movies, TV programs etc. without relying on Chinese subtitles when my English is good enough.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

6. I can imagine myself as someone who commands English so well that he or she can do well in English tests of all kinds.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

7. I can imagine myself reading English classic literature in English to get knowledge about western history when my English is good enough in the future.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

8. I can imagine myself using my English in the future effectively for communicating with international people through Email, phones in my career, and make remarkable achievements.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

9. I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my courses are taught in English (maybe abroad in the future).

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

10. I can imagine myself having a lot of English-speaking friends.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

11. I can imagine myself using English fluently like the person(s) I admire.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

12. I can imagine myself travelling abroad recognizing English signs and maps without difficulties.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

13. I dream of living abroad or staying abroad for a while without language problems because my English is good.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

14. Learning English is necessary because people around me expect me to do so.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

15. Without learning English it will be difficult to travel to English speaking countries.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

16. It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

17. Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of English.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

18. I have to study English because I don't want to get bad marks in it.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

19. I am studying English because I don't like to be considered a weak student.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

20. Studying English is important for me because without it I will have a low-paying job.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

21. Some important people in my life feel that it is very important for me to learn English.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

22. Without learning English it will be very difficult for me to use computers or mobile phones effectively.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

23. Being able to speak English will add to my social status.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

24. Chinese society expects me to learn English so that I can explain my culture to others.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

25. Without learning English it will be very difficult for me to use the internet effectively.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

26. Without learning English, it will be difficult to find an excellent job in the future.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

27. I like the overall atmosphere of my English classes.

1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

28. My English teachers are better than my other subjects' teachers.

- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
29. I really enjoy learning English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
30. I would rather spend more time in my English classes and less in other classes.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
31. I enjoy the activities of our English class much more than those of my other classes.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
32. My English teachers have interesting teaching styles.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
33. I find the English books that we are studying really useful.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
34. I find the other students at my English classes really friendly.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
35. It worries me that other students in my class seem to speak English better than I do. (请注意此题按 very untrue = 5 分, very true = 1 分打分)
- 1 very true 2 true 3 neither true nor untrue 4 untrue 5 very untrue
36. I feel I am making progress in English this semester.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
37. I believe I will receive good grades in English this semester.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
38. I often experience a feeling of success in my English lessons this semester.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
39. I am sure that one day I will be able to speak English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
40. In English lessons this semester, I usually understand what to do and how to do it.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
41. This semester, I think I am good at learning English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
42. I often volunteer to do speaking presentations in English lessons.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
43. If I do well in English this semester, it is because I try hard.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
44. If I do well in English this semester, it is because of the fascinating teaching style of our English class teacher.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
45. I am working hard at learning English.

- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
46. It is extremely important for me to learn English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
47. If an English course was offered at university or somewhere else in the future, I would like to take it.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
48. I think I am doing my best to learn English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
49. I would like to spend lots of time learning English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
50. I would like to study English even if I were not required.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
51. If I could have access to English-speaking TV stations, I would try to watch them often.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true
52. I am the kind of person who makes great efforts to learn English.
- 1 very untrue 2 untrue 3 neither true nor untrue 4 true 5 very true

问卷二：理想二语动机策活动略实施效果调查问卷

1. 回顾这学期特别是期中考试后英语课上我们所进行的动机策略活动，并如实评价这些活动对促进你的英语学习动机所起到的作用。请根据自身体会在相应方框内划“√”。

动机策略	动机策略活动	1 完全不激励我	2 比较不激励我	3 不确定	4 比较激励我	5 非常激励我
1)保持愿景的活力	1) 看英文电影并讨论					
	2) 各类英语竞赛或考试的动员					
	3) 反思各策略对自己的作用					
2)从目标到行动计划	4) 目标分解					
	5) 任务单					
	6) 学习合同					

问卷三：关于大学英语课堂动机策略效果的问卷

填写方法：请根据自身体会在相应方框内划“√”。1 = 完全无效；2 = 不太有效；3 = 不确定；4 = 比较有效；5 = 非常有效

序号	教师的课堂动机策略	1	2	3	4	5
1)	关心学生					
2)	与学生关系融洽					
3)	对教学富有热情					

4)	分享英语学习对自己人生的意义					
5)	在课堂上举止大方，展示真实的自我					
6)	展现出对学生的学习赋予较高的期望					
7)	可以随时为学生提供英语学习方面的帮助					
8)	积极肯定学生的努力					
9)	积极肯定学生的进步和成绩					
10)	引导学生认为成功是靠努力才能取得的					
11)	给学生正面的反馈和鼓励					
12)	让学生觉得（教师）相信他们会努力学习并且可以完成任务					
13)	教学生学习方法和技巧，“授人以渔”					
14)	让学生明白用英语交流中内容比语法正确更重要					
15)	营造轻松愉快的课堂气氛					
16)	鼓励学生尝试，学习就是一个在错误中学习的过程					
17)	避免对学生的表现进行比较					
18)	让学生明白课程目标和要求					
19)	向学生说明所布置的活动任务有什么意义					
20)	引导学生对英语学习形成科学的认识					
21)	了解学生的需求并对课程内容做出调整					
22)	个性化学生的学习任务，“因材施教”					
23)	鼓励学生设立学习目标					
24)	定期强调课程目标和要求以及一些活动对实现目标的意义					
25)	课堂形式多样化					
26)	布置的活动任务内容新颖、能激发想象或者是学生感兴趣的话题					
27)	鼓励学生完成作业的过程中发挥创造力					
28)	布置的活动任务有一定的挑战性					
29)	尽可能多地使用英语授课					
30)	鼓励学生多去了解英语社会文化（如：通过网络）					
31)	向学生介绍英语文化背景知识					
32)	促进学生接触到真实的语言文化素材或说英语的外国人					
33)	强调掌握英语对学生的益处					
34)	邀请学长（姐）进行英语学习经验分享					
35)	强调课堂纪律的重要性，与学生讨论学习小组的规范。					
36)	鼓励学生之间多交流					
37)	定期布置需要成员相互合作完成的团队任务					
38)	转变传统角色，让学生做主导者，教师做“协助者”					
39)	鼓励学生互教互学，进行小组作业展示					
40)	教学生自我激励的策略					
41)	做好课堂考勤					
42)	不断强调课堂纪律和小组规范					
43)	学生的英语水平不能作为唯一的评分标准，要给学生的努力和参与一定的分值					

本次问卷到此结束，衷心感谢您的参与！

2021年6月24日星期四

Appendix M: Questionnaire for Classroom Activities

This questionnaire is finished by the students after each class, which is included in the learning journal.

Date:

Class Activities	1 Absolutely not motivating	2 not very motivating	3 not sure	4 motivating	5 absolutely motivating

Details:

Appendix N: Questions for the Focus Group Interview with Students

(Liu, 2010; Dorney& Hadfield, 2010)

These questions are used for the focus group at the end of each cycle of the teaching experiment.

Questions for the semi-structured interview for students' attitudes towards English learning and their motivation:

1. Do you enjoy learning English? Why /why not?
2. What is your driving force to learn English? Is it the same with that at the beginning of the semester?
3. To what degree are you committed to learning English? Please give examples.
4. How do you feel when you are learning English as a Chinese EFL learner in Ningbo?
5. What is your goal for learning English?
6. What are your goals for learning English today?
7. What is your long-term goal for learning English?
8. How do you rate your English proficiency?
9. Had you hoped for imagined your ideal English proficiency? If yes, what possibilities do you think that would have brought you in your future?
10. What are your perceived challenges in achieving a high level of English proficiency?
11. How do you feel about English-speaking people and the community you live in now?
12. Who are you studying English for? Yourself? Your parents? Or someone else?
13. How do you evaluate your motivation in English learning in the past (before this semester)? Do you think you were motivated before this semester?
14. Has your image or dream of yourself using English changed over the past few months? Why are your reasons for studying English changed?
15. How do you feel about the special motivational activities (creating the vision, discussion, reality evaluation, confirmation, fears of failure, meeting self-barriers, goal-listing, comparison of the class goal and personal goals, goals breaking down, signing learning contract, others) you have done in this course? Do you think they are effective? Why/why not?
16. Was it easy for you to fulfill the tasks? What difficulties did you encounter in doing these tasks? Have you any suggestions on how they could be improved?
17. How do you evaluate your own progress? What contributed to it or what held you back?

18. What do you think of the National College English Test Band 4 and 6? Do you think they should be abolished?
19. Do you have a sense of who you would like to become as an English speaker?
20. Do you have an English learning plan? If yes, how do you think you have carried out your plan?
21. (During the past two months) What is your most pleasant memory as a language learner? Please describe.
22. What is your most unpleasant memory as a language learner? Please describe.
23. (During the past two month) as a language learner, who has been the most influential person?
24. (During the past two month) what personal or family incidents have affected you the most in your English learning?
25. What tools do you use in learning English? (e.g., materials such as dictionaries, books, computer software, and audio-tapes; mental strategies such as mental outlines and heuristics; and human resources) How and why do you use them? Please give examples.
26. Has the Internet (QQ, a software adopted by the teacher as a blended teaching platform) been helpful in learning English? If so, please give examples.
27. Do you enjoy online synchronic lectures or face-to-face ones more, why?
28. Were there things that you wanted to say in the interviews but haven't got a chance to say?

Appendix O: Learning Journal

(Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014)

This is the learning journal participants are requested to finish during the teaching experiment.

Front Cover Page of the Learning Journal

College English IV Learning Journal

Semester 2

School Year 2020-2021

Student Number

Page 1 of the Learning Journal

Age _____

Gender _____

Grade in CET-4 _____

Grade in CET-6 _____

Step I Imagining my ideal self

I Create the vision

My Ideal English Self:

1,

2,

3,

4,

5,

...

II Reality Check

Easy to achieve	Possible but more long-term	Very hard	Not really achievable (without much more time than I have)

III Counterbalance the vision

'Counterbalancing the vision' means that the vision of the ideal self should be balanced against a consideration of what would happen if the desired self were not attained.

My Fears

Self barriers

IV Unifying the vision

Unifying the vision means working through the process of bringing the vision of the ideal self into harmony with the ought-to self.

Page 2 of the Learning Journal

V Enhance the vision (Homework)

Find a fairytale from your culture, or the L2 culture.

Step II Mapping the journey: From dream to reality

Worksheet 1 Wishlist

By the end of this course I want to be able to:

- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____

Worksheet 2

In pairs, compare your wishlists:

- What aims do you share?
- Are any aims unrealistic?
- Are any aims not useful?
- Are there any of your partner's aims that you haven't listed?
- Are these useful aims for you too?
- Do you want to add them to your list?

Use these questions to discuss your aims and to add or delete items from your list.

Worksheet 1 The syllabus and my ambitions

My personal aims that are covered in the syllabus	Personal aims that are not covered in the syllabus	Things in the syllabus that are not in my personal aims	
		Useful to me	Not so useful to me

Worksheet 2 Class aims, personal aims

Your aims that are covered in the coursebook	Aims that we can cover with extra material in class	Coursebook items we can leave out	Coursebook items that we need to keep (even if they aren't in your list of aims!)	Individual aims that you will need to work on by yourselves
--	---	-----------------------------------	---	---

Worksheet 1 My personal goal statement

These are our class goals for this week:

By the end of the week we will be able to

-
-
-
-
-
-

These are my additional personal goals for this week:

By the end of the week I will be able to

-
-
-
-
-
-

I will devote about . . . hours a week self-study to achieve these goals.

Signed _____

Step III Keep the vision alive

Learning Contract

Worksheet 1 My personal goal statement

These are our class goals

By the end of the course we will be able to

- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____

These are my additional personal goals

By the end of the course I will be able to

- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____

In order to do this I will

- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____

I will devote about ... hours a week to self-study to achieve these goals.

Signed _____

Witnessed _____

The Even-Numbered Pages from 6 to 36 of the Learning Journal

日期:

课堂活动	1 完全不激励我	2 比较不激励我	3 不确定	4 比较激励我	5 非常激励我

具体说明:

日期:

课堂活动	1 完全不激励我	2 比较不激励我	3 不确定	4 比较激励我	5 非常激励我

具体说明:

The Odd-Numbered Pages from 7 to 35 of the Learning Journal

Worksheet 1 My personal goal statement

These are our class goals for this week:

By the end of the week we will be able to

-
- -----
-
- -----
-
- -----

These are my additional personal goals for this week:

By the end of the week I will be able to

- -----
- -----
-
- -----
-
- -----

I will devote about . . . hours a week self-study to achieve these goals.

Signed _____

Appendix P: Sampled Pages of a Journal Completed in Cycle 3

Page 1 of a Completed Journal in Cycle 3

Age 22

Gender _____

Grade in CET-4 441

Grade in CET-6 386

Step I Imagining my ideal self

I Create the vision

My Ideal English Self:

1. Through the ETC 6
2. Read English articles without barriers.
3. Pass the final exam
4. To understand the subtitles of English movies.
5. Communicate with foreigners.
- ...

II Reality Check

Easy to achieve	Possible but more long-term	Very hard	Not really achievable (without much more time than I have)
Pass the final exam	Through the ETC 6	Read English articles without barriers	To understand the subtitles of English movies.
			Communicate with foreigners

III Counterbalance the vision

'Counterbalancing the vision' means that the vision of the ideal self should be balanced against a consideration of what would happen if the desired self were not attained.

My Fears

I'm afraid I can't pass the exam and have no language skills to find a good job in the future. I also feared not living up to the expectations of my family and friends.

Self barriers

Self-discipline inattention
procrastination lack of willpower.
absent-minded.

IV Unifying the vision

Unifying the vision means working through the process of bringing the vision of the ideal self into harmony with the ought-to self.

Page 2 of a Completed Journal in Cycle 3

V Enhance the vision (Homework)

Find a fairytale from your culture, or the L2 culture.

Step II Mapping the journey: From dream to reality

Worksheet 1 Wishlist

By the end of this course I want to be able to:

- Communicate in English fluently
- Read English text better easily.
- Able to browse English websites.
- Improve writing skill.
- Enhance English listening.
-
-
-

Worksheet 2

In pairs, compare your wishlists:

- What aims do you share?
- Are any aims unrealistic?
- Are any aims not useful?
- Are there any of your partner's aims that you haven't listed?
- Are these useful aims for you too?
- Do you want to add them to your list?

Use these questions to discuss your aims and to add or delete items from your list.

Worksheet 1 The syllabus and my ambitions

My personal aims that are covered in the syllabus	Personal aims that are not covered in the syllabus	Things in the syllabus that are not in my personal aims	
		Useful to me	Not so useful to me

Pass the final exam. 1. Pass the CET-6
2. Build up English Vocabulary. Everything Nothing

Worksheet 2 Class aims, personal aims

Your aims that are covered in the coursebook	Aims that we can cover with extra material in class	Coursebook items we can leave out	Coursebook items that we need to keep (even if they aren't in your list of aims)	Individual aims that you will need to work on by yourselves
--	---	-----------------------------------	--	---

Pass the final exam. improve spoken English recite the text pass the CET-6

Worksheet 1 My personal goal statement

These are our class goals for this week:

By the end of the week we will be able to

- Study Unit 1
- Accumulation of words
- Complete the exercises in the book
- Make a study plan
-
-

These are my additional personal goals for this week:

By the end of the week I will be able to

- Learn the words in Unit 2 by heart
- To practice listening
-
-
-
-

I will devote about 8 hours a week self-study to achieve these goals.

Signed



Step III Keep the vision alive

Learning Contract

Worksheet 1 My personal goal statement

These are our class goals

By the end of the course we will be able to

- Pass the final exam.
- Learn more words
- Have a deeper understanding of the textbook.
- Have more confidence in your own English.
- _____

These are my additional personal goals

By the end of the course I will be able to

- Pass CET-6
- No pressure to watch English movies
- Learn more words
- _____

In order to do this I will

- Read English books and learn English every day
- Keep memorizing words every day.
- Complete the homework earnestly.
- _____

I will devote about ... hours a week to self-study to achieve these goals.

Signed 

Witnessed 

Page 6 of a Completed Journal in Cycle 3

Questionnaire

日期: 2021.3.12

课堂活动	1 完全不激励我	2 比较不激励我	3 不确定	4 比较激励我	5 非常激励我
speech					✓
listening					✓
writing					✓

具体说明:

日期: 2021.3.16

课堂活动	1 完全不激励我	2 比较不激励我	3 不确定	4 比较激励我	5 非常激励我
speech				✓	
reading				✓	

具体说明:

Appendix Q: Activities in Action Research

(Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2014)

Activities used in Cycle 1 and 2:

Activity 1): Finding future alternatives based on examples of different ideal English selves.

2 Charlie's ideal future Maori self

I see my future self fully prepared and confident, able to do a *noho* on a *marae*. I am standing in the *wharehau* giving my *mihi*, a fully rounded confident detailed *mihi*, and then later, after I sit down, listening and understanding the *te reo* Maori speakers giving theirs. I spend a weekend on a *marae* and can follow the conversations, speeches and stories. I see myself sitting at home, able to watch Maori TV programmes: documentaries, films, news. I can write letters and emails in *te reo*. I can play Maori songs on my (basic strums) guitar and know what the words mean, having memorised them. I can read descriptions in museums like *Te Papa*, understand the words in my NZ passport . . . read old documents. On a weekend or holiday, I pull up the car in somewhere like Kaeo and have no problem asking for directions and understanding the reply, and then make conversation with local people over a cup of tea or a beer in the pub. I can enjoy an evening in a bar talking with Maori locals about their place and local stories. I am currently halfway through a very dense coursebook, *Te Kakano*. In the same series are three more books. I envision myself completing the whole course taking me up to BA level . . . maybe even attending a graduation ceremony on the *Marae*. I want to be as rounded a New Zealander as possible, able to empathise with and understand the Maori dimension of this society. I want to feel I am doing the right thing socially and politically: Maori language has a small 'world' status (in terms of international communication) but within NZ it is 'equal' to English and this needs support and encouragement after a long decline and near death.

Activity 2): Writing your own ideal English selves.

Activity 3): Checking the reality of others' ideal English selves.

Read and predict for others:

What are the main items included in the vision?

Role-play. A is a dreamer and B is a realist.

What are unrealistic? (B)

What are achievable?

Underline the achievable but difficult ones.

Activity 4): Checking the reality of your ideal English selves.

Doing the reality check for your future self

Easy to achieve	possible but more long-term	very hard to achieve	not really achievable (without much more time than I have)

Activity 5): Reviewing your own vision

Sample of a Student's Work of A3), 4) and 5)

Life in the future

There's no denying the fact that English ability plays an important role in our life. Therefore, when my English level is high enough, what am I doing, and what can I do?

For work

① Firstly, I can work for a competitive foreign companies, it give me more options for my work. Secondly, I will learn ~~advanced technology from abroad~~ foreign colleagues are so interesting and I can communicate with them in English. Thirdly, so good is my English that I can go to work abroad. ②

For learning

① In the first place, I can imagine myself studying in a abroad university. ② In the second place, I am able to learning about foreign traditional culture. ③ In the third place, I will learn advanced technology from abroad better.

For life

① To begin with, I am able to enjoying English movies without relying on Chinese subtitles. In other words, it's so convenient for I travel abroad, because I can recognize English signs and maps without difficulties. Last but not least, I can have a chance to live abroad. ②

Learning English was, is and will be important to all, boys or girls, rich or poor. We should spare no effort to learn English. I believe we can overcome this difficulty of learning English and we will have a brighter future.

Easy to achieve	possible but more	very hard to	not really achievable
	long-term	achieve	
⑤ ⑥	① ② ③ ⑦ ⑧	④ ⑨	

After 10 years?

8. 102 15. 15

- ① I can pass cet-4
- ② The final exam paper of English meets the requirement

Nov. 2-2

Activity 6): Predicting the consequences of failures.

Charlie: Maori

• 矩形截图(R)

Nothing would 'happen' if I don't achieve my aims in learning Maori except that I will disappoint myself and face my own limitations as a language learner. It would also be embarrassing to be tongue-tied in a public situation like giving a speech on a *marae*, being completely unprepared, groping for words, not being able to find the words I want and ending up completely inarticulate. It would be very frustrating to spend the weekend on a *marae* if everything goes over my head and I cannot understand what is going on. It would be particularly hard when everyone laughs at a joke and I seem to be the only one who can't understand!

I would be unable to understand Maori TV, read in Maori, understand place names or talk to people, beyond giving simple greetings. Mostly I would feel I have missed an opportunity of getting to know another culture from the inside by exploring its language. I feel there is so much more I could and should understand about New Zealand history, culture, peoples and society and I would feel disappointed in myself for not having made the effort to integrate more with the society I am living in.

Activity 7): Analyzing the obstacles in others English learning.

Name list

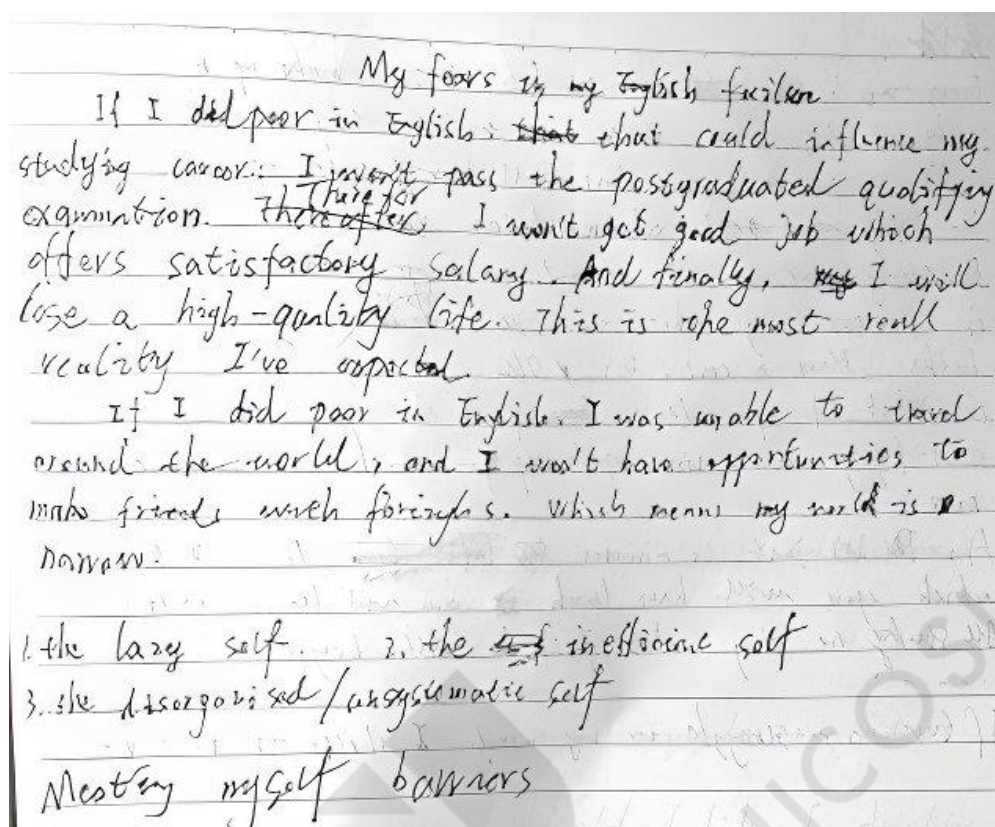
- the unconfident self
- the weak-willed/easily tempted self
- the procrastinator self
- the lazy self
- the over-committed self
- the distracted self
- the stressed self
- the inefficient self
- the easily discouraged self
- the disorganised/unsystematic self

Activity 8): Identifying self-barriers.

Self barriers

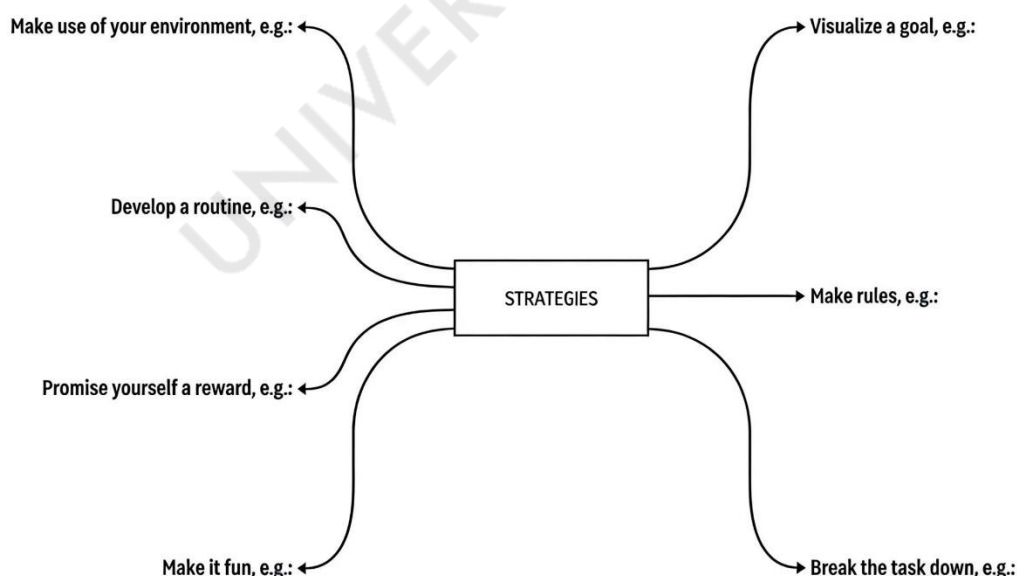
1. My intentions are good but when I settle down to do some work, I get very easily distracted. I think of other things to do, such as answering my emails, tidying the room – even making myself a list of things to do!
2. I have a lot of work at the moment and can't cope with anything extra. I always feel short of time and under pressure!
3. I'm not very good at time management. I don't plan a regular time to work so I spend days without studying, then suddenly get in a panic and try to do it all at once. I know I could get more done if I were more efficient with time and planning.
4. I give up easily – for example, if there are too many words I don't know in a text I find it an effort to work them out or look them up in the dictionary.
5. I tend to take on too many projects. I enjoy them all but don't have enough time for them all and end up doing none of them properly. Too many things to do! Too little time to do them!
6. I'm very bad at getting down to work. I tend to put things off and tell myself I can do my work another time.
7. I'm terribly disorganised. I'm not systematic about making notes or keeping a vocabulary book, for example. So my work is in a mess and when I want to study I can never find anything!
8. I am not very confident – particularly at speaking. I am afraid people will not understand me or will make fun of my accent, so I tend to avoid speaking. I didn't do very well at school, so I tend to doubt my abilities. I don't have much self-esteem when it comes to studying!
9. I know I don't do enough work. I like having fun too much, I suppose. It's very easy for my friends to persuade me that I don't need to study and to go out for the evening instead. No willpower, that's my problem!
10. I know I should keep up my German – and one of the best ways to do this would be by reading books. But I find it hard to make the effort: it's so much easier to read German novels in English – stupid I know!

Sample of a Student's Work of A6 and A8



Activity 9): Facing self-barriers (Writing a short play on the fight between positive self and negative self).

Activity 10): Overcoming self-barriers (Discuss strategies to overcome self-barriers).



Before I start work I try to visualise my goal, for example finishing my essay or learning 20 words – this motivates me to work hard.

I promise myself a reward or treat for when I finish the work – chocolate works well!

I have a strict routine for getting started on work: I find I tend to put off starting work, so I write down what time I am going to start and then I do a short simple task for 5–10 minutes, like learning five words. I find that if I can make a start with a very short task then it is easier to keep going.

I have worked out what distracts me and have a list of DOS and DON'TS on my wall, like 'DON'T answer emails till you have done one hour's work!' or 'Have a coffee when you finish the task, not in the middle!'

I try to find things to do to make the activity more fun, like making vocabulary learning into a game.

I get bored if I am doing one thing for too long so I plan my work in short blocks with a complete break in between where I get some fresh air or do some exercise – that helps me to stay fresh.

I listen to relaxing music – it makes me feel calm and happy.

I do a relaxation exercise before I start: it helps me to stop feeling stressed.

I have told my friends I am behind in my work because I go out too much – so now they make sure I am up to date with my work before they invite me out!

I don't find much time for learning verbs – so I have put posters up round the house – that way I see them often and I can learn a little bit at odd times of the day.

Cycle 1

Cycle 2

Activity 11): Introducing your ideal English self.

Activity 11): Telling a fairy tale in English to your classmates

Activity 12): Listening to peers (more successful in English learning) sharing English learning experiences

Activity 13): English Salon organized by a lecturer from outside the university (for participants only)

Activity 12): Listing your goals (Activity14 in Cycle 2).

Worksheet 1 Wishlist

By the end of this course I want to be able to:

- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____

Worksheet 2

In pairs, compare your wishlists:

- What aims do you share?
- Are any aims unrealistic?
- Are any aims not useful?
- Are there any of your partner's aims that you haven't listed?
- Are these useful aims for you too?
- Do you want to add them to your list?

Use these questions to discuss your aims and to add or delete items from your list.

Activity 13): Comparison between your personal goals and the syllabus (Activity15 in Cycle 2).

Worksheet 1 The syllabus and my ambitions

My personal aims that are covered in the syllabus	Personal aims that are not covered in the syllabus	Things in the syllabus that are not in my personal aims	
		Useful to me	Not so useful to me

Worksheet 2 Class aims, personal aims

Your aims that are covered in the coursebook	Aims that we can cover with extra material in class	Coursebook items we can leave out	Coursebook items that we need to keep (even if they aren't in your list of aims!)	Individual aims that you will need to work on by yourselves

Activity 14) Overview of your goals (Activity16 in Cycle 2).

Activity 15): Breaking down your goals (Activity 17 in Cycle 2).

A Completed Work Sample of A15)

Worksheet 1 My personal goal statement

These are our class goals for this week:

By the end of the week we will be able to

- Learn about unit 2
- Determine Term Plan
-
-
-
-

These are my additional personal goals for this week:

By the end of the week I will be able to

- Prepare CET 6
- Learn 280 new words and punch in every day
- Review the grammar
-
-
-

I will devote about 7 hours a week self-study to achieve these goals.

Signed 

Step III Keep the vision alive

Activity 16) Task list (Activity 18 in Cycle 2).

In this section, students compiled a weekly to-do list aligned with their previously established goals (Wang & Dai, 2015).

Activity 17) Learning contract (Activity 19 in Cycle 2).

Sample of a Student's Work of A17)

Worksheet 1 My personal goal statement

These are our class goals

By the end of the course we will be able to

- We will finish the network assignment
- We can pass the mid-term and final exams
- _____
- _____
- _____

These are my additional personal goals

By the end of the course I will be able to

- I will pass the final exam
- I can pass the speaking test
- I can translate important passage
- I can learn the important words in each unit

In order to do this I will

- I'll go over the material in the tutorial
- _____
- _____
- _____

I will devote about 6 hours a week to self-study to achieve these goals.

signed _____

Activities in Cycle 3:

Activity 1): Watching clips of English movie *Flipped* and discuss them

Activity 2): Initiation of the participation of various English competition (NECCS, LSCAT translation contest, etc.)

Activity3): Reflection on the effectiveness of motivational activities used by the teacher (Writing an essay entitled “How was I motivated to Learn English”)

Writing Sample A for Activity 3 Cycle 3

How were I motivated to learn English

In recently a year, We ~~are~~ English teacher has employed a large number of strategies to help us how to learn English better, ~~including~~ for example, writing down the vision, checking the vision, facing the barriers in English learning, film appreciation and English presentation, ~~and~~ breaking down your goals and making a learning plan.

The above strategies are more useful to me. But you have to choose between them, I will choose breaking down your goals and making a learning plan. Because learning English is a long-term goal, We must have to break down our daily tasks. Only break down a big goal, It's not an impossible task. Making a learning plan is also a necessarily thing. As the saying goes, constant dropping wears away the stone. You can check a box for each task you complete that you will have the motivation to keep going.

I think writing down the vision that it doesn't help me much. Sometimes too much fantasy can get in the way. It may cause you to be constantly distracted and unable to concentrate when you are learning English.

(Participant 69, Cycle 3)

Writing Sample B for Activity 3 Cycle 3

How were I motivated to learn English?
The ~~English~~ English classes this term is going to the end, which ~~mean~~ also means my English classes go to the end entirely before I graduate from college. And there, Miss Nan bring some activities drawing our's motivations. I love them all, and I find some activities ~~truly~~ truly attach my attention in learning English.

I think a free talk before class is a good way which especially suitable for the freshman, ~~the whole the class could know other others by~~ I can build up a specific ~~pe~~ personality ~~in my~~ for my classmates in my mind through his/her story rather than a simple self-introduction. Team work is also a good way to go, we named ~~ours~~ ~~ourselves~~ ourselves in ~~interesting~~ interesting names and ~~associated~~ assigned with different ~~works~~ works. Every group members trying to finish the work better. And most importantly, ~~Miss Nan~~ Miss Nan's good personality is a huge motivation for me. She never get mad thought our class was ~~was~~ is a mass. A good teacher should be like this, ~~so~~ I get relaxed in Miss ~~Nan~~ Nan's class, nothing better than a relaxing atmosphere in class.

On the contrary, the textbook seems fade ~~away~~ away. The knowledge in the books seems to be little boring, ~~the writer's writing, and so on~~ But unfortunately, this is the main thing we should do.

(Participant 68, Cycle 3)

Activity 4): Breaking down your goals (for more details see A15) in Cycle 1, for a sample see Appendix P)

Activity 5): Task list (for more details see A16) in Cycle 1)

Activity 6): Learning contract (for more details see A17) in Cycle 1, for a sample see Appendix P)

Appendix R: Transcript of Focus Group Interviews with Students

Cycle 1

January 2021

1. 喜欢学英语吗？

A 我不喜欢，我基础太差，学起来太累。

B 我挺喜欢。

C 我是挺喜欢，但是我不喜欢做试卷。

D 交流还是挺喜欢的，但是不喜欢考试，我喜欢国外的 UP 主的美食节目啊，开始做卷子我就头疼。

E 其它都好，考试不喜欢。

F 通过学习可以学习单词，在社交平台可以交流，英语有意义，虽然不喜欢。

G 谈不上喜欢也谈不上不喜欢，喜欢是可以有更多可能性，不喜欢是因为太难了。

2. 学习英语的动力是什么？

ABCD。。。考试，应试，没办法，学位证。

E: 考试，出国旅游，因为我出国一次，看到同学可以流利交流，我就很想自己也能学好。

F 不考试也会学英语，目前，学好英语可以提高自己的竞争力，以后可能这个优势也不强了。

G 学术深造，论文，仪器目前很多还是英文的，我国论文的出口。

3. 学习动力有变化吗？

A 专科的时候没有英语角什么的，激励我了。

B 以前感觉自己英语不好，学一下。现在感觉自己英语特别不好，追不上。

C 以前英语课没这么有趣味，他们就是要考试嘛，对对答案，讲解一下。

D 应试英语，重视。现在需要学习别的课，分它的时间没那么多了，但是还是很重视它。

努力吗？

A 一般，跟考研的比不够努力。

B 一般。

- C 不够努力，现在隔天才上课，作业有点多，感觉不够用心。
- D 不努力，但相较于专科阶段认真。
- E 英语没有那么努力了。上课上的东西不是我想学的东西。我想学比较实用的语法句型，课文机构。
4. 宁波大环境对英语学习有什么影响？
- A 港口，外贸公司----优势。
5. 你们的学习目标是什么？
- A 通过考试，正常交流
- B 能用英语的时候可以使用，比如外国人向我们求助，我们能用英语帮忙，当时老外签证的事，我机器翻译的他们看不懂，让他们问朋友，他说没有朋友。
- C 各种考试
6. 目前目标是什么？
- A 期末。B 考研。C 口语，扩大词汇量。
- D 词汇量，看电影玩游戏少依赖一些字幕。
7. 长远目标是什么？
- A 游戏弹出的都是英语喜好都能懂。
8. 之前觉得自己的英语能力如何
- A 一般，现在觉得比较差。
- B 马马虎虎，现在对英语的了解比以前更广阔。
- C 当时觉得不好，现在有进步。
9. 设想过自己的英语 **ideal self** 吗？
- A 没想过。 B 不敢想。
10. 英语学习的困难和挑战是什么？
- A 词汇，记单词。 B 听力 C 口语，说不出。 D 很难坚持，记单词，每天记就难坚持。 E 口语中难以把自己会的语法和词汇表达出来。 F 提高的慢，不能立竿见影。
11. 对英语国家文化的态度是怎样的？居住环境对英语学习有什么影响？
- A 没什么感觉，英语使他们的母语。 B 有点羡慕，希望有他们的英语水。 C 英语是通用语，会英语就会省去很多麻烦。 D 没有英语路标，广告牌，博物馆。店名双语三语的对英语有帮助。

12.为谁而学的英语？

A B C：为自己。

13 之前学英语的动力如何？

A：专升本考试，劲头足。

14.理想自我的想象有没有改变？

A：之前没有这么高的理想，不懂 think big。 B 没有提高。

15 各种策略中，你觉得效果怎样？

A 有一点。 B 稍微有一点。以前没想过，英语可以跟自己的生活这么有关，可以说，可以学术研究。

16. 参加活动有没有什么困难，对活动的开展有没有什么建议？

A 写这个干什么？有点迷茫，理论讲的不够。

17. 促进英语学习或者阻碍英语学习的是什么？

A 英语角促进。 B 其他课太多阻碍了英语学习。 C 外界没有阻碍或促进，兴趣是我自己的，感兴趣我就学。

D 花的时间就进步。不花时间就阻碍进步。

18. 对大学英语四六级考试怎么看？有必要吗？需要取消吗？

A 正常。 B 要的。

19. 英语学习的榜样是谁？

A 清华。 B 流利说英语的人，没有明确的榜样。

20. 有英语学习计划吗？

A 每天记多少单词，但是某天会断开。

21. 学习英语的美好的回忆是什么？

A 外语角还挺有意思。 B 学的东西刚好考到。 C 钢筋结构六级刚好考到。

22. 学习英语不愉快的回忆是什么？

A 期中考试成绩出来。 B 考完六级出来好难过。 C 看文章看不懂。 D，考试的时候听不懂。

24. 对你英语学习影响大的人是谁？

A 老师。 B 同学 xx 每天背单词。

25. 私事或家事对英语学习影响比较大的是？

ABC: 没有。

26. 你的自主学习策略是什么? 为什么用这些策略?

A APP, 流利阅读。 B 扇贝记单词。 C 网课。

D 互相监督, 打卡的策略。 E 朋友。 F 看美剧。 G 打游戏结识外国朋友。

A 方便, 免费。

27. 对教学中使用 QQ、 DingTalk 平台有什么看法?

A QQ 群有帮助。 B 作业, 课件, 答案放在上面, 有帮助。

28. 喜欢网课还是线下上课?

A 肯定是线下。 B 线上放松, 没包袱。 C 回放。一起发言, 好监督。线上可以加速, 回放。 D 上线不好, 有隔离感。

29. 其它还有什么想说但没有说的吗?

A: 背单词有用吗?

老师答: 不能作为唯一提高途径, 只是短期记忆, 需要在日常接触英语的过程中一遍一遍强化, 巩固。可以记有一些意思的句子。

B: 有什么记单词的好方法?

老师答: 猜意思, 构词法, 读出来, 想象意思, 跟自己的生活联系起来。

Cycle 2

May 2021

1. 喜欢英语吗?

A 语法太难了, 词汇太难。 B 我之前没好好学, 一直不好。 C 记单词枯燥, 其它语法阅读理解还好, 有意思。

2. 学习英语的动力是什么?

A 应试, 考研。 B 技能, 技不压身。

跟学期初相比, 有什么动力方面的变化?

A 增加了口语考试, 口语学习动力。

3. 学习够努力吗?

A 一般吧, 期末考试前努力, 平时不努力。 B 看实际表现吧, 想学的时候就比较用功, 做作业的时候就比较努力一些。 C 有压力, 比如考试, 作业就会去做。平时就松散。

4. 宁波环境对英语学习有什么影响？

A 没感觉，跟英语没什么关系。B 港口、老外滩跟自己没什么联系。

5. 学习目标是什么？

A 考试，四六级，熟练使用英语，在工作场合需要英语时就可以用。

6. 目前目标是什么？

A: 四六级，别挂科。

7. 长期目标是什么？

A 工作场合用。

8. 觉得你的英语水平怎么样？

A 一般，不好不坏。B 需要时也能说几句。

9. 理想自我的设想之前有过吗？

A 小时候会想，现在现实了，怎么做也不会怎么样。

10. 之前的理想自我是怎样的？

A 可以考到好的大学。

11. 挑战、困难是什么？

A 记单词难。 B 口语说出口比较难。

为什么会有这些困难？

A 自己不想学吧，惰性。B 抗拒口语，焦虑。 C 留学生或者国际班少，毕竟有交流才有需求，有需求才有动力。

12. 觉得英语文化人怎么样？

A 挺好的。只是想了解他们的文化，对人不会。

13. 为了谁而学的英语？

A 自己。

14. 之前的动力是什么？

A 专升本。

15. 之前学习劲头怎么样？

A 学习热情很高。

16. 动机策略对自己的理想想象有什么影响？

A 没有大的改变。

17. 各种策略对学习动机有没有效果？

A 有还是有的。比如英语演讲，每个人都要准备，讲一下，有点用。压力变成了动力。

18. 对这些活动开展的有什么建议？

A 旅行计划那次任务，单词太多了，难。B 期末复习和英语活动重叠了。

对活动有什么建议？

A 提前用的学习材料给学生，给学生一些辅助。

19. 什么促进了学习，什么阻碍了学习？

A 老师的反馈不及时，不是正面的会阻碍。B 作文主题都是目标，枯燥。C 作业上交作业表及时给学生看，登记好，说请假没请假，要扣分给他们看。不然打击全勤的学生。

20. 建议取消大学英语四六级吗？

A 无所谓。B 没必要取消。

21. 你的英语学习的榜样

A 没有。

22. 你有英语学习计划吗？

A 开学有，后来就没有了。

23. 我们计划活动执行的怎么样？

A 没有执行，建议早点实行。（所以第三轮学习任务在开始就发给了学生）

24. 美好回忆是？

A 展示小组作业成果。 B 看英语电影，平时自己也喜欢电影。

25. 不愉快的回忆是？

A 成绩不理想的时候。 B 成绩不理想的时候。

26. 谁对你的英语影响最大？

A 老师。 B 同龄人里英语流利的人。

27. 私事或家事对英语有影响的有哪些？

A 没有。

28. 学英语的资源都有哪些？

A 翻译软件。B 扇贝。C 在线翻译，一个单词，读，打分。作为作业。D 课堂内容对应试有帮助比较好。但是每个人兴趣不一样。

有什么学习策略，人力资源？

A 做模拟题，听歌。B 学习累了给自己买杯奶茶。C 打游戏。D 休息。
E 给小组长背课文。

网络有帮助吗？

A 有，不懂得可以查。B 学习强国上。

29. QQ 群有帮助吗？

A 有，查看作业，联系老师。B 展示作业，看一些通知。

30. 喜欢在线课吗？

A 线下直观。线上可以回放。累。面对面上课情绪更到位。

31. 其它还有什么要表达的吗？

A 没有了。

Cycle 3

July 2021

1. 大家喜欢英语学习吗？为什么？

A 努力地让自己喜欢。

B 虽然喜欢英语，但是收益比较长期，延后，不太用的到。

C 介于喜欢和不喜欢，不确定，（有时候喜欢有时候不喜欢），忙起来有大作业就在英语上的时间比较少，对电影比较感兴趣，徘徊纠结的状态。

D 感兴趣的，作为学科去啃。

E 我跟他有相似的看法，也是当成一种语言去接触，了解英语文化，但是做题考试就不喜欢。

F 张诚，他们可以选择性地去学，但是我必须学，因为要考试，去学，去当成热爱，自愿去看文章，但是因为考试可能就不喜欢了。

2. A 因为要考研，上学期离考研还远，没怎么努力，这学期时间不多了，为了提高，动力就足了，记单词。

B 为了考研，逼迫自己背单词。

3. 努力吗？

A 努力的，但是其它课太多了，经常作为调剂，先学英语让自己进入状态，作为学其他的跳板。

B 花的时间证明了你的动力，连续几天背一本英语书，有时候忙了 to do list 做不到，跟上学期差不多，分阶段的，反复的起起落落。

C 英语和别的学科不一样，每天花的不一样，我也很想每天花 1-2 个小时。比上学期好。

4. 宁波大环境学英语如何？

A 杭州的人流量，留学生，设备，外国人问路，机会会多一些。

B 杭州下沙，出门就是留学生，路上都是，经常还有人聊天问路，对学英语是一种刺激。宁波不及杭州。黑人非洲，女生白人英国，大学城，所以很多留学生

5. 学英语的目标？

A 考研，本科学位，过级，以后的学习和生活，比如看文献，不是阻碍就行。

B 期末期中考试，各种考试，

6. 长期目标？

掌握一门外语，用于感兴趣的领域。

7. 觉得自己英语水平怎么样？

A 相比一年前退步了，之前好好学，现在好的时间少，有时候懒了，下雨啊，外语角就不去了。

B 哑巴英语，都是看的，阅读。用嘴巴讲的很少，

8. 最好水平的设想有什么变化？

A 跟电视上的外国人那样无障碍地交流。

9. 如果英语很理想，自己可以有什么可能性？

A 可以去外企。

B 教英语。

C 经典原著。

10. 没有实施活动前，做了两次理想自我的活动，想了没？

有的。而且之前也想过，外国女朋友。

11. 学英语的困难和挑战？

A 需要定时定量。

- B 枯燥。
- C 记单词，生词太多。
- D 周期太长，看不到进步。
12. 英语国家的文化如何？
- A 绅士，不粗鲁。
- B 海洋文化，个人英雄主义。我们文化注重家庭，集体。日本父权观念很重。
- C 文化有差异，没有好坏。
13. 我们的中国文化对我们学英语有没有影响？
- A 没有英语环境是逆境。性格内敛，也是逆境。
14. 为了谁学？
- A B 为了自己。
15. 日志、目标等有没有促进作用？
- A 刚写完那几天是有促进作用的。这学期跟上学期的没有太大的改变，梦想高度定了就没有太大的改变。
16. 这学期总体活动对自己的学习动力有影响吗？
- A 本来就有一个学习计划。
- B 有一定的作用，但改变不了要不要学英语的初心。外语角的话，看到别人说的流利，有一定的激励。
17. 坚持记日志困难吗？
- A 一开始会写，后来不知道计划是什么了。
- B 后面有点麻烦。
- C 我会写，关键词写上去就可以。不写会忘记。
18. 英语学习的榜样是谁？
- A 班级某某，他总是很积极，有热情。
- B 一个朋友。
- C 一个博主，荷兰留学的，她英语流利。挺激励我。如果我这么好的话，也可以有很多可能性。
19. 学英语的美好经历或不好的经历是什么？
- A 阅读理解长难句，不懂，不愉快的经历。

B 愉快的经历，学了新单词，正好阅读题目的时候正好碰到了题目做全对了就很开心。

C 写作文，写一句，查一个词。

20. 学英语有计划吗？

A 有啊。坚持一个多星期了

B 有，执行的不好。

21. 有一些私事家事对学习有影响的吗？

A 没。

22. 谁对自己影响最大

A 室友。之前他们都没过，我也学的随意。现在都过了，我感到紧迫了。

23. 什么促进了学习，什么阻碍了学习？

A 其它专业课太多太难了阻碍了，考研的目标促进了。

24. 网络对自己的帮助如何？

A 词典软件。 B 四六级备战视频。 C 哔哩哔哩的博主等。

A QQ 群可以联系老师。 B 收到作业信息。

25. 喜欢线上上课还是线下？

A 线下好，直接。 B 线上 可以录制。

26. 其它还有什么需要补充的吗？

A 有个榜样，大家英语都不好，英语高考 131 分的高中同学，英国伯明翰大学。她学单词，记下来，去图书馆学英语，不看手机。

Appendix S: Frequencies of Motivational Strategies Observed in Classrooms

S	L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6	L7	L8	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6	D7	D8	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	Lj1	Lj2	Lj3	Lj4	Lj5	Lj6	Lj7	Lj8	Mean				
S A	S1	0	4	3	3	0	3	2	4	1	2	2	0	2	0	1	2	1	7	1	5	5	8	1	7	2	3	6	0	1	1	2	2	2.84			
		1																																			
	S2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00			
	S3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.13			
	S4	0	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	3	2	1	2	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	1	2	0	2	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.81			
	S5	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	3	1	1	3	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0.59				
	S6	2	6	0	2	0	1	1	5	5	1	1	5	7	9	6	8	5	6	1	7	5	2	5	3	5	6	5	3	2	7	3	6	4.34			
		0																																			
	S7	0	1	0	3	1	0	0	2	1	6	6	2	1	0	3	2	4	6	0	4	7	4	2	2	1	2	7	6	2	2	1	4	3.38			
		8																																			
	S8	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.16			
	S9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00			
	S10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00			
	S11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.03			
	S12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.16			
	S13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	3	3	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0.91				
		3																																			
	S14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.03				
	S15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00			
	S16	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.03			
S17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00				
S18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00				
S19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00				
S20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00				

S21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
S22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
S23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
S24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
S25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
S26	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.03		
S27	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
S B	S28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
	S29	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
	S30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	1	0	0	0	0	0	0.38	
	S31	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
	S32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
	S33	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.03		
	S34	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
	S35	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
	S36	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0.34	
	S37	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	5	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.59	
	S38	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
	S39	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
	S40	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	7	0	6	2	9	0	1	3	0	0	0	1	1	0	3	0	1	0	1	0	1.22	
	S41	0	1	0	1	0	1	2	0	0	1	0	3	1	3	2	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	4	0	1	0	2	0	0.88
	S42	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0.22	
	S43	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
	S44	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	2	1	1	4	1	3	0	1	1	0	2	7	1	4	3	2	4	2	4	2	2.81
	S45	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00	

S46	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0.16			
S47	0	5	2	0	0	1	1	0	2	6	3	1	2	6	1	6	1	6	1	6	5	4	4	3	7	0	9	2	1	2	5	0	3.59	
S48	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.09		
S49	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.16		
S50	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.09		
S C	S51	1	1	0	2	0	2	2	0	0	1	2	4	2	3	3	2	0	2	0	0	3	1	2	1	1	1	3	4	5	1	1	2	1.63
	S52	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
	S53	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.03		
	S54	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.03		
	S55	0	2	0	1	0	3	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	4	0	0	1	5	9	2	2	5	2	2	1	0	0	2	0	2	2	1	1.53
	S56	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0.19	
	S57	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.13	
	S58	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.19	
	S59	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00	
	S60	0	1	1	0	0	4	0	0	3	6	2	5	5	3	3	7	0	5	5	5	1	3	4	0	1	0	3	0	0	2	1	1	2.50
	S61	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	5	0	0	2	0	5	1	2	4	0	1	1	2	1	2	1.00
	S62	1	0	2	1	1	0	1	0	1	2	4	2	5	4	1	3	8	5	5	6	3	1	8	4	5	4	5	1	4	2	8	2	3.38
	S63	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.09	
S64	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.25	
S65	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
S66	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.03		
S67	5	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	0	1	2	2	1	8	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	1	5	4	2	3	0	5.03	
S68	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00	

S69	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
S70	8	2	0	0	6	0	0	8	1	0	3	3	1	1	5	4	0	4	1	0	0	9	0	0	2	8	2	3	1	1	2	0	6.53
											1	1		1			5										0	9					
S71	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	2	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.31	
S72	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00	
S73	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.03	
S74	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.03	
S75	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.50	
	6																																
S76	1	1	7	3	1	0	0	2	0	3	4	4	2	3	9	1	1	3	1	3	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	2.06
															1																		
S77	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00	
S78	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.03
S79	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.16
S80	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0.16
S81	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.03
S82	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00
S83	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0.09
S84	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00
S85	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00
S86	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00
S87	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00
S88	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.06
S D	S89	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00
	S90	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00
	S91	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	4	1	1	1	0	9	5	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	8	1	7	2	4	0	8.22
											9	8		8	1	9		5															

S92	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	2	1	0	0	6	2	0	1	6	0	0	1	8	1	4	2	5	0	0	1.31	
S93	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
S94	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.06	
S95	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	0	1	2	1	0.78	
S96	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00		
S97	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00	
S98	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.03	
S99	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00	
S100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.03	
S101	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.03
S102	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.00

Note: SA = Section A, Phase of creating an environment that motivates; SB = Section B, Phase of fostering initial motivation; SC = Section C, Phase of supporting and safeguarding motivation; and SD = Section D, phase of strengthening positive self-reflection.

Appendix T: Frequency of the Use of the Motivational Strategies Reported by Teachers

Strategy	Participant TL	Participant TD	Participant TLJ	Participant TS	Mean	Rank
Section A						
1	1	1	1	4	1.75	97
2	1	2	2	4	2.25	74
3	2	4	4	5	3.75	2
4	3	1	3	4	2.75	35
5	3	2	2	4	2.75	35
6	2	3	4	5	3.5	5
7	3	3	5	5	4	1
8	2	2	4	5	3.25	10
9	0	0	0	2	0.5	102
10	0	0	0	3	0.75	101
11	2	0	5	5	3	21
12	2	4	3	5	3.5	5
13	1	3	2	5	2.75	35
14	2	2	2	3	2.25	74
15	3	4	2	4	3.25	10
16	2	4	3	3	3	21
17	2	5	2	2	2.75	35
18	1	0	1	4	1.5	99
19	1	2	1	4	2	85
20	2	3	2	3	2.5	52
21	1	1	2	4	2	85
22	2	3	1	4	2.5	52
23	1	3	2	3	2.25	74
24	1	3	2	5	2.75	35
25	1	2	2	5	2.5	52
26	2	3	3	4	3	21
27	2	1	3	3	2.25	74
Section B						
28	3	0	1	4	2	85
29	1	1	1	4	1.75	97
30	2	1	2	4	2.25	74
31	2	2	2	4	2.5	52
32	1	1	3	5	2.5	52
33	2	2	3	5	3	21
34	1	3	2	4	2.5	52
35	2	1	3	4	2.5	52

36	1	2	1	4	2	85
37	1	4	2	5	3	21
38	1	3	2	4	2.5	52
39	1	3	2	3	2.25	74
40	3	4	3	4	3.5	5
41	3	3	3	4	3.25	10
42	2	4	3	4	3.25	10
43	1	1	2	4	2	85
44	3	2	2	5	3	21
45	2	2	3	5	3	21
46	3	2	1	4	2.5	52
47	2	3	1	4	2.5	52
48	1	2	1	5	2.25	74
49	1	2	2	5	2.5	52
50	1	3	2	4	2.5	52
Section C						
51	1	4	3	4	3	21
52	1	1	2	4	2	85
53	1	4	1	5	2.75	35
54	1	4	1	4	2.5	52
55	2	3	2	4	2.75	35
56	1	3	1	3	2	85
57	2	3	2	3	2.5	52
58	2	4	2	3	2.75	35
59	1	4	2	3	2.5	52
60	3	4	3	5	3.75	2
61	2	4	3	4	3.25	10
62	2	4	2	4	3	21
63	2	4	2	4	3	21
64	2	3	2	5	3	21
65	0	4	2	4	2.5	52
66	0	4	3	4	2.75	35
67	2	3	1	4	2.5	52
68	2	4	1	3	2.5	52
69	1	3	1	3	2	85
70	2	3	1	5	2.75	35
71	2	4	2	5	3.25	10
72	2	1	3	4	2.5	52
73	2	2	1	4	2.25	74
74	2	4	3	5	3.5	5
75	2	3	3	5	3.25	10
76	2	3	2	4	2.75	35
77	2	3	2	4	2.75	35

78	1	3	1	3	2	85
79	3	4	3	5	3.75	2
80	2	4	2	4	3	21
81	2	4	3	4	3.25	10
82	1	4	2	3	2.5	52
83	2	3	2	4	2.75	35
84	1	3	2	4	2.5	52
85	1	3	2	4	2.5	52
86	2	3	3	5	3.25	10
87	2	4	2	5	3.25	10
88	2	3	2	4	2.75	35
Section D						
89	1	4	2	4	2.75	35
90	1	3	2	5	2.75	35
91	2	4	3	5	3.5	5
92	2	4	3	4	3.25	10
93	2	2	1	4	2.25	74
94	2	2	2	5	2.75	35
95	1	2	2	4	2.25	74
96	2	1	1	5	2.25	74
97	2	1	2	3	2	85
98	2	1	2	3	2	85
99	3	2	3	4	3	21
100	3	2	2	5	3	21
101	0	2	2	4	2	85
102	0	1	2	3	1.5	99

Appendix U: Most Effective Motivational Strategies Reported by Teachers

Phase	Strategy	P. DL	P. LH	P. S	P LJ	Mean	Rank
Section A	1	3	3	4	2	3	77
	2	3	3	5	5	4	9
	3	4	5	5	5	4.75	1
	4	3	4	4	4	3.75	19
	5	3	4	5	2	3.5	37
	6	4	4	5	5	4.5	2
	7	4	4	4	3	3.75	19
	8	3	4	4	3	3.5	37
	9	0	1	3	1	1.25	101
	10	0	1	2	1	1	102
	11	2	2	4	3	2.75	89
	12	3	4	5	5	4.25	3
	13	2	2	4	3	2.75	89
	14	2	2	4	3	2.75	89
	15	3	3	4	4	3.5	37
	16	3	4	4	4	3.75	19
	17	4	4	3	4	3.75	19
	18	1	1	3	3	2	99
	19	1	1	4	3	2.25	98
	20	3	4	4	3	3.5	37
	21	2	2	3	3	2.5	97
	22	3	2	4	5	3.5	37
	23	3	3	4	5	3.75	19
	24	2	2	5	4	3.25	58
	25	2	2	4	5	3.25	58
	26	3	2	4	5	3.5	37
	27	2	1	3	5	2.75	89
Section B	28	1	1	2	3	1.75	100
	29	3	2	4	4	3.25	58
	30	2	2	4	4	3	77
	31	3	3	4	4	3.5	37
	32	2	3	4	5	3.5	37
	33	3	2	5	4	3.5	37
	34	2	2	5	3	3	77
	35	3	4	4	5	4	9
	36	2	2	4	4	3	77
	37	4	2	4	5	3.75	19
	38	2	2	4	4	3	77
	39	3	1	3	5	3	77
	40	3	4	4	5	4	9
	41	3	4	4	4	3.75	19
	42	3	4	5	3	3.75	19

	43	1	3	5	4	3.25	58
	44	3	3	4	5	3.75	19
	45	2	3	5	3	3.25	58
	46	3	3	4	5	3.75	19
	47	4	2	4	4	3.5	37
	48	3	2	3	4	3	77
	49	3	2	4	5	3.5	37
	50	4	3	5	4	4	9
Section C	51	3	4	5	5	4.25	3
	52	2	3	4	3	3	77
	53	1	3	4	5	3.25	58
	54	3	4	4	3	3.5	37
	55	2	4	4	4	3.5	37
	56	2	3	3	3	2.75	89
	57	3	3	4	5	3.75	19
	58	2	2	4	4	3	77
	59	2	2	3	4	2.75	89
	60	3	4	5	5	4.25	3
	61	2	3	4	5	3.5	37
	62	2	3	4	5	3.5	37
	63	4	3	5	5	4.25	3
	64	3	2	5	5	3.75	19
	65	2	2	4	5	3.25	58
	66	2	1	4	5	3	77
	67	3	2	4	5	3.5	37
	68	3	3	4	5	3.75	19
	69	2	3	4	4	3.25	58
	70	3	3	5	5	4	9
	71	3	3	5	5	4	9
	72	3	3	5	4	3.75	19
	73	3	3	4	3	3.25	58
	74	3	4	4	5	4	9
	75	3	2	3	4	3	77
	76	3	3	4	5	3.75	19
	77	2	4	4	4	3.5	37
	78	3	4	4	4	3.75	19
	79	0	4	5	5	3.5	37
	80	3	5	4	5	4.25	3
	81	3	4	5	4	4	9
	82	2	3	4	4	3.25	58
	83	2	3	4	4	3.25	58
	84	2	3	4	5	3.5	37
	85	2	3	5	5	3.75	19
	86	3	3	5	5	4	9

	87	2	3	5	4	3.5	37
	88	3	3	5	4	3.75	19
Section D	89	1	3	5	3	3	77
	90	2	2	4	3	2.75	89
	91	3	4	5	5	4.25	3
	92	3	2	3	5	3.25	58
	93	3	2	4	4	3.25	58
	94	2	2	3	4	2.75	89
	95	2	2	5	4	3.25	58
	96	1	2	5	5	3.25	58
	97	2	2	4	5	3.25	58
	98	2	2	4	5	3.25	58
	99	3	3	4	4	3.5	37
	100	3	3	5	5	4	9
	101	2	2	5	4	3.25	58
	102	1	3	4	5	3.25	58

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Appendix V: Pairwise Comparisons of Effect of Top/Bottom Strategies Across Cycles

		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	<i>p</i>	95% Confidence Interval for Difference	
(I) Group (J) Group					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
S2	S3	-.01	.02	1.00	-.10	.08
	S8	.01	.03	1.00	-.09	.11
	S9	-.01	.03	1.00	-.12	.10
	S11	.00	.03	1.00	-.11	.11
	S16	.01	.04	1.00	-.12	.14
	S19	.23*	.04	.00	.09	.37
	S31	.25*	.05	.00	.08	.42
	S32	.27*	.05	.00	.10	.44
	S33	.26*	.04	.00	.11	.40
	S34	.79*	.08	.00	.50	1.07
	S35	.30*	.05	.00	.12	.48
	S42	.36*	.05	.00	.17	.56
	S43	-.01	.03	1.00	-.13	.10
S3	S2	.01	.02	1.00	-.08	.10
	S8	.02	.03	1.00	-.07	.12
	S9	.00	.03	1.00	-.10	.10
	S11	.01	.03	1.00	-.11	.13
	S16	.02	.04	1.00	-.11	.15
	S19	.24*	.04	.00	.09	.39
	S31	.26*	.05	.00	.08	.45
	S32	.29*	.05	.00	.11	.46
	S33	.27*	.05	.00	.10	.44
	S34	.80*	.08	.00	.50	1.10
	S35	.31*	.05	.00	.12	.51
	S42	.37*	.06	.00	.16	.59
	S43	.00	.03	1.00	-.12	.12
S8	S2	-.01	.03	1.00	-.11	.09
	S3	-.02	.03	1.00	-.12	.07
	S9	-.02	.02	1.00	-.11	.06
	S11	-.01	.03	1.00	-.13	.10
	S16	.00	.04	1.00	-.13	.13
	S19	.22*	.04	.00	.07	.36
	S31	.24*	.05	.00	.06	.42
	S32	.26*	.05	.00	.09	.43
	S33	.25*	.05	.00	.08	.41
	S34	.78*	.08	.00	.48	1.07
	S35	.29*	.05	.00	.10	.48
	S42	.35*	.06	.00	.13	.57
	S43	-.02	.04	1.00	-.15	.11
S9	S2	.01	.03	1.00	-.10	.12
	S3	.00	.03	1.00	-.10	.10
	S8	.02	.02	1.00	-.06	.11

	S11	.01	.03	1.00	-.09	.11
	S16	.02	.03	1.00	-.10	.15
	S19	.24*	.04	.00	.09	.40
	S31	.26*	.05	.00	.08	.44
	S32	.26*	.05	.00	.11	.46
	S33	.27*	.05	.00	.10	.44
	S34	.80*	.08	.00	.50	1.10
	S35	.31*	.05	.00	.12	.51
	S42	.37*	.06	.00	.17	.58
	S43	.00	.03	1.00	-.12	.12
S11	S2	.00	.03	1.00	-.11	.11
	S3	-.01	.03	1.00	-.13	.11
	S8	.01	.03	1.00	-.10	.13
	S9	-.01	.03	1.00	-.11	.09
	S16	.01	.03	1.00	-.09	.12
	S19	.23*	.04	.00	.07	.39
	S31	.25*	.05	.00	.08	.43
	S32	.27*	.05	.00	.08	.46
	S33	.26*	.05	.00	.09	.43
	S34	.79*	.08	.00	.49	1.09
	S35	.30*	.06	.00	.10	.50
	S42	.36*	.06	.00	.16	.57
	S43	-.01	.04	1.00	-.16	.13
S16	S2	-.01	.04	1.00	-.14	.12
	S3	-.02	.04	1.00	-.15	.11
	S8	.00	.04	1.00	-.13	.13
	S9	-.02	.03	1.00	-.15	.10
	S11	-.01	.03	1.00	-.12	.09
	S19	.22*	.04	.00	.07	.37
	S31	.24*	.05	.00	.05	.43
	S32	.26*	.05	.00	.07	.45
	S33	.25*	.05	.00	.08	.42
	S34	.78*	.08	.00	.48	1.07
	S35	.29*	.06	.00	.09	.49
	S42	.35*	.05	.00	.16	.54
	S43	-.02	.04	1.00	-.16	.11
S19	S2	-.23*	.04	.00	-.37	-.09
	S3	-.24*	.04	.00	-.39	-.09
	S8	-.22*	.04	.00	-.36	-.07
	S9	-.24*	.04	.00	-.40	-.09
	S11	-.23*	.04	.00	-.39	-.07
	S16	-.22*	.04	.00	-.37	-.07
	S31	.02	.05	1.00	-.16	.21
	S32	.04	.05	1.00	-.13	.22
	S33	.03	.04	1.00	-.11	.17
	S34	.56*	.07	.00	.31	.80
	S35	.07	.05	1.00	-.11	.25
	S42	.13	.05	1.00	-.05	.32
	S43	-.24*	.04	.00	-.38	-.10
S31	S2	-.25*	.05	.00	-.42	-.08

	S3	-.26*	.05	.00	-.45	-.08
	S8	-.24*	.05	.00	-.42	-.06
	S9	-.26*	.05	.00	-.44	-.08
	S11	-.25*	.05	.00	-.43	-.08
	S16	-.24*	.05	.00	-.43	-.05
	S19	-.02	.05	1.00	-.21	.16
	S32	.02	.05	1.00	-.16	.20
	S33	.01	.05	1.00	-.19	.20
	S34	.54*	.07	.00	.27	.80
	S35	.05	.05	1.00	-.12	.22
	S42	.11	.05	1.00	-.08	.30
	S43	-.26*	.05	.00	-.45	-.08
S32	S2	-.27*	.05	.00	-.44	-.10
	S3	-.29*	.05	.00	-.46	-.11
	S8	-.26*	.05	.00	-.43	-.09
	S9	-.29*	.05	.00	-.46	-.11
	S11	-.27*	.05	.00	-.46	-.08
	S16	-.26*	.05	.00	-.45	-.07
	S19	-.04	.05	1.00	-.22	.13
	S31	-.02	.05	1.00	-.20	.16
	S33	-.01	.05	1.00	-.19	.16
	S34	.52*	.07	.00	.28	.75
	S35	.03	.05	1.00	-.17	.22
	S42	.09	.06	1.00	-.13	.31
	S43	-.29*	.04	.00	-.44	-.13
S33	S2	-.26*	.04	.00	-.40	-.11
	S3	-.27*	.05	.00	-.44	-.10
	S8	-.25*	.05	.00	-.41	-.08
	S9	-.27*	.05	.00	-.44	-.10
	S11	-.26*	.05	.00	-.43	-.09
	S16	-.25*	.05	.00	-.42	-.08
	S19	-.03	.04	1.00	-.17	.11
	S31	-.01	.05	1.00	-.20	.19
	S32	.01	.05	1.00	-.16	.19
	S34	.53*	.07	.00	.29	.77
	S35	.04	.05	1.00	-.13	.21
	S42	.10	.05	1.00	-.08	.29
	S43	-.27*	.04	.00	-.43	-.11
S34	S2	-.79*	.08	.00	-1.07	-.50
	S3	-.80*	.08	.00	-1.10	-.50
	S8	-.78*	.08	.00	-1.07	-.48
	S9	-.80*	.08	.00	-1.10	-.50
	S11	-.79*	.08	.00	-1.09	-.49
	S16	-.78*	.08	.00	-1.07	-.48
	S19	-.56*	.07	.00	-.80	-.31
	S31	-.54*	.07	.00	-.80	-.27
	S32	-.52*	.07	.00	-.75	-.28
	S33	-.53*	.07	.00	-.77	-.29
	S35	-.49*	.07	.00	-.74	-.24
	S42	-.43*	.08	.00	-.70	-.15

	S43	-.80*	.08	.00	-1.08	-.52
S35	S2	-.30*	.05	.00	-.48	-.12
	S3	-.31*	.05	.00	-.51	-.12
	S8	-.29*	.05	.00	-.48	-.10
	S9	-.31*	.05	.00	-.51	-.12
	S11	-.30*	.06	.00	-.50	-.10
	S16	-.29*	.06	.00	-.49	-.09
	S19	-.07	.05	1.00	-.25	.11
	S31	-.05	.05	1.00	-.22	.12
	S32	-.03	.05	1.00	-.22	.17
	S33	-.04	.05	1.00	-.21	.13
	S34	.49*	.07	.00	.24	.74
	S42	.06	.05	1.00	-.13	.26
	S43	-.31*	.05	.00	-.49	-.13
S42	S2	-.36*	.05	.00	-.56	-.17
	S3	-.37*	.06	.00	-.59	-.16
	S8	-.35*	.06	.00	-.57	-.13
	S9	-.37*	.06	.00	-.58	-.17
	S11	-.36*	.06	.00	-.57	-.16
	S16	-.35*	.05	.00	-.54	-.16
	S19	-.13	.05	1.00	-.32	.05
	S31	-.11	.05	1.00	-.30	.08
	S32	-.09	.06	1.00	-.31	.13
	S33	-.10	.05	1.00	-.29	.08
	S34	.43*	.08	.00	.15	.70
	S35	-.06	.05	1.00	-.26	.13
	S43	-.37*	.05	.00	-.57	-.18
S43	S2	.01	.03	1.00	-.10	.13
	S8	.00	.03	1.00	-.12	.12
	S8	.02	.04	1.00	-.11	.15
	S9	.00	.03	1.00	-.12	.12
	S11	.01	.04	1.00	-.13	.16
	S16	.02	.04	1.00	-.11	.16
	S19	.24*	.04	.00	.10	.38
	S31	.26*	.05	.00	.08	.45
	S32	.29*	.04	.00	.13	.44
	S33	.27*	.04	.00	.11	.43
	S34	.80*	.08	.00	.52	1.08
	S35	.31*	.05	.00	.13	.49
	S42	.37*	.05	.00	.18	.57

Appendix W: Comparing Strategies' Effectiveness: Post Hoc Test Results

(Cycle1) Comparison of Top-Rated Activities

Comparison of top-rated activities			F = 1.101	p = 0.356
(I) A	(J) A	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	p
8	9	-0.04	0.13	1.00
	10	-0.14	0.13	1.00
	12	0.08	0.13	1.00
	14	0.08	0.13	1.00
9	8	0.04	0.13	1.00
	10	-0.10	0.13	1.00
	12	0.12	0.13	1.00
	14	0.12	0.13	1.00
10	8	0.14	0.13	1.00
	9	0.10	0.13	1.00
	12	0.22	0.13	0.78
	14	0.22	0.13	0.78
12	8	-0.08	0.13	1.00
	9	-0.12	0.13	1.00
	10	-0.22	0.13	0.78
	14	0.00	0.13	1.00
14	8	-0.08	0.13	1.00
	9	-0.12	0.13	1.00
	10	-0.22	0.13	0.78
	12	0.00	0.13	1.00

Comparison of bottom-rated activities			F = 0.697	p = 0.594
(I) A	(J) A	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	p
3	7.00	-0.21	0.15	1.00
	1	-0.13	0.15	1.00
	13	-0.19	0.15	1.00
	17	-0.19	0.15	1.00
7	3	0.21	0.15	1.00
	11	0.08	0.15	1.00
	13	0.02	0.15	1.00
	17	0.02	0.15	1.00
11	3	0.13	0.15	1.00
	7	-0.08	0.15	1.00
	13	-0.06	0.15	1.00
	17	-0.06	0.15	1.00
13	3	0.19	0.15	1.00
	7	-0.02	0.15	1.00
	11	0.06	0.15	1.00
	17	0.00	0.15	1.00
17	3	0.19	0.15	1.00
	7	-0.02	0.15	1.00

	11	0.06	0.15	1.00
	13	0.00	0.15	1.00
Comparison of top-rated and bottom-rated activities				
			F = 3.027	p = 0.001
(I) A	(J) A	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	p
3	7	-0.21	0.14	1.00
	8	-0.41	0.14	0.11
	9	-.45556*	0.14	0.04
	10	-.55556*	0.14	0.00
	11	-0.13	0.14	1.00
	12	-0.33	0.14	0.64
	13	-0.19	0.14	1.00
	14	-0.33	0.14	0.64
	17	-0.19	0.14	1.00
7	3	0.21	0.14	1.00
	8	-0.20	0.14	1.00
	9	-0.24	0.14	1.00
	10	-0.34	0.14	0.51
	11	0.08	0.14	1.00
	12	-0.12	0.14	1.00
	13	0.02	0.14	1.00
	14	-0.12	0.14	1.00
	17	0.02	0.14	1.00
8	3	0.41	0.14	0.11
	7	0.20	0.14	1.00
	9	-0.04	0.14	1.00
	10	-0.14	0.14	1.00
	11	0.28	0.14	1.00
	12	0.08	0.14	1.00
	13	0.22	0.14	1.00
	14	0.08	0.14	1.00
	17	0.22	0.14	1.00
9	3	.45556*	0.14	0.04
	7	0.24	0.14	1.00
	8	0.04	0.14	1.00
	10	-0.10	0.14	1.00
	11	0.32	0.14	0.80
	12	0.12	0.14	1.00
	13	0.27	0.14	1.00
	14	0.12	0.14	1.00
	17	0.27	0.14	1.00
10	3	.55556*	0.14	0.00
	7	0.34	0.14	0.51
	8	0.14	0.14	1.00
	9	0.10	0.14	1.00
	11	0.42	0.14	0.09
	12	0.22	0.14	1.00
	13	0.37	0.14	0.32

11	14	0.22	0.14	1.00
	17	0.37	0.14	0.32
	3	0.13	0.14	1.00
	7	-0.08	0.14	1.00
	8	-0.28	0.14	1.00
	9	-0.32	0.14	0.80
	10	-0.42	0.14	0.09
	12	-0.20	0.14	1.00
	13	-0.06	0.14	1.00
12	14	-0.20	0.14	1.00
	17	-0.06	0.14	1.00
	3	0.33	0.14	0.64
	7	0.12	0.14	1.00
	8	-0.08	0.14	1.00
	9	-0.12	0.14	1.00
	10	-0.22	0.14	1.00
	11	0.20	0.14	1.00
	13	0.14	0.14	1.00
13	14	0.00	0.14	1.00
	17	0.14	0.14	1.00
	3	0.19	0.14	1.00
	7	-0.02	0.14	1.00
	8	-0.22	0.14	1.00
	9	-0.27	0.14	1.00
	10	-0.37	0.14	0.32
	11	0.06	0.14	1.00
	12	-0.14	0.14	1.00
14	14	-0.14	0.14	1.00
	17	0.00	0.14	1.00
	3	0.33	0.14	0.64
	7	0.12	0.14	1.00
	8	-0.08	0.14	1.00
	9	-0.12	0.14	1.00
	10	-0.22	0.14	1.00
	11	0.20	0.14	1.00
	12	0.00	0.14	1.00
17	13	0.14	0.14	1.00
	17	0.14	0.14	1.00
	3	0.19	0.14	1.00
	7	-0.02	0.14	1.00
	8	-0.22	0.14	1.00
	9	-0.27	0.14	1.00
	10	-0.37	0.14	0.32
	11	0.06	0.14	1.00
	12	-0.14	0.14	1.00
	13	0.00	0.14	1.00
	14	-0.14	0.14	1.00

Appendix X: Multiple Comparison Results: Top vs. Bottom-rated Activities
(Cycle 2)

Activity		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	<i>p</i>	95% Confidence Interval	
Activity (I)	Activity (J)				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	3	0.12	0.14	1.00	-0.34	0.59
	7	0.02	0.15	1.00	-0.46	0.51
	8	-0.31	0.13	0.56	-0.74	0.12
	9	-0.32	0.13	0.52	-0.76	0.12
	10	-0.39	0.13	0.16	-0.83	0.05
	11	0.12	0.15	1.00	-0.38	0.62
	12	-0.23	0.14	0.99	-0.70	0.24
	13	0.09	0.17	1.00	-0.49	0.66
3	14	-0.29	0.14	0.82	-0.74	0.17
	1	-0.12	0.14	1.00	-0.59	0.34
	7	-0.10	0.14	1.00	-0.56	0.36
	8	-.433*	0.12	0.02	-0.84	-0.03
	9	-.44*	0.12	0.02	-0.86	-0.03
	10	-.51*	0.12	0.00	-0.92	-0.10
	11	0.00	0.14	1.00	-0.48	0.48
	12	-0.36	0.14	0.34	-0.80	0.09
7	13	-0.03	0.17	1.00	-0.59	0.52
	14	-0.41	0.13	0.08	-0.84	0.02
	1	-0.02	0.15	1.00	-0.51	0.46
	3	0.10	0.14	1.00	-0.36	0.56
	8	-0.33	0.13	0.37	-0.76	0.09
	9	-0.34	0.13	0.34	-0.78	0.09
	10	-0.41	0.13	0.09	-0.85	0.02
	11	0.10	0.15	1.00	-0.40	0.60
8	12	-0.26	0.14	0.97	-0.72	0.21
	13	0.07	0.17	1.00	-0.51	0.64
	14	-0.31	0.14	0.66	-0.76	0.14
	1	0.31	0.13	0.56	-0.12	0.74
	3	.433*	0.12	0.02	0.03	0.84
	7	0.33	0.13	0.37	-0.09	0.76
	9	-0.01	0.11	1.00	-0.38	0.36
	10	-0.08	0.11	1.00	-0.45	0.29
9	11	0.43	0.13	0.06	-0.01	0.88
	12	0.08	0.12	1.00	-0.33	0.49
	13	0.40	0.16	0.45	-0.13	0.93
	14	0.02	0.12	1.00	-0.37	0.41
	1	0.32	0.13	0.52	-0.12	0.76
	3	.44*	0.12	0.02	0.03	0.86
	7	0.34	0.13	0.34	-0.09	0.78
	8	0.01	0.11	1.00	-0.36	0.38
	10	-0.07	0.12	1.00	-0.45	0.31
	11	0.44	0.14	0.06	-0.01	0.89
	12	0.09	0.13	1.00	-0.33	0.51

10	13	0.41	0.16	0.41	-0.12	0.95
	14	0.03	0.12	1.00	-0.37	0.43
	1	0.39	0.13	0.16	-0.05	0.83
	3	.51*	0.12	0.00	0.10	0.92
	7	0.41	0.13	0.09	-0.02	0.85
	8	0.08	0.11	1.00	-0.29	0.45
	9	0.07	0.12	1.00	-0.31	0.45
	11	.51*	0.14	0.01	0.06	0.96
11	12	0.16	0.13	1.00	-0.26	0.57
	13	0.48	0.16	0.15	-0.06	1.01
	14	0.10	0.12	1.00	-0.30	0.50
	1	-0.12	0.15	1.00	-0.62	0.38
	3	0.00	0.14	1.00	-0.48	0.48
	7	-0.10	0.15	1.00	-0.60	0.40
	8	-0.43	0.13	0.06	-0.88	0.01
	9	-0.44	0.14	0.06	-0.89	0.01
12	10	-.51*	0.14	0.01	-0.96	-0.06
	12	-0.36	0.15	0.51	-0.84	0.13
	13	-0.03	0.18	1.00	-0.62	0.55
	14	-0.41	0.14	0.17	-0.88	0.06
	1	0.23	0.14	0.99	-0.24	0.70
	3	0.36	0.14	0.34	-0.09	0.80
	7	0.26	0.14	0.97	-0.21	0.72
	8	-0.08	0.12	1.00	-0.49	0.33
13	9	-0.09	0.13	1.00	-0.51	0.33
	10	-0.16	0.13	1.00	-0.57	0.26
	11	0.36	0.15	0.51	-0.13	0.84
	13	0.32	0.17	0.94	-0.24	0.88
	14	-0.06	0.13	1.00	-0.49	0.38
	1	-0.09	0.17	1.00	-0.66	0.49
	3	0.03	0.17	1.00	-0.52	0.59
	7	-0.07	0.17	1.00	-0.64	0.51
14	8	-0.40	0.16	0.45	-0.93	0.13
	9	-0.41	0.16	0.41	-0.95	0.12
	10	-0.48	0.16	0.15	-1.01	0.06
	11	0.03	0.18	1.00	-0.55	0.62
	12	-0.32	0.17	0.94	-0.88	0.24
	14	-0.38	0.17	0.66	-0.93	0.17
	1	0.29	0.14	0.82	-0.17	0.74
	3	0.41	0.13	0.08	-0.02	0.84
	7	0.31	0.14	0.66	-0.14	0.76
	8	-0.02	0.12	1.00	-0.41	0.37
	9	-0.03	0.12	1.00	-0.43	0.37
	10	-0.10	0.12	1.00	-0.50	0.30
	11	0.41	0.14	0.17	-0.06	0.88
	12	0.06	0.13	1.00	-0.38	0.49
	13	0.38	0.17	0.66	-0.17	0.93

Note: * $p < .05$

Appendix Y: Detailed Interview Responses by Question (Cycles 1, 2, and 3)

Q	Answers C1	Answers C2	Answers C3
1	11% like, 11% dislike, 56% natural. like: food program, vocabulary accumulation, promoting communication; more future possibilities; dislike: poor basis, examination, difficulty	11% like, interesting, 33% dislike, difficulty in memorizing new words, grammar and poor basis	33% like, culture, knowledge; taking it as one of the courses, movies; 22% trying to like, exams, entrance exams; 11% not sure, interest in movies; too busy
2	78% graduation requisites, further study requisites; 11% travel; 11% competitive edge; 11% academic progress; 11% China's cultural communication	11% graduation requisites, further study requisites; 11% a good skill. 11% stressed for spoken English because of spoken English exam	22% graduation requisites, further study requisites
3	33% more motivated because of the chat corner, postgraduate entrance exam, variation of tasks; 11% demotivated, pressure peer, low self-confidence; 22% just so-so. 33% not hard: inadequate attention to homework, more motivated but not enough, content not relevant, wanting grammar teaching	33% just so-so. It depends on time and mood Hard-working before exams and deadline of homework, or when in mood.	22% Yes. English first, better; 11% Not steady depending on specific school burden
4	11% port city advantage; 11% helpless	22% irrelevant to me	22% not as good as Hangzhou where with overseas students, foreigners, better devices,
5	22% passing various English exams; 11% communicate in English; 11% the ability to use in real life situations.	22% passing various English exams; 11% communicate in English; 11% the ability to use in workplaces	22% passing various English exams; 11% future study and life
6	11% final exam; 11% postgraduate entrance exam; 11% spoken English; vocabulary accumulation 22%; 11% less dependent on subtitles in movies and games	11% National College English Tests, and final exam	11% National College English Tests, and final exam
7	11% no barriers in using English	11% using English in workplaces	11% mastering a foreign language and using it

8	11% poor, just so-so in the past; 22% just so-so, better knowledge about English than at the beginning, progress made	22% just so-so, able to speak a bit when necessary	22% poorer, laziness, unable to speak in English
9	22% no. dare not.	11% yes when very little. Now more realistic; 11% Work hard to enter a good university	11% As fluent as native speakers in movies, 11% teaching English; 11% working in foreign companies; original English literature; 11% a foreign girlfriend
10	22% vocabulary; 22% spoken English; 11% listening; 22% hard to persist; 11% taking long-time to see progress	11% memorizing new words; 11% spoken English;	22% boring, memorizing too many new words; 11% hard to have apparent achievements;
11	11% no special favor; 22% envy; 11% Lack English environment; 11% bilingual or trilingual board, road signs, museum texts are helpful	11% no special favor	11% gentlemanlike; 22% cultural differences; 11% lack of English environment
12	33% for myself	11% for myself	22% for myself
13	11% quite motivated for the Upgrading Test for Three-Year College Students	11% quite motivated for the university entrance exam	11% quite motivated right after the activities, now the influence fading
14	11% yes, dare to think so big now; 11% not much	11% not much	11% not much motivated as usual in myself; 11% chat corner stimulating
15	22% a little bit yes, better knowledge about English and English course, so relevant to real life, promoting communication, assisting academic research	11% a lit bit yes, the public speech everyone has to do in turns gave me pressure and motivation	11% yes. I kept the journal well; 22% some stimulation right after the activities;
16	11% insufficient knowledge about what the task is for	22% difficult, task is with too many new words, too busy for exams of other courses; 11% more instruction and explanations of new words involved	11% no difficulties; 22% the journal easy at the beginning, then troublesome and confusing gradually

17	22% promoting progress: chat corner and my time spent; 22% setback, other courses, lack time; 11% nothing can influence, decided totally on my instinct interest	22% setback delayed feedback from teachers, negative feedback from teachers, lack of punishment for violation of class rules	11% hindering, other obligations: other courses, NPEE
18	22% reasonable	11% indifferent; 11% reasonable	11% reasonable
19	11% Being students of Qinghua University; 11% being anyone speaking fluent English	11% no	33% yes, a classmate, a friend and a blogger
20	11% yes, memorizing a certain number of new words	11% yes but later it was neglected	22% yes: 11% kept well; 11% not so well
21	11% chat corner; 22% what acquainted appearing in an exam	11% group presentation; 11% film screening	11% a new word learnt appear in a reading exercise leading to the success answering reading questions
22	22% dissatisfied exam results; 11% difficulties in reading comprehension; 11% difficulties in listening exams	22% dissatisfied exam results	22% long and difficult sentences; writing difficulty, depending on dictionary
23	11% teacher; 11% classmate Jiang Chao	11% teacher; 11% classmates speaking fluent English	11% roommates who now have passed the National College English Exam giving me pressure to catch upon
24	33% No	11% No	11% No
25	33% apps; 11% lectures online; 22% study buddy; 11% American movies online; 11% English games with foreigners; 11% easy and free	33% apps, translation, new words memorizing, spoken English and Xuexiqiangguo (a Chinese official app with news section in English); 11% doing model tests; 11% listening to songs; 11% dissert award; 11% electronic games; 11% rest;	11% apps of dictionaries; 11% videos instructions on exam preparation; 11% experiences sharing on Bilibili by some bloggers

		11% report to team leader; 11% electronic dictionary;	
26	22% yes, assignments, learning materials, lectures and references	22% yes, accessibility to teachers, work presentation, notices	22% yes, materials sharing and notices, contacting teachers
27	22% face-to-face, physically close, easy supervision, sense of isolation; 22% online, relaxing, recordable, realization of all posing answers at a time; function of speeding up the lecture	11% face-to-face, direct and vivid, facial expressions, online is tiring; 11% online, recordable	11% face-to-face, warmth and direct; 11% online, recordable
28	11% about how to memorize words	No	11% yes. A role model, my high school schoolmate

Note: Q = Question; C1 = Cycle 1; C2 = Cycle 2; C3 = Cycle 3